

# **TEACHERS' INFLUENCE ON THE VALUE-ORIENTATION OF LEARNERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

**Augusta Maria Maphuti Lephalletse**

**P.T.C., B.A., B.Ed., M.Ed.**

**Thesis submitted for the degree Philosophiae Doctor in Teaching and Learning in the Faculty of Educational Sciences of the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus).**

**Promoter: Prof N.J. Vreken**

**2008**

**North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus)**

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

---

This research is the effort of an individual, but its success amongst other things relies on **Almighty God, for His grace and unending love towards me.**

My promoter, Prof. Vreken who showed visionary leadership, guidance, patience, assistance, persistent encouragement, motivation and unwavering support. Prof. Vreken is one of those people who come into your life in order to make you a better person. May the **ALMIGHTY GOD** bless him. In addition to that, the people whose names appear below also assisted me with this project.

I wish to sincerely thank:

Prof H.S. Steyn of the Department of Statistical Consultation Services at the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus), for his assistance with the analysis of the data of this research.

Dr. N.J. Bangeni for her generous encouragement, valuable input in this study and unfailing support. I will always cherish it.

Mrs R Vreken, for technical editing

Mrs Christien Terblanche, for language editing

Malineo Matsela, Junior Sekoele and Malebo Matlala for their emotional support

The entire staff of Ferdinand Postma Library for making it easy for me to access the information that was relevant to this project.

North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) for financial assistance.

The Department of Education in the Northwest Province, for granting me permission to conduct this project in schools

The school principals, teachers and learners, for their support and co-operation during the circulation of questionnaires

My sister, Minah and her family, who took care of my father John Ranoto while I was busy with my studies

My beloved and adorable son Tseko and his father Thomas, for their all-round support during the difficult times of hard work towards the completion of this thesis

## SUMMARY

---

This research discusses key concepts like values, education, character, character education, teachers and learners, behaviour, and secondary schools.

The effective and meaningful teaching of values and character education is central when one attempts to equip adolescent learners with sufficient knowledge, appropriate skills and positive values for them to achieve good involvement in their different societies globally. According to Mwamwenda (1995) effective teachers are those who engage in designing lessons, utilising appropriate teaching strategies and implementing techniques to optimise learning for learners. Teaching is a dynamic process that involves teachers and learners in meaningful and collaborative efforts. The interaction that occurs in the classroom is of vital importance for the enhancement of the teaching and learning process. Therefore, it is generally accepted that the effectiveness of teaching depends to a large extent on the motivation of both the teacher and the learners (Bangen, 2000:24).

The main purpose of this study is to determine the teacher's influence on the value orientation of learners in secondary schools. The study was conducted in secondary schools in the Potchefstroom area. Questionnaires were compiled to investigate teachers' influence on the value orientation of learners in secondary schools. A total of 740 grades 8 and 11 learners were randomly selected from 13 schools. All the teachers in the participating schools were involved in this study.

The analysis of the data shows that teachers, although generally warm and accepting, seem to be inflexible and lack dynamism when presenting their lessons. This results in disciplinary problems in the classroom. Making lessons interesting, calls for creativity and flexibility on the teacher's part. It also calls for teachers to be informed about the experiences, knowledge, developmental levels, needs and preferences of learners. According to Lindique (1996:154) the affective and emotional development goes hand in hand with cognitive development. Therefore, catering for the interests of learners could contribute to this development (Bangen, 2000:58). The empirical research reveals that teachers do not apply the principles of trustworthiness and fairness towards learners, and as such trust is not developed. It is therefore crucial for teachers to make an effort

to create trust and fairness towards learners. In addition to this, teachers are not role models with regards to industriousness and in displaying correct behaviour towards learners. The result is that the main aim of disciplining learners in classroom fails.

According to Bestes (1987:162) the teacher is entrusted with various duties in the classroom. As the supportive and motivating adult, the teacher is the main figure. Everything that is done and said in the classroom is an instrument or tool of encouragement or defeat. Downey and Kelly (1978:137) supports the above statement that both the matter and the manner of every teacher's moral code, in other words its content and its form, will be communicated to his or her learners through all the contact with them, and will contribute to their moral development for better or worse. Therefore, moral commitment is a distinct attitudinal component that plays a role in the individual's internalisation of organisational values (Moloi, 2002:80).

Insufficient implementation of promising practices for character education in classrooms can also lead to indiscipline in schools. When the promising practices for character education are effectively implemented, they will contribute towards managing learners' behaviour in the classrooms and schools. Learners will in turn tend to possess a strong sense of personal efficacy and responsibility to do what is expected from them. They also help learners to develop positive interpersonal relationships and a strong character.

This study also focuses on theories of the moral development of learners. According to the findings, teachers do not have knowledge of these theories. Knowledge of these theories will enable teachers to be conversant with factors that influence the effectiveness of individual learners' character and to understand the dynamics they have to contend with, in order to encourage their learners towards efficient and effective behaviour and good character. There is a general lack of co-operation between teachers and learners as well as a lack of respect and discipline that prevails in the classrooms. This study shows that teachers are presently not doing enough to influence the values and character of learners.

## OPSOMMING

---

Hierdie studie bespreek kernkonsepte soos waardes, opvoeding, karakter, karakteropvoeding, onderwysers en leerders, gedrag en sekondêre skole.

Die effektiewe en betekenisvolle onderrig van waardes en karakteropvoeding staan sentraal wanneer gepoog word om adolessent leerders toe te rus met genoeg kennis, gepaste vaardighede en positiewe waardes om hulle in staat te stel om wêreldwyd betrokke te wees in hulle verskillende samelewings. Volgens Mwamwenda (1995) is effektiewe onderwysers diegene wat betrokke is in die ontwerp van lesse, wat gepaste onderwysstrategieë gebruik en wat tegnieke implementeer wat leer leerders optimaliseer. Onderwys is 'n dinamiese proses wat onderwysers en leerders betrek in betekenisvolle en samewerkende prosesse. Die interaksie wat plaasvind in die klaskamer is van kardinale belang vir die optimalisering van die onderrig- en leerproses. Daarom word dit algemeen aanvaar dat die effektiwiteit van onderrig tot 'n groot mate steun op die motivering van beide die onderwyser en die leerders (Bangeni, 2000:24).

Die hoofdoel van die studie is om vas te stel wat die onderwyser se invloed op die waarde-oriëntasie van leerders in sekondêre skole is. Die studie is gedoen in al die sekondêre skole in die Potchefstroom- area. Vraelyste is saamgestel om onderwysers se invloed op die waarde-oriëntasie van leerders in sekondêre skole te ondersoek. 'n Totaal van 740 graad 8 en 11 leerders is willekeurig uit 13 skole geselekteer. Al die onderwysers by die deelnemende skole was by die studie betrokke.

Die analise van die data wys dat onderwysers, alhoewel hulle oor die algemeen warm en aanvaardend is, blyk onbuigbaar te wees en dinamiek kort wanneer hulle klasse aanbied. Die gevolg is dissiplinêre probleme in die klaskamer. Kreatiwiteit en buigbaarheid is nodig om lesse interessanter te maak. Onderwysers moet ook ingelig wees oor die ervaringe, kennis, ontwikkelingsvlakke, behoeftes en emosionele ontwikkeling van die leerders. Volgens Lindeque (1996:154) gaan die affektiewe en emosionele ontwikkeling hand aan hand met kognitiewe ontwikkeling. Daarom kan dit tot ontwikkeling bydra as daar voorsiening gemaak word vir die belangstellings van leerders (Bangeni, 2000:58). Die empiriese navorsing toon dat onderwysers nie die beginsels van betroubaarheid en regverdigheid teenoor leerders toepas nie. Vertroue tussen die onderwyser en leerder ontwikkel nie. Dit is uiters belangrik dat onderwysers

moeite moet doen om vertrou te skep en regverdig te wees. Onderwysers is ook nie rolmodelle met betrekking tot hardwerkendheid en die regte optrede teenoor leerders nie. Dit lei daartoe dat die hoofdoel van dissipline in die klaskamer misluk.

Volgens Bestes (1987:167) word verskeie pligte aan die onderwyser in die klaskamer toevertrou. As die ondersteunende en motiverende volwassene is die onderwyser die hooffiguur. Alles wat gedoen en in die klaskamer gesê word is 'n instrument tot motivering of mislukking. Downey en Kelly (1978:137) ondersteun die bostaande stelling dat beide die inhoud en die wyse van elke onderwyser se morele kode oorgedra word aan die leerders deur die kontak en dat dit tot hulle morele ontwikkeling, positief of negatief, sal bydra. Daarom is morele verbintenis 'n houdingskomponent wat 'n rol speel in die individu se internalisering van organisatoriese waardes (Moloi, 2002:82).

Onvoldoende implementering van belowende praktyke vir karakteropvoeding in klaskamers kan ook tot probleme in skole lei. Wanneer hierdie belowende praktyke effektief geïmplementeer word, sal dit bydra tot die bestuur van leerders se gedrag in klaskamers en skole. Leerders sal neig om 'n sterker sin vir verantwoordelikheid te ontwikkel in terme van wat van hulle verwag word. Dit help leerders om positiewe interpersoonlike verhoudinge en 'n sterk karakter te ontwikkel.

Die studie fokus verder op teorieë van die morele ontwikkeling van leerders. Volgens die navorsingsbevindings het onderwysers nie kennis van hierdie teorieë nie. Kennis van hierdie teorieë kan onderwysers help om beter om te gaan met faktore wat die effektiwiteit van individuele leerders se karakters beïnvloed en dit kan hulle help om die dinamiek wat hulle moet bestuur om leerders te lei na effektiewe optrede en goeie karakter, beter te verstaan. In die klaskamer is daar 'n gebrek aan samewerking tussen onderwysers asook leerders en 'n gebrek aan respek en dissipline. Die studie wys dat onderwysers tans nie genoeg doen om die waardes en karakters van kinders positief te beïnvloed nie.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

---

<b>Acknowledgements</b> .....	<b>ii</b>	
<b>Summary</b> .....	<b>iii</b>	
<b>Opsomming</b> .....	<b>v</b>	
<b>CHAPTER 1</b>	<b>STUDY ORIENTATION</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1	Introduction .....	1
1.2	Problem statement .....	4
1.3	Research question .....	4
1.4	Research aim .....	5
1.5	Contribution of the study .....	5
1.6	Research methodology/design .....	5
1.6.1	Literature study .....	5
1.6.2	Empirical research .....	6
1.6.2.1	Questionnaires .....	6
1.6.2.2	Research Population .....	6
1.6.2.3	Statistical Techniques .....	6
1.6.3	Interviews .....	6
1.6.3.1	Study population (Interviews) .....	7
1.6.3.2	Decoding of data (Interviews) .....	7
1.7	Ethical considerations .....	7
1.8	Programme of research .....	7
1.9	Preliminary chapters .....	8
1.10	Conclusion .....	8
<b>CHAPTER 2</b>	<b>VALUES AND CHARACTER EDUCATION</b> .....	<b>9</b>
2.1	Introduction .....	9
2.2	Definition of concepts .....	9
2.2.1	General orientation .....	9
2.2.2	Definition of values .....	10
2.2.3	Functions of values and value-systems .....	16
2.2.4	Different classifications of values .....	18
2.2.4.1	Moral values .....	18
2.2.4.2	Aesthetic values .....	19

2.2.4.3	Authority values.....	19
2.2.4.4	Intellectual values.....	20
2.2.4.5	Self-values .....	20
2.2.4.6	Legal values.....	20
2.2.4.7	National values.....	21
2.2.4.8	Life values.....	21
2.2.4.9	Safety values.....	21
2.2.4.10	Time and space values .....	22
2.2.4.11	Environmental values.....	22
2.2.4.12	Social values.....	23
2.2.4.13	Cultural values .....	23
2.2.4.14	Physical values .....	25
2.2.4.15	Recreational values.....	25
2.2.4.16	Political values .....	25
2.2.4.17	Occupational values.....	26
2.2.4.18	Economic values .....	26
2.2.4.19	Emotional values.....	26
2.2.4.20	Religious values .....	27
2.2.5	Value formation.....	28
2.2.5.1	The process of value formation.....	28
2.2.6	Moral development.....	31
2.2.6.1	Kohlberg's theory .....	31
2.2.6.2	The implications of Kohlberg's theory for the classroom situation....	35
2.2.6.3	Other theories of moral development.....	36
2.2.6.4	Summary.....	38
2.2.7	Definition of education.....	40
2.2.8	Values and the educational process .....	42
2.2.9	Types of relationships between education and values.....	47
2.2.10	Approaches to values education .....	48
2.2.10.1	The prescriptive approach to the education of values.....	48
2.2.10.2	The descriptive approach to the education of values .....	48
2.2.11	The characteristics related to home and school in values education .....	49
2.2.12	Definition of character .....	50

2.2.12.1	General definitions .....	50
2.2.12.2	Good character attributes.....	51
2.2.12.3	Virtues as good character traits.....	52
2.2.12.4	Character education.....	53
2.3	Models for character/moral education .....	56
2.3.1	Models .....	56
2.3.2	Explicit models .....	57
2.3.2.1	The consideration model.....	57
2.3.2.2	The social-action model .....	58
2.3.2.3	The rational building model .....	59
2.3.2.4	Value analysis model .....	59
2.3.3	Implicit models .....	60
2.3.3.1	The cognitive-developmental model.....	60
2.3.3.2	The value clarification model.....	62
2.3.4	Different approaches to character education .....	65
2.3.4.1	Direct instruction and special study programmes.....	65
2.3.4.2	Discussion.....	66
2.3.4.3	Just communities .....	66
2.3.4.4	Collective worship .....	66
2.3.4.5	Extra-curricular activities .....	67
2.3.4.6	The formation and discussion of classroom and/or school rules.....	68
2.3.4.7	Circle time .....	68
2.3.4.8	Use of stories .....	69
2.3.4.9	Personal narratives .....	70
2.3.4.10	Peer mediation .....	70
2.3.4.11	Philosophy for children.....	70
2.4	The department of education's initiative in character education.....	71
2.4.1	Fundamental constitutional values .....	71
2.4.2	The results of the Tirisano program .....	75
2.4.3	Life values and the curriculum.....	76
2.4.4	The integration of values in the curriculum.....	77
2.4.5	Identification of values across the curriculum.....	80
2.4.5.1	Values identified in the learning area of Language and Literacy (LLC).....	80

2.4.5.2	Values identified in the learning area of Human and Social Sciences (HSS).....	81
2.4.5.3	Values identified in the learning area of Technology (TECH).....	81
2.4.5.4	Values identified in the learning area of Arts and Culture (A+C).....	81
2.4.5.5	Values identified in the learning area of Natural Sciences (NS).....	82
2.4.5.6	Values identified in the learning area of Life Orientation (LO).....	82
2.4.5.7	Values identified in the learning area of Economic and Management Sciences (EMS).....	82
2.4.5.8	Values identified in the learning area of Mathematics (MLMMS) .....	83
2.4.6	Strategies for character education in schools as proposed by the DoE.....	84
2.4.6.1	Nurturing a culture of communication and participation in schools.....	84
2.4.6.2	Role-Modelling: Promoting commitment as well as competence among educators .....	85
2.4.6.3	Ensuring that every South African is able to read, write, count and think .....	85
2.4.6.4	Ensuring equal access to education.....	85
2.4.6.5	Infusing the classroom with a culture of human rights.....	86
2.4.6.6	Making arts and culture part of the curriculum .....	86
2.4.6.7	Putting history back into the curriculum.....	86
2.4.6.8	Introducing religious education into schools.....	86
2.4.6.9	Using sport to shape social bonds and nurture nation building at schools.....	87
2.4.6.10	Promoting anti-racism in schools .....	87
2.4.6.11	Freeing the potential of girls as well as boys.....	87
2.4.6.12	Dealing with HIV/AIDS and nurturing a culture of sexual and social responsibility .....	87
2.4.6.13	Making the schools safe to learn and teach in, and ensuring the rule of law in schools.....	88
2.4.6.14	Ethics and the environment.....	88
2.4.6.15	Nurturing the new patriotism, or affirming our common citizenship .....	88
2.4.6.16	Personal comments .....	88

2.5	Conclusion .....	89
<b>CHAPTER 3</b>	<b>THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN MORAL AND CHARACTER EDUCATION.....</b>	<b>91</b>
3.1	Introduction .....	91
3.2	The conceptual framework for values and character education .....	94
3.2.1	Introduction .....	94
3.2.2	Values and character education.....	95
3.2.3	Different categories of values.....	96
3.2.3.1	A value rank-order and its coherence to the philosophy of life and education.....	96
3.2.4	Character education.....	97
3.2.5	The characteristics of good character .....	98
3.2.5.1	Moral knowing .....	98
3.2.5.2	Moral feeling .....	101
3.2.5.3	Moral action .....	103
3.3	The classroom as a social learning environment .....	106
3.4	Creating conditions conducive for moral teaching and learning in the classroom .....	111
3.4.1	Moral conflict as a learning technique .....	111
3.4.2	Stimulating social perspective-taking .....	113
3.5	Classroom climate.....	114
3.5.1	Types of classroom climate.....	114
3.5.2	Creating a supportive relationship in the classroom.....	118
3.5.3	Fundamental aspects for creating a psycho-socio learning environment .....	121
3.5.4	Policy making as an aspect of classroom climate .....	122
3.5.5	Classroom communication as an aspect of classroom climate .....	122
3.5.6	Discipline as an aspect of classroom climate.....	127
3.5.7	Motivation as an aspect of classroom climate.....	129
3.5.8	Reinforcement (encouraging and supporting).....	132
3.5.9	Group cohesion as an aspect of classroom climate.....	132
3.5.10	Emotional safety as an aspect of classroom climate.....	134
3.5.11	Status of the learner as an aspect of classroom .....	137
3.5.12	Teachers' control as an aspect of classroom climate.....	137

3.6	Aspects that can affect the morale of learners in the classroom ....	142
3.6.1	Teacher experience .....	142
3.6.2	The teacher's attitudes.....	142
3.6.3	The teacher's expectations of learners .....	143
3.6.4	The teaching style of the teacher .....	143
3.6.5	The teaching skills of the teacher.....	146
3.6.5.1	Questioning .....	147
3.6.5.2	Explaining .....	148
3.6.5.3	Structuring.....	148
3.7	Different values and character problems related to secondary school learners.....	149
3.7.1	Introduction .....	149
3.7.2	Discipline in schools.....	150
3.7.2.1	The role of the home in discipline.....	151
3.7.2.2	The role of society in discipline .....	151
3.7.2.3	The role of the school in discipline .....	152
3.7.3	Factors contributing to discipline problems in the classroom .....	152
3.7.3.1	Instruction without context.....	152
3.7.3.2	Failure to teach thinking skills .....	153
3.7.3.3	Non-acceptance .....	153
3.7.3.4	Competitive grading .....	154
3.7.3.5	Excessive coercion .....	154
3.7.3.6	Punishment.....	154
3.7.4	Violence in schools .....	155
3.7.5	Crime in schools.....	156
3.7.5.1	Learner crime.....	156
3.7.5.2	Convictional crime.....	157
3.7.6	Bullying .....	159
3.7.7	Rape .....	160
3.7.8	Drugs, alcohol and substance abuse .....	160
3.7.9	Teenage pregnancy and sexually transmitted disease .....	161
3.7.10	HIV/AIDS.....	162
3.7.11	The media as a problem area .....	163
3.8	Conclusion .....	165

<b>CHAPTER 4</b>	<b>Programmes for character AND values education.....</b>	<b>166</b>
4.1	Introduction .....	166
4.2	Different programmes .....	166
4.2.1	Living values educational programme.....	167
4.2.2	Character counts coalition.....	168
4.2.3	Canadian Olympic Values Education Program .....	168
4.2.4	National Association of Elementary School Principals Values Program .....	169
4.2.5	National character education centre.....	169
4.2.6	Centre for the fourth and fifth R's .....	169
4.3	The John Heenan model for values education-Cornerstone Values .....	171
4.3.1	Introduction .....	171
4.3.2	What are Cornerstone values? .....	173
4.3.3	The ground rules for Cornerstone values.....	173
4.4	Essential key elements for effective character education programmes.....	177
4.5	The role of the teacher in the classroom/school.....	180
4.5.1	Introduction .....	180
4.5.2	The importance of a teacher in creating a conducive psycho-socio classroom climate.....	183
4.5.3	Guidelines for teaching character.....	187
4.5.4	The qualities of a model teacher .....	189
4.5.5	Self-concept of the teacher .....	191
4.5.6	Positive teacher personality characteristics .....	191
4.6	Places where character education takes place .....	193
4.6.1	Internal factors .....	193
4.6.2	External factors .....	196
4.7	The role of the teacher in connection with the different character education outcomes .....	200
4.7.1	Lifelong learner and critical thinker.....	200
4.7.2	Diligent and capable performer .....	201
4.7.3	Socially and emotionally skilled persons .....	201
4.7.4	Ethical thinker.....	202

5.13.14	Do teachers consider their private life as part of their professional life? .....	268
5.13.15	Do teachers see character education as part of their work as subject teachers? .....	269
5.14	Promising practices to further character education .....	270
5.14.1	Setting high expectations .....	270
5.14.2	Creating classroom "motto" .....	271
5.14.3	Written code of conduct for the classroom .....	272
5.14.4	Use of certain traditions to further learners' academic excellence .....	273
5.14.5	Written agreement with learners' parents to further learners' academic excellence .....	274
5.14.6	Knowledge about Kohlberg's theory of moral development (Teachers).....	275
5.14.7	Up to date with research results on character education (Teachers).....	276
5.14.8	Keeping learners' parents informed about the latest theories on character education (Teachers) .....	277
5.14.9	Conducting action research in classrooms on values and/or character .....	278
5.14.10	Necessary literature on values and/or character education provided by the school (Teachers) .....	279
5.14.11	Involving learners in decisions on matters like class rules .....	280
5.14.12	Encouraging learners to participate in classroom discussions and having a say .....	282
5.14.13	Encouraging learners to differ from teachers and other learners in a respectful way .....	283
5.14.14	Encouraging learners to solve conflict between them .....	284
5.14.15	Conducting class meetings with learners to discuss common issues .....	285
5.14.16	Using small group discussions to discuss issues on classroom management or climate.....	286
5.14.17	Helping learners to formulate a philosophy of life .....	287
5.14.18	Encouraging learners to reflect on the mistakes they made.....	288

4.7.5	Respectful and responsible moral agent.....	203
4.7.6	Self-disciplined person.....	205
4.7.7	Contributing community member and democratic citizen.....	206
4.7.8	Spiritual person engaged in crafting a life of noble purpose.....	206
4.7.9	Conclusion .....	207
4.8	School as an ethical learning community .....	208
4.8.1	Introduction .....	208
4.8.2	The functions of the school .....	209
4.8.3	The school as value transfer agent .....	210
4.8.4	The school as a reflection of the macro-society's values .....	210
4.8.5	Life and world ideology of parents and the community .....	211
4.9	General determinants of school effectiveness .....	212
4.9.1	Effective/ineffective practices .....	212
4.9.2	The culture of excellence in the school .....	213
4.10	Operating principles which can help with the creation of an ethical learning community.....	216
4.10.1	Have a voice, take a stand.....	216
4.10.2	Maximise all learners' responsibility for participating in academic discussions .....	216
4.10.3	Hold class meetings that seek and act upon student feedback.....	217
4.10.4	Develop student voice in the school.....	217
4.10.5	Develop faculty and staff voice.....	217
4.10.6	Develop parent voice .....	217
4.10.7	Develop community voice .....	218
4.10.8	Take a personal responsibility for continuous self-development....	218
4.10.9	Promoting the value of striving for excellence and ethics as central to a fulfilling life in school and beyond .....	218
4.10.10	Promoting ongoing self-reflection in the quest for excellence and ethics.....	219
4.10.11	Challenge students to move outside their comfort zone.....	219
4.10.12	Create a culture of excellence in the classrooms and a school-wide system that monitors and supports achievements .....	219
4.10.13	Foster personal responsibility for excellence and ethics among faculty and staff, parents as well as the wider community.....	219

4.10.14	Practice collective responsibility for excellence and ethics .....	220
4.10.15	Model care-confrontation as adults .....	221
4.10.16	Create a school norm of collective responsibility and structures that institutionalise it.....	221
4.10.17	Grapple with the tough issues - the elephant in the living room .....	222
4.10.18	Create study groups to struggle with high-priority issues .....	222
4.10.19	Help families confront their issues.....	222
4.11	Factors playing a significant role in the moral life of the school .....	223
4.11.1	Ethos and caring of the school.....	223
4.11.2	The policy statements of the school .....	224
4.11.3	Teacher as a moral exemplar .....	224
4.11.4	School councils .....	225
4.11.5	Rules and discipline .....	225
4.12	The educational behaviour of teachers in the socio-moral-dilemma .....	227
4.12.1	Orientations of teachers to professional dilemmas.....	229
4.12.2	Strategies for teachers in order to teach character effectively in secondary schools .....	232
4.13	Didactical guidelines for the teaching of character education in secondary schools .....	234
4.14	Conclusion .....	236
<b>CHAPTER 5</b>	<b>EMPIRICAL RESEARCH .....</b>	<b>238</b>
5.1	Introduction .....	238
5.2	The aim of the empirical study .....	238
5.3	Method of research .....	239
5.3.1	Description of methodology.....	239
5.3.2	Description of quantitative research.....	239
5.4	The research tool .....	240
5.4.1	Questionnaire as a research instrument .....	240
5.4.2	Advantages of a questionnaire.....	240
5.4.3	Questionnaire format.....	241
5.4.4	Composition of the questionnaire.....	241
5.5	Types of questionnaires suitable for this study .....	242
5.5.1	Closed form questionnaires .....	242

5.5.2	Open-ended questionnaire.....	242
5.5.3	Rules to be applied when constructing a questionnaire .....	242
5.6	Statistical techniques .....	243
5.7	Ethical considerations .....	244
5.8	The research population .....	244
5.9	Permission to conduct research.....	245
5.10	Problems encountered during research .....	245
5.11	Processing of data .....	245
5.12	Demographic information of learners and teachers.....	246
5.12.1	Population that took part .....	246
5.12.2	Medium of instruction .....	247
5.12.3	Grades of the respondents (Learners) .....	248
5.12.4	Gender of the respondents .....	248
5.12.5	Mother tongue of the respondents .....	249
5.12.6	Marital status of the respondents (Teachers).....	250
5.12.7	Ages of the respondents (Teachers) .....	250
5.12.8	Teaching experience (years) of the respondents .....	251
5.12.9	Academic qualifications of the respondents .....	251
5.12.10	Professional qualification(s) of the respondents.....	252
5.13	Professional character of teachers (Section B of questionnaire)....	252
5.13.1	Lesson preparation .....	253
5.13.2	Efforts to make lessons interesting .....	254
5.13.3	Teachers talk and listen to learners .....	256
5.13.4	Encouraging learners to give their opinions or discuss their problems .....	257
5.13.5	Display trustworthiness and fairness towards learners .....	258
5.13.6	Interested in helping learners with their life problems .....	260
5.13.7	Interested in helping learners with their learning problems .....	261
5.13.8	Asking learners about problems they have .....	262
5.13.9	Efforts to mark learners' work and give feedback.....	263
5.13.10	Encouraging learners to work hard .....	264
5.13.11	Encouraging learners to behave correctly .....	265
5.13.12	Become role models concerning industriousness .....	266
5.13.13	Teachers as role models concerning correct behaviour.....	267

5.15.4	Reason for conducting interviews in this study .....	306
5.15.5	The interview format.....	306
5.15.6	Selection of sample.....	307
5.15.7	Method of collecting data .....	307
5.15.8	Discussion of the teachers' responses.....	308
5.15.8.1	Discussion of the results on Section B of the questionnaire (professional character of the teacher).....	308
5.15.8.2	Section C of the questionnaire (six principles for character education) .....	309
5.15.9	Conclusion .....	311
5.15.10	Suggestions .....	313
<b>CHAPTER 6</b>	<b>SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>314</b>
6.1	Introduction .....	314
6.2	Summary of the different chapters.....	314
6.3	Findings .....	314
6.3.1	Professional character .....	315
6.3.2	Promising practices for character education .....	316
6.4	Recommendations .....	317
6.5	Possible further research .....	319
6.6	Contribution to the field of study.....	319
6.7	Summary.....	319
<b>Bibliography</b>	.....	<b>321</b>
<b>Annexures</b>	.....	<b>353</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

---

Table: 5.1.	The schools and numbers of learners and teachers who participated .....	246
Table 5.2	The different media of instruction used by the schools .....	247
Table 5.3	Grades that participated in the research (Learners).....	248
Table 5.4	Gender of the respondents .....	248
Table 5.5	Mother tongue of the respondents .....	249
Table 5.6	Marital status of the respondents (Teachers).....	250
Table 5.7	Ages of the respondents (Teachers).....	250
Table 5.8	Teaching experience (years) of the respondents .....	251
Table 5.9	Academic qualifications of the respondents .....	251
Table 5.10	Professional qualification(s) of the respondents.....	252
Table 5.11	Lesson preparation (Statement B1) .....	253
Table 5.12	Efforts to make lessons interesting (Statement B2) .....	254
Table 5.13	Teachers talk and listen to learners (Statement B3) .....	256
Table 5.14	Encouraging learners to give their opinions or discuss their problems (Statement B4) .....	257
Table 5.15	Display trustworthiness and fairness towards learners (Statement B5).....	258
Table 5.16	Interested in helping learners with their life problems (Statement B6).....	260
Table 5.17	Interested in helping learners with their learning problems (Statement B7).....	261
Table 5.18	Asking learners about problems they have (Statement B8) .....	262
Table 5.19	Efforts to mark learners' work and give feedback (Statement B9).....	263
Table 5.20	Encouraging learners to work hard (Statement B10) .....	264
Table 5.21	Encouraging learners to behave correctly (Statement B11).....	265
Table 5.22	Become role models concerning industriousness (Statement B12).....	266
Table 5.23	Teachers as role models concerning correct behaviour (Statement B13).....	267

Table 5.42	Helping learners to formulate a philosophy of life (Statement 4.1) .....	287
Table 5.43	Encouraging learners to reflect on the mistakes they made (Statement 4.2) .....	288
Table 5.44	Encouraging learners to move out of their comfort zones and explore more things (Statement 4.3) .....	289
Table 5.45	Encouraging learners to do more than what a curriculum/textbook require (Statement 4.4) .....	290
Table 5.46	Encouraging learners to deliver work of high standard they can be proud of (Statement 4.5) .....	291
Table 5.47	Creating opportunities where learners can exhibit their work to a large audience (Statement 4.6) .....	292
Table 5.48	Expecting learners to take their own decisions about their learning tasks (Statement 4.7) .....	293
Table 5.49	Creating a caring atmosphere among learners in class (Statement 5.1) .....	294
Table 5.50	Encouraging a positive peer pressure among learners in the classroom (Statement 5.2) .....	295
Table 5.51	Learners reprimanding each other when they don't co-operate or break class rules (Statement 5.3) .....	296
Table 5.52	A competitive and everyone-for-himself climate in the classroom (Statement 5.4) .....	297
Table 5.53	Encouraging or helping one another with the learning task ("partners in learning") (Statement 5.5) .....	298
Table 5.54	Encouraging learners to debate moral issues (such as drinking problems, crime, violence, etc (Statement 6.1) .....	299
Table 5.55	Conducting personal issues with learners concerning their moral behaviour (Statement 6.2) .....	300
Table 5.56	Appointing study groups to look into moral issues and come up with possible solutions (Statement 6.3) .....	301
Table 5.57	Making use of debates to help learners to critically debate different viewpoints (Statement 6.4) .....	302
Table 5.58	Spending time in class and encouraging learners to talk about controversial issues in class (Statement 6.5) .....	303

5.14.19	Encouraging learners to move out of their comfort zones and explore more things.....	289
5.14.20	Encouraging learners to do more than what a curriculum/ textbook require .....	290
5.14.21	Encouraging learners to deliver work of high standard they can be proud of.....	291
5.14.22	Creating opportunities where learners can exhibit their work to a large audience.....	292
5.14.23	Expecting learners to take their own decisions about their learning tasks.....	293
5.14.24	Creating a caring atmosphere among learners in class .....	294
5.14.25	Encouraging a positive peer pressure among learners in the classroom.....	295
5.14.26	Learners reprimanding each other when they don't co-operate or break class rules .....	296
5.14.27	A competitive and everyone-for-himself climate in the classroom.....	297
5.14.28	Encouraging or helping one another with the learning task ("partners in learning").....	298
5.14.29	Encouraging learners to debate moral issues (such as drinking problems, crime, violence, etc .....	299
5.14.30	Conducting personal issues with learners concerning their moral behaviour .....	300
5.14.31	Appointing study groups to look into moral issues and come up with possible solutions .....	301
5.14.32	Making use of debates to help learners to critically debate different viewpoints .....	302
5.14.33	Spending time in class and encouraging learners to talk about controversial issues in class.....	303
5.15	Interviews with teachers.....	304
5.15.1	Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research (Compare par.5.3).....	304
5.15.2	Qualitative research .....	304
5.15.3	Description of qualitative research .....	305

## LIST OF FIGURES

---

Figure 3.1:	Components of good character (Lickona, 1991; Lickona & Davidson, 2005; Nucci, 1989).....	105
Figure 3.2 (a)	A supportive classroom climate (Drinkwater, 2002:22) .....	115
Figure 3.2 (b)	A defensive classroom climate (Drinkwater, 2002:23) .....	115
Figure 3.3	Managerial skills (Ntuli, 1999:24) .....	122
Figure 3.4	Vreken's classroom communication model (1996).....	123
Figure 3.5	Outlines of group roles and processes affecting motivation (Bangeni, 2000:71).....	133
Figure 3.6	The interrelatedness of communication style, teaching style, relationships in the classroom and the teaching-learning beliefs of teachers (Drinkwater, 2002:54).....	144
Figure 4.7	An illustration of the dimensions of the teachers' ethos model (Oser, 1991:202; Oser & Althof, 1993:257).....	229

Table 5.24	Do teachers consider their private life as part of their professional life? (Statement B14) .....	268
Table 5.25	Do teachers see character education as part of their work as subject teachers? (Statement B15) .....	269
Table 5.26	Setting high expectations (Statement C1.1) .....	270
Table 5.27	Creating classroom "motto" (Statement C1.2) .....	271
Table 5.28	Written code of conduct for the classroom (Statement C1.3) .....	272
Table 5.29	Use of certain traditions to further learners' academic excellence (Statement C1.4) .....	273
Table 5.30	Written agreement with learners' parents to further learners' academic excellence (Statement C1.5) .....	274
Table 5.31	Knowledge about Kohlberg's theory of moral development (Teachers) (Statement C2.1) .....	275
Table 5.32	Up to date with research results on character education (Teachers) (Statement C2.2) .....	276
Table 5.33	Keeping learners' parents informed about the latest theories on character education (Teachers) (Statement C2.3) .....	277
Table 5.34	Conducting action research in classrooms on values and/or character (Statement C2.4) .....	278
Table 5.35	Necessary literature on values and/or character education provided by the school (Teachers) (Statement C2.5) .....	279
Table 5.36	Involving learners in decisions on matters like class rules (Statement C3.1) .....	280
Table 5.37	Encouraging learners to participate in classroom discussions and having a say (Statement C3.2) .....	282
Table 5.38	Encouraging learners to differ from teachers and other learners in a respectful way (Statement C3.3) .....	283
Table 5.39	Encouraging learners to solve conflict between them (Statement C3.4) .....	284
Table 5.40	Conducting class meetings with learners to discuss common issues (Statement C3.5) .....	285
Table 5.41	Using small group discussions to discuss issues on classroom management or climate (Statement C3.6) .....	286

## LIST OF ANNEXURES

---

Annexure A:	Questionnaire on character education: teachers.....	353
Annexure B:	Questionnaire on character education: learners.....	362
Annexure C:	Letters for permission to conduct a research .....	369

# CHAPTER 1

## STUDY ORIENTATION

---

### 1.1 Introduction

The consideration of including character education in school curricula appears to be a trend not only in South Africa, but also in the international world (Green, 2004; Beckman & Niewenhuis, 2004; Arweck & Nesbitt, 2004; Little, 2002; Tickle, 2000; Nikandrov, 1993; Kazemek, 1988). These considerations appear necessary in the face of the problems that schools are faced with, including violence (Zulu *et al.*, 2004), lack of discipline (Oosthuizen *et al.*, 2003; Rossouw *et al.*, 2003), bullying (Nesser *et al.*, 2004), drug abuse (Maseko *et al.*, 2003), early sexual behaviour, pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases (Flisher *et al.*, 2003). While the prevalence of these problems might not be attributable to school influences alone, schools remain one of the prime contexts where these problems can be addressed.

The role and influence teachers can and do have on character education is the topic of several research studies (for example, Ferguson & Roux, 2003), but it does not appear to have been exhausted as a research issue. Other points of focus of studies on values and character education include investigating the extent to which parents' value orientation influence their view of the priorities of the education system (Muller, 2004), an exploration into the way teachers would teach values as required by Curriculum 2005 (C2005) and the Outcomes Based Education (OBE) approach (Rhodes & Roux, 2003; Rhodes, 2003), the role of values education in school discipline (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b), and various responses to the South African Department of Education's Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy (2000) by The Working Group on Values in Education (September, 2000). Asmal (2001) lists the core values identified by the Working Group on Values in Education as equity, tolerance, multi-lingualism, openness, accountability and social honour.

Values and value orientation are inseparable in the sense that human beings cannot have a value orientation without having values. They are viewed as crucial aspects of human life. According to Eckenberger (1979:389) values refer to "a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others". On the other hand, Rokeach and Rokeach

(1989:2) equate value orientation as “a core concept of the desirable within every individual and society”. Several researchers such as Kok (1970:2), Bagarette (1995:35), Joubert (1992:30) and Davidson (1997:1) define value orientation as a complex, but definitely patterned (rank ordered) system of values. It results from the transactional interplay of three analytically distinguishable elements of the evaluation process, namely the cognitive, affective and the directive elements. They give order and direction to the overflowing stream of human acts and thoughts, as these relate to the solution of common human problems. Therefore, common human problems that are linked with value orientation are defined as:

- concepts of human nature, which can be seen as good or evil or a combination of the two,
- man’s relation to nature and the supernatural, which can be subjection, harmony, or domination,
- a time orientation, which could be one of becoming or doing, and
- an orientation with regard to one’s fellow men, which could be one of individualism, collateralise, or linearity (Joubert, 1992:30)

Education has a formative effect on learners as it influences and determines their intellectual, social, moral, spiritual, physical and emotional development (Taplin, 2002:142; Rhodes, 2003:43; Carr, 2000). According to De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357), as well as Hurn (1993:4), education is perceived as a process of the raising of an immature child towards a higher level of maturity. Smith and Montgomery (1997:83), as quoted by De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357) assert that education at home or at school always takes place, if not in a formal way then in an informal way, in accordance with the so-called hidden curriculum. From a Christian point of view, as stated by De Klerk and Rens (2003b), education means guidance and direction given by the worthwhile use of certain norms and values grounded in the Bible, so that the child can develop a mature view of life. Van Dyk (1990:155) gives a supportive remark concerning the above-mentioned statement, by saying that the heart of education as formative activity consists of the functions of guiding, unfolding and enabling. Therefore, education itself is not solely about the learning of knowledge, it is equally, if not more importantly, about the transference of values, as values are inherent in teaching (Higgs, 2002:144-145). Of particular relevance is the assertion made that life without values is empty, immature

and distorted (Llale, 2003:10; Webster, 1997:2). Education is not meant to guide empty lives, it is meant to enhance learners to value other crucial aspects and to make the best of life (Higgs, 2002:145; Llale, 2003:7). It is a great engine for personal development and for the evolution of character (Reid, 1998:222; James, 2000:2).

The moral fibre and value systems of people are constituted at home, in schools, in work places, and in places of worship (Asmal, 2001: 13; Butts *et al.*, 1977:32; Suh & Traiger, 1999:723). As such, certain factors, for example, teachers, parents, church, society, peer group, school and cultural group, have been identified as influencing and shaping the development of values systems of learners in schools. It is agreed upon that schools should play a crucial role in supporting the development of values (Asmal, 2001:3; Hattingh, 1991:300; Van der Merwe, 1999:2; Bagarrete, 1995:79). Asmal (2001:3) as well as Beck (1990:47) maintain that the education system should not simply be regarded as a vehicle for the transmission of knowledge, but also as a source of public education. On the other hand, James (2000:1) refers to public education as the most pertinent vehicle by which the values of people are acquired by the children/learners and young adults who make up the schools' population.

Values and education are two related concepts that are inseparable in nature and which are also the components of human behaviour. Therefore, teachers together with the parents as role models, have an important role to play in curbing behaviour problems that prevail in schools, since their attitude to learners have been identified as one of the causes of such behaviour (Thomas, 1990:179; De Wet, 2003:39; De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:357).

Values are infested everywhere in education, they are involved in every aspect of school practice and are basic to all matters (Kneller as quoted by Cairns *et al.*, 2001:31). They can be regarded as objects that exist in space and time (Rhodes, 2003). However, what teachers are doing in the classrooms allow learners to actually make genuine commitments, accepting a moral, aesthetic or academic life as one worth pursuing (Sharp, 1995:48). Learners are most likely to be influenced by their teachers whose qualities they regard with esteem, for example, qualities such as tolerance, fairness and acting in a reasonable manner. In addition to that Cairns *et al.* (2001:31) asserts that where real education exists, there are genuine human values.

## **1.2 Problem statement**

The present moral crisis that prevails in schools boils down to learners who do not respect one another, their teachers or property, and also to the absence of work ethics in both learners and teachers (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:357; De Wet, 2003). Thus, discipline for learners and teachers seem to be a problem experienced in the educational system. Teachers' professional conduct and learners' behaviour are absolutely unacceptable. However, teachers are advised to set good example to learners in their classes through their presentation and their personal and professional conduct (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:177; Nucci, 1987:7; Tirri, 1999). Stephenson *et al.* (1995:166), Ashton and Watson (1993:3) as well as Bagarrete (1995:35), stress the significant point that teachers, acting as role models, influence values as well as transmit values in their regular teaching activities. The kind of role modelling that occurs in both explicit and implicit ways has the potential to be either a positive or negative influence upon the value development process of learners. According to Jackson *et al.* (1993:2) much of the moral influence teachers have on their learners may occur without learners being cognisant of it, perhaps even without teachers being aware of the moral consequences of what they are doing. Therefore, the indirect moral influence on learners is deeply rooted in the daily life of the school, either within normal teaching activities or within the contingent interactions at classroom level (Stephenson *et al.*, 1998:166; Avenarus, 2002:90; Hassen, 1993:206). Carr (1993:206-207) and Jackson (1992:404) have cited two assumptions that describe teaching as, in some way, a moral vocation. Learners' values will be influenced consciously by the example set by their teachers in their relationships, interaction, attitudes and teaching styles.

## **1.3 Research question**

The primary problem to be attuned in this study is related to teachers' influence on the value orientation of learners in secondary school. The current moral crisis has caused an emergence of the question concerning teachers' influence on learners and the effects of teaching character education in schools. What influence do secondary school teachers have on the value orientation of their learners?

## **1.4 Research aim**

The aim of the research is to:

Determine the influence secondary school teachers have on the value orientation of their learners.

## **1.5 Contribution of the study**

The need and urgency to implement values/character education in schools has been stated by the government, researchers and practitioners in education. This study is an attempt to add to the growing body of knowledge about the various aspects of values/character education and specifically, focusing on the teachers as agents of values and character education.

## **1.6 Research methodology/design**

In realizing the need and objective of this research, primary and secondary literature was used as sources. Questionnaires were also compiled and distributed to different participating schools.

### **1.6.1 Literature study**

The purpose of literature study is to gather information about the results of other studies which are closely related to the current study. The literature survey also helps in relating the study to the larger ongoing discourse in the literature about the influence that teachers' have on the value orientation of learners in secondary schools especially in classroom situations. It also fills in gaps and extends prior studies (Marshall & Rossman, 1999:6). Sherman and Webb (1988:137); Creswell (1994:21) and Moloï (1997:8) confirmed that the literature study also provides a framework for establishing the importance of the study and also serves as a benchmark for comparing the results of the study with other findings. Therefore, the researcher becomes part of the ongoing dialogue (Le Compete' *et al.*, 1984:60; Neuwman, 1994:320).

A literature search in the NEXUS database and a DIALOG search in the EBSCO Host database was undertaken to select sources that are relevant to this study. Relevant sources from the internet, pamphlets, textbooks, theses, and journals were also used to trace important information.

## **1.6.2 Empirical research**

### **1.6.2.1 Questionnaires**

Two questionnaires were developed for data gathering concerning teachers' influence on the value orientations of their learners. One was given to secondary school teachers and the other one was given to secondary school learners, in order to get the information needed to achieve the objectives.

### **1.6.2.2 Research Population**

Questionnaire 1 was given to a random sample of 30 learners respectively from one grade 8 and one grade 11 class from each of 13 secondary schools in the Potchefstroom area (N=780). Questionnaire 2 was given to all the teachers from the participating schools (N=473).

### **1.6.2.3 Statistical Techniques**

The Statistical Consultation Service of the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) was consulted in the construction of the questionnaires and the selection of the appropriate statistical techniques.

Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation and frequency counts) will be applied. T-tests will also be conducted and effect sizes will be calculated (where appropriate), to determine whether the differences between language groups, grade and gender are significant or not.

## **1.6.3 Interviews**

Interviews were conducted with selected teachers from all the secondary in the Potchefstroom area in order to obtain the information needed in objective 1.4 and to determine what teachers are presently doing to improve the character of learners during the teaching and learning process.

### **1.6.3.1 Study population (Interviews)**

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with one teacher from each school in the Potchefstroom area that participated in the questionnaire research.

### **1.6.3.2 Decoding of data (Interviews)**

Standardised procedures were used for decoding the qualitative data from tape recordings of all the interviews and written notes that were made during the interviews.

## **1.7 Ethical considerations**

Neuuman (1994:428) defines ethics as a set of moral principles or laws of the universe that govern the behaviour of a system, be it an individual, an organisation, or a society. Arends *et al.* (1988:413) on the other hand assert that ethics indicate the high standards of behaviour of a particular group, that is, a group or culture's system of moral principles. Therefore, ethical aspects consider the whole of the research process (Burgess, 1984:185). They are in short, the glue that holds different aspects of the system together. Ethics begins and ends with the researcher. A researcher's personal moral code is the strongest defence against unethical behaviour (Neuuman, 1994:428). He posits that before, during and after conducting a study, a researcher has the opportunities to, and should, reflect on research actions and consult his/her conscience. However, ethical research depends on the integrity of the individual researcher and his or her deeply held values (Borgan & Biklen, 1992; Neuuman, 1994:428).

Permission to conduct this study was given by the Department of Education (North West) in Potchefstroom. Confidentiality will be maintained throughout the project and no information will be made available to an unauthorized person, without the permission of the school in question and the North West Education Department.

The study was clearly explained to the research population in the participating schools and it was clearly stated that the information is treated confidentially and that participation is voluntary.

## **1.8 Programme of research**

This study will be conducted in the following manner:

Literature study

Permission for research  
Constructing questionnaires  
Taking samples  
Taking down questionnaires  
Conducting interviews  
Processing data  
Interpretation and discussion of research results  
Conclusions and recommendations

## **1.9 Preliminary chapters**

This study is divided into five chapters with each tackling a specific aspect crucial to researching the areas thereof.

**Chapter one** focuses on introduction and defining the statement of the problem.

**Chapter two** deals with the literature survey regarding basic concepts such as values, education, character and character education.

In **Chapter three** the literature is surveyed regarding teachers' influence on the value orientation of their learners and also their roles in creating a climate conducive to effective learning.

**Chapter four** is devoted to empirical research to provide a description of the investigation.

**Chapter five** summarises the conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the study.

## **1.10 Conclusion**

In this chapter an overall discussion to the research is illustrated. This includes short motivation concerning the research, a discussion of the research problem, specification of the aim of the research and an indication of the method used to achieve the research aims. The population and sampling techniques were also indicated, as was the composition of the research chapters.

# CHAPTER 2

## VALUES AND CHARACTER EDUCATION

---

### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with values, character, education and character education as a framework for the discussion of character education in schools. The matters under special consideration are the definition, methods, strategies and ways in which character education becomes relevant within the school arena.

According to Ediger (1995:56) teaching must display real life situations rather than simulated ones for discussions. This will enable learners to consider the range of choices that exists in complex situations. Halstead and Taylor (2000:176) added to this by stating the two-fold role that the schools must play, namely to build on and supplement the values, learners have already begun to develop by offering further exposure to a range of values that are current in society, and to help them reflect on, make sense of and apply their own developing values.

### 2.2 Definition of concepts

#### 2.2.1 General orientation

This chapter attempts to define all the concepts mentioned above in detail. There are for instance, the multiple meanings attached to a word like value. What do we mean when we refer to values? According to Brezinka (1992:123) the multiplicity of phenomena that are referred to as values for example include norms, aims, or ends, ideals, interests, models, principles, standards, attitudes, subjective preferences, opinions and orientation rules. Anything that people find subjectively or objectively important is considered a value these days; everything that motivates them and towards which they strive, as well as everything towards which they orient themselves (Brezinka, 1992). Values are, therefore, determined by the beliefs we hold (Lemin *et al.*, 1994:1; Dalton & Boyd, 1992:1; Rhodes, 2003:104; Rhodes & Roux, 2004:25; Rockeach, 1972:124).

## 2.2.2 Definition of values

Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:95) define a value as a type of belief, centrally located with one's total belief system, about how one ought to think or ought to behave, or about some end-state of existence worth attaining. "Values are perceived as ideas, about what an individual or a group thinks is important in life, and they play a prominent part in our decisions (Dalton & Boyd, 1992:1). A value is more than a belief, and it is also more than a feeling (Rhodes, 2003:104).

According to Titus (1994:3) values are sets of ideas, standards, or goals held or accepted by a group or by an individual that establish patterns of behaviour to enhance group survival. They are verbal and non-verbal experiences, opinions of human conceptions and they hold an emotional component (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:21).

Values refer to a community's basic assumptions about what ideals are worth pursuing, for example striving for success or avoiding debt. They are also based on personal experience and the influence of the members of a community with whom an individual associates (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:27). Liale (2003) equates values as beliefs about what the individual considers right, fair, just or desirable.

Reber (1995:834) refers to values as an abstract and general principle concerning the pattern of behaviour within a particular culture or society. Through the process of socialisation, the members of the society hold these in high regard and form central principles around them so that individual and societal goals can become integrated, for example freedom, justice, and education. They serve as guidelines for behaviour and also as criteria for the evaluation of humans, objects and events (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:22; De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:356; Rokeach, 1973:20). They give direction, meaning and significance to human existence (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:22). Values are what an individual considers good or beneficial to his/her wellbeing (Harré & Lamb, 1983:651; Rhodes, 2003:21). They are cherished beliefs and standards for right or wrong (Davies, 2001:1). They may also serve as determinants that influence a person's choices in life. Values thus decide such a person's behaviour and are descriptive of a lifestyle that characterises a given human society (Inlow, 1972:2; Joubert, 1992:28; Van Aswegen, 1993:58). They are an explanation of and influence for human behaviour (Homer & Kahle, 1988:638). Therefore, all individuals are habitually interjecting values

from their respective cultures. Values are socially and personally preferred ways of living (Crawford-Nutt, 1980:76).

Values form the basis for the acceptance or rejection of norms (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:356; Abdool, 2005:61; Rens, 2005:11-12). According to Liale (2003:8) norms and values differ, in that many values may be expressed as norms, and all norms are more concrete expressions of values. This makes the two difficult to separate.

Rhodes and Roux (2004:25) describe values as more than a belief. It constitutes the worthiness of a norm or a principle embedded in a person, a group or a system. They are the fundamental convictions that act as general guidelines to behaviour, the standard by which particular actions measure as good or desirable (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:169; Halstead, 1996:4-5). A value also implies different sorts of judgment, in that some objects or behaviours are either good or bad, desirable or undesirable, right or wrong, in the sense of being personally acceptable or unacceptable (Garan, 1975:54; Kilpatrick, 1992:81). Values are sets of rules for rating behaviour or objects along a continuum of worth (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:28; Wassenaar, 1989:4).

The coherence between these concepts is complex. Scholars give different definitions and explanations. Baker *et al.* (1992), as quoted by Halstead and Taylor (1996:4), equate values with things that are considered 'good' in themselves (such as beauty, truth, love, honesty, and loyalty) and as personal or social preference.

According to De Klerk and Rens (2003b:356) values are defined as relatively stable choices or preferences about how to be, or what education is considered to achieve. Therefore, they are the directives when an individual has to make choices (Plunkett 1990:9). Maré (1985:15), Rokeach (1986:160) as well as Becker and Connor (1981:37) refer to values as abstract ideals, positive or negative, not tied to any specific object or situation, representing a person's beliefs about modes of conduct and ideal terminal modes. They are global beliefs that transcendently guide actions and judgements across specific objects and situations. Sliwiack and Frissell (1987:156), Bailey (1987:26) and Grabb (1981:374) define values as conceptions of desirable self-sufficient ends that can be ordered and that serve as orientations to action. Grobler (1985:18) defines a value as a specific experience of consciousness on the strength of an inherent value realization.

Ruhela (1990:217) and Hattingh (1991:65) refer to a value as an endeavour that satisfies a need-system, psychological as well as physiological. They further elaborate by saying that values are socially approved desires and goals that are internalized through the process of conditioning, learning or socialisation and that they become subjective preferences, standards and aspirations.

Values are organised summaries of experience that capture the focal, abstracted qualities of past encounters, have a normative quality about them, and function as criteria for a framework against which present experience can be tested (Rhodes, 2003). But they are not affective neutral abstract structures. They are tied to our feelings and can function as general motives (Feather, 1982:275; Rhodes & Roux, 2004:25).

According to Muller (2004:159) values define a 'standard' definition of social values. They are conceptions of what is desirable and they guide behaviour over the long term. There are three important assumptions associated with this definition, namely:

- values are non-empirical conceptions of the desirable in the sense that they cannot be observed directly. The assumption is that, values are latent variables underlying opinions, attitudes, beliefs and moral judgement,
- values engage moral considerations because of the implied moral dimension of conceptions of 'desirability' as distinct from simple 'desire'.
- values are of a heuristic nature, in that they enable us to interpret and categorise our own and other people's general approach to life. They appear in attitudes, opinions, preferences etc.

Lovat and Schofield (1992:1) refer to a value as respect for the rights of individuals, honesty, responsibility and a range of other moral, ethical and social concerns. Rokeach (1973:20) refers to it as "...cognitive representations and transformations of needs. Values are objectives that one seeks to attain in order to satisfy the need" and interests are specific activities and objects through which values can be attained and needs met (Lofquist & Dawies, 1978:12; Ruhela, 1990:11). Therefore, Lofquist and Dawies (1978:12-13) distinguish the concept of value from the concept of need. According to Lofquist and Dawies (1978:13) the concept "need" refers to ... "those conditions which are required to sustain the life and well-being of a living organism". However, values are "...what a person consciously and unconsciously desires, wants,

or seeks to attain". Needs are objective and innate, while values are subjective and acquired (Locke, 1973 as quoted by Lofquist & Dawies, 1978:13; Lemin *et al.*, 1994:1). Values are strong determinants of needs (Hattingh, 1991:123).

According to Rokeach and Ball-Rokeach (1989:112) values are a relatively enduring organisation of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner. Spates (1983:30) refer to a value as an element of a shared symbolic system that serves as a criterion or standard for selection among the alternatives of orientation that are intrinsically open in a situation. Joubert (1992: IV) and Barber (1984:25) contend that a value is a belief, but not all beliefs are values. When a philosopher Baier (as quoted by Joubert, 1992:27) had to answer the question of what values are, he projected some of his conceptual frustration onto sociologists. He suggested that the profusion is generated by four factors or conditions, namely:

- values are notions, ideas, or conceptions in people's minds,
- values are appreciative, evaluative or normative notions, ideas, or conceptions,
- values are "notional". More generally the relevant meaning of a value must be established in the particular situation of discourse or language game,
- the variation of notions, terms, and definitions of values found in the social sciences follows from these disciplines' attempts at the sophistication of an ordinary, everyday word or idea.

Mncwabe (1987:125) defines a value as a belief representing a preference that an individual adapts after examining the probable consequences of this preference and of the alternatives, considered important enough to be maintained, supported and perpetuated. Schwartz (1992:2) as well as Schwartz and Bilsky (1987:551) define values as (1) concepts of beliefs (2) that pertain to desirable end states or behaviours (3) that transcend specific situations, (4) that guide selection or evaluation of behaviour and events, and (5) that are ordered by relative importance. "Values represent the emotional rules by which a nation governs and a society organises and disciplines itself. Values are precious reminders that individuals obey, to bring order and meaning into their personal and social lives".

Schmidtchen (1987:123) defines values as the most general objectives of human or organizational aspirations. Zuk (1979:136) defines a value as an attitude, belief or way of evaluating events that typifies a person or group.

De Klerk and Rens (2003b:355) posit that values are in the first place, the result of the application of a person's principles, which he or she obtains from his/her religion. Foss (1977:118) defines values as convictions on the quality of objects, situations, actions and the totality that they form.

Eyre and Eyre (1993), as quoted by De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357) define values as the "standards of our actions and the attitudes of our hearts and minds, that shape who we are, how we live, and how we treat other people."

Feather and Newton (1982:220) assert that values can be conceptualised as a particular class of motives, namely those motives that have a normative quality about them, and as motives, they influence a person's subjective definition of the situation so that certain objects, activities, and states of affairs within the immediate environment acquire positive valance (become attractive) or negative valance (become aversive).

Therefore, values and value orientations are interwoven in many ways. One is important for the development of the other. Both are related concepts, but they cannot be utilised as interchangeable terms (Van Aswegen, 1993:34). Pertaining to values, it is understandable that they employ a diffuse, practical all-contriving influence on one's life (Haydon, 1997:7; Lindique, 1980:24). Hattingh (1991) as quoted by Bagarette (1995:21) and Butroyd (1997:251) identify categories typical to the definitions. They are as follows:

- values are beliefs
- values are attitudes
- values are cultural standards
- values are dispositions
- values are cultural criteria
- values are normative orientations
- values are opinions
- values are experiences
- values are guidelines
- values are convictions

- values are norms
- values are forces
- values are conceptions
- values are principles
- values are expressions

Lindique (1980:24) as quoted by Bagarette (1995:25) also made a significant contribution by stating that the term values are anchored in the following qualities:

- it has a specific content
- it has particular experience of consciousness
- it involves guidelines
- it entails confirmation
- it must be repeated
- it has a dynamic character
- it can be verified empirically
- it can form part of factual context
- it is intimately interwoven with goals
- it must be directional in one's life
- it is identical to human behaviour
- it involves certain attitudes and emotions
- it has a circular course in culture
- it assumes a process of appreciation
- it is related to one's experiences
- it is only encountered at a personal level
- it is integrating forces in personality, society and culture
- it encompasses possibilities that can be released
- it displays preferences and disapprovals
- it entails choices, either free choices or choices between alternatives

The foregoing discussion clearly reveals that different researchers have typical categories of their definition about values. Values can also serve various functions in human life, for example, as personal guides in human behaviour. Values are important for action. They can be learnt at a very young age, for example, learners arrive at school with numerous kinds of values drawn from different sources such as home, family background, religion, culture and environmental factors (Halstead & Taylor, 2000). All these sources can have a great impact on learners' values. Therefore, knowledge about values can become essential for teachers because judgement on values is an exclusively human endeavour. By grasping the dynamics of education, there can be much that teachers can positively do in order to develop and drive learners to value education. Values are products of development. Therefore, for a value system to occur, there are seven functions which must be taken into consideration and are discussed next.

### **2.2.3 Functions of values and value-systems**

Mncwabe (1987:132) and Feather (1975:9) derive the following functions of values and value-systems based on several definitions of the concept of values:

- it supplies the individual with a sense of purpose and direction
- it gives a group a common orientation and supplies the basis for an individuals' action as well as unified, collective actions
- it serves as the basis for judging the behaviour of individuals
- it enables the individual to know what to expect of others as well as how to conduct him/herself
- it anchors a sense of right and wrong, fair and foul, desirable and undesirable, moral and immoral

Purple and Ryan (1976:6) also distinguished seven functions worthy of consideration:

- Choosing freely  
If something will guide one's life, whether or not authority is watching, it must be the result of free choice. Values must be freely selected before they can really be valued by the individual.

- **Choosing from alternatives**  
Decisions are more meaningful if options are available.
- **Choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative**  
Impulse or thoughtless choices do not lead to values as they are defined. Therefore, for something intelligent and meaningful to guide one's life, it must merge from weighing and understanding. Only when the consequences of each of the alternatives are clearly understood, one can make intelligent choices. A value can only emerge with thoughtful consideration of the alternatives and the consequences of a choice.
- **Prizing and cherishing**  
By developing values, learners can become more aware of what they cherish.
- **Affirming**  
Speaking out about their values and beliefs in a socially acceptable way helps learners to clarify their values to others.
- **Acting upon choices**  
When one has values, it shows up in all aspects of living. One may do some reading about things to which one attaches value. Therefore, acting on beliefs is a way to realise a person's own values.
- **Repeating**  
When something reaches the stage of a value, it is very likely to reappear on a number of occasions in the life of the person that holds it. It shows up at several times and in several different situations. Values tend to have a persistency to make a pattern in life.

When looking at the above-mentioned discussions, it becomes easy to understand that values and value systems are two respective concepts. There is a close relationship because a value system is formed by values as elements of the system. Those values to which an individual gives preference and enjoys hierarchic preference in the person's value system. The different classifications of values are discussed next.

## 2.2.4 Different classifications of values

The following subsection discusses the different classifications of values. Several proponents such as Jarrett (1991:13), Drinkwater (2002:48-49), Pintrich and Schunk (1996:290-300), Abdool (2005:10-16), Hattingh (1991:201), Straughan and Wringley (1980:79), Sugarman (1973:88), Kosmeyer (1999:78), Bagarette (1995:60), Hersh *et al.* (1980:32), Inlow (1972:149), Very (1982:23), Kok (1970:70), Pistorius (1984:169), De Jong (1985:12), Schoefield (1972:260), Patrises (1976:27), Janse van Niewenhuizen (1999:9), Crawford – Nutt (1980:74-79), Thompson(1992:505), Voster (1988:3), Gutto (1998:109) and Elias *et al.*(1997:2), Liale (2003) all classify values in different categories according to their specific groups. A thorough investigation into these classifications revealed that Hattingh (1991), Liale (2003) and Bagarette (1995) can serve as a tool in this instance because their division is the most appropriate to this research. They categorise values as follows:

### 2.2.4.1 Moral values

According to Hersh *et al* (1980:32), moral values are the standards and the principles according to which we judge whether aims or actions are proper. They concern personal attitudes and behaviour towards other people (Abdool, 2005:11; Drinkwater, 2002:49). Such values involve a different kind of proposition where the words “ought to” come into play; it implies a freedom to choose (Sugarman, 1973:38). Moral values have to do with the good or the bad in humans in different circumstances, for example school, home and church. They are viewed as having higher priority in character education.

Hersh *et al.* (1980:32) identifies two features that are related to moral values, namely that they vary widely in their importance and applicability and that they are more than merely matters of personal taste. Values are strongly connected with moral character formation (Hattingh, 1991:201).

Indicators related to moral values are as follows: right/wrong, integrity, loyalty, normatively, love, trust, rules, religious power, formation of good behaviour, honesty, reality, acceptability/unacceptability, preferences, dignity, virtuousness, morality, norm acknowledgement, principles.

#### **2.2.4.2 Aesthetic values**

Kosmeyer (1999:78), in Liale (2003:12) and Abdool (2005:11), describes aesthetic values as a “set” that guides our attention in those directions relevant to our purposes, ultimately guiding our behaviour. Aesthetic standards are private and subjective. Therefore, there is no ultimate or objective beauty, nor is there any compelling reason why society should endorse a single set of standards for judging beauty (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:36). Hersh *et al.* (1980:36) and Hattingh (1991:202) assert that aesthetic values express what is beautiful in the eyes of one individual, not what is right between people. Therefore they are not supposed to be regarded as obligatory, but as matters of taste.

Indicators related to aesthetic values are as follows: beauty, appreciation, movement, harmony, art, aesthetic sense, musical concord, cleanliness, enjoyment, creative power or ability, voice expressiveness, appearance, form, sound, colour, and creativity (Hattingh, 1991:202 as quoted by Bagarette, 1995:62).

#### **2.2.4.3 Authority values**

Authority values refer to the presence or bearing a person has (Schoefield, 1972:260). Hattingh (1991:207) says that authority refers to power and values aimed at obtaining power and management. Hattingh (1991:207), (Liale, 2003) and Bagarette (1995:60) listed the following indicators related to authority values: power, management, autonomy, personal authority, control, reputation, governing, self-love, domination, independence, leadership, social appearance, authority, praise. They list the types of authority as follows:

- **Charismatic authority**

It is closely connected to the idea of a presence or bearing and the impact these characteristics have on others. The obvious possessor of charismatic authority is Christ.

- **Traditional authority**

Traditional authority is based on the established belief in the sanctity of tradition. Thus, it is based on beliefs and values brought about by a culture over time.

- **Legal rational authority**

Rulers and teachers possess legal rational authority. Both parties have to make laws or rules to guide and direct conduct.

#### **2.2.4.4 Intellectual values**

Straughan and Wringley (1980:79) see intellectual values as values to which we appeal to judge the worth of actions and products. These values either assist or claim to assist people in achieving a coherent mental picture of parts of the natural, man-made and human worlds. Hattingh (1991:205) and Abdool (2005:12) define intellectual values as values that are fixed to the use of abilities.

Indicators of intellectual values are: competency, creativity, technological experience, potential, ability, experiences, research, open minds, reason, knowledge, achievement, qualifications, insight, skills, logic, cleverness, ambition, quick learning, experimenting and efficiency (Abdool, 2005:12; Bagarette, 1995:60; Hattingh, 1991:205).

#### **2.2.4.5 Self-values**

Self-values define the self as one of the most central and focal objects, within the life space of the individual because of its primacy, ubiquity, and continuity (Hattingh, 1991:207; Drinkwater, 2002:49; Ziller, 1973: xiv in Liale, 2003:19).

Indicators related to self-values are as follows: self-concept, self-esteem, self-talk, self-maintenance, self-actualization, self-independence, self-respect, self-discipline, self-knowledge, own feelings, expectations, individuality, good behaviour, responsibility, patience, own needs, privacy, adulthood, attitudes, acceptance, belonging, happiness, courteousness, dispositions and cheerfulness (Abdool, 2005:13; Bagarette, 1995:90).

#### **2.2.4.6 Legal values**

According to Gutto (1998:109) in Liale (2003:19) legal values are based on laws, concerned with law, required by law, and permitted by law. He stresses legal values through dignity, equality, and justice. Hattingh (1991:203) refers to equity and justice. Legal values serve as normative principles in exercising law (Abdool, 2005:16; Hattingh, 1991:204).

Indicators related to legal values are as follows: equity, law and justice, guidance for conduct, obligations, law-abiding, the establishment of laws, fair dealing, honesty, legal advice, prosecution, impartiality (Abdool, 2005:16; Hattingh, 1991:204).

#### **2.2.4.7 National values**

According to Bagarette (1995:90) national values are the values of all nations or communities. Smith (1979:1) states that people first identify with their nation. Their lives are regulated for the most part by the state.

Indicators related to national values are: love, national security, loyalty, diplomatic relationship, identity preservation, personal freedom, trust, friendship, differentiation, citizenship, and democracy (Bagarette, 1995:90; Hattingh, 1991:205; Abdool, 2005:13).

#### **2.2.4.8 Life values**

Abdool (2005:15) and Hattingh (1991:209) identify life values as the biological, physiological and vital values of human beings. They are also attached to previous existence.

Abdool (2005:15), Bagarette (1995:80) and Hattingh (1991:209) list the indicators related to life values as follows: attire, safety, health, nutrition, energy, sleep, locomotion, rest, sexuality, provision, and respect for life and regard for life.

#### **2.2.4.9 Safety values**

Safety refers to a secure situation or condition, meaning a state of being out of danger (Abdool, 2005:14, Hattingh, 1991:206). According to Hattingh (1991:204) and Abdool (2005:14), these values are aimed at people's survival.

Indicators are: survival, assurance, nurturing, security, protection, and safeguarding (Abdool, 2005:14; Bagarette, 1991:90; Hattingh, 1991:207). Liale (2003) regards safety as a priority and describes it as follows:

- Individual safety values

The values of the different members of a group may differ, for example, one individual may place a very high value on performing a task safely, while the others may value completing the task with little regard to safety. According to Liale

(2003:18) an individual's values can influence the entire group's safety values in both a negative and a positive manner.

- **Espoused safety values**

Espoused safety values are those values that predict what people will say or do in a given situation, but which may actually be out of line with what they will in reality do in situations where those values are relevant.

- **Basic safety values**

Basic safety values guide the personal behaviour of an individual group member and influence his/her decisions regarding safety (Llale, 2003:19).

#### **2.2.4.10 Time and space values**

These values are aimed at the significance of human time and space (Hattingh, 1991:210; Abdool, 2005:15; Bagarette, 2005:92). According to Patrides (1976:27), as quoted by Llale (2003:17), time is continuous in the present and is further divided into past and future.

Indicators related to time and space values are as follows: future, order, living space, present, past, relationship, occurrence, transience, future perspective, significance, relationship, experience and privacy.

#### **2.2.4.11 Environmental values**

Environmental values pertain to the spaces around human beings (Abdool, 2005:14; Hattingh, 1991:209; Smyth, 1996). They are aimed at the environment and the appraisal or appreciation thereof. According to Sugarman (1973:131), the child's natural curiosity leads him to explore the environment around him, both by experimenting with it and by merely observing. Smith (1996:53) is of the opinion that environmental values develop from the beliefs and attitudes that are derived from knowledge and experience of:

- what a learner has been told
- what has been absorbed through experience, and
- what has been actively pursued by the learner in response to inspiration from others or to personal interest and desire

He then defines environment as the whole external environment - natural, cultivated, built, social, economic and cultural, the temporal - the environment of the past and the future. Therefore, the environment represents the relationship between people and their surroundings. Environment is a source of nature that builds human behaviour.

Indicators related to environmental values that are mentioned by Bagarette (1995:70), Hattingh (1991:209) and Abdool (2005:14) are as follows: natural beauty, geology, love for plants, geography, love for trees, love for nature, research, discovery, touring, nature conservation.

#### **2.2.4.12 Social values**

Social values are values involved in a person's appraisal of the work or actions and products affecting the manner of life of groups and communities (Straughan & Wringley, 1980:79). According to Llale (2003:13) social values refer to a normative belief pertaining to the important relationship of a society, and can be integrated with the social interaction transmitted from one generation to the other through societal relationships such as the church, family and the school.

Indicators related to social values are as follows: freedom, life, health, property, security, privilege, self-respect, self-opportunity, self-status, respect, trust, respect for others, cooperation, loyalty, friendship, empathy, and sympathy (Abdool, 2005:14; Hattingh, 1991:206).

#### **2.2.4.13 Cultural values**

Crawford–Nutt (1980:90) is of the opinion that cultural values predate the existence of the individual and provide him with a set of standards for a way of life considered desirable by most members of society. During the process of socialisation, the individual adopts and frequently internalises the values of his/her culture. Hofstede (1979:389) on the other hand, defines culture as a collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one human group from another. Llale (2003:13) equates cultural values as all the behaviours that the human being exhibits in conformity with his/her family, playgroup, social groups, church and all other human groups. Culture allows us a partial vision of what exists (Popkewitz, 1984:33).

However, Triandis (1994:22) defines culture as a set of human-made objective and subjective elements that in the past have increased the probability of survival and resulted in satisfaction for the participants in an ecological niche, and thus become shared among those who could communicate with each other, because they had a common language and they lived in the same time and space. Therefore, values may be seen as the products of cultural, institutional and personal forces working in on the individual (Feather, 1975:11). The link between the two constructs is that culture includes a system of collectively held values. Feather (1975) asserts that one's culture provides value priorities that are transmitted to individuals in the course of development. On the other hand, Rokeach (1973:21), as quoted by Feather (1975:11), mentions that the maintenance, enhancement, and transmission of values within a culture tend to become institutionalised so that different social institutions (for example, the family, the church, one's political organisation) have the task of maintaining, enhancing, and transmitting selected subsets of values from generation to generation. Therefore, culture is a system of shared symbols, beliefs, and practices created by a group of people as an adaptive mechanism for their survival and development and transmitted to succeeding generations (Lepholletse, 2001:40-41).

According to Vrey (1983:23) cultural values fall into the following categories: political, religious, theoretical, economic, social and aesthetic values. Inlow (1972:21) mentions the formation of value tenets to cultural values that are dominant through the ages. He notes that life has purpose, man is rational, the individual is of supreme importance, material progress is important, certain basic social institutions are important, and selected other miscellaneous beliefs and attitudes are important.

Kluckohn, as quoted by Joubert (1992:28), distinguishes three cultural values and emphasises their clusters as follows: (1) man and nature: determinate, indeterminate, unitary-pluralistic, evil-good; (2) man and man: individual-group, self-other, autonomy-dependence, active-acceptance, discipline-fulfilment, physical-mental, tense-relaxed, now-then, (3) both man and nature: quality-quantity, unique-general.

Indicators related to cultural values are: language, tradition, life-style, creation, historical trust, ethnics, experience, standard of civilization, habits, customs, community forms, cultural life, events, history, surrendered approach, heroes, gatherings (Abdool, 2005:15; Llale, 2003:13; Hattingh, 1991:206; Bagarette, 1995:81).

#### **2.2.4.14 Physical values**

According to Abdool (2005:13), Bagarette (1995:81) and Hattingh (1991:206) physical values refer to physical structure, including all physical parts of a person. Therefore, these values show the appearance of a person.

Indicators are: build carriage, physical exercise, health, appearance, beauty, somatology, physical education, neatness, cleanliness, pride, grooming, charm, shapeliness, development and attraction.

#### **2.2.4.15 Recreational values**

The recreational values are defined in both intrinsic and instrumental terms (Llale, 2003:16). The play mood is what the intrinsic aspect commonly means and the notion that play somehow helps to restore energy expended in work, is the instrumental aspect of recreation. The importance of what recreation activities can do are stressed by Llale (2003:16) as follows: recreational activities are liberating because they are carefree, the individual involved in such activity has a chance to develop self-determination when involved in work situations, recreational activities can often be used to develop certain potentialities. Recreation contributes to self-integration through the reduction of tension occasioned by the stress of daily life.

Indicators related to these values are as follows: pleasure, sport participation, enjoyment, comfort, excitement, happiness, celebration, association, diversion, recreation (Abdool, 2005:14; Hattingh, 1991:208; Llale, 2003: 16).

#### **2.2.4.16 Political values**

Political values refer to a code of behaviour and management and the plan of a group of statesmen or politicians (Abdool, 2005:11; Hattingh, 1991:203). Inlow (1972:60) states the significance of these values in their pervasiveness and their effect on the lives of all citizens at any given time, as well as the behaviour of any single citizen countless times throughout his life.

Indicators are: vote, authority, rule, freedom, patriotism, management, politics, power, equality, relationship, public appearance, meetings, national affairs, membership of the political party and peace (Abdool, 2005:11; Bagarette, 1995:71; Hattingh, 1991:203).

#### **2.2.4.17 Occupational values**

Occupational values are defined as values concerning a person's work situation and behaviour in these situations, as well as the degree to which one values one's occupation. Hattingh (1991:208), as quoted in Bagarette (1995:80) and Llale (2003:16) concludes that occupational values are influenced by several factors, for example determination and commitment.

Indicators include elements such as: hard work, service, aesthetics, power, material success, interesting work, work-satisfaction, occupational acquaintanceship, security, status, loyalty, wages, creativity, promotion, independence, intellectual recognition, labour, leadership, and self-realization (Abdool, 2005:15; Lindhard, 1985:4; Hattingh,1991:208). Bagarette (1995) identifies occupational values as including: acknowledgement, self-dependence, self-respect, self-fulfilment, respect for others, belonging, pleasure, delight and excitement.

#### **2.2.4.18 Economic values**

Economic value can be explained as the value of exchangeable commodities and arise from the production and use of materials (Abdool, 2005:12; Llale, 2003:13). Economy refers to aspirations of prosperity. Economic values are the value of materials, as well as values about profitability and practice (Hattingh, 1991:202; Rhodes, 2003:98). According to Inlow (1972:40), economic values are important to human beings and are also concerned with people's activities connected to supplying for their wants. Furthermore, Inlow (1972:40) maintains that economic values at the time of a transaction are moral ones, involving human decency and moral living, inseparable from human sensitivities and values.

Indicators related to economic values are as follows: money, productivity, commerce or trade, comfort, quantity, marketing, purchase, usefulness-evaluation, wealth, wages, high living standard, prosperity, sale, profit, investment, save, servitude, and service (Abdool, 2005:12; Llale, 2003, 13; Hattingh, 1991:202).

#### **2.2.4.19 Emotional values**

Emotional values are regarded as being instinctive sensations or feelings and moods (Abdool, 2005:13; Mulligan, 1998:2; Hattingh, 1991:208). Researchers assert that these

values are aimed at the affective or emotional aspects of a person. According to Elias *et al.* (1997), as quoted by Taylor and Larson (1999:331), social learning is defined as the process through which children and adults develop skills, attitudes, and values necessary to acquire social and emotional competence. Therefore, the relationship between interpersonal, social and emotional learning (SEL) starts from and builds on students' innate ability to understand themselves and others, that is, their own abilities, emotions, needs, and other feelings. However, Elias *et al.* (1997) postulates that without social and emotional learning competence, learners will lack the skills to manage life tasks such as working co-operatively, solving everyday problems and controlling impulsive behaviour. Goleman (1995) in Llaie (2003:14) contends that without the ability to identify and manage their emotions effectively, learners are vulnerable to emotional "hijackings", thus they will be unable to think clearly because they are emotionally overwhelmed.

