



**University of Fort Hare**  
*Together in Excellence*

**EXAMINING TEACHERS' ROLE IN THE PROMOTION OF CHILD-FRIENDLY  
ENVIRONMENTS IN ZIMBABWEAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: IMPLICATIONS FOR  
TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

**BY**

**KETIWE ZENDAH  
(201510088)**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE  
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION**

**AT THE  
UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE**

**2017**

**PROMOTER: PROF COSMAS MAPHOSA**

## DECLARATION

I hereby solemnly declare that to the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis titled **“Examining teachers’ role in the promotion of child-friendly environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools: Implications for teacher professional development”** is my original work. It has not been submitted to any other institution of higher learning for the awarding of any degree or qualification. In those instances in which I have made use of either the published or unpublished works of other scholars, I have acknowledged the sources, both in the text and in the list of references appended to this thesis.

**Ketiwe Zendah**

Signed:  Date: 12 June 2017

## DECLARATION ON PLAGIARISM

I, **Ketiwe Zendah**, with student number **201510088**, hereby declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare Policy on Plagiarism and that I have taken every possible precaution to comply with the regulations pertaining to this policy

Signed: 

Date: 12 June 2017

## DECLARATION ON RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE

I, **Ketiwe Zendah**, student number **201510088**, hereby declare that I am fully aware of the University of Fort Hare Policy on Research Ethics and that I have taken every possible precaution to comply with the regulations pertaining to it. I have obtained an ethical clearance certificate from the University of Fort Hare Ethics Committee, for which the reference number is MAP031SZEN01.

Signed: 

Date: 12 June 2017

## **ABSTRACT**

Hostile school environments are a cause of concern and a perennial international educational problem. The UNICEF's Child-Friendly Schools (CFS) approach is an international intervention meant to safeguard learners against hostile school environments. The CFS approach mandates schools to offer learners environments and conditions that uphold children's rights and enhance their development to full potential. The purpose of this mixed methods research study, employing a concurrent triangulation design, was to explore the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. Holsti's (1970) role theory formed the theoretical framework of this study. The research questions focused on teachers' understanding of the CFS concept, support offered, strategies employed, challenges encountered, and the implications for teacher professional development. The data collection methods were questionnaires, in-depth interviews, and document analysis with school heads, teachers and learners in the seven government urban secondary schools in Mutare district of Manicaland province in Zimbabwe. Quantitative and qualitative data were independently analysed and merged at the interpretation stage through triangulation of results. Major findings reveal that teachers have poor understanding of the CFS concept, are offered moderate support, occasionally employ viable strategies, and are hindered by various factors in the process of promoting CFS environments. The study's implications for teacher professional development are rooted in identifying sustainable approaches that adequately equip teachers with relevant information, skills and attitudes that ensure the promotion of CFS environments.

## **DEDICATION**

This doctoral study is dedicated to my one and only thoughtful, caring, and loving daughter Rutendo Sandra, whom I love, value, and cherish with all my heart. She is my Rock of Gibraltar. She always stands by me and encourages me to follow my dreams and reach my destiny. The thesis is also dedicated to my granddaughter Michelle Atidaishe, whose arrival in the family brought me a lot of joy, confidence and inspiration to improve myself.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First and foremost, I would like to thank God the Almighty for affording me the focus and determination to embark on and complete this mammoth task. Without His guidance and favour, I would not have managed to undertake this study.

I also wish to acknowledge and thank my supervisor and mentor Professor Cosmas Maphosa for his unwavering guidance and support as I drafted and redrafted my doctoral thesis. His visionary quality inspired me to undertake this study. I specifically wish to thank him for his commitment and promptness in giving feedback.

I would also wish to express my greatest gratitude to my father, Kossam and my mother, Sarah for making me the person I am today. These two instilled in me the value of working hard, that inspired me to always do my very best in every task I embark on.

