

**SCHOOL PUNISHMENT AND STUDENTS ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE
IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF GATSIBO DISTRICT: CASE OF
KIRAMURUZI SECTOR, GATSIBO DISTRICT**

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CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certifies that she has read and hereby recommends for acceptance by the Open University of Tanzania a thesis titled;“School Punishment and Students Academic Performance in Selected Primary Schools of Gatsibo District: Case of Kiramuruzi Sector”for the degree of Education in Administration, Planning and Policy Studies.

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DECLARATION

I, Bernard Harushyabana, do hereby declare that this dissertation is my own original work and that it has not been presented for a similar or any other award to any other university.

.....

Signature

.....

Date

DEDICATION

This work is first and foremost dedicated to the Almighty God for the wisdom he gave me.

I dedicate also this work to: My beloved wife Mrs. Francoise Umutesi, my children; Divine Jovia Dushime and Joseph Sheja Nziza.

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I extend my special thanks to the Open University of Tanzania for having organised postgraduate studies in my country and thereby allowed Rwandan citizens to fulfil their dreams without leaving their jobs. My current employer is hereby recognised for its commitment to staff development and for allowing me to follow my postgraduate studies.

Above all, I thank the Almighty God for giving me health and energy in my life.

ABSTRACT

School discipline is done in several ways and it depends on teachers' disciplinary methods. This study was meant to identify the types of punishment in Kiramuruzi primary schools; assess the effects of harsh punishment on students' performance; and examine the challenges to law enforcement and appropriate strategies to impose discipline in primary schools. It was conducted in Kiramuruzi sector, Gatsibo district, upon 145 respondents with 112 students from selected primary schools, 28 teachers and 5 staff at district and sector levels. This exploratory study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches. It was found that various physical punishments are perpetrated by teachers at primary schools as established by the study respondents: beaten with stick, beaten with arms and legs kneeling down as punishment, and moving some distance on their knees. Non-physical punishment in form words and other bad gestures towards are directed to students as punishment. Both statistical analysis and data from interviews confirmed a strong relationship between harsh punishment and students' academic performance. The use of corporal punishment as a disciplinary method significantly reduces students' performance. Victims of corporal punishment often develop deteriorating peer relationships and difficulty with concentration; intrusive behaviours, loss of trust in their teachers and in learning activities. However, lack of legal prohibition of all forms of child violence at schools gives a room for ignorance and resistance to change for teachers who continue to impose discipline via corporal punishment. It has been recommended that Rwanda should effectively adopt the Convention on the Rights of the Child and thereby ban corporal punishment at school.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS, SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

%	Percentage
AAP	American Academy of Paediatrics
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
Art.	Article
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DEO	District Education Officer
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ILO	International Labour Organization
MIGEPROF	Ministère du Genre et de la Promotion Feminine
MINEDUC	Ministry of Education
N	Number
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
No.	Order Number
OL	Organic Law
P	Primary level
Para.	Paragraph
SEL	Social Emotional Learning
SEO	Sector Education Officer
SWPBS	Schoolwide Positive Behavioural Supports

UN	United Nations
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USA	United States of America

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

1.1 Introduction

This study dealt with the harsh punishment in primary schools in Rwanda and its effects on pupils' performance. The first chapter described the background of the study and clearly explained the problem to be studied. It established the research objectives and questions, significance of the study, scope and organization of the whole work.

1.2 Background to the Problem

Throughout the history of education system the main common ways of sustaining at school was physical punishment. When children were at school, the teacher was meant to substitute the parents with lots of types of parental discipline and rewards associated for them. This often submitted students to birch, cane, paddle, strap or yardstick for any wrong behaviour. School discipline is the system of rules, punishments, and behavioural strategies appropriate to the regulation of children or adolescents and the maintenance of order in schools. Its aim is to control the students' actions and behaviour (Cotton, 2009).

A compliant child is in conformity with the school rules and regulations. These rules may be formulated in a set of standards of clothing, timekeeping, social conduct, and work ethic. The concept of *discipline* is also applied to the punishment that is the result of defying the rules. The aim of discipline is to set limits restricting certain behaviours or attitudes that are seen as harmful or going against school policies, educational norms, school traditions, et cetera (Greenberg, 2010).

In western countries, Corporal punishment at school is disappearing. Nevertheless, official harsh punishment still remains in schools in some Asian, African and Caribbean countries. Aside from the infliction of pain and the physical injuries which often result from the use physical punishments, these violent disciplinary methods also impact students' academic achievement and long-term well-being. Regardless of significant evidence that physical punishment is harmful to a fruitful learning environment, no national prohibition on harsh punishment against children at school was established. In fact, children in some states receive greater protections against corporal punishment in detention facilities than they do in their public schools (Stein & Perrin, 1998).

Harsh physical discipline does not develop student's behaviour, attitudes and academic performance. In fact, Gregory (1995) asserted that in USA where punishment is applied, schools did not succeeded academically when you compare with states where punishment has been prohibited. The study of Kirsten Pontalti (2013) and various newspapers reported that in Rwandan primary schools, corporal punishment is observed but did not relate it to students' performance. School officials and policymakers often declare that corporal discipline increases students' behaviour and achievement. However, no convincing evidences could support their position. In particular, evidence does not suggest that it enhances moral character development, increases students' respect for teachers or other authority figures, or offers greater security for teachers (Gershoff, 2010).

A number of medical, paediatric or psychological societies have issued statements opposing all corporal punishment in schools, citing such outcomes as poorer

academic achievement, increases in antisocial behaviour, injuries to students, and an unwelcoming learning environment. They include the American Medical Association, the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, the American Academy of Paediatrics, the Society for Adolescent Medicine, the American Psychological Association, the Royal College of Paediatrics and Child Health, the Royal College of Psychiatrists, the Canadian Paediatric Society and the Australian Psychological Society, as well as the United States' National Association of Secondary School Principals (Committee on the Rights of the Child, 2001; Steinand Perrin, 1998).

According to the American Academy of Paediatrics (AAP), research shows that corporal punishment is less effective than other methods of behaviour management in schools, and "praise, discussions regarding values, and positive role models do more to develop character, respect, and values than does corporal punishment". They say that evidence links corporal punishment of students to a number of adverse outcomes, including: "increased aggressive and destructive behaviour, increased disruptive classroom behaviour, vandalism, poor school achievement, poor attention span, increased drop-out rate, school avoidance and school phobia, low self-esteem, anxiety, somatic complaints, depression, suicide and retaliation against teachers". The AAP recommends a number of alternatives to corporal punishment including various non-violent behaviour-management strategies, modifications to the school environment, and increased support for teachers (Poole, 1991).

The existence of legislation which grants parents the right to use disciplinary measures including corporal punishment makes the situation worse. Rwanda, as a

country that went through one of the worst human tragedies, the tremors of the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi are still felt among parents and teachers who were young or teenagers during the genocide. This consequently impacts on their parenting style and school discipline and thereby contributes to the prevalence of corporal punishment of children in the home setting and at school (UNICEF and MIGEPROF, 2013).

It is argued that the magnitude of the problem is worsened by the fact that the government of Rwanda does not acknowledge corporal punishment at home as a problem that requires state intervention. For example, the Initial Report on the implementation of the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) of 2005 did not recognize corporal punishment at home as a significant challenge necessitating state intervention. The presentation from the Minister on the said Report dwelt on the responsibility of the parents, parental upbringing, family reunification, periodic evaluation of the child's placement and abuse, neglect, exploitation. However, she failed to address the protection of children from corporal punishment at home (MIGEPROF, 2012).

Moreover, the reform of both the Penal Code and the Law on Protection of the Child undertaken by Rwandan government in 2008, which was expected to provide more details on forms of domestic violence including corporal punishment and impose strict penalties for both the culprits. Since the passing of the new Penal Code and the new Law on Protection of the Child into law, there are provisions explicitly prohibiting corporal punishment.

Indeed, Article 218 of the Penal Code punishes the infliction of severe suffering or severe punishment of a child. It does not punish the parents, teachers or any person having authority over a child who gives him or her slight corporal punishment (Organic Law No 01/2012/OL). The Law on Protection of the Child has aggravated the problem by the fact that it seems to admit corporal punishment against children. Under the Law, the offence is only to inflict excessive physical punishment, inhuman or degrading treatment, sexual violence, tortures, physical or mental violence, negligence, exploitation or negligent treatment of the child. Mild corporal punishment is not an offence (Law No54/2011.Art 3).

Article 25 of the Law on Protection of the Child stated that during the education of the child, the reprimand must not result in traumatizing him or her; it must be done with humanity and dignity. The problem presented by this article is that it does not define the terms “humanity and dignity” perhaps because those terms are too broad or subjective. The same article gives power to the Minister in charge of children to specify by an Order, disciplinary measures as well as other forms of non-violent corrective punishments, treatment and care for children (Law No54/2011.Art 25). The said provision may be moot because as the Law itself does not ban all kinds of corporal punishment, the Ministerial Order cannot do so by simply proposing alternatives.

The extent of the problem is also noted in the report of the Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children where the gaps in law prohibiting corporal punishment are mentioned as an area of concern (Global Initiative, 2006). As the law remains unchanged, the exposure of children to corporal punishment, which could

include physical violence at home, will continue unabated despite the fact that Rwanda is a signatory to both the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) since 26 January 1990 and the ACRWC which entered into force on 29 November 1999.

The dissertation therefore seeks to demonstrate that although Rwanda is a signatory to various international and regional instruments that motivate for the protection of children against corporal punishment in the home, there is little evidence in practice to substantiate the Rwanda government's commitment to banning it. On the contrary, the law has not sufficed in providing safety mechanisms for children as it is inadequate and insufficient. Hence effective law reform with measurable results is needed to combat corporal punishment against children in the schools of Rwanda and the lack of enough studies in the context of Rwanda induced the research to carry out an exploratory study about the school punishment and its impact on students' performance.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Children have been subjected to corporal punishment at schools despite the many problems associated with the hitting or paddling. Physical punishment should be considered in broader context of abuse against children's physical integrity. Such punishment is perpetrated to children not only in schools, but also in their homes and in their communities. Civil society asserts that violence against children is unacceptable no matter where and by whom it is committed. It is therefore of paramount importance to take such violence as a particular concern especially it is used by adults in a position of child's caregiver, and when it occurs in schools and at home. Such areas should be safe spaces helping children rather than constraining

them.

The government of Rwanda like other countries in the world has not yet established a law to ban corporal punishments and other harsh types of punishments as a kind of protecting child rights and promoting free-violence education. Thus, narratives and newspapers state the persistence of such punishments in addition to the study report of Pontalti (2013) and Bazan (2011) who confirmed that corporal punishment is still operated in Rwandan primary schools in one way or another. This study would inquire to what extent the propositions of lessening harsh physical punishment are implemented in both public and private schools, what alternative punishments may be applied to enforce school discipline and thereby promote the students' academic performance.

1.4 Research Objectives

1.4.1 General Objective

The main objective of this study is to explore the types of punishment in primary schools and their influence to the students' academic performance in Kiramuruzi primary schools.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

This study has the following specific objectives:

- i. Identify the types of punishment in Kiramuruzi primary schools
- ii. Assess the effects of harsh punishment on students' performance
- iii. Examine the challenges to law enforcement and appropriate strategies to impose discipline in primary schools

1.5 Research Questions

The study is guided by the following questions:

- i. What are the types of punishment applied in Kiramuruzi primary schools?
- ii. How does harsh punishment influence students' performance?
- iii. What are the challenges and possible strategies to impose discipline in primary schools?

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study was carried in Gatsibo district, Eastern Province of Rwanda and has considered data from purposively selected primary schools. Information concerned by the study is in relation to punishments and students' academic performance.

1.7 Significance of the Study

As professional educator, this study helps to have a clear and scientific idea about the current level school discipline, the types of punishment applied in my working area, and the challenges met by my colleagues in the enforcement of law on punishment. The results of the study will serve as additional literature to future researchers and will help the Directorate of education and advocates for child rights in Gatsibo district.

1.8 Organization of the Study

This study is composed of five chapters. The first chapter tabled the general introduction, the second, literature review. The third chapter described the methodology used, the fourth chapter focused on the presentation, analysis and

interpretation of the results. The last chapter is for general conclusion and recommendations. Thereafter, a list of references and appendices close the report.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Chapter two describes various literatures about school and corporal punishment. It describes existing studies upon the effects of corporal punishment on the academic performance in many countries and particularly in Rwanda. It established the conceptual framework of the study and related theories.

2.2 School Discipline

Gartrell (1997) asserted that the concept of conventional elementary school discipline is grounded on obedience; hence some parents and teachers take punishment as a type of discipline. However, some educators view discipline as a "neutral" term that can exclude punishment (Marion, 1995). Discipline is interpreted by some parents as correcting or punishing children in order to stop the reoccurrence of unacceptable behaviour. The word "discipline" comes from the Latin word *disciplina*, which means instruction or perfect. Obviously, teachers and parents model principles to be respected. Children follow unquestionably. If parents and teachers want children to behave in a given way, they should show them how. The ultimate goal of discipline is to have children responsible for their own actions (Sailor, 2010).

2.2.1 Improving School Discipline

Osher, *et al.* (2010) surveyed three approaches that promise to improve school discipline practices and student behaviour: ecological approaches to classroom management; school wide positive behavioural supports (SWPBS); and Social

emotional learning (SEL).

2.2.1.1 Ecological Approaches

Doyle (2006) asserted that the ecological approach may help improve school discipline by upholding the efficacy and power on students' participation in classroom activities. It is therefore an indirect approach to sustain school quality and discipline within students. Classroom management is an enterprise of creating conditions for student involvement in curricular events, and attention is focused on the classroom group and on the direction, energy, and flow of activity systems that organize and guide collective action in classroom environments.