Indicators related to emotional values are as follows: emotions, control over emotions, orientations, friendship, informality, patience, attitudes, and stability of emotions, opinions, inclination, cheerfulness and seriousness (Hattingh, 1999:208).

#### **2.2.4.20 Religious values**

Religious values are defined as a feeling of being pressured by or of being in communication with something holy or sacred, something worthy of veneration and worship (Llaie, 2003:11). Abdool (2005:10) and Bagarette (1995:47) compare religious values with man and his view of life, attitude towards life, religious training, submissiveness and worship.

Indicators are: Trust, freedom, adoration/worship, belief, surrender, salvation, certainty, dedication and devotion.

In view of the above discussion, these twenty values are considered as important in the lives of every individual. They can have a positive impact on building learners' characters and is implicit to teaching. Religious values must never be approached in an aimless manner. They have a formative effect on learners, as they influence and determine every aspect of their future.

## 2.2.5 Value formation

It is clear that every individual has a value system. The preceding paragraphs illustrate the complexity of such a system. Therefore, the following sub sections will focus on the formation of values and on learners' moral development.

### 2.2.5.1 The process of value formation

Researchers such as Abdool (2005:16), Bagarette (1995:53), Hattingh (1991:170), Van Aswegen (1993; 23), Llale (2003:23) and Louw *et al.* (2002:388) mention different perspectives on the process of value formation. This study focuses on Lerner's theory (1976) as quoted by Llale (2003), since most of the other theories consider Lerner's seven phases of value formation as fundamental. They are:

- Exposure to a value situation

Exposure starts in early childhood. Researchers of cognitive growth in the child, like Piaget and Brunet, while not studying values as such, did groundwork on which related studies of the earliest exposure to value situations could build. These value situations involve a value agent and it can occur at home, at school or in the community.

- Identification

Identification is likely to be stronger with a primary value agent such as a parent or sibling, than with a secondary agent such as the media.

- Encounters, confrontations, choices

The problem today is that the encounters with values (and moral conflicts) occur in fragmented situations. There is now a separation of the work place, the learning place, the play place and the loving place. This makes the process of value choices harder.

- Validation

Value choices, when first made, are tentative. They need to be validated in order to take on the force of authority. We need to have our value choices checked and rechecked, not only during the adolescence years but throughout life.

- Internalising

This is the process of making the value choices (and priorities) part of oneself, not necessarily in a conscious way, but in a deep internal way, so that it becomes habitual and unreflecting.

- Ritualising, sacrilising

Sacrilising is another way of looking at the same process as mentioned above. In both ritualising and sacrilising, the values take on a certain mysticism, which exempts them from critical analysis.

- Challenge, scrutiny, replacement

This is the last phase of value cycle and becomes the initial phase of another. It describes how the credibility of values weakens when new currents of generational experience arise.

According to Attarian (1986:41-44) as well as Purple and Ryan (1976:76), values are related to the experiences that shape a person's life. In order for a value to result from an experience, the following requirements must be taken into consideration:

- Choosing freely

Something meant to guide and direct one's life whether or not authority is watching, must be the outcome of free choice. Values must be freely selected to be really valued by the individual.

- Choosing from alternatives

Decisions are more meaningful if options are available.

Choosing after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative

Impulsive or thoughtless choices do not lead to values. Intelligent and meaningful values to guide and direct one's life must merge from weighing and understanding. Only when the consequences of each of the alternatives are clearly understood, one can make intelligent choices. A value can only merge with thoughtful consideration of the alternatives and consequences imbedded in a choice.

- Prizing and cherishing

By developing values, learners can become more aware of what they cherish. When something is valued, it must have a positive tone.

- Affirming

Speaking out about their values and beliefs in a socially acceptable way helps people to clarify their values to others.

- Acting

When one has values, it reflects in aspects of living. One may for instance, read up on things to which one attaches value. Therefore, when people act on their beliefs, it is a way to realize their own values.

- Repetition

When something reaches the stage of becoming a value in a person's life, it is very likely to reappear on a number of occasions. It manifests repeatedly, in different environments. Values tend to be persistent, to form a pattern in life.

Values contribute to children/learner's development into complete human beings. Teachers and parents give learners/children a chance to develop values as well by giving them freedom to observe, assessing their behaviour according to whether it is good or bad and right or wrong, correcting them when mistakes occur, and discussing their feelings. Values in themselves are concepts, not feelings, they embody and express feelings, and they are dimensional rather than absolute categories. They help to shape our behaviour and give consistency and congruence to our lives. Values emanate from social experience amongst other things. Therefore, they are taught to learners at school as well as at home etc.

Downley and Kelly's (1978:62) argument is that, if we wish to agree that one of the increasingly important tasks of education is to help learners develop the appropriate skills and judgement to cope with the variety of moral choices they have to face in today's complex world, then it follows that every teacher's primary concern should be to play a part in the moral and character education of his or her learners. Therefore, morality is an area which permeates the whole life of every school. However, the

promotion of character and moral education, whether formally or informally, requires teachers to have a good understanding of the learner's level of development and personality makeup. The next discussion is based on a theory developed by Kohlberg concerning learners' moral development.

## **2.2.6 Moral development**

### **2.2.6.1 Kohlberg's theory**

Development is defined as a progressive change towards some more complex level, usually a change of an irreversible nature (Downley & Kelly, 1978:63). Therefore, moral development is defined as the relationship between an individual and society. Moral issues are issues of human social conduct (Llale, 2003:22). Mwamwenda (1995:150) also defines moral development as the way children learn to determine what is right and what is wrong. Therefore, acceptable behaviour and the acknowledgement of other people's needs are essential for human pre-existence (Abdool, 2005:38). According to Mwamwenda (1995:150), Abdool (2005:38), Hopkins (1991:121) and Cobb (1983:344) morality consists of different levels. It forms part of every aspect of people's psychological composition. Abdool (2005:38) and Cobb (1983:344) are of the idea that the cognitive components, in all respect, strives for moral development and the forming of personal values. Moral values comprises a number of guidelines that show what is right or wrong, good or bad (Abdool, 2005:38; Hersh *et al.*, 1980:32).

According to Van Aardweg and Van Aardweg (1988:148) the moral values of an infant, a toddler, an adolescent and an adult in a specific society are perceived as different. The reason is that one has to move through different moral developmental phases that are accompanied by one's cognitive development (Oser, 1998:928; Kohlberg, 1984:24; Abdool, 2005:20; Paolitti, 1975:76; Llale, 2003:39; De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:363). Therefore, the child is not born with moral values, but rather with the inherent potential to differentiate between right and wrong (Arends *et al.*, 1988:416; Abdool, 2005:38; Hattingh, 1991:122). The child's moral development is coupled with his/her cognitive development. Abdool (2005:21) identifies important aspects related to the adolescent's journey to adulthood. These are:

- the development of social responsible behaviour
- the identification and acquisition of his/her gender role

- the development of value-orientation as a guideline for behaviour
- the development of his own life philosophy where values can be devoted; and
- the acquisition of emotional independence from parents and other adults as well

However, a person moves from one level of moral judgement and reasoning to another in order to expand his view of the world. Kruger and Adams (1998); Abdool (2005:44); Llale (2003:38); De Klerk and Rens (2003b:364); Garbarino (1985:11); Oser (1998:928) as well as Lerner and Spanier (1980:191), all focus on Kohlberg's theory of moral development, based on children and adolescents' reasoning in order to ascertain how moral development changes when faced with moral dilemmas. These authors link the cognitive developmental theory of moral reasoning with the practice of moral education in schools. On the other hand, De Klerk and Rens (2003b:363) and Arends *et al.* (1988:417) maintain that there is a relationship that exists between "values" and "morals" that are often discussed by Kohlberg's theory. His theory proposes the three levels of moral development, namely: pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional levels, as well as six stages of moral development, namely:

#### **Level 1: The pre-conventional level**

This is the type of moral reasoning used by children aged 4-10 years old. The moral decisions tend to be egocentric, meaning that they are centred on personal interests (Mwamwenda, 1995:150; Cobb, 1983:355). According to Kruger and Adams (1998:27), De Klerk and Rens (2003b:363), Lambert *et al.* (1978:174), Oser (1998:929), Abdool (2005:40) and Arends *et al.* (1988) this level of morality centres on obeying laws to avoid punishment or to gain reward.

#### **Stage 1: Punishment and obedience orientation**

During this stage, behaviour is aimed at avoiding breaking rules backed by punishment, obedience for its own sake, and avoiding physical damage to persons and property. Learners are responsive to rules dictating what is good or bad, but they interpret these rules according to the consequences of power of those who enforce the rules (Hopkins, 1993:176; Oser, 1998:926; De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:363; Cobb, 1983:355). Children abstain from engaging in unaccepted behaviour because they are afraid of being caught

(Mwamwenda, 1995:150). That is their guiding concern. If there is no such risk, then the action is justified.

### **Stage 2: Individual instrumental purpose and exchange**

This stage is characterised by the belief that what is right is to follow rules when it is someone's immediate interests (Oser, 1998:926; Abdool, 2005:40; Hopkins, 1993:176). Mwamwenda (1995:150), Oser (1998:926) and Kruger and Adams (1998:27) maintain that what is right makes one happy, and right is what is fair, an equal exchange, a deal, an agreement (Cobb, 1983:355; Hopkins, 1993:176). The child's expectation is to refrain from being unfair, so that others will not be unfair to him/her. In the classroom situation, this concept implies that learners ought to follow rules dictated by their teachers.

### **Level 2: Conventional moral reasoning**

Level 2 is also called conventional rule conformation (Cobb, 1983:356; Abdool, 2005:41). This level implies that a person's thinking involves acting as others expect. Acts are judged as correct if they conform to roles that others think a person should play (Cobb, 1983:356; Mwamwenda, 1995:151; Kruger & Adams, 1998:27; Liale, 2003:43; Abdool, 2005:41). Thus, the individual's moral standards are externally managed. Abdool (2005:41) and Slambert *et al.* (1978:177) posit that this level maintains people's expectations and the approval of other people's traditional values. The laws of society, families and groups or nations are viewed as valuable in its own right, regardless of the immediate and obvious consequences. Individuals perceive the maintenance of fixed norms as their moral obligation to make sure of positive human relationships in an orderly concurrence. Behaviour is judged according to the person's motive (Abdool, 2005:41; Hopkins, 1993:178). An action is judged as right, if it meets one's own needs. Often reciprocity is involved (Arends *et al.*, 1988:416). Therefore, the following two stages are characteristics of this level of moral development:

### **Stage 3: Social approval orientation**

This stage is characterised by a person being oriented towards being seen as "good" by others (Mwamwenda, 1995:151; Kruger & Adams, 1998:27; Oser, 1998:926; Abdool, 2005:41; Hopkins, 1993:176). Learners reason that by being nice or good, approval from others is likely. Hopkins (1993:176) and Oser (1998:926) purport that being good is

crucial, since it affects a person's behaviour and motives, such as showing concern about others. It also means keeping mutual relationships, such as loyalty, trust, respect and gratitude (Hopkins, 1993). Behaviour and decisions are determined by what pleases, aids and is approved by others (Kruger & Adams, 1998:27; Mwamwenda, 1995:151). The desire to be a good boy or girl begins to guide moral reasoning at the third stage. Arends *et al.* (1988:416), Oser (1998:928), Hopkins (1993:176), Kruger and Adams (1998:2) and Mwamwenda (1995:151) characterise this socially oriented stage as a concern with living up to the expectations of others, being nice and gaining the approval of others.

#### **Stage 4: Law and order orientation**

At this stage laws are viewed as necessary and therefore good. Law and order orientation leads towards authority, fixed rules, the maintenance of the social order and respect for the authority (Hopkins, 1993:176; Slambert *et al.*; 1978:177; Abdool, 2005:41; Mwamwenda 1995:151). Oser (1998:926) maintains that laws should be upheld except in extreme cases where they conflict with other fixed social duties and rights. Within the classroom situation, law and order must be applied at all times (Mwamwenda, 1995:151; Llale, 2003). Learners have to observe rules and laws that are enforced by their teachers. If these are not observed in the classroom, then chaos is likely to exist. Rules should always be followed, because the given social order is considered sacrosanct (Arends *et al.*, 1988:417).

#### **Level 3: The post conventional level**

This level is characterised by moral decisions that are generated from rights, values, or principles that are agreeable to all the individuals composing or creating a society designed to have fair and beneficial practices (Oser, 1998:926; Abdool, 2005:42; Hopkins, 1993:179). Individuals understand and accept the rules of the society, but they perceive the rules in terms of their principles, which have their own validity (Hopkins, 1993:179; Oser, 1998:926).

#### **Stage 5: The stage of prior rights and social contact or utility**

People view laws as being open to evaluation. Whether something is good or bad is determined by socially agreed upon standards of individual rights (Mwamwenda' 1995:151; Kruger & Adams, 1998:28). Therefore, reasoning is based on the idea of a

social contract. Social contract orientation is characterised by upholding basic rights, values, and legal contracts of a society, even when it conflicts with the concrete rules and laws of a group (Oser, 1998:926; Hopkins, 1993:177; Abdool, 2005:42; Mwamwenda, 1995:151). This stage defines moral or immoral behaviour with reference to laws or fixed rules that concern general laws and standards (Kruger & Adams, 1998:28; Abdool, 2005:42). Rules are important at this stage, but there is recognition that rules are socially agreed upon standards, created in to promote the greatest social good (Arends *et al.*, 1988:417).

### **Stage 6: The stage of universal ethical principles**

This is the highest level of moral development proposed by Kohlberg and not many people reach this stage. The guiding principles for moral behaviour are now based on human life. Good and right are matters of individual conscience (Kruger & Adams, 1998:28). According to Oser (1998:926), Lambert *et al.* (1978:178), Abdool (2005:42), Mwamwenda, 1995:151) and Arends *et al.* (1988:418) these principles are abstract and ethical, they are not concrete moral rules, but they refer to universal principles of justice, equality and human rights, the golden rule and respect for the dignity of human beings as individuals. Where principles are in conflict, an individual at this level adheres to his or her own internalised principles of action, not society's rules, when making moral decisions. According to moral reformers such as Gandhi and Martin Luther King Jr., as quoted by Arends *et al.* (1988:418), employing civil disobedience tactics exemplify this stage. Those who consider these morals, live according to their principles, notwithstanding others' actions (Abdool, 2005:42; Mwamwenda, 1995:151).

#### **2.2.6.2 The implications of Kohlberg's theory for the classroom situation**

Although this theory has been criticised a great deal (Furrow, 2005:63), it holds serviceable insights for teachers. Kohlberg's system has recently received sufficient empirical validation, to remain the dominant perspective for comprehending a learner's moral development (Hopkins, 1983:202). Even though this theory does not seem to be perfect, it does however provide teachers with some useful ways of thinking about learners and their ethical decision making. Again, it does not only assist teachers in understanding why learners sometimes behave and reason as they do, but it also stresses the possibility of enhancing moral development through classroom

discussions, that allow learners to examine their own moral thinking and compare it with that of others (Mwamwenda, 1995:159; Kruger & Adams, 1998:29; Cobb, 1983:344).

One way of facilitating learners' moral development is through using group discussions on moral dilemmas (Arends *et al.*, 1988:418; Halstead & Taylor, 2000:180; Kruger & Adams, 1998:29). According to Cobb (1983:44), the hypothetical situations similar to Heinz's situation are suitable for application, but teachers should rather direct their focus to everyday, real-life situations in the classroom in order to facilitate moral development. These include, for example, episodes of tolerance, aggressive behaviour and social injustice, cheating in tests, copying homework, or abusing rules (Cobb, 1983:344; Mwamwenda, 1995:151; Kruger & Adams, 1998:29; Arends *et al.*, 1988:418). However, in each learning area, teachers are advised to place more emphasis on issues such as equality, acceptance, tolerance, co-operation, concern for others, human rights, privacy, sensitivity, and responsibility, since these can help them comprehend the principle of justice.

### **2.2.6.3 Other theories of moral development**

Cobb (1983:344) says that a child's changing body, changing personal desires and social demands create a compelling need for a set of values and beliefs to guide decisions. He further asserts that even beliefs that have been held since memory was first formed come under close scrutiny. Therefore, developing moral guidelines seem to be difficult at any stage, and it forms part of genuine confusion over what constitutes moral issues. Cobb (1983:348) and Mwamwenda (1995:89-104) identify other theories that are related to moral development:

#### **Social learning theory in moral development**

The social learning theory is derived from the mechanistic model (Cobb, 1983:371). It assumes that human behaviour is lawful and predictable and that the environment plays a major role in shaping people's behaviour. Clark-Steward and Friedman (1987:12), as quoted by Abdool (2005:33), as well as Phiri (2003:12), postulate that children learn through instances of conflict and through observing their parents and teachers. Children, especially young children or learners, acquire moral behaviour by modelling the behaviour of adults within their immediate environment (Arends *et al.*, 1988:418). The parents or caretakers at home as well as teachers are usually the creators of

values and the ones that cradle the personality of the child/learner. They are the carriers of the social values that children internalise as a basis for their moral decisions. Therefore, the central assumption of this theory is that, moral behaviour can be learned and the manner in which people learn social behaviours can be explained with the same principles that are applied, in order to explain learning in the classroom.

Social influence is important for moral development and is significant to moral values (Hattingh, 1991:123; Cobb, 1983:171; Abdool, 2005:33). An individual learns about the general motivation for conformity through socialization, and they develop sensitivity to specific expectations that have to be developed (Joubert & Steyn, 1971:173 as quoted by Hattingh, 1991:123).

Hattingh (1991:123) suggests the educational implications of moral development theory as follows:

The child's cognitive and moral preparedness level for value-transference and the expectations and demands according to moral behaviour, must cope with the child's development phases.

### **Psychoanalytic theory**

This theory indicates that moral development takes place unconsciously through a process of identifying the parents' cultural and moral values, which are then transferred to children (Abdool, 2005:39; Cobb, 1983:344). According to Cobb (1983:344) children learn moral behaviour through interaction with their parents. Children experience many emotions about the ways they relate to their parents, their peers, their teachers and society at large (Mwamwenda, 1995:75; Cobb, 1983:344; Arends *et al.*, 1988:422). Cobb (1983:344) posits that basic erotic and aggressive impulses become channelled in a socially acceptable way, only when societal standards of conduct are internalised. Therefore, interaction with parents is critical for the formation of a conscience (Cobb, 1983:354; Mwamwenda, 1995:75). Parents are models to their children at home, and these biological forces are considered more influential than the environmental ones (Cobb, 1983:344). Therefore, both social and psychoanalytic theories assume that people acquire their values and sense of morality by internalising society's norms (Cobb, 1983:344).

It subsequently follows that the role of the teacher in this regard, is to empower developmental theory with substantive meaning for a specific group of learners at a

certain period in their development. They need to think about the developmental characteristics of the particular group of learners whom they are working with. The more the teacher's knowledge of his/her learners' development is specific and defined, the more likely it will be that the educational experiences designed to encourage development, will be efficient and effective.

#### **2.2.6.4 Summary**

According to Downey and Kelley (1978:79), Kohlberg's work has made the most important contribution to research on the psychology of moral and character development. He complements and expands Piaget's views (Mwamwenda, 1995:155; Hopkins, 1983:158). Mwamwenda (1995:155) as well as Hopkins (1983:158), pose that moral judgement can be assessed by presenting dilemmas. According to their research there are two types of morality. The morality of realism (heteronomous morality) is typical of children and it is a morality of absolute rules, while the morality of co-operation (autonomous morality), typical of adolescents and adults, is a morality of flexible rules and subjective subtleties. According to these scholars, the first level is where a child expects parents to make rules of conduct for children to obey, and in making judgments, they are more interested in the rule than the spirit of the law. This changes as the child grows older and attains the second stage, when he perceives rules as flexible and made for the protection of individual and collective rights. Furthermore, Hopkins (1983:203) perceives the adolescents as beginning to judge behaviour, in terms of the intentions of the actor, and not simply in terms of the consequences of their acts.

Kohlberg elaborates on Piaget's theory of moral judgement and identifies three levels. According to Mwamwenda (1996:155), Kohlberg's first level is a characteristic of children under the age of ten, who are considered to be self-centred. Right actions are those that avoid punishment, placate authority, or benefit the actors (Cobb, 1983:353; Hopkins, 1983:202; Mwamwenda, 1995:158). During this level, moral judgments are made on the basis of expectations of others in the family or larger social group. Therefore, rules have meaning only in terms of the underlying principles, such as justice and reciprocity (Hopkins, 1983:202). Kohlberg's approach applies the cognitive-developmental theory to moral issues (Cobb, 1983:354; Hopkins, 1983:204). Moral thinking, according to Hopkins, is not consistent enough from one dilemma to another to

provide sufficient support for a "structured whole." Cobb (1983) and Hopkins (1983) postulate that Piaget's stage theory suffered from a similar lack of consistency.

Young children tend to judge moral issues in a personality manner. Piaget's theory of moral development is associated with that of Freud, as quoted by Cobb (1983:353). Both are derived from an organism model and stress the significance of inner forces in determining the pattern of growth. The organism responsible for the cause of change is biological forces that are more influential than the environmental ones (Cobb, 1983:352). Therefore, moral behaviour is probably related to situational and personality characteristics as well as to level of moral judgement.

Cobb (1938:372) on the other hand, asserts that these theories can be compared on the basis of their stance on three major questions:

- what is the distinction between social convention and moral issues?
- what is the role of parents in moral development?
- does moral development occur over the entire life span?

According to research, both the social learning and psychoanalytic theories assume that people acquire their values and sense of morality by internalising society's norms. Again, Cobb opines that although Kohlberg believes that people internalise social standards, he argues that the highest level of moral decision is based on a sense of justice that transcends convention. Therefore, the importance of parents is stressed by the psychoanalytic and social learning theories because they are the carriers of the social values that children internalise as the basis for their moral decisions. Similarly, disciplinary techniques, according to them, show no systematic relationship to the level of adolescents. Therefore, the nature of the parent-adolescent relationship may be more important than the method of discipline (Hopkins, 1983:204). However, the explanations of moral development that stress the role of parents for the greatest part, emphasises the years of childhood for the foundation of moral values (Cobb, 1983:370). Mwamwenda (1995:159) concludes by pointing out that some of the educational implications of these theories are also considered as part of the social process. Teachers have an obligation to develop their learners' concepts of justice, so that they will become better men and women as they relate to each other in society. This can be brought about by teaching and discussing the principles of justice.

To summarise, it is important for teachers to be aware that different developmental stages do exist in every learner's life. According to the literature about these different developmental stages, it is clear that learners must receive a balanced education. This approach seems to be promising, if it can be applied when dealing or working with learners who are faced with moral dilemmas. The approach itself makes teachers aware that every teacher should consider that learners have different cognitive abilities in real life situations. It will also be good for teachers to take into cognisance that learners' cognitive understanding goes according to their developmental stages.

Kohlberg's theory is largely based on individuals' moral judgement, the reasoning behind the judgments they make, rather than their actual moral conduct. He adopts a cognitive theory of moral development and sets out to reflect that the principles of moral judgement slowly develops as the child grows older, but that this development is highly dependent on the situation as well as the social conditions. According to Downey and Kelley (1978:79) his stage theory, like Piaget's, implies a cognitive restructuring and reordering as the individual matures morally. Leming (1993:23) also perceives the cognitive developmental approach as important, when it is applied to moral reasoning in school settings and the growth in the stages of moral reasoning should be facilitated through educational intervention.

### **2.2.7 Definition of education**

Cairns *et al.* (2001:30) view education as a mechanism and a process of transmitting culture and values. These researchers define education culturally as "the influence exercised by adult generations of those that are not yet ready for social life. Therefore, its objective is to arouse and to develop in the child a certain number of physical, intellectual and moral states that are demanded of him by both the political society as a whole and the special milieu for which he is specifically destined." It has a formative outcome for learners as it affects character, ascertains their intellectual, social, moral, physical, and emotional development, and plays a crucial role in shaping their lives (Oser, 1998:919; Llale, 2003:1; Straughton and Wringley, 1980:3). "Education is concerned with the development of virtues of the mind" (Reid, 2000:699). Abdool (2005:44) describes education as the achievement or industry of people to other people. There are people involved, namely the group of educators or teachers and the group of learners. In general, education can be defined as the process of growth, development of

independence, autonomy, maturity in the psychological, social and religious world (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:356; Abdool, 2005:44).

Many researchers have attempted to pin down a definition of education. According to De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357), from religious perspective education relates to the guidance and direction given by using biblical norms and values, so that the child can develop a mature view of life. Dreyer *et al.* (1999:41) also refers to education as a process that takes place with the particular aim of bringing about changes that are considered as important in a particular culture. Downley and Kelly (1978:17) also equate education as the concerned with developing the autonomy of the individual. De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357) and Hurn (1999:4) have another view namely, that education is the process of raising an immature child towards a higher level of maturity.

Schoefield (1973:36) suggests three criteria that should be utilised to measure the effectiveness of education. They are:

- education implies the transmission of what is worthwhile to those who become committed to it;
- education must involve knowledge and understanding and some sort of cognitive perspective that is not inert;
- Education rules out some procedures of transmission, on the grounds that they lack willingness and voluntaries on the part of the learner.

According to the above-mentioned statements, education can be viewed as an important tool/process that guides and gives direction to young people. It influences and shapes the values, thinking, insights and skills for the younger generation. This means that the values learners hold, the manner in which teachers relate to one another and the manner they relate to learners, teaches them to value education. Therefore, the aim of education is not to transfer knowledge only, but also to assist learners to develop the appropriate skills and to cope with challenges in life, that will enable them to eventually make good moral choices.

## 2.2.8 Values and the educational process

According to Gudmundsdottir (1990:45) any controversy about the role of the school in values and character education, must start with taking for granted that education occurs within a social and political context called "democracy." Therefore, school is an organisation that plays a crucial part in the pursuit of democratic goals (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:23). In essence, the act of teaching is saturated with values, both explicit and implicit, because teaching involves evaluation, judgement, and choice, all essential qualities in values (Gudmundsdottir, 1990:45). Embedded in our culture, values are cultural knowledge that is gradually assimilated through interactions with other people as well as cultural institutions (Moloi, 1997:37). They are based on aspects of culture such as ideologies, ideals, and conflicting interests (Bagarette, 1995:65; Rhodes, 2003:45; Gudmundsdottir, 1990:45). Maslovaty (2001:429), on the other hand, sees teaching as a continuously dynamic, reflective, and complex decision-making process that involves an ethical aspect.

According to Goodlad *et al.* (1990:130), teaching is a profoundly moral activity, and what makes it a moral endeavour is that, it is essentially a human action undertaken with regard to other human beings. Silcock and Duncan (2001:242) support the above-mentioned idea and state that values in teaching must engage with the process through which learners come to see the worth of publicly prioritised activities for themselves. Teaching values is crucial to the whole educational enterprise, and therefore, it is important that they are consciously internalised, personally and culturally sanctioned guides to action (Silcock & Duncan, 2001:243). However, Veugelers (2000:37) points out that the teacher find certain values important for their learners, and they express this in their teaching and in their interaction with the learners on the value-level. Teaching values cannot be divorced from education, and education also cannot be divorced from values (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:357; Taylor, 1996:125). Therefore, Cairns *et al.* (2001:31) agrees with the above statement when they assert that education is turning towards values: "As soon as values are deleted, education is deleted." According to De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357), the transferring and teaching of values have been the key functions of education throughout the ages. Gudmundsdottir (1990:46) feels that education, implies transmitting something that is worthwhile "in a morally accepted manner", and being educated means having changed for the better. However, education cannot be value-free, because teachers cannot avoid imparting values in one

or another away during the normal course of their activities. What is considered 'good,' 'right' or 'important' constantly guides our practice, whether consciously or not (Gudmundsdottir, 1990:45-46). Conversely, Taylor (1996:125) and Rhodes (2003:60) postulate that, at the heart of every school's educational, pastoral policy and practice, there should be a set of shared values that is promoted in the curriculum, through expectations governing the behaviour of learners and teachers and through day-to-day contact between them. Arnold (1994:77) asserts that the primary end of education is related to the development of character. Character and moral education in schools has great appeal, especially moral education that is aimed at the transformation of character (Woodbridge, 1990:526).

Huffman (1993:24) indicates in his research that moral teachers believe that schools should take a comprehensive approach in order to positively influence the ethical development of learners and all segments of the school community must be responsible for nurturing learners' moral development. Therefore, character and moral education must pervade all aspects of a school's operation and influence its ethos. The education system has a duty to educate individuals to think and act for themselves, with an acceptable set of personal qualities and values that meet the wider social demands of adult life. The aim of education is defined as raising an immature child towards a higher level of maturity (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:357). Viewing education as something that enhances the learner's development into an adult implies that it is not something that can survive in a vacuum. However, learners should be helped to develop a personal moral code and to explore values and beliefs that are shared, such as a concern for others, industry and effort, self-respect and self-discipline. Moral qualities such as honesty and truthfulness should also be promoted in schools (Taylor, 1996:125). The role of the school, together with that of the home or parent, should be to furnish learners with the knowledge and the ability to question and reason, a skill that will enable them to develop their own value system and to make responsible decisions. Therefore, education at home or at school will take place, if not in a formal way, then in an informal way or in accordance with the so-called hidden curriculum (Smith & Montgomery, 1997:83 as quoted by De Klerk & Rens, 2003b).

Halstead and Taylor (2000:169) indicate that children arrive at school with a range of different values drawn from their pre-school experiences, meaning that values are learned at a very young age. Children usually come to school with their values well established. Therefore, a value can be defined as an enduring belief, that a specific

mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence (Primack, 1986:12). In his definition, Primack (1986:12) assumes that values exist in a fairly stable, hierarchical form, meaning some values are consistently valued more highly than others. Primack (1986:12) postulates that if the school has to be an instrument for teaching values, it has to exercise a high degree of selectivity to determine which values to convey. It must be able to firstly justify its selection of values to the community at large, secondly justify itself as the appropriate institution, or at least one of the institutions of choice to convey these values, and lastly design an effective means to propagate them.

Nucci (1989: xv) and Halstead (1996:3) remind us that teaching values to children is a fundamental role of individual adults as well as institutions. They are central to both educational theory and practical activities at schools. However, a school's values are apparent in its organisation, curriculum and discipline procedures, as well as in the relationship between teachers and learners (Halstead, 1996:3; Burkhardt, 1999:87). Additionally, values are reflected in what teachers choose to permit or encourage in the classroom and in the way they respond to learners' contributions to learning, and learners in return learn values from such responses. Parents have the responsibility to take part in teaching values to their children, and teachers should recognise values and character development, as they are critically imperative for our educational system (Tomaselli and Golden; 1996:66; De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:362; Wolhuter & Steyn, 2003:530; Halstead, 1996:3). However, the education of every learner implies the involvement of parents and teachers. Kruger *et al.* (2002:70) feels that for parents to become involved, they must be in a better position to ensure that the values, spirit, direction and character of the community are well established and maintained at school. Veugelers (2000:37) shows that different educational concepts deal with values in education. Therefore, teaching and values are in a dynamic interaction, they are not in a static relationship. However, learners absorb most of their values from different areas, they begin to learn values very early on in life, initially from their families, the school, from the media, peer group, playgroups, the church, as well as from the society at large (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:362; Halstead & Taylor, 2000:169; Brook & Kann, 1993:2). Brook and Kann (1993:2) mention that the teaching of values starts with considering how children think and what their language tells them about the world. In the school and in the classroom the tension of unresolved problems are acutely felt (Ashton & Watson, 1998:3). However, these are arenas where teachers and learners interact, communicate

with ease, and in such manner values are learned. Fenstermacher (1990:130) emphasises the important role that teachers and parents have to play in the development of this by setting a positive example by teaching values as part of their daily teaching activities.

Prawatt (1992) and Giroux (1989), as quoted by Veugelers (2000:40) and Goodlad *et al.* (1990:133), claim that teachers cannot directly transfer values to their learners, because learners are able to construct their own concepts of meaning and develop their own values. They should try to encourage learners to develop certain values, or they can try to influence them to do so. They can also emphasize the teaching of cognitive strategies for critical thinking and point out important values to their learners (Veugelers, 2000:42). However, the skills or strategies they wish to teach their learners are "coloured" by the values they find important for themselves (Veugelers, 2000:42; Moloi, 1997:37). In his work, Veugelers (2000:42) identifies the following four instructional strategies that are based on the teaching of value-loaded topics:

- The teacher tries not to express his/her own values.
- The teacher makes clear which values s/he finds important.
- The teacher indicates and stresses differences in values, but also expresses the values s/he finds important.

Therefore, teachers are considered as having an influence on the curriculum in practice (Goodlad *et al.*, 1990:133; Veugelers, 2000:42; Halstead & Taylor, 2000:177). Their values are rooted in educational matters as well as pedagogical relations, which together constitute education (Goodlad *et al.*, 1990:133; Halstead & Taylor, 2000:178). They must also stimulate certain values as part of their professional function. Teachers should not only reflect on their interaction with learners, but also on the values that govern their teaching (Veugelers, 2000:42).

However, Tomaselli and Golden (1996:62-67) asked the question of how we should define which values should be taught to learners? This is a sensitive subject that is made more complex by the diversity of cultures and lifestyles in our society. Tomaselli and Golden (1996:56) assert that this can only be resolved, when adults develop a list of agreed-upon values. These agreed-upon values can then be translated into moral

and ethical lessons and models that can be taught to school age youngsters. Tomaselli and Golden (1996:57) and Hagerty (1995:77), as quoted by De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357), cited that if the goal of values and character education has to encourage learners to make more effective choices and decisions, then learners must be able to identify, understand, and learn how to act on their own values. Conversely, it is found that many adults have never fully explored their own beliefs and values in any formal sense. Therefore, teachers' values and value systems enable them to define the beliefs, goals and behaviours that are acceptable both to them and to society (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:357; Tomaselli & Golden, 1996:67). De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357) concurred with the above-mentioned statement by saying that the transferring and teaching of values have been the key functions of education through the ages. Grobler (1985:18) says that every child finds himself in a world decorated and studded with values which s/he must acquire in his or her own way. According to Grobler, no child is born with the value judgements, characteristic of the adult's way of life. Education awakens the child to a certain disposition according to which s/he ascribes meaning to things that relate to his/her world (Grobler, 1985:18). Values are inherent to teaching. Therefore, teachers are by the nature of their profession "moral agents", who imply values through the way they address learners and each other, the way they dress, the language they use and the effort they put into their work (Carr, 1993:193).

The discussion above reflects that it is possible that teachers can have a strong influence on the value-orientation of their learners, but this can however, be obvious and sometimes can go unnoticed. Teachers can be regarded as the creators of learners, with respect to shaping their future. Their personalities during classroom interactions can be an example of learning values through close observation of what they are performing. Therefore, teaching depends on the fact that there is a permanent, sophisticated observer, closely watching the personal qualities of the teacher. This observer is a learner. Learners admire any behaviour that teachers display during the interaction process. As Rhodes (2003) has already mentioned, values exist in space and time, teachers should take into cognisance the kind of behaviour they portray to their learners.

## 2.2.9 Types of relationships between education and values

In their study Cairns *et al.* (2001:31) outlined four types of relationships between education and values. They are discussed as follows:

**First** is the necessity for human subjects to participate in the realisation of values in order to achieve and enjoy them. Value realization is an educative process and necessarily involves people in growth and development.

**Second** is the nature of the school as a value-realisation institution. Education begins with the individual learner as he/she is at any given stage in his/her growth. The process attempts to nurture and seeks to convey him/her into a stage of development and value achievement that is not actually at the time. Socially, education begins with its society or culture as it is at any given point in history. The school not only conserves what is good in the culture, but its vision reaches quite beyond this objective, to convey the society into a new orbit of value possession, where that which is desired, but is not an actual fact, becomes more than an ideal or an objective, but a present realized possession of the culture.

**Third** is the necessary relationship between educational objectives and value theory. Any objectives that can be conceived for any phase of life express value judgements. It follows that when objectives are proposed for education, whether general or specific, whether by teachers or administrators for individual classes or schools, or by national bodies, some answers to value problems are implicit in these objectives. Those objectives cannot be adequately conceived without being formulated in the light of value theory.

**Fourth** is the significance of children's value problems and decisions. Value problems constitute the first reflective steps of maturing youth. They provide the first occasion for reflective decisions; therefore value concern in education are of unique importance with all children, but especially with adolescents because in their struggles and tensions are the early occasions for genuinely reflective decisions. Every child must eventually come to live his/her own life with some measure of responsibility. The closer he/she can approach a theory of value within which his/her value judgments can make some real sense, the more adequate and responsible he/she can be in facing life's demands. It is for this purpose that his/her value experiences can be made educational.

According to the information above, it is clear that education and values cannot be separated. Values do exist in education. No education, no values. Therefore, schools are arenas for value-realisation. Education at school level starts with the individual learner, at any given stage in growth. The aim of education is give direction to the individual learner and bring changes that are considered worthwhile for their future.

Cairns *et al.* consequently mentions two major approaches to the education of values namely prescriptive and descriptive.

## **2.2.10 Approaches to values education**

### **2.2.10.1 The prescriptive approach to the education of values**

According to Cairns *et al.* (2000:132), the prescriptive approach to the education of values is variously described as a value transmission approach, concentrating on moral content and sometimes loosely called moral education. However, its primary concern is to distinguish between what is moral and immoral. It has an emphasis on the shared or approved values of society, and has a tendency to assign a particular sort of value and standard to persons, actions, intentions, policies and decisions. It aims to produce behaviour and attitude in children that are seen as morally good. It also considers the achievement of this behaviour and attitude as one of the educating values, and one of the indications of its effectiveness.

### **2.2.10.2 The descriptive approach to the education of values**

The descriptive approach to the education of values would define the role of education as mainly describing what can be referred to as "the moral area", for example, a particular category of issues, concerns and activities distinguishable from other categories such as the scientific, or the artistic, or the political, or the religious area. "Moral" in its descriptive sense defines the limits within which "operations in the moral area" should take place. People considering what is morally good, will distinguish between what is moral and non-moral (Cairns *et al.*, 2001:132).

Therefore, the inter-relationship between the learning and teaching of values in schools, supposes that values targeted by teachers are pertinent special conditions for the way the learner should operate. Three conditions have been identified, namely:

- optimal conditions for the integration of values in school-learners' lives will include learners' voluntary commitment;
- values learning must lead to personally transformed relationships between learners and topics considered worth-while;
- since values learning is arguably the core of formal education, there must be some consistency between what is learnt and the wider socio-political scene. Because teaching values is considered as crucial to the whole educational enterprise, the wish is to create consciously internalised, personally and culturally sanctioned guides to action.

What teachers are doing in class should become worthwhile to every learner so that they become good citizens in future. According to the statements above, education is an important process which has a permanent formative effect upon learners, it influences and determines their future and also plays an important role in shaping them (cf, p2). What is taught or communicated to learners during the teaching and learning process should therefore become fruitful to everyone.

### **2.2.11 The characteristics related to home and school in values education**

Home is the primary or original teaching environment, since it is the point of departure for educating and teaching a child, and the school becomes the secondary and didactic environment in which didactic activities are carried out (Fraser *et al.*, 1991:12). Home and school function from different angles, thus they contribute differently. This means that they should agree to work together in various ways to develop a child educationally. They are not in isolation. The school is an institution established and maintained by the society on the behalf of the parents, in order to continue, extend and stabilise the initial and sporadic educative teaching that already begins home (Manye, 2004:18). Importantly, parents are the natural teachers, while teachers are appointed educators (Manye, 2004:18). According to Manye, the following should be characteristics of the link between the school and home:

- the school and home should both try not to override the authority of the other;

- they should encourage a shared commitment to the success of a child;
- they should create an ethos of understanding and openness in home-school relationships;
- teachers should be afforded all respect that is due to them;
- Mutual respect is a prerequisite for good education. If parents and teachers don't accord to each other space in which to work, education will be chaotic;
- the school curriculum should be structured in such a way that it must fulfil all aspirations of the society;
- learners should be taught according to their abilities and interests;
- it is necessary that consensus be reached in all problematic matters so that effective character education can be realized.

The above paragraphs indicate what teachers and parents have to do in order to promote the moral and character of every learner in schools. Teachers and parents are role models to learners, have the obligation to fulfil the concerns of the moral and character education of the taught. Their involvement is perceived as a dynamic process of collaboration for the future of these children/learners. They should provide for the physical, emotional and intellectual well-being of every learner, in order for learners to have a purposeful life when they reach adulthood.

Subsequently, the issue of values and character education will receive some more consideration. The next discussion is based on character and education.

## **2.2.12 Definition of character**

### **2.2.12.1 General definitions**

The definition of character has been the focus of one of the most ancient and persistent questions of ethics, namely: "Who is the good person?". It draws attention to the ethics of being, to those elements in the moral life that reside within a person (Woodbridge, 1990:526). Abdool (2005:54-55) words the definition of character as follows:

- character is connected with the stages of human behaviour over and above intellectuality;
- character can be perceived in the crystallization of specific characteristics;
- character is related to behaviour, thus it is the sum total of behaviour;
- character as limited concept means moral character, that is to say, behaviour in agreement with the conventions and standards of the society;
- character is the outcome of value determination, thus it is not the only collection of qualities, but also holds a dynamic aspect. It includes the relationship, balance and integration of these qualities.

Woodbridge (1990:256) describes the word character as "the sum total of an individual's motives, attitudes, dispositions, habits, and moral values".

Pritchard (1988), as quoted by Woodbridge, defines character as "a complex set of relatively persistent qualities of the individual person". The term has a definite positive connotation when it is used in connection with moral education.

Lickona (1991:50) on the other hand, defines character as "a compatible mix of all those virtues identified by religious traditions, literary stories, the sages, and persons of common sense down through history". According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:24) character is defined to include striving for excellence and striving for ethical behaviour, as a cornerstone of success in school and life.

Character involves engaging in morally relevant conduct or words, or refraining from certain conduct or words, and it is significantly affected by feelings and values, but the final test of good or moral feelings is whether individuals act in an appropriate fashion (Wynne & Walberg, 1985/86:15).

#### **2.2.12.2 Good character attributes**

Woodbridge (1990:526) postulates that beyond a general meaning of the word character, it is difficult to ascertain precisely what people mean by it. According to him, accounts of character in literature commonly give lists of attributes that their authors expressly leave incomplete and often only sketchy, if at all. The following descriptions

are offered by Woodbridge (1990:526) and serve as an illustration of such lists in the field of character education:

*The American Institute of character education (AICE) describes good character in terms of the following attributes:*

"courage, conviction, generosity, kindness, helpfulness, honesty, honour, justice, tolerance, the sound use of time and talent, freedom of choice, freedom of speech, good citizenship, the right to be an individual, and the right of equal opportunity" (Goble & Brooks, 1983).

*Bennett (1986) advocates the following as good character attributes:*

"strength of mind, individuality, independence, moral quality...thoughtfulness, fidelity, kindness, diligence, honesty, fairness, self-discipline, respect for law, and taking of one's guidance by accepted and tested standards of right and wrong rather than by, for example, one's personal preference".

Wynne (1985) proposes a much shorter list of good character traits:

"Tact, honesty, obedience to legitimate authority, perseverance, good humour, and loyalty"

### **2.2.12.3 Virtues as good character traits**

Woodbridge mentions that the "good" traits of character are often called virtues, while the "bad" traits are called vices. Therefore, virtues can be referred as those qualities or traits of human character that are valued or that merit moral approval. McLeod (1986), as quoted by Woodbridge, describes virtue as the quality or practice of moral excellence or righteousness. It includes any of the cardinal virtues (prudence, justice, fortitude and temperance) or theological virtues (faith, hope and love), in fact any admirable quality or trait. He then divides virtues into four different groups. They are:

**Highly specific virtues**, such as punctuality, tidiness, and honesty are the most obvious class of virtues, called habits. They are connected with specific types of behaviour, but lack any built-in reason for acting in such a manner; in other words, they are not motives (Woodbridge, 1990:526).

**Motives for action**, such as compassion, can also be classified as virtues. Woodbridge asserts that it is crucial for the exercise of such virtues that feelings should

be aroused, that one's mind should be actively engaged in bringing about a specific state of affairs.

**More artificial virtues**, such as justice and tolerance, involve more general considerations to do with rights and institutions. Being just, tolerant or prudent involves the intellect. Hence, considerations have to be weighed and assessed (Woodbridge, 1990:526).

**Higher-order virtues**, such as courage, integrity, perseverance etc, have to be exercised in the face of counter-inclinations.

Aristotle, as quoted by Lickona (1991:50), defines good character as the life of right conduct in relation to other persons and in relation to oneself. Character consists of operative values and values in action. We progress in our character as a value becomes a virtue and a reliable inner disposition to respond to situations in a morally good way (Lickona, 1991:51). Values are taught both implicitly and explicitly in our schools. What seems to be missing from most efforts, however, is a holistic focus on the entire person, a mind, body, spirit synergism (Titus, 1994:4).

Character should rather be conceived as having three psychological dimensions that are interrelated: moral knowing, moral feeling, and moral behaviour (Lickona, 1993). Therefore, according to him, good character consists of knowing the good, desiring the good, and doing the good. All these three aspects are necessary for leading a moral life (Abdool, 2005:65; Lickona, 1991:51; Lickona & Davidson, 2003:23). Effective moral and character education should help learners comprehend the core values, adopt or commit to them, and act according to core values in their personal life (Lickona, 1993).

Education is character formation. Arnold (1994) sees the primary end of education as the development of moral character. If the aim is that schooling should become more effective for all learners, not just for those of higher socio-economic level, one of the areas that must be taken into consideration is character education.

#### **2.2.12.4 Character education**

The culture of teaching and learning has broken down, especially in secondary schools (Moloi, 2002:5). According to Lickona (1993) these current problems in our society are so serious that the older concepts of individual responsibility are no longer enough for the immeasurable roles of social reconstruction. Finding solutions to the problem will not

be easy. The deep-seated problems of our learners in schools require the concerted effort of the group. Character education has been cited by many scholars as an efficient and effective tool for teaching and learning. It is perceived as ways through which human personalities are coloured (Abdool, 2005:54). Wynne and Walberg (1988:15-16) and Heath (1994:113) opine that the academic achievements means nothing if character education is not integrated with it.

Edington (2002:113) perceives character education as a synonym to values education. Similarly, Hodge (2002:103) also makes the positive remark that character education is the same as values education and it promotes the quality of an individual and defines the individual's position in a democratic society.

According to Reber (1995:835) character education refers to a part of the educational focus with specific reference to instructions for moral and ethical values in the society.

Woodbridge and Barnard (1990:57) define character education as a pedagogic attempt to assist the learner in acquiring the ability to reflect intelligently on and understand the role of values in human life in both his/her own personal life and society in general.

Robb (1998:11) refers to character education as an activity that can take place in any organisation during which people help each other to make those values underlying their own behaviour explicit and to assess the effectiveness of those values and associated behaviour for their own and other people's long term well-being.

De Klerk and Rens (2003b:362) define character education as a product of not only the interaction between the learner and the teacher, but of many "significant others" inside and outside the school. It includes techniques that are based on theories of moral philosophy and psychology, with the focus on the individual as a moral agent, and it provides process criteria for sound moral judgements (Huckle, 1983:187).

Veugelers (2000:37) feels that character education seeks to strengthen the transfer of values by means of the curriculum and the moral climate in the school. Its main aim is to develop character through all five layers of human personality namely the intellectual, physical, psyche, emotional and spiritual (Noddings 1995:76; Abdool, 2005:44; Oser, 1998:920).

Lickona (1991:55) says that character education involves the identification of appropriate values. This is the responsibility of the schools, educationalist, and society as a whole. It implies adult authority and the transfer of values held by adults and

learners (Titus, 1994:3). Lickona (1996:76; 1999:23) furthermore defines character education as the purposeful effort to develop the youth.

According to the available literature, character and education are two related concepts that cannot be separated (Van Aswegen, 1993:23). Character cannot be divorced from education. Along with this statement, De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357) remarked that the teaching of values cannot be separated from education and education is also inseparable from values (Cairns *et al.*, 2001:31). Education is rightly conceived as having two great goals: to help learners to become smart and to help them become good (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:24; Wynne & Walberg, 1985/86:15). According to Lickona and Davidson, they need character for both. They need character qualities such as diligence, a strong work ethics, and a positive attitude in order to do their best in school and succeed in life. They need qualities such as honesty, respect and fairness in order to live and work with others.

Lickona and Davidson (2005:24) distinguish two types of character, namely the performance character and moral character. By performance character they mean those qualities needed to realise one's potential for excellence to develop one's talents and to achieve goals in school, work and beyond. By moral character they mean those qualities needed to be ethical and to develop just and caring relationships, contribute to community, and assume the responsibility of democratic citizenship. Abdool (2005:54-55) discusses the difference between values education and character education by saying that values education has to do with learners' thoughts, whilst character education concentrates on the child's behaviour. Character education according to him is intrinsically coupled with behaviour.

Schools should not teach character education as a separate course in the school programme, but it must rather be integrated in the school curriculum so that it can play an ever-increasing part in the life of the learners and the school. However, the desire and efforts to change learners' behaviour is not new. Character education that is effectively implemented in schools can help teachers to enhance the behaviour of learners and also to develop the full potential of every learner. It can create a life long learner who is confident, independent, and compassionate and who has the ability to participate in society as an active citizen. Schools will be perceived by such learners as an interesting, rewarding and challenging environment. They will rarely engage themselves in disruptive behaviour, but the reverse can also be true if teachers do not

feel empowered to consider it during their interaction with learners. They may be confronted by behavioural problems in the classroom.

## **2.3 Models for character/moral education**

### **2.3.1 Models**

Moral values form part of a comprehensive value-system, its purpose being to serve the human being. Arnold (1994:77) poses that moral behaviour, unlike other forms of behaviour, is connected with a desire: a truly moral action springs from a desire - free good will guided by a special faculty of moral reason.

Schools and teachers are confronted with the significant task of implanting values in learners. Ethical problems are complex, and therefore values and character-education is not an easy one dimensional issue. According to De Klerk and Rens (2003b:362), this matter involves reflection, decision making, purposeful conduct in the moulding of good habits over time, and building character. Hersh *et al.* (1980:2) asserts morality as not being a choice between good motives, right reason or resolute action; but rather as something composed of social, affective or emotive power. Arnold (1994:76) contends that morality is concerned with our interpersonal relations. It involves a consideration of and concern for others as well as for us, and attempt to distinguish right from wrong and good from bad. Morality is also associated with values and principles that need to be taken into account before choosing or engaging in a particular course of action (Arnold, 1994). Kohlberg (1971:25) as quoted by Arnold (1994) describes morality as the encouragement of a capacity for moral judgement. It is once again concerned with a disposition to act in accordance with whatever moral judgments are made. Rest (1983:556) postulates that: "morality includes the following meanings: (1) behaviour that helps another human-being, (2) behaviour in conformity with social norms, (3) the internalisation of social norms, (4) the arousal of empathy or guilt or both, (5) reasoning about justice, and (6) putting another's interest ahead of one's own." According to Nucci (2001:124) morality, is a matter of understanding what is right. It requires one to act in ways that are consistent with one's moral judgements.

Woodbridge (1990) perceives character education as one of the aspects of moral education. Therefore, moral education refers to the intentional stimulation of moral growth (Arnold, 1994:77). On the other hand, McPhail (1982:31) purports that moral education involves learning to live in society and coming to terms with things as they

are, but it also encourages evaluation, criticism and the effort to change things for the better. A person of good character is someone who attends to the moral implications of actions and act in accordance with what is moral in most circumstances (Nucci, 2001). To be able to form a moral judgment and not to act upon it, is to fall short of what character education entails (Arnold 1994:77). He further expresses his view that character education can clearly be expressed when a moral judgement is translated into an appropriate moral action.

Meakin (1982:65) formulates an important criterion of success in character education when he says that: "it is the degree to which an individual is willing and able to subject a given set of moral rules to his or her own critical scrutiny and decide in the light of reason whether to act on these or on some self-chosen set of rules."

Different models for character education have different claims to success. However, before one can discuss the validity of value models, it is important to know what a model is in itself. According to Hersh *et al.* (1980:7) a model in this regard can be defined as a way of thinking about the process of caring, judging and acting in an educational setting. Such models include aspects of theory about how people develop morally and set strategies or principles for fostering moral development. They also enable people both to comprehend and practice moral and character education (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:7; Smith, 1980:23; Smith, 1989:188). Hattingh (1991:230) explains the function of a model as follows:

"A model, besides classification, also systematises the connection between phenomena and variables. Their main functions are heuristic in nature."

Attention will subsequently be paid to models that can be used in character education and they will be briefly outlined under the divisions' explicit and implicit models.

## **2.3.2 Explicit models**

### **2.3.2.1 The consideration model**

The consideration model is about the influence of behaviour and attitudes (McPhail *et al.* 1975:2; Hersh *et al.*, 1980:7). The aim of character education is to develop an adult's social judgements and behaviour. Moral adulthood is reached when an individual has the ability to help those in need, after considering the meaning of and solutions to social

dilemmas. Learners are advised to learn to consider other people and assist others through the example of the teacher (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:363). According to McPhail *et al.* (1975) and Phiri (2003:23) values are learned through the observation of a person considered as important by the observer. In this regard, this model assumes that moral behaviour is self-enforcing, for example treating others considerately. In a classroom situation, this model emphasizes role play and creative writing as methods for enhancing interpersonal awareness.

“Behaviour and attitudes are contagious in a psychological sense and there is much truth in the maxim that morals are caught, not taught. But an example is a form of education, perhaps its highest form (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b)

A positive example forms the key to the natural moral development of the child and therefore, observation and social modelling are important core concepts in McPhail's approach. When one considers what is written in the work of Nxumalo (1993:55) it is evident that parents and learners consider teachers as self-negative and weak role models with regard to their openly undisciplined and corrupt appearance in schools. They perceive teachers not as moral models, but as uselessly outmoded. McPhail (1975:3) and Ntuli (1999:11) strongly focus on the emotional climate in the classroom. Teachers should strive for a climate that is conducive to feelings of acceptance. An ideal classroom is a therapeutic classroom, where the quality of interaction between teachers and learners are characterised by acceptance, common humanity and the absence of competition (Ntuli, 1999:11). In this regard, character education, according to this model, shows learners that the caring way is the pleasant way.

### **2.3.2.2 The social-action model**

The social-action model was developed by Newmann *et al.* (1977; 4) as his point of departure, for education to lead in responsible citizenship and environmental awareness. The social-action model emphasizes the right of each citizen to exert an influence on public affairs (Newmann, 1975:9). The aim of this model is to empower learners to influence issues of common interest and policy-making (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:364). According to Newmann (1975:9) there is a direct relationship between the ability to exert influence on the environment and the degree to which people can consider themselves as moral agents. A moral agent is defined as someone who deliberately reflects on what he or she ought to do in situations that involve possible

conflicts between self-interests and the interests of others, or between the rights of parties in conflict (Newmann, 1975:9). Environmental competence remains an integral part of moral responsibility (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:364).

The social-action model is based on the acceptance that the development of social-action skills, can promote the democratic process through working on social passivity. Therefore, the role of the teacher is that of the dispenser of information, as well as that of an advisor and activist. This model can only be implemented in a democratic school situation where the right context is created for democratic involvement. According to De Klerk and Rens (2003b:364) this model has already played a role in the restoration of human dignity in South Africa and can still contribute to the changing of society into a more humane one. De Klerk and Rens (2003b:364) on the other hand, postulated that Christians must be involved and has the responsibility to let positive changes take place, not only in broken communities and lives, but also with regard to the surrounding creation.

### **2.3.2.3 The rational building model**

This model casts on the three aspects of morality, and its primary concern is based on the realm of judgment. The model seeks to help teachers in understanding the manner in which values in general, and moral values in particular, affect decisions about instruction and classroom management (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:9). This model helps to provide teachers who want to start moral and character education programmes with inspiration and guidance. It poses basic questions such as: What is a value? What is a moral value? How do the value of a democratic society relate to the decisions teachers make in class?. The “how”, in a general sense, may help teachers to support their learners in developing more meaningful ways of dealing with moral issues (Hersh *et al.*, 1980)?

### **2.3.2.4 Value analysis model**

The value analysis model helps learners to learn by way of a highly systematic step-by-step process for making moral decisions (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:10). It is concerned with the judgment process. The value analysis is beneficial when coming to grips with complex policy issues that lend themselves to moral questions that require social policy research. It is also concerned with the sphere of caring and acting. Value analysis can

best be applied by social studies teachers. This model does not emphasize the concern with acting and judging, it in fact seems too silent concerning this issue.

According to the preceding discussions about these different models, it seems some models involve the processes of caring, judging and acting within the educational setting while others do not. The cognitive moral development, value analysis and rational building approaches are all concerned with the role of critical reflection on the side of teachers as well as learners.

### **2.3.3 Implicit models**

#### **2.3.3.1 The cognitive-developmental model**

Baldwin, as quoted by Kohlberg (1984:7-8) defines "cognitive theories" as theories that postulate a representational or coding process intervening between stimulus and response. Development, according to Adams (1998:31) is used to describe certain kinds of changes during a person's lifespan. These changes include physical growth as well as the capacity to develop better ways of thinking and more socially acceptable ways of behaviour. According to Kohlberg (1984:5-6) cognitive development is defined as a set of assumptions and research strategies common to a variety of specific theories of social and cognitive development, in other words, the moral development of a child as coupled with his cognitive development (Hattingh, 1991:122).

A person moves from one level of moral judgement and reasoning to the next in order to expand his world. Kohlberg (1978) focuses his theory of moral development on the reasoning of children and adolescents in order to specifically determine how moral reasoning changes when confronted with moral dilemmas (Garbarino.1985:167). He also links his cognitive developmental theory of moral reasoning with the practice of character education in schools. Kohlberg (1978) as cited by De Klerk and Rens (2003b:364) came up with the idea that the educators' task is that of being a facilitator of cognitive development by creating opportunities for the learner to reflect on moral dilemmas. The cognitive development model departs from the presupposition that values such as respect for others, integrity with regard for life honesty, charity, obedience to lawful authority and responsibility also form part of the learners' moral preparation, and that a distinction should only be made between various values. The model bases itself on rationality, as a key to assist learners to discover ethical

principles. During this development, progression takes place from an egocentric phase, through a community perspective up to a universal perspective. However, moral reflections do not lead to moral behaviour. Teachers should assist learners in resolving moral conflicts, facilitate learner reasoning, and ensure that discussion takes place in an environment where conditions are conducive to stage growth in moral reasoning. Therefore, Kilpatrick (1992:88) contends that: “the hard part of morality in short, is not knowing what is right, but doing it.”

De Klerk and Rens (2003b:364) support Kohlberg’s (1978:14) initial idea in connection with the development of a program for moral education where the teacher is only a neutral facilitator. However, according to them, Kohlberg later changed his view by saying “my notion was mistaken, the educator must be a socialiser, teaching value content and behaviour, and must not only be a Socratic or Rogerian process facilitator of development”. Teachers are instrumental in the transmission of values. As human beings, they cannot be value neutral. They are in their pedagogical choices and their modelling behaviour, moral educators (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:9). Lickona (1993:7) asserts that Kohlberg’s approach focuses on moral reasoning, which is necessary, but not sufficient for good character, and which underestimates the school’s role as a moral socialiser. The teacher facilitates the learners’ reasoning, assists learners in resolving moral conflicts, and ensures that the discussion takes place in an environment that contains the conditions essential for growth in moral reasoning (Leming, 1993:64).

Kohlberg (1984:14) regards rationality as the key to moral development. Rational discussion enhances learners’ understanding of ethical principles through discussing the rational identity. Kohlberg (1984) also maintains that learners must go through a number of moral developmental phases that are basically parallel, carrying into effect the development of cognitive skills. During this development, there is a progression from an egocentric phase through a societal perspective to a universal perspective (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:24). According to Carl and De Klerk (2001:24), moral reflection does not lead to moral behaviour, “The crux of morality is about the doing of right and wrong and not about the cognitive reasoning” (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:24). This model aims to help learners to think through moral controversy in an increasingly clear and understandable way. Its purpose is to engage individual learner in moral deliberation from the cognitive development point of view. Therefore, caring and acting find considerable expression, but judging remains the primary central concern.

### 2.3.3.2 The value clarification model

The value clarification (V/C) model focuses on designing a curriculum around children's minds (Peckenpaugh, 1977:39). This model is one way of insulating teachers from conflicts in a multi-value classroom. It involves discussion. Teachers must therefore be careful not to impose their value system as the right answer. It seeks to have learners clarify their personal values by following a seven step valuing process. According to this approach, learners are encouraged to choose their own values without any interference from the educator (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:364). Teachers are non-judgmental, they are supposed to facilitate the valuing process and, for fear of influencing learners, with the help of personal opinions. They are also supposed to respect whatever values the learners arrive at (Leming, 1993:64).

The model is strongly influenced by the humanistic human potential movement of Maslow and Rogers, who perceive people as inherently good, with nearly unlimited developmental potential. The teacher is not an exponent of the convergence, not even of advanced value phases, but rather a therapist or facilitator who assists the learners in developing abilities (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:25; Kruger, 1998:15). The objectives of this model are: (1) choosing, (2) prizing, and (3) acting. Learners are encouraged to choose alternative values, to attach their choices to value, and thereafter to take action. According to Hersh *et al.* (1980:9): "judging is a key factor in the model, but it is judging of what one likes and dislikes rather of what one believes to be right or wrong". The model itself is aimed at the healthy person, rather than on the morally cultured or educated person. The social context is not the integral factor in the value determination process, and it views morality in relation to historical, social and philosophical contexts (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:25).

The most significant criticism on the value-clarification (V/C) approach is that it encourages the development of relativity (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:24-25). De Klerk and Rens (2003b:365) also criticise this approach by asserting that it is irreconcilable with Christian convictions, due to the following reasons: to the Christian, "man with his emotions and desires is not the final criterion of good and bad, and right or wrong is not merely a matter of personal taste." The egocentric individualism that is a consequence of this approach should be subordinate to the interpretation of the will of God. The instruction in Proverbs 22:6, as quoted by De Klerk and Rens (2003b:365), "A child should be trained in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not turn from it" is

in direct contrast with the notion of a neutral facilitator, which is a basic tenet of both Kohlberg's first position and of the value-clarification model. According to De Klerk and Rens (2003b:365) education can not be neutral, it is always norm orientated and is about the inculcation of Christian norms and values.

An underlying problem with regard to this approach is the fact that value-neutrality in any educational setting can become immoral, for example, if a teacher does not take a position in the controversy about morality (Carl & De Klerk, 2001:25). According to Carl and De Klerk (2001:25) little attention is paid to moral action and the formation of habits. Bennet and Delattre (1979) as quoted by Carl and De Klerk (2001:25) maintain that: "the problematic nature of the approach is that it denies the important part of morality, which is not the development of decision-making capacities, but the development of what is used to be called character, that is, dispositions and habits of the mind and heart."

Carl and De Klerk (2001:25) identified the positive aspects of the value-clarification approach, as the accentuation of different conflicting values and the significance of tolerance, while De Klerk and Rens (2003b:365) and Kirschenbaum (1977:398) see its foundation as negative moral relativism that encourages selfishness, which is not in accordance with a Christian life-view. The approach actually conditions learners to think of values as relative, and it is perceived as being ineffectual at best and potentially harmful (Kilpatrick, 1992:82).

A point of criticism mentioned by several proponents, such as Lickona (1993:7) amongst others, is that this approach fails to distinguish between personal preference (truly a matter of free choice) and moral values (a matter of obligation).

In the work of Rhodes and Roux (2004:108), Green (2003:109) as well as that of Richard and Baer (1982:18) the evidence shows that value-clarification (V/C) in the United States is regarded as promoting relativism and secularism and even permitting the validation of values that are not in the public interest. It is an approach that is unsuitable for identifying values within the curriculum. Ryan (1989) asserts that this approach to teaching and education could have the following practical implications in the teaching arena and in society:

- Learners eventually benefit from developing clarity about what they value and becoming aware of inconsistencies in their value commitments and in the relationship between their words and deeds.
- Learners benefit from a higher degree of sensitivity on the part of the teachers.
- Teachers are not supposed to operate in the lecture mode at all, or even most of the time. They must concentrate more on trying to comprehend the needs and interests of their individual learners.
- Teachers are supposed to use clarifying and non-directive statements as this will be beneficial in this regard.
- A non-judgmental attitude on the part of the teacher that focuses on the inherent worth of each learner is also regarded as critical for the long-term success.

The values clarification model underestimates the possibility that critical thinking about values in the pluralistic context of public schools can severely retard personal freedom. The pluralistic nature of South African society is reflected in the problems of the South African schools (Abdool, 2005). The sum total of values and belief systems prevalent in the broader society is reflected in the school population. Every teacher is confronted with these values. The teacher either faces the dilemma of not acknowledging any specific values, which amounts to a moral indifference, or actively promoting a value system of his/her own (Abdool, 2005). The values clarification model is regarded as an alternative model, abhorring the indoctrination possibilities of inculcating, and more in keeping with democratic beliefs. Teachers are provided with a variety of classroom strategies and experiences.

Therefore, the performance character as well as moral character of learners are related to the commitment and responsibility of the teacher involved (Grobler & Van der Merwe, 1995:5; Cullingford, 1990:178; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:20). What the foregoing idea entails is an atmosphere in which all learners feel respected, trusted, and free to either speak or remain silent and listen to others. The environment must not pose any threats to learners, but rather create a non-threatening dialogue.

### **2.3.4 Different approaches to character education**

According to Woodbridge and Barnard (1990) various approaches exist in the teaching and learning of character education. Although these approaches do differ, all of them have common characteristics:

Firstly, they are child centred both in their attempts to elicit value statements and behaviours from learners and in the ways in which learners are required to reflect seriously on values and value-laden behaviours as lifestyles.

Secondly, they assume that many values can and often should be developed from within the individual.

Downley and Kelly (1978:156) assert that if teachers agree that the curriculum involves "all the learning that is planned and guided by the school, whether it is carried out in groups or outside the school", they are encouraged to consider not only what learners learn through curriculum content, but also what they learn as an outcome of being in a particular kind of school organised in a particular manner. Therefore, De Klerk and Rens (2003b) emphasise the fact that education at home or at school must take place, if not in a formal way then in an informal way, in accordance with the so-called hidden curriculum. It is hidden either because learners are not aware of what the teacher intends for them to learn as a result of working within a particular school organisation, or because the values and attitudes learned via hidden curricula are not directly intended by teachers, but are merely a by-product of what is planned. Halstead and Taylor (2000:169-171) distinguished the following approaches as suitable for character education in schools.

#### **2.3.4.1 Direct instruction and special study programmes**

According to Halstead and Taylor (2000:179) this approach is based on the belief that adults have the responsibility to instil moral values in children so that they can shape the children's behaviour and can assist them in developing good behaviour. Core values must be identified and opportunities must be offered to study them directly, while instructional processes such as problem solving, cooperative learning, experience-based projects, integrated thematic learning and discussions on ways of putting virtues into practice, as well as more formal instruction should be included (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:181).

#### **2.3.4.2 Discussion**

This approach was found to be widely used, although it has also been reported that some learners see more experiential and less didactic teaching and learning approaches as lower in status (Taylor, 1994:52). Therefore, children with this attitude do not change for example racist views when they are challenged to examine them in open discussion. Halstead and Taylor (2000) suggest that the success of any discussion-based activity depends on the attitudes and interpersonal skills of the learners.

Discussion is particularly directed at modelling and eliciting reasoning at the next level of moral development. The exposure to different moral points of view also stimulates cognitive conflict within the learner's awareness of problematic situations and facilitates movement to a higher level (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:182).

#### **2.3.4.3 Just communities**

According to Halstead and Taylor (2000:182-183), this particular approach focuses on moral climate, developing institutional role-taking and participation in rule making and rule enforcement. Teachers facilitate pro-social norms that centre on the ideal of group solidarity, a commitment to collective norms of care, and a responsibility to promote unity (e.g. developing an ethos of trust). A just communities approach, involves the discussion of real dilemmas experienced within the community and the development of a culture with rules about listening, consideration for others, openness to arguments against one's position, persuasion, resisting pressure and balancing individual and group interest. It offers opportunities for participating in collective decision making about complex moral issues. The just communities approach makes significant demands on teachers, such as the establishment of an open class climate, organising time effectively, enhancing learner interaction and developing probing questioning skills. Learners within this approach are more inclined to identify with the school and to have a greater sense of accountability for its welfare (on a range of criteria, such as stopping stealing and cheating and promoting racial integration).

#### **2.3.4.4 Collective worship**

Halstead and Taylor (2000:183-184) indicate that schools in the UK are required to have at least one daily act of collective worship of a wholly or mainly broadly Christian

character, but many of the secondary schools seem to resist it on ideological or practical grounds. This reveals once more that there is a widespread belief among primary school inspectors that the act of worship, contributes to children's spiritual development (Woods & Woods in Halstead & Taylor, 2000:184), while the religious education advisors believe that the act of worship can contribute to a sense of community, respect and care for others (Taylor, 1989:187: Rhodes & Roux, 2004). According to Halstead and Taylor (2000:184), worship should enable serious reflection on the non-material dimensions of life. Therefore, worship should involve celebration, encourage learners to express thankfulness for the joy of being alive, and give time for exploration of inner space and feelings of transcendence.

#### **2.3.4.5 Extra-curricular activities**

Participation in extra-curricular activities is a source of interest and challenge to learners and may also provide opportunities to explore new roles, cooperation and development of leadership skills (Antes & Nardini, 1998:128; Ntuli, 1999:14). Halstead and Taylor (2000:184) say that the experience of confronting moral issues in real-life structured settings as in community service or of resolving conflicting values and priorities in an intensive residential experience, may be significant for moral development. They also posit that, extra-curricular activities can reflect and support the cultural diversity of learner backgrounds and may be an indispensable alternative route to achievement and self-esteem for adolescents who do not excel academically and for young people with special needs.

This approach is a significant resource for personal and social learning. Among the learning outcomes, the following are recognized: improved motivation; increased self-confidence, self-esteem and self-control; social development; learning to work together and help one another; improved relationships with teachers and other adults; and improved attitudes. However, the participation of learners in extra-curricular activities seems to reduce the risk of learners' moral development. It can also enhance learners' overall educational experience, provide opportunities to work actively, cooperatively and informally; facilitate friendships by working towards a common goal; promote identification with a social group in a more independent and mature way; and develop interpersonal skills (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:184). Extra curricular activities support education indirectly (Van Schalkwyk & Oosthuizen, 1994:138). According to them, these

activities contribute to the creation and the development of a healthy relationship between learners, parents and teachers. It appeals to learners and influences their concentration in class, and also provides the teacher with the necessary themes that can be dealt with.

#### **2.3.4.6 The formation and discussion of classroom and/or school rules**

Halstead and Taylor (2000:185) cited that the discussion of rules should be conducted during circle time or within the school council. Teachers must in this way involve learners in developing school discipline procedures because this will assist the learners in:

- understanding the nature of rules,
- developing their moral reasoning and their understanding of the rights and responsibilities of citizenship,
- empowering them to make informed decisions with regard to their rights and obligations and to be *pro-active in the face of injustice or wrong-doing*,
- developing certain qualities of character, such as a willingness to act in partnership with others and an understanding of the need for self-discipline, and
- contribution to the corporate identity of the school.

#### **2.3.4.7 Circle time**

Circle time is the most popular approach in countries such as Europe and North America with regard to the promotion of confidence, self-knowledge and self-esteem in primary age learners. In addition, researchers such as Canfield (1990), Damon (1991) and Halstead and Taylor (2000:186) assert that self-esteem not only links with an increase in adjustment and happiness, but also with the development of social responsibility. Circle time may also enhance learners to communicate about their feelings, to gain a sense of belonging to a group or community, to develop qualities like trust, responsibility, empathy, cooperation, caring behaviour and respect for the feelings of others, to engage in personal reflection and to clarify their own values (Halstead & Taylor 2000:186). According to this approach, the teacher is supposed to sit in a circle and share ideas and feelings from a position of equality. Circle time generally

contributes towards the development of personal identity, increases self-awareness, fosters democratic values and trains children in the complicated rules of social interaction. Therefore, for circle time to be sustainable, learners must be discouraged from offering superficial contributions and must be motivated to think carefully and build on what has been said before (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:186). Suggestions have been made that the attitude, enthusiasm and social and communicative competence of a teacher is very important in this approach (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:186).

#### **2.3.4.8 Use of stories**

The study of literature and biographies contribute towards the enhancement of moral judgement and character because they expand the moral imagination and develop the emotional side of a child's character (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:186). Stories are considered as having a pertinent role to play towards the child's spiritual development (Kilpatrick, 1992:270-272). Bennett (1983:14) asserts that books "speak" about virtues and how important it is for young people to "live" them. He also confirms that by simply "reading [a] book with or to children can deepen... a [child's] understanding of life and morality". Bennett (1983) as quoted by Kilpatrick (1992:268) agreed that "good books do their own work in their own way". In this manner, Kilpatrick (1992:268) encourages parents as well as teachers to read the stories aloud, but not in a manner that "treat[s] books like doses of moral medicine". In chapter 13 of his work entitled "What schools can do", he indicates that a number of programmes have been identified around the country of which he approves with enthusiasm. Kilpatrick (1992:238) indicates that favours direct methods of teaching character most. These methods include that educators define the virtues in the classrooms, stimulate discussions about the virtues, study people past and present who have demonstrated a desired virtue, and suggest concrete ways of putting a virtue into practice (Nash, 1997). Halstead and Taylor (2000:186) in their study give an example of one of the classrooms with a more conversational style. Learners in the elementary stage were more inclined than those in a conventional class to initiate discussions of the values implications of texts. According to these proponents, teachers require considerable teacher preparation, open-ended questioning, clarifying, summarising, building on learners' contributions and encouraging learners to respond to one another.

#### **2.3.4.9 Personal narratives**

According to proponents such as Halstead and Taylor (2000:187) the personal narratives approach involves the view that individuals give meaning to their own life experiences by representing them as narratives. The role that the teacher has to play in this regard is that of an open and non-judgmental listener, working alongside with learners in order to co-construct the story with them, to acknowledge the moral choices, actions and feelings and understand the moral lesson inherent in these stories (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:187). Therefore this approach built the self-esteem of learners.

#### **2.3.4.10 Peer mediation**

Peer mediation is an approach that encourages learners to address their conflict situations such as bullying, poor discipline and communication problems within schools (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:187). This approach can defuse tension, hostility and violence and transform schools into more cooperation situations with learners getting involved in learning a wide range of skills. According to their research, this approach in the EQUIP-program has provided a three-part training approach to adolescents with behaviour disorders (for example, moral judgement development, anger management, correction of thinking errors, pro-social skills development) and encouraged learners to assist one another, as well as reducing misconduct, though it hasn't yet been evaluated in a school setting.

#### **2.3.4.11 Philosophy for children**

Epanchin *et al.* (1998:37) define philosophy as the underlying belief system, the principles that guide our action. The aim of this approach is to strengthen learner's reasoning by moral judgement by teaching them about discussion techniques, conceptual analysis, formulation of definitions, and the use of examples (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:188). Learners are considered, however, to identify issues they wish to discuss from philosophical novels.

Generally, researchers conceive the different models and approaches to character education as relatively important. These models and approaches can provide a comprehensive procedure that can in the long run, inform teachers during their interaction with learners, if they can be considered seriously and applied effectively

during the teaching and learning process. Eventually there can be reason for optimism that can increase through learners' educational attainment. Thus, they can have a beneficial effect in the future of every learner. Good learner achievement and performance can be increased. The models and approaches can increase academic achievement and performance, when teachers are willing to provide enough challenges through a variety of approaches to interest learners and when they ensure learner participation. They focus on improving the personal well-being of every learner because learners do not only get information about what is wrong and right, they are taught how to handle things, how to cope with problems in their daily lives.

## **2.4 The department of education's initiative in character education**

### **2.4.1 Fundamental constitutional values**

During the year 2000 the Minister of Education appointed a task team under the leadership of Professor J. Willmot, to investigate how value education in the primary and secondary schools take place. His idea was based on the fact that the establishment of values must be integrated with the different cultural, language and religious groups in order to bring a new identification that define us as a new nation. The Manifesto on Values in Education and Democracy (2001) and the Working Group Committee on Values (September, 2000) identified ten significant values considered as fundamental values of the constitution as a point of departure. These values are: *democracy, social justice and equity, non-racism, human dignity (ubuntu), an open society, accountability (responsibility), respect, the rule of law, and reconciliation*. However, the establishment of these values cannot take place in a vacuum. The educational philosophy highlights three important elements in the Values, Education and Democracy document (DoE, 2000b:12; James, 1998:1). They are:

**Firstly** to develop the intellectual abilities and critical faculties of children and young adults in schools;

**Secondly** to develop the diversity in culture and ethos in schools that can actively involve all learners in the formal and informal aspects of school life;

**Thirdly** to provide or equip learners with tools (i.e. skills) to deal with many issues that comes with being human throughout the circle of life.

As a starting point, it is important to understand the above-mentioned ten values of the document as they are defined. Different scholars contribute the following:

**Democracy** is defined as a sphere for social and political life in which people may enjoy equal opportunities and are engaged in self-development, self-fulfilment, and self-determination, and it is a representative system of political decision-making. According to Waghid (2002:31) the above-mentioned concepts represent values such as liberty and equality, as well as the collective decisions with regard to the community as a whole made by elected by members of the community. Rhodes and Roux (2004:26) and Nieuwenhuis (2004) indicate that the education system can only be recognised to have accountability in promoting the values of democracy and to influence the development of the youth of South Africa towards higher levels of moral judgement. Democracy is itself, a value network in which all paths lead to the ground of dignity. However, if a teacher wants to teach in a democratic environment, he or she must be able to deal with the implications of democratic values on a daily basis. The nature of values and character education is intimately connected to the nature of democracy. For teachers to become effective moral educators, they need a firm understanding of the values in connection with the values dimensions of a democratic society. Learners should feel free to interact with every person within the classroom, feeling free to have a conversation or discussion in the class.

