

**A CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL TO ENHANCE  
EDUCATOR SECURITY – A LABOUR LAW PERSPECTIVE**

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M. Ed.**

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the Potchefstroom Campus**

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In the words of Thomas Edison, “If we all did the things we are capable of doing, we would literally astound ourselves”. Completing this thesis while “life went on”, was a tremendous challenge. Bringing it to its completion amidst an often harrowing schedule was certainly astounding, but also proof once again of how any achievement is impossible without the support of others.

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# DECLARATION



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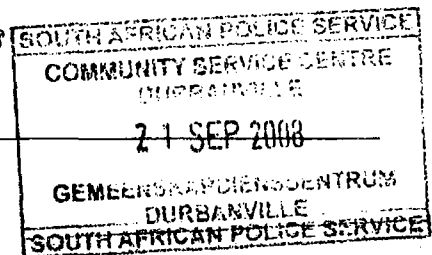
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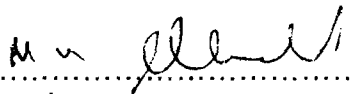
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Title: A creativity development model to enhance educator security – a labour law perspective

  
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## ABSTRACT

### **A creativity development model to enhance educator security – a labour law perspective**

World-wide research has shown that educators are suffering physical as well as psychological symptoms because of their experiences in their school environment. A large body of legislation, including the Bill of Rights, general and education legislation protect the rights of educators to working conditions which are safe and healthy. It seems clear from the literature that protecting the security of the educator implies the inclusion of psychological security. One of the aims of this research was to establish to what extent legislation succeeds in protecting the psychological security of educators at school. The study showed that although a large body of legislation exists, a lacuna exists in the application of this legislation. Furthermore, the research showed that educators are not experiencing this protection in actuality, are suffering several stress symptoms and are generally not aware of the rights which should protect them. The findings revealed that learner discipline and work overload were experienced as the main causes of psychological insecurity for participating educators.

During the research it was investigated whether the development of creative skills could enhance the ability of educators to cope with the psychological insecurities in their workplace. Further aims of the study were to design a theoretical creativity development model and to determine the characteristics of an effective programme to enhance workplace psychological security in education. The literature and findings revealed that creativity programmes which could *inter alia* enhance attitude and general health should include aspects such as problem solving processes, the development of positive attitudes and the enhancement of the psychological work environment. The study also includes the design of a creativity programme which can be applied in the participating and similar schools in order to develop creativity skills which may be able to assist educators to cope more effectively in their work environment.

(Key concepts: *workplace security, psychological insecurity, legislation, the Bill of Rights, stress, creativity, creativity models*)

## UITTREKSEL

### **'n Kreatiwiteitsontwikkelingsmodel vir die bevordering van opvoeder-sekuriteit - 'n arbeidsregtelike perspektief**

Navorsing wêreldwyd toon dat opvoeders tans onder groot druk verkeer in hulle skoolomgewings en dat hulle gevolglik fisies en sielkundig daaronder ly. Daar bestaan 'n groot versameling wetgewing, o.a. die Handves van Menseregte, algemene en onderwyswetgewing wat die regte van opvoeders binne hulle werkplekke beskerm wat betref veiligheid en gesondheid. Dit is duidelik volgens die literatuur, dat as daar verwys word na die beskerming van die veiligheid van opvoeders, dit ook sielkundige sekuriteit insluit. Een van die doelwitte van hierdie studie was om vas te stel in watter mate wetgewing daarin slaag om die sielkundige sekuriteit van opvoeders binne die skool te beskerm. Die studie het getoon dat, alhoewel daar 'n wye versameling wetgewing in plek is, daar 'n leemte bestaan wat die toepassing van hierdie wetgewing betref. Die studie het verder getoon dat opvoeders in die praktyk nie die beskerming ondervind wat deur wetgewing verseker word nie, dat hulle verskeie stresssimptome toon en grotendeels onbewus is van hulle regte in die werkplek. Die bevindinge het getoon dat leerderdisipline en werklading die grootste oorsake van sielkundige insekuriteit en stres vir deelnemende opvoeders is.

Tydens die navorsing is ondersoek of die ontwikkeling van kreatiwiteitsvaardighede opleiers kan help om die insekureite in hulle werkomgewing beter te hanteer. 'n kreatiwiteits-ontwikkelingsmodel is ontwerp en daar is vasgestel waaruit 'n effektiewe program moet bestaan om die sielkundige sekuriteit van opvoeders te verhoog. Volgens die literatuur behoort sulke kreatiwiteitsprogramme, wat *inter alia* positiewe houdings en algemene gesondheid kan bevorder, aspekte soos prosesse om probleme op te los, die ontwikkeling van positiewe houdings en die bevordering van die sielkundige werkomgewing in te sluit. Die studie sluit ook die ontwerp van 'n kreatiwiteitsprogram in wat in die deelnemende en soortgelyke skole toegepas kan word om die ontwikkeling van kreatiwiteitsvaardighede te bevorder, wat 'n moontlike oplossing vir opvoeders kan bied in die hantering van insekuriteit in hulle skoolomgewing.

(Sleutelkonsepte: sekuriteit in die werkplek, sielkundige sekuriteit; wetgewing, die Handves van Menseregte, stres, kreatiwiteit, kreatiwiteitsmodelle.)

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....	<b>ii</b>
<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	<b>iii</b>
<b>LANGUAGE EDITING</b> .....	<b>iv</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>v</b>
<b>UITTREKSEL</b> .....	<b>vi</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b> .....	<b>vii</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	<b>xiii</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	<b>xiii</b>
<b>1 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH DESIGN</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT .....	7
1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES .....	7
1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY .....	7
1.4.1 Data sources for literature overview .....	7
1.4.2 Empirical investigation .....	8
1.5 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION .....	11
1.6 PROVISIONAL CHAPTER DIVISION.....	12
1.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY .....	14
<b>2 CHAPTER 2: LEGAL DETERMINANTS FOR LABOUR RELATIONS AND A SAFE WORKING ENVIRONMENT</b> .....	<b>15</b>
2.1 INTRODUCTION .....	15
2.1.1 The causes and scope of educator insecurity in the workplace .....	15
2.1.2 Defining safe working environments.....	17
2.1.3 Labour relations and labour legislation .....	17
2.1.4 Legislation and safe working environments.....	20

2.2	LEGAL DETERMINANTS FOR A SAFE WORKING ENVIRONMENT.....	20
2.2.1	The Constitution of South Africa.....	20
2.2.1.1	The interpretation of the Constitution.....	21
2.2.1.2	Section 12: Freedom and security of the person.....	22
2.2.1.3	Section 24: Environment.....	25
2.2.1.4	Section 23: Labour relations.....	25
2.2.1.5	Section 10: Human dignity.....	26
2.2.1.6	Section 9: Equality.....	27
2.2.2	Education legislation.....	29
2.2.2.1	The Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998.....	29
2.2.2.2	The National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996.....	30
2.2.2.3	The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (SASA).....	30
2.2.2.4	SASA: The Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools.....	31
2.2.2.5	The South African Council for Educators Act 31 of 2000.....	32
2.2.3	National labour relations and labour legislation.....	32
2.2.3.1	The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995.....	33
2.2.3.2	The Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993.....	34
2.2.3.3	The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997.....	35
2.2.3.4	The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998.....	35
2.2.3.5	Other national labour legislation.....	36
2.2.4	Common law.....	37
2.2.4.1	The law of delict: accountability.....	37
2.2.4.2	The law of delict: compensation.....	42
2.2.5	The psychological contract.....	44
2.3	PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL COMPONENTS OF A SAFE WORKING ENVIRONMENT.....	45
2.3.1	Stress in the workplace.....	46
2.3.1.1	Stress defined.....	47
2.3.1.2	Recognising stress.....	47
2.3.2	The causes of stress in the workplace.....	48
2.3.2.1	Violence.....	49
2.3.2.2	The school building and environment.....	50
2.3.2.3	Fellow employees.....	50
2.3.2.4	Learner discipline.....	52
2.3.2.5	Change and reform in education.....	53
2.3.2.6	Management style.....	53
2.3.2.7	Classroom climate.....	55
2.3.2.8	Workload.....	55
2.3.2.9	Other components.....	56
2.4	FOREIGN LAW DETERMINANTS FOR A SAFE WORKING ENVIRONMENT.....	57
2.4.1	The United Kingdom.....	57
2.4.2	The United States of America.....	59
2.4.3	Australia.....	61
2.5	SUMMARY.....	65

<b>3</b>	<b>CHAPTER 3: CREATIVITY THEORIES AND SECURITY OF EDUCATORS.....</b>	<b>66</b>
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	66
3.1.1	Defining creativity.....	66
3.1.2	An historical overview of creativity.....	67
3.2	CREATIVITY THEORIES.....	69
3.2.1	Psychoanalytical theories.....	69
3.2.2	Behaviourism.....	70
3.2.3	Humanistic theories.....	71
3.2.4	Cognitive process creativity.....	72
3.2.5	Other creativity theories.....	73
3.3	CREATIVITY RESEARCH.....	76
3.3.1	Personality characteristics.....	77
3.3.2	Characteristics of the creative process.....	78
3.3.3	Environmental factors which influence creativity.....	80
3.3.4	Creativity in education.....	82
3.3.5	The impact of creativity training programmes.....	84
	3.3.5.1 Developing creative thinking through training programmes.....	84
	3.3.5.2 The wider impact of creativity programmes.....	86
3.3.6	The characteristics of a creativity development model.....	88
3.4	ASSESSING CREATIVITY.....	89
3.5	AN EDUCATION LAW PERSPECTIVE ON CREATIVITY.....	91
3.5.1	Literature summary.....	91
3.5.2	Legislation regarding workplace security and creativity: the link.....	92
3.5.3	The psychological security of educators and creativity: the link.....	95
	3.5.3.1 Indiscipline and creativity.....	96
	3.5.3.2 Violence and creativity.....	98
	3.5.3.3 Change and creativity.....	99
	3.5.3.4 Management style and creativity.....	100
3.6	SUMMARY.....	103
<b>4</b>	<b>CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....</b>	<b>105</b>
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	105
4.2	QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACHES.....	105
4.2.1	Quantitative research.....	105
4.2.2	Qualitative research.....	106
4.2.3	Using quantitative and qualitative research.....	107
4.2.4	The researcher as research instrument.....	109
4.2.5	The mixed method design.....	110

4.3	THE RESEARCH PARADIGM .....	112
4.4	QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS.....	113
4.4.1	Descriptive studies.....	114
4.4.2	Experimental studies .....	114
4.4.3	Data collection and analysis .....	115
4.5	QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS .....	115
4.5.1	Research strategies.....	116
4.5.1.1	Case studies.....	116
4.5.1.2	Ethnography .....	116
4.5.1.3	Phenomenological and ethnomethodological studies.....	117
4.5.1.4	Grounded theory .....	118
4.5.1.5	Biographical and autoethnographical methods.....	118
4.5.2	Research methodology.....	119
4.5.2.1	Methods of data collection.....	119
4.5.2.2	Methods of data analysis.....	121
4.6	THE RESEARCH PARADIGM OF THIS STUDY .....	123
4.7	RESEARCH DESIGN OF THIS STUDY.....	124
4.7.1	Quantitative methodology .....	124
4.7.1.1	Data collection.....	124
4.7.1.2	Selection of participants .....	125
4.7.1.3	Data analysis.....	127
4.7.2	Qualitative methodology .....	128
4.7.2.1	The researcher of this study.....	128
4.7.2.2	The research strategy .....	129
4.7.2.3	The research methodology: methods of data collection .....	129
4.7.2.4	The research methodology: methods of data analysis .....	131
4.8	THE CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL.....	132
4.9	THE TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH .....	133
4.10	THE LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY.....	134
4.11	SUMMARY .....	135
<b>5</b>	<b>CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH .....</b>	<b>136</b>
5.1	INTRODUCTION .....	136
5.2	FIGURAL TORRANCE TEST® OF CREATIVE THINKING (TTCT®) .....	137
5.3	LABOUR LEGISLATION AND THE BILL OF RIGHTS.....	140
5.3.1	Government support.....	141
5.3.2	Psychological well-being.....	142

5.4	COPING WITH INSECURITY.....	145
5.5	THE CAUSES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL INSECURITY.....	151
5.5.1	Discipline .....	152
5.5.2	Work overload and different roles.....	155
5.5.3	Over-crowded classrooms.....	158
5.5.4	Cultural differences.....	159
5.5.5	Parents .....	159
5.5.6	Change.....	160
5.5.7	Violence.....	163
5.5.8	Bullying.....	165
5.5.9	Other causes of stress and psychological insecurity .....	166
5.5.10	Summary of the coping abilities of educators .....	168
5.5.11	Summary of the causes of psychological insecurity .....	171
5.6	THE CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL.....	172
5.7	SUMMARY .....	176
<b>6</b>	<b>CHAPTER 6: A CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR EDUCATORS.....</b>	<b>178</b>
6.1	INTRODUCTION .....	178
6.1.1	The labour rights of educators in their work environment.....	178
6.1.2	Existing creativity models and programmes .....	179
6.1.3	Educators' experiences of stress in their environment .....	180
6.1.4	Individuals with varying creative abilities, and their attitudes towards insecurity .....	181
6.2	THEORETICAL MODEL FOR CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT .....	182
6.3	THE APPLICATION OF THE CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL .....	189
6.3.1	The attributes of the creativity training programme.....	190
6.3.2	The content of the creativity training programme.....	190
<b>7</b>	<b>CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>192</b>
7.1	INTRODUCTION .....	192
7.2	LEGISLATION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SECURITY.....	192
7.3	COPING WITH PSYCHOLOGICAL INSECURITY AT SCHOOL .....	194
7.4	FACTORS CAUSING PSYCHOLOGICAL INSECURITIES AT SCHOOL... ..	194
7.5	THE CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL.....	196
7.6	RECOMMENDATIONS .....	198

7.7	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH .....	201
<b>8</b>	<b>ADDENDUMS .....</b>	<b>202</b>
8.1	Addendum A: Ethics approval certificate .....	202
8.2	Addendum B: Ethics consent form .....	203
8.3	Addendum C: Approval for research: Western Cape Educ. Dept. ....	206
8.4	Addendum D: A creativity development programme .....	207
8.5	Addendum E: The interview schedule .....	259
8.6	Addendum F: Examples of interviews.....	261
8.7	Addendum G: Example of a completed TTCT® scoring sheet .....	270
8.8	Addendum H: Extracts from completed TTCT®'s.....	271
<b>9</b>	<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY .....</b>	<b>278</b>
<b>10</b>	<b>POWERPOINT-PRESENTATION ON CD .....</b>	<b>308</b>

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 6.1 The development of creativity skills to enhance educator coping skills .	183
Figure 6.2 Applying a creative process to enhance educator coping skills.....	186
Figure 6.3 Developing a creative environment .....	188
Figure 6.4 The creativity development model.....	189

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Creativity scores of 35 participants.....	127
Table 5.1 School 1 TTCT® scores: higher socio-economic area .....	138
Table 5.2 Primary school 2 TTCT® scores: lower socio-economic area .....	138
Table 5.3 School 3 TTCT® scores: lower socio-economic area.....	139
Table 5.4 School 4 TTCT® scores: higher socio-economic area .....	139
Table 5.5 Scores of 35 selected as participants from four schools.....	139
Table 5.6 Stress symptoms selected by participants.....	146
Table 5.7 Number of stress symptoms compared to scores on TTCT®.....	147
Table 5.8 The main causes of psychological insecurity and stress for educators ..	151
Table 5.9 How change affects educators .....	162
Table 5.10 Bullying as experienced by educators .....	166
Table 5.11 Other causes of stress in the workplace for educators.....	167
Table 5.12 How educators cope with the different causes of psychological insecurity - comments.....	168
Table 5.13 How educators cope with the different causes of psychological insecurity - analysis .....	170
Table 5.14 Content of Creativity Programme/model as suggested by educators...	174
Table 6.1: Modules of the Creativity Programme .....	191

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# 1 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH DESIGN

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## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Bill of Rights, chapter 2 of the Constitution (SA, 1996a), places a strong emphasis on the fundamental rights of all South Africans and emphasises such values as equality, human dignity and freedom. Many of these rights have implications for labour relations (Rossouw, 2004:13; Grogan, 2001:14). These include the protection against servitude, discrimination and forced labour. Section 23 of the Bill of Rights deals specifically with labour relations and includes the crucial right to fair labour practices (section 23(1)). In addressing some of the most important duties of employers, the South African Constitution is unique. Other constitutions normally only address the duties of the State in its relationship with its citizens (Rossouw, 2004:12).

According to Grogan (2001:53), ensuring that working conditions are safe and healthy is one of the three principal duties of an employer. This common law duty is, however, imprecise and in earlier years many workers were exposed to unsafe conditions until the legislature intervened. In South Africa the earliest occupational safety legislation was the Factories Act 28 of 1918 and the most current legislation which directly governs health and safety in the workplace is the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 (Grogan, 2001:56). Security in the workplace is also entrenched in other legislation. The labour rights of employees as well as the level of accountability of employers were increased when the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 was amended in 1996 to include the right to protection of health and safety (Rossouw, 2004:30-31). Legislation introduced specifically to govern labour issues in education, include the Education Labour Relations Act 146 of 1994, which was repealed after four years with the promulgation of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998, which has since been amended regularly (Rossouw, 2004:9-10).

According to Oosthuizen (1998:65), the essence of education law is security, which implies “the institution of a secure environment for the individual and the group within

which all interested parties can participate in a harmonious way in the educational task". When searching the literature for definitions of security and safety in the school environment, it becomes clear that safety is seen to include physical and psychological components (Oosthuizen (ed.), 2005:14; Squelch, 2002:149).

Although the protection of the educator's psychological security might even be more relevant than the physical component, the Occupational Health and Safety Act does not provide for protection in this regard (Oosthuizen (ed.), 2005:11). This lacuna in the Act is a serious omission when seen against the backdrop of the alarming results of numerous studies on stress in the workplace, and more specifically in schools (Olivier & Venter, 2003:189; Jarvis, 2002; Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192). Although several research programmes have dealt with stress caused by physical as well as psychological insecurity in the workplace, and more specifically in the school environment, ways to combat insecurity have not, it appears, been researched in depth in South Africa. One area of research that may offer a solution has been that of creativity theory. Lincoln (2005) has found that important benefits of the establishment of creativity programmes in the workplace are improved employee morale as well as a safer working environment. Other studies conducted in schools have shown the healing effects of creativity programmes (Torrance, 1994:204-207). Ansburg and Dominowski (2000:48) found that "insightful problem solving" can be trained. Furthermore, research has found that the wider impact of creativity programmes include a more positive attitude and greater motivation (Craft, 2001; Parnes (ed), 1992:62; Daniels, 2002).

A deeper search into these claims seems expedient when it is noted that in 1999 the United Nations Report labeled job stress "The 20th Century Disease" and a few years later the World Health Organization said it had become a "Worldwide Epidemic" (Anon., 2007c; Anon., 2008). The Occupational Health and Safety Act is silent on psychological security of employees, but labour legislation in education, like all other legislation, is based on the Constitution of South Africa which is the supreme law of the country (SA, 1996a). In section 24(a) of the Constitution (SA, 1996a) it states that "everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being" and in section 12 freedom and security are described amongst others as "not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way".

These rights are directly applicable in the workplace, including the school, and imply the right to physical protection and the protection of the general well-being of the educator (Oosthuizen (ed.), 2005:106).

This “general well-being” or psychological security of educators is unfortunately seriously neglected in most schools in South Africa and abroad. This view is supported by numerous studies on the levels of stress of educators in the workplace and on the causes of this “disease of our time” (Olivier & Venter, 2003:186; Jarvis, 2002; Clarke, 2005). The current situation in schools in South Africa as portrayed in the press in recent times raises serious concern regarding the well-being of educators. The Sunday Times article (Govender, 2006:33) aptly titled “Reading, writing and rampage” painted a disturbing picture of schools across the country with descriptions like “brutal murders”, “horrific killings”, “war zones” and “sites of war”. O’Connor (2006:14) also writes about South African schools as war zones and points out that South African educators are not trained to deal with the violence experienced at many schools. More recently in an article “Teachers can’t take it any more”, (Davids & Makwabe, 2007:1) it was stated that one in 10 educators is on leave because of stress caused by unruly and violent learners. This is a clear indication of the violation of the rights of educators to a psychologically secure environment. It has been claimed that at least 85% of all illnesses and ailments in South Africa are stress-related (Vanderlis, 2003). One study found that 20% of teachers in the George area were suffering from severe stress (Olivier & Venter, 2003:189) and Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen and Wissing (1999:192) cite various other studies in several countries which found that stress can lead to educator burnout which includes emotional, physical and cognitive exhaustion.

Unfortunately, according to Jarvis (2002), the “volume of research into interventions to combat teacher stress is miniscule”. Schulze and Steyn (2007:693) cite an interactive and transactional-based stress model which implies that it cannot be assumed that individuals will react similarly to the same pressures. The model further implies that when individuals can cope with these pressures, it will lead to psychological well-being. Although educators’ rights to physical and psychological security in the workplace are protected by legislation, this security does not seem to be in place in most cases. This may imply a dereliction of duty by the state, and by

the school as a juristic person who does not, in accordance with the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (SA, 1996b) (hereafter the SASA) provide the safety and security to ensure a “purposeful school environment” which is the primary aim of the code of conduct of a school, as formulated by the governing body (s.8). Moreover, section 20(e) stipulates as one function of all governing bodies “to support the principal, educators and other staff of the school in the performance of their professional functions.” In a recent newspaper article, Oosthuizen (as cited by Rademeyer, 2008:6) states that educators should receive training in their rights. Educators are currently the victims of parents, education officers and learners who insult them, swear at them, attack them, and charge them with “just about everything” (Afr. “weens omtrent enigiets”), according to Oosthuizen. He emphasised that educators should understand that, when their rights are abused, they have right of legal recourse.

Judging by the available research reports and newspaper articles referred to, few efforts have been made to address this serious state of affairs in South African schools. The studies by Lincoln (2005) and Torrance (1994:204-207) on the establishment of creativity programmes in the workplace, as mentioned earlier, could be worth exploring further in the quest of finding answers to establishing psychologically safer working environments. Scholars of whole brain theories who investigate the brain dominance of individuals, have come to the conclusion that everyone can be creative and that although specific brain preferences can block creative behaviour to a certain extent, creativity can be developed in all individuals (Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:252). These different findings beg the questions: what is creativity, how can its application contribute to the psychological security of educators in the workplace and can all stakeholders in the sphere of the school as workplace think creatively?

To investigate the assumption that everybody can be creative, a review of the research on brain dominance is important. The right brain excels in visual, spatial, perceptual and intuitive information, processes information quickly and in a non-linear way, seeks spatial relationships and flourishes when dealing with ambiguity and paradox. An overview and analysis of existing research in this regard, as reported by Neethling and Rutherford (2005:252) and supported by Herrmann (1998:1), has revealed that it was incorrectly assumed for many years that only those with right

brain preferences are creative while left brain dominant thinkers with brain preferences for logic, words, numbers and analysis, for example, are not. As the understanding of creativity and the development of creative skills grow, it has now become widely accepted that the ability to think creatively can be developed by all (Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:252; Parnes (ed.), 1992:78; Higgins,1994:4).

In his study of creativity, Rhodes (1961:305-310) discovered four areas of inquiry, viz. the identification of the characteristics of the creative person, the components of the creative process, the aspects of the creative product and the qualities of the environment or press which nurtures creativity. This model became known as the four P's and emphasises the important creativity growth areas which could enhance success and security in the workplace. Creativity skills or characteristics of the "person" as alluded to in this model, include the ability to see possibilities where those that are less creative are fearful or resistant (Black, 1995:6). Creative ability has also been described as mental flexibility (Von Oech, 1986:14) and as resisting thinking closure (Neethling & Rutherford, 2004:34).

The literature cites management style (Olivier & Venter, 2003:186; Jarvis, 2002; Rossouw, 2005) and change (Booyse & Swanepoel, 1999:214; Singh & Lokotsch, 2005:279) as two of the major causes of teacher stress and insecurity in the workplace. With this in mind the implementation of a creativity programme may be one solution to the serious problem of psychological insecurity of educators. A creativity programme which would include the "process" and "product" of the Rhodes model (Rhodes, 1961:305-3), would develop the ability to think creatively and therefore improve skills to solve problems, see opportunities and cope with change. These skills and problem solving processes would naturally lead to a creatively nurturing environment or "press". Although not the focus of this study, such a creativity programme might be of great benefit to the principal, as creative leadership is characterised by making essentially positive assumptions about human nature, having faith in people and creating opportunities to develop their unique strengths (Knowles, 1983 as cited by McCann, 2002). This type of leadership will go a long way to creating a secure working environment because the power of the self-fulfilling prophecy, the positive expectations of the creative leader, would ensure a work force secure in their ability to cope in changing times and to solve problems as they occur.

Kao (as cited by McCann, 2002) argues for a “Creativity Bill of Rights” which should include sections which cite “premature closure and excessive judgment are cardinal sins” and “creativity involves mastering a process of continuous change”. The creative principal who, amongst others, resists excessive judgment and masters ongoing change would, to a large extent, foster and promote the positive morale of his staff and ensure their psychological security.

As mentioned earlier, the state and schools have a legal responsibility to ensure healthy and safe workplace environments for educators. Insecurity and the stressors associated with teaching, though, may not always be inherently stressful but could lead to stress due to the perception of educators (Jarvis, 2002). The perception of a threat plays an important role in the stress educators experience in the workplace, in other words, “it’s not the bad weather that matters, it is how bad we think the weather is that matters” (Vanderlis, 2003). In this regard, creativity could prove to be a solution, as creativity includes the ability to recognise problems, to get to the essence of problems and to solve these in effective ways (Torrance, 1979:32, 52; Higgins, 1994:21, 26). Developing these skills of educators may go a long way in curbing their negative experience of and attitudes towards the workplace environment, in managing potentially stressful situations and creating problem solving environments. Creativity as a possible solution to the insecurity of educators in the workplace would therefore include the establishment of programmes to develop the creative thinking skills of educators and the ability to apply creative processes to solve problems in the school environment.

A short summary of the literature concludes that the security of educators is protected by legislation and that workplace security includes psychological security. Several research programmes have dealt with stress caused by physical as well as psychological insecurity in the workplace, and more specifically in the school environment. Ways to combat insecurity and ensure the lawful protection of educators at work, have not, it appears, been researched in depth in South Africa. It is clear from the literature that the seriousness of the situation is widely acknowledged, but while a solution remains elusive, the rights of educators are violated and accountability by the state side-stepped.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

In an initial literature overview and analysis of relevant legal provisions in South Africa, the following problems have been identified and warrant careful investigation:

1. To what extent do labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace?
2. To what extent do educators experience and cope with insecurity in their work environment?
3. What are the main factors which cause psychological insecurity in the workplace for educators?
4. What are the characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance psychological security in the workplace for educators?

## **1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES**

The objectives of the study were to determine

- whether labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace
- to what extent educators experience insecurity in their work environment
- the main factors causing psychological insecurity in the workplace for educators
- the characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance psychological security in the workplace for educators.

## **1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

The research design and methodology will be explained in the following paragraphs.

### **1.4.1 Data sources for literature overview**

Literature will be obtained by utilising primary as well as secondary literature sources. These will be examined in the literature analysis, and will include books, articles, legislation and Internet data related to labour law, education law, education, the workplace, psychological insecurity, stress, theoretical models and creativity. Key words for a data search would include: *labour law, labour relations, education law,*

*workplace security, work-related stress, creativity, creative environment, psychological insecurity, whole brain thinking.*

#### **1.4.2 Empirical investigation**

The problems stated will be addressed by utilising both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies in a mixed method approach as part of the empirical investigation.

##### **1.4.2.1 Quantitative methodology**

Applying the quantitative methodology will enable the researcher to select participants with varying levels of creative skills. This is important in establishing whether individuals with higher creative skills can cope better with insecurity in the workplace. The test that will be used is the Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®).

- Selection of participants and data collection

Through the method of purposive sampling a selection of three secondary schools and one primary school in the Western Cape, two in higher socio-economic areas and two, including the primary school, in a lower socio-economic area, will be made after consultation with the Western Cape Education Department and the specialists of the North-West University Statistical Services.

A hundred educators from the participating schools will be selected randomly to complete the TTCT®. Selecting an equal number of male and female educators in each of the schools is not possible; an effort will be made to ensure that the numbers reflect the actual balance between the different genders.

To test the creative ability of the participants, each participant will complete the Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®). This test was first developed in 1966 and has been renormed in 1974, 1984, 1990 and 1998. The test is assumed to be fair with regard to race, socio-economic status, and culture (Kim, 2002). Norms were generated in 1997 using 55 600 students and the TTCT® was found to be appropriate for use with any population.

The test comprises 3 activities, each with a time limit of 10 minutes. The 5 mental characteristics measured are fluency, originality, abstractness of titles, elaboration and resistance to premature closure. Thirteen creative strengths are also measured.

The participants will be informed that participation is completely voluntary and assured of the confidentiality of the test results. They will be asked to complete consent forms for taking part in the research (See Addendum B). The test will be completed in groups at their schools, where a relaxed atmosphere will be created. They will be informed of the confidentiality of the test results and that these will be made available to individuals on request after the completion of the research. It will be explained to participants who complete the TTCT® that a smaller number of participants will be selected to participate in interviews at a later date. From the participants who completed the test, a group of 35 will be selected comprising participants who show low, average and high creativity. Three groups, viz., with high, average and low creative skills will be selected in this way in order to determine whether these groups differ in their ability to cope with insecurity. Fifteen high creative thinkers, fifteen low creative thinkers and five who scored average will be selected. Although the emphasis of the study will be put on the differences between high and low creative thinkers, the average group may bring more insights into the link between creativity and certain behaviours.

- Analysis of data

Through the interpretation of the TTCT® using the TTCT® Streamlined Scoring Guide figural A and B (Torrance, 1998) by the researcher, data on the results will be gathered and analysed. The application of this test will be discussed fully in par. 4.7.1.

#### 1.4.2.2 Qualitative methodology

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:94) qualitative research is typically used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena with the purpose of describing and understanding the phenomena from the participants' point of view. In this study, the qualitative methodology will enable the researcher to answer questions regarding the complex nature of educator security and its legal determinants, to understand insecurity and stress from the educators' point of view,

and to describe these phenomena in order to design a model which could assist educators to cope with their complex environment.

- Selection of participants

As stated above, the selection of participants will be made from the participating schools, using the results of the TTCT®. Thirty-five participants, 15 with high creativity, 5 with average and 15 with low creativity will be selected.

- Data collection

Data will be gathered mainly by means of personal interviews with educators. The participants will be informed of the time and venue for their individual interviews. A semi-structured interview schedule will be developed to use during interviews, and will be based on the findings of the literature analysis and the empirical study. The interviews will be recorded and the confidentiality of the test results and interviews will be stressed. The questions posed during the interviews will be designed to gain information regarding the main stressors experienced by participants, their attitude towards these stressors and their ability to cope with the psychological insecurity caused by change, indiscipline, workload, violence, management style and a negative classroom climate. Other questions will deal with the extent to which legislation protects educators from psychological insecurity and whether any creativity programme exists in their schools, as well as their attitude towards such programmes. By conducting the interviews, the researcher herself will become a measurement instrument through observation.

- Data analysis

Interviews with educators will be transcribed. The data will be analysed and described by comparing the results of the TTCT® of educators with their responses regarding some of the issues relating to their psychological security.

#### 1.4.2.3 Designing the creativity development model

Taking into account the findings of both the literature and the empirical study, a model would be designed to develop the creative skills of educators. The aim of this model will be to enhance the ability of educators to cope with their environment. This model will take into account:

- the labour rights of educators in their work environment
- the literature on the content of creativity models and programmes
- the findings regarding educators' experiences of stress in their environment
- individuals with varying creative abilities, and their attitudes towards insecurity

Taking into account the literature and the findings of the empirical study, a creativity training programme, based on the creativity development model, will be designed. This programme will be suitable for participating and similar schools.

#### 1.4.2.4 Ethical strategies

The researcher gained approval to engage in scientific projects with human participants at the Research Ethics Committee of the North-West University (see Addendum A) under the certificate number NWU 0009 08 A2.

The researcher will conduct an interview with participants using a semi-structured interview schedule. Participants will also be instructed to complete the Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®). It will be explained that the TTCT® will determine their level of creativity. The tests will take place in groups and a relaxed atmosphere will be created by the researcher. Interviews will take place in private, in a comfortable environment.

Participants will be assured of the confidentiality of the interviews and the test results. They will also be informed that the data gathered will be interpreted in order to determine whether there is a correlation between the psychological security of the educator in the workplace and creativity, without revealing the names of participants or schools.

Permission for testing and interviews with educators will be obtained from each educator, and where applicable, from the principals of the identified schools. Permission will be obtained from the Western Cape Education Department for research in the selected schools.

## 1.5 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

- Labour relations: the relationship between employees and employers or groups of each
- Labour laws: legislation which governs these relationships

- Workplace security: physical and psychological security of employees in their work environment
- Creativity: the ability to generate many ideas, to be open minded in order to find effective solutions to problems
- Stress: how the human body reacts when it fears it is under attack and which is caused by mental or physical conditions or both
- Brain Dominance: dominant thinking style; a person is for example right brain dominant.

## **1.6 PROVISIONAL CHAPTER DIVISION**

### **Chapter 1**

*Introduction, problem statement, objectives and research design*

This chapter will include the problem statement and aims of the research. The description of the research methods and a clarification of the concepts and terms will also form part of this chapter.

### **Chapter 2**

*Legal determinants for labour relations and a safe working environment*

This chapter will include an analysis of the Constitution, general legislation and other education law determinants that impact on safety and security in the school environment as workplace. This analysis will include an analysis of South African and international sources and will cover definitions of safe work environments, the rights of educators in this regard, possible lacunae in legislation, relevant court cases and other related discussions. It will also deal with the physical and psychological effects of insecurity on educators. During the study of the literature, answers to the following problem statements will be sought:

- To what extent do labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace?
- To what extent do educators experience and cope with psychological insecurity in their work environment?
- What are the main factors which cause psychological insecurity in the workplace for educators?

### **Chapter 3**

#### *Creativity theories and security of educators*

This chapter will define creativity and include a brief historical development of creativity theories. It will deal with the theories and research on creativity, its effects on behaviour and the possibility of developing creative behaviour in all people. The discussion will include examples of creativity programmes and their impact nationally and internationally. Psychological security in the workplace will also be addressed in these examples. This chapter will further focus on the relevant legal provisions for workplace security and establish the link between legislation regarding security in the workplace, and the effects of creativity on the psychological security of educators. This will include discussions on the creative environment, stress, relationships, leadership/management styles and creative problem solving. During the literature study, answers to the problem statement, “What are the characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance workplace psychological security in education?” will be sought.

### **Chapter 4**

#### *Research design and methodology*

This chapter will include an analysis and description of several types of quantitative and qualitative research designs. The emphasis will fall on the mixed method design utilised during this study. Different research paradigms, strategies and methodologies will be expounded, with prominence given to those applicable to this research study. The design of the empirical investigation, including the selection of participants, the collection of data and the data analysis, will form a prominent part of this chapter. Other aspects which will be discussed are the design of the creativity development model, the trustworthiness of the research and the limitations of the study.

### **Chapter 5**

#### *Findings of empirical research*

In this chapter the findings of the empirical research will be reported on. These findings will deal with each of the aims of the research and the collection and analysis of the data will be discussed comprehensively.

### **Chapter 6**

#### *A creativity development model for educators*

In this chapter a creativity development model will be designed which could be implemented in the participating schools, or in any similar type of school, in order to enhance the ability of educators to cope with psychological insecurity in their environment.

## **Chapter 7**

### *Conclusion and recommendations*

This chapter includes the recommendations regarding the implications of creativity for safety and psychological security of educators in the school environment, and suggestions for further research.

### **1.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY**

This study should contribute to the understanding of the legal rights of educators to a physically as well as psychologically safe working environment. It should also deepen the understanding of educators regarding their own thinking and creativity styles and how this affects their perceptions and coping skills regarding psychological security in the workplace. It suggests a solution to the ever growing levels of stress and lack of psychological security amongst educators because of their experience of their workplace. Creativity interventions may provide a solution and a way in which the state could accept accountability for the psychological effects of unsafe schools.

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## **2 CHAPTER 2: LEGAL DETERMINANTS FOR LABOUR RELATIONS AND A SAFE WORKING ENVIRONMENT**

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### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter comprises an analysis and discussion of selected legal determinants that impact on labour relations, with special reference to the establishment of a safe working environment. In the initial paragraphs the causes and scope of educator insecurity will be addressed and a safe working environment will be defined, after which the term labour relations will be clarified and the labour laws which regulate these relationships, as well as safe working environments, will be introduced.

#### **2.1.1 The causes and scope of educator insecurity in the workplace**

In the last decade, the education sector was confronted with several incidences of violent, often fatal, assault, homicides and murder (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:24). Although most of these assaults were learner-on-learner violence, some attacks were also directed against educators and other staff at schools (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005: 26). Of course, the climate of violence which is created in many schools, although not directed at them directly, may have serious repercussions for staff. In the report on The Commission on the Challenges facing Public Education (Nedlac Summit, 1999), Leboho Loate, Nedlac (National Economic Development and Labour Council) community convenor, raised the issue of the vulnerability of learners and educators in schools which were subjected to vandalism, drug dealing, rape and violence. This culture of violence in schools, it appears, is not limited to schools in South Africa, but seems to have been a worldwide phenomenon for more than a decade (Anon., 2003a; Meyer, 1990:145; Department of Education and Science and the Welsh Office, 1989:60). Although violent acts are common in many schools today (Maree, as cited by Rossouw, 2003:416; Mentz, Wolhuter & Steyn, 2003:393; De Klerk & Rens, 2003:354), this is not the only cause of insecurity experienced by educators.

There are also many incidences of dysfunctional relationships in the school as workplace, which can be characterised by workplace bullying and victimisation between co-workers (Kirsten, Viljoen & Rossouw, 2005). These relationships may clearly contribute to the insecurity experienced by educators in the school environment. The management style of certain principals is another element that is affecting educators' well-being and security in the workplace (Olivier & Venter, 2003:186). Misconduct by fellow employees is another cause of the unsafe and insecure working environment encountered by educators (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:107).

Furthermore, the current political and social changes and their influence on education structures are placing high demands on many educators with respect to increasing workload, too many pupils in a class and little support from colleagues, to name a few (Montgomery, Mostert & Jackson, 2005:266). Because of lack of a human rights culture in the apartheid era, and the outrage at the recent increase in child abuse, children's rights have received significant recognition in South Africa in the last decade. This has resulted in many educators in South Africa feeling that learners' rights are more important than educators' rights, which have led to enormous frustration and stress amongst educators (Rossouw, 2005:2). This overemphasis on children's rights has been indicated as partly responsible for the lack of discipline in schools at present. Some forms of indiscipline that many educators in South African schools have to contend with daily, as cited by Rossouw (2003:424), are constant absenteeism, vandalism, theft, dagga smoking, bullying, examination dishonesty, assault, exposure to pornography, gambling, verbal assault on educators and blatant insolence. It is therefore not surprising that this lack of discipline in schools is a major contributing factor to the lack of well-being and growing stress amongst educators at present (Olivier & Venter, 2003:186). As teaching is cited in various publications as one of the most stressful occupations today (Olivier & Venter, 2003:186; Jarvis, 2002; Clarke, 2005), an investigation into the protection that educators may enjoy under the law regarding a safe and secure workplace, seems apposite, if not crucial. A logical point of departure would seem to be to find a definition of a safe and secure working environment.

### **2.1.2 Defining safe working environments**

The Concise Oxford English Dictionary (2006:1265) describes “safe” as “not likely to be harmed”, “affording security or protection”, “with no harm done”, “uninjured”. Safety and security have been described as “protection against possible harm or loss, creating a feeling of being safe and not having worries” (Oosthuizen (ed.), 2005:105). When referring to a safe environment in education, Oosthuizen (1998:65-66) defines security as implying the establishment of a secure environment for the individual and the group within which all interested parties can participate in a harmonious way in the educational task. According to Squelch (2001:137) a safe school is defined as one that is “free of danger and possible harm” and is a “healthy school in that it is physically and psychologically safe”. A safe school is also defined as “a place where students can learn and teachers can teach in a warm and welcoming environment, free of intimidation and fear of violence” and one which offers a “safe haven for educators and learners, a place where education and learning will flourish” (Oosthuizen (ed.), 2005:14). When section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights refers to the right of everyone to a safe environment, it defines safe as “not harmful to their health or well-being” (SA, 1996a). Safe schools, according to the Centre for the study of Violence and Reconciliation, are schools “in which the occupants have a low risk of physical, emotional and psychological injury” (Anon., 2003b). It is clear from these and other definitions of security in the workplace which are repeated in the literature, that safety and security are seen as having physical as well as psychological elements.

This prompts the question whether physical as well as psychological security in the workplace is ensured and protected by legislation.

### **2.1.3 Labour relations and labour legislation**

Labour relations refer to the relationship between employees and employers or groups of each, for example trade unions (Rossouw, 2004:2). Linde (2007:14) cites Bendix who states that employment relations deal essentially with people who, because of their mutual involvement in the working environment, have been placed in a specific relationship with one another. These relationships are regulated by labour legislation, while structures like the Department of Labour, the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) and the Labour Court help to ensure

that these relationships develop in adherence to legislation and that disputes and grievances are solved effectively.

The labour laws which govern these relationships in South Africa are the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 (SA, 1995), the Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997 (SA, 1997a), the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (SA, 1998a), the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 (SA, 1998b), the Skills Development Levies Act 9 of 1999 (SA, 1999a) and the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3 of 2000 (SA, 2000a). These acts will be discussed in more detail in par. 2.2.3. Although these statutes govern most public and private sector employment relations in South Africa, another statute, the Public Service Act 103 of 1994, deals specifically with public service employment matters (Bray & Beckmann, 2001:115). This statute, however, distinguishes between educators and other public servants and legislation has been adopted to specifically govern the employment relations of educators. According to these authors, the statutes referring to the employment relationship of educators may take precedence over labour legislation which generally applies to employment relationships in general.

It needs to be acknowledged that, in education, the relationship between employer and employee is a special one and differs from those in most other workplaces (Rossouw, 2004:28). Educators in the same school may have different employers (for example the minister of education or the governing body) while the principal acts as representative of the various employers in public schools and may be regarded as a “quasi-employer” of the staff (Rossouw, 2004:29). Section 5 of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (SA, 1998c) formulates the different employers of educators in public schools. On national level, the Minister of Education is the employer of educators regarding salaries, conditions of service and creating posts, and the Director-General of all employment matters. On provincial level the Head of Department is the employer regarding all employment matters and the Member of the Executive Committee regarding the creation of posts. The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (SA, 1996b), was amended by the Education Laws Amendment Act 100 of 1997 (SA, 1997b) to include the establishment of posts by the governing body of a public school. The employer of these additional educators to staff is the public school via the governing body in matters of creating posts, salaries, conditions of service

and all other employment matters. The statutes regulating labour relations in education include the SASA 84 of 1996 (SA, 1996b), the National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 (SA, 1996c), the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (SA, 1998c), the Further Education and Training Act 98 of 1998 (SA,1998d), the South African Council for Educators Act 31 of 2000 (SA, 2000b), and the Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools (10 November 2006) (SA, 2006).

These Acts will be discussed further in par. 2.2.2. Provisions in these acts, however, are only valid if they are not in conflict with the Constitution of South Africa (SA, 1996a). The Constitution of South Africa (SA, 1996a) is the supreme law of the country, and states in section 2 that “law or conduct inconsistent with it is invalid, and the obligations imposed by it must be fulfilled”, which implies that all labour legislation is based on and must be in line with the Constitution and all state departments (including education), must comply with all its provisions.

The Bill of Rights, chapter 2 of the Constitution, places a strong emphasis on the fundamental rights of all South Africans and emphasises such values as equality, human dignity and freedom. Many of these rights have implications for labour relations (Rossouw, 2004:13; Grogan, 2001:14). These include the protection against servitude, discrimination and forced labour. Section 23 of the Bill of Rights deals specifically with labour relations and includes the crucial right to fair labour practices (section 23(1)).

The rights of workers are protected not only by the numerous statutory provisions mentioned above, but also by employment contracts. Before the formulation of the modern employment contract, common law principles determined the relationship between employers and employees. Because unfair labour practices of the 20<sup>th</sup> century were often the result of deficiencies in these common law employment contracts, these contracts are currently closely linked to legislation and some general principles of the law of contract (Rossouw, 2004:19). The principles of the common law contract of employment have in other words been adapted to be more aligned to the characteristics and demands of modern labour relations (Rossouw, 2004:22). One demand of contemporary employment is the creation of safe working environments.

#### **2.1.4 Legislation and safe working environments**

According to Grogan (2001:53), ensuring that working conditions are safe and healthy is one of the three principal duties of the employer. The other two are to receive the employee into service and to pay the employee's wages. Rossouw (2004:31) includes the "protection of health and safety" when listing the labour rights of employees. The Constitution (SA, 1996a) makes provision for safety and security in the workplace in section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights and states that "everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being". In section 12 of the Bill of Rights, the right to freedom and security of the person is stipulated. When citing definitions of a safe working environment earlier in par. 2.1.2, psychological security was acknowledged as an element of workplace security. Therefore, section 10 of the Bill of Rights, which calls for the dignity of all to be respected and protected, has a strong bearing on security in the workplace. Above-mentioned sections of the Bill of Rights will be discussed in more detail in par. 2.2.1.

In the following sections of this chapter the rights of employees, and more specifically educators, to safe and secure working environments will be investigated. The protection of the physical, but more specifically the psychological security of educators in the workplace, will be discussed, with the emphasis on the legal determinants for a secure workplace.

## **2.2 LEGAL DETERMINANTS FOR A SAFE WORKING ENVIRONMENT**

In this paragraph the most relevant legal determinants for a safe and secure working environment will be discussed. The emphasis will be on legal determinants applicable to educators and on the school as a workplace.

### **2.2.1 The Constitution of South Africa**

In section 2 of the Constitution (SA, 1996a) it is categorically stated that the Constitution "is the supreme law of the Republic; law or conduct inconsistent with it is invalid, and the obligations imposed by it must be fulfilled". It therefore seems well-advised to investigate what provisions in the Constitution, and more specifically the

Bill of Rights, are specifically applicable to the school as a workplace. How these provisions can be interpreted will have significant impact on their application, as indicated in the paragraph that follows.

### **2.2.1.1 The interpretation of the Constitution**

Many provisions in the Constitution, and particularly in the Bill of Rights, are general, abstract and even deliberately vague (De Waal, Currie & Erasmus, 2001:128; Botha, 2004:250). It is therefore important to establish the elements that play a role when provisions have to be interpreted. Although the text of the provisions is the obvious starting point, the interpretation of the provisions may often entail looking beyond the literal meaning as it is understood. De Waal et al. (2001:130) refer to *S v Makwanyane 1995 (3) SA 391 (CC)* para 9, where the Constitutional Court interpreted the Bill of Rights as follows: “whilst paying due regard to the language that has been used, [an interpretation of the Bill of Rights should be] ‘generous’ and ‘purposive’ and ‘give ... expression to the underlying values of the Constitution’”. In other words, while the literal meaning must be taken into account, it is not necessarily conclusive. The “purposive” interpretation referred to above, involves a value judgment and prefers the interpretation of a provision that best supports and protects the core values of the democratic society, for example human dignity, equality and freedom. In *Ignatius Petrus Du Preez v The minister of Justice and constitutional development & 3 others 2006 SA 368 (HC)*, Erasmus J declared that, when applying the Bill, a court must promote the fundamental rights enshrined in the Bill of Rights, that the “Constitution is therefore not subject to the canons of construction that govern the interpretation of ordinary statutes” and that “a flexible and comprehensive approach is called for”.

The Constitution is a consequence of South Africa’s apartheid history and therefore this political history also plays an important role in the interpretation of its provisions (De Waal et al., 2001:135). Under the heading of “Guiding principles” of the Bill of Rights (SA, 1996a), it is stated that in the application of the Act, account must be taken of “(a) the existence of systemic discrimination and inequalities, particularly in respect of race, gender and disability in all spheres of life as a result of past and present unfair discrimination brought about by colonialism, the apartheid system and patriarchy”. As a result, this history and the desire not to repeat the mistakes will be taken into account when interpreting constitutional provisions. In *S v Makwanyane*

referred to above, O'Regan J stated: "Respect for the dignity of all human beings is particularly important in South Africa... The new Constitution rejects this past and affirms the equal worth of all South Africans". Another crucial consideration when interpreting provisions of the Constitution, and one which the Court has made extensive use of, is the context. This implies that the Court would use other provisions of the Constitution and the Bill of Rights to provide a further context for the interpretation of a specific provision of the Bill (De Waal et al., 2001:138). In *Makwanyane* the Court treated the right to life, to equality and to dignity together to give meaning to the prohibition of cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment in section 11(2)IC. The death sentence, which permits killing and is therefore an infringement of the right to life, was ergo ruled unconstitutional in this case in 1995 (Ehlers & Sloth-Nielsen, 2005:1). As in this particular case, when the court is of the opinion that a legislative provision is directly inconsistent with the Bill of Rights, it can be declared invalid (Otto, 2000:1).

These guidelines for interpreting the Constitution, and in particular the Bill of Rights, as laid down by the Constitutional Court, will be taken into account when studying the provisions relating to security in the workplace.

#### **2.2.1.2 Section 12: Freedom and security of the person**

Most of the rights in the Bill of Rights (SA, 1996a) are for the benefit of everyone in South Africa. Certain rights have narrower categories of beneficiaries, for example every citizen (section 20), every adult citizen (section 19(3)) and arrested, detained and accused persons (section 35). The rights described in section 12 of the Constitution have no category of beneficiaries attached and are therefore for the benefit of all South Africans. They are consequently applicable to employees in the workplace. This section states that everyone has the right "to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources" (section 12(c)), "not to be tortured in any way" (section 12(d)) and "not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way" (section 12(e)). Applied to the school as workplace, these rights seem to imply that the state and every employer should ensure that violence, torture or any other forms of cruelty do not threaten the safety or well-being of any employee (Oosthuizen, 2005:106). Important to note, is that this right includes the right to psychological integrity as well: section 12(2) states that "everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity". When determining whether these rights can be

directly applied to law or in this case to the conduct of the employer, the issue of “reach” has to be considered.

“Reach” refers to the direct application of the Bill of Rights, and more specifically the duties imposed by the Act (De Waal et al., 2001:38). The questions which arise with respect to duties are what types of conduct may be challenged as inconsistent with the Bill of Rights and what forms of law may be challenged for being inconsistent with the Act? Traditionally a bill of rights regulates the relationship between the individual and the state, but the South African Bill of Rights (SA, 1996a) protects not only individuals against the state, but in certain circumstances, individuals against the abuse of their rights by other individuals (De Waal et al., 2001:45-46; Otto, 2000:1; Anon., 2003c). This is what is commonly referred to as the horizontal application of the Bill. In other words, section 12 would for example protect employees from different forms of abuse imposed by employers or colleagues. In such cases the courts have to base their decision on the rights, the prejudice that is suffered and the duties attached to the rights (Anon., 2003c). Furthermore, section 8(1) makes it clear that an applicant, in the vertical application of the Constitution, may always challenge the actions of a state institution which is in breach of its duties under the Constitution when it states that “The Bill of Rights applies to all law, and binds the legislature, the executive, the judiciary and all organs of state”.

This does however not necessarily imply that in all disputes, the Bill should be applied directly. In *S v Mhlungu* 1995 (3) SA 867 (CC) (Botha, 2004:257; De Waal et al., 2001:66) a general principle was formulated by Kentridge AJ that “where it is possible to decide any case, civil or criminal, without reaching a constitutional issue, that is the course which should be followed”. This statement was approved by all members of the Court in *Zantsi v Council of State, Ciskei* 1995 (4) SA 615 (CC) para 8. Other statutes should therefore first be applied, and inconsistency between a legislative provision and the Bill of Rights should be avoided through a generous interpretation of the Bill of Rights, before a direct application is considered (Otto, 2000; De Waal et al., 2001:68). An example which is cited in the literature of this indirect application of the Bill, or “reading down” as it has become known, is *Bernstein v Bester* 1996 (4) BCLR 449 (CC), where a provision in sections 417 and 418 of the Companies Act 61 of 1973 was attacked (De Waal et al., 2001:72; Otto,

2000:1). This Act provides for a Commission of Enquiry to be set up when a company is placed in liquidation. The applicants attacked this mechanism on the basis that their rights to personal privacy, to just administrative action, to fairness in civil litigation, to equality and freedom of the person were violated. The Constitutional Court rejected all the challenges on the basis that a section 35(3)IC (which became the interpretation clause, section 39 in the final Constitution) interpretation of the statutory provisions was possible and could be utilised by the Supreme Court to avoid an infringement of any of the fundamental rights. On the other hand, where any of the rights entrenched in the Constitution are clearly and directly violated, it does not require that litigants may only directly invoke the Constitution as a last resort (De Waal et al., 2001:69). According to Botha (2004:273) the distinction between the direct and indirect application of the Bill of Rights and the re-interpretation of changing considerations such as the public interest, are sufficiently vague to allow the court a measure of discretion.

In the case of section 12 of the Bill of Rights the rights to safety, security and well-being are entrenched. This section states clearly that this protection is against both the state and private individuals (“public and private sources”) and that it encompasses not only violent acts, but treatment which can be described as “inhuman and degrading”. According to De Waal et al. (2001:259) the horizontal application of the right could be most innovatively applied by the courts and a right to freedom from private violence imposes positive and affirmative obligations on the state to prohibit and discourage violence. Through this Right, it is recognised that private abuse of human rights may be as destructive as that of the state (Otto, 2000:1). In this act not only violence is referred to, but the right to security is also extended to the protection of psychological integrity. Whether applying a literal or historical interpretation to this provision, it appears that the rights of employees are certainly violated when they are made to feel inferior and degraded by the actions and treatment of their employers or colleagues. Because the infringement of this right also implies an infringement of the core values of the democratic society, for example human dignity and equality, a purposive judgment would also suffice. When the security and well-being of an employee is violated by the actions of an employer these rights, viz. human dignity and equality, would also be taken into consideration. Although they are not necessarily the primary infringement, contextually interpreted

these basic rights are violated when the right to freedom and security of the person is not upheld.

### **2.2.1.3 Section 24: Environment**

Section 24(a) deals directly with the environment and states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”. This is once again a right afforded to all South Africans and therefore would apply directly to educators as well. It seems indisputable that the state, a private individual or an institution violating this right, may be challenged.

A question worth exploring before interpreting this right, is whether the workplace, in this case the school, falls within the scope of the “environment” as stated in section 24. To best determine this, the words “health” and “well-being” as they relate to the environment, would have to be interpreted (Anon., 2002a:1). The most likely interpretation of protection of our health would have to include protection from dangers in the workplace such as excessive noise and pollution of the air. The protection of our well-being is wider than the protection of health and includes protection from nuisances, invasions of privacy and dignity and “we can say that something affects our well-being if it affects our ability to enjoy our life” (Anon., 2002a:1). The “harmful environment” of section 24 can therefore certainly be interpreted as including the workplace where these dangers may abound. De Waal et al. (2001:407) support this view when they state that because of the lack of specifics, the term environment should be interpreted as generously as possible in order to expand the area of protection. A purposive interpretation of section 24 would indicate that protecting the well-being of educators in the workplace would also have to include protecting their rights to dignity and equality, the fundamental rights of all human beings. Because of the mistreatment and inequality in the workplace in South Africa in the past, an historical interpretation would indicate that allowing employees to work in work environments where their health and well-being are not protected, would be an infringement of basic rights.