The emphasis is on cooperation, engagement, and motivation, and on students learning to be part of a dynamic system, rather than on compliance, control, and coercion. The holding power of programs of action is; of course, always vulnerable to some degree, and misbehaviour is an ever-present possibility. In a classroom with strong lesson vectors (Doyle, 2006) and an alert teacher, alternative vectors are usually seen early and stopped quickly by a short desist ("Shh"), a gesture, or physical proximity (Evertson & Emmer, 1982; Evertson, Emmer, Sanford, & Clements, 1983).

In fact, most of what passes as classroom discipline practice consists of these brief, often unobtrusive reminders to get back on track. If lesson vectors are weak because of teacher skill or an unwillingness or inability of students to cooperate, such efficiencies are unlikely to work well. In these circumstances, discipline in a more formal sense—explicit techniques directed to remediating individual students'

conduct—emerges as the central issue.

Freiberg (1999) made a distinction between *teacher-centered* and *student-centered* approaches to learning and classroom management. With respect to discipline, in teacher-centred approaches, the primary focus is on external school rules and the adult use of behavioural techniques, especially positive reinforcement and punishment, to manage students' behaviour. The purpose of student-centered approaches is to improve students' capacities to control their behaviour and develop caring, engaging, and trusting relationships.

2.2.1.2 School Wide Positive Behavioural Supports

According to Sprague & Golly (2004), School wide positive behavioural supports (SWPBS) are a comprehensive and preventive approach to discipline. The primary aim of SWPBS is to decrease problem behaviour in schools and classrooms and to develop integrated systems of support for students and adults at the school wide, classroom, and individual student (including family) levels. SWPBS is grounded on the assumption that when school staffs teach and reward positive behaviours in relation to how students do comply with adult requests and academic demands and safe behaviour, the proportion of behaviour problems will decrease and the school's environment will improve (Sugai, Horner, & Gresham, 2002).

SWPBS processes are formulated in the ways that involve defining and teaching a common set of positive behavioural expectations, recognizing and rewarding expected behaviour, and developing and using appropriate consequences for problem behaviour. The goal is to establish a positive school and classroom climate in which

expectations for students are predictable, directly taught, consistently acknowledged, and actively monitored (Osher, Bear, Sprague & Doyle, 2010).

2.2.1.3 Social and Emotional Learning Approach

The approach focuses on developing individual qualities, strengths, and assets related to social, emotional, cognitive, and moral development and positive mental health (Berkowitz, et al., 2006; Catalano, et., 2004). The proximal goals of SEL programs are self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision making, which, in terms of discipline, provide a foundation for more positive social behaviours and fewer conduct problems and improved academic performance (Durlak, et al., in press; Zins, et al., 2004). SEL helps develop the social and emotional capacities that enable students to realize the discipline-related goals of character education, which include responsible decision making grounded in moral reasoning and the capacity to exhibit such qualities as respect, resilience, and bonding with others, resolving conflicts appropriately, caring, and self-understanding (Berkowitz & Schwartz, 2006).

2.3 Punishment

Strauss and Murray (2001) indicated that punishment is the application of physical or psychological action that may cause pain in an attempt to prevent detrimental behaviour to re-occur. Different types of punishment are hereby discussed.

2.3.1 Types of Punishment

The study of UNICEF (2005) identified two categories of punishment at schools: physical and psychological. Physical punishment includes smacking, spanking,

kicking, throwing, pinching, pulling hair, twisting arms or ears, forcing the child to stay in uncomfortable or undignified position, forcing the child to take excessive exercise, burning, giving electric shock and hitting them with different objects such as cane, belt, whip, shoe, broom and electric wire (Yusufzai, 2005). The psychological punishment, found to be more humiliating and degrading, includes verbal abuse, ridicule, isolation and scaring. Such punishments leave children in a vicious cycle of frustration that haunts them for their entire lives.

The study said that the magnitude of sexual abuse was not so widespread. Sexual abuse is not used as punishment, but excessive corporal punishment or temptation with monetary or other favours is used to trap students into situations where they can be sexually abused. The impact of the corporal punishment hampers a child's development. The child who regularly receives corporal punishment develops mental, physical and psychological weakness. Further, his behaviours turn violent and he becomes weak in studies. With rise in corporal punishment, the performance of children gets deteriorated at all fronts.

The study says that the main cause of school dropout is corporal punishment. Fear of punishment makes a child scared and mentally disturbed. He or she feels ashamed, disgusted and insulted, becomes shy and frightened and experiences nightmares, loss of appetite or develops inferiority complex. It was suggested that adults should improve their attitudes towards children, besides paying more attention to them. Children needed to be taught about right and wrong and should be encouraged on good performance at academic level, the study suggested.

2.3.2 Negative Effects of Punishment at School

A study conducted in Zambia by Banda (2006) concluded that ruptured eardrums, brain damage and other bodily injuries and death in some instances are some of the bad and tragic effects of corporal punishment. While the physical damage done to the body can be treated, the emotional and psychological effects can affect the survivor deeply. The author declared that corporal punishment is the hitting of a person with a hand or an object such as a cane or belt. It is also kicking, burning, shaking or throwing of a person with the intention of inflicting pain on them. Corporal punishment may be done by pulling the hair, obliging one to sit in uncomfortable positions. It may also be applied by forcing one to take unnecessary physical exercise as a way of disciplining people.

The study also indicated that physical corporal punishment is more perpetrated in less developed countries with more low-income environments than in affluent communities. This can be credited to poverty in some communities and its effects especially stress and high levels of illiteracy. These issues tend to have an effect on how adults discipline children, including teachers towards their students. Whatever the reasons, all caregivers may have to justify how corporal punishment is a form of child discipline. It should be noted that its effects on survivors are damaging (Banda, 2006).

The overuse of punishment in harsh and unqualified ways can have very disagreeable, dangerous and long lasting effects on the children who may develop negative behaviours such as disliking the punishing person, some mental disorders like strong fears and anxieties, obstacles with learning, learning to escape and avoid

people, places and things associated with harsh punishment which stimulates aggression and they may consequently reproduce the methods of punishment used by their parents and teachers at school and at home among their fellows (Mawhinney and Peterson 1986). Since punishment affects child by not only inflicting physical pain but also psychological harm, it thereby reduces motivation and self-confidence (Pandey 2001). It is the reason why corporal punishment has been linked with the development of a variety of psychological and behavioural disorders in children and adults, such as anxiety, depression, drop-out, lack of self-confidence, impetuosity, delinquency and drug/substance abuse (McCord, 1991: 190-200).

2.3.3 Corporal Punishment And Students' Academic Performance

The frequency and harshness of corporal punishment are paradoxically defined and measured. They vary from culture to culture, nation to nation and situation to situation. Punishing individuals means subjecting a penalty for an offense they committed and usually includes inflicting some kind of hurt. In this regard, Thomas and Peterson (1986) defined it as a practice of disciplining in which, something unpleasant is present or positive reinforces are removed following behaviour so that it happens less often in future. All these harsh disciplinary measures adopted by some parents and teachers to discipline children lead to the development of anti-social behaviour, contribute to academic failure and social rejection. They further reduce self-esteem and establish a depressed mood, which in turn is associated to the likelihood of delinquency in adolescents (Patterson, 1982).

Corporal punishment has been subject to debate and discussions; and has been implicated in a variety of studies as a factor, contributing in delinquent behaviours

and psychopathic traits such as theft, truancy, running away and school behaviour problems and as a factor in antisocial behaviours such as lying, cheating and bullying (Sugarman, & Giles-Sims, 1997; McCord and McCord, 1959; Burt, 1925; Gove 1982; Hetherington, & Ridberg, 1971; West & Farrington, 1973; Glueck , 1964). As long as teachers and parents use corporal punishment as an attempt to reduce antisocial behaviours in children, the long-term effect tends to be a further increase the likelihood of those antisocial behaviours (Straus, Sugarman, & Giles-Sims, 1997).

Children exposed to a high degree of physical punishment are more likely to be physically aggressive as adults (Carroll, 1977). In one longitudinal study about delinquency, it has been shown that boys' experiences of a harsh parental discipline style predicted their arrest rates at ages 17 through 45 (Laub& Sampson, 1995). Another longitudinal study found physical punishment during childhood to be significantly more prevalent among drug addicts (Baer & Corrado, 1974).

In many countries such as Norway, Denmark and Finland, corporal punishment has banned in schools because it has been considered as a source of school violence (Larzelere, 1999). Most of the child welfare organizations have developed policies opposing the use of corporal punishment. Many education specialists are against corporal punishment because of the outrage to the child's integrity. Graziano (1990) stated that if we are legally prohibiting striking other adults, why is it okay to strike a child? Corporal punishment is being used as a means of disciplining action against children and students worldwide but as catalytic action of education, it needs to be planned meticulously and executed with great sensitivity (Pandey 2001). Previous

researches asserted those adults (parents and teachers), who were received such punishment in their childhood, are more supporting the use of corporal punishment than those who were not subjected to harsh disciplining procedures (Hyman, 1988). However, majority of physicians and paediatricians claim that corporal punishment does not work to correct negative behaviour permanently (Bauman, 1998).

2.3.4 Long-Term Effects

2.3.4.1 Social Behaviour

Harsh punishment is linked with children's antisocial behaviour such as aggression towards peers, siblings and adults. It may legitimise violence for children and destroy interpersonal relationships because they tend to adopt the social relations they experience (Vygotsky 1978). Paradoxically, the behaviour that parents intend to prevent when they physically are punishing their kids is exactly the behaviour that they are likely to enforce. Bandura's social learning theory recommends that physical punishment empowers children to learn antisocial behaviour by modelling. Parents who intend to change their children's behaviour through imposing pain, their children are likely to copy what they have experienced to others (Bandura 1969).

Gershoff's (2002a) meta-analysis studied 27 cases of childhood and four in adulthood to check the relationship between corporal punishment and aggression. These studies were not similar in terms of children's age (1–16 years), the type of data collected (most, however, were parental self-report), and the type of the research design used (most were cross-sectional). Results for the meta-analysis consistently indicated that the use of physical punishment was related to child aggressive behaviour. Gershoff's review also embraces 13 cases of delinquency and antisocial behaviour for young

children and five studies of similar variables for adults. Results showed a reliable association between the use of physical punishment and delinquency and antisocial behaviour.

Grogan-Kaylor (2004) used data from the most recent (1998) wave of data collection of the United States National Longitudinal Survey of Youth. The children were predominantly from poor communities and about half of them were Black American. The study observed the relationship between the use of physical punishment and children's aggressive behaviour, using a fixed effects analysis, which provides more rigorous statistical controls than those used in previous research, controlling for both observed and unobserved covariates. Children's antisocial behaviour was tested with the Behaviour Problems Index, and parental use of physical punishment through the HOME inventory with questions about spanking.

The use of spanking in past week was associated with children's antisocial behaviour two years later, regardless of the previous children's degree of antisocial behaviour. The fixed effects model resulted in a similar-sized negative effect for all levels of physical punishment. The children socio-economic characteristics did not affect the relationship between parental punishment and children's antisocial behaviour. The study finally noted that all levels of spanking increase the level of antisocial behaviour.

2.3.4.2 Cognitive Effects

A sociocultural perspective on development suggests that children's cognitive development emerges out of social interactions. Social relationships such as early

attachment to caregivers, friendships and collaborative learning between peers, and relationships between children and teachers, directly and indirectly influence children's learning and motivation to learn. The use of verbal methods of discipline through explanation and reasoning are likely to provide the child with more cognitive stimulation than the use of corporal punishment without induction (Straus 2001). Thus, poorer cognitive outcomes may result if parents who physically punish their children make less use of inductive methods of discipline, such as explanation and reasoning – procedures that are likely to enhance cognitive growth. It may also be that children who are anxious about being physically punished are inhibited from exploring their physical and social worlds, and therefore less likely to extend their cognitive skills.

Gershoff's (2002a) meta-analysis does not include any studies linking physical punishment to cognitive development or academic achievement, but our report (Smith 2005) located seven studies linking aspects of children's cognitive development to family discipline (Cherian 1994, Jester *et al.* 1999, Shumow, *et al.*, 1998, Smith and Brooks-Gunn 1997, Solomon and Serres 1999, Straus 2001, Straus 2003). These seven studies all show an association between harsh discipline and poorer academic achievement and/or cognitive development across a range of ages and ethnic groups. One of the seven studies (Smith, 1997) focused on verbally punitive behaviour and the other six studies focused on physical punishment.

A longitudinal study in Wisconsin public schools by Shumow, *et al.*, (1998) examined the relationships between parental discipline, children's academic achievement at school and teacher ratings of behavioural adjustment to schools. The

study used a variety of measures including parental reports (from interviews) of child-rearing expectations and discipline at two points in time (when children were in third and fifth grade), school achievement results and teacher ratings.

Reported parental harshness was associated with negative teacher reports of child adjustment at school and parental reports of behaviour problems at home. Parenting strategies were stable over two years, indicating a consistent child-rearing approach. In both the third and fifth grades, parental harshness was associated with children displaying poorer developmental outcomes (in academic achievement and adjustment to school), even after controlling for family income, race, family structure, parental education and maternal unemployment. The authors concluded that parental harshness was associated with poorer cognitive achievement (and social adjustment) in the school setting.

2.3.4.3 Quality of Parent–Child Relationships

One concern arising out of attachment theory is that the use of physical punishment can have an adverse effect on the quality of the relationships between children and their parents. Children's secure attachment is fostered by warm, positive parent–child interactions and negatively associated with harshly punitive interactions. Attachment is known to have an important influence on a wide variety of child development outcomes and social competence (Coyl, *et al.*, 2002). Attachment security is vital for children's sense of wellbeing and their feelings of safety within and outside the boundaries of the family, and is a vital ingredient in the development of conscience (Laible and Thomson 2000). Gershoff (2002) reviews 13 studies linking the use of physical punishment with the quality of parent–child relationships.