**Social justice and equity** “are social-moral values which are aimed ensuring that values should serve interpersonal relationships (respect, fairness)” (Beckman & Nieuwenhuis, 2004:60). Most children are supported through these fundamental values, and schools are the places where the government must ensure that every child’s needs are met. Within the classroom, teachers should treat their learners fairly and with respect. If these two values are properly handled in the classroom, then learning will take place effectively without any occurrence of learner misbehaviour.

**Equality** involves the reconciliation of differences and variety among individuals (Fielding, 2000:400). It allows everyone to see themselves not as homogenous, but as individuals with “equal worth”. According to the country’s constitution, the indication reflects that everybody is regarded as equals and there must not be any discrimination against them, irrespective of race, gender, marriage-status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, culture, language, and birth. Therefore, teachers should take cultural diversity seriously in the classroom. No learner must

be prejudiced according to his or her culture in the classroom situation. They should be treated equally as human beings.

**Non-racism and non-sexism** is the social-moral values that regulate interpersonal relationship and are grounded in values such as respect and loyalty (Beckman & Nieuwenhuis, 2004:60). The implementation of these values in education shows that every citizen in this country must have equal opportunities. With regard to non-sexism, it also means that teachers and learners who are victims of sexual harassment in schools must feel safe and know that there will be no further discrimination against them.

**Ubuntu (human dignity)** entails equipping learners with loyalty and honesty, respect for others and properties, respect for human dignity, tolerance of differences, and sensitivity towards the needs and requirements of others. It instils compassion and enthusiasm for life. Again, Ubuntu concentrates on the establishment of relationships between different persons and groups (Zulu *et al.*, 2004:174). It comprises our humanity, ability to care, hospitality, our sense of connectedness, and our sense that our humanity is tied together. Therefore the basic moral value that under girds and sustains a democracy is the principle of human or individual dignity. In the classroom individual learners deserve consideration by virtue of his or her humanity apart from considerations of race, sex, physical or intellectual ability and wealth. Learners should get equal respect from every teacher. They should be treated fairly and honestly.

**An open society** “is a proceeding of conduct based on the idea that the state and its representative must become transparent and avoids secrets, negotiations and actions” (Beckman & Nieuwenhuis, 2004:60). These values go hand in hand with accountability and responsibility. The school curriculum must promote critical thought through class and group discussions of controversial matters so that children can acquire a spirit of understanding with regard to how others think (Abdool, 2005:58). Class meetings come into the picture since they teach learners too openly (freely) take part in discussing difficult issues they are faced with.

**Accountability (responsibility)** refers to the “ability to respond”. It includes orienting meaning toward others, paying attention to them, actively responding to their needs and it emphasises our positive obligation to care for each other (Lickona, 1991:45). The constitution emphasises public administration as something that should also be included in the public school system to promote the values and principles of professionalism, responsibility and accountability, affectivity, equality, transparency.

**Respect** means showing regard for the worth of someone or something (Lickona, 1991:45; Abdool, 2005:77). According to Beckman and Nieuwenhuis (2004:60) respect refers to interpersonal values as the foundation on which all human interactions are built. Schools cannot function properly if there is no sign that respect exists among parents, learners and teachers. Learners must be taught how to take others into perspective, considering them as human beings. The teacher must emphasize taking perspective in the classroom.

The **“rule of law”** is in connection with natural law through justice and fairness; both are indispensable for order and a safe environment (Beckman & Nieuwenhuis, 2004:69). The laws of the country apply to the education system as well. Learners and teachers should serve according to the code of conduct of that particular school for effective teaching and learning to become possible. If justice and fairness is reflected towards every learner in the classroom, then learners feel the joy of teaching and learning.

**“Reconciliation”** is not a value or natural law, but can rather be seen as a mechanism that is aimed at healing the wounds of the past. Without such reconciliation, the laws and values will remain uncovered by the ground rules protected by the authority (Beckman & Nieuwenhuis, 2004:60). The acceptance of all South Africans should take place according to various cultures and traditions. Within the classroom situation, teachers can only enhance reconciliation among learners, when moral conflicts arise. Learners have to be taught how to consider the mistakes of other learners in an emphatic way.

However, some researchers criticise the above-mentioned values with regard to their application within educational settings. De Klerk and Rens (2003b:366) support the idea that these values seem to be promising, but for the values to actually make a difference in schools, the following suggestions have been made for teachers:

- an understanding of these principles;
- a willingness to live accordingly;
- a civilised degree of moral literacy, accompanied by
- a culture of learning and teaching.

According to the discussion above it is clear that, these value systems were constructed by the government with the goal of enhancing nation building. They also focus on how to convert our core social values into educational practice in practical ways. De Klerk and Rens (2003b:368) argue against this statement when they assert that these values are socially constructed by politicians and anchored in a human rights philosophy. Their consideration with regard to this approach is that it contains certain implicit weaknesses because of its dependence on the political process and they deem it historically based on an implicit morality.

#### **2.4.2 The results of the Tirisano program**

In his speech the Minister of Education (DoE, 2002), reflected on positive avenues through which the Tirisano program could be delivered. These avenues are as follows:

- parents, learners and teachers must work together and have ownership of the school as well as classrooms,
- learners must not be seen roaming the streets during school hours and even after school. Instead, after school they should participate in extra-mural activities,
- schools should be able to improve matric results every year,
- the working environment must become more peaceful,
- the community should take the responsibility for the maintenance of school buildings, properties and premises,
- provinces are busy with reparations to the existing school buildings,
- support materials will be provided to increase the level of knowledge of learners,
- admission numbers to higher education institutions of learners who want to further their studies has increased.

With regard to the preceding information, it seems that the difficulties in the Department of Education still exist. The problems experienced are complex and so far they have not been resolved. However, if character education can be taken seriously and be properly implemented in the education system, most difficulties can be addressed and

minimised. The next subsection concentrates on the discussion of life values and the curriculum as part of character education in schools.

### **2.4.3 Life values and the curriculum**

Value-free curricula, if possible, might confuse some of the critics of character education. Yet teachers know very well that our teaching profession is value laden (Titus, 1994:5). However, in every action we take as teachers and as authority figures we convey ethical principles to our learners. In this hidden or informal curriculum, which is not explicitly taught but often well learnt by learners, values are central (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:356; Titus, 1994:5; Tonelson, 1981:96). These scholars contend that through personal example, reinforcement of learner behaviour, selection of subject matter, and the design of a just school environment, teachers can continue to transmit values in the way that great teachers have always done. Therefore, research reveals that the learning environment (for example a classroom) is often referred to as part of the invisible curriculum, and can have a positive effect on learner pro-social values.

A study of values in South African schools is crucial and motivated by behaviour in the classroom as well as within the school premise (Rhodes, 2003:23). Rhodes and Roux (2004:25) indicate that values and belief contents are always part and parcel of education. Hill (1991:4) defines values as the beliefs held by individuals to which they attach special priority or worth and according to which they tend to order their lives. A value is more than a belief, but it is also more than a feeling (Rhodes, 2003:23; Llale, 2003:2). Education is a value statement (Rhodes, 2003:23). Therefore, education cannot and should not be value free (Cairns *et al.*, 2001:1; De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:357). Taking this into consideration, Rhodes (2003:23) and Llale (2003:31) insists that the school curriculum should encourage the spiritual, moral and cultural, as well as the mental and physical development of learners and society. A set of shared values that is promoted through the curriculum should lie at the heart of every school's educational and pastoral policy and should be practiced through expectations governing the behaviour of learners and teachers and through day-to-day contact between them (Cairns *et al.*, 2001:31).

The coherence between education and values is both undeniable and complex (Cairns *et al.*, 2001:31). Cairns *et al.* (2001:31) states the view that values abound everywhere in education, they are involved in every aspect of school practice, and they are basic to

all matters. Using values, teachers evaluate learners and learners evaluate teachers. Society evaluates the course of the study, the school programs and teacher competence. The teachers evaluate society itself. However, in this relationship between values and education, Cairns *et al.* (2001:31) emphasise that “education is turning towards values. It is for values it has to be. As soon as values are deleted, education is deleted.” No values, no education and where there is real education, there are genuine human values.

Fowler *et al.* (1990:52) and De Klerk and Rens (2003b), posit that educational values are grounded in life values developed in the context of a worldview at the heart of which is a religious commitment of one kind or another. According to Beck (1990:7) the purpose of schooling is to promote human well being since education is for life. Schooling currently takes up a large part of the young person’s life, and therefore the goals of the school should cover a wide range of human concerns. They should reflect the priorities of life in general (Beck, 1990:7).

#### **2.4.4 The integration of values in the curriculum**

Schools are considered as social institutions, designed to prepare future citizens of the society and they are often given the responsibility of addressing social ills. However, a school curriculum in this regard, is perceived as the vehicle through which these problems can be addressed (Epanchin *et al.*, 1994:54). The most fundamental concern of schooling is the curriculum. Therefore, parents as well as the community, express their concern about what schools are for and what they should teach. All of these groups attend to one thing: i.e. the curriculum (Orstein, 1982:404).

According to Rhodes (2003:65-68), the curriculum needs to reflect the values and principles of the democratic South African society. The National Curriculum Statement (NCS: 2002), reflects values as integrated in all eight learning areas, with the focus of the school curriculum falling on knowledge, skills and values. Teachers have to facilitate these different values and belief systems into all learning areas across the curriculum (Rhodes, 2003:65; Rhodes & Roux, 2004:24). Therefore, values underlie the educational process. One way of achieving the educational outcomes set out in the NCS (2002) and the Manifesto on Values in Education (2002), is to implement them in the curriculum (Rhodes & Roux, 2004:26). De Klerk and Rens (2003b:355) indicate that values are in the first place, the result of the application of a person’s principles, which

he or she obtains from his/her worldview, and which is grounded in his/her religion. Hattingh (1991:144 -210) and Bagarette (1995:60) identify several different types of values that are considered as appropriate in the development of human beings. According to Hattingh (1991:144) and Bagarette (1995:60) twenty life values have been identified. Before dealing with values in the curriculum, the researcher will attempt to outline the curriculum as laid out by different proponents.

Fraser *et al.* (1991:82) defines a curriculum as the interrelated totality of aims, learning content, evaluation procedures and teaching-learning activities, opportunities and experiences that guide and implement the didactic activities in a planned and justified manner.

In Carl's work (1995:31), lists pertaining to the definitions of the concept by different scholars occur as follows:

Carl (1995:31) refers to curriculum, as the sum total of the means through which a student is guided to attain the intellectual and moral discipline required by an intelligent citizen in a free society, and it encompasses all of the learning experiences that students acquire from schooling.

Tunmer (1981), as quoted by Carl (1995:31), also define the curriculum as the whole spectrum of compulsory and optional activities that are formally planned for students.

The term curriculum is thus a broad concept that includes all planned activities and subject courses that take place during a normal school day. It also includes after-school planned activities such as societies and sport. All of these activities take place within a specific system that is continuously subject to evaluation and which aims to lead and accompany the child to adulthood, so that he/she can be a useful citizen within the community (Carl, 1995:32).

Wynne and Ryan (1993:135) equate a curriculum to a "moral educator", meaning a curriculum must include all the events and activities experienced by learners during their school years. In this regard, every curriculum should reflect the universal "moral facts of life," those that transcend from precepts crucial for people to live in harmony and peace with others (Nash, 1988).

Carl (1995:33, 2002:26) asserts that the formless use of the term curriculum has given rise to different interpretations.

Oliva (1988:5-6) refers to the curriculum as:

- study program;
- what is taught in the school;
- sequence of successive school subjects/study courses;
- the total package of study material, and
- content

Barrow (1984:11) as well as Beaucamp (1981:95) defines the curriculum as a program of activities (for teachers and pupils) so designed that learners will, as far as possible, achieve specific educational and other school objectives.

McNeil (1977:155) states that the term curriculum refers to the sequencing, ordering, and integration of learning opportunities so that the intended outcomes are achieved.

Nash (1997:24) conceives curriculum as a body of disciplines and activities that are basically intellectual and moral in nature.

Rogers (1985:121) made the assertion that the curriculum is a text for pedagogy, that is, it codifies the basic meaning of the educational process in question, the selection and organisation of what is taught, and the method for instruction.

McNeill (1977:292) extended his view of the curriculum due to his concern about the relationship between the course of study, teaching, and the learner's role. According to McNeill (1977:293) curriculum development is a means to help teachers to apply their daily tasks of instruction according to the best of what is known about the subject matter, the interests of children, and contemporary social needs.

Orstein (1982:404) gives two different definitions of curriculum. Firstly, it is a body of content or subject matter leading to certain achievement outcomes or products; secondly, he equates curriculum with the learner and his or her needs; the concern is with process, i.e., the climate of the classroom and school.

Jacobs and Gawe (1996:35) then equates curriculum to "the running of a race". According to them, its root meaning is described as "a course to be run".

Therefore, values are regarded as products of culture generated by both individuals and groups. Individuals acquire certain values through a process of acculturation while others are acquired didactically (Beaucamp, 1981:95). According to the research done by Rhodes and Roux (2004:25-29) with regard to C2005 (1997) and NCS (2002), the evidence shows that values are integrated in all eight learning areas across the curriculum. These values underlie the educational process. The integration of values in the curriculum can serve to strengthen the transfer of values in education. In all teaching, there is a choice of lesson content that reflects the underlying judgements about what is thought to be worthwhile, effective, relevant and important in the educational process. The curriculum is value-laden and that teachers are expected to handle this value burden to the best of their professional ability, and this can be considered as a requisite of sound development. Although value education is extensive and complicated, it entails making people aware of values, as well as clarifying and integrating them. One way of achieving the educational outcomes set out in the NCS (2002) and the Manifesto on Values in Education, is to implement different values across the curriculum (Rhodes & Roux, 2004:26). In this regard, the work of Rhodes (2003) is chosen to serve as a good illustration concerning value identification across the curriculum. They are discussed as follows:

## **2.4.5 Identification of values across the curriculum**

### **2.4.5.1 Values identified in the learning area of Language and Literacy (LLC)**

The rationale for this learning outcome includes, that learners should be able to respond with empathy to the thoughts and emotions of others (Rhodes, 2003:14). In addition, the curriculum (C2005, 1997) purports that learners should develop and reflect critically on values and attitudes.

Values associated with this learning area are: aesthetic values, affective values, cultural values and social values.

In this regard, language literacy is crucial because people use it as a means to communicate. They express themselves in a language and acquire knowledge and skills through their ability to communicate (Rhodes, 2003:14).

#### **2.4.5.2 Values identified in the learning area of Human and Social Sciences (HSS)**

Human and social sciences, according to Rhodes (2003:14) and C2005 (1997), comprises the study of the relationship among people and that of their environment.

Values associated with this learning area are: religious values, time values, social values, political values, legal values, economic values and environmental values.

However, learners' beliefs and value systems will have an influence on their interaction with people (Rhodes, 2003:14).

#### **2.4.5.3 Values identified in the learning area of Technology (TECH)**

Technology refers to the use of knowledge, skills, and resources to meet human needs and wants, and to recognise and solve problems by investigating, designing, developing and evaluating products, processes and systems as an instrument to fulfil human needs (C2005, 1997; Rhodes, 2003:14). Therefore, the role of culture, religion and the values of any society need to be taken into consideration whenever a decision about technology is taken on behalf of a society (Rhodes, 2003:14).

Values associated with this learning area are: moral values, social values, economic values, aesthetical values, occupational values, and cultural values. According to Rhodes (2003:14) ethics pertain to right and wrong, and this reflects the need to educate learners so that they may have a value-system that would permit them to make proper decisions.

#### **2.4.5.4 Values identified in the learning area of Arts and Culture (A+C)**

Curriculum 2005 (C2005, 1997) defines arts and culture as an integral part of life, embracing the spiritual, material and emotional aspects of human society. Rhodes (2003:14) asserts that culture is not only embodied in expression through arts, but also through modes of life, behaviour patterns, heritage, and knowledge and belief system.

Values associated with this learning area are: religious values, moral values, life values, aesthetic values, emotional values, authority values, and intellectual values.

#### **2.4.5.5 Values identified in the learning area of Natural Sciences (NS)**

Natural sciences refer to the essential competencies, attitudes and values that learners should require and develop (Rhodes, 2003:14; C2005, 1997). Therefore learners are expected to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of ethical issues, bias and inequalities related to the natural sciences. The ethical and religious values of a group or individual is crucial for relating to different groups and cultures (Rhodes, 2003:14; C2005, 1997).

Values associated with this learning area are: moral values, religious values, environmental values, social values and intellectual values.

#### **2.4.5.6 Values identified in the learning area of Life Orientation (LO)**

Life orientation is defined as a life-long journey into different aspects of life (Rhodes, 2003:16). Furthermore, Rhodes refers to orientation as an act of determining one's position literally and figuratively. In his work, Rhodes identifies the goals of Life Orientation as follows:

- to prepare learners to have specific skills to handle difficult situations in personal and community life.
- to provide guidelines regarding matters that are essential and important in order to have positive lifestyle.
- to promote the development of coherence with our environment and the different cultural groups that constitutes the South African society.

Values associated with this learning area are: cultural values, health values, social values, personal values, recreational values, life values, moral values, physical values, occupational values, intellectual values and religious values.

#### **2.4.5.7 Values identified in the learning area of Economic and Management Sciences (EMS)**

Economic management sciences refer to the study of the use of different types of resources efficiently and effectively in satisfying people's basic needs and wants, while

reflecting critically on the impact of resource exploitation on the environment and people (NCS, 2002:18; Rhodes, 2003:16). Learners are required to develop the basic skills and knowledge needed to manage their lives and their environment effectively. They should be able to understand the basics of an economy and how it works. They should develop basic entrepreneurship, financial management and planning skills to operate effectively in the economy (Rhodes, 2003:16). The aim of EMS is also to equip learners with the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that would enable them to adapt, participate and survive in an economically complex society (Rhodes, 2003:16; Rhodes & Roux, 2004:24).

Values are actually regarded as the starting point in curriculum decision-making and they also become the criteria for selection of curriculum aims (Beaucamp, 1981:95). They direct the character of school aims as well as part of the culture content of the curriculum.

#### **2.4.5.8 Values identified in the learning area of Mathematics (MLMMS)**

According to NCS (2002:19) Mathematics is defined as having its own specialised language that uses symbols and notations for describing numerical, geometrical and graphical relations. Its ideas and concepts build on one another towards creating a coherent whole.

The initial value found in this learning area is the right of access to Mathematics (cf. Constitution, 1996). There are also some requirements for teachers. They should attempt to incorporate a context that could build awareness of human rights and social, economic and environmental issues relevant to learners.

According to the above mentioned information, it is clear that values do exist in all learning areas taught at school. Straughan and Wringley (1980:79-80) refers to educational values as values to which we appeal in judging the worth of action, programmes and products, which we claim to be conducive for the education of the child. According to Cairns *et al* (2001), a set of shared values, which is promoted through the curriculum, should lie at the heart of every school's educational and pastoral policy and practice. However, according the current prevailing atmosphere in South African communities, schools appear not to be effective value instruments. Their values are totally not supported by agents outside the school premises. Learners are not able to make value judgement and as a result, will make poor choices without receiving any

support/guidance concerning values. Therefore, as already mentioned in this study, the purpose of schooling is to promote human well-being, as education is for life. As schooling currently and increasingly takes up a large part of the young person's life, the goals of the school should cover a wide range of human concerns (Beck, 1990:7-8). Constitutionally, values have been identified amongst South African societies, but, the question that still remains is that, if teachers are to teach values, whose/which values should they instill? This brings about some confusion amongst teachers. It therefore becomes crucial to have a critical controversy about common values to be taught to learners and also an agreement to be reached on values that can be identified amongst the society. According to Taylor (1996), schools should however, aim to produce in children, a state of mind, which is open, flexible, receptive and sensitive to change. Therefore, education about values and where there is real education, there are genuine human values (Ward in Cairns *et al*, 2001).

#### **2.4.6 Strategies for character education in schools as proposed by the DoE**

Values and culture are regarded as interactive and intertwined with each other (Bagarette, 1995:75; Hattingh, 1991:121; Van Aswegen, 1993:34). The coherence between values, culture and education are not always very simple to define. This coherence between values, culture and education is expressed in the national educational document and are not open for discussion. Therefore, education is centred on values. The education system, curriculum, assessment criteria and educational practices indicate what the society and policy makers identified as pertinent (Rhodes, 2003:47). In the following subsection, attention will be given to the sixteen strategies to implemented value education in schools as well as in the learning environment. These strategies have been identified in the Manifesto on values, education and democracy (DoE, 2001b:11 -178). They are discussed as follows:

##### **2.4.6.1 Nurturing a culture of communication and participation in schools**

During the Saamtrek conference (DoE, 2001) Professor Kader Asmal made a remark that values cannot be maintained, if they are not put on the table and discussed. Dialogue between learners, teachers and parents is what is missing in South African schools. If communication can take place effectively, then there will be a better gearing

between teachers and the education authority. Nurturing a culture of communication and participation in schools implies the opening up of channels between parents, educators, learners and officials (DoE, 2001).

#### **2.4.6.2 Role-Modelling: Promoting commitment as well as competence among educators**

Mandela (2001:56) contends that one of the most powerful ways in which children and young adults can acquire values is to see individuals they regard with esteem and respect and exemplifying those values in their own being and conduct. In the document The norms and standards for teachers (DoE, 2002) there are seven specific roles that should be fulfilled by an aspiring teacher. The code of conduct of the South African Council for Education also stands as a body in this regard, since the reflection that teachers should have is fully defined. Parents, educators and politicians who say one thing and do another, send mixed messages to those in their charge, who then learn not to trust them (Mandela, 2001). Teaching learners to identify and comprehend their values and value system enables them to function well in society. However, a dedicated teacher or parent knows that the relationship of trust and fellowship will develop only when educators and learners become partners in the vocation of schooling (Mandela, 2001:56).

#### **2.4.6.3 Ensuring that every South African is able to read, write, count and think**

The DoE (2002a:61) asserts that “the main business of education is the activation rather than the staffing of the mind”. If a citizen does not have the ability to read, write count and think, it will be impossible to participate effectively in democracy and in society, and it is therefore impossible to internalise and to live out the values of the constitution (DoE, 2001a).

#### **2.4.6.4 Ensuring equal access to education**

With the launching of the Tirisano-program in 2000 (DoE, 2000) the problem of inequalities in the education system was discovered. Various schools, especially in the black community, do not have enough resources and effective facilities as compared to white schools. Learners travel long distances without any transportation before they can reach the school. If learners do not achieve success, their future is doomed. According

to report given by the Department of Education in connection with the quintal system, disadvantaged schools receive 35% and wealthy schools only 20%. If the problems of equality form part of the discussion in education, then values of justice and equality will also come into play.

#### **2.4.6.5 Infusing the classroom with a culture of human rights**

According to the Department of Education (2001:178) 78, 4% of teachers indicate that the values of human rights and democracy in schools are over-emphasized, and this leads to discipline problems within the classroom (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b; Wolhuter & Steyn, 2004). Children's rights also lead to learners undermining teachers' and parents' authority. The value of respect must be coupled so that both learners and teachers should understand what exactly their roles and responsibilities are.

#### **2.4.6.6 Making arts and culture part of the curriculum**

When learners are empowered through arts and culture, it gives a meaning in the form of music, drama, dance, and visual art when language alone proves itself incapable.

#### **2.4.6.7 Putting history back into the curriculum**

The task team appointed by the Minister of Education, states clearly that promoting history in schools should be encouraged in order to establish values in society. History is a learning area through which values and norms can be formed, because by developing learners' understanding of the past, the picture of diversity can be corrected and value and respect for each other can be established. If learners are taught to think historically, their focus must be drawn to the social and moral climate of the period they are concerned with. They must be encouraged to reflect on the motives, aims and intentions of the great figures of the past (Downey & Kelley, 1978:168). By doing this, they become involved in the questions of moral attitudes, feelings and conduct.

#### **2.4.6.8 Introducing religious education into schools**

According to school management, there seems to be no place for the promotion of religious education within the classroom because of the diversity amongst the pupils (Abdool, 2005:63). What schools must do is to nurture learners' acquaintance with

different religions within the South African context. According to Downey and Kelley (1978:170) there are similarities that exist between religion and morality. Both are concerned with attitudes, intentions and questions of values; both appeal to the emotions of guilt, remorse, and respect in the case of morality; awe and wonder in the case of religion (Downey & Kelley, 1978:170). Through religious education, values such as diversity, tolerance, respect, justice, compassion and dedication can possibly be promoted (Abdool, 2005).

#### **2.4.6.9 Using sport to shape social bonds and nurture nation building at schools**

Sport promotes the physical well-being of an individual as well as that of the group. It also promotes tolerance and trust and affirms respect between individuals (DoE, 2001a). It teaches learners about values and to value each others' talents (Abdool, 2005:63).

#### **2.4.6.10 Promoting anti-racism in schools**

According to Abdool (2005:64) non-racism is not the only answer to the problem, but differences and disputes must be bridged and in a democratic society, individuals should be respected regardless of their culture and language.

#### **2.4.6.11 Freeing the potential of girls as well as boys**

Through promotion of these values, boys and girls find the same opportunity in connection with certain occupations, subject-disciplines and ambitions (Abdool, 2005). He asserts that opportunities must be created in schools for girls to realise themselves. Therefore, sexual assault and devastation must be suspended as they may lead girls to become apprehensive. Girls and boys must therefore get equal opportunities and they must also be treated as equals in education.

#### **2.4.6.12 Dealing with HIV/AIDS and nurturing a culture of sexual and social responsibility**

HIV/AIDS has been strongly debated in the Tirisano programme. Through adding knowledge, skills, and value to our learners' awareness of the disease, teachers can

change the attitude of learners and also reduce the spreading of HIV/AIDS. Therefore, our learners must know what impact HIV/AIDS has on the individual as well as the society in general.

#### **2.4.6.13 Making the schools safe to learn and teach in, and ensuring the rule of law in schools**

The Department of Education (2001) regards safety and security at school as essential to learning and teaching. However, for effective teaching and learning to take place there must be a prevailing atmosphere where everybody feels safe. To promote law enforcement does not mean to manage school in an autocratic way, but rather to implement a system where responsibility and accountability are well defined (Abdool, 2005:65). Discipline and justice must have a sense of common purpose within the society (DoE, 2001).

#### **2.4.6.14 Ethics and the environment**

Just the same way South African citizens have the responsibility to promote democracy in order to enjoy the benefits, there is also the responsibility of saving the environment so as to promote and ensure healthy living (Abdool, 2005:66).

#### **2.4.6.15 Nurturing the new patriotism, or affirming our common citizenship**

In the new democratic society, new patriotism means to be filled with pride in our country as well as our South African nation (Abdool, 2005:66). According to Abdool (2005:66) a collective acknowledgement must exist for the transformation of non-racism, non-sexism, and a prosperous country. Therefore, pride must be considered as a key to a healthy society and it must also become a symbol in general of loyalty towards our schools, values, citizens, sport-participation and prosperity of the country (DoE, 2001).

#### **2.4.6.16 Personal comments**

For a value to be a value with personal force, it must somehow relate to a person's characteristic behaviours. It should be more than an ideal to which we notionally aspire (Silcock & Duncan, 2001:245). Unless we insist on this distinction, holding views can

stand as having bone fide values. Even though we are regularly culpable of morally flawed actions and values, teaching can degrade to a situation where a narrow learner performance proclaims success, but what is learned in no manner governs learners' lives. Therefore, what needs to be studied are those educational conditions necessary for learners to make firm commitments to principles, ideals and perspectives that stand some chance of underpinning their lives in the long-term.

## **2.5 Conclusion**

Over and above, the mentioned values in the literature regarding the South African constitution, the application of values in the educational system does not seem to be promising at this stage because of the changes made to our school curriculum. They are not properly implemented for the benefit of either the learners or teachers. Such changes have caused considerable misunderstanding between the parties because both teachers and learners are no longer prepared to do what they are supposed to do. For example, the work ethics and academic performance of both parties is not up to standard, but poorly developed. Learners and teachers today do not take their responsibilities seriously. Learners perform poorly academically. Reading skills and discipline for learners are the major issues in this regard. This revealed that teachers are not doing their work because of the new curriculum being used in the educational setting. The curriculum itself has been wrongly implemented in our schools. Our curriculum should have first of all been assessed and evaluated by the people concerned, before taking another countries' educational system and implementing it here. Enough skills training could have been done for teachers before it was implemented. The skills training teachers received recently is not enough? Even though the curriculum has been reviewed, the problem remains the same. Therefore, something has to be done to get teachers and learners back into the right track. Learners have to understand what these values mean for their real life. This can be addressed only by the educational top authorities, who have come up with the decision that these values must be applied in the life of each school.

From this chapter it is evident that education experiences problems about the child/learner's ability in developing areas of personal choice in relation to social and moral behaviour. Values, character, and education are components that play a significant role in people's lives. Therefore, for young children/learners to develop positive values, it is the duty of parents, teachers, schools, administrators, church

leaders, political leaders together with the community to play an important role in their development. In essence, these positive values will enhance the learners' understanding about the difference between good or bad, right or wrong. However, every child/learner's education starts at home. Parents as the primary institution have as well an obligation to support children to do well at school. Education that begins at school is the continuation of aspirations of parents from home i.e. to make a child self-sufficient (Barnard, 1990:20). A child attends school in order to learn under the supervision and guidance of an adult (teacher). Therefore, the teachers' obligation is to teach and assist every learner to acquire the necessary knowledge, insight and skills.

Schools are the only social systems that can survive when people are willing to support them. They should also become arenas for continuous training and learning for both teachers and the taught, so that in future they can be transformed into persons with good characters. The educational situation as mentioned by De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357), is a normative one, the reason being that, it is supported and directed by norms and values.

However, it is imperative for teachers and parents to take into consideration the fact that morality will not be important to young learners, if it is not pertinent to them as adults. The next discussions concerning Chapter Three, focuses on the teacher's role in moral and character education.

# CHAPTER 3

## THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN MORAL AND CHARACTER EDUCATION

---

### 3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to deal with the teacher's role in moral and character education in the classroom. Before discussing the teacher's role, however, it is important to outline what other researchers have already experienced about the character of both teachers and learners in schools. It is very important to focus on the crucial role they have to play during classroom interaction, as well as delineating what they must do in order to influence the character of learners positively and place all the factors that can have a negative influence on learners in context.

*"Things fall apart; the centre cannot hold; mere anarchy is loosed upon the world; the blood-dimmed tide is loosed; and everywhere, the ceremony of innocence is drowned; the best lack all conviction, while the worst are full of passionate intensity"*. These lines from WB Yeats' prophetic poem *The Second Coming* (1920), as quoted by Ryan (1988:18), perhaps reflect the truth if we consider the current situation prevailing in South African schools. Therefore, there is an increasingly deep-rooted feeling that many schools globally are failing learners as well as their communities. This is a reflection on the belief that schools aim to equip learners enough for a future occupation and life itself. It implies that learners are psychologically ill equipped for an unpredictable future, that the standards of academic attainment are very low. There is also a concern about the occurrence of socially unacceptable behaviour in schools (Taylor, 1996:45; Olio, 1997:54; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8). Seemingly, many people are not satisfied with this. They apply strong pressure to the schools to transform. Schools, teachers and the community, however, seem to be losing their sense of direction and collective purpose. To accomplish this goal, teachers, parents and the community should respond ethically to learners by working to transform professional organisations and administrative structures to better achieve children's educational goals (Wynne & Walberg, 1985/6:15; Oser, 1991:201; Rhodes, 2003:13). Interestingly, Kurth-Schai (1990:196) maintains that teachers consistently cite the opportunity to make a difference in the world, by working

constructively with learners as a primary role for entering the profession. Unfortunately, this ideal and most teachers' continuing commitment to maintain healthy interpersonal relationships with their learners are not sufficient to ensure social justice for learners. The social and political status afforded to children must determine a society's ethical stance toward them (Kurth-Schai, 1990:196). If teachers want to respond to learners in an ethically correct manner, they must first of all understand the social assumptions, processes, and the conditions that shape children's lives. Parents experience more difficulty in raising their children too. A nation that was once characterised as being "child-centred" is increasingly ignoring the young (Ryan, 1988:18; Abdool, 2005:20). Reinforcing these findings, Netting's research into the power of caring relationships at school found that:

"At a time when the traditional structures of caring become deteriorated, schools become places where teachers and learners have to live together, take delight in each other's company (1988)."

Therefore, teaching is regarded as a primary social outreach to the youth. Teachers are seldom encouraged to explore the worlds of childhood beyond the classroom door (Kurth-Schai, 1990:197-198). In addition to that, this behaviour is unlikely to vanish without someone making some effort towards a new move. Teachers have a significant role to play in developing the character of learners in schools. Hence, teaching as a profession, calls for teachers to encourage the development of not merely good learners, but of good people as well (Lickona & Davidson, 2005; Kohn, 1991:497).

Teachers should act in a moral way, since they are considered to be the secondary moral agents. According to Gucci (1989: xiv), a moral person is someone who sticks to the values and traditions of society and who possesses a set of presumable fundamental virtues, for example honesty and loyalty. Berreth and Scherer (1993:14) define a moral person as somebody who, when he or she feels an impulse, can defer responding long enough to pass judgement about the appropriateness of the action. Arnold (1994:77), Nucci (1989:8) and Ryan (1988:18) assert that every teacher is a moral agent or moral educator. However, their effectiveness is occasionally questioned due to the fact that not all teachers are trained or competent in moral matters. What is more, even if they were so qualified, their position of authority influences their role as the moral teacher in some ways.

According to Arnold (1994:77), these issues are up for debate and he takes the view that the teacher can and should directly or indirectly have a moral influence on the learners with whom he or she comes into contact with on a daily basis and that the specific role of the teacher does not forbid the process of character education. Character education, according to Ryan (1986:228), comprises what the schools do to encourage or support the young to become ethically mature adults, capable of moral thoughts and action. What distinguishes character education distinctly from socialisation is that, it is a deliberate and intentional activity that is concerned with the cultivation of principled moral judgement and a willing disposition to act upon that very judgement (Ryan, 1986:228).

Nucci (1989:8), Ryan (1988:18) and Woodbridge (1990:526), see good character (i.e. becoming virtuous) as something that develops through exposure to role models and the exhortation of pro-social values by significant adults such as parents and teachers. Young learners can easily follow the example of adults. They observe what adults are doing at home and even in school. Ryan (1989:231) reflects that in the early eighties, culture was perceived as a human achievement that should be transmitted to the young and to transmit it, one has to introduce the young to ethical principles and moral values. Therefore, much of schooling should be vigorously devoted to teaching the young those things that society has learned about how to live together in a civilised fashion (Ryan, 1986:228). Lickona and Davidson (2005) and Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1986:417) also support the above-mentioned idea, by positively stating the aim of education as to guide young persons in the process through which they shape themselves as human persons armed with knowledge, strength of judgement, and moral virtues, while at the same time conveying to them the spiritual heritage of the nation and the civilisation in which they are involved. However, schooling which is aimed only at instruction in knowledge and skills, without equal and explicit attention to ethics is both myopic and misguided (Lockwood, 1986:9; Wynne & Walberg, 1985/6:15; Lickona, 1993:8).

As noted by Kurth-Shai (1990:198) and Ryan (1986:18), all children are ethically at risk, as "the common good, truth-telling, and moral examples have become devalued commodities." Nucci (1989: xv) asserts the removal of values in education from schools as the "dismantling of public education." Therefore, at the heart of this dismantling, is the failure of the teacher education programs to prepare teachers to transmit social and moral values (Nucci, 1989:7). In this respect, an approach to teachers that would

convey the following was proposed: the teacher as a moral agent in the process of teaching values. According to Kilpatrick's (1992:26) view "the traditional character education model seems to be one of those basic forms to which we must eventually return". Therefore, the return of character education is also emphasized in several works such as Heath's (1994) *Schools of hope: developing mind and character in today's youth*, Lickona's (1991:56) *Educating for character: how our schools can teach respect and responsibility*, as well as Wynne and Ryan's (1992:56) *Reclaiming our schools: a handbook on teaching character, academics and discipline*.

The next discussion focuses on the conceptual framework for values and character education in schools.

## **3.2 The conceptual framework for values and character education**

### **3.2.1 Introduction**

The ongoing controversy proves that the conditions and goals of character education persist in drawing considerable attention. With regard to the situation in America, as mentioned by Woodbridge (1990:526), "moral education" in the schools possesses great appeal, particularly moral education aimed at the formation of character. An important contribution made by the South African Council of Education in this regard was the formulation of four broad aims for pre-tertiary education. The second broad educational aim is that every child should develop into a person with a developed mind, a strong and moral sound character and a tolerant and balanced personality. In education focus is placed on making learners ready for future life. However, the teaching of values to children began with taking into consideration how learners think and what their language tells them about the world. Values are therefore central to both the theory of education and the practical activities taking place in classrooms (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:169).

Learners at school level spend much of their time in the classrooms, in the presence of their peers and teachers, and therefore the role that schools have to play in the teaching of values to learners are of paramount importance. According Wolhuter and Steyn (2003:522), Ryan (1988:21) and De Klerk and Rens (2003b:357), values that enable an individual to accomplish his/her goals in life are primarily taught by parents and secondarily by the school education. Parents are regarded as agents in developing children's values. In his argument Heenan (2001:8) asserts that without question,

parents are the first and most important teachers of character. Therefore, nothing can ever replace the home as the place where character is taught and observed. Parents, who engage in their children's school activities, create an atmosphere that is conducive to teaching and learning. Therefore, their participation in schools may bring multiple benefits to teachers as well as the school. This can also increase teachers' understanding of learners in the family and can provide information that may be of value in the handling of specific learners and improving their conduct. In school, values are reflected in what teachers choose to permit or encourage in the classroom and in the way they respond to learners' contributions to learning (Beck, 1990:7). Most importantly, accomplishment in any field depends on the attitude, understanding, decisiveness and values with which the individual acts (Anon, 1994:2). Values represent the emotional rules according to which a nation governs itself and a society is organised and disciplined (Hagerty, 1998:70). Therefore, education is an important activity that has a permanent, formative effect on learners, it influences and determines their future and plays an important part in shaping the child (Straughan & Wringley, 1980:3; Burkhardt, 1999:88). It has two great goals: *to help learners become smart and to help them to become good* (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:1; Wynne & Walberg, 1988/89:16).

### **3.2.2 Values and character education**

In chapter, two various proponents have defined the term value(s) in different ways: it is a single belief that guides action and judgement across specific objects and situations (Mugatroyd & Morgan, 1993:95; Rokeach, 1988:160) and are internalised standards and criteria for guiding action, developing and maintaining attitudes, and making moral judgments (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:27; Bagarette, 1995; Woodbridge & Barnard, 1990:56). According to Woodbridge and Barnard (1990:56), values represent what a person considers important in life and they define values as follows:

“They are ideas as to what is good, beautiful, effective or just, and therefore worth having, worth doing, or worth striving to attain. They serve as standards by which we determine if a particular thing (object, idea, policy, etc) is good or bad, desirable or undesirable, worthy or unworthy, or someplace in between these two extremes”.

Values are moral or professional standards of behaviour, principles, are it cultural, with regard to family, or social values. They emanate from social experience. They are cherished beliefs and standards for right and wrong.

People are not born with values. Therefore, there are driving forces that shape people's personalities or that give lead to behaviour, and these forces include the school as well as home. They therefore have a significant influence on person's value orientation. Phiri (2003:13) makes the suggestion that character education is not an "add on" subject for teachers, instead it is an integral part of the school life, affecting the atmosphere not just in the classroom, but everywhere. Conversely, the National PTA states that: "the teaching of character in public schools alone will not guarantee acceptance of basic core values by children and learners. In order for them to become a reality in learners' lives, consistent day-to-day practice of these values must start at home and continue in the school."

### **3.2.3 Different categories of values**

Values, according to Rokeach (1976), Woodbridge and Barnard (1990) are divided into two categories: the *intrinsic and instrumental* values. The intrinsic values are those values which are acknowledged and obeyed because of their intrinsic significance and not because they are recognized in view of something exterior to them (Woodbridge & Barnard, 1990:56). Instrumental values are standards set in order to achieve other standards. For example, in teaching many standards of classroom management are instrumental, such as discipline, rules, attentiveness and punctuality. They are adhered to because an exterior purpose is served. Intrinsic values are invariable eternal values such as goodness and truth, while instrumental values are described as being "useful" or "promoting one's personal interest" (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:32; Woodbridge & Barnard, 1990:56).

#### **3.2.3.1 A value rank-order and its coherence to the philosophy of life and education**

Bagarette (1995:35), Woodbridge and Barnard (1990:56) refer to a value rank-order as a "value-system", which they define as "the rank-ordering of values in terms of their importance with respect to one another". According to these proponents, a person's value system represents "a learned organisation of values for making choices and for

resolving conflicts between values". A teacher's value rank-order is loosely related to his or her philosophy of life and the educative activities that s/he initiates. A person's philosophy of life consists of what s/he considers to be of the greatest value in his life of choice and action (Woodbridge & Barnard, 1990:57). Therefore, philosophy of life is defined as: "a complex, organised system of thinking about principles and values, and about their relationship to experiential 'reality'" (Woodbridge & Barnard, 1990:57). In other words, according to this perspective, a value rank-order consists of a person's set of basic values that constitutes an important sub-section of his philosophy of life. Therefore, the aims of education and a philosophy of life are strongly linked. They cannot become overemphasized.

### **3.2.4 Character education**

The term "character education" is a pedagogic attempt to assist the learner in acquiring the ability to reflect intelligently on and understand the role of values in human life (Woodbridge & Barnard, 1990:57). According to Lickona (1999:23), character education is defined as the deliberate effort to cultivate virtue. Virtues are considered to be subjectively good human qualities such as commitment to truth, wisdom, honesty, compassion, courage, diligence, perseverance and self-control (Lickona, 1999:23; Lickona & Davidson, 2005). Lickona (1996:93; 1999:23) defines character education as an attempt by families, schools and communities to assist learners and young people in comprehending the core values, to care for them and to act according to them. He also contends that:

"Character education asserts the validity of these values and their power to hold us accountable; derived from the fact that these values affirm our human dignity; they promote the development and welfare of the individual person; they serve the common good; they meet the classical ethical test of reversibility; and they define our right and responsibilities in a democratic society."

The approach aims at making respect and responsibility living values in the character of the young. Again, its goal is to teach the learner the skill of "reflecting on and understanding the inevitable value choices and decisions" (Falmer, 1987:69). Therefore, character is defined as a pathway to both excellence and ethics (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:13). Character education refers to: "a complex set of relatively persistent qualities

of the individual person, and it also has a definite positive connotation when it is used in discussions of moral education” (Pritchard, 1988:471; Woodbridge, 1999:527).

### **3.2.5 The characteristics of good character**

Lickona (1991:53) and Nucci (1987:7) identified characteristics that are related to character.

#### **3.2.5.1 Moral knowing**

Lickona (1991:53-54) discusses the qualities of moral knowing as follows:

##### **Moral awareness**

Teachers must be able to create classroom opportunities that simulate cognitive conflict and social role-play in order to heighten learners’ moral awareness. They must be in a position to assist learners to explore the moral dimensions of their interaction together, as well as to explore the content of their curriculum. A common moral failure in people of all ages is moral blindness. Lickona (1991:53) feels that people don’t see that the situation at hand involves a moral issue and calls for moral judgement. Teachers are not supposed to be judgmental when dealing with learners that are experiencing problems in or outside the classroom.

##### **Knowing moral values**

Moral values such as respect for life and liberty, responsibility towards others, honesty, fairness, tolerance, courtesy, self-discipline, integrity, kindness, compassion and courage all define ways of being a good person. Therefore, these qualities are the moral heritage which one generation has to pass on to the next (Lickona, 1991:53; Ntuli, 1999:10; Arends *et al.*, 1988:421; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:23).

##### **Taking perspective**

Taking perspective involves the ability to take the viewpoint of other people, see a situation as they see it, to imagine how they might think, react, and feel. This is a prerequisite for moral judgement and development. However, this skill is developed due to the opportunity to consider the thoughts and feelings of others; something that needs students to engage in and practice perspective taking. According to Lickona (1991:54),

Arends *et al.* (1988:421), and Lickona and Davidson (2005:23), people cannot respect each other very well and justly in their needs if they don't understand them. Therefore, a fundamental goal of moral education must be to help learners to experience the world from the point of view of others, especially those who are different from themselves, by getting to know each other and by infusing diversity into their curriculum (Lickona, 1991:54; Arends *et al.*, 1988:421). In this regard, dialogue will be the most important basic vehicle through which this role-taking process can take place. However, role-taking opportunities, if teachers consider them seriously, stimulate the moral development of each individual learner. In a moral classroom, the teacher becomes the primary role-taker in the group because as an adult, the teacher is most likely to have the best perspective of all the individuals in the classroom and of the group as a whole.

### **Moral reasoning**

Moral reasoning involves understanding what it means to be moral and why we should be moral (Lickona, 1991:55; O'Leary, 1983:230; Cobb, 1983:349). Lickona (1991:51) holds the idea that as children develop moral reasoning, they also learn what counts as a good reason for doing something and what doesn't. In addition to that, moral reasoning also includes an understanding of classic moral principles. For example, respecting the intrinsic worth of every individual learner acts to achieve the greatest good for the greatest number.

### **Decision-making**

Teachers usually make decisions that affect learners' lives. This idea is emphasized by Holdall and Glyn (1989:49), who purport that a learner is always influenced by what his or her teacher decides. However, these decisions may have a negative or positive impact on the teaching and learning process. Decisions that teachers make in the classroom include, decisions to modify their plans, to call on a given child for an answer, to reward or reject certain answers, to discipline an unruly learner, to encourage a shy learner and speed up or slow down a lesson. All of them combined may have a negative or positive impact on learners (Fennema & Franke, 1992:156). For their teaching to become effective, teachers must strive for decisions that have positive effects on learning. Learners must be given sufficient time to participate in the classroom. Therefore, a participative decision-making must take place in every educational setting. According to Owens (1987:284), this does not refer to the physical presence, but to the

engagement of the heart and the mind of a person within group situations, that motivate that person to contribute to group goals and to share responsibility for them (Moloko, 1996:74).

### **Self-knowledge**

Knowing ourselves is the hardest kind of moral knowledge to obtain, but it is necessary for character education (Lickona, 1991:56). According to Lickona, to develop moral self-knowledge involves becoming aware of the strengths and weaknesses of our individual characters and also of how to compensate for our weaknesses, one being the nearly universal human tendency of doing what we want and justifying it after the fact. For teachers to maintain these values, they need to adjust instruction to meet the need of their individual learners (Brookhart & Loadman, 1993:350). However, each learner is unique. They differ according to abilities, family background and the environment that they come from. All these impact the manner and pace at which learners learn. Conversely, Nucci (1989:7) asserts man as a reasoning being that is a knower. Man has a natural tendency to understand the world around him and that he exists in a community. Therefore, in each community certain patterns of behaviour exist as well as certain human character traits and virtues necessary to sustain the life of the individual and the community. According to Nucci (1989), a person learns these values not simply in a rote passive way, but in an intellectual way. Nucci (1989:7) and Lickona and Davidson (2005:23) again emphasize the moral agent's knowledge that learners need, to come to know the moral wisdom learned by their culture over the years. They need to know the best literature and the most important aspects of their culture's history. They need to guard against passivity and know how to think morally, and also how to reason through an issue or problem rather than receive someone else's decision. They need to become ethicists in order to acquire the skills of ethical thinking. The moral agent also has to develop the quality of good judgement or practical wisdom (Nucci, 1989:7; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:23). Knowledge alone is not meaningful, moral feeling must also be present because it leads to people experiencing a sense of complexity as a result of fixed emotional feelings (Arends *et al.*, 1988:421; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:23).

### **3.2.5.2 Moral feeling**

Nucci (1989:8-9) and Lickona and Davidson (2005:23) assert that the moral agent neither has only raw intellect nor disembodied reasoning, but also has feeling and passions that play a great part in moral life. This affective component is considered an energetic, vital moral engine that frequently takes over the life of a moral agent. It drives the agent in directions his reason forbids or that gives energy to decisions that the reason timidly points to (Nucci, 1989). According to Nucci (1989:8-9) teachers who are considered to be moral agents should assist learners in acquiring not simply intellectual skills and habits of the mind, but habits of the heart. Therefore, learners need to be helped to learn to love the good, in order to develop commitments, but a commitment that is for moral life. However, the heart has its reasons, that reason does not know (Nucci, 1989:9; Moloj, 1997:23; Cobb, 1983:351). The moral education of the affect involves the growth of self-love that goes out from the self to friends, family and to communities seen and unseen, to develop an ever-growing definition of what it entails to love the good (Nucci, 1989). Lickona (1991:57) brings several aspect of emotional moral life to our attention as we try to educate towards good character. They are discussed as follows:

#### **Conscience**

Conscience has two sides: a cognitive side which includes knowing what is right, and an emotional side that feels obligated to do what is right. Conscience refers to the inner voice that warns us that someone may be looking (Cobb, 1983:352). On the otherhand, Covey (2004:147) defines conscience as the ability to detect our own uniqueness and the personal, moral, and ethical guidelines within which we can most happily fulfil it. Lickona (1991:57) and Cobb (1983:352) contend that large numbers of learners lack a fully developed conscience in that they don't feel obligated to avoid the behaviour they judge to be wrong. For people of conscience, morality matters. They are committed to living out their moral values because those values are deeply rooted in a moral self (Nucci, 1989:58).

#### **Self-esteem**

When we have a healthy measure of self-esteem, we value ourselves, and when we value ourselves, we respect ourselves (Lickona, 1991:57; Lickona & Davidson,

2005:23). Therefore, we are less likely to abuse our bodies or minds or to allow others to abuse us. When we have self-esteem, we are less dependent on the approval of others (Lickona, 1991:59). Self-esteem is defined as the sum of self-confidence and self-respect (Reece & Brandt, 1990:91). High self-esteem is considered as the basis for healthy personality. Lickona (1991:59) argues that high self-esteem does not assure good character. He contends that it is obviously possible to have self-esteem based on things that have nothing to do with good character – such as possessions, good looks, popularity or power. He then advises teachers to assist learners to develop positive self-regard based on values such as responsibility, honesty, creativity, assertiveness, flexibility and kindness and on faith in their own capacity for goodness. Self-esteem is derived from the physical characteristics and skills and abilities of individual person.

### **Empathy**

Lickona (1991:59) perceives empathy as an identification with, or vicarious experience of, the state of another person. It is the emotional side of perspective-taking. Therefore, one of the joys of teaching is “seeing the light bulbs go on: and noticing the accompanying flash of insight that leads to understanding”. Each individual learner follows a different path and each approaches an experience with differential background, which eventually leads to misunderstandings. However, when a teacher’s interpretation of a situation is treated as the only right one, this sets up barriers and discounts the learner’s perspective (Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99:85). In his study Lickona (1991) mentions the decline of empathy in our society based on the increasing number of youths committing crimes that involve brutal acts that reveal an absolute detachment from the suffering of the victim. Teachers who foster dynamic classroom interactions acknowledge a learner’s perspective before offering other options or solutions. The task of moral teachers is to develop a generalised empathy, the kind that sees beyond differences and responds to our common humanity (Lickona, 1991:59; Nucci, 1989:9). A careful teacher in this regard is the one who takes a learner’s eye-view of a situation and adapting strategies to address that learner’s needs (Krall & Along, 1998/99:85).

### **Loving the good**

The highest form of character involves being genuinely attracted to the good (Lickona, 1991:59; Arends *et al.*, 1988:422). When people love the good, they take pleasure in doing it. They have a morality of desire, not just a morality of duty (Rhodes, 2003:35).

## **Self-control**

Self-control is important to curb self-indulgence. It helps people to be ethical even when they do not want to be. It is a necessary moral virtue (Lickona, 1991:60).

## **Humility**

According to Lickona (1991:61), humility is a neglected moral virtue but an essential part of good character. It is the affective side of self-knowledge. It is both genuine openness to the truth and a willingness to act to correct our failings (Lickona, 1991:61; Krall & Jangle, 1998/99:85). The genuine teacher is often a hidden teacher, a person who sometime occupies a backseat in the classroom and allows learners to take the lead and occasionally moves forward to offer gentle and consistent encouragement. S/he becomes friendly and not afraid to make mistakes, and who shows genuine respect for other people's ideas and can experience the joys of teaching (Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99:86).

### **3.2.5.3 Moral action**

Lickona (1991:61) defines moral action as the outcome of the other two parts of character. If people have the moral qualities of intellect and emotion, they are therefore likely to do what they know and feel to be right. Lickona (1991:61) argues that there are times when people may know what they should do, may feel they should do it, but still fail to translate thought and feeling into action. Moral action is the bottom line. However, if any moral education or character development fails to affect the child's behaviour positively in some important way, they are doomed (Nucci, 1989:9-10). Nucci (1989:9-10) and Lickona (1991:61-62) identify three aspects that move a person to act morally or keep a person from doing so. They are discussed in the following manner:

## **Competence**

Moral competence refers to a repertoire of behaviours and skills the moral agent needs in order to act affectively in the world (Nucci, 1989:10; Lickona, 1991:61; Moloj, 1997:23). To solve a conflict fairly, we need practical skills such as listening, communicating our viewpoint without denigrating the other, and working out a mutually acceptable solution (Lickona, 1991:62). Therefore, a moral agent (teacher) needs to be able to listen and understand, to empathise with the trouble, to serve those in need, to

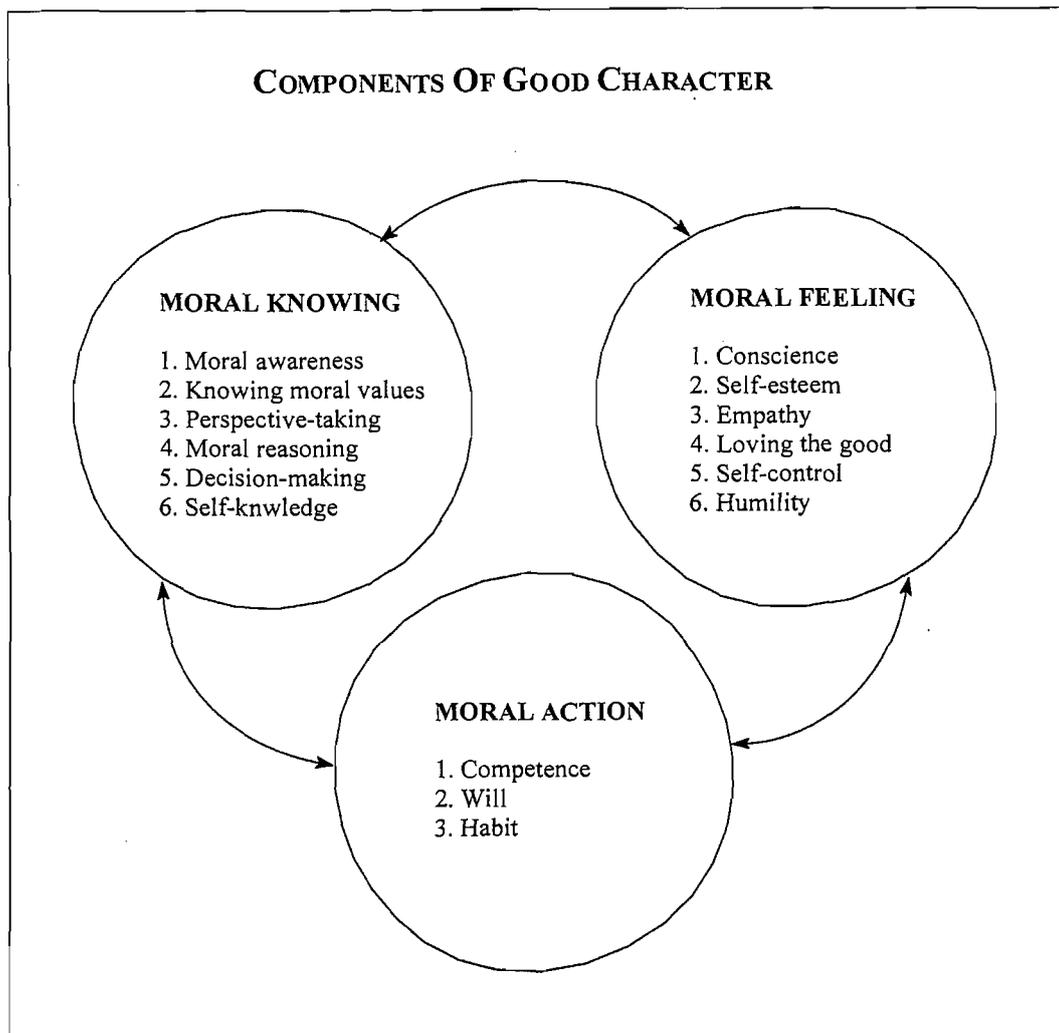
be able to lead others to see and do good, and to stand up for justice (Nucci, 1989:10; Moloj, 1997:23). Competence involves teacher dedication and commitment to excellence (Moloj, 1997). Dali, Rolf and Kneecap (1993:21), as quoted by Moloj (1997:14), posit that teacher competence is critical to success. Everything that goes on in every classroom or school has a bearing on teaching and learning aimed at individual learner behaviour.

### **Will**

Will is needed in order to mobilise and channel our moral energy. It provides us with the strength to push through our self-interests, laziness and fears. Will also spurs us on to moral action and carries us forward to do what our minds and hearts tell us we ought to do (Lickona, 1991:62; Nucci, 1989:10). According to Lickona (1991:62), will is at the core of moral courage.

### **Habit**

Habit is defined as the intersection of knowledge, skill, and desire (Covey, 2004:47). According to Covey (2004:47) knowledge is the theoretical paradigm, the what to do and why. Skill is the how to do. And desire is the motivation, the want to do. However, for people to make something a habit in their lives, they should have all these three dimensions. On the other hand, Nucci (1989:10) opines that will and competence form habit. Once learned, certain moral competencies must be habituated. Moral action must be practiced until it becomes a habit.



**Figure 3.1: Components of good character (Lickona, 1991; Lickona & Davidson, 2005; Nucci, 1989).**

With the foregoing aspects in mind, Nucci (1989:8), Ryan (1988:18), Lickona (1991:53) and Arnold (1994:78) postulate that everything that goes on in classrooms has a moral impact on the teaching and learning that is aimed at individual learners' behaviour. Teachers may likely teach according to what they are. The relationship that teachers and adults have with learners is a reflection of the values they communicate and model to their learners. Of more immediate importance are Cohen and Minion (1981:98), who argue that teaching is often seen as a universal and easily recognised phenomenon involving certain essential qualities. Therefore, the role of the teacher in this regard is to develop those qualities that are cherished by society as a whole as well as those that will encourage positive learning to take place in schools.

According to the above mentioned information, a moral teacher is someone who possesses the good qualities that are mentioned above. However, to put these qualities

in place, teachers have to make learners feel free and safe in their classrooms and also during their interaction. The creation of good communication in the classroom can bring fruitful outcomes concerning the academic performance and behaviour of learners. Classroom opportunities should be created for every learner, in order to stimulate cognitive conflict and also to play their social roles. Instruction should be adjusted to meet their needs. A dynamic interaction with them can also play an important role in this regard. This can even encourage self-esteem and control in class.

### **3.3 The classroom as a social learning environment**

The neo-Vygotskian perspective on cognitive development, as quoted by Clark (1990:261), offers a useful frame of reference for understanding the social, psychological, and moral dynamics of classroom learning. The central ideas of this theoretical position include that learning is a socially and culturally mediated process. The role of the teacher consists of creating conditions that enable a gradual shift of the locus of the learning activity from the teacher to the collective of learners. Teachers, learners, learning activities, and materials must interact with the learners' "zone of proximal development" for effective learning to occur (Clark, 1990:261). Therefore, the psycho-social environment is defined as the level and quality of emotional involvement experienced by the classroom group. It also evolves through the dynamic process of classroom interactions involving personal relationships at several levels, such as teacher-class, teacher-learner, and learner-learner (Lepholletse, 2001:39). Therefore, in school, many events take place simultaneously, especially in the classroom. Some of these events can have a positive or negative impact on learners. To get a good picture of what is happening in the lives of learners within the classroom, we need to have a closer look or identify elements that can impinge or enhance the psycho-social needs of learners as they interact with teachers and one another within the classroom.

Some schools are cheerful and hum with excitement and purpose, others seem to lack enthusiasm and some are alive with expectancy, others appear moribund (Kelly, 1980:1). Hence, some people who work in schools perceive each new day and each new person as an opportunity for improving and understanding the world around them. According to Kelly, others fear that today will be worse than yesterday. All these feelings of satisfaction and productivity constitute school and classroom climate. Most importantly, all human beings exist in a natural environment and in social environments, each one having a climate formed by the conditions present. Therefore, judgments about

what makes a “good” or “bad” climate in a social environment is based on how well it meets the expectations of those who live in, work in, are influenced by, or are familiar with that particular environment (Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:358). However, expectations for social environments can be described by the emphasis given to satisfaction, productivity, or to both (Kelly, 1980:1; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:358; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:37). According to Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996:356) and Kelly (1980:2) the climate of a social environment is formed by the norms, beliefs, and attitudes reflected in the conditions, events, and practices of a particular environment. In this regard, climate refers to prevailing or normative conditions that are relatively enduring over time and that can be used to distinguish one environment from another (Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:355; Kelly, 1980:2).

Classroom environment is considered as socially contextual where participants are in continual interaction. They are dynamic meeting spaces for teachers as well as for learners alike. The interaction of these elements is aimed at achieving the educational objective in that particular classroom. Badenhorst (1993:70) identified the three crucial elements, i.e. the teacher, the learner and the subject matter. The argument in this regard is that the learner and the teacher interact in a dynamic way with the idea of achieving educational objectives. However, the subject matter that the teacher has to unfold to the learners, and which the learners must in turn make their own, constitutes their common field of involvement on the way to the achievement of these objectives (Le Roux, 2001:273; Ntuli, 1999:12). Hansen (1993:653) and Arends *et al.* (1988:432) refer to teaching as a means of enacting in the classroom the best knowledge available of pedagogy of subject matter, and of how the young learn all with the artisan-like aim of shaping the mind. Therefore, learners at school level spend most of their time in classrooms in the presence of peers as well as teachers (Llale, 2003:24; Drinkwater, 2002:17). There is evidence that learners will influence and be influenced not only by teachers, but also by the activities taking place, the physical settings and atmosphere prevailing in those classrooms (Drinkwater, 2002:17). Drinkwater (2002:17) gave several definitions and explanations regarding the concept classroom. They are as follows:

- The classroom as a psychological environment is the climate or atmosphere of the class as a social group that potentially influences what students learn.

- The climate of the social environment is formed by the norms, beliefs, and attitudes reflected in the conditions, events and practices of a particular environment.
- It is a compound of the atmosphere (ambiance, ethos) and environment (or ecology) in which students and teachers work and interact.
- Social climate is an environment for academic, personal and social development, in which the behaviour of the teacher, teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction form a part.

Nucci (1989:12) and Ryan (1986:232) define the classroom as a small society with patterns and rituals, power relationships, and standards for both academic performance and student behaviour.

Seemingly, a classroom is supposed to be a moral environment where every learner is respected, cared for and where each also gives respect to the others (Lickona, 1991:55; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996:343; Vreken, 1994; Arends *et al.*, 1988:423). It is socially contextual. If one wants effective teaching to occur in an environment that is conducive to learning, then teachers are expected by all means to be competent in implementing an accepting classroom environment in which mutual trust, respect, empathy, having a sense of humour, and fairness are intentionally fostered as pre-conditions to stimulating the moral development of learners, as these fundamentals are perceived as part of the classroom norms and beliefs (Paolitti, 1977:74; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996:341; Drinkwater, 2002:9). Learners are learning not just academic content, but also how to act and interact in a social context. Therefore, effective teaching in a moral classroom climate, according to Paolitti (1977:72); Skinner (1990); Vreken (1994) and Mwamwenda (1995:152), depends on the prerequisite teaching skills. Teachers need to guide and supervise learners' learning process and build up moral commitment among their learners. They must earn their trust by "establishing themselves as people of integrity who are honest and consistent in their dealings with learners" (Drinkwater, 2002:85; Lickona & Davidson, 2005). Nucci (1989:12), Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996:357) purport that a considerable proficiency to set up a good purposeful and civil environment is what distinguishes a competent teacher from the ineffective teacher. Again, a moral classroom climate is considered to be the core factor with regard to

classroom environment. Teacher-learner interaction is the most important one (Suarez *et al.*, 1998 as quoted by Drinkwater, 2002:85; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:351).

Stephenson *et al.* (1995:166) and Cobb (1983:351) argue that the learning environment teachers construct, the classroom climate they create and the philosophies they hold about education, all form part of a social process and also have to be taken into consideration. The influence in the classroom can never be overlooked. The success of the teaching-learning activity stands or falls with the teacher's ingenuity (or lack of it) in creating a classroom climate that is conducive to active participative learning by the learners (Mwamwenda, 1995:497; Moloji, 1997:15; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:356). Vreken (1996) holds firmly to the description of the creation of a suitable environment when he argues that for the sake of order and control a climate is created where learners are orderly, quiet and polite, and where classroom activities are well organised. A climate is positive when the classroom activities are well organised and the educational goals are carried out. It is how the curriculum and learning materials are actually used through human exchange (Drinkwater, 2002; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996). If such a critical examination and reflection process can occur at a personal level, a teacher is likely to become competent in actively constructing a critical approach to character education within the classroom. However, Stephenson *et al.* (1995:166) and Barcena *et al.* (1993:244) oppose the idea that teaching is an act, a series of "conversations". In their view they regard teaching as a role in which the language, whatever the subject matter, is inevitably moral. They stress the point that the complexity of classroom life (climate) provides a variety of issues in which the teacher has to play a considerable part. They mention them as follows:

- relationships teachers have with their learners and with each other;
- its about the methodology, the way they behave towards each other;
- the kind of language they use with each other;
- the kind of climate in which they operate, sharing responsibility, and most importantly about every teacher and every aspect of school life.

In essence, the cognitive approach to a moral climate also encourages the teacher to become a developmentalist. It is because his/her knowledge is considered as the starting point and the means through which interaction is stimulated between what is inside the learners' mind and what exists in the world (Mwamwenda, 1995:89; Paolitti,

1977:73; Molo, 1997:23). Paolitti (1977:77) suggests several arguments that relate implicitly to the importance of these prerequisites in the context of a moral classroom climate. They are discussed as follows:

First, interaction in a classroom climate requires that learners go beyond the sharing of information; they should be able to reveal their thoughts and feelings about basic beliefs (Mwamwenda, 1995:152; Paolitti, 1977:73; Antes & Nardini, 1990:129). Therefore, moral development should be considered as the results of self-reflection and dialogue. Hence the dialogue process in reality is considered the creative confrontation between self and others (Paolitti, 1977:74).

Second, a classroom with such prerequisites does not simply evolve as a consequence of learners and teachers being together over time. However, the teacher acts as an instrument/tool that creates an accepting climate by modelling specific behaviours from the first teacher-learner interaction that takes place. Learners are often not accustomed to participate in discussions that centre on listening to one another's opinions. According to Paolitti (1977:73), Carr (1995:139) and Vreken (1996), planning must be directed as part of the core of the classroom climate where listening and communication skills must be taught.

Third, trust, respect, empathy and fairness take time to develop among learners who are at the pre-conventional level of moral reasoning in a classroom. In this regard, certain activities like role-play are suggested since they can enhance the teaching of cooperation as learners have to organise themselves to decide what to do and what is fair to expect of each other in accomplishing a task (Lickona, 1991:68; Mwamwenda, 1995:152; Paolitti, 1977:74-75). According to them, learners must be encouraged to start learning to evaluate their own role play. By doing this, critical self-reflection and evaluation of others are enhanced as part of building an accepting or conducive atmosphere.

Fourth, the four critical aspects of pre-conditions are developed from the understanding of what the learners in the classroom experience (Mwamwenda, 1995:152; Paolitti, 1977:74). By the practice of moral excellence of the teacher's own developmental difference as an adult, s/he has different social, personal and emotional perspectives, and eventually a different moral reasoning level than that of the learners. The teacher is therefore a person who brings interpersonal and pedagogical skills into the classroom, which hopefully reflects the more complex developmental pattern (Paolitti, 1977:74;

Skinner, 1990). However, the recognition of such differences is fundamental to all areas of creating an accepting a climate within which learner development can take place, since the teacher needs to be able to understand the perspectives of learners in order to stimulate their thinking to more complex levels. According to Paolitti, the reverse of this process seemed not to reflect the truth. He argues that learners may not have the ability to take the cognitive perspective of the adult, but the teacher is the first among equals, not simply one among equals.

The important task of the teacher is therefore to maintain a classroom status quo, which is as educational as possible and conducive to interaction during learning activities.

### **3.4 Creating conditions conducive for moral teaching and learning in the classroom**

Teachers need to create conditions conducive to learning within the classroom environment. This may be achieved through conceptualising his or her role as a developmentalist (Paolitti, 1977:78; Tirri, 1993:278; Lickona, 1991:54) and applying certain prerequisite teaching skills (Vreken, 1994; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:328; Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99) towards building a classroom atmosphere where *trust, respect, empathy and fairness* exist. On the other hand, the teacher must primarily (a) create conflict - the type of mental structural change in learners and (b) stimulate learners' ability to take the perspective of others beyond themselves (Arends *et al.*, 1988:423; Hopkins, 1983:173; Paolitti, 1977:76; Nucci, 2001:145; Moloj, 1997:55; Mwamwenda, 1995:157). The teacher must also be able to manage the classroom by involving learners in any learning activities.

#### **3.4.1 Moral conflict as a learning technique**

According to Arends *et al.* (1988:423), Mwamwenda (1995:155), Paolitti (1977:77) and Hopkins (1983:172), research indicates that ways of thinking at each stage of development cannot be directly taught. Therefore, a person's pattern of thinking is gradually self-generated in interaction with the environment and changes (Mwamwenda, 1995; Paolitti 1977; Arends *et al.*, 1988). The assertion made means that teachers must provide conditions for "self-generation" as the main focus of education, rather than trying to teach the stages themselves. When people are confronted with experiences that cannot be understood adequately, their way of thinking is trying to change so that new information can be "accommodated" (Mwamwenda, 1995; Paolitti, 1977). When the

new experiences interact with the previously established cognitive structure, then the new structure begins to be formulated. In essence, an essential condition for moral development is what Paolitti (1977) and Hopkins (1983) regard as the one that provide learners with experiences which “stretch” their existing thinking. In the process of development, Paolitti suggests the significance of self-reflection stimulated by dialogue. He initiates four types of interaction that centres in teaching as follows:

- learner dialogue with self;
- learner dialogue with other learners;
- learner dialogue with teacher, and
- teacher dialogue with self.

In the mid-1980s, the role of the teacher in moral education was shown in two main theories: the theory that relates to social learning and the theory of cognitive developmental learning (Mwamwenda, 1995:155; Paolitti, 1977:76; Nucci, 1989:8; Oser, 1996; Wentzel, 2001:288; McPhail, 1975:122). According to the social learning theory, teachers are agents of socialisation in many ways. Teachers act as models for imitation. Modelling refers to acquiring new forms of behaviour merely through observing the actions of others (Mwamwenda, 1995; Neural, 1993; Baron & Byrne, 1994 as quoted by Phiri, 2003:12). Therefore, children do not develop attitudes by being rewarded or punished, but learn indirectly through imitating others. Learners learn through identification, identifying with same sex parents and teachers and thereby acquiring their attitudes; and lastly they learn through internalisation by directly pursuing a curriculum charged with positive values or indirectly by creating a suitable educational atmosphere (Maslovaty, 2000:429).

Meilander (1984:212) asserts that according to Aristotle, moral principles are learned indirectly from others around us, who serve as role models. Seemingly, teachers as well can directly or indirectly influence learner behaviour through the presentation of their lessons, for example their teaching styles. They have a powerful influence on the behaviour of learners (Strike, 1996). Therefore, teaching styles are a combination of teachers’ personalities, their competence and learning expertise (Lindique, 1996; Tonelson, 1981:97). Each aspect of a teacher’s style has important consequences for learners; it may either enhance or hinder motivation to learn.

The cognitive development approach emphasizes the teacher as the person who develops the socio-moral reasoning and behaviour of learners by creating opportunities for his/her learners to think cognitively in a more sophisticated, consistent and understandable way (Hopkins, 1983; Paolitti, 1977). The approach itself encourages the teacher to become a developmentalist as well as to be competent not simply in knowledge and skills in his/her content area, but in his/her ability to create conditions for social interaction that are conducive to structural change, since social and moral learning are interactional (McPhail, 1975:122). The teacher-learner relationship is however, of fundamental importance. They need to promote interaction that will stimulate learners to think at the next higher level of moral reasoning (Hopkins, 1983:176; Kohlberg, 1984:24; Mwamwenda, 1995:153, Paolitti, 1977:76). Interaction between the learners and the teacher is as vital as learner-teacher interaction; each provides different opportunities for development. Le Roux (1990:4270) contends that interaction encompasses another aspect of classroom learning - input that can affect the motivational states of learners as well.

This distinction is suitable for the moral and character education versus moral reasoning education controversy (Halstead, 1996). Therefore, the perception of learning has changed since in the early 1990s (Halstead, 1996:3-5). The new perception is that every learner must create his or her own knowledge through the process of interaction between the existing beliefs and knowledge base, and the new ideas with which they may come into contact (Maslovaty, 2000:430; Richardson, 1997:3-4). Therefore, Brook and Brook (1993:5) and Maslovaty (2000:432) define the constructivist learning as a self-regulated process of internal conflict resolution that often arises during concrete experience or reflection. In essence the role of the teacher is that of becoming a facilitator who will interact with learners and mediate between them and the environment.

### **3.4.2 Stimulating social perspective-taking**

Paolitti (1977:76), Hopkins (1983:173) and Arends *et al.* (1988:424), supported by Rokeach (1973), assert that the social interaction is necessary for active cognitive restructuring and stage change because it encourages the learners to see the other person's point of view. This link that exists between cognitive and moral development is found in the ability of a person to take an increasingly sophisticated consideration of the

interaction between oneself and others (Hopkins, 1983:197; Paolitti, 1977:76). Bagarette (1995:69) and Krall and Jalongo (1998/99:84) assert that teachers are not only responsible for the transfer of knowledge and cognitive skills, but also responsible for the transfer of values. They do more than impart information; they also enhance and promote positive self-esteem among learners (Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99:84). Seemingly, the function of the role-taking is considered as a significant basis with regard to teacher and learner behaviour in the classroom. According to Paolitti (1977:76) and Moloi (1997:55) the teacher in a moral classroom climate is perceived as the one who takes the primary role in the group, and his ability to take the perspective of each learner in the classroom is an important skill (Paolitti, 1977:77; Skinner, 1990:73; Moloi, 1997:55; Vreken, 1994; Hopkins, 1983:173).

It is important that teachers create conditions where effective teaching and learning exist. They should have teaching skills that can build an atmosphere of trust, respect and fairness. Every learner should be given opportunities to play his/her role during classroom interaction. Encouraging role-taking in the classroom, can make learners feel respected and cared for.

### **3.5 Classroom climate**

#### **3.5.1 Types of classroom climate**

The term classroom climate is defined as the classroom atmosphere for learning. According to Moloi (1997:15) it includes the feelings teachers and learners have about the classroom and whether it is a place where learning can occur. In the classroom set-up there are many interpersonal contacts, some occurring simultaneously and others in sequence (Ntuli, 1999:11). Therefore, in every school setting there are different classroom climates that exist, for example those where learners feel comfortable, free and cared for by teachers and those where learners experience fear and where they are not getting any support from their teachers.

In her work Ackiewicz (1990:78-83) and Drinkwater (2002:21) identify types of classroom climates as follows: integrative versus dominative behaviours by the teachers, creating similar climates in the classroom. She also equates the term integrative with democratic and dominative with autocratic. According to Drinkwater (2002:22), Lickona and Davidson (2005) learners demonstrate behaviour that is more spontaneous (both voluntarily and in response to others) in integrative/democratic classrooms whereas

learners showed more looking-up (distractibility) and more of both conforming and non-conforming behaviour in dominative/autocratic classrooms.

Drinkwater (2002:22) describes a supportive versus defensive classroom climate in figure 3.2.