### **2.2.1.4 Section 23: Labour relations**

Section 23 of the Bill of Rights deals directly with labour relations. Such a right, which regulates the conduct of employers and not the state directly, is unique to the South

African Bill of Rights (De Waal et al., 2001:390). This section of the Bill, although dealing directly with labour relations, does not specifically refer to safety and security in the workplace. In section 23(1) it is, however, stated that “everyone has the right to fair labour practices”. In *Council of Mining Unions v Chamber of Mines of SA* (1985) 6 ILJ 293 IC 295C, on the issue of fairness, the Industrial Court implied that conduct could be lawful, but not necessarily fair. It is interesting to note that this principle was therefore entrenched in this verdict twelve years prior to the new Constitution. Deciding whether conduct is fair or not would involve a degree of subjective judgment and should involve the weighing up of the respective interests of the parties (De Waal et al., 2001:391; Anon., 2003c). It could be a fair assumption that it can be seen as an unfair labour practice to expect employees to work in an environment which does not offer them safety and security. If the insecurity is caused by harassment or discriminatory behaviour of an employer, or by an unfair workload, section 23 of the Bill of Rights together with the provisions of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (SA, 1998a), would constitute a strong case for unfair labour practices. The rights of section 23 are also supported by a variety of other fundamental rights such as the right to equality, human dignity and privacy (Olivier, 2005). Other acts, like the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 (SA, 1993), which give effect to the basic principles of safety and security as set out in the Constitution, will also be analysed in par. 2.2.3 in order to reach a final view regarding this issue.

#### **2.2.1.5 Section 10: Human dignity**

The sections of the Constitution analysed above are not the only provisions that are relevant to security in the workplace. The fundamental right to human dignity stated in section 10 of the Bill of Rights has important implications for workplace security. This right can be seen as one of the foundations on which all other rights are built (Rossouw, 2004:15; De Waal et al., 2001:230). When analysing *S v Makwanyane and another, 1995 (3) SA 391 (CC)*, it became clear that this sentiment was voiced by O'Regan J who said,

*The importance of dignity as a founding value of the new Constitution cannot be overemphasised. Recognising a right to dignity is an acknowledgment of the intrinsic worth of human beings: human beings are entitled to be treated as worthy of respect and concern. This right*

*therefore is the foundation of many of the other rights that are specifically entrenched.*

When interpreting the right to human dignity, the history of South Africa will therefore feature strongly. One of the most important challenges when developing the new constitution was addressing the inequalities and unfair discrimination of the past. The Labour Relations Act was promulgated as early as 1995, proof that rectifying unfairness and discrimination in the workplace was deemed important and urgent. This Act will be discussed more fully in par. 2.2.3.1. When employees feel threatened, insecure, discriminated against and insulted because of the behaviour of others in the workplace, and when their well-being is therefore being eroded, their fundamental right to human dignity is certainly neither respected nor protected.

#### **2.2.1.6 Section 9: Equality**

Section 9(1) states that “everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law” and section 9(2) states that “equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms”. Rossouw (2004:14-15) is of the opinion that the workplace is one of the most important arenas for establishing the ideals of the country, viz. human dignity, equality and freedom as expressed in the preamble to the Constitution. Discrimination is not allowed by the state as stated in section 9(3), or directly or indirectly by any person as stated in section 9(4). When interpreting this particular right, it is important to note that discrimination per se is not prohibited, but rather unfair discrimination. When discrimination is merely a form of differentiation, it is not unfair.

The determining factor in establishing whether discrimination is fair or unfair, according to the Constitutional Court, is the impact of the discrimination on its victims (Botha, 2004:277; De Waal et al., 2001:210). It is up to the person who is “doing the discriminating” to prove that the discrimination was reasonable and justifiable (Anon., 2003c). An important distinction is that an intention to discriminate need not necessarily be present to be judged unfair discrimination (Grogan, 2001:220). In *Prinsloo v Van der Linde*, 1997 (3) SA 1012(CC) para 31, the court held that unfair discrimination “principally means treating people differently in a way which impairs their fundamental dignity as human beings, who are inherently equal in dignity”. This

discrimination can be direct or indirect and the motive of the employer is irrelevant (Grogan, 2001:221). If therefore an educator is treated differently from his colleagues by a principal, causing insecurity and a negative impact on his dignity as a human being, such behaviour should be seen as unfair discrimination and as an infringement of the right to equality.

The Bill of Rights not only guarantees our rights, but also states in section 34 that we can defend our rights in court. It is therefore not improbable that educators may seek court action when their rights are ignored. A problem encountered by schools in disciplinary matters that involve suspension and expulsion, is the unreasonable delay by some heads of Education Departments, which lead to prolonged uncertainty amongst educators and the other parties involved. This results in unruly and often violent learners remaining in classrooms and educators suffering insecurities and the undermining of their authority. In *Maritzburg College v Dlamini NO & other [2005] JOL 15075 (N)* the HOD of the Natal Education Department was summoned to a High Court hearing because of failure to respond to correspondence on the matter of expulsion. He was harshly reprimanded during the hearing, and in addition section 9 of the SASA was amended through the Education Laws Amendment Act 24 of 2005 in January 2006 (Rossouw, 2008a) to include specific time frames. Building a human rights culture depends greatly on the attitudes of individuals and the respect and tolerance they show towards other people (Anon., 2005a). If intolerance, disrespect, abuse, harassment and other negative elements form part of the treatment of an educator in the school environment, his human rights are seriously impeded and the state, in its drive towards creating a human rights culture, should be prepared to take or seek accountability.

As stated earlier, the Bill of Rights is supreme law and all other legislation should be consistent with the Bill of Rights. However, De Waal et al. (2001:37) state that, in practice, the indirect application of the Bill of Rights to the law should always be considered before direct application to law or conduct. In other words, the Bill of Rights should not override ordinary law, but its values should be respected in the interpretation of ordinary law. Section 39(2) of the Bill of Rights (SA, 1996a) pertains to the indirect application of the Bill and states that "... when interpreting any legislation, and when developing the common law or customary law, every court,

tribunal or forum must promote the spirit, purport and objects of the Bill of Rights". The legislation referred to in the next paragraphs therefore deserve careful scrutiny as they pertain to security in the workplace.

## **2.2.2 Education legislation**

As noted previously, in education the relationship between employer and employee is unique. The labour laws which govern relationships specifically in education, will therefore be discussed in the following paragraphs.

Although several laws regulate relationships in education, the issue of security in education is not dealt with in all these acts. The extent to which safety and security is provided for in the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (SA, 1998c), the National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 (SA, 1996c), the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (SA, 1996b), the Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools (SA, 2006) and the South African Council for Educators Act 31 of 2000 (SA, 2000b) will be discussed in the following paragraphs, as well as the lacunae which may exist in legislation in this regard.

### **2.2.2.1 The Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998**

The main statute that regulates labour relations in education is the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (SA, 1998c). The purpose of this act is "to provide for the employment of educators by the state, for the regulation of the conditions of service, discipline, retirement and discharge of educators and for matters connected therewith". This Act deals with the conditions of service, appointments, promotions and transfers, the termination of services, incapacity and misconduct of educators. In section 17 of this Act, serious misconduct of educators is dealt with. The physical safety of educators is addressed when it is stated in section 17(d) that it is imperative for an educator to be dismissed in the event where he or she is found guilty of "seriously assaulting, with the intention to cause grievous bodily harm to a learner, student or other employee". In section 18 of this Act misconduct is defined as the "breakdown in the employment relationship" and section 18(e) refers to the misconduct of an educator if he or she "in the course of duty endangers the lives of himself or herself or others by disregarding set safety rules or regulations".

Furthermore in section 18(y) it is stated that an educator causes a breakdown in the employment relationship when it is proven that he/she refuses to obey security regulations and in section 19(x) when he or she carries firearms or other dangerous weapons on State premises, without the written authorisation of the employer. These provisions are clearly instituted to ensure the physical safety of educators at school by protecting them from possible harmful or threatening conduct of fellow educators (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:110). It can be regarded as a lacuna that the protection of the psychological safety of educators is not referred to in this statute.

### **2.2.2.2 The National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996**

The National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 (SA, 1996c) is important legislation for educators as it was developed to facilitate the democratic transformation of the national system of education to serve the needs and interests of all the people of South Africa and to uphold their fundamental rights. Although safety and security in the school as workplace is not directly addressed in this Act, the reference to the advancement of the fundamental rights of all is important for security. The Act states in section 4(a) that the fundamental rights of every person as guaranteed in terms of the Constitution shall be advanced and protected. As mentioned earlier, some of these rights, for example the right to dignity and the right to equality, have a bearing on security in the workplace.

### **2.2.2.3 The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (SASA)**

The SASA (SA, 1996b) was drafted in order to provide for a uniform system for the organisation, governance and funding of schools. Because of the history of racial inequality and segregation that formed part of the previous education system, a new act which would be in line with the newfound democracy in South Africa, was necessary. As stated in the preamble to the act, the new system for schools would have to redress past injustices, provide an education of progressively high quality and would combat unfair discrimination and intolerance and “uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators”. The fundamental rights as stipulated in the Constitution of South Africa (SA, 1996a) are therefore provided for again in the SASA. This Act is silent about the impact of crime and violence on schools, but does place the responsibility on principals, educators and Governing Bodies to promote

and maintain a culture of teaching and learning (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:52). There are, however, several sections of this Act which could be interpreted as referring directly or indirectly to security in the workplace. In section 8 the governing body of a public school is called upon to develop a code of conduct for learners. It states in section 8(5), when referring to disciplinary proceedings, that provisions must be made for due process safeguarding the interests of the learner and any other party involved in disciplinary proceedings. In the case of an educator involved in such proceedings, his or her interests (including safety and security) will have to be protected under this provision. Section 18A stipulates that the Member of the Executive Council must determine a code of conduct for the members of the governing body. This code of conduct must, according to section 18A(2), "be aimed at establishing a disciplined and purposeful school environment". A school that is not a "safe haven for educators and learners" (Oosthuizen (ed.), 2005:14) could not be described as disciplined and purposeful. Furthermore, section 20(e) subjects the governing body to "support the principal, educators and other staff in the performance of their professional functions". When educators experience a lack of security in the school, this could be seen as an indication of a lack of support by, amongst others, the governing body.

The annexure to the SA Schools Act, the *Guidelines for the consideration of Governing Bodies in adopting a code of conduct for learners* (SA, 1996b), stipulates that

- There should be a relationship of mutual trust and respect between learners and educators. Victimisation of the one by the other is unacceptable (article 5.6).
- "Disrespectful, objectionable behaviour and verbal abuse directed at educators or other school employees or learners" are regarded as offences that may lead to suspension (article 11(j)).

The rights of educators therefore include the right to be treated with respect by learners. The above provisions further stipulate consequences for learners if this right is disregarded.

#### **2.2.2.4 SASA: The Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools**

Although the SASA (SA, 1996b) is silent on the impact of crime and violence on schools, this has been rectified by the Regulations for Safety Measures at Public Schools (SA, 2006), which was promulgated in 2001 and amended in 2006. These

regulations deal extensively with the threat of dangerous objects such as explosives and firearms, drugs, access to public schools premises, visits to the school by various parties, school activities, transport and emergency procedures. Section 4(2) states that “all public schools are hereby declared drug free and dangerous object free zones” and in section 9(5) that “public schools must develop action plans to counter threats and violence which have the potential to have a negative impact on school activities and to implement regulation 4(1)”. Significant for educators, is section 9(6) which states that “the plans in sub regulation (5) must ensure the safety of all learners, staff members and parents during school activities”. Once again, though, the psychological impact of violence and other influences at school is not addressed in this document. In the light of the deluge of information worldwide on stress in the workplace in general, and more specifically in schools, which will be referred to in par. 2.3, this lacuna in this Act is a serious oversight.

#### **2.2.2.5 The South African Council for Educators Act 31 of 2000**

The provisions regulating the South African Council for Educators were taken out of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (SA, 1998b) when the South African Council for Educators Act 31 of 2000 (SA, 2000c) was promulgated. The aim of this act is to provide for the registration of educators, to promote the professional development of educators and to set, maintain and protect ethical and professional standards for educators, by means of the functioning of the council. No mention is made of ensuring security in the workplace, although it may be argued that in order to promote professional development, educators would have to experience a feeling of security and well-being. Registration at the SACE (South African Council for Educators) is prerequisite for educators and those who are found guilty of offences as stipulated in this Act, may be barred from the profession.

#### **2.2.3 National labour relations and labour legislation**

Apart from the education laws which regulate or impact on labour relations in education in South Africa, there are several other labour laws applicable to educators and their workplace. The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 (SA, 1995), the Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997 (SA, 1997a), the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (SA, 1998a), the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 (SA,

1993), the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 (SA, 1998b), the Skills Development Levies Act 9 of 1999 (SA, 1999a) and the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3 of 2000 (SA, 2000a) apply to most labour relations in South Africa. In the following paragraphs these laws will be examined and analysed in order to determine their relevance to workplace security.

### **2.2.3.1 The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995**

It is stated in section 1 of the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 (SA, 1995) that this Act aims at advancing economic development, social justice, labour peace and the democratisation of the workplace. It deals with issues such as freedom of association, collective bargaining, strikes and lock-outs, workplace forums, trade unions, employer organisations, dispute resolutions and unfair dismissals. It gives effect to section 23 of the Constitution which deals specifically with labour relations.

Chapter 5 makes provision for workplace forums and in section 84 specific matters for consultation are dealt with. In section 84(5) health and safety are explicitly referred to when it is stated that, subject to any applicable occupational health and safety legislation, a representative trade union and an employer may agree that the employer must consult with the workplace forum with a view to initiating, developing, promoting, monitoring and reviewing measures to ensure health and safety at work. Furthermore, section 84(5)(b) states that the employer and trade union representative may agree that a meeting between the workplace forum and the employer constitutes a meeting of a health and safety committee. This legislation requires the establishment of such a committee in the workplace and section 84(5)(c) stipulates that one or more members of the workplace forum are health and safety representatives for the purposes of that legislation.

Chapter 7 Part D which deals with matters of the Labour Court, also makes mention of safety in section 158, which makes provision for the powers of the Labour Court. Section 158(i) affords the Labour Court the power to hear and determine any appeal in terms of section 35 of the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 (SA, 1993) and section 158(j) to deal with all matters necessary or incidental to performing its functions in terms of this Act or any other law. The establishment of workplace forums in South African labour relations is part of an international movement towards

promoting greater levels of cooperation between employees and employers (Rossouw, 2004:57). Unfortunately, in the educational sphere workplace forums are currently restricted to higher education institutions where there is more direct contact between employer and employee.

Sections 64 to 77 of the Labour Relations Act provide for a variety of aspects of strike actions, protest action and lock-outs, also referred to as industrial action. In section 64 to 69 characteristics of illegal and legal strikes are discussed. If the right procedures are followed, employees who take part in strikes are protected against charges or sanctions. The widespread perception amongst educators that their rights are put second to the rights of unruly learners could become the trigger for such action (Rossouw, 2008a).

The provisions of the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 mentioned in this section will be discussed in the following paragraph.

#### **2.2.3.2 The Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993**

The Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 (SA, 1993) is the key preventive legislation to consider with regard to safe workplaces, including schools (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:110). This Act makes provisions for the health and safety of persons at work and the protection of others in the vicinity of the workplace. According to Rossouw (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:111) some of the duties of employers referred to in section 8, apply to the school setting. They include the provision of safe systems of work, plant and machinery; taking reasonably practicable measures to eliminate hazards before resorting to personal protective equipment; establishing what hazards exist in the workplace and what precautionary measures should be taken; providing such information, instructions, training and supervision necessary to ensure safety; and informing all employees of their duties and the scope of their work. In section 14 of the Act an employee is instructed, amongst others, to take reasonable care of her/himself and others, to carry out lawful orders and obey health and safety rules and procedures and to report unsafe or unhealthy situations to his employer. Rossouw (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:111) is of the opinion that the duty of the employer to ensure and protect the psychological well-being of educators might even be more relevant, but this is not provided for in the Occupational Health and Safety Act.

### **2.2.3.3 The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997**

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997 (SA, 1997a) was promulgated to give effect to the right to fair labour practices referred to in section 23(1) of the Constitution. Chapter 2 of this Act deals with the regulation of working time, and demands of every employer to regulate the working time of each employee “in accordance with the provisions of any Act governing occupational health and safety” (section 7(a)) and “with due regard to the health and safety of employees” (section 7(b)). Section 13(1) states further that, although this chapter of the Act stipulates average hours of work, the Minister may, on grounds of health and safety, prescribe by regulation the maximum permitted hours of work. This regulation would therefore protect the employee against abuse at work which could occur through long working hours which may be detrimental to the health and safety of the worker. This Act should protect educators from excessive after work hours work load as required from many educators at present.

### **2.2.3.4 The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998**

The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (SA, 1998a), as stated in its preamble, was promulgated *inter alia*, to promote the constitutional right of equality and the exercise of true democracy, to eliminate unfair discrimination in employment and to promote economic development and efficiency in the workplace. Although security in the workplace is not directly addressed in this Act, equality as a fundamental right of every South African forms the basis for the provisions of the Act. Unfair discrimination and harassment are also dealt with in Chapter II of this Act, and section 6(3) states that “Harassment of an employee is a form of unfair discrimination and is prohibited on anyone”. Section 60 protects employees from the discriminatory conduct of other employees. The implication of section 60 of this Act is that an employer will be held liable for the discriminatory conduct, which includes harassment, of an employee against another employee if he fails to eliminate such conduct once it has been brought to his attention (Le Roux, 2005:6). In two landmark cases, two employers were found vicariously liable for damages suffered by an employee because of the sexual harassment by a colleague. *Ntsabo v Real Security CC* [2004] 1 BBLR 58 (LC) and *Grobler v Naspers & another* [2004] 5 BBLR 455 (C) were the first major actions for sexual harassment under the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998. In the

latter case, when passing judgment, Nel J stated that Naspers placed the accused, Samuels, in a position of authority which enabled him to "create a hostile work environment and his conduct was foreseeable social behaviour". These cases brought to the attention the fluidity of the concept of vicarious liability. The case of Naspers in which the employer was remiss only in the sense of placing Samuels in a position of authority over the victim, showed that vicarious liability in such cases is not based on the employer's fault or blameworthiness. Important for employees and for this study is the clear message that if employees harass their colleagues to the extent that they suffer physical or psychological harm, employers will be held liable.

### **2.2.3.5 Other national labour legislation**

For the sake of obtaining an holistic picture of labour laws in South Africa, a summary of the aims of these laws is included here although they do not deal specifically or directly with safety and security in the workplace. They include the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998 (SA, 1998b) which applies to the public sector and partly to the private sector (Bray & Beckmann, 2001:114), with the purpose of improving "the employment prospects of persons previously disadvantaged by unfair discrimination and to redress those disadvantages through training and education" (section 2(1)(e)). In the preamble to the Act it provides for an institutional framework "to devise and implement national, sector and workplace strategies to develop and improve skills of the workforce". The provisions in the Skills Development Levies Act 9 of 1999 (SA, 1999a) are administered by the Department of Labour and provide, amongst others, for the imposition of a skills development levy to be paid by employers, the distribution of these levies and the procedures for the recovery of the levy by the Sector Education and Training Authority. The Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3 of 2000 (SA, 2000a) gives effect to the right to administrative action that is lawful, reasonable and procedurally fair and to the right to written reasons for administrative action as contemplated in section 33 of the Constitution. It also promotes an efficient administration and good governance; and the creation of a culture of accountability.

Cognisance should be taken of the fact that some of these stipulations do refer to the security of employees, albeit only indirectly - primarily with respect to the principle of fairness.

Safety in the workplace is not only provided for in legislation, but several common law principles also apply, as will consequently be discussed.

#### **2.2.4 Common law**

Because the common law duty to provide safe working conditions is imprecise and resulted in many workers in earlier years being exposed to unsafe conditions, the legislature intervened (Grogan, 2001:56). This prompted the design of labour laws to regulate relationships in the workplace.

In South Africa common law can be defined as those legal traditions derived from the Roman-Dutch and English law of the seventeenth century which have not been written down as statutes (Rossouw, 2004:19). Under common law, employers are obliged to provide their employees with reasonably safe and healthy working conditions (Grogan, 2001:56). This author quotes this duty of employers as one of the three principal duties of any employer (Grogan, 2001:53). Employment contracts between employer and employee are mainly determined by common law principles. These contracts include the rights and duties of both employee and employer (Rossouw, 2004:21) and should therefore include the basic principle of providing a safe environment. The possible liability of employers who fail to provide a safe environment, which would include psychological security, will be examined in the following paragraphs.

##### **2.2.4.1 The law of delict: accountability**

In South Africa the law of delict, or law of tort as it is known in the USA, Australia and other countries, is also based on common law principles and falls within the field of private law. A delict can be defined as “the act of a person which in a wrongful and culpable way causes harm to another person” (Rossouw, 2006:30). The law of delict allows an individual to claim compensation from someone who does something that causes him harm (Anon., 2002a). In order to establish accountability, in other words for someone to be found delictually liable, the following two issues need to be investigated:

- Whether a legally acknowledged individual interest has been harmed. In other words the action of an individual did in fact cause the damage.

- Once this has been proven to be the case, it has to be further established, through the application of legal norms, whether the action occurred by unlawful or unreasonable means (Neethling, Potgieter & Visser, 2006:33).

The law of delict can therefore only apply when a harmful result has occurred. The pillars of the law of delict include claims in cases of “wrongful and intentional injury to the body” and “compensation for injury after impairment of the bodily or physical-mental integrity” (Rossouw, 2006:32). The latter refers to the violation of the so-called “subjective rights” which all people possess. These rights include such aspects as bodily integrity, honour, privacy and identity (Neethling, Potgieter & Visser, 2006:50). Although the general rule applies that a person is not delictually guilty when he neglects to protect somebody else from harm, some special relationships do indicate a legal responsibility of one party to protect the other in certain circumstances. One such relationship is that of employer and employee (Neethling, Potgieter & Visser, 2006:54, 66, 67).

In order to determine whether the law of delict could be applied in a specific education related incident, the following will have to be investigated:

- whether the administrative body acted beyond its granted power (the *ultra vires* principle),
- whether a duty of care is owed to the educator by the employer (Oosthuizen (ed), 2003:43-45).

It seems evident that the *ultra vires* doctrine could be applied in the school environment. In the case, for example, where an educational manager exceeds his powers, such an act would be *ultra vires*. Neethling et al. (2006:105) refer to this action as “malice”. Baxter (as cited by Oosthuizen (ed) 2003:44) further states that to be within the powers of an authority, the “executive officer must act fairly and reasonably at all times”. Other legislation entrench the right to be treated fairly in the workplace. In the preamble of the SASA (SA, 1996b), which was discussed in par. 2.2.2, there is a call for an education of progressively high quality that would combat unfair discrimination and intolerance and “uphold the rights of all learners, parents and educators”. The right to fair labour practices is referred to in section 23(1) of the Constitution, while the Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997 (SA, 1997a)

was promulgated to give effect to the right to fairness in the workplace. Acts of discriminatory behaviour and bullying by the employer and other employees must clearly be seen as unfair. If this behaviour is deliberate, persists and causes impairment to the “physical-mental integrity” of the educator in the form of damage such as stress-related ailments, such action could be deemed wrongful and the employer may be held delictually liable, provided that a causal link is established.

Finally, and probably most significantly, it is important to determine whether the employer owes a duty of care to the educator. On the one hand it has to be established whether this duty of care is legally owed (the “duty-issue”) and on the other hand whether a breach of this care occurred (the “negligence-issue”) (Neethling, Potgieter & Visser, 2006:144). As noted in par. 2.1.3, educators in the same school may have different employers, viz. the minister of education, the governing body and the principal as a “quasi-employer” or representative of the various employers. Taking into account the “special relationship” referred to above between employer and employee, a principal or minister of education who fails to protect an educator from bullying, violence or work overload for instance, may be held liable. In establishing a duty of care, the test of the reasonable person is applied (Neethling, Potgieter & Visser, 2006:144). In other words, in the case of an educator the test would be whether the employers took sufficient care to avoid harm as would any reasonable person. If, for example, the “disrespectful, objectionable behaviour and verbal abuse directed at educators” referred to in par. 2.2.2.3 (SA, 1996b) is allowed to continue without intervention from employers of the educator, it can be seen as failure to protect the educator from harm in the work environment. As mentioned in par. 2.2.3, the net for the liability of employers has been cast wider in two landmark sexual harassment cases, viz. *Ntsabo v Real security CC* [2004] 1 BBLR 58 (LC) and *Grobler v Naspers & another* [2004] 5 BBLR 455 (C) brought under the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998. In *Naspers* the court had no difficulty with shaping the common law to meet the new problem of sexual harassment in the workplace. Nel J commented during his judgment that the common law had to be developed by virtue of the courts' constitutional duty to develop it in the interests of justice and in accordance with the Bill of Rights. When determining whether a duty of care exists, it is important therefore to note that section 39(2) of the Constitution (SA, 1996c) provides that every court must promote the spirit, purport and objects of

the Bill of Rights. It is therefore necessary to consider whether the rights contained in the Constitution can be aligned with the common law. As illustrated in *Bernstein v Bester* 1996 (4) BCLR 449 (CC) a statute may have to be generously interpreted and the Bill of Rights indirectly applied to legislation to avoid a conflict in this regard (Otto, 2000:1). During the analysis of the Bill of Rights in par. 2.2.1, several sections which suggested the duty of care by an employer, were discussed. These sections will be summarised here:

- Section 12 states that everyone has the right “to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources” (section 12(c)), “not to be tortured in any way” (section 12(d)), “not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way” (section 12(e)) and that “everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity” (section 12(2)). This section combined with the common law duty of employers “to provide safe and healthy working conditions” (Rossouw, 2004:34) leaves little argument regarding the duty of care owed employees by their employer as far as treatment of the person is concerned. The Department of Education, as principal employer of educators, as well as the school principal as its representative, will need to acknowledge this duty of care and that it extends to bodily as well as psychological integrity.
- Section 24(a) states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”. A similar argument as above can be made here. Furthermore, the duty of care by the employers of educators is strengthened by the SASA (SA, 1996b), which was discussed in par. 2.2.3, and which states in section 9(6) that “the plans in sub regulation (5) must ensure the safety of all learners, staff members and parents during school activities”. These plans refer to safeguarding the physical safety of educators, amongst others. Section 24 is clear, though, that those responsible for creating the environment, which should include the work environment as argued in par. 2.2.1.3, have to ensure the “well-being” of employees as well. In this case this duty of care again rests with the Education Department, but partly with the Governing Body as well. In section 20(e) of the SASA (SA, 1996b), the governing body is required to “support the principal, educators and other staff in the performance of their professional functions”. Although a general duty of care

owed to educators by the governing body may be difficult to prove, their lack of interest in, or action regarding a psychologically unhealthy school environment, could be construed as being negligent.

- Section 23 is pertinently directed at employers and states that “everyone has the right to fair labour practices”. This implies that the employer should ensure these practices in the spirit of the Constitution which is based on “democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights”, as stated in its preamble. A parent would be judged unfair and therefore negligent in her duty of care when harassing and discriminating against one of her children. In the same way an employer who engages in this type of behaviour towards certain employees, or allows others to do so, could be neglecting to fulfil a duty of care.
- Section 10 protects the human dignity of all and is seen as the foundation of all rights. This right calls for everyone’s dignity to be “respected” and “protected”. In the workplace, the duty to protect the dignity of employees lies unequivocally with the employer. In the school environment, this duty would lie directly with the principal who is the only “employer” present to detect, prevent, refrain from and act against undignified treatment of educators.
- Section 9(1) states that “everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law”. Section 9(2) states that “equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms”, 9(3) states that discrimination is not allowed by the state and 9(4) that discrimination is not allowed directly or indirectly by any person. In *Fraser v Children’s Court, Pretoria North 1997 (2) SA 261 (CC)* para 20, Mahomed DP said, “There can be no doubt that the guarantee of equality lies at the very heart of the Constitution. It permeates and defines the very ethos upon which the Constitution is premised.” Based on the constitutional court’s understanding of equality, it becomes clear that the right to equality imposes the obligation on the state and on “any person”, therefore employers as well, to adopt measures to prevent unfair discrimination (Commission on Gender Equality, 2003). In section 23 fairness is entrenched in the rights of all in the workplace. The duty to ensure this fairness, which undoubtedly incorporates guarding against unfair

discrimination which could have a detrimental effect on educators, should lie with all the various employers of educators.

Neethling et al. (2006:145) are of the opinion that when applying the principle of the reasonable person when judging possible negligence, proving a duty of care becomes unnecessary. Taking into account the “special relationship” referred to above between employer and employee, a principal or minister of education who fails to protect an educator from bullying, violence or work overload, for instance, may be held liable. Under the law of delict, therefore, the Department of Education could be held delictually liable for any physical or psychological harm suffered by educators if proven that they intentionally or through negligence, allowed harmful influences to negatively affect the safety and psychological well-being of educators. These “harmful influences” could include an employer, learners or other staff members causing physical or psychological harm to an employee (for example by management style which could cause continuous stress and eventual physical harm). The Naspers and Ntsabo cases referred to earlier in this paragraph, must be seen as a warning to employers that physical as well as psychological harm suffered by an employee can result in a claim of damages against the employer. The courts have also indicated, through these judgements, a willingness to extend the boundaries of vicarious liability.

The breach in the duty of care by the employer, or the negligence to perform a legal duty to protect the employee from harm, could be interpreted as unlawful conduct, because of an omission to act upon the harmful conduct of a principal, other employees, or even learners towards an educator. Even if this omission is not intentional, fault through negligence could be a strong argument.

#### **2.2.4.2 The law of delict: compensation**

The law of delict has two functions, viz. to compensate and to redeem (Neethling, et al., 2006:203). The question remains whether the arguments in the previous paragraphs would hold up in a court of law and whether the law of delict allows for compensation or remedy for the lack of security and the resulting stress of the educator. It has been argued by academic writers that the law, for public policy reasons, is reluctant to assume the existence of a duty of care (Anon., 2005b), and

furthermore that the courts are reluctant to recognise emotional distress claims (Andrews, 1999:1). The law is, on the other hand, capable of punishing the inducement of mere emotional distress, unaccompanied by any psychological harm or physical trauma (Neethling, et al., 2006:278; Ludsin, 2003). In the case of stress related ailments, a claim for loss of amenities of life may for instance be a possibility if an educator has lost the ability and will to enjoy life as before (Neethling, et al., 2006:235). Therefore, an investigation into the possibility of restitution for educators seems pertinent.

Although unlawful, a delict is not a criminal act but a private law issue and the aim is to pay damages to the plaintiff (Rossouw, 2006:34; Neethling, et al. 2006:7). In the case of inhumane and degrading treatment by an employer the court would apply the test of the reasonable person (Anon., 2002a) to determine whether negligence can be established. The court could find that the reasonable person would have foreseen that this on-going action would cause harm, that the reasonable person would then take steps to avoid the harm (for instance in the case of stress-related symptoms) and that the person who did the action did not take steps to avoid the harm. Bullying and harassment by an employer, fellow employee or learner might constitute harm under the law of delict. Bullying is described as the wilful and conscious desire to cause harm to another person who is unable to defend himself and the use of power to intentionally cause harm and suffering (Anon., 2002a). Bullying as a cause of stress suffered by many educators will be discussed in more detail in par. 2.3.2.6. When principals and the Education Department fail to protect educators from stress and burnout caused by work overload over a period of time, this may also be seen as negligence in performing a legal duty of care because of the special relationship that exists between employer and employee in this instance.

Another aspect of labour relations that deserves attention is that of the psychological contract. Linde (2007:16) cites Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl and Solley who see the psychological contract as “an exchange relationship between employer and employee in which each party has expectations about mutual obligations”.

### **2.2.5 The psychological contract**

Hendry and Jenkins (1997:39) state that the psychological contract was traditionally seen as an exchange of loyalty between employer and employee for security. A violation of the psychological contract refers to emotional and affective reactions by the individual who feels that the organisation failed to properly uphold its end of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson as cited by Linde, 2007:17). This occurs when “the employee perceives a discrepancy between perceived obligations and promised obligations” (Schalk, Heinen & Freese, as cited by Linde, 2007:29). Linde (2007:16) further states that this contract can include beliefs about role responsibilities, job security and an employer’s integrity.

Linde (2007:14-17) cites numerous issues that may form part of the content of such psychological contracts. Some of these perceived promises that may have a direct bearing on the psychological security of educators in their workplace, are support, rewards, own work fashion, right of own opinion, flexibility, recognition, procedural fairness, communication structures, information, co-employee relationships, good working atmosphere, fair work pressure, righteous management, trust in management and fair work time to name but a few. It has been illustrated in this chapter that legislation to protect the psychological security and health of educators does exist, but that the application and implementation thereof appear to be ineffective. Linde (2007: 42) states that a correlation between the experiences of employment regulations and the psychological contract, “can link work wellness with the experience of clarity of these regulations and the employee’s trust in the application thereof”. This implies that the health, well-being and psychological security of an educator is linked to how clear they perceive employment regulations to be and their trust in the application of such regulations.

It has become clear during the study of legislation which protects the safety and well-being of employees in South Africa, that attention should be given to the fine tuning of legislation which protects the health and well-being of workers and to the implementation thereof. A clear understanding of the components that constitute a safe working environment is therefore essential.

### 2.3 PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL COMPONENTS OF A SAFE WORKING ENVIRONMENT

One aim which was identified and investigated thus far in this study, is whether labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace. From the analysis of the literature, it is clear that the one area which appears to have been neglected in many statutes which govern safety in the workplace is the psychological element. This chapter illustrates that legislation to protect the health and well-being of educators does exist, but its implementation seems to a large extent ineffective. The time seems ripe in South Africa for litigation with a psycho-legal focus (Kirsten, Viljoen & Rossouw, 2005). If government ignores the negative psychological effects of the school environment on educators, industrial action is a possibility. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, this may seem far-fetched at present, but such action is not uncommon in countries like the USA and the UK and some disgruntled groups in South Africa may well consider such action in the future. In the United Kingdom, for instance, industrial action was initiated in order to protect teachers' health against abuse in psychologically toxic work environments.

In England educators have reacted against a seemingly uncontrollable learner that adversely affected their security. In *P v National Association of Schoolmasters/Union of Women Teachers [2003] 1 All ER 993 [2003] UKHL 8*, a case in the House of Lords, the applicant, a pupil, was found by teachers to be disruptive in class and violent and abusive in the playground. The headmaster directed that he should be permanently excluded from school, but the governors directed his reinstatement and teachers were instructed to take him back into their classrooms. The staff took industrial action and refused to teach the learner. The learner's subsequent appeal was dismissed. As mentioned in par. 2.2.1.6, it is not improbable that educators in South Africa may seek court action when their rights are ignored. In the National Association of Schoolmasters case, such an action was against the conduct of a specific learner, but in South Africa industrial action should be aimed at the employer. According to the provincial secretary of the South African Teachers' Union (Afr.: SAOU), groups of educators would welcome and without doubt employ such an option if it was legal (Rossouw, 2008a).

Few examples of the courts in South Africa taking heed of psychological suffering by workers exist. In South Africa, in *Bester v Commercial Union Versekeringsmaatskappy van SA Bpk* 1973 (1) SA 769 (A) it was held that there was

*no reason in our law why somebody who, as the result of the negligent act of another, has suffered psychiatric injury with consequent indisposition should not be entitled to compensation, provided the possible consequences of the negligent act would have been foreseen by a reasonable person in the place of the wrongdoer.*

It was specified that a foresight of the reasonable possibility of harm was required. In *Road Accident Fund v Sauls* 2002 (2) SA 55 (SCA) the court held in summary that

*there is no general public policy limitation to the claim of the plaintiff for damages for the negligent causation of emotional shock and resultant detectable psychiatric injury, other than a correct and careful application of the well-known requirements of delictual liability and the onus of proof.*

These judgments notwithstanding, the courts in South Africa have been reluctant to compensate victims of emotional stress (Andrews, 1999).

Fortunately for workers, including educators, the Constitution of South Africa (SA, 1996a) forms an umbrella of protection for all South Africans. As mentioned previously, section 24(a) deals directly with the environment and states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”. The literature on stress deals extensively with work-related stress and the emotional and health risks coupled with this disorder. This prompts an investigation into the levels and causes of stress suffered by many educators in South Africa and other countries, which is threatening the well-being of many.

### **2.3.1 Stress in the workplace**

Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005:266) refer to a number of studies which have been conducted on burnout and stress in the teaching profession in various countries. Stress has been described as the “disease of our time” and research done worldwide indicates that teachers’ stress is becoming endemic (Olivier & Venter,

2003:186). Furthermore it has been found that persons in the helping professions, of which teaching is one, are particularly prone to stress because of their idealistic goals. As mentioned in this chapter the protection of psychological well-being is not stated pertinently in most labour laws. This seems a matter which should be addressed urgently. According to Rossouw (2004:10), education has always been an important indicator of the well-being of South Africa, and developments in labour relations in education that bring about better working conditions and a higher level of competency among educators should be a high priority for the authorities.

### *2.3.1.1 Stress defined*

Stress is a medical term that describes how the human body reacts when it fears it is under attack. This can be caused by mental or physical conditions or both (Anon., 2004a). The word stress is derived from the Latin word "strictus", which literally means taut (Olivier & Venter, 2003:186). Selye (1974:82) describes stress as physical form or pressure, or extreme scientific overload of an object, or a psychological condition brought about by specific demands of the environment on a person. Stress has many physical as well as psychological symptoms.

### *2.3.1.2 Recognising stress*

Numerous research studies have concluded that the stress that educators suffer, can manifest itself on an emotional as well as on a physical level (Olivier & Venter, 2003:188; Jarvis, 2002; Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192-194). Schulze and Steyn (2007:691) cite research which showed that excessive pressure may lead to poor teaching, poor decision-making, lowered self-esteem, low job satisfaction and lack of commitment in terms of remaining in the profession. Although stress is primarily an emotional response and is initially an internal emotional response to external pressure, if not dealt with it may result in personality and character changes (Vanderlis, 2003).

- Emotional/psychological symptoms

The list of stress related psychological symptoms is extensive. These symptoms can include mood swings, fears and phobias, aggression, irritability, anxiety, apprehension, depression, lack of self-worth, emotional disassociation and isolation

(Vanderlis, 2003). A large number of educators are suffering from emotional exhaustion (Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999: 192), which, together with the physical components of stress, can lead to burnout (Montgomery, Mostert & Jackson, 2005:266). According to Schaufeli, as cited by Montgomery et al. (2005:266), exhaustion and mental distancing, viz. cynicism and depersonalisation constitute the two key aspects of burnout. Mental distancing can also be described as the psychological withdrawal from the task, according to Malach et al. (as cited by Montgomery et al., 2005:266). To compound matters further, stress can lead progressively to a decrease in performance, health injury and long-term absence from work (Lynch, 2006). P.J. Rosch, president of the American Institute of Stress, quotes at least 50 common symptoms of stress which have been documented at the Institute (Crute, 2004:1). Many of these symptoms are physical.

- Physical symptoms

Examples of stress-related physical symptoms in the literature are vast. In their study on teacher stress, Olivier and Venter (2003:188) concluded that teachers' stress manifests itself in cardiovascular symptoms, gastronomic symptoms and fatigue. These authors cite Silverman (Olivier & Venter, 2003:288) who warns that prolonged stress can lead to physical problems such as migraine headaches, hypertension and peptic ulcers. Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005:267) cite numerous studies which show the causal relationship between stress and health, and mention symptoms like coronary heart disease, ulcers, some forms of cancer, allergies, back problems and an increased frequency of minor ailments such as colds and flu. Vanderlis (2003) explains that we react to pressure in our environment with a "fight or flight" reaction which allows the cortisone, adrenalin and noradrenalin to increase our blood pressure, blood sugar and blood fats. This produces many of the physical conditions mentioned above, and if left untreated, can result in fatal conditions. It is clear from these examples that the situation is serious and that, to find a solution, the causes of educator stress in the workplace need to be identified.

### **2.3.2 The causes of stress in the workplace**

The U.S. Department of Labour stated that the workplace is the greatest single source of stress and the New York-based American Institute of Stress reported that as many as 75 to 90 percent of visits to physicians are stress related (Anon., 2004b).

Recent studies in the United Kingdom have revealed that 75% of time off work is caused by stress (Anon., 2006a) and the “stress disease” strikes 85% of South Africans in some form or another (Vanderlis, 2003). There are a multitude of causes cited for stress in the workplace; however, certain stressors are intrinsic to the school as workplace and will receive special attention in the following paragraphs.

### *2.3.2.1 Violence*

Newspaper reports paint a sombre picture of the state of safety in many schools in South Africa with recent headlines such as: “MEC to probe violence at Cape school”, “School head allegedly beaten up by parent”, “Teachers want armed guards at schools” and “Workplace bullying must be addressed” (Rossouw, 2005:2). The Sunday Times headline (Govender, 2006:33) “Reading, writing and rampage” in which schools in South Africa are described as “violence racked”, “war zones” and “sites of war” was only one of a series of such headlines in papers across the country after several incidences of violence. According to Maree (Oosthuizen (ed.), 2005:16), violence in South African schools has been escalating since 1994 despite the new democracy. In a study conducted by Eliason and Frank (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:23) in twenty schools in the Cape Metropolitan area, physical violence and fighting were reported in 95% of the schools and assault occurred regularly in 60% of the schools. A recent study found that the three major forms of violence and the threat of violence that educators in South Africa experienced, included instances where learners or educators have been found carrying weapons into the schools; assaults; and fights involving weapons (Anon., 2005c). A recent newspaper article titled “Girl gangsters flex their muscle” (Govender, 2008:9) reports on schoolgirls who form cliques and are assaulting others on the playground. Violence, and the threat of violence, is quite clearly a major component which shapes the safety and security of the work environment of educators. Section 12(c) of the Constitution states the rights of South Africans, therefore of educators in the workplace, “to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources”. It is therefore the duty of the state to protect educators’ physical safety in school.

When working in an environment where violence regularly occurs, educators will feel distressed and anxious and a sense of helplessness and impotence may prevail (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:26).

### *2.3.2.2 The school building and environment*

Section 20(1)(g) of the SASA (SA, 1996b) requires the school governing body to administer and control the property, building and grounds occupied by the school. This entails, according to Squelch (2002:142) *inter alia*, keeping school buildings in good repair, as school safety is largely dependent on the physical condition of a school and the presence of physical safety features such as a secure fence, controlled access and secure doors and windows. If the building, as an important part of the work environment, leaves educators vulnerable, the state and the school may be liable for any injury or threat which educators may suffer. Another area where educators can be confronted with an unsafe work environment could be in school laboratories and technical workshops. In section 8 of the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 (SA, 1993) the employer's duties are mentioned. Some of these are also applicable to the school setting (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:111), for example

- the provision of safe systems of work, plant and machinery,
- taking reasonably practicable measures to eliminate hazards before resorting to protective equipment,
- establishing what hazards exist in the workplace and what precautionary measures should be taken,
- providing such information, instructions, training and supervision necessary to ensure safety, and
- informing all employees of their duties and the scope of their work.

The duty of the Governing Body of a school to “administer” and “control” the school environment, would therefore imply that the physical condition and the way the school environment is managed, should provide a safe and secure environment for learners as well as educators.

### *2.3.2.3 Fellow employees*

The misconduct of fellow employees can also cause an unsafe and insecure working environment, as was mentioned in the example in the previous paragraph of educators carrying weapons to school. The Labour Relations Act (SA, 1995) in

Schedule 8(4) describes as one form of serious misconduct the “wilful endangering of the safety of others, physical assault on the employer, a fellow employee” amongst others. Educators therefore have a statutory right to protection against the unsafe behaviour of colleagues in the workplace.

Drunkenness by fellow employees can be another threat to the safety of educators. In the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 (SA, 1998c) the misuse of alcohol is clearly specified as a form of misconduct. Drunkenness may lead to aggression, dangerous driving, harassment and abuse, which can be a clear danger to the safety of fellow educators (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:113). In a departmental report by the Free State Province (Anon., 1997), misconduct frequently reported on included drunkenness, educators not attending classes and not acting professionally.

Although not such an immediate danger, employees smoking in non-designated areas can be seen as a real threat by many educators. This behaviour is in contravention of the Tobacco Control Amendment Act 12 of 1999 (SA, 1999b), and, as stated in its preamble, tobacco use holds a threat to the health of both smokers and non-smokers. Under the law of delict, educators may be able to claim damages if ill-health can be proven because of what has become known as “passive smoking”. Because of the time factor between event and illness, the link between the wrongful act and the damage might be difficult to prove.

Although it does not qualify as misconduct, a serious issue threatening the health and safety of workers is HIV/AIDS in the workplace. Educators are exposed to fellow educators as well as learners who may be HIV positive. This is a threat that management should not ignore, as educators working with infected learners and colleagues will often be fearful of being infected themselves (Oosthuizen (ed), 2005:116). Employers should ensure that educators are given factually correct information and proper training in dealing with others when they are, for instance, bleeding after an injury.

With the Naspers and Ntsabo cases discussed earlier in this chapter in mind, the misconduct of colleagues can have far-reaching consequences for employers as well. These cases should be sending out a clear message to the employers of

educators that they have a responsibility to protect educators against the misconduct of their colleagues.

#### *2.3.2.4 Learner discipline*

Although it was found in an international study that the majority of South African schools maintain a reasonable level of order and discipline (Rossouw, 2003:423-425), it is clear from the literature studied, that discipline constitutes a problem in many South African schools (Wolhuter & Oosthuizen, 2003:437; Oosthuizen, Roux & Van der Walt, 2003:373). Many educators are at a loss when dealing with misconduct of learners since the administration of corporal punishment became a criminal offence in South African schools as stated in section 10 of the Schools Act of 1996 (SA, 1996b). Many educators are convinced they have lost control, their authority has been diminished and learners are generally less respectful. Because of the violent and threatening behaviour of some learners, as quoted above, educators may feel unsafe in their own classrooms. Recent studies on learner discipline (Rossouw, 2007:212-213) revealed that disgruntlement does exist amongst educators, principals and members of school governing bodies regarding the way in which the provincial departments of education approach school governing bodies' recommendations for uncontrollable learners and those found guilty of criminal activities to be expelled from schools. These severe forms of ill-discipline have far-reaching and detrimental effects on the security and general well-being of educators. The dissatisfaction with the employer was voiced in a public announcement by the SAOU (Roux, 2007), in which fourteen concerns and reasons for frustration educators have to cope with, were listed. These concerns included the rights of learners who transgress outweighing that of the the silent and law-abiding majority; violence and intimidation against educators by learners and some parents; and the disregard of educators' rights by education authorities and some governing bodies. According to Oosthuizen (Rademeyer, 2008:6) educators need training in education law in order to enable them to know their rights and that they may lay charges of assault when learners push them, and charges of *crimen injuria* when learners insult them or swear at them.

### *2.3.2.5 Change and reform in education*

Because of the imbalances and inequality of the past, major changes have taken place in many spheres in South Africa. According to Singh and Lokotsch (2005:279) change is more imminent and the future more challenging in our schools today than ever before in our existence. Although efforts to implement change in schools have presented themselves in many forms world-wide, for instance through reform, restructuring and renewal, very little research can be found on the effect of these changes on educators (Booyse & Swanepoel, 1999:214). According to Marais (as cited by Olivier & Venter, 2003:186), the new education approach of OBE, coping with current political change, and new governing bodies for schools are some of the factors causing stress amongst educators. Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005:266) allude to several changes which are placing high demands on educators. These include political and social changes, affirmative action, democracy, diversity, retrenchment and redeployment of educators, the transition from nineteen departments of education to one national and nine provincial departments of education and the change from monocultural to multicultural schools. Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen and Wissing (1999:192) note that the adjustments associated with the changes in the South African educational system, are experienced as traumatic by many female teachers. This is an important contributing factor in the continuous stress they experience. In a study conducted by Booyse and Swanepoel (1999:217) most respondents indicated that changes regarding teaching methods influenced them the most, while changes in learner evaluation and school structure were seen as strong influences as well. Change as a cause of stress appears to be a world-wide phenomenon. Travers and Cooper (cited by Jarvis, 2002) found that teachers named constant change and lack of information about change among their greatest sources of stress.

### *2.3.2.6 Management style*

The literature on stress consistently cites ineffective management style as a cause of work related stress. Researchers for the HSE study from Bristol University examined responses from 8 000 respondents and found a clear link between adverse working conditions such as not being supported enough by managers, and stress (Labour Research Department for the Communication Workers Union [CWU], 2001). In the

school environment, the principal fills the role of manager. In a study by Olivier and Venter (2003:190), respondents expressed their concern because they were not given the opportunity to air their opinions or concerns and said that their authority was rejected by principals. Inadequate administrative support or communication is cited often in the literature as a cause of stress for educators in the workplace (Anon., 2003a; Anon., 2005c; Olivier & Venter, 2003:186).

Unfortunately the problem runs far deeper than a lack of support and communication. Workplace bullying seems to be rife in organisations worldwide, as well as in schools. According to the Work Trauma Foundation (cited by Kirsten, Viljoen & Rossouw, 2005), 78% of employees in South Africa have been bullied or victimised at least once in their careers and these authors quote Field who found that one in three teachers in the United Kingdom claimed to have been bullied at work. At the NASUWT (National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers) conference in the UK, delegates described bullying by principals as a “cancer”, as creating “a climate of fear and uncertainty” and as resulting in “health problems and breakdowns” (Parkinson, 2006:1). When taking into account that it has been estimated that bullying at the hand of co-workers and bosses is a more devastating problem for employees than all other work-related stresses combined, (Kirsten, Viljoen & Rossouw, 2005) the gravity of the situation cannot be ignored. Bullying can be described as repeated inappropriate behaviour conducted against a person who could reasonably be regarded as undermining the individual’s right to dignity at work (Anon., 2004c). Indicators of workplace bullying may include abusive language, intrusive monitoring, no say in how to do your job, belittling opinions, constant criticism, inappropriate comments, deliberately withholding work-related information, being required to perform trivial tasks and unreasonable administrative sanctions, to name but a few. Although bullying by principals is clearly contravening many of South Africa’s laws, for example the rights to human dignity, equality, fair labour practices and an environment that is not harmful to one’s health or well-being, workplace bullying seems to be rife in South African schools and is impeding the physical as well as the emotional security of educators (Rossouw, 2005:4).

### *2.3.2.7 Classroom climate*

One of the most important factors influencing the climate in the classroom appears to be classroom discipline, with classroom management being one of the greatest sources of anxiety for educators (Jarvis, 2002). Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen and Wissing (1999:192) state that the most aggravating factor contributing towards burnout of educators seems to be linked to pupils, especially careless pupils and disciplinary problems. The fact that educators are often isolated for long periods of time in their classrooms, alone with their learners, can play a role in creating tensions that can even culminate in violence by and against educators (Anon., 2003a). New educators are even more at risk to suffer from anxiety and depression because of a negative classroom climate. Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005:266) also cite classroom climate as a cause of educator stress and ill-health and include issues such as lack of classroom discipline, routine, lack of material aids and low decision-making powers as contributing factors. Other factors such as overcrowded classrooms, testing pressures, paperwork and anxious parents all negatively influence classroom climate (Crute, 2004:1).

### *2.3.2.8 Workload*

Many educators show evidence of stress because of work overload, excessive working hours and role overload, in other words coping with a number of competing roles within their job (Jarvis, 2002; Schulze & Steyn, 2007:693). Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005:266) cite increasing workload, too many pupils in a class and various and competing tasks to complete as some of the classroom stressors educators have to contend with. The physical exhaustion which educators suffer and the associated mental distancing, constitute, according to Schaufeli (cited by Montgomery, Mostert & Jackson, 2005:266) the two key aspects of burnout. Pines and Aronson (cited by Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192) note that burnout is a multi-dimensional phenomenon that includes emotional, physical and cognitive exhaustion.

According to Rossouw (2008b) the lack of support that educators experience from provincial departments in several areas, was a topic of debate at the 2008 annual international conference of the South African Education Law Association. He warned that, should provincial departments of education be too slow, ineffective or reluctant

to remedy issues, including excessive workload, educators may resort to industrial action against their employers.

### *2.3.2.9 Other components*

The most crucial causes of educator stress as cited in the literature have been discussed here, but they are by no means the only stressors educators experience in the workplace. Personal life concerns, illness, ergonomics, not living up to ideal performances, lack of acknowledgement and low self esteem are some of the litany of causes of stress in the workplace cited in the literature (Stensgaard, 2003; Jarvis, 2002; Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192). To compound matters further, bullying of educators is unfortunately not restricted to principals. An educator often becomes the victim of bullying behaviour perpetrated by colleagues and parents (Kirsten, Viljoen & Rossouw, 2005; Anon., 2004c).

Although legislation exists, there seems to be no doubt that the security and well-being of many educators in South Africa and abroad are not adequately protected and that many educators are suffering psychologically and physically because of the lack of protection and support by the state and the school and because of ineffective application of the laws that should protect them. The situation seems critical when considering that a recent study found that 55% of educators are considering leaving the education service, citing job stress as one of the main reasons (Anon, 2005b). Van Wyk (cited by Olivier & Venter, 2003:186) states that statistics indicate that educators hand in more medical insurance claims than persons in other professions, have a four year shorter life expectancy than the national average and often blame stress as a reason for sick leave from school. The answer to the problem statement, "To what extent does labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace", seems disturbingly clear. The time is undoubtedly ripe for investigating why legislation, which is designed to protect the rights of educators in the workplace and to ensure a healthy and secure environment, falls so seriously short of ensuring the protection it guarantees. It seems increasingly urgent finding solutions to solve a situation that has many signs of getting out of hand.

Article 3 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations, 1948) states that “Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person”. In article 23 of the same declaration, the right to “just and favourable conditions of work” is provided for. In the Universal Declaration of Human Rights the General Assembly proclaimed the following:

*This Universal Declaration of Human Rights as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations, to the end that every individual and every organ of society, keeping this Declaration constantly in mind, shall strive by teaching and education to promote respect for these rights and freedoms and by progressive measures, national and international, to secure their universal and effective recognition and observance, both among the peoples of Member States themselves and among the peoples of territories under their jurisdiction.*

The extent to which the security of educators is protected in some of these “member states” and “territories” will be examined in the following paragraphs.

## **2.4 FOREIGN LAW DETERMINANTS FOR A SAFE WORKING ENVIRONMENT**

In the following section legislation in the United Kingdom, the United States of America and Australia pertaining to security in the workplace for educators, will be examined.

### **2.4.1 The United Kingdom**

In the United Kingdom health and safety regulations developed over the years in a rather ad hoc way. Although certain areas of employment (factories, mines and shops, for example) were covered by legislation by the 1970s, the education sector was not covered by any safety legislation (Anon., 2003d). This was rectified by the introduction of the Health and Safety at Work etc Act of 1974 (UK, 1974). As laid out in Section 1 of the Act, the main purposes of the Act are to secure the health, safety and welfare of people at work, and to protect other people against risks to their health or safety arising out of the activities of people at work. This Act imposes general duties of care on the employer, who in education is the LEA (local education authority) and the governing body which has delegated powers of management (Anon., 2003d). The 1974 Act requires all employers to have a health and safety

policy statement, which in most schools will be available in the form of a “health and safety manual”. The LEA will have its own overall health and safety policy statement which should be circulated to all LEA maintained schools.

To assist in implementing and overseeing health and safety law, the Health and Safety Commission (HSC) was established by the Government under the 1974 Act. In the education sector the HSC is assisted by the Schools Education Advisory Committee, known as SEAC (Anon., 2003d). Guidance documents for schools produced by SEAC include guidance on managing work related stress. Stress as a result of insecurity at work, receives significant attention in the UK if judged by the numerous studies which have addressed the issue of stress in general and teacher stress in particular. Some of these studies as cited by Jarvis (2002), include Pitters and Soden (1998) who found role overload as a major stressor, Travers and Cooper (1997) who identified classroom discipline and Hoel, Rayner and Cooper (1999) who indicated bullying as some of the reasons for teacher stress in the UK. The government’s Health and Safety Executive has a comprehensive guide to stress which can be accessed online.