The studies consistently showed that physical punishment was positively associated with poorer child–parent relationships.

Coyl et al. (2002) investigated factors that affected infant attachment security, such as stressful events, maternal depression, negative parent–child interactions and corporal punishment. The study involved interviews with mothers involved in a Head Start programme when their infants were 14 months old, and used Q-sort measures of attachment and two questions about spanking from the HOME inventory. About two-thirds of the children in the sample were insecurely attached, a figure about twice as high as would be expected from the general population. The study also included a measure of negative mother–child interactions.

The majority of the mothers in the study (77%) reported no spanking in the past week, while 23% said that they had spanked the child in the past week. In the group that did spank, just under half had spanked only once in the week and about one-in-six had spanked the child at least six times in the past week. Using path analysis the authors showed that there was a direct path linking negative interactions and frequency of spanking to insecure infant attachment, but also that there was an indirect effect from maternal depression to insecure infant attachment mediated by negative interactions and frequency of spanking.

Maternal depression had the strongest negative effect on attachment security, followed by negative interactions, frequency of spanking and relationship stress. The study suggests that physical punishment and negative mother–infant interactions are more likely to take place when mothers are depressed and stressed, and these

negative disciplinary techniques have an adverse effect on security of infant attachment.

A qualitative study (Russell 1996) of the views of New Zealand parents and parent-educators provides a graphic example of how family discipline can affect parent-child relationships. The study quotes a mother who made a conscious decision never to smack her own children: My parents were very strict. I assumed everyone was being brought up the same. You will do as you're told and you won't question. My mother would use the wooden spoon; my father was more into bare hands. There were other things: go to your room, miss out on something. If you were naughty, they almost took it as a personal affront; they just seemed so offended by it, like you were insulting them. I was basically very good and I was hit frequently. I'm sure through being smacked it made me do so silly things without thinking. It made me go out and do the same thing again, what I'd been smacked for. The message I got from them when they hit me was not "what you're doing is bad, don't do it again". The message I got was "we don't love you" (Russell 1996:69).

2.3.4.4 Mental Health

Less visible than externalising behaviour, but equally serious, is the development of internalising problems such as depression, anxiety, suicidal ideation and other mental health concerns. Such problems are often ignored and left untreated, and can have lifelong effects, including influencing the parenting of the next generation. New Zealand's high levels of suicide (Action for Children and Youth Aotearoa 2003) are already a concern, so this is a particularly worrying effect of the acceptance of punishment in our culture. According to Straus (1999), mental health problems are

associated with physical punishment due to their being an outcome of the suppression of childhood anger associated with being hit by adults who children depend on for love and nurturance.

Gershoff (2002a) reviewed 12 studies of physical punishment and mental health in childhood, and eight studies of physical punishment and mental health in adulthood. Again, there was complete consistency in the findings of these studies that mental health problems in childhood and adulthood were associated with the use of physical punishment. Heaven and Goldstein (2001) surveyed 242 Anglo-Australian and Asian-Australian high school students about their parents' disciplinary style, and their own depression and self-esteem. Depression was significantly related to perceptions of parents' punitiveness and withdrawal of love. Among Anglo students, low self-esteem was significantly related to low levels of inductiveness and high levels of love withdrawal. Students were more depressed, regardless of ethnicity, if they had experienced punitive and unaffectionate parenting. The effect of parental discipline on depression was mediated by low self-esteem in Anglo students (but not in Asian students). Punitive discipline also had a more negative effect on internalising behaviour for girls than for boys.

2.3.4.5 Moral Internalisation

Social information processing theory (Grusec and Goodnow 1994) suggests that the major long-term goal of family discipline is to help children internalise the values and attitudes of society to guide their own behaviour. Moral regulation and internalisation include sensitivity to wrongdoing and appropriate conduct, and the ability to restrain oneself from misbehaviour and to correct damage (Kerr et al.

2004). Promoting internal control over behaviour is an important goal in family discipline, and most experts regard it as much more important than immediate compliance. Many parents want their children to internalise such values, and they do not realise that the excessive use of power-assertive discipline in the absence of induction or explanation may have the opposite effect from what they wish to achieve. That power-assertive methods are not as effective as inductive discipline in promoting moral internalisation has been shown in many studies.

Gershoff's review supports the view that the use of physical punishment tends to lessen the chances that children will internalise parental rules and values. Reviewing 15 studies in this area showed that all but two of these studies showed an association between the use of physical punishment and lower levels of moral internalisation. Kochanska et al. (2001) carried out a longitudinal study of the development of self-regulation in children less than four years of age. Mothers of normally developing infants participated in laboratory sessions with their children at 22, 33 and 45 months. Researchers observed and assessed children's compliance with their mothers' requests in "Do" (sustaining boring behaviour) and "Don't" (ceasing pleasant behaviour) contexts.

Committed compliance meant eagerly embracing maternal agendas and following maternal directives in a self-directed way; situational compliance was essentially cooperative, but seemed contingent on sustained maternal control. Internalisation was also observed in "Do" and "Don't" contexts by looking at whether children complied with requests when the mother moved to another room. Mothers' styles of discipline were also observed.

There were several significant negative correlations between the maternal use of power and children's committed compliance, as well as between the maternal use of power and children's independent compliance (when alone). The authors argue that committed compliance is the first step towards internal control. It represents the conflict between children's wish to comply and their desire to be autonomous. Power-assertive disciplinary techniques do not support moral internalisation.

2.3.4.6 Interactions with Culture and Ethnicity

There has been considerable research into the relationship between ethnicity, aspects of the parenting and disciplinary environment, and outcomes for children (Marshall 2005). Several authors suggest that the effects of harsh disciplinary strategies, in particular physical punishment, may vary across social and cultural contexts (Deater-Deckard, 1997, Horn, *et al.*, 2004, Kelley and Tseng 1992, Simons, *et al.*, 2000).

Deater-Deckard and Dodge (1997) argue that punishment has different meanings for some cultural groups, such as African-Americans, and that parent-child relationships are another important mediating factor. They contend that where physical punishment is a predominant and normative mode of discipline and where it is used in a controlled fashion in the context of a nurturing relationship, it is looked on as culturally acceptable, and as a sign of good parenting, and that therefore the effects can be positive. Indeed, there are some studies supporting this view (Horn *et al.* 2004). There are, however, further confounding factors associated with ethnicity such as poverty, low social status, and the risk associated with living in disadvantaged neighbourhoods.

Generally the findings are inconclusive, with some studies finding ethnic differences in the association between physical punishment and poor outcomes, and others not. Different researchers concur, however, that any moderating effects of ethnicity are only at ordinary or moderate levels of physical punishment. Extremely harsh discipline that shades into physical abuse is equally deleterious for all children, regardless of culture. The negative consequences of severe physical punishment have been replicated across cultures (Marshall 2005).

A recent study tested the hypothesis that in cultures where physical punishment is normative, its effects are less negative (Lansford et al. 2005). Cultural normativeness refers to the extent to which family members within a culture perceive physical punishment as normal for their culture, and the extent to which families actually use it in that culture. The normativeness of physical punishment varied across six countries in the study, from the lowest in Thailand, through China, the Philippines, Italy to the highest in Kenya (Lansford et al. 2005), with varying collectivist and religious affiliations among those countries.

2.4 Challenging Corporal Punishment

There is a great deal of research, of varying quality, much of it from the US and the UK, into the harmful potential effects of corporal punishment – a significant factor in the development of violent attitudes and actions in childhood and adult life, its links with low self-esteem, depression, delinquency and all the things we do not want for our children. I am not sure how valuable this research is, because it misses the point and is in a sense disrespectful to children.

2.4.1 Development of a Human Rights Consensus Against Corporal Punishment

Now at last there is rapidly accelerating progress to challenge and end adults' punitive violence against children. The major context for progress over the last 20 years has been the almost universal acceptance by states of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC). The particular task of the Convention is to confirm that children are holders of human rights alongside adults, including the right to equal protection of their human dignity and physical integrity.

The Committee on the Rights of the Child, the monitoring body for the CRC, has paid particular attention to violence against children since it started to examine reports from States in 1993. It systematically recommends prohibition of corporal punishment of children in all settings, including the home and family, when it examines reports from States; it has recommended it twice to India – in 2000 and again in 2004. Its concluding observations in 2004 expressed concern that corporal punishment is not prohibited in all schools, in the family, nor in other institutions for children, and remains acceptable in society.

In 2006, the Committee issued its first General Comment on violence – on the right of the child to protection from corporal punishment. The Convention is the first international human rights instrument expressly to require the protection of children from “all forms” of physical or mental violence, in article 19. And the Committee emphasizes that while corporal punishment is invariably degrading, there are other non-physical forms of punishment which are also cruel and degrading and thus incompatible with the Convention - punishment which belittles, humiliates,

denigrates, scapegoats, threatens, scares or ridicules the child.

The Committee highlights that rejecting violent and humiliating punishment does not mean rejecting discipline – which is about leading children to good behaviour. Hitting children is an obvious lesson in bad behaviour. And prohibiting violent punishment does not limit the protective use of reasonable force: with babies and young children, parents use protective physical actions the whole time – but these are quite distinct from deliberately hitting and hurting children to punish them.

In addition to the Committee on the Rights of the Child, the other relevant UN human rights Treaty Bodies – the Human Rights Committee, Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Committee against Torture and the Committee to Eliminate Discrimination against Women have all condemned corporal punishment and recommended prohibition. Also regional human rights mechanisms have done so, including the European Court of Human Rights, the Inter-American Commission and most recently the African Committee of Experts on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. There have also been judgments from high-level domestic courts – constitutional courts and supreme courts in many states in all regions, some condemning corporal punishment in penal systems and schools, others relating to corporal punishment in the home as well.

In India, there was the celebrated New Delhi High Court judgment against school corporal punishment in 2000, in a case brought on behalf of the Parents' Forum for Meaningful Education, which found school corporal punishment to be unconstitutional and in conflict with India's obligations under the CRC.

2.4.2 UN Study on Violence Against Children

The most recent context for global progress has been the UN Secretary-General's Study on Violence against Children, which reported to the General Assembly in 2006. The Study arose from the work of the Committee on the Rights of the Child: in 2001, the Committee proposed that the UN Secretary General should be asked, through the General Assembly, to carry out a comprehensive, global study (following on from the previous global study that had looked at the particular impact of armed conflict on children).

In 2003, Professor Paulo Sérgio Pinheiro of Brazil was asked by Kofi Annan to lead the Study. The key message of the human rights-based Study report is that no violence against children is justifiable; all violence is preventable. The Study report, presented to the General Assembly in 2006, recommended that all violence against children, including all corporal punishment in all settings, should be abolished, and it set the ambitious target of the end of 2009. The Study process, with its nine large-scale regional consultations, all with significant involvement of children and young people, helped to give the issue of corporal punishment more visibility.

This is also part of the overall context for progress. Until the extent of corporal punishment does become visible, there is little hope of progress, but as it becomes more visible, particularly through interview research with children and parents, children may feel empowered to speak out more about their experiences in their homes and schools. Children tell us how much this "routine" violence, and adults' acceptance of it hurts them, not just physically – it hurts them "inside". We need to support children in speaking out – the National Commission's public hearing in

Tamil Nadu in 2008 was an important step, revealing some horrific cases.

2.4.3 Global Progress Towards Prohibiting All Corporal Punishment

Significant progress has been noticed and policies and programs established to enhance the fight against corporal punishment: 23 states – 12 per cent of UN member states - have prohibited all corporal punishment in all settings, including the home and school; the most recent was Costa Rica, in June 2008. Supreme Courts in two additional states – Italy and Nepal – have ruled that corporal punishment in childrearing is unlawful. At least 26 more states are committed to full prohibition and/or are actively debating prohibitionist bills in parliament. If these reforms are achieved, children in more than a quarter of UN member-states will have full legal protection.

New Zealand became the first English-speaking state to enact full prohibition in June 2007 (significant because, as noted above, English law, allowing “reasonable” punishment of children exists in about 70 states worldwide). The first Latin American state to achieve prohibition was Uruguay, in November 2007, followed within weeks by Venezuela, and now by Costa Rica. The Council of Europe is the first inter-governmental body to launch a campaign for universal prohibition across its 47 member states; 18 have already achieved full prohibition (plus Italy by Supreme Court decision) and another nine are publicly committed to doing so soon.

2.5 Child Education in Rwanda

2.5.1 Early Childhood Education for a Better Rwanda

Tina Yu (2016) reported that towards the end of the MDGs in 2015, it was and is

still clear that the Government of Rwanda had done extremely well in meeting or making significant progress towards various MDG targets. Some major achievements included sustained and inclusive economic growth, expanded basic social services– (particularly in health), poverty reduction and gender empowerment among others. There is great expectation not only in the region but also globally that Rwanda will continue to be a pace setter in the implementation of Agenda 2030 for Sustainable Development.

As the government continues to focus intensely on achieving Vision 2020 aspirations, due attention will need to be placed on Early Childhood Education for a better Rwanda. Significant progress has been experienced in the education sector in Rwanda in various ways - increase in access to education as reflected in enrolment and attendance rates and gender parity. Indeed, UNESCO ranked Rwanda among the top three performing countries in the world for her efforts to achieve universal primary education goals. Whereas Rwanda has made tremendous progress in increasing access to education and achieving gender parity in enrolment and attendance rates, the government will now need to focus on providing quality education that meets the needs of all children, including ensuring that the poorest children are able to overcome inherent disadvantages.