I also thank my immediate family; husband Tonderai James, son Tafara Jethro, daughter Rutendo Sandra, daughter-in-law Gracious Tafadzwa, and granddaughter, Michelle Atidaishe for their support and encouragement. They believe in me and my desires to make a difference in the family and society at large. They consistently encouraged me to soldier on although several times I was overwhelmed by other social duties.

Also, my special mention goes to my brother-in-law, Farai Bernard, and my sister-in-law Spiwe for blessing me with a brand new laptop which made my study life very manageable. May the good God bless you abundantly for your thoughtful ways.

I am also grateful for the collegial moral and academic support I got from Christopher Mutseyekwa, Innocent Madenga, and Tonderai James Zendah. These were fellow PhD candidates who were willing to deliberate and exchange notes on research issues. We were together in it and that made the long journey shorter.

To my nephew Rufaro Tumbare, thank you very much for driving me around schools in the process of data collection. Special acknowledgement goes to Netsai Masamba for assisting me in data capturing.

I am also grateful to the Goven Mbeki Research Development Centre for the financial assistance and special mention goes to Professor Cosmas Maphosa for recommending and processing the supervisor linked bursary. This financial intervention lightened my challenges.

I would also like to express my heartfelt gratitude to all the research informants, the school link persons, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education and its subsidiary offices, for allowing me access to the schools.



## LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

A - Level Advanced Level

B. Ed Bachelor of Education Degree

CFS Child-Friendly Schools

CRC Convention on the Rights of the Child

CRE Child Rights Education

EFA Education for All

EFP Education for Peace

HOD Head of Department

M. Ed Master of Education Degree

NGOs Non-Governmental Organisations

O – Level Ordinary level

OECD Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

ORT Organisational Role Theory

PED Provincial Education Director

PGDE Postgraduate Diploma in Education

PhD Doctor of Philosophy

PLCs Professional Learning Communities

PS Professional Studies

SA South Africa

SADC Southern African Development Community

SDG Sustainable Development Goal

SIG Schools Improvement Grants

SPSS Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

SWPBS School-Wide Positive Behaviour Support  
TP Teaching Practice  
UFH University of Fort Hare  
UK United Kingdom  
UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation  
UNICEF United Nations International Children's Education Fund  
UREC University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee  
USA United States of America  
USAID United States AID

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	ii
DECLARATION ON PLAGIARISM .....	iii
DECLARATION ON RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE.....	iv
ABSTRACT .....	v
DEDICATION .....	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	vii
LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS.....	ix
LIST OF TABLES .....	xxiii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xxv
<b>CHAPTER ONE: CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE STUDY .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY .....	1
1.2.1 Characteristics of child-friendly school (CFS) environments .....	2
1.2.2 Conceptual Framework of the Child Friendly Schools (CFS) .....	4
1.2.3 Importance of teachers in curriculum initiatives.....	5
1.2.4 International studies .....	6
1.2.5 African studies.....	8
1.2.6 Zimbabwean studies .....	10
1.2.7 The current study .....	12
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM .....	13
1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....	15
1.4.1 Main Research Question.....	15
1.4.2 Sub-Research Questions .....	15
1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY .....	15
1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY.....	15
1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY .....	16
1.8 OVERVIEW OF THE METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY .....	17
1.8.1 Research approach.....	17
1.8.2 Sampling .....	17
1.8.3 Research Instruments .....	18

1.8.4	Data collection.....	18
1.8.4.1	Quantitative component .....	18
1.8.4.2	Qualitative component.....	18
1.8.5	Data Analysis .....	18
1.9	DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY .....	19
1.10	DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS .....	19
1.10.1	Teachers' role .....	19
1.10.2	Child.....	19
1.10.3	Child-friendly school environments .....	19
1.10.4	School environments.....	20
1.10.5	Promotion.....	20
1.10.6	Initiative .....	20
1.10.7	Teacher professional development .....	20
1.11	ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY.....	21
1.12	SUMMARY.....	21
<b>CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK, RELEVANT LEGISLATION AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE.....</b>		<b>22</b>
2.1	INTRODUCTION.....	22
2.2	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK .....	22
2.2.1	Role theory.....	23
2.2.2	Perspectives of Role Theory .....	26
2.2.2.1	Functional role theory.....	26
2.2.2.2	Symbolic interactionist role theory.....	27
2.2.2.3	Structural role theory .....	27
2.2.2.4	Cognitive role theory .....	27
2.2.2.5	Organisational role theory (ORT) .....	28
2.2.2.5.1	Relevance of ORT to the current study .....	29
2.2.3	Derived Role Concepts .....	30
2.2.3.1	Role confusion .....	30
2.2.3.2	Role conflict.....	30
2.2.3.3	Role ambiguity .....	31