UK employers do not only have a general duty of care under the Health and Safety at Work etc Act 1974 (UK, 1974), but also a specific duty under the UK Management of Health and Safety at Work Regulations 1992, revised in 1999 (UK, 1999) to undertake risk assessments for potential risks, including stress. These regulations formed part of what is known as the “six pack regulations”, a series of six sets of regulations emanating from Europe which transformed the management of health and safety in the UK. The other 5 regulations are the Workplace (Health, Safety and Welfare) Regulations 1992, the Manual Handling Operations Regulations 1992, the Provision and Use of Work Equipment Regulations 1992 (revised in 1998), the Personal Protective Equipment at Work Regulations 1992 and the Health and Safety (Display Screen Equipment) Regulations 1992. Under these regulations introduced via EU law in 1993, employers must therefore identify stress hazards in the workplace and eliminate them.

Although there is no legislation that directly addresses bullying in the UK, a Northumberland primary teacher was awarded £100 000 in 1998 in an out-of-court

settlement after he had been bullied by his principal (Field, 2002). In a landmark victory against Newport County Borough Council for failing to respond to her suffering stress in the classroom, Jan Howell was awarded £250 000 compensation in 2000 (Jarvis, 2002). The protection against work-related stress was tested again in court in 2002. In an English Court of Appeal case, *Sutherland v Hathon* (2002 EWEA Civ 76) in which four cases, which included two teachers, were heard as one, only one had their award upheld for overwork, depression and awareness on the part of the employer. The case was important as the court set out a test for establishing liability for workplace stress, which included showing injury to psychological health, attributable to stress at work rather than other factors and which was reasonably foreseeable (Gubb & partners, 2003).

Legislation in the UK seems to have gone a long way to protecting employees in the workplace. Statistics on work-related ill-health in this country still seem staggering, though. In 2005, Great Britain lost 28 million working days through work-related ill health (Anon., 2006b). Clarke (2005) cites research conducted in Ireland by the Irish Congress of Trade Unions that found that 88% of teachers reported high levels of stress. Irish Life, a large insurance company in Ireland, attributes the increase in claims on the grounds of mental and physical ailments to the increase in work-related stress.

#### **2.4.2 The United States of America**

The numerous studies conducted in the United States of America on attitudes, violence and stress in the workplace, reveal a sombre picture. According to two studies the United States has the highest violent crime rate of any industrialised nation with an average of 20 workers murdered each week (Anon., 2006c) and according to the US Department of Justice 1 million employees are assaulted at work each year in the US of which nearly 160 000 sustain physical injury (Hoel, Sparks & Cooper, 2004:1). An estimated 1 million workers are absent every day due to stress and a survey found that the number of employees calling in sick due to stress, tripled from 1996 to 2000. Furthermore the survey found that over half of the 550 million working days lost annually in the US from absenteeism are stress related (Anon., 2006c). In this cited article distributed by the American Institute of Stress, California paid almost 1 million dollars for medical and legal fees alone in 1987 and in

1996 a jury in New York awarded nearly 6 million dollars to three women for repetitive stress injury allegedly due to faulty computer keyboards. According to the National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) in the US (cited by Hoel, Sparks & Cooper, 2004), work-related diseases (including stress), account for a total cost of \$26 billion annually.

Although this picture looks bleak, there appears to be a lack of effective legislation which protects employees specifically from the psychological effects of an insecure workplace. On the other hand, where the laws do exist enforcement of the laws seems deficient (Compa, 2000). The Occupational Safety and Health Act of 1970 (USA, 1970) was passed to provide workplaces free from hazards and to require employers to comply with occupational safety and health standards. In section 5 of this Act, it is stated that “each employer shall furnish to each of his employees employment and a place of employment which are free from recognized hazards that are causing or are likely to cause death or serious physical harm to his employees”. In section 3 “occupational safety and health standard” is defined as “a standard which requires conditions, or the adoption or use of one or more practices, means, methods, operations, or processes, reasonably necessary or appropriate to provide safe or healthful employment and places of employment”. The basic human rights of workers in the US are also protected by the Bill of Rights (USA, 1791) and the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (USA, 1976) although specific reference is not made to work environments in these Bills. Apart from general legislation governing workers, teachers are also protected by the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (USA, 1964) from, for example, discrimination on the grounds of race, sex and religion. The 200-page Human Rights Watch report (Compa, 2000) was based on case studies across a range of industries, occupations and regions of the United States in order to test the application of human rights in the workplace. The report uncovered a pattern of threats, harassment, spying, firings and other reprisals against worker activists and revealed a labour law system that does not deter such violations. The report also found that one-sided rules unfairly favour employers over workers.

Moves to improve the protection of workers with more effective legislation seem to be failing. The Healthy Workplace Bill (HWB) for instance was first put forward in 2003 in

the United States, but to date only one state employees' union, California, has co-sponsored it and one, Hawaii, has endorsed it (Namie, 2006:1). The problem that arises for American union officials is the mistreatment of worker-on-worker and the decision whether to defend the offender or the victim. Because the bill is seen by employers as a "job killer" and because of an unwillingness to "create another class of victims", it has only passed one committee vote to date (Namie, 2006:1). America has also been unwilling to ratify this decision of the the International Labor Organization (ILO), which is designed to protect the rights of workers in all spheres of human endeavour (Russo, 2007:42-44). Russo is of the opinion, though, that while this is true, the combination of Federal and State laws affords workers at least as much protection as the ILO.

Most voices in the literature do not portray Russo's positive attitude towards legislation that can protect workers in the United States of America. The need for stricter legislation to protect workers in this country seems urgent, judged by the incidence of bullying alone, which is rife in the workplace in the US. 20% of the 139,4 million people in the US workforce have experienced bullying (Anon., 2000a). A campaign to fight bullying in the workplace, has had limited success. In *Zimmerman et al. v. Direct Federal Credit Union et al.* (Anon., 2000a) an employee was awarded \$730K compensatory and punitive damages for bullying and victimisation at work. Another employee in Washington D.C. was awarded more than \$500 000 for wrongful discharge after being diagnosed with hypertension allegedly caused by work-related stress.

### **2.4.3 Australia**

In Australia governments introduced laws to make workplaces safer during the 1900's. In 2002 all Australian Governments, the Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ACCI) and the Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) set clear goals by signing up to a ten year National Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) Strategy to improve Australia's OHS performance (Andrews, 2006). In his speech at the launch of the Safe Work Australia Week in 2006, Andrews, minister for Employment and Workplace Relations, blamed inconsistencies in OHS legislation across states and territories as a key impediment to a "multi-state business's ability to manage the health and safety of their workforce". He mentioned examples like

different definitions of employee and employer and of injury and different sets of rules for rehabilitation. According to Andrews, Australia has ten different workers' compensation schemes; he called for reforms in order to focus on improving safety rather than managing administrative costs.

In Australia it is the mission of the Australian National Occupational Health and Safety Commission (NOHSC) to "lead and co-ordinate national efforts to prevent workplace death, injury and disease in Australia" (Haines, John & Park, 2005).

The states and territories in Australia all have their own legislation which governs safety in the workplace. Some of these states and territories will be discussed here. In the Australian Capital Territory a new offence of industrial manslaughter was created and the importance of workplace safety was reinforced by the Crimes (Industrial Manslaughter) Amendment Act 2003 (Australia, 2003).

The Victorian Occupational Health and Safety Act 1985 was replaced by the Occupational Health and Safety Act 2004 in an attempt to bring Victoria's safety laws up to date "to reflect modern workplaces and arrangements" (Australia, 2004). In section 21(1) of this Act it is stated that all employees are entitled to "a working environment that is safe and without risks to health". The Act also states in section 21(2)(a) that a duty of an employer is to "provide or maintain plant or systems of work that are, so far as is reasonably practicable, safe and without risks to health" and in section 21(2)(d) to "provide, so far as is reasonably practicable, adequate facilities for the welfare of employees at any workplace under the management and control of the employer". According to the advisory service of the Victorian WorkCover Authority, WorkSafe Victoria (2005), this includes

*how work is organised, including work processes and safe operating procedures, work arrangements, the pace, and procedures to prevent and manage fatigue, occupational stress and violence.*

Worksafe Victoria, a division of the Victorian WorkCover Authority, also published a Guidance Note titled "Prevention of bullying and violence at work" which includes a section on preventing workplace bullying and preventing occupational violence. These Guidance Notes are prepared with the assistance of employer groups and

unions in order to address workplace issues and to find practical solutions (WorkSafe Victoria, 2003). This publication lists state and federal anti-discrimination legislation such as the Equal Opportunity Act 1995, the Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Act 1986 and the Sex Discrimination Act 1984 (Worksafe Victoria, 2003:32). It states, furthermore, that bullying and violence that occur within the workplace will be covered by the discrimination legislation if the bullying or violence amounts to discrimination on the basis of a prescribed attribute or meets the legislation's definition of unlawful harassment.

In New South Wales workers are protected by the Occupational Health and Safety Act 2000. Although New South Wales has the highest maximum financial penalties for those found guilty of breaching of the Act in Australia, the Act does not allow for the imprisonment of offenders (Haines, John & Park, 2005). In 2004 the NSW government decided to toughen the Occupational Health and Safety regulatory scheme, but again opted against amending the New South Wales' criminal code to introduce an industrial manslaughter offence.

The Act which sets out the laws about health and safety requirements affecting the workplace in Queensland is the Workplace Health and Safety Act 1995 (Australia, 1995). Together with the Workplace Health and Safety Regulation 1997, the Act provides a framework for managing health and safety risks in workplaces in Queensland. The Act specifically seeks to reduce the risk of a person's death, injury or illness as a result of a workplace or work activity and establishes a framework for preventing or minimising exposure to risk by, for example, workplace health and safety obligations, regulations and codes of practice and workplace health and safety officers, committees, representatives and inspectors (Anon., 2006d). Queensland has also not opted to introduce industrial manslaughter offences into the criminal code, but the decision-makers have discretion to sentence offenders to a term of imprisonment under Queensland's OHS legislation (Haines, John & Park, 2005).

In Western Australia the Occupational Safety and Health Act 1984 was replaced by the Occupational Safety and Health Legislation Amendment and Repeal Bill 2004. The Bill proposes an increase in penalties for breaches of the Act and it allows for imprisonment in extreme cases.

In the Northern Territory, the Northern Territory Work Health Act 1986 provides legislation for OHS policy and procedure and is administered by the Work Health Authority, Department of Industries and Business. The objectives which are explicitly stated in the Act are amongst others to

*promote occupational health and safety in the Territory to prevent workplace injuries and diseases, to protect the health and safety of the public in relation to work activities, to promote the rehabilitation and maximum recovery from incapacity of injured workers, to provide financial compensation to workers incapacitated from workplace injuries or diseases (Anon., 2000b).*

It is clear that there are numerous OHS laws in operation at Commonwealth, state and territory level in Australia. Although the various acts differ, they all seem to agree that employers have a duty to provide a workplace where, so far as practicable, employees are protected from hazards in their workplace. Employers are generally instructed to provide safe systems of work, information, instruction, training and supervision. Employers are also instructed to consult and cooperate with safety and health representatives and other employees. The welfare of workers is referred to regularly and stress is widely considered an occupational hazard if it adversely impacts on safety and health in the workplace (Anon., 2006e).

It appears that Australia is serious about protecting its workers through legislation. The second annual national Safe Work Australia Week was held in October 2006 as a way of encouraging Australian workplaces and occupational safety and health organisations and practitioners to focus even more on safety and health. As in most other countries, there are no legislative provisions explicitly requiring employers to protect employees from psychological insecurity and the resulting work-related stress. The general duty of care in the various OHS Acts does require that employers protect employees from risks to their health or safety. This duty includes protecting workers' mental or psychological health as well as their physical well-being. Stress-related illnesses in the workplace are rife in Australia, as it appears to be in the rest of the world. Australia-wide, stress-related compensation claims nearly doubled from 1990 to 1994 (Inverarity, 2006). In NSW alone, the cost of stress claims rose from \$5.6 million in 1990 to \$35.7 million in 1994, and by January 1998 it had risen to \$60

million per year. A 1997 Australian Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) survey of over 5000 workers indicated that 25% of workers were taking time off each year for stress-related reasons.

According to Inverarity (2006) Australian courts have recently found that employers may be liable to pay compensation in situations where workplace stress leads to employees suffering serious illnesses such as terminal cancer. She cites the case of *Simpson & Simpson v State of SA Department of Correctional Services*, in which the South Australian Workers Compensation Tribunal found that “the worker’s employment contributed to the cancer that caused his death”. As a result, the tribunal ordered the employer to pay damages to the employee’s widow. In another case the NSW Court of Appeal upheld a District Court’s decision awarding an employee almost \$500,000 in damages because of depression, post traumatic stress disorder and chronic dysthymia he suffered as a result of his work, holding the employer liable for the former employee’s psychiatric injury.

## **2.5 SUMMARY**

When investigating legislation which protects educators in their work environment - several acts, the Bill of Rights and the common law - it is apparent that such protection does exist. Although most labour legislation fails to address the psychological security of educators directly, sufficient evidence has been presented in this chapter to demonstrate that this right is implied in a large body of legislation. Unfortunately, this does not result in a feeling of confidence that “all is well” with educators in schools in South Africa at present. It is abundantly obvious when examining the literature that educators are under enormous stress because of psychological insecurities in their workplace. They are suffering psychological as well as physical symptoms and many are planning to leave the profession. Although one problem statement of this study, “To what extent does labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace”, has been answered, the answer does not satisfy. It is certainly not enough that legislation exists to protect educators from psychological insecurity, if the application of such legislation is too ineffective to afford them the rights and protection they are promised.

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## 3 CHAPTER 3: CREATIVITY THEORIES AND SECURITY OF EDUCATORS

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### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the term creativity will be defined and the history of the creativity movement will be summarised. Creativity theories will be addressed, as well as the various research studies conducted on the influence of creativity on behaviour such as problem solving skills, coping with change and stress. Views on the relationship between creativity and the creation of safe and supportive environments will be highlighted with the emphasis on education and the school as a work environment. In conclusion, creativity as a possible solution to educator insecurity in the workplace will be introduced.

#### 3.1.1 Defining creativity

The 21<sup>st</sup> century has preferred a “describing creativity” rather than “defining creativity” approach. Describing seems to evoke the “possibility” nature of creativity where as defining places the emphasis on boundaries. It is clear from the literature that most scholars find it difficult to define creativity and opt for several descriptions, rather than one overarching definition. Numerous definitions or descriptions of creativity can be found in the literature. Dictionaries define *creative* as “original, imaginative, ingenious, inventive, visionary” (Family Word Finder, 2006:200) and as “relating to or involving the use of imagination or original ideas in order to create something” (Concise Oxford English Dictionary, 2006:335). According to Taylor (1988), more than 60 different definitions of creativity can be found in the psychological literature alone.

Torrance (1994:7) describes creativity as “the process of sensing problems or gaps in information, forming ideas or hypotheses, testing and modifying these hypotheses, and communicating the results”. This author and founder of the Torrance Center for Creative Studies, states that this process may lead to verbal, non-verbal, concrete and abstract products. This definition by Torrance implies that creativity is a sensing of problems or gaps and the solving of these problems which leads to certain

outcomes. Wilson (1997:1) cites various definitions of creativity. For example, Rollo May, writer and philosopher, described it as “the process of bringing something new into being”. Wilson also cites writer Roger von Oech who defined creativity as “imagining familiar things in a new light, digging below the surface to find previously undetected patterns, and finding connections among unrelated phenomena”. In much of the literature on creativity, it is summarised as the ability to generate novel and useful ideas and solutions to everyday problems and challenges (Cave, 1999; Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:12).

Ford and Harris (1992:187), who investigated creativity among children from culturally diverse groups, defined creativity as “a modifiable, deliberate process” which is “verified through the uniqueness and utility of the product created”. Ryhammer and Brolin (1999:261) describe creativity as “exceptional human capacity for thought and creation” and Dacey and Lennon (cited by Craft, 2001) describe it as “the ability to produce new knowledge”. Many of these definitions will be alluded to during the rest of this chapter.

The growing insight into creativity was a process which developed over several decades. In the following section, this process will be addressed.

### **3.1.2 An historical overview of creativity**

The famous address of Guilford to the American Psychological Association in 1950 appears to be seen as the formal starting point of the scientific study of creativity (Puccio, 1999:1; Cropley, 1999:1; Robinson & Stern, 1998:42). In his address, Guilford called for more “divergent thinking”, which he explained as branching out, generating alternatives and making unusual associations. He criticised educational institutions that were focused on intelligence and excluded creativity. Guilford’s address sparked a prodigious interest in creativity. In the twenty-five year period before this landmark address, fewer than 250 articles on creativity had been published. By 1960, about the same number of papers were published each year (Robinson & Stern, 1998:42).

The concern with creativity as something to be nurtured and developed was stimulated by three books written between 1948 and 1953 by Alex Osborn (Parnes

(ed), 1992:76), titled *Your creative power, Wake up your mind and Applied Imagination*. It was in the political and economical climate after World War II that the realisation grew that the world needed creative potentialities to grow to the full in order to achieve lasting peace. By 1954 Osborn had founded the Creative Education Foundation at the State University College at Buffalo and by 1955 he had established the Annual Creativity Problem-Solving Institutes (Parnes (ed), 1992:76). At this time, creativity was regarded as important enough to be included into legislation. The initial legislation emphasising giftedness and creativity in schools in the US was the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (Association of American Universities, 2006). One of the primary purposes was to produce more and better mathematics and science students in order to produce a next generation of scientists and engineers who would ensure that America was able to compete with the Soviet Union. Initially the arts were ignored during this time because they were considered frivolous. Educators and the art community, though, argued that the arts were important because it fosters creative problem solving skills that would transfer to other spheres of human intellectual activity. This argument was accepted and over the next four years \$70 million per year was given towards this area of education. By the 1960s, social sciences and the humanities were being funded under the National Defense Education Act.

According to Torrance (1994:26), a “quiet revolution” has emerged in the goals and methods of education in the United States since the 1960s. This revolution has been in the direction of greater emphasis on both creative problem solving and creative expression. The first course on creativity in its own right (and not part of other courses) at tertiary level, has been running since 1949 in the State University of Buffalo. In numerous “regular” subjects at tertiary institutes in the US and other countries, creative principles and procedures have been incorporated (Parnes (ed), 1992:44). Creativity research and programmes have been established in countries across the world, including Canada, Britain, Europe, South America, Australia, India, Japan, South Africa and many others (Parnes (ed), 1992:60). Creativity has become part of many courses world wide, for instance MBA courses (Anon., 2006f), software programmes on creative problem solving (Anon., 2006g; Anon., 2002b) and corporate development workshops (Anon., 2007a; Anon., 2005d).

Since 1915 several researchers have made efforts to measure creative ability (Torrance, 1994:50). The Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking®, developed in 1966 and referred to as TTCT®, are widely considered to be the most highly recommended creativity testing tool in the education and corporate fields (Kim, 2003:1; Kaufmann, 2006:1; Hébert, Cramond, Millar & Silvan, 2005). These tests have been translated into 35 languages.

When studying the literature, the multifaceted nature of the concept creativity emerges. In the next section the creativity theories which have developed over nearly a century, will be examined.

## **3.2 CREATIVITY THEORIES**

The many theories of creativity have been categorised by several authors and some of these categories and classifications will be referred to in this section. The theories discussed here will include the attempt of the three branches of psychology to explain the source and purpose of creativity, viz. psychoanalysis, humanistic psychology and behaviourism. Other theories referred to in this section will be those which hold the view that cognitive processes underlie creativity.

### **3.2.1 Psychoanalytical theories**

The various psychoanalytic schools of thought generally suggest that creativity is a by-product of primary processes and that it wells up from unconscious drives (Bergquist, 2000:1). The psychoanalyst Freud suggested that creativity arose as a result of frustrated desires which sublimated into creative activity (Gray, 2004:1). Other Freudian theorists built on this premise and stated that the individual uses creativity to seek pleasure and to avoid pain (Bergquist, 2000:1). These views by psychoanalytical theorists seem to have shifted in later years. Modern psychoanalytic theory has moved from viewing creativity as a “pleasure seeking tool”, and emphasises more strongly that individuals are prevented from being emotionally available for creative activity by our unconscious blockages (Brearly, 2001:1). Freud, who initially proposed the psychodynamic approach to the understanding of

creativity, retracted the view of frustration and emotional tension sublimating into creative activity in later years (Bergquist, 2000:1).

The psychoanalytical theorists seem, therefore, to have moved away from seeing creativity as purely neurosis, to “admitting” that creativity cannot solely be explained as “sublimated sexual energy, and libidinal curiosity” (Bergquist, 2000:1).

### **3.2.2 Behaviourism**

J.B. Watson and others developed radical behaviouristic psychology early in the 20<sup>th</sup> century in response to the subjectivism associated with psychoanalysis. The radical behaviourist postulates that only what is observable is appropriate for scientific psychological study and therefore creativity, which is an unobservable internal process, cannot be explored (Bergquist, 2000:1). Behaviourism therefore confines its study to the behaviours associated with creativity.

The basic behaviourist view is that a person is not an initiating force in the creative act, but rather a focal point where environmental and genetic forces work together for a common effect (The Lutenist, 2002:1). The behaviourist Skinner denies personal autonomy and attributes individuality to the person’s biological and environmental history (Abra, 1988); he therefore rejects creativity as a personality trait that can influence behaviour. According to Skinner (Skinner, 1967:postscript), the environment selects behaviour and, “on the analogy of natural selection, takes over the role of creative thought, purpose, and plans.” This theory fails to explain creativity which includes information impossible for the individual to have known previously (Bergquist, 2000:1). Arieti (cited by Bergquist, 2000:1) summarises Skinner’s theory on creativity as characterising man as being “moulded, conditioned and programmed by the environment in a rigid, almost inescapable way”. Arieti continues to stress man’s ability to escape his fate and states that “creativity is one of the major means by which the human being liberates himself from the fetters not only of his conditioned responses, but also of his usual choices”.

Behaviourism is therefore primarily concerned with observable behaviour, as opposed to internal events like thinking and emotion, and does not allow for free will in creative acts.

### 3.2.3 Humanistic theories

The humanistic perspective states that creativity is a special perceptiveness on the part of certain individuals who can see the concrete as well as the generic, the abstract as well as the classified (The Lutenist, 2002:1). Furthermore, humanists view humans as conscious and self-directed beings and creativity as essential to the growth of the individual (Huitt, 2001:1).

Maslow, seen by some as the patriarch or pioneer of Humanistic Psychology (Parnes (ed), 1992:96; Bergquist, 2002:1), describes creative people as “self-actualized” and characterises them as having “boldness, freedom, courage and spontaneity” (The Lutenist, 2002:1). Maslow divides creativity into three categories, viz. primary, secondary and integrated creativity. He describes primary creativity as creativeness which comes out of the unconscious and which is the source of new discovery of ideas. Maslow includes cognitive and conative processes in this theory (Bergquist, 2000:1). He proclaims that all healthy children possess this creativeness and that it is universal. Secondary creativity results from higher thought processes which occur when analysis, discipline and hard work are added to primary creativity (Bergquist, 2000:1; Parnes (ed), 1992:96). Maslow relates this to scientific discovery which occurs when people, standing upon the shoulders of those who have come before them, discover and create (Parnes (ed), 1992:98). Maslow’s final category, integrated creativity, fuses primary and secondary creativity and is the source of the great works of art, philosophy and scientific discoveries (Bergquist, 2000:1). Maslow describes the person who manages the fusion of both these processes as someone who

*can live with his unconscious; live with, let’s say, his childishness, his fantasy, his imagination, his wish fulfilment, his femininity, his poetic quality, his crazy quality* (Parnes (ed), 1992:101).

Maslow’s theory of creativity “redeems” the base human nature of man, believing that creativity allows us to escape our fate and allows us to become whole (Bergquist, 2000:1).

### 3.2.4 Cognitive process creativity

The term “cognition” was coined in 1967 by Ulric Neisser in his book *Cognitive Psychology* (Sacks, 2005:1) and referred to “all processes by which the sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered, and used”. The term cognitive process is defined as a volitional mental operation that can be learned, like learning a new language or learning to solve a mathematical problem (The Lutenist, 2002:1). It is clear from the literature that since the early 1990s creativity and cognition as a field of research has evolved and matured. Weisberg (in Kaufman (ed.) 2006:7) states succinctly that “knowledge and reason play an important role in creative thinking”. According to Churchland (as cited by Shapere, 1998:879) cognitive creativity has to do with the “capacity for the novel deployment ...of one’s own neuronal populations”. He uses Einstein’s account of planetary motion to explain cognitive creativity as “the capacity to see or interpret a problematic phenomenon as an unexpected or unusual instance of a prototypical pattern already in one’s conceptual repertoire”. Cognitive creativity is usually divided into two parts, viz. the generation of new ideas and the evaluation and modification of new ideas (Lau & Chan, 2007:1).

Creativity as a function of a cognitive process is illustrated by amongst others Osborn, Wallas, Guilford and Koestler. Their theories will be summarised here. Osborn is best known for his brainstorming techniques (Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:131; Mongeau & Morr, 1999:1). These techniques developed from his two-mind theory of creativity (Teuke, 2006:12). Osborn’s “minds” are the Creative mind which is the idea generator and which acts through free association, and the Judicial mind that is a filter which acts in a step by step logical fashion. The creative person, according to Osborn, can “turn off” the Judicial mind to allow free association to occur. The Creative Problem Solving process developed by Osborn and Parnes and used in organisations worldwide can also be included in this category, namely cognitive process creativity (Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:121).

In his work *Art of Thought* published in 1926, Wallas (Plsek, 1996:1) presented one of the first models of the creative process. He explained the process consisting of five stages, viz., preparation, incubation, intimation, illumination and verification. Wallas

considered creativity to be a legacy of the evolutionary process which allowed humans to quickly adapt to rapidly changing environments.

Guilford drew a distinction between convergent thinking (aiming for a single, correct solution to a problem) and divergent thinking (the creative generation of multiple answers to a problem) (Kearsley, 2006:1). In psychology literature divergent thinking is sometimes used as a synonym for creativity. Guilford felt that creativity was measured by the flexibility, fluency and originality of responses to a problem and also by the sensitivity of an individual to understand the problem and to evaluate situations (The Lutenist, 2002:1). Guilford saw the product of creativity as transformation.

Koestler developed his views on creativity from the study of humour, literature and biology (The Lutenist, 2002:1). He lists three types of creative individuals, viz., the Artist, the Sage and the Jester and believes that all three elements are necessary in humans as well as companies to be able to be truly creative (Mendham, 2007:1). Koestler coined the term “bisociation” which means to join unrelated, often conflicting information in a new way or to be able to think on more than one plane of thought simultaneously (Bergquist, 2000:1).

### **3.2.5 Other creativity theories**

A few of the creativity theories which do not fall strictly under the previous categories will be briefly summarised here.

Pasteur’s dictum “chance favours the prepared mind” is an insight applied to many theories of creativity (Harnad, 2005:1). Pasteur was speaking of experimental scientific creativity and was responding to the opinion that there is a large element of chance in creativity. His suggestion was that creativity was more likely to occur if the mind was somehow prepared for it. Pasteur did not mean that preparation guarantees creativity, but that the only way to maximise the probability of creativity, was preparation. In recent times, the so-called “Aha!” creativity has been studied by various researchers. Pasteur’s view seems to have been confirmed by some of these studies. In a study by Kounios, Frymiare, Bowden, Fleck, Subramaniam, Parrish and Jung-Beeman (2007), it was found that mental preparation involving inward focus of

attention promotes insight even prior to the presentation of a problem. Many scientists seemed to experience such “Aha!” moments after years of intense conscious effort. An example is Descartes when his “scientific method” was at last revealed to him in a dream, a message from the subconscious mind, when he was not trying to find the answer (Ditkoff, 2007:1).

Although the state of readiness was not a pertinent part of Stravinsky’s theory, it seemed to be implied. He saw all creativity as problem solving (Harnad, 2005:1) and believed that there could be no creativity without problems. He felt that a creative medium could not be infinitely “free”. It had to resist and give rise to problems in order to allow creativity to be exercised. In other words, without being in “a problem state” creativity could not occur. Grof (Bergquist, 2000:1), a transpersonal theorist and psychiatrist, also did not explicitly describe creativity as a state of readiness as Pasteur did, but some of his four categories of creativity do imply this. These categories are that which relates to problems which an individual has struggled with for years, the category which involves transmission of great ideas which go beyond the state of the art in that particular field, creative encounters which give a nearly complete product readiness for implementation, and the creative experience which can be described as an encounter with the Creator. The idea of “God in creativity” forms part of the so-called spiritual creativity theorists as well.

In recent times, many books and articles have appeared on what is termed “spiritual creativity”. William and Debra Miller (2007:1) probably sum up the essence of this theory best when citing Martin Buber, a 20<sup>th</sup> century Jewish philosopher, who said, “Destiny is not where we wait for God to push us. We take part in creation, meet the Creator, reach out to Him, helpers and companions.” Those who expound on this theory, see creativity as our “divine birthright” (Capacchione, 2007:1) and believe that our impulse to create is “part of our yearning to live” (Stockton, 2007:1). According to this author, creativity can be destructive, but not “when immersed in spirit”, because then creativity becomes a pathway toward a closer connection to God.

Some theorists, as discussed later in par. 3.3.1, associate creative thinking with certain personality traits. Sternberg’s theory of creativity (Standler, 1998) states that all the following are essential for creativity: intelligence; knowledge; a thinking style that questions conventional wisdom; a risk-taking personality; motivation; and a

creative environment. Although Eysenck supports the notion of the link between personality traits and creativity, he suggests that a particular personality trait, viz. psychoticism, lies at the core of both psychosis and creativity (Amabile, 1993:179). According to Eysenck this produces the unusual thought patterns of both madness and outstanding creative achievement. Eysenck uses the term creativity as the trait of originality and as unique achievement, in other words the creativity of finished products.

Theorists have not only linked personality traits to creativity, though, but also, in recent years, brain dominance. In 2005, in his book *A whole new mind*, Daniel Pink (2006) presented his theory that “right-directed thinking” (that is right brain thinking) should be encouraged over “left-directed thinking”. Theories linking creativity with right brain processing have been emerging since the last half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Herrmann (1998:1) and Neethling (Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:251) both maintain that creativity is more likely to occur in right brain dominant thinkers, but according to both Neethling and Herrmann, all people can be creative irrespective of brain dominance. Many other scholars of creativity have held the view that all individuals can be creative (Segal, 2000:1; Van der Werff, 1998:1). Creativity, according to many whole brain scholars, needs both sides of the brain (Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:252; Willax, 2000:1). This has been proven in recent times by brain scans which have shown that both sides of the brain are used for problem solving and creative thinking. Although many stereotypically see the scientist as the linear, reasoning type and the artist as the imaginative and right-hemisphere dominated type, these authors point out that many theorists have grasped the truth that the scientist often thinks intuitively and in divergent ways and on the other hand, the artist needs not only fantasies and inspirations to create masterpieces, but also rational and self-critical thinking.

To summarise some of these theories: creativity seems to involve both the unconscious, imaginative knowing and a cognitive process. It involves both left and right brain processes and produces novel products and solutions to problems.

In 1999 ten international creativity experts, including Torrance, Parnes, Neethling and Passow (Neethling, 2008) were invited to the University of Georgia to discuss

existing creativity theories and the possibility of creating new theories. The theories of the 20<sup>th</sup> century were described by this group as “connecting theories”, theories which were linked in some way or another.

According to some scholars, research in the field of creativity can be traced back as far as 315 B.C. when Aristotle laid down his three laws of idea-association, which are recognised by some as keys to creativeness, even today. Modern creativity research started in earnest in the middle of the previous century. In the following paragraphs, the research into creativity will be examined.

### **3.3 CREATIVITY RESEARCH**

During the past fifty to sixty years interest in creativity research has grown exponentially (Montuori & Purser, 1999:50; Lilly & Bramwell-Rejskind, 2004:103). In the 1950s the focus of research was on the psychological determinants of individual genius and giftedness (Craft, 2001:6). This era of research, according to this author, led to three major lines of development, viz. research into personality, cognition and how to stimulate creativity. Personality research included a focus on prominent creative persons in order to determine the characteristics and attitudes of creative people. Cognition research emphasised creativity as a process, and as a problem-solving capacity.

Farooq (2004:1) suggests the following categories or methods of creativity research:

- Psychometric studies which identify and construct factors that can influence creativity
- Experimental studies which directly compare and systematically manipulate independent variables hypothesised to influence creativity
- Biographical studies which are case study analyses of recognised episodes of creativity
- Biological studies which measure neurological or other physiological activity during creative task performance

- Computational studies which typically use artificial intelligence in formal models of creativity. These models examine descriptions of creativity which arise from social and cultural contexts.

Farooq (2004:1) emphasises the importance of studying creativity, as it is “critical to invention, innovation, and social progress at both the individual and societal levels”.

Results from numerous research endeavours in the field of creativity, suggest common themes. Some of these themes which will be addressed in the following section, are personality characteristics, characteristics of the creative process, environmental factors which influence creativity, creativity in education and the impact of creativity training programmes.

### **3.3.1 Personality characteristics**

One of the themes which have formed part of creativity research is personality characteristics. A number of research studies suggest that these characteristics of a creative person involve metaphoric thinking, flexibility and skill in decision making, independence in judgment, coping well with novelty, logical thinking skills, visualization, problem-finding, escaping entrenchment and finding order in chaos (Sternberg, 2001 and Sternberg & Lubart, 1999 as cited by Lilly & Bramwell-Rejskind, 2004:103). Lilly and Bramwell-Rejskind also cite Starko who includes, amongst others, the willingness to take risks, perseverance, drive, commitment to task, curiosity, openness to experience and tolerance for ambiguity in the personality characteristics of the creative thinkers. They report the observation of teachers in creative action, which provides evidence of personality characteristics similar to those of “the creative giants: curiosity, originality, independence, risk taking, energetic, sense of humor... open-minded”. Mackinnon (cited by Dewett, 2006:32) examined individual differences between more creative and less creative members of specific vocations and Feist (cited by Dewett, 2006:32) compared scientists to non-scientists and found that more creative scientists are open to new experiences, less conventional and less conscientious, more ambitious, dominant and impulsive. Other researchers cited by Dewett (2006:32) identified characteristics of creative people as including self-confidence, flexibility, attraction to complexity, risk taking, a desire for recognition and high energy.

Scott (1995:67) cites various researchers, such as Pierson, who found that creative people “tend to take responsibility for their own actions rather than point to outside causes or influences”. Scott (1995:67) also cites Yong who found that creative people “tend to be self-confident, independent and are risk-takers”. Torrance (1979:25-74), seen as one of the pioneers of the creative movement, found in his study of creative thinkers that they possess fluent thinking, originality, the ability to highlight the essence, the skill of elaboration and psychological openness.

In recent years, studies have also been conducted on “creative styles”, notably by Guilford, Kirton, Messick and Witkin and Goodenough. Research has demonstrated that individuals of various styles will possess different creative strengths and weaknesses (Bloomberg, 1967:127-140; Kirton, 1976:622-629). Kirton studied how managers in large organisations solved problems and found two distinct cognitive thinking styles, or creative styles. He refers to these styles as adaptive and innovative. An adaptive approach to creativity showed a preference for operating within existing patterns and procedures, aiming to make incremental improvements by “doing things better”. An innovative approach shows preference for less structure and fewer rules and for applying creativity outside existing patterns, seeking changes by “doing things differently”. Kirton has asserted that organisations need the benefit of both these creative styles.

According to Sternberg (1999:137) high levels of interaction between the characteristics of the creative person can enhance creativity beyond “a simple summing equation”. In the literature, the sentiment that the synthesis of different creative qualities elevates creative ability seems to be generally accepted.

Not only have the characteristics of the creative individual been researched, but also the characteristics of the creative process, as will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

### **3.3.2 Characteristics of the creative process**

Another recurring theme in creativity research represents the characteristics of the creative process (Lilly & Bramwell-Rejskind, 2004:104). These authors cite Wallas

who as early as 1926 included preparation, incubation, illumination and verification as elements of the creative process, as mentioned in par. 3.2.5.

One of the most widely known and used processes was developed by Osborn (1953) who designed a seven step creative problem solving process, known as CPS. These steps are orientation, preparation, analysis, hypothesis, incubation, synthesis and verification. Through the partnership between Alex Osborn and Sidney Parnes, the Osborn-Parnes Model of Creative Problem Solving developed as a refinement to Osborn's early work. After Osborn's death Parnes modified the process to include five steps, viz. fact finding, problem finding, idea finding, solution finding and acceptance finding.

Over the last sixty years continuous research and development has shown CPS to be a powerful and effective method for igniting creative potential and making productive change (Isaksen & Treffinger, 2004:95). This claim is an important one for this particular study which is aimed, in part, at establishing the extent to which creative behaviour can be developed in order to cope with insecurities in the workplace. This issue will be discussed further in par. 3.3.5 and later chapters. Isaksen and Treffinger, (2004:95) list a large number of studies relating to CPS undertaken during the last three decades. Some of these studies as cited by Isaksen and Treffinger (2004:85), include

- Creativity, unlocking the productive work environment, as done by Gaulin in 1985
- Impact of creative problem solving training on participants' personal and professional lives: a replication and extension as done by Keller-Mathers in 1990
- An impact study of creative problem solving facilitation training in an organizational setting as done by De Schryver in 1992
- An impact investigation: the CPS initiative in Bull UK and Ireland. A comprehensive report of a commissioned impact study as done by Isaksen, S.G. and Lewandowski in 1997
- Linking process to person: Indiana Creative Problem Solving impact survey results and implications as done by Wolfe, Freeman, and Littlejohn in 2002.

Another area of interest for creativity researchers has been that of the environment.

### **3.3.3 Environmental factors which influence creativity**

Over the last fifty years there have been frequent attempts to categorise the study of creativity. In his study of creativity, Rhodes (1961:305-310) discovered four areas of inquiry, viz., the identification of the characteristics of the creative person, the components of the creative process, the aspects of the creative product and the qualities of the environment or press which nurtures creativity. As mentioned in chapter 1, the model became known as the four P's. Basadur, Runco and Vega (2000:77) cite a large body of research emphasising the four P's, viz. product, person, press and process. Of the four P's, press, or environment, has received far less research effort than the other elements (Soh, 2000:118). This may be due to the illusive quality of the concept of the environment which would support creative development. Nonetheless, it has been widely accepted that creativity cannot thrive in an intolerant environment and that a sharing, supportive environment enables creativity to prosper (Lincoln, 2005; Torrance, 1994:197; Neethling, Rutherford & Schoeman, 2004:9).

Research by Göran Ekvall in Sweden in the late 1980s (Lincoln, 2005), identified nine dimensions for measuring organisational climate, which he described as "the attitudes, feelings and behaviour patterns which characterise life in the organisation". These dimensions, which include idea time and support, trust and openness, risk taking and freedom, are seen as the building blocks for an organisation intent on developing a creative climate.

In the USA, two major studies were undertaken by Amabile (1988) and Isaksen (1995) respectively exploring organisational climates which serve to stimulate creativity. The results from these studies have suggested that in a creative climate, the participants in the organisation feel, amongst others, that they are able to take initiatives that new ideas are met with support and encouragement that they are able to put forward new ideas and views, that uncertainty is tolerated and risk-taking encouraged. In the study by Amabile, it was suggested that creativity may be impeded by aspects such as undue time pressure, over-supervision and restricted choices in terms of approach or working materials.

In a study on creative climate and a learning culture in Malaysia, Ismail (2005) found that for innovation to occur at a faster and continuous rate, the presence of creative climate and a learning culture should be encouraged. She also found that the participating organisation should be looking into ways of improving its creative climate by, *inter alia*, giving more freedom for employees to try out ideas and voice opinions, supporting new ideas brought up, and having more courage to take risks on opportunities.

In South Africa, Neethling (2006) identified 10 factors which, through his research, were indicated as factors which form the essence of an environment that supports and sustains happiness and productivity. These “wellness” factors include trust, communication, change and creativity and innovation.

The influence of the physical environment on creative behaviour has also been researched. Some of the physical factors which have an effect on creativity, have been cited as light, noise, design (formal or informal), temperature, mobility, stimuli (movement, activities, conversation) and available resources (Vehar, 2007). In a research study aimed at designing a practical instrument to measure the creativity potential of the work environment, Dul, Ceylan and Hendriks (2007:5) found elements like furniture, indoor plants/flowers, calming and inspiring colours, privacy, window view, quantity of light, indoor (physical) climate, sound and smell as some of the factors which have an effect on creativity in the workplace. Many studies have been done on the use of colour in the environment (Van Wagner, 2008:1; Smith, 2008:1). In his research on the colour-emotion associations of adults, Hemphill (1996:275) cites several studies which showed that colour can affect mood and can illicit emotional responses.

The application of creativity in education has been advocated since Guilford's address in 1950, as referred to in par. 3.1.2. Over the last number of decades, the importance of creative teaching and learning have been emphasised by many in the literature. One problem statement for this study is, “What are the characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance workplace psychological security in education?” In the previous paragraphs, many of these characteristics as cited in the literature, have been considered. These characteristics will be summarised in

par. 3.3.6. An important issue before embarking on designing a creativity development model for educators, and one which will be examined in the following paragraphs, is the the impact of creativity training in general and in education.

### **3.3.4 Creativity in education**

Seltzer and Bentley (1999:10) suggest that “creativity can be learned” and that the school curriculum should be restructured “to reflect forms of learning which develop creative ability”. Van der Werff (1998) describes creativity as a gift that can be learned and a vital ingredient in success. Studies show, though, that not all efforts to develop creativity in schools have been successful (Craft, 2001:16). Certain approaches to education, according to this author, do however seem to foster greater creativity than others, for example the Montessori education which encourages self-expression and the Reggio Emilia approach to pre-school education in Italy which also encourages, amongst others, the expression of ideas.

The role of the educator as mentor, who can foster creativity, has been researched widely (Craft, 2001:18). This field of research suggests that the educator as role model is a powerful aid to fostering the creativity of learners. It seems therefore unfortunate that, over the last 50 years, researchers have consistently documented that developing student creativity is not a priority of many educators (Schacter, Thum & Zifkin, 2006:47). Some researchers have in fact found that educators in America stifle creativity, instead of increasing student creativity. Research has shown that in actual classroom practice, educators even actively dislike characteristics associated with creativity, such as boldness, desire for novel ideas and originality (Westby, 1995). Torrance’s longitudinal studies showed that the longer students attend school, the less curious, more cautious and less creative they become (Torrance, 1995). In their study on how much creative teaching enhances elementary school students’ achievement, Schacter, Thum and Zifkin (2006:61) found amongst others, that the majority of educators do not implement any teaching strategies that foster student creativity and, on the other hand, that educators who elicit student creativity, turn out students that make substantial achievement gains. The general absence of creative teaching is apparently not only prevalent in America. In a study conducted by Stoycheva (1996) of very able learners in Bulgarian secondary schools, she found, amongst others, that educators put a very low value on creativity traits within the school environment.

On the other hand, research has found that creative educators are often energetic, supportive and knowledgeable and their classroom environments are often brightly coloured, cleverly designed, comfortable and welcoming (Lilly & Bramwell-Rejskind, 2004:102). These authors cite numerous studies which found that the learners within these creative environments are often cooperative, friendly, excited and interested. Shallcross (cited by Craft, 2001:20), suggests that it is essential to provide an overt “mental climate” in the classroom which includes fostering self-esteem and self-worth and an emotional climate which enables each child to grow in personal confidence. In such a climate, she suggests, creative responses have time to develop. Woods (as cited by Craft, 2001:22) identified four features at play for both learners and educators, where creativity was successfully fostered in the classroom, viz. relevance, ownership, control and innovation. He states that for creativity to be fostered there must be “an innovative idea or approach, some ownership and control over the process by the teacher and the pupil, and the event must be relevant to both teacher and pupil”. Craft also cites Sisk who suggests that the “overall employment by the teacher of novel strategies, techniques and approaches will enhance creative behaviour in the classroom”. In summarising research results on teacher and pupil creativity, Craft (2001:26) states that where a teacher’s own creativity is stifled, it would seem unlikely that pupils’ creativity would be fostered effectively.

In England, since 1990, there has been a growing recognition from policy-makers and commentators that learner creativity is an extremely important aim for education (Craft, 2001:11). During the review of England’s National Curriculum, the National Advisory Group for Creative and Cultural Education was set up and in 1999 submitted its final report which contained a wide range of recommendations calling for further work and investigation into creativity.

In Australia, while promoting the school as a learning organisation, Daniels (2002) states that this would entail the transition from schools built on the factory model to schools that leave room for creativity and that are willing to “serve as natural *loci* for experimentation and change”.

Cropley (2002:1) states that educators should take note that fostering creativity is not inconsistent with traditional school goals, viz., the acquisition of knowledge and skills. He further states that empirical studies have shown a connection between creativity and the promotion of good performance and that creativity is a better predictor of adult success than intelligence.

In South Africa, creativity has not formally formed part of the curriculum in schools. According to Neethling (2007) many educators as well as learners have participated in creativity workshops and other programmes offered by his organisation over the last 15 years. According to Neethling, feedback from educators and parents have been largely positive and reported changes have included growth in confidence, a stronger ability to cope with change and a shift from problem to solution finding.

The impact of creativity training programmes will be investigated in the following section.

### **3.3.5 The impact of creativity training programmes**

The first formal and lasting attempts to create programmes for the deliberate development of creativity were made by Osborn and Crawford, both in 1948 (Parnes (ed), 1992:2). According to this author, since then there has been a growing recognition of the importance of creativity in the educational, industrial, political and social fields.

#### *3.3.5.1 Developing creative thinking through training programmes*

In 1967, in one of the earliest reviews on the success of creativity programmes, Parnes and Brunell (Parnes (ed), 1992:125) evaluated about 40 studies of the Osborn-Parnes Creative Problem-Solving program (CPS) impact on students' sensitivity, fluency, flexibility, elaboration and several other attributes. They reported that approximately 90 percent of the studies indicated a significant increase in the creative productivity of the subjects after the deliberate creativity programmes. A similar review by Torrance in 1972 of 142 studies, which included 9 different training methodologies, found a success rate of more than 60 percent in all the methods, with a 91 percent success rate for the CPS (Parnes (ed), 1992:125). In 1988 (Baer,

1988:183) the long-term effects of creativity training on middle school students was researched. This study found that the experimental group outperformed the control group significantly on all four subtests, viz., data-finding, problem-finding, idea-finding and solution-finding indicating that after six months the skills of creative problem solving had been retained.

Parnes (1992:125) also cites findings of research on the success of creative learning in business and industry conducted in 1975 and 1982. Basadur, Graen and Green (as cited by Basadur, Runco & Vega, 2000:84) measured the impact of creative problem-solving training on individuals in business immediately after training and after their return to work. The results showed that creativity training increased idea and evaluation skills. These skills included generating more, higher-quality and more original ideas. These results were consistent with those of Runco and Vega in 1990 and advanced research by Runco and Basadur in 1993 (Basadur, Runco & Vega, 2000:85).

For a few days in May 1998 a huge red box stood in front of the corporate headquarters of Levi Strauss & Co. The highly anticipated opening of the box revealed it to be empty. One of Levi Strauss' top executives explained: "The point is from this day on, we want you (the employees) to think outside the box" (Bounds, as cited by Ansborg & Dominowski, 2000:30). This is one of the many examples of the promotion of innovative and creative thinking that prompted research by these authors in order to establish whether "out of the box thinking" can be trained. Their research focussed on "insightful problem solving". Ohlsson (1992 as cited by Ansborg & Dominowski, 2000:31) states that insightful problem solving occurs when solvers initially fail to solve a problem for which they have the requisite knowledge, but eventually successfully solve that problem. Through a series of exploratory experiments these researchers found that "insightful problem solving can indeed be conceptualized as a trainable, general thinking skill" and that "training can promote solutions to verbal insight problems" (Ansborg & Dominowski, 2000:48).

A study by Birdi (2005:101) evaluated the long-term impact of three types of creativity training workshops conducted within an organisation. In a follow-up questionnaire which was returned by 71 of the employees, the respondents were asked about

changes in their knowledge, attitudes and use of creativity at work as a result of the training. Respondents reported moderate but significant improvements in their levels of creativity knowledge, attitudes, workplace idea generation and idea implementation. Analyses also indicated that poor managerial support or an unfavourable departmental climate for innovation could limit the impact of creativity training.

The various research studies discussed here and others cited in the literature, seem to demonstrate that formal creativity training can increase the creative potential of individuals. Furthermore, it appears that the effects of these training programmes have a wider impact. This impact, which includes improved attitudes, better employee morale and other psychological and health benefits, will be investigated in the following paragraph.

#### *3.3.5.2 The wider impact of creativity programmes*

In August 2002 the Harvard Business Review devoted its entire edition to innovation (Lincoln, 2005:1). It cited several organisations which promoted creativity and innovation programmes and which had reported a number of associated benefits. These include employees who are more committed and better aligned with company objectives, improved employee morale and staff retention, cost savings and a reduction in wastage and a safer working environment. Some industries reported that 20% of creative ideas received from employees related to safety. This is a significant finding for this study which is concerned with the security of educators in the workplace and with finding a possible solution through creativity.

In his article on the looming creativity crisis in America, Florida (2004:3) states that “in today’s economy, creativity and competitiveness go hand in hand” and “wherever creativity goes, innovation and economic growth are sure to follow”. While quoting international statistics extensively to prove his argument, Florida calls for the equivalent of a GI Bill for creativity and for the US to start thinking of creativity as a “common good” like liberty or security. He states “it is something essential that belongs to everyone and must be nourished, renewed and maintained”.

Jeffrey and Craft (Craft, 2001:12) maintain that when a climate of creativity and challenge is fostered, it appears to disperse a culture of “whingeing and blame”. Creative ability is often associated with a positive attitude towards solution finding (Harris, 1998:1; Parnes (ed), 1992:62, 134; Daniels, 2002) and succinctly summed up in the words of Virgil: “They can who think they can” (Harris, 1998:1). According to Basadur (as cited by Basadur, Taggar & Pringle, 1999:75), increasing organisational creativity results in greater motivation, job satisfaction and teamwork. These authors also cite other studies which have emphasised the importance of creativity to the well-being of society as a whole. Rubenstein (2000:1) cites several studies which showed that creativity contributed to the mental health, successful living, professional performance and the progress of civilisation.

Not only attitude, it seems, but general health can be improved through creativity, according to Torrance (1994:203-204). He cites unpublished research results of learning disabled children in a special school. Three teachers each received 17 of these children in their classes. One of the teachers built the entire curriculum around creative activities and the expressive arts. The school nurse, who maintained careful records of all visits of individual children to her office, recorded 79 visits from the 17 children in this teacher’s class during the first year. The counts for the other three teachers were 164, 219 and 272 respectively. Torrance made a compilation of what he described as miracles: “that which causes wonder and astonishment inexplicable by normal standards” brought about by creative behaviour in elementary and secondary schools (Torrance, 1994:202). These “miracles” included children who changed from “hopeless non-readers” to average or superior readers, children turned from destructive and vandalistic behaviour to constructive, altruistic behaviour, from apathy to high achievement.

According to the studies cited here, the impact of creativity programmes seems widely accepted. One aim of this study is to determine the characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance workplace psychological security in education. Looking to creativity development models and programmes as an effective way to help educators cope with their environment, will be summarised in the following paragraph.

### **3.3.6 The characteristics of a creativity development model**

As stated earlier, it is widely accepted that creativity can be learned or developed. Various research studies have resulted in findings that creativity programmes can have a wide-ranging and positive effect on the behaviour and coping skills of employees (Parnes (ed), 1992:125; Ansburg & Dominowski, 2000:48; Birdi, 2005:101). Research on the wider impact of these programmes shows development in attitude, well-being, motivation and teamwork, to mention a few.

One of the aims of this study is to find the characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance workplace psychological security in education. The literature on creativity and creativity programmes has provided numerous possibilities in this regard. Because not only attitude, but general health can be improved through creativity (Torrance, 1994:203-204), a model that would enhance the positive attitudes of educators appears to be a good premise for such a programme.

Furthermore, as cited in par. 3.3.1, the literature abounds with examples of the personality characteristics of highly creative thinkers. It would therefore seem apposite to design a model that would develop such characteristics. According to the literature, these include flexibility and skill in decision making, independence in judgment, coping well with novelty, logical thinking skills, visualization, problem-finding, finding order in chaos, the willingness to take risks, perseverance, drive, commitment to task, curiosity, openness to experience and tolerance for ambiguity, self-confidence, attraction to complexity and high energy. The characteristics of the creative thinker which Torrance (1979:25-74) summarised and which have been widely accepted, are fluent thinking, originality, the ability to highlight the essence, the skill of elaboration and psychological openness.

As referred to in par. 3.3.2, a recurring theme in creativity research represents the characteristics of the creative process. This process, referred to as CPS or creative problem solving process, generally have five steps, viz., fact finding, problem finding, idea finding, solution finding and acceptance finding. As mentioned in par. 3.3.2, research has shown this process to be a powerful and effective method for igniting creative potential and making productive change. It therefore seems apparent that a creativity development model should include CPS in order to develop the skills of

problem solving which in turn could enhance the ability of participants to cope with problems in their environment.

In par. 3.3.3 another element in the development of creativity and one which is referred to in the literature as “press”, was discussed. “Press” is the environment in which creativity can grow and develop. Several examples of the characteristics of a healthy and creative environment were cited in par. 3.3.3. These included a sharing, supportive environment where trust and openness, risk taking and freedom are in place, as well as physical factors which could support creativity. A creativity development model which has as its aim to enhance the psychological security of educators in their workplace would therefore have to include the development of a creative environment for educators.

Thus far, frequent reference has been made to the characteristics of creative thinkers. This prompts the question whether it is possible to measure creativity in order to establish different levels of creative ability. In the next paragraphs, the measurability of creativity will be investigated.

### **3.4 ASSESSING CREATIVITY**

The most well-known and widely used creativity test is the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking® (Craft, 2001:13). Torrance began his pioneering research on the nature of creativity in 1958 with pilot testing of his first batteries which were designed to assess creative thinking abilities, the skill with which they are displayed and motivation (Torrance, 2001:1). The TTCT® was initially published in 1966, followed by re-editions until 1998. The test takes two forms, viz. verbal and figural. The verbal test is composed of six word-based-designed exercises that measure three mental characteristics, namely fluency, flexibility and originality (Afolabi, Dionne & Lewis, 2006:3). This incorporates the measurement of curiosity, cause-and-effect relationships, the ability to play with ideas and consequences, freeing of the mind from rigid, set thinking and the ability to fantasise. The figural test (which will be applied in this study) measures seventeen mental characteristics. These include fluency, originality, abstractness of titles, elaboration, resistance to premature closure and thirteen creative strengths which include emotional expressiveness, extending or breaking boundaries and humour (Torrance, 1998:3). A limitation of the test

according to Sternberg (as cited by Afolabi, Dionne & Lewis, 2006:4) is the use of a paper and pencil test which could be insufficient to measure creativity. Other creativity assessment tools include the Creativity Assessment Packet by Williams, The Pythagoras B/C by Grove, The Wechsler Abbreviated Scale of Intelligence by Wechsler, the Preconscious Activity Scale by Baird, the Creativity Tests for Children, Creative Behavior Inventory, Creative Attitude Survey and the Buffalo Creative Process Inventory (Brady, 2001:1; Ferry, 2003:1).

Not all assessment tools apply the same criteria for measuring creative ability. Besemer and Treffinger (cited by Craft, 2001:23) identified the criteria to assess creativity as novelty, which relates to the originality of a product; resolution, which measures the extent to which a creative product meets the need of a situation; and synthesis, which includes complexity, expressiveness and completeness. As far as assessing learners is concerned, educators prefer to use a variety of means to assess creativity, by monitoring their work, behaviour and what they say (Fryer as cited by Craft, 2001:23). Because of the lack of suitable measuring instruments to assess creativity fostering behaviour of educators, Soh (2000:118) attempted to construct such an assessment tool and to check its validity. This researcher drew up a questionnaire using Cropley's list of creativity fostering teachers' classroom behaviours, viz., amongst others encouraging students to learn independently, a co-operative teaching style, motivation, delaying judgment of students' ideas, encouraging flexible thinking and helping learners to cope with frustration and failure. Soh analysed the responses of 117 teachers and found adequate construct and concurrent validities for the Creativity Fostering Teacher Index.