Early childhood education in Rwanda is not fee-free and this poses serious challenges to children from poor families who cannot afford the costs. This inadvertently leads to exclusion of the poorest children. According to an analysis by MINEDUC and UNICEF in 2015 for instance, Kicukiro district (one of the richest districts) has a pre-primary enrolment rate of 24.5% compared to Gisagaradistrict

(one of the poorest districts) at only 4%. Such unintended exclusion routinely deprives poor children of early educational and development support that Early Childhood Education should deliver. Inadequate investment in Early Childhood Education provision is partially a reflection of an already over-stretched budget. An Investment in Education study carried out by Save the Children in 2015 found that general funding to the education sector as a percentage of the national budget has significantly reduced from 21% in 2006 to 12.3% in this fiscal year (2015/2016).

The analysis further noted that within the education sector, investment in pre-primary and primary education has generally declined in the last eight years as a proportion of the overall education budget. Spending at the pre-primary level has been particularly low and far from meeting MINEDUC's own expenditure targets. The expansion of pre-primary classrooms in schools across Rwanda and the existence of the Early Childhood Development Policy and the associated strategic plan that aim at ensuring access to integrated health, nutritional, early stimulation and learning for all children in Rwanda are critical indicators that the Government of Rwanda recognizes the need for early childhood services. This is particularly important given that the country has chosen to base its future on human capital.

Early childhood development not only provides children with the best start in life but is also one of the best investments that the government of Rwanda can make towards achieving its development goals. Going forward, it is important that: the government increases the share of the national budget to education and that this increase reflects increased spending at pre-primary and primary levels; the government and stakeholders embrace fee-free provision of pre-primary services for the poorest

children; the government and bilateral donors put equity at the centre of education financing model(s) and lastly; the government should ensure that there is a sustained action and investment to improve the quality and effectiveness of early years education.

2.6 Children's Rights Issues in Rwanda

After having considered the second periodic report of Rwanda, the UN Committee on the Rights of Child welcomed the adoption of the 2003 Constitution, which contained provisions on human rights, including children's rights; the adoption of the National Policy for Orphans and other Vulnerable Children (2003); the adoption of a National Health Policy (2002) and of the Vision 2020; the adoption of the Law 27/2001 on the Rights of the Child and Protection of Children Against Violence; the ratification of ILO Convention No. 182 concerning the Prohibition and Immediate Action for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour in 2000; and the ratification of the two optional protocols to the Convention on the involvement of children in armed conflict and on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography (UN Commission on Human Rights, 2004).

The Committee took note of the efforts made by the State party in order to re-establish the identity of a large number of children evacuated to different countries during and just after the genocide of 1994. It recommended that the State party strengthen its efforts to ensure the reunification of those children with their families by facilitating the re-establishment of their identity; and strengthen its effort in order to ensure that all children are provided with a new birth certificate and identity card.

The Committee recommended that the State party introduce legislation explicitly prohibiting corporal punishment; investigate in an effective way reported cases of ill-treatment of children by law enforcement officers and ensure that appropriate legal actions were taken against alleged offenders; adopt appropriate measures to combat torture and cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment and proceed to the ratification of the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment. The Committee recommended that the State party increase its efforts to prevent HIV/AIDS; strengthen its measures to prevent mother-to-child transmission, inter alia, by combining and coordinating it with activities to reduce maternal mortality, and take adequate measures to address the impact upon children of the HIV/AIDS-related deaths of parents, teachers and others, in terms of children's reduced access to family life, adoption, emotional care and education.

The Committee recommended that the State party take all necessary measures to progressively ensure that girls and boys, from urban, rural and least developed areas, all have equal access to educational opportunities; and take necessary measures to remedy the low quality of education and to ensure better internal efficiency in the management of education; and build better infrastructure for schools and provide appropriate training for teachers and school materials. It also recommended that the State party take all necessary measures to ensure that children below the age of 18 years are not recruited in the Local Defence Forces or in any armed group proceeding to recruitment on the territory of the State party.

The Committee recommended that the State party take necessary measures for the completion of procedures against persons who allegedly committed war crimes and

who were at that time below the age of 18 within 6 months; and undertake all necessary measures to ensure the establishment of juvenile courts and the appointment of trained juvenile judges in all regions of the country; and consider deprivation of liberty only as a measure of last resort and for the shortest possible period and limit by law the length of pre-trial detention. Manneh (2014) published that on 20th November 1989, the world agreed that the rights of children needed to be protected in a more formal and systematic manner. The resulting Convention on the Rights of the Child is the most widely signed human rights treaty in history, and is the global community's promise to children everywhere.

The Convention changed the way children are viewed and treated – i.e., as human beings with a distinct set of rights instead of as passive objects of care and charity. The unprecedented acceptance of the Convention clearly shows a wide global commitment to advancing children's rights. After all, children are the future of any community, society and nation. This year marks 25 years since the United Nations General Assembly adopted the Convention, which Rwanda ratified shortly afterwards in 1990. The Convention's 25th anniversary in Rwanda is combined with the 10th National Children's Summit and themed '20 Years and Beyond: Advancing Child Rights in Rwanda.' The event presents an opportunity to look at what has been achieved in the 20 years after the liberation as well as ask what still needs to be done, by whom, and how to fast track results for children within the Sustainable Development Goals.

The work of the One UN in Rwanda, particularly that of UNICEF is central to answering these questions. We continue to provide collective support to the

Government of Rwanda and dedicate our combined efforts to advancing the rights of all children in the country, especially the vulnerable and disadvantaged. Over the last twenty years, Rwanda's children have seen real improvements in their lives thanks to fruitful collaboration between the government, civil society, development partners and other stakeholders. As we mark the 25th anniversary of the Convention there is much to celebrate, from declining infant mortality to rising school enrolment.

In fact, Rwanda is a leader with the highest improvement in child survival in East and Southern Africa with under-five mortality falling by two-thirds since 1990. Rwanda has the highest primary school enrolment rates in Africa. For both boys and girls, it is on track to achieve universal access to primary education by 2015. As Alex Murenzi, the president of the National Children's Forum says "For every country, children need to go to school. Education will help us to develop ourselves. Education gives us good leaders". But despite these successes and the rapid economic growth registered by the country, much more needs to be done to reduce disparities and help children live in dignity, making choices about their futures and reaching their full potential. All to ensure no child is left behind.

My sincere vote of thanks goes to the Government of Rwanda and President Paul Kagame in particular, for the astute leadership and commitment to the children of Rwanda. The Government has continued to invest in children by providing extensive services to the poorest families which enables children to access the basic services from their early stages in life. A case in point is the recently approved Justice for Children Policy – keeping children at the heart of the agenda.

Investing in children is fundamental to breaking the inter-generational cycle of poverty and giving all children a fair start in life. Reducing child poverty should become an explicit policy priority with well-defined targets and accountability. Investing in children must be at the crux of every public institution and NGO's growth strategy. Greater investment in social protection, especially for the poorest and most vulnerable children, is critical to improving equity.

Social protection, from early childhood through adolescence, not only reduces poverty but also has a knock-on effect on health, nutrition and education. Clear lines of accountability and effective monitoring are also critical, and where possible, civil society, children and adolescents themselves should help monitor progress. It is therefore comforting that the Government of Rwanda has placed all these principles at the heart of its medium and long-time development strategies. As the One UN in Rwanda, we are united in our belief that everybody has an obligation and the potential to do more to realize the rights of every single child in the country.

Not only is this a moral imperative, but is an economic necessity. Our children, the future leaders of this country, hold the key to well-being and prosperity for future generations they depend on us. In commemorating the 25th anniversary of the Convention and the 10th Anniversary of the Children's Summit, I call on each one of us to do more for the children and adolescents of Rwanda and to continue transforming the future of the country by prioritizing child rights and investing in the well-being of all children. This historic milestone serves as an urgent reminder that, despite our tremendous progress along the path to realizing the rights of all children, more still remains to be done.

2.7 Legality of Corporal Punishment in Rwanda

2.7.1 Home

Corporal punishment is lawful in the home. Parents have a “right of correction” under article 347 of the Civil Code (1988). Provisions against violence and abuse in the Penal Code (1977), Law No. 27 Relating to Rights and Protection of the Child Against Violence (2001) and the Constitution (2003) are not interpreted as prohibiting all corporal punishment in childrearing. The National Integrated Child Rights Policy adopted by the Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion in August 2011 states that “physical abuse, including torture and cruelty against children and corporal punishment of children is prohibited in all settings” and defines all settings as including “homes, communities, schools, all centres and institutions that have children, prisons and detention centres, etc.” (para. 5.5). This is policy rather than law but one objective of the policy is to serve as a guide for legislation (page 9).

A draft Law on the Rights and Protection of the Child is under discussion. As at August 2011, proposed provisions included physical punishment in the definition of violence (article 3), stated that discipline within the family should be administered with humanity and dignity and provided for the Minister to make an order regarding disciplinary measures in the home (article 25). The law would repeal all provisions contrary to it (article 69) but we have yet to confirm that this would include the “right of correction” in the Civil Code. The draft was debated in the Senate in August 2011 but we have no further information.

As at January 2012, a new Penal Code had been passed by parliament and was awaiting the signature of the President. The Code defines violence as “acts of

physical force used against a person” (article 290) and punishes the wilful infliction of blows or injuries on a child under 16 (article 151) as well as older children and adults (articles 147-150), and assault (article 154). It is unclear whether or not this would prohibit all corporal punishment in childrearing as the Code also includes the offence of causing suffering to a child but includes in this only “disproportional” punishment, inhumane or degrading treatment (article 214).

2.7.2 Schools

There appears to be no explicit prohibition of corporal punishment in schools. In January 2011, a draft ministerial Decree was under discussion which reportedly stated that corporal punishment should not be used (third/fourth report to the CRC, para. 145) but there is no prohibition in legislation. Corporal punishment would possibly be prohibited in the draft Law on the Rights and Protection of the Child.

2.7.3 Penal System

Corporal punishment is unlawful as a **sentence for crime** under the Penal Code, the Code of Penal Procedure, the Constitution and Law No. 27 Relating to Rights and Protection of the Child Against Violence. There is no provision for judicial corporal punishment in the draft Penal Code or the draft Law on the Rights and Protection of the Child. The Constitution states in article 15: “Every person has the right to their physical and mental integrity. No one shall be subject to torture, physical abuse or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment.”

There is no explicit prohibition of corporal punishment as a **disciplinary measure** in penal institutions, though a number of laws prohibit cruel, inhuman or degrading

treatment. Article 23 of the law establishing the National Prisons Service (No. 38/2006) states that “the prisoner must be treated with dignity and respect for human rights. He or she is especially protected against any sort of torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment”. Article 15 of the law establishing the Local Defence Force (No. 25/2004) punishes the use of excessive force.

Article 8 of the Instructions of the Minister of Internal Security relating to the conditions of detention, the provision of food and detainee visits (No. 09/2008) states that no prisoner should be subjected to torture or other abuse or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment. Corporal punishment would possibly be prohibited in the draft Law on the Rights and Protection of the Child.

2.7.4 Recommendations by Human Rights Treaty Bodies

2.7.4.1 Committee on the Rights of the Child

“The Committee notes that the Rwandan legislation does not include an explicit prohibition of corporal punishment and is concerned at the persistent practice of corporal punishment by parents, teachers and law enforcement officers (1 July 2004, CRC/C/15/Add.234, Concluding observations on second report, paras. 34 and 35)

“The Committee recommends that the State party:

- a) Introduce legislation explicitly prohibiting corporal punishment;
- b) make use of information and education campaigns to sensitize parents, teachers, other professionals working with children and the public at large to the harm caused by corporal punishment and promote alternative, non-violent forms of discipline, as foreseen in article 28, paragraph 2, of the Convention;

- c) investigate in an effective way reported cases of ill-treatment of children by law enforcement officers and ensure that appropriate legal action is taken against alleged offenders; and
- d) Provide for the care, recovery and rehabilitation of child victims, in the light of article 39 of the Convention.”

2.7.4.2 Committee Against Torture

“The Committee notes the measures taken by the State party to combat violence against domestic violence, in particular violence against women and girls. The Committee also notes that the number of cases of rape has decreased between 2006 and 2009. However, the Committee remains concerned about the persistence of this phenomenon as noted in the report of the State party and notes with concern that there was still 1,570 cases of rape of children officially recorded by the State party in 2009. The Committee also regrets the absence of comprehensive and recent statistical data on domestic violence, as well as on investigations, prosecutions, convictions and penalties applied against perpetrators. The Committee further expresses its concern about the absence of a comprehensive legislation against corporal punishment of children (arts. 2, 12, 13, 14 and 16).

The State party should reinforce measures to eliminate domestic violence, in particular violence against women and girls, including by adopting a comprehensive strategy. The State party should facilitate women to lodge complaints against perpetrators and ensure prompt, impartial and effective investigations of all allegations of sexual violence and should prosecute suspects and punish perpetrators. It should continue to provide women victims with assistance including shelters,

medical aid, as well as with rehabilitation measures. Furthermore, the State party should explicitly prohibit corporal punishment of children in all settings.

The State party should provide the Committee with information on the investigations of cases of domestic violence, in particular violence against women and girls, including rape and other crimes including sexual violence and the outcome of trials, including information on the penalties, redress and compensation offered to the victims.”Rwanda was examined in the first cycle of the Universal Periodic Review in 2011. The Government accepted the recommendation to prohibit corporal punishment of children (A/HRC/17/4, Report of the Working Group, para. 78).

2.8 Empirical Literature

Mbikyo (2012) observed that corporal punishment was still used in Ugandan schools against the agreement of parents, 1995 constitution and 1996 Children Act which instilled the application of basic human rights in primary schools. The Ugandan Ministry of Education banned the use of corporal punishment because the procedures and guidelines on the use of the punishment were not clear and quite uncontrolled. It seemed therefore incontestable to put complete stop on harsh punishment. Nevertheless, teachers claimed alternative punishment to unruly pupils, which means that it is not easy to leave their habit of punishing pupils although the consequences are manifest.