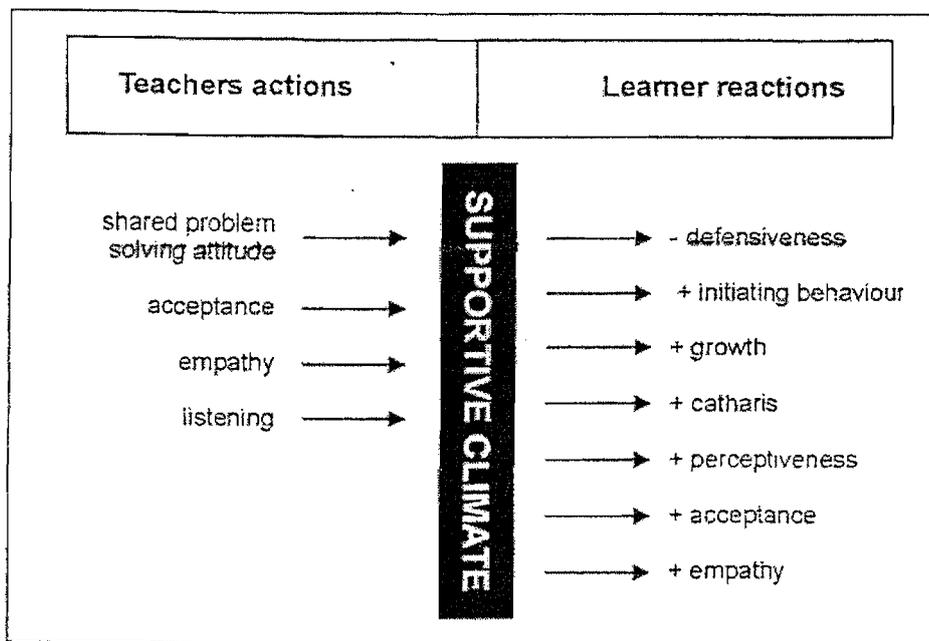


Figure 3.2 (a) A supportive classroom climate (Drinkwater, 2002:22)

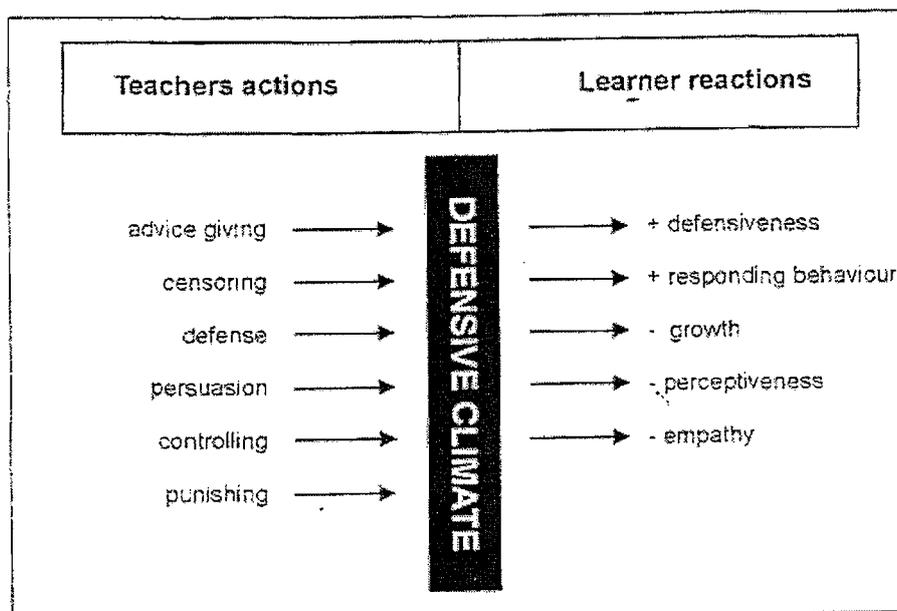


Figure 3.2 (b) A defensive classroom climate (Drinkwater, 2002:23)

By merely looking at the figures above, it becomes clear that a more supportive than a defensive classroom climate should be established, to develop learners into autonomous human beings. According to the white paper on education and training, (1995) as quoted by Moloji (1997:30), a well established supportive learning environment can create a favourable relationship between teachers and learners and the subject matter. Moloji further postulates that a well designed supportive environment can:

- Stimulate thought, creativity and curiosity;
- build self-esteem, confidence and self-worth;
- inform, influence, excite and persuade;
- add to the students' level of responsibility, sense of justice and positive feelings about the school; and
- definitely do part of the job for the teacher and make the teacher's classroom the place to be.

According to Ankiewicz (1990:187-197), careful attention to detail is paid to the different types of classroom climates that exist in schools. He discussed them as follows:

- **An open versus a defensive climate**

**Open:** learners are free to communicate with the teacher and ask for help. Teachers help learners with their problems, give feedback and offer assistance.

**Defensive:** learners are criticised and negative messages are communicated. Learners are not eager to respond and become defensive.

- **A climate of confidence versus fear**

**Confidence:** more time is spent on teaching than on control and punishment. Both learners and teachers feel competent to teach and learn respectively.

**Fear:** learners feel intimidated by the status of the teacher and/or are afraid of making mistakes.

- **A climate of acceptance versus rejection**

**Acceptance:** learners feel that they are accepted as part of the school and classroom. Learners' abilities, shortcomings and characteristics are known and accepted by the teacher.

**Rejection:** learners feel alienated from what is happening in the classroom and school.

- **A climate of belonging versus alienation**

**Belonging:** learners are made part of what is taking place in the classroom and in the school.

**Alienation:** learners feel that things go on whether they are present or not.

- **A climate of trust versus distrust**

**Trust:** learners are allowed to communicate their grievances in an open climate.

**Distrust:** grievances are not communicated openly and a climate of distrust develops.

- **A climate of high versus low expectations**

**High expectations:** teachers expect learners to succeed concerning learning tasks and communicate this.

**Low expectations:** messages of failure, accusation and attributions of failure, like low ability and lack of motivation are given to learners.

- **A climate of order versus disorder**

**Order:** rules are clear and known to learners. Time is used optimally on academic tasks and tasks are mastered efficiently.

**Disorder:** more time is spent on controlling behaviour than on teaching and learning.

- **A climate of control versus frustration**

**Control:** both learners and teachers believe that their acts and behaviour can contribute towards their future success.

**Frustration:** teachers and learners believe that success is due to “good luck and/or input of others, they feel frustrated and feel that their decisions do not carry much weight.

In view of the foregoing discussion, it could be deduced that the extent to which learners learn effectively, communicate effectively and interact with one another as well as with the teacher in the classroom, depends greatly on the type of classroom climate s/he experiences. Also, it depends on how well or efficiently the teacher facilitates learners' interaction in the class based on their prior preparation. Creating a supportive classroom climate for teaching, learning and communicating is an art on the side of the teacher (Jacobs & Gawe, 1996:2).

### **3.5.2 Creating a supportive relationship in the classroom**

For learners to develop an awareness of their own values and have a critical awareness of the values of others, they need to practice recognising, examining and evaluating their own values and others' values (Lemin *et al.*, 1994:2). This requires an environment that is conducive to learning, where cooperation and responsibility are advocated and where values that are widely respected in society are stimulated. These values, as Lemin *et al.* already mentioned, include respect for oneself, respect for reasoning and evidence, acceptance of responsibility for one's actions, and fairness and honesty. Lemin *et al.* (1994:2) postulate that for teachers to uphold these values, they must become an integral part of their teaching practice, not only reflected in what they teach, but also in how they teach and interact with the learners. For learners to also develop the confidence to risk openly expressing their views, teachers need to ensure that they:

- know the group dynamics of the class, including the pecking order, and be discerning in allocating questions, task or roles.
- encourage learners to identify prejudice, lack of sound reasoning, lack of evidence, and irrelevance.

- ensure that challenges to views deal with issues and arguments and do not attack the person.
- deal with inappropriate responses in a positive way. Sometimes the best course of action at the time is to ignore such responses or to seek sensible responses from other class members.

Teachers in this regard, are advised to create healthy conditions that support teaching and learning towards effectiveness (Moloi, 1997:30; Drinkwater, 2002:22; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:351). Teacher effectiveness may refer to the extent in which teaching leads to increased learning on the part of the learners (Mwamwenda, 1995:497; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:352). Moloi (1997:30) and Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996:353) further purport that poor classroom organisation will itself lack learner involvement and leads to wandering about, interruption, lack of interest or motivation and poor use of resources. If classrooms are not properly managed and learners do not get enough positive support from their teachers' side in the classroom, this will lead learners to play around without teachers being aware.

Ntuli (1999:45), Drinkwater (2002:9) and Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996:351) in their research, indicate that learner-teacher relationships in the classroom are the most pertinent fundamental in the learning process. However, the majority of learners enter a classroom with a desire to learn something, as this is an intrinsic human quality (Drinkwater, 2002:9). Drinkwater (2002:9) calls for teachers to create a classroom climate that can build healthy relationships for both teachers and learners that will also positively influence their attitudes towards the learning process. *Commitment* and a *supportive* environment are integral parts of the successful building of a caring community in schools. Like Noddings (1986:502) the belief is that to produce caring, moral persons we must live with those we teach in a *caring* community, through modelling, dialogue, practice and confirmation. Caring, commitment, and having effective communication with positive involvement of learners within the classroom can create good relationships among learners and teachers. Supportive teachers can make the school become a fun place for learning to take place effectively. Everyone engaged must be committed to an *ethic of care* for a supportive milieu to be fostered and sustained (Rogers & Webb, 1991:177). Tangelos (1993), as quoted by Moloi (1997:31),

adds the positive message that learners are more likely to engage in a *supportive/caring* classroom relationship where:

- learners are free from threats of embarrassment and harassment.
- transition time is minimised and learners are busy.
- expectations for conduct are clearly defined.
- a businesslike climate exists so that the task of achieving learning goals is of more importance.

Moloi (1997:33) asserts that the factors that play a role in creating a supportive classroom climate that constitutes good relationships are: conformity, responsibility, standards, rewards, organisation clarity, warmth and support/care as well as leadership and mutual respect. However, an effective teacher walks the extra mile by making an effort to establish a good relationship with his/her learners in the classroom. Moloi also points out that an attitude of a well prepared teacher, i.e. a highly organised teacher models to learners a lasting effect that will enhance a learning relationship. They should have some feeling for the quality of work. She recommends that:

- they must have a sense of what is good;
- they must know what carries them forward; and
- this sense is something a classroom manager can develop.

However, unseen and uncertain the fruits of a teacher's labours, values education in the classrooms necessarily begin with the relationship between the teacher and learner. This is considered as the foundation of everything else (Lickona, 1991:87). Therefore, if learners do not experience the teacher as a person who respects and cares about them, they are not likely to be open to anything else the teacher might wish to teach them about values. Realising the importance of this teacher-learner relationship requires that a teacher must have a moral vision. To be a moral teacher requires the moral significance of social interactions and even small events, imagining the long-range effects of learners' experience at school on their values and character and the kind of society they will someday help to create, seeing teaching as it was once seen as a special calling, a "moral craft." A positive relationship between learners and teachers is restorative - it builds us up and structures our character (Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99).

Furthermore, there are also several fundamental aspects that can contribute to the establishment of a supportive classroom climate that is conducive to learning. These fundamentals will be discussed next.

### **3.5.3 Fundamental aspects for creating a psycho-socio learning environment**

Paragraph 3.4.4 discussed the role that the teacher has to play in order to maintain a supportive classroom climate that is conducive to learning. There are also various aspects that the teacher has to consider or establish in order to control learners to learn effectively. S/he must possess effective teaching skills. These fundamental aspects include policy-making, managerial skills, disciplining, administrative skills, motivating learners to learn, creating learning opportunities, reinforcement and encouragement, problem solving, communication, initiation and maintaining order in the classroom (Ntuli, 1999:23). Within the school setting, teachers are responsible for maintaining an orderly, safe and productive learning environment in their classrooms. This means that teachers need to establish and enforce rules and procedures that foster a healthy learning environment (Ntuli, 1999:23). In short, teachers are responsible for classroom management and discipline. Implicit in any management system are underlying values about human rights and responsibility. However, teachers have to maintain order and the way they go about it sends powerful messages about right and wrong to their learners. According to Ntuli the management skills of a teacher must be executed simultaneously with teaching and learning activities. Badenhorst (1993), as quoted by Ntuli (1999:24), classifies the managerial skills into four categories namely planning, organising, leadership and control. In her work, Ntuli gave a schematic representation of managerial skills as follows:

<b>Planning</b>	<b>Leadership</b>
Situation analysis Decision-making Flexibility of goals Creating learning opportunities Teaching strategies Preparation	Encouragement and support Arousing and maintaining interest Delegation Initiation Motivation Communication Problem solving Enthusiasm
<b>Classroom Management</b>	
<b>Organising</b>	<b>Control</b>
Administration Co-ordination Learner-involvement Media-integration Accounting	Accompaniment Discipline Supervision Feedback Remediating

**Figure 3.3 Managerial skills (Ntuli, 1999:24)**

Ntuli (1999:24) posits that figure 3.3 includes a number of aspects that influence classroom climate. Aspects that are important in managing the classroom situation are discussed as follows: policy-making, communication, discipline, motivation, problem solving, encouragement and support.

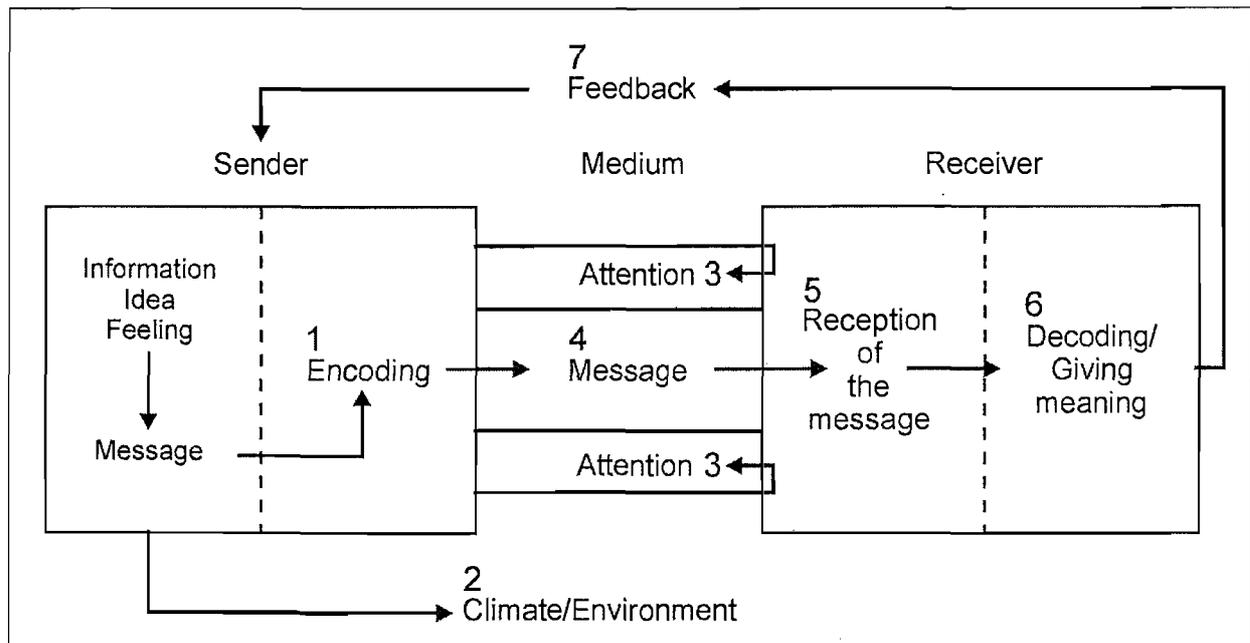
### **3.5.4 Policy making as an aspect of classroom climate**

In every classroom, a policy is required in order to regulate the activities of the learners as well as their behaviour inside and outside the classroom (Ntuli, 1999:25). She defines policy as the sources according to which goals are interpreted and certain broad guidelines are laid down to serve as the basis for decision-making. Therefore, classroom policy is needed because it provides guidelines about what should be done, and how it should be done (Ntuli, 1999:25).

### **3.5.5 Classroom communication as an aspect of classroom climate**

A classroom, as an institutionalised setting for teaching, is multidimensional because of many events that occur simultaneously and purposely, as people interact in the process of teaching and learning activities (Ntuli, 1999:28). According to Vreken (1996:1), classroom communication is defined as a two-way process, whereby information is sent from one person (sender) through a channel to another (receiver), who in the meantime reacts by providing feedback. It is a process during which an individual teacher or

learner either intentionally or accidentally stimulates meaning in the mind of another classroom member by means of verbal and/or non-verbal symbols and cues. It is therefore used to give process where meaning is stimulated (Lepholletse, 2001:8). Hansford (1988:3), as quoted by Lepholletse (2001:9), also supports the above ideas by asserting that classroom communication instruction, solve problems, motivate, lead, and resolve conflicts and to maintain discipline as well (Vreken, 1996:3; Ntuli, 1999:28). The following figure explains the classroom communication model as identified by Vreken (1996:)



**Figure 3.4 Vreken's classroom communication model (1996)**

Vreken's model of classroom communication consists of seven different facets or steps that in turn make a classroom a comfortable place for learning and teaching to occur. He then divides the role of the teacher during the classroom communication process into different functions, as will be discussed in the following paragraphs:

- **Coding of the message**

The encoding of the message that the teacher wants to convey to his/her learners takes place in two steps. The first step, Vreken (1996) argues, is that the teacher must change the learning content or information, idea, feeling, thought into a comprehensible message in his/her thoughts.

- **Creating a climate conducive to classroom communication**

The teachers' task during instruction is to create a climate or environment that is conducive to communication and learning, in other words a quiet, peaceful environment. Vreken speaks of a positive psychosocial environment, which entails the creation of a good learning climate with participation, mutual acceptance, and trust between the learner and the teacher as well as a good degree of class control, order and discipline.

- **Preparation of the learner**

The learner must be in a good position to receive the message in a positive way. Hence, it is the duty of the teacher to prepare the learner for the learning task. Lepholletse (2001:14) says that in addition to making learners feel comfortable, teachers ought to influence the attitude of the learners to respond to teaching positively.

- **Transmitting the message**

The clear communication of the message to the learners is of utmost importance during this stage of classroom communication. The teacher has to ensure that learners have a clear understanding of the message.

- **Receiving the message**

Almost all the learners' senses should be well engaged when receiving the message of the teacher. A message or presentation that appeals to (if and where possible), all the senses will have a lasting effect on learners.

- **Decoding the message**

Decoding entails the reworking of the message in the learner's thoughts (Vreken, 1996). Reworking of information by the learners ought to be facilitated and directed by the teacher.

- **Feedback**

According to Vreken (1996:9), feedback takes place in two ways, internally and externally. Internal feedback could be what the teacher receives from listening to

and thinking about his message while he is communicating. External feedback is the feedback that the teacher receives from the verbal and non-verbal responses from the learners. Lepholletse (2001:17) differentiates between feedback that motivates learners to engage in learning activities to assess their improvement and mastery of the task, and feedback that helps them gauge their performance in relation to other learners' performance. The feedback that learners get from the teacher might increase their persistence in their involvement in learning activities, and might motivate them further in their learning. As the teacher interacts with learners in the class and goes around in the class directing and facilitating, he or she will get feedback from learners' work or discussion. Also from the assignments, examination, tests, class-work etc, the teacher can get feedback that will inform him/her of the progress and achievements of learners. Feedback should be linked to the criteria of learning, not to the norms or marks or grades, otherwise learners will not benefit from the feedback of their work (Lepholletse, 2001:18).

Hansford (1988), as quoted by Lepholletse (2001), identifies two types of communication that are crucial to teaching and learning in the classroom. She discusses them as follows:

**Verbal communication** depends to a large extent on the ability of the teacher to communicate his/her message clearly, which is of great importance in effective teaching. Therefore, verbal behaviour in the classroom is such a diverse and complex topic that it is difficult to provide an adequate summation without resorting to some broad and perhaps general statements (Hansford, 1988 as quoted by Lepholletse, 2001:10). Consequently, Krall and Jalongo (1998/99:85) purport a verbal communication as a barrier, but most learners respond more appropriately to a comforting look and a soft voice than to a glare and a lecturing voice. Therefore, learners are very observant and will opt to learn from teachers' examples as well as model behaviour. It is evident that teacher communication and behaviour have an influence on learner behaviour. Negative judgments make a teacher a negative mirror to learners, while positive encouragement is more likely to inspire learners to behave in socially acceptable ways (Martin, 1980:1-9). By promoting positive self-image and appropriate behaviour, the teacher can help learners to feel more comfortable and autonomous in taking risks associated with learning something new, and assist them in developing

communication skills (Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99:85). Body language and tone of voice are particularly powerful means of communication. According to Drinkwater (2002:82), every teacher has to consider the eco-systemic approach to the classroom. She holds the view that teachers should become sensitive to cultural differences in the way learners display and interpret communication, for learners' communication patterns and interpretation of communication always reflect the larger eco-systems in which they live. Therefore, the misinterpretation of messages by teachers or learners could lead to confusion, distrust and even to enmity, resulting in detrimental effects on teaching and learning (Drinkwater, 2002:82).

**Non-verbal behaviour** communicates messages to receivers without spoken words or in addition to the spoken word (Malimabe, 1997 as quoted by Lephalletse, 2001:10). When we talk with someone any omissions, the manner in which we communicate, and our body language may be as important or even more important than that which we convey verbally (Lephalletse, 2001:10). Non-verbal communication is clearly explained by Kauchak (1989:29) and Drinkwater (2002:83) when they argue that this behaviour contains the following qualities among others:

**Proxemics:** features such as physical space and interpersonal space and interpersonal distance;

**Co-verbal behaviour:** gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, directness of head, body orientation and posture;

**Para-language:** voice tone, rate of speech, pauses, dis-influences (um, uh, yawns), etc.

However, through communication the teacher frequently co-ordinates plans, gives instruction, sets up systematic arrangements for practical classes, organises class activities and evaluates learner behaviour and performance (Ntuli, 1999:29). In her work, Ntuli (1999) describes two kinds of languages used in classroom communication:

**Descriptive language** - language that verbally portrays a situation, behaviour, an achievement or a feeling; and

**Judgmental language** - language that verbally labels behaviour, achievement or a person.

Teachers using descriptive language in their classroom are more likely to create an atmosphere that supports learners during participation in learning activities (Ntuli,

1999:29; Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99:85). It is clear that communication plays a prominent part in the teaching-learning situation. Jones (2000), as quoted by Lepholletse (2001:11), emphasizes that teachers need to be cautious of how language, and thus communication, works in the classroom. They should take into account the interaction between language and thought and its importance in developing learners' ideas and interpretation of their beliefs. Communication between the teacher and the learners and among learners should be considered as important and must be of a high quality (Drinkwater, 2002:121). The way in which a teacher expresses him/herself is important in promoting understanding on the side of learners.

### **3.5.6 Discipline as an aspect of classroom climate**

A school can be considered as a social institution, and an important one for that matter. As an institution, it has to have certain basic regulations governing, controlling and directing the behaviour of its members, the majority of who are learners (Mwamwenda, 1995:311). In such a setting discipline is crucial, since without it, the purpose of the school or classroom cannot be achieved effectively.

Various proponents regard discipline as one of the most prominent elements that affect the teaching and learning situation (Mabeba & Prinsloo, 2000; Oosthuizen *et al.* 2003). Teachers these days are challenged with the complexity of controlling and managing classroom activities and concurrently integrating them with instruction. Learners in this regard, are blamed for being lazy, unwilling to learn and undisciplined. Teaching and learning become the primary task of the teacher. His/her performance will be measured by the learning outcomes of learners. Whatever took place in the classroom will eventually affect his/her learning outcomes (Ntuli, 1999:32). She further asserts that discipline, motivation, procedures, behaviour and relationships in the classroom form certain attitudes among learners and the teachers, which will either enhance the atmosphere positively, boost the morale of learners, or demoralise them. Cawood and Gibbon (1985) as quoted by Ntuli (1999:32), define discipline as the creation and maintenance of special circumstances for work, self-control, preparation for responsible citizenship, intelligent obedience, forced obedience, the practice and acquisition of acceptable behaviour, the measure of behaviour a teacher has over pupils, and the control over the direction of energy that leads to action. From an educational perspective, discipline refers to learning, working groups of pupils who are occupied

with purposeful, planned, systematic learning in an ordered learning situation, which is created by the inspiring leadership and influence of a teacher (Cawood, 1985 in Ntuli, 1999:32). The teacher must be able to identify a discipline problem and deal with it immediately with assertiveness before it has a negative impact on the classroom climate.

The five (5) disruptive discipline problems that have a negative impact on the classroom climate as identified by Ntuli (1999:33) are as follows:

- late coming to classes;
- failing to do homework or assignments;
- undermining the teacher's authority;
- absenteeism;
- violence in the classroom; and learner power.

Teachers should take into account that if a rapport is not implemented effectively between them and their learners, discipline problems will continually occur in the classroom and the learning environment will become uncontrollable. Controlling learner behaviour needs a rapport between learners and teachers. Rapport, according to Ntuli (1999:33), involves aspects such as respect, regard, concern, harmony, solidarity and affiliation. It refers to the harmony between teacher and learner (Drinkwater, 2002:86). She maintains that rapport can only be enhanced by often initiating one-on-one interaction in the classroom as a way to establish a level of comfort between teacher and learner. Mwamwenda (1995:311-314) also indicates causes that are related to discipline problems in the classroom. He posits that misbehaviour in the classroom and in the school may originate from the child himself, the school, society, the curriculum, the child's parents or the teachers. He further discussed them as follows:

- **The child**

Several child-related factors are responsible for a learner's misbehaviour in the classroom situation. It can be that the child has been raised to behave in ways that are not congruent with the behaviour expected of him or her at school. The child can also misbehave in order to conform to peer groups' expectations and avoid rejection. Frustration at home or school can be a contributing factor. Misbehaviour

such as cheating in tests may be caused by the desire to avoid making mistakes and being punished.

- **The home**

Love and care of a child are needs that must be fulfilled by parents. However, if that does not exist in the life of a child, then he or she is likely to have no respect for his or her parents and may extend this perception of adults to all other figures of authority in his life, including teachers and the school itself. It also happens that a child becomes so preoccupied with troubles at home, that he or she is unable to perform at school and as a result transgresses school regulations.

### **3.5.7 Motivation as an aspect of classroom climate**

Children's experiences in school affect not just the development of their mental talents, but also their emotional adjustment and psychological well-being (Deci & Ryan, 1985:246). Therefore, the school is the context for the primary activities of childhood and is the primary non-familial socializing agent, shapes the self-esteem, coping capabilities, social development, and personal values of the children. Consequently, motivational strategies need to be assessed not only for their success at performance and achievement, but also for their impact in the broader and perhaps more important areas of development (Deci & Ryan, 1985:246). Motivation is one of the factors that directly affects learning. Different scholars quoted by Ntuli (1999:38), give different views about motivation. Some of their definitions are described as follows:

According to Mwamwenda (1995:259), motivation is a concept used as an explanation or rationale for the way a person or an organism behaves. It refers to something that is innate within an individual. It is also used to refer to external stimuli, either positive or aversive, used to make an individual display certain behaviour.

Cawood and Gibbon (1985) describe motivation as a “process that can (a) lead learners into experiences in which learning occur; (b) energise and activate learners and keep them reasonably alert; (c) keep their attention focused on one direction at a time”.

Van der Westhuizen (1991) defines motivation as “the spark that ignites and influences the course of human action.”

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) as quoted by Ntuli (1999:38), argue that motivation is in part an expression of psychological needs and in part a function of moral judgement.

Ntuli (1999:38) perceives motivation as a process that activates (ignites) human behaviour, inspired by the need to achieve in a purposeful, goal-directed manner. Learners should be motivated optimally to master the learning activities (Drinkwater, 2002:121). Therefore, motivation cannot occur in a vacuum, there must be direction, guidance, purpose and a need to achieve (Ntuli, 1999:38). According to Ntuli (1999:38), learners in schools fail to engage in learning activities because they find the activities “boring” or uninteresting, and of no immediate value to them. She further posits that for the learning activities to be of value to learners, they need to be stimulated to enthusiastically engage them in the learning activities. Ntuli (1999:39) and Deci and Ryan (1985:246-311) recommend strategies that are suitable for motivating learners:

- **Intrinsic motivation**

Intrinsic motivation comes from within the learner. It is an internal, personal motivational state of a learner (Bangeni, 2000:27). Covington (1992:20) defines intrinsic motivation as the desire to become more effective as a person. However, learners are intrinsically motivated to participate in a learning activity if they recognise that by experiencing the learning activity they will satisfy a need (Mwamwenda, 1995:259; Ntuli, 1999:39). Mwamwenda (1995:259), Deci and Ryan (1985:247) and Bangeni (2000:27) give a supportive remark that the pleasure and satisfaction of performing a task comes from fulfilling innate needs for competence and self-determination. Intrinsically motivated individuals feel that they perform an activity because of the challenge it presents to their competencies. A learner, who is constantly being positively reinforced as a result of participation in learning activities, learns to recognise the value of learning activities, hence becomes motivated (Ntuli, 1999:39). Learners who are motivated will create a healthy group environment that will enhance good relationships and learning outcomes (Ntuli, 1999:39). Intrinsic motivation can then be viewed in terms of energy and direction in learning (Deci & Ryan, 1985:245; Mwamwenda, 1995:260). However, intrinsic motivation and sense of self can only benefit from a classroom that is informational, meaning a classroom that offers the opportunity for self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985:248).

- **Extrinsic motivation**

Extrinsic motives exist when an individual is driven by reasons that have nothing to do with the activity; and the benefits come from outside the activity (Bangeni, 2000:27). In this regard, learners are extrinsically motivated to participate in the learning task only when they desire to receive rewards that have been artificially associated with the participation. Rewards are extrinsic in nature, but we engage in most activities for the rewards that they are likely to bring. According to Bangeni (2000:27) extrinsic rewards do not have any negative impact on intrinsic motivation. Rewards will elicit complacent behaviour, and intrinsic motivation will develop. Hence, Ntuli (1999:40) and Kohn (1996:21) argue that extrinsic motivation “leads only to greater satisfaction in the work situation, but as generative factors do not contribute to productivity”. Motivation as a factor of the effective classroom occurs simultaneously with class activities such as instruction and communication (Ntuli, 1999:40). Learners must be sufficiently motivated to attend school and to focus on what is going on in the classroom for schooling to have an effect on them. Therefore a teacher’s success in the classroom depends on how well s/he applies the principles of motivation in his or her teaching (Mwamwenda, 1995:260).

Therefore, extrinsic motivation comes from outside the learner, for example in the form of a reward by a teacher. According to Fraser *et al.* (1993:61), extrinsic motivation is supplied by the stimuli external to the learner. However, its influence in learning does not last for long. Once the reward is removed there is no longer any particular reason for learners to learn (Covington, 1992:20). Teachers need to comprehend the influence of both these kinds of motivation during the learning process in order to teach effectively. According to Curzon (1990:200) the teacher has the task of creating a learning atmosphere that relates to the learner’s activity, to his or her needs and aspirations so that his or her sense of self-improvement is heightened. Teachers cannot create such learning atmospheres if they do not have the knowledge of how to apply these kinds of motivation. The knowledge of how to apply intrinsic motivation is what is needed from the side of every teacher, in order to promote learning activities within the classroom.

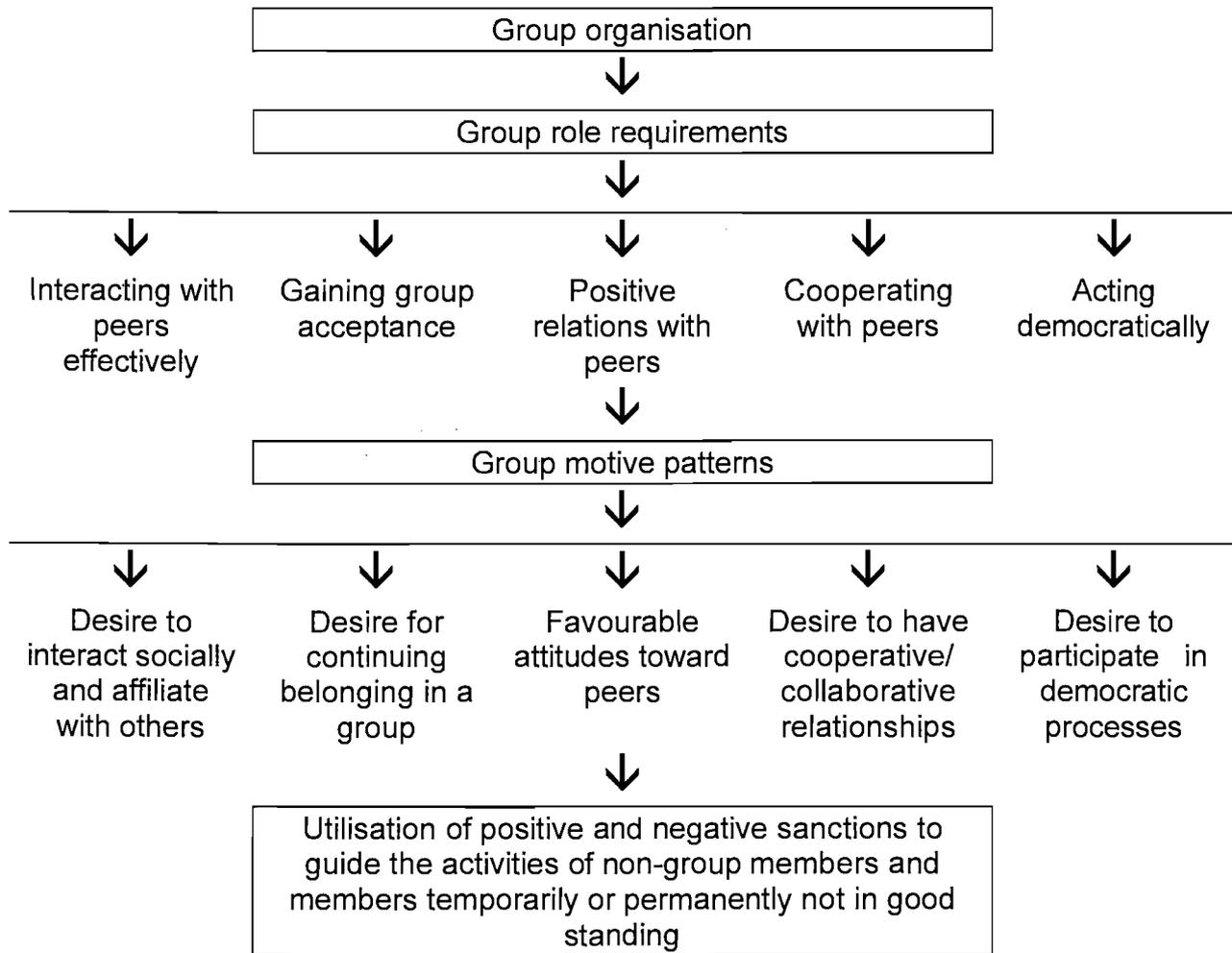
### **3.5.8 Reinforcement (encouraging and supporting)**

Reinforcement focuses on situations where behaviour is strengthened by rewards (Bangeni, 2000). She further asserts that the effectiveness of that reward or reinforcement bears some relationship to the drive or motive active at the time of learning. Reinforcements are referred to as “incentives”, but more commonly as “rewards” in motivation literature. Integrating reinforcement as a motivator in the classroom may create an environment that is conducive to learning. However, teachers have to take into consideration the role that motivation plays in creating a favourable classroom climate. The classroom should become fertile ground for gaining confidence, information and a good feeling for learners (Moloi, 1997:38). Therefore, the implementation of reinforcement in the classroom is essential for learning to occur. The more the teacher uses reinforcement, the more effective his or her teaching is likely to be (Mwamwenda, 1995:505).

### **3.5.9 Group cohesion as an aspect of classroom climate**

Different scholars define group cohesion in various ways. It basically refers to the degree to which group members are attracted to each other and share common goals (Robbins, 1989:252). According to Bangeni (2000:69), a group exists when two or more persons have as one quality of their relationship some interdependence and possess some recognisable unity. Siegel and Dnen (1974:38) complement the above statement, by maintaining that group cohesion exists when the forces acting to hold the group together are stronger than the forces acting to break up the group. Pressures towards uniformity are stronger because of the value attached to the group. They further give another description that group cohesion is “a condition where children in the class are strongly motivated to become involved with group activities and group affairs.” Shapiro (1993:95) defines cohesion as the “sum of the group members’ feelings about their group as a whole”. Group cohesion is the strong tie that can exist in a group. It is the desire of the members to remain within the group and uphold their commitment to the group. A cohesive group is one that provides satisfaction for the members, or a high probability of doing so (Shapiro, 1993:95). When it represents a source of satisfaction, the group takes on value for the members; their own needs are best served by serving the welfare of the group (Bangeni, 2000:70). All members accept these pressures because the standards are important to the group, and it is important to each individual

maintain his/her acceptability in the group. Bangeni illustrates a schematic representation of processes that shape the qualities of groups, and it also illustrates the motives that affect cohesion in a group. They are as follows:



**Figure 3.5 Outlines of group roles and processes affecting motivation (Bangeni, 2000:71)**

Group role requirements refer to characteristics that are necessary to promote group cohesion, and group motive patterns are the reasons why individual learners want to be part of a group (Bangeni, 2000:71). Therefore, in a classroom, learners already form a group where positive relations have to be fostered, especially when they are assigned group tasks. Positive group relations impact positively on other learning aspects, for example discipline. However, it is easier to handle a group of learners who have positive relations (acting democratically, considerately, and cooperatively) than learners who are not used to being part of positive group processes (Bangeni, 2000:72).

### 3.5.10 Emotional safety as an aspect of classroom climate

According to Moloko (1996:68), learners need protection when they feel harassed or threatened, or when they fear favouritism. Teachers can address this by making learners feel free to venture, to try out new things and to freely admit their shortcomings and mistakes. Tonelson (1981:98) says that much of what the school does or does not do is the result of the emotional climate or psychological atmosphere that is provided or developed within each classroom of the school. Drinkwater (2002:87) and Arends *et al.* (1988) note that, in classrooms where learners feel emotionally safe, meaning that their needs are catered for, the climate will be experienced as more positive. According to them, learners will feel more comfortable interacting with peers and the teacher if the classroom is caring, supportive and friendly. Cole *et al.*, as quoted by Drinkwater (2002), posit that the classroom climate should be of such a nature that learners should be “completely unafraid to spit out their own ideas”, meaning they won’t be ridiculed when making mistakes or proposing extraordinary ideas. She states that it is a teacher’s first job in the beginning of the year to reduce anxiety and reassure learners that their points of view and needs will be recognised and valued. In the studies of Tonelson (1981:98) and Bernard (1993:45-47) several characteristics of classrooms with a healthy psychological environment are distinguished as follows:

- **Warmth**

A “warm” environment is one where each individual learner feels that s/he is respected as a unique individual. However, teachers should strive to understand the problems of the individual, and extreme value should be placed upon the feelings of the individual and the relationships with the group.

- **Acceptance**

The “accepting” classroom is one where the individual learners are accepted as people with both dignity and worth. In such an environment the individual learner is able to grow toward accepting him/herself. Again, it is only the teacher with a healthy self-concept who is able to be accepting of others. However, in order for the teacher to create an environment of acceptance the discrepancy between a people’s perceived, real, and ideal self must be closed.

- **Permissiveness**

The “permissive” classroom is not a class in which there is chaos. It is the classroom where learners are allowed the freedom to explore, to have ideas, beliefs and values. Learners are able to be themselves - to pursue interests and curiosity in search of meaning in life. The teacher in a permissive classroom should act as a facilitator and must, therefore, have confidence in his abilities to facilitate individuals learning at their own pace.

- **Caring**

Caring according to Rogers and Webb (1990:174), is the basis for thoughtful educational and moral decision-making, and it requires action. Therefore, a teacher has an obligation to care about each and every learner in the classroom. However, the ethical responsibility to care may be fulfilled by what Rogers and Webb call “loving the learner as learner”. Caring is directly related to making sound decisions about learners and their educational needs (Rogers & Webb, 1990:175). According to Bernard (1993:45), the findings are that research into the power of caring relationships at school found that:

“At a time when the traditional structures of caring have begun to deteriorate, schools must become places where teachers and learners live together, talk with each other, take delight in each other’s company”.

Furthermore, the need for caring teachers is a major concern for high school students. Based on the study done by Phelan et al. (1992:696); Bernard (1993:45) revealed that:

The number of student references to wanting caring teachers is so great that we believe it speaks to the quiet desperation and loneliness of many adolescents in today’s society.

- **Positive expectations**

According to research conducted by Bernard (1993:46), the reflection is that schools that establish high expectations for all learners and give them the support necessary to live up to the expectations have incredibly high rates of academic success. Bernard found that schools within poverty-stricken areas of London

reflect considerable differences in rates of delinquency, behavioural disturbance, attendance and academic attainment, even after screening for family risk factors. However, the successful school, according to Bernard, shared certain characteristics: an academic emphasis, teacher's clear expectations and regulations, a high level of learner participation, and alternative resources such as library facilities, vocational work opportunities, art, music, and extramural activities. Furthermore, Bernard (1993) asserts that high expectations and a school-wide ethos that values learner participation also mitigated the most powerful risk factors for adolescent alcohol and drug use, namely peers who use drugs. Weinstein (1991:333) distinguish the ways through which we can communicate positive, high expectations to learners. They are as follows:

- **Teacher behaviour and attitudes**

Naidoo *et al.* (2002:95) says that behaviour may be a response to the conditions in which people live and to the causes of these conditions. Attitudes may stimulate a change in behaviour and sometimes behaviour change may influence attitudes (Rokeach, 1976). However, teachers who convey the good message and who play to the strengths of each learner exert a powerful motivating influence, especially on learners who receive the opposite message from their parents and society.

- **Curriculum**

A rich and varied curriculum provides for learners to be successful not just academically but also in arts, sports, community service, work apprenticeships and helping peers. In doing so, it communicates the message that the unique strengths of each individual are valued. Therefore, a school that integrates academic and vocational education for all learners conveys the message that both skills are vital to future success.

- **Evaluation**

Evaluation implies judgement based on careful assessment and critical appraisal of given situations, which should lead to drawing sensible conclusions and making useful proposals for future action (Naidoo *et al.*, 2002:371). According to Weinstein (1991:333) schools that encourage young people do not rely on standard tests that assess only one or two types of intelligences. Instead, they use multiple

approaches, especially authentic assessments, that promote self-reflection and validate the different types of intelligences, strengths, and learning styles learners possess.

### **3.5.11 Status of the learner as an aspect of classroom**

Learners have different status characteristics, “an agreed upon social ranking where everyone feels that it is better to have a high rank than a low rank” (Drinkwater, 2002:87). The researcher asserts that the status characteristics could be general, based on race or gender, or very specific, based on academic abilities. Therefore, academic and peer status can also have a powerful impact on interaction in the classroom, the reason being that the group’s expectations of a member are determined by his or her status – high expectations for high status learners and vice versa (Drinkwater, 2002:87). Learners who have low status are often marginalized. They are isolated, ignored and not given a turn to participate in class, and these learners may experience school and learning in a very negative way (Drinkwater, 2002:87). Thus teachers have to intervene in this regard.

It then becomes clear that the aspects mentioned above can create a healthy classroom climate. Both aspects of a healthy climate must be well integrated in any given lesson in order to enhance the involvement and active participation for both teachers and learners. In many instances concerning the creation of a supportive classroom climate, focus is on the teaching process more than it is on learning and the interpersonal relationships between teachers and learners. To create a supportive climate for teaching, learning and communicating, the teacher needs to think and decide beforehand what he or she can do in the classroom (e.g. ways to encourage self-expression by learners) that would create the climate required for that specific learning activity (Jacob & Gawe, 1996:15). It should be noted that a careful combination of different factors would bring about a healthy classroom climate for teaching and learning.

### **3.5.12 Teachers’ control as an aspect of classroom climate**

The crucial part of a teacher’s work in every school setting is control. Cohen and Manion (1981:118) define control in the educational context as successfully dealing with incidents that fracture the teacher’s peace, or establishing one’s power in a situation

that pre-empts such occurrences. In calling control in the classroom strategies for survival, these researchers looked at the various approaches to survival in secondary schools and identified them as follows:

- **Socialisation**

According to Cohen and Manion (1981:118), the ideal circumstances for teaching will be where both learners and teachers share common standards, values and beliefs and where learners have been socialised into forms of behaviour acceptable to teachers prior to their arrival at school. Such conditions are, however, only likely to exist in a minority of schools, such as private institutions. Therefore, the remaining ones are likely to spend a great deal of time and effort endeavouring to socialise their learners into tolerable forms of behaviour. The problem facing more teachers, however, is the cultural gap between their attitudes, values and beliefs, and those of their learners. The latter, according to Cohen and Manion (1981:118), might value such qualities as initiative, single-mindedness, activity and individualism. The former will in all probability prefer receptivity, malleability, docility and conformity. They also reveal that there are many schools that have a range of procedures to smooth over this gap and achieve some sort of working relationship and they are called "mortifying techniques."

- **Domination**

Where normative means of control do not work, the teacher has to resort to other means. One particular effective in this regard is domination (Cohen & Manion, 1981:119). They found that learners regard teachers as stronger, bigger and wiser than the learners they teach and these qualities can be used to achieve a more coercive form of control over learners.

- **Negotiation**

Negotiation is another strategy that can be used when normative methods fail. It is based on the principle of exchange (Cohen & Manion, 1981:120). According to them, teachers can back-up the principle of exchange with a range of appeals. Such appeals can be directed to civilisation or society in general and the need for the individual to fit in, or they can be aimed at the way learner behaviours can dislocate peer-group norms or the relationship between the teacher and class.

Interestingly, this is the development of a sense of “togetherness” that can come about particularly between a teacher and his class “failures”.

- **Fraternisation**

Fraternisation is another technique used by Cohen and Manion, the meaning of which is encapsulated in his quotation “If you can’t beat them, join them”. The aim is to strive for good relations with one’s learners with a view to minimising potential conflict and developing a sense of obligation in them. Furthermore, fraternisation can be built into one’s teaching through forms of entertainment.

- **Absence or removal**

According to Cohen and Manion (1981:122), absence or removal seems to be a broad term and includes absolute physical absence at one extreme to physical presence but abnegation of duty or responsibility at another, with a whole range of comparable techniques designed to achieve more or less the same end located linearly and spatially between these two points. Therefore, another favourite device is that of throwing the onus of work on to the learners themselves (Cohen & Manion, 1981:122).

- **Rituals and routine**

Rituals and routines are invaluable to the teacher for imposing a structure on the life of the school. They offer him a basis for establishing control (Cohen & Manion, 1981:122-123). Obvious examples are given as follows: registration, form periods, assemblies, timetables, and lesson structures. However, within this structure, individual teachers establish their own personal, sometimes idiosyncratic, formalities. They elaborate on this point that:

“Teachers become addicted to routine and ritual. Once instituted, they are extremely difficult to get rid of. Rituals become associated with “tradition” and “ethos” and to change those means discontinuity and disjuncture. Routine is a narcotic, taken to soothe the nerves and mellow the situation. Once established, to do without it would involve the teacher in severe withdrawal symptoms.”

Woods predicts the difficulties created by an absence of routine, a prediction that Cohen and Manion regard as now ancient history for all too many teachers, namely:

“The computer will take much of the routine out of teaching in schools, and will make possible far more learning which is not school-based. Although most people complain about the routine in their jobs, they would probably go mad without it. Without routine we are constantly dealing with unique, unprecedented, non-recurrent and standard events. This may however, be exhilarating; it is also exhausting. Therefore, teachers can be expected to be in a state of constant exhaustion.”

- **Occupational therapy**

Cohen and Manion (198:123) define occupational therapy as a variety of bodily movements accompanied by dulling of the senses. Both teachers and learners may indulge this in, though it is usually the teachers who impose it on their learners. But to what end? Cohen and Manion explain:

“The aim is to take the edge of boredom or fractiousness, and thus prevent incidents arising.”

They identify therapeutic techniques such as drawing maps, pictures, and patterns. Therefore, a teacher may engage in therapy unilaterally, this can be done by keeping himself busy amid the general scene of chaos and indifference (Cohen & Manion, 1981:124).

- **Morale-boosting**

One of the principle means of achieving is by boosting the morale of learners. Cohen and Manion cite the example of young teachers as best “thrown in the deep end” based on the conviction that it is “good experience” for them. School uniforms are also championed in the interests of “equality”, preventing the poor being exposed by those learners from better homes. Notwithstanding, Vreken (1994:8) maintains that the teacher needs to ensure that the psycho-social aspects that are needed in the creation of a conducive climate for teaching and learning are put in place as well as properly handled, for example bringing about conditions that instil mutual acceptance and trust between teachers and learners. This may be attained

through the way the teacher presents him/herself to the learners, the manner in which s/he handles or controls the class, the kind of rules s/he deploys to control and discipline the class. The teacher needs to exercise a good degree of class control. S/he must avoid abusing the learners but should rather respect and discipline them in a manner that does not distort his/her good relationship with learners. Good instruction and good classroom management overlap and teachers' actions speak louder than their words (Zable & Zabel, 1996:135; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996:355). However, a classroom climate is not static by nature but rather a complex, dynamic process that can be influenced by various aspects. According to Piaget, as quoted by Mwamwenda (1995), learning occurs as a result of an interaction between an individual and his environment. If this then reflects the truth, then the teacher cannot only be concerned with the traditional, overt curriculum. Given this definition of learning, teachers must take care to ensure that the environment a learner interacts with is positive in order to insure healthy results from these interactions. A learner's environment must allow him or her to feel liked, wanted, accepted and successful (Drinkwater, 2002). A learner's self-image develops in such environments, and these situations facilitate factors such as challenge, freedom, respect, warmth, control and success.

It then becomes clear that the aspects mentioned above can create a psycho-social classroom climate. Both aspects of the psycho-social classroom must be well integrated in any given lesson, in order to enhance the involvement and active participation for both teachers and learners. To create a supportive climate for teaching, learning and communication, the teacher needs to think and decide beforehand what s/he can and should do in the classroom (e.g. ways to encourage self-expression by learners) that would create the climate required for that specific learning activity (Jacobs & Gawe, 1996:15). Learners can experience a positive or negative environment depending on the teaching skills their teachers possess. Safety and order should exist in every classroom and this can only prevail when every teacher has done his/her lesson preparation thoroughly. Their basic needs also should be met. They feel more comfortable and acceptable when they are free to interact with their peers and teacher. Such an environment can bring good hopes to every learner. They will feel motivated during the teaching and learning process. Planning and preparation of lessons is a way of helping teachers to have good control over his/her learners.

### **3.6 Aspects that can affect the morale of learners in the classroom**

There are several factors that may positively and negatively influence the morale in the classroom (Zabel & Zabel, 1996:135; Coetzee, 1996; Drinkwater, 2002:54; Ntuli, 1999:14). Researchers firmly hold the perception that the teacher is the major role player in the creation of a certain classroom climate. Therefore, Drinkwater (2002:54) distinguishes the characteristics of the teacher in a positive classroom climate as follows:

#### **3.6.1 Teacher experience**

Drinkwater (2002:61) asserts that teacher behaviour changes when they gain experience. According to her, the experienced teacher's interpersonal behaviour seems to change – a clear indication that the years of experience of a teacher will have an influence on the classroom climate.

#### **3.6.2 The teacher's attitudes**

A teacher's attitudes and personality play an important role in the classroom. In her research, Drinkwater (2002:67) indicates that the teacher's attitudes can have an influence on the learners' perceptions in the classroom. She refers as follows to Bushan's (1991) findings:

- If teachers are rigid and quite severe in applying school rules, their classes are experienced as having a high extent of formality.
- If there is constant conflict between the interests of teachers and learners, classes are perceived as having increased speed, disorganisation and favouritism and a decrease in goal direction.
- if learners are expected to be independent of the teacher, friction and apathy decrease while activities increase.
- if teachers are authoritarian, pessimistic, repressing and reproachful, their classes are experienced as having more friction and favouritism and less satisfaction.

Therefore, teachers who reflect a positive attitude toward their subjects and learners are regarded as more motivating than those who have a less positive attitude and

personality (Mwamwenda, 1995:264). Their personality characteristics that are motivating and that should be considered as they interact with learners are democratic attitudes, wide interests, a pleasant personality, appearance, pleasant manners, fairness, impartiality, sense of humour, flexibility, patience, interest in learners' well-being, consistent behaviour, efficiency, kindness, and the use of recognition and praise (Mwamwenda, 1995:264; Kelly 1980:1).

### **3.6.3 The teacher's expectations of learners**

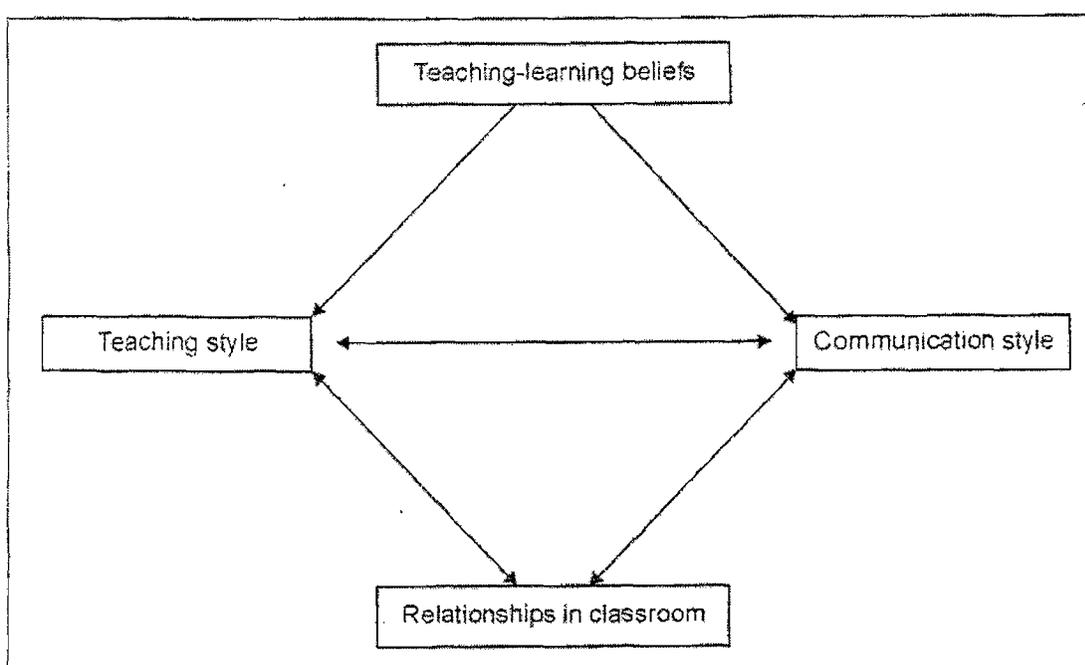
Drinkwater (2002:67) considers teacher expectation to be the most important factor influencing learner performance. Therefore, she refers to positive teacher expectations as one of the strategies that teachers can use to improve classroom climate as well as motivation and performance of learners. Drinkwater (2002:67) mentions two points in this regard. Firstly, it is very crucial that teachers should be aware that they often transmit their expectations of learners through unintended non-verbal cues, unaware that they are possibly conveying subtle negative messages. Secondly, it is important for teachers to know that expectations influence interpersonal relationships in the classroom.

### **3.6.4 The teaching style of the teacher**

Teaching styles refer to the combination of the teacher's personality, competence and teaching expertise (Lindeque, 1996). Conti (1989:3) defines teaching styles as the overall traits and qualities that a teacher displays in the classroom and that are consistent for various situations. Therefore, teaching styles embrace the structuring of the teaching process. It is very crucial for one to take note that each aspect of a teacher's style has a significant component consequence for learners; it can either hinder or enhance learners' motivation to learn. Teaching and communication styles, according to Drinkwater (2002:56-57), do not differ, they have a close relationship.

Gage and Berliner (1984:164) contend that a teacher's style encompasses individuality and personality. They assert personality as the integration of a person's traits, abilities and motives as well as his or her temperament, attitudes, opinions, beliefs, emotional responses, cognitive styles, character and morals. Therefore, personality is to some extent manifested in the daily activities that are part of teaching. The personality of a teacher can be studied by observing the attitude of his/her learners towards him/her

(Letshufi, 1988 as quoted by Bangeni, 2000). The teacher's personality traits are basic to effective classroom teaching. This includes demonstrating that they like learners and have their interests at heart, as well as displaying concern for each learner's welfare (Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996; Bangeni, 2000). According to these scholars learners are likely to cooperate with teachers who display empathy, and are warm and genuine (Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996; Bangeni, 2000). Teachers have to cultivate accommodating personalities, "For good teaching requires a repertoire of appropriate interpersonal and pedagogical skills" (Drinkwater, 2002:54). They should be approachable; otherwise learners may become fearful to seek support when they do not understand. For those who arouse fear among learners, the chances are limited to create a democratic classroom climate that encourages learner involvement.



**Figure 3.6** The interrelatedness of communication style, teaching style, relationships in the classroom and the teaching-learning beliefs of teachers (Drinkwater, 2002:54)

Ankiewicz (1990:78-83) distinguishes the various types of communication styles of the teacher as follows:

- **Dominant style component**

The dominant style is characterised by communicators who tend to exercise strict control to all communication and social interaction.

- **Dramatic style component**

The use of exaggerations, fantasies, stories, metaphors and fluctuations in rhythm and tone of voice are emphasised. They apply these to emphasize what is important and to get and keep the attention.

- **Precise style component**

This style shows that the teacher has mastered his subject well - concepts are explained without vagueness and very explicit in the teaching and learning situation.

- **Contentious style component**

Contentious style is related to the dominant component and these communicators like to elicit argument in order to get reaction.

- **Lively style component**

According to this style, body movements, facial expressions, eye contact and gestures are used to bring across the message. Enthusiasm is associated with this style.

- **Impressive style component**

This style component is characterised by the message being conveyed in such a way that it is not easily forgotten.

- **Relaxed style component**

According to Drinkwater (2002), people using this style component are relaxed, without any nervous mannerisms. They have a lot of self-confidence and are in control of communication situations.

- **Attention style component**

This style component also concentrates on the interaction between the sender and the receiver of the message. Feedback, empathy and listening are emphasized.

- **Open style component**

The “open” style component reveals something about his/her personal self. It enhances interpersonal relationships.

- **Friendly style component**

This style component is characterised by acknowledging the other person in a conversation. The communicator indicates that the other person is worth being acknowledged and approved of.

- **Communication self-concept**

This style deals with the concept or image that communicators have concerning their own communication skills.

### **3.6.5 The teaching skills of the teacher**

The prevailing classroom climate determines the efficiency of teaching and learning. The classroom environment is composed of all the psychosocial relations in the classroom and also refers to the individual perception of the classroom environment, or the emotional context within which the learning takes place (Vreken, 1994 as quoted by Lepholletse, 2001:19). Effective teaching should provide learners with the potential that can actually made them to remember more material for future use. Without skills and teachers’ confidence brought about by knowledge, learners are apt to loose interest in learning. Vreken (1994) also distinguishes three important teaching skills that are very

important for effective teaching and learning, namely questioning, explaining and structuring. These skills will be discussed in the paragraphs to follow.

### 3.6.5.1 Questioning

Vreken (1994) and Drinkwater (2002:64) identify different types of questions and the ones frequently mentioned are the convergent (having only one correct answer) and divergent (having more than one possible correct answer) types. According to Drinkwater (2002:64), questions can be asked considering different levels. These researchers are in favour of a popular categorisation for these levels, namely Bloom's taxonomy of the cognitive domain. They are listed as:

- knowledge: recalling, recognising
- comprehension: demonstrating, understanding
- application: using information to solve a convergent question
- analysis: critical thinking, identifying reason
- synthesis: divergent, original thinking
- evaluation: judging the merits of ideas

Drinkwater (2005:64-65) mentions that good questions should have the qualities of being clear, purposeful, brief, natural, adapted to the level of the class, and thought provoking. Vreken (1994) and Drinkwater (2002:64) describe the questioning techniques as follows:

- probing: asking another question, perhaps on a lower level
- prompting: giving a clue
- waiting time: waiting the optimal time for a response from learners, and
- redirecting: listening to the answer of a learner and without any reaction redirecting the question to a next learner

Drinkwater (2002) concludes that the above-mentioned types of questions can probably have an influence on the classroom climate.

### 3.6.5.2 Explaining

The following three aspects of explaining are important:

- **Using the correct teaching media**

Teachers are advised to use the appropriate media available to them to assist with the explaining (Drinkwater, 2002:66).

- **Using examples**

Ample and appropriate examples must be used by teachers when explaining learning material in the classroom. However, examples that are best understood by learners would be those related to the world and environment in which they live (Drinkwater, 2002:66).

- **Making use of dramatic effect**

According to Drinkwater (2002:66) learners' attention can be captured by the use of dramatic effects such as simulations or surprise elements so that important information can be recalled better.

### 3.6.5.3 Structuring

Vreken, as quoted by Drinkwater (2002:66), asserts that structuring is considered an important skill for learning new content. Structuring entails being able to do the following:

- give an overview of the new content
- create a suitable context
- create a framework for the new content
- recapitulate from time to time

The fact that teachers are frustrated with the conditions under which they teach, does not bode well for the classroom learning. Lack of enthusiasm about their work on the part of the teachers can find its way into classroom teaching activities, which means that learners can pick up on it. This will influence the psych-socio classroom climate.

Therefore, duties that are met in the classroom ask for particular skills from the teachers in which the scope for creative and motivating behaviour is not restricted (Moloi, 1997:54). In order to create and sustain conditions that can promote learning for individual learners in the classroom, a morally responsible and pedagogically effective teacher must be able to pursue a commitment to inclusion as opposed to selective exclusion (Clark, 1990:263).

The preceding statement informs teachers of what is expected from them when they interact with learners during the teaching and learning process. The teaching style of a teacher is considered important during dynamic communication. The types of teaching styles they use/apply should encourage learners to participate during classroom interaction. The types of questions posed to learners should become thought provoking ones. Learners enjoy questions that challenge their thinking capacity. When teachers use examples during their teaching, they should use examples that are related to the world and environment in which the learners live.

### **3.7 Different values and character problems related to secondary school learners**

#### **3.7.1 Introduction**

One of the aims of educational reform in our country today is the building of a culture of effective teaching and learning in schools. However, according to researchers such as Lickona (1993:6), the increasing numbers of people across the ideological spectrum believe that our society is in deep moral trouble. This disheartening situation seems to be everywhere. The deep-seated ills of our learners require the concerted effort of teachers and parents (Nucci, 2000). The state of education in South Africa is not encouraging. It is fraught with problems that include poor comparison internationally, poor matric pass rates and decreasing learner enrolment at tertiary education institutions (Lepholletse, 2001:1). According to Drinkwater (2002:3) Physical Science, Mathematics and Technology have been identified as key subjects for a growing and sustainable economy in our country (RSA). However, the achievement at school level concerning these subjects leaves much to be desired (Drinkwater, 2002). In her report, this researcher, indicates that in the TIMMS-Repeat survey of the 28 countries that participated, South African learners have scored by far the lowest. Less than 0.5% of the learners from South Africa reached the International Top 10% benchmark and the

bottom 5% scored lower than 7% for the test (Drinkwater, 2002:3). Therefore, the academic performance and scholastic achievement levels of learners do not seem to increase dramatically, as reflected in matric results (Riley, 1998:91; Hartshorne, 1990:72; Collings, 1998:27; Drinkwater, 2002:3). However, this concern relates to the decline of moral and performance character in both teachers and learners. The absence of work ethics amongst both teachers and learners, dishonesty, and absence of responsibility on all levels coincide with increasing self-centeredness and growing ethical illiteracy that also contribute to this moral crisis (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:359; Lickona, 1993:6). Schools in South Africa and globally have become volatile and unpredictable learning organisations. Society is experiencing deep moral trouble. Moloi (2002:1) indicates in her research that: *“He that will not apply new remedies must expect new evils; for time is the greatest innovator”*.

Therefore, a learning organisation is one which acknowledges successful strategies related to learner accomplishment (Ntuli, 1999:32). Excellence, according to Lickona and Davidson (2005), is born from culture, and the only way to develop excellence and ethics in the character of individual learners is to create a school culture that embodies those qualities. Similarly, Pretorius (1998:75) regards the school as an “instrument” of society through which socialisation takes place and knowledge, skills and attitudes are conveyed to learners in accordance with what society will demand from them as adults in future. A universal concern is the increase of the prevalence and gravity of behavioural problems in schools. These social problems must again be seen in a societal context. They exist because members of society at a given point in time became conscious that it is undesirable and subject to improvement. The problems are identified as follows: poor discipline, media, negative peer group pressure, violence in schools, substance and drug abuse, crime, bullying, early sexual behaviour, pregnancy and sexual transmitted disease.

### **3.7.2 Discipline in schools**

The present situation in South African schools demonstrates that a lack of discipline and self-discipline among high school learners has led to a continuation of unsuccessful learning and teaching (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b). Mabebe and Prinsloo (2000:34) assert that discipline in a positive sense refers to learning, regulated scholarship, guidance and orderliness. Ntuli (1999:32) on the other hand, defines a discipline problem as a

behaviour (not merely the expression of a feeling) that disrupts (or is potentially disruptive to) the learning of the rest of the class (not just the learning of the disruptor), or disrupts the sole responsibility of the teacher (not just the personal feelings of the teacher). The following factors are considered by Ntuli as disruptive disciplinary problems in schools: late-coming to classes, failing to write assignments, absenteeism, undermining of teacher's authority by learners, violence in the classroom, and learner power. Such problems may hamper the teaching and learning activities, creating unhealthy classroom conditions unsuitable to the learning atmosphere. However, by maintaining discipline in the classroom a rapport between learners and teachers can be established. Rapport, according to Ntuli (1999) involves aspects such as respect, regard, concern, harmony, solidarity and affiliation. Discipline, as Mabeba and Prinsloo said, may qualify as an integral part of an effective educational endeavour in which parents and teachers give assistance to a help-seeking child. According to Edwards (1993:1), schools are supposed to create a learning environment that is conducive to learning, as learning is in essence, what school is all about. Learning is not attained by chance. It must be sought for with ardour and attended to with diligence (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:17). Edwards (1993:1) identify several roles as factors related to discipline problems. They are discussed as follows:

### **3.7.2.1 The role of the home in discipline**

Various home experiences have an influence on children's behaviour. If children spend little time with their families at home, they may end up seeking unsuitable social experiences outside, experiences that sometimes have negative results. Factors such as divorce and poverty as well as physical and mental abuse, damage to self-control, attention deprivation, love deprivation, and excessive control can adversely affect children's ability to function properly. Therefore, children from severely dysfunctional families in particular, become victims and they face enormous adjustment at schools.

### **3.7.2.2 The role of society in discipline**

Family influences and social influences on discipline are interrelated (Edwards, 1993:6). Therefore, rejection at home, for example, may encourage children to search elsewhere for acceptance. These children are often attracted by gangs, which may satisfy a child's need for attention and for identity (Edwards, 1993). A problem often associated with

gangs, but certainly not limited to them, is drug abuse. Selling illegal drugs do not only influence learners' behaviour directly, but it also alters the general atmosphere in the school (Edwards, 1993:6). Peer group pressure, which is part of everyday life at school, contributes significantly to shaping students' behaviour.

### **3.7.2.3 The role of the school in discipline**

According to Edwards (1993:6), teachers consider learners to be the source of school discipline problems, but he feels that many behavioural problems should be looked at as normal reactions to deficiencies in the school institution with teachers and administrators as directors of the educational enterprise. According to him, the school may not only promote misbehaviour in learners, but it may also help create conditions that put children at risk generally. Therefore, teachers as well as administrators can invite discipline problems if they:

- misunderstand learning conditions and require learners to learn information that is not meaningful to them;
- fail to encourage the development of independent thinking patterns in students;
- establish rigid conditions for students to meet in order to feel accepted;
- sponsor a competitive grading system that prohibits success for the majority of students and erodes their self-concept;
- exercise excessive control over students and fail to provide an environment in which children can become autonomous and independent;
- use discipline procedures that promote misbehaviour

### **3.7.3 Factors contributing to discipline problems in the classroom**

#### **3.7.3.1 Instruction without context**

According to Edwards (1993:7) and Wynne and Walberg (1985/6:15), many teachers fail their learners if they teach concepts as though they were abstract, self-contained entities. Learners learn by acquiring information in a real-life context and by applying it to new situations and experiences outside the school premises. They often fail to make proper associations and are unable to apply what they learn to the problems they may

face each day (Wynne & Walberg, 1985/6:15). Therefore, learner character development depends greatly on the school treating its academic programme seriously (Wynne & Walberg, 1985/6:15). In their research, Wynne and Walberg came to the conclusion that without purposeful academic activities, learners correctly perceive that their school time is not being spent purposefully.

### **3.7.3.2 Failure to teach thinking skills**

When learners are consistently unable to solve their problems, they often seek to escape them through alcohol or other drugs or various thrill-seeking activities (Edwards, 1993:8). Conversely, such children usually drop out of school and commit suicide. Often children fail to find satisfactory solutions to their problems because they have difficulty thinking through them, some have trouble organising their lives and responding appropriately to life's demands, others are unable to set priorities for themselves (Edwards, 1993:8). Osborne and Wittrock (1983:489) and Edwards (1993:8-9) assert that children resist knowledge assimilation. Instead, they insist on adding to their present conceptual structures only that knowledge that makes sense to them personally. Teachers should introduce learners to higher order thinking skills so that they can make more valid conceptual structures of the world (Vreken,1994). Failure to do so, dooms learners to the frustration of taking simplistic lessons memorised in school and trying to apply them to the complex problems of the modern world. Teaching thinking skills can enhance their motivation and help to solve the perennial problems of failure, disillusionment and unmet potential (Edwards, 1993: 8; Drinkwater, 2002:160).

### **3.7.3.3 Non-acceptance**

Many teachers convey non-acceptance to some of their learners without being aware of it (Edwards, 1993:9). If teachers force learners to do a task in a prescribed way, they implicitly show lack of confidence in the learners' ability to make decisions about their own work. However, the simplest way to avoid conveying non-acceptance is to allow learners to evaluate themselves more in order to establish and enhance their own directions and expectations (Edwards, 1993:8; Halstead & Taylor, 2000:172).

#### **3.7.3.4 Competitive grading**

Competition between learners is fostered by the school through the use of grades. According to Edwards (1993:8) and Wynne and Walberg (1985/6:16), very few learners can cope with taking tests. Therefore, the rest must find other means of bolstering their sense of worth.

#### **3.7.3.5 Excessive coercion**

Edwards (1993:10) asserts that much is said by teachers and administrators about teaching learners to be more responsible. This "responsibility" often consists of completing assignments on time and accomplishing other tasks as directed. Learners who are judged to be the most responsible and mature are those who comply exactly with expectations. According to Edwards responsibility requires the exercise of free will and the opportunity to make choices.

#### **3.7.3.6 Punishment**

Punishment is the only method of discipline used by teachers and administrators (Edwards, 1993:11). Although it is intended to reduce misbehaviour, punishment instead routinely increases misbehaviour. However, when learners are treated roughly and in a punitive manner, their disruptive behaviour, apprehension, and restlessness increase, their involvement in school decreases and they also react in a similar way to teacher's directives (Edwards, 1993:11). Van Dyk (2000:239) as quoted by Oosthuizen *et al.* (2003:375) asserts that discipline from a Biblical/deformational perspective should be restorative and corrective, rather than punitive.

Lawrence, Steed and Young (1989:45), as quoted by Mabeba and Prinsloo (2000), regard discipline problems as the manifestation of behaviour that interferes with the teaching process or seriously upsets the normal running of the school. Rogers (1994:151) cites with Lawrence, Steed and Young (1989:45) that discipline problems are the manifestation of disruptive behaviour that "significantly affects fundamental rights to be safe, to be treated with respect and to learn". Additionally, Wolhuter and Steyn (2003:527) assert that it includes all behaviour that obstructs successful learning, also teacher incompetence.

Several psycho-educationists such as Rogers (1994:22), Lewis (1991:76), Dreikurs and Cassel (1991:34) and Painter and Corsini (1990:356) assert that the main reasons why learners misbehave can be summed up as: attention seeking, a desire for power (influence, intimidation); revenge (retaliation, vendetta); and a display of inadequacy (frustration and/or pain). According to Wolhuter and Steyn (2003:527), a teachers' general competence has a strong influence on his/her learners' behaviour. They have mentioned some classroom techniques that are applicable to minimise discipline problems in classrooms such as:

- a teacher should plan and organise both the classroom and the lesson to keep learners interested and minimise opportunities for disruption;
- continually observing or "scanning" the behaviour of the class;
- being aware of and controlling their own behaviour, including stance and tone of voice;
- modelling the standards and courtesy they expect from learners;
- emphasising the positive, including praise for good behaviour, as well as good work;
- using reprimands sparingly and consistently;
- using punishment sparingly and consistently;
- analysing their classroom management performance and learning from it

According to Lewis *et al.* (1998:447-448), the current school discipline practices often aggravate and contribute to learners' patterns of challenging behaviour. Compelling evidence shows that parents, teachers and communities do contribute to the development of problem behaviour by failing to provide the necessary social skills and support and by modelling inappropriate behaviour (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:30, Lewis *et al.*, 1998:446). However, this indicates that children may enter the school already having a learning history that sets them up for further behavioural problems. Schools are therefore advised to act and respond in a proactive manner.

### **3.7.4 Violence in schools**

Elliot *et al.* (1998:13) define violence as "the threat or use of physical force with the intention of causing physical injury, damage, or intimidation of another person". Violence

in schools should be defined to include “anything that affronts a learner or teacher or staff member’s ability to function in a safe, conducive learning environment” (Wiseman, 1993:3). School violence has emerged as a topic of interest for the South African public during the past ten years. Events involving school violence received considerable media coverage and political attention, but very little national data exist to support policy decisions. Exposure to school violence has immediate and long-term negative effects on learners in South African schools and also internationally.

In American schools, violence is indicated as having decreased if compared to South African schools (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8). School violence has been synonymous with criminal activities in various schools: gangs, wars, illicit drug use, vandalism and personal assault. However, a growing number of learners perceive the school environment as unsafe. According to Alshuler (1980:130), the most prevalent forms of school violence is discipline conflicts initiated by teachers who oppress, exploit, and fail to recognise learners as persons.

With regard to this, the definition of violence offered by MacDonald (1997:144) seems to be appropriate: “Violence is anything that denies human dignity and leads to a sense of helplessness or hopelessness.” MacDonald (1997:144) argues that the problem of identifying violence in such narrow, legalistic terms is that it then remains an issue of law enforcement and does not include behaviour based on the “unjust or unwarranted exercise of force.” According to Van den Aardeweg (1987:223), as quoted by De Wet (2003:91), school violence encompasses aspects such as vandalism, unrest, learner-on-learner attacks, parent-educator attacks, educator-learner attacks, and other types of unacceptable behaviour.

### **3.7.5 Crime in schools**

#### **3.7.5.1 Learner crime**

De Wet (2003) found schools and neighborhoods to be danger zones where crime is rampant. Ayers (1997:48) as quoted by De Wet (2003) asserts youth crime as a runaway train – reckless, out of control, unpredictable, dangerous, picking up speed as it carries down the track towards our towns or neighborhoods. An empirical investigation done by De Wet (2003), also report that the decision to look at educators’ perceptions rather than crime statistics was influenced by the view that educators who know their

learners are probably the persons that have an intimate knowledge of the scope of learner crime and crime-related behaviour during and after school hours (De Wet, 2003:168; Snyman, 1999:435). De Wet (2003) writes:

“Schools provide regular access to learners throughout the developmental years, perhaps the only consistent access to large numbers of crime-prone healthy young children”.

Several proponents such as Tshwete (2001:2-3), De Wet (2003:169) and Allen (1997:12), have distinguished various typologies concerning crime. They are as follows: violent crimes, property related crimes and other less serious offences, including ignoring age restriction, misconduct and truancy.

### **3.7.5.2 Convictional crime**

- **Violent crimes**

According to De Wet (2003:169) and Snyman (2003:435), serious criminal offences involving juveniles include crimes against life and against the physical integrity of the individual. Murder is defined as an unlawful and intentional act that cause the death of another person (Snyman, 1999). Snyman mentioned the elements of murder as follows:

(a) the causing of death (b) of another person (c) unlawfully and (d) on purpose.

Culpable homicide refers to an unlawful and negligent act that causes someone else's death (De Wet, 2003:169). The following are examples of some elements concerning crime given by Snyman (1999:447): (a) the addition of violence (or the instilling and fear that violence will be added) (b) unlawfully and (c) on purpose. Assault is defined as an unlawful and intentional act of violence perpetrated against the body of another person by direct or indirect means, or as a threat of immediate personal violence directed at another person in circumstances where the threatened person is led to believe that the person who has made a threat has the intention and the capacity to execute his/her threat (De Wet, 2003:169; Snyman, 1999:447).

Violence on the school premises is generally committed by learners. Examples that are related to serious learner-on-learner acts are as follows: rape, murder,

drive-by shootings, firing arms in the school building or terrain, carrying a fire arm on the school premises, and wounding or killing a fellow learner (De Wet, 2003). Such behaviour is always committed by boys. On the other hand, girls are also starting to become increasingly more aggressive, and some come to school well armed (De Wet, 2003:169). Teachers are now becoming targets of learner aggression. Van der Westhuizen (1994:4) as quoted by De Wet (2003:169) as well as Snyman (1999:435), suggest that violent crimes such as murder and serious assault is a given in South African schools. According to the above-mentioned scholars, violent acts by educators that are directed at learners, take place within a negative school environment. However, teachers who do not acknowledge or take care of learners' humanity and who act in ways that are sensitive and show lack of involvement, are held responsible for such occurrences. Such teachers serve as poor role model in schools as well as in society at large (Sithole, 1996:25-26; Nxumalo, 1990). Violence in schools is a reflection of society in which juvenile grow up: "What they [the youth] are living is violence and more violence!" said De Wet (2003:169). Snyman (1999:305-306) regards membership of a gang and bullying as not being a violation of the law in South Africa.

- **Theft**

De Wet (2003) defines theft as the illegal taking, carrying off, leading away or driving off with another person's property. This researcher suggests the following as related to general forms of theft: shoplifting, theft of bicycles, pick-pocketing, theft from cars, purse and handbag grabbing, and theft from buildings. Again De Wet (2003) laments that even though it is wrong to confirm that all learners engage in acts of theft, it is also true that many of these acts are committed by learners. Theft generally occurs during school hours on days and/or times when the normal routine is disrupted, i.e. on sports days, and at the end of the term, when goods that have been delivered and have not been placed in their appropriate places (De Wet, 2003).

- **Vandalism**

Juvenile vandalism refers to the intentional damage, spoiling, ruin or destruction of public or private property by juvenile delinquents who are not the direct owner of the property. Various types of vandalism have been distinguished. According to De

Wet (2003:170), incidental vandalism may result from a criminal act, i.e. a building is vandalized during an act of house-breaking. Again, school buildings are targets as a result of learners' negative associations with these buildings.