2.2.3.4	Role strain .....	31
2.2.3.5	Role distance .....	31
2.2.3.6	Role embracement .....	32
2.3	CONCLUSION .....	32
2.4	RELEVANT LEGISLATION AND TREATIES INFORMING CFS APPROACH .....	33
2.4.1	International Human Rights Instruments .....	33
2.4.2	Zimbabwe's Policy Regulations Informing the CFS Approach .....	35
2.4.2.1	The Zimbabwean Constitution Amendment (No. 20) 2013.....	36
2.4.2.2	Zimbabwe Education Act (1987) .....	37
2.4.2.3	The Secretary of Education and Culture Circular P35 of 1993.....	37
2.4.2.4	The Director's Circular No. 27 of 2008 .....	38
2.4.2.5	Children's Protection Act 5:06 No. 9 of 1997 .....	38
2.4.2.6	Zimbabwe Children's Charter (2011).....	39
2.5	REVIEW OF LITERATURE GERMANE TO THE STUDY.....	39
2.5.1	Teachers' Understanding of The Child-Friendly Schools Concept.....	41
2.5.1.1	Origins of the CFS concept .....	42
2.5.1.2	Mandate of the CFS concept.....	43
2.5.1.3	Quality education in the CFS concept .....	44
2.5.1.4	International teacher-knowledge of child rights .....	45
2.5.1.5	Teacher knowledge and understanding of the CFS concept in Africa .....	48
2.5.2	Principles of the CFS Approach .....	49
2.5.2.1	Inclusiveness.....	50
2.5.2.2	Child-centredness .....	51
2.5.2.3	Democratic participation.....	52
2.5.2.4	Protection .....	53
2.5.3	Characteristics of a Child-Friendly School Environment.....	54
2.5.4	Contexts of School Environment .....	56
2.5.4.1	Physical school environment.....	56
2.5.4.2	Classroom environment .....	57
2.5.4.3	Psycho-social environment .....	58

2.5.4.4	Social school environment .....	59
2.6	SCHOOL-BASED SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS TO PROMOTE CFS ENVIRONMENTS .....	60
2.6.1	School leadership support.....	61
2.6.1.1	Transformational leadership style support.....	63
2.6.2	Peer (collegial) support .....	64
2.6.3	Parental support .....	65
2.6.4	Learners' support .....	66
2.7	TEACHERS' STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE CFS ENVIRONMENTS .....	68
2.7.1	Student- centred discipline .....	69
2.7.2	Positive teacher language .....	70
2.7.3	Learners' responsibility and choice .....	70
2.7.4	Teacher warmth and support .....	71
2.7.5	Cooperative learning .....	72
2.7.6	Teacher-learner classroom discussions .....	73
2.7.7	Learner self-reflection and self-assessment.....	74
2.8	CHALLENGES HINDERING TEACHER PROMOTION OF CFS ENVIRONMENTS .....	74
2.8.1	Teacher Professional-Related Challenges .....	75
2.8.1.1	Teacher burnout.....	75
2.8.1.2	Lack of teacher affiliation.....	76
2.8.1.3	Non-existence of teacher personal connectedness.....	76
2.8.1.4	Inadequate training on the CFS concept .....	77
2.8.2	School context related challenges.....	78
2.8.2.1	Inadequate resources and facilities .....	78
2.8.2.2	Lack of parental involvement and support.....	80
2.8.2.3	Lack of peer (collegial) support. ....	83
2.9	THE CFS APPROACH: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT .....	83
2.9.1	In-Service Professional Learning Communities (PLCs).....	85
2.9.2	Pre-Service Professional Development.....	87