Kambuga, *et al.* (2018) revealed that majority of teachers continue using Corporal punishment as the only alternative punishment strategy. They observed that students wished to see corporal punishment eliminated due to its harm and cause for students

skipping classes and absenteeism. The authors recommended that the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and other stakeholders continue empowering teachers on the appropriate use of harmless disciplinary strategies instead of corporal punishment.

Owen (2015) wrote that corporal punishment of children is lawful in Rwanda, despite recommendations to prohibit it by the Committee on the Rights of the Child, the Committee Against Torture, the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and during the 1st cycle Universal Periodic Review of Rwanda (which the Government accepted). However, the international survey showed that Rwanda has some of the highest rates of corporal punishment: the prevalence of school corporal punishment varies greatly from country to country, from 3 to 65%. In Rwanda, 47% of boys and 51% of girls report corporal punishment in the week preceding the survey (Pontalti, 2013).

Various meetings for awareness raising were conducted in different areas of Rwanda. Manneh published that on June 16th 2016, a meeting was held in Nyagatare District to celebrate the Day of the African Child and on July 31st 2016 in Gatsibo District, the World Population Day was also celebrated. He wrote that in those two celebrations, it was recalled that children are seen as precious “little beings” to be jealously protected and nurtured for full blossoming in life. Thus, virtually all modern societies have in place various legal and enabling frameworks for protecting, educating and nurturing children, particularly in their most formative ages, that conform to, or are derived from, various international and regional conventions, norms and laws. However, a significant number of children are still subjected to

widespread abuses by the adults, which in most cases damage them psychologically and physically for life. Owing to deficiencies in educational and health facilities as well as lack of proper nutrition or care, many of them are also not adequately nurtured to realize their full potentials in life (Manneh, 2016).

District Police in Gatsibo has called upon all players in protection and promotion of the rights of children to work as a team and partner with security organs to ensure that the rights of minors are protected and observed. During the meeting that held on August 11th 2016 in Gatsibo District it was noted that cases of corporal punishment were still observed along with school dropout, early marriages and child labour where some parents are using their children in agricultural activities like rice while others boys are cattle keepers. Police officers said that efforts are still needed to work together to combat such child abuse (Rwanda National Police, 2016).

2.9 Conceptual Framework of the Study

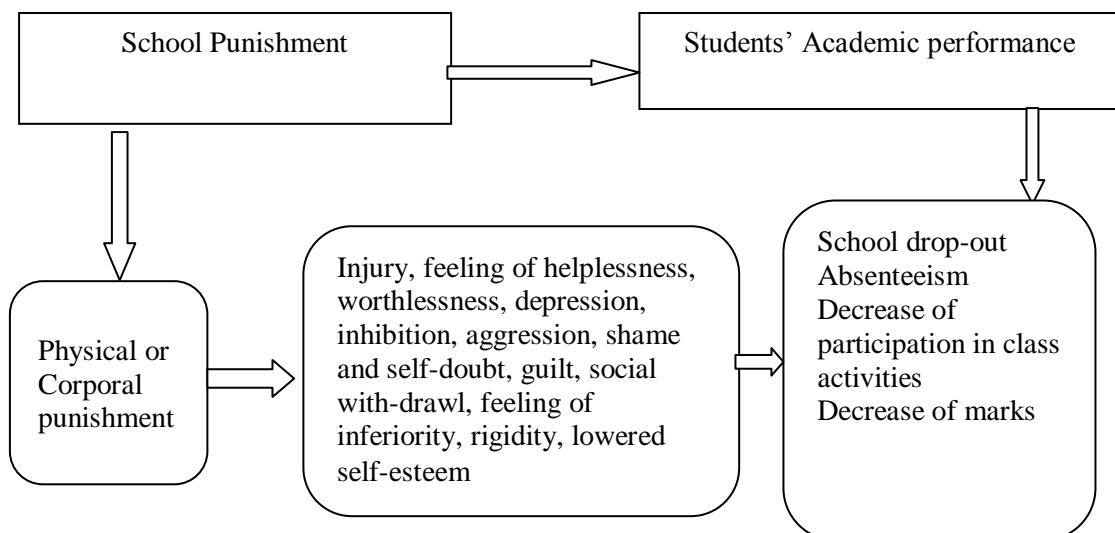


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Adapted from UNICEF (2000), Banda (2006) and Pandey (2001)

The reports of UNICEF (2000), Banda (2006) and Pandey (2001) asserted that corporal punishment is still perpetrated in Rwandan primary schools which impact significantly on students' academic performance. Corporal punishment at school may be the cause of injury, feeling of helplessness, worthlessness, depression, inhibition, aggression, shame and self-doubt, guilt, social withdrawal, feeling of inferiority, rigidity, lowered self-esteem. All these consequences affect negatively the students' academic performance and the cases of school drop-out, absenteeism, decrease of participation in class activities and decrease of marks in many schools where corporal punishment is done.

2.10 Research Gap

This study focuses on finding out the effects of corporal punishment in primary schools in Rwanda at large and in Kiramuruzi sector, Gatsibo District in particular. Corporal punishment is a fact of inflicting pain to children at school and at home while looking for sustaining discipline. In many countries various studies have been carried out significantly but in Rwanda, no scientific studies have been conducted to evoke the issue of eliminating or preventing the use of pain for seeking children's discipline. Yet apart from the physical harm caused by the perpetrators of physical punishment, cognitive and emotional effects are not taken into account because they are not directly visible. This research would like to fill this research gap by explaining scientifically the reason why in Rwanda also rigorous measures should be taken.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter three dealt with the description of research approaches and design adopted in this study, it established and described the sampling, data collection and analysis techniques. The limitations to the study and ethical considerations have been tackled at the end of this chapter.

3.2 Research Approaches

This exploratory study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches, which makes it a mixed research. Exploratory research is research conducted for a problem that has not been clearly defined. It often occurs before we know enough to make conceptual distinctions or to posit an explanatory relationship. Exploratory research develops concepts more clearly, established priorities, develops operational definitions and improve the final research design (Shields, Patricia&Rangarjan, 2013). In order to give a more detailed and balanced picture of the study and thereby increase the credibility and validity of the results, various qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection have been used.

3.3 Research Design

The research design for this study was survey. Survey involves collecting information from fairly large groups of people by means of questionnaires and interviews. DeFranzo (2012) asserted that using survey design helps respondents provide meaningful opinions, comments, and feedback. This valuable feedback is your baseline to measure and establish a benchmark from which to compare results

over time. It gives way to discussion and objective information within a broader perspective. All those reasons pushed me to use this design to collect relevant information for my study.

3.4 Study Area

This study targeted mostly primary schools within Gatsibo district. The district comprises areas in the north-east of Rwanda, between Kayonza and Nyagatare. The German post of Gatsibo was located here, as is the present-day Gabiro military camp. The eastern part of the district is in Akagera National Park, with the Kagera River forming the border with Tanzania. Gatsibo district comprises the reason of choosing Gatsibo district was based on the fact that in 2009 over 100 head teachers from different primary and secondary schools in this district have formed an association to fight cases of child abuse including corporal punishment in schools, and I was among those teachers. We received a training organized by Plan International Rwanda about fighting child abuse within school premises. The training attracted 79 primary head teachers and 39 secondary school head teachers. I was then interested to go back and explore the situation of corporal punishment 5 years after that training.

3.5 Study Population and Sampling

The study focused on students and teachers of primary schools in Gatsibo district, staffs in charge of education at sector and district levels; which make the approximate total number of 145000 people. Purposive and simple random samplings were used to select an appropriate sample as it seemed impossible to reach the entire study population.

Purposive sampling is a sampling technique in which researcher relies on his or her own judgment when choosing members of population to participate in the study. Purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method and it occurs when “elements selected for the sample are chosen by the judgment of the researcher. Researchers often believe that they can obtain a representative sample by using a sound judgment, which will result in saving time and money” (Black, 2010). This non-probability and qualitative sampling offers more limited transferability based on judgmental considerations. Although it does not deliver full generalizability, interpretations of data provide a clear perspective of how pupils are punished and the impact on their school performance.

Apart from purposive sampling, simple random sampling was also used for the selection of respondents. a simple random sample is a subset of individuals (a sample) chosen from a larger set (a population). Each individual is chosen randomly and entirely by chance, such that each individual has the same probability of being chosen at any stage during the sampling process, and each subset of k individuals has the same probability of being chosen for the sample as any other subset of k individuals (Yates, 2008).

Table 3.1: Sample Size

Respondents	Number	Sample	%	Sampling technique
Pupils	1120	112	77.24	Simple random sampling
Teachers	280	28	19.31	Purposive sampling
Sector Education Officer (SEO)	4	4	2.76	No sampling
District Education Officer (DEO)	1	1	0.69	No sampling
Total	1405	145	100%	

Source: Primary data, February 2015

As shown in Table1, primary school pupils occupied 77.24% and teachers 19.31% as the purpose of this study concerns the assessment of harsh punishment in primary schools. Both Sector and District Education officer have been included in the sample as parents and in charge of education.

3.6 Data Collection Methods

Primary data have been collected by the researcher from the field. An advantage of using primary data is that researchers are collecting information for the specific purposes of their study. In essence, the questions the researchers ask are tailored to elicit the data that help them with their study. In this study, the researcher collected the data the means of questionnaire administration, semi-structured interview and focus group discussion, as well as observation. Secondary data were collected via document review. The research consulted possible reports and publications in relation to women empowerment and governance system.

3.6.1 Questionnaire Administration

“A Questionnaire is a set of questions designed to generate the data necessary to accomplish the objectives of the research project; it is a formalized schedule for collecting information from respondents” (McDaniel & Gates, 2005). The researcher designed a questionnaire relevant to the research objectives. Questions were formulated, typed, printed out and distributed to the respondents. Only groups of selected respondents were invited to filling in the questionnaire by answering to the questions. Teachers were concerned with this instrument. Before distributing questionnaire, respondents were explained the purpose of the study and their rights.

3.6.2 Focus Group Discussion

After completion of questionnaires, a group discussion was conducted among the pupils. The discussion was guided, monitored and recorded by a researcher who acted as a facilitator and moderator. A focus group discussion (FGD) is a good way to gather together people from similar backgrounds or experiences to discuss a specific topic of interest. The group of participants is guided by a moderator (or group facilitator) who introduces topics for discussion and helps the group to participate in a lively and natural discussion amongst them.

The strength of FGD relies on allowing the participants to agree or disagree with each other so that it provides an insight into how a group thinks about an issue, about the range of opinion and ideas, and the inconsistencies and variation that exists in a particular community in terms of beliefs and their experiences and practices (Stewart and Shamdasani, 1990). The researcher formulated guiding questions and themes of discussion. Respondents will be invited to answer the questions, interact and exchange on the themes of discussion and complement each other. This method helped to get more information not provided by questionnaires.

3.6.3 Interview

The word "interview" refers to a one-on-one conversation with one person acting in the role of the *interviewer* and the other in the role of the *interviewee*. The interviewer asks questions, the interviewee responds, with participants taking turns talking. Interviews usually involve a transfer of information from interviewee to interviewer, which is usually the primary purpose of the interview, although information transfers can happen in both directions simultaneously (Merriam

Webster Dictionary, 2016).As the purpose of the research interview is to explore the views, experiences, beliefs and/or motivations of individuals on specific matters, the researcher used open-ended questions to get a deeper understanding of the issue of the study and complete the information gathered through questionnaires.

3.6.4 Observation

According to Daniel and Gates (2005), this technique allowed the researcher to see for himself/herself what people actually do rather than what they say they do, and to bridge the gap in-between. While answering questions, the researcher kept on observing pupils behaviours and emotions, which helped to have a complete idea on the effects of punishment.

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

During data collection, the following instruments were used:

3.7.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a data collection instrument consistent of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of widely gathering information from respondents (Abawi, 2014).

3.7.2 Interview Schedule

An interview schedule is basically a list containing a set of structured questions that have been prepared, to serve as a guide for interviewers, researchers and investigators in collecting information or data about a specific topic or issue. The schedule will be used by the interviewer, who will fill in the questions with the answers received during the actual interview (Martin, 2016).

3.7.3 Discussion Guide

A discussion guide is a set of questions/tasks/topics that you, the researcher, wish to walk a research participant through in order to reach your learning objectives. They facilitate the conversation between you and the participant, and dictate its ebbs and flows. The best discussion guides move from easy and specific questions, to more difficult, higher-level ones. Starting with “softball” questions will help the research participant get comfortable, and get in the habit of speaking their mind (TheRobHayes, 2015).

3.7.4 Observation Checklist

This instrument enabled to observe and assess the students’ behaviours while they are responding on questions about cruel punishment they are usually used to suffer for. It comprises items in relation to the study objectives.

3.8 Data Analysis Techniques

3.8.1 Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis is the most common form of analysis in qualitative research (Guest, 2012). It emphasizes pinpointing, examining, and recording patterns (or "themes") within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Themes are patterns across data sets that are important to the description of a phenomenon and are associated to a specific research question (Daly, *et al.*, 1997). After naming themes, the researcher presented all related opinions from respondents and interpreted and gave meaning relation to the research topic. In some case, numerical data were presented in frequency tables and figures, but the research interpreted in words the meaning of percentages in relation to the specific theme.