### **3.7.6 Bullying**

Lickona and Davidson (2005:3) indicate that in the twenty-four high schools they have visited, bullying and harassing seem to be the biggest problems. Jones (1991:16) defines the relationship between the bully and his/her victim as follows: The bully is someone who is responsible for pre-meditated, continuous, malicious and belittling tyranny. The victim is on the receiving end, repeatedly, defenseless and typically without a champion. According to Smith (2003:81), a learner is being bullied or victimised when he or she is exposed, repeatedly over a period of time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other learners. It is a negative action when someone intentionally inflicts injury or discomfort on another. Bullying can also involve a pattern of repeated aggressive behaviour with negative intent from one child to another where there is a power difference.

Smith (2003:85) identifies several factors that influence the development and maintenance of bullying problems. These factors are found as being particularly pertinent to:

- the basic emotional attitude of the parent
- the extent to which the primary caretaker (usually the mother) has been permissive and allowed aggressive behaviour on the part of the child
- the use of power-assertive child rearing methods
- the temperament of the child
- the socio-economic conditions of the family
- the media, videos and movies

Therefore, negligence on the part of parents may tend to cultivate bullies, so the way children are disciplined is extremely important (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:3). According to these researchers, parents should try to teach their children to curb aggressive impulses by consistently applying non-hostile, non-threatening, non-physical sanctions for rule breaking. Therefore, parents should take note that their primary task and

responsibility is educating the child (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:357; Wolhuter & Steyn, 2003). Using yelling with an aggressive child simply reinforces aggression and also breeds resentment and retaliatory feelings. For teachers, an effective intervention can be applied as a measuring tool in eradicating bullying from the playground. Smith (2003:67) suggests the following:

- that the physical environment of the school should be altered or designed to reduce the likelihood of bullying occurring;
- interesting and diverse play areas should be created and the provision of meaningful and stimulating activities during breaks would ensure that learners are less likely to become bored;
- teacher and learner interactions may need to be consciously modified by teachers in order to provide learners with good models of social and cooperative behaviour;
- learners in the upper grades can also be trained in peer support to provide mediation to younger learners.

### **3.7.7 Rape**

Rape is considered as a violent crime and refers to unlawful and intentional sexual intercourse with a person without that person's consent (De Wet, 2003). She confirms that, a disturbing tendency of rape is committed by school teachers. In this regard, schoolgirls are targeted and this has led to a substantial public health problem in South Africa (De Wet, 2003). Leggett (1999:33-34) indicates in his research findings that rape is seen as part of a wider phenomenon of lawlessness.

### **3.7.8 Drugs, alcohol and substance abuse**

Drugs are defined as "any chemical entity or mixture of entities not required for the maintenance of health that alters biological functioning or structure when administered" (Maseko *et al*, 2003:151). Blaze-Gosden (1987:18) refers to drugs as any chemical or plant-derived substance that can result in the person using it to experience mental, emotional or physical change, while the use for that purpose is illegal. According to De Wet (2003), the relationship between the use of drugs and crime is multidimensional. This scholar further contends that drugs serve as a catalyst for an enormous number of

violent crimes, which have an organised dimension, and are often committed by drug addicts for the sake of satisfying their expensive dependence.

### **3.7.9 Teenage pregnancy and sexually transmitted disease**

Adolescent sexual behaviour is pronounced in terms of problem behaviour or risk behaviour, for example having multiple partners (Kosunen *et al.*, 2003:337). According to this definition, early sexual activity is considered to reflect issues in adolescent development rather than successful adolescent passage (Flisher *et al.*, 2003:537; De Wet, 2004:170; Kosunen *et al.*, 2003:338). Adolescent sexual behaviour is regarded as socially rather than individually constituted and the meaning a community gives to particular behaviour varies within different socio-cultural contexts (Kosunen *et al.*, 2003).

Before one can communicate about risky sexual behaviour, it is important to comprehend the contexts in which this behaviour manifests. According to research conducted by Kosunen *et al.* (2003) recently, about a multi-country research project of the Joint United Nations Programmes on HIV/AIDS, examined the complexity of youth relationships, socio-cultural contexts and sexuality and called for a re-thinking of the sexuality of young people by prioritising young people in accordance to risk by definition. This insightful framework asserts that sexual practices and relationships are understood relatively by considering the underlying meanings and intentions. Therefore, the economic context is one of the factors contributing to the manifestation of sexual behaviour (Kosunen *et al.*, 2003). The former asserts that the influence of economics on sexual behaviour as clarified by the overwhelming evidence that women and girls throughout the world often trade sex as a strategy for meeting basic needs, they become prostitutes (De Wet, 2003). Age and self-determination factors are predictors of female decision-making involving early sexual involvement (Kosunen *et al.*, 2003).

Research findings indicate that globally, teenagers are involved in sexual intercourse at an age called 'early' (Kosunen *et al.*, 2003:338). In the European countries it was found that 30% of teenagers experienced their first sexual intercourse before the age of 16 and higher figures are reported in the USA, Australia, Canada and South Africa (Mayekiso & Twaise, 1993:22; Flisher *et al.*, 2003:537). Flisher *et al.* (2003) posit that although sexual activity is considered as a normative behaviour during the transition period from adolescent to adulthood, it is evident that teens engage in sexual activity

before they reach maturity because of the factors they experience from their peers and also from an unsuitable family background of substance use.

Teenage pregnancy in schools has been a topic of serious concern globally. Therefore, it is perceived as a major biological, mental health, and social problem (Schoeman, 1990). Mufune (1999:362) supports the above statement by giving the following reasons: that teenage motherhood also correlates with low income and conditions of structural poverty, it is associated with low education levels as most teenage mothers drop out of school, it is associated with family disintegration owing to the pressure of unemployment, rural-to-urban migration and domestic violence.

According to Schoeman (1990:13), the adverse physical, psychological, social, and demographic consequences do not only put the lives of the mother and infant at risk, but it also threatens the quality of their lifestyle and sexually transmitted diseases, including HIV/AIDS, which is on the increase. Reviewing evidence in South African context, Schoeman (1990) concludes that teenage pregnancy among blacks is on average experienced at the age of seventeen years with rising rates of teenage pregnancy. Cultural opposition and opposition of male partners to artificial family planning as well as the inconvenience and cost of family planning are found to be contributing factors towards the high rates of teenage pregnancy (Mayekiso &Twaise, 1993).

### **3.7.10 HIV/AIDS**

HIV/AIDS is regarded as a societal problem where youths are the people experiencing the dilemma of being affected by HIV/AIDS. It continues to be the most crucial public health problem in South Africa (Basupeng, 2002:2). HIV/AIDS is caused by sexual intercourse. Teenagers cause increasing concern in terms of spreading the AIDS-virus via sexual contact because they are the group involved in sexual activity, specifically unprotected sex (Mufune, 1999). In the study conducted by Basupeng (2002:2), evidence is given that approximately 10% of the whole South African population is HIV-positive. Basupeng said that the infection rate among both males and females at the age of 15 years is close to zero but rises rapidly to a peak at about 26 years of age among women and about 32 years of age for men. Therefore, the forgoing information has led to the fear that AIDS seem to arise from a lack of knowledge specifically of disease transmission and also suggests that the youth in general has limited knowledge

about HIV/AIDS (Basupeng, 2002:2). Although learners possess some knowledge about HIV/AIDS, this knowledge seems to be unevenly distributed and insufficient.

### **3.7.11 The media as a problem area**

Lickona and Davidson (2005:8) perceive the electronic media in the twentieth century as a powerful rising fourth force that has an influence on youth values. So, schools are now faced with challenges because the youth is growing up and are immersed from their earliest years in a media saturated environment, one that is in many respects subversive of both intellectual and moral development (Abdool, 2005:23, Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8). However, the social institutions also have to step in in order to shape the conscience and character of the next generation (Asmal, 2001:8; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8). Teenagers are growing up in a media-driven popular culture whose values are largely antithetical to intellectual and moral excellence (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8). They are good at imitating what adults do and anything that is taking place around them. These researchers assert that the media can affect what viewers believe and also how they behave.

However, teachers who are regarded as the best, just like the best schools, have a crucial role to play in this regard. They go into education to change lives, to make a difference in the kind of person a learner becomes (Strike, 1993) by helping them find direction, strive for excellence and act ethically in all that they do, hoping to make a positive difference in the world (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8; Wynne & Walberg, 1985/6:17). In helping them to become the best persons they can be, schools are still faced with many other challenges besides those represented by youth trends (Lickona & Davidson, 2005). They are faced with extremely difficult institutional challenges (Asmal, 2001). However, for schools to be in a better position, they need to find ways in which they can establish the school-wide conditions that will support the implementation of a holistic vision of education that will help learners to be able to realise their potential for excellence (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8). Such conditions, as already mentioned by Lickona and Davidson, are strong leadership, optimal school size, time for staff planning and reflection, supportive scheduling, manageable teaching loads, a safe and orderly environment, trusting and respectful relationships. However, teachers for their part need to keep their idealism, energy and commitment in maximizing their positive impact on learners even when the school conditions are less than optimal (Lickona & Davidson,

2005:8). Many teachers, according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:8), Wynne and Walberg (1985/6:16) as well as Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1996:416), are considered to be diligent and have touched learners' lives in transformative ways.

Again, for school missions to foster excellence and ethics, two essential parts of character formation have to be taken into consideration, .i.e. the performance character and the moral character domains (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:18). According to these scholars, it is assumed that employers as well as schools are not working together in order to meet the needs of learners and the Americans have lodged complaints about high schools because of their poor work habits and poor academic skills. According to their study, learners in American schools lack basic skills in Mathematics, English and Reading. For them, this state of affairs is caused by several factors that include:

- That many learners do not work hard to develop strong academic skills because they think grades do not matter;
- High schools do not teach character skills that employers want, for example attendance, deportment, dependability, initiative and ability to work with others;
- Teachers advocate college for all without helping low achieving learners to realize the importance of grades and without helping them make back-up plans.

Schools that hope to build learners of character must consider a comprehensive, all embracing approach to character education that uses all phases of school life to foster character development (Lickona, 1991:68-69; 1993:6-10; Wynne & Walberg, 1985/6:15-16). This approach aims at making respect and responsibility living values in the character of the young. Therefore, character is understood as a pathway to both excellence and ethics (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:13).

Education in South Africa is in crisis for decades now and therefore, poverty can be one of the contributing factor. This situation seems to have a negative impact on future of young generation/learners. Something must be done by the government together with the political parties to resolve such problems in schools. They have become hiding places for criminals. Learners do not respect each other as well their teachers. Therefore, our education system is going down the drain. There is lack of discipline from teachers and learners in schools.

### **3.8 CONCLUSION**

As already observed above, learners who are truly not committed to their school work are more likely to engage in undesirable behaviour. However, in South Africa, education has an important role to in the life of every learner. However, with our country's diversity of race and complex problems, education should assists to establish good environments where learning becomes effective and efforts should also be made by the government and political parties with the aim of replacing the anti-social behaviour that prevail in schools. By introducing and implementing effective programmes for character education in schools will also be beneficial for improving the kind of character that exist in these organisations.

# CHAPTER 4

## PROGRAMMES FOR CHARACTER AND VALUES EDUCATION

---

### 4.1 Introduction

The teachers' role was traditionally perceived as that of imparting knowledge to learners. They were dispensers of information to learners during the process of teaching and learning. Classrooms are considered places where a good deal of a learner's social and academic behaviour is modified. In addition, based on the issues and dilemmas that teachers experience during the teaching sessions, it would be better for schools to introduce programmes that can effectively enhance the teaching of character education to learners. Once more, for teachers to reach a successful reduction of behaviour problems in schools, they must try to revert to their traditional role as educators and involve learners in every event that takes place in the classroom, instead of only teaching them. Character education programmes that are effectively implemented can yield good outcomes for learners.

### 4.2 Different programmes

Wringe (1998:282) and Rens (2005:25-40), as quoted by Abdool (2005:67), ask the question: "Whose values?". They also ask that if a school decides to present values education, will it be possible to communicate with different role-players in education? According to De Klerk and Rens (2003b); Abdool (2005) and Rhodes (2003) there is a manifesto on values, education and democracy that was established by the South African National Education Department where the government clearly indicates which values are crucial and should be implemented within schools and higher education institutions in this country. Therefore, there are several programmes also identified by Abdool (2005), that are appropriate for values education and character building in schools. They are discussed as follows:

## 4.2.1 Living values educational programme

Arweck and Nesbitt (2004:248) define living values programme as an educational programme which takes 'a holistic view of the person' and recognises that an individual is comprised of physical, intellectual, emotional and spiritual dimensions' as well as to provide guiding principles and tools for the development of the person. According to Delors and Jacques *et al.* (1996:1), the living values education program (LVEP) is a comprehensive values education program that offers a wide variety of experiential values activities and practical methodologies to teachers, facilitators, parents and caregivers that enable children and young adults to explore and develop twelve universal values that are cherished and aspired to all over the world, namely: peace, respect, co-operation, freedom, happiness, honesty, humility, love, responsibility, simplicity, tolerance, unity. Therefore, these values are regarded as the sustaining force of human society and progress (Delors & Jacques *et al.*, 1996:1).

This program, according to Delors and Jacques *et al.* (1996:2) and Abdool (2005:71) is being implemented in 67 countries at over 4,000 sites. Its purpose is to provide guiding principles and tools for the development of the whole child, and promotes education that involves the affective as well as the cognitive domains, for example physical, intellectual, emotional and spiritual dimensions (Rhodes, 2003:61; Taplin, 1996:142; Abdool, 2005:71; Delors & Jacques *et al.*, 1996:3). The main purpose of this program is:

- to help individuals think about and reflect on different values and the practical implications of expressing in relation to themselves, others, the community, and the world at large;
- to deepen understanding, motivation, and responsibility with regard to making positive personal and social choices;
- to inspire individuals to choose their own personal, social, moral, and spiritual values, and be aware of practical methods for developing and deepening them; and,
- to encourage teachers and caregivers to look at education as providing learners with a philosophy of living, thereby facilitating their overall growth, development, and choices so that they may integrate themselves in the community with respect, confidence, and purpose.

## **4.2.2 Character counts coalition**

Character counts coalition is a project developed by the Josephson Institute in co-operation with other organizations (Abdool, 2005:71). It focuses on a complete development of young Americans based on ethical values. These values are called “Six pillars of character”. Abdool (2005:71) mentioned them as follows:

- trust
- respect
- responsibility
- care
- citizenship
- justice

According to Abdool (2005:72), the aim of this program is to fight physical violence, injustice and dishonesty in order to prepare a healthy generation for the future.

## **4.2.3 Canadian Olympic Values Education Program**

The Canadian Olympic values education program is a program based on the seven Canadian Olympic values (Abdool, 2005:67). According to Abdool, this program is integrated with the daily life experiences of learners. It is also based on the following values:

- pleasure
- justice
- respect
- personal development
- leadership
- peace
- excellence

However, the values that this program presents, according to Abdool, are not limited to subjects such as sport and movement science, but is also integrated into subjects such as Geography, History, Languages, Mathematics and Natural sciences.

#### 4.2.4 National Association of Elementary School Principals Values Program

Abdool (2005:68) posits that the organisation for the National association of elementary schools' principals in America is based on a program called "Champion your school's values through values education activities". According to him, this program emphasizes the following values:

- responsibility
- respectable behaviour
- honesty
- good citizenship

This program again, represents values such as:

**Modelling of behaviour:** Since learners are good observers, teachers are advised to display good behaviour in front of their learners.

**Spoken words:** It is important for teachers as well as parents and the community to communicate values in different ways that suit learners.

**Reward:** The reward of positive behaviour with regard to values education in a school can lead to success (Abdool, 2005:68).

#### 4.2.5 National character education centre

The National character education centre (NCEC), is an organisation in America that focuses on respect and responsibility as their two crucial values (Abdool, 2005:69). In his study Abdool (2005), indicates that 700 schools in North America have participated in this program.

#### 4.2.6 Centre for the fourth and fifth R's

According to Abdool (2005:69), there are generally acceptable values that are important for character building that is acknowledged globally. These general acceptable values are identified by Abdool as follows:

- respect for self and others

- responsibility
- justice
- care for others
- honesty
- fairness

According to Abdool (2005:69) and Lickona (1996:93), the program mentioned above by the centre for the fourth and fifth R's is defined as "The deliberate effort by the schools, families and the communities to help young people to understand, care about and act upon core ethical values". The centre provides three reasons why all schools should be engaged in character education, namely:

First, is that learners need good character to be fully human. They also need strength of mind, heart and will-qualities such as good judgment, honesty, empathy, caring, persistence, self-discipline, as well as moral courage to be capable of work and love, which are two of the hallmarks of human maturity (Lickona, 1991; Lickona, 1996).

Second, is that schools are better places, certainly more conducive to teaching and learning, when they are civil and caring human communities that promulgate, teach, celebrate and hold learners and staff accountable for the values on which good character is based (Lickona, 1996).

Third, is that it is essential to the task of building a moral society. Abdool (2005:69) and Lickona (1996:93-95) are of the opinion that this program should be built on the following criteria:

- basic ethical values form the basis of good character;
- the word character includes the following: cognitive thinking, feelings and action;
- effective character education requires an intentional pro-active and comprehensive approach that promotes the core values in all phases of school life;
- the school must become a caring community;
- opportunities must serve learners in order to take "moral action";
- there must be a meaningful and challenging academic curriculum that respects all learners and helps them to succeed;

- it must strive to develop learners' intrinsic motivation so that they should know what is right and wrong;
- the school staff must become a learning and moral community in which all share responsibility for the education of learners;
- parents and the community must be full partners in the character building effort;
- the programme itself requires moral leadership from both staff and learners;
- efforts must be measured, assessed, evaluated and corrected on a continuous basis.

From the above discussions, the implementation of character education programmes can bring a great difference concerning teachers and learners' behaviour in schools. They can help to build the character of both teachers and learners. Schools require moral leadership from parents, teachers and learners. The community together with parents should get involved as partners in the character building of learners. It should also become part of school culture.

### **4.3 The John Heenan model for values education-Cornerstone Values**

#### **4.3.1 Introduction**

This subsection concentrates on John Heenan's model for character education used by Abdool (2005:72-81). According to Abdool (2005:72), building character through cornerstone-values will be the most efficient and effective model for South Africa, because it is a method for character education, not a programme. It has been used in American schools to measure its effectiveness towards learners. What this method does is not meant for conducting lessons, or moralising children, but to create a school as well as a home and community where values can be easily communicated (Abdool, 2005:72).

However, "building character through Cornerstone values" is a New Zealand grown method for values education. Heenan (2000:9) together with Abdool (2005:72) posit that this method is rooted in the research of C.S. Lewis for the first time implemented at Waihopai School, Invercargill. The teaching content is intentionally limited to eight cornerstone values, the law of consequences as well as rationale and decision-making

(Heenan, 2000:9, Abdool, 2005:72). This method, according to Abdool (2005:72) and Heenan (2005:9), recognizes that cornerstone values are communicated through relationships. Therefore, the approach itself is not an addition to the curriculum. It rather uses all aspects of the school curriculum, the culture and management to promote character (Heenan, 2000:9). According to Abdool (2005:73), this approach seems to have a great impact on everything that happens in the school, from the principal's office to every staff-meeting, school function and the school's playground (Abdool, 2005:73). It also acknowledges the cognitive (head), emotional (the heart); and behavioural (the hand) (Abdool, 2005:73; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:20; Lickona, 1991:56). These three parts of the cornerstone values are inextricably linked to character and are also found within the eight cornerstone values (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:20; Heenan, 2000:7; Abdool, 2005:74). Good character is seen as the application of these eight cornerstone values (Heenan, 2000:7).

According to Abdool, these eight cornerstone values fall within the construction and operation of the curriculum, because it is the key to good character. Each and every value consists of the following:

- moral knowledge
- moral feeling
- moral action

It is possible to distinguish between these three components, but they cannot be separated from one another.

According to Abdool (2005:73) and Heenan (2000:9), there are two reasons why a school and its community would want to implement the cornerstones values approach to character education. They are as follows:

Firstly, to restore what a school may have lost;

Secondly, to conserve what the school may have retained.

### 4.3.2 What are Cornerstone values?

According to Heenan (2000:6) and Abdool (2005:73), cornerstone values are defined as principles that are consistent, universal and transcultural. They classify them as follows:

- honesty and truthfulness
- kindness
- care and concern for others
- compassion
- obedience
- respect
- responsibility
- duty
- character

Building character through cornerstone values offers hope of what communities and their schools could be. It is a reminder of what is important. It places first things first (Heenan, 2000:11).

### 4.3.3 The ground rules for Cornerstone values

In the above discussion, eight cornerstone values together with their three psychological dimensions have been identified. The ground-rules for cornerstone values will now be considered. They are as follows:

- **Honesty and truthfulness**

According to Abdool (2005:76), to be honest and to love is original and true while to be dishonest is fraudulent and unreal. Honesty is to show respect for the self as well as for others and dishonesty is detrimental to both. To be honest thus leads to openness, reliability and sincerity while dishonesty leads to falseness and deception. Honesty is a prerequisite for all human interactions, relationships and for social activities within the community. To be honest and to love the truth determines what type of a person you are (Abdool, 2005:76).

A few negative consequences of dishonesty are (Abdool, 2005:76):

- \* dishonesty deceives people because they believe lies.
- \* dishonesty becomes an easy way out when truth should triumph.
- \* dishonesty obstructs good communication.
- \* dishonesty destroys personal integrity.
- \* lies deceive the self.

According to what has been discussed above, teachers should rather be honest in their actions than to give lectures on it (Abdool, 2005:76). Therefore, learners are aware when their teachers hide away from the real truth and do not perceive the necessity to propagate the truth. Honesty and truth play a crucial role in each and every school environment as well as in classroom management. According to Abdool, there is a big question mark that hangs over dishonesty or cheating because of the following reasons:

- \* it lowers the individuals self-respect because s/he has no pride left of what s/he earned.
- \* it deceives others regarding what they think of you, while you know that it is not the truth.
- \* it leads to others not trusting you anymore.
- \* it is unfair towards those who treated you honestly.
- \* it causes the individual to be dishonest throughout his/her whole life.

Regarding secondary schools where adolescents are formed, it will be important for the school and teachers to direct and guide its philosophy in a manner that learners become aware that they will have to account for the actions they reveal when they break the rules (Abdool, 2005:77). According to him, the view that one can be dishonest as long as you are not caught out is delusive and reflects on the three components of moral knowledge (cf 3.2.3). Emotions/feelings and moral conduct are divorced from each other and does not come to fruition.

- **Kind-heartedness and goodwill**

To be kind-hearted means to look after the welfare of others. It is a practical way of helping others to make their lives easier (Abdool, 2005:77). This is expressed by acting friendly and with consideration. He also asserts that good manners and compassion are built from kind-heartedness. Within the school situation, this does not apply when learners reveal behaviours that are destructive, for example teasing and bullying, and it can only be overcome if learners learn how to become more kind-hearted towards each other.

- **Consideration**

Hersh *et al.* (1980:9) and Abdool (2005:78) are of the contention that consideration is equal to kind-heartedness. Consideration goes further to reach out to those you do not personally know, especially those who live in far-off places. Within the classroom this value can be applied when learners and teachers show some inappropriate behaviour towards others. According to Abdool, this value includes the following:

- \* let the next person feel as important as you would like to feel;
- \* be sensitive and pay attention to people who are lonely, or are victims of war, famine, diseases, crime, discrimination and prejudice;
- \* think about how your words could affect others;
- \* make a contribution to the welfare of your neighbours and community, and avoid actions that can harm others.

Moral behaviour in this regard is self-reinforcing, and it becomes pleasant to treat others with consideration.

- **Caring**

According to Abdool (2005:79), caring means to help others to carry the load regarding their emotions, pain, oppression and their physical circumstances. It is a feeling of support for oneself and concern for others, and it embodies the sentiment for humanity and the disposition of benevolence (Hersh *et al.*, 1980:165).

- **Obedience**

To be obedient means to subject yourself to righteous power, which leads to social coherence and an ordered community (Abdool, 2005:79). Obedience shows that a person has positive characteristics while disobedience leads to negativity. Abdool distinguishes the following facets as related to obedience:

By listening and following your consciousness;

- \* to do what is right;
- \* to react on the distress of others;
- \* to be trustworthy and reliable;
- \* to account for your deeds and to comply with responsibilities;
- \* to accept righteous power;
- \* to be obedient to the laws of the country, and to keep to the rules and regulations.

- **Responsibility**

According to Abdool (2005:79), responsibility refers as a willingness to account for your actions and to supply answers to the behaviour you exhibited. It includes responsibility to oneself, your fellow mate, the community, parents, grandparents, children and grandchildren. To be responsible does not happen within a vacuum, and it must be applied daily.

- **Respect**

Respect and responsibility are related concepts. Therefore, respect is a form of responsibility and an essential aspect of a responsible person (Abdool, 2005:79). It is promoted by politeness and friendliness and by being considerate and caring towards others. However, they are considered as the two primary values to be taught to children (Lickona, 1991:50). Furthermore, these two concepts, according to Lickona, are actually based on the following:

- \* healthy personal development;
- \* a fair and peaceful world; and
- \* human dignity and a democratic community.

- **Conscientiousness**

To be conscientious means to become loyal towards people appointed over you as well as towards people subordinate to you to whom you have a commitment. To adhere is not blind obedience, but is to do what is expected of you. Conscientiousness is the action that promotes the welfare of others (Abdool, 2005:97).

According to the preceding discussion, it is clear that the above-mentioned programmes are considered to be the directing principles for the character of every individual learner. However, character programmes need to be designed and implemented in schools to encourage both teachers and learners to improve their academic and performance competence.

It is pertinent that these programmes be taken seriously by all teachers within every institution, in order to realise the importance of the key criteria that should be met for character education to become effective in the lives of learners.

These key criteria will be discussed in the subsection that follows below.

#### **4.4 Essential key elements for effective character education programmes**

Teachers are indeed more powerful than learners in the sense that they have greater responsibility when it comes to giving shape to classroom events, and this sharp difference in authority is a feature of school life with which learners must learn to deal with (Strike, 1991; Clark, 1990:251). Teachers are held responsible for their actions and decisions by law, by tradition and by moral code. For them to make learners valuable adults for future life, they should consider which key elements are essential for developing the character of every learner in school. Brooks and Kahn (1993:19-21) provide strong evidence that character education programmes could be quite effective when the key criteria in developing and implementing are met. They are discussed as follows:

**Direct instruction:** Schools cannot assume that the language, concepts, behaviour, and skills of good character are written into the genetic code, learned at home, etc. For example, with mathematics, the teaching of character values such as “responsibility and respect” must be purposeful and direct (Brooks & Kann, 1993:20). Learners should hear

and see the words, learn their meaning, identify appropriate behaviours, and practice and apply the values.

**Language-based curriculum:** Learners lack the vocabulary for understanding basic values, such as “honesty and courage”. They often fail to connect them to their behaviour. Therefore, successful character education programmes focus learners’ attention on basic language that expresses core concepts and links the words to explicit behaviour.

**Positive language:** Learners should be able to know what is expected of them if they comply or practice appropriate behaviour.

**Content and Process:** In addition to teaching the content of consensus and civic values, an effective character education curriculum should provide a process for implementing those values when making decisions. Building on this content, learners learn a four-step process that teaches them to examine alternatives and consequences and assess whether their choices are likely to bring them closer to goals such as personal and social responsibility. However, as they learn and practice the decision-making process, they also develop the skills needed for making ethical choices.

**Visual reinforcement:** Brooks and Kahn (1993) are of the opinion that character education is in competition with adverse desires, messages and pressures in society. Its visual presentation of character values is considered to be an advertising campaign intended to keep the words, concepts and behaviours learned in class at the forefront of learners’ attention. It displays, illustrates and reinforces good character.

**School climate approach:** Effective character education should spill over the boundaries of the classroom into the playground and also into the home and neighbourhood. However, this approach emphasizes a common language and culture that fosters positive peer recognition and encourage all members of the school community to exemplify and reward behaviour consistent with core values and ethical decision-making.

**Teacher-friendly materials:** Brooks and Kahn emphasize that teachers must be able to implement a character education curriculum with limited training and preparation. They should not have to write lengthy lesson plans, prepare learner handouts, search out supplementary materials, or decode impossibly complex instructional manuals. By

keeping curriculum materials simple and straightforward greatly increases the probability that the lessons will get taught consistently and effectively.

**Teacher flexibility and creativity:** Teachers do not only need a basic framework to work with, but they should also be able to adjust character education lessons to individual teaching and learning styles. For character education to become successful, sufficient flexibility is needed in order to allow teachers to exercise creativity in addressing special classroom circumstances while still adhering to school-wide standards. However, effective teachers gradually reflect on their approach, observe whether learners are learning or not, and then adjust their practices accordingly. *Teachers then become more flexible, pausing to provide opportunities for teachable and creative moments rather than adhering to a fixed curriculum.*

**Learner participation:** Character education is considered to be effective only when learners develop a sense of ownership. Therefore, learners must not be told how to behave; they must participate in the process of framing goals in order to achieve them. Providing learners with the opportunities for meaningful involvement and responsibility within the classroom is a natural outcome in a classroom that has high expectations.

**Parent involvement:** Character education programmes are most effective and enduring when the school routinely confers with parents. They must be informed about what is being taught and also be involved in the curriculum.

**Evaluation:** The implementation of a character education programme must include a pre-assessment of goals, occasional consultation during the programme and then a post-evaluation of results. However, school staff members should clearly articulate their expectations and explicitly detail the various goals they hope to accomplish. This can be done during the planning stage. As they implement the programme, periodic meetings will help teachers to keep goals in mind and adapt classroom lessons accordingly. This program evaluation must assess the outcomes in terms of anecdotal reports from teachers and appropriate data on measuring changes in key variables. In the next subsection, a discussion about the role of the teacher in the classroom will be taken into consideration.

However, character and moral education is the concern of every individual teacher regardless of the age of his or her learners, it goes across and through the curriculum. As De Klerk (1998:21) already mentioned, that the idea of restoring the character ethics in schools is not new: "It is an old alternative, to be sure, but a large part of education of

our country consists of rediscovering things we once knew to be true but have forgotten". Therefore, character education programmes and models have been existing in schools for centuries. So teachers need to acquaint themselves with these programmes if they want to attend to the needs of learners in the education process. The appropriate combination of programmes will eventually depend as much on the needs of individual learner as on the conditions prevailing in any school. It is again important for teachers to make the right kind of varied provision for character education. Even more crucial, however, as always, is the role of the individual teacher. Therefore, the character development of learners can be affected by the experiences they have of all the adults they meet, but their character education, no matter how carefully it is planned and organised by the school, will depend on the quality of their teachers in terms of skills, sensitivity and awareness with which each teacher faces up to and fulfils his or her responsibility in this area.

## **4.5 The role of the teacher in the classroom/school**

### **4.5.1 Introduction**

For nine months of each year, teachers are among the most influential adults in the lives of their learners (Llale, 2003:14). They are with their learners for as many waking hours as parents typically are. According to Clark (1990:251), they interact in close, complex social systems behind closed doors. Interestingly, within each and every school and within each and every classroom two diversified curricula exist. Initially, learners are taught the traditional subjects. However, in addition to this regular curriculum, there is another more covert or hidden curriculum consisting of the teacher biases (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b; Tonelson, 1998:96). This hidden curriculum is taught to learners through the teacher's somatic or non-verbal actions, i.e., what the teacher does as opposed to what he says.

The ethical responsibilities of teaching extend beyond a commitment to children's academic development (Kurth-Schai, 1990:198). A teacher has an important role to play in accompanying the learner en route to maturity. Therefore, parents are the primary educators, who must also take the initial responsibility for the education of their children (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:355; Wolhuter & Steyn, 2003:352; Lickona, 1991:30). Parents are commonly considered the primary agent of socialisation. Essentially, when the child enters the school, the teacher, who is considered to be the secondary level,

accompanies him/her (Wolhuter & Steyn, 2003:352; Huxley, 2001:1; De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:355; Thomas, 1990:266; Kristine, 1984:64). Hanks, McLeod and Makins (1990) equate the teacher as a person whose responsibility is to enhance and support the learner through his/her instruction.

In the study done by Halstead and Taylor (2000:177), the Teacher Training Authority (1997), indicates that teachers should set good examples to the learners they teach through their presentation and personal and professional conduct (Ryan, 1988:18; Moloj, 1997:52). While Hansen (1993:397); Tirri (1993:279); Strike (1996:869-870) view the role of the teacher as implicating the power to influence learners since values are inherent in teaching, it seems unlikely that learners will be able to avoid the influence of the teachers' values completely, even when the teachers do not perceive it as part of their role to set a moral example. The psychological theories of modelling confirm that young people imitate and internalise the behaviour of their elders, and teachers are perceived as having control over resources that the learners desire. The social learning theory asserts an influential teacher as the one who can reward and punish or who has outstanding command of a particular field of knowledge. An assumption made by Carr (1993:193) also asserts that teachers are by nature of their profession "moral agents" who imply values by the way they address pupils and each other, their dress, the language they use and the effort their put into their work.

The moral and value advocacy proposed by Damon (1988:150) are considered to be the most essential aspects regarding the role of the teacher. Damon (1988) as supported by Hansen (1993), mention the following: that certain values and beliefs must be promoted by teachers in the daily life of the school, for example that the relationship should as far as possible be warm and cordial; that learners be treated fairly; that knowledge is important; that a degree of structure and discipline is crucial for learning and that teachers must present themselves as people with values who have reasons for their convictions. Therefore, the teachers' conduct at all times and in all ways, is a moral matter (Goodlad *et al.*, 1990:133).

Proponents such as Wentzel (2002:288) and Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1986:417), indicate that students basically regard their teachers as people who have made a significant difference in their lives. Therefore, the importance of teachers acting as role models lies in the fact that they influence values and transmit values in their regular teaching activities (Ashton & Watson, 1998:3; Stephenson *et al.*; 1995:166;

Moloi, 1997:42). Learners usually wish to identify themselves with adults who have power and status. Therefore, there are moral qualities to a teacher's actions that would amount to little more than a platitude if it were not for the fact that the morality of the teacher may have a considerable impact on the morality of the students (Fenstermacher, 1990:133). Fenstermacher (1990:133) and Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1986:418) consider the teacher as a role model for the learners with regard to the particular and concrete meaning of traits such as honesty, fair play, consideration for others, tolerance, and sharing. Such values are "picked up," as it were, by observing, imitating and discussing what teachers do in classrooms. Therefore, learners learn their attitudes through language, what they are told by their teachers as well as their parents, and by observing, watching the rewards and punishments others reap from their behaviour and deducing what kind of behaviour on their part is likely to be viewed positively by teachers, thus gaining them acceptance (Anon, 2000:1 as quoted by Phiri, 2003:12; Carr, 1993:194; Csikszentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986; 417).

Meilander (1984:212) and Fenstermacher (1990:134) further contend that the kind of role modelling that occurs in both implicit and explicit ways has the potential to be either a positive or a negative influence on learners' value development process. Modelling is defined as acquiring new forms of behaviour through observing the actions of others (Baron & Byrne, 1994:135). Along with this statement, Fenstermacher (1990:134) supports the idea that in matters of morals, as with skills and arts, people learn first by being demonstrated to by others, naturally with some worded homily, praise and rebuke, and lastly by being trained. However, Rhodes and Roux (2004:26) advise teachers to approach the values question with a sense of responsibility. They must realise the importance of their role as facilitators of values (Rhodes & Roux, 2004). In trying to realise this role, they should acknowledge the following:

Realising the importance the educator has to play in the facilitation of all the aspects of the curriculum:

- Being sensitive about what is valued by learners;
- being objective in the assessment of knowledge; and
- Not being judgemental in any way towards learners.

According to Oser and Althof (1993:253), every course of events in the educational setting provides learners and adolescents with experiences - positive or negative. The

indirect moral influence on learners is deeply rooted in the daily life of the school, either within normal teaching activities or within the contingent interactions in the classroom situation (Hansen, 1993:397, De Klerk & Rens, 2003:357; Halstead, 1996:5). Therefore, the moral lessons are understood carefully by observing what is actually happening on the school grounds every day and also the emergence of shared understanding and values (Damon, 1988:150; Halstead & Taylor, 2000:173; Csikszentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986:418). Parelius and Parelius, as quoted by Bagarette (1995:65), and Moloï (1997:51) contend that schools are always responsible for the transfer of society's values, beliefs, sentiments, knowledge and patterns of behaviour from one generation to the other. They exist to transmit culture traits of continuing value to the young and their part of performing this task must be in a systematic way. Schools are always socially contextual. The purpose they serve must be extracted from society in which they exist. Therefore, whatever is practiced at school level ought to be a natural reflection of and ought to be determined by a philosophy of a people. This necessitates a people-orientated education and school practice (Lithuli, 1982:27; Csikszentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986:417).

The report given by Kutnick and Jules (1993:400) indicates that in the Caribbean republic of Trinidad and Tobago pupils judge a good teacher by his/her physical presentation and personal characteristics, quality of the relationship between the teacher and the pupils, control of behaviour by the teacher and descriptions of the teacher's teaching efforts.

In view of the foregoing discussions, the teacher as a moral agent can be understood to mean his/her competent role that s/he has to establish in order to create a healthy situation that is conducive to moral teaching and learning. Teachers that act positively in a moral way, transmit positive values to learners as well. They also enhance motivation and promote positive self-esteem of learners.

#### **4.5.2 The importance of a teacher in creating a conducive psycho-socio classroom climate**

The realities of classroom life as revealed in the daily transactions of learners and teachers in many schools stand in stark contrast to what some educational theorists believe is the potential of every classroom for becoming an exciting and invigorating place of effective learning (Cohen & Manion, 1981:75). The teacher is perceived to be a

figure of central moral authority in the classroom. That authority is based, first of all, on the fact that the school has given him or her responsibility of creating a good moral and learning environment and of looking after learner's safety as well as general welfare (Lickona, 1991:111). The term classroom climate is defined as the perceptions that teachers and learners have about their classroom (Moloi, 1997:15). Drinkwater (2002:20) purports that a classroom climate is a compound of the atmosphere (ambiance, ethos) and environment (or ecology) in which students and teachers work and interact. Children depend on adults (i.e. teachers/parents) for guidance on how to regulate their social interactions and also for moral wisdom (De Klerk & Rens, 2003:356). Classrooms are social contexts where participants are in a continual interaction (Le Roux, 2001:273). They are dynamic meeting spaces for teachers and learners alike. Teachers and learners have the responsibility to create a classroom atmosphere that is conducive to learning (Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99:84). They must also play a leading role that will in the end, produce effective learners with good behaviour. The teacher as a person has everything to do in creating enabling conditions in the classroom (Van Dyk, 1990:162). S/he has to be a model of discipleship. They must exhibit the fruit of the spirit and be able to demonstrate such fruit (Van Dyk, 1990:162).

Several proponents (Ryan, 1986, 1988, 1989, 1991; Nucci, 1989; Antes & Nardini, 1990; Grant, 1989; Bagarette, 1995; Paolitti, 1977; Anon, 2001), propose roles that teachers have to fulfil and responsibilities that they should consider when addressing moral issues that are appropriate to the function in the educational as well as in the broader community. In their research study Antes and Nardini (1990:218); Ryan (1988:20); Rhodes and Roux (2004:54) and De Klerk and Rens (2003b:356), indicate that teachers are required to back away from their neutral positions of moral concern. They are at all levels supposed to become autonomous to act as role moral models, and also to take the responsibility of fostering moral/performance character development in a serious manner (Antes & Nardini, 1990:128; Oser, 1994:59; Gudmundsdottir, 1990:46). However, the content of the curriculum and the interaction of people within the school arenas should necessitate moral character education as an ongoing process in the school. Ryan (1986:228); De Klerk and Rens (2003b:354) and Lickona and Davidson (2005:23) see moral and character education as what the school must do in order to assist the young people to become ethically mature adults, capable of moral thoughts and action. In essence, moral and character education is at the core of the educational experience, even with the danger of indoctrination with a specific set

of beliefs that may occur. It is negligent to take for granted that it will not exist if we do not have programmes that focus on teachers' concentrated direction of the mind to values and moral development (Antes & Nardini, 1990:128; Ryan, 1988:20).

The restoration of values and ethics through ethical instruction that is based on the five E's of new moral behaviour is suggested by Antes and Nardini (1990:128); Nucci (1989:8) and Ryan (1986:416) as follow:

Examples are the most obvious form of moral and character education in the classroom that teachers have to provide to their learners. For example, the power and prestige of people in the old days were recognized intuitively and imitated by those around them (Ryan, 1989:232; Csikszentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986:418). Although some teachers may not think of themselves as figures of power and prestige, the learners whom they teach certainly see them as such. Therefore, learners watch their teachers on a daily basis to discover how grown-ups act (Nucci, 1989:19, Ryan; 1989:372, 1986:232; Meilaender, 1984:212; Ryan, 1988:20). Ryan (1989:232), Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1986:417) state that the indication is that if teachers are important sources of moral modelling for their learners, so are the historical and literary figures whom they introduce in the classroom. Antes and Nardini (1990:219) and Ryan (1988:20) support the above-mentioned statement by saying that the major model of moral and character education is embodied by the teacher or embedded in the curriculum. Teachers as models of persons using their minds and as perceived models of persons responding to life must therefore act in a morally admirable way (Nucci, 1989:10; Csikszentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986:418).

Ryan (1986) and Ntuli (1999:10) posit that it takes some years of poor teaching to overcome and bring under control a child's natural curiosity. Therefore, explanation related to the natural inquisitiveness of children must be directed at moral issues. Ryan (1986:228) and Nucci (1989:9-10) considered the school to be a social vehicle in which the young society's values and rules of conduct are accomplished, and as such these efforts must become rational. To teach morality is neither to preach nor to indoctrinate, but to explain. According to Ryan (1986:228), moral and character education should be taught through explanation, not simply to stuff learners' heads with rules and regulations of society. Antes and Nardini (1990:219) contend that teachers who explain and teach moral order to learners are as well engaged in moral conversation. The existence of

such conversation is what makes us human (Ryan, 1986:232; Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99).

Nucci (1989:11), Ryan (1986:232) and Ryan (1989:372) contend that teachers' explanations are a crucial part of children's moral and character education. Their urges and exhortations play an important role in this process as well (Nucci, 1989; Antes & Nardini, 1990). However, exhortation should be used sparingly, although it appeals to the instincts of children and urges them in a particular direction (Antes & Nardini, 1990; Ryan, 1989:371). There are moments for the heart-to-heart talk. Ryan once said, "The heart has its reasons which reason knows nothing of."

Environment refers to conditions or circumstances affecting people's behaviours at a given time (Ntuli, 1999:10). It includes the physical layout of the classroom, the institution buildings, attitude of people in the school as well as programmes offered by the institution. The environment is a central factor in the classroom, with patterns and rituals, power relationships and standards for both academic performance and learner behaviour (Nucci, 1989; Ryan, 1986/89; Antes & Nardini, 1990). Pintrich and Schunk (1996:341) posit the importance of the environment as it relates to motivation derived from the notion that teaching is leadership intended to affect classroom behaviour. Learners do respect each other in a climate where effective learning exists. However, the climate in the classroom is largely established through teacher-learner interactions. Fraser (1986:9) contends that a classroom climate always involves the relationships between teachers and his/her students or among students. Therefore, the competence to set up a purposeful environment of this kind is what distinguishes an effective teacher from the run-of-the-mill or ineffective teacher (Nucci, 1989:18; Ryan, 1986:416; 1989, Csikszentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986:419; Moloi, 1997:23). Conversely, Antes and Nardini (1990:128), Moloi (1997:23) and Drinkwater (2002) view a good teacher as someone who is able to establish a purposeful learning environment. Therefore, effective classroom climate yields good learning (Lepholletse, 2001:26).

In this process teachers are advised to create opportunities for learners to reflect on what they value, what they think is good, what they believe is the right thing to do, as this helps learners to value and to contribute to others (Nucci, 1989:12; Antes & Nardini, 1990). According to Ryan (1989:233) and Antes and Nardini (1990) schools should try to implement programs that are able to encourage learners to help teachers as well as others in need.

### 4.5.3 Guidelines for teaching character

Antes and Nardini see a concern for moral and character development as a natural function of the educational process and relate to Ryan and Gucci's five E's of moral education. They suggest that the address to character education of children and youth should be as follows:

Provide opportunities for learners to be responsible for each other by providing cross-age groupings and cross-age tutoring. Only when older learners are given the chance to assist younger learners, both the younger and the older learners benefit. In this way older learners serve as models to young children at school. Therefore, younger learners do not only benefit academically, but also can see and experience a helping, caring relationship with other individuals. Older learners learn patience, tact and concern for individuals younger or less competent than themselves as well. All learners in this regard see and understand the value and joy inherent in helping others (Antes & Nardini, 1990; Moloji, 1997:55).

Relate educational experiences to learners' lives by providing opportunities for learners to share their points of view. For example, letters written to public or school officials to address some concern can foster moral and ethical development as well, especially if this correspondence is preceded by give-and-take discussions by learners (Antes & Nardini, 1990:128; Oser, 1994:58).

Teachers should try to develop cooperative activities in the community with service projects to assist learners in developing a sense of responsibility and connection to the community as a whole (Ntuli, 1999:46). For teachers to tap and help increase students' intrinsic motivation, the cooperative tasks must be worthy of such motivation. They must either be inherently interesting to learners, or the interest, importance, or relevance to long-range goals must be made clear to them (Shalom, 1994:148; Ntuli, 1999:48). Activities such as visiting senior citizens or environmental agencies can all be included in the school curriculum. Therefore, the very kinds of projects can be beneficial enough when they spent a period of time and require care, planning, commitment, and dedication to a predetermined goal or group (Antes & Nardini, 1990:129; Oser, 1994:58; Moloji, 1997:23).

Learners should be encouraged in discussions concerning aspects of school life and how to interact with other people in the appropriate manner. Extracurricular activities,

award ceremonies, and other related programs provide real, true-life opportunities to address values and moral education (Ntuli, 1999:49; Antes & Nardini, 1990:129; Oser, 1994:58). Teachers should be able to guide learners in playing a role in decision-making in the classroom as well as in school. However, through participatory democracy, learners become involved in discussions of the relative benefits of various classroom management techniques and how these relate to their lives and interaction with others (Ntuli, 1999:11; Antes & Nardini, 1990:129; Paolitti, 1977:78).

Providing learners with forms of self-government in public schools is a means of helping learners to contribute to others and develop critical thinking and interaction skills. At the elementary level class councils and learner councils can also provide growth in self-government (Antes & Nardini, 1990:129; Lisman, 1991:227).

Using day-to-day school activities and events in the classroom are also important aspects because these classroom occurrences are saturated with values. The teacher can use these teachable moments to deal with values and ethics, for example discussions about everyday problems such as teasing and fighting on the playground. It can foster development and a greater understanding of others and their feelings (Antes & Nardini, 1990; Hansen, 1993; Gudmundsdottir, 1990).

Encourage learners to think in complex ways about moral issues in life as they appear in the curriculum. Reading and writing activities should be used to encourage moral and ethical thought (Bagarette, 1995). Concepts like kindness, generosity, perseverance, and related concepts can be addressed through plot and character studies. Therefore, literature based reading and programmes can stimulate points of views and discussion about values (Antes & Nardini, 1990:129; Ryan, 1988:20).

The learning environment should also be structured so that it models democratic values and provides a safe environment for learning, sharing and cooperating. Teachers' behaviour becomes an important model of these values (Moloi, 1997:34; Antes & Nardini, 1990:129; Nucci, 1989:10; Ryan, 1988:20). Therefore, the quality learning environment must provide an increasing range of learning possibilities and offer learners greater flexibility in the learning process (Moloi, 1997:34).

Self-discipline should be encouraged through cooperative interaction between persons in the learning environment. Good discipline in the classroom is likely to create cooperative learning, which will maximise learners' own and each other's learning (Ntuli, 1999:34). She further purports the advantages of cooperative learning as follows:

- cooperative learning will promote efforts to achieve, positive and supportive interpersonal relationships, and social competence; and
- cooperative learning creates self-esteem.

The outcomes of cooperative learning emanate from good discipline and team spirit (Ntuli, 1999:34). There should also be role modelling of the discipline code by the faculty and staff and an emphasis on positive feedback and cooperation (Antes & Nardini, 1990:129; Ryan, 1988:19; Moloji, 1997:52). Discussion, role-playing and analytical and creative projects as a basis for critical thinking about values, attitudes, character traits, and moral issues should also be used (Antes & Nardini, 1990:128; Paolitti, 1977:78; Ryan, 1988).

Cooperative learning activities should be applied in order to help learners to develop social interaction skills (Ntuli, 1999:34; Antes & Nardini, 1990:128; Lemming, 1993:66; Batfish *et al.*; 1990; Shlomo, 1994; Frazer & Walberg, 1991). According to the study conducted by Lemming (1993:66), the evidence is that, in this approach, group learning assumes the central importance and learners are responsible not only for their own learning but also for the learning of others. In this regard, the learning web results in impressive learner achievement as well as positive social values and behaviour (Lemming, 1993:66). The school should establish parent support groups to develop a moral consensus and with the community should formulate a list of agreed-upon values. Learners should also be involved in this process at some level (Antes & Nardini, 1990:129; Liale, 2003:28; Moloji, 1997:54).

#### **4.5.4 The qualities of a model teacher**

Moral and character education manifests itself in teacher practice as respect and care for each learner as a responsible and active learner (Nucci, 2001; Lisman, 1991). Therefore, teachers who are perceived as good role models have to understand the fact that learners require an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect (Krall & Jalongo, 1998/99:84). There are several elements identified by Nucci (1989), Lisman (1991), Stephenson *et al.* (1998) and Clark (1990) reflecting the qualities of a model teacher. They are discussed as follows:

- teachers should create a classroom environment that is nurturing and risk-free, along the guidelines of a constructivist theory as proposed by Clark (1990:251). They should also be open-minded, direct and non-judgemental
- they should often use specific classroom situations as lead-ins to brief discussions about proper conduct and ethical behaviour
- in such classrooms their enthusiasm and commitment are parallel to learners' enthusiasm and engagement in learning. Learners intrinsically become motivated because they are doing meaningful work
- they usually recognise learners' contributions by restating them or posting them on the board
- model teachers show their sincerity and concern for learners through their daily actions

Rogers and Webb (1990:174) view teachers as confronted by a multitude of dilemmas that compel them to make critical choices. However, they need to encourage the development of sound ethical standards in learners, standards that can be able to serve as a reliable moral touchstone for the difficult educational decisions that teachers have to make in their respective classrooms (Rogers & Webb, 1990:174). Noddings' beliefs (1986), as quoted by Rogers and Webb (1990:174), asserts that teachers' classroom decisions are grounded in what they refer to as "an ethic of caring". According to their discussion concerning this development of ethics, Rogers and Webb (1990:174) note that:

"The notion of care expands from the paralysing injunction not to hurt others to an injunction to act responsively toward the self and others and thus sustain a connection. A consciousness of the dynamic of human relationships then becomes central to moral understanding joining the heart and eye in an ethic that ties the activity of thought to the activity of care".

Therefore, teaching should evolve around caring about instruction, learner-learning, curriculum and needs of individuals in the classroom. Such an ethic in teaching will also require the teacher to encourage learner-learning in a positive way (Kohn, 1991:497). Teachers are advised not to teach something they themselves have not studied (Tomaselli & Golden, 1996:67; Moloji, 1997:56). They can only teach how their own values influence their decisions and actions and how to appreciate value differences in

others. Although it is difficult to infuse values and character development in both curricular and non-curricular activities, values are found to be noticeably absent in other school-related activities (Tomaselli & Golden, 1991:67). These inconsistencies experienced by learners can also lead them to believe that values and virtues sound good in class, but have no applicability in their real world.

#### **4.5.5 Self-concept of the teacher**

According to Tonelson (1998:96), the evidence shows that there is an abundance of research regarding the somewhat nebulous idea of self-concept. The self-concept of teachers is important for learners to develop a “healthy” personality. It is also of relevant importance that to become an effective teacher, one has to develop a healthy personality. However, in his study, Tonelson indicates that “every teacher wishes to meet the learners on a significant level and that every teacher wishes to feel that s/he has made a difference. Yet, if one is to become significant to another person, there are two major areas that are relevant in regard to this relationship: (1) what the person believes and (2) what the person does” (Tonelson, 1998:96). The teacher cannot start to understand or assist learners with understanding him unless he endeavours to understand himself. If teachers are not involved in such endeavours, they will continue to perceive those learners they teach through their own biases and through distortions of their own unrecognised needs, fears, desires, anxieties and hostile impulses (Tonelson, 1998:96). Additionally, it is only through their understanding and acceptance that the teacher is able to facilitate the process of learners getting to know them and to allow them to gain healthy attitudes of self-acceptance (Tonelson, 1998:96).

#### **4.5.6 Positive teacher personality characteristics**

Researchers such as Tom (1984), Fenstermacher (1990) purport teaching as a moral activity that requires teachers to weigh the ethical implications of their behaviour. Rogers and Webb (1990:174) see teachers confronted with a multitude of dilemmas that compel them to make critical choices. However, they need to encourage the development of sound ethical standards in learners, standards that can be able to serve as a reliable moral touchstone for the difficult educational decisions that teachers have to make in their perspective classrooms (Rogers & Webb, 1990:174). Noddings' believe (1986), as quoted by Rogers & Webb (1990), assert that teachers' classroom decisions

are grounded in what they referred to as an “*ethic of caring*”. According to their discussion concerning this development of ethics, Rogers and Webb (1990:174) note that:

*“The notion of care expands from the paralysing injunction not to hurt others to an injunction to act responsively toward the self and others and thus sustain a connection. A consciousness of the dynamic of human relationships then becomes central to moral understanding joining the heart and eye in an ethic that ties the activity of thought to the activity of care”.*

Therefore, teaching should evolve around caring about instruction, student-learning, curriculum and the needs of individuals in the classroom. Such an ethic in teaching will also require the teacher to encourage student-learning in a positive way (Kohn, 1991:497).

Teachers are advised not to teach something they themselves have not studied (Tomaselli & Golden, 1996:67; Moloj, 1997). They can only learn how their own values influence their decisions and actions and how to appreciate value differences in others. Although it is difficult to infuse values and character development in both curricular and non-curricular activities, values are found to be noticeably absent in other school-related activities (Tomaselli & Golden, 1996:67). These inconsistencies that are experienced by learners, can lead them to believe that values and virtues sound good in class, but have no applicability in their real world.

The above information illustrates the important characteristics of every teacher in the classroom. Classrooms are arenas where moral and character education can manifest either positive or negative in the lives of learners. What teachers portray/practice in front of learners give them opportunities to imitate. However, they are the central figures in their respective classrooms. What they should consider most importantly, is to fulfil their role and responsibilities interacting during the teaching and learning process. They should create the environments whereby learners feel secured. However, learners need the environment where mutual trust and respect exist.

## 4.6 Places where character education takes place

There are specific correlates or agents that play a role in the formation of values. Hattingh (1991:120) perceives these correlates as playing a particular role with regard to the shaping of values. She categorizes them as follows:

### 4.6.1 Internal factors

According to Renewal (1984:25) as quoted by Hattingh (1991:120), every person has genetic factors that make one a unique being with an own personality, which means that every individual has an own temperament, own abilities, own aptitude, own needs, own interests, own desires, own attitudes, own motives and so forth.

#### The family of the individual

Basic learning takes place within the family. The family is the centre of education (Pretorius, 1998:41; & Bagarrete, 1995). It is notably the place where appreciation is learned, values persist, the unfolding of strengths of emotion and feelings persist, relationships develop and language development takes place (Wolhuter & Steyn, 2003:530; Engelbrecht, Kok & Van Biljon, 1990:199; Voster, 1990:23; Hattingh, 1991:123). The family is the most important source in shaping the values of children (Hattingh, 1991:123; Rossouw, 2003:530; Davies & Keyser, 1991:1; Heenan, 2001:6). Research emphasises the idea that values and value orientations are influenced and shaped within the family from the beginning. The family is considered as the main agency where the child's fundamental values such as religious, relationship, ethical, aesthetical and cultural values, are established. According to Windmiller *et al.* (1980:21) cultural norms for example, beliefs about what is right or wrong, are internalised in the child at a very early age, thus becoming the basis of his/her moral system.

The family is regarded as the primary educational milieu of the child (Molen, 1983:215 in Hattingh 1991:123; Bagarette, 1995:67; Wolhuter & Steyn, 2003:530). The values and value orientations of a child are influenced and determined from the beginning in the family where the child is born. The other factor that contributes towards the influence of value formation in the family is bad modelling by parents. Windmiller *et al.* (1980:24) assert that "parents are crucial in modelling, in teaching what is moral, and indirectly inculcating the values of the culture; they do this through internalisation of those values in the child. Parents are also important, both directly and indirectly, in the

social and moral development of the child (Windmiller *et al.*, 1980:28). However, the family's education is the basis for all later social relationships. The family plays an important role in the character education of children.

Hattingh (1991:124) and Bagarrete (1995) distinguished different types of families that have an influence on the values of children as follows:

- **The patriarchal family**

The father in this family is regarded as a solitary ruler. The value systems of children in such a family are characterized by communication observed or seen, submissiveness and obedience.

- **The close family**

This family is normally responsible for their own sociability. They regard religion and tradition as part of their life that is strongly based on their value system.

- **Hostile family**

In this type of family a child receives little accompaniment from the side of the parents. The peer group and secondary sources have a strong influence on the child's value choices.

- **The open family**

The family members are educable for new social facts and demand and try to integrate that in their family life. Therefore, openness and healthy communication exist among all in the family. Both parents are considered as equal partners. Parents also provide children with the necessary accompaniment for their values (Stedman in Hattingh, 1991:126). Parents also play an important role in determining the development of children's value system.

- **Pretending family**

This family is characterised by tension that exists between the father and the mother. There is a conflict about which values and norms are valid, and their value system and acceptable principles are not firmly grounded.

## **The teacher and the individual**

The child spends the larger part of his/her day at school, and therefore the school becomes responsible for the education of the child. However, this particular task is more specifically based on teachers because of their reciprocal actions with children that take place in and out of the classroom. According to Van der Westhuizen *et al.* (1992:56), a teacher replaces parents and becomes "locus parentis". Bagarette (1995:72) asserts in his study, that the child must be accompanied to learn and internalise the prevailing values so that he can become an acceptable member that functions in the community. Therefore, teachers are advised always to set good example so that learners can follow.

## **The school and the individual**

According to Phiri (2003:16-17), education is turning towards values. Therefore, as soon as values are deleted, education is also deleted. The school is, therefore, in a unique position to supplement the home and church in shaping the youth and also has the advantage of being able to provide a testing ground for values, for it enables the child to test the practicality of ideals and standards to which the youngster has been exposed (Butt *et al.*, 1977:33). Bauer (1987:2-4) puts forward that "teachers should not try to impose values on learners, rather they should try to flush out or to clarify learners' own value system and be concerned with the process of valuing and not particularly with the product." Nucci (1989:61) and Rhodes (2003:23) asserted that most school-age children are predisposed to assimilate and adopt the values of their community, to construct a personal moral system, and to act to benefit others as well as to satisfy personal needs. Education can be regarded as a social and historical process, which involves the dynamic interaction of many institutions and actors for the purpose of conserving, creating, and criticizing culture (Sherman *et al.*, 1988:36).

Sugarman (1973:11-12) deems that, in the majority of economically developed societies', it is taken for granted that children from the age of five years old will spend a large part of their working days away from their families at a school where they are taken charge of by employees called teachers. It nurtures the critical thinking and judgements that are required in the weighing of values in every moral situation. It has the advantage of being able to provide a testing ground for values (see paragraph 2.1). As positive values contribute towards a school's success, its important roles in society and its consideration of learners are as follows:

- developing the cognitive faculties of the learners;
- cultivating socially approved attitudes and modes of behaviour;
- training for particular vocational roles.

Hattingh (1989:25) also sees the school, besides the family, as the strongest educational milieu where the child is made aware of a variety of values and allocations of meaning. It is exactly a place where a learner tests and evaluates the values that he/she received from home. It also has a crucial task to fulfil, in establishing value orientations. According to Damon (1988:60) the school develops the aesthetic, intellectual, moral and social values of learners.

#### **4.6.2 External factors**

##### **The cultural group to which the individual belong**

Man creates culture and for exactly this reason culture is connected to practically every sphere of humanity, for instance, language, customs, beliefs, values, value orientation and education (Crushner & Trifonovitch, 1989; Van Zyl, 1980:262; Pistorius, 1984:114). According to De Jong (1985:13) as quoted by Bagarrete (1995) there are certain guidelines in culture that establish how one should act, and as such the cultural values have a strong influence on the individual's value choices and value priorities. Therefore, every growing child is cultured in accordance with the culture that is inherent in the nation in which he/she is born and in which he/she grows up (Coertzer, 1980:19). Coertzer (1980:13) accentuates that the values of the cultural group that one internalises can serve as intrinsic norms in the sense that they can influence one's perceptions, actions, objectives, motivation and performance. Hattingh (1991:127) on the other hand, asserts that every grown child is cultivated according to the culture into which that particular child is born. The values of his cultural group through which the individual lives serve as an intrinsic guide through which the individual's perception, behaviour, goal, achievement and motivation can be influenced (Hattingh, 1991:127). Culture comprises the universal, distinguishable character traits, products, symbols and learned aspects of a specific human society (Pretorius, 1998:108).

## **Society and the individual**

Bagarrete (1995:42), Mncwabe (1987:232) and Hattingh (1991:129) state that in society there are some existing basic elements of culture that consist of prescriptions and recommendations that the community deems valuable and desirable. Therefore, society has a crucial influence on how values are shaped and developed in an individual and the values that an individual accepts are the products of several variables in society (Straughan & Wringley, 1980:79). Stability is an important component in the community (Hattingh, 1991:129). Therefore, people in South Africa find themselves in situations where they are supposed to take responsibility to clarify and develop their own values. According to Hattingh (1991:129), "There is increasing evidence that the modern person is troubled by problems of values and goals, the meaning of existence, and questions of freedom and responsibility." The problems that society is faced with have a definite influence on the individual's value development (Groenewald, 1984:22 as quoted by Bagarrete, 1995).

Hattingh (1991) and Bagarrete (1995) have identified the following characteristics that are present in the community and that had an influence on the effect of the value development and value orientations in 1995. This will however, cause a great psychological distance between people, as well as poverty and unemployment that will influence people and their values.

### **Industrialisation and urbanisation**

Industrialisation has changed the traditional social framework. In the city a rapid time, impersonality, routine, and competition govern people's lives. The family, church, neighbourhood and nation were earlier firmly united and were the places where values and norms were derived from, but they lost their meaning. This contributes towards uncertainty about values and value-orientations, especially amongst the youth (Hattingh, 1991:131; Bagarrete, 1995).

### **Economic development and prosperity**

The economic propensity has an influence on the lifestyle of people. The child who comes from a strong economic oriented community will place a high premium on materialistic values and his value-orientations about economic aspects will be

strengthened through that. In this regard, social and religious values may be oppressed by the economic values (Bagarrete, 2003; Hattingh, 1991:131).

### **Unconcerned about the future**

Youths are displaying a tendency of being uninterested in their future. This will sometimes prevent them from being aware of the fact that they have the responsibility for their own future. They are in many ways inclined to just enjoy life (Hattingh, 1991:135; Bagarrete, 1995).

### **The church and the individual**

Barber (1984:44) asserts that the church has always maintained that religious education begins in the family through the example of parents and participation of the family and the community in worship. It is one of the places that play an important part in influencing learners' ability and also to develop positive values in children (Barber, 1984:45). According to Monteith *et al.* (1988:167) pious adolescents are more responsible than undevoted youths. They are more optimistic about their future, their experiences and security and assume their parents' values, attitudes and behaviour.

### **The peer-group and the individual**

According to Hattingh (1991:134), the child learns habits, for example regarding fashion, hairstyle, use of language and values to belong to a particular peer group. The child will eventually accept the new values and give meaning to people, things, events just to form part of a peer group (Stegman, 1989:5 as quoted by Hattingh, 1991:134). Peer group or group of friends amongst whom the learner finds himself has a strong influence on his/her value development. The learner feels safe with the group (Llale, 2003:26; Abdool, 2005:35). The influence of the peer-group becomes stronger than that of the parents. Peer-group acceptance is important to the learner and the home values and peer-group values differ. The reasons are that the child's value system will differ from those of his/her parent and this also creates a conflict in the family (Hattingh, 1991:134). When the role of the peer-group increases the parental values are questioned and tested (Dreyer *et al.*, 1999:125, Damon, 1988:13).

According to Abdool (2005:35), the role of the peer group has been identified in accordance with the development of the adolescent. They are discussed as:

- **Emancipation**

The peer-group plays an important role in the emancipation of the adolescent. Due to the emotional independence, the group has a strong role to play. Therefore, their responsibilities are not as great as those of parents.

- **Social acceptability**

Social acceptability and popularity is an important concern for adolescents because they fear loneliness and rejection, especially from peer-groups. Therefore, social acceptability occurs through sport participation, music choices, socio-economic groups, and personality. Security in the group is very important for the adolescent.

- **Experimenting**

The adolescent can experiment in a group without fear about what parents and other adults would say. At times, it is better for them to learn things and make mistakes through learning. The group presents opportunities for such experiences and ideals.

- **Competition**

Competition is something that plays an important role in the development of the self-concept of adolescents. Competition must not be exaggerated otherwise it can get a negative connotation that can be damaging to the adolescent actions.

- **Social mobility**

The peer-group presents the adolescent with the opportunity to come in contact with people of different backgrounds. It assists them to come in contact with the typical middle class values and norms of a low socio-economic group.

A person is born with the potential to become aware of things and experience things. He can also be aware of a value, because he is born with a sense of value consciousness (Hattingh, 1991:112). In his humanity, there are inherent ways of existence that form part of reality, such as religion, ethics, aesthetics, culture, economy

and the law. Therefore, a person becomes aware of the ways of existence, experiences them emotionally and attributes a value to them (Van Aswegen, 1993:23). Van Aswegen (1993) contends that the nuclear values are evidently universal and permanent by nature, while the meanings that the individual attributes to them, based on his experiences of them, are individual and variable. Values originate from a person's psychic functioning.

According to the preceding discussion, teachers and parents have a crucial role concerning the challenges that learners are faced with. In addition to this, for them to find the solution to the problem, it will be advisable to make an attempt to seek effective ways that can at least try to modify human relations, which can exert positive influence on learners in mental, spiritual, psychological, intellectual and emotional health. However, the treatment that the learners receive from their parents as well as from their teachers can be to the detriment of their stability and their psychological state when they face the outside world. Parents and teachers are perceived as moral agents that provide a teaching and role modelling to learners. There should also be guidelines that give direction to learners. If there are none put in place and there is no consistency in teaching and learning morals and values, learners may in future be unable to determine right from wrong.

Both internal and external factors are inextricably intertwined in terms of character building. It would be inappropriate to divorce one from the other. Understanding an individual's character and values building from the exposition given in this section (3.11) is very critical if character education in the school system should yield positive results.

#### **4.7 The role of the teacher in connection with the different character education outcomes**

Lickona and Davidson (2005:84-204) distinguish eight characteristics (strengths) of character as follows:

##### **4.7.1 Lifelong learner and critical thinker**

The most fundamental task of the school and their first step toward helping learners to become lifelong learners and critical thinkers is to involve them efficiently and effectively in the learning process. The school should set their academic curriculum to be relevant,

rigorous, and engaging. Learners must also see a curriculum as relevant to their lives and aspirations (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:87), helping them to build a positive future.

According to their report, research conducted in American schools in (2004), reflects that there are many examples of schools in which learners once deemed at risk of disengagement and failure are productively engaged and achieving at high levels. The core principles that underlie engagement are applicable to all schools - whether they are in urban, rural or suburban communities. Engaging schools and teachers:

- Promote learners' confidence in their ability to learn and succeed in school by providing challenging instruction and support for meeting high standards.
- make the curriculum relevant so that learners see some value in it.
- promote a sense of belonging by personalising instruction.
- show an interest in learners' lives.
- create a supportive and caring social environment.

#### **4.7.2 Diligent and capable performer**

According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:102) learners who believe that achievement is something that they earn, and not primarily the result of innate abilities, do best in school. Therefore, in school and in life, achievement is, to a large extent, a function of character. The innate ability is clearly a factor, but our performance character qualities such as effort, initiative, positive attitude, and perseverance what we do with our natural ability (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:102). Once more, if teachers are willing to motivate learners to care about their work and to become diligent and capable performers, they should be able to provide opportunities for learners to experience what it feels like to achieve excellence.

#### **4.7.3 Socially and emotionally skilled persons**

In their research, Lickona and Davidson (2005:119) indicate the importance of "school connectedness" for teenagers' emotional well-being and avoidance of risky behaviours. Developing learners' social and emotional skills should begin by building good relationships with them. Teachers and other school staff can build bonds with their learners by practicing the following:

- developing and regularly renew a positive relationship with every learner;

- foster positive peer relations;
- teach the power of a positive attitude;
- teach manners;
- teach the art of asking questions.

#### 4.7.4 Ethical thinker

The aim of education is to help learners to become smart and good (Lickona & Davidson, 2005). Lickona and Davidson argue that smart and good are not the same concepts. However, if schools aim to educate the mind and not morals, they then create a menace to society (Wynne & Walberg, 1998/99:16). Intellect and character are not the same as well, and therefore schools are advised to develop ethical thinkers. They must define and teach ethical thinking in a manner that maximises the probability that will lead to ethical behaviour (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:125). Seemingly, Lickona (1991:54); Lickona and Davidson (2005:129); Abdool (2005:74) have identified four components that are related to the integrated ethical thinking as follows:

**Moral discernment** recognises when a situation involves a question of right and wrong, and makes well-reasoned decisions about moral matters ranging from simple questions to complex ones.

**Conscience-awareness** of what is right or wrong with respect to our own conduct, intentions, and character coupled with a sense of obligation to do what is right.

**Moral identity** is the degree to which our moral character and commitments are central to our sense of self.

**Moral competence** is the ethical skills (knowing, for example, how to be helpful in a particular situation) that enable us to translate discernment of what's right, conscience, and moral identity into effective moral action.

Although integrated ethical thinking increases the likelihood of ethical behaviour, Lickona and Davidson (2005:129) are of the idea that it still does not guarantee it. According to these proponents, people can discern what is right, feel obligated in conscience to do it, think of themselves as persons who normally do the right thing, and have the skills needed to act ethically, but still fail to do so. Briefly, ethical thinking, even broadly defined to include our four integrated components, does not equal ethical behaviour, the moral agency is still needed. If teachers assist learners to become

integrated ethical thinkers, they should be aware that by so doing, they help them take a giant step towards becoming respectful and responsible moral agents (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:129). It is therefore very important for teachers to take Kohlberg's moral reasoning approach into consideration, because it assists learners to reach the principled level of moral reasoning. In his study Fraenkel (1981:39-50) found that character education helps learners become principled thinkers. It is important for learners to become principled thinkers who are competent in decision-making and valuing skills. These skills however, can be acquired through character education.

#### **4.7.5 Respectful and responsible moral agent**

*Respect and responsibility are perceived as the two basic kinds of moral action (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:147). Therefore, these proponents are of the opinion that moral agency is the power to act with respect and responsibility. Both are considered to be the foundation of moral character. Again, Lickona and Davidson define respect and responsibility as follows:*

**Respect** means showing regard for the intrinsic worth of someone or something, this involves respect for the self, other people, property, animals, and the environment that sustains all life. It is a restraining virtue; it keeps people from violating, from devaluing, demeaning, damaging, or destroying that which we ought to value and honour. In the classroom, what teachers are suppose to do to their learners is to show respect for them and their friends and also treat them as they want to be treated in the everyday routine of home life. By respecting the contribution of learners as members of the classroom, teachers will in any way enhancing their esteem. Therefore, learners must see themselves as people of value, believing that they have ideas and those ideas are listened to and make a difference. Learners require recognition for good work, regardless of the duties they perform or the positions they hold in school. If a learner feels unappreciated, s/he will not perform to the best of his ability (Reece & Brandt, 1990:331). However, these scholars opine that the teacher should take into consideration the fact that recognition should be contingent on performance. Learners should be provided with many opportunities in order to succeed.

**Responsibility** refers to the active side our morality. However, it goes beyond respect; it literally means "ability to respond." Therefore, it defines our obligations. It leads us to fulfil our commitments and to intervene when necessary to stand up for what is right and

correct what is wrong. However, according to Lickona and Davidson, these two sides of moral agency are linked. Respect and responsibility are the two aspects that create mutual relationships between learners and their teachers. One fundamental responsibility of teachers is to create and sustain conditions that will promote learning for each and all their learners. They must assume that every learner is capable of learning (Clark, 1990:261). Therefore, teachers are also advised to encourage their learners to become responsible for their schoolwork, for example doing their task effectively. They should also try to match each learner's level of understanding and ability to meet their responsibilities. To meet this responsibility, teachers should plan, decide, create, and reflect on conditions for learning. By so doing, it will encourage them to realize the joy of investing time and personal energy in achieving their goals in life. However, character education, according to Williams (1993:22), manifests itself in teacher practice to respect for each learner as a responsible, active learner. It requires an environment of mutual trust as well as respect. There are also several strategies suitable for teaching respect and responsibility identified by Lickona (1991:100). They are discussed as follows:

1. Help learners know each other through activities such as:

- Partners

- Class directory

- The treasure bag

- Pen pals with another class

- Seat lottery (to reduce the influence of cliques)

- Good feelings/bad feelings (to improve discussion)

- Coat of arms (to share achievement, aspirations, etc.)

2. Teach learners to respect, affirm, and care about each other:

- Develop empathy by providing information about others

- Stop cruelty to children who are different

- Do activities such as "appreciate time," "good deeds tree," "positive word power," and "hugs for health" that enable learners to develop habits of affirming each other and that promote norms of positive regard and helpfulness.

3. Help learners develop a feeling of membership in and responsibility to and for the group:

Develop class cohesion and identity through traditions and symbols,

Develop each learner's feeling of being a unique and valued member of the class community;

Intervene to help the ostracized child gain peer acceptance,

Create accountability to group rules,

Foster an ethic of interdependence ("Who has a problem the rest of us can help to solve?").

However, for teachers to succeed in teaching respect and responsibility, they must make the development of a classroom moral community a central educational objective (Lickona, 1991:90). Learners learn morality by living it. They need to be a community to interact, form relationships, work out problems, grow as a group, and learn directly, from their first-hand social experience, lessons about fair play, cooperation, forgiveness, and respect for the worth and dignity of every individual.

#### **4.7.6 Self-disciplined person**

Discipline, as with all aspects of teaching, makes people do well in order to remember the foundational importance of the relationship between the adult and the young people (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:156). Therefore the leverage of disciplining comes from the quality of our own relationship. However, if learners are aware that the teacher cares for them, that will make a great difference to their lives. Self-discipline, according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:159), forms the backbone of both excellence and ethics. Cultivating self-disciplined people who pursue healthy lifestyles has the potential to generate a far-reaching return on investment for schools, families, and society (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:160). Therefore, teachers should assist learners in delaying gratification, that is when you are tempted to buy something you cannot afford, postpone buying by actively saving for it. They should demonstrate self-control and self-discipline by expressing anger appropriately and constructively.

#### **4.7.7 Contributing community member and democratic citizen**

Any discussion about the role of the school in values and character education must start with the assumption that education has to take place within a social and political milieu called democracy (Lickona 1991). Therefore, schools have to play a crucial socialization role in the pursuit of democratic goals. This role however, requires that schools assist learners in acquiring the appropriate knowledge and skills needed for citizen participation in a democratic society. Character education, according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:177), requires far more than assisting individuals, embracing proper values or making choices for their personal lives. It must also enable participation in a democratic public life that encourages citizens to collectively shape a common, public good. Therefore, educating for citizenship is considered as a moral enterprise, the one which must assist learners to acquire a “democratic self”, a “civic self-understanding.” In this regard, Lickona and Davidson purport that when we have a democratic self, we must:

- see ourselves as members of a public, a community that shares a heritage and hopes;
- realise our personal stake in public deliberation and decision-making;
- acquire and practice civic skills, including the ability to find out facts about what is good for the whole. However, learners as future citizens need character education to learn how to identify and rationally discuss the value-conflicts in a contemporary society. It is pertinent for character education to enhance learners’ understanding of the meaning of democracy and be encouraged to accept both its privileges and responsibilities.

However, schools have to take bold steps in order to develop the democratic self for their teachers, learners, parents as well as the wider community. The school must be a morally coherent community and a microcosm of democracy (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:187).

#### **4.7.8 Spiritual person engaged in crafting a life of noble purpose**

Lickona and Davidson (2005:193) ask: What does it mean to educate the human spirit? They hold a view that spiritual mentoring is about helping young people find questions that are worth asking because they are worth living. However, when we fail to honour

the deepest questions of our lives, education will remain mired in technical triviality, cultural banality and a greatest sadness (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:193). When we don't engage in a self-reflective search for meaning and purpose, we lack a moral and spiritual rudder. We may find ourselves doing things that do not reflect our best self and subvert our character development and hopes for happiness (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:195). Learners of all ages bring their soul to school. Therefore the spirit will suffer if it is not sufficiently nourished. Soul means "inner life-depth dimension of human experience." Essentially, learners can be enhanced to develop a rich inner life, if they believe, by engaging them in thoughtful reflection on existential questions that explore the meaning, purpose, and complexity of their lives (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:197). Therefore, the vacuum of spiritual guidance and fulfilment in young people's lives, Lickona and Davidson conclude, "often leads to despair and alienation". Therefore, spiritual guidance and fulfilment are the integral parts of every human's life (Haydon, 1997:44-49). They are always the underlying ground motives to all aspects of humans' lives.