As mentioned in par. 3.3.1, different creative styles have also been researched in recent years. Examples of measurement tools for creative or problem solving style, are the Kirton Adaption-Innovation Inventory (Kirton, 1987), the VIEW (Selby, Treffinger, Isaksen & Lauer, 2004:221) and the NBI® Creativity Instrument (Neethling & Rutherford, 2004:64).

In this study, the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking® (TTCT®) was applied to measure the creativity of participating educators. The possible link between creative ability and the ability to cope with psychological insecurity in the workplace, as well as the rights afforded educators by legislation in their workplace are important

aspects of the study. In the following section, the link between legislation governing educator security in the workplace and creativity will be further investigated.

### **3.5 AN EDUCATION LAW PERSPECTIVE ON CREATIVITY**

In order to establish a link between creativity and the education legislation which dictates workplace security, a short summary of the literature study thus far, seems relevant.

#### **3.5.1 Literature summary**

In chapter 2 several examples from the literature were cited to emphasise that workplace security is generally seen to include physical and psychological security. It was also argued that causes of insecurity in the school as work environment are plentiful. Furthermore, an extensive body of legislation was cited which directly or indirectly protects the security of all employees in the work environment, or more specifically the security of educators. In addition, an argument was established regarding the duty of care afforded educators by their various employees.

Research and statistics on educator stress, burn-out and causes of physical and psychological insecurity, can be found readily in the literature, as cited in par. 2.3.1. Unfortunately, ways to combat workplace insecurity and the resulting stress, have not received similar attention. In this chapter one area of research, namely that of creativity as a possible solution, has been investigated. The benefits of the establishment of creativity programmes in the workplace, including improved employee morale, a positive attitude towards problem finding, health benefits, as well as a safer working environment, have been investigated.

As noted earlier in this chapter, since the 1950s creativity scholars worldwide have advocated the establishment of creativity programmes for learners as well as educators in schools in preparation for a swiftly changing and more challenging world. As shown in chapter 2, many educators world-wide, but more specifically in South Africa, are not coping with their changing environments and with the greater challenges they encounter, with the result that their well-being suffers or that they opt out of the profession.

In the quest to investigate whether creativity might offer a solution to this troublesome situation, further issues need scrutiny. They are

- whether there is a link between legislation regarding security in the workplace, and the effects of creativity on the psychological security of educators and
- whether specific stressors responsible for educator insecurity in the workplace, can be better managed when creativity skills improve.

### **3.5.2 Legislation regarding workplace security and creativity: the link**

In chapter 2 several legal provisions which protect workers in the workplace and educators in the school environment, were cited. Some of these provisions which directly or indirectly refer to the protection of the psychological security of educators, will be summarised here:

- Section 12(e) of the Bill of Rights (SA, 1996a) states that everyone has the right “not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way” and in s. 12(2) that “everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity”.
- In section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights, which deals directly with the environment, it states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”.
- An argument has been established in par. 2.2.1.4 that when section 23 ensures “fair labour practices” for all, it would imply an absence of harassment or discriminatory behaviour by employers which could result in insecurity in the workplace.
- A similar argument would apply when analysing section 10 of the Bill of Rights which deals with human dignity. This fundamental right would imply that an employee should be treated in such a way that his psychological security and general well-being would not be eroded.
- Intolerance, disrespect, abuse, harassment or other negative treatment of some educators in a school, would constitute the infringement of section 9 of the Bill of Rights which affords all South Africans the right to equality.
- Under the law of delict, as discussed in par. 2.2.4, a “special relationship” exists between the educator and his/her employer, which includes the school, via its governing body, or the minister of education, which implies a duty of care owed

to the educator. Furthermore, the Naspers and Ntsabo cases referred to in chapter 2, must be seen as a warning to employers that physical as well as psychological harm suffered by an employee can result in a claim of damages against the employer. A case was also put forward that the governing body could be held delictually liable for any physical or psychological harm suffered by educators if proven that they intentionally or through negligence, allowed harmful influences to negatively affect the safety and psychological well-being of educators. The argument was established that section 20(e) of the SASA, which subjects the governing body to “support the principal, educators and other staff in the performance of their professional functions”, also implies a duty of care owed to the educator.

- The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 prohibits discrimination and harassment in the workplace. In section 6(3) of this act, it is stated that "harassment of an employee is a form of unfair discrimination".

It appears, therefore, that theoretically, the psychological security of educators in South Africa is well protected by legislation, but that in practical terms, this is not actualised. In order to substantiate this claim, some of the facts and statistics cited from the literature thus far, will be summarised here:

- Violence and the threat of violence by learners is experienced by a vast majority of educators, as cited in par. 2.3.2.1.
- Insecurity caused by fellow employees, in the form of drunkenness, violence and other forms of misconduct, is not uncommon in South Africa, as cited in par. 2.3.2.3.
- In many schools the misconduct of learners results in educators feeling unsafe or that they have lost control, as discussed in par. 2.3.2.4.
- In par. 2.3.2.5 it was indicated how numerous changes over the last number of years in the form of political and social changes, affirmative action, diversity and multicultural schools to name a few, have had a major impact on educator stress.
- Workplace bullying by principals and colleagues is a major cause of insecurity in the workplace, with 78% of employees in South Africa stating that they have been bullied or victimised in their careers, as stated in par. 2.3.2.6.

- In par. 2.3.2.7 it was indicated that a negative classroom climate, work overload and too many learners in a classroom are just some of the other elements that educators have to contend with, which cause insecurity in the workplace.
- Workload as a major cause of stress and burn-out was discussed in par. 2.3.2.8.

On the one hand the security of educators is being eroded in many classrooms in South Africa and many are suffering psychologically and physically, as alluded to in par. 2.3.1. On the other hand, legislation governing workplace security is obviously not affording them the necessary protection from the numerous negative influences, as indicated in the paragraph above. What therefore appears to be required is a coping mechanism or a tool which could equip educators to better confront and manage this unstable working environment. It could very well be argued that supplying such a tool should be part of the “support” owed to the educator by the governing body as stated in section 20(e) of the SASA. Such a coping mechanism, it could be argued, may well assist towards enhancing “bodily and psychological integrity” of educators, as guaranteed in section 12(2) of the Bill of Rights. The dictionary (Concise Oxford English Dictionary, 2006:1976:562, 2006:738) describes integrity as “the state of being whole”, which would imply the duty of the state and the governing body to supply some form of intervention in order to equip educators to maintain or develop sound minds and bodies.

In this chapter one such possible tool for coping more effectively with the insecurity experienced in the workplace, namely creativity, was investigated. The following is a summary of the claims investigated in this chapter regarding creativity and its positive effect on individuals and groups:

- Several studies have suggested that creative individuals are flexible in their thinking and decision making, that they cope well with novelty and can find order in chaos, as indicated in par. 3.3.1.
- Other characteristics cited in the same paragraph, include a tolerance for ambiguity, perseverance and a willingness to take risks.
- Other authors, also cited in par. 3.3.1, describe creative thinkers as being fluent, in other words they have many ideas and possess psychological openness.

- Students, studies have shown, are more cooperative, friendly, excited and interested in classrooms of creative educators, as indicated in par. 3.3.4.
- In the same section, a link was suggested between creativity and the promotion of good performance and that creativity is a predictor of adult success.
- Creativity training programmes have been shown to be successful in developing, amongst others, the ability to find more ideas and solutions, as stated in par. 3.3.5.1.
- In the same section, it was reported that the long-term impact of creativity training programmes has shown an improvement in the levels of creative knowledge, attitudes, idea generation and implementation.
- In par. 3.3.5.2 the wider impact of creativity programmes was investigated, which showed that these include improved morale and staff retention, cost savings, a safer working environment, positive attitudes, motivation, job satisfaction, teamwork, mental and general health.

When taking these claims into consideration, it appears as if developing the creativity of educators could be one way of enhancing their skills to cope with the negative influences in the school as work environment. Because educators, and more specifically educators in South Africa, have to deal with specific stressors which are responsible for their insecurity in the workplace, an investigation into how creativity could assist them to manage these, will have to be undertaken.

### **3.5.3 The psychological security of educators and creativity: the link**

In par. 2.3 the physical and psychological components which are experienced by educators as the stressors intrinsic to the school as workplace, were discussed. How and to what extent creativity could enable educators to cope with and manage these influences more effectively, in order to eventually experience their work environment as more secure, will be further explored in the following paragraphs.

In par. 2.3.2 several components responsible for causing psychological insecurity in the school as workplace, were discussed. In an inquiry into school based violence, the South African Human Rights Commission (The South African Human Rights Commission, 2006:3) stated that “the possession of weapons by students, sexual

abuse, the use of alcohol and drugs on school premises, and burglaries have a debilitating effect on the morale of school managers, educators and governing bodies". In the same document the victimisation and intimidation of educators by their learners, was reported on. Oosthuizen (2005:26) referred to the distress, anxiety, sense of helplessness and impotence experienced by educators who work in an environment where violence and misconduct prevail. Educators targeted by violent acts tend to have higher rates of absenteeism and may even be obliged to stop work (Anon., 2007b). Studying these and other examples in the literature, it seems an undeniable fact that many educators in South Africa need to acquire some tool to assist them in coping with a vast array of negative influences in their working environment.

#### *3.5.3.1 Indiscipline and creativity*

One of the major stressors for educators in South Africa is the indiscipline of learners. In a recent newspaper article, "Teachers can't take it any more" (Davids & Makwabe, 2007:1), it was stated that one in 10 educators are on leave because of stress caused by unruly and violent learners. The fact that discipline constitutes a problem in many South African schools has been reported on widely (Wolhuter & Oosthuizen, 2003:437; Oosthuizen, Roux & Van der Walt, 2003:373). As stated earlier, studies have found that creative educators can make a difference in the classroom and create a greater interest amongst learners. The Elton Report pointed out the link between the content and method of delivery of the school curriculum and the motivation and behaviour of pupils (as cited by Wolhuter & Steyn, 2003:529). This report suggested that the curriculum should offer stimulating and differentiated programmes, and states that the academic range which may offer variety, falls short in many schools. According to Torrance, inappropriate behaviour is often displayed by creatively gifted learners who find school boring and purposeless. They feel frustrated, hemmed in and limited (Torrance, 1980:1).

In the 1990s in the USA public awareness about advances in brain research led to the now well-known "brain-based education". This in turn led to reforms in education in that country (Bruer, 1999:1). Brain-based educators support progressive education reforms and decry the "factory model" in favour of multi-modal learning which implies learning the same concepts through different methods, and the

proposition that most efficient learning occurs when students are in an optimal attentional, motivational and emotional state (Solomon & Hendren, 2003:1; Bruer, 1999). Supporters of this approach agree that mental health of learners plays an important role in learning and in general behaviour in class (Solomon & Hendren, 2003:1).

At a symposium hosted to mark the third anniversary of Qatar's education reform effort, Oral (2004), a local creativity expert, stated that the creative educator draws different perspectives to an ordinary subject, relates the content to the real world and promotes self-control and internal discipline. From these examples from the literature, it is evident that a creative teaching approach by the educator, which would include a variety of methods, stimulating and differentiated programmes and different perspectives, could contribute to better behaviour in the classroom. In an article published by a group of secondary school principals (Krajewski, Martinek, Denham & Polka, 1998:7), educators were encouraged to adopt "creative discipline that fosters a sense of responsibility and ownership" which, they maintained, could reap long-term benefits. These authors called for the "revamp of curriculum offerings, teaching strategies, or school discipline rules", because if these needs of learners are not met, it may result in tardiness, disruptive and inappropriate behaviour and truancy. Educators are urged to become comfortable dealing with the "paradoxes" that the creative class brings, viz., "the simultaneous importance of ... intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, the need for personality characteristics such as a relaxed attitude vs perfectionism, or the benefits of an environment that is both tolerant of non-conformity as well as demanding of discipline" (Cropley, 2002:1).

As referred to in par. 3.3.5.2, Torrance (1994:202) cites research on creative educators who changed the destructive and vandalistic behaviour of learners into constructive, altruistic behaviour. Numerous studies cited by Lilly and Bramwell-Rejskind (2004:102) in par 3.3.4 found that the learners within creative environments are often cooperative, friendly, excited and interested. The link between creativity and coping with indiscipline in the classroom seems unequivocal.

Educators would have to develop certain creative qualities in order to apply creativity in the classroom. Some of the creative qualities mentioned in par. 3.5.1 which would

support educators in the development of creativity in the classroom, are the ability to cope with novelty, a willingness to take risks, psychological openness and an openness to look for new ideas and solutions.

### *3.5.3.2 Violence and creativity*

The escalating violence in South African schools over the last decade has had a demoralising effect on educators (Oosthuizen (ed.), 2005:16, 26; Education Labour Relations Council, 2005). It is suggested in the literature that creativity can offer educators a two-pronged approach to coping with this serious situation.

Firstly, Gerler (2006:1), editor of the *Journal of school violence* in the USA, states that school violence cannot be packaged into conventional thinking regarding perpetrators and their acts. He maintains that, to prevent and deal with school violence, imagination and creativity are needed. Although violent behaviour at school may be different in the USA than in South Africa, it may even be more unpredictable here, with learners and educators carrying weapons, alcohol and drug abuse at school, assaults and victimisation (The South African Human Rights Commission, 2006:3), to name but a few examples. In other words, finding new ways to deal with violence in school is crucial and will need creative thinking. The development of creative qualities like originality, looking for new solutions, flexibility and openness will be crucial in the quest for schools finding new and novel ways to deal with school violence.

Secondly, educators will have to be given mechanisms to deal with the stressful effects of violence in the workplace. Some suggestions in the literature include training programmes to deal with violence, teaching problem-solving skills and programmes promoting creativity and innovation (National Center for Injury Prevention and Control, 2007; Lincoln, 2005:1). As stated in par. 3.3.5.2 some of the wider benefits of creativity programmes are claimed to be improved morale, mental and general health and a safer working environment. Creativity could, therefore, empower educators to deal with the insecurity surrounding violence at school.

### *3.5.3.3 Change and creativity*

Singh and Lokotsch (2005:279) state that "... at no time in our existence is change more imminent and the future more challenging than in our schools". They also cite Elliott-Kemp and Elliot-Kemp who warn that too many changes could cause "shattering stress and disorientation and consequent loss of effectiveness". In a study by Booyse and Swanepoel (1999:218) on the impact of change on educators, 81% of the respondents stated that they were strongly affected by the changes in education. One of the causes of stress that is consistently cited in the literature is change which causes insecurity in the workplace (Jarvis, 2002:1; Clarke, 2005:1).

The literature on creativity and change cites creativity as part of the preparation for individuals to cope with the unprecedented rapid changes predicted for and experienced in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Harris, 1998:1; McCann, 2007:1; Morland, 1984:1). Kirton strengthens this argument with his definition of creativity, namely that creativity is "the capacity for initiating change" (Segal, 2000:1). This line of reasoning stems from the studies on creativity which have shown creative thinkers as coping well with new situations and as individuals who can find order in chaos, as discussed in par. 3.3.1. They are also more risk-prone (Lilly & Bramwell-Rejskind, 2004:104; Dewett, 2006:27; Scott, 1995:67) and flexible in their thinking (Dewett, 2006:32; Harris, 1998:1; Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:36). These qualities, it is argued, are essential to coping with change.

According to Hiemstra (1998:1), whenever transition occurs in the workplace it is likely to create insecurity and stress. She states that the extent to which a person perceives himself as being powerless in the new situation, is an important determinant of how he will experience the transition or change. The empowering of the individual through the development and application of his creative abilities is often referred to in the literature (Parnes (ed), 1992:152; Morland, 1984:1; Harris, 1998:1). During the Korean War Torrance was hired to develop a training programme to prepare pilots and crews to survive extreme conditions of deprivation and danger (Robinson & Stern, 1998:5). After intensive research and hundreds of interviews, Torrance proved that the most critical element for survival was creativity. Those who survived, he found, solved immediate problems through creative and imaginative behaviours which gave them "renewed energy for continued adaptation". The ability

to generate many ideas and solutions, to consider various options and stay open-minded even in difficult situations, are creativity traits referred to in the literature which are associated with taking control of a situation and therefore feeling less powerless. Wildhagen (1998:1) found a relationship between creativity and stress levels. His findings indicated that their search for new ideas, approaches and solutions, helps creative people deal with stress. King (1997:299) studied the creativity during the Apollo 13 mission in 1970 when the now famous words by astronaut Jim Lovell, "Houston, we've got a problem", launched one of the most historic demonstrations of creative solution finding. The mission, according to King, was a "lesson in change management" (King,1997:303) and a demonstration that in "life-or-death situations it (creativity) is the critical pathway not only to success but to survival" (King, 1997:299).

King also states that in order to convert chaos and crisis into opportunity, failure must first be precluded as an option (King,1997:305). This presupposed positive attitude to finding solutions, is often linked to creative behaviour (Harris, 1998:1; Birdi, 2005:1; Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:204). The literature on stress in the workplace, also often refers to the link between the individual's perception of, or attitude towards, the situation and the level of stress experienced (Olivier & Venter, 2003:186; Vanderlis, 2006:1). In other words, creativity can boost a positive attitude because creative thinkers are looking for solutions and challenges rather than focusing on problems. Such a positive attitude, it is claimed, will positively affect the levels of stress experienced, because faulty and negative perceptions of one's situation often increase stress levels (Vanderlis, 2006:1; Scott, 2007:1).

The literature leaves little doubt about the fact that creative thinkers cope better with change and uncertainty, and that creativity skills enhance positive attitudes which in turn help individuals to cope more effectively with potentially stressful situations.

#### *3.5.3.4 Management style and creativity*

Poor management practices as a cause of insecurity and stress in the workplace are referred to regularly in the literature (Inverarity, 2006:1; Olivier & Venter, 2003:186; Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192). Some of the characteristics of "poor management practices" in the work, and especially the school

environment, include not giving employees the opportunity to air their opinions or concerns, the rejection of the authority or decision-making powers of educators, lack of acknowledgement (Olivier & Venter, 2003:190, Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192), lack of support and communication and harassment and bullying (Anon., 2005d; Field, 2002:1).

According to Field (2002:1), educators in the UK experience bullying in the workplace more often than employees in other careers and reports that bullying can cause stress, permanent loss of self-esteem, psychiatric injury and even suicide. Field (2003:1), states that educators are bullied by principals, colleagues and parents. In the UK and Australia, millions have been paid to educators in compensation for workplace bullying (Field, 2003:1). Farrell (2002:1) reports that workplace bullying is annually costing the USA \$180M in lost time and productivity. In South Africa, the literature is all but silent on educator bullying. One article on the subject, deals with educator-targeted bullying by learners (De Wet, 2005:1-14). Although bullying by principals seems rife in South African schools (Rossouw, 2005), it would appear that educators in South Africa may be suffering this treatment mostly in silence. This view is reinforced by Susan (2008) of the Work Trauma Foundation who states that

*bullying has a devastating effect on targets or victims - most people suffer from psychosomatic illnesses after prolonged exposure to emotional abuse and ... may even suffer from reactive depression, Chronic Fatigue Syndrome ... or Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) in cases of severe bullying.*

This is a crucial issue needing attention, especially considering documentation made available by the CCMA (Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration) which states that harassment in the workplace is recognised as “unfair discrimination”, as “a violation of human rights” and as leading to poor relationships, morale, health and performance (Anon., 2005e). As referred to in chapter 2, in the first major action for sexual harassment under the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 in *Ntsabo v Real Security CC* [2004] 1 BLLR 58 (LC), the employer was found vicariously liable for damages suffered by an employee who had been sexually harassed by a colleague. In a second major case involving sexual harassment, *Grobler v Naspers & another* [2004] 5 BLLR 455 (C), Naspers was also held vicariously liable to Ms Grobler for the damage suffered at the hands of her harasser.

In his judgment, Nel J stated that when Naspers appointed the accused, Samuels, as a manager and the direct head of Ms Grobler, "the authority vested in him enabled him to create a hostile work environment and his conduct was foreseeable social behaviour." Maughan (2004) sees this judgment as a landmark, in which the employer was liable for damages because it had "failed to create an environment in which its employees' right to dignity was preserved". Bamford (2005) states that the employer in this case had "negligently breached the legal duty it owed Grobler". This case has important implications for the law of vicarious liability in general. The fact that Grobler's employer had to pay her damages of nearly R800 000, sends a strong message that, if employees harass their colleagues to the extent that they suffer physical or psychological harm, employers will have to be prepared to pay.

Bullying and harassment are described in the literature as "anti-creative" (Wang, 2007; McCord & Richardson, 2007), in other words, bullying stifles the creativity of the victims. Unfortunately, vulnerable people are often the bully's traditional target, which exacerbates the situation. This becomes clear when studying the information on the special website of the Work Trauma Foundation (2008). The same argument presented in par. 3.5.3.3 on change, would suffice here, as individuals who become empowered through creativity, will tend to take back control over their lives (Parnes (ed), 1992:152; Morland, 1984; Harris, 1998). The claims that creative thinkers are more risk-prone (Sternberg, 2001 and Sternberg & Lubart, 1999 as cited by Lilly & Bramwell-Rejskind, 2004:103) could imply that they would be more willing to confront their abuser. This is a crucial reaction to bullying behaviour, as bullying is not a once-off clash, but typically prolonged and persistent harassment (Work Trauma Foundation; 2008; Field, 2002). The lowering of morale due to bullying and other ineffective elements of management style, may once again be improved by the solution-finding attitude towards problems that creative individuals adopt (Harris, 1998; Birdi, 2005; Neethling & Rutherford, 2005:204).

Most of the arguments in the previous paragraphs apply to many of the other causes of psychological insecurity for educators in their school environment. These include work overload, overcrowded classrooms and cultural differences. The need for creativity to be entrenched in the business world has been widely accepted for more than two decades (Rumboll, 2007; Foster-Pedley, 2007; Peacock, 2004:2). A survey

by the American Management Association in 2004 posed the question "What must one do to survive in the 21<sup>st</sup> century?" to five hundred CEOs. The top answer across the board was "Practice creativity and innovation" (Peacock, 2004:13). This author cites several case studies on creativity in the workplace which proved an increase in morale, happiness and motivation and quotes the Fortune magazine which found in its January edition in 1998, that motivated employees are 127% more productive than averagely motivated employees in complexity jobs. The time seems ripe for education, which is seen as a high stress career (Olivier & Venter, 2003:186; Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192), to follow suit and to find ways to increase the morale and motivation of educators who are being subjected to a variety of stressors in their work environment. As in the corporate world, creativity may be the answer.

### **3.6 SUMMARY**

Research in the field of creativity has indicated certain personality characteristics common to creative thinkers. These include a problem solving attitude, flexibility, coping with change and novelty, perseverance, drive and open-mindedness, to name a few. The literature cites a vast body of research on the effectiveness of creativity training programmes which enhance the ability to generate ideas and solve problems. Furthermore, the literature cites the wider impact of these programmes which enhance the ability to cope with the changing work environment; improve attitudes; and even improve the general health of employees. Florida (2004) who quotes international statistics extensively, even calls for the equivalent of a GI Bill for creativity, as this is part of the "common good" of human beings, like liberty or security. In chapter 2 and in this chapter, the psychological insecurities of educators in South African schools and schools across the world today have been stressed. It is also undeniable that the legislation that is designed to protect educators in their work environment is failing to do that, because of a lack of effective application. It seems urgent to find a coping mechanism to assist educators to deal with the insecurities in their school environment and to manage the resulting stress. In this chapter, a possible solution has emerged from the literature with the establishment of a strong link between coping with indiscipline, change, violence and management style and creativity. The evidence presented that a creativity development model designed to develop the creative abilities of educators, may indeed be one answer to this worrying situation in our schools at present. Although the literature seemed to have

answered the problem statement, “What are the characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance workplace psychological security in education”, to a large degree, this question will be further investigated during the empirical study. The findings of this research will be examined in chapter 5.

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## **4 CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

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### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The following objectives were determined at the start of the study.

- Whether labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace
- To what extent educators experience insecurity in their work environment
- What the main factors are causing psychological insecurity in the workplace for educators
- The characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance psychological security in the workplace for educators.

Although some of these aims were achieved in the literature study during chapters 2 and 3, the research process and methodology through which some of these aims were addressed, as well as the theory of research methodology, will be discussed in this chapter.

Because quantitative as well as qualitative research methodologies were utilised in this research project, both these methodologies and the differences between them will be elucidated in the following paragraphs.

### **4.2 QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACHES**

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:93-94) explain that we use research methodology in order to extract meaning from the data and that different research problems lead to different research designs and methods.

#### **4.2.1 Quantitative research**

According to Henning (2004:3), the focus in a quantitative study will be on control of all the variables and participants are usually not free to express data which cannot be captured by predetermined instruments. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:94) explain that

quantitative research is used to answer questions about relationships among measured variables "with the purpose of explaining, predicting, and controlling phenomena". These variables include weight, performance, time and treatment, for example (Hopkins, 2000).

May and Pope (cited in Imel, Kerka & Wonacott, 2002:1) explain quantitative research as a study that begins with an idea which then, through measurement, generates data and by deduction allows a conclusion to be drawn. According to Labuschagne (2003:1) quantitative research is mainly concerned with the degree in which phenomena possess certain properties, states and characters and the similarities, differences and causal relations which exist within and between these. Cook and Reichardt (as cited by Ratcliff, 2003:1) describe quantitative research as positivistic, particularistic, attempting to control variables, verification oriented and confirmatory. In summary, it appears that quantitative methods deal with what is measurable and the aim is to determine relationships between variables.

#### **4.2.2 Qualitative research**

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:94) state that qualitative research is used to answer questions about the complex nature of phenomena in order to describe and understand the phenomena from the participants' point of view. Denzin and Lincoln (2000:3) agree and add that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings. Merriam (1998:6) refers to qualitative research as "an umbrella concept covering several forms of inquiry that help us understand and explain the meaning of social phenomena with as little disruption of the natural setting as possible". According to Henning (2004:5) the qualities, characteristics or properties of a phenomenon are examined in this research approach.

Imel, Kerka and Wonacott (2002:1) cite various authors who agree that a qualitative inquiry occurs in natural settings, the researchers are themselves the instrument for data collection and analysis and therefore the research has an interpretive character.

### **4.2.3 Using quantitative and qualitative research**

The literature abounds with comparisons between the quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. Some of these comparisons will be addressed in this section.

According to Trochim (2006:1), there has probably been more energy expended on debating the differences between and relative advantages of qualitative and quantitative methods than almost any other methodological topic in social research. Quantitative researcher Kerlinger is quoted as saying, "There's no such thing as qualitative data. Everything is either 1 or 0", while qualitative researcher Campbell asserts, "All research ultimately has a qualitative grounding" (Colorado State University, 2008). According to Marshall (1998:1), the debate became prominent in the 1970s and arose through a backlash against the priority attached to scientific or positivist methodology in sociological textbooks. In these works, qualitative research was referred to as "soft" and as being of interest only in respect of providing intuitions or hunches for the formulation of hypotheses, which could then be tested more rigorously using quantitative or "hard" data. Marshall (1998:1) further states that practising researchers have recently suggested that the distinction between the two types of data is considerably more blurred than is suggested in the theoretical debate.

Henning (2004:3) sees the issue of control as the principal distinction between the two methodologies. In quantitative research all the components are controlled, but in qualitative research the variables are not controlled. In quantitative research the data collection typically occurs well in advance of the data analysis, while in qualitative research, the data collection and data analysis are not sharply differentiated (Anon., 2004d). According to Labuschagne (2003:1), quantitative research is mainly concerned with the degree in which phenomena possess certain properties, states and characters, while qualitative research is mainly concerned with the nature of phenomena and therefore it is not measured in terms of quantity, amount or frequency. Charles (1995:1) and Neill (2000:1) both simply describe quantitative research as dealing with scores or numerical data, where-as qualitative research deals with words and statements.

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:95-97) cite various distinctions between the two approaches. According to these authors there are differences in the purpose, process, data collection and analysis and the reporting of the data of these methods.

- The purpose of quantitative research is to seek explanations and predictions that will generalise to other persons and places, and could contribute to theory. Qualitative research, on the other hand, seeks a better understanding of complex situations, and observations may be used to build theory from the ground up.
- According to these authors, the process also differs: quantitative researchers follow structured and clearly defined guidelines; while qualitative researchers follow a more holistic and open-minded process which results in possible changing of focus and interpretations along the way (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:95).
- Collecting data through the quantitative method involves one or more large samples that represent the population in order to make generalisations, while during the qualitative method a few participants are selected who can best shed light on the phenomenon under investigation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:95-96).
- When analysing data, the quantitative researcher tends to rely more heavily on deductive reasoning, trying to maintain objectivity, conducting predetermined statistical procedures and using objective criteria to evaluate the outcomes. The qualitative researcher, on the other hand, makes considerable use of inductive reasoning, draws inferences and is more subjective when analysing the data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:96).
- As far as the reporting on the findings is concerned, these authors state that quantitative researchers reduce their data to summarising statistics, while the qualitative researcher constructs interpretive narratives of a more personal and literary nature, often including the participants' own responses.

Another difference between quantitative and qualitative research is the role of the researcher during the process.

#### **4.2.4 The researcher as research instrument**

One of the differences often cited between the quantitative and qualitative approach, is the role of the researcher.

In quantitative research, the researcher collects data specifically related to one or a few variables, each variable is measured by specific predetermined methods, great attention is given to the validity and reliability of the measuring instruments and the researcher tends to remain objectively separated from the subject matter (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:95-96; Neill, 2000:1). In qualitative studies, though, the researcher tends to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter (Neill, 2000:1). Hoepfl (1997:1) refers to the researcher in qualitative research as the vehicle through which data will be collected and interpreted. Denzin and Lincoln (2000:5) agree and compare the qualitative researcher to a quilter who stitches, edits and puts slices of reality together. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:96), qualitative researchers are often described as being the research instrument because most of their data are dependent on their personal involvement in the setting of the research.

Henning (2004:81-82) explains the role of the qualitative researcher as twofold. The interpretive researcher first searches for the way in which the “social actors” make meaning on the “stage of action” which is being observed and records these observations. Ultimately, the data are used as building blocks when the researcher becomes the author of the research text. According to Henning (2004:82), the qualitative researcher interprets twice: first in the setting and then through the text that she has created from the observation. Trochim (2006:1) mentions several researchers who argue that the researcher is a unique individual and that all research is essentially biased by each researcher’s individual perceptions, which is a way “to interpret our view of the world as researchers”.

Rossouw (1994:179) states that successful qualitative data collection depends on the balance between participation and neutrality of the researcher. Patton (1990:55) refers to this as “empathic neutrality”.

Although there seem to be many differences between quantitative and qualitative methods of research, there are also voices in the literature that emphasise the

similarities rather than the differences between these two types of methodologies. Becker (2002:1) states that both kinds of research try to see how society works, to describe social reality and to answer specific questions about instances of social reality. Trochim (2006:1) also emphasises the similarities and states that “all qualitative data can be coded quantitatively” and “all quantitative data is based on qualitative judgment”. This researcher argues that there is value in consciously combining both qualitative and quantitative methods in what is referred to as a “mixed methods approach”.

#### **4.2.5 The mixed method design**

As noted previously, in the last few decades debates have raged about the superiority of qualitative or quantitative research (Mactavish & Schleien, 2000:1; Trochim, 2006:1; Olson, 1995:1; Imel, Kerka & Wonacott, 2002). One aspect of these debates has revolved around the appropriateness of combining quantitative and qualitative methods in one research study.

There are those who have viewed the two methods as incompatible (Guba & Lincoln, 1994 as cited by Mactavish & Schleien, 2000:1; Smith & Heshusius, 1996:1). In contrast, many other researchers have been of the opinion that these two research approaches are not mutually exclusive (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:97; Trocham, 2006:1; Merriam, 1988 and Patton, 1990 as cited by Mactavish & Schleien, 2002:1). Leedy and Ormrod (2005:95) cite various authors who agree that we learn more about the world when we have both quantitative and qualitative methodologies at our disposal than when we apply only one of the approaches. Kidder and Fine (in Mark & Shotland (eds), 1987:72) stated, “There is nothing mysterious about combining quantitative and qualitative measures. This is, in fact, a form of triangulation that enhances the validity and reliability of one’s study”. Mactavish and Schleien (2000:1) cite numerous authors who, despite the disagreements, have noted a dramatic increase in the application of the mixed method research design.

Tshakaorri and Teddlie (as cited by Mactavish & Schleien, 2002:4-5) described four different approaches for combining data analysis within a mixed method design. These approaches are summarised below.

- Conducting quantitative and qualitative data analyses on the same data simultaneously.
- Confirming or expanding results from one method through a secondary analysis using the other approach.
- Using the findings obtained through one approach (for example quantitative) as the starting point for the analysis of other data generated via the other approach (for example qualitative).
- Utilising the results of one as a starting point for developing subsequent data collection strategies (for example a new instrument) or to collect new data using another approach (for example qualitative interviews).

Johnson and Christensen (2006:1) state that mixed method research designs are classified according to two major dimensions, viz., time order (i.e. concurrent versus sequential) and paradigm emphasis (i.e. equal status versus dominant status). These authors further mention that currently, proponents of mixed research attempt to use what is called the fundamental principle of mixed research. This principle implies that a researcher should use a mixture or combination of methods that has complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses. They further refer to two models of mixed method research, viz., within-stage mixed model research, which mixes quantitative and qualitative approaches within one or more of the stages of research, and across-stage mixed model research, which mixes quantitative and qualitative approaches across at least two of the stages of research.

Green, Caracelli and Graham (1998:255-274) expound on the following five purposes of a mixed method design which may enhance the evaluation of the research.

- Triangulation, which tests the consistency of findings obtained through different instruments
- Complementary, which clarifies and illustrates results from one method with the use of another method
- Development, which results from one method which shapes subsequent methods or steps in the research process
- Intuition, which stimulates new research questions or challenges results obtained through one method

- Expansion, which provides richness and detail to the study exploring specific features of each method.

As early as 1961, Kuhn (1961:162) argued that “large amounts of qualitative work have usually been prerequisite to fruitful quantification in the physical sciences”. Trochim (2006:1) states that “quantitative and qualitative data are, at some level, virtually inseparable”. He continues that neither of these approaches exists within a vacuum or could be considered completely devoid of the other. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:94) probably sum up the benefit of using a mixed method approach best when they state that “no single highway leads us exclusively toward a better understanding of the unknown”.

In the following paragraphs various research paradigms will be discussed.

### **4.3 THE RESEARCH PARADIGM**

According to Potgieter (2007:7), paradigms are not similar to or substitutes for research methods such as quantitative and qualitative research, but instead “form and provide the theoretical/conceptual and philosophical bedrock” for these streams of research methodology. According to this author the three dominant research paradigms in social science research are the positivist or predictive paradigm, the constructivist or interpretive paradigm and the critical theory or emancipatory paradigm. He further states that a researcher should be able to grasp “the philosophical meaning of ontology, epistemology and the methodological meanings of validity, reliability and data” (Potgieter, 2007:15). He summarises the meanings of these terms as follows: the ontology as the theory of “existence”, the epistemology as the theory of “knowledge” and methodology as the theory of “method”.

Potgieter (2007:12) further states that educational theories and paradigms or “conceptual frameworks” have a lot in common and that educational researchers always ask, “What implications will a particular theoretical perspective/framework have on my research?”

Guba (1990:17) describes a paradigm as a “basic set of beliefs that guides action” or an interpretive framework. Denzin and Lincoln (2000:19) distinguish four major theoretical paradigms, viz. positivist and postpositivist, constructivist-interpretive, critical and feminist-poststructural. These paradigms are summarised below (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:21).

- The positivists and postpositivist paradigms work from within a realist and critical realist ontology and objective epistemologies and rely upon experimental, quasi-experimental survey and rigorously defined qualitative methodologies.
- The constructivist-interpretive paradigm assumes a relativist ontology (there are multiple realities), a subjectivist epistemology (knower and participant co-create understandings) and a naturalistic (in the natural world) set of methodological procedures. Findings in these paradigms are usually presented in terms of the criteria of grounded theory or pattern theories.
- In the feminist-poststructural paradigms it is assumed that the real world makes a material difference in terms of race, class and gender.
- The critical paradigm includes the Marxist and emancipatory models.

Once the researcher has formulated the paradigm of the study, the study design or method can be developed. Both quantitative and qualitative research approaches will be taken into account in the following discussion.

#### **4.4 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS**

When designing quantitative research, the study is aimed at quantifying relationships (Hopkins, 2000:1). According to Hopkins (2000:1), there are two types of studies which are aimed at quantifying relationships, namely descriptive and experimental. In a descriptive study, no attempt is made to change behaviour or conditions and things are measured as they are. In an experimental study measurements are taken, some intervention takes place and then measurements are taken again in order to see if change has taken place.

#### **4.4.1 Descriptive studies**

A descriptive study is also referred to as an observational study (Hopkins, 2000:1; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:179). Subjects are observed without intervening and the behaviour quantified in some way. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:180), the focus is typically on a particular aspect of behaviour. One type of observational study is the case study in which the researcher has to strive to be as objective as possible.

Another descriptive study is the correlational study which examines the extent to which differences in one characteristic or variable are related to differences in one or more other characteristics or variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:180). According to these authors, a correlation exists when, as one variable increases, another variable also increases or decreases in a predictable fashion. They warn against inferring a cause and effect relationship on the basis of correlation alone as even logically absurd correlations can be statistically demonstrated (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:82).

Developmental designs are another example of descriptive studies and can either be a cross-sectional or a longitudinal study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:179). The difference is that in a cross-sectional design the needed data is collected at a single time, whereas in a longitudinal study data is collected over months or years.

Survey research, also referred to as descriptive or normative survey, is a form of descriptive research which acquires information about subjects through asking them questions and then tabulating the answers (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:183; Neill, 2000). These surveys can be conducted through structured face-to-face or telephone interviews or questionnaires (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:185; Stubbs, 2007; Neill, 2000).

#### **4.4.2 Experimental studies**

As mentioned above, Hopkins (2000:1) categorises some types of quantitative research designs as experimental. They differ from purely descriptive studies because of the interventions between measurements. An example is taking measurements of subjects before and after a treatment of some sort. These types of studies mostly have an experimental group that receives the treatment or intervention

and a control group that does not (Neill, 2000:1; Hopkins, 2000:1). Because of the nature of this type of research, the studies are often longitudinal (Hopkins, 2000:1).

#### **4.4.3 Data collection and analysis**

During quantitative research, data are collected from a population or large samples which represent the population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005: 96). These authors state that data are collected through standardised instruments in a form which is easily converted to numerical indices. The methods used to collect data include face-to-face, telephone, postal, on-line and observation methods (Stubbs, 2007:1; Neill, 2000:1). As in qualitative research, interviews can be used for data collection in quantitative research, but in these studies the interviews are structured. In other words the respondent is asked to choose from a predetermined set of response categories (Sewell, 2007:1). Two techniques which facilitate the evaluation and quantification of behaviours and attitudes during quantitative studies are checklists and rating scales (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:185).

During quantitative studies the data are analysed through statistical procedures and using objective criteria to evaluate the outcomes of the procedures (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:98). According to these authors the data are typically reduced to means, medians, correlations and other summarising statistics (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:97).

In the following paragraphs, a closer look is taken at qualitative research designs.

### **4.5 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGNS**

A crucial difference between the quantitative and qualitative research design, is the role of the researcher. In quantitative designs the researcher stays objectively separated from the research, while in qualitative research, the voice of the researcher forms an integral part of the research. The process or phases of qualitative research designs include the research strategies and the methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:20).

#### 4.5.1 Research strategies

This phase of qualitative research begins with a flexible set of guidelines that connects theoretical paradigms first to strategies of inquiry and then to methods for collecting empirical data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:22). These strategies include the case study, ethnography, phenomenological and ethno-methodological techniques, grounded theory, biographical, autoethnographic, historical, action and clinical methods. An in-depth study of these strategies was necessary in order to select those strategies which were most applicable to this study. As certain tangent points can be distinguished, some of the alternatives that were not selected are also expounded further in the following section.

##### 4.5.1.1 Case studies

Imel, Kerka and Wonacott (2002) cite Merriam who describes a case study as “an intensive description and analysis of a phenomenon or social unit such as an individual, group, institution or community”. Henning (2004:40) agrees and refers to this unit which is described and analysed as a “bounded system”. Case studies can be both quantitative and qualitative or can include both these approaches (Tellis, 1997; Hulme, 2007; Lloyd-Jones, 2005). Tellis (1997) states, though, that the case study can be seen to satisfy the three tenets of the qualitative method: describing, understanding and explaining.

##### 4.5.1.2 Ethnography

Ethnography was developed by anthropologists to study human society and culture and according to Merriam (2002:9) this research strategy is not so much defined by how data are collected but rather “by the lens through which they are interpreted.” Creswell (1998: 246) refers to ethnography as

*the study of an intact cultural or social group (or individual within the group) based primarily on observations and a prolonged period of time spent by the researcher in the field. The ethnographer listens and records the voices of informants with the intent of generating a cultural portrait.*

The ethnographer then interprets the observations to discover patterns of behaviour and the factors that underlie them. Henning (2004:42) states that because ethnography tries to capture a way of life within a system or group, this strategy will involve getting to know the people and their practices. Merriam (2002:9) describes the interpretation of the data in this kind of study as through a “sociocultural perspective”.

#### *4.5.1.3 Phenomenological and ethnomethodological studies*

Phenomenology is based on the ideas of German philosopher Edmund Husserl, who insisted that the phenomena we encounter in sensory perceptions are the ultimate source of all knowledge (McClelland 2001; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:488). According to Merriam (2002:7) phenomenological study focuses on the essence or structure of an experience and the inner experiences are compared and analysed to identify the essences of the phenomenon being studied. It is described as a qualitative method that attempts to understand participants’ perspectives and views of social realities (Foster & Perkins, 2004:1). These authors also refer to this strategy as “a philosophical method restricted to careful analysis of the intellectual processes of which we are introspectively aware, without making any assumptions about their supposed causal connections to existent external objects.”

McClelland (2001:1) describes ethnomethodology as an offshoot of symbolic interactionism which raises the question “of how people who are interacting with each other can create the illusion of a shared social order even when they don’t understand each other fully and in fact have different points of view”. Ethnomethodology was founded by the American sociologist Harold Garfinkel in the early 1960s (Poore, 2000:1; McClelland, 2001:1) and refers to the study of the ways in which people make sense of their social world. Alvesson and Sköldbberg (2000:38-39) state that ethnomethodologists study the everyday knowledge, how it emerges and is shaped. The task of the ethnomethodologist, according to these authors, is to elicit actions in the everyday world which are steered by underlying expectations and implicit rules. According to Poore (2000:1), a favoured technique among ethnomethodologists is to temporarily disrupt the world which people take for granted and see how they react.

#### *4.5.1.4 Grounded theory*

Myers (2004:1) describes grounded theory as a research method that seeks to develop theory, but elaborates that it is grounded in data systematically gathered and analysed. He further suggests that this method differs from other methods because it implies a continuous interplay between data collection and analysis. This opinion is shared by Charmaz in Denzin and Lincoln (2000:510) when she states that strategies of grounded theory include simultaneous collection and analysis of data, a two-step data coding process, comparative methods, memo writing and theoretical sampling to refine ideas. She further concludes that although the initial research questions may be concrete and descriptive, the researcher can develop deeper analytic questions by studying her data. This interplay between the researcher and the data is also recognised by Guba and Lincoln (in Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:510) who state that constructionist grounded theory recognises the mutual creation of knowledge by the viewer and the viewed and aims towards interpretive understanding of the subjects' meanings. This strategy is summed up by Henning (2004:115) as theorising "reality according to a set of empirically organised categories" and by Merriam (2002:7) as developing a theory through inductive approaches; the theory is "grounded" in the data.

#### *4.5.1.5 Biographical and autoethnographical methods*

These methods are applied by a researcher who is a "native", an "insider" who has an intimate familiarity with the group being studied (Ellis & Bochner in Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:739). These strategies are a form of self-narrative and place the self within a social context and as a result "a person learns how they are defined by the world, and how to redefine themselves and their relationships with others through ongoing reflection" (Stephenson, 2005:1). A new form of biography and autoethnography or life history is the "testimonio" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:374) which is a first-person (usually political) text told by a narrator of various struggles for survival. These works are intended to produce and record social change. The author of the "testimonio" is not a researcher, but someone who allows previously silenced persons to be heard.

## 4.5.2 Research methodology

The research methodology includes the different methods used to collect and analyse research data.

### 4.5.2.1 *Methods of data collection*

The methods of collecting data which will be discussed in this section include interviews and interview schedules, questionnaires, observation and documents.

- Interviews

Atkinson and Silverman (as cited by Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:634) state that we live in an “interview society”. Qualitative researchers, according to these authors, are increasingly realising the value of interviews as active interactions between two or more people which lead to negotiated, contextually based results.

Interviews can be informal (conversational), semi-structured (interview guide approach) or standardised (open-ended) (Patton as cited by Sewell, 2007:1). Sewell also mentions the closed or fixed-response interview which falls in the realm of quantitative interviewing. During the informal interview, referred to as discursively oriented interviews by Henning (2004:57), the speech or communication in itself yields information. It is, therefore, not only what participants say and do that is important, but also what they omit, how they say and do that becomes important information. In the standardised open-ended interview, the interviewer adheres to a strict script and does not interfere or contaminate the data by conversation with the participant (Sewell, 2007:1; Henning, 2004:53). Because the responses are open-ended, this is considered a qualitative approach.

Interviews may sometimes be conducted in focus groups, and the interaction between the participants is used to generate data (Greenhalgh & Taylor, 2000:1; Ratcliff, 2003:1). Fontana and Frey (in Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:639) see this technique as straddling the line between formal and informal interviewing; it is often used when the purpose of the interview is exploratory.

- Interview schedules and questionnaires

During the semi-structured interview a semi-structured interview schedule is used. These schedules consist of questions which may be fairly specific, but which may be probed or prompted in order to explore different facets of the issue (The commonwealth of learning, 2003; Sewell, 2007). The semi-structured interview is the most widely used format for qualitative interviewing.

Questionnaires for quantitative research are designed to elicit systematic, standardised and succinct responses, while the questionnaire or interview schedule used for qualitative research elicits responses which are open-ended, not systematic and longer (Labuschagne, 2003:1). Questionnaires for qualitative research are therefore designed to provide a forum for explanations, meanings and new ideas.

- Observations

Observation has been described as “the fundamental base of all research methods” and is used to note body language and other gestural cues that can lend meaning to the words of participants during interviews (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:613). Denzin (1997:19) does, however, urge researchers to be aware of class, race, gender and ethnicity and how these factors shape the process of the inquiry during observation. Neill (2000:1) classifies observation methods as participant and nonparticipant (depending on the participation of the researcher), obtrusive and unobtrusive (referring to whether the participants can detect the observation), natural or contrived (when a situation is recreated to speed up the behaviour), disguised and non-disguised (depending on whether the participants are aware of the researcher), structured (which refers to the use of guidelines or a checklists) and unstructured and direct and indirect observation (which refers to behaviour being observed as it occurs or after the fact, as in TV viewing, for instance).

According to Patton (1990:1), observation can lead to a deeper understanding than interviews alone as it may enable the researcher to see things that participants themselves are not aware of or are unwilling to discuss.

- Documents

According to Hoepfl (1997:1), documents for qualitative research may include official records, letters, newspaper accounts, diaries, reports, court case reports or other published data in the literature. Hodder (in Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:703) does warn that documents, or the material culture, may not be used directly to “speak back”, but, through appropriate procedures, can become useful data.

#### *4.5.2.2 Methods of data analysis*

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2003:23), the qualitative researcher or “writer-as-interpreter” works with different texts. They are the field text which consists of field notes and documents, then the research text which includes notes and interpretations based on the field text, which is recreated as a working interpretive document containing the initial attempts to make sense of the research. Finally the writer would produce the public text which is presented to the reader.

To be able to create the final text, the researcher needs to analyse the data. There are numerous methods of data analysis which include content analysis, grounded theory analysis, discourse analysis, narrative and conversation analysis and computer-aided qualitative data analysis.

- Content analysis

Content analysis would involve qualitative coding and categorising which means that data are divided into small units of meaning which are named and grouped together in categories (Merriam, 1998:1). Holliday (2001:79) refers to a “thin description” when the data “simply reports facts, independent of intentions or circumstances.” Henning (2004:105) explains that codes are “made up” by the researcher while working through the data. Related codes are then grouped or categorised and these categories are named inductively, using the data as a guide to decide what the categories should be named.

- Grounded theory analysis

Grounded theory as a research strategy, was discussed earlier (see par. 4.5.1.4), but also deserves mention as a method of analysis. According to Myers (2004:1), the major difference between grounded theory and other research methods is the

continuous interplay between data collection and analysis. According to Charmaz (2000:675) the grounded theory analyst uses flexible strategies to convert concrete realities to conceptual understandings of them. Through this process theories emerge which are grounded in the research reality.

- Discourse analysis

According to Gee (as cited by Ratcliff, 2007) discourse analysis is the linguistic analysis of an ongoing flow of communication. This is usually a taped discussion by several people that is analysed to find patterns. Meyers (2004:1) states that the importance of an idea is revealed in the frequency with which it appears in the text.

- Narrative analysis

The difference between narrative and discourse analysis, is that narrative analysis looks at the speech of an individual (Reisman as cited by Ratcliff, 2007;1). The researcher applies characteristics of the narrative used by the participant to try to find a pattern of language action that may be significant (Cottle, 2002:1).

- Computer-aided qualitative data analysis

The real strength of computer-aided qualitative programmes, according to Henning (2004:137), lies in ordering, structuring, retrieving and visualising tasks. Weitzman (as cited by Henning, 2004:137) supports this argument by noting that these programmes can help to analyse data but cannot do the analysis for the researcher. There are several computer software programmes available that can assist the qualitative researcher with the analysis of data. Henning (2004:130), refers to several such programmes, including HyperQual2, Kwalitan, QUALPRO, Atlas.ti, HYPERRESEARCH, Nud.ist and Nvivo.

As mentioned in par. 4.3, all educational researchers ask, "What implications will a particular theoretical perspective/framework have on my research?" Determining the paradigm or framework of a particular study is therefore an important exercise.

#### **4.6 THE RESEARCH PARADIGM OF THIS STUDY**

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000:19) a paradigm is the “net that contains the researcher’s epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises”. They maintain that all research is guided by “a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied” and is therefore interpretive. These authors describe the constructivist paradigm as one which assumes a relativist ontology (there are multiple realities), a subjectivist epistemology (knower and respondent co-create understandings) and a naturalistic (in the natural world) set of methodological procedures (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:21).

These two descriptions of the interpretive and of the constructivist paradigm are both true of this study which could therefore be described as constructivist-interpretive. The researcher of this study has combined her beliefs about the nature of human beings who differ in behaviour because of their differing levels of creativity skills (ontology), about the relationship between the researcher and the participants who are both creating insights and understanding during the process of interviewing and discussions on their experiences of insecurity in their workplace (epistemology) and about gaining knowledge through procedures in the naturalistic setting of the school environment (methodology).

Potgieter’s (2007:16) description of the constructivist/interpretive paradigm also fits this study. As far as the ontology is concerned, he states that during this type of research, reality is constructed and interpreted, the reality is subjective and there are multiple realities. Furthermore, the reality is constructed through human interaction. He describes the epistemology of the constructivist/interpretive paradigm as events which are understood through a mental process of interpretation which is influenced by interaction with social context, and findings are created and meaning constructed through personal knowledge. The methodology is qualitative and knowledge is gained through interpretation of a particular context.

Once again, when measured against Potgieter’s description, this study is aligned with this paradigm, viz. constructivist/interpretive. The researcher, who has personal knowledge of creativity and its influence on behaviour, designed a research study

which would, through human interaction with educators during interviews, reveal findings regarding the psychological security of educators and their ability to cope with these insecurities.

Potgieter (2007:9) further states that in the philosophy of law, interpretivism is also a school of thought. In this study within the field of education law, this paradigm would therefore seem appropriate.

With the *constructivist/interpretive paradigm* as theoretical framework, the researcher embarked on the design of this study.

## **4.7 RESEARCH DESIGN OF THIS STUDY**

This study had been designed to apply both quantitative and qualitative research methodologies in a mixed method approach. As mentioned in par. 4.2.5 one of the mixed method approaches, according to Tshakaorri and Teddlie (as cited by Mactavish & Schleien, 2002:4-5), is to use the findings obtained through one approach as the starting point for the analysis of other data generated via the other approach. In this study the results of a test, the TTCT® (quantitative) were used as the starting point of further qualitative research. In this study the sequential mixed method approach was therefore applied. According to the classification of Johnson and Christensen (2006:1), the qualitative approach has the “dominant status” in this study.

### **4.7.1 Quantitative methodology**

The motivation for using the tests, which form the basis of the quantitative methodology of this study, was primarily for the selection of participants. The Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®) was applied.

#### *4.7.1.1 Data collection*

The Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®) was first developed in 1966 and was renormed in 1974, 1984, 1990 and 1998. One of the motives for

selecting this measuring tool for this research is because it is considered to be fair with regard to race, socio-economic status, and culture (Kim, 2002:1; Cramond, 1993: 229-254). Norms were generated in 1997 using 55600 students and the TTCT® was found to be appropriate for use with any population. Various recent research studies have been conducted to test the applicability of the TTCT® on participants from different cultures, with positive results (Rudowicz, 2004:202-218; Kim, 2006:3-14). Kim (2006:3-14) summarises various other positive features of the TTCT® as cited by a large number of researchers. These include the wealth of information available on it, the short time needed for administration, and ease of administration, fewer limitations and cautions to apply and the fact that it is more researched and analysed than any other creativity instrument. The TTCT® is widely considered to be the most highly recommended creativity testing tool in the education and corporate fields and has been translated into 35 languages (Kim, 2003:1; Kaufmann, 2006:1; Hébert, Cramond, Millar & Silvian, 2005). It is also the most widely referenced of all creativity tests (Lissitz & Willhoft, 1985:1).

The TTCT® comprises 3 activities, each with a time limit of 10 minutes. The five mental characteristics measured are fluency, originality, abstractness of titles, elaboration and resistance to premature closure. Thirteen creative strengths are also measured. They are *inter alia* emotional expressiveness, unusual visualisation, internal visualisation, extending or breaking boundaries, humour and richness of imagery. Examples of sections of completed TTCT® tests by participants of this study have been included in Addendum D.

#### *4.7.1.2 Selection of participants*

Through the method of purposive sampling a selection of two secondary schools in the Western Cape in higher socio-economic areas and one in a lower socio-economic area and one primary school in a lower social-economic area were made after consultation with the Western Cape Education Department. The decision to select this combination of schools was made in cooperation with the specialists of the North-West University Statistical Services during the research design process. The aim was to select a relatively representative group of schools in the Western Cape. The learners in the four schools were representative of the demography of the student population in this area of South Africa with one of the schools comprising

only black learners, another 90% learners of colour, another one-third black learners and another 40% learners of other colours. The educators in three of the schools, on the other hand, were predominantly white.

One hundred educators from the participating schools were selected randomly to complete the TTCT®. The number of participants at the four schools were 31 (of the staff of 45), 14 (of the staff of 26), 25 (of the staff of 43) and 30 (of the staff of 40) respectively. A contact person at each school was asked to select between 25 and 30 educators to participate in the completion of the TTCT®. During an interview with each contact person, it was explained that a mixture of positive and negative, or “difficult”, educators was essential for the research. This was understood by each of these individuals. Schools were asked to select both males and females, but were not instructed to select equal numbers. This would not have been possible in most cases, as one of the schools had only female educators, and the other schools had more female than male educators. The tests were completed in groups at their schools. The participants were requested to complete consent forms and informed of the confidentiality of the test results. A relaxed atmosphere was created before and during the completion of the tests.