Table 3.1: Thematic Analysis Process

Phases	Process	Results
Phase 1: Familiarization with data	Read and re-read data in order to become familiar with what the data entailed, paying specific attention to patterns that occurred.	Preliminary "start" codes and detailed notes
Phase 2: Generating initial codes	Generate the initial codes by documenting where and how patterns occurred. This happened through data reduction where the researcher collapsed data into labels in order to create categories for more efficient analysis.	Comprehensive codes of how data answers research question.
Phase 3: Searching for themes among codes	Combination of codes into overarching themes that accurately depict the data. It is important in developing themes that the researcher described exactly what the themes mean through related information	List of themes for further analysis
Phase 4: Reviewing themes	In this stage, the researcher looked at how the themes supported the data. If the analysis seemed incomplete, the researcher went back to find what was missing.	Coherent recognition of how themes are patterned to tell an accurate story about the data.
Phase 5: Defining and naming themes	The researcher defined what each theme was, which aspects of data were captured, and what was interesting about the themes.	A comprehensive analysis of what the themes contributed to understanding the data
Phase 6: Producing the final report	When the researcher wrote the report, he decided which themes make meaningful contributions to understanding how community development project contributed to the economic empowerment of female headed households. Matching the perceptions of respondents with the specific and the general objectives of the study.	Description and explanation of the results.

Source: Fereday, Jennifer & Elimear Muir-Cochrane (2006).

3.8.2 Content Analysis

Content analysis is a method for summarizing any form of content by counting various aspects of the content. This enabled a more objective evaluation than comparing content based on the impressions of a reader. Content analysis, though it often analyses written words, is a quantitative method. The results of content analysis are numbers and percentages. The method of content analysis enabled the researcher to include large amounts of textual information and systematically identify its properties, such as the frequencies of most used keywords by locating the more important structures of its communication content. Such amounts of textual information must be categorised to provide a meaningful reading of content under scrutiny.

Content analysis is a research technique used to make replicable and valid inferences by interpreting and coding textual material. By systematically evaluating texts (e.g., documents, oral communication, and graphics), qualitative data can be converted into quantitative data. Although the method has been used frequently in the social sciences, only recently has it become more prevalent among organizational scholars (Robertson, 1976).

3.9 Pearson Correlation Coefficient

Pearson correlation coefficient also referred to as Pearson's r , the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient or the bivariate correlation, is a measure of the linear correlation between two variables X and Y . According to the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality it has a value between $+1$ and -1 , where 1 is total positive linear correlation, 0 is no linear correlation, and -1 is total negative linear correlation. It

was developed by Karl Pearson from a related idea introduced by Francis Galton in the 1880s (Stigler, 1989). It also helped to determine if there is relationship between variables and the magnitude of that relationship whether it is strong, moderate, or weak.

3.10 Limitations to the Study

At the beginning of field research, it was found that majority of the students could not disclose whether they are beaten at school or not, it took time to the researcher to converse with them, explain them the purpose of the study and install a kind of trustful environment. This is the same for teachers who did not want to acknowledge corporal punishment at school. Another challenge was to get the staffs' appointments. I started field study while they were busy with financial year closing period. I decided to meet them at the end of data collection period; which added at least a month to the time I had allocated to data collection.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

For each encounter with my respondents, I had to introduce myself and explain the purpose of my study and the concerned research tool. I should install trust before beginning the research questions. I explained them their rights in the study and assured anonymity and confidentiality the information given. I tried my best to treat them with respect.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter four of this study focused on presentation of the findings gathered via various research tools such as interview guide, questionnaire administration, focus group discussion guide, observation guide as well as document analysis for secondary sources. Findings were organized and presented into frequency tables and figures generated with excel. After the tabulation exercise, numerical data have been translated into words so as to allow the researcher's interpretation. In any case, after presentation of respondents' socio-demographic characteristics, data were presented following the order of research objectives.

4.2 Presentation of the Respondents

Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Location

Location/school	Number		Total
	Pupils	Teachers	
Groupe Scolaire Gakenke	14	3	17
Bright Minds Academy	14	3	17
Kiramuruzi Primary School	14	3	17
Kiramuruzi Modern primary School	14	3	17
Group Scolaire Nyabisindu	14	4	18
Ntete Primary School	14	4	18
Gakoni Catholic Primary School	14	4	18
Gakoni Adventist Primary School	14	4	18
Sub-total	112	28	140
Kiramuruzi Sector staffs	4		4
District Education Officer	1		1
Total			145

Source: primary data, 2015

The research has been conducted within 8 purposively selected schools and 14 pupils have been participated in the study. In each school, pupils gathered together in focus

group discussion. In four schools, 3 teachers participated while in other schools, 4 teachers were available in each school during field research period; which made 28 teachers. Teachers were addressed in form of semi-structured interview. For the local government staffs, 4 sector education officers and one district education officer have been interviewed. Thus, the total sample size of study was made up of 145 respondents.

Table4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Age Group

Age group	Number	Percentage
[7 - 15]	112	77.24
[16-30]	15	10.34
[31-45]	18	12.42
	145	100%

Source: primary data, 2015

The pupils' age ranges from 7 to 15 years old. The primary school starting age is normally 7 in Rwanda while the ending age should be 13. You can see that the researcher found 15 as the ending age due to 16 pupils who have doubled the level at least once and 7 who started the school beyond 7 years because of various family issues. The young teacher is 24 while the old one is 45 years old. In the of the education officer the youngest and the oldest is 41.

Table 4.3: Distribution of Respondents by Sex

Respondents	Number by sex		Total number
	Male	Female	
Pupils (N=112)	58 (52%)	54 (48%)	112
Teachers (N=28)	10 (36%)	18 (64%)	28
District Education Officer (N=1)	1 (100%)	0	1
Sector Education Officers (N=4)	3 (75%)	1 (25%)	4
Total	72 (49.65%)	73 (51.35%)	145

Source: primary data, 2015

As depicted in the table, there is not a big difference between respondents in terms of sex; 49.65% for males and 51.35% for females. Among the primary school pupils, 52% were male while 48% were female; and among teachers, 36% were male and 64% were female. For the local leaders, only one sector education office was female; other four staffs were male. No statistical explanation for these difference, the researcher just interviewed who were available in the period of the study.

Table 4.4: Distribution of Respondents by Level of Education

Respondents	Level of education	Number	Percentage
Pupils	Primary school, P1	16	11
	Primary school, P2	20	14
	Primary school, P3	20	14
	Primary school, P4	19	13
	Primary school, P5	19	13
	Primary school, P6	18	12.4
Teachers	Secondary	24	16.5
	University	4	2.7
SEO and DEO	University	5	3.4
Total		145	100

Source: primary data, 2015

This Table presents the frequency of respondents according to their level of education. The research participants have attended from primary school to university level. The researcher interviewed interacted with school pupils of all level from P1 to P6 within their school premises. He had proposed to take the same number of pupils from each level but some students feared to face interview in front of their colleagues while others wished to participate. In any case, the researcher took into account the rights of voluntary participation of respondents; which led to the sample size of 112 pupils spread in all levels (P1=16, P2=20, P3=20, P4=19, P5=19, P6=18). Among their teachers, only 28 accepted to participate in the interview. 24 (16.5% of the total sample) had completed the secondary school level while 4 (2.7%)

had completed the university level. The later said that they are still teaching in primary school but waiting to get secondary school opportunities because the requirements for teaching in Rwandan primary schools are limited to teacher training college certificate. The sector education officer (SEO) and district education officer (DEO) have all completed the university studies in education.

4.3 Presentation and Analysis of the Findings

This section encompasses all research findings in the order of specific objectives. The researcher hereby presented the findings gathered with the research techniques described in chapter three (questionnaire, focus group discussion, interview, observation and documentation). Findings are firstly presented and thereafter analyzed and interpreted in relation to research objectives.

4.3.1 Types of Punishment in Primary Schools

Table 4.5: Physical Punishment

Types of punishment	Pupils (N=112)		Teachers (N=28)		SEO&DEO (N=5)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Beating with stick	40	35.7	5	17.8	4	80
Beating with arms/legs	12	10.7	2	7.1	2	40
Biting with nails	5	4.4	0	0	1	20
Pulling hairs	3	2.6	1	3.5	0	0
Forced Kneeling down	30	26.7	15	53.5	5	100
Moving on knees	20	17.8	8	28.5	5	100

Source: primary data, 2015

Various physical punishments are perpetrated by teachers at primary schools as established by the study respondents. Pupils have enumerated several punishments they are imposed to when pupils do not comply with the school regulations, 35.7% declared they are beaten with stick, and 10.7% confessed being beaten with arms and legs. 26.7% said that they are forced to spend some hours kneeling down as punishment. Teachers also confirmed that some of their colleagues do physically punish their pupils. 53.5% of them affirmed that teachers do punish pupils by making them keel down for some hours while 28.5% said that they make them move some distance on their knees. 17.8% of teachers listed beating pupils among the physical punishment imposed to pupils at primary school.

Sector education officers (SEO) and the district education officer (DEO) confirmed that teacher oblige pupils to kneel down in case of some mistakes and beat them in school premises when they do not comply with some regulations or when they fail to accomplish a task.

Table 4.6: Psychosocial Punishment

Types of punishment	Pupils (N=112)		Teachers (N=28)		SEO&DEO (N=5)	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Insults	45	40.1	5	17.8	5	100
Aggressive words	40	35.7	7	25	4	80
Being spitted up	10	8.9	2	7.1	1	20
Bad words upon pupils' parents	18	16.0	5	17.8	2	40
Being put out of class	22	19.6	17	60.7	5	100
Fired from class	5	4.4	4	14.2	3	60

Source: primary data, 2015

This table establishes different non-physical punishment in form words and other bad gestures towards pupils as punishment. 40.1% of the pupils declared that some teachers insults them; 35.7% said that teachers address them in an aggressive way; while 19.6% said that they are sometimes sent out of class in case of some mistakes. 16.0% confessed that teachers sometimes treat verbally pupils' parents in form of insults when the latter make mistakes. Teachers themselves (60.7%) declared that they send pupils out in middle of class lectures when they make mistake and 25% said that they sometimes use aggressive words to address defective pupils. 17.8% accepted that some of their colleagues insult pupils or say abruptly bad things upon pupils' parents to faultiest pupils.

All the education officers who participated in the study confirmed knowing that teachers do insult pupils at school and put them out during teaching activities. They said that teachers use aggressive words while addressing imperfect pupils and sometimes they send them home and thereby prevent them from attending their classes.

4.3.2 Effects of Harsh Punishment on Students' Performance

Harsh physical punishments do not improve students' in-school behaviour or academic performance. In fact, this study found that in schools where corporal punishment is frequently used, schools have performed academically worse than those in schools that prohibit corporal punishment. This has been stated by 33 respondents, 28 teachers and 5 sector staff, who most of the time experience this issue in daily works.

Table 4.7: Relationship between Harsh Punishment and Students' Performance

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T ^b	Approx. Sig.
Pearson's correlation (r)	-.870	.030	-14.338	.000 ^c
Spearman Correlation	-.963	.026	-28.998	.000 ^c
N of Valid Cases	33			

Source: primary data, 2015

As per Table9, both Pearson's r (P=-.870) and Spearman rho (P=-.963) confirmed the relationship between harsh punishment and academic performance of students. The table displays negative values leading to a strong positive relationship. Hence the increase of harsh punishment strongly leads to poor performance of students. Those statistical figures were supported by various statements from interviews such as:

“students who are frequently beaten at schools develop new and bad behaviours and cannot no longer actively participate in class works, which affect significantly their performance” (one district staff).

Many children who have been subjected to hitting, paddling or other harsh disciplinary practices have reported subsequent problems with depression, fear and anger. These students frequently withdraw from school activities and disengage academically.

One student declared:

“even if I know the answer I cannot raise my hand because when you fail to answer properly our teacher hits you, I choose to keep quiet”.

Another one said:

“I hate my teacher; she beats us for a very simple mistake. Lastly, I delayed to get into class because I had gone to short call (toilet), it's sad given the few minutes she had given us for break”.

Many students develop aggressively towards their teachers because they do not accept that kind of punishment. They take them like their enemies. Teachers confessed that victims of corporal punishment often develop deteriorating peer relationships. Not only have they developed hate vis-à-vis their teacher but also their classmates. Students who are often hit are friendly to those who are somehow supported by their teacher. They feel unlucky and unjustly treated. Some of them withdraw from group activities; which has an impact on their academic success.

They also declared that victims of harsh punishment develop difficulty with concentration. They said that some students do not work properly and actively in class. They look like busy in their mind. They don't follow the course of activities; which impacts on their school achievement. They also develop antisocial behaviour and intense dislike of authority. Given that, in their minds, teachers have become their enemies, and peers like rivals; they do no longer behave respectfully. You can find them hiding here and there and avoiding crossing their teachers. They make their own groups and avoid other students whom they think are well supported. Instead of coming back to their mistakes, they behave like rebels.

Somatic complaints have been cited among the consequences of corporal punishment. Some students are seriously suffering for injuries. Some teachers declared that some of their colleagues do not control themselves while hitting students. Refusing some kind of punishment, one student confessed he engaged in an open fight with his teacher. Both of them went injured; and the student changed the school. Ruptured eardrums, brain damage and other bodily injuries are some of the bad and tragic effects of corporal punishment. While the physical damage done to

the body can be treated, the emotional and psychological effects can affect the survivor deeply

One student interviewed described the effects of corporal punishment on his attitude towards school:

"You could be pushed to frog's jump for almost anything. I hated it. It was used as a way to degrade, embarrass students. . . I said I'd never take another frog's jump, it's humiliating, and it's degrading. Some teachers like it. Jumping like a frog causes you to lose respect for a person...."

Corporal punishment places parents and teachers in positions where they may have to choose between educational advancement and students' physical well-being. For instance, some parents who learn that their children are being struck at public school find themselves without recourse, unable to obtain legal or other redress when their children have been hit or pushed to unacceptable punishments and physical activities against their wishes. Ultimately some parents find that the only way they can protect their children from physical harm is to withdraw them from school altogether. Similarly, teachers who work in schools where corporal punishment is administered are often reluctant to send disruptive students out of the classroom because they are afraid the students will be beaten.