2.10	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	91
	<b>CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>93</b>
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	93
3.2	RESEARCH PARADIGM .....	93
3.2.1	The positivist paradigm .....	97
3.2.2	Interpretivism/Constructivism paradigm .....	99
3.2.3	Pragmatism paradigm .....	101
3.2.4	Justification for the pragmatism paradigm in the current study .....	105
3.3	RESEARCH APPROACH .....	107
3.3.1	Quantitative approach .....	109
3.3.2	Qualitative approach .....	110
3.3.3	Mixed Methods Research (MMR) approach.....	110
3.3.3.1	Strengths of mixed methods research approach.....	112
3.3.3.2	Limitations of mixed methods research.....	113
3.3.3.3	Justification for selecting mixed methods approach in the current study..	114
3.4	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	115
3.4.1	Concurrent (parallel) triangulation design.....	117
3.4.1.1	Integration of QUAN + QUAL data in concurrent triangulation design.....	118
3.4.2	Justification for using the concurrent triangulation design .....	119
3.5	POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES .....	120
3.5.1	Sampling procedures .....	121
3.6	DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS .....	125
3.6.1	Semi-structured questionnaire .....	125
3.6.1.1	Justification for the use of the semi-structured questionnaire.....	127
3.6.2	In-depth semi-structured interview .....	127
3.6.2.1	Strengths of in-depth semi-structured interviews .....	129
3.6.2.2	Limitations of in-depth semi-structured interviews.....	129
3.6.2.3	Justification for the use of in-depth semi-structured interviews .....	130
3.6.3	Document Analysis.....	130
3.6.4	Alignment of research items.....	132
3.7	VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY .....	133

3.7.1	Validity.....	133
3.7.1.1	External validity .....	133
3.7.1.2	Content validity.....	133
3.7.1.3	Face validity .....	135
3.7.1.4	Measures to ensure validity.....	135
3.7.2	Reliability.....	136
3.7.2.1	Test-retest reliability .....	137
3.7.2.2	Inter-rater reliability.....	137
3.7.2.3	Internal consistency reliability.....	138
3.7.2.4	Pilot Studying research instruments .....	139
3.7.3	Data trustworthiness.....	141
3.7.3.1	Credibility .....	141
3.7.3.2	Transferability.....	142
3.7.3.3	Dependability .....	143
3.7.3.4	Confirmability .....	143
3.7.3.5	Measures to ensure data trustworthiness.....	144
3.8	DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES.....	144
3.8.1	Data collection procedures using questionnaires .....	144
3.8.2	Data collection procedures using semi-structured interviews.....	145
3.9	DATA ANALYSIS .....	145
3.9.1	Analysis of QUAN data.....	145
3.9.2	Analysis of QUAL data .....	146
3.9.2.1	Grounded theory .....	146
3.9.2.2	Narrative analysis.....	147
3.9.2.3	Thematic content analysis.....	147
3.10	ETHICAL ISSUES.....	148
3.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	148
	<b>CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION.....</b>	<b>150</b>
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	150
4.2	BIOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS AND PARTICIPANTS .....	151