The TTCT® was completed in order to select participants for further research. From the participants who completed the tests, a group of 35 was selected comprising participants who presented low, average and high creativity on the TTCT®. Twenty-one were females and fourteen were males. This selection was representative of the male/female ratio of the initial participants. Three groups were selected in this way, viz., a group of 15 with high creative skills, a group of 5 with average creative skills and a group of 15 with low creative skills. The motivation for this selection process was in order to investigate whether the high and low creative groups differ in their ability to cope with insecurity in their work places. Although the high and low creative groups formed the focus of the study, a smaller average creative group was included in order to determine whether this group would be significantly different or would reveal coping abilities closer to the higher or lower creative group. This was a recommendation by the specialists of the North-West University Statistical Services who were also involved in determining the selection of the schools. The scores of the participants in the three categories will be displayed in par. 4.7.1.3 below.

#### 4.7.1.3 Data analysis

The 100 completed Figural Torrance Tests® of Creative Thinking were interpreted by the researcher using the Streamlined Scoring Guide figural A and B (Torrance, 1998). Examples of completed scoring sheets appear as Addendum E. The scoring sheet comprises scores for fluency, originality, abstractness of titles, elaboration and resistance to premature closure, which are referred to as general creative abilities. These are represented as raw scores, which are converted to standard scores using the tables included in the scoring guide. The scoring sheet also represents a checklist of thirteen creative strengths which include emotional expressiveness, storytelling articulateness, movement or action, expressiveness of titles, synthesis of incomplete figures, synthesis of lines, unusual visualization, internal visualisation, extending or breaking boundaries, humour, richness of imagery, colourfulness of imagery and fantasy. For these thirteen strengths, bonus points are awarded. The final standard score is calculated by adding the average standard score of the general creative abilities to the bonus points. National percentile ranks are indicated on the scoring sheet; this allows for comparisons within a group. On this scale a percentile rank of 50, which equals a standard score of 100, represents the performance of the typical or average performance within the group.

After the analysis of all the test results, 35 participants were selected, as explained in par. 4.7.1.2. From each school, participants were selected from all three categories, viz., high, average and low creative thinkers. Ten participants were selected from 2 of the schools, nine from another and 6 from the fourth school.

From the four schools, participants with the following scores were selected as the final 35 participants. Table 4.1 illustrates the different groups.

Table 4.1 Creativity scores of 35 participants

Low creativity			Average creativity			High creativity		
63	71	73	102	103	104	119	122	124
74	78	78	104	108		125	128	128
79	82	83				130	130	131
84	87	91				134	140	140
91	92	92				142	150	160

A more comprehensive analysis of the results of the TTCT® of the different participants in the four schools will be reported on in chapter 5.

#### **4.7.2 Qualitative methodology**

Leedy and Ormrod (2005:94) stated that qualitative research is mostly used to describe and understand a complex phenomenon from the participants' point of view. This summarises the motivation for using the qualitative approach in this study. It enabled the researcher to answer questions regarding educator security and its legal determinants, to understand insecurity and stress from the educators' point of view, and to describe this phenomenon in order to design a creativity development model which could assist educators to cope with their complex environment.

According to Henning (2004:7), the researcher is "unequivocally the main instrument of research and makes meaning from her engagement in the project" and "her knowledge, understanding and expertise will determine what happens to the data" (Henning, 2004:6). It is therefore imperative to illustrate the role of the researcher in this study.

##### *4.7.2.1 The researcher of this study*

After teaching and lecturing at a teachers' training college for about a decade, I became interested and then wholly involved in the identification and development of creative behaviour in children as well as adults. For the last fifteen years I have conducted numerous workshops on the identification and development of creative behaviour in South Africa as well as abroad and written several books on the subject. The application of creative skills in many fields, such as education, parenting, management, leadership and relationships has been a passion for many years.

During research for a masters degree on the role of brain dominance in the maintenance of learner discipline, my relationship with and affinity for education in South Africa were strengthened. During this research I also realized the enormous responsibility of the state to develop and ensure the application of legislation that would protect learners as well as educators in South African schools. Studying statistics on stress in the workplace, and especially amongst educators, was a

sobering experience and prompted my choice for my current research. My personal experience and expertise in the field of creativity have revealed the possibility that higher creative skills could assist educators in coping better with their environment.

It is with an open mind, which is an important quality of the creative thinker, that I undertook this study in an attempt to find a possible solution to a complex situation. Although this study has several tangent points with educational psychology, at the heart of the study is an attempt to diminish the gap between the rights of educators as stated in the Constitution, various labour laws and other legislation, the common law and, on the other hand, the reality as experienced by educators in the workplace.

The researcher moves to the next stage “paradigm and personal history in hand, focused on a concrete empirical problem to examine” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:21). In this next stage the researcher works with a specific strategy of inquiry.

#### *4.7.2.2 The research strategy*

According to Foster and Perkins (2004:1) phenomenological study attempts to understand the perspectives and views of social realities of participants. These authors also cite the researcher’s self reflections or experiences relevant to the phenomenon as a data source. The strategy of inquiry of this research study is therefore phenomenological, as the researcher’s experience in the field of creativity and self reflections regarding this phenomenon, are certainly data sources. Furthermore, the study attempts to understand the participants’ perspectives and views on insecurity in their school environments, which is an element of the phenomenological study, as described by Foster and Perkins (2004:1).

#### *4.7.2.3 The research methodology: methods of data collection*

Henning (2004:103) states that, in qualitative research, it is advisable to apply a variety of methods. This is referred to by some as triangulation (Denzin, 1978; Lincoln & Guba as cited by Seale, 2002:1). In this study, qualitative data were gathered primarily by means of personal interviews with educators and through observation.

The researcher gained approval to engage in scientific projects with human participants at the Research Ethics Committee of the North-West University (see Addendum A) under the certificate number NWU 0009 08 A2.

- Interviews

After the completion of the creativity test which is part of the quantitative method of the research, the participants were informed of the time and venue for their individual interviews. The personal interviews took place at the school. The confidentiality of the test results and interviews was stressed and the participants put at ease. They were informed that the data gathered would be interpreted in order to determine whether there was a correlation between the psychological security of the educator in the workplace and creativity, without revealing the names of participants or schools. They were assured that their participation was voluntary and that no pressure was placed on them to participate. They were also informed that their results on the TTCT® was confidential and would only be revealed to participants personally on request after the completion of the study. The interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants. The participants were informed of the possible duration of the interview.

A semi-structured interview schedule was developed to use during interviews, and was based on the findings of the literature analysis and on the problem statements of this study. A copy of the interview schedule is included as Addendum E. The questions posed during the interviews were designed to gain information regarding the main stressors experienced by participants, such as change, indiscipline, violence, management style and a negative classroom climate. The questions also sought to gain insight into their attitude towards these stressors and their ability to cope with the psychological insecurity caused by these issues. Other questions dealt with the extent to which legislation protects educators from insecurity, whether they are informed regarding their rights in the workplace, whether any creativity programme exists in their schools and their attitude towards such programmes.

By conducting the interviews, the researcher herself became a measurement instrument through observation.

- Observation

Observation has been characterised as “the fundamental base of all research” in the social and behavioural sciences (as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:613). These authors state that studies based on direct interviews also employ observational techniques to note body language and gestures that might lend meaning to the words of the participants. Hoepfl (1997:1) cites Patton who declares that observation can reveal things that participants themselves are not aware of or that they are unwilling to discuss. During the interviews in this study, the researcher made written notes of any body language, gestures, facial expressions, the avoiding of answers, anxiety, emotional responses and other observations that might, during data analysis, lend further insight into the data.

- Written lists

During the interviews, participants were presented with lists of causes of stress in their workplace, symptoms of stress and types of bullying which occur in the workplace. They were instructed to tick those which applied to them.

#### *4.7.2.4 The research methodology: methods of data analysis*

The researcher worked within a constructivist-interpretive paradigm to analyse the data and to reach conclusions regarding this research project. This paradigm or framework included the interpretation of the responses of the participants during the interviews, the way in which they interpreted the questions, the emotional timbre of their words, their body language, facial expressions and gestures. Through a constant-comparative method these elements were compared with their creativity scores on the TTCT®.

The process followed during data analysis was as follows:

1. The interviews were transcribed.
2. The themes which were generated by the interview schedule and which emerged from the interviews were noted.
3. Using a code system, the remarks by participants were categorised according to both the deductively and inductively generated themes.
4. The responses were compared to the levels of creativity of the participants.

5. The observations noted by the researcher regarding body language, gestures, facial expressions and emotional words were compared to their verbal responses and to the levels of creativity of participants.

Examples of transcribed interviews are included in Addendum F. These interviews show the categories and themes which emerged during the interviews.

The interpretive findings of the researcher regarding all the issues will be fully addressed in chapter 5.

#### **4.8 THE CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL**

Henning (2004:149) cites Kvale who states that “to pragmatists truth is whatever assists us to take actions that produce the desired results”. She continues that, although it is impossible to predict that a research project will “change the social world”, the design of the study has to build in the possibility for action.

This study was explicitly aimed at action in the form of a creativity development model which would explain and simplify the main elements of the findings and could be the basis of a creativity programme designed to be applied in schools in order to develop the creative skills of educators in an attempt to grow their ability to cope with *insecurity*. The motivation for such a model was to design a coping mechanism that might assist towards enhancing “bodily and psychological integrity” as guaranteed in section 12(2) of the Bill of Rights and serve to bring the rights afforded educators by labour and other legislation, closer to actuality.

When designing the creativity development model, both the literature overview and the empirical study will be taken into account. The model will take into account:

- the labour rights of educators in their work environment
- the literature on existing creativity development models and programmes
- the findings regarding educators’ experiences of stress and insecurity in their work environment
- individuals with varying creative abilities, and their attitudes towards insecurity.

The completed creativity development model forms chapter 6 of this study.

#### **4.9 THE TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH**

The Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®) which is used as the quantitative research of this study was found to be unbiased for race and socioeconomic status (Torrance, 1994:52). This finding was the result of 20 research studies. Norms were generated in 1997 using 55,600 students and the TTCT® was found to be appropriate for use with any population (Kim, 2002:1).

*Lincoln and Guba (as cited by Seale, 2002:1) have identified guidelines for the trustworthiness of qualitative research. They conclude that trustworthiness can be established by amongst others prolonged observation in the field, persistent observation, the collection of sufficient data, and triangulation. They state further that the confirmability of findings is based on the researcher's critical self-reflection.*

The researcher measured the trustworthiness of this study against these guidelines. The data collected from 35 participants were found to be sufficient as the analysis of the data progressed. Certain patterns occurred which were repeated as the data were analysed. At this point, referred to in the literature as saturation of data (Turner & Harahap, 1993:3; Guest, Bunce & Johnson, 2006: 59-82), the researcher found the data to be sufficient.

One type of triangulation according to Denzin (1978:1) is the convergence of multiple data sources. This process of triangulation was involved in the search for corroboration. The Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking and the participating educators were all data sources. Denzin also described methodological triangulation, which involves the convergence of data from multiple data sources. In this study data were collected through the creativity test mentioned above which was completed by 100 educators, through personal interviews with 35 educators, through lists from which participants had to make selections and through observation during the interviews.

Further triangulation procedures are investigator triangulation and researcher-participant corroboration or cross-examination. The findings of this study will culminate in the design of a creativity development model and training programme

based on the literature study which cites numerous examples of how creativity skills were enhanced through training programmes.

According to Strauss and Corbin (1990:17), generalisation is not the aim of qualitative research, but rather illumination, understanding and extrapolation to similar situations. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985:124), the transferability of the findings of any qualitative study would therefore depend upon the degree of similarity between the original situation and the situation to which it is transferred. This is certainly true of this study. The amount of insecurity and stress, for instance, which was experienced at the participating schools, was clearly widespread if judged by media reports on the situation in schools country-wide. The findings as well as the creativity development model would be transferable to schools similar to those which participated. The researcher is also of the opinion that sufficient information has been supplied and the creativity development model designed in such a manner that it could enable readers to apply it in other settings. The creativity training programme will be designed with sufficient information and instructions in order to enable any educator to apply it with the minimum of preparation or previous knowledge.

#### **4.10 THE LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY**

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, generalisation is not possible in qualitative research. The participants of this study were 20 educators from higher socioeconomic schools and 15 from a lower socioeconomic school. Twenty-eight of the educators were white and 7 were black. Although this forms a reasonable cross-section of educators, the participating schools were not schools in some of the highest risk areas in South Africa, where a cause of insecurity like violence is far more prominent than in the participating schools. This decision was made for safety reasons after considerable consideration during the research design process at the Northwest University Statistical Services.

Although the schools and participants are not representative of all schools and educators in South Africa, the lack of psychological security and resulting stress and the lack of educators' knowledge of their rights appear widespread, as was cited several times in chapter 2 and will be demonstrated in chapter 5. Furthermore, the

correlation found between creativity and the ability to cope with insecurity as mentioned in par. 3.3.5 and par. 3.5.3, is an important one and will be explored further in chapter 5. On the other hand, it would be an oversimplification to assume that developing creativity skills is the only solution to the growing psychological insecurity amongst educators and the high stress levels suffered by many members of this profession in South Africa.

#### **4.11 SUMMARY**

During this study a sequential mixed method approach, including quantitative as well as qualitative research methodology, was applied. The research paradigm was in most part constructivist-interpretive and a phenomenological research strategy was followed. The methods of data collection included the Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®), interviews, observation and written lists.

The interviews created opportunities for active participation, for interaction, for the researcher to probe, to observe verbal as well as non-verbal communication and to gain insights during this data collection stage of the study. The design of a creativity development model forms an important part of this study and is an attempt to answer the “how” question regarding the development of the creative skills of educators.

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## 5 CHAPTER 5: FINDINGS OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

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### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the research methodology of this study was discussed. In this chapter the data gathered through a mixed methods approach, combining both qualitative and quantitative methods, will be analysed and examined.

The Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®) formed the basis of the quantitative phase of this study. This source of data was initially applied in order to select participants. The results of the tests were also used subsequently during the analysis of the data gathered through other sources. This was done by comparing the participants' results on the creativity test with their responses, with how they experienced insecurity at school and to what extent they presented with stress symptoms.

Data collection and analysis using the qualitative method were accomplished mainly through interviews with the participants using a semi-structured interview schedule. The participants were also presented with short lists which offered them choices regarding different issues discussed during the interviews. These will be expanded on later in this chapter. Furthermore, the interviewer made notes of observations made during the interviews, which were subsequently used as an additional data source. The knowledge and insight of the researcher, the “main instrument of research” (Henning, 2004:7), regarding creative behaviour, was an important aspect of the collection and interpretation of the data. Although the researcher remained neutral, she was also personally involved in the setting of the research and as the interpreter of the text.

In the following paragraphs, the Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®) will be reviewed as quantitative methodology and as data source.

## **5.2 FIGURAL TORRANCE TEST® OF CREATIVE THINKING (TTCT®)**

As mentioned in par. 4.7.1.2, a selection of two secondary schools in the Western Cape in higher socio-economic areas and one in a lower socio-economic area and one primary school in a lower social-economic area were made through the method of purposive sampling after consultation with the Western Cape Education Department. The decision to select this combination of schools was made in cooperation with the specialists of the North-West University Statistical Services during the research design process. The aim was to select a relatively representative group of schools. The learners in the four schools were representative of the demography of the student population in South Africa with one of the schools comprising only coloured learners, another 90% learners of colour, another one-third coloured learners and another 40% learners of other colours. The educators in three of the schools, on the other hand, were predominantly white.

One hundred participants selected at random, completed the TTCT® at the four participating schools. The number of participants at the four schools were 31 (of the staff of 45), 14 (of the staff of 26), 25 (of the staff of 43) and 30 (of the staff of 40) respectively. Schools were asked to select both males and females, but were not instructed to select equal numbers. As explained in par. 4.7.1.2. this would not have been possible in most cases, as one of the schools had only female educators, and the other schools had more female than male educators.

As explained in par. 4.7.1.1, the TTCT® comprises 3 activities, each with a time limit of 10 minutes. The five mental characteristics measured are fluency, originality, abstractness of titles, elaboration and resistance to premature closure. Thirteen creative strengths are also measured on this test. They are emotional expressiveness, storytelling articulateness, movement or action, expressiveness of titles, synthesis of incomplete figures, synthesis of lines, unusual visualisation, internal visualisation, extending or breaking boundaries, humour, richness of imagery, colourfulness of imagery and fantasy.

As explained in par. 4.7.1.3, the final standard score of this test is calculated by adding the average standard score of the general creative abilities to the bonus points scored in the thirteen creative strengths. On the national percentile ranks indicated on the scoring sheet, a percentile rank of 50 equals a standard score of 100 which represents the performance of the typical or average performance within the group.

The results of the tests were interpreted by the researcher, a practitioner of the TTCT®, using the Streamlined Scoring Guide Figural A and B (Torrance, 1998). For this research, scores of 92 and below were considered low, scores of 100 to 110 were considered average and scores above 120 were considered high. In order to ensure a clear separation of the three groupings, viz., high, average and low creative groups, participants who scored between 93 and 99 and between 111 and 119 were not selected for follow-up interviews. Examples of a completed TTCT® scoring sheet appear as Addendum G.

The results of the initial 100 participants did not differ significantly in the four participating schools and, as illustrated in the following tables, an even spread of scores across the high, average and low categories was obtained in all four schools.

Table 5.1 School 1 TTCT® scores: higher socio-economic area

78	82	92	100	114	121	130
78	83	92	101	115	122	131
	83	93	101		123	
	84	93	104		124	
	87	99	104		125	
	88		109		128	
	89				129	

Table 5.2 Primary school 2 TTCT® scores: lower socio-economic area

77	83	91	106	115	124	140
78	87		108	118		
78				118		
79						

Table 5.3 School 3 TTCT® scores: lower socio-economic area

71	82	91	106	117	120	130
73	83	92	107	118	128	138
74	83	93	108	119	129	140
		95				160
		96				
		98				

Table 5.4 School 4 TTCT® scores: higher socio-economic area

63	90	100	111	120	130	142
87	91	101	119	120	130	150
	91	102		120	131	
	98	102		124	134	
	99	103		126	135	
		105		127		
		109		128		

Utilising these results, 35 participants were identified for follow-up interviews. They consisted of 15 participants who obtained high scores, 5 who obtained average scores and 15 who obtained low scores on the TTCT®. The inclusion of an average group was a recommendation by the specialists of the North-West University Statistical Services, who also advised on the selection and composition of the specific schools chosen for the research. Fourteen of the participants were male and twenty-one were female. A higher number of females were selected because one of the schools had exclusively female staff and the other three had more female than male educators. Because the educators in the participating schools were predominantly white, as pointed out earlier in this section, a majority of white educators were selected, viz., 28, while 7 of the participants were coloured.

The 35 participants selected from the four schools for further research and interviews obtained the following scores on the TTCT®, as demonstrated in par. 4.7.1.3.

Table 5.5 Scores of 35 selected as participants from four schools

Low creativity			Average creativity			High creativity		
63	71	73	102	103	104	120	122	124
74	78	78	104	108		125	128	128
79	82	83				130	130	131
84	87	91				134	140	140
91	92	92				142	150	160

None of the participants had any knowledge or previous experience of the TTCT® or any similar activity. Some found the fact that the test consists of drawing exercises daunting, but the researcher stressed that artistic ability did not affect the outcome of the test results, and that the ideas behind the drawing were a deciding factor. Most educators enjoyed the exercise and many were excited about receiving the results in the future. The researcher did not reveal the results of the test to the participants during or after the interview sessions, as this may have influenced their responses and even their attitudes towards the interviews. After completion of this study, the results will be made available to the participants.

After the interviews were transcribed, certain categories of responses emerged. Most of these categories, which are stated below, were compared to the score on the TTCT® of each of the participants.

- Number of stress symptoms suffered
- Attitude towards change, indiscipline, violence, workload and other causes of stress
- Suggestions on how to deal with violence
- Opinions on whether the psychological security of educators should be protected by law
- Opinions on whether creativity programmes could be a successful intervention to help educators cope with insecurities in the school
- Opinions on what the characteristics of such a creativity development model or programme should be.

In the next section the data obtained during the interviews with the 35 participants, will be analysed. The categories mentioned above will be discussed as they relate to the research problem statements.

### **5.3 LABOUR LEGISLATION AND THE BILL OF RIGHTS**

The first research problem stated in Chapter 1 was “To what extent do labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace?” This was an important aspect of this study and the literature on the subject was intensively examined in chapter 2. The literature revealed that,

although legislation that protects the psychological security of educators does exist, a serious lacuna remains concerning the application of this right.

### **5.3.1 Government support**

One of the questions posed during the interview was whether participants felt that they, as educators, received sufficient support from government, the governing body and the principal to cope with changes in the workplace. An overwhelming majority of participants gave their principals and the governing body their vote of confidence in this regard. In contrast, most found the support from government in the form of the Education Department, as lacking. On the positive side, some did mention the subject advisor in their area, who was trying to help them with problems. Most, though, were very verbal regarding the overwhelming amount of administration expected by the Department, the numerous forms which had to be filled in, the constantly changing systems and procedures, the time wasted on workshops and meetings and that instead of experiencing support, the Department was one of the main causes of stress for educators at present.

This opinion was evident in all four participating schools. Some of the remarks by educators in this regard included, “stressful”, “irritating”, “red tape”, “they are not looking to make educators’ lives easier”, “department support? In your dreams!”, “ridiculous”, “senseless changes”, “we are always waiting for reaction that never comes”, “things drag on”, “the pressure they put on us is terrible”, “the changes are crazy – sometimes we just have to carry on regardless, because they are moving the goal-posts all the time”, “the government doesn’t help – they are the main reason for the stress”. The expressions “stressful”, “stresses me out” and “frustrated” were repeated by several participants.

One area of support that all participants felt they needed but did not receive, was how to deal with indiscipline in the class. All felt they needed support urgently and that structures should be put in place to deal with transgressions. One comment was that government just did not see discipline as important. Even if the same child kept repeating a transgression, one commented, educators received no support from the government to deal with it. The rights of learners was a theme that developed in response to the question whether they felt they received enough support; it was

repeated in numerous other contexts. Educators stressed their feeling of helplessness because of the fact that the rights of learners were considered far more important than those of educators. Some blamed the Department for not taking a stand and for not emphasising to learners that rights and responsibilities went hand in hand. One responded that government was creating “a lost generation”. This was a recurring theme which revealed itself during other questions as the interviews progressed. It was also evident that educators did not know what their rights were, but felt strongly that, in contrast to the rights of children, their rights were completely ignored. One participant commented that those who were making the laws, should attend a class for a few days. Many called this lack of educator rights a crisis.

During this part of the interview, when specifically asked about support from other staff members, some tentative criticism was levelled at senior staff by some younger educators in three of the participating schools. These participants alluded to established teachers that “you can’t rely on”, that some of them “are never disciplined” and therefore “got away with things”. This point will be referred to again later in par. 5.5.1.

### **5.3.2 Psychological well-being**

Psychological well-being as it relates to educator security in school, was an important element of the study. During this section of the interview, the following two sections of the Bill of Rights were read to the participants:

- Section 12(2), “Everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity” ;
- Section 24(a) “Everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”.

Participants were asked to explain in their own words what they understood these rights to mean for educators and whether they felt their right to well-being at school was protected. Their responses to what these rights might mean in the context of education were diverse. Some of these responses included:

- The school should create the right circumstances for me to feel psychologically secure.
- The gap between my rights and the rights of learners should disappear.
- I should not be psychologically threatened.
- Government should do more to make the career of educator a respectable one.
- If I say “I can’t anymore”, then I should be able to stay away until I am better.
- My spirit (“sieletoestand” in Afr.) should not be broken
- I should not be suffering mental stress.
- You should be allowed to do your work without being pulled down (“afgetakel” in Afr.).
- You should have “me time”.
- I should not be abused in the classroom.
- Knowing you are doing something that is valued.
- You should not be provoked (“uitgetart” in Afr.) to lose your temper or to be driven over the edge.
- I should not be treated as inferior.

Although the comments were diverse, it was evident to the researcher that most educators understood the concepts of psychological security and of well-being as stated in the Bill of Rights in the context of educators at school and saw them as rights which needed to be protected.

A large majority observed that their well-being was not protected in the school environment. Most cited as reasons the lack of discipline and of a structure to discipline learners, and work overload. A small minority thought their well-being was protected or saw it as a grey area which was too ill-defined to comment on.

A theme that again occurred during this part of the interview, was the protection of children under the law versus the view that educators were completely unprotected. The role that parents play in reinforcing this attitude, was also mentioned by several participants.

Participants were not only read relevant sections from the Bill of Rights, but also informed that the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 makes provisions

for the health and safety of persons at work, but not specifically for psychological security. They were asked whether they believed that this was something which needed protection under this act. A large majority of 26 out of the 35 participants thought it should be included, 6 were uncertain and 3 thought not. It was interesting to note that the three who were not in favour of changing the act, as well as four of the six who were uncertain, scored low on the TTCT®. This could possibly be explained by the literature which cites creative thinkers as being more comfortable with change and more flexible. Low creative thinkers would in other words be more comfortable with the status quo. A further explanation for this phenomenon was revealed as the analysis of the data progressed and the extent to which participants experience stress symptoms, was analysed. This will be discussed in more detail in par. 5.4.

Some of the responses to the question regarding the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993, emphasised the opinion that the aspect of psychological security is probably more important in education than in some other occupations. Several participants spoke about the fact that educators cannot do their job of educating others if they are not psychologically strong and protected. Also that “if your mind is not right, you cannot be productive” and “we are not one-dimensional”. There were a few voices that agreed that psychological security should form part of this act, but felt the structure and monitoring of such an act should be effective so as to protect against abuse of such a right.

To summarise, it appeared as if educators were largely in favour of legislation that could protect their psychological security at school. Most did not know of the rights which exist to protect them, and felt these were certainly not visible against the rights afforded learners. Most felt that at present their rights were not protected at school and blamed the lack of discipline, the lack of measures to discipline learners resulting from the over-emphasis on learner rights, the administrative duties and work overload as worst offenders when it came to psychological insecurity. Most of the educators had no knowledge of their rights and were of the opinion that, as a few responded, “it sounded nice on paper”, but that it was certainly not applied in their workplace. Some thought the government was remiss in its duty of establishing

education as a respectable profession and that it did not realise that educators were not doing well (“dit gaan nie goed met onderwysers nie” in Afr.).

An important element of this study was to determine how educators are coping with the insecurities in their work environment. In the following section, the analysis of the data in order to find answers to this question will be discussed.

#### **5.4 COPING WITH INSECURITY**

The second problem statement of this study was, “To what extent do educators experience and cope with psychological insecurity in their work environment?”. According to the literature as examined in chapter 2, educators, like many other professions, are experiencing psychological and physical stress symptoms in their work environment. During the interviews, the stress suffered by the participants was investigated.

The participants were presented with a list of 10 commonly experienced stress symptoms as cited in the literature. They were asked to select those that they were experiencing at present. The following is a table of their responses (the number of participants per school appears in brackets).

Table 5.6 Stress symptoms selected by participants

Symptoms	School 1 (10)	School 2 (6)	School 3 (9)	School 4 (10)	TOTAL (35)
Irritability	8	4	6	6	24
Mood swings	4	2	3	1	10
Anxiety	4	2	1	4	11
Depression	4	2	2	2	10
Lack of self-worth	9	2	2	2	15
Constant exhaustion/ fatigue	7	4	8	5	24
Increased headaches/ migraines	3	5	3	3	14
Ulcers/ stomach ailments	1	2	2	2	7
Colds, flu, allergies more regularly	4	3	3	3	13
General neck, back discomfort	5	3	7	4	19
	49	29	37	32	147

From this table it is clear that the three most commonly experienced stress symptoms are irritability, constant exhaustion or fatigue and neck and back discomfort. Constant exhaustion was the symptom most consistently selected in all four the participating schools. Participants from all four schools selected a significant number of stress symptoms that they experienced regularly.

Participants in **school 1**, a school in a higher socio-economic area, appeared to do worse regarding stress symptoms, which was not a surprising outcome. During the interviews most were very outspoken, mostly about lack of discipline, but also about other factors which caused them stress. Several related a story of a colleague who left because of stress, was replaced by another educator who lasted two days and left as well. Several had experienced verbal and some physical abuse at the hands of learners. One young educator remarked that at the age of 24 he has now been put on heart medication permanently, mostly due to stress. Another participant told of a friend, also an educator, who had had a stroke at 38 years. Although this school is in a higher socio-economic area, participants said the culture of the school had changed dramatically over the last few years. One educator, who had been there for 15 years, explained that although the staff was white, the learners were currently

90% non-white. A few remarked on the fact that the cultural differences caused many of the problems.

The fact that educators in **school 2**, a primary school in a lower socio-economic area, also fared worse than the other two schools, was at first a surprising outcome. While the participants from the other schools were very verbal about mostly discipline which caused severe insecurities in their work environment, these educators found discipline generally good and therefore appeared happier in the school environment. This could be because of the principal's strict stance towards discipline, as mentioned by most educators, and the fact that it is a primary school. Unlike the other participating schools, they did not cite discipline as a main cause of stress, but rather workload. As the interviews progressed, it became more and more obvious that the excessive workload, the demands from the Education Department, the high standard set by the principal and the needy learners because of the low socio-economic situation, were all taking their toll.

It was revealed during the interviews, that educators at school 1 generally suffer more stress than those of the other schools, mainly because of a greater problem with indiscipline. This issue will be further expounded on in par. 5.5.1.

Because the number of symptoms selected by participants varied significantly, it seemed relevant to investigate possible reasons for these variations. The researcher analysed the number of stress symptoms per participant and compared this result to their score on the TTCT® in order to establish whether a link existed between creative ability and the experience of stress symptoms amongst educators. The following is a table of this data (the number of participants in each category appears in brackets).

Table 5.7 Number of stress symptoms compared to scores on TTCT®

No. of stress symptoms	Score on TTCT®		
	High (15)	Average (5)	Low (15)
8-10	6	1	0
5-7	10	4	2
0-2	2	0	10

Summarising these results, it seems apparent that educators that scored high on the TTCT® are generally experiencing more stress symptoms than those in the average group and significantly more than those in the low creative category. Initially this seemed a surprising result, as creative thinkers, according to the literature, are more flexible, comfortable with change and have an openness to new experiences. These claims, when tested against the responses of high creative thinkers amongst the participants, were found to be true in most cases. More than 90% of the high creative thinkers indicated that they had no or little problem with change. Several claimed to enjoy change or that it would be illogical not to expect constant change. They generally appeared to have a positive attitude towards dealing with problems in the school environment and more enthusiastic to find solutions to current problems which were discussed during the interviews (also see par. 5.6). It was also obvious during the interviews, that high creative thinkers typically used more positive language and blamed others less frequently for problems at school. For these high creative thinkers the fact that they experience high levels of stress symptoms did not seem to block their willingness to find ways of dealing with problems in their workplace. This was an important observation, which indicated that high creative thinkers might be affected by their current work environment, but were not paralysed by the circumstances, and were willing to find solutions.

Other qualities of creative thinkers, as cited in the literature, seem to point to the reasons for them suffering more stress symptoms in the school environment. These are qualities like originality, independence, risk taking and being less conventional. The main causes of stress for educators in their workplace were cited as being indiscipline of learners and workload, which will be discussed more fully in par. 5.5. Most educators felt that they spend more time on administrative tasks than on teaching and that many of these tasks were nonsensical. For creative thinkers, these “uncreative”, repetitive and conventional tasks would have a far more negative impact than for less creative thinkers. The fact that most of their energy in class is furthermore spent on maintaining discipline, instead of getting on with sharing ideas and applying original ideas, could be a serious cause of stress for creative educators. One high creative educator in one of the schools with serious discipline problems said that she sometimes pretended to teach amongst the chaos, just to make herself

feel better. Another high creative thinker told about her sense of disappointment because “learners have no sense of wonder”. Another commented that when she tried to be different to make work more interesting for learners, they could not handle it and took advantage of the more relaxed atmosphere that she created. Another spoke in similar fashion and said anything new or different was an invitation for learners to completely misbehave (“uitrafel” in Afr.). One high creative thinker said her style in class had been described as more “hospitable”, but most classes just could not handle this. She commented that she found teaching boring, because of this. Another said she just could not be very strict and believed in “give and take” in her classroom.

Another possible explanation for high creative thinkers suffering more stress symptoms in the school environment may have to do with an environment that stifles this very skill. According to the literature, creativity cannot thrive in an environment *where people are not allowed to take initiatives and be independent and where new ideas are not supported and encouraged*. As mentioned in par. 3.3.3, in a study by Amabile (1988), it was suggested that creativity might be impeded by aspects such as undue time pressure, over-supervision and restricted choices in terms of approach or working materials. The lack of support from the department, parents and ill-disciplined learners, as mentioned frequently, coupled with time pressures and a curriculum that affords little choice, could culminate in high creative thinkers suffering more stress symptoms than those who do not experience the stifling of such an intrinsic characteristic.

As mentioned earlier, an interesting result was that low creative thinkers indicated far fewer stress symptoms. A few possible reasons were mentioned in the previous paragraphs, for instance being more conventional, or more comfortable with repetitive tasks and instructions. Also worth mentioning, though, are a few aspects that were unique to the responses of low creative thinkers. They were the only group which included responses that laid the blame for indiscipline on other educators. Not only did some maintain that indiscipline was of the educator’s “own making”, but some also blamed bad behaviour in their classes on the fact that “they come to you like that from other educators’ classes”. It is therefore possible that an attitude of blamelessness or shifting the blame, could partly explain the lower stress levels

experienced. This correlates with Scott (1995:67) who cites various researchers, such as Pierson, who found that creative people “tend to take responsibility for their own actions rather than point to outside causes or influences”. Amongst this group, unlike the higher creative thinkers, a strong attitude of control was also evident. When discussing indiscipline, several spoke of having to stay in control, one described himself as “a Hitler”, another stated “I am terrible about discipline”, “I am very strict” (“kwaai” in Afr.) and “children judge you (“som jou op” in Afr.) and you have to show them who is in charge”. This more authoritative, conventional, traditional and inflexible attitude in the classroom may have the desired effect as far as discipline is concerned and these educators may therefore be able to “get on with the job” more easily than their more creative colleagues. This may result in fewer stress symptoms. Another finding that could be revealing in this regard was that the participants who admitted to taking medication for stress, were all from the low and average creative group. This could point towards a significant reason for some lower creative thinkers in this study experiencing fewer stress symptoms.

It was very clear to the researcher that generally educators are experiencing very high levels of psychological insecurity in their schools. Some of the remarks by educators that are worth citing include:

- “It is chaos at present”
- “It is so tough”
- “On Mondays already I have a lump in my stomach”
- “The doctor warned me to find another job”
- “We will wake up one day and there will be no teachers”
- “I am waiting for the last straw”
- “We are the bottom of the food chain”
- “Educators are not doing well”.

An important aspect of this study was to determine the main causes of psychological insecurities for educators, which will be investigated in the following paragraphs.

## 5.5 THE CAUSES OF PSYCHOLOGICAL INSECURITY

The third research question was, “What are the main factors causing psychological insecurity in the workplace for educators?”. The participants were questioned on most of the main factors which cause insecurity in the workplace as cited in the literature.

Initially, participants were asked to discuss the main cause of stress and insecurity for educators in **their school**. Of the 35 participants (some mentioned more than one aspect), 24 cited indiscipline as the main stressor, 10 cited the amount of administration because of the new curriculum and the changing directives from the Education Department, 6 cited the over-crowded classrooms and 4 the workload. Because their discussions during the interviews revealed that the amount of administration and the workload were in fact the same issue, viz. workload, these two issues can be grouped together. Although the attitude of parents was discussed by several participants during the interviews, only 1 cited this as the main stressor at their school and 2 maintained that cultural differences caused most stress for educators. Table 5.8 below shows a summary of these responses.

Table 5.8 The main causes of psychological insecurity and stress for educators

<b>Main causes of stress</b>	<b>No. of participants</b>
1. indiscipline	24
2. workload	14
3. over-crowded classrooms	6
4. cultural differences	2
5. parents	1

Later in the interview, participants were asked to cite, in their opinion, the biggest cause of stress for educators **country-wide**. Of the 35 participants, 16 cited indiscipline, 15 cited workload, 2 cited changes (although, judging by their discussions around this issue, it was the workload associated with these changes that seemed to be the main issue), 1 cited parents and 1 violence as the main stressors for educators country-wide. Participants therefore seemed to observe little

difference between the causes of stress in their own school and in schools country-wide.

Other issues which may cause insecurity and stress for educators that were dealt with in the interviews, were change, violence and bullying. Participants were given the opportunity to add any other causes of stress in their school that might not have been discussed in the interview. Subsequently they were presented with a list of other possible causes of stress in their school. Those that applied were ticked off and discussed. The responses of educators regarding all these different factors will be discussed and analysed in the following paragraphs.

### **5.5.1 Discipline**

As mentioned above, indiscipline of learners was seen by most educators as the main cause of stress and insecurity in their workplace. Only the educators from the primary school which took part in this study, did not see discipline as a major problem in their school.

In this school, **school 2** (see par. 5.4, table 5.1), the role of the principal in combating bad behaviour was praised by all the educators. A few participants did admit that some learners still misbehaved (“ruk hand-uit” in Afr.) in class, that some are more verbal (“uitgesproke” in Afr.) than in the past, that older children can take advantage and that discipline can still improve. In contrast to the other participating schools, though, the problem of discipline seemed to be minor here. It was apparent that two of the reasons for this were the role of the principal and the fact that it was a primary school. The researcher found that the role of the principal was most definitely the decisive factor. One of the educators, who had taught at another primary school before, mentioned that learner behaviour was shocking at her previous school (also a primary school) and that she found the discipline excellent at her present school. It was also clear from the interviews, that the disciplined behaviour of learners was despite the fact that it was located in a lower socio-economic area. Several of the educators mentioned the poverty of the learners, the drug problem in the community, the serious problems some experienced at home and that they often had to supply food or clothes to learners. The opinions regarding discipline in the other participating schools, were distinctly different from this school.

The researcher found the situation regarding discipline worst for educators in **school 1** (see par. 5.4, table 5.1), a high school in a higher socio-economic area. Their verbal responses underscored their high levels of stress as illustrated in table 5.1, par. 5.4. Some of these responses are listed below.

- “They (learners) are needy, looking for attention, they are cocky and have a lack of self-control”
- “Children just don’t care”
- “You can take only so much, then you lose heart”
- “I find it exhausting”
- “The biggest frustration is that they (learners) don’t take responsibility”
- “They are not used to rules. It is so stressful, I feel powerless”
- “It is tough”
- “These kids have bad manners”
- “Teachers aren’t respected”
- “Our hands are tied”
- “Some days I just pretend to teach for my own conscience”

One remark by a participant was particularly noteworthy, *viz.*, that they had to contend with constant shouting in class and being ignored by learners, which he experienced as “abuse in the classroom”.

The over-emphasis of the rights of learners was mentioned by several educators in this school as a major part of the problem. The participants felt strongly about their inability to punish learners and felt their hands were tied in this respect. Another cause of indiscipline which was mentioned in this school, although not in the other schools, was the racial composition. In this school, although the educators are all white, 90% of the learners are coloured and 5% are black. This disparity was mentioned directly or referred to more subtly by a number of the participants and seemed to be an underlying cause of the indiscipline. Responses in this regard included, “brown kids are more spontaneous”, “these kids are not motivated to excel academically”, “they are not used to rules”, “there is a lot of violence at home” and “our staff is too white”.

A participant said he was at wits end because of the “bold-faced lying” by learners who thought it a game to try and get away with everything. One educator related the fact that although the school is situated in “an attractive, leafy middle-class suburb”, most of the learners come from lower socio-economic areas. She felt this was a contributing factor to their negative and rebellious attitude towards educators. A few others referred to the cultural differences that caused many of the problems. One incident that was related to demonstrate this point was about a learner caught smoking on the school grounds. He did not think he should be punished as he smokes with his father in the car on the way to school.

Many of the comments by educators from this school were marked by despair. A few lamented about the fact that teachers are leaving the profession in droves. One related the fact that at a top school that normally received at least 60 applications each year, only 2 were received.

As noted in par. 5.4, some participants blamed others for the bad discipline in their classes. In this school only low creative thinkers blamed other educators for their discipline problems. This distancing the self from a negative situation, may be one reason for low creative thinkers experiencing less stress symptoms in the school environment.

In **school 3** (see par. 5.4, table 5.1), a high school in a lower socio-economic area, discipline was also seen as a major problem, but did not elicit the same level of negative responses as in school 1. The reference to the rights of learners was again a recurring one in this school. The role of parents in exacerbating the situation was mentioned several times. Some mentioned the lack of respect and that the lack of discipline started in the home. The fact that this school is situated in a lower socio-economic area, may be one reason why dysfunctional family structures, lower moral values and ineffective parental control were main issues mentioned.

Several participants in this school mentioned the large numbers in each class, mostly over forty learners, as a major contributing factor to indiscipline. Some of the responses by these educators were, “they are constantly back-chatting”, “boys are a problem for female teachers”, “there is a lack of respect”, “there is no discipline at

home”, “female teachers have been in tears” and “they should be taught the principle of rights vs. responsibility”.

In **school 4**, a high school in a higher socio-economic area, participants saw indiscipline as a major problem in their school. Most participants referred to the over-emphasis of the rights of children and many to the role of parents in making matters worse. They felt their hands were tied and, as one commented, whatever they did to discipline learners, they were always wrong. One commented that educators were constantly playing “catch up” because of what was neglected at home. According to some, parents were constantly “making excuses for their children”. Because of this, one commented, they were “vulnerable” when learners made accusations against them.

In this school in particular many educators, mostly those who scored low and average on the TTCT®, blamed other educators for discipline problems in classrooms. One of those laying blame was a high scorer on the creativity test, though, which supported an attitude that the researcher observed in this school. There appeared to be two distinct camps: older male educators and younger, mostly female, educators. The older group blamed the young educators for discipline problems in the school, and said that it was “of their own making”, that it made it more difficult for other educators and that learners are good at “summing up” those who lack the ability to control and that control had to do with your “personality”. One young female participant had been off work because of a breakdown, an incident which was remarked on by the “older camp” with a distinct lack of empathy. This educator informed the researcher that she was leaving the profession at the end of the year and would never return because of the discipline problem and workload. Some in the younger group spoke openly about, while others only hinted at, the fact that some of the senior staff members were not throwing in their full weight, which meant that the younger staff members were over-worked. These references to workload will be discussed further in par. 5.5.2.

### **5.5.2 Work overload and different roles**

In addition to indiscipline, work overload was the topic most enthusiastically discussed by participants. Although indiscipline was voted the most stressful aspect

of the school environment by the participants, the researcher came under the impression that the issue of overwork, the numerous roles educators had to fulfil and the pressure put on them by the Department, was the main cause of frustration, resentment, even anger, amongst many of the participants.

All the participants in **school 1**, bar one, thought they had far too much work and too many roles to fulfil. The participant who indicated that the workload was “not really too bad”, is a male in his late forties who had been working in the private sector until a year ago when he joined the teaching profession. He tested low on the creativity test, was not very responsive, used what the researcher observed as “safe” responses, like “it’s part of the package”, “you do what you get paid for” and saw “cultural differences” as the only cause of problems at school. These responses and a wary body language appeared to the researcher to be those of somebody who did not “want to rock the boat” as far as his job was concerned.

The other participants of this school were not so reticent on this issue. They all thought they are overloaded with roles to fulfil. Some of these roles mentioned by educators were that of parent, psychologist, policeman, doctor, entertainer (“kids are bored”), nurse and social worker. Some of the responses regarding too many roles, included “top management is not involved enough”, “at times it affects you” (“vat aan jou” in Afr.), “kids are needy”, “I have been phoned in the middle of the night when a child ran off”, “it is a drain”, “it is a frightening feeling” and “if I collapse from a heart problem and total nervous breakdown, nobody will take any notice”. Most remarked that they had no personal time and that even weekends were filled with school work.

The different roles expected from them came under fire, as well as the amount of work created by demands from the Department. One participant called it “gobbledygook” and many referred to the copious amounts of paperwork with frustration. One participant called for the re-institution of the much needed sabbaticals for educators in order to recharge. Another educator at this school commented that he had 67 lessons in 10 days, had to work 15 hours after hours, had a family that needed his attention and that he slept at the most 5 hours a night. One felt he was on “a treadmill and starting from zero every day”. As far as workload was

concerned, some participants felt that the work was not evenly spread amongst educators and that some “got away with doing the minimum”.

In **school 2**, the primary school, numerous duties and workload were the topics raised most as causes of stress and insecurity. All felt that they had too many roles, which was exacerbated by the fact that many of the learners were poor and often needed food, clothes and special care because of circumstances at home. Apart from all the duties in the classroom, they sometimes had to sort problems out at homes of learners and were involved in sports training and numerous events. Their main grievance was the Department’s unnecessary administrative expectations. Many complained about the fact that teaching took a backseat to paperwork, that they had to attend many meetings where issues were rehashed and that assistance from the Department was minimal. They spoke at length about instructions, sets of rules and information shared at workshops that changed constantly. One participant also pointed out that when you handed in a “nice book” on any task, you were considered a good teacher, instead of being judged by what you delivered in the classroom.

In **school 3**, the high school in a lower socio-economic area, the topic of overwork was again a major discussion point. Apart from the different roles they had to fulfil, some educators mentioned long hours, parents not doing everything they could to lighten the load of educators and the lack of new appointees which meant some educators had to teach subjects they had not taught for years. Two of the older male participants had a different view regarding workload. One remarked that you should not be in education if “you can’t take the punch” and that “teachers should not think they are the only people working hard”. The other participant’s response was that you could choose your extra-mural activities, for instance, and that he only chose what he felt he was “competent” doing. The researcher again observed what became even more obvious in school 4, viz., that the older male educators think the younger staff members cannot cope with their responsibilities, while the younger staff members feel senior members are not expected, or willing, to do as much.

This underlying dissatisfaction between the “two camps” became far more apparent in **school 4**, the high school in a higher socio-economic area. It was hinted at by

some younger participants that “the senior people get away with doing less”. One wondered what hold some of these educators had over others.

Most participants in this school, though, felt that educators had too many roles and duties to perform. Some remarks from these participants included “I am cut in 10 pieces”, “it is very stressful at times”, “teaching should not take over our whole life”, “the same people do everything”, “a lot of the work is nonsensical”, “we will burn ourselves out”, “it is not a walk in the park” and “things are impossible – its stressful”. One female educator spoke at length about how stressful it was for her as a woman to continually drive alone at night to attend numerous functions and meetings. Another senior female educator said that when she was a junior teacher, she was never at home and had to put her foot down about the duties that piled up. She remarked that young educators were bullied into doing more and more. One young educator informed the researcher that she was told by her doctor to leave the profession for health reasons. She commented that there was an attitude at school that you had to be present even if you were dying. Many referred to the nonsensical paperwork and the red tape which eventually contributed very little to the education of the child. One of the males remarked that if he did not go to the gymnasium at night to unwind, he “would be dead by now”. Language teachers felt they had most to do (a sentiment that was repeated in other schools) and that their whole lives were “swallowed up by schoolwork”. One mother with young children remarked that because you always felt as if you had “to perform”, you worked harder and harder, neglecting your own children and your marriage.

Although indiscipline and workload were by far the most serious causes of stress and insecurity for participating educators, the discussions around certain other factors were significant. These will be addressed in the following paragraphs.

### **5.5.3 Over-crowded classrooms**

Over-crowded classrooms as a cause of stress were not specifically included in the interview schedule. When asked what caused most stress in their schools, only one participant mentioned only over-crowded classrooms, while 5 of the participants mentioned this issue as part of a list of several issues they felt were problematic in their school. Interesting to note, is that 5 of the 6 participants that selected this issue

as important, were educators at the two schools in the lower socio-economic areas. The absence of school governing body appointed educators in some schools, may also contribute to this particular cause of insecurity. Although a few of the participants in the four participating schools made passing mention of this problem, it did not surface as one of the major causes of psychological insecurity. This problem was mainly linked to its negative impact on the problem of indiscipline.

#### **5.5.4 Cultural differences**

Cultural differences, which received 2 votes as major stressor at school, was only mentioned in school 1, where the ratio of learners of colour and white educators was mentioned by a few as a serious problem. As mentioned in par. 5.5.1, 95% of the learners are of colour while 100 % of the educators are white. Once again, cultural differences were mentioned as a major cause of stress, only as they related to indiscipline in school.

#### **5.5.5 Parents**

Only one participant saw the behaviour of parents as the major cause of psychological insecurity for educators. Although this issue received fewer votes than over-crowded classrooms and cultural differences, it was discussed at length and by far more participants than the previous two issues. Many of the participants in all four schools mentioned parents as the cause of many problems with indiscipline. They felt the disrespect of learners towards educators was the result of similar disrespect by parents. The emphasis on the rights of children made matters worse in this regard. Many felt children were not taught responsibility, with parents going as far as taking the blame for transgressions or work not done.

Taking into consideration the responses of participants during the interviews on the last issues, viz. over-crowded classroom, cultural differences and parents, it became clear to the researcher that these issues were mainly seen as major causes of stress by participants to the extent that they relate to indiscipline as the cause of stress and psychological insecurity.

### 5.5.6 Change

As cited in par. 2.3.2.5, the literature indicated that change and reform in education in South Africa has had a serious impact on the well-being of educators. Numerous studies were cited to illustrate this point. For instance, Marais (as cited by Olivier & Venter, 2003:186) found the new education approach of OBE, coping with current political change and new governing bodies for schools as some of the factors causing stress amongst educators. Montgomery, Mostert and Jackson (2005:266) alluded to political and social changes, affirmative action, democracy, diversity, retrenchment and redeployment of educators, the transition from nineteen departments of education to one national and nine provincial departments of education and the change from monocultural to multicultural schools, as main stressors for educators.

Because of these and other studies in this regard, and because of the literature on creativity which posits that creative individuals tend to cope better with change, this issue was pertinently dealt with during the interviews. Participants were asked whether they had experienced much change in education and in their school over the last few years, what these changes were and how they personally experience the changes.

It was soon apparent to the researcher that most of the changes as cited in the literature and mentioned previously in this chapter, were not at present of great concern to educators participating in this study. It was clear, though, that most participants equated change with the ever changing departmental instructions, the curriculum, portfolio requirements, points system and the paperwork these create. Of the 35 participants, 12 experience the changes as bad, 11 as “not too bad” or “sometimes” and 12 responded that they handled them well.

During the data analysis phase, educators’ responses were compared to their scores on the TTCT®. These results were noteworthy in several ways. Of the 15 participants who obtained a high score, 10 responded that they did not mind change. Some of their remarks were:

- “I have no problem with it”
- “change is good – it brings renewal”
- “I like it (=change)”
- “I am comfortable with change”
- “I manage change very well”
- “I don’t really mind”
- “Change is something that happens. I don’t fight it. I rather use my energy for something else”
- “I expect that things will not stay the same”
- “I let Department nonsense roll off my back – I want my learners to be winners”

Of the high creative thinkers 4 thought it “was not too bad” or that they “sometimes” experienced it negatively. Their reasons for this were very similar and all referred to the copious amounts of administrative work these changes entailed. Only 1 high creative thinker responded that changes were very difficult to cope with, and also mentioned the copious changes initiated by the Department. This educator was from school 2, the primary school, where work overload was mentioned by all the participants and where it was apparent that the principal set high standards for his staff. These results support the claims in the literature that high creative thinkers tend to manage change well. Administrative duties which are repetitive, detailed and structured would be the tasks found most challenging to high creative thinkers who usually prefer a challenge and flexibility.

This finding was further strengthened when analysing the responses of the low and average creative groups. Of the low creative thinkers, 9 out of the 15 remarked that they struggled with change. Some of their responses included:

- “I find it irritating”
- “It is chaos and it is driving the young ones away”
- “It is crazy, crazy!”

- “I am struggling with the curriculum”
- “Yes, I have a problem. It is always ‘new’ things, with just new names”
- “At ground phase it is the same over and over”
- “Change is stressful because it always makes me feel inadequate”
- “Nothing is thought through”
- “The Department is always coming up with new ideas”

Four participants in the low creative group thought change was sometimes bad and only 2 remarked that they did not mind change. These two participants were both older male educators. One of them was the participant described in par. 5.5.2 who seemed to the researcher to weigh his responses and was careful not to “rock the boat” as far as his job was concerned. The other participant remarked that after all these years he “just had to get used to it”. The results of the low creative thinkers form a noticeable mirror image of the high creative thinkers. Of the 5 average creative educators, 3 thought changes were sometimes not too bad and 2 experienced change very negatively.

In order to gain an holistic insight into these results, they are summarised in table 5.9 below.

Table 5.9 How change affects educators

<b>TTCT® score</b>	<b>Do not mind</b>	<b>Mind sometimes</b>	<b>Mind greatly</b>
1. High	10	4	1
2. Average		3	2
2. Low	2	4	9

These results indicate that high creative thinkers cope well with change and even enjoy it, and that the deduction made in par. 5.4 that the insecurity and stress of high creative educators are probably caused by administrative tasks, the emphasis on discipline and lack of flexibility, is probably correct. What is also significant about the above results is that although the high creative group suffer high levels of stress, this does not seem to deter them from embracing change and finding solutions in the workplace.

### 5.5.7 Violence

Participants were asked whether they had ever experienced violence in their schools, what effect it had (or would have had if it happened) and whether they had any ideas on how violence in schools should be addressed. The culture of violence that is evident in many schools in South Africa at present, was also experienced at most of the participating schools at some level or another.

**School 1**, a school in a higher socio-economic area, where educators experienced the most stress (see par. 5.4, table 5.1), also communicated the most examples of violent behaviour by learners. According to participants, most violence occurred on the grounds, where fighting, sometimes with weapons like knives and scissors, is a regular occurrence. One learner had to be taken to hospital with a scissors wound in the neck. There are known incidents of drug dealing and abuse, but the law, according to participants, seems to be of no use. Some of the participants were more knowledgeable about these incidents, while others maintained they had heard about some such incidents. These playground fights, according to a few participants, often included girls, which caused great excitement amongst the spectators. As referred to in par. 2.3.2.1, this tendency for girls to become embroiled in physical attacks on the playground, seems to be gaining momentum.

Violence is not limited to the grounds, though, and was also experienced by some educators in the classroom. Some had been verbally abused, threatened, shouted at, a pen knocked out of an educator's hand and one educator (not one of the participants) had been hit by a learner. This incident was related at length by one of the participants. She explained that her colleague had laid a charge, which was subsequently rejected, because she had grabbed the jacket of the learner in question to restrain him. As this was seen as "making the first contact", she had lost the case. Another educator remarked that he often feels like hitting learners in class when they misbehave and act in a threatening way. One educator had been told to "shut up" and at another time been called an idiot. She had laid a formal complaint, but absolutely nothing had come of it. In this context, the rights of learners were again referred to. Some participants said they felt absolutely helpless as the perpetrator of violent behaviour sat in your class, and you could not do a thing about it.

Although **school 2** is situated in a low socio-economic area, no incidents of violence had been experienced by educators here. This could be partially because it is a primary school and partially due to the strict discipline, as mentioned in par. 5.5.1. The main concern of educators in this school was the violence and gang activity in the surrounding area of the school. Because the school has insufficient security, gang members often run across the grounds to escape from one another and guns have been fired in the vicinity and on the grounds. When gang violence erupts in the area parents often collect their children from school, which the educators understand but experience as disruptive. Although participants reported no incidents of violence by learners, some did report that because many came from broken homes, they were aggressive, got into fights on the playgrounds now and then and swore at each other.

Participants in **school 3**, the high school in a lower socio-economic area, reported few incidents of violence. Some knew of a few playground fights, sometimes between girls, but did not mention any weapons being used. Two of the educators indicated that they felt they had to be on their guard as learners were generally more aggressive, while one blamed over-crowded classrooms for the frustration of learners and their resulting aggressive behaviour. One educator admitted to feeling insecure leaving classes on their own, which is something that she had never experienced a few years ago.