Moreover, a public school's use of corporal punishment affects every student in that school, including those who are not personally subjected to hitting or paddling. The prevalent use of physical violence against students creates an overall threatening school atmosphere that impacts students' ability to perform academically. Often, children who experience or witness physical violence will themselves develop disruptive and violent behaviours, further disturbing their classmates' learning as

well as their own.

Parents, teachers, sector staff and students themselves declared that victims of harsh punishment develop finally a tendency for school avoidance and school drop-out, and other evidence of negative high-risk adolescent behaviour. They listed several types of corporal punishment in form of hitting of a person with a hand or an object such as a cane or belt. It is also kicking, burning, shaking or throwing of a person with the intention of inflicting pain on them. Pinching or pulling the hair, forcing one to sit in uncomfortable or undignified positions, or forcing one to take excessive physical exercise as a way of disciplining them is tantamount to corporal punishment.

4.3.3 Challenges to Law Enforcement for Primary School Discipline

Table 4.9: Challenges to End Corporal Punishment

No	Challenges	Number (N=33)	Percentage
1	Lack of tangible measures	30	91
2	Resistance to change	28	85
3	Culture	31	94
4	Ignorance	32	97

Source: primary data, 2015

The above information has been provided by 33 respondents (28 teachers, 4 sector staffs and 1 district staff). They declared that corporal punishment is perpetuated in Rwanda primary schools due lack of tangible measures to eradicate harsh punishment (91%), resistance to change for most teachers (85%), and cultural beliefs (94%) and ignorance (97%).

Although prohibited by law in Rwanda as a way of disciplining children in schools, corporal punishment is still widely practiced by teachers and by parents in homes. This is because no measures have been taken to ensure that legislation is implemented and the behaviour of perpetrators changed. Corporal punishment is still widely practiced by teachers and parents as reflected in a qualitative and quantitative survey I conducted during this study.

According to the study, corporal punishment and other forms of degrading and humiliating punishment are still widely practiced in Rwanda both at school and at home. Children are often hit with a hand, a stick or hosepipe in schools when they do wrong. Although the study focused on school performance, parents confessed that children are also hit with sticks, belts, and hands, and in some cases denied food. Some parents and child tenders like practice corporal punishment because of the belief that children do not grow to be well-mannered adults if they are not spanked or beaten when they make mistakes. Some even say that abolishing corporal punishment is a Western concept that will cause havoc in African cultures and lead to moral decay.

Sector staff also established that corporal punishment is more pronounced in low-income environments and uneducated families than in affluent and educated families. This can be attributed to poverty and its effects like stress and high illiteracy levels in these families. Such factors tend to have an effect on how adults discipline children. Whatever reasons, parents and teachers and indeed other care-givers may have to justify corporal punishment as a form of child discipline; it should be noted that its effects on survivors are damaging.

The biggest concern for us the teachers is that *“Sometimes parents themselves do not agree with us on the children’s indiscipline and yet we actually spend a lot of time with these children at school”* noted one teacher who participated in this study. This is to say that some parents tend to protect their children’s mistakes and do not support teachers in students’ punishment. Although, some students witnessed not wishing the involvement of parents in school punishment as it has been stated by one student.

“I was sent home to bring my parent because I had nail polish. Why don’t they punish us without always involving our parents since we make mistakes without them knowing?”

It is apparent that sometimes teachers get confused about how and when to punish a student and when to involve parents in school punishment. In other extreme situations a child is sent home to return with a parent so that the case can be discussed further with the school authorities. Even then some children return without a parent claiming that the parent was so busy to come to school.

“In such circumstances, you have no choice but to leave the student alone since it is their right to attend class. The ministerial order stipulates that a child should not be a victim of a parent’s disobedience,” says a teacher in primary three.

The Rwanda Education Board (REB) should urgently formalize rules and regulations about school punishment and thereby remove teachers in such confusion.

4.3.4 Strategies to Impose Discipline in Primary Schools

Many students say that class rooms in some schools have turned to be wrestling grounds between students and teachers instead of using them as places for studies which is not the case. This follows the incident that happened at one school in

Gatsibo district where one teacher was expelled for beating up a student. However teachers claim that leaving a student to meander around is one factor that brings poor performances, bad behaviours both at school and home because of the fact that they lack career guidance.

Teachers believe that banning corporal punishments will not promote good performance in schools. According to one teacher:

“We don’t punish pupils because we want to, but we treat them as our children and we don’t beat them for no reason, we give them soft punishments as a way of keeping them focused, determined than allowing them go stray and making them our friends is our first priority.”

He also said that it’s very bad for school administrations and parents to develop that behaviour in students that they should report any teacher that threatens to punish them, that will create a gap between school administration, teachers, students and parents thus enmity between us.

Some teachers support corporal punishment while others do not agree with them as it would bring negative effect on student performance, reduces trust in them and thereby increases fear.

“It’s not good to beat or punish pupils. I preach against my fellow teachers who take punishment as the only solution of bringing up a student. We should instead come close to them and use other means than punishing them because they will hate or fear us and eventually will not grasp what we teach, we should not make them be on tension” Says another teacher of Kiramuruzi Sector.

According to one parent in Kiramuruzi sector, teachers and students should always work together and teachers should be there to direct them than punishing but if you say that they are not supposed to be punished, that’s separating them from teachers

because students themselves prove to be stubborn in class; punishments that are not so heavy should be applied so that they can keep focused.

Another parent also declared that students to some extent should be punished if they try to do what is not expected from them. We send them to school to study and become our fruits in future but when they try to go off topic, soft punishments should be applied; no parent or teacher can punish a child in order to kill him/her but to make their minds become UN pre-occupied with other things that will make them perform poorly.

“I also punish my children if they do homework wrongly, not because they don’t know, but they don’t either pay attention or mind and if they are not physically punished when they do wrong, their personal development will suffer.”

She added However, according to the Sector Education Officer of Kiramuruzi sector:

“There are many ways of making a student behave than punishments. Teachers should get warned that there are not there to beat or mistreat students, their work is to teach, council, advice and making students their friends; no teacher is allowed to walk around with sticks because that will be threatening a student and its centrally to the education system.”

He also said that teachers should use their professional ethics to sit down students, share with them their challenges, try not to be harsh or rude, become so close to them and they should conduct themselves in a way that will make a student respect him/her other than seeing punishments as the possible solution.

“School head teachers and directors should set internal rules and regulations and warn whoever teacher tries to punish or threatens a student and those who do “I don’t care” should leave education and try other business. Any teacher who seems to behave not professional or non-ethical will be dealt upon with and must know all students are there not to be treated as soldiers or police recruits.” He warns.

The best way to discipline a student should be the everyday approach from both parents and teachers, advising them when they do anything wrong. But the school or parents alone cannot put a student in order because students can change behaviours depending on where they are, so joining hands is the best solution. There is a Kinyarwanda saying, *“The stick can break bone and never cure the behaviours”*, but other psychological punishment can be applied and the parents can only intervene when one fails to change.

The best way to discipline a student is to first of all know what he/she dislikes or fears and when he is in any misconduct you just deprive them of that. If a student likes to play football you can order him/her to remain in the class studying while others are playing. But all the teachers do not support this position and raised how they understand this case.

“It depends on the age of a child. Children less than 10 years can only know they are wrong when they are beaten but this should not be all the time. Those aged 15 years and above can understand when you simply talk to them”, affirmed a teacher of primary two.

“Only small children should be beaten because it helps to show them the difference between right and wrong. It is useless to beat those in secondary because they should be mature enough to know the difference between right and wrong”, added another teacher.

“For me the punishment should depend on the gravity of the case and on what the school rules say”, said another teacher. However, counseling students or any other moral and psychological punishment has to come before the physical punishment.

Majority of respondents proposed some strategies as alternative to corporal punishment:

Make children take responsibility for their actions: Sector staff, teachers and parents as well as some pupils have suggested that one who breaks something should

fix it. If they lose some materials, their parents should be informed about that case, the way it happened, the guilt of their children and the cost of the lost materials.

Time out: Sometimes children become overexcited and this can lead to bad behaviour. It can be effective to take the child out of the room to calm down, sit quietly and think about what he or she has done wrong. In the case of repetitive bad behaviour, parents should be informed and called up to participate in the pupils' punishment.

Denial of what they (children) cherish: The punishment could be not watching television, not being allowed to visit friends or not receiving pocket money. This kind of home punishment may be applied at school too. Pupils may be refused the access to some advantages at school. This may induce a sort of shame towards the peers and increase the need to come back to good manner.

Verbal warning: According to the research respondents, this is the most advantageous punishment. Through verbal warning, teachers take time to discuss with the pupils about good behaviours and disciplinary attitudes. Pupils will learn from their teachers experience and advices. It is a good way of explaining to the pupils their responsibility and thereby building mutual trust.

These measures are progressive, do not traumatize the child and are in line with human rights standards and most important, are the most preferred alternatives to corporal punishment by parents against corporal punishment because they emphasize on their involvement in the their children' punishment. They should therefore be preferred to corporal punishment.

4.4 Discussion of the Findings

This section focuses on discussion of the findings. The researcher hereby discussed findings in relation to the existing and similar studies. The discussion was done in the order of the following specific objectives

- (i) Identify the types of punishment in Kiramuruzi primary schools
- (ii) Assess the effects of harsh punishment on students' performance
- (iii) Find out the challenges to law enforcement and strategies to impose discipline in primary schools

4.4.1 Types of Punishment in Kiramuruzi Primary Schools

Corporal punishment is still perpetrated in various schools of Kiramuruzi sector, Gatsibo district, irrespective to the law established in Rwanda that intended to stop harsh punishment at home and at school. According to Owen (2015), the Convention of the Rights of the Child (CRC) has twice recommended prohibition of all corporal punishment in Rwanda. Unfortunately, no clear laws have been formulated against corporal punishment in Rwanda, thus harsh punishment was found to be still perpetrated in different schools. Law and legal systems are expected to protect the children from abuse of authorities either at home or at schools or at systems of administration of justice duly considering their childhood, innocence and incapacity to understand.

Children below seven years are exempted from criminal liability. Their act is not treated as an offence at all. In essence, a child cannot be subjected to ordinary methods of physical punishments including imprisonment for the offences owing to

their age and incapacity of formulating a malicious intention. Thus for being a student and having committed a wrong of not doing homework or violating a dress code, should not invite any corporal punishment.

Study respondents established a list of harsh punishments that are still being done in Kiramuruzi primary schools. Children are being beaten at school using sticks, arms/legs and bitten with nails. Majority of respondents confirmed that many primary school pupils are beaten at school as a way of punishment. Teachers think that this punishment approach is correct and advantageous because it has been operated since many decades ago in Rwanda primary schools. In *The Newtimes* of October 30, 2015, Nsabimana published that the latest study done by the Positive Discipline programme in Rwanda reveals that 56 per cent of teachers practiced physical punishment through either slapping (at 66 per cent) or hitting with objects (68 per cent). "Children's rights should be respected. It is the responsibility of both parents and teachers to use positive discipline approaches when children do wrong so that they feel free and comfortable to express their feelings about such a fault," Claudine Uwera Kanyamanza, the executive secretary of the National Children Commission (NCC) said in a meeting. Unfortunately, Rwanda is not listed among the 42 countries, worldwide, which have already prohibited all forms of corporal punishments of children.

Apart from beating students, there other sad punishment types perpetrated in Kiramuruzi primary schools such as pulling students' hairs, forcing them moving with their knees. This was confirmed by all study participants. This matches with the

publication of Yusufzai in 2005 according to which physical punishment includes smacking, spanking, kicking, throwing, pinching, pulling hair, twisting arms or ears, forcing the child to stay in uncomfortable or undignified position, forcing the child to take excessive exercise, burning, giving electric shock and hitting them with different objects such as cane, belt, whip, shoe, broom and electric wire.

Respondents declared also that students receive psychological punishment in form of words directed to their parents. The psychological punishment, found to be more humiliating and degrading, includes verbal abuse, ridicule, isolation and scaring. Such punishments leave children in a vicious cycle of frustration that haunts them for their entire lives.

4.4.2 Effects of Harsh Punishment on Students' Performance

A strong association between harsh punishment and academic performance of students was found. Corporal punishment has many effects on students' performance in terms of changing their psychosocial behaviours and their academic motivation.

4.4.2.1 Psychosocial Effects of Harsh Punishment At School

Corporal punishment is associated with children's aggression and other antisocial behaviour (towards peers, siblings and adults). Corporal punishment may legitimize violence for children in interpersonal relationships because they tend to internalise the social relations they experience. The behaviour that teachers and parents are most likely to intend to prevent when they physically punish children is exactly the behaviour that they are likely to be strengthening. Social learning theory (Bandura 1969) also suggests that physical punishment enables children to learn aggressive

behaviour through modelling. If teachers try to modify children's behaviour through inflicting pain, then those children are likely to do the same to others when they want to influence other people's actions.

As Straus (2001) asserted, a sociocultural perspective on development suggests that children's cognitive development emerges out of social interactions. Social relationships such as early attachment to caregivers, friendships and collaborative learning between peers, and relationships between children and teachers, directly and indirectly influence children's learning and motivation to learn. The use of verbal methods of discipline through explanation and reasoning are likely to provide the child with more cognitive stimulation than the use of corporal punishment without induction. Thus, poorer cognitive outcomes may result if parents who physically punish their children make less use of inductive methods of discipline, such as explanation and reasoning – procedures that are likely to enhance cognitive growth. It may also be that children who are anxious about being physically punished are inhibited from exploring their physical and social worlds, and therefore less likely to extend their cognitive skills.