4.3	RESULTS ON TEACHERS' UNDERSTANDING OF THE CFS ENVIRONMENTS CONCEPT .....	158
4.3.1	Quantitative results on teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept.....	158
4.3.1.1	Teachers' accessibility to CFS related national education policy circulars	163
4.3.1.2	Teachers' understanding of the CFS principles.....	163
4.3.1.3	Rights-based and cultural diversity principle .....	164
4.3.1.4	Health, safety and protection principle .....	164
4.3.1.5	Quality-based and academic effectiveness principle.....	165
4.3.1.6	Gender-sensitivity principle .....	165
4.3.1.7	Child-seeking and inclusivity principle .....	165
4.3.1.8	Democratic participation of learners and families principle.....	165
4.3.2	Qualitative results on teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept.....	166
4.3.2.1	Teachers' familiarity of international human rights treaties.....	167
4.3.2.2	Creating conducive learning environments .....	168
4.3.2.3	Availability of CFS related policy circulars in the schools .....	169
4.3.2.4	Accessibility to CFS related policy circulars by teachers.....	170
4.3.2.5	Teachers' understanding of the CFS principles.....	171
4.3.2.6	Schools' CFS principles of emphasis .....	172
4.3.2.7	Impact of teacher CFS understanding.....	175
4.3.3	Document analysis of CFS related policies .....	177
4.3.4	Main findings on teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept	178
4.3.4.1	Interpreting the triangulation table.....	178
4.4	RESULTS ON SCHOOL-BASED SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS TO PROMOTE CFS ENVIRONMENTS .....	179
4.4.1	Quantitative results on school-based support for teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	179
4.4.1.1	School administration support .....	181
4.4.1.2	Collegial support .....	182

4.4.1.3	Parental support .....	183
4.4.1.4	Learners' support .....	183
4.4.2	Qualitative results on school-based support offered teachers in their role to promote CFS environments .....	184
4.4.2.1	School administration support .....	185
4.4.2.2	Workshop attendance .....	185
4.4.2.3	Provision of resources .....	186
4.4.2.4	Collegial support .....	187
4.4.2.5	Parental support .....	188
4.4.2.6	Learners' support .....	190
4.4.3	Main findings on the school-based support offered teachers in their role to promote CFS environments .....	192
4.4.3.1	Interpreting the triangulation table .....	193
4.5	RESULTS ON TEACHERS' STRATEGIES IN THE PROMOTION OF CFS ENVIRONMENTS .....	194
4.5.1	Quantitative results on teachers' strategies to promote CFS environments	194
4.5.2	Qualitative results on teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments.....	200
4.5.2.1	Knowing the learner .....	201
4.5.2.2	Emphasis on interpersonal communication skills .....	202
4.5.2.3	Offering guidance and counselling services .....	203
4.5.2.4	Emphasis on school rules and regulations .....	205
4.5.2.5	Partnering with other stakeholders .....	208
4.5.3	Summary of main findings on the strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	209
4.5.3.1	Interpreting the triangulation table .....	210
4.6	RESULTS ON CHALLENGES IN THE PROMOTION OF CFS ENVIRONMENTS .....	211
4.6.1	Quantitative results on challenges faced by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	212

4.6.2	Qualitative results on the challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	217
4.6.2.1	Inadequate background knowledge and understanding on the CFS approach.....	219
4.6.2.2	Inaccessibility to CFS related policies by teachers.....	220
4.6.2.3	Lack of adequate resources .....	221
4.6.2.4	Unclear policies on teachers' role .....	223
4.6.2.5	Negative attitude and lack of commitment.....	223
4.6.2.6	Lack of school administration and parental support .....	224
4.6.2.7	Poor working conditions .....	226
4.6.2.8	Lack of opportunities for professional growth .....	227
4.6.3	Summary of main findings on the challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	227
4.6.3.1	Interpreting the triangulation table.....	228
4.7	RESULTS ON IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT .....	229
4.7.1	Quantitative results on implications for teacher professional development.....	230
4.7.2	Qualitative results on the implications of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments for teacher professional development.....	233
4.7.2.1	Integration of the CFS concept in pre-service teacher education.....	234
4.7.2.2	Continuous training in CFS issues for in-service teachers .....	236
4.7.2.3	Monitoring and evaluation of CFS environments.....	237
4.7.2.4	Incentivising teachers.....	238
4.7.3	Summary of the main findings on implications for teacher professional development.....	239
4.7.3.1	Interpreting the triangulation table .....	240
4.8	DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS THEMATICALLY .....	241
4.8.1	Teachers' Understanding of the CFS Environments Concept .....	241
4.8.2	School-Based Support for Teachers to Promote CFS Environments.....	245
4.8.2.1	School administration support .....	245