Apart from playground fights, participants from **school 4**, the high school in a higher socio-economic area, had not experienced any forms of violence by learners. One did report, however, that she was sworn at once by a learner and that this incident stayed with her for weeks. Most participants described learners fighting, pushing each other, bullying each other, swearing and hitting, but none reported violence by learners against their person. One of the participants was of the opinion that they probably did not know about everything that was going on.

In school 1 aggressive and threatening behaviour formed part and parcel of educators' experience of indiscipline and their inability to teach effectively, but educators in the other three schools did not seem to experience violence as a great cause of psychological insecurity at school.

As was mentioned earlier in this paragraph, participants were also asked whether they had any ideas on how violence in schools should be addressed. Although most of them did not experience violence at their own school, all participating educators were well aware of the seriousness of this problem in many other schools in South Africa. Fifteen participants suggested practical ideas. These included better processes to follow, the roles of the principal, a top authority, even the police to be spelt out in this regard, more supervision on the playgrounds, corporal punishment to be brought back and better security. Another five ideas suggested targeted the parents and community which educators thought should become part of the solution. Thirteen of the educators suggested ideas that could be judged as more out of the ordinary, like workshops, motivational speakers, anger and stress management training, therapy, counselling, searching for the root of the problem and working on the attitudes, values and self-esteem of learners. Of note is that 10 of the 13 more unusual ideas were suggested by high creative participants. Two educators felt it was too large a problem for them to comment on.

### **5.5.8 Bullying**

Participants were informed during the interview that 78% of South Africans had experienced bullying at work. They were presented with a list of the behaviours which, according to the literature, constitute bullying. They were then asked to tick off those bullying behaviours that they, or a colleague, had experienced at the hands of a principal, colleague or parent. The list contained the following descriptions:

- Belittling of your opinions
- Constant criticism
- Intrusive monitoring (always checking up on you)
- Inappropriate comments
- Never given any say in how to do your job

The results of the four participating schools are summarised in table 5.10 below.

Table 5.10 Bullying as experienced by educators

Type of bullying	School 1	School 2	School 3	School 4
Belittling of your opinions	5	2	6	7
Constant criticism	6	1	4	3
Intrusive monitoring	2	1	0	0
Inappropriate comments	5	1	6	7
Never given any say in how to do your job	1	0	2	2

Although a few participants indicated that they had been bullied at previous schools by a principal, none of the participants of this study blamed their current principals for bullying behaviour experienced by them. Most educators blamed parents and colleagues (especially senior staff “who get away with things”) for belittling of opinions and inappropriate comments. Parents were mostly blamed for constant criticism and intrusive monitoring, which some found unsettling. It appeared from the results and comments made during interviews, that bullying as a cause of psychological insecurity was not a serious one for participants of this study.

### 5.5.9 Other causes of stress and psychological insecurity

Participants were reminded of the issues which might cause psychological insecurity in the school as workplace which had already been discussed. They were then encouraged to comment on anything else they had experienced which caused them stress in their work environment. Some participants did emphasise issues that had already been discussed, for instance workload, unnecessary administrative tasks, too many duties to fulfil, too many functions at school, the indiscipline of learners and a lack of resources in some subjects.

Others did mention new and to them frustrating issues like the lack of foundation and structure in the education system, not enough staff to share the workload, working with a colleague that did not pull his weight, lack of responsibility amongst learners, too many educators away at one time, bureaucracy, the patriarchal system, no religious instruction for learners at home, salary and not being able to voice an opinion or differ from others.

Participants were subsequently presented with a list of other possible causes of insecurity in the workplace to study and tick off those which applied in their school. The list consisted of the following issues

- Strained relationships
- Lack of communication
- The state of the school buildings
- A lack of supervision or guidelines
- A lack of resources

Most of these issues did not appear to be great causes of stress and insecurity in the participating schools. Some of the results were significant, though. Below in table 5.11 is a summary of the participants' responses.

Table 5.11 Other causes of stress in the workplace for educators

<b>Causes of stress</b>	<b>School 1</b>	<b>School 2</b>	<b>School 3</b>	<b>School 4</b>
Strained relationships	5	2	4	7
Lack of communication	8	2	6	3
The state of the school buildings	3	2	3	2
A lack of supervision or guidelines	4	0	5	3
A lack of resources	1	6	6	0

When studying the results, it is not surprising that a lack of resources is a cause of stress in schools 2 and 3, the schools in the lower socio-economic areas. The fact that strained relationships scored relatively high in school 4, was also to be expected, when seen against the background of references made by several participants of the two camps which exist here, viz., the more senior mostly male educators and the young, mostly female educators referred to in par. 5.5.1. The only other issue which received a substantial number of votes was lack of communication in school 1 and 3. It appeared that the problem with communication was partly due to the Department which left educators in the dark or confused them about certain changes, and partly to inefficient communication within the school system.

### 5.5.10 Summary of the coping abilities of educators

In par. 5.4 the coping abilities of the participating educators were analysed and in par. 5.5 the causes of psychological insecurity investigated. Table 5.12 integrates these findings by showing the different comments made by participants and is an effort to illuminate any differences between the high, average and low creative groups.

Indiscipline of learners and work overload were the greatest causes of stress for participating educators and were chosen by far more of the participants than any of the other causes (see table 5.3). As explained in par. 5.5.6, it became clear that although change was not selected as a major cause of insecurity, most equated change with the ever changing departmental instructions, the curriculum, portfolio requirements, points system and the paperwork these created. Change and workload, which was a major cause of stress, were in effect seen as the same problem by most participants. Therefore, these two issues will both be displayed and investigated in the following table. Other causes such as overcrowded classrooms and cultural differences are not displayed because, although voted onto the final list of causes, these elicited responses from only a few of the participants. Violence was also not selected as a major cause of insecurity in the participating schools. Parents were mentioned in regard to indiscipline and will be included in that section.

Table 5.12 includes the comments made by participants on each issue. These comments are analysed in table 5.13.

Table 5.12 How educators cope with the different causes of psychological insecurity - comments

	<b>High creative</b>	<b>Average creative</b>	<b>Low creative</b>
<b>Indiscipline</b>	If classes were smaller, this could be fine; I think this has to do with values; children just have too many rights; I am leaving education, because I wanted to teach and not teach children manners; especially us young teachers – our hands	Should get corporal punishment back; government does not see this as problem; they just don't listen; it is total disrespect; we could become victims; my stress is the waste of time in class; it is mostly because of the rights of children; lack of mechanisms to	It is difficult, children always back-chat; I struggle with discipline; we need smaller classes; parents don't discipline; I don't have a problem; parents used to support us, now not at all; I am very strict (Afr. 'kwaai'); I am a Hitler;

	are tied; it's simply that we do not know our rights; kids have no drive; parents have to take a lot of the blame; the ingratitude bothers me the most; I believe in give and take; they don't have a sense of wonder; they are seeking attention; I sometimes feel despondent; I am more hospitable.	punish; this tires me the most; I often feel vulnerable in class; learners refuse to accept responsibility.	I am terrible about discipline; it was easier in the past; often of your own making – kids sum you up (repeated); I blame the teachers who send learners to you in this state (repeated); I blame the parents; I blame cultural differences; I ignore the disrespectful ones; things have certainly changed.
<b>Work-overload</b>	I can handle it; I become fed-up with the senseless paperwork; the nonsense of the Department does not bother me – I know I can't resist (Afr. 'teëskop'); you have to be able to take the punch; we have to juggle; admin the worst; the admin is a problem – I want to do things well, but can't, because of the Department; we have lots of work; something has to be done, or many are on their way to burn-out; sometimes it seems impossible to handle; Department the worst offender.	Have some courage on Monday, but this quickly fades as the week goes on; I have no personal time; chaos at the moment; a lot of it unnecessary; it is time we did what we are paid for; I feel I am on a treadmill.	I choose less extra-curricular activities; my whole life consists of school; we have to teach other subjects – a disadvantage; I stress; too much admin; more admin than time to teach; it is a lot of red tape; I come from the business world – used to it – it's part of the package; Department drives us crazy.
<b>Change</b>	I don't mind change (repeated); I always make the best of it; the department causes the stress; this is important – we need to implement new ideas; this would be fine – but the department makes changes over and over; a nice book is more important than teaching; I have become used to it; in	I have given up - nothing will stay the same; can be stressful and irritating; some is good; you just don't seem to manage everything.	Yes, I struggle; I can manage if it is clearly defined; changes are not thought through; it's a struggle - there is just no system; syllabus the worst (repeated); it can be stressful; irritating – some OK; it's just crazy; change is stressful because it always makes me feel inadequate.

	my department we initiate change; I like change; I am comfortable with change; change is good – it brings renewal; I don't care about change if it is explained; this would be fine if not for the paperwork; some people make it worse for themselves – sometimes you just have to accept things		
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The following table analyses the coping abilities of educators regarding the different issues. Similarities between the groups included their opinion that parents had to shoulder a lot of the blame for indiscipline and that children had too many rights. They also agreed on the Department being the biggest culprit regarding work overload.

Table 5.13 How educators cope with the different causes of psychological insecurity - analysis

	<b>High creative</b>	<b>Average creative</b>	<b>Low creative</b>
<b>Indiscipline</b>	The younger educators in this group seemed to do worse and seemed disillusioned. An important difference between this group and the others was the sense of disappointment about indiscipline keeping them from teaching. Most seemed to want to find the reason behind it: e.g. seeking attention, lack of drive, values, no sense of wonder, large classes.	This group generally used the most emotional words describing how they experienced indiscipline. They were also the group to mention the lack of structures or corporal punishment as a problem most often.	How they coped with indiscipline, varied in this group. Some admitted they had problems, but most spoke about themselves as being very strict. Only participants from this group described themselves in this way. One marked difference between these and the other participants was the use of the word 'blame'. They were also the only group to blame other educators.
<b>Work-overload</b>	Although most in this group found the amounts of paperwork and admin. stressful, their biggest problem	This group did not seem to handle workload well and was quite verbal about how stressful and irritating	This group tended to cope in various ways, with some finding it not too bad, while others thought it was

	seemed to be the fact that this type of work was keeping them away from real teaching. Some remarked that they could handle it.	it was.	'crazy'.
<b>Change</b>	It was obvious that this group coped best with change. Many remarked that they did not mind, liked it, or even initiated it. The Departmental changes which were linked with copious paperwork, was their biggest complaint. Many spoke of possible ways to solve the problem the Department is causing in this regard.	Some in this group seemed to think change was inevitable, while others found it stressful.	This group generally did not find change easy to cope with. A few specifically mentioned the syllabus as a big problem in this regard.

Although there were not marked differences between the creative groups in some of the areas examined, others were quite explicit. The **high creative group** generally used more positive language and seemed to be looking for reasons and for ways to solve the problems. They coped best with change, but showed most disappointment about learners not interested in learning. They were the only group who mentioned that they tried to be flexible in class. The **low creative group** was most likely to blame others for the problems regarding indiscipline and spoke most about taking firm control of learners. They appeared to cope worst with change. The **average creative group** was very open and verbal about their stress regarding the different issues and mentioned the lack of structure to handle indiscipline most often. Of the three issues analysed above, they appeared to generally handle change the best.

#### 5.5.11 Summary of the causes of psychological insecurity

When analysing the data on the causes of psychological insecurity and stress in the workplace for educators, it is clear that the two main issues are the undisciplined behaviour of learners and work overload. Other issues like over-crowded classrooms and cultural differences that were referred to, were obviously not experienced as separate problems, but as an integral part of the reasons why learners misbehave. The complaints about parents not fulfilling their duty to discipline their children, not

teaching them values or responsibility, even going so far as taking the blame for their children's transgressions, all relate to the main issue of learner indiscipline causing severe psychological insecurity for educators. The problems related to administrative overload and the ever changing curriculum that sparked several heated discussions, were clearly part and parcel of the problem of work overload for educators. This issue also found a voice in the discussions about change as a cause of insecurity. Many associated change with the constantly changing instructions by the Education Department, the new assessment system, the paperwork associated with this and the administrative duties. On the issue of change, the data showed that high creative thinkers cope better with change, that they are more willing to accept that change happens and that they even enjoy change.

The other possible causes of insecurity dealt with were violence and bullying. Neither was experienced as a serious cause of insecurity in the participating schools. With the exception of school 1, where some incidents of violence against educators had occurred, the participating educators had not experienced any serious forms of violence at their schools. They were aware, though, that this was a serious problem for some schools in South Africa. Although participants were given the opportunity to discuss any other cause of stress and were presented with a list of five more possible causes, none achieved the prominence of the two main causes as stipulated by participants, viz. learner indiscipline and workload.

## **5.6 THE CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL**

The fourth problem statement was, "What are the characteristics of an effective creativity development model to enhance workplace psychological security in education?" In chapter 3 it became clear during the literature study that creativity programmes can increase creative behaviour and that such programmes have a positive impact on attitudes, motivation and general health, to mention a few.

Participants were asked three questions concerning a creativity development programme at their school. These questions were:

- Do you have any programmes or interventions which help you to cope with stressful situations at work?
- It is claimed that creativity programmes teach problem solving skills, a more positive attitude and how to be more open-minded regarding change. Do you think such programmes can make a difference in your school?
- What would you like to see as part of such a creativity training programme?

In response to the first question, it was clear that none of the participating schools had any such programme. When asked whether they thought a creativity training programme could make a difference at their schools, 27 of the 35 participants agreed it would be a good idea, 5 thought it was possible, but had some qualifications, and 3 did not think it would work. Two of the latter group were older male educators and one a female educator that tested very low on the TTCT®. The main uncertainty expressed by some surrounding such a programme, was finding time in the busy schedule of educators and the fact that most already felt over-extended. The researcher included background information regarding creativity from the literature in this question, as many individuals seem to confuse creativity with artistic ability. This also appeared to be the case with some of the participants and an explanation of what is understood by creativity and creative thinking, was necessary in some cases.

Although a vast majority voted for such a creativity programme, the responses differed quite markedly. Most said yes, it could work, that it certainly had value, that it would be a different way to look at things, that it could bring about improvements and that it could work in the right timeslot. What was striking was how most high creative thinkers responded with enthusiasm to the question. Some of their responses were:

- “Most definitely!” (repeated several times by mostly high creative educators)
- “Wonderful”
- “This can open minds”
- “Great to understand others”
- “Absolutely”
- “It would help dramatically”
- “I believe in a motivational boost”
- “A positive influence is very important”

One educator who scored low on the TTCT® also remarked that it would be a wonderful idea. The fact that she is a music teacher and that she has studied the benefit of using music to de-stress, may be an explanation for this response. In school 2, the primary school, where work overload is the greatest problem experienced by participants, educators had attended a workshop on stress management and found it very helpful. Some were of the opinion that some such intervention should be a permanent part of educator training.

It became clear to the researcher that although most participants agreed that a creativity programme would be a positive intervention, it would have to be “sold” to educators and schools in a very sensitive way and the timeslot, content and subsequent positive outcomes, well motivated. As put forward in this chapter thus far, educators are experiencing high levels of stress because of an overload of duties and roles. This situation is progressively exacerbated by new (and according to most participants unnecessary) administrative tasks and paperwork expected by the Department. Even something that they agree would be a positive intervention is clouded by an attitude of “not something else that will take up our time”. Some of the responses of those that had reservations included “we can hardly keep our heads above water now”, “some will be up in arms about more time spent at school” and “then some of our duties will have to be reduced”.

To conclude the interview, participants were encouraged to suggest ideas of what the characteristics and content of such a creativity training programme or development model should include. During data analysis of the responses to this particular question, certain themes emerged. In table 5.14 below these themes and some of the suggestions will be demonstrated.

Table 5.14 Content of Creativity Programme/model as suggested by educators

<b>Creative problem solving</b>	<b>Addressing causes of psychological insecurity</b>	<b>Development of psychological skills</b>	<b>Practical exercises</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Not doing things as usual</li> <li>▪ Practical ways to solve problems (repeated)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Cultural differences</li> <li>▪ How to handle indiscipline (repeated)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ How to get motivated</li> <li>▪ Learn to think whole brain (repeated)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Relaxation exercises</li> <li>▪ Using music</li> <li>▪ Role-play</li> <li>▪ Rekindle artistic</li> </ul>

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Specific problems</li> <li>▪ Must address the problem</li> <li>▪ Address the problem of time-management</li> <li>▪ How to advance, not just cope with a broken system</li> <li>▪ Learn ways to accept: you don't have to do things as they have always been done</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Learn administrative skills (repeated)</li> <li>▪ Coping with the workload</li> <li>▪ How to handle difficult learners</li> <li>▪ How to solve irritation in class</li> <li>▪ How to make the mind-shift between roles</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ How to handle stress/ pressure (repeated)</li> <li>▪ Crisis management</li> <li>▪ How to handle emotions</li> <li>▪ Anger management</li> <li>▪ Conflict management (repeated)</li> <li>▪ Positive thinking (repeated)</li> <li>▪ Need to be stimulated</li> <li>▪ Behaviour management</li> <li>▪ How to look after yourself</li> <li>▪ Counseling</li> <li>▪ Changing attitudes</li> <li>▪ Finding your purpose – why are you here?</li> <li>▪ Motivational programme</li> </ul>	<p>expression</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Put on a play</li> <li>▪ Have a debate</li> </ul>
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From this table, it is evident that most of the suggestions favoured a programme or development model that would enhance psychological coping skills. On the other hand, it was not surprising that many would want to seek solutions for the issues that received attention during the interview, like indiscipline and workload. Finding practical solutions for problems was a sentiment repeated numerous times.

After spending several hours in interviews with participants, the researcher has come strongly under the impression of how important it is for some intervention to help educators cope with the causes of psychological insecurity in their school environment and with the resulting stress symptoms. Although legislation affords educators rights of protection against physical and psychological insecurity, educators are not experiencing these rights in their school environments. Several commented on the fact that they have no idea what their rights are, that these are never communicated to them, unlike the rights of learners, and that they do not see

their rights applied at all. A creativity development model culminating in a creativity programme, which is one avenue that can offer the development of a variety of coping skills through creative problem solving sessions and attitude enhancing workshops, appears to be a possible solution. Most participants were open to the potential of such programmes and were keen to give their input regarding the development of such a training programme. As mentioned before, though, this will only truly become beneficial when educators feel that some of their time and duties are freed up in order to embrace something they acknowledge as necessary, but are reluctant to support fully because of constant exhaustion and fatigue.

## **5.7 SUMMARY**

The four problem statements of this study were addressed comprehensively through an in-depth study of the literature in the previous chapters, and also further investigated during empirical research. Thirty-five educators from four schools took part in the research. The research was designed as a mixed method approach. The Torrance Test of Creative Thinking® was used as quantitative component in selection of the participants. The rest of the data were gathered through a qualitative approach during semi-structured interviews, through written lists and observation during the interviews.

The issues addressed during the interviews were

- whether participating educators felt that they received sufficient support from government in their work environment,
- whether they experienced their well-being at work protected by legislation,
- how educators are coping with insecurity and stress at school by addressing the stress symptoms they experience,
- identifying the main causes of stress and insecurity for educators in their workplace,
- whether educators thought a creativity training programme could enhance their creativity and their ability to cope more effectively with psychological insecurity in their work environment and
- what the characteristics of such a creativity programme/development model should be.

The data analysis showed that indiscipline and work-overload are seen as the major stressors for participating educators. These educators are generally highly stressed, with irritability, exhaustion or fatigue and neck and back discomfort as the greatest stress symptoms experienced. High creative thinkers seemed to manage change better, and were generally more excited about doing something about psychological insecurity, but experienced more stress symptoms than their less creative colleagues. This could be explained by the stifling environment of the school where administrative tasks and keeping discipline are at the order of the day. Although they experienced more stress symptoms, high creative thinkers generally displayed a more positive attitude towards solving problems and a willingness to embrace change. Most participants were in favour of a creativity programme in their school and suggested a variety of characteristics that could form part of such a programme. The prevailing feeling of irritation resulting from long hours spent at school and on school work and activities, could currently prevent educators from buying into any new programme with enthusiasm.

These findings, conclusions and recommendations will be further expounded in chapter 7.

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## **6 CHAPTER 6: A CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL FOR EDUCATORS**

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### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

As stated in chapter 4, this study was designed to culminate in a practical form of action, viz. a creativity development model which could be designed and applied in schools. Such a model would be designed to develop the creative skills of educators, in an attempt to grow their ability to cope with psychological insecurity as caused by various factors in schools at present. During this study, it became clear that, although the psychological security of educators is protected by a variety of statutes, many educators are suffering in their school environments. The main reasons for this appeared to be the lack of effective implementation of existing legislation on the one hand and on the other hand the lack of educator skills which would assist them in coping with those issues causing their psychological insecurity and the resulting stress. The motivation for such a creativity development model was therefore to design a coping mechanism that might assist towards enhancing their experience of their workplace and one which might bring the rights of educators to security in the workplace as guaranteed in legislation, closer to actuality.

In the design of this creativity development model, the findings of both the literature overview and the empirical study were taken into account. These findings are summarised below.

#### **6.1.1 The labour rights of educators in their work environment**

Some of these rights which have been addressed in chapter 2 include section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights which states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”. Also section 12(2) which states that “everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity”. All workplaces also need to function consistent with the spirit of the new Constitution, as stated in the preamble of this Act, which is based on “democratic values, social justice and

fundamental human rights". Some of these rights as emphasised by the Bill of Rights are human dignity, equality and fair labour practices. During the research, as was demonstrated in chapter 5, it became more and more apparent that although these laws exist, their application and implementation need serious attention.

### **6.1.2 Existing creativity models and programmes**

As indicated in chapter 3, the success of creativity programmes has been widely documented. Some of these programmes and the models they are based on will be referred to in this paragraph.

A creativity model developed by Rhodes (1961:305-310) identifies four areas of inquiry, viz. the identification of the characteristics of the creative person, the components of the creative process, the aspects of the creative product and the qualities of the environment or press. This model which became known as the four P's, illustrates the four areas Rhodes identified as categories of creativity study.

The most applied and researched "P" of the model developed by Rhodes, is the process. One of the most well-known and applied models in this regard, is the Osborn-Parnes Creative Problem-Solving program (CPS). Research on the success of this programme by inter alia Parnes and Brunell (Parnes (ed), 1992:125) showed a significant increase in the creative productivity of the subjects after the deliberate creativity programmes. Other studies by Baer (1988:183), Ansborg and Dominowski (2000:48) and Torrance as cited by Parnes (1992:125), indicated that creative abilities such as problem-finding, insightful idea-finding and solution-finding can be trained and retained through creativity programmes. Important are studies which found that creativity could prove to be a solution to managing stressful situations, as creativity includes the ability to recognise problems, to get to the essence of problems and to solve these in effective ways (Torrance, 1979:32, 52; Higgins,1994:21, 26). Research has also found that there are broader benefits of creativity programmes, which include improved employee morale and staff retention, cost savings, a reduction in wastage, a safer working environment, a more positive attitude and improved general health (Lincoln, 2005; Craft, 2001; Torrance, 1994:203-204).

Participants of this study showed openness to such programmes and suggested many ideas which could form part of such a creativity programme. As was reported in chapter 5, participants were hesitant though, to give their unconditional go-ahead for any new programme, because of their fatigue, frustration and often desperation regarding their workload and the hours they spent at school and on schoolwork. Because indiscipline of learners is such a great stressor, the successes of these models and programmes in this regard as cited in the literature, should be highlighted. As referred to in par. 3.3.5.2, Torrance (1994:202) cites research of creative educators who changed the destructive and vandalistic behaviour of learners into constructive, altruistic behaviour.

The best option would probably be to make this model and its practical application part of the ongoing educator training programmes which are presented at schools.

### **6.1.3 Educators' experiences of stress in their environment**

Stress strikes 85% of South Africans in some form or another (Vanderlis, 2003:1). Numerous research studies have concluded that the stress that educators suffer, can manifest itself on an emotional as well as on a physical level (Olivier & Venter, 2003:188; Jarvis, 2002:1; Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192-194). Other studies have found that a large number of educators are suffering from emotional exhaustion (Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999: 192), which, together with the physical components of stress, can lead to burnout (Montgomery, Mostert & Jackson, 2005:266). Furthermore, stress can lead progressively to a decrease in performance, health injury and long-term absence from work (Anon., 2006a). In chapter 2 many causes for educator stress and insecurity were discussed, viz., change, management style, learner indiscipline, classroom climate and workload. In a recent newspaper report under the headline, "Teachers can't take it any more" (Davids & Makwabe, 2007:1), it was stated that one in ten educators was on leave because of stress.

As demonstrated in chapter 5, participating educators are suffering various stress symptoms. These are caused by numerous issues in their workplace, such as indiscipline of learners, the numerous roles and vast workload. It was clear that many educators were at their wits' end, with several planning to leave the profession. Many

sounded desperate, had medical complaints, were on medication and felt that instead of receiving assistance from their Education Department, this institution was, ironically enough, the main cause of their psychological insecurity. The study revealed that educators needed help urgently, mainly with how to deal with learner indiscipline and how to cope with their workload. As referred to in par. 6.1.2, Torrance (1994:202) cites research of creative educators who changed the destructive and vandalistic behaviour of learners into constructive, altruistic behaviour.

Until legislation is not just something, as some participants suggested, “that sounds nice on paper”, but applied to its fullest meaning, educators need some effective coping mechanism.

#### **6.1.4 Individuals with varying creative abilities, and their attitudes towards insecurity**

The participants completed the Figural Torrance Test® of Creative Thinking (TTCT®). The results indicated that individuals had varying creative abilities and that these abilities had a direct impact on how they coped with psychological insecurity and the stress they experienced. Although the empirical study showed that high creative thinkers who participated experienced generally more stress symptoms than low creative thinkers, this is most probably because of the current school environment in participating schools that stifles the expression of this skill. High quantities of administrative tasks were, not surprisingly, the main stressor for these individuals. On the other hand they dealt better with change and were excited about trying out new ways of coping and solving problems. They generally had a more positive attitude and a willingness to find solutions. A creativity development model to enhance problem solving skills and the work environment, amongst others, would therefore benefit low as well as high creative thinkers. As noted in par. 3.2.5, it is cited in the literature that everybody can be creative and that creativity can be developed. The model takes this into account as well as the varying creative abilities of the educators. The negative attitudes of educators towards their situation in the school environment at present, was also taken into account during the development of this model. The model is therefore designed to contain aspects to *inter alia* break down attitude barriers, to encourage creative growth, to be non-judgmental and to set achievable goals for all participating educators.

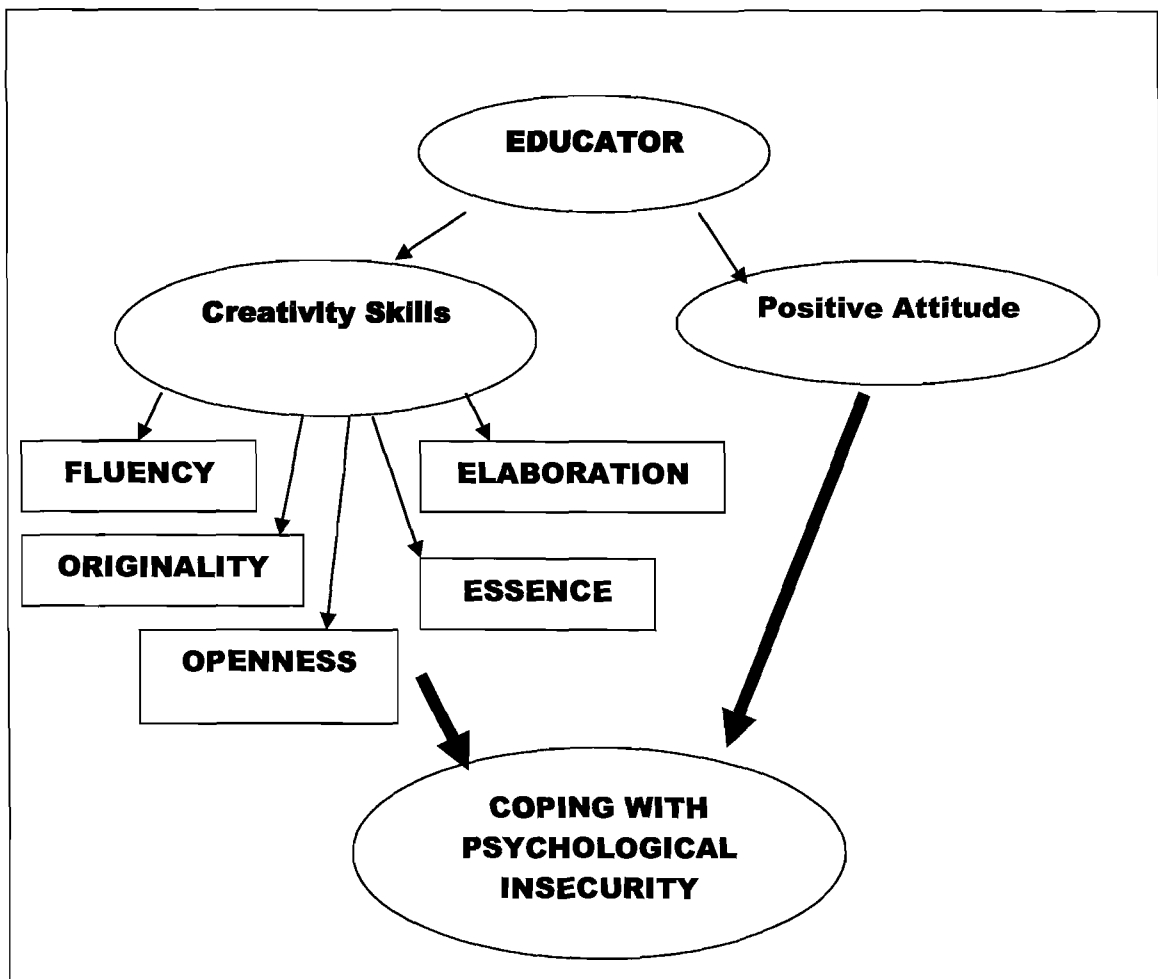
## 6.2 THEORETICAL MODEL FOR CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT

In chapter 3 the research on the development of creative behaviour, the different characteristics of so-called creative thinkers, the models applied to enhance creativity and the importance of an environment conducive to creativity were investigated. This creativity development model will in part be based on the original model of Rhodes (1961:305-310) referred to in par. 3.3.3 and 6.1.2. In his study of creativity, Rhodes discovered four areas of inquiry, viz. the identification of the characteristics of the creative PERSON, the components of the creative PROCESS, the aspects of the creative PRODUCT and the qualities of the environment or PRESS which nurtures creativity. This model became known as the four P's and has been adapted and elaborated on over the past decades. This study has illuminated these very areas as crucial for the development of creative behaviour in order to grow the coping skills of educators in their current environments (see par. 3.3.6).

This study has also revealed numerous personality characteristics of creative thinkers. The characteristics seen as most important by Torrance (1979:25-74), Guilford (The Lutenist, 2002:1), Parnes (1992:125) and other creative researchers, viz., fluent thinking, originality, the ability to highlight the essence, the skill of elaboration and psychological openness, will be incorporated into this model. They will be referred to as creativity skills. As mentioned in chapter 3 and in par. 6.1.2, research has also found that the wider impact of creativity programmes includes improved employee morale and a more positive attitude (Lincoln, 2005; Craft, 2001; Torrance, 1994:203-204). This element is also applied in this model.

The model will be illustrated in three figures and finally integrated in figure 4. The first figure demonstrates the development of the person, in this instance the educator, in order to enhance his/her coping skills.

Figure 6.1 The development of creativity skills to enhance educator coping skills



As indicated, five creativity skills have been adopted as part of the theoretical model for the development of the creativity skills of educators in order to enhance their ability to cope with psychological insecurities in their work environment.

- **Fluency** is the ability to generate many ideas around a problem, to consistently look for alternatives when one solution does not work, and to break thinking barriers that conclude that “only one way is possible”. This skill should enable educators to find alternative ways to deal with stress in the workplace, to find various solutions for dealing with indiscipline, to vary their teaching style in order to create variation in the classroom and combat indiscipline associated with boredom and frustration.
- **Originality** is the skill of seeing beyond the ordinary, the conventional and the mundane in order to find ideas and solutions that could break new ground and

think beyond existing paradigms. Developing the skill of originality goes hand in hand with developing the courage to venture into what was previously seen as unusual or impossible. Educators who often seem to be overwhelmed by the present circumstances in their workplace could, through original thinking, go beyond the problem into breakthrough solutions.

- **Elaboration** is the skill of developing ideas into action. With this skill, educators will be able to refine and develop ideas to cope with insecurities at school into workable solutions. Once an idea becomes a plan of action which can be applied, a solution seems more tangible and the stress about the problem less debilitating.
- **Focus on the essence** is the ability to establish priorities, to discard irrelevant information which clouds the main issue or most important aspect of a situation. At present, educators are confused and in many cases paralysed by various elements causing them insecurity and stress. Developing the skill of understanding essence, could assist them to “get to the point” as far as their stressors are concerned and to get to the heart of the problem without wasting further time on issues which obscure their main challenge.
- **Openness** is the ability to defer judgment, to keep the mind open long enough to discover possibilities and opportunities. These are often blocked by closed minds that tend to jump to conclusions, stereotype, cling to old habits and resist ambiguity. Many educators are presently experiencing the situation regarding indiscipline and overwork as impossible to overcome. Learning the skill to resist closure and a willingness to try new ways, could restore the faith of many educators in the eventual solutions to many of their current problems and stressors.

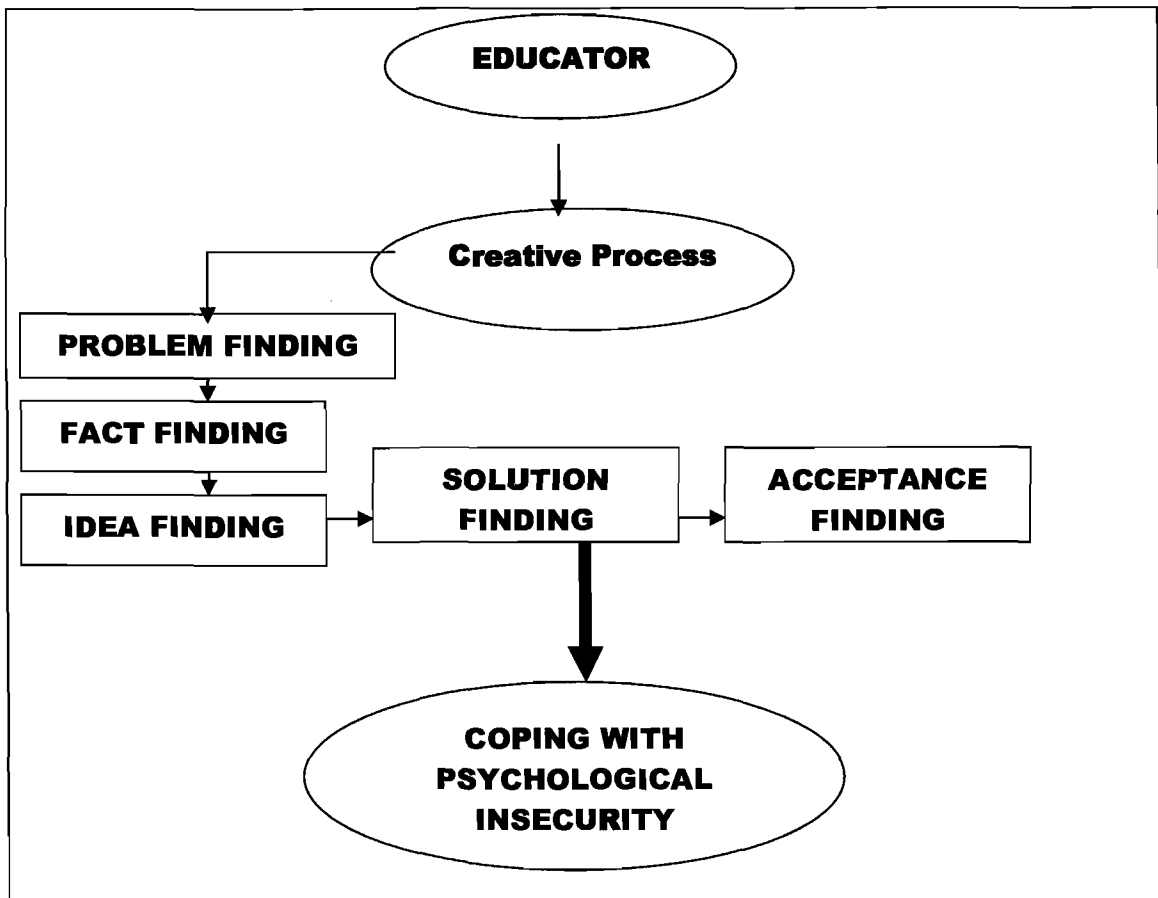
Developing a positive attitude in order to cope with psychological insecurity, is another element of the creativity development model. Although a positive attitude is not defined as a creativity skill, it is an important building block for the development of creativity skills. Synonyms for attitude include “disposition”, “frame of mind” and

“perspective” (Family Word Finder, 2006:67). Attitude could therefore be seen as the lens through which we perceive our world.

- **A positive attitude** shifts the emphasis from problems to challenges, to possible solutions and outcomes, and gives rise to positive talk. Negative talk, complaints and blaming are at the order of the day in many schools at present. A change in mind-set could be the way to launch educators onto the road of recovery.

The components that Rhodes (1961:305-310) refers to as the process and the product, are incorporated into this model as the creative process. The steps of this process are based on the CPS model designed by Osborn and Parnes (Parnes (ed), 1992:125), adapted and researched numerous times over the last decades. The CPS model was discussed in detail in par. 3.3.2, 3.3.5.1 and 3.3.6. The original model designed by Osborn consisted of seven steps, viz. orientation, preparation, analysis, hypothesis, incubation, synthesis and verification. These steps were refined through the partnership between Alex Osborn and Sidney Parnes and renamed the Osborn-Parnes Model of Creative Problem Solving. After Osborn’s death Parnes modified the process to include five steps, viz. fact finding, problem finding, idea finding, solution finding and acceptance finding. In the creativity development model for educator security, these five steps will be applied.

Figure 6.2 Applying a creative process to enhance educator coping skills



Developing creativity includes developing creative processes, techniques and actions. The skills needed for creative thinking are often developed during creativity processes. Such a process also indicates how these creativity skills can be applied in effective ways in order to work, teach and solve problems creatively. Applying a creative process is one way to ensure that ideas are put into action and that problems are solved. The following are the five steps of the creativity process of this model.

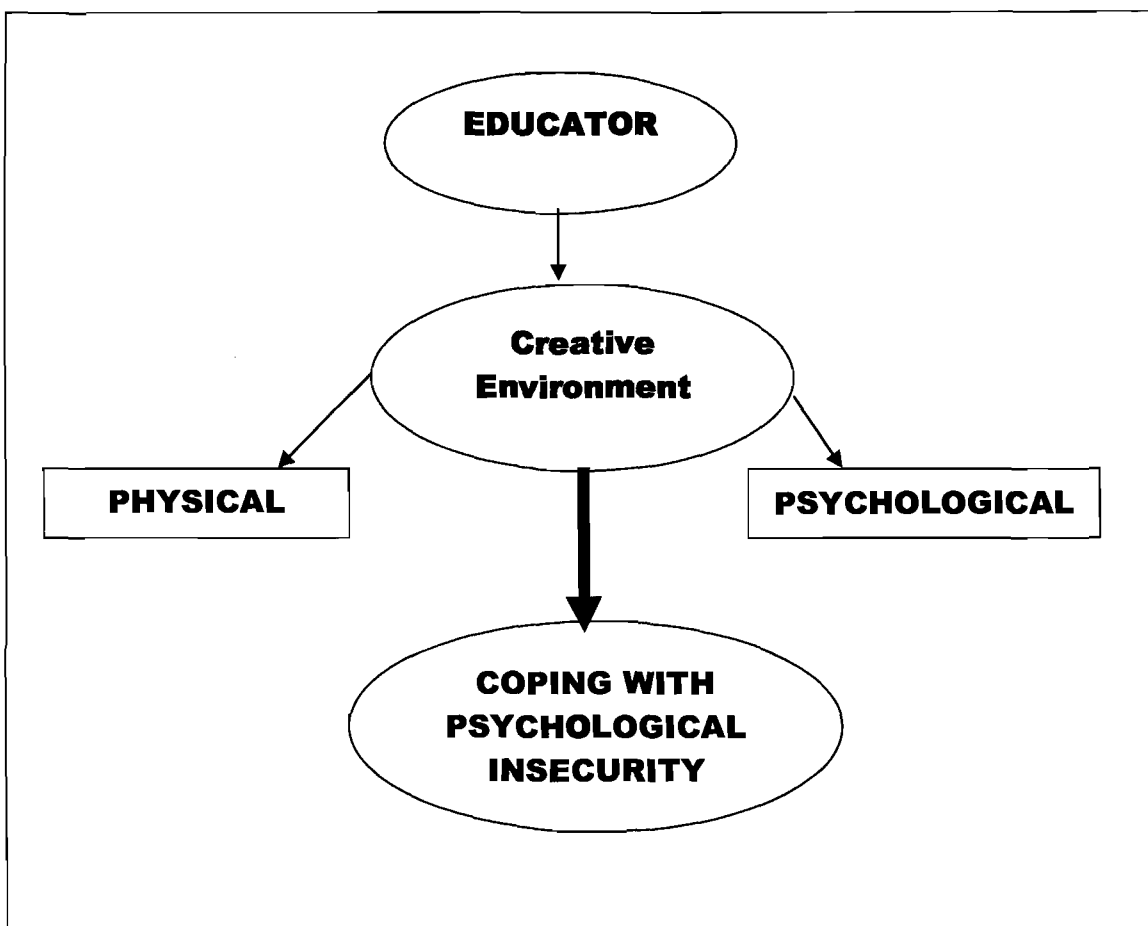
- Problem finding includes a process of finding the essence, the heart of the problem, of discarding irrelevant issues and of finding focus for the process towards finding solutions. Educators would benefit from applying creativity techniques in order to unpack and to get to the bottom of the real issues which negatively impact on them in their school environments.
- Fact finding is a process of gathering facts which are relevant to the problem in order to start the process of solving it. Creativity techniques would assist

educators to not only gather the hard facts, but also gain insight into how perceptions and feelings play an important role in fact finding.

- **Idea finding** includes the application of several creativity techniques in order to generate a large quantity of possibilities that may lead to solutions. This is a dynamic way of developing openness of thinking and combating judgmental attitudes. Applying creativity techniques which produce multitudes of possibilities can be a liberating experience for educators who may at present see no light at the end of the tunnel of their psychological insecurity.
- **Solution finding** is in effect the product or outcome of the process. This step includes selecting the best ideas and developing them into workable solutions. Finding solutions for their problems at school could have a dramatic effect on the morale and stress levels of educators.
- **Acceptance finding** includes efforts to sell the solution to the appropriate role-players and to develop an action plan. This would give educators the opportunity to take ownership of their problems and solutions and a feeling that they are making a difference.

The final component of the creativity development model, which is not yet incorporated in the above diagram, is the environment, or what Rhodes (1961:305-310) refers to as "press". In this development model the role of the physical as well as the psychological environment will be included.

Figure 6.3 Developing a creative environment



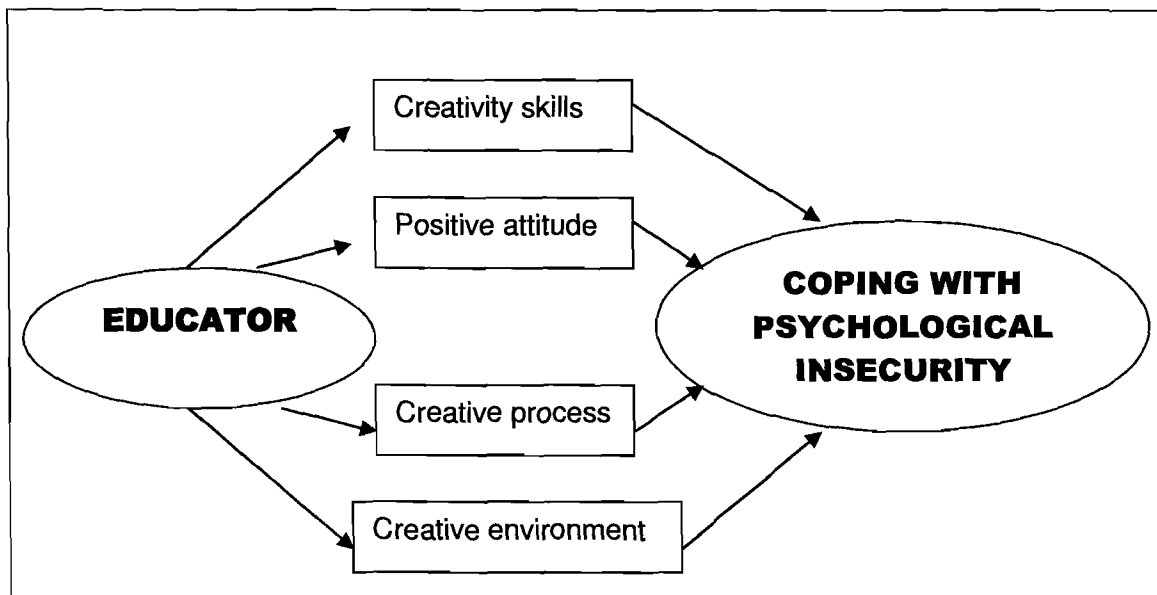
For creativity to flourish, an environment should be created that would encourage and sustain creative thinking and behaviour. Because of the insecurities and stress experienced by many educators today, gaining insight into how to create environments conducive to creative thinking, is important. The creative environment comprises physical and psychological elements.

- **The physical environment** as cited in section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights, affords educators “an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”. Elements of the environment which could support or negatively impact on the development of creativity were referred to in par. 3.3.3. Some of these elements are temperature, lighting, noise level, air quality, the use of colour in the environment, availability of resources, furniture, space, safety and freedom of movement.

- **The psychological environment** includes those factors which either enhance or hamper wellness of educators in their workplace. When these elements are experienced as positive, creativity and a sense of security have a better chance of growing. The psychological environment includes elements like trust, communication, energy, gratification, care and nurture, empowerment, personal growth opportunities, team spirit, encouragement and security. Some of these elements were discussed in par. 3.3.3.

The following diagram summarises all the components of the creativity development model.

Figure 6.4 The creativity development model



### 6.3 THE APPLICATION OF THE CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL

It is suggested that the theoretical model for the development of creativity of educators be applied in the form of a creativity training programme. Such a training programme has been designed as part of this study and is included as Addendum D. It is suggested that this programme should form part of the annual educator training programme which exists in many schools at present. This would be more acceptable to educators who are suffering under work overload and in many cases, long hours spent at school. It can also be applied as two half day workshops of about four hours

each. Feedback from the principal or facilitator after the completion of the modules is essential. A feedback form is included at the end of the programme.

### **6.3.1 The attributes of the creativity training programme**

The programme is divided into eight learning modules. Each module is designed to be completed within 60 minutes. These modules will form the training programme and can be copied separately and handed out at each training session.

It is suggested that an educator (which could be the principal) is appointed to become the facilitator of the programme. No specialised knowledge is needed to facilitate this programme. The facilitator will have to read through and gain insight into each module in order to prepare for each session. This will not be complicated or take much time and will be simplified by a power point presentation which will be included in the programme. Each module will include a short list of instructions to the facilitator. Although the facilitator will lead, introduce and manage the training sessions, the participants will be actively involved in the form of interactive discussions and activities.

The programme will be an application of the theoretical model and includes the development of creativity skills and of a positive attitude, the application of the creativity process and the development of a creative environment.

To ensure a user-friendly programme, icons will be used to identify background information, activities, important information/facts and the module summary.

### **6.3.2 The content of the creativity training programme**

Each module is designed to develop one of the components of the creativity development model, viz., the person (educator), the creativity skills and positive attitude, the creativity process and the creative environment. The programme consists of the following modules and categories:

Table 6.1: Modules of the Creativity Programme

<b>Module no.</b>	<b>Module title</b>	<b>Creativity category</b>
1.	Understanding creativity	The person
2.	The five primary skills of creativity (1)	The person
3.	The five primary skills of creativity (2)	The person
4.	Introducing creative problem solving (CPS)	The process
5.	CPS: finding ideas	The process
6.	CPS: finding solutions and acceptance	The process/outcome
7.	Creating a vision to sustain creativity	The process/outcome
8.	The creative school environment	The environment

Chapter 6 should be read with Addendum D.

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## **7 CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

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### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

In chapter 1, the four aims and objectives of this study were stated. During the literature study in chapters 2 and 3, most of these aims were realised. Furthermore, all the objectives were achieved during the empirical research as described in chapter 5. In this chapter, the conclusions of the literature study as well as the empirical study will be summarised and recommendations made for action or further research.

### **7.2 LEGISLATION AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SECURITY**

The first aim as stated in par. 1.3 was to determine whether labour legislation and the Bill of Rights protect educators from psychological insecurity in the school as workplace. This issue was investigated extensively in chapter 2. It was found that a vast body of legislation exists that affords protection for employees in general in their workplace, and for educators specifically. Paramount amongst these statutes is the Bill of Rights. Several sections in this Bill have direct bearing on the security of educators in their workplace. Section 12 states that everyone has the right “to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources” (section 12(c)), “not to be tortured in any way” (section 12(d)), “not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way” (section 12(e)) and that “everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity” (section 12(2)). Section 24(a) states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”; and section 23 provides for fair labour practices. Other basic human rights granted all South Africans are human dignity as stated in section 23 and equality in section 9.

In chapter 2 numerous other labour statutes were discussed which are directed at safety and security at work. These include the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 (SA, 1993) which makes provisions for the health and safety of persons at work and the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (SA, 1998a), which in section 60 protects employees from the discriminatory conduct of other employees. It was found that a

lacuna exists in most statutes regarding the psychological security of employees in the workplace. Although the courts have been slow in granting compensation for employees suffering because of psychological insecurities at work, some cases have been successful. In this regard *Ntsabo v Real security CC* [2004] 1 BBLR 58 (LC) and *Grobler v Naspers & another* [2004] 5 BBLR 455 (C) are seen as landmark judgments in which two employers were found vicariously liable for damages suffered by an employee because of the sexual harassment by a colleague.

A crucial conclusion of this study is that, although a variety of statutory provisions exist that afford security for educators at work, the implementation and application of these statutes are in most part ineffective. During the empirical study it was found that participants were clearly unaware of their rights to protection under the law and were not experiencing such protection in their schools. On the contrary, most felt that there was an over-emphasis on the rights of children, while their rights were ignored. None were informed about the content of the Bill of Rights or other labour legislation that should grant them protection from stress and psychological insecurities at work.

The empirical study showed unequivocally that participating educators were not protected from psychological insecurities in their work environment. This was evident from the large number of stress symptoms suffered by most participants which were caused by numerous elements at school. It was evident during the interviews that most were highly stressed, that a significant number were on stress-related medication and that some were considering leaving the profession. Ironically enough, the employer of most educators, the Education Department, was not only seen as unsupportive, but as one of the main causes of stress for educators. Most saw the constant changes regarding curriculum, portfolio requirements, points system and the resulting paperwork as highly stressful. This issue was spoken about with frustration, high emotion and anger by most participants.

Contrary to their perceptions regarding the Education Department, most participating educators experienced their principals and Governing Bodies as being supportive. Parents were often referred to as part of the problem because of their lack of respect and support for educators.

The extent of the psychological insecurity suffered by educators and their ability to cope will be re-examined in the following paragraph.

### **7.3 COPING WITH PSYCHOLOGICAL INSECURITY AT SCHOOL**

A second aim of the study was to determine to what extent educators experience insecurity in their work environment. A study of the literature, as explored in chapter 2, painted a somber picture of educator stress worldwide. In par. 2.3.1.2 numerous studies were cited which showed that educators were suffering a variety of stress symptoms like emotional exhaustion, cynicism, depersonalisation and burnout (Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999: 192; Montgomery, Mostert & Jackson, 2005:266; Lynch, 2006). The education profession has also been cited as a high stress occupation. The literature abounds with examples of stress symptoms and several of these were listed as part of the empirical study. A large number of symptoms were selected by participants, with irritability, constant exhaustion or fatigue and neck and back discomfort as the symptoms suffered most frequently by participants. Some of the participants were on medication for stress, had taken time off for stress related ailments, told of colleagues who were suffering or were considering leaving the profession. It was evident that educators are not coping well with the current psychological insecurities at school. Many voiced their concern that if something was not done soon about especially learner indiscipline and workload, the profession would be in serious trouble.

Another aspect of this research study was the factors causing psychological insecurities in schools.

### **7.4 FACTORS CAUSING PSYCHOLOGICAL INSECURITIES AT SCHOOL**

A further objective of this study was to determine the main factors causing insecurity in the workplace for educators. Several causes were revealed in studies done in the past on stress amongst educators. These included political and social changes, affirmative action, democracy, diversity, retrenchment and redeployment of educators, the transition from nineteen departments of education to one national

department and nine provincial departments of education, the change from monocultural to multicultural schools and the new education approach of OBE. Most of these causes were not found to be prominent in this empirical study.

During the empirical research, several possible causes of stress and insecurity at school were presented to the participants. These included violence, learner indiscipline, change, workload and different roles and bullying. Participating educators were encouraged to name other causes that they had experienced and were also presented with a list of possible further causes of stress at work. The main causes as selected by participants were learner indiscipline, an excessive workload, over-crowded classrooms, the negative attitudes of and lack of support by parents and cultural differences. A large number voted learner indiscipline and an excessive workload as the two major stressors for educators at present. When referring to workload, participants often referred to constant change which was caused by ever changing instructions by the department, repetitive tasks and unnecessary administrative duties.

Learner indiscipline is causing educators serious psychological insecurities in schools at present. Many felt they had no recourse to handle bad behaviour in class and that the Department offered no instructions or support in this regard. The fact that parents did not support educators was often mentioned as part of the problem. Participants also regularly mentioned the fact that learners were different from a number of years ago: they lacked respect, they knew and exploited their rights but disregarded their responsibilities, and were at times guilty of aggressive and violent behaviour. Although violent behaviour seemed relatively common on school grounds, only one participating school reported incidents of violence against educators in class. Where these cases were reported, educators felt their rights were ignored and that they received no support or protection from the authorities.

In all the participating schools, an excessive workload and numerous roles of educators caused great psychological insecurity. As mentioned earlier, the role the Department played in causing this particular stress was emphasised repeatedly. Apart from the never ending paperwork, issues mentioned were regular and often repetitive and therefore time wasting departmental meetings, functions at school,

extramural duties and marking and preparation after hours. Several mentioned that they had no personal life, that they were neglecting their families and that their health was suffering.

A further objective of the study was to determine the characteristics of a programme which could assist educators to cope with psychological insecurities at work. These characteristics can best be accounted for in the design of a creativity development model that takes into account and incorporates all the characteristics that were pointed out in this research. This model, as described in chapter 6, can be regarded as the culmination of all the most important facets and findings of this study.

## **7.5 THE CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT MODEL**

The final objective of the study was to determine the characteristics of a creativity development model which might assist educators to minimise the effects of stress related to workplace insecurity in education. The design of the study to culminate in a creativity development model which could be applied in schools in order to develop the creativity skills of educators was prompted by the literature on creativity. Literature on creativity asserts that high creative thinkers possess certain characteristics that assist them to cope more effectively in diverse and dynamic environments. Following the guidelines of the model, the creativity programme was therefore designed to enhance the coping skills of educators through the development of creative skills, in order to minimise workplace insecurity in education.

The literature study, as reported on in chapter 3, cites a large variety of studies on the personal characteristics of high creative thinkers. These studies found *inter alia* that they are more flexible, fluent, original, risk-taking and that they cope better with change. During the empirical study the 35 participants were selected from a hundred educators who were tested on their creative skills using the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking®. Fifteen high and fifteen low creative thinkers were selected, as well as five who scored average on the test. During the interviews participants were asked how they experienced change. The responses by high creative thinkers were significant. Almost every participant in this group stated that they had no or little problem with change and in some cases, stated that they liked change.