According to Lickona (1999:23), for character education to become effective, (1) it must be comprehensive, intentionally making use of every phase of the school life as an opportunity to develop good character, (2) a comprehensive approach that seeks to foster virtue through the teacher's example, the subject matter of the curriculum, the rigor of the academic standards, the conduct of sports and other extracurricular activities, the handling of rules and discipline, and the school's intellectual and moral life. It all affects character, for good or for ill.

#### **4.7.9 Conclusion**

According to Lickona and Davidson's (2005), these character strengths should be the outcomes of any character education programmes implemented in schools. Again, it is important that schools consider character education as their functioning cornerstones for schooling because it is an essential tool for the bringing success for the future of every learner.

## 4.8 School as an ethical learning community

### 4.8.1 Introduction

School as society institution as well as agents has developed certain needs in society and it also has the task to fulfil this need in society. Therefore, they are situated within the community. They are socially contextual in the real sense. According to Badenhorst *et al.* (1989:117) society is not composed of a number of institutions in complete isolation from one another, it forms an integral part of society's life, although it is true that some tend to be more isolated than others. Equally, the school should not to be considered in isolation from the rest of society, although some schools and some types of schools will be more engaged with the total community than others (Bagarette, 1995:65). This statement relates the important coherence between education and society, where education is perceived as an activity within society (Barcena *et al.*, 1993:245; Fenstermacher, 1990; Lisman, 1991:228). Therefore, man is born a potential member of society, and through education, he progressively becomes conscious of the way of life in his community and his rights and duties within that society. However, the role of society in this regard is to see to it that through education, its members are thoroughly guided and directed so that it can enable them to take part in society (Clark, 1990:263). A teenager becomes a full member of society when his/her behaviour is in accord with that of the adults who have full social consciousness (Lisman, 1991:228; Rhodes, 2003:23). The involvement of education as a social enterprise in the process of changing learners into purposeful, responsible adults, means that it is never concerned solely with knowledge, but more importantly it has to ensure that each generation shares a common set of values (Thomas, 1990; Lisman, 1991; Rhodes, 2003). These scholars also emphasize the fact that schools are moral communities. According to Thomas, individuality loses meaning without sense of community. Lisman (1991), agrees that one of the fundamental moral roles of the schools is to build a community. However, he refers to building a "public" rather than community. Therefore, the major role of public education is to create a public.

Schools exist to transmit culture traits of continuing value to children and young people. The aim of good teaching is what Clark (1990:263) considers to give the game away to the learners. Emphasizing a gradual transfer of responsibility and control to learners, with the teacher moving away from centre stage and becoming co-participant or even outsider in the learning community (Lisman, 1991:228). Asmal (2001) recognises that

while all institutions share this transmission role, the school bears an enormous burden. Therefore, they are expected to perform their part of the role in a systematic way.

In short, one can take it for granted that schools transfer not only knowledge, but also certain cultural aspects such as values. Values are therefore central to both the theory of education and the practical activities of the school. (cf. par 1). The values of the schools are apparent in their organisation, curriculum and discipline procedures in the relationship between the teacher and learners.

#### **4.8.2 The functions of the school**

Schools are regarded as community institutions (par 3.9). In this sense, there are certain functions to be served by schools within the community. These functions are described as the transfer of culture from generation to generation. However, Bagarette (1995:64) agrees that the main function of the school is to continuously transfer prevailing values to the youth. Parelus and Parelus as quoted by Bagarette (1995) postulate that:

“Schools are always responsible for the transfer of society's beliefs, values, sentiments, knowledge and patterns of behaviour from one generation to the other.”

Therefore, the cultural preservation and maintenance are the conservative function of the school. Additionally, it is crucial to know that there are two inseparable forms of transferring knowledge namely the transfer of certain cognitive skills, such as residing, writing and the transferring of values and certain qualities of personal desire, such as patriotism, and precision. Hurn (1978) as quoted by Bagerette (1995:64) stresses the fact that:

Schools teach what are thought to be essential cognitive skills in a particular heritage of that society its values, ideals, beliefs and conceptions of the most valuable kind of knowledge.

However, schools cannot transfer knowledge only, certain cultural aspects such as values must at the same time been transferred (Bagarette, 1995:64).

### **4.8.3 The school as value transfer agent**

According to Bagarette (1995:65), the school originates from the home family, and as a result it has an important role to play with regard to the educational function. Furthermore, the school is also coupled to a specific culture and as a result it is devoted to the cultural world wherein it functions. Therefore, values of society should reflect in the school as a community institution (Bagarette, 1995:65).

### **4.8.4 The school as a reflection of the macro-society's values**

In several literature studies, it is clearly stated that values can be viewed as a compass that determines the life meaning of every community that which expressess thinking, emotions, social life, economic principles, education, jurisdictional norms, service and moral standards (Bagarette, 1995:65).

However, Badenhorst *et al.* as quoted by Bagarette (1995:65) asserts that school cannot function in isolation. It forms an integral part of the life of community. Bagarette further distinguish the milieu wherein education must take place, as follows:

- the economics values (finance, economic principles, norms, commerce, and industrial);
- the aesthetical values (art, pleasure, decorating, architecture, neatness, appearance);
- language values (dictionaries, communication, language rules, writing concepts, symbols);
- cognitive values (science, theories, reasons, intelligence, cognition);
- social values (group-forming, social life, work, relationships, recreational life);
- beliefs and ethical values (church, beliefs and norms, beliefs and ethical values, morals, ideology).

In this regard the school serves an important role in the sense that it must transfer the cultural patterns of society. Therefore, the school is viewed as value-carrier of the community and it cannot isolate itself from the community (Bagarette, 1995:67).

In the aforementioned discussion about the ways in which values are transferred within the school, it is pertinent to know that one should first consider the role that life and world ideology play in the education system.

#### 4.8.5 Life and world ideology of parents and the community

According to Conradie (1984) as quoted Bagarette (1995), the view of life seems to have a narrow link with the specific society. In his work Bagarette asserts that both the family and the teacher teach the child. During this process of teaching, values and norms are transferred to him. What is of importance is that this teaching must occur in agreement with the prevailing life and world ideology of parents (Bagarette, 1995).

Bagarette (1995) and De Klerk and Rens (2003b) contend that educational leadership is not only responsible for the transfer of knowledge and cognitive skills, but is also responsible for the transfer of values. The main purpose of the school to serve must be deduced from society in which they exist. Lithuli (1982:27) emphasizes:

“The fact that whatever is practiced at school ought to be a neutral reflection of and ought to be determined by a philosophy of a people necessitates a people-orientated education and school practice”.

Schools are looming largely in a culture’s morality (Thomas, 1990:33). In her study, Mloi (1997:40) emanates the following functions as related to school culture:

- School culture has a boundary-defining role;
- it conveys a sense of identity for school members;
- culture facilitates the generation of commitment to something larger than one’s
- it enhances social system stability;
- culture is the social glue that helps hold the school together by providing appropriate standards of what should be done and said in the school and in the classroom; and
- culture serves as a sense-making and control mechanism that guides and shapes the attitudes and behaviour of teachers and learners.

Schools are the social institutions designed to prepare future citizens of society, and also given responsibility for addressing social ills. They are one source of moral instruction and sites of moral struggle. They are agents in the process of public renewal (Lisman, 1991:229). However, at the centre of both source and site is the teacher, who alone in the school adult populace, is for long hours each day in the company of children and youth whose presence compels the making of moral choices. There are

processes that schools should go through, to become an ethical learning community that are more successful and also sustain continuous improvement in their functioning. According to Moloï (1997:52), two different types of schools have been identified. They include: effective and ineffective schools.

According to the above mentioned discussion, schools are considered as community institutions. The community should also get involved in every activity practiced in schools. They exist to transmit cultural traits to the young generation. They also convey a sense of identity for its members and reflect the culture's morality. Their role is to prepare and produce future citizens of the society.

## **4.9 General determinants of school effectiveness**

### **4.9.1 Effective/ineffective practices**

Robbins as quoted by Moloï (1997:52; 2002:10) indicates several aspects as determinants related to school effectiveness:

#### **Effective practices:**

- productive schools and classroom climate and culture;
- appropriate monitoring of student's progress;
- effective policies and practices that help account for effectiveness;
- effective instructional arrangements and implementation:
- successful grouping
- related organisational arrangements
- appropriate pacing and alignment
- active enriched learning
- intellectual challenging teaching
- maximum communication between teachers and learners.

Epanchin *et al.* (1994:35) in their study indicate the following elements as related to effective schools also, namely:

- a vision and mission, a sense of purpose that is understood and shared by all members of the school;

- stimulating and safe learning environments where learners and teachers can explore and learn together and take risks without fear of failure;
- a pluralistic perspective and authentic, meaningful ties to the community;
- an expectation that all learners will learn and achieve. High expectations- opportunities to learn should abound;
- interaction between teachers and learners that provides learners with frequent feedback and teachers with formative measures of progress. In such a system, learners and teachers are constantly receiving information that is necessary to learn and to teach;
- principals who are visible and involved in the instructional programmes and who support and provide instructional leadership to teachers in the school;
- teachers who are empowered to make instructional decisions, to participate actively in school governance, and who feel a sense of ownership, investment, and pride in their school;clear and frequent communication among all school components;
- a system of evaluation that enables participants to adjust the programme and plans to accommodate individuals' needs.

### **Ineffective practices**

Schools with ineffective practices will include some of the following aspects in their plans:

- no written creed that declares the organisation's values and beliefs;
- no mission statement of purpose describing why the school exists;
- no monitoring of learners' progress;
- lack of cultural cohesion;
- poor decision-making by the leader

### **4.9.2 The culture of excellence in the school**

If schools are to succeed in the business of education, it is significant that the culture of excellence in all facets of the school be inspired (Lickona & Davidson, 2005; Molo, 1997:49). Excellence and ethics do not develop in a vacuum. They develop within an ethical learning community (Lickona & Davidson, 2005). Recent research on school

excellence by Moloi (1997:49) has identified the operating principles by which an ethical learning community can be created and continuously be improved. They are:

- member identity,
- relevant curriculum,
- high standards and expectations,
- group emphasis,
- influence of particular instructional tools,
- risk tolerance,
- shared values and goals,
- unit integration,
- open-system focus,
- hands-on value driven approach,
- provision of vision and energy,

All these values and beliefs are transferable into the following observable behaviour:

- the school should have a strong invitational character;
- the school should be staffed by caring teachers committed to excellence in teaching;
- the school should produce learners of outstanding quality; and
- the principal must be visible, accessible and committed to management principles to ensure job satisfaction.

Lickona and Davidson (2005:68) posit that the more parents, staff members and learners accept these values, the greater will their commitment be to these values. Such values come from the school's mission statement and they should form part of the school policy, classroom policy and practice. Teachers in this regard are advised to encourage the use of learners' strength (Moloi, 1997:57).

Faced with such a deteriorating social fabric, schools that hope to build character must take into account a comprehensive, all embracing approach to character/values education that uses all phases of school life to foster character development (Lickona, 1991:68-69, 1993:6-10; Wynne & Walberg, 1985/6:15-16). This approach is aimed at

making respect and responsibility living values in the character of the young. Therefore, character is defined as a pathway to both excellence and ethics (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:13).

In helping learners to become the best persons they can be, schools are still faced with many other challenges besides those represented by youth trends (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8). They are faced with extremely difficult institutional challenges to defeat (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8; Asmal, 2001:8). However, for schools to be in a better position, they should find ways in which they can establish the school-wide conditions that will support the implementation of a holistic vision of education, which will help learners to be able to realise their potential for excellence (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:8). Lickona and Davidson mentioned such conditions for example, as strong leadership, optimal school size, time for staff planning and reflection, supportive scheduling, manageable teaching loads, a safe and orderly environment, trusting and respectful relationships. However, teachers for their part need to hold their idealism, energy, and commitment in maximising their positive impact on learners even when the school conditions are less than optimal. According to Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1986:416), Lickona and Davidson (2005:8) and Wynne and Walberg (1985/6:16), many teachers who are considered to be diligent have touched learners' lives in a formative ways.

The discussion above, illustrates the two types schools we have in our education system, i. e. those who are very functional and those that are not functional. Functional in the sense that they make great difference to the future of the learners they teach and dysfunctional for not being competent enough or able to produce good outcomes for learners, especially those schools that lack motivation in their vision and mission statements. Indeed such schools do exist in South-Africa for example, those located in the black townships. There are some of the schools where learners' work is monitored continuously by their respective teachers and often receive feedback concerning their progress. It is significantly crucial for principals and teachers as leaders in their institutions to take into cognisance that excellence and ethics do not occur in a vacuum, but like values, they are achieved through a process of time. What they should consider most importantly is to make their schools to become the best and this can only happen or take place through commitment and hard work from parents, teachers and learners.

Following are operating principles for teachers to apply in order to create an ethical learning environment that is conducive for teaching as well as for learners to learn effectively.

#### **4.10 Operating principles which can help with the creation of an ethical learning community**

##### **4.10.1 Have a voice, take a stand.**

Classrooms are considered to be a small community where young people begin to find and develop their voices (Lickona & Davdson, 2005). They opine that, if learners experience a feeling of discomfort and not being competent in speaking in their classrooms, they are not likely to do so in a larger or less familiar group. Democracy is what Lickona and Davidson (2005:33) and Lickona (1991:46) refer to as maximising opportunities for meaningful participation. It is the best way of securing an individual learner's rights and to promote general welfare (acting responsibly for the good of all).

According to Lickona and Davidson (2005) and Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996), most teachers expect learners to respond to questions, participate in classroom discussions without applying adequate strategies or implementing their strategies well enough to bring that about. Therefore, for beginner teachers this may initially seem unrealistic, even risky. However, thoughtfully structured, incrementally expanded strategies can be applied to increase learner voice, responsibility, and productive engagement (Lickona & Davidson, 2005).

##### **4.10.2 Maximise all learners' responsibility for participating in academic discussions**

In more fully engaged classrooms, teachers maximise learner participation and accountability, by not having learners raise their hands but instead calling on learners in an unpredictable pattern. However, by providing learners with the opportunities for meaningful involvement and responsibility within the classroom is a natural outcome that has high expectations (Bernard, 1993:47).

### **4.10.3 Hold class meetings that seek and act upon student feedback**

The class meeting held on a need basis or at a regularly scheduled time is a vehicle for recruiting learners as partners in sharing responsibility for making the class the best it can be. Therefore, teachers applying such meetings in their classroom will gain more control. Class meetings help learners become active participants in decision-making.

### **4.10.4 Develop student voice in the school**

Learners are better prepared to use their voice in venues beyond the classroom, only when they have sufficient practice formulating and expressing their perspectives in the classroom. However, to maximise their voice in a whole-school affair, the school must be able to create a variety of participatory student government policies such as:

- using surveys to seek students' input on school improvement;
- structuring small group discussions of whole-school issues;
- creating a democratic school-wide governing system that gives students a voice in decisions affecting the whole school;

### **4.10.5 Develop faculty and staff voice**

According to Lickona and Davidson (2005), a basic rule for an effective ethical learning community is that faculty and staff are expected to do something with learners, for example to giving them greater voice and responsibility. Then the administration will be in a better position to treat faculty and staff in the same manner.

### **4.10.6 Develop parent voice**

By increasing parents' voice and stakes in the ethical learning community, decisions can be carried out in ways that parallel those processes, such as surveys and membership in decision-making groups used to increase student and staff voice. Therefore, it is important for every school to work together with parents, to involve them in any school matters as this can in future prevent learners' infractions of school rules and provides a framework for dealing with any challenges that can be faced with.

#### **4.10.7 Develop community voice**

One way of cultivating the wider community's concern for excellence and ethics in its school, is that community task forces must be created in order to examine particular areas of school life. Increased linkage between school and the community have been reflected to have multiple positive results: increased access to school resources and facilities, cost-saving and improved services through collaboration, increased capacity to solve community problems, and community pride (Davies, 1993:206). Everything is based on school improvement.

#### **4.10.8 Take a personal responsibility for continuous self-development**

Excellence and ethics according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:26), Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996:355) and De Klerk and Rens (2003b) begins at home. Therefore, the emphasis on personal responsibility is basically for continuing growth, for striving to be the best both *in our work (performance character) and in our relationships (moral character)*. This principle means that adults don't ask children to do anything they themselves are not willing to do, because example is the most powerful teacher. Children are good observers and imitate anything which parents/teachers model in front of them. Teachers together with parents must, at all times be exemplary models, worthy to be followed and imitated.

#### **4.10.9 Promoting the value of striving for excellence and ethics as central to a fulfilling life in school and beyond**

The best challenge of an ethical learning community (ELC) is to communicate a vision, the ideal of striving to be the best that one can be, the belief being that every person has gifts and the conviction and that developing our gifts and using them to make a positive difference in the world is the only way to be happy.

#### **4.10.10 Promoting ongoing self-reflection in the quest for excellence and ethics**

For an ethical learning community (ELC) to foster ongoing personal reflection as essential for self-assessment, goal setting and continuing growth, it must be in a better position to promote personal responsibility for pursuing excellence and ethics.

#### **4.10.11 Challenge students to move outside their comfort zone**

Striving for excellence means being willing to move outside one's comfort zone, beyond the limits one may initially set for oneself. The challenge for teachers is to involve learners by giving them opportunities to participate in meaningful activities as well as roles.

#### **4.10.12 Create a culture of excellence in the classrooms and a school-wide system that monitors and supports achievements**

The ideal of striving to be the best one can be comes to life in school culture when it is translated into classroom practices used across the school. This can only begin with a teacher's belief that every learner is not only capable of learning, but with enough time, effort, and support, capable of producing high quality work.

#### **4.10.13 Foster personal responsibility for excellence and ethics among faculty and staff, parents as well as the wider community**

For schools to inspire parents and the wider community to become part of the quest for character, the following points must be taken into consideration:

- **Helping parents do their best**

The most crucial part of family cohesion is protecting young people against high-risk behaviour. However, the most important thing that the school can do is to enhance parents in developing communication skills for connecting with their children. Involving parents have great advantages, but there are still several other

reasons why it is important for them to be involved in the education of their children. When teachers make parental involvement part of their regular teaching practice, parents increase their interaction with their children at home and feel more positive about their own abilities to assist their children (Epstein & Dauber, 1991:290). Combining the forces of the home, the community as well as that of the school is one way of improving the quality of education. Seemingly, education is the task that no school can undertake on its own; therefore, parents must get involved. Parents and citizen participation in schools can contribute to advancing the prospects of a more democratic and equitable society (Davies, 1993:206).

- **Create communities of character**

Schools are not in isolation; they exist in the communities (Mncwabe, 1987:132; Bagarette, 1995:65; Lickona & Davidson, 2005:36). Schools together with other groups have to re-create a more valuable cohesive environment in order to develop "communities of character." These will include groups that educate, care for, and influence the young including the families, youth organisations, faith communities, etc, in working together to model and promote good character.

- **Collaborate to create career opportunities**

For communities to foster excellence and ethics in their youth, they must work together with the schools to design courses and programmes that will prepare workers who are needed in their local community. In programmes where parents and teachers work together successfully, teachers experience a more supportive environment and appreciate parents more (Swap, 1993:10).

#### **4.10.14 Practice collective responsibility for excellence and ethics**

Collective responsibility is countercultural, but essential for optimal human development (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:37). Therefore, working collaboratively to assist each other succeed and do the right thing, is regarded as an essential part of the ethical learning community (ELC) and it is also necessary for optimal human development. According to their research, Lickona and Davidson (2005:37) and Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996:354-357) indicate the power of positive peer culture which influences youth behaviour in healthy directions, especially when it is coupled with direct-instruction in perspective-taking and communication skills. However, in order to create such positive

peer culture through an ethic of collective responsibility, it is considered an excellent developmental match for adolescents for at least three reasons:

- the task of adults being to help shape a positive peer culture that teenagers can fit into.
- a positive peer culture, committed to supporting the “quest for one’s best,” helps to offset the influence of the media culture. Therefore, if collective responsibility is cultivated effectively, it will then provide learners with a strong support system that can enhance them to establish some distance from media messages and develop an identity based on solid values that they can feel good about.
- an ethic of collective responsibility is again helping to counter the distorting and destructive aspects of competitive individualism.

#### **4.10.15 Model care-confrontation as adults**

Learners will be able to push each other to be the best only when caring parents/teachers have pushed them to be their best. According to Galvin *et al.* (1990:25-30) the influence of parents on the social and emotional development of their children is very strong. Children spend more time at home than they do at school, and their parents have the primary task to educate them. Therefore, the widespread understanding is that both have the crucial and continuing role to play in the education, welfare and development of their children (Bastian, 1993:144). Epstein and Dauber’s (1991:53) research indicates that children are more successful learners at all grades levels if their parents participate in school activities and encourage education and learning at home.

#### **4.10.16 Create a school norm of collective responsibility and structures that institutionalise it**

According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:38), an ethical learning community (ELC) who wants learners and others to act on the principle of responsibility must be able to take deliberate steps in order to make it normative. Creating structures that will ensure its regular practice, for example a classroom of critique, brother’s keeper, discovery group, and meeting, can do this.

#### **4.10.17 Grapple with the tough issues - the elephant in the living room**

Whether the issue is hazing, drug and alcohol use, sexual activity, or any other problem, a school will only be in a better position to take action once it knows the size and nature of the elephant in its living room. Schools should always try to assist learners who experience difficult situations in their lives so as not to affect their performance and moral character in future.

#### **4.10.18 Create study groups to struggle with high-priority issues**

Something of major importance to the ethical learning community (ELC) is that they will only benefit from a thoughtful discussion by all groups in the community.

#### **4.10.19 Help families confront their issues**

The first principle in parenting according to Lickona and Davidson (2005) and Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996:354), is truth over harmony. Because of their work being to prepare children for life, they must be willing to confront problems rather than to avoid conflict for the sake of harmony. Therefore, families, schools and the community that have protected learners growing in adversity are characterised by being supportive, caring, having positive high expectations and ongoing opportunities for participation.

The more parents, staff members and learners accept these principles, the greater will their commitment be. Such values and principles should come from the school's mission statement and should form part of the school policy, classroom policy and practice.

According to the above information, it is important for every teacher to create a learning environment where every learner will be able to learn effectively. The environment should be of a democratic nature. Learners that experience a democratic atmosphere in their classrooms are willing to participate freely during the teaching and learning process. Learners should also be given opportunities to engage themselves in academic discussions and class meetings as this will lead them to become responsible citizens in future. The involvement of parents and also the creation of a community task force will be highly appreciated as they will be examining various areas of school life. However, teachers together with learners should promote the value of striving for excellence and ethics as a central fulfilling in their school life and beyond. Learners as

well should be encouraged to move outside their comfort zones as this can help them to perceive the importance of education.

#### **4.11 Factors playing a significant role in the moral life of the school**

Halstead and Taylor (2000:169-171) have suggested important factors that play a role in the moral life of the school. They are discussed as follows:

##### **4.11.1 Ethos and caring of the school**

According to Halstead and Taylor (2000:171), the ethos of the school is regarded as an inaccurate concept, which then refers to the general atmosphere within the school and it also has been identified by several proponents as a crucial element both in school effectiveness and moral education. Therefore, quality teaching coupled with an ethic of caring and respect for the learner is a powerful combination of behaviours that creates a positive moral climate in schools (Lickona, 1991; Drinkwater, 2002; Moloji, 1997; Ntuli, 1999). However, Lickona (1991) and Moloji (1997) assert that the moral climate of the school must become consistent with values promulgated through direct teaching. Jackson *et al.* (1993:12) agree that the concept 'ethos' embraces the nature of relationship within a school as follows:

- the attitudes and expectations of teachers,
- the way in which conflicts are supposed to be resolved,
- the dominant forms of social interaction,
- patterns of communication, links with parents and the local community,
- the nature of pupil involvement in the school,
- discipline procedures and warmth management styles,
- acceptance towards students,
- the school's underlying philosophy and aims,
- the system of caring, and
- the learning climate.

These elements are considered as being rich in their potential to influence the developing of values, attitudes, and personal qualities of children and young people (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:176). Halstead and Taylor (2000:176) and Noddings (1984:27)

referred to caring as a conscious decision to prioritise the needs and interests of the pupils. In the research study conducted by Halstead and Taylor (2000:176), the indication is that parents wanted the school to be a caring place where children may feel valued. *Caring is the concept used for a theoretical approach in the USA to moral education which puts an emphasis on relationships and connectedness (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:176; Noddings, 1984:24).*

#### **4.11.2 The policy statements of the school**

Halstead and Taylor (2000:176) cite that a high need for public responsibility, combined with a rapid growth of national pronouncements on values, is compulsory for schools to articulate their underlying values more explicitly and also to express on the way that the life of the school may contribute to the development of pupils' values and attitudes. Research conducted by Halstead and Taylor (2000:176) shows that parents are influenced by the perceptions of a school with a strong values orientation and also suggest how schools may view the development and implementation of whole-school values policies and practice.

#### **4.11.3 Teacher as a moral exemplar**

As we are aware that children depend on adults (i.e. parent or teacher) for guidance on how to regulate their social interactions and also for moral wisdom (Nucci, 1989:7), teachers as well as parents are considered to be the only people who should set good examples to children they teach or come into contact with through their presentation and their personal and professional conduct (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:177; Ryan, 1988:20). Consciously or unconsciously, they are watching the adults around them, measuring and judging them. They need the moral models; teachers are expected to be "good examples" to the young, not only models of rationality but models of morality (Ryan, 1988:20). They should be committed to whatever they are busy with at schools. They need to see the crucial nature of their role in this fundamental work of the school (Ryan, 1988:20). They need to be ready to assist learners draw out the moral of a story, or intervene in a situation where learners are being abusive to another learner. They should be concerned about developing in learners certain personally and socially enhancing values, such as responsibility and persistence at hard tasks (Ryan, 1988:20). Therefore, schools and classrooms are awash with the moral grist of the young mental

mills, and teachers according to Ryan (1988:20) must engage learners in these ethical issues.

#### **4.11.4 School councils**

Halstead and Taylor (2000:177) assert about the increasing concern that involves preparation of young people for the opportunities, responsibilities and experiences of adult life. According to them, this concern has led to the development of school councils and other activities designed to promote a practical understanding of democratic procedures and the rights and responsibilities of citizenship. Therefore, Halstead and Taylor (2000:177) consider this idea as the apprenticeship approach, maintaining that students need direct experience of democracy if they are to become fully participative citizens in society.

According to their research conducted in the UK, the evidence is that schools with school councils are more likely to engage students in a range of management issues as well as augmenting problem solving abilities and improving behaviour. Seemingly, schools with more participation and freedom of expression had a stronger influence on learners' values than the traditional school Halstead and Taylor (2000:179). An investigation conducted in five Liverpool schools concerning the Pupil Councils Programs have mixed effects said Halstead and Taylor (2000:179). Positive outcomes are mentioned as: increasing pupil confidence; maturity; responsibility; shared problem-solving; less antisocial behaviour a better school environment; better pupil-teacher relationship; greater participation in extra-curricular activities initiated by pupils.

#### **4.11.5 Rules and discipline**

McPhail (1982:129) defines discipline as a state of affairs in which the teacher controls the learning environment where learning takes place. Sammons *et al.* (1995:19) affirmed that fair and clear discipline is a crucial phenomenon of effective schools. However, in their research Sammons *et al.* (1995:19) and Oosthuizen *et al.* (2003) indicate that too frequent use of punishment can create a tense and negative atmosphere with harmful effects on attendance and behaviour and that formal punishment is also ineffective or counter-productive. Conversely, Noguera (1995:189) as quoted by Halstead and Taylor (2000:180), contends that the 'get-tough' approach adopted towards problems of violence in some schools in America has not had much effect in

increasing a safer environment in schools. They argue by saying that it is because the use of coercive strategies based on an underlying philosophy of social control, interrupts learning and ultimately produces an environment of mistrust and resistance. Halstead and Taylor and other researchers conclude by saying that discipline is most effective when it is rooted in children's own experience and emerging sense of community and collective responsibility.

The school is located within society and its associated values (Bagarette, 1995:64; Hallstead & Taylor, 2000:180). Therefore, these values influence the values as well as the ethos of the school. Learners come from the community and uphold the values that are learned from society. To distinguish this, values within the school are not only the values of the particular society, but also the values of the broader society (Bagarette, 1995, Rhodes, 2003). However, values of the school are determined by several factors and cannot be described as sustaining the values of only the community (Rhodes, 2003). Teachers as well as principals also have an impact on influencing the specific values of a school (Halstead & Taylor, 2000; Abdool, 2005; Bagarette, 1995; Rhodes, 2003).

It is pertinent for teachers to create a work context in which the core aspirations of the classroom are noticed. However, to promote such a culture, the teacher should be in position to ensure that the classroom culture is celebrated, and this must be consciously perceived as part of classroom change. Classroom culture should however, be perceived as a whole-school development intervention. Therefore, these practices require a purposeful, committed workforce, which has the capacity to work under strenuous and trying conditions. Teachers should develop sound and shared values so that they can be able to improve their performance in classroom/school. Therefore, some kind of rules and code of conduct has to exist in order to determine the parameters of learners and teachers. Doyle (1986:410) remark positively that rules should be designed for learners' benefit and well-being.

Schools are regarded as social organisations where different cultural groups of learners and teachers meet. They exist in the society and with their different values. These values can however, have a negative or positive impact on the ethos of the school. Therefore, parents are influenced by the views of a school with strong value-orientation, i.e. in every school there should be the development and implementation of whole-school values, policies and practices.

Teachers should also be aware of the fact that, what they are doing in front of learners during the process of teaching and learning, becomes important to learners. Learners admire everything an adult person is doing. They measure and judge them. Teachers should become models of morality not only models of rationality. The type of rules and code of conduct set in their classroom/school should be consistent and celebrated by everyone. The school culture is perceived as a mirror to the public. Therefore, it is the duty of principals, teachers and parents to create a conducive moral climate for learners, as this will make them better persons in future. It is important that every learner in the school feel respected and cared for by both parents and teachers.

#### **4.12 The educational behaviour of teachers in the socio-moral-dilemma**

Oser and Althof (1993:255), Oser (1986, 1991:202), Rhodes (2003:60) and Tirri (1999:32), contend that the educational behaviour of teachers in social moral dilemmas is the result of decision-making processes driven by the three aspects of teacher identity for example (1) as experts in subject matter, didactics, and pedagogy, (2) as individuals with distinct personal, social and cultural belief systems, directed by individual interests and tastes, on various cognitive and socio-moral levels; and (3) as members of a school culture and a community holding a specific value-orientation (Barcena *et al.*, 1993:243).

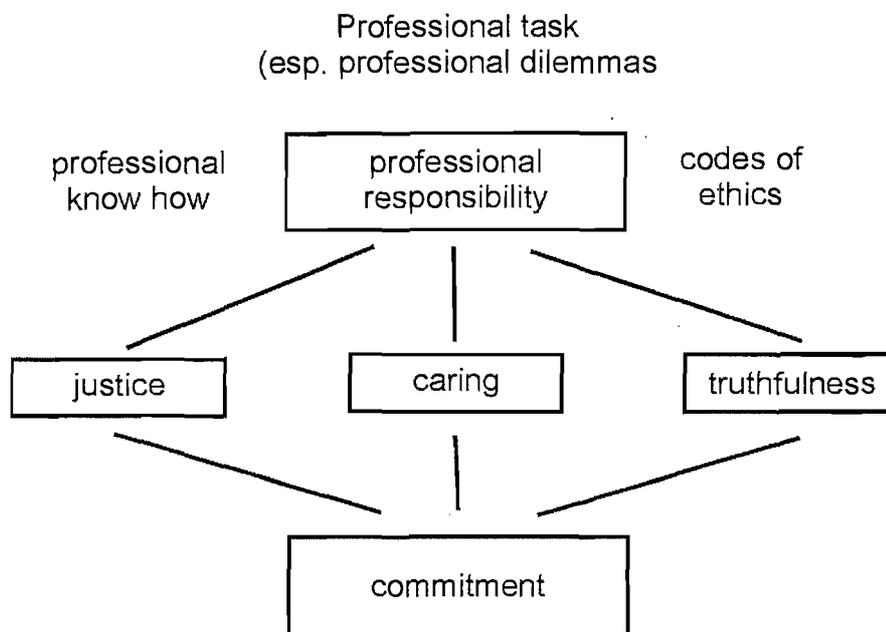
According to research study conducted by Oser and Althof (1993:254-255), the evidence concerning the process and conditions that result in specific variations of professional morality, is that teachers report the different experiences and reflections generated, that have led to changes in the teachers' characteristics and their choices of strategies for dealing with problems in the classroom. In their work Rhodes (2003:60) and Tirri (1999:32), mentioned that teachers do not really need ethical standards when their work environment proceeds without conflict. This could, however, be referred to as the professional non-moral acting of teachers (Tirri, 1999:32). It is only where disruption occurs regarding the normal situation that teachers need a different type of morality. According to Oser's (1991:202) model, conflict in educational settings occurs when the following three types of moral claims i.e. *justice, caring and truthfulness* cannot be met at the same time (Tirri, 1999:33). These claims of *justice, caring, and truthfulness* are the critical problems in teacher professional ethics. Oser (1991), Tirri (1999:33) and Oser and Althof (1993:255) postulate that the professional morality emerges in

strategies of coordinating the moral dimensions in the search for adequate solutions to the problem. However, two orientations in teachers' morality concerning their learners have been identified. They are as follows: the *justice orientation and discourse orientation*. The justice orientation is defined as related to ideal concepts of discourse ethics for finding the morally just solution, and the realistic discourse orientation provides a balance in the decision-making process between the moral dimension and the instrumental, functional and technological considerations of the situation in order to arrive at a good solution (Maslovaty, 2000:430).

Therefore, a teacher is generally understood to be the one who imparts knowledge in the learning and teaching situation, yet there are other roles, not implicit, that are obligatory. Duties that he/she carries out in a classroom call for various kinds of skills, some of which they are trained for, and other kinds of skills they need because of the interactive nature of the classroom learning (Skinner, 1990:72). He lists some requirements for effective teaching necessary in a "skilled teacher":

- a personal philosophy to have a strong belief in why one is teaching, and where one's actions are leading;
- communication skills to create interaction between child and teacher, and to create an environment in which learning can take place;
- personality skills that make a difference in the teaching environment;
- classroom skills which include being creative, solving problems, explaining, being well prepared, maintaining discipline, and to give everyone recognition and a fair chance;
- motivating skills to generate enthusiasm, to instil the need to learn and apply new acquired knowledge.

The diagram below illustrates five types of orientations distinguished by Oser (1991:202), Oser (1993:257) and Tirri (1999:32), which relate to teachers attempt to solve professional dilemmas. They are discussed in the next paragraph.



**Figure 4.7** An illustration of the dimensions of the teachers' ethos model (Oser, 1991:202; Oser & Althof, 1993:257)

#### 4.12.1 Orientations of teachers to professional dilemmas

- **The avoiding orientation**

According to this model, the teacher avoids his/her responsibility. Teachers usually neglect their responsibilities for a solution to problems. Teachers do not believe that a realistic discourse is possible (Rhodes, 2003:15). They avoid responsibility for facing difficult questions, for example, reference to factual restrictions can lead to unwillingness to take learners' problems into consideration, but those with a deeper understanding of his moral responsibility would understand the problem of the situation and would intervene (Oser & Althof, 1993:256; Tirri, 1999:33). However, Oser and Althof (1993:256) assert that the obligation of *care* in this regard cannot be fulfilled by the teachers any longer. Teacher's action in the classroom is to assist learners to become involved in the learning act, performing relevant and meaningful tasks. S/he needs knowledge of applying the problem solving strategy in his or her teaching to promote the learning activity of learners.

- **The delegation orientation**

When the teacher accepts responsibility, but does not want to make decisions about the problem, s/he delegates the problem (Darling-Hammond, 1994:105).

For teachers to teach effectively, they must strive for decisions that have positive effects on the teaching learning process.

- **Unilateral decision making/single handed decision making**

In this orientation the behaviour of the teacher is described as the outcome in acting automatically and spontaneously taking for granted that he/she knows what to do. He is taking the problem into his/her hands, considering himself as an “expert” who has the ability to solve the problems quickly and often in an authoritarian manner (Tirri, 1999:33; Darling-Hammond, 1994:105). Therefore, the teacher and the learner characterise a classroom in every school. In addition to giving problems to resolve within the classroom, much learning by learners or construction of knowledge occurs through social interaction with teachers and peers, as part of problem-solving (Koehler & Grows, 1992:119).

- **Incomplete discourse**

Oser and Althof (1993:257) contend that teachers who employ a discourse problem-solving strategy are trying to give every learner a fair share. The teacher accepts the responsibility for settling the problem and explains how s/he has balanced *justice, care and truthfulness* (Tirri, 1999:33). Problem solving strategy enhances learners to become more effective problem solvers. They will be able to generate useful and original solutions when they are faced with problems they have never experienced before (Opwis & Spada, 1994:4722).

- **Complete discourse**

This orientation considers the teacher as the person who engages all the learners, allowing each learner to express a standpoint and also to share responsibility for making a decision. According to Tirri’s (1999:34) view, the teacher also takes for granted that all learners and other people who are concerned and involved, are rational human beings who are interested in and capable of balancing *justice, care and truthfulness*. This principle is applied in even critical or aggressive situation (Tirri, 1999:34; Rhodes, 2003:15). Again, however, four characteristics that determine the discourse-orientated ethos were distinguished by Oser and Althof (1993:259) and Darling-Hammond (1994:105) that:

- \* The teacher should take responsibility for every single learner's well being and for promoting his or her personality development. He/she feels responsible for a just settling of conflicting interests in school life. While expecting that a deeper understanding of professional responsibility becomes apparent in the teaching process through actions, it is taken for granted that a highly ethical teacher feels responsible as much for school life in its totality and for external factors influencing school as for classroom teaching.
- \* Defining one's own responsibility as a teacher in the way just outlined should lead to a commitment in terms of realising the obligations freely accepted. However, a highly ethical teacher is perceived as a person who can be able to do everything to put into practice the solution to professional problems considered right.
- \* in solving tasks and conflicts the discourse-orientated teacher takes the perspective of all parties into consideration. S/he takes for granted a basic personal sense of responsibility in each person including the learners.
- \* to coordinate responsibilities, the teacher with a deep understanding of professional responsibility feels responsible for initiating a participatory process involving all parties concerned.

Rhodes (2003:16), Noddings (1992), Kohlberg (1978) and Tirri (1999:35) assert that the concepts of *justice, care and truthfulness* used by Oser reveal teachers' professional morals, have been used in other models to explain the teachers' orientations and professional moral activities. Character and morals according to Freeman (1998) as quoted by Rhodes (2003), are not considered to be the same as ethics and professionalism. Therefore, the co-operation of teachers means the sharing of common professional ethics. Professionalism is then defined as including adherence to a code of ethics (Rhodes, 2003). However, professionalism as an ethical code would enhance teachers to create guidelines for effective, successful teaching. Ethical dilemmas arise where teachers take action to achieve a specific result and it is viewed as indirect discord with the ends desired by other role players in the educational settings.

To enable secondary school teachers to teach effectively in the classroom, professional competence must seriously be taken into consideration. According to Titus (1994:6), character education can only become effective if teachers are willing to carry out their professional obligations by transmitting core values. Therefore, effective character

education is built on values as the ground rules and each of the values contribute significantly to character building. By integrating character education across the curriculum and by teaching values through the hidden curriculum, teachers can avoid the divisiveness usually associated with specific character programmes. Titus (1994:6) recommends several strategies to be applied by teachers for the teaching of values in secondary schools. They are as follows:

#### **4.12.2 Strategies for teachers in order to teach character effectively in secondary schools**

Different strategies exist for character education (Frazer *et al.*, 1993:144). These strategies are not without some disadvantages. However, the improvement of teachers' competence enables them to find ways that make these effective in the classroom atmosphere. This study makes use of Titus' (1994) guidelines for teaching character in schools, which are as follows:

- Educate the whole person by focusing on learner knowledge, behaviour, and feeling;
- choose content which honours and rewards virtue in exemplars, and encourage reflection on values content;
- use quotes, pledges, codes, and guidelines;
- communicate clear, consistent, sincere, high expectations for learners;
- develop learners' skills in resisting peer pressure, maintaining self-respect, and resolving conflicts in non violent ways;
- be a good role model through positive personal example;
- use and require respectful language;
- use the creation of and even-handed enforcement of just classroom rules to teach core values (compassion, courage, courtesy, fairness, honesty, kindness, loyalty, perseverance, respect and responsibility).
- reinforce the diligent work and virtuous behaviour of learners with praise and appreciation;
- correct unethical, immoral, and disrespectful behaviour;
- have learners work together cooperatively in heterogeneous group;
- involve peers, parents and community;

- encourage learner involvement in community service;
- teach, don't preach.

The transforming context of the workplace together with the external environment in schools need teachers who are capable in managing their classrooms/schools in such a manner that values can be added to the processes and procedures used (Moloi, 2002:28). However, to add values will enhance flexibility, efficiency and productivity in schools/classrooms. Therefore, if one compares the above mentioned discussion with an illustration given by Lickona and Davidson (2005:62), one realises that it is true that ethics can have an impact on excellence or vice versa. Therefore, these researchers state that:

“First you reach 'em, and then you teach 'em.” “They don't care how much you know until they know how much you care.”

These quotes tell us that a teacher-learner and parent-child relationship of *respect and caring* is the most important foundation for teaching and learning (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:62; Empanchin *et al.*, 1994:34). However, the macro ethical issues are equally important. Schools exist in and are affected by the wider culture. Therefore, the universal principles such as *justice, caring and respect* create the requisite conditions for effective teaching and learning (Lickona & Davidson, 2005; Maphumulo & Vakalisa, 1996). According to Lickona and Davidson (2005) and Maphumulo and Vakalisa (1996), effective teaching and learning cannot take place in a chaotic classroom or home where injustice exists unchallenged. Teachers are required to establish the empowering context within which they can develop and operate to their fullest. They require to establish a culture of prize and enthusiasm in their workplace and this culture must be valued and celebrated (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:84). They should develop a collaborative culture that will breed commitment.

According to what is said above concerning teachers' responsibility, it is clear that some teachers in school are trying to avoid their responsibilities as adults. They avoid challenges concerning what they are supposed to do as teachers. Therefore, their obligation during contact time is to consider each learner as an important individual. Commitment, care and respect should be emphasised to every learner during teaching and learning process. Their action however, is to help learners to become engaged in the learning act and to perform relevant and meaningful duties. Accepting their

responsibilities as teachers can bring a fruitful experience for learners to learn more effectively.

Classrooms are considered as agents for social interaction. Therefore, maximum interaction should take place between teachers and learners. This interaction should also involve learners in problem solving. Engaging learners in problem-solving can give them a fair share during the interaction/discussion process. The responsibilities of every teacher is to take into consideration the well being of every learner in order to promote their personal development. Therefore, an ethical teacher is seen as someone who is able to teach character effectively.

#### **4.13 Didactical guidelines for the teaching of character education in secondary schools**

From the discussion in this study, it is clear there are number of teaching guidelines/strategies that if used correctly, will positively influence the behaviour and also build the character of learners in school. Some of these are as follows:

- Display concern for each learner's welfare.
- Encourage parents to become involved in school matters
- Create a democratic classroom atmosphere where learners are able and willing to exchange ideas freely.
- Learners must be taught according to their ability and interest.
- School and home should encourage a shared commitment to the success of learners.
- Encourage learners to feel a sense of ownership for the school.
- Keep up with the latest research and theories about character education as well as theories of moral development and engage in constant debate over character education issues.
- Catering for the interests of learners can contribute towards cognitive development.
- Change the normal way of presenting the lessons to arouse curiosity.
- Actively involve learners in your lesson.
- Teach learners to become critical thinkers.
- Teaching methods, which allow active participation, are more likely to reach further than merely increasing knowledge, changing attitudes and behaviour.

- Though group work, projects, class discussions, and self-learning activities, the learners can be actively involved in communication.
- Interactive activities promote lateral thinking skills, decision-making skills, problem-solving skills, communication skills and self-confidence.
- Interactive activities make the learners able to experiment and act out new behaviours.
- Acknowledge the input made by each learner, whatever the contribution.
- Encourage learners to value their ideas and to recognise their own worth.
- Introduce a personal and emotional component into standard material and learning.
- Let them know that making mistakes is a valuable part of learning and they can learn from their mistakes.
- Treat learners with dignity and respect by means of caring acts.
- Communicate positive message rather than negative one.
- Apart from formal lectures, ask thought-provoking questions in order to stimulate thinking skills and elicit answers.
- Communication skills need to be developed between different groups, for example, gender, age groups and population groups.
- Make them know that by working in groups, communication skills, problem-solving skills are developed and understanding is promoted between group members.
- Encourage effective peer tutoring in the classroom.
- Co-operation is enhanced and leadership traits elicited in-group work.
- Allow learners to participate in formulating rules and regulations concerning classroom procedures.
- Act as a role model for learners by displaying conduct of the highest ethical standards.
- Encourage learners to fulfil a meaningful role in society.
- Help learners in applying knowledge gained to actual problems experienced in society.
- Display positive attitudes to learners that can foster learning among them.
- Tact should be applied when resolving problems among different cultural groups.
- Act as a mediator in a conflict situation.

#### 4.14 Conclusion

From the foregoing discussion it is evident that character education is the concern and responsibility of every teacher and parent and that all teacher-learner or parent-child interaction contributes inevitably towards learners' moral and character learning and can be geared towards their moral/character education. Therefore, moral and character learning are the function of everything that (teachers and parents) do in school/home and not just in the content of certain kinds of lessons. They permeate all aspects of school life, both formal and informal (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b:357).

Therefore, character/moral education cannot be divorced from the overall social climate as well as the normative structure of the school and the classroom. According to Purple and Ryan (1975:659-662) and Carl and De Klerk (2001:24), character education is a vast landscape of which a great part is a minefield, situated in a territory "where sages fear to treat." Therefore, the inescapable reality according to them is that the school/classroom setting is always the moral enterprise; the inescapable fact is that social and political life is filled with moral content, and that history encompasses millions of moral decisions with which teachers have to deal, not only as scientists but also as people. It is concerned with what the school does in order to assist/enhance learners to become ethically mature adults, capable of moral thought and actions (Arnold, 1994:77).

The involvement of character education as a social activity in the process of changing learners into a purposeful responsible adult, means that it is not concerned with the transfer of knowledge but equally, if not more important about the transference of values (Burkhardt, 1999:87). Again, education is about individual teachers shaping, transforming, enriching, and disciplining young peoples' whole lives. In this regard, teaching in general and teachers in particular should start playing a role once again in the process of shaping the social and moral attitudes of learners upon which a society should be based.

Character education can be seen as a precious process by which the school and society buy its every existence and survival. It is an essential part of the culture of a society and is an indispensable channel through and by which adults (teacher/parent) purposefully and systematically concern themselves with children/learners in assisting them to reach adulthood (De Klerk & Rens, 2003b; Mncwabe, 1987; Ryan, 1988).

The qualities of the teacher are the most crucial ingredient in any recipe for moral and character education, as indeed it is for all forms of education. If the teacher him/herself

is not a morally educated person, then she or he has nothing to offer to his or her learners but potential harm and danger, in what may well be the most important area of their development when they reach adulthood.

Character education may serve as an umbrella for various approaches that stimulate teachers to put more attention on assisting learners to become consciously aware of their own feelings, attitudes as well as for their values.

Epanchin *et al.* (1994:115) note the following crucial statement that says:

“I’ve come to a frightening conclusion that I am the decisive element in the classroom. It is my personal approach that creates the climate. It’s my daily mood that makes the weather. As a teacher I possess a tremendous power to make a child’s life miserable or joyous. I can be a tool of torture or an instrument of inspiration. I can humiliate or humour, hurt or heal. In all situations, it is my response that decides whether a crisis will be escalated or de-escalated and a child humanised or dehumanised.”

Lastly, values do exist in education, in everything that schools do and in all the decisions the community makes about the best ways in which we can institutionalise our child - rearing practices and purpose (Ntuli, 1997). When one starts to examine the work of these institutions from this perspective, then one begins to realise that values are embedded and embodied in everything we do, as part of the warp and weft of our community’s whole form of life (Asmal, 2001:3; Antes & Nardini, 1990:128).

# CHAPTER 5

## EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

---

### 5.1 Introduction

The preceding chapters form a background to the empirical investigation contained in this research project.

Chapter 2 provided a theoretical framework including the definitions of different basic concepts such as values, education, character and character education.

Chapter 3 focused on the role of character education pertaining to the classroom situation and also on the behaviour of teachers when interacting with learners in classrooms.

In this chapter, discussion is basically on the empirical research and attention will be focused on the research design, the construction of questionnaires as a measuring tool, the presentation as well as the analysis of the responses (data) to the questionnaires and the interviews.

### 5.2 The aim of the empirical study

The substantive literature study, together with the preliminary research, serves to distinguish some of the important problems pertaining to the topic and indicate the gaps in the existing knowledge concerning the teacher's influence on the value-orientation of learners in secondary schools. According to researchers such as Lickona and Davidson (2005), all evidence from the literature indicates that teachers have an important role to play concerning the education of every learner.

The initial step in carrying out a satisfactory empirical study is to define the problem (Borg & Gall, 1989:424). The aim of this study is to determine the teachers' influence on the value-orientation of their learners in secondary schools.

### **5.3 Method of research**

Two methods of research have been applied in this study, namely the quantitative and the qualitative methods of research (Qualitative research will be discussed in 5.13.1).

#### **5.3.1 Description of methodology**

Iornengen (1999:117) describes methodology as the sequence of operations for the accomplishment of a particular task. Strauss and Corbin (1998:9) define methodology as a way of thinking about and studying social reality. Methodology can thus be viewed as the overall strategy, the comprehensive design, or the complete set of choices confronted and made by the inquirer (Fetterman, 1988:109). Iornengen further postulates that it involves the researcher - utterly from an unconscious worldview, to enactment of that worldview, to problem selection and the research process.

#### **5.3.2 Description of quantitative research**

Quantitative research is associated significantly with the description and data collection process, research designs, and statistical procedures that enhance research and measurement in the social sciences to parallel closely the work of natural science research (Neuwman, 1994:28-29, Strauss & Corbin, 1998:29).

According to Vockell (1995:192-194), this research follows the scientific method as far as possible, in as much as it attempts to accurately and objectively measure social factors. It assumes an objective social reality, as it studies the behaviour and other observable phenomena. It also analyses social reality into variables (Neuwman, 1994:28-29). According to Drinkwater (2002:6) and Neuwman (1994:30) the quantitative data collection techniques involve the social survey, questionnaires and experiment.

Therefore, quantitative studies include a worthwhile amount/considerable value of literature to supply the direction for the research questions or hypotheses. Creswell (1994:6), Strauss and Corbin (1998:13), Neuwman (1994:99), Makubalo (1993:7) and Lecompton *et al.* (1984:7) posit that the literature function deductively, verificatively, and objectively as a framework for the research questions or hypo-

theses. In the quantitative research, the researcher put more emphasis upon his/her project with an explicit conceptual framework (Hutchinson, 1988:125, Babbie, 1998:36). His/her research is excessive, resulting in a complete conceptualisation, operation and data collection (Moloi, 1997).

## **5.4 The research tool**

### **5.4.1 Questionnaire as a research instrument**

A questionnaire, according to De Voss *et al.* (2005:166), is defined as "a set of questions on a form which is completed by the respondent in respect of a research project." Best and Kahn (1993:230) as well as Behr (1988:154) refer to a questionnaire as a self-reporting instrument applied for gathering data about variables of interest to the researcher and consists of a number of questions that a respondent reads and answers. According to Llale (2003:64), the questionnaire is a document normally distributed by post to be completed by the respondent and returned after a specific period of time. They are completed by the respondents under the supervision of the investigator or researcher (Behr, 1988:153).

### **5.4.2 Advantages of a questionnaire**

According to Moloko (1996:89) as well as Burns and Grove (1997:358-359), a questionnaire is used as a tool of investigation because of the following advantages:

- it is economical for both the researcher and for the respondents in terms of time, effort and cost;
- it facilitates contact with the respondents who can not otherwise be reached;
- it has great potential for collecting data required for research purpose if properly used;
- once it has been constructed skilfully, the investigator may ask anybody to administer it on his behalf;
- it places less pressure on the respondent for immediate response; s/he can answer it a leisure;
- It helps in focusing the respondent's attention on all significant items.

### 5.4.3 Questionnaire format

Nowata (2000:96) and Borg and Gall (1989:431-432) give the following guidelines for a well-planned questionnaire:

- The questionnaire must be attractive to the respondents,
- organise and lay out questions in such a way that the questionnaire can be as easy as possible to complete,
- number the questionnaire items and pages,
- include clear instructions, printed in bold type,
- use examples before any items that might be confusing or difficult to understand,
- organise the questionnaire in a logical sequence,
- when moving to a new topic, include a transitional sentence to help respondents change their train of thought,
- begin with an interesting and non-threatening item,
- do not put important items near the end of the questionnaire,
- put threatening or difficult items near the end of the questionnaire.
- avoid using the words "questionnaire" or "checklist" on your form, and
- include enough information in the questionnaire so that items can be meaningful to the respondents.

### 5.4.4 Composition of the questionnaire

When constructing a questionnaire each item on the researcher's questionnaire must be developed to measure a specific aspect of one of his or her objectives or hypotheses (Borg & Gall, 1989:430; Thomas & Jack, 1996:317).

## **5.5 Types of questionnaires suitable for this study**

Two types of questionnaires were constructed for this project. Thomas and Jack (1996:316-317), De Vos *et al.* (2005:165) and Behr (1988:154) classify types of questionnaires as follows:

### **5.5.1 Closed form questionnaires**

A closed form questionnaire offers the respondent the opportunity of selecting one or more response choices from a number provided (De Vos *et al.*, 2005; 165). These types of questionnaires facilitate answering and make it simple for the researcher to code and classify the responses. The fixed form of alternative answers however, may have the effect of influencing the respondent to think along certain lines, which s/he might not have done otherwise.

A closed form questionnaire has been applied in this study in order to collect data from a large number of respondents that can be statistically analysed.

### **5.5.2 Open-ended questionnaire**

An open-ended questionnaire enables the respondent to write his or her answer/opinion freely in the open space that is provided (De Vos *et al.*, 2005; Behr, 1988). This free response questionnaire frequently goes beyond statistical data or factual information into the area of hidden motivations that lie behind attitudes, interests, preference and decisions. It asks questions with more than one acceptable answer and which lends itself to discussion in which personal opinion plays a very crucial role (Jacobs & Gawe 1996:76). It also permits adequate answers to complex issues. In his view, Behr (1988:157) contends that in practice a good questionnaire should obtain both open and closed forms of questions so that responses from the two forms can be easily checked and compared.

### **5.5.3 Rules to be applied when constructing a questionnaire**

According to Borg and Gall (1989:430) and Thomas and Jack (196:317), the following rules have to be applied when constructing a questionnaire:

- clarity is essential, ambiguity should be avoided;

- short items are easier to understand;
- negative items should be avoided as they are usually misread by respondents;
- do not use technical terms, jargon or "big words" that some respondents may not understand.
- avoid a "double barrelled" item which requires the subject to respond to two ideas with a single answer;
- start by asking the general questions first when general and related specific questions are to be asked.

The above-mentioned rules were applied in the questionnaires that have been compiled in this study.

## **5.6 Statistical techniques**

A computer-aided statistical analysis was employed. The results of the research were processed using the SAS Programmed (SAS Institute, 1985). The initial step in the analysis was to compute the descriptive data for each sample group of the target population. These include statistics such as frequency distribution, central tendency (means) and variability (standard deviation).

- **Descriptive data**

The term descriptive statistics is defined as a method used to describe data that have been collected on a research sample (Thomas & Jack, 1996:314; Borg & Gall, 1983:356; Ngidi, 1995:92). According to Ngidi, descriptive data are summarised and reduced to a few statistics for the actual sample. It serves as a tool for organising, tabulating, depicting and describing, summarising and reducing to a comprehensible form of an otherwise unwieldy mass of data (Ngidi, 1995:92).

- **Procedure for analysing data**

The Statistical Consultation Services of the University processed the questionnaires received back from schools. The outcomes were then analysed and interpreted. It is taken for granted that the percentages and averages as

calculated from the questionnaires are representative of the views of teachers and learners who participated in this study.

## **5.7 Ethical considerations**

According to Burns and Grove (2005:177), the conduct of research requires not only expertise and diligence but also honesty and integrity. Permission to conduct this study was given by the Department of Education (North West) in Potchefstroom. Confidentiality was maintained throughout the project and no information was made available to an unauthorised person without the permission of the school in question and the North West Education Department. Schools, teachers and learners were not compelled to take part in the research and questionnaires were filled in anonymously.

## **5.8 The research population**

Bailey (1987:94) and Liale (2003:66), contend that the questionnaires were to be distributed use must be made of purposive sampling whereby only those participants who best meet the aim of the study are selected. The targeted population was learners and teachers, both males and females in all the secondary schools in the Potchefstroom area. The schools in which the research was conducted can be categorised in two types: English medium schools, comprising Black (Tswana) schools (n=4) and multicultural schools (n=5), as well as Afrikaans medium schools (n=3).

A stratified random sampling method was used (Burns & Grove, 2001:371; De Wet *et al.*, 1981:114-116). According to Burns and Grove (2001:371), a stratified random sampling is used in situations where the researcher knows some of the variables in the population that are critical. From each of the schools' grade(s) 8 and 11 group of learners a group of 30 learners was selected at random. The technique suggested to the school principals was that from grade 8 (30) and grade 11 (30) learners were to be chosen in the following manner: a researcher would choose any learner from those numbered, and start counting learners up to 30, with the thirtieth one standing aside to form the first one of the group for that grade. The procedure would then be repeated until the thirty learners were chosen for that grade. 60 learners combined from two different grades, irrespective of gender, would therefore represent the school.

## **5.9 Permission to conduct research**

Permission to conduct this study was obtained from principals of all secondary schools and the North-West Department of Education in the Potchefstroom area.

## **5.10 Problems encountered during research**

- **Schools**

In schools, teachers selected the time allocated for conducting the research and principals were not always organised in getting a suitable place for learners to fill out the questionnaire.

- **Learners**

Discipline during the filling out of the questionnaires proved to be a problem in some of the schools. Learners were disruptive and teachers were also unwilling to co-operate. In some instances all learners wanted to take part in the research, and in other classes learners who were chosen to participate refused to take part in the activity.

- **Miscellaneous problems**

Conducting the research involved extensive travelling which had unforeseen financial complications. Being sent back and forth by principals and deputy principals meant additional time and money which were unplanned and unbudgeted for.

## **5.11 Processing of data**

The questionnaires received from participants, i.e. learners and teachers from secondary schools, were processed by the Statistical Consultation Services of the University. The outcomes were analysed and interpreted. It is taken for granted that the percentages and averages as calculated from the questionnaires are representative of the perceptions of teachers and learners who were involved in this research. The tables with the data are applied to reflect the views of the respondents towards character education and the teaching of values in schools.

Two questionnaires were designed to be completed. One questionnaire is for teachers and the other for learners in secondary schools. Both questionnaires were

divided into three sections i.e. Sections A, B, and C. Section A of the questionnaires was designed to gather the biographical characteristics of the respondents (teachers and learners). Section B concerns the professional character of teachers and Section C asked questions about promising practices for character education. Frequencies and percentages were used in according the data of all the respondents.

## 5.12 Demographic information of learners and teachers

### 5.12.1 Population that took part

De Vos *et al* (2005:66) define population as the totality o persons, events, organisation units and cases which the reseach problem is concerned with. The diagram below indicates the responses of learners and teachers. Not all teachers from the thirteen (13) schools took part in this project. Teachers from only twelve (12) schools have responded. All thirteen (13) schools' learners participated in this research project. The names of the schools and the number (and %) of teachers and learners are represented in table 5.1:

**Table: 5.1. The schools and numbers of learners and teachers who participated**

SCHOOL	LEARNERS		TEACHERS	
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%
Resolofetse Secondary	57	7.76	20	9.95
Potchefstroom Secondary	50	6.80	21	10.45
Seiphemelo Secondary	59	8.03	2	1.00
Botoka Comprehensive School	60	8.57	12	5.97
Boitshoko Secondary School	57	7.76	-	-
Tlokwe Secondary School	60	8.16	24	11.94
Potchefstroom High School for Boys	58	7.89	2	1.00
Potchefstroom High School for Girls	55	7.48	10	4.98
Hoërskool Ferdinand Postma	53	7.21	15	7.46
Hoërskool Gimnasium	53	7.21	37	18.41
Hoër Volksskool	52	7.07	21	10.45

Hoër Tegniiese Skool	59	8.03	20	9.95
Promosa Secondary School	59	8.03	17	8.5
	<b>735</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>201</b>	<b>100</b>

Eight (8) learners and five (5) teachers failed to indicate their schools.

### 5.12.2 Medium of instruction

**Table 5.2 The different media of instruction used by the schools**

MEDIUM	LEARNERS		TEACHERS	
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%
English	484	<b>70.04</b>	91	<b>47.40</b>
Afrikaans	179	<b>25.90</b>	62	<b>32.29</b>
Setswana	2	<b>0.29</b>	39	<b>20.31</b>
Double Medium	26	<b>3.76</b>	-	-
Sample size =	691	<b>100.00</b>	192	<b>100.00</b>

Fifty-two (52) learners and fourteen (14) teachers failed to indicate their medium of instruction.

Table 5.2 indicates the different media of instruction used by the schools that took part in this research. This table indicates both learners' and teachers' responses. The medium of instruction of 70% of the learners is English, for Afrikaans it is 26%, 0.3% for Setswana and 4% learners are from double medium schools. 47.40% of teachers use only English during instruction, for 32.3% the medium of instruction is Afrikaans and for 20.31% it is Setswana. As the majority of the respondents are from historical English and historical Black schools, it was found to be expected that for the majority of learners and teachers the medium of instruction is English.

### 5.12.3 Grades of the respondents (Learners)

**Table 5.3** Grades that participated in the research (Learners)

<b>GRADE</b>	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>
8	373	<b>50.82</b>
11	361	<b>49.18</b>
Sample size =	734	<b>100</b>

Nine (9) learners failed to indicate their grades.

Table 5.3 reveals the two grades that participated in this research. 51% constitutes grade eight classes and 49.1% constitutes grade eleven classes.

### 5.12.4 Gender of the respondents

**Table 5.4** Gender of the respondents

<b>GENDER</b>	<b>LEARNERS</b>		<b>TEACHERS</b>	
	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>
Male	356	<b>48.04</b>	72	<b>34.95</b>
Female	385	<b>51.96</b>	134	<b>65.05</b>
Sample size =	741	<b>100</b>	206	<b>100</b>

Two (2) learners failed to indicate their gender.

According to Table 5.4, 48.04% were male, 51.96% were female learners. 34.95% male teachers and 65.1% female teachers participated in this project.

### 5.12.5 Mother tongue of the respondents

**Table 5.5 Mother tongue of the respondents**

<b>MOTHER TONGUE</b>	<b>LEARNERS</b>		<b>TEACHERS</b>	
	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>
English	51	<b>6.98</b>	14	<b>6.93</b>
Afrikaans	249	<b>34.06</b>	111	<b>54.95</b>
Setswana	300	<b>41.04</b>	53	<b>26.24</b>
Other	131	<b>17.92</b>	24	<b>11.88</b>
Sample size =	731	<b>100</b>	202	<b>100</b>

Twelve (12) learners and four (4) teachers failed to indicate their mother tongue.

According to Table 5.5 the majority of learners 41% are Setswana speaking and the minority 7% are English speaking. If the information is compared with the information in table 5.2 it is clear that the majority of learners do not receive their instruction in their home language.

If the information for teachers is compared it is clear that many Afrikaans speaking teachers have to teach through the medium of English as 54.95% are Afrikaans speaking but only 32% teach through the medium of Afrikaans (see table 5.2). This is an important finding as the culture and possibly the values of teachers and learners may in a number of classes differ to a greater extent.

### 5.12.6 Marital status of the respondents (Teachers)

**Table 5.6 Marital status of the respondents (Teachers)**

<b>MARITAL STATUS</b>	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>
Single	56	<b>27.32</b>
Married	128	<b>62.44</b>
Divorced	17	<b>8.39</b>
Widow/Widower	4	<b>1.95</b>
Sample size =	205	<b>100</b>

One (1) teacher failed to respond.

Table 5.6 indicates the marital status of all the respondents (teachers) who took part in this research. 27.32% are single, 64.44% are married, 8.4% are divorced and 2.1% are widows/widowers. The reflection is that most of the participants are married teachers.

### 5.12.7 Ages of the respondents (Teachers)

**Table 5.7 Ages of the respondents (Teachers)**

<b>AGE OF TEACHERS</b>	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>
20-29	23	<b>11.17</b>
30-39	66	<b>32.04</b>
40-49	70	<b>33.98</b>
50-59	42	<b>20.39</b>
60 +	5	<b>2.43</b>
Sample size =	206	<b>100</b>

Table 5.7 indicates that most teachers fall within the ages between 30-59 years 86.4.1%.

From this information it can be concluded that most of the respondents were older than 30 years.

### 5.12.8 Teaching experience (years) of the respondents

**Table 5.8 Teaching experience (years) of the respondents**

<b>TEACHING EXPERIENCE</b>	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>0-4</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>14.56</b>
5-9	20	<b>9.71</b>
10-19	83	<b>40.29</b>
20-29	53	<b>25.73</b>
30+	20	<b>9.71</b>
Sample size =	206	<b>100</b>

According to the data in table 5.8, most teachers 75% have more than 10 years teaching experience.

### 5.12.9 Academic qualifications of the respondents

**Table 5.9 Academic qualifications of the respondents**

<b>HIGHEST ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS</b>	<b>FREQ</b>	<b>%</b>
Certificate	2	<b>0.98</b>
Diploma	60	<b>29.27</b>
Degree	78	<b>38.05</b>
Post Graduate	65	<b>31.71</b>
Sample size =	205	<b>100</b>

One (1) of the respondents did not indicate his/her academic qualification.

Most teachers 99% hold a diploma, degree or post graduate degree. Only 0.98% of the respondents hold certificates.

### 5.12.10 Professional qualification(s) of the respondents

**Table 5.10 Professional qualification(s) of the respondents**

PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION(S)	FREQ	%
Teaching Certificate	7	3.78
Teaching Diploma	65	35.13
Post Graduate Teaching Diploma/Certificate	113	61.08
Sample size =	185	100

Twenty-one (21) teachers did not indicate their professional qualification.

According to data in table 5.10, seven teachers 3.78% have only a teaching certificate. 96% have completed a teaching diploma or post graduate teaching diploma/certificate. This is an indication that most teachers are well qualified.

### 5.13 Professional character of teachers (Section B of questionnaire)

In Section B of the questionnaire teachers were asked to indicate to what extent (or how often) they perform their professional duties. The learners had to indicate to what extent they experience these activities in the classroom.

Section B comprises of five levels:

- 1 = not at all/never;
- 2 = some times/now and then;
- 3 = a lot/often;
- 4 = completely/always;
- 5 = the question is not clear/not applicable

### 5.13.1 Lesson preparation

**Table 5.11 Lesson preparation (Statement B1)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	23	<b>3.16</b>	1	<b>0.49</b>	1
2	266	<b>36.54</b>	20	<b>9.76</b>	2
3	249	<b>34.20</b>	99	<b>48.29</b>	3
4	172	<b>23.63</b>	83	<b>40.49</b>	4
5	18	<b>2.47</b>	2	<b>0.98</b>	5
Total =	708	<b>100</b>	205	<b>100</b>	

Fifteen (15) learners and one (1) teacher failed to respond to the above statement/question.

The aim of this statement was to determine teachers' efforts to prepare lessons. Learners' responses to this statement would also provide some insight into the efforts that teachers made in the classroom. 23.63% of learners indicated that teachers took efforts to prepare their lessons "now and then", while 40.5% teachers reveal that they "always" prepare their lessons. A relatively small percentage 3.16% of learners claimed that teachers "never" took efforts to prepare for the lesson. Lesson preparation is an integral part of the teaching process. However, a teacher has to execute a variety of teaching and learning activities during lessons and also plan carefully before going to class in order to make that lesson a success (Vreken, 2001:13). Before planning a lesson as Vreken said that the teacher has to know to whom the lesson will be directed, which learning content is to be taught and what is to be attained with the lesson. Lesson planning will however influence the success of lesson presentation. Planning gives direction (Fraser *et al.*, 1991:73).

According to the results in table 5.11 teachers are not at all amiss in their lesson preparations. Efforts made by teachers to prepare lessons are perceived as being positive, meaning effective teaching took place according to these outcomes. Preparation of a lesson demands a consideration of three major factors: the learners, the subject matter, and the resources and constraints (Curzon, 2000:267). A

teacher's daily preparation must be his/her most important activity, since s/he can make a direct contribution to improving the quality of teaching and ensuring its efficiency (Fraser *et al.*, 1991:73). A good lesson preparation will however, determines the level of learner participation in the classroom. Teachers should become clear about the aim of going into the classroom.

### 5.13.2 Efforts to make lessons interesting

**Table 5.12 Efforts to make lessons interesting (Statement B2)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	53	<b>7.26</b>	-	-	1
2	286	<b>39.18</b>	15	<b>7.28</b>	2
3	234	<b>32.05</b>	84	<b>40.78</b>	3
4	136	<b>18.63</b>	104	<b>50.97</b>	4
5	21	<b>2.88</b>	2	<b>0.97</b>	5
Total =	730	<b>100</b>	205	<b>100</b>	

Thirteen (13) learners and one (1) teacher failed to respond to the above question/ statement.

According to Bangeni (2000:46), interest is regarded as a motivational variable encompassing curiosity and arousal. She asserts that the significant interest in learning is that which cannot be overestimated because it concentrates our attention, clarifies our impressions, ensures repetition, and favours a wealth of associations. The results revealed that most learners indicated that teachers sometimes make their lessons interesting 39.2% while a total of 18.63% of learners claimed that teachers make their lessons completely interesting. This is in sharp contrast to what the teachers said, as they feel that they spend a lot of time to make lessons interesting. In learning, interest does not come readily or freely; it might often be necessary for the teacher to arouse learners' interests through applying certain strategies during the teaching process. However, teacher effectiveness has often considered that good teachers are warm, accessible and enthusiastic. Lickona and Davidson (2005:62) opine that teachers who make lessons interesting are those who make sure that

learners comprehend what is being taught. Teenagers according to Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1986:419), are following a perfectly sound survival strategy when they ignore information that has no relevance to the central business of life, which is enthusiastic involvement with enjoyable activities. Therefore, the data above reflects that if teachers cannot become joyfully involved in the process of teaching their efforts will then be largely in vain (Csikszentmihalyi & McCormack, 1986:419). Learners feel cared for when teachers make an effort to make classrooms interesting places (Lickona and Davidson, 2005:62). The indications according to these outcomes reflect teachers as experiencing lack of skills in order to make lessons really interesting to learners. Therefore, their teaching seems not as effective as it could be, but it is not failing totally although skills for lesson preparation could be improved.

Fraser *et al.* (1990:42) distinguish some steps that could be taken into consideration when teachers present their lessons in class. They are as follows:

- gaining attention
- informing learners of the objectives
- recalling pre-knowledge
- presenting stimuli
- providing learning guidance
- eliciting performance
- enhancing retention and transfer

According to Epanchin *et al.* (1994:213), in order to be effective, a teacher needs to be able to vary techniques in relation to learner needs. A teacher needs to make decisions about his learners' learning styles, ability levels, stages of cognitive and psychological development and experience with subject matter (Epanchin *et al.*, 1994). According to these scholars, the decisions mentioned above are based upon teachers' knowledge of learner/child development. The teacher's aim in a lesson must be to motivate, stimulate and communicate, to hold attention and to achieve a

defined objective through classroom control. However, interests can only be created in the lesson by making use stimulating and thoughtful lesson plan.

### 5.13.3 Teachers talk and listen to learners

**Table 5.13 Teachers talk and listen to learners (Statement B3)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	57	7.82	-	-	1
2	244	33.47	5	2.43	2
3	176	21.14	77	37.38	3
4	226	31.00	121	58.74	4
5	26	3.57	3	1.46	5
Total =	729	100	206	100	

Fourteen (14) learners failed to respond to the above question/statement.

According to De Klerk (1998:22), when a teacher is truly interested in the other person's point of view and listens with the intent, first to understand, whether they be parents or learners, his openness gives the other person psychological air, it allows them to feel safe and to be able to communicate openly. Every teacher should be able to apply the principle of empathy. However, empathic listening means to get inside another person's frame of reference, to be able to understand their paradigm (De Klerk, 1998:22). Table 5.13 reflects that 33.5% of learners regard teachers as "sometimes" talking and listening to them, while 31% of the respondents consider teachers as "always" applying these skills to them. The outcomes of this statement indicate that many teachers in this regard seem not to be lacking the above mention skills in their classrooms. This reveals that communication and listening seem to take place effectively on the side of learners but not as efficient as teachers think it is. It is very important for teachers to become active listeners and to be humble enough to understand that much has to be learnt from what learners have to say. They should talk less and listen more.

According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:62), teachers who care for their learners are those who talk and listen to learners. Communication and listening, if approp-

riately applied in classrooms, make learners feel warmth and being accepted as human beings. The learning environment also becomes more enjoyable by both teachers and learners. Curzon (2004:126) defines communication as the achievement of meaning and understanding between people through verbal and non-verbal means, in order to affect behaviour and achieve desired end results. Curzon (2004:126) further opines that class teaching requires the presentation of selected, appropriate stimuli and the eliciting of desired responses from the learner.

#### 5.13.4 Encouraging learners to give their opinions or discuss their problems

**Table 5.14 Encouraging learners to give their opinions or discuss their problems (Statement B4)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	64	<b>8.70</b>	-	-	1
2	238	<b>32.34</b>	14	<b>6.80</b>	2
3	202	<b>27.45</b>	79	<b>38.35</b>	3
4	207	<b>28.13</b>	110	<b>53.40</b>	4
5	25	<b>3.40</b>	3	<b>1.46</b>	5
Total =	736	<b>100</b>	206	<b>100</b>	

Seven (7) learners did not respond to this statement/question.

Many teachers argue that they are not held responsible for solving learners' problems (Jalongo & Krall, 1998/99:84). Therefore, teachers and other adults according to them have the responsibility to create a learning atmosphere that is conducive to learning. Learners' results show that teachers sometimes encourage them to give their opinions or discuss their problems 32.34%, while 28.13% of learners revealed that teachers are "always" encouraging them to give opinions or discuss their problems. A sizeable percentage 8.7% of learners though in the minority, claimed that teachers "never" encourage them in giving opinions or discussing their problems. However, if learners' anxiety about their home situations affects their concentration in schools, then teachers cannot afford to ignore learners' home lives and the problems

they encounter. Again, there is a big difference between the responses of the learners and the teachers.

The enjoyment of giving opinions or discussing problems with learners in class signifies a favourable climate for classroom communication and interaction. By letting them give opinions or discussing their problems in class encourages them to feel that sense of security, self-confidence, as well as promoting a spirit of co-operation and mutual respect among them. Schools should, however become safe havens - psychologically and emotionally (Jalongo & Krall, 1998/99:84). Lickona and Davidson (2005:144) opine that class discussion also typically identified the following rewards of honesty:

- honesty brings peace of mind
- honesty builds character and reputation
- honesty strengthens relationships
- Honesty is good for mental health because it frees you from guilt and worries and builds self-respect.

### 5.13.5 Display trustworthiness and fairness towards learners

**Table 5.15 Display trustworthiness and fairness towards learners (Statement B5)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	143	19.43	1	0.49	1
2	242	32.88	3	1.46	2
3	155	21.06	53	25.85	3
4	168	22.83	143	69.76	4
5	28	3.80	5	2.44	5
Total =	736	100	205	100	

Seven (7) learners and one (1) teacher did not respond to the above question/ statement.

Moloko (1996:77) regards trust as the key concept that unlocks the door to healthy human relations. Moloko opines that to get access to the hearts and minds of learners, the teachers must strive to win learners' trust. They must be visible and accessible to their learners and treat them in a balanced way by preventing favouritism and the forming of cliques (Moloko, 1996:77). Table 5.15 shows that 32.9% of the learners opted teachers as "sometimes" displaying trustworthiness and fairness, while 22.83% of the learners claimed that teachers display their trustworthiness and fairness "always". Teachers however, are of the idea that they are displaying trustworthiness and fairness towards their learners. There is thus a great difference between what teachers think and what learners are experiencing.

According to Bathmat and Theron (1990:39), the teacher must be able to display the qualities of truthfulness and trustworthiness that will in turn engender credibility with learners. Learners must believe that their teachers will always act according to their best interests and those of the school (Moloko, 1996:77). Learners according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:62) regard the teacher who displays honesty, fairness, and trustworthiness as the one who cares for their well being. The implications of these results indicate that teachers are in total not fair and trustful towards learners. This is a reflection revealing that the spirit of caring does not exist in classrooms. A teacher must become a spiritual person who will engage himself in crafting a life of a noble purpose. He must be able to cultivate an appreciation of transcendent values such as truth (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:23). Effective teachers are those who gain control through a trusting relationship and involvement in meaningful learning activities (Epanchin *et al.*, 1994:213)

### 5.13.6 Interested in helping learners with their life problems

**Table 5.16 Interested in helping learners with their life problems (Statement B6)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	87	<b>12.24</b>	-	-	1
2	245	<b>34.46</b>	20	<b>9.71</b>	2
3	184	<b>25.88</b>	84	<b>40.78</b>	3
4	164	<b>23.07</b>	98	<b>47.57</b>	4
5	31	<b>4.36</b>	4	<b>1.94</b>	5
Total =	711	<b>100</b>	206	<b>100</b>	

Thirty-two (32) learners did not respond to the question/statement above.