4.8.2.2	Collegial support .....	246
4.8.2.3	Parental support .....	247
4.8.2.4	Learners' support .....	249
4.8.3	Teachers' Strategies in the Promotion of CFS Environments .....	250
4.8.3.1	Knowing the learners.....	251
4.8.3.2	Learner-centred teaching and learning activities .....	252
4.8.3.3	Effective interpersonal communication skills .....	253
4.8.3.4	Guidance and counselling services .....	254
4.8.4	Challenges Encountered By Teachers in The Promotion On CFS Environments .....	254
4.8.4.1	Inadequate background information .....	255
4.8.4.2	Inadequate knowledge and skills .....	256
4.8.4.3	Lack of resources .....	256
4.8.4.4	Teacher burnout and negative attitude.....	257
4.8.4.5	Inadequate stakeholders support services .....	257
4.8.5	Implications for Teacher Professional Development .....	258
4.8.5.1	Pre-service teacher professional development .....	258
4.8.5.2	In-service teacher professional development.....	259
4.8.5.3	CFS Monitoring and Evaluation.....	259
4.9	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	260
	<b>CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>261</b>
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	261
5.2	RESTATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS .....	261
5.2.1	Research aim and objectives .....	261
5.2.2	Main research question and sub-research questions .....	262
5.3	SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS.....	263
5.3.1	Teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept.....	263
5.3.2	School-based support for teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	264
5.3.3	Teachers' strategies to promote CFS environments .....	264

5.3.4	Challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	265
5.3.5	Implications for teacher professional development .....	266
5.4	CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY .....	266
5.4.1	Teachers’ understanding of the CFS environments concept.....	266
5.4.2	School-based support for teachers to promote CFS environments .....	267
5.4.3	Teacher strategies in the promotion of CFS environments .....	268
5.4.4	Challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	269
5.4.5	Implications for teacher professional developments.....	269
5.5	RECOMMENDATIONS EMANATING FROM THE STUDY .....	270
5.5.1	Measures to enhance teachers’ role in the promotion of CFS environments... ..	271
5.5.1.1	The Comprehensive CFS Framework.....	272
5.5.1.1.1	Knowing the learner .....	273
5.5.1.1.2	Valuing learners’ experiences and concerns .....	273
5.5.1.1.3	Effective interpersonal communication skills .....	274
5.5.1.1.4	Partnership with key stakeholders.....	275
5.5.1.1.5	Children’s rights and interests .....	275
5.6	ACHIEVEMENT OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES .....	276
5.6.1	Teachers’ understanding of the CFS environments concept.....	276
5.6.2	School-based support for teacher .....	276
5.6.3	Teachers’ strategies in CFS promotion .....	276
5.6.4	Teacher challenges in the promotion of CFS environments.....	277
5.6.5	Implications for teacher professional development .....	277
5.7	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY .....	277
5.8	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY .....	279
5.9	CHAPTER SUMMARY .....	279
	REFERENCES.....	281
	LIST OF APPENDICES.....	310
	APPENDIX 1: INTRODUCTION LETTER .....	310

APPENDIX 2: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR LEARNERS .....	311
APPENDIX 3: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS .....	312
APPENDIX 4: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL HEADS .....	313
APPENDIX 5: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR G & C FOCAL PERSONS .....	316
APPENDIX 6: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS.....	319
APPENDIX 7: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS.....	331
APPENDIX 8: MUTARE DISTRICT CFS VEHICLE .....	335
APPENDIX: 9 LETTER OF SEEKING PERMISSION FROM MoPSE.....	336
APPENDIX 10: PERMISSION LETTER FROM MoPSE .....	338
APPENDIX 11: PERMISSION LETTER FROM PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR .....	339
APPENDIX 12: PERMISSION LETTER FROM DISTRICT SCHOOLS INSPECTOR.	340
APPENDIX13: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE.....	341
APPENDIX 14: LANGUAGE