Participants were presented with a list of 10 stress symptoms and were asked to select those they suffered regularly. The result was initially a surprising one when taking into account the studies on high creative thinkers in the literature. In this empirical study, the high creative thinkers appeared to suffer more stress symptoms than their less creative colleagues. When comparing this finding with studies cited in the literature, important deductions could be made. Although high creative thinkers are more comfortable with change and can cope with diverse and dynamic environments, the main causes of stress at present in participating schools are administrative overload and learner indiscipline. It appears to be qualities like originality, independence, risk taking and being less conventional which are stifled by the emphasis on administrative tasks that most see as nonsensical. For creative thinkers these “uncreative”, repetitive and conventional tasks would have a far more negative impact than for less creative thinkers. Most of their energy in class is spent on maintaining discipline, instead of getting on with sharing ideas and applying original ideas, which could be a serious cause of stress for creative educators. According to the literature, creativity cannot thrive in an environment where people are not allowed to take initiatives and be independent and where new ideas are not supported and encouraged. This may be another possible explanation for high creative thinkers suffering more stress symptoms in the school environment that stifles this very skill. All this may culminate in high creative thinkers experiencing more stress symptoms than those who do not experience the stifling of this intrinsic characteristic. On the other hand, what was also significant about the responses of high creative thinkers was that they generally had a more positive attitude towards their current situation. They were also significantly more enthusiastic about doing something about the problems experienced by educators at schools at present. Another interesting finding in this regard, was that the participants who admitted to taking medication for stress, were all from the low and average creative group. This could point towards a significant reason for some lower creative thinkers in this study experiencing fewer stress symptoms.

The literature, as examined in chapter 3, cites a vast body of research on the effectiveness of creativity training programmes which enhance the ability to generate ideas and solve problems. The literature further points at the wider impact of these

programmes which include the enhancement of the ability to cope with the changing work environment, improved attitudes and even improved general health of employees.

## **7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS**

This study has clearly revealed that the legislation designed to protect educators in their work environment, is currently failing to do that, because of a lack of effective application. The rights of educators, including the protection of their psychological security, need urgent attention by the state as employer of educators. An important issue in this regard, is that of learner indiscipline. Urgent research into and visible, effective action regarding the widespread problem of learner indiscipline in schools is recommended. An important reason why educators are experiencing despondency and stress and are leaving the profession is a feeling of despair regarding the behaviour of learners in class. Special training for educators in the management of indiscipline and on how to encourage disciplined behaviour is recommended. Educators currently feel that learner rights are over-emphasised, while their rights are ignored. Educators, learners and parents should therefore be well informed and trained in the implications and the application of rights and on the ways in which a higher awareness of their responsibilities can be stimulated amongst learners.

Numerous educators are expressing their concern (Rossouw, 2008a) that, although a significant amount of time is regularly spent by disciplinary committees to decide on the expulsion of transgressors, education departments regularly merely send these transgressors back to their schools. Because this effectively breaks down the authority of educators, their professional status and security decline. While some educators are held ransom by learners who wield their rights as a weapon and a reason to misbehave, educators will suffer psychological insecurities and will have their rights infringed. In addition to the rights of educators as enshrined in the Bill of Rights and other legislation as discussed in chapter 2, the annexure to the SA Schools Act, the *Guidelines for the consideration of Governing Bodies in adopting a code of conduct for learners* (SA, 1996b) stipulates that a relationship of mutual trust and respect should exist between learners and educators, that victimisation is unacceptable and that disrespectful behaviour may lead to suspension.

As employer of educators, the education departments should urgently accept their undisputed duty to deal with those learners who are victimising and harassing educators and are guilty of other forms of serious misconduct.

It is also recommended that the current role and negative impact of the Education Department with regard to an excessive workload be urgently investigated. The complaints and concerns regarding constantly changing instructions, changes regarding curriculum and learner evaluation and copious paper work, should be seriously considered by this Department. A consistent and streamlined process should be developed and the administrative tasks and paperwork reduced. Changes should be well motivated and sufficient and efficient support supplied to educators. The fact that educators do not receive the appropriate information and support they need from the Department because of a shortage of staff, no comeback on queries and unnecessary and repeat meetings, needs critical and immediate attention. The current situation is a serious indictment of the employer-employee relationship in education. It is unacceptable and alarming that the Department is experienced as an employer that is not only reluctant to protect, but that is ironically aggravating the insecurity of their very employees.

As mentioned earlier, as far as indiscipline of learners is concerned, education departments will have to take greater responsibility to ensure the protection of the rights of educators. The public announcement by the SAOU (Roux, 2007) referred to in par. 2.3.2.4 voiced several concerns and reasons for frustration which educators have to cope with. These concerns include the rights of learners who transgress, outweighing the rights of the law-abiding majority, violence and intimidation against educators by learners and some parents, and the disregard of educators' rights by education authorities. In June 2007 all teacher unions took part in the largest and most extended strike action in the history of the South African education system. While educators exercised their constitutional right to express their dissatisfaction during this salary dispute, thousands of learners were deprived from being taught (Rossouw, 2008a). On the one hand this strike action highlighted the importance of sound labour relations in education, and on the other hand it served as a warning that disgruntled educators could go to extreme lengths to seek justice. It is not

improbable that educators could increasingly initiate industrial action directed at their employer in an effort to force the Department to meet certain demands.

Taking court action against their employer is another possible avenue for dissatisfied educators. In both the *Ntsabo* and *Grobler* cases referred to in par. 2.2.3.4 and 2.2.4.1, the fluidity of the concept of vicarious liability came to attention. Although these cases dealt with sexual harassment, the message was clear that the employer can be held liable for the failure to establish a work environment that is conducive to the physical security as well as the psychological well-being of employees. The recommendation that education departments deal with and remedy the concerns of educators effectively and urgently is imperative. If departments ignore these concerns or are reluctant to deal with them swiftly, educators may resort to industrial or court action against their employers. They may see this as the only solution to their problems with learner misconduct, work-overload and other serious concerns.

As was exposed in this study, it is evident that educators are suffering in their work environment and that finding a coping mechanism to assist educators to deal with the psychological insecurities and stress at school, seems urgent. Creativity skills as a possible solution have emerged from the literature. Because creativity skills, according to numerous studies, can be developed through creativity programmes, a creativity programme for schools is suggested as a possible intervention. The inclusion in this programme of elements to enhance a positive attitude, to develop creativity characteristics and skills, to learn creative problem solving processes in order to become more solution than problem oriented, and to develop a more creative environment, is recommended. Such a programme based on the creativity development model was designed as part of this study and its application in participating and similar schools as a component of their normal staff development programme, is recommended.

Ignoring the recommendations that the rights of educators to a safe and psychologically secure environment should be urgently addressed will inevitably harm the learner as well. If educators experience serious threats, insecurity and stress, it will impact negatively on their learners. This should not be tolerated, in the

light of the Constitutional provision in section 28 that the best interests of children should be of paramount importance.

## **7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The following are recommendations for further research:

- What are the implications of industrial action by educators directed at their employer in an effort to force education department to meet certain demands?
- To what extent can programmes by education departments address the issue of learner indiscipline?
- What are the main causes of excessive workload experienced by educators?
- What are the main stressors for educators in South Africa and how could this be minimized?
- To what extent do creativity programmes enhance educator security in their work environment?

“Safeguarding the rights of others is the most noble and beautiful end of a human being.”

Kahlil Gibran

“Almost always, the creative dedicated minority has made the world better.”

Martin Luther King Jr.

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## 8 ADDENDUMS

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### 8.1 Addendum A: Ethics approval certificate



NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY  
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NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT

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#### Ethics Committee

Tel +27 18 299 4850  
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Email [Ethics@nwu.ac.za](mailto:Ethics@nwu.ac.za)

Prof J P Rossouw

4 Desember 2008

Dear Prof Rossouw

#### ETHICS APPROVAL OF PROJECT

The North-West University Ethics Committee (NWU-EC) hereby approves your project as indicated below. This implies that the NWU-EC grants its permission that, provided the special conditions specified below are met and pending any other authorisation that may be necessary, the project may be initiated, using the ethics number below.

**Project title:** A creativity model to enhance the psychological security of the educator - a labour law perspective

**Ethics number:**

N	W	U	-	0	0	0	9	-	0	8	-	A	2
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**Approval date:** 29 September 2008      **Expiry date:** 28 September 2013

Special conditions of the approval (if any): None

#### General conditions:

*While this ethics approval is subject to all declarations, undertakings and agreements incorporated and signed in the application form, please note the following:*

- The project leader (principle investigator) must report in the prescribed format to the NWU-EC:
  - annually (or as otherwise requested) on the progress of the project,
  - without any delay in case of any adverse event (or any matter that interrupts sound ethical principles) during the course of the project.
- The approval applies strictly to the protocol as stipulated in the application form. Would any changes to the protocol be deemed necessary during the course of the project, the project leader must apply for approval of these changes at the NWU-EC. Would there be deviation from the project protocol without the necessary approval of such changes, the ethics approval is immediately and automatically forfeited.
- The date of approval indicates the first date that the project may be started. Would the project have to continue after the expiry date, a new application must be made to the NWU-EC and new approval received before or on the expiry date.
- In the interest of ethical responsibility the NWU-EC retains the right to:
  - request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project;
  - withdraw or postpone approval if:
    - any unethical principles or practices of the project are revealed or suspected,
    - it becomes apparent that any relevant information was withheld from the NWU-EC or that information has been false or misrepresented,
    - the required annual report and reporting of adverse events was not done timely and accurately,
    - new institutional rules, national legislation or international conventions deem it necessary.

The Ethics Committee would like to remain at your service as scientist and researcher, and wishes you well with your project. Please do not hesitate to contact the Ethics Committee for any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

Prof MMJ Lowes  
(chair NWU Ethics Committee)

Prof M. Monteith  
(Chairman: NWU Ethics Committee: Teaching and Learning )

## 8.2 Addendum B: Ethics consent form

### Form for Informed Consent

NWU Ethics authorisation number: NWU 0009 08 A2.

Every human participant in any project for the purpose of research or education (and, where applicable, the authorised parent / guardian) must be fully informed about the project and must sign a form for informed consent, before any participation may take place.

### General Project Information

The part below provides you as participant in the project with more information, so that you can make an informed decision about your voluntary participation or not.

1. Title of the Project:  
A creativity development model to enhance educator security – a labour law perspective
2. Institution / School / Subject group / Institute:  
North-West University, Potchefstroom
3. Names & contact details of project leaders:

<b>Project leader</b>	<b>Research supervisor</b>
Mrs Raché Rutherford	Prof JP Rossouw
32 Berghshoop	North-West University
Langeberg Road	Tel: 018-2991851
Durbanville 7550	
Tel: 0824100772	
4. You are approached to take part in this project and may now have the following questions:
  - 4.1. What is the purpose of this project?  
The project is undertaken as part of a PhD study at the North-West University, Potchefstroom. Insecurities which educators experience in their work places will be investigated.
  - 4.2. What will be expected of me as participant? In which interventions / procedures will I have to take part? What exactly will it involve?
    1. During the first visit to your school, you will be asked to complete the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking®.
    2. During a second visit to your school, you will be asked to partake in individual interviews on voluntary basis in order to gain your opinions on the following:
      - the causes of insecurities in your workplace,
      - how you experience the protection of the Bill of Rights and other legislation
      - whether creativity could enhance your experience in your school environment
  - 4.3. How will the findings of the project (general results, as well as individual about me) be made available or conveyed to me?  
A summary of the findings will be presented to your school. Your individual results on the TTCT® will not be made available to the school, but will be given to you on request after completion of the research. The full thesis will be available at the North-West University library.
  - 4.4. What measures have been taken to handle and store my data confidentially?  
All data is for scientific purposes only. Confidentiality is guaranteed for individual participants and their respective schools – no person or school will be disclosed in the final report. Sound recordings as well as video material will be handled with confidentiality. The data will be stored for 5 years, after which it will be destroyed.

As project leader, I confirm to participants that the above information is complete and correct.

**Signature of Project Leader**

**Date**

Signed at

## **PART 2: General Principles**

### **To the signatory of the consent contained in Part 3 of this document:**

You are invited to take part in the research project as described in Part 1 of this informed consent form. It is important that you also read and understand the following general principles, which are applicable to all participants in our research projects:

1. Participation in the project is completely voluntary and no pressure, however subtle, may be placed on you to take part.
2. It is possible that you may not derive any benefit personally from your participation in the project, although the knowledge that may be gained by means of the project, may benefit other persons or communities.
3. You are free to withdraw from the project at any time, without stating reasons, and you will in no way be harmed by so doing. You may also request that your data no longer be used in the project.
4. By agreeing to take part in the project, you are also giving consent for the data that will be generated to be used by the researchers for scientific purposes as they see fit, with the caveat that it will be confidential and that your name will not be linked to any of the data without your consent.
5. You will be given access to your own data upon request, unless the Ethics Committee has approved temporary non-disclosure (in the latter case, the reasons in Part 1 will be explained to you).
6. A summary of the nature of the project, the potential risks, factors that may cause you possible inconvenience or discomfort, the benefits that can be expected and the known and/or probable permanent consequences that your participation in the project may have for you as participant, are set out for you in Part 1 hereof.
7. You are encouraged to ask the project leader or co-workers any questions you may have regarding the project and the related procedures at any stage. They will gladly answer your queries. They will also discuss the project with you in detail.
8. If you are a minor, the written consent of your parent or legal guardian is required before you participate in this project, as well as (in writing if possible) your voluntary assent to take part – no coercion may be placed on you.
9. The project objectives are always secondary to your well-being and actions taken will always place your interests above those of the project.
10. No project may be commenced before it is approved by the Ethics Committee. Furthermore, the project leader must report any detrimental effects experienced during the implementation of the project in full and without delay to the chairman of the Ethics Committee. If any unforeseen serious detrimental effects are observed during the project, it may be necessary to terminate the project immediately.

### PART 3: Consent

Title of the Project:

A creativity development model to enhance educator security – a labour law perspective

I, the undersigned

#### Full names & Surname

have read the preceding premises in connection with the project, as discussed in **Part 1** and **Part 2** of this informed consent form, and have also heard the oral version thereof and I declare that I understand it.

I have also initialled every page of **Part 1** and **Part 2**. I was given the opportunity to discuss relevant aspects of the project with the project leader and I hereby declare that I am taking part in the project voluntarily.

2 0 0 - -  
c c y y m m d d

Signature of Participant

Signed at

Place of Signature

#### WITNESSES

2 0 0 - -  
c c y y m m d d

Signature of Witness 1

Signed at

Place of Signature

2 0 0 - -  
c c y y m m d d

Signature of Witness 2

Signed at

Place of Signature



# **A CREATIVITY DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME**

**For the development of educator  
creativity**

**RACHÉ RUTHERFORD**

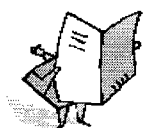
**GENERAL INFORMATION BEFORE EMBARKING ON THIS TRAINING  
PROGRAMME**

- **This programme consists of 8 training modules of 60 minutes each.**
- **It is suggested that these modules form part of the ongoing training programme for educators at your school.**
- **The programme can also be presented in two half day workshops.**
- **Although not recommended, it is possible to select four of the eight modules as part of the training schedule. The four recommended modules are: 1, 2, 3 and 8.**
- **A facilitator should be appointed to manage the programme. This does not entail much preparation or extra work. Clear instructions for the facilitator are supplied at the beginning of each module.**
- **A feedback form is supplied at the end of the programme. It is essential, as part of an ongoing effort to assist educators to cope with the insecurities in their school environment, to complete and forward this form at the end of the training period.**

**A CREATIVITY PROGRAMME:**  
**FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATOR CREATIVITY**

**ICONS**

Icons are powerful symbols that provide direction and information. Each icon has a particular meaning and will simplify the use of this manual. The following icons are used in this manual:



Introduction and background information to the module:  
Read aloud by facilitator or by each participant



Instructions to facilitator:  
As preparation before and for presentation during sessions



Activity:  
Completed by all participants during session



Important information/facts:  
Remember these essential facts for the next session



Module summary:  
Read through to gain an overall insight into the module

# MODULE 1

## Understanding creativity



### Instructions to facilitator

- Make copies for each participating educator of the
  - “Introduction: design of the creativity programme”,
  - “Background information to the creativity programme” and
  - Module 1 before the first training session.
- Read through the above pages to gain insight into the background and module.
- Test the Power Point presentation for module 1.
- At the start of the first session, read through or explain to the participants the “Introduction: design of the creativity programme” and the “Background information to the creativity programme”.
- Explain, or allow participants to study, the meaning of the icons.
- Study the session plan to assist you in completing the session within 60 minutes.

<b>Module 1: Session plan</b>	<b>Time</b>
1. Read about the icons	<b>3 min</b>
2. Read and discuss 1.1 “Introduction: the design of the creativity programme”	<b>8 min</b>
3. Read and discuss 1.2 “Background information to the creativity programme”	<b>4 min</b>
4. Read 1.3 “The creative category of this programme: the person”	<b>4 min</b>
5. Complete activity 1: self-test 1 and 2	<b>15 min</b>
6. Complete and discuss activity 2	<b>10 min</b>
7. Read and discuss “Understanding creativity”	<b>5 min</b>
8. Complete and discuss activity 3	<b>8 min</b>
9. Read the module summary	<b>3 min</b>



## 1.1 Introduction: the design of the creativity programme

( 8 min.)

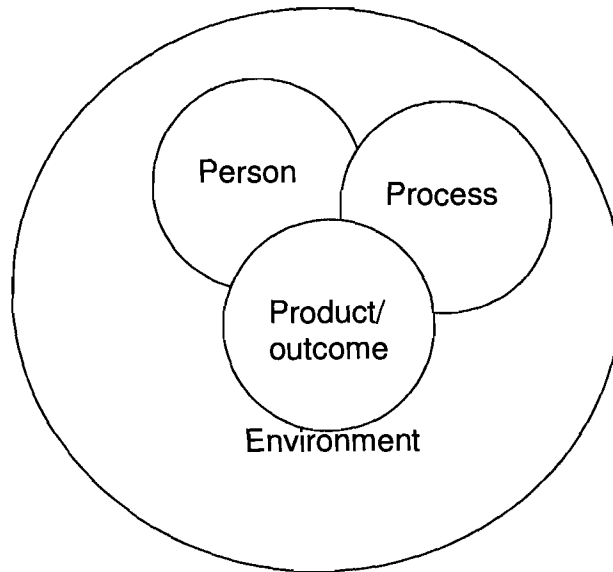
In order to simplify the application of this programme, it has been divided into eight separate modules which can be completed within 60 minutes each.

It is recommended that your school selects an educator to facilitate the programme. The educator/facilitator should prepare for each module to ensure the smooth running and timeous completion of each. This will not be a complicated task or take much time and will be simplified by a power point presentation which is included in the programme. Each module will include a short list of instructions to the facilitator.

The creativity programme will be based on four creative categories which are important in the development of creative skills, viz., the person, the process, the product or the outcome and the environment.

**Research note:**

Over the last fifty years there have been frequent attempts to categorise the study of creativity. Basadur, Runco and Vega (2000:77) cite a large body of research emphasising the four “P’s”, viz. product, person, press (which refers to environment) and process.



*Figure 1: The four creative categories*

*The person:* This programme will include activities to enhance the qualities and skills which are usually associated with creative individuals. This will include the attitudes and coping skills associated with creative ability.

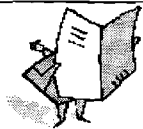
*The process:* The programme will also include the creative processes, ways of doing and finding solutions which will equip you as educators to put creativity into action in order to solve problems and to find new opportunities and possibilities.

*The product/outcome:* Not only processes that will lead to solutions will be addressed, but also ways to ensure that solutions (products or outcomes) are implemented and action guaranteed. This will include gaining insights into planning for the future creatively.

*The environment:* The importance of the environment for the development of creative behaviour has been widely accepted. On the other hand, certain environments can stifle creativity. This programme will give insight into the kinds of creative environments which can be created in the school as workplace which will enable creativity to prosper.

In each module one of these creative categories will be developed. The following table contains a summary of the modules and the creative category it is designed to develop.

<b>Module no.</b>	<b>Module title</b>	<b>Creativity category</b>
1.	Understanding creativity	The person
2.	The primary skills of creativity (1)	The person
3.	The primary skills of creativity (2)	The person
4.	Introducing creative problem solving (CPS)	The process
5.	CPS: finding ideas	The process
6.	CPS: finding solutions and acceptance	The outcome
7.	Creating a vision to sustain creativity	The outcome
8.	The creative school environment	The environment



## **1.2 Background information to the creativity programme**

 **4 min.**

For a few days in May 1998 a huge red box stood in front of the corporate headquarters of Levi Strauss & Co. The highly anticipated opening of the box revealed it to be empty. One of Levi Strauss' top executives explained: "The point is from this day on, we want you (the employees) to think outside the box". This is one of many examples of how organisations promote innovative and creative thinking. Research over several years has shown that creativity can be developed and trained, that creative employees are more energetic, open to new ideas and to finding solutions to problems. Furthermore, research has found that higher creativity resulted in improved employee morale and staff retention, increased cost savings and a reduction in wastage, a safer working environment and even improved general health.

Research in education has also suggested that the educator as role model is a powerful aid to fostering the creativity of learners and that learners in the classes of creative educators are often cooperative, friendly, excited and interested. Unfortunately, where an educator's own creativity is stifled, it would seem unlikely that learners' creativity would be fostered effectively. Both learners and educators are at a disadvantage when educators are not creative.

In many South African schools today, a climate of **psychological insecurity** prevails because of, amongst others, work overload, indiscipline, violence, change, the climate in the classroom and management style. This is a reality for most educators, although **you as an educator are guaranteed various rights**. As stated in the Bill of Rights, your rights include an environment that is not harmful to your health or well-being, the right to bodily and psychological integrity, the rights to dignity, equality and fair labour practices. Other legislation also protects the rights of educators in the workplace, directly or indirectly. The question is: how can this gap between the rights afforded educators in their workplace by legislation and the realities in South Africa today be diminished? One answer is that educators need a **coping mechanism** for dealing with this kind of work environment.

**Research note:**

Numerous research studies have concluded that the stress that educators suffer, can manifest itself on an emotional as well as on a physical level (Olivier & Venter, 2003:188; Jarvis, 2002; Van der Linde, Van der Westhuizen & Wissing, 1999:192-194).

Although research has shown that creative educators suffer many stress symptoms because of the prevailing school environment, they generally cope better with many insecurities in their workplace. The motivation for a creativity programme for educators was to design a coping mechanism that may assist educators to deal better with psychological insecurities in their schools and one which would serve towards actualising the rights afforded educators by labour and other legislation.

This study resulted in the design of a creativity programme which could be applied in schools as a creativity training programme for educators.



### 1.3 The creative category of this module: the person (🕒 4 min.)

Numerous research studies have identified certain personality characteristics which are peculiar to creative thinkers. These are wide ranging and include openness, willingness to risk, curiosity, tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility and many more. In modules one to three, the emphasis will fall on developing some of these characteristics. Because the success of the development of creativity is largely dependent on the attitudes of the participants and because creative ability is often associated with a **positive attitude towards solution finding**, more modules have been designed around the development of the creative person.



#### Activity 1 (🕒 15 min.)

*Complete the following two questionnaires. Be completely open and honest with yourself. Your responses are for your eyes only. It is important to remember that **self-evaluation and a desire to improve** are qualities associated with creativity.*

#### Self-test 1

	YES	NO
1. Are you enthusiastic about change (about doing things differently?)		
2. Are you trying to make a difference (at work, in the world)?		
3. Are you open to new suggestions?		
4. Do you like to take risks?		
5. Are you curious, always wanting to know?		
6. Do you regularly share new ideas with others?		
7. Are you constantly looking for solutions when confronted with problems?		
8. Can you tolerate ambiguity?		
9. Do you fantasise, have a strong imagination?		
10. Do you consider the opinions of others without clinging rigidly to your own beliefs?		
11. Do you have a sense of humour – do you laugh at yourself and when others do not see the funny side?		
12. Are you constantly seeking for a better understanding of yourself?		

13. Do you often prefer to “do your own thing” rather than be instructed?		
14. Do you refrain from judging others’ ideas until you have considered all the possibilities?		
15. Can you tolerate strange, novel, even weird suggestions without closing your mind to them?		
(From: Neethling, K. & Rutherford, R. 2005. Creativity uncovered)		

**How did you do?**

Add up all the YES answers.

13 or more show that you are, or have the attitude to become, a very creative person. 9 or less is an indication that you have several barriers blocking you from your natural ability to be creative. This programme will teach you how to break down these barriers and develop fresh attitudes.

**Self-test 2: Tick the “excuses” you use on a regular basis.**

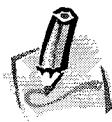
- That’s not my job
- That will never work here
- We’ve already tried that
- Maybe later
- That sounds like work
- It will cost too much
- Why change?
- Don’t rock the boat
- It’s never been done before
- Let’s be realistic
- You’ll never get people to agree
- It’s impossible
- That’s not our problem
- We’ve always done it this way
- Rather the devil you know
- It’s just too much trouble
- You are right, but....

- We're just not ready for this
- We don't have enough staff, time, money
- Let's stick with what works

### How did you do?

More than 12 ticks show a strong resistance to trying something new and taking some risks. You are probably uncomfortable with change. Even if you only ticked a few, using any of these excuses regularly can become a problem for creativity.

Understanding that these are CLOSED MIND EXCUSES is a starting point for change. During this programme you will be shown how to **check your language**, and to **change your closed comments** to open questions in order to find solutions instead of excuses not to act.



### Activity 2 (🕒 10 min.)

*Discuss why the excuses of self-test 2 can block creativity.*



### 1.2 Understanding creativity (🕒 5 min.)

Paul Torrance, the father of creativity, said,

“In almost every field of human achievement, creativity is usually the distinguishing characteristic of the truly eminent. The possession of high intelligence, special talent and high technical skills are not enough to produce outstanding achievement.”

Before embarking on a programme to develop your creativity, it is essential to understand the **essence of creativity**. Here are a few insights regarding creativity:

- You do not have to be artistic to be creative.
- Creativity can be developed by everyone.
- Creativity can be applied in teaching, business, relationships, parenting and most areas of your life.

- Creativity demands a positive attitude towards life, problems and situations.
- Therefore creative thinkers see challenges instead of problems and obstacles.
- Here are some of the many definitions to describe creativity.

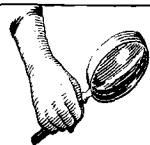
Creativity is:

- ❖ wanting to know
- ❖ challenging the ordinary
- ❖ shifting paradigms
- ❖ never saying never
- ❖ singing in your own key
- ❖ seeing the flip-side
- ❖ digging deeper
- ❖ looking at the world with fresh eyes
- ❖ *Add some of your own!*
- ❖



### **Activity 3 ( 8 min.)**

*Discuss why young children are generally more creative than adults.*



### **1.3 Module summary ( 3 min.)**

- Creativity can be developed
- Everyone can be creative
- Negative attitudes or closed mind excuses can keep us from developing our creativity
- You don't have to be artistic to be creative
- There is a strong link between outstanding achievement and creativity

***“Creativity is looking at the world with fresh eyes”***

**Kobus Neethling**

## MODULE 2

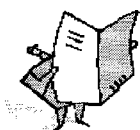
### The five primary skills of creativity (1)



#### Instructions to facilitator

- Make copies for each participating educator of module 2.
- Test the Power Point presentation for module 2.
- Read through module 2 to gain insight into the content of the module.
- Study the session plan to assist you in completing the session within 45 minutes.

Module 2: Session plan	Time
1. Discuss the creative insights remembered from Module 1	5 min
2. Read and discuss "The creative category of this module: the person"	2 min
3. Read and discuss "Fluency: generating many alternatives"	3 min
4. Complete and discuss activity 1	10 min
5. Complete and discuss activity 2	10 min
6. Complete and discuss activity 3	10 min
7. Read and discuss "Originality: unconventional and novel ideas"	5 min
8. Complete and discuss activity 4	12 min
9. Read the module summary	3 min



#### 2.1 The creative category of this module: the person (2 min.)



In module 1 you were assured that all people can be creative. Unfortunately, when asked, most people are of the opinion that they are uncreative, mostly because they cannot draw very well! Remember, **artistic ability is not a prerequisite for creativity**. What then are the skills and abilities of the creative person? Although many skills and characteristics are attributed to creative people, there are five which are seen as the primary skills. They are

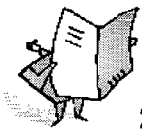
- fluency

- originality
- elaboration
- focus on the essence and
- resistance to thinking closure.

During this module, two of the skills which form the essence for developing into a creative individual, viz., FLUENCY and ORIGINALITY will be developed. In the next module elaboration, focus on the essence and resistance to thinking closure will be covered.

**Research note:**

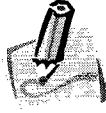
Torrance (1979:25-74), seen as one of the pioneers of the creative movement, found in his study of creative thinkers that they possess fluent thinking, originality, the ability to highlight the essence, the skill of elaboration and psychological openness.



**2.2 Fluency: generating many alternatives (🕒 3 min.)**

In creativity, quantity counts. It is important to break the barriers of “the one right answer” and “the only way that will work” in order to become a fluent thinker. Emilé Chartier said, “*Nothing is more dangerous than an idea when it’s the only one you have.*”

Educators need to think of different ways to teach, to discipline, to motivate and to test knowledge. Educators also need to **find alternative ways to deal with stress and insecurities in their environment**. Problems often seem far more serious, because we fail to go into “a solution mode”. We just do not think we have the answers. In order to start developing the creativity skill of fluency, we need to change our closed responses to alternative seeking questions.



**Activity 1 (🕒 10 min.)**

Complete the table, filling in the open-ended and alternative seeking questions. (Complete individually and then discuss in your group.)

Closed responses	Seeking alternatives
1. This is impossible.	1. What else will work?
2. This won't work.	2. Why not try it?
3. This is how we do it here.	3.
4. This is the only possibility.	4.
5. Accept nothing will change.	5.
6. We don't have enough money.	6.
7. Everybody feels the same.	7.
8. Don't argue.	8.

It is important to practise the skill of fluency. The following activities are designed to develop agile thinking skills and to break the habit of always accepting "the one right answer".



**Activity 2 (🕒 10 min.)**

Write down as many ways as possible to praise/compliment others for something done well. You have 3 minutes. (Complete individually and then discuss in the group.)

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### Activity 3 (🕒 10 min.)

Write down as many uses you can think of for a pencil in 3 minutes.

(Complete individually and then discuss in the group.)

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(If you got stuck, think of concepts like jewellery, weapons, utensils, etc.)



### 2.3 Originality: unconventional and novel ideas

(🕒 5 min.)

Fluency does not guarantee originality, but increases the chances that more original ideas will be produced. Most of us have established habits and are confined to conventional ways of doing and looking at things. The original thinker sees beyond the ordinary, tries to make a difference and strives to produce, not reproduce.

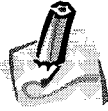
Albert Einstein said, “We can’t solve problems by using the same kind of thinking we used when we created them.” When problems seem to overwhelm us, creativity helps us ***not to go under, but to go beyond.***

Originality helps us to have ***a breakthrough, not a breakdown!***



**In order to become an original thinker, you need to:**

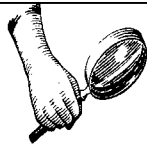
- Make mental leaps
- Have the courage to venture into the unusual
- Have to be less judgmental regarding new ideas
- See beyond the ordinary.



#### Activity 4 (🕒 12 min.)

Think of ways for educators at your school to cope with the excessive workload. The categories are: time management; other role players; team efforts. Think of unusual ideas. Work in groups.

Time management	Other role players	Team efforts



#### 2.4 Module summary (🕒 3 min.)

- To become creative, we have to develop certain skills: artistic ability is not one of them!
- To become creative, we have to generate many alternative ideas.
- Creative people do not accept that there is always only one way or one answer.
- Creative people have the courage to be unconventional and to go beyond the ordinary.
- The original thinker is less judgmental about new ideas.

***“Imagination is more important than knowledge”***

***Albert Einstein***

## MODULE 3

### The five primary skills of creativity (2)



#### Instructions to facilitator

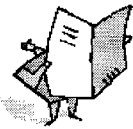
- Make copies for each participating educator of module 3.
- Test the Power Point presentation for module 3.
- Read through module 3 to gain insight into the content of the module.
- Study the session plan to assist you in completing the session within 45 minutes.

<b>Module 3: Session plan</b>	<b>Time</b>
1. Discuss the creative insights remembered from Module 2	<b>5 min</b>
2. Read and discuss "The creative category of this module: the person"	<b>2 min</b>
3. Read and discuss "Elaboration: refine and develop ideas"	<b>4 min</b>
4. Complete and discuss activity 1	<b>12 min</b>
5. Read and discuss "Focus on the essence: understanding the heart, soul, essence of the problem/situation"	<b>4 min</b>
6. Complete and discuss activity 2, A and B	<b>10 min</b>
7. Read and discuss "Resistance to thinking closure: keeping an open mind, being receptive"	<b>4 min</b>
8. Complete and discuss activity 3	<b>6 min</b>
9. Complete and discuss activity 4	<b>10 min</b>
10. Read the module summary	<b>3 min</b>



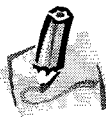
### 3.1 The creative category of this module: the person ( 2 min.)

This module is a continuation of module 2. In module 2 you were introduced to two of the five primary skills of creativity. They were fluency and originality. In module 3 the remaining three skills, ELABORATION, FOCUS ON THE ESSENCE and RESISTANCE TO THINKING CLOSURE will be addressed. Although most creative people do not possess all the creative skills in equal measure, it is to our advantage to develop as many of them as possible.



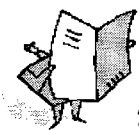
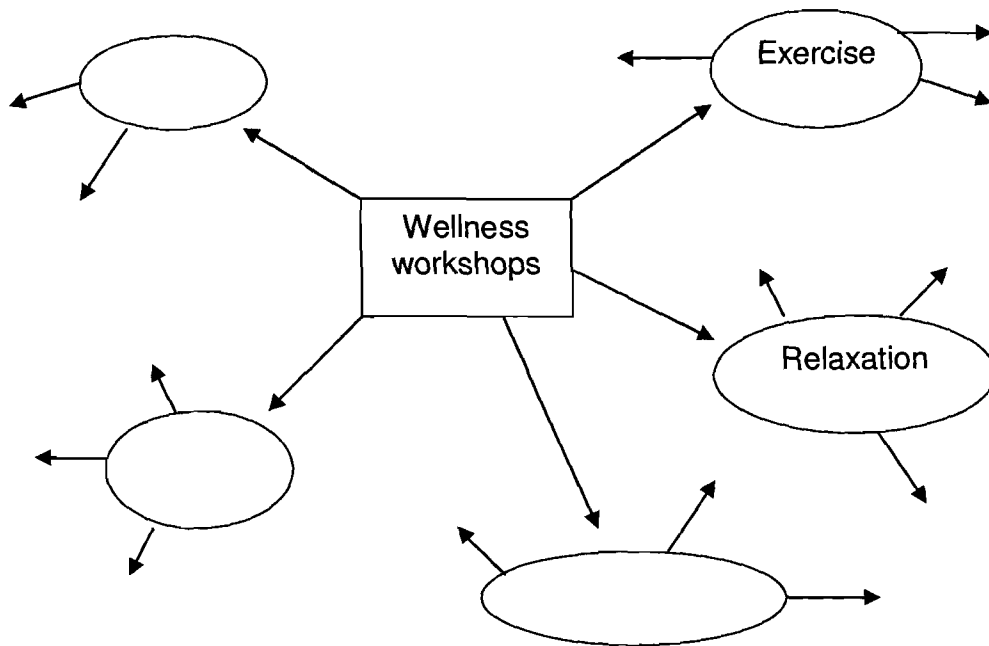
### 3.2 Elaboration: refine and develop ideas ( 4 min.)

Many creative ideas are lost, because they simply stay ideas. Creativity in action means we have to build on, refine and develop our ideas to enjoy their value. The creativity skill of elaboration helps us to produce something which can be used or applied, to plan something new and to convince others that our idea can work.



#### Activity 1 ( 12 min.)

*You would like to help educators cope with stress in your school. You have to sell your creative idea for wellness workshops to your colleagues. Fill in the concepts (like exercise, relaxation, meditation, etc.) and the details of the mind map to elaborate on your idea. A mind map is a diagram with a central idea and linked items displayed around it. It is often used to generate new and creative ideas.*



### 3.3 Focus on the essence: understanding the heart, the soul, the essence of the problem/situation (🕒 4 min.)

The creative ability to highlight the essence of situations and problems assists us to discard the irrelevant, to establish priorities and to allow the **single most important aspect**, problem or idea to become dominant. Developing this skill often helps us to “get to the point” and not to waste time because we missed the true heart, the essence of the situation. When you are unable to focus on the essence, it is like climbing a high ladder with great effort, only to realise at the top that the ladder was against the wrong wall.



#### Activity 2 (🕒 10 min.)

**A.** Write a slogan (not more than eight words) to advertise your school, catching the essence of what you stand for. Work in groups.

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**B.** Read through the following and write the essence of the statistics in a short sentence. Complete individually and then discuss in groups.

When measured on the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking®, 98% of children from 3 to 5 years reveal a superior level of creative behaviour; at the age of 10 years only 32 % of children are still at this level and at the age of 15 the figure drops to 10%. Of adults above the age of 25 years, only 2% are still superior in their creative behaviour.

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### 3.4 Resistance to thinking closure: keeping an open mind, being receptive (🕒 4 min.)

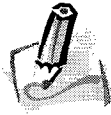
Creative thinking is mostly blocked by our inability to stay open long enough to discover possibilities and opportunities in ideas and situations. Our minds tend to close, because we

- jump to conclusions
- tend to stereotype
- resist what we do not understand or recognise immediately
- are intolerant to ambiguity
- resist giving up our old habits.

The creative person does not have to accept every new suggestion or idea, but the creative person should never say NO immediately. Defer judgment, ask “why not?” rather than “why?”, search for why it could work before accepting it won't. A way to start is to revisit all your habits (the way you travel to school, the way you discipline your learners, your fund raising projects, your attitude towards change) and to try something new.

#### **Research note:**

Lilly and Bramwell-Rejskind (2004:103) cite Starko who includes, amongst others, the willingness to take risks, perseverance, drive, commitment to task, curiosity, openness to experience and tolerance for ambiguity in the personality characteristics of the creative thinkers.



**Activity 3 (🕒 6 min.)**

*Find similarities between the following (don't say it's impossible!). Complete individually and then discuss in the group.*

**A. a fish and a bench (e.g. you find them both in schools, they both come in different shapes)**

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**B. teaching and eating ice cream**

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**Activity 4 (🕒 10 min.)**

*Write a list of at least four things that you have always thought would be impossible to do (e.g. improve discipline, have excellent relationships with most learners etc.). Work in groups.*

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_
3. \_\_\_\_\_
4. \_\_\_\_\_

*Now write a few open-minded ideas of how these could become realities (always assume things can be done – and then find ways to get there).*

1. \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_

2. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

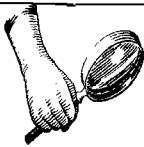
3. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

4. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_



### 3.5 Module summary (🕒 3 min.)

- To ensure that ideas become realities, we have to develop, or elaborate on those ideas.
- Before tackling a problem, we need to make sure we understand the essence of the problem or situation.
- Creative people do not judge new ideas and ways of doing simply because they are unknown.
- Creative people stay open-minded long enough to find possibilities and opportunities in new suggestions and ideas.

***“Man’s mind stretched by a new idea never goes back to its original dimensions.”***

***Oliver Wendall Holmes***

## MODULE 4

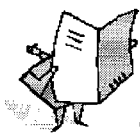
### Introducing creative problem solving (CPS)



#### Instructions to facilitator

- Make copies for each participating educator of module 4.
- Test the Power point presentation for module 4.
- Read through module 4 to gain insight into the content of the module.
- Study the session plan to assist you in completing the session within 45 minutes.

Module 4: Session plan	Time
1. Discuss the creative insights remembered from Module 3	5 min
2. Read and discuss "The creative category of this module: the process"	3 min
3. Read and discuss "The steps of CPS"	6 min
4. Complete and discuss activity 1	25 min
5. Complete and discuss activity 2	18 min
6. Read the module summary	3 min



#### 4.1 The category of this module: the process (🕒 3 min.)

The development of creativity starts with the person who develops creative skills and attitudes. But the creative person also needs to develop creative ways to work, teach and solve problems, for instance. Developing creativity therefore also includes developing creative processes, techniques and actions. Several different creative processes have been developed over the last number of decades. These processes have different steps that lead **from problem situations to solutions**. The best known and most widely used process, designed by Alex Osborn and Sydney Parnes, is called CPS (Creative Problem Solving process). Many good ideas (and intensions) are lost because we do not put them into practice. Applying the CPS is one way to ensure that **ideas are put into action** and to solve problems creatively.

**Research note:**

Over the last sixty years ongoing research and development has shown CPS to be a powerful and effective method for igniting creative potential and making productive change (Isaksen & Treffinger, 2004:95).



**4.2 The steps of CPS (🕒 6 min.)**

In order to ensure that problems are solved and do not get us down, we can apply the process called CPS. This process consists of 5 steps. They are:



**Step 1: Problem finding**

Before we can start solving a problem, we need to make sure that we understand the real problem, the essence of the problem.

**Step 2: Fact finding**

Once we understand our problem, we should gather facts about the problem in order to solve it.

**Step 3: Idea finding**

During this step, we apply creativity techniques to generate many ideas (fluency) in order to find those that may become possible solutions.

**Step 4: Solution finding**

Now we select our best ideas and develop them into workable solutions.

### Step 5: Acceptance finding

Once we have developed a solution, we have to **sell** it to others and present an **action plan**.

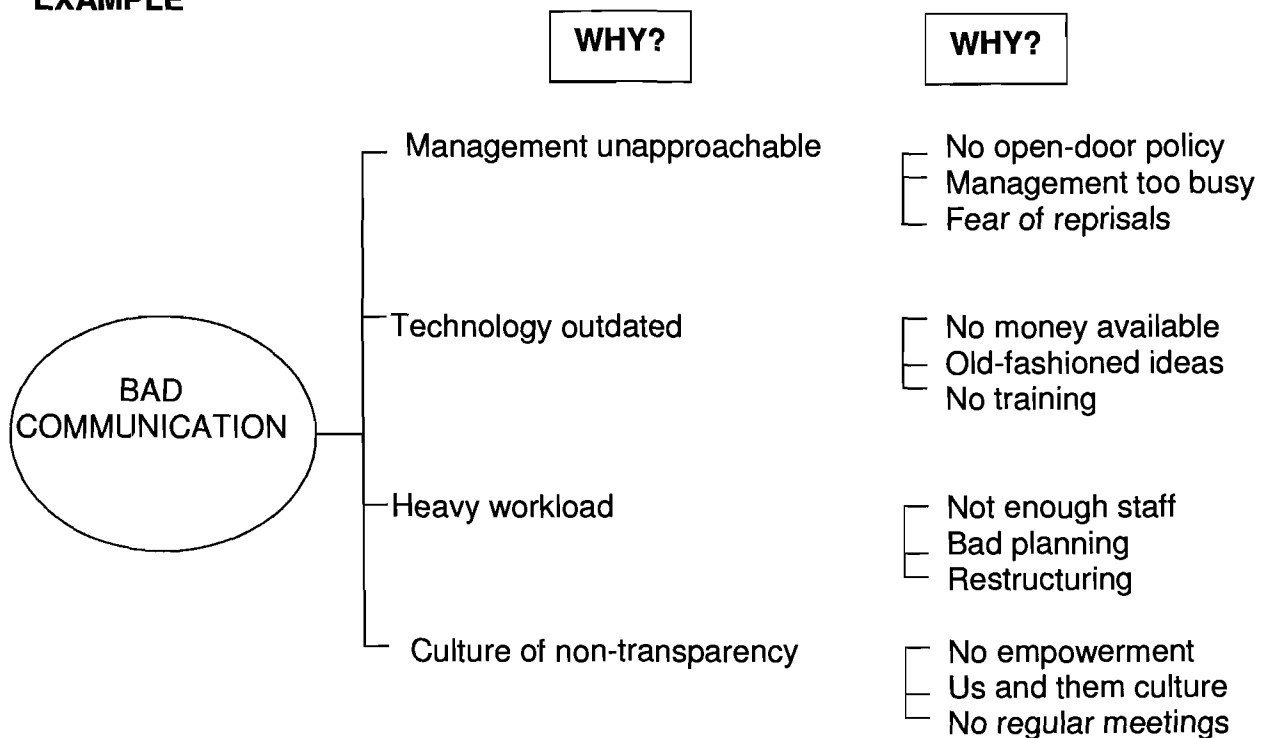
During this module, we will apply techniques to complete step 1 and 2 of CPS.



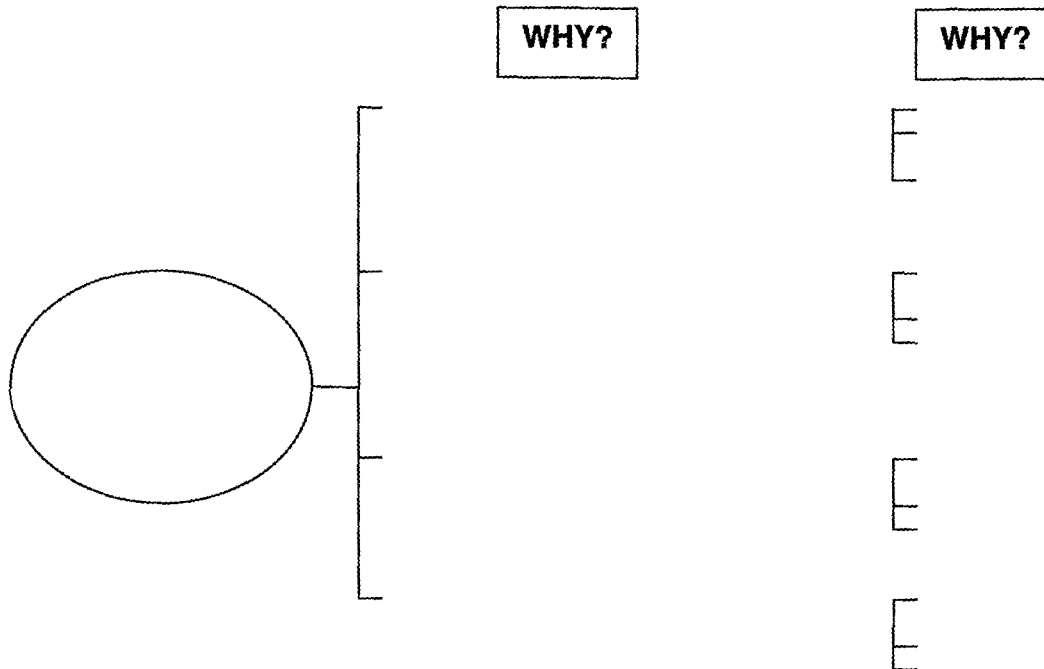
### **Activity 1** (🕒 25 min.)

Step 1: problem finding. In order to make sure that the problem is well understood, we can use the Why?Why? technique. In the example below, the problem is bad communication. In the first column the question why? is asked and again in the second column regarding the answers in the first column. This may, for instance, reveal that management style is the real problem and not communication. You may also add a third or fourth column.

### **EXAMPLE**



Work on the problem of learner indiscipline, or other serious problems you are dealing with at school at present to find if you understand the essence of the problem. You may add a third and fourth column if you want. Work in groups.



What new insights did this exercise reveal regarding your problem?

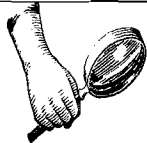


**Activity 2 (🕒 18 min.)**

Step 2: fact finding. Using a **facts matrix** helps us to see all the facts at once, to make connections and to test opinions. Opinions are important, as they often point towards facts that may otherwise be ignored.

Write at least *TWO* facts regarding the problem you worked on in activity 1 under each heading. Fill in your own heading in the open space. Work in groups.

WHO	WHEN	WHY		OPINIONS



#### 4.3 Module summary 3 min.)

- The creative person needs to learn creative processes - creative ways to do things and solve problems.
- CPS is a creativity process which takes us from problem finding, fact finding, idea finding, solution finding to acceptance finding.
- The **WHY?WHY?** technique assists us to ensure that we understand the real problem, the essence of the situation.
- When using the **Facts Matrix**, we can ensure that we gather all the facts needed to solve the problem.

***“Creative thinking is not a talent; it is a skill that can be learnt. It empowers people...”***

***Edward de Bono***

## MODULE 5

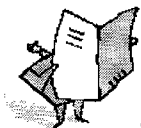
### CPS: finding ideas



#### Instructions to facilitator

- Make copies for each participating educator of module 5.
- Test the Power Point presentation for module 5.
- Read through module 5 to gain insight into the content of the module.
- Study the session plan to assist you in completing the session within 45 minutes.

Module 5: Session plan	Time
1. Discuss the creative insights remembered from Module 4	<b>5 min</b>
2. Read and discuss “The creative category of this module: the process”	<b>3 min</b>
3. Read and discuss “Idea finding rules”	<b>4 min</b>
4. Read and discuss “The problem statement”	<b>2 min</b>
5. Complete and discuss activity 1	<b>25 min</b>
6. Complete and discuss activity 2	<b>18 min</b>
7. Read the module summary	<b>3 min</b>



#### **5.1 The creative category of this module: the process (🕒 3 min.)**

In the previous module, you were introduced to one of the best-known creativity processes in the world, CPS. The five steps of this process were also explained. Just to remind you, they are: ***problem finding, fact finding, idea finding, solutions finding and acceptance finding***. You were shown techniques to apply in problem finding and fact finding. During this module, you will be introduced to techniques for idea finding.

**Research note:**

Basadur, Graen and Green (as cited by Basadur, Runco & Vega, 2000:84) measured the impact of creative problem-solving training on individuals in business immediately after training and after their return to work. The results showed that creativity training increased idea and evaluation skills.



**5.2 Idea finding rules (🕒 4 min.)**

Once you understand the real problem and have gathered the facts to assist you to understand and solve the problem, it is time to generate ideas that may become solutions. When generating ideas, remember to be:

- ❖ Non-judgmental (do not criticise!)
- ❖ Courageous (even outrageous!)
- ❖ Energetic (do not stop the flow with long discussions and explanations)
- ❖ Fluent (do not stop until you have numerous ideas)
- ❖ Open-minded (assume it can be done – then find ways to make it happen).



**5.3 The problem statement (🕒 2 min.)**

When solving problems creatively, we want to start in the right frame of mind. Therefore, do not phrase problems negatively, e.g.

“We have too much work”. State the problem in a positive and solution seeking way:

**“In which ways might we cope with our workload?”**



**Activity 1 (25 min.)**

Step 3: Idea finding. Normally people consider two or three alternative ideas before making a decision. If you apply creativity techniques, you will be able to generate numerous ideas in a short time from which you can select the best. There are hundreds of these techniques. There are various books on the subject and websites with examples. To start you off, here is one creativity technique:

**“Copy and paste”.** When using this technique, you select the two key words of your problem as the heading of two columns. Under each, you generate a number of associations (not synonyms). To find ideas to solve your problem, connect words from column A with words from column B. Part of the table has been filled in for you.

**Your problem: In which ways might we improve school discipline?**

SCHOOL	DISCIPLINE
Learners	Punishment
Educators	Rules
Classrooms	Self
Periods	Order
Exams	Army
Grounds	Germany
Building	❖
Fish	❖
❖	❖
❖	❖
❖	❖
❖	❖

*Work in groups. Fill in the rest of the column and connect words to find creative ideas. (In case you wondered: “a school of fish” and “Germans are disciplined”)*

**Idea examples:** learners + army = appoint class leaders, each with their own lieutenants, each with their own privates to create a hierarchy of discipline keepers.

Grounds + Germany: declare indiscipline hotspots on school grounds “no man’s land” . Now you try. Be creative!

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**Activity 2** (🕒 18 min.)

*Work in groups. State a problem you would like to solve:*

“In which ways might we \_\_\_\_\_”

This technique is called “**Work out**”. This is how it works:

- ❖ Choose a job/career that is not close to your own (e.g. fighter pilot)
- ❖ Write a list of everything you know about the job (e.g. works in the sky; needs to be courageous; works only in war/battles; wears a uniform)
- ❖ Connect each item on the list with your problem to find ideas
- ❖ E.g. when dealing with the problem of indiscipline, the comment “works in the sky” can give the ideas:
  - Give rewards (reach for the sky) for good discipline
  - Install “sky cameras” in class and grounds to identify offenders





#### 5.4 Module summary (🕒 3 min.)

- Creativity techniques assist us to generate many ideas in a short time in order to solve problems.
- When applying creativity techniques to generate ideas, we need to follow certain rules in order to encourage flow in the process.
- When applying the technique **Copy and paste**, we generate two lists of words using the two key words in the problem statement as the trigger words for associations.
- In the technique **Work out** we choose a job and then create a list of everything we know about this job. These elements are then connected with our problem in order to find ideas.

***“It is better to have enough ideas for some of them to be wrong,  
than to be always right by having no ideas at all”***

***Edward de Bono***

## MODULE 6

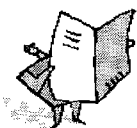
### CPS: finding solutions and acceptance



#### Instructions to facilitator

- Make copies for each participating educator of module 6.
- Test the Power Point presentation for module 6.
- Ensure that the ideas generated during activity 2 of module 5 are available for this module.
- Read through module 6 to gain insight into the content of the module.
- Study the session plan to assist you in completing the session within 45 minutes.

Module 6: Session plan	Time
1. Discuss the creative insights remembered from Module 5	5 min
2. Read and discuss "The creative category of this module: the outcome"	3 min
3. Read and discuss "Solution finding"	3 min
4. Complete and discuss activity 1	8 min
5. Complete and discuss activity 2	8 min
6. Complete and discuss activity 3	18 min
7. Read and discuss "Acceptance finding"	2 min
8. Complete and discuss activity 4	10 min
9. Read the module summary	3 min



#### 6.1 The creative category of this module: the outcome ( 3 min.)

In the previous two modules, you were following the steps of the creativity processes, CPS. You have now completed

- ❖ step 1: **problem finding** by applying the technique WHY?WHY?

- ❖ step 2: **fact finding** by applying the technique the FACTS MATRIX
- ❖ step 3: **idea finding** by applying the techniques COPY AND PASTE and WORK OUT.

During this module you will be completing the final two steps: solution finding and acceptance finding. These steps conclude the process and bring us to the **outcome, the product or the solution** to our problem. To be able to reach a successful and satisfying outcome, we need to refine and develop the solution or product and then we need to find acceptance of the outcome from other role players.

**Research note:**

Creative ability is often associated with a positive attitude towards solution finding (Harris, 1998:1; Parnes (ed), 1992:62, 134; Daniels, 2002) and succinctly summed up in the words of Virgil: "They can who think they can" (Harris, 1998:1).



## 6.2 Solution finding (🕒 3 min.)

Once you have generated many ideas, you have to

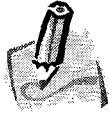
- ❖ evaluate and select your best ideas
- ❖ and develop and refine the ideas into workable solutions.

There are several ways of selecting the best ideas. During this module you will be introduced to one such technique. But what is also important when selecting ideas, is to keep in mind the criteria that would be deciding factors for that particular solution.

**Criteria** could for instance be:

- ❖ R2000 available
- ❖ Two months for completion
- ❖ Five available educators

Any idea that does not adhere to these criteria would therefore automatically not be considered.



**Activity 1** (🕒 8 min.)

One easy way of selecting ideas to develop into solutions, is called the **Three Bin technique**. The three bins are NOW, for ideas that can be implemented immediately, LATER, for ideas that can be implemented, but where certain things have to be put in place first (money, processes, people) and ON HOLD, for those good ideas that may work later, but not at present. These can move up to the later or now bin in time.