Table 5.16 reflects a number of learners 34.5% which claim that “sometimes” teachers are interested in helping them with their life problems, 23.1% learners feel that they are “completely” interested in helping them with their life problems. A small percentage 12.24% of learners indicated that teachers are “never” interested in helping them. 47.57% teachers reveal that they are completely helping learners with problems. A great difference exists as teachers regard themselves as taking seriously the kind of problems learners experience in their lives while learners to a large extent reject what teachers said. According to Montada (1994:4720), a problem arises when one has a goal - a state of affairs that one wants to achieve and it is not immediately apparent how the goal can be attained. However, teachers need knowledge in order to apply the problem solving strategy in dealing with problems faced by learners in schools. According to Kohn (1984:66), every teacher has an obligation to care about every learner. Caring teachers according to Jalongo and Krall (1998/99:84), let learners know that talking things over with an adult often makes powerful emotions manageable.

According to Christian perspective, Zacharia 7:9 says that “Thus sayeth the LORD, execute true judgement, and show mercy and compassion, every man to his brother”. Meaning when we perceive others struggling or suffering, teachers should have

compassion, like the Good Samaritan, and help them overcome whatever challenges they face. Thus we should develop the principle of “ubuntu” - social responsibility.

### 5.13.7 Interested in helping learners with their learning problems

**Table 5.17 Interested in helping learners with their learning problems (Statement B7)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	50	<b>6.80</b>	-	-	1
2	201	<b>27.35</b>	25	<b>12.32</b>	2
3	212	<b>28.84</b>	97	<b>47.78</b>	3
4	224	<b>33.33</b>	78	<b>38.42</b>	4
5	27	<b>3.67</b>	3	<b>1.48</b>	5
Total=	714	<b>100</b>	203	<b>100</b>	

Eight (8) learners and three (3) teachers failed to respond to the question/statement above.

If learners experience learning problems, it is the duty of every teacher to assist them (learners) so that they should become effective problem solvers i. e. people who can generate useful and original solutions when they are confronted with problems they have never seen before (Opwis & Spada, 1994:4722). Meaning the problem solving that the teacher has to apply, can in future prepare learners to an adult world where they can serve their society to the best of their abilities. Teachers should care for learners especially those who experienced difficulties in their learning. The ethical responsibility to care may be fulfilled by what Roger and Webb (1994:175) called “loving the student as learners”, caring directly related to making sound decisions about learners and their educational needs. 33.33% of the learners agreed that teachers are “always” interested in helping them with learning problems. This reflects a great agreement between what the learners experience and what teachers said. According to Kohn (1991:497), concerning the need for caring kids wrote “the very profession of teaching calls on us as teachers to try to encourage the development of not merely good learners but good people.” Therefore, an ethic of caring in teaching

requires teachers to encourage learner learning (Kohn, 1991:497). Caring according to Rigger and Webb (1984:175) refers to much more than affect alone, it encompasses caring about learning, living and each other. According to Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1986:418), learners usually perceive teachers as being “easy to talk to” and ready to listen when they have difficulty understanding learning material.

### 5.13.8 Asking learners about problems they have

**Table 5.18 Asking learners about problems they have (Statement B8)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	112	<b>15.30</b>	2	<b>0.97</b>	1
2	240	<b>32.79</b>	26	<b>12.62</b>	2
3	198	<b>27.05</b>	89	<b>43.20</b>	3
4	154	<b>21.04</b>	86	<b>41.75</b>	4
5	28	<b>3.83</b>	3	<b>1.46</b>	5
Total =	732	<b>100</b>	206	<b>100</b>	

Eleven (11) learners failed to respond to the question/statement above.

What we see, what we experience, and what we are told, constitute our belief systems and affect our perspective (Jalongo & Krall, 1998/99:85). According to them, the best way to discover what a child/learner is thinking or struggling with, is to ask and then really listen with full concentration on problems they are experiencing. Information above reflects that 21.04% of the learners claimed that teachers “always” ask them about the problems they already have. 32.8% of learners indicated that teachers “sometimes” ask learners when they suspect that they have problems. The responses of teachers differ to a great extent to what the learners experience as approximately 85% of the teachers (against 48% of learners) say, they often/always ask learners about problems they have. According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:62), teachers must show concern for learners as individuals by asking whether they need help and by asking them if there is something wrong with what they

experience. Concern and respect for learners can continue to promote their feelings of self-respect and consideration for others (Downey & Kelley, 1978:163).

### 5.13.9 Efforts to mark learners' work and give feedback

**Table 5.19 Efforts to mark learners' work and give feedback (Statement B9)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	74	10.15	1	0.49	1
2	245	33.61	10	4.85	2
3	181	24.83	80	38.83	3
4	201	27.57	110	53.40	4
5	28	3.84	5	2.43	5
Total=	729	100	206	100	

Fourteen (14) learners did not respond to the question/statement above.

Written work of learners is monitored in order to determine the objectivity of every teacher in his or her marking as well as the quantity and quality of work. This perception is in line with Pieter's (1989:66) as quoted by Sikhavhava (1999:40) idea that monitoring written work should determine whether the marking programme of the teacher is organised effectively and whether the teacher is not overloaded with marking. According to table 5.19, 33.61% of the learners indicated that teachers "sometimes" make an effort to mark their work and give feedback, while 27.6% learners claimed that teachers are "always" marking effort to mark and give feedback to them. The responses of the teachers differ to a large extent from what learner's experience. Feedback according to Hoy and Miskey (1987:379) has a positive impact on both individual motivation and performance. Learners also feel accountable when they receive feedback on time on their performance.

According to Vreken (1996:9), feedback takes place in two ways i.e. internally and externally. Internal feedback could be what the teacher receives from listening/ thinking about his message while he is communicating. External feedback is the

feedback that the teacher receives from the verbal and non-verbal responses. Lepholletse (2001:18) recommends formative assessment in the classroom which she describes as “the obvious means to providing learners with feedback to improve their performance.” According to Lepholletse (2001) assessment encompasses all the activities by teachers and/or by learners taking place that provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged. Research has shown that feedback has the ability to motivate learners, thus increasing and sustaining their involvement in participative learning and therefore in classroom communication. When teachers interact with learners in class (as they go around in the classroom directing and facilitating) will get feedback from learners’ work or discussion.

### 5.13.10 Encouraging learners to work hard

**Table 5.20 Encouraging learners to work hard (Statement B10)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	33	4.60	-	-	1
2	92	12.83	4	1.94	2
3	208	29.01	54	26.21	3
4	352	49.09	142	68.96	4
5	32	4.46	6	2.91	5
Total =	717	100	206	100	

Twenty-six (26) learners failed to respond.

The majority of learners 49.1% reflected that teachers are “always” encouraging them to work hard. Teachers however, perceived themselves as positively motivating learners towards hard work. Encouraging hard work in learners help those to strive for excellence and to give their best effort and take pride in their work (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:23). Hard work makes learners become diligent and capable performers. Learners and teachers that work hard in school display the following qualities: effort, diligence, perseverance, strong work ethics, positive attitude, ingenuity, and self-discipline (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:23).

### 5.13.11 Encouraging learners to behave correctly

**Table 5.21 Encouraging learners to behave correctly  
(Statement B11)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	39	<b>5.37</b>	-	-	1
2	84	<b>11.57</b>	5	<b>2.43</b>	2
3	207	<b>28.51</b>	55	<b>26.70</b>	3
4	366	<b>50.41</b>	140	<b>67.96</b>	4
5	30	<b>4.13</b>	6	<b>2.91</b>	5
Total =	726	<b>100</b>	206	<b>100</b>	

Seventeen (17) learners did not respond.

According to the information above, the evidence is that both teachers and learners agreed that teachers encourage them to behave correctly. 50.41% learners and 67.96% teachers reflect that the teachers “always” encourage correct behaviour. According to the figures given above, it seems teachers are given a great deal of weight to good behaviour. However, the task of the school must always be to teach and hold its learners accountable to a high standard of behaviour (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:192). Teachers should endeavour to get learners to fully comprehend why they are expected to behave according to certain norms.

### 5.13.12 Become role models concerning industriousness

**Table 5.22      Become role models concerning industriousness  
(Statement B12)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	139	19.25	1	0.49	1
2	167	23.13	3	1.46	2
3	212	29.36	61	29.76	3
4	153	21.19	129	62.93	4
5	51	7.06	11	5.37	5
Total =	722	100	205	100	

Twenty-one (21) learners and one (1) teacher failed to respond.

Table 5.22 revealed that 21.19% of the learners perceive teachers as “always” being role models concerning industriousness, while 62.93% teachers indicated themselves as role models concerning industriousness. According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:63), excellence in teaching is not simply a vocational norm to aspire to. It is an ethical norm to which we must adhere.

This quotation from the bible says that “Therefore, my beloved brethren, be committed, resolute, always thriving in the work of the Lord, inasmuch as you know that your labour is not in vain” (1 Corinthians 15:58).

These results indicate that teachers according to learners lack work ethics. In school, learners are watching how teachers prepare and execute their professional responsibilities. Teachers need to do their professional work with patience and perseverance. They must also develop strong work ethics, and be committed to what they are supposed to do, so that they in future can have high quality products that they can become proud of. Model teachers are regarded as hard-working and caring about learners’ learning (Arends *et al.*, 1998:423).

### 5.13.13 Teachers as role models concerning correct behaviour

**Table 5.23 Teachers as role models concerning correct behaviour (Statement B13)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	97	13.27	-	-	1
2	160	21.89	4	1.95	2
3	228	31.19	49	23.90	3
4	208	28.45	147	71.71	4
5	38	5.20	5	2.44	5
Total =	731	100	205	100	

Twelve (12) learners and one (1) teacher did not respond to the above question/ statement.

Modelling, according to Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1985:418), describes how young people imitate and internalise the behaviour of their elders. Behaviour according to Curzon (2004:5) is defined as an outward deportment, manners, conducts the manner in which a thing acts.

Csikszentmihalyi and McCormack (1985:418) further opine that for a teacher to have an impact on the behaviour of learners, the teacher must be viewed as having full control over resources that the learners desire. The majority of the learners 28.5% revealed that teachers as “always” displaying correct behaviour as role models, while 71.71% of teachers regard themselves as complete role models for their learners concerning correct behaviour. The implication of these outcomes revealed that teachers according to learners, as not being role models concerning correct behaviour. Ashton and Watson (1998:4), stress the significant point that teachers acting as role models influence values as well as transmit values in their regular teaching activities. They should set a good example to learners they teach through the presentation of their personal and professional conduct (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:185).

### 5.13.14 Do teachers consider their private life as part of their professional life?

**Table 5.24 Do teachers consider their private life as part of their professional life? (Statement B14)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	116	<b>16.04</b>	36	<b>17.73</b>	1
2	138	<b>19.09</b>	30	<b>14.78</b>	2
3	156	<b>21.58</b>	58	<b>28.57</b>	3
4	202	<b>27.94</b>	66	<b>32.51</b>	4
5	111	<b>15.35</b>	13	<b>6.40</b>	5
Total =	723	<b>100</b>	203	<b>100</b>	

Twenty (20) learners and three (3) teachers failed to respond.

In the above statement, the evidence is that 27.94% learners and 32.51% teachers agreed on the statement that teachers “always” consider their private life as part of their professional life. Most teachers do not agree with this view (17.73% said “not at all” and 14.78% said some times”). The learners confirmed this state of affairs. According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:63), learners usually become good observers in schools. They are watching what teachers really do in every day life of their schooling, how they treat one another and how they handle moral issues. Therefore, the personal qualities exhibited by every teacher usually provide an example for learners, who often strive to emulate him or her (Fraser *et al.*, 1991:84). Due to the fact that in teaching and education we work with human beings everything within these activities must be subjected to ethical controls (Barcena *et al.*, 1993:245).

### 5.13.15 Do teachers see character education as part of their work as subject teachers?

**Table 5.25 Do teachers see character education as part of their work as subject teachers? (Statement B15)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	109	<b>15.20</b>	4	<b>1.96</b>	1
2	140	<b>19.53</b>	13	<b>6.37</b>	2
3	168	<b>23.43</b>	54	<b>26.47</b>	3
4	222	<b>30.96</b>	129	<b>63.24</b>	4
5	78	<b>10.88</b>	4	<b>1.96</b>	5
Total =	717	<b>100</b>	204	<b>100</b>	

Twenty-six (26) learners and two (2) teachers did not respond to the above question.

According to table 5.25, 30.96% of the learners and 63.24% teachers indicated that character education is part of a teacher's work as subject teacher. This again reflects a great difference between the learners' and the teachers' opinion. Most learners are of the opinion that teachers do not perceive character education as their task. Teaching character in schools/classrooms helps learners to comprehend that good character is not just a personal or familial trait but also one that positively establishes the tone of their entire social network (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:32). They further opine that when learners see the moral value embedded in a lesson, they are likely to work more conscientiously. However, it is indicated that character education is the concern and responsibility of every teacher and that all teacher-learner interaction contributes inevitably towards learners' moral learning and can be geared to contribute towards their moral character (Downey & Kelley, 1978:174).

## 5.14 Promising practices to further character education

According to the tables illustrated below, four questions were rated into three levels

i. e. **Yes, No and Unsure** and the other two into five levels just like the above-mentioned rating levels.

### 5.14.1 Setting high expectations

**Table 5.26 Setting high expectations (Statement C1.1)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	16	<b>2.44</b>	4	<b>2.35</b>	1
2	123	<b>18.78</b>	29	<b>17.06</b>	2
3	248	<b>37.86</b>	79	<b>46.47</b>	3
4	181	<b>27.63</b>	55	<b>32.35</b>	4
5	87	<b>13.28</b>	3	<b>1.76</b>	5
Total =	655	<b>100</b>	170	<b>100</b>	

Eighty-eight (88) learners and thirty-six (36) teachers did not respond to the question/statement above.

This statement illustrated that 27.63% of the learners and 32.4% teachers indicated that high expectations are set in the classroom. According to Cohen and Manion (1994:77) and Bangeni (2000:110), teacher expectations have been reflected to have an effect on learner performance and motivation. Their expectations can be communicated in different ways to learners; by always choosing certain learners to answer and ignoring others, through comments and feedback on learners' performance, by encouraging learners and by explicitly stating what type of performance is expected of learners (Cohen & Manion, 1994:77; Bangeni, 2000:111). Lickona and Davidson (2000:34) postulate that the initial step to be taken into consideration is the creation of a shared purpose and identity based on excellence and ethics, that it is the duty of the school to build a unified school culture through "tight coupling"- the school-wide promotion of high expectations for learning as well as for behaviour. Learners are supposed to learn on a level that is above normal expectations.

According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:35), the consistency of behavioural expectations shapes the class or school's moral culture. The results seemed to reflect that both teachers and learners tend to respond to expectations that are motivating and guide them to put more effort in their work. This indicates a positive affective response from both parties.

### 5.14.2 Creating classroom “motto”

**Table 5.27 Creating classroom “motto” (Statement C1.2)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
Yes	141	<b>20.38</b>	108	<b>54.55</b>	1
No	441	<b>63.73</b>	75	<b>37.88</b>	2
Unsure	110	<b>15.90</b>	15	<b>7.58</b>	3
Total =	692	<b>100</b>	198	<b>100</b>	

Fifty-one (51) learners and eight (8) teachers failed to respond.

In table 5.27, 20.4% of the learners indicated that their classroom have a motto, while 54.6% of teachers stated that they have a motto in their classroom. The majority of learners in this study 63.73% claimed that there are no mottos available in their classrooms. A sizeable percentage 15.90%, though in the minority, claimed to be uncertain about classroom mottos. Teachers should be in position to supply their classes with mottos because by the implementing mottos in classrooms can complement or serve as the classroom touchstone (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:36). They further opine that mottos applied in every classroom constitute the kind of character that teachers want their learners to display or to exemplify as a result of their experience.

The results of these findings revealed by learners that teachers failed to implement or have written classroom mottos for their learners in the classrooms. Classroom mottos if properly implemented or written, can serve as a strategy to control and manage learner's behaviour. Classroom mottos give direction to learners on how to behave and to abide by rules and regulations for the class. Teachers have to be made aware of the danger of not implementing classroom mottos in classes. There must be an

effective strategy used in order to manage learners' discipline in every classroom. This indicates a negative affective response on the side of learners.

### 5.14.3 Written code of conduct for the classroom

**Table 5.28**      **Written code of conduct for the classroom**  
**(Statement C1.3)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
Yes	299	<b>41.99</b>	108	<b>55.10</b>	1
No	313	<b>43.96</b>	78	<b>39.40</b>	2
Unsure	100	<b>14.04</b>	10	<b>5.10</b>	3
Total =	712	<b>100</b>	196	<b>100</b>	

Thirty-one (31) learners and ten (10) teachers did not respond.

In table 5.28, the indication is that 41.99% of the learners claimed that "yes" their classrooms have a written code of conduct, while the majority of learners disagree with the statement that there are no written code of conduct available in their classes. A relatively small percentage 14.4% also revealed to be unsure about the written code of conduct in their classrooms. 55.10% of teachers indicated that they do supply their classes with a written code of conduct. A written code of conduct in every classroom helps a teacher to deal with the behaviour of learners effectively. It is an effective tool to keep the smooth running of learners' behaviour in classes. Therefore, it is advisable for all teachers to implement this teaching strategy in the classrooms. The classroom environment becomes manageable and controllable if teachers are applied the above-mentioned strategy properly. Character develops within a social environment. The nature of that environment, the messages it sends, and the behaviours it encourages and discourages are important factors to consider in character education. Clear rules of conduct, learner ownership of those rules, a supportive environment, and satisfaction resulting from complying with the norms of the environment shape behaviour (Arends *et al.*, 1998:421).

#### 5.14.4 Use of certain traditions to further learners' academic excellence

**Table 5.29 Use of certain traditions to further learners' academic excellence (Statement C1.4)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
Yes	189	<b>26.21</b>	74	<b>37.56</b>	1
No	338	<b>46.88</b>	90	<b>45.69</b>	2
Unsure	194	<b>26.91</b>	33	<b>16.75</b>	3
Total =	721	<b>100</b>	197	<b>100</b>	

Twenty-two (22) learners and nine (9) teachers failed to respond.

According to the information given in table 5.29, a relatively small number of learners 26.21% and 37.1% teachers indicated that the use of certain traditions to further their academic excellence are in place, while the majority of the respondents (46.1% of learners and 45.7% of teachers) disagree with this idea. A small percentage 26.91% of learners and teachers 16.8% are uncertain about certain traditions applied in classrooms. Classroom rituals or traditions are effective in creating group identity because they are repeated, tangible expressions of the group's communal life (Lickona, 1991:102; Cohen & Manion, 1981:124-125). Rituals and traditions are ways in which people celebrate and nurture their existence as a community. They offer teachers a basis for establishing control, thereby prolonging their survival chance day by day (Cohen & Manion, 1994:122). They are invaluable for every teacher. School's traditions according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:43), are powerful carriers of the school's culture and identity. According to the results a lot can be done to improve the situation in classrooms.

### 5.14.5 Written agreement with learners' parents to further learners' academic excellence

**Table 5.30 Written agreement with learners' parents to further learners' academic excellence (Statement C1.5)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
Yes	305	<b>41.95</b>	45	<b>22.28</b>	1
No	263	<b>36.18</b>	143	<b>70.79</b>	2
Unsure	159	<b>21.87</b>	14	<b>6.93</b>	3
Total =	727	<b>100</b>	202	<b>100</b>	

Sixteen (16) learners and four (4) teachers did not respond to the question/statement above.

Table 5.30 illustrates that the majority (41.95%) of learners agreed that teachers have a written agreement with their parents in which they (parents) promise from their side to help in furthering the learners' academic excellence and ethic behaviour, while 70.8% teachers disagree with this statement. 21.9% of the learners and 6.93% teachers revealed to be unsure about a written agreement with learners' parents to further learners' academic excellence. This gives a reflection that teachers did not have a written agreement with parents concerning the future of their children. Education for a child is more than institutional provision (Maspeth, 1993:27). According to Macbeth, the relationship of parents to school must be set in the broader context of parents' role in their child's total learning experience. They remain the main unit of care for the child: a source of protection, nourishment, belonging and education (Macbeth, 1993:27). Lickona and Davidson (2005:39) opine that schools must be in a position to take proactive steps to forge a character compact with parents. By making such an explicit compact with parents will then create a common language i e. a language of character. Families must share a school's sense of purpose (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:38). Parental involvement not only has great advantage, but there are also several reasons why it is important for them to be involved in the education of their children (Many, 2004:11). According to him by combining the forces of the home, the school and the community, the quality of the

education can be much improved. Teachers in these findings contribute to the marked absence of parent involvement at school level (Weeto, 1997:55). According to Weeto (1997:55), teachers may feel inferior when they have to work with parents who are more influential, richer or more highly educated than they are. So they fail to exchange ideas about the progress of their learners when they are faced by such parent (Weeto, 1997:55). A written agreement with parents can be applied as problem-solving adequacy, where sharing of ideas and parent involvement will ease the solving of problems in schools.

#### 5.14.6 Knowledge about Kohlberg’s theory of moral development (Teachers)

**Table 5.31 Knowledge about Kohlberg’s theory of moral development (Teachers) (Statement C2.1)**

	TEACHERS	
	FREQ	%
1	96	50.00
2	26	13.54
3	34	17.71
4	14	7.29
5	22	11.46
Total =	192	100

Fourteen (14) teachers did not respond to the above question/statement.

The information above indicates that 7.3% of teachers claimed that they “always” have the knowledge about Kohlberg’s theory of moral development. According to Hopkins (1983:202), this theory holds a serviceable insight for teachers and has also received enough empirical validation to remain the dominant perspective for comprehending learners’ moral development (see 2.2.6.1). These outcomes of these illustrate the efficiency of schools to supply teachers with information concerning the above theory of moral development. Therefore, schools are advised to keep teachers well informed with relevant information concerning how learners developed morally.

### 5.14.7 Up to date with research results on character education (Teachers)

**Table 5.32 Up to date with research results on character education (Teachers) (Statement C2.2)**

	TEACHERS	
	FREQ	%
1	76	<b>38.38</b>
2	48	<b>24.24</b>
3	45	<b>22.73</b>
4	16	<b>8.08</b>
5	13	<b>6.57</b>
Total =	198	<b>100</b>

Eight (8) teachers failed to respond.

A sizeable percentage of respondents 8.1% of teachers claimed that they are “always” up to date with research results on character education.

The implication of these results showed that teachers have very little knowledge about research results concerning character education. Sufficient information about research results should be made available to teachers by the schools. According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:40), teachers as well as parents must be informed about research for effective practices on character education.

### 5.14.8 Keeping learners' parents informed about the latest theories on character education (Teachers)

**Table 5.33 Keeping learners' parents informed about the latest theories on character education (Teachers) (Statement C2.3)**

	TEACHERS	
	FREQ	%
1	100	<b>50.25</b>
2	42	<b>21.11</b>
3	36	<b>18.09</b>
4	11	<b>5.53</b>
5	10	<b>5.03</b>
Total =	199	<b>100</b>

Seven (7) teachers did not respond to the question above.

The above table 5.33 shows that 5.53% of teachers claimed that they “always” keep learners' parents informed about the latest theories on character education. The school as a learning institution functions on behalf of the parents in order to continue, extent and stabiles the initial and sporadic educative teaching begin by parents at home (Gawe, 1996:47). Families must share its sense of purpose (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:40). Teachers have to work hand in glove with the parents in teaching a child about the world. There should be close link/cooperation between the two parties in order to help learners to assign meaning to their life world. If it is not, its impact on learners will be significantly weakened.

Therefore, parental involvement in school activities according to Manye (2004:11) is important because they have fundamental rights and interests in the education of their children. The implication of these results reflected that there seemed to be insufficient co-operation between the school and the home. Parental involvement in schools is not taken seriously according to these results. According to Badenhorst *et al.* (1993:110) “teachers' perception of their profession” assume that they are not supposed to inform parents about what they are to do. Parents are supposed to be

treated as welcome guests and not as intruders to be evicted as quickly as possible (Manye, 2004:54). What teachers should take into consideration is the fact that the process of successful teaching in every classroom depends on effective involvement of both teachers and parents.

#### 5.14.9 Conducting action research in classrooms on values and/or character

**Table 5.34 Conducting action research in classrooms on values and/or character (Statement C2.4)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	156	<b>22.03</b>	52	<b>26.40</b>	1
2	180	<b>25.42</b>	47	<b>23.86</b>	2
3	184	<b>25.99</b>	57	<b>28.93</b>	3
4	134	<b>18.93</b>	30	<b>15.23</b>	4
5	54	<b>7.63</b>	11	<b>5.58</b>	5
Total =	708	<b>100</b>	197	<b>100</b>	

Thirty-five (35) learners and nine (9) teachers did not respond to the question/statement above.

According to information given in table 5.34, only 18.93% of the learners and 15.23% of teachers is of the opinion that action research on values and/or character is taking place "always". Action research according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:71) is a process of database reflection on the impact of a particular practice in a particular school setting. It helps to determine what practices to start, stop, continue, or improve (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:71; Manion & Cohen, 1981:49). Manion and Cohen (1981:49) opine that action research is a way of stimulating the social and spiritual life of the school, and of creating a social milieu where participants could co-operate in setting up a better community. Therefore, 'group interaction' became more emphasised. This type of research is needed because it will enhance teachers to get the process of effective teaching and learning in schools under way. For schools to engage in such a process clearly requires that faculty possesses several perfor-

mance character virtues like diligence, perseverance, and ingenuity among them as well as equally important moral virtues such as respect, honesty and humility (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:72).

#### 5.14.10 Necessary literature on values and/or character education provided by the school (Teachers)

**Table 5.35 Necessary literature on values and/or character education provided by the school (Teachers) (Statement C2.5)**

	TEACHERS	
	FREQ	%
1	43	22.40
2	45	23.44
3	51	26.56
4	26	13.54
5	27	14.06
Total =	192	100

Fourteen (14) teachers failed to respond to the question.

According to the above statement 13% of teachers opine that they “always” receive the necessary literature on values and/or character education provided by the school. According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:133) teachers must however, know how to capitalise on the character-building potential of a novel, short story, or other literary work. Characters in literature provide us with a window to the soul (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:133). By prompting learners to pay attention to how fictional character respond to the truth, we then help them acquire greater respect for integrity, contempt for hypocrisy, and sensitivity to what accounts for moral growth or moral decline (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:134). From table 4.35 it is clear that schools should attend to this matter.

### 5.14.11 Involving learners in decisions on matters like class rules

**Table 5.36 Involving learners in decisions on matters like class rules (Statement C3.1)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	181	<b>24.59</b>	14	<b>6.93</b>	1
2	196	<b>26.63</b>	33	<b>16.34</b>	2
3	164	<b>22.28</b>	84	<b>41.58</b>	3
4	153	<b>20.79</b>	70	<b>34.65</b>	4
5	42	<b>5.71</b>	1	<b>0.50</b>	5
Total =	736	<b>100</b>	202	<b>100</b>	

Seven (7) learners and four (4) teachers did not respond.

Table 5.36 informed us that 20.8% of the learners indicated that teachers do “always” involve them in decisions on matters like class rules, while 34.7% of teachers support the statement positively.

Rademacher *et al.* (1998:289) contend “effective classroom management procedures promote independent learning and success for all learners in classrooms that are productive, orderly and pleasant. According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:149) learners are supposed to see the rules that govern the life of their classrooms and school as being important expressions of respect and responsibility. Clear rules are positive statements that establish guidelines and expectations for classroom behaviour; they are the cornerstones of classroom life and are used to encourage conversation and problem solving related to ethical issues that arise at school (Hirsch, Chen and Nelson, 1999:224). One way to help learners to develop an understanding and a greater commitment to honouring rules is to engage them in their construction (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:149). Teachers should also create a democratic classroom, by involving learners in decision-making and the responsibility for making a classroom a good place to be and learn (Lickona, 1993:10). Downey and Kelley (1978:164) opine that learners, on entering a secondary school should have a firm framework of rules and regulations to guide them, while at the same time

having access to some kind of organised system, such as class or school council for questioning the framework of rules. According to them, a delicate balance should be maintained and a rule system achieved that is firm enough to provide guidance, yet not rigid enough to retain control beyond the limit compatible with the growing autonomy and responsibility of older learners.

The results of this study indicated that a good percentage that agrees with what the statement outlined. Teachers should involve learners in decisions on matters like class rules because this will in the end provide a learning situation conducive to moral learning. By involving learners in the creation of class rules, will in any way help them to develop their moral understanding, foster mutual respect, and motivate learners to behave in a respectful and responsible manner (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:152). All social institutions have rules that govern their procedures. They are what Cohen and Manion (1981) and De Klerk and Rens (2003b) call 'system norms'. They serve as an overall framework that regulates behaviour deemed appropriate to the ongoing purposes of an organisation. Therefore, school norms make explicit the rules of conduct and the procedures that ought to direct the day-by-day life of the school community. However, norms are not behaviour itself; rather, they refer to desired behaviour; they are evaluative; they stipulate what is considered most appropriate or most to be preferred (Cohen & Manion, 1981:323). Within school settings, teachers are responsible for maintaining an orderly, safe, and productive learning environment in their classrooms. They need to establish and enforce rules and procedures that foster a healthy learning climate (Arends *et al.*, 1998:421).

### 5.14.12 Encouraging learners to participate in classroom discussions and having a say

**Table 5.37 Encouraging learners to participate in classroom discussions and having a say (Statement C3.2)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	71	9.70	3	1.49	1
2	157	21.45	22	10.95	2
3	225	30.74	77	38.31	3
4	233	31.83	93	46.27	4
5	46	6.28	6	2.99	5
Total =	732	100	201	100	

Eleven (11) learners and five (5) teachers failed to respond.

The data above indicates that 31.83% learners and 46.3% teachers do feel that learners are “always” encouraged to participate in classroom discussions and have a say. Lickona and Davidson (2005:43) opine that most teachers want more learners to respond to questions, participate in classroom discussions, but failed to apply adequate strategies or implementing their strategies during their interaction with learners. Therefore, thoughtfully, structured, incrementally expanded strategies may be utilised in order to increase learners’ voice (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:43). Encouraging learners to take part in a discussion and activities create a climate in which learners can work with a sense of security and self-confidence, facilitating the growth of understanding by offering the optimum i.e. optimum opportunity, for them to talk reflectively with teachers and other learners, thus promoting a spirit of co-operation and mutual trust (Lepholletse, 2001:72). Downey and Kelley (1978:163) opine that the use of discussion in the classroom provides opportunities for learners to reflect consideration to others by allowing all members to have a say, by showing respect for what others contribute even if they are not in agreement with their opinions.

### 5.14.13 Encouraging learners to differ from teachers and other learners in a respectful way

**Table 5.38 Encouraging learners to differ from teachers and other learners in a respectful way (Statement C3.3)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	106	<b>14.52</b>	2	<b>1.00</b>	1
2	158	<b>21.64</b>	9	<b>4.48</b>	2
3	221	<b>30.27</b>	93	<b>46.27</b>	3
4	191	<b>26.16</b>	93	<b>46.27</b>	4
5	54	<b>7.40</b>	4	<b>1.99</b>	5
Total =	730	<b>100</b>	201	<b>100</b>	

Thirteen (13) learners and five (5) teachers failed to respond to the question/statement above.

Table 5.38 revealed that 26.16% of the learners indicated that teachers “always” encourage them to differ with them and other learners in a respectful way, while 46.3% teachers agreed that they “always” do it. The task of the teacher is to keep on encouraging learners to differ from other learners and teachers in a respectful way. However, by so doing, s/he encourages perspective-taking in the classroom among learners. Perspective-taking is therefore defined as the ability to take the viewpoint of other people, see a situation as they see it, imagine how they might think, react and feel (Paolitti, 1977:27). Learners should be able to learn respecting the rights and dignity of their fellow mates. This is a fundamental goal for character education, that learners must be assisted to experience the world from the point of view of others, especially those who are different (Lickona, 1991:55).

#### 5.14.14 Encouraging learners to solve conflict between them

**Table 5.39 Encouraging learners to solve conflict between them (Statement C3.4)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	117	<b>15.94</b>	7	<b>3.52</b>	1
2	191	<b>26.02</b>	21	<b>10.55</b>	2
3	196	<b>25.70</b>	86	<b>43.22</b>	3
4	175	<b>23.84</b>	79	<b>39.70</b>	4
5	55	<b>7.49</b>	6	<b>3.02</b>	5
Total =	734	<b>100</b>	199	<b>100</b>	

Nine (9) learners and seven (7) teachers failed to respond to the question/statement above.

Table 5.39 indicated that 23.84% of the learners and 39.70% of teachers felt that they “always” encourage learners to solve conflict between themselves. Conflict resolution must be taught to learners so that they can acquire essential skills of solving conflicts fairly and without force (Lickona, 1993:10). The teacher must primarily create “conflict”, the type of mental structural change in learners and stimulate learners’ ability to take the perspective of others beyond them (Paolitti, 1977:74). However, for teachers and learners to solve conflict fairly there must be teaching of practical skills, for example listening and problem-solving. Montana (1994:4719) defines the problem solving strategy as the strategy for finding or constructing a solution to a task for which no ready solution is at hand. Halstead and Taylor (2000:187) opine that for teachers to encourage learners to solve conflict between them, a peer mediation approach can be applied because it engages them to address their conflict situations and communication problems within the school/classroom. It is an approach that can diffuse tension, hostility and violence and transform the classroom into a more co-operative situation (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:187).

### 5.14.15 Conducting class meetings with learners to discuss common issues

**Table 5.40 Conducting class meetings with learners to discuss common issues (Statement C3.5)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	318	<b>43.50</b>	38	<b>18.91</b>	1
2	168	<b>22.98</b>	47	<b>23.38</b>	2
3	112	<b>15.32</b>	71	<b>35.32</b>	3
4	92	<b>12.59</b>	43	<b>21.39</b>	4
5	41	<b>5.61</b>	2	<b>1.00</b>	5
Total =	731	<b>100</b>	201	<b>100</b>	

Twelve (12) learners and five (5) teachers did not respond to the question above.

Table 5.40 reveals that 12.6% of learners assert that teachers are “always” conducting class meetings with them. 21.4% of teachers claimed as well that they “always” conduct class meetings with learners to discuss common issues. According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:57), class meetings held on a needs basis or at a regular scheduled time is a vehicle for recruiting learners as partners in sharing responsibility for making the class the best it can be. Epanchin *et al.* (1994:213) assert that class meetings are designed as a forum for the entire class to discuss general classroom procedures or classroom problems. They also give a supportive remark that meetings are used to tackle/discuss some issues such as homework problems and classroom behaviour. The primary focus of class meetings is on group dynamics within the classroom, not on improving academic achievement of learners. According to Epanchin *et al.* (1994:214), the real purpose of class meetings is to build a sense of community within the classroom and also the spirit of class meetings is to address any challenge in the collective moral voice. (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:57).

According to the results in table 4.40, teachers should conduct far more class meetings to discuss common issues, because through discussions learners learn to

consider alternatives points of view and to reserve their judgement in arguments. They will develop the abilities, which are valuable and easily transferable to human relationships outside the classroom (Jacobs & Gawe, 1996:74).

#### 5.14.16 Using small group discussions to discuss issues on classroom management or climate

**Table 5.41 Using small group discussions to discuss issues on classroom management or climate (Statement C3.6)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	280	<b>38.41</b>	43	<b>21.29</b>	1
2	188	<b>25.79</b>	56	<b>27.72</b>	2
3	135	<b>18.52</b>	69	<b>34.16</b>	3
4	78	<b>10.70</b>	32	<b>15.84</b>	4
5	48	<b>6.58</b>	2	<b>0.99</b>	5
Total=	729	<b>100</b>	202	<b>100</b>	

Fourteen (14) learners and four (4) teachers failed to respond to the question/statement above.

In table 5.41, it is indicated that 38.41% of the learners opine that teachers “never” make use of small group discussions to discuss issues on classroom management or climate, while only 15.84% teachers indicate that they “always” use small group discussions for that purpose. A small group discussion in the classroom encourages learners to use their voice such as solving problems, developing skills, confidence and motivation to take part in a vitally important classroom management process (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:45). It also provides opportunities for learners to develop consideration and concern for fellows in an intimate face-to-face situation. It can again help learners to develop communication skills that are vital in conveying their feelings to others. Bangeni (2000:69) purports that group discussion in the classroom takes place where learners in the class are strongly motivated to become involved with activities and group affairs. She further opines that group discussion makes learners participate freely in order to debate some important issues with

members of a group. It also allows teachers to experience full control over his or her class. Behaviours of learners become manageable in forming small group discussions in classrooms. Yet again, Downey and Kelley (1978:163) perceive role taking as a means of promoting moral development, that group work can also help learners to see the role of others or even, through drama or simulation techniques, to adopt the role of other people.

The results reflect that teachers to a large extent do apply group discussion in their classrooms. The use of group discussions in every classroom contains all the basic requirements for fostering and developing the qualities we hope to find eventually in a moral person (Downey & Kelley, 1978:163). Group discussions also help teachers to become flexible during the teaching process and they also contribute towards learners' growing moral autonomy. Small group discussion is one of the strategies that can help teachers to look more closely at each learner's ability to grasp a skill. The teacher has a management responsibility within the classroom for the selection of an appropriate mode of instruction in accordance with a teaching strategy and to use classroom motivation and control (Curzon, 2004:183). Curzon further opines that the purpose of management of the teaching-learning situation is seen as the modification of the learner's behaviour in accordance with predetermined objectives, the attainment of which should enrich and advance personal growth.

#### 5.14.17 Helping learners to formulate a philosophy of life

**Table 5.42 Helping learners to formulate a philosophy of life  
(Statement 4.1)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	121	16.58	14	7.00	1
2	179	24.52	49	24.50	2
3	209	28.63	87	43.50	3
4	162	22.19	46	23.00	4
5	59	8.08	4	2.00	5
Total =	730	100	200	100	

Thirteen (13) learners and six (6) teachers did not respond to the question/statement above.

Table 5.42 indicates that 22.2% of the learners feel that teachers “always” help them to formulate a philosophy of life. 23% of the teachers feel that they “always” help learners in this regard. Philosophy refers to the underlying belief system, the principles that guide our actions (Epanchin *et al.*, 1994:36). According to Halstead and Taylor (2000:188) the mode of a philosophy approach is to strengthen learners’ reasoning and moral judgement, teaching them about discussion techniques, conceptual analysis, formulation of definitions, and the use of examples. Philosophies provide guidelines for making tough decisions (Halstead & Taylor, 2000:188; Epanchin *et al.*, 1994:36).

#### 5.14.18 Encouraging learners to reflect on the mistakes they made

**Table 5.43 Encouraging learners to reflect on the mistakes they made (Statement 4.2)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	57	7.78	5	2.49	1
2	196	26.74	27	13.43	2
3	239	32.61	96	47.76	3
4	196	26.74	71	35.32	4
5	45	6.14	2	1.00	5
Total =	733	100	201	100	

Ten (10) learners and five (5) teachers failed to respond to the question above.

The data in table 5.43 show that 26.74% learners and 35.32% teachers agreed that learners are “always” encouraged to reflect on the mistakes they made. Bangeni (2000:111) opines that for teachers to be able to acknowledge learners’ mistakes is much a reflection of learners’ ability as an admission that they do not know everything, and that they can also learn from others. Teachers have to cultivate an environment in which learners will not be afraid to make mistakes in front of other learners. If learners are made to reflect on the mistakes they made, they will get used

to making mistakes, and accepting that as part of the learning process. Again, this depends on how the teacher handles the situation, because often learners take the cue from their teacher on how to react to certain incidents in the classroom. Reflective practice according to Sikhavakhavha (1999:39) may lead to the improvement of the act of teaching in the classroom that may also lead to greater involvement in the act of learning from learners. Therefore, Osterman and Kottkamp (1993:45) and Sikhavakhavha (1999:39) opine that in order to engage in the reflective process, individuals need to believe that discussion of problems will not be interpreted as incompetence or weakness.

#### **5.14.19 Encouraging learners to move out of their comfort zones and explore more things**

**Table 5.44 Encouraging learners to move out of their comfort zones and explore more things (Statement 4.3)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	150	<b>20.52</b>	6	<b>3.00</b>	1
2	167	<b>22.85</b>	32	<b>16.00</b>	2
3	210	<b>28.73</b>	84	<b>42.00</b>	3
4	168	<b>22.98</b>	74	<b>37.00</b>	4
5	36	<b>4.92</b>	4	<b>2.00</b>	5
Total =	731	<b>100</b>	200	<b>100</b>	

Twelve (12) learners and six (6) teachers failed to respond to the question above.

Table 5.44 indicates that 22.98% of the learners and 37% of teachers felt that learners are “always” encouraged to move out of their comfort zones and explore more/deeper things. Striving for excellence according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:149) means willing to move outside our comfort zone, beyond the limit we may initially set for ourselves. Teachers must encourage learners beyond their perceived limitations in ways that are important for their growth (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:149). Learners should be encouraged to strive for excellence and to give the best effort they can.

**5.14.20 Encouraging learners to do more than what a curriculum/textbook require**

**Table 5.45 Encouraging learners to do more than what a curriculum/textbook require (Statement 4.4)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	98	<b>13.50</b>	4	<b>2.00</b>	1
2	151	<b>20.80</b>	16	<b>8.00</b>	2
3	187	<b>25.76</b>	80	<b>40.00</b>	3
4	231	<b>31.82</b>	95	<b>47.50</b>	4
5	59	<b>8.13</b>	5	<b>2.50</b>	5
Total =	726	<b>100</b>	200	<b>100</b>	

Seventeen (17) learners and six (6) teachers did not respond to the question above.

The data according to the statement above reflect that 31.82% learners and 48% teachers agreed that learners are “always” encouraged by teachers to do more than what a curriculum/textbook requires. Lickona and Davidson (2005:87) opine that learners must see a curriculum as relevant to their lives and aspirations, and it must help them to build a positive future. It must be rigorously sound in content and design. Therefore, by increasing rigour in the curriculum predicts higher learner achievement (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:88).

**5.14.21 Encouraging learners to deliver work of high standard they can be proud of**

**Table 5.46 Encouraging learners to deliver work of high standard they can be proud of (Statement 4.5)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	67	<b>9.20</b>	-	-	1
2	127	<b>17.45</b>	5	<b>2.53</b>	2
3	192	<b>26.37</b>	57	<b>28.79</b>	3
4	282	<b>38.74</b>	129	<b>65.15</b>	4
5	60	<b>8.24</b>	7	<b>3.54</b>	5
Total =	728	<b>100</b>	198	<b>100</b>	

Fifteen (15) learners and eight (8) teachers failed to respond to the question above.

The statement in table 5.46 reflected that 38.74% of learners and 65.2% of teachers felt that learners are “always” encouraged to deliver work of high standard they can become proud of. According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:49), the ideal of striving to be the best we can, should become part of a school culture when it is translated into classroom practices used across the school. Furthermore, these scholars opine that by encouraging learners to deliver work of such standard, starts with the teacher’s belief that every learner is not only capable of learning, but with enough time, effort and support, capable of providing high quality work. Therefore, the main expectation placed on formal schooling is to create responsible citizens, who can utilise the knowledge they accumulated in schooling to identify important purpose in the real world and to fulfil such purpose (Cohen & Manion, 1981:48).

### 5.14.22 Creating opportunities where learners can exhibit their work to a large audience

**Table 5.47 Creating opportunities where learners can exhibit their work to a large audience (Statement 4.6)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	172	<b>23.43</b>	13	<b>6.53</b>	1
2	196	<b>26.70</b>	47	<b>23.62</b>	2
3	157	<b>21.39</b>	74	<b>37.19</b>	3
4	159	<b>21.66</b>	62	<b>31.16</b>	4
5	50	<b>6.81</b>	3	<b>1.51</b>	5
Total =	734	<b>100</b>	199	<b>100</b>	

Nine (9) learners and seven (7) teachers did not respond to the question/statement above.

The information above revealed that 21.7% of learners and 31.16% of the teachers claimed that are “always” creating opportunities where they can exhibit their work to a large audience. Lickona and Davidson (2005:29) advise teachers to make use of public performance, competitions, speeches, concerts, shows, “real world” work, and the like in order to increase learners’ motivation to do their best work and be their best ethical self. For teachers to create opportunities for learners to exhibit their work to a large audience makes them feel confident and focus seriously on what they are doing at school.

### 5.14.23 Expecting learners to take their own decisions about their learning tasks

**Table 5.48** Expecting learners to take their own decisions about their learning tasks (Statement 4.7)

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	284	<b>39.55</b>	51	<b>25.63</b>	1
2	153	<b>21.31</b>	40	<b>20.10</b>	2
3	138	<b>19.22</b>	65	<b>32.66</b>	3
4	91	<b>12.67</b>	40	<b>20.10</b>	4
5	52	<b>7.24</b>	3	<b>1.51</b>	5
Total =	718	<b>100</b>	199	<b>100</b>	

Twenty-five (25) learners and seven (7) teachers failed to respond to the question.

According to the data above, 12.7% learners and 20.10% teachers are of the opinion that teachers “always” expect from learners to take their own decisions about their learning tasks. Erickson *et al.* (1990:3) deplored the perception that teachers and schools should be held responsible for learners’ learning; they argued that other institutions as well in society that should share in the responsibility for helping these learners too. Shulman (1987:7) concludes that high-school learners have to take responsibility for their own learning, because they will be in future adults who will be expected to judge matters for themselves and to carry out their appropriate responsibilities. Lickona and Davidson (2005:23) also support the above statement by concluding that for learners to take their own decisions about their own learning, they will in future develop and exercise capacity for moral leadership. When teachers involve learners in making decisions, they communicate the importance of democratic process (Arends *et al.*, 1998:421).

### 5.14.24 Creating a caring atmosphere among learners in class

**Table 5.49      Creating a caring atmosphere among learners in class (Statement 5.1)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	190	<b>25.99</b>	3	<b>1.49</b>	1
2	214	<b>29.27</b>	32	<b>15.92</b>	2
3	172	<b>23.53</b>	95	<b>47.26</b>	3
4	119	<b>16.28</b>	65	<b>32.34</b>	4
5	36	<b>4.92</b>	6	<b>2.99</b>	5
Total =	731	<b>100</b>	201	<b>100</b>	

Twelve (12) learners and five (5) teachers failed to respond to the above question/statement.

The statement above shows that 16.3% of learners and 32.34% of teachers indicated that teachers “always” create a caring atmosphere among themselves in class. It is the duty of every teacher to create a classroom climate that is generally considered to best facilitate learner learning, the one that is purposeful, task-oriented, relaxed, warm, and supportive and that has a sense of order. This climate establishes and maintains positive attitudes and motivation, which will in turn encourage effective participation in lessons and communication during lessons (Lepholletse, 2001:70). Lepholletse (2001:71) postulates that several studies have indicated the influence of classroom environment as a significant determinant of learners’ attitudes during teaching and learning process. Most positive attitudes are associated with a high level of involvement, personal support, strong positive relationships with classmates and the use of various teaching strategies and learning activities. A supportive or caring classroom makes each learner to feel valued and secured (Drinkwater, 2002:63).

### 5.14.25 Encouraging a positive peer pressure among learners in the classroom

**Table 5.50 Encouraging a positive peer pressure among learners in the classroom (Statement 5.2)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	130	<b>17.69</b>	6	<b>3.00</b>	1
2	215	<b>29.25</b>	19	<b>9.50</b>	2
3	188	<b>25.58</b>	96	<b>48.00</b>	3
4	161	<b>21.90</b>	77	<b>38.50</b>	4
5	41	<b>5.58</b>	2	<b>1.00</b>	5
Total =	735	<b>100</b>	200	<b>100</b>	

Eight (8) learners and six (6) teachers did not respond to the question above.

21.90% of the learners and 38.5% of teachers indicated that teachers “always” encourage a positive peer pressure among learners in the classroom. The peer group too is a fruitful source of values, especially at adolescence, and it plays a major part in determining the value positions young people adopt and the behaviour patterns they come to feel they ought to conform to (Downey & Kelley, 1978:129). According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:120), a positive peer culture, committed to supporting the “quest for one’s best”, helps to offset the influence of the media culture. Furthermore, positive peer relations provide many opportunities to develop and practice social and emotional skills. Therefore, teachers should take steps that increase the likelihood that every learner will enjoy such relationship within the classroom (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:120).

### 5.14.26 Learners reprimanding each other when they don't co-operate or break class rules

**Table 5.51 Learners reprimanding each other when they don't co-operate or break class rules (Statement 5.3)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	169	<b>24.01</b>	15	<b>7.50</b>	1
2	210	<b>29.83</b>	41	<b>20.50</b>	2
3	163	<b>23.15</b>	84	<b>42.00</b>	3
4	106	<b>15.06</b>	57	<b>28.50</b>	4
5	56	<b>7.95</b>	3	<b>1.50</b>	5
Total =	674	<b>100</b>	200	<b>100</b>	

Thirty-nine (39) learners and six (6) teachers failed to respond to the question above.

Table 5.51 indicates that only 15.1% of the learners felt that they are “always” encouraged to reprimand each other when they don't co-operate or break class rules. 28.50% of teachers feel the same. Once again, there is quite a discrepancy in the responses from learners and teachers. Lickona and Davidson (2005:149) opine that for teachers to help learners to develop the understanding and a greater commitment to honouring rules is to engage learners in the construction of these values. By involving learners in the construction of rules helps teachers to have a manageable control over learners in class. Therefore, to practice discipline in every classroom, helps teachers to develop learners' moral understanding, fosters mutual respect, and motivates learners to behave in a respectful and responsible manner (Lickona and Davidson, 2005:152). Reprimanding is the most common form of primary reaction to misbehaviour in the classroom.

### 5.14.27 A competitive and everyone-for-himself climate in the classroom

**Table 5.52 A competitive and everyone-for-himself climate in the classroom (Statement 5.4)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	150	<b>20.69</b>	30	<b>15.00</b>	1
2	224	<b>30.90</b>	64	<b>32.00</b>	2
3	190	<b>26.21</b>	65	<b>32.50</b>	3
4	122	<b>16.83</b>	37	<b>18.50</b>	4
5	39	<b>5.38</b>	4	<b>2.00</b>	5
Total =	725	<b>100</b>	200	<b>100</b>	

Eighteen (18) learners and six (6) teachers did not respond to the above question.

The statement in table 5.52 reflects that 16.83% of the learners assert that there is “always” a competitive and every-one-for-himself climate in the classroom. 18.50% of teachers feel the same. Lickona and Davidson (2005:29) postulate that teachers who encourage competitions in schools/classrooms are increasing the motivation of learners to do their best. Competition according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:30), teaches learners opportunities to be challenged by fellow competitors and by the task itself as they pursue their personal best. Covington (1992:131) and Bangeni (2000:74) warn teachers against encouraging competitiveness in and among learners. They mention two assumptions that are often given in favour of competition, but which are not to be taken at face value. (1) Competition motivates learners to do the best that they can, that for the spirited and listless learners, competition ensures at least minimum competency, (2) achieving under competitive situations builds character and enhances a sense of self-confidence. However, the conflict that can develop from competitive situations can be demotivating (Bangeni, 2000:74; Covington, 1992:131). The above researchers distinguished two reasons:

- It encourages individual goal setting; learners tend to focus on their own achievements with little concern for the classroom group. It might hamper learners from functioning effectively with other individuals or with larger groups.
- it elicits different reactions to failure and success. Those who succeed in competitive situations consider themselves smarter than others.

Ames (1984:179) and Bangeni (2000:75) opine individual learning as based on self-improvement, the emphasis being not on comparing oneself with others, but instead on comparing one's present level of performance with one's prior achievement. With individual learning situations, task focus is stronger than in competitive learning situations. For the interest of teachers to develop well-rounded learners, it would not do to exclusively choose and promote one type of the above goal setting over the other. Learners-preferences should provide the cue for teachers as to how to structure activities; it will encourage flexibility in the learners so that they can adapt and be able to cope in the different learning situations (Bangeni, 2000:75).

#### 5.14.28 Encouraging or helping one another with the learning task ("partners in learning")

**Table 5.53 Encouraging or helping one another with the learning task ("partners in learning") (Statement 5.5)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	116	<b>16.16</b>	8	<b>4.04</b>	1
2	184	<b>25.63</b>	26	<b>13.13</b>	2
3	173	<b>24.09</b>	83	<b>41.92</b>	3
4	199	<b>27.72</b>	79	<b>39.90</b>	4
5	46	<b>6.41</b>	2	<b>1.01</b>	5
Total=	718	<b>100</b>	198	<b>100</b>	

Twenty-five (25) learners and eight (8) teachers failed to respond to the question above.

This statement reflects that 27.72% learners agree that they “always” are encouraged by teachers to help one another with the learning task (“partnership”), while teachers indicate that they “often/always” encourage partnership to learners. Learning is a reflection of character as much as a reflection of ability (Cullingford, 1993:194). Partnership creates positive peer relations that provide many opportunities to develop and practice social and emotional skills among learners (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:120). They opine that teachers should take steps that increase the likelihood that every learner will enjoy the learning task in class. Therefore, the enjoyment of learners in helping one another signifies learning environment to become conducive to teaching and learning also become effective for teachers and learners. All learners in this regard appreciate and understand the values in helping each other (see 3.3.1.2).

#### **5.14.29 Encouraging learners to debate moral issues (such as drinking problems, crime, violence, etc**

**Table 5.54 Encouraging learners to debate moral issues (such as drinking problems, crime, violence, etc (Statement 6.1)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	163	<b>22.64</b>	21	<b>10.77</b>	1
2	211	<b>29.31</b>	36	<b>20.00</b>	2
3	153	<b>21.25</b>	74	<b>37.95</b>	3
4	145	<b>20.14</b>	58	<b>29.74</b>	4
5	48	<b>6.67</b>	3	<b>1.54</b>	5
Total =	720	<b>100</b>	192	<b>100</b>	

Twenty-three (23) learners and fourteen (14) teachers did not respond to the above question.

The data according to table 5.54 reveals that 20.14% learners reflect that teachers “always” encourage debate on moral issues in the classrooms. 29.74% teachers feel the same. But it is important to note that nearly 50% of learners say that it is

never/seldom the case. Moral dilemma debate promotes the development of moral reasoning. Therefore, it engages learners in considering or debating different ways to solve difficult, often complex moral problems (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:141). When learners engage in facilitated peer discussions of moral dilemmas, they show accelerated development of moral reasoning (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:141). Abdool (2005) also reveals that mere exhortation will not make learners ethical people. Opportunities to discuss moral issues, to share and understand differences of opinion, supportive classroom and school environment, are more likely to effect growth in ethical thinking and behaviour.

### 5.14.30 Conducting personal issues with learners concerning their moral behaviour

**Table 5.55 Conducting personal issues with learners concerning their moral behaviour (Statement 6.2)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	121	16.8	11	5.67	1
2	244	33.94	51	26.29	2
3	192	26.70	75	38.66	3
4	125	17.39	55	28.35	4
5	37	5.15	2	1.03	5
Total =	719	100	194	100	

Twenty-four (24) learners and twelve (12) teachers failed to respond to the question above.

The data according to table 5.55 reflects that only 17.4% of learners felt that teachers “always” conduct personal issues with them concerning their moral behaviour. Therefore, if schools want to conduct personal issues with learners concerning their moral behaviour, the first thing they must do, however, is to foster ongoing personal reflection as essential for assessment, goal-setting, and continuing growth (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:49). Conducting personal issues with learners concerning their moral behaviour plays the part of “significant others” in the formation of a learner’s self-

concept. Again by conducting personal issues with learners encourages interaction, which requires that both teachers and learners go beyond the sharing of information, they should also be able to reveal their thoughts and feelings about basic beliefs (see 3.2.5.1). Learner-teacher relationships in the classroom are the most fundamental one in the learning process.

### 5.14.31 Appointing study groups to look into moral issues and come up with possible solutions

**Table 5.56 Appointing study groups to look into moral issues and come up with possible solutions (Statement 6.3)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	229	31.85	68	34.87	1
2	205	28.51	62	31.79	2
3	133	18.50	41	21.03	3
4	110	15.30	20	10.26	4
5	42	5.84	4	2.05	5
Total =	719	100	195	100	

Twenty-four (24) learners and eleven (11) teachers did not respond to the above question.

The statement above illustrates that only 15.30% of learners and 10.3% of teachers claimed that appointing a study group to look into moral issues and come up with possible solutions is “always” encouraged in the classroom. By appointing study groups to look into moral issues according to Lickona and Davidson (2005:58) is something important. Schools will benefit from thoughtful discussion within all groups of the community. This will be regarded as an effort made to reach out to every learner (Lickona & Davidson, 2005:58). Encourage learners to think in complex ways about moral issues in life as they appear in the curriculum. Concepts like kindness, generosity, perseverance, and related concepts can be addressed through plot and character studies. Therefore, literature based reading and programmes can stimulate points of views and discussion about values (see 3.2.5.1). The very kind of projects

can be beneficial enough when they spend a period of time and require also caring, planning, commitment and dedication to a predetermined goal or group (see 3.4.2). Therefore, the application of moral discussion and service learning are the two important ways to advance learners' moral development (Abdool, 2005).

#### 5.14.32 Making use of debates to help learners to critically debate different viewpoints

**Table 5.57 Making use of debates to help learners to critically debate different viewpoints (Statement 6.4)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	149	20.81	38	19.49	1
2	234	32.69	55	28.21	2
3	172	24.02	62	31.79	3
4	123	17.18	36	18.46	4
5	38	5.31	4	2.05	5
Total =	716	100	195	100	

Twenty-seven (27) learners and eleven (11) teachers did not respond to the above question.

According to the information given in table 5.57 the data reflects that only 17.2% of the learners and 18.5% of teachers agreed that teachers "always" make use of debates to help learners to critically debate different viewpoints in their classes. The use of debates in every classroom encourages moral reflection in learners (Sikhavhakhavha, 1999:56). Learners experience the sense of personal investment that comes from advocating a point of view strongly and, stimulating, listening and interpreting meaning accurately (Jacobs & Gawe, 1996:74).

### 5.14.33 Spending time in class and encouraging learners to talk about controversial issues in class

**Table 5.58 Spending time in class and encouraging learners to talk about controversial issues in class (Statement 6.5)**

	LEARNERS		TEACHERS		
	FREQ	%	FREQ	%	
1	211	<b>29.43</b>	28	<b>14.29</b>	1
2	205	<b>28.59</b>	51	<b>26.02</b>	2
3	149	<b>20.78</b>	71	<b>36.22</b>	3
4	100	<b>13.95</b>	45	<b>22.96</b>	4
5	52	<b>7.25</b>	1	<b>0.51</b>	5
Total =	717	<b>100</b>	196	<b>100</b>	

Twenty-six (26) learners and ten (10) did not respond to the above question/statement.

According to Lickona and Davidson (2005:93) spending time in classrooms and encouraging learners to talk about controversial issues in classrooms are considered part of the school's civic mission. They opine that such discussions in class make them gain in perspective-taking; demonstrate greater mastery and retention of the subject matter than is true with debate or individualistic learning format; produce high-quality solutions to problems; have a more positive attitude toward other learner participation; show higher academic self-esteem; and develop more positive attitudes toward the topic under discussion and the process of controversy itself. 13.95% of the learners and 22.96% teachers indicated that teachers are "always" encouraging learners to communicate about controversial issues in class.

## **5.15 Interviews with teachers**

### **5.15.1 Comparison of quantitative and qualitative research (Compare par.5.3)**

A quantitative as well as a qualitative method was used to accumulate the empirical data. Quantitative research is associated significantly with the data collection process, research design, and statistical procedures that enhance research and measurement in the social sciences to parallel closely the work of natural science research (Neuwman, 1994:28-29; Strauss & Corbin, 1998:29). According to Marshall and Rossman (1999:192-194), this research follows the scientific method as far as possible in as much as it attempts to accurately and objectively measure social factors. It assumes an objective social reality, as it studies the behaviour and other observable phenomena. It also analyses social reality into variables (Neuwman, 1994:28-29). Drinkwater (2002:6) and Neuwman (1994:30) perceive the quantitative data collection as a technique involved in the social survey, questionnaires and experiment.

Creswell (1994:6), Strauss and Corbin (1998:13), Neuwman (1994:99) and Le Compete *et al.* (1984:7) posit that the literature function deductively, verificatively, and objectively as a framework for the research questions or hypotheses. In quantitative research, the researcher put more emphasis on his/her project with an explicit conceptual framework (Hutchinson, 1988:125; Babbie, 1998:36). The research is excessive, resulting in a complete conceptualisation, operationalisation and data collection (Moloi, 1997).

### **5.15.2 Qualitative research**

According to Borgan and Biklen (1992:71), the approach to qualitative research is regarded as different from that of quantitative research. A qualitative approach finds answers to questions by examining various social settings and individuals who inhabit these settings (Berg, 1995:176). Borgan and Biklen 1992) further defined it as multimethod in its focus, i.e. it involves an interpretative, naturalistic approach to its matter. The researcher in the qualitative approach study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the

meanings people bring to him/her. A quantitative approach was used to complement and supplement the quantitative approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1998:28).

### 5.15.3 Description of qualitative research

Qualitative research denotes inductive, generative, constructive and subjective (Le Compete' *et al.*, 1984). Human behaviour is complex and often highly subjective, interpretative research strategies are necessary to supplement traditional, qualitative educational research and therefore, the two approaches are of more importance to the study when combined (Strauss & Corbin, 1998:28; Fetterman, 1988:222). "They supplement each other" and "complement each other" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Fetterman, 1988). Qualitative and quantitative forms of research both have roles to play in theorising (Thomas & Nelson, 1996:368; Fetterman, 198:54).

Thomas and Nelson (1996:367) mentioned the contrasting characteristics of qualitative and quantitative research as follows:

<b>Research component</b>	<b>Qualitative</b>	<b>Quantitative</b>
Hypothesis	Inductive	Deductive
Sample	Purposive, small	Random, large
Setting	Natural, real world	Laboratory
Data gathering	Researcher is primary instrument	Objective instrumentation
Design	Flexible, may change	Determine in advance
Data analysis	Descriptive, interpretative	Statistical methods

#### **5.15.4 Reason for conducting interviews in this study**

The questionnaires investigation revealed a marked difference in the responses of the teachers and the learners. For this reason it was decided to conduct interviews with a sample of the teachers in order to determine which obstacles and challenges they experience when they act as facilitators of character education in their classes.

The researcher wanted to obtain more information about the matters dealt with in the questionnaire investigation, like for instance teachers attitudes with regard to character education, obstacles that they experience and what they view as challenges for the success of character education. Open questions were asked so that teachers can clearly state their own opinions. An open discussion will be held on the professional character of teachers as it was dealt with in Section B of the questionnaire. All the principles dealt with in Section C will be stated as open questions.

#### **5.15.5 The interview format**

Leedy and Olmrod (2001:159) lament that the format in qualitative studies is either open-ended or semi-structured. Therefore, the semi-structured interviews were conducted in the form of a standardised open-ended interview which involves a predetermined sequence and wording of the same set of questions to be asked for each participant. This can only be done in order to minimise the possibility of bias (Borgan & Biklen, 1992:71).

Borgan and Biklen (1992:71) again, claim that the length of the interviews must be limited and the amount of work involved in transcribing the recording must also be considered. Interviews should be conducted in a relaxed, non-threatening atmosphere (Borgan & Biklen, 1992). In this study the length of individual teacher interviews was limited to thirty (30) minutes. Before the actual interviewing, teachers often asked for clarification of what was expected of them, asked some of the terms to be explained and wanted to know the purpose of the interviews before they felt comfortable in responding to questions.

### **5.15.6 Selection of sample**

Thirteen (n=13) secondary schools were identified in the Potchefstroom area in order to conduct interviews with teachers. One teacher per school was selected at random to participate in the interviews. Only (n=7) teachers from the 13 schools were willing to participate in this study.

### **5.15.7 Method of collecting data**

The analysis of the questionnaires in the quantitative study showed that the answers provided by learners on almost all the questions differ significantly from those of the teachers in that they are less positive. This probably means that the learners do not experience the professionalism of teachers and the application of character education in their classrooms as the teachers experience it.

There can be many possible reasons for the differences in the answers. One reason can be that the teachers are not focused and consistent in the application of principles of character education. With the interviews the researcher wants to determine which obstacles on the one hand and challenges on the other hand exist for character education in their classrooms.

The sections of the questionnaires on which the below mentioned questions is based, are:

- The professional character of the teacher.
- The six principles that teachers apply in order to promote character education in their classrooms.

All interviews were recorded on tape with the permission of the interviewees, but with the assurance that the name of the teacher and the school would be withheld. Tapes were listened to several times before analysis. The tapes are available from the researcher. A summary of the most important findings are reported in the next subparagraph:

## **5.15.8 Discussion of the teachers' responses**

### **5.15.8.1 Discussion of the results on Section B of the questionnaire (professional character of the teacher).**

**Question (B1): What do you think teachers can do to improve this image?**

**Responses:** The responses to this question are:

- Teachers should try to portray professionalism. Consistency has been mentioned as one way of expressing their images.
- They also claim that guidelines for teachers should be formulated concerning their behaviour.
- Teachers must make a mind shift, because of the prevailing situation in schools. Teachers suggest that good discipline should be maintained and also a democratic atmosphere should prevail between teachers and the learners.
- Lastly it was mentioned that teachers should be made aware of professionalism and what is expected of them in the teaching profession.

**Question (B2): What must schools, the Department of education and training institutions do to help teachers in this regard?**

**Responses:**

- Policies concerning some of these aspects must be made available to all schools.
- They also assert that character education should be part of the curriculum and training programmes should be implemented at training institutions.
- The school must have certain criteria on how they want teacher-students to perform when they start teaching.
- The department of education must have certain rules that are very strict on the values of teachers.
- Teachers suggest that their salaries be improve so as to encourage them to do their best.

- Counselors should be invited to schools in order to give positive support in this regard.
- The department of education and training institutions must have a selection system to select teachers with good character.

According to the above-mentioned statements, it is clear that the atmosphere that is prevailing in schools is not conducive enough for the teaching and learning of character. There are some existing problems that teachers experience. It is therefore, suggested that the school management together with the staff members create strategies that can help them to identify those problems and make an attempt to reduce such problems in the school environment.

#### **5.15.8.2 Section C of the questionnaire (six principles for character education)**

Teachers were given the six principles for character education to read before they were asked to respond to each principle.

##### **Principle 1:**

A shared vision:

Most of the respondents claim that they encourage learners to take the responsibility for their own learning and to work hard in order to achieve good results at the end of the year.

##### **Principle 2:**

Teaching in line with the latest theories on character education:

The majority of the respondents claim that they have a limited knowledge about the latest theories on character education. No research results have been made available to schools concerning character education.

##### **Principle 3:**

A democratic classroom:

The interviews indicate that teachers do encourage and create a democratic environment in their classrooms by involving learners to take part in discussing and formulating classroom rules. They claim that the most important aspect they usually encourage amongst learners is mutual respect and rapport with every learner.

#### **Principle 4:**

Personal responsibility for sustainable development:

Most of the teachers interviewed claim to encourage personal responsibility amongst learners in their respective classrooms. They cited that this is particularly done at the beginning of each year to encourage them to formulate their own philosophy of life and to come out of their comfort zone. Meaning it is considered as an ongoing process in schools.

#### **Principle 5:**

Collective responsibility:

Teachers feel that they do encourage collective responsibility in their classrooms by giving learners the opportunity to work in groups and share what ever information they have about their learning. According to this a less competitive climate is created. Learners are encouraged to help one another with learning tasks as this is one of the OBE principles. Certain traditions are applied even though they claim that the time factor and workload are some of the aspects perceived as obstacles in their teaching.

#### **Principle 6:**

Dealing with difficult issues:

Teachers assert that they do give learners some moral issues to discuss in the classroom. Learners are encourage to participate in debating moral issues during lessons, but because of insufficient time and workload allocated for teachers, it becomes difficult for some teachers to implement this during their teaching. They indicate that schools should employ counselors to deal with such issues.

**Question (C1): What do you think teachers can do to promote the six principles?**

**Responses:**

- Teachers claim that effective communication must take place in every classroom, whereby the principles of OBE are upheld and also be applied in real life situation.
- That guest speakers be invited to schools in order to deliver a motivational speech to learners and to keep up to date with national curriculum statements.
- That appropriate teaching approaches for character education be implemented and taken into consideration by every teacher.

**Question (C2): What can the schools, Department of education and training institutions do to help teachers in this regard?**

**Responses:**

The following are the responses concerning the above question.

- That the Department of education and training institutions should conduct workshops more often concerning character education to empower teachers to become involved in the process of solving learners problems as well as sharing responsibilities.
- That the questionnaires about character education be conducted for all learners in all schools on a regular basis to keep up to date with the schools' situations. It should be implemented in all the subjects.
- The suggestion was made that workshops should be conducted and that all the teachers should attend, not only the life orientation teachers.

### **5.15.9 Conclusion**

It is important to take into cognisance that these six principles and the professional character of the teacher mentioned above form an integral part of teaching and learning. What the teachers should do as professionals is to develop a good work spirit in order to encourage every learner to take part in character education

programme at school. In view of all the character education problems revealed in this study, two research methods (quantitative and qualitative research) were applied in this regard. Teachers in this study answered positively in most cases regarding the statements put to them, but learned that the learners did not experience it as positively in most cases. This means that the influence teachers have on learners is not as big as they think.

The results of the interviews indicate that teachers experience professional problems differently, and the factors that affect them are also different. A prominent difference in their responses was that some teachers claim not to consider their private life as part of their professional life and that they have a limited knowledge about the theories on character/moral education. They should keep abreast with the theories that deal with the moral development of learners/children. They also should have sufficient knowledge on how learners learn according to their stage of development so that they can be in a better position to deal with some of the problems they experience in their classrooms. They should also equip themselves by searching for suitable material that concern the teaching of character education in schools and help learners who experience difficulties in learning.

However, both teachers and learners in secondary schools have a responsibility for the betterment of the kind of character they reflect in their classrooms. Teachers should be capable of a system view of school, acknowledging that school and classrooms are complex systems, intricately connected to other systems, particularly the homes of learners in schools.

Most teachers opt to attend workshops concerning character education. Some do not have the knowledge to help learners with the problems they experience and that their workloads don't permit them to attend to learners' problems. They also expressed a concern about a lack of teaching time, the time allocated for each lesson, and they cannot attend to the learning problems that learners experienced. There is also no time available to practice certain traditions that can promote the academic performance and excellence of learners.

Teachers reveal their supportiveness and willingness to promote their professional character and the principles that are supposed to be implemented during the teaching and learning process, but there seem to be a number of factors that hinder them in this regard. Therefore, the implementation of character education in practice

needs a major effort, responsibility and openness for innovative and fresh thinking about the current situation prevailing in schools. The teaching of character education has an explicit relevancy in developing the character of learners as well as to improve learners' behaviour during the teaching and learning process. It also helps learners to improve their academic performance and excellence. By joining hands and being truly committed, they shall succeed in changing the kind of behaviour they experience in their classrooms/schools.

### **5.15.10 Suggestions**

Suggestions are made by the researcher for schools, Department of education and training institutions. They are as follows:

- That training programmes for all teachers, not only for life Orientation teachers, be developed to introduce the philosophy and core elements of character education.
- Teachers should be empowered progressively to take ownership for their work responsibilities.
- A total commitment from the school management team and teachers is expected. It should be a long-term commitment to ensure the continuity of character education in schools.
- Regular school and class visits should be done by departmental officials to monitor the progress of the character building process of the school.
- Special camps for learners should be conducted to help in the building of good character.
- The next chapter will focus on a summary of the findings and on possible recommendations.

# CHAPTER 6

## SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

---

### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings and recommendations, which are based on the outcomes presented in the previous chapters. The objective of this research as stated in Chapter 1 is:

To determine the influence that teachers have on the value-orientations and character of their learners.

### **6.2 Summary of the different chapters**

Before presenting the findings of this study, the previous chapters are reviewed in short. Chapter 1 serves as an orientation of this study project. It aimed to outline an introductory motivation for this study, defining the aim of the study, explaining how the study will be carried out, which population groups are involved and stipulating the headings of the chapters.

In Chapter two, a theoretical basis of the field of investigation was outlined. A theoretical background to the concepts values, character, and education and character education was explained.

Chapter three focused on the role of character education and how it is linked with the behaviour of teachers and learners in the classroom. The role of teachers during character education was explained.

Chapter four outlined an orientation concerning the empirical research. This covered the aspect of instrumentations that involved the search for appropriate measuring tools. The appropriate measuring tool for this study was shown to be the construction of a questionnaire.

### **6.3 Findings**

The findings of this study were found to be consistent and were presented according to the aim that was set out at the beginning of this study. With regard to the literature

study as well as the empirical research about the teachers' influence on the value orientation and character of learners, the following findings were made:

### **6.3.1 Professional character**

Teachers are not likely to become morally competent people in the ways that have been found in this study. If schools fail to be places in which the various skills of moral competence are regularly employed or practiced and count for something, then what we should expect as a society is an ever-increasing moral crisis in schools.

The findings indicated that teachers, although generally warm and accepting, seem to be inflexible and lack dynamism when presenting lessons, which in turn will affect learners' behaviour in the classroom. Learners however, learn from the way in which teachers hold their value positions and this too is a serious issue because it has implicit implications for character education. Therefore, the morally educated person, as already mentioned in this study, needs to have a positive commitment towards the value of morality, towards the importance of other people's feelings and must also have the ability to understand their significance. Teachers should note that the particular complications that arise in this study concerning character education, makes learners to acquire moral values and attitudes negatively. Therefore, they should contemplate the question on how they could convert this kind of character learning into character education to the fullest.

What teachers should be aware off is the fact that learners always see lesson preparation as important. Lessons should also be interesting to them to sustain participation and persistence that are the main components of motivated behaviour. Interesting lessons promote intrinsic motivation, which will sustain learning in the long run. And also, if teaching and learning are made interesting, they could take on personal value, and not be remote to the learners learning as well as their personal goals. Therefore, teachers who are well organised and well prepared for their lessons, very friendly and who also make lessons interesting are those who will be highly appreciated by learners. Teachers who display a confident knowledge about their work will also in turn make their learners confident in the quality of teaching they receive.

Teachers fail to teach the 'ubuntu' principle to their learners. This principle is very important to every human being. It must be practiced in every social interaction. However, for teachers to win learners' confidence they should attempt to practice and

treat them equally, show a sense of respect, compassion and caring to every learner. Teachers are seen as not being trustworthy and fair toward learners and do not act as role models concerning industriousness and correct behaviour. Trust is regarded as the key concept that unlocks the door to healthy human relations. For teachers to get access to the hearts and minds of learners they must be able to strive to win the learners' trust (cf chapter 5 statement, B5). These are qualities that every teacher must be able to reflect during their interaction in the classroom so that they may in turn engender credibility with learners. The teaching of values is really unavoidable in a social environment. Even though teachers may not explicitly teach a particular moral precept, the way in which they relate to their learners, the management system which they enact, the manner in which they expect their learners to relate to one another, and the instructional choices which they make, all combine to create a "de facto" moral climate in the classroom (Arends *et al.*, 1998:421). In every interaction with learners, teachers must become aware that in one way or the other they teach values to them explicitly.

### **6.3.2 Promising practices for character education**

The results indicated that the implementation of promising practices for character education do not exist in most of the classrooms. These classroom atmospheres proved in this study seem to be inhibiting for learners' interaction, especially as they worry about the impression teachers have towards them. Lepholletse (2001:82-83), recognises the affective classroom when she formulates the affective filter hypothesis. According to the above researcher, "the filter is the part of the internal processing system that subconsciously screens incoming language based on what psychologists call 'affect'...the learners' attitudes, needs, motives and emotional state." If teachers are not interested in implementing promising practices for character education in their classrooms, then what they should expect as classroom managers is discipline problems that may arise during the process of teaching and learning. The implementation of these promising practices if properly applied in classrooms will in turn enhance learner behaviour to become manageable as well as increasing learners' motivation. It is crucial that in every classroom settings, teachers should become responsible agents for maintaining an orderly, safe and productive learning climate. This means that the proper use of these principles can in future help teachers to create

and enforce rules and procedures that will foster a healthy learning environment. These promising practices again, help to maintain discipline and order in the classroom.

The results of these findings also revealed that teachers have insufficient knowledge about the theories of moral development of learners. Therefore, what teachers have to do is to keep themselves abreast with the latest research findings about the theories of character education and moral development of learners and engage in constant debate over educational issues they experience. There are journals which act as outlets for issues of concern, providing support for teachers and which are a source of information that can be utilised by teachers in schools.

The practices that take place in schools and classrooms must become appropriate to a debatable ethics, and the structural features of the schools must also be of a high standard to sustain these promising practices. Learners also regard teachers as having a negative influence on them. What teachers must take cognisance of is the understanding that character develops within a social climate. Both teachers and learners should work together in cultivating positive values in the teaching of every subject. The nature of the environment, the message it sends, and the behaviour it encourages and discourages are important elements to be considered. Clear rules of conduct, a supportive environment, learner and teacher ownership of those rules, and satisfaction resulting from complying with the norms of the environment will shape their behaviour (Moloi, 1997). Good social experience will however, become more effective and efficient in promoting the character development of learners.

## **6.4 Recommendations**

Character education should not only be maintained in the classroom, but also in the school, the home as well as within the community. Recommendations are as follows:

**The Department of Education** must see to it that different programmes for character education are implemented in all schools from elementary up to secondary school level throughout the country. Sufficient monitoring must be in place in order to ensure the smooth running of these programmes.

**Principals and School Governing Bodies:** It is very clear that parental involvement in school activities in this country has been long acknowledged. Therefore, parents have the authority to run and manage the education of their children. The most valuable means through which principals and teachers can be optimally involved in the character

education activities of learners is through SGB's. The principals and teachers together with the SGB's must encourage the community to help in building the character education programmes in all schools. Parents and school as partners should interact with each other in order to make character education a success. Such interaction will create a context that allows them to identify their assumptions about what happens in the school and that will provide clarity when it is needed (Moloi, 2002:55).

**Subject teachers** must consider the teaching of values to learners seriously. What they must portray when they are with learners is good behaviour. Their teaching must contribute to positive character development.

It is crucial that teachers, learners, principals, SGB's and the Department of Education consider character education as an important aspect in schools. The literature study indicates that character education is important in teaching. Therefore, the following aspects should be taken into consideration:

- Immediate attention is needed from the Department of Education in order to implement character education programmes effectively in schools.
- Character education should be introduced in all secondary schools within the nine provinces.
- All teachers should be trained in how to integrate character education into the teaching of their school subjects.
- School Governing Bodies and teachers should be trained in order to implement character education effectively and efficiently in schools.
- The Department of Education should conduct research concerning character education in all secondary schools within the nine provinces in order to determine how generalised the findings are.
- Teachers must also receive proper training in life skills programmes.
- Character education should be included in the curriculum for teachers' training.
- The value orientation and character of secondary school learners in all the nine provinces should be determined in order to have a general profile.

- Follow-up studies should be done to ascertain the influence that the Department of Education has on value orientation and the character of learners in secondary schools in all nine provinces.

## **6.5 Possible further research**

A possible field for further research could be the implementation of values and character education programmes in schools as already mentioned in this study.

## **6.6 Contribution to the field of study**

This study makes a contribution to the solving of the problem indicated in Chapter 1. No research has previously been done in South Africa that looked into the role that teachers can play in the building of the characters of learners. This study succeeded in identifying and describing the different aspects through which the teacher can positively influence learners.

Possible programmes for character education through which the teacher can use for teaching to become effective were suggested in this study through the critical evaluation of programmes applied abroad.

The measuring instrument (questionnaire) used in this study could be successfully utilised in further studies.

Therefore, this study succeeded in making a positive contribution in the field on character education.

## **6.7 Summary**

This chapter presented the final results of this research based on the findings in the previous chapters. It also provided answers to the question that was posed in the first chapter, which was the focus of this study. These findings cannot be generalised. It was found that there is still much that is unsatisfactory concerning the professional character of teachers. It was also suggested that teachers could and should act as role models concerning correct behaviour in order to improve the negative situation that already prevail in schools.

Character education is really needed in all schools. Something has to be done in order to make it a success. This research project should not be considered to be the final solution to the problem of teachers' influence on value orientation and the character of

learners in secondary schools. The literature about character education has revealed that there is a possible programme that can be found to work within the South African teaching framework. Efforts to shape attitudes, behaviour of learners and teachers and develop a culture of achievement can be attempted at secondary school level, but this research has shown that it would be more meaningful to lay a strong foundation at lower grades of schooling. This study also attempted to add to the growing body of knowledge about the various aspects of values/character education and specifically, focused on the teachers as agents who influence the values and character of learners in schools.

Recommendations for further research were provided, particularly regarding the scope and focus for future studies in character education. It is hoped that the recommendations resulting from these findings in this study, will be useful and fruitful with the view to improve character education in schools, which is a prerequisite for the improvement of teachers and learners' behaviour, their competence and effective teaching.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

---

- ABDOOL, A.D. 2005. Die waarde-oriëntering van leerders in sekondêre skole. Potchefstroom: Noordwes-Universiteit, (Potchefstroom kampus). (Proefskrif - PhD.) 197p.
- ACRE, L. 1985. Teenage pregnancy: a contemporary problem of adolescence. *Curation*, 8(4):21-40, December.
- ALADE, M.O. 1989. Teenage pregnancy in Ile-Ife, Western Nigeria. *Western journal of nursing research*, 11:609-613.
- ALKERS, R.L. 1984. Delinquent behavior, drugs and alcohol: what is the relationship? *Today's delinquent*, (3):199-247.
- ALLEN, M.J. 1997. Textbook on criminal law. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Mayfield: Blackstone Press. 457 p.
- ALSHULER, S. 1980. School discipline: a socially literate solution. San Francisco: McGraw-Hill. 215 p.
- ANON. 1994. Values formation and education.  
[http://www.motherservice.org/essays/values%20 formation and %20 education. Html.](http://www.motherservice.org/essays/values%20formation%20and%20education.html)  
[Date of access: 22 August 2004].
- ANTES, R.L. & NARDINI, M.L. 1990. Another view of school reform: values and ethics restored. *Counseling and values*, 38(3):215-223, April.
- ANKIEWICZ, P.J. 1990. Die invloed van opleiding op die kommunikasiestyl van Natuur-en-Skeikundeonderwysstudente. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys. 322 p.
- ARENDS, R.I. & WINITZKY, D.T. 1998. Exploring teaching: ethical dimensions of teaching. Boston, Mass.: McGraw-Hill.
- ARNOLD, P.J. 1994. Sports and moral education. *Journal of moral education*, 23(1):75-89.
- ARWECK, E. & NESBITT, E. 2004. Values education programme. *British educational research journal*, 30(2):17, April.

ASHTON, E. & WATSON, B. 1993. Values education. *Educational studies*, 24(1):83, July. (10p.). EBSCOHOST: Academic Search Elite, Full display: <http://www-sa.ebsco.com>. [Date of access: 12 October 2004].

ASMAL, K. 2001. Pride vs. arrogance: the new patriotism saamtrek: values, education and democracy in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. (Conference Report, National Conference, Kirstenbosch, 22-24 Feb.)

ATTARIAN, A. 1996. Integrating value clarification into outdoor adventure programme and activities. *Journal of physical education, recreation and dance*, 67:41-44.

AVERANUS, H. 2002. Value orientation in German schools. *Education and law*, (14):1-90.

AYERS, W. 1997. I walk with delinquents. *Educational leadership*, (55):48-51.

BABBIE, E. 1998. The practice of social research. Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth. 493 p.

BADENHORST, D.C., CALITZ, L.P., VAN SCHALKWYK, O.J. & VAN WYK, J.G. 1989. Die rol en die taak van die onderwyser. Johannesburg: HAUM. 185 p.

BADENHORST, D.C., CALITZ, L.P., VAN SHALKWYK, O.J., VAN WYK, G.J. & KRUGER, A.G. 1991. School management: the task and role of the teacher. Pretoria West: Gauteng Book Printers. 245 p.

BAER, R. 1982. Teaching values in the schools: clarification or indoctrination? *Principal*, 61(3):17-21.

BAGARETTE, N. 1995. Die taksering van voornemende skoolhoofde se waarde-orientasies deur bestuurliggame. Bloemfontein: Universiteit van die Oranje Vrystaat. (Proefskrif - PhD.) 229 p.

BAILEY, K D. 1987. Methods of social research. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: Free Press. 533 p.

BANGENI, N.J. 2000. ESL students' motivation towards classroom learning: specific motivational components. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroomse. Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys. (Mini-Dissertation - MA.) 163 p.

BARBER, L.W. 1984. Teaching Christian values. Birmingham: Religious Education Press. 250 p.

- BARCENA, F., GIL, F. & JOVER, G. 1993. The ethical dimension of teaching: a review and a proposal. *Journal of moral education*, 22(3):241-252.
- BARNARD, M.C. 1990. Parental involvement. *Opvoeding en kultuur*. 2.
- BARROW, R. 1981. The philosophy of schooling. Sussex: Wheatsheaf Books. 221 p.
- BASTIANI, J. 1993. Parents as partners: genuine progress or empty rhetoric. (In Munn, P. Parents and schools: customers, managers or partners. London: Routledge. p. 101-116.)
- BASUPENG, B.P. 2002. Guidelines for a peer educator programme for HIV/AIDS: a social work perspective. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. 26 p.
- BEAUCHAMP, G.A. 1981. Curriculum theory. Itasca, Ill: Peacock. 221 p.
- BECK, C. 1990. Better schools: a values perspective. London: Falmer. 199 p.
- BECKER, B.W. & CONNOR, P.E. 1981. Personal values of the heavy user of mass media. *Journal of advertising research*, 21(5):37-43, October.
- BECKMAN, J. & NIEWENHUIS, J. 2004. Die onderwysmanifes oor waarde en demokrasie in die onderwys: 'n fundering of flirtasie met waarde? *South African journal of education*, 24(2):60-63.
- BERG, B.C. 1995. Qualitative research methods for the social sciences. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 252p.
- BEHR, A.L. 1988. Empirical research methods for human sciences. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Durban: Butterworths. 200 p.
- BENARD, B. 1993. Fostering resiliency in kids. *Educational leadership*, 51(1):44-48, November.
- BENN, A. 1991. The law. (In Elliot, E., ed. Bullying. Essex: Longman. p. 127-132.)
- BERETH, D. & SCHERER, M. 1993. On transmitting values: a conversation with Amitai Etzioni. *Educational leadership*, 51(3):12-15, November.
- BERGEM, T. 1990. The teacher as a moral agent. *Journal of moral education*, (19):2 May.

- BEST, J.W. & KAHN, J.V. 1993. Research in education. Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon. 435 p.
- BESTES, V. 1987. The whole school motivates (In BUXTON, T.H.; PRITCHARD, K. W.; BUXTON, M.M; BUXTON, B. & SAWYER, R. M. (eds). The many faces of teaching. Lanham, Md: University Press of America). 494p.
- BLOEM, S. 2000. Die menings van sekondêre opvoeders betreffende 'n adolessent wat swangerskap laat termineer het. Port Elizabeth: Universiteit van Port Elizabeth. (Verhandeling - MEd.) 127 p.
- BORG, W.R. & GALL, M.D. 1989. Educational research: an introduction. New York: Longman. 753 p.
- BORGAN, R.C. & BIKLEN, S.K. 1992. Qualitative research for education: an introduction to theory and methods. Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon. 276 p.
- BREZINKA, W. 1992. Beliefs, morals and education. Aldershot: Avebury. 265 p.
- BROCK, E. 1992. A positive approach to bullying. Essex: Longman. 218 p.
- BROOK, B.D. & KANN, M.E. 1993a. What makes character education programs work?. *Educational leadership*, 51(3):19-21, November.
- BROOK, B.D. & KANN, M.E. 1993b. The schools role in weaving values back into the fabric of society. *Education digest*, 58(8):67, (5p.), April. EBSCOHost: Academic Search Elite, Full display:<http://www-sa.ebsco.com>. [Date of access: 30 August 2005].
- BROOKHART, A.M. & LOADMAN, W.E. 1992. Teacher assessment and validity: "What do we want to know". *Journal of personal evaluation*, S(5):347-357, June.
- BRYCE, A., red. 1988. Die A tot Z van loopbane in Suid Afrika. Kaapstad: Don Nelson Uitgewers. 672 p.
- BUGA, G.A., AMOKO, D.H.A. & NCAYIYANE, D.J. 1996. Sexual behavior, contraceptive practice and reproductive health among school adolescents in Transkei. *South African medical journal*, 86:523-527.
- BURGESS, R.G. 1984. In the field: an introduction to field research. 8<sup>th</sup> ed. London: Unwin Hyman. (Contemporary social research series, nr. 8). 254 p.

- BURKHARDT, J. 1999. Scientific values and moral education in the teaching of science. *Perspectives on science*, 7(1):87-100.
- BURNS, N. & GROVE, S.K. 1997. *The practice of nursing research*. Philadelphia, Pa.: Lippincott. 400 p.
- BURNS, N. & GROVE, S.K. 2005. *The practice of nursing research: conduct, critique, and utilization*. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. St. Louis, Mo.: Elsevier/ Saunders. 80 p.
- BUTROYD, B. 1997. Are the values of secondary school teachers really in decline? *Educational review*, 49(3):251-259.
- BUTTS, R.F., PECKENPAUGH, D.H., KIRSCHIE, N. & BAUM, H. 1977. *The schools role as morality authority*. Washington: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. 120 p.
- CAIRNS, J., LEWTON, D. & GARDNER, R. 2001. *Values, culture and education: world yearbook of education*. London: Kogan. 328 p.
- CARL, A.E. 2002. *The teacher empowerment through curriculum development: theory into practice*. Cape Town: Juta. 275 p.
- CARL, A.E. & DE KLERK, J. 2001. Waardeopvoeding in 'n jong demokrasie en kurrikulum 2005: panasee of mynveld? *Tydskrif vir geesteswetenskappe*, 41(1):21-31.
- CARR, D. 1993. Moral values and the teacher: beyond the parental and the permissive. *Journal of philosophy of education*, 27(2):193-207.
- CARR, D. 2000. Moral formation, cultural attachment or social control: what's the point of values education?. *Educational theory*, 50(1):40-62, Winter.
- CARR, W. 1995. *For education: towards critical educational inquiry*. Buckingham: Open University Press. 145 p.
- CARR, W. & KEMMIS, S. 1987. *Becoming critical: education, knowledge and action research*. London: Falmer. 185 p.
- CHRISTIE, P. 1998. Schools as (dis)organizations: the 'breakdown of the culture of learning and teaching' in South African schools. *Cambridge journal of education*, 28: 283-300.

- CLARK, C.M. 1990. The teacher and the taught: moral transactions in the classroom. (In Goodlad, J.I., Soder, R. & Irotnik, K.A. The moral dimensions of teaching. San Francisco: Jossey Bass. p. 251-263.)
- CLARK-STEWART, A. & FRIEDMAN, S. 1987. Child development: infancy through adolescence. New York: Willey. 623 p.
- COBB, N.J. 1993. Adolescence and early childhood. Los Angeles: Mayfield. 560 p.
- COETZEE, M. 1996. Klasklimaat vir die onderrig van liggaamlike opvoeding. Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Proefskrif - PhD.) 200 p.
- COETZER, P.J. 1980. Mensverhoudinge binne en buite volksverband. *Tydskrif vir rasse-aangeleenthede*, 3(1):9-20.
- COHEN, L. & MANION, L. 1981. Perspectives on classrooms and schools. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 451 p.
- COLEMAN, J.S. 1994. Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American journal of sociology, Supplement*: 105-108.
- CONNOWAY, H.J. 1989. Selfkonsep en akademiese prestasie by die standerd 7 leerlinge. Johannesburg: Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit. (Skripsie - MEd.) 130 p.
- CONRADIE, A. 1989. Die sosialiseringsfunksie van die skool as sosiale instelling. *Tydskrif vir Christelike wetenskap*, 25(3):89-105.
- COVEY, S.R. 2004. The seven habits of highly effective people. Simon and Schutter: A CBS Company. 370p.
- CRAWFORD-NUTT, D.H. 1980. Student values and academic achievement: a social psychological study. Pretoria: University of South Africa. (Thesis - D.Litt. et Phil.) 296 p.
- CRESSWELL, M.J. 1994. Language in the world: a philosophy enquiry. Cambridge: Cambridge U.P. 160 p.
- CSIKSZENTMIHALYI, M. & McCORMACK, J. 1986. The influence of teachers. *Phi Delta Kappan*: 415-419, February.
- CULLINGFORD, C. 1990. The nature of learning: Children, teachers and the curriculum. London: Cassell Eduactional Call. 243 p.

- CURRICULUM 2005. 1997. Curriculum 2005: discussion document. Pretoria: Department of Education.
- CURZON, L.B. 2004. Teaching in further education: an outline of principles and practice. 6<sup>th</sup> ed: London: New York. 459 p.
- DALTON, P. & BOYD, J. 1992. I teach: a guide to inspiring classroom leadership. Portsmouth: Heinemann. 245 p.
- DAMON, W. 1988. The moral child. London: Collier/Macmillan. 166 p.
- DARLING-HAMMOND, L. 1994. Review of research in education. Washington: American Educational Research Association. 464 p.
- DARLING-HAMMOND, L. 1998. Teachers and teaching: testing policy hypotheses from a national commission report. *Educational researcher*, 27(1):5-15.
- DAVIDSON, D. 1997. Modeling. <http://www.personage.org>. [Date of access: 12 July 2004].
- DAVIES, J. 1991. School reaching out: family, school and community partnerships for student success. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 67(6):376-382.
- DAVIES, L. 2001. Twenty ways of fostering values in children. (2 p.). <http://www.practicalparent.org.uk/values.htm>. [Date of access: 12 July 2004].
- DAVIS, L. & KEYER, J. 1997. Six ways our children learn values. [http://www.parentplace.com/expect/parenting/articles/0,10335,243319\\_113275,00.html](http://www.parentplace.com/expect/parenting/articles/0,10335,243319_113275,00.html). [Date of access: 13 July 2000].
- DECI, L. & RYAN, R.M. 1985. Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour. New York Plenum Press. 371 p.
- DE KLERK, J. 1998. A reappraisal of character education in a progressive post-modernist era. *South African journal of education*, 18(1):19-24.
- DE KLERK, J. & RENS, J.A. 2003a. The role of values in school discipline. *Koers*, 17(1):353-371.
- DE KLERK, J. & RENS, J.A. 2003b. The role of values in school discipline. *South African journal of education*, 17(1):353-371.

- DELORS, J., *et al.* 1996. *learning: treasure within.* (Report to UNESCO of the internal commission on education for the twenty first century). 9 p.
- DE VOS, A.S, STRYDOM, H., FOUCHE', G.B. & DELPORT, C.S.L. 2005. *Research at grass roots for the social sciences and human service professions* 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Van Schaik Publishers. 349 p.
- DE WET, C. 2003. 'n Media-analise oor misdaad in die Suid Afrikaanse onderwys. *South African journal of education*, 23(1):36-44.
- DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE) see SOUTH AFRICA. Department of Education (DoE)
- DOYLE, W. 1986. Classroom organization and management (in Wittrock, M.C, ed. *Handbook of research on teaching.* New York; MacMillan. 392 p.
- DOWNEY, M. & KELLY, A.V. 1978. *Moral education: theory into practice.* London: Harper & Row. 226 p.
- DREIKERS, R. & CASSEI, P. 1991. *Discipline without tears.* 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Penguin. 47 p.
- DREYER, I., DROTSKE, T. & VAN DER MERWE, E. 1999. *A resource book for traffic safety education.* Potchefstroom: Cenets. 253 p.
- DRINKWATER, M. 2002. *Didactical guidelines for creating a favourable classroom climate in outcomes-based physical science classes.* Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Thesis - PhD.) 267 p.
- DU RANT, R.H., SANDERS, J.M., jr., JAY, S. & LEVINSON, R. 1990. Adolescent contraceptive risk-taking behavior: a social psychological model of females' use of and compliance with birth control. *Advance in adolescent mental health*, 4:87-10.
- ECKENBERGER, L.H., *ed.* 1979. *Cross culture contributions to psychology.* Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger. 240 p.
- EDIGER, M. 1995. A study of values. *Clearing house*, 69(1):56-58.
- EDINGTON, W.D. 2002. To promote character education, use literature for children and adolescents. *Social studies*, 93(3):113-116, May/June.

- EDSON, C.H. 1988. Our past and present: historical inquiry in education. (*In* Sherman, R.R. & Webb, R.B. *Qualitative research in education: focus and methods*. London: Falmer. p. 44-58.)
- EDWARDS, C.H. 1989. Self-regulation: the key theory to motivating at risk-children. *Clearing house*, 63(2):59-62.
- EDWARDS, C.H. 1993. *Classroom discipline and management*. New York: Macmillan. 311 p.
- ELIAS, M., ZINS, J., WEISBERG, K., FREY, P., GREENBERG, M., HAYNES, H., KESLER, M., SCHWABSTONE, M. & SHRIVER, T. 1997. *Promoting social and emotional learning: guidelines for educators*. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. 380 p.
- ELLIOT, D.S., HAMBURG, B.A. & WILLIAMS, K.R. 1998. Violence in American schools: an overview. (*In* Elliot, D.S., Hamburg, B.A. & Williams, K.R., eds. *Violence in American schools*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. p. 3-28.)
- EPANCHIN, B.C., TOWNSEND, B. & STODARD, K. 1994. *Constructive classroom management. Strategies for creating positive learning environments*. Pacific Grove, Calif.: Brooks/Cole. 370 p.
- EPSTEIN, J.L. & DAUBER, S.L. 1991. School programmes and teacher practices of parent involvement in inner-city elementary and middle schools. *Elementary school journal*, 91(3):329-305.
- ERICSON, P.D., FREDERICK, S. & ELLETT, J.R. 1990. Taking student responsibility seriously. *American educational research association*, 19(9):3-10.
- EYRE, L. & EYRE, R. 1993. *Teaching our children values*. New York: Simon & Schuster. 255 p.
- FARMER, R. 1987. Values education: an argument for the defense. *Educare forum*, 52(1):69-71.
- FEATHER, N.T. & NEWTOWN, J.W. 1982. Values, expectations, and the prediction of social action: an expectancy valence analysis. *Motivation and emotion*, 6(3):217-220.

- FENNEMAN, E. & FRANKE, M.L. 1992. Teachers' knowledge and its impact. (In Grouws, D.D., ed. Handbook of research on mathematics teaching and learning. New York: Macmillan. p.147-163).
- FENSTERMACHER, G.D. 1990. Some moral considerations on teaching as a profession. (In Goodlad, J.I., Soder, R. & Irotnik, K.A. The moral dimension of teaching. San Francisco: Jossey Bass. p. 130-139).
- FERGUSON, R. & ROUX, C. 2003. Teachers participation in facilitating beliefs and life orientation programmes: reflections on a research project. *South African journal of education*, 23(4):272-275.
- FETTERMAN, D, M. 1988. Qualitative approaches to evaluation in education: the silent scientific revolution. New York: Praeger. 300 p.
- FINSTERLIN, H.V. 1999. Crime and violence prevention in South African primary schools - analysis of a study in the greater Cape Town area. Cape Town: University of Cape Town. (Dissertation - LLM.) 59 p.
- FLISHER, A.J., REDDY, P., MULLER, M. & LOMBARD, C. 2003. Sexual behavior of Cape Town high-school students. *South African medical journal*, 63(7): 535-541, July.
- FOSS, D.C. 1977. The values contrary in sociology. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass. 130 p.
- FOWLER, S., VAN BRUMMELEN, H.W. & VANDYK, T. 1990. Christian schooling education for freedom. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for CHE.
- FRAENKEL, J.R. 1981. The relationship between moral thought and moral action: implications for social studies education. *Theory and research in social education*, 9:39-54.
- FRASER, W.J., LOUBSER, C.P. & VAN ROOY, M.P. 1991. Didactic for the undergraduate student. Durban: Butterworth. 95 p.
- FRAZER, B.J. & WALBERG, H.J. 1981. Psychosocial environment in science classes. *Studies in science*, 8:67-92.
- FRYMIER, J. 1988. Understanding and preventing teen suicide: an interview with Barry Garfinkel. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 69:290-293.

- FURROW, D. 2005. Ethics: key developments in philosophy. New York: Continuum. 172p.
- GAGE, N.L. & BERLINER, D.C. 1984. Educational psychology. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Boston, Mass.: Houghton. 189 p.
- GALLOWAY, M.R. 2000. Rape in schools: a substantial public health problem in South Africa. *Aids bulletin*: 4-5, March.
- GARAN, D.G. 1975. The key to science of man: the impossible relativity of value reactions. New York: Philosophical Library. 532 p.
- GARBINO, J. 1985. Adolescent development. London: Merrill. 665 p.
- GLASSER, W.M.D. 1990. The quality school: managing students without coercion. New York: Harper & Row. 171 p.
- GOETZ, J.P. & LECOMPTE, M.D. 1984. Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research. London: Academic Press. 292 p.
- GOLEMAN, D. 1985. Emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam. 162 p.
- GOODLAD, J.I., SODER, R. & IROTNIK, K.A. 1990. The moral dimension of teaching. San Francisco: Jossey Bass. 340 p.
- GRABB, E.D. 1981. The ranking of self-actualization values: the effects of class, stratification, and occupational experiences. *Sociological quarterly*, 22:374, Summer.
- GRANT, G. 1989. Bringing the "moral" back in. *NEA today*, 7(7):496-506.
- GREEN, I. 2004. Nurturing democratic virtues: educators' perspectives. *South African journal of education*, 24(2):108-113, May.
- GREENE, M. 1988. Qualitative research and the uses of literature. (In Sherman, R.R. & Webb, R.B. *Qualitative research in education: focus and methods*. London: Falmer. p. 175-189.)
- GROBLER, L.C. 1985. The child and values. *Educamus*, 31(11):18-22, January.
- GUDMUNSDOTTIR, S. 1990. Values in pedagogical content knowledge. *Journal of teacher education*, 41(3):44-52, May-June.
- GUTTO, S. 1985. Values, concepts, principles or rules. *Acta jurica*: 97-110, September.

- HAGERTY, R. 1998. The crisis of confidence in American education. Springfield, Ill.: Thomas.
- HALSTEAD, J.M. 1996. Values and values education in schools. (*In Halstead, J.M. & Taylor, M.J. Values in education and education in values. London: Falmer. p. 3-14.*)
- HALSTEAD, J.M. & MCLAUGHLIN, H.M. 1999. Education in morality. London: Routledge. (Routledge international studies in philosophy of education.) 276 p.
- HALSTEAD, J.M. & TAYLOR, M.J. 2000. Learning and teaching about values: a review of recent research. *Cambridge journal of education*, 30(2):169-223, June.
- HANKS, P., McLEOD, W.T. & MAKINS, M. 1990. The Collins concise dictionary of the English language. London: Collins. 1872 p.
- HARDING, S., PHILLIPS, D. & FAGARTY, M.P. 1986. Contrasting values in Western Europe: unity, diversity and change. Basingstoke: McMillan. 256 p.
- HARRE, R. & LAMB, R. 1983. The encyclopedic dictionary of psychology. Oxford: Blackwell. 718 p.
- HASSEN, D.T. 1993. The moral importance of the teachers' style. *Journal of curriculum studies*, 25(5):397-471.
- HATTINGH, L. 1991. 'n Teorie van waarde. Johannesburg: Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit. (Proefskrif - DEd.) :377 p.
- HAYDON, G. 1997. Teaching about values: a new approach. London: Cassell. 177: 189 p.
- HEATH, D.H. 1994. Schools of hope: developing mind and character in today's youth. San Francisco, Cliff: Jossey Bay. 189p.
- HEENAN, J. 2000. Cornerstones values - a New Zealand values education initiative. <http://cornerstonevalues.org/education.htm>. [Date of access: 10 June 2006].
- HEENAN, J. 2003. Building character through cornerstone values: how schools can teach attitudes and character. Invercargill: New Zealand Foundation for Character Education. 72 p.
- HERSH, R.H., MILLER, J.P. & FIELDING, G.D. 1980. Models of moral education. New York: Longman. 212 p.

- HILL, B.V. 1991. Values education in Australian schools. Melbourne: ACER. 186 p.
- HIGGS, P. 2002. Education for sustainable development and the virtue of education. *Acta Academica*, 34(2):138-153.
- HOFF-SOMMER, C. 1984. Ethics without virtue: moral education in America. *American scholar*, 53:381-389.
- HOFSTEDE, G. 1979. Value systems in forty countries: interpretation, validation and consequences for theory. (In Eckenberger, L.H., ed. Cross-cultural contributions to psychology. Lisse: Swets & Zeitlinger. p. 389-405.)
- HOGUE, J.D. 2002. Character education, citizenship education, and social studies. *Social studies*, 93(3):103-108, May/June.
- HOMER, M.P. & KAHLE, L.R. 1988. A structural question test of the value attitude-behavior hierarchy. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 54(4):638-646.
- HOPKINS, J.R. 1983. *Adolescence*. London: Academic Press. 494 p.
- HORSCH, P., CHENG, P-Q. & NELSON, D. 1999. Rules and rituals. Tools for creating a respectful caring learning environment community. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 81(3):223-227.
- HOY, W.K. & MISKEL, C.G. 1987. *Educational administration: Theory, research and practice*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. New York: Random House. 285p.
- HUCKLE, J. 1983. Values education through geography: a radical critique. *Journal of geography*, 82:59-63.
- HUFFMAN, H.A. 1993. Character education without turmoil. *Educational leadership*, 51(3):24-26, November.
- HURN, C.J. 1993. *The limits and possibilities of schooling: an introduction to sociology of education*. Boston Mass.: Allyn & Bacon. 315 p.
- HUXLEY, R. 2001. Four steps to teaching children values. <http://geoparent.com/family/techniques/values.htm>. [Date of access: 17 May 2005].
- INLOW, G.M. 1972. *Values in transmission*. New York: Willey. 205 p.
- IORNENGEN, K.T.A. 1999. *Alternative conceptions about sound*. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. (Dissertation - MEd.): 224 p.

- JACKSON, P.W. 1992. The enactment of the moral in what teachers do. *Curriculum inquiry*, (22):401-417.
- JACKSON, P.W., BOOSTRON, R.E. & HASSEN, D.T. 1993. The moral life of schools. San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass. 234 p.
- JACOBS, M. & GAWA, N., eds. 1996 Teaching-learning dynamics: a participative approach. Heinemann: Johannesburg. 380 p.
- JAMES, W., ed. 2000. Values, education and democracy. Report of the Working Group on Values in Education. Pretoria: Department of Education.
- JANESICK, V.J. 1998. "Stretching" Exercise for qualitative researchers. Sage Publications, Inc. 135 p.
- JANSE VAN NIEWENHUIZEN, J.S. 1999. Traffic safety education. Potchefstroom: Cenets, PU for CHE. 28 p.
- JARRETTE, J.I. The teaching of values: caring and appreciation. London Routledge. 248 p.
- JOUBERT, D.D. 1992. Reflections on social values. Pretoria: HSRC Publishers. 185 p.
- KAUCHAK, D. 1989. Learning and teaching. London: Allyn & Bacon.
- KAZEMEK, F.E. 1998. The fierce urgency of now: honoring the life of Martin Luther King Jr. in and out of the classroom. *Journal of education*, 170(1):11, March.
- KILPATRICK, W. 1992. Why Johnny can't tell right from wrong and what we can do about it. New York: Simon & Schuster. 366 p.
- KIRSTENBAUM, H. 1994. Teaching students to be moral. (Paper presented at the Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development Annual Conference, Chicago, Ill.)
- KOEHLER, M.S. & GROUWS, D.A. 1992. Mathematics teaching and their effects. (In Grouws, D.A., ed. Handbook of research on mathematics teaching and learning. New York: Macmillan. p. 115-125.)
- KOHLBERG, L. 1978. "Moral education reappraised." *The humanist*, 14-15, November/December.

- KOHLBERG, L. 1981. The philosophy moral development. Moral stages and the idea of justice, v. 1. New York: Harper & Row. 32 p.
- KOHLBERG, L. 1984. The philosophy of moral development. The nature and validity of moral stages. San Francisco: Harper & Row. 729 p.
- KOHN, A. 1991. Caring kids: the role of the schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 72:496-506.
- KOHN, A. 1996. By all available means: Cameroon and Pierce's defense of extrinsic motivators. *Review of educational research*, 66(1):1-4.
- KOK, J.L. 1970. 'n Pedagogiese beoordeling van die waarde oriëntasies by milieu-gestremde kinders. Port Elizabeth: Universiteit van Port Elizabeth. (Proefskrif - D Ed.) 195 p.
- KOSMEYER, C. 1998. Aesthetics: the big question. Malden: Blackwell. 366 p.
- KOSUNEN, E., KALTIALA-HEINO, M., RIMPELA, S. & LAIPPALA, P. 2003. Risk taking sexual behaviour and self-reported depression in middle adolescence-a school-based survey. *Child care, health & development*, 29(5):337-344.
- KRALL, C.M. & JALONGO, M.R. 1998/99. Creating a caring community in classrooms. *Childhood education*: 83-89, Winter.
- KRITZINGER, J. 1984. Die wese, aard, benutting en bevordering van ouerbetrokkenheid by die onderwys. *Die Unie*, 81(1):62-78.
- KRUGER, N. & ADAMS, H. Psychology for teaching and learning: what teachers need to know. London: Heinemann. 309 p.
- KRUGER, A.G. 1989. Bestuurstyl en skoolklimaat as determinante van ouerbetrokkenheid by formele onderwys. *Educare*, 18(1):54-62.
- KURTH-SCHAI, R. 1990. The peril and promise of childhood: ethical implications for tomorrow's teachers. *Journal of teacher education*, 42(3):196-203, May-June.
- KUTNIK, P.A. & JULES, V. 1993. Pupils perceptions of a good teacher: a developmental perspective from Trinidad and Tobago. *British journal of educational psychology*, (63):400-413.
- LEEDY, P.D. & OLMROD, J.E. 2001. Practical research: planning and design. New Jersey: Prentice Hall. 217p.

- LAMBERT, B.G., ROTHSCHILD, B.F., ALTLAND, R. & GREEN, L.B. 1978. Adolescence: transition from childhood to maturity 2nd ed. Monterey: Brooks. 376p.
- LAWRENCE, J., STEED, D. & YOUNG, P. 1989. Disruptive children – disruptive schools. London: Routledge. 263 p.
- LE ROUX, J. 1990. Communication in teaching and learning. *South African journal of education*, 10(5/6):426-430.
- LE ROUX, J. 2001. Social dynamics of the multicultural classroom. *Intercultural education*, 12(3):273-288.
- LEGGETT, T. 1999. "Do you think selling your child will give you world?" Youth talk about sex crimes. *Crime and conflict*, 18:33-36, Summer.
- LEMIN, M., POTTS, H. & WELSFORD, P. 1994. Values strategies for classroom teachers. Hawthorn, Victoria: ACER. 202 p.
- LEMING, J. 1993. Synthesis of research: in search of effective character education. *Educational leadership*, 51(3):6-71, November.
- LEPHOLLETSE, A.M.M. 2001. An analysis of factors that influence the participation of secondary science students in classroom communication. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for CHE (Dissertation - MEd.): 106 p.
- LERNER, M. 1976. Values in education. Bloomington, Ind.:Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation. 138 p
- LERNER, R.M. & SPANIER, G.B. 1980. Adolescent development. New York: McGraw-Hill. 537 p.
- LETSHUFI, J.T. 1988. The attitude of the urban black secondary school pupil towards teachers. Johannesburg: Vista University. (Dissertation - MEd.):186 p.
- LEWIS, R. 1991. The discipline dilemma. Hawthorn: Australian Council for Educational Research. 140 p.
- LEWIS, T.L., SUGA, I. & COLVIN, G. 1998. Reducing problem behavior through a school-wide system of effective behavioral support: investigation of a school-wide social skills training program and contextual interventions. *School psychology review*, 3:446-459.

- LICKONA, T. 1991. Educating for character: how schools can teach respect and responsibility. New York: Bantam Books. 457 p.
- LICKONA, T. 1993. The return to character education. *Educational leadership*, 51(3):6-11, November.
- LICKONA, T. 1996. Eleven principles of effective character education. *Journal of moral education*, 25(1):93-100.
- LICKONA, T. 1999. Religion and character education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 81(1):21-27, September.
- LICKONA, T. & DAVDSON, M. 2005. Smart and good high schools. Integrating excellence and ethics for success in school, work, and beyond. A national report. 227 p.
- LINDEQUE, B.R.G. 1996. Situation analysis. (In Jacobs, M. & GAWE, N. (eds). Teaching-learning dynamics: A participative approach. Johannesburg: Heinemann). 339p.
- LINDSAY, G. 1983. Problems of adolescence in the secondary school. London: Croom Helm. 268 p.
- LISMAN, C.D. 1991. A critical review of the moral dimensions of teaching. *Educational theory*, 41(2):227-234, Spring
- LISTON, D.P. & ZEICHNER, K.M. 1987. Reflective teacher education and moral deliberation. *Journal of teacher education*, 38(6):2-8.
- LITHULI, P.C. 1981. The philosophy foundations of black education in South Africa. Durban: Butterworths. 564 p.
- LITTLE, A. 2002. Community and racial democracy. *Journal of political ideologies*, 7(3):369, October.
- LLALE, M. 2003. Values of secondary school learners and teachers towards traffic safety education. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for CHE. (Dissertation - MEd.): 131 p.
- LOCKWOOD, A.L. 1985-6. Keeping them in the courtyard: a response to Wynne. *Educational leadership*, 43(4):9-10, December/January.

- LOFQUIST, L.H. & DAWIES, R.V. 1978. Values as second-order needs in the theory of work adjustment. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 12(1):12-19.
- LOUW, D.A., VAN EDE, D.M. & LOUW, A.E. 2002. Human development. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Cape Town: Kagiso Tertiary. 754 p.
- LOVAT, T. & SCHOFIELD, N. 1992. Moral education. *Youth studies*, 11(1):8, Autumn. Ebscohost: Academic search Elite, full display: <http://www.sa.ebsco.com>. [Date of access: 30 August 2005].
- MABEBA, M.Z. & PRINSLOO, E. 2000. Perceptions of discipline and ensuring discipline problems in secondary education. *South African journal of education*, 20(1):34-41.
- MACBETH, A. 1993. Preconceptions about parents in education. (In Munn, P. Parents and schools: customers, managers or partners. London: Routledge. p. 27.)
- MACDONALD, I.M. 1997. Violence in schools. *Alberta journal of educational research*, 43:142-156.
- MANDELA, N. 2001. Address at saamtrek: Values, education and democracy in the 21<sup>st</sup> Centaury. (Conference Report, National Conference, Kirstenbosch, 22-24, February).
- MAPHUMULO, N.C. & VAKALISA, N.C.G. 1996. Classroom management. (In Jacobs, M. & Gawe, N., eds. Teaching-learning dynamics: a participative approach. Johannesburg: Heinemann. p. 339.)
- MARE, L.S. 1985. The connection between television and the value orientation of adult whites and coloureds. Results of research undertaken from 1972 to 1985 (limited). Pretoria: Raad vir Geesteswetenskaplike Navorsing. (Verslag Komm. - 47.) 127 p.
- MARNX, E.L. 1988. Kultuur, waarde-oriëntering en gesag in die opvoeding. Johannesburg: Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit. 175 p.
- MARTIN, J.R. 1980. Teaching through encouragement. Techniques to help students learn. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice-Hall. 188 p.
- MASEKO, J., LADIKOS, A., PRINSLOO, L., NESER, J., VAN DER MERWE, E. & OVENS, M. 2003. Learners' view on access to drugs and deterrent values of present measure. *Acta criminologica*, 16(5):136-150.
- MARSHALL, C. & ROSSMAN, G.B. 1999. Designing qualitative research 3<sup>rd</sup>. Sage Publication Inc. 223p.

- MASLOVATY, N. 2000. Teachers' choice of teaching strategies for dealing with socio-moral dilemmas in the elementary school. *Journal of moral education*, 29(4):429-444.
- MAY, T. 1997. *Social research: issues, methods and process* 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Open Univesity Press. 227 p.
- McNEILL, J. 1977. *Curriculum: a comprehensive introduction*. Toronto: Little Brown. 338 p.
- MCPHAIL, P. UNGOED-THOMAS, J.R.R, CHAPMAN, H. 1975. *Learning to care*. Niles: Argus Communication. 185 p.
- McPHAIL, P. 1982. *Social and moral education: theory and practice in education*. Oxford: Blackwell. 205 p.
- MEAKIN, D.C. 1982. Moral values and physical education. *Physical education review*, 5(1):62-82.
- MILES, M.B. & HUBERMAN, A.M. 1984. Drawing valid meaning from qualitative data: Toward a shared craft. *Educational researcher*, 13(5):20-30.
- MNCWABE, M.B. 1987. *The role of philosophy in the establishment of a framework of values for educational practice in a pluralist South African society*. Empangeni: University of Zululand. (Thesis - DEd.). 405 p.
- MOLOI, K.C. 1997. *Classroom climate as an aspect of the learning environment: implications for the management of teacher competence*. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University. (Dissertation - MEd.): 104 p.
- MOLOI, K.C. 2002. *The school as a learning organisation* 2<sup>nd</sup> ed: *Reconceptualising school practices in South Africa*. Van Schaik Publishers. 110 p.
- MOLOKO, M.N. 1996. *Team management in secondary school*. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. (Thesis – D Ed.) 167 p.
- MONTEITH, J.L. de K., POSTMA, F. & COTT, M. 1988. *Die opvoeding en ontwikkeling van die adolessent*. Pretoria: Academia. 239 p.
- MOTSHOANE, J.G. 2006. *Demonstrations as a teaching – learning technique in natural science*. Potchefstroom: North – West University (M Ed. Dissertation). p 162.

- MOULDER, J. 1992. Moral education in a multi-cultural environment like South Africa's. *Acta academica*, 24(2):16-26.
- MUFUNE, P. 1999. Youth and development in Southern Africa: achievements and challenges in social sciences. *Development debate and practice*, 10(2):357-369.
- MULLER, H.P. 2004. Values of parents: interpreting results of a survey of parents in terms of contemporary social change and educational policy directions. *South African journal of education*, 24(2):159-169, May.
- MULLIGAN, K. 1998. From appropriate emotions to value. *Monist*, 81(1): (161p.), January (In Ebsco Host: Academics Search Elite, Full display: [http:// www-sa. Ebsco. Com](http://www-sa.Ebsco.Com)) ( Date of Access: 18 July 2005).
- MURGATROYD, S. & MORGAN, C. 1993. Total quality management. Bristol: Open University Press. 21 p.
- MWAMWENDA, T.S. 1995. Educational psychology: an African perspective. Durban: Butterworths. 564 p.
- NAIDOO, N., ABRAHAM, R., CREIGHTON, K., PARKER, A., PILAY, S. & WEGNER, L. 2002. Lifeskills – a platform for nurturing adolescents through the journey to self-discovery. *The South African journal of occupational therapy*, 32(2):2-5, Aug.
- NASH, R.J. 1997. Answering the "Virtue rats." A moral conversation on character education. New York: Teacher College Press. 208 p.
- NEILL, J. 1998. Practice makes learning. (Exploring the boundaries of adventure therapy: International perspective. Proceedings of the International adventure therapy conference). *Distance learning*: 5-7, Aug.
- NESSER, J., OVENS, M., VAN DER MERWE, E., MARRODI, R., LADIKOS, A. & PRINSLOO, J. 2004. The observation of bullying in schools. *Acta criminologica*, 17(1):129-135.
- NEUWMAN, W.L. 1994. Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 538 p.
- NEUWMAN, W.L. 1997. Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 575p.

- NGIDI, D.T. 1995. Attitudes of teachers towards a career in rural schools. Pretoria: University of South Africa. (Dissertation - MEd.) 189 p.
- NIKANDROV, V.D. 1993. Values education in Russian schools. *Education & society*, 11(2):43.
- NODDINGS, N. 1984. *Caring: a feminine approach to ethics and moral education*. Berkley: University of California Press. 216 p.
- NODDINGS, N. 1992. *The challenge to care for schools*. New York: Teachers College Press. 240 p.
- NODDINGS, N. 1995. Teaching themes of care. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76:675-679.
- NOGUERA, P.A. 1995. Preventing and producing violence: a critical analysis of responses to school violence. *Harvard educational review*, 65(2):189-212, Summer.
- NOJAJA, J.M. 2003. Reasons for lack of parental involvement in secondary schools in the North West Province. (Dissertation - MEd.) 203 p.
- NTULI, N.N. 1999. The creation of a healthy classroom climate at technical colleges. Johannesburg: Rand Afrikaans University. (Dissertation - MEd.) 98 p.
- NUCCI, L. 1989. *Moral development and character education: a dialogue*. New York: Cambridge University Press. 203 p.
- NUCCI, L. 2001. *Education in the moral domain*. New York: Cambridge University Press. 240 p.
- NXUMALO, B. 1993. "The culture of learning: a survey of KwaMashu schools." *Indicator SA*, 10(2):55-56, Autumn.
- OLIVA, P.F. 1988. *Developing the curriculum*. London: Scott, Foresman. 585 p.
- OLWEUS, D. 1993. *Bullying at school*. Oxford: Blackwell. 135 p.
- OOSTHUIZEN, I.J., ROUX, J.M. & VAN DER WALT, J.L. 2003. A classical approach to the restoration of discipline in South African schools. *Koers*, 68(4):373-390.
- OPWIS, K. & SPADA, H. 1994. Problem-solving and thinking: development of learning skills. (*International encyclopedia of education*, 8:4722-4727).

- OSBORNE, R.J. & WITTROCK, M.C. 1983. Learning sciences: a generative process. *Science education*, 67:489-508.
- OSER, F. 1991. Professional morality: a discourse approach. (In Kurtines, W. & Gerwitz, J., eds. *The teaching profession. Handbook of moral behavior and developments*, v. 2. Hillside, N.J.: Erlbaum. p. 191-228.)
- OSER, F. & ALTHOF, W. 1993. Trust in advance: on the professional morality of teachers. *Journal of moral education*, 22:253-272.
- OSER, F.K. 1998. Moral education and values education: the discourse perspective. (In: Wittrock, M.C. *Handbook of research on teaching*. New York: Macmillan. p. 917-941.)
- OWENS, R.G. 1987. *Organizational behavior in education*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- PAINTER, G. & CORSINI, R.J. 1990. *Effective discipline in the home and school*. Muncie: Accelerated Development. 488 p.
- PAOLITTI, D.P. 1977. The role of the teacher in moral education. *Theory into practice*, 16(2):73-81.
- PATRIDES, C.A. 1976. *Aspects of time*. Manchester: Manchester University Press. 270 p.
- PHELAN, P.A., DAVIDSON, X. & CAO, H. 1992. "Speaking up: students' perspectives on school." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 73(7):695-704, May.
- PHILLIPS, D.Z. 1979. Is moral education really necessary? *British journal of educational studies*, 27(1):41-56.
- PHIRI, M.D. 2003. *Values and attitudes of primary school learners towards traffic safety and traffic safety education*. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education (Dissertation - MEd.) 89 p.
- PINTRICH, P.R. & SCHUNK, D.H. 1996. *Motivation in teaching: theory, research, and application*. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice-Hall. 434 p.
- PISTORIUS, P. 1984. *Padlans met die pedagogiek*. Potchefstroom: Pro Rege Pers. 442 p.

- PLUNKETT, D. 1990. Secular and spiritual values-grounds for hope in education. London: Routledge. 156 p.
- POPKEWITZ, T.S. 1984. Paradigm and ideology in educational research: the social function of the intellectual. London: Falmer. 208 p.
- POSNER, B.Z. & MUNSON, J.M. 1981. Gender differences in managerial values. *Psychological reports*, 49(3):867-881, December.
- PRETORIUS, J.W.M. 1988. Opvoeding, samelewing, jeug. 2de hers. dr. Pretoria: an Schaik. 256 p.
- PRIMACK, R. 1986. No substitute for critical thinking: a response to Wynne. *Educational leadership*: 12-14, January.
- PRITCHARD, I. 1988. Character education: research prospects and problems. *American journal of education*, 96(4):469-495.
- PURPLE, D. & RYAN, K. 1975. Moral education: where sages fear to tread. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 56:659-662.
- PURPLE, D. & RYAN, K. 1976. Moral education: it comes within the territory. Berkley: McCutchan. 424 p.
- RADEMACHER, J.A., CALLAHAN, K. & PEDERSON,-SEELYE, V.A. 1998. How do your classroom measure up?. Guidelines for developing an effective management routine. *Intervention in school and clinic*, 33(5):284-289.
- REBER, A.S. 1995. The penguin dictionary for psychology. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Penguin. 834 p.
- REECE, B.L. & BRANDT, R. 1990. Effective human relations in organizations. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin. 524 p.
- REID, A. 1998. The values of education. *Journal of philosophy of education*, 32(3):331.
- RENS, J.A. 2005. Riglyne vir waarde-opvoeding in Suid-Afrikaanse skole. Potchefstroom: oordwes-Universiteit, Potchefstroomkampus. (Proefskrif - PhD.) 119 p.
- RESNICK, L.B. 1987. Learning in school and out. *Educational researcher*, 16:13-20.

- Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-9 (Schools) Policy overview. Department of Education. Pretoria: Government Printer. 2002.
- RHODES, B.D. 1997. Die onderrigleier se rol ten opsigte van vraagstukke rondom religie en etiek binne skoolverband. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch. (Dissertation - MEd.)
- RHODES, B.D. 2004. Values and belief system in outcomes based education in a diverse school environment. Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch. (Thesis - PhD.) 183 p.
- RHODES, B.D. & ROUX, C. 2003. Identifying values and beliefs in outcome-based curriculum. *South African journal of education*, 24(1):25-30, Feb.
- RIM, Y. 1970. Values and attitudes. *Personality*, 1(3):243-246.
- ROBB, W. 1998. What is values education and so what? *Journal of values education*, 1(1):1-13.
- ROGERS, B. 1994. The language of discipline: a practical approach to classroom management. Plymouth: Northcode House. 168 p.
- ROGERS, D. & WEBB, J. 1990. The ethics of caring in teacher education. *Journal of teacher education*, 42(3):173-181, May-June.
- ROKEACH, M. 1973. The nature of human values. New York: Free Press. 438 p.
- ROKEACH, M. & BALL-ROKEACH, S.J. 1989. Stability and change in American value priorities, 1968-1981. *American psychologist*, 44(5):775-784.
- ROSSOUW, J.P. 2003. Learner discipline in South African schools. *Koers*, 68(4):413-435.
- RUHELA, S.P. 1990. Human values in education. New Delhi: Sterling. 243p.
- RYAN, K. 1986. The new moral education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 68:228-233.
- RYAN, K. 1988. The teacher education and moral education. *Journal of teacher education*, 39(5):18-23.
- RYAN, K. 1989. The new moral education. *Religion and public education*, 16(3): 371-380.

- RYAN, K. 1991. Achievement, hedonism and the teacher. *School of education review*, 3(1):6-10.
- SCHMIDTCHEN, G. 1987. Freedom of control in a world of changing values: the West German Experience. *Schweizerische zeitschrift fur psygologie*, 4(1/2):123-131.
- SCHOEMAN, M.N. 1990. Sexual education among black South African teenagers: what can reasonably be expected? *Curationis*, 13(3/4):13-26, December.
- SCHOFIELD, H. 1973. *The philosophy of education: an introduction*. London: Unwin. 288 p.
- SCHWARTZ, S.H. 1992. Universal in the content and structure of values: theoretical advances and empirical testes in 20 countries. (In Zanna, M., ed. *Advances in experimental social psychology*, v. 25. New York: Academic Press. p. 1-66.)
- SCHWARTZ, S.H. & BILSKY, W. 1987. Toward a universal psychological structure of human values. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 53(3):550-562.
- SEIDMAN, S.N., MOSHER, W.O. & ARAL, S.D. 1994. Predictor of high-risk behavior in unmarried American women: adolescent environment as a risk factor. *Journal of adolescent health*, 15:126-132.
- SHAPIRO, S. 1993. Strategies that create a positive classroom climate. *Clearing house*, 67(2):91-97.
- SHARP, A.M. 1995. Philosophy for children and the development of ethical values. *Early child development and care*, 107(26):45-55, September.
- SHERMAN, R.R. & WEBB, R.B. 1988. *Qualitative research in education: focus and methods*. London: Falmer. 217 p.
- SHULMAN, L.S. 1987. Knowledge and teaching: foundations for a new reform. *Harvard educational review*, 57(1):1-22.
- SIKHAHVAKHAVHA, P.M. 1999. Didactical-professional in-service training and development needs of secondary school teachers in a region of the Northern Province. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. (Dissertation - MEd.) 139 p.
- SILICOCK, P. & DUNCAN, D. 2001. Values acquisition and values education: Some proposals. *British journal of educational studies*, 49(3):242-259, September.

- SITHOLE, S. 1996. The education crisis in KwaZulu Natal: a case study of Amandlethu Public School. Dalbridge: University of Natal, Education Policy Unit. 35 p.
- SKINNER, B. 1990. Teaching skills. *Paidonomia*, 16(2):72-76.
- SLIWIACK, S.A. & FRISSEL, S. 1987. Some value orientations and their educational implications in American society. *Education*, 108(2):155-165.
- SMITH, A. & MONTGOMERY, A. 1997. Values in education in Northern Ireland. Belfast: Northern Ireland Council for Curriculum, Examination and Assessment. 189 p.
- SMITH, M.B. 1978. Psychology and values. *Journal of social issues*, 34(4):181-184.
- SMITH, M.E. 2003. The bullying/victim problem in schools. *Acta criminologica*, 16(3):81-88.
- SMYTH, J.C. 1996. Environmental values and education. (In Halstead, J.M. & Taylor, M.J. Values in education and education in values. London: Falmer. p. 55-65.)
- SNYMAN, C.R. 1999. Strafreg. 4de uitg. Durban: Butterworth. 632 p.
- SOLOMON, D., WATSON, M., SCHAPS, E., BATTISH, V. & SOLOMON, J. 1989. Cooperative learning as part of a comprehensive classroom program designed to promote prosocial development. (In Sharan, S., ed. Cooperative learning: theory and research. New York: Praeger. p. 173-202.)
- SOUTH AFRICA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE). 1997. Curriculum 2005. Discussion Document, April 1997. Pretoria: Department of Education. .
- SOUTH AFRICA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE). 2000a. History/archeology panel to the minister of education. <http://www.gov.za/reports/2000/hapanelr.pdf>. [Date of access: 14 September 2004].
- SOUTH AFRICA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE). 2000b. Values, education and democracy - school-based research report. Pretoria: Department of Education.
- SOUTH AFRICA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE). 2000c. Implementation plan for Tirisano. Working together to build an education and training plan for South Africa. Pretoria: Department of Education.
- SOUTH AFRICA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE). 2000d. Working group on values. Draft document, May 2000. Pretoria: Department of Education.

SOUTH AFRICA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE). 2001. Manifesto on values and democracy 2001. Cape Town: Cape Argus Teach Fund for the Department of Education.

SOUTH AFRICA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE). 2002a. Norms and standards for educators. Pretoria: Department of Education.

SOUTH AFRICA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION (DoE).2002b. Revised National Curriculum Statement, grades R-9 (Schools). Policy overview. Pretoria: Government Printer.

SPATES, J.L. 1983. The sociology of values. *Annual reviews sociology*, (9):27-49.

STEERS, R.M. 1984. Introduction to organizational behavior. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Texas: Scott Foresman. 668 p.

STEPHENS, R. 1998. Safe schools planning. (In Delbert, E., Hamburg, B. & Williams, K., eds. Violence in American schools: a new perspective. New York: Cambridge University press. p. 253-289.)

STEPHENSON, J., LING, L., BURMAN, E. & COOPER, M. 1995. Values in education. London: Routledge. 223 p.

STRAUGHAN, R. & WRINGLEY, J. 1980. Values and education. London: Harper. 206 p.

STRIKE, K.L.A. 1996. The moral responsibilities of educators. Handbook of research on teachers: a project of the association of teacher educators. New York: Macmillan. 892 p.

SUAREZ, M., PIAS, R., MEMBIELA, P. & DAPIA, D. 1988. Classroom environment in the implementation of an innovative curriculum project in science education. *Journal of research in science teaching*, 35(6):655-671.

SUGARMAN, B. 1973. The school and moral development. London: Helm. 285 p.

SUH, B. & TRAIGER, J. 1999. Teaching values through elementary social studies and literature curricula. *Journal of education*, 119(4):723, Summer.

TAPLIN, M. 2002. Can we, should we, and do we integrate values education into adult distance education? Opinions of stakeholders at the Open University of Hong-Kong. *International journal of lifelong education*, 21(2):142-161, March-April.

- TAYLOR, H.E. 1994. Values education in Europe: a comparative overview of a survey of 26 countries in 1993. Slough: NFER. (Consortium of institutions for development and research in Education in Europe series, v. 8). 207 p.
- TAYLOR, M.J. 1996. Voicing their values: pupils' moral and cultural experience. (*In* Halstead, J.M. & Taylor, M.J. Values in education and education in values. London: Falmer. p. 121-129.)
- TAYLOR, H.E & LARSON, S. 1999. Social and emotional learning in middle school. *Clearing house*, 72(6):331-336, July.
- THERON, P.F. & BOTHA, J.H. 1990. Guidelines for the headmaster. Pretoria: Academica. 285p.
- THOMAS, M. 1989. A proposed taxonomy of moral values. *Journal of moral education*, 18(1):60-66.
- THOMAS, B.R. 1990. The school as a moral learning community. (*In* Goodlad, J.I., Soder, R. & Irotnik, K.A. The moral dimensions of teaching. San Francisco: Jossey Bass. p. 121-129.)
- THOMAS, R.M. 1999. The encyclopedia of human development and education theory, research and studies. Oxford: Pergamon. 519 p.
- THOMAS, J.R. & NELSON, J.K. 1996. Research methods in physical activity 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Human kinetics. 487p.
- THOMPSON, A.A. 1992. Readings in strategic management. Boston, Mass.: Irwin. 665 p.
- TONELSON, S.W. 1981. The importance of teacher self-concept to create a healthy psychological environment for learning. *Education*, 102(1):96-100.
- TICKLE, L. 2000. Opinion on the topic values education in schools. *Cambridge journal of education*, 30(2):165, June.
- TIRRI, K. 1999. Teachers' perceptions of moral dilemmas at school. *Journal of moral education*, 28(1):31-47.
- TITUS, D.N. 1994. Values education in American secondary schools. ERIC\_NO-ED381423. Available url: <http://www.hi.ho.ne.jp/taku77/refer/titus.htm> Date of access: 13 June 2005.

- TOMASSELLI, J.M. & GOLDEN, J.P. 1996. The ABCD's of valuing. *NASSP-bulletin*, 80(579):66-73, April.
- TONELSON, S.W. 1981. The importance of teacher self-concept to create a healthy psychological environment for learning. *Education*, 102:96-100.
- TRIANDIS, H.C. 1971. Attitude and attitude change. Toronto: Wiley. 224 p.
- TRIANDIS, H.C. 1994. Culture and social behavior. New York: McGraw-Hill. 330 p.
- VAN ASWEGEN, J.D. 1993. Die waarde en waarde orientasies van gekommitteerde dogters in kindersorgskole. Rande Afrikaanse Universiteit (M. Ed verhandeling).
- VAN AARDWEG, E.M. 1987. Possible causes of school violence. *South African journal of education*, 7:223-230.
- VAN DEN AARDWEG, E.M. 1987. Possible causes of school violence. *South Africa journal of education*, 7:37-45.
- VAN DER MERWE, E.L. 1999. Traffic safety in formal education. Potchefstroom: Cenets.
- VAN DER WESTHUIZEN, P.C., LOOTS, Z.B., MENTZ, P.J., OOSTHUIZEN, I.J. & THERON, A.M.C. 1992. Die beginneronderwyser: 'n bestuursmatig-juridiese perspektief. Durban: Butterworth. 205 p.
- VAN DYK, J. 1990. The practice of teaching christianly. (In Fowler, S.S., Van Brummelin, H. & Van Dyk, J. Christian schooling: education for freedom. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education. Wetenskaplike bydraes van die PU vir CHO. Reeks F: Instituut vir Reformatoriese Studies, Reeks F 9: Versamelwerke no. 29. p. 155-169.)
- VAN NIEKERK, P.J. 1987. Waarde as norme en as meta-norme beginsels. *Koers*, 52(1):48-73.
- VAN RENSBURG, C.J.J. & LANDMAN, W.A. 1992. Fundamenteel-pedagogiese begripsverklaringe/Notes on fundamental-pedagogic concepts. Pretoria: N.G. Kerkboekhandel. 561 p.
- VAN SCHALKWYK, O.T. & OOSTHUIZEN, I.J. 1994. School and community involvement. Pretoria: Van Schaik.

- VENTER, M.E. 1982. Die rol van waarde en die self-konsep op die belewingsproblematiek van die jeugde. Pretoria: Universiteit van Suid Afrika. (Proefskrif - MEd.) 185 p.
- VERWEY, A.M. & FOUICHE, M.M. 1987. Algemene lewenswaarde: 'n loodsstudie by Afrikaanssprekende universiteitstudente. *Tydskrif vir bedryfsielkunde*, 13(1):6-14.
- VERY, J.D. 1982. Values in pedotherapy. *Educare*, 12(2):22-29, August.
- VEUGELERS, W. 2000. Different ways of teaching values. *Educational review*, 52(1):37-45.
- VREKEN, N.J AND VREKEN, R. 1989. Kommunikasievrees in die klaskamer (referaat gelewer tydens die 13de Nasionale Konvensie van Onderwysers in Wiskunde, Natuur- en Skeikunde en Biologie). Pretoria.
- VREKEN, N.J. 1994. A classroom communication model. (Paper read at the Regional conference of teacher education for teaching across the curriculum in a second language, Harare, University of Zimbabwe, 6-8 December. 7 p.)
- VREKEN, N.J. 1996. Klaskamerkommunikasievaardigheide. 'n Werkboek vir B.Ed studente. Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. 123 p.
- WAGHID, Y. 2002. Educational development in rural schools: exemplifying the personal dimension of community. *South African journal of education*, 22(1):1-5.
- WASSENAAR, W. 1989. The teaching of values in multicultural/ non-racial school. Johannesburg: Randse Afrikaanse Universiteit. (BEd. project.) 219 p.
- WEBSTER, H. 1997. Can values be taught? <http://www.Findarticles.com/cf-dis/m 104/n3 v75/9118685/p4/article.Jhtml? Term.> [Date of access: 12 July 2004].
- WEETO, M.H. 1997. Problems principals experience in optimizing parental involvement in school activities. Potchefstroom: PU vir CHO. (Mini-Dissertation - MEd.) 132p.
- WEISTEIN, R. 1991. "Expectations and high school change: teacher researcher collaboration to prevent school failure." *American journal of community psychology*, 19(3):333-363.
- WENTZEL, K.R. 2002. Are effective teachers like good parents? Teaching styles and students adjustment in early adolescence. *Child development*, 1(73):287-301, January/ February.

- WESTERHOFF, J. 1980. Values for today's children. *Religious education*, 73(3):249, May/June.
- WHENDALL, K. & GLYN, Y. 1989. *Effective classroom learning*. New York: Blackwell. 189 p.
- WINDMILLER, M., LAMBERT, N. & TURIEL, E. 1980. *Moral development and socialization*. London: Allyn & Bacon. 264p.
- WISEMAN, D. 1993. A dialogue on the nature and extent of the problem. *ORBIT*, 24:2-5.
- WOLHUTER, C.C. & STEYN, S.C. 2003. Learner discipline at school: a comparative educational perspective. *Koers*, 68(4):521-538.
- WOODBIDGE, N.B. 1990. Character education: some challenging prospects and problems. *South African journal of education*, 10(5/6):525-529.
- WOODBIDGE, N.B. & BARNARD, F. 1990. Values education: highly suspect or highly significant? *Educare*, 19(1&2):54-63.
- WOOLFOLK, A. 1998. *Educational psychology*. Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon. 592 p.
- WRINGE, C. 1998. Reasons, values and community in moral education. *British journal of educational studies*, 46(3):278-288, September.
- WYNNE, E.A. & WALBERG, H.J. 1985/86. The complementary goals of character development and academic excellence. *Educational leadership*: 15-18, December/January.
- YOUNG, T.R. 1972. *New sources of self*. New York: Pergamon. 114 p.
- ZABEL, R.H. & ZABEL, M.K. 1996. *Classroom management in context*. Boston, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin. 395 p.
- ZECHA, G. 1990. Which values are conducive to human survival? A Bunge-test of Bunge-ethics." (In Weingarter, P. & Dorn, G., eds. *Studies on Mario Bunge's treatise*. Amsterdam: Rodolph. 720 p.)
- ZINKHAN, G.M. & BALAZS, A.L. 1993. The institution of advertising predictors of cross-national differences in consumer preference. *Journalism and mass communication quarterly*, 75(3):53-54, Autumn.

ZUK, G.H. 1980. Values, systems and psychopathology in family therapy. *International journal of family therapy*, 1(2):133-151.

ZULU, B.M., URBAN, G., VAN DER MERWE, A. & VAN DER WALT, J.L. 2004. Violence as an impediment to a culture of teaching and learning in some South African schools. *South African journal of education*, 24(2):170-175.

# ANNEXURES

## ANNEXURE A: QUESTIONNAIRE ON CHARACTER EDUCATION: TEACHERS

In this questionnaire questions are asked about promising practices to further character education. We want to determine the extent to which certain practices are implemented in classrooms. There are no “correct” or “wrong” answers; we just want to get a clear picture of what is happening in classrooms regarding character education.

This questionnaire is filled out anonymously and your name will not be mentioned in the final report. It is not compulsory to take part in this investigation, but your participation will be mostly appreciated as it will help to further character education at your school.

### Section a: biographical information

School:.....

Medium (language) of instruction: .....

Gender:

Male	
Female	

Marital status:

Single	
Married	
Divorced	
Widow/widower	

Age:

20-29	
30-39	
40-49	
50-59	
60+	

Mother tongue:

English	
Afrikaans	
Setswana	
Other	

Teaching experience (years):

0-4	
5-9	
10-19	
20-29	
30+	

Highest academic qualification:

Certificate	
Diploma	
Degree	
Post graduate	

Professional qualification(s):

Teaching certificate	
Teaching diploma	
Post graduate teaching diploma/certificate	

**Section B: Professional character**

Often teachers are divided about the role they have to play in the classroom. Therefore, please give your sincere answers. The options for answering the questions are as follows:

- 1 = not at all/never      2 = some times/now and then      3 = a lot/often  
 4 = completely/always      5 = the question is not clear/not applicable

To what extent (how often) ...

	1	2	3	4	5
1. do you put in extra effort to prepare for your lessons?					
2. do you put in extra effort to make your lessons interesting?					
3. do you talk to and listen attentively to learners who want to talk to you?					
4. do you encourage learners to give their opinions or discuss their problems with you?					
5. are you trustworthy and fair towards each learner?					
6. are you really interested in and do you help learners with the problems of life?					
7. are you really interested in and do you help learners with learning problems?					
8. if you suspect something, would you ask learners about problems they possibly have?					
9. do you put in extra effort to mark your learners work and give feedback to them on their efforts?					
10. do you encourage your students to work extra hard?					
11. do you encourage learners to behave correctly?					
12. are you a role model for your learners concerning industriousness?					

- 13. are you a role model for your learners concerning correct behaviour?
- 14. do you consider your private life as part of your professional life?
- 15. do you consider character education as part of your work as subject teacher?


If you want to explain or qualify some of your responses, please do so:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

**Section C: Promising practices for character education**

**1. Principle 1: A shared vision**

1.1 To what extent/how often do you set higher than normal expectations for your learners?

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

1.2 (a) Do you have a motto for your classroom?

Yes	No	Unsure
-----	----	--------

(b) If "yes": What is your motto?

Motto: .....

.....

.....

1.3 (a) Do you have a written code of conduct for your classroom?

Yes	No	Unsure
-----	----	--------

(b) If "yes": Briefly state what it is about.

Code of conduct: .....

.....

.....

1.4 (a) Do you have certain traditions in your class to further academic excellence and/or ethic behaviour?

Yes	No	Unsure
-----	----	--------

(b) If "yes": please give some examples.

Examples: .....

.....

1.5 Do you have any written agreement with the parents (care takers) of your learners in which they promise from their side to help in the furthering of their children's academic excellence and ethic behaviour?

Yes	No	Unsure

## 2. Principle 2: Teaching in line with the latest theories on character education

To what extent/how often ...

2.1 do you know Kohlberg's theory on moral development?

2.2 are you up to date with research results on character education?

2.3 do you keep your learners' parents informed about the latest theories on character education?

2.4 do you conduct action research in your classes on values and/or character?

2.5 does your school provide the necessary literature on values and/or character education?

1	2	3	4	5

## 3. Principle 3: A democratic classroom

To what extent/how often ...

3.1 do you involve your learners in decision on matters like class rules?

3.2 do you encourage your learners to take part in classroom discussions and have their say?

3.3 do you encourage your learners to differ from you and other learners in a respectful way?

1	2	3	4	5

3.4 do you encourage (and help) learners to solve conflict between them?

--	--	--	--	--

3.5 do you have class meetings to discuss common issues?

--	--	--	--	--

3.6 do you use small group discussions to discuss issues on classroom management or climate?

--	--	--	--	--

#### 4. Principle 4: Personal responsibility for sustainable development

To what extent/how often ...

4.1 do you help your learners to formulate a philosophy of life for themselves?

--	--	--	--	--

4.2 do you encourage learners to reflect on the mistakes they made?

--	--	--	--	--

4.3 do you encourage learners to move out of their comfort zones and explore more/deeper things in life?

--	--	--	--	--

4.4 do you encourage learners to do more than what is required by the text book/curriculum?

--	--	--	--	--

4.5 do you encourage learners to deliver work of such high standard that they can be proud of it?

--	--	--	--	--

4.6 do you create opportunities where the learners can exhibit their work (e.g. projects) to a larger audience (other classes, parents, etc.)?

--	--	--	--	--

4.7 do you expect from the learners to take their own decisions about the learning tasks (e.g. how much homework they are going to do, when to hand it in, etc.)?

--	--	--	--	--

**5. Principle 5: Collective responsibility**

To what extent/how often ...

- 5.1 is there a caring atmosphere among the learners in your classes?
- 5.2 do you encourage positive peer pressure in your classes?
- 5.3 do the learners in your classes reprimand each other when they don't co-operate or break class rules?
- 5.4 is there a competitive and everyone-for-himself climate in your classroom?
- 5.5 do you encourage learners to assist/help one another with learning tasks ("partners in learning")?


5.6 What measures do you take in your classroom to create a caring climate and collective responsibility for each other? Please name a few of these measures:

- (1).....
- (2).....
- (3).....

**6. Principle 6: Dealing with difficult issues**

To what extent/how often ...

- 6.1 do you encourage your learners to debate difficult moral issues (e.g. drinking problems, drugs, violence, crime, etc).
- 6.2 do you conduct personal discussions with learners with regard their moral behaviour?
- 6.3 do you appoint study groups to look into moral issues and come up with possible solutions?


6.4 do you make use of debates to help your learners to critical debate different viewpoints?

--	--	--	--	--

6.5 do you spent time in class and do you encourage learners to talk about controversial issues in class?

--	--	--	--	--

**7. In conclusion**

If you want to discuss any of the questions in more depth, want to qualify some of your responses or share with us your experience on some of the issues, please feel free to do so:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much for your co-operation!

## ANNEXURE B: QUESTIONNAIRE ON CHARACTER EDUCATION: LEARNERS

In this questionnaire questions are asked about promising practices to further character education. We want to determine the extent to which certain practices are implemented in classrooms. There are no “correct” or “wrong” answers, we just want to get a clear picture of what is happening in classrooms regarding character education.

This questionnaire is filled out anonymously and your name will not be mentioned in the final report. It is not compulsory to take part in this investigation, but your participation will be mostly appreciated as it will help to further character education at your school.

### Section A: Biographical information

School:.....

Medium (language) of instruction: .....

Gender:

Male	
Female	

Grade:

8	
9	
10	
11	
12	

Mother tongue:

English	
Afrikaans	
Setswana	
Other	

**Section B: Professional character of teachers**

Often teachers are divided about the role they have to play in the classroom. Therefore, please give your sincere answers. The options for answering the questions are as follows:

- 1 = not at all/never      2 = some times/now and then      3 = a lot/often  
 4 = completely/always      5 = the question is not clear/not applicable

To what extent (how often) ...

	1	2	3	4	5
1. do your teachers put in extra effort to prepare for their lessons?					
2. do your teachers put in extra effort to make their lessons interesting?					
3. do your teachers talk to and listen attentively to learners who want to talk to them?					
4. do your teachers encourage learners to give their opinions or discuss their problems with them?					
5. are your teachers trustworthy and fair towards each learner?					
6. are your teachers really interested in and do they help learners with the problems of life?					
7. are your teachers really interested in and do they help learners with learning problems?					
8. if your teachers suspect something, would they ask learners about problems they possibly have?					
9. do your teachers put in extra effort to mark your work and give feedback to you on your efforts?					
10. do your teachers encourage you to work extra hard?					
11. do your teachers encourage you to behave correctly?					

- 12. are your teachers role models for you as learners concerning industriousness?
- 13. are your teachers role models for you as learners concerning correct behaviour?
- 14. do your teachers' private life (outside school) differ from their professional life?
- 15. do your teachers do character education as part of their work as subject teachers?


If you want to explain or qualify some of your responses, please do so:

.....

.....

.....

.....

section c: promising practices for character education

**1. Principle 1: A shared vision**

1.1 To what extent/how often do your teacher set higher than normal expectations for you?

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

1.2 (a) Do your teachers have a motto for your classroom?

Yes	No	Unsure
-----	----	--------

(b) If "yes": What is the motto?

Motto: .....

.....

.....

1.3 (a) Do your teachers have a written code of conduct for your classroom?

Yes	No	Unsure
-----	----	--------

(b) If "yes": Briefly state what it is about.

Code of conduct: .....

.....

1.4 (a) Do your teachers have certain traditions in your class to further academic excellence and/or ethic behaviour?

Yes	No	Unsure
-----	----	--------

(b) If "yes": please give some examples.

Examples: .....

.....

.....

1.5 Do your teachers have any written agreement with your parents (care takers) in which they (parents) promise from their side to help in the furthering of your academic excellence and ethic behaviour?

Yes	No	Unsure
-----	----	--------

**2. Principle 2: Teaching in line with the latest theories on character education**

To what extent/how often ...

2.4 do your teachers conduct action research (questionnaires, interviews, discussions) in your classes on values and/or character?

1	2	3	4	5

### 3. Principle 3: A democratic classroom

To what extent/how often ...

	1	2	3	4	5
3.1 do your teachers involve you in decisions on matters like class rules?					
3.2 do your teachers encourage you to take part in classroom discussions and have your say?					
3.3 do your teachers encourage you to differ from them and other learners in a respectful way?					
3.4 do your teachers encourage (and help) you to solve conflict between you?					
3.5 do your teachers have class meetings to discuss common issues?					
3.6 do your teachers use small group discussions for you to discuss issues on classroom management or climate?					

### 4. Principle 4: Personal responsibility for sustainable development

To what extent/how often ...

4.1 do your teachers help you to formulate a philosophy of life for yourself?					
4.2 do your teachers encourage you to reflect on the mistakes you made?					
4.3 do your teachers encourage you to move out of your comfort zones and explore more/deeper things in life?					
4.4 do your teachers encourage you to do more than what is required by the text book/curriculum?					
4.5 do your teachers encourage you to deliver work of such high standard that you can be proud of it?					

4.6 do your teachers create opportunities where you can exhibit your work (e.g. projects) to a larger audience (other classes, parents, etc.)?

--	--	--	--	--

4.7 do your teachers expect from you to take your own decisions about the learning tasks (e.g. how much homework you are going to do, when to hand it in, etc.)?

--	--	--	--	--

**5. Principle 5: Collective responsibility**

To what extent/how often ...

5.1 is there a caring atmosphere among the learners in your class?

--	--	--	--	--

5.2 do your teachers encourage positive peer pressure in your classes?

--	--	--	--	--

5.3 do the learners in your class reprimand each other when they don't co-operate or break class rules?

--	--	--	--	--

5.4 is there a competitive and everyone-for-himself climate in your classroom?

--	--	--	--	--

5.5 do your teachers encourage you to assist/help one another with learning tasks ("partners in learning")?

--	--	--	--	--

5.6 What measures do your teachers take in your classroom to create a caring climate and collective responsibility for each other? Please name a few of these measures:

(1).....

(2).....

(3).....

**6. Principle 6: Dealing with difficult issues**

To what extent/how often ...

- 6.1 do your teachers encourage you to debate difficult moral issues (e.g. drinking problems, drugs, violence, crime, etc.).
- 6.2 do your teachers conduct personal discussions with learners with regard their moral behaviour?
- 6.3 do your teachers appoint study groups to look into moral issues and come up with possible solutions?
- 6.4 do your teachers make use of debates to help you as learners to critical debate different viewpoints?
- 6.5 do your teachers encourage learners to talk about controversial issues in class?


**7. In conclusion**

If you want to discuss any of the questions in more depth, want to qualify some of your responses or share with us your experience on some of the issues, please feel free to do so:

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thank you very much for your co-operation!

## ANNEXURE C: LETTERS FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH

---

P.O. Box 20937  
Noordbrug  
2522  
083 5255 325  
15 November 2005

Southern Regional Director  
Private Bag x 919  
Greyling Street  
Potchefstroom

Sir

### **Solicitation for permission to conduct research**

I am a teacher at Oude Dorp Intermediate school and am researching for a Ph.D. thesis. The topic of my study is "the teachers' influence on the value orientation of learners in secondary schools". The research will be conducted to all thirteen (13) secondary schools in Potchefstroom area.

Prof. N.J. Vreken of the faculty of Education of the North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus), is the promoter of this study and if you want to enquire concerning the research, you are welcome to contact him personally at 018 299 1894 during office hours.

I will be happy if you grant me the permission.

Thank you very much  
A.M.M. Lephalletse (Mrs)  
*A.M.M. Lephalletse*



WEST PROVINCE

Department of Education  
Lefapha La Thuto  
Departement van Onderwys

Private Bag X1256  
Teemane Building  
8 Greyling Street  
POTCHEFSTROOM 2520  
TEL: 018 - 299 8216  
FAX: 018 - 294 8234  
Enquiries: MR H MOTARA  
e-mail: hmotara@nwed.gov.za

CES: PROFESSIONAL AND EDUCATIONAL SUPPORT SERVICE - OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR  
SOUTHERN REGION

15 November 2005

Mrs A M M Lephalletse  
P O Box 20937  
Noordbrug  
2522

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN ALL THIRTEEN SECONDARY  
SCHOOLS IN POTCHEFSTROOM AREA  
Topic: The Teachers' influence on the value orientation of learners in  
secondary schools

The above matter refers.

Permission is herewith granted to conduct a research in all thirteen (13) secondary  
school in Potchefstroom area under the following provisions:

- the activities you undertake at school should not tamper with the normal  
process of learning and teaching;
- you inform the principals of your identified schools of your impending visit and  
activity;
- you provide my office with a report in respect of your findings from the  
research.
- you obtain prior permission from this office before availing your findings for  
public or media consumption.

Wishing you well in your endeavour.

Thanking you

DR S H MVULA  
ACTING REGIONAL EXECUTIVE MANAGER  
SOUTHERN REGION



Re a dira mo dikolong  Dsa work in ons skole  Re a sebensa dikolong  
Siyasebenz' ezikoleni  Ha tšaba eswikolweni  Re a thunya ezikoleni  Siya sebenta ezikoleni  
 Siyasebenz' ezikolweni  Siya befezisa ezikolweni Confidential