The findings revealed that in Kiramuruzi primary schools psychological punishments are perpetrated against primary schools students. Humiliating words are used in form of punishment and impact significantly on children's academic capacity and performance. Students do not believe in their teachers and lack concentration in class. Another concern arising out of attachment theory is that the use of physical punishment can have an adverse effect on the quality of the relationships between students and their teachers. As Coyl, *et al.* (2002) asserted, children's secure

attachment is fostered by warm, positive parent–child interactions and negatively associated with harshly punitive interactions. Attachment is known to have an important influence on a wide variety of child development outcomes and social competence. Attachment security is vital for children’s sense of wellbeing and their feelings of safety within and outside the boundaries of the family, and is a vital ingredient in the development of conscience. This study consistently showed that harsh punishment was associated with poorer student–teacher relationships.

4.4.2.2 Academic Effects of Harsh Punishment

The study found out that harsh punishment has multidimensional impacts upon students’ academic performance; which among others were: corporal / severe punishment impedes the class participation, decreases the attendance and increases the students’ dropout rate. The research further discovered that severe corporal punishment has negative effects on students’ confidence, creation of fear and hesitation, hindrance towards learning and resulting in poor academic performance.

Psychologically, corporal punishment lowers self-esteem of students, causes pessimism among students and prevail apprehension. Corporal punishment also causes personality disorders among learners as it suppresses students’ potentials for impulsion and emotional instability and necessitation of students towards insurgency and non-compromising behaviour and a source of social mal-adjustment.

Therefore, teachers should work together with parents to stop corporal punishment inflicted on students and rather strengthen rapport with students, step-up guidance and counselling services in schools, teacher-parenting clubs should be established in schools to help students stay in school and achieve their full academic

potential. Otherwise, Corporal punishment, being a matter of concern, has multi-dimensional and obnoxious impacts over the academic performance/career and socio-psychological well-being of the students. It encompasses numerous impacts that are worth-mention and worth-analyse, prominently including distortion of academic performance/; brings havoc to psychology of the students and almost devastates the process of personality development.

4.4.3 Challenges and Strategies for Ending Corporal Punishment at Schools

School corporal punishment is usually executed in the form of paddling, or striking students with a wooden paddle on their buttocks or legs, which can result in abrasions, bruising, severe muscle injury, hematomas, whiplash damage, life-threatening hemorrhages, and other medical complications. Hence, corporal punishment has resulted in physical injury and psychological trauma to children in schools where it is perpetrated. Social skills development and academic performance after the use of corporal punishment may be severely altered, leading to aggressive behaviours and academic failure and school drop-outs.

Numerous procedures besides punishment can be used to decrease the occurrence of problem behaviour in the classroom. Two of the most effective procedures involve implementing some type of positive reinforcement system and/or manipulating the antecedents of problem behaviour. When using positive reinforcement to manage classroom behaviour, the teacher should be clear as to which behaviour will be reinforced and then provide reinforcement contingent on that behaviour. Ideally, the behaviour that is being reinforced is incompatible with the undesirable behaviour. For example, if a student is running around the classroom disrupting other students,

providing reinforcement for work completion should reduce the problem behaviour. Completing work is likely to be incompatible with being out of one's seat disrupting others. Manipulating antecedents involves removing the triggers or cues for misbehaviour (Watson & Steege, 2003).

Although there are many methods for altering antecedents, the first step is to identify the variables that are actually triggering the problem behaviour. After doing so, even small changes in these variables can have a significant impact on behaviour. For example, if a teacher determines that difficult academic tasks reliably lead to problem behaviour, she may a) decrease the difficulty of the task, b) provide additional instruction and modeling prior to assigning the work, c) assign a peer helper to assist with task completion, and/or d) intersperse very difficult problems with easier problems.

Apart from that, respondents clearly mentioned other possible strategies to replace corporal punishment at school, thus enhancing effective school discipline: a) Make children take responsibility for their actions; b) Time out; c) Denial of what they (children) cherish; d) Verbal warning. Unfortunately, there appears to be no explicit prohibition of corporal punishment in schools. In January 2011, a draft ministerial Decree was under discussion which reportedly stated that corporal punishment should not be used but there is no prohibition in legislation.

Corporal punishment would possibly be prohibited in the draft Law on the Rights and Protection of the Child. Corporal punishment is unlawful as a sentence for crime under the Penal Code, the Code of Penal Procedure, the Constitution and Law No. 27

Relating to Rights and Protection of the Child Against Violence. There is no provision for judicial corporal punishment in the draft Penal Code or the draft Law on the Rights and Protection of the Child. The Constitution states in article 15: “Every person has the right to their physical and mental integrity. No one shall be subject to torture, physical abuse or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment.”

There is no explicit prohibition of corporal punishment as a disciplinary measure in penal institutions, though a number of laws prohibit cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment. Article 23 of the law establishing the National Prisons Service (No. 38/2006) states that “the prisoner must be treated with dignity and respect for human rights. He or she is especially protected against any sort of torture, cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment”. Article 15 of the law establishing the Local Defence Force (No. 25/2004) punishes the use of excessive force. Article 8 of the Instructions of the Minister of Internal Security relating to the conditions of detention; and the provision of food and detainee visits (No. 09/2008); state that no prisoner should be subjected to torture or other abuse or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment. Corporal punishment would possibly be prohibited in the draft Law on the Rights and Protection of the Child.

Apart from the legality of the rights and protection of the child, respondents mentioned other challenges related to teachers’ belief and attitudes. They are dominated by the cultural routine according which children have historically being beaten at home as the only punishment strategy. They resist in their mind to change that culture by ignoring or not giving more impetus to the students’ motivation and physical integrity.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

This study was meant to explore the effects of corporal punishment on students' performance in primary schools. It was built on three specific objectives: i) Identify the types of punishment in Kiramuruzi primary schools; ii) Assess the effects of harsh punishment on students' performance; and iii) Find out the challenges to law enforcement and strategies to impose discipline in primary schools. This exploratory study was conducted in form of a mixed research and questionnaire administration, interview, focus group discussion and observation were used to as data collection tools. Content analysis was adopted in presentation, analysis and interpretation of the results.

The study was carried out in selected primary schools of Gatsibo district, Kiramuruzi sector. There was no distinction between public and private schools. The sample size was made up of 145 respondents with 112 students, 28 teachers and 5 staffs in charge of education. It has been found that students are usually punished in several ways; physically and psychologically. The main physical punishments are: beating with stick, beating with arms/legs, biting with nails, pulling hairs, forced kneeling down, and moving on knees. Psychologically, students receive punishment in form of aggressive words.

Although punishment, by definition, is effective for reducing behaviour, the use of punishment as part of classroom management is controversial due to a number of problems associated with its use. First, punishment may result in a temporary

increase in the undesirable behaviour or the form of the behaviour may change. Second, if the intensity of a punisher is gradually applied, students may tolerate very harsh forms of punishment and do not change any more. Third, some students may become physically aggressive when punishment is applied, particularly those students who are more prone to aggressive behaviour.

Fourth, punishment may produce unanticipated emotional side effects such as crying, general fearfulness, and social withdrawal. Fifth, students may model the behaviours exhibited by the adults who are delivering the punishment. Sixth, there is a tendency of adults to over-rely on punishment strategies because it brings them temporary relief in the form of a brief escape from, or reduction in, a student's problematic behaviour. Seventh, some educators are ethically opposed to the use of punishment, although this opposition is typically in response to the physically and emotionally harmful types of punishment. Eighth, teachers use punishment procedures every day, whether intentionally or unintentionally, without systematically evaluating the intended and unintended effects on behaviour. Ninth, and perhaps most important, punishment does not teach a student what to do, it only teaches what not to do. Thus, any time a punishment procedure is used in the classroom, there should be a simultaneous plan in place that focuses on teaching and reinforcing a more appropriate behaviour.

The worse consequences of corporal punishment are that students may lose trust in their teachers and/or drop-out and thereby stop their education. This may not only reverberate on students' future but also community and country development. In this perspective, the Government of Rwanda should adopt the regulations and laws in

relation to child protection in schools as it is not listed among the 42 countries, worldwide, which have already prohibited all forms of corporal punishments of children. Children's rights should be respected. It is the responsibility of both parents and teachers to use positive discipline approaches when children do wrong so that they feel free and comfortable to express their feelings about such a fault.

5.2 Recommendations

To the Government of Rwanda: At the end of this study, the Government of Rwanda is advised to introduce legislation explicitly prohibiting corporal punishment; make use of information and education campaigns to sensitize parents, teachers, other professionals working with children and the public at large to the harm caused by corporal punishment and promote alternative, non-violent forms of discipline; investigate in an effective way reported cases of ill-treatment of children by law enforcement officers and ensure that appropriate legal action is taken against alleged offenders; sensitizing and building the capacity of local leaders and community members on Child Rights and positive ways of disciplining children. They should however support schools to develop reporting mechanisms and Codes of Conduct for the prevention and Response to Violence against Children in schools; lead national-level initiatives that bring together stakeholders, both Civil Society and the Government of Rwanda to discuss the issue of Physical and Humiliating Punishments (PHP) while promoting Positive Discipline in all settings.

To the Directorate of Education at district level: The Directorate of Education should conduct trainings of teachers on how to build a warm and positive relationship with students; establish a supportive student-teacher relationship which

is linked with a variety of benefits for children as well as a child-friendly learning environment; and sensitizing children themselves on their rights and advocating for them, self-control, and reporting cases of violence in schools.

To further researchers: Other researchers are requested to carry out research on the involvement of parents in school punishment and assess the partnership between civil society and government in child's violence prohibition.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Informed Content

My name is Mr. Bernard HARUSHYABANA a Master student at The Open University of Tanzania (OUT), Faculty of Education. I am carrying out a research project on the effects of harsh punishment and students' performance. I would like to request you to participate in my research project by answering questions. I assure you that your name will not be indicated in this study and the information you provide will be kept with confidentiality and used in the purpose of this study only.

Participant's identification

Your location:(school)

Your age:.....years

Your gender/sex: male or female

Your level of education:

Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Students

(IBIBAZO BIGENEWE ABANYESHULI)

Sex/Igitsina: Male/Gabo Female/Gore

Class/Umwakayigamo:.....

School/Ikigoyigaho:.....

1. Do you receive corporal punishment at school?/

Esemwabamujoyamuhabweibihanobikurikira

Please choose the applied punishment/hitamoibihanomuhabwe

- a. Beaten with stick/Gukubitwainkoni
- b. Beaten with arms and/or legs/Gukubitwainshyi cg imigeri
- c. Biting with nails/ Gushunwa/kuribwainzara
- d. Pulling hairs/Gukururwaimisatsi
- e. Moving on knees/ Kugendshaamavi
- f. Kneeling out/Gupfukama
- g. Other (specify) Ibindi (bivuge)

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

2. Do teachers use aggressive words as punishment?

/Esemwabamujoyamubwirwa cg mukorerwanibibikurikira?

- a. Insults/Gutukwa
- b. Aggression/gukankamirwa
- c. Spitting on you/Gucirwamumaso

- d. Bad words on your parents/Kubwirwanabikubabyeyi
- e. Putting you out of class/Gusohorwa mu ishuli
- f. Firing from the school/Kwirukanwa ku ishuli
- g. Other (specify) Ibindi (bivuge)

.....

.....

.....

3. What are the consequences for such punishment have you been experiencing?/ Eseibyokorerwabyababikugirahoingarukazikurikira:

- a. Bleeding/Kuvaamaraso
- b. Blow up/Kubyimba
- c. Body pain/Kubabaramumubiri
- d. Shame/Kumvaufiteisoni
- e. Lack of motivation/Kunanirwakwiga
- f. Anguish/Kugiraagahinda
- g. Other (specify) Ibindi (bivuge)

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 3: Interview Schedule for Teachers/ (Ibibazo Bigenewe Abalimu)

Sex/Igitsina: Male/Gabo Female/Gore

Class/Umwakayigishamo:.....

School/Ikigoyigishaho:.....

1. Which types of punishment do you mostly use?
Nibihebihanomujyamuhaabanyeshulikenshi?
2. Do you apply corporal punishment at
school?/Mujyamutangaibihanobikorakumubirihano ku ishuli?
3. What kind of psychological punishment do you
use?/Nink'ibihelobany' amagambomujyamutanga?
4. What are the consequences for your punishment do you observe among
students?/Ni izihengarukakubihanomutangamujyamubona mubanyeshuli?
5. What do you think about corporal punishment?/
Mutekerezaikubihanobikorakumubiri?
6. What do you suggest for effective school
discipline?/Nikimwumvacyakorwangohabehoibihanobifashaabanyeshuli?

**Appendix 4: Interview schedule for Sector and District Education Officers
(Ibibazo bigenewe abashinzwe Uburezi mu murenge no mu Karere)**

Sex/Igitsina: Male/Gabo Female/Gore

Position/Umurimoakora:.....

1. Which types of punishment do teachers mostly use?
Nibihebihanoabalimubahaabanyeshulikenshi?
2. Do they apply corporal punishment at school?/Mu jyamubonabatanga ibihanobikorakumubirihano ku ishuli?
3. What should be done to end corporal punishment at school?/Mutakerekerezakohakorwaikingoibyobihano bihagarare?
4. What do you suggest for effective school discipline?/Niki mwumvacyakorwango habeho ibihanobifasha abanyeshuli?

Appendix 5: Discussion Guide for Students

- Types of corporal punishment
- Types of words used by teachers at school
- Academic effects of corporal punishment
- Psychosocial effects of corporal punishment
- Suggestion on the improvement of school discipline

Appendix6: Observation Checklist

1. Students' emotions while talking about corporal punishment
 - Crying
 - Silence
 - Breathing
 - Anger
 - Anguish
2. Physical symptoms of corporal punishment