*Look at all the ideas you generated during activity 2 of Module 5. Evaluate these ideas and select the best by placing them in the three bins.*

NOW	LATER	ON HOLD
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

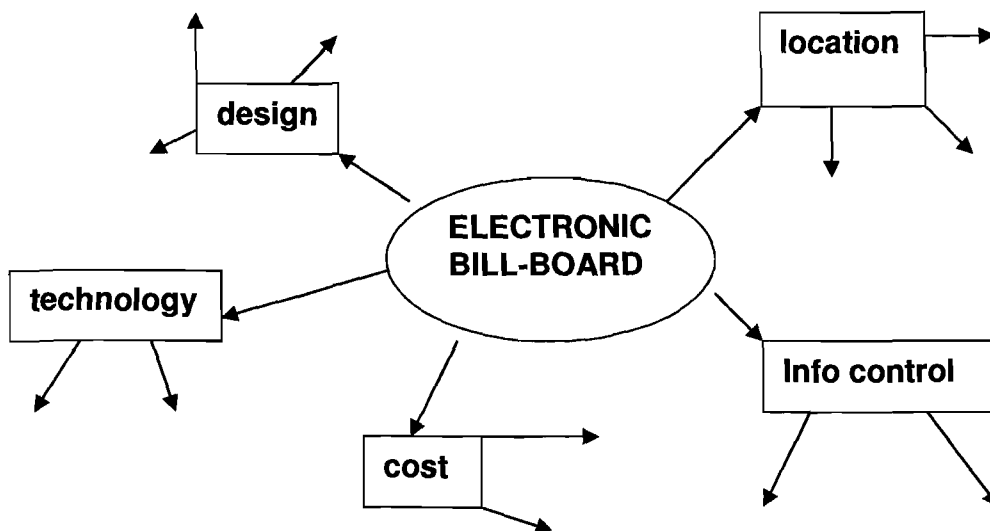


## Activity 2 (🕒 8 min.)

One of the best ways to develop and refine ideas into solutions is the **Mind map**. This technique works on the principle of MAIN IDEA → CONCEPTS → DETAILS.

Here is an example:

An electronic bill-board was an idea to improve communication in your school. The **Mind map** of the idea can look like this:



*Fill in the missing details that could further develop this idea on this mind map.*



### Activity 3 (🕒 18 min.)

Choose an idea from your NOW bin and design a **Mind map** to develop this idea. Work in groups.



### 6.3 Acceptance finding (🕒 2 min.)

In order to find acceptance for your solutions, in other words to **sell it to others**, you need to prepare yourself for resistance and negative and fault-finding remarks. One way to do this, is to think of all those remarks yourself and then have answers ready.



### Activity 4 (🕒 10 min.)

Fill in the following table regarding your solution from activity 3. In the Positives column, fill in all the positive and strong points of your solution. In the Negatives column, fill in all the negative arguments that may be brought against the solution (e.g. too expensive, too time-consuming etc.). Work in groups.

Positives	Negatives

*Now write down all your counter-arguments that will sell the solution.*

Negatives	Counter-arguments



#### 6.4 Module summary ( 3 min.)

- After generating many ideas, the next step of CPS is to evaluate and select ideas.
- The THREE BIN technique is one way of selecting ideas.
- The next step is to develop and refine the idea into a solution. The MIND MAP is one way of achieving this.
- In order to sell the solution in order to gain acceptance, THE POSITIVES AND NEGATIVES table is completed. In this way counter-arguments can be put forward.

***“If at first the idea is not absurd, then there is no hope for it.”***  
***Albert Einstein***

## MODULE 7

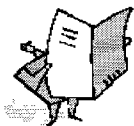
### Creating a vision to sustain creativity



#### Instructions to facilitator

- Make copies for each participating educator of module 7.
- Test the *Power Point* presentation for module 7.
- Read through module 7 to gain insight into the content of the module.
- Ensure that educators bring all the previous modules to this session.
- Study the session plan to assist you in completing the session within 45 minutes.

Module 7: Session plan	Time
1. Discuss the creative insights remembered from Module 6	5 min
2. Read and discuss "The creative category of this module: the outcome"	3 min
3. Read and discuss "Creating a future vision"	3 min
4. Complete and discuss activity 1	12 min
5. Complete and discuss activity 2	10 min
6. Complete and discuss activity 3	12 min
7. Complete and discuss activity 4	12 min
8. Read the module summary	3 min



#### 7.1 The creative category of this module: the outcome (🕒 3 min.)

In module 5 and 6 you completed the world-renowned creativity process called CPS. This process took you through a step by step process from identifying a problem to solving the problem. When we apply creativity processes and techniques, we learn to change our attitudes: we become solution seekers instead of problem finders. That is one reason why creative people usually have a more positive attitude towards life: **they see obstacles and problems as challenges and as solutions waiting to**

**happen.** The more creative you become, the more you aim your thoughts towards a positive outcome.

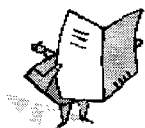


**In order to sustain a positive attitude towards finding solutions and outcomes, remember:**

- ❖ The world is dynamic and few things will stay the same for long
- ❖ Solutions that work today, may be outdated or ineffective soon
- ❖ We need to stay flexible in order to cope with the changing world
- ❖ One failure, disappointment or setback, is just that. It is not the end of the world, it is not proof of constant failure. In fact, the best lessons are learnt through mistakes.

**Research note:**

Scott (1995:67) cites various researchers, such as Pierson, who found that creative people “tend to take responsibility for their own actions rather than point to outside causes or influences”.



**7.2 Creating a future vision (🕒 3 min.)**

In order to sustain creativity in the workplace, educators should create a future vision that is built on a positive attitude, on finding solutions and on creating opportunities. The next few activities will assist you in designing these visions and goals.



**Activity 1 (🕒 12 min.)**

*Look through the modules of this programme that you have completed so far and make a list of the elements that you consider important enough to include in a future vision. For example, “creative skills have to be developed”; “creativity means open-mindedness”; “CPS is a process that will ensure solutions”. Work in groups.*

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*Using some of these elements that you as a group agree on, formulate a vision statement that will ensure that creativity is sustained in your school.*

**Vision statement:**

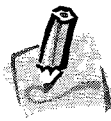


**Activity 2 (🕒 10 min.)**

*In order to make this vision a reality, some changes will probably have to be made. What has to be changed and what changes would you like to see? Do not shy away from some hard truths! Work in groups.*

Now	Future
e.g. People complain when things go wrong. People use “closed mind excuses” why things won’t work/improve 1. 2.	Apply creativity techniques to find solutions. Start changing language from “this is why we can’t” to “to this is how we can”

3.	
4.	
5.	

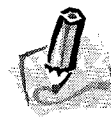


**Activity 3 (🕒 12 min.)**

*If your attitude is positive, problems are only solutions waiting to happen. As you learnt during CPS, you need to first understand and state your problem before you try to solve it. In the following table, state all the problems that you experience at school at present and then restate them in a solution finding way. Work in groups.*

Problem	Restated
e.g. resistance to change lots of negativity	In which ways might we embrace change? In which ways might we change negativity into positive thinking?
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

***Decide to take action regarding these problems!!***

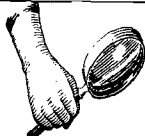


**Activity 4 (🕒 12 min.)**

Attitude and positive talk are very important elements for sustaining creativity in your school. Identify the negative attitudes and emotions that at times are prominent in your school. Replace these with a positive alternative. Work in groups.

A. Negative attitude and emotion	B. Replace with
e.g. blaming frustration aggression  1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Take responsibility</li> <li>○ Patience</li> <li>○ Refocus energy on solving the problem</li> </ul>

*Choose one attribute from column A that you are most guilty of. Tell one other person what you chose. In the next week, work hard at changing this attitude into the positive from column B, while your colleague monitors your behaviour.*



### 7.3 Module summary ( 3 min.)

- Creativity can be sustained in your school if you deliberately develop a creativity vision.
- It is important to keep in mind that the world and the school are dynamic environments and that we should be flexible and expect the unexpected.
- Creativity can be sustained if problems are constantly restated in a solution finding way and worked on (“In which ways might we ...”).
- To sustain creativity each educator should work on his/her attitude in order to become solution seekers in stead of problem finders.

***“No matter how old you get, if you can keep the desire to be creative, you're keeping the man-child alive “***

***John Cassavetes***

## MODULE 8

### The creative school environment



#### Instructions to facilitator

- Make copies for each participating educator of module 8.
- Test the Power Point presentation for module 8.
- Read through module 8 to gain insight into the content of the module.
- Study the session plan to assist you in completing the session within 45 minutes.

<b>Module 8: Session plan</b>	<b>Time</b>
1. Discuss the creative insights remembered from Module 7	<b>5 min</b>
2. Read and discuss "The creative category of this module: the environment"	<b>2 min</b>
3. Complete and discuss activity 1	<b>15 min</b>
4. Complete and discuss activity 2	<b>15 min</b>
5. Complete and discuss activity 3	<b>10 min</b>
6. Complete and discuss activity 4	<b>10 min</b>
7. Read the module summary	<b>3 min</b>



#### **8.1 The creative category of this module: the environment (🕒 2 min.)**

For creativity to flourish, an environment should be created that would encourage and sustain creative thinking and behaviour. The creative environment consists of a **PSYCHOLOGICAL** component and a **PHYSICAL** component. Both these components should be developed creatively and measured regularly in order to ensure a healthy work environment.

**Research note:**

Section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being” (SA, 1996)



**Activity 1** (🕒 15 min.)

A. First complete the following column individually and then compare the results of the group. In column A are some of the factors that shape the psychological environment of any workplace. Rate each factor as it measures in your school at present.

(1=very low; 2=low; 3=average; 4=good; 5=very good)

Psychological factor	1	2	3	4	5
1. Trust					
2. Communication					
3. Energy					
4. Gratification/enjoyment					
5. Care and nurture					
6. Empowerment/ownership					
7. Personal growth opportunities					
8. Team spirit					
9. Encouragement/reward					
10. Security					

B. Write down the 2 factors that most educators rated as the lowest.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_

*A psychologically unhealthy environment can not encourage and sustain creativity. Restate each factor as a problem statement,*





**Activity 3 (10 min.)**

A. Many elements of the physical environment play a role in encouraging or blocking creative thinking. Rate your physical environment at school (classrooms, staffroom, etc.) as you experience it at present. Complete individually and then discuss in groups.

(1=very poor; 2=poor; 3=average; 4=good; 5=very good)

Physical factor	1	2	3	4	5
1. temperature					
2. lighting					
3. noise level					
4. air quality					
5. use of colour in the environment					
6. availability of resources					
7. furniture					
8. space					
9. safety					
10. freedom of movement					

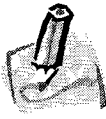
B. Write down the 2 factors that most educators rated as the poorest.

1. \_\_\_\_\_
2. \_\_\_\_\_

Restate these factors as problem statements,

e.g. In which ways might we improve safety at our school?

In which ways might we maximise our space?



**Activity 4** ( 8 min.)

A. Find solutions for problem statement 1 above by asking:

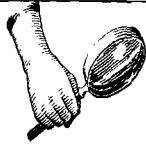
What can we **COMBINE** to find solutions (e.g. people, objects, spaces)?

What can we **SUBSTITUTE** to find solutions (e.g. processes, furniture, duties)?

B. Find solutions for problem statement 2 above by asking:

What can we **ELIMINATE** to find solutions?

What can we **MODIFY** to find solutions?



**8.2 Module summary** ( 2 min.)

- Creativity will flourish in your school, if you ensure a healthy environment.
- The environment consists of two elements: the **PSYCHOLOGICAL** and the **PHYSICAL** environment.
- The psychological environment consists of such elements as trust, communication, energy, team spirit, etc.
- A healthy physical environment (space, safety, lighting etc.) can encourage creativity, while an unhealthy environment can block creativity.
- Problems are only solutions waiting to happen: always restate problems into solution seeking statements (In which ways might we...) and start solving problems creatively!!

***“If we all did the things we are capable of doing, we would  
literally astound ourselves.”***

**Thomas A. Edison**

## FINAL NOTE:

Feedback on the application, results and opinions of educators regarding the programme is essential for further research on how to enhance educator security in the school environment and in finding an effective tool to cope with stress and insecurities. Your cooperation in completing the following feedback form on completion of the course and after the processes presented in this programme have been applied by educators **for a period of at least six months**, will be greatly appreciated.

CREATIVITY TRAINING PROGRAMME FEEDBACK FORM		
When dealing with insecurities and stress, most educators are	YES	NO
<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. seeking alternatives solutions for problems at school.</li><li>2. looking for solutions that are out of the ordinary.</li><li>3. trying to develop ideas into workable solutions.</li><li>4. making an effort to understand the real essence of situations.</li><li>5. applying creative problem solving techniques.</li><li>6. making the vision statement a reality.</li><li>7. applying a more positive attitude.</li><li>8. involved in creating a physical environment at school that is more conducive to creative thinking.</li><li>9. involved in creating a psychological environment that is conducive to creative thinking and security.</li><li>10. seeing the benefits of this programme as far as coping with insecurities and stress in the school environment is concerned.</li></ol>		
Please send this form to: R. Rutherford, 32 Berghshoop, Langeberg Road. Durbanville 7550. Or email to: <a href="mailto:racheruth@gmail.com">racheruth@gmail.com</a>		

## 8.5 Addendum E: The interview schedule

1. What are the main factors that cause you and your colleagues insecurity and stress at school?
2. Have you, in the last couple of years, experienced much change in education as a whole and in your school? What were these changes?
3. How did you personally experience the changes?
4. Do you think you have received enough **support from government**, your governing body and principal to cope with these changes?
5. Have you ever experienced violence in your school? What effect did this have on you? / If it should happen, how do you think it will affect you?
6. Do you have *any ideas* on how violence in schools should be addressed?
7. To what extent does indiscipline of learners cause you stress?
8. Relate some incidents and explain how you felt and how you reacted.
9. 78% of South Africans have experienced bullying at work. Have you or a colleague ever experienced bullying at the hands of a principal, colleague or parent? Study the examples on the list before responding.

List:

- belittling of your opinions
- constant criticism
- intrusive monitoring (always checking up on you)
- inappropriate comments
- never given any say in how to do your job

10. How have you or a colleague *handled* this behaviour? / How would you suggest this behaviour be handled?
11. Are there any other elements of the school environment that cause you stress? Study the list before responding.

List:

- strained relationships
- lack of communication
- the state of the school buildings
- a lack of supervision or guidelines
- a lack of resources

12. What do you *suggest* should be done about these issues?
13. Do you think you have too much work or too many roles to fulfil at school? How does this *affect* you?

14. Do you regularly experience any stress symptoms? Tick off those that apply to you on the list.

List:

- irritability
- mood swings
- anxiety
- depression
- lack of self-worth
- constant exhaustion/ fatigue
- increased headaches/ migraines
- ulcers or stomach ailments
- colds, flu, allergies more regularly
- general neck, back discomfort

15. Section 12(2) of the Bill of Rights states that “everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity”. What do you think this right implies?

16. Section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”. In your experience, are your health and well-being at school adequately protected by legislation and the **Bill of Rights**?

17. The Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 makes provisions for the health and safety of persons at work but not specifically for psychological security. Do you think this is something that should be protected by legislation?

18. What do you see as the biggest problem regarding the **psychological security** of educators currently in your school?

19. Do you have any **programmes or interventions** which help you to cope with stressful situations at work?

20. It is claimed that **creativity programmes** teach problem solving skills, a more positive attitude and how to be more open-minded regarding change. Do you think such programmes can make a difference in your school?

21. What would you like to see as part of such a **creativity training** programme?

## 8.6 Addendum F: Examples of interviews

In order to draw a meaningful comparison between the responses of a high and a low creative thinker, interviews with two educators from the same school are presented here.

Themes which presented themselves during the interviews are indicated in these two examples as follows:

Grey highlight: learner indiscipline

Red highlight: workload

Turquoise highlight: admin. as part of workload

Yellow highlight: not very stressed

Pink highlight: creative outlook re learners, teaching, problem solving, change

Green highlight: more stressed, sense of despair

### 1. Interview with an educator from school 1 who scored high on the TTCT®

**What are the main factors that cause you and your colleagues insecurity and stress at school?**

The children's bad behaviour and the amount of work we have, admin work.

**Have you, in the last couple of years, experienced much change in education as a whole and in your school? What were these changes and how did you experience them?**

I've only been teaching for three years. I don't think I'm as stressed about it as others would be. I came into the system when there were a lot of changes and you expect it but it is stressful because you don't know from the one minute to the next what to do. The change in the card system and you feel why should you care. You lose the interest to be methodical.

**Do you think you have received enough support from government, your governing body and principal to cope with these changes?**

No we do not get support, not financially and not making life easier for teachers.

**Have you ever experienced violence in your school? What effect did this have on you?**

I don't think our school has experienced more violence than any other school. There has been the occasional little fight that has broken out but I don't feel threatened coming here at all.

**How should violence be addressed?**

Perpetrators should be given therapy. Try and establish where it comes from. Perhaps in the home they experience violence. Perhaps creative workshops getting kids to like each other and help each other rather than hurt each other.

**To what extent does indiscipline of learners cause you stress?**

There's a feeling amongst students that concerns me a lot. There's no thirst for knowledge. There is an attitude of "I don't give a damn". How do you give a child a sense of awe and wonder for the world they live in now when they are in their teenage years. It cannot be put there unless you are just a most amazing teacher –which there are just a few of. There are students in every class who like to shout out, draw attention to themselves, who are needy. I think they are attention deficient. They don't get enough attention at home. They have these cocky comments, attempts to be funny which can drive you mad, because it distracts, distracts. Lack of self-control.

**78% of South Africans have experienced bullying at work. Have you or a colleague ever experienced bullying at the hands of a principal, colleague or parent? Study the examples of the list before responding.**

Not experienced any.

**Are there any other elements of the school environment that cause you stress? Study the list before responding.**

Something that comes to mind. Recently there were four people away - three of whom are important figures. That doesn't work and it was chaos. That causes stress and you now have to place classes. One thing that stresses me is when I have to do too much teacher duty. You now have to baby-sit a class who has no work and I dislike it a lot.

**Lack of communication:** Sometimes.

**Lack of resources:** Sometimes. It could be better but it's not that bad.

**Do you think you have too much work or too many roles to fulfil at school?**

**How does this affect you?**

That is absolutely true. It's a drag. It's not only getting the schoolwork done. It's all the marking. The kids are needy. You can't be there for them and I've learned to refer them to the social worker when I see a problem that's not my role to deal with.

**Do you regularly experience any stress symptoms? Tick off those that apply to you on the list.**

Irritability: Yes

Anxiety: Yes

Depression: Yes

Self-worth: No

Fatigue: Yes

Headaches/Migraine: No

Ulcers: No

Colds, flu: No

General neck, back discomfort: Yes big time.

**Section 12(2) of the Bill of Rights states that “everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity”. What do you think this right implies?**

This is a loaded statement, It can have multiple interpretations. Not to fly off in such a state that can be harmful. I think it implies that you are not overworked to such an extent that you are not coping and that you can still be happy and derive some measure of joy from the work that you do.

**Section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”. In your experience, are your health and well-being at school adequately protected by legislation and the Bill of Rights?**

I don't think it's as good as it could be. There's often dust to such an extent that some students don't want to put their bags on the floor. Some students have complained that it gives them hay fever etc. It could be better.

No problem re well-being.

**The Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 makes provisions for the health and safety of persons at work but not specifically for psychological security. Do you think this is something that should be protected by legislation?**

It would be wonderful to have for e.g. mentors, councilors etc for teachers.

**What do you see as the biggest problem regarding the psychological security of educators currently in your school?**

Overwork.

**It is claimed that *creativity programmes* teach problem solving skills, a more positive attitude and how to be more open-minded regarding change. Do you think such programmes can make a difference in your school?**

A programme like this would absolutely work in our school.

**What would you like to see as part of such a *creativity training* programme?**

A programme where we interact. Role play. Classroom situations. Conflict resolutions. How to handle all that admin, all that marking, e.g. give all the marking at the beginning of a term and get that marking out of the way and that you're not stuck with end of the term marking as well as exam marking. That sort of thing. Ways to diffuse the pressure.

Observations: emphasis on looking for solutions; wants to see the positive side to teaching and to learners; admin, marking etc. seen as 'drag'; gets excited when talking about possibilities; disappointed rather than stressed about learners who misbehave.

**2. Interview with an educator from school 1 who scored low on the TTCT®**  
**What are the main factors that cause you and your colleagues insecurity and stress at school?**

**Indiscipline.** They don't seem to be academically motivated. They think they will get through, so why stress. And the job satisfaction is minimal. **No matter what you do the results stay the same and at the end of the day they don't seem to care.** There are children who make it worthwhile but they are mostly in the younger classes. They **love learning** and even creating their own little dictionaries. It's just **such a pleasure teaching children like that.** but this is rare, very rare.

**Among the seniors, I think it's all over,** because of the new curriculum, too many learning areas. They are confused. It requires a very disciplined and a very organised child to cope with that and the weak ones.....

**Have you, in the last couple of years, experienced much change in education as a whole an in your school? What were these changes and how did you experience them?**

Absolutely. You **don't know from week to week what is going to be expected of us.** A case in point is the Grade 9. For 3 years we've had these assessments. We've known the format and at the end of the year we go to a meeting and we're told these are the things we have to test and what it's going to look like. A few weeks ago in August a few of the people went for the moderation and they were told we have to collapse the tasks, 16 tasks collapse to 10. Whatever. We still **don't know what the order is going to be,** what the break-down is going to be and the moderation is in a month's time. **It's crazy. You phone the department, the subject advisers, they are busy, they are stressed. We have a subject adviser who is on stress leave.**

**Do you think you have received enough support from government, your governing body and principal to cope with these changes?**

From the school's point of view the headmaster is supportive but he is dealing with a lot of things. There is a limit to how much he can do. The governing body likewise.

The department – we have now been told to email our subject adviser because that is what she can deal with. She cannot deal with a cell phone call and she cannot deal with a telephone call. **It is very difficult**

**Have you ever experienced violence in your school? What effect did this have on you?**

A colleague was hit. She wanted to lay a charge. The **parents were backed up against us**. They called in a legal adviser which they are entitled to do. The governing body found that the teacher was only restraining the child by pulling his blazer. He had done something which she had not given permission for him to do. He whipped around and hit her on the arm but because the teacher had initiated it – no case. So the **message that goes out to the children is a very strong one - you can do what you like**. We have rights.

**I was abused**. I've had a boy in matric telling me to "hold my bek" when I told him to settle down and allow me to teach my lesson. I reported it to the deputy principal. She talked to him and asked why he did that. He said that he was stressed. And **that was that**.

I had a child calling me an idiot. **Verbal abuse. Lack of respect. Teachers are at the bottom of the food chain** as far as the students are concerned. We had McKenzie here at the school. A fantastic speaker. At the beginning of the term I had a class and I asked them have you forgotten what McKenzie said. And one boy said – Yes, he said teachers drive junk cars.

### **Do you have any ideas on how violence in schools could be addressed?**

It is **very frightening** – the level of aggression of the students. They come from violent areas. Violence at home. They get knocked around at home. The school is in a privileged area but the children don't come from this area and they cannot identify with the culture that we present here. We need people with experience. **There is no point in appointing people who are the wrong colour, who cannot handle the children**. Children will respond to their people more.

### **To what extent does indiscipline of learners cause you stress?**

Three years ago we did not have the incidents we are having now. It is increasing rapidly. Thirteen years ago when I started, we had no discipline problems.

**78% of South Africans have experienced bullying at work. Have you or a colleague ever experienced bullying at the hands of a principal, colleague or parent? Study the examples on the list before you respond.**

Belittling of your opinions – No

Constant criticism – Yes, from parents

Intrusive monitoring – No

Inappropriate comments – No

Never given any say in how to do your job – No

**Are there any other elements of the school environment that cause you stress?**

**Study the list before you respond:**

Strained relationships: No

Lack of communication: Sometimes

State of school buildings: Deterioration. Nobody to maintain the theatre. It is a wonderful asset and it is neglected. **The state of the school grounds depresses me.**

**The messiness and graffiti is terribly depressing**

Lack of supervision or guidelines: Sometimes. Interruptions. Walking in and asking questions. Announcements. You come to school, **you have prepared something, and they take that lesson away.** Children get bored. **The academic day should be sacrosanct.** Nothing should interfere with the run of the school.

Lack of resources: Yes. We do not issue text books. The children buy their text books. Some of the parents are less affluent. It becomes a problem when children don't have books. Starting an academic year – where at least 3 months you have 70% of the children who do not have books yet. You have to follow up each one individually. Sometimes you have a financial problem – **it is just a terrible situation.**

**Volume of work.** One teacher just folded and for 3 weeks I had to cover all these classes. 60 at a time and the children said they didn't like being taught in such big groups. **It is very frightening. If anybody folds there is no safety net. It is very scary** – the substitute just said she wasn't going to put up with it. Fortunately a replacement was found.

**Do you think you have too much work or too many roles to fulfill at school?**

You **have to be a social worker, an entertainer.** Children today expect to be entertained. They don't know why they have to learn all these things. They are never going to use it. As long as you can SMS somebody, why do anything else? **They don't care.**

**Do you regularly experience any stress symptoms? Tick of those that apply to you on the list:**

Irritability: Yes  
Mood swings: No  
Anxiety: Yes  
Depression: Yes  
Lack of self-worth: Yes  
Constant exhaustion/fatigue: Yes  
Increased headaches/migraine: No  
Ulcers or stomach ailments: Yes stomach problems  
Colds, flu: No  
General neck, back: Yes, neck and back

**Section 12(2) of the Bill of Rights states that “everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity”. What do you think this right implies?**

That we are doing something that is valuable.

**Section 24(a) of the Bill of Rights states that “everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being”. In your experience, are your health and well-being at school adequately protected by legislation and the Bill of Rights?**

Well-being – I don't think so. I doubt it. It seems to me that the little darlings come first. As it was said to this colleague who was hit: Who is the adult in the situation? She should have handled the situation differently!

**The Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 makes provisions for the health and safety of persons at work but not specifically for psychological security of educators. Do you think this is something that should be protected by legislation?**

It would be difficult to do –measure. How will you measure it? What does concern me –sometimes when people say you should really take leave. You do need to take leave. You can't. Unless you collapse, have a heart attack, total nervous breakdown, nobody is going to take it seriously. What does worry me immensely is that I see a lot of colleagues who are very much on the edge. In the past you had a sabbatical where after five years you are eligible for long leave. Holidays are not enough. You need time to recharge to be stimulated.

---

**What do you see as the biggest stressor and problem regarding the psychological security of educators currently in your school?**

Lack of willingness to work.

Security (disciplining)

Changes – gobbledygook. Makes no sense.

**It is claimed that creativity programmes teach problem solving skills, a more positive attitude and how to be more open-minded regarding change. Do you think such programmes can make a difference in your school?**

It could make a difference. Provide another way of looking at things and solving problems.

**What would you like to see as part of such a creativity training programme?**

Something stimulating.

Sets boundaries on what you're supposed to do.

Can't relax without feeling guilty. If you don't work you feel guilty. Ability to switch off.

To say that you are not going to work this weekend.

Observations: despondent; does not see possibility of solution; learners and situation regarding Department portrayed as quite hopeless; uses many emotional words; keen to talk about many problem areas

## 8.7 Addendum G: Example of a completed TTCT® scoring sheet

### STREAMLINED SCORING SHEET TORRANCE® TESTS OF CREATIVE THINKING, FIGURAL FORMS A and B

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Test Date: 3.9.07 Form: \_\_\_\_\_  
Grade: \_\_\_\_\_ Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Sex: Female School: \_\_\_\_\_

	Raw Score	Standard Score	National Percentile
1. Fluency: Act. 2 <u>10</u> + Act. 3 <u>15</u>	= <u>25</u>	<u>121</u>	_____
2. Originality: Act. 1 <u>1</u> + Act. 2 <u>5</u> + Bonus _____ + Act. 3 <u>9</u> + Bonus <u>7</u>	= <u>27</u>	<u>132</u>	_____
3. Abstractness of Titles: Act. 1 <u>2</u> + Act. 2 <u>11</u>	= <u>13</u>	<u>120</u>	_____
4. Elaboration: (Circle appropriate number 1-6 for A or B)			
Act. 1: 1(0-5) 2(6-12) <u>3</u> (13-19) 4(20-26) 5(27-33) 6(34+)			
A Act. 2: 1(0-8) 2(9-17) <u>3</u> (18-28) 4(29-39) 5(40-50) 6(51+)			
Act. 3: 1(0-7) 2(8-16) <u>3</u> (17-27) 4(28-37) 5(38-47) 6(48+)			
B Act. 1: 1(0-5) 2(6-13) 3(14-21) 4(22-29) 5(30-37) 6(38+)			
Act. 2: 1(0-9) 2(10-19) 3(20-29) 4(30-39) 5(40-49) 6(50+)			
Act. 3: 1(0-14) 2(15-24) 3(25-34) 4(35-44) 5(45-54) 6(55+)			
	= <u>9</u>	<u>86</u>	_____
5. Resistance to Premature Closure: Act. 2 <u>16</u>	= <u>16</u>	<u>120</u>	_____
<b>Average Standard Score</b>	=	<u>116</u>	_____

Ability	Interpretation							
1. Fluency						Y		
2. Originality							X	
3. Abstractness of Titles						X		
4. Elaboration				X				
5. Resistance to Premature Closure						X		
Standard Score	40	60	80	100	120	140	160	180
Percentile		2	16	50	84	98	99+	

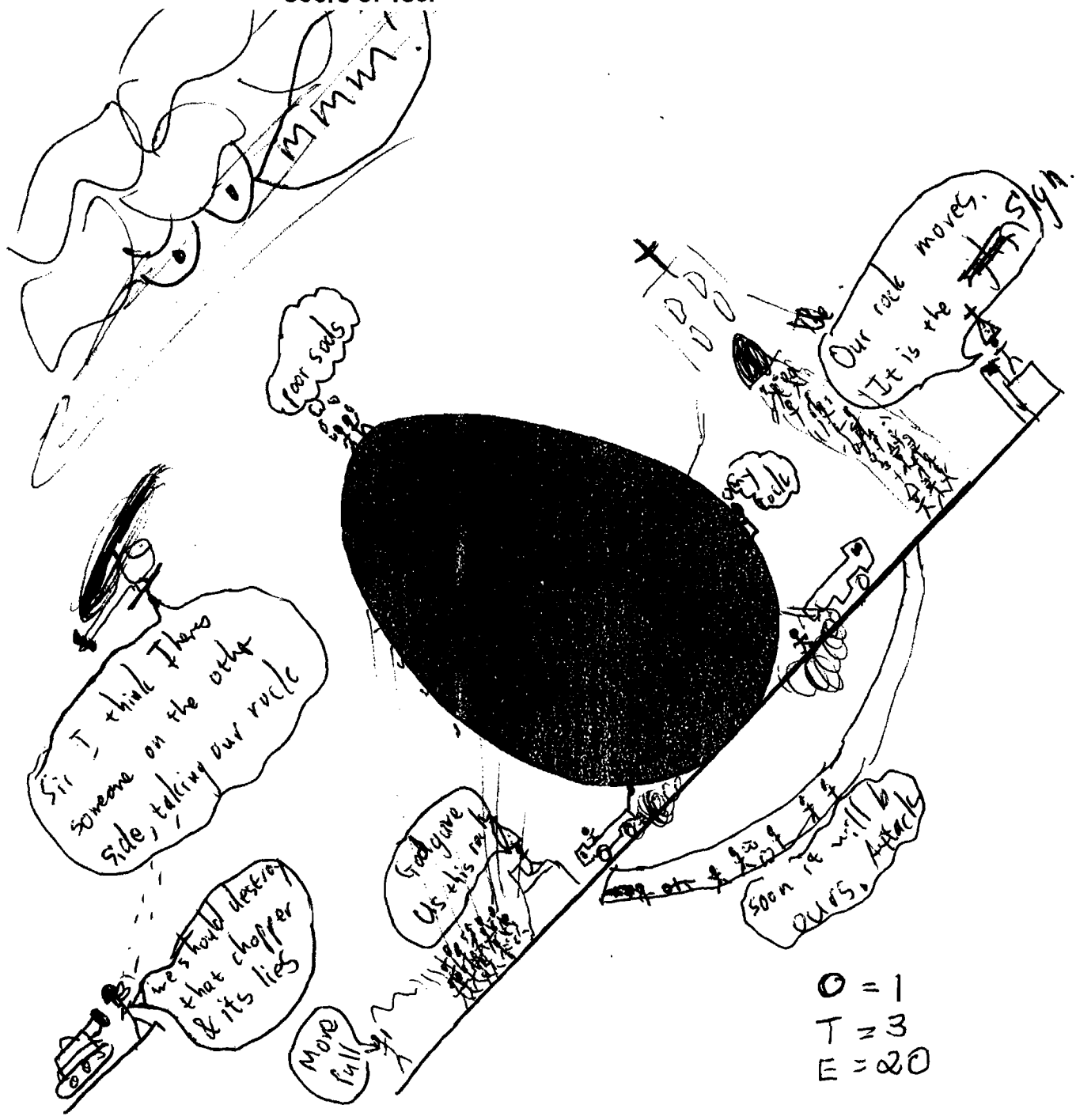
**Checklist of Creative Strengths:**

- + 1. Emotional Expressiveness (in drawings, titles)
- + 2. Storytelling Articulateness (context, environment)
- + + 3. Movement or action (running, dancing, flying, falling, etc.)
- + 4. Expressiveness of Titles
- 5. Synthesis of Incomplete Figures (combination of 2 or more)
- + + 6. Synthesis of Lines (combination of 2 or more, Activity 3, Form A) or  
Synthesis of Circles (combination of 2 or more, Activity 3, Form B)
- + 7. Unusual Visualization (inside, cross section, etc.)
- + 8. Internal Visualization (inside, cross section, etc.)
- + + 9. Extending or Breaking Boundaries
- + 10. Humor (in titles, captions, drawings, etc.)
- + 11. Richness of Imagery (variety, vividness, strength, etc.)
- + 12. Colorfulness of Imagery (excitingness, earthiness, etc.)
- 13. Fantasy (figures in myths, fables, fairy tales, science fiction, etc.)

**Creativity Index:** Average Standard Score 116 + Bonus 14 = 130 Standard Score 130 National Percentile \_\_\_\_\_  
Comments: \_\_\_\_\_

8.8 Addendum H: Extracts from completed TTCT®'s

1. The following participant scored high on the TTCT® with a standard score of 150.

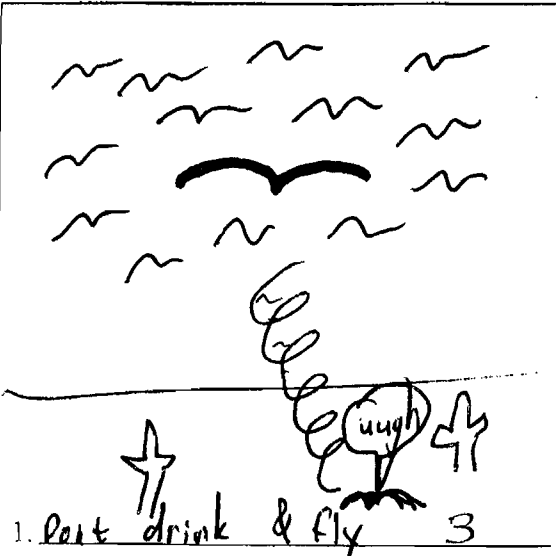
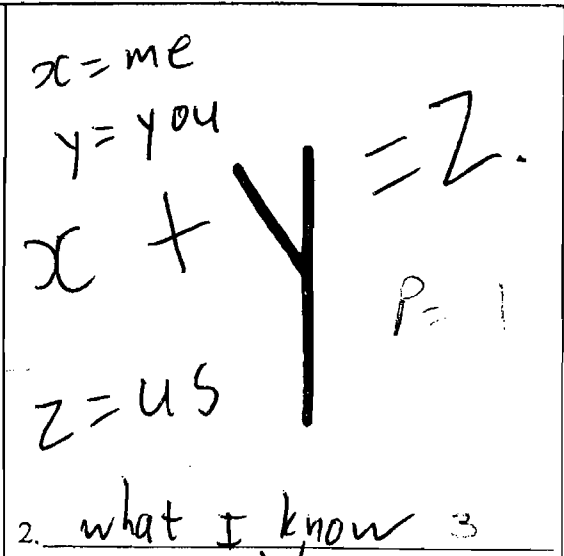
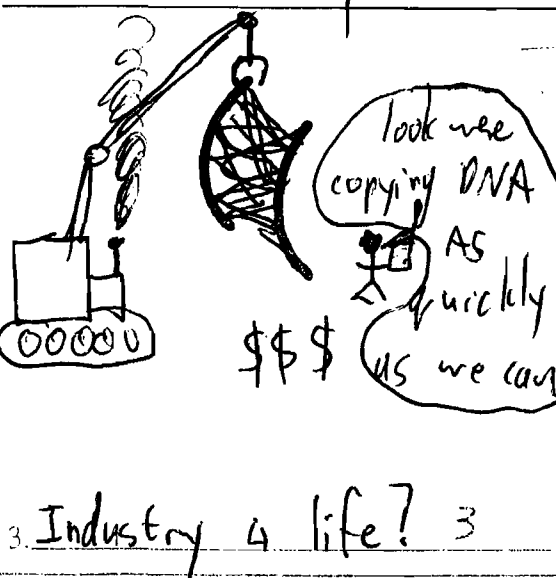
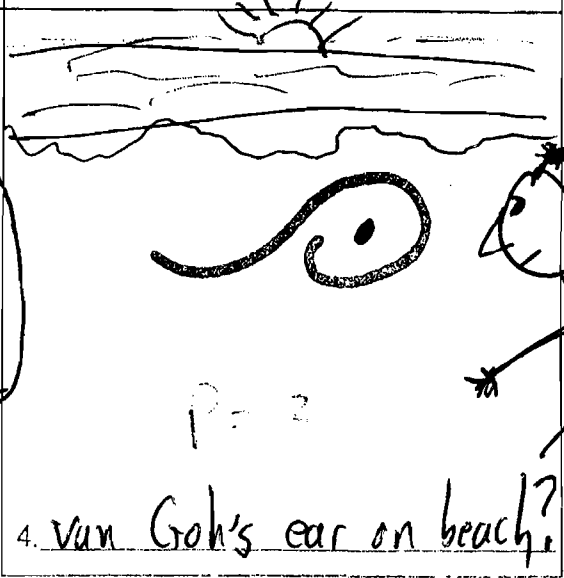


YOUR TITLE: Wisdom on top beats confusion below  
or. (The World, a realistic depiction)

## Activity 2. PICTURE COMPLETION

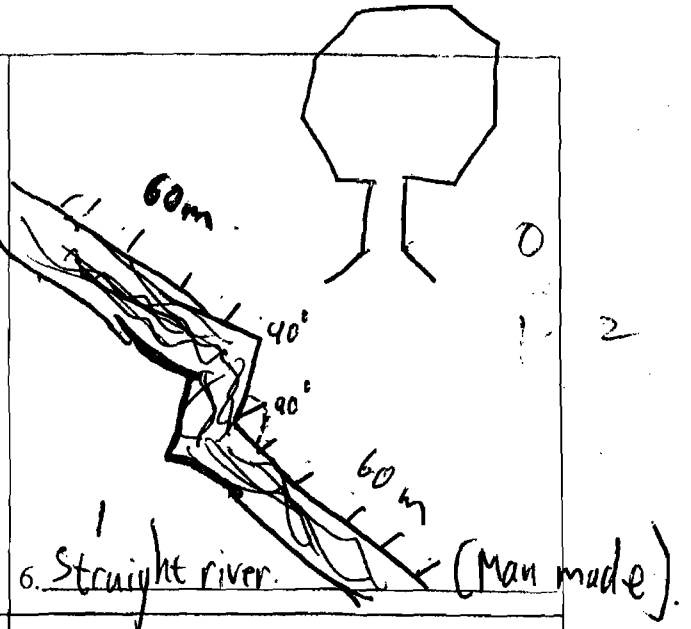
By adding lines to the incomplete figures on this and the next page, you can sketch some interesting objects or pictures. Again, try to think of some picture or object that no one else will think of. Try to make it tell as complete and as interesting a story as you can by adding to and building up your first idea. Make up an interesting title for each of your drawings and write it at the bottom of each block next to the number of the figure.

$F = 10$       $P = 14$   
 $O = 5$   
 $T = 22$   
 $E = 24$

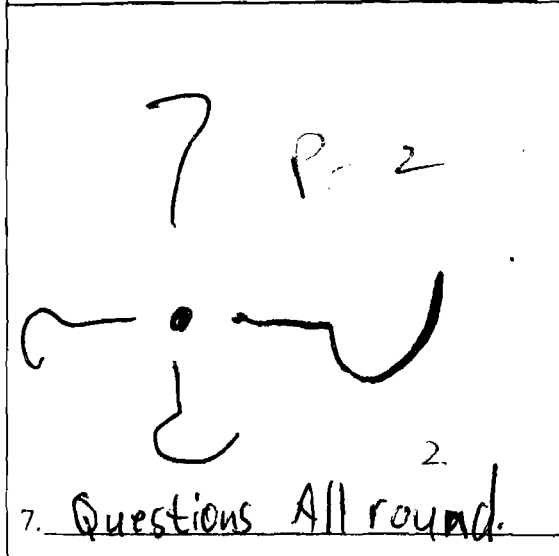
<p style="font-size: 2em; margin-left: 20px;">P=1</p>  <p>1. Part drink &amp; fly 3</p>	<p style="font-size: 2em; margin-left: 20px;">P=1</p> <p style="margin-left: 20px;"> <math>x = me</math>  <math>y = you</math>  <math>x + y = z</math> </p>  <p>2. what I know 3</p>
<p style="font-size: 2em; margin-left: 20px;">P=1</p>  <p>3. Industry 4 life? 3</p>	<p style="font-size: 2em; margin-left: 20px;">P=2</p>  <p>4. Van Gogh's ear on beach? 2</p>



5. am I in chind ?



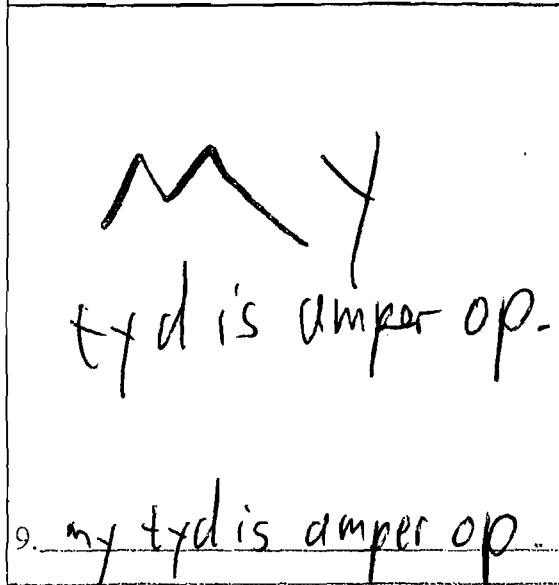
6. Straight river. (Man made)



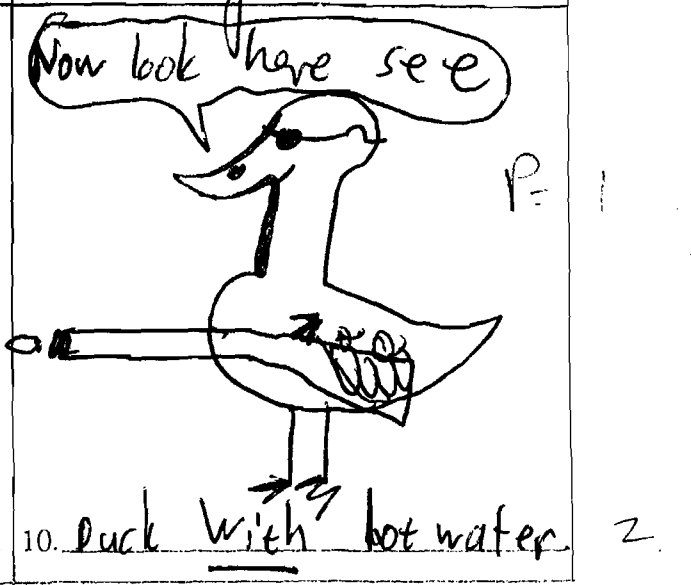
7. Questions All round.



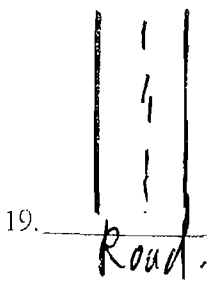
8. Reading the law



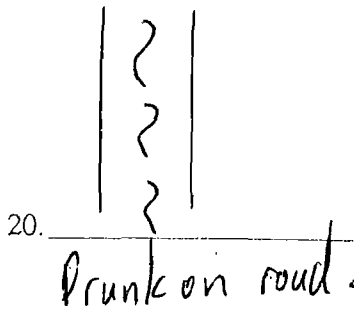
9. my tyd is amper op.



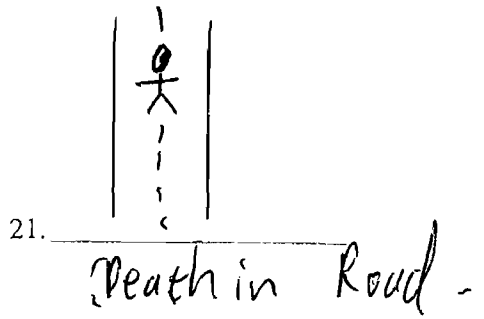
10. duck with hot water



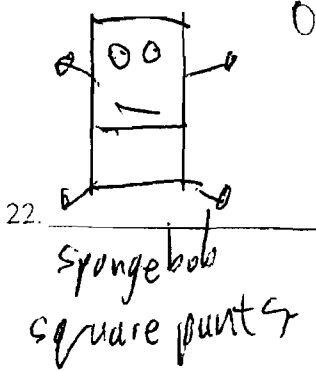
19. Road.



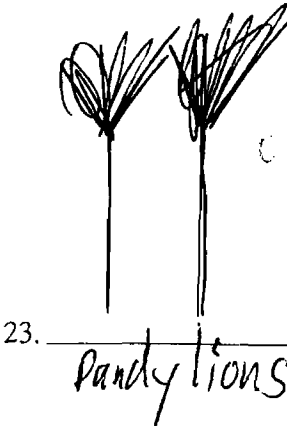
20. Drunk on road.



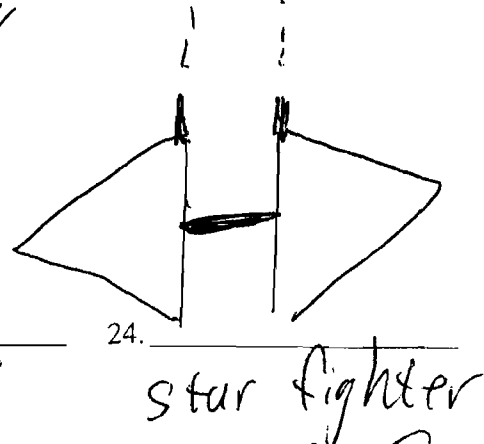
21. Death in Road.



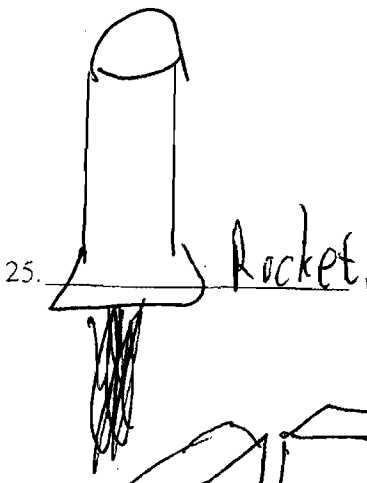
22. Spongebob square pants



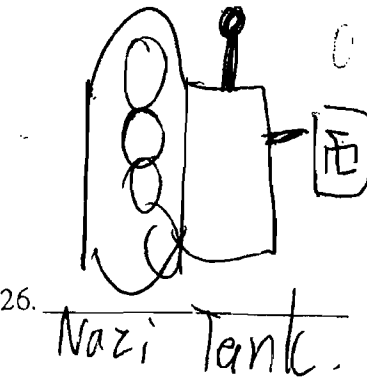
23. Pandylions



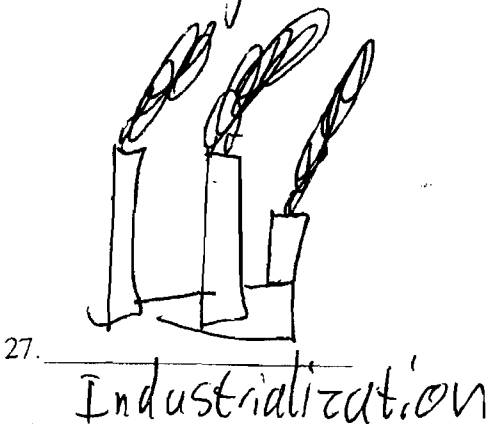
24. star fighter



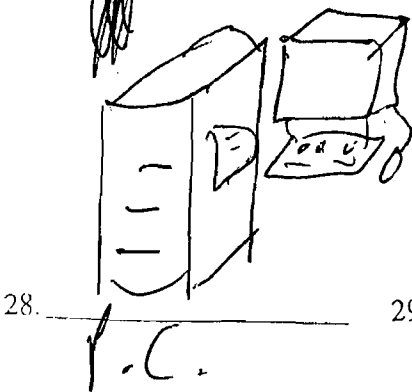
25. Rocket.



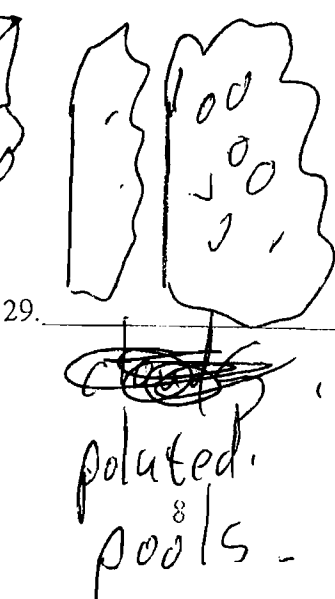
26. Nazi Tank.



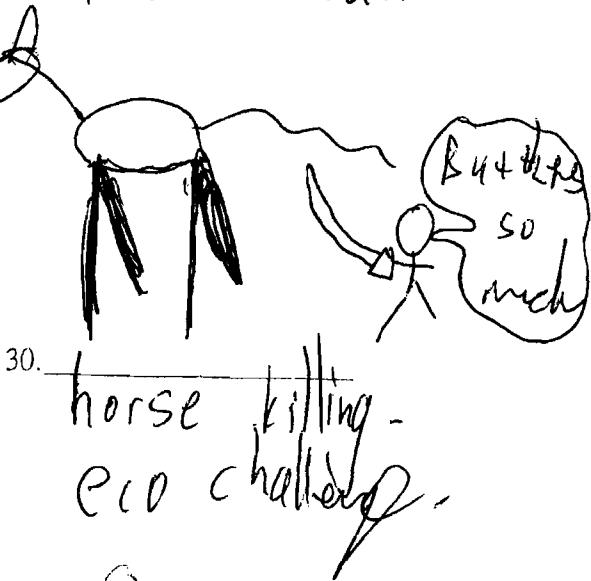
27. Industrialization.



28. P.C.



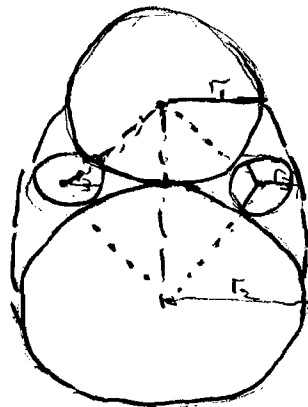
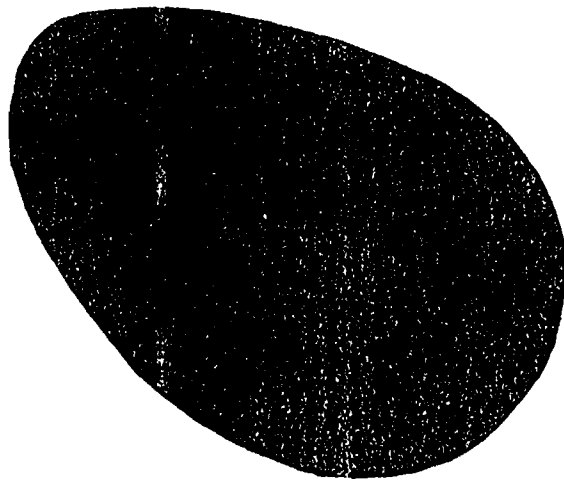
29. polluted pools.



30. horse killing - eco challenge.

CAT # TT 171002

2. The following participant scored low on the TTCT® with a standard score of 63.





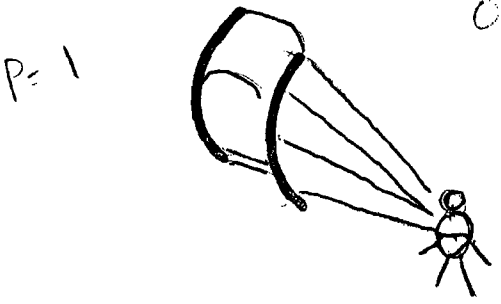

YOUR TITLE:           DIE SIMMETRIESE EIER          |

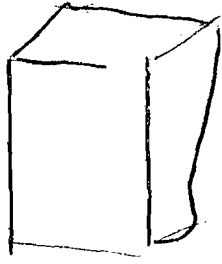
## Activity 2. PICTURE COMPLETION

By adding lines to the incomplete figures on this and the next page, you can sketch some interesting objects or pictures. Again, try to think of some picture or object that no one else will think of. Try to make it tell as complete and as interesting a story as you can by adding to and building up your first idea. Make up an interesting title for each of your drawings and write it at the bottom of each block next to the number of the figure.

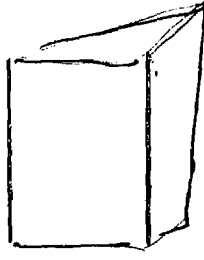
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T = 4  
E = 3

P = 4

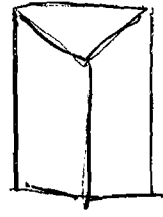
 <p>1. <u>Keye</u> 2</p>	 <p>2. <u>SPICEEL</u> 1</p>
 <p>3. <u>Vac</u> 1</p>	 <p>4.</p>



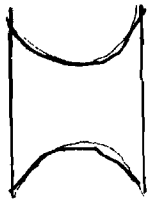
7. \_\_\_\_\_



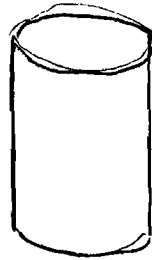
8. \_\_\_\_\_



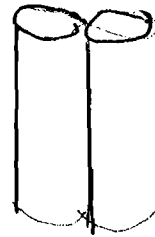
9. \_\_\_\_\_



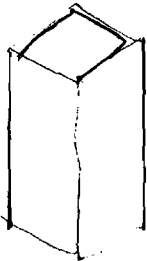
10. \_\_\_\_\_



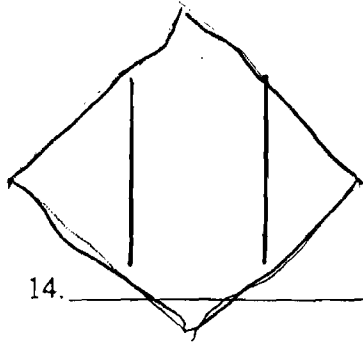
11. \_\_\_\_\_



12. \_\_\_\_\_



13. \_\_\_\_\_



14. \_\_\_\_\_



15. \_\_\_\_\_



16. \_\_\_\_\_



17. \_\_\_\_\_



18. \_\_\_\_\_

GO ON TO NEXT PAGE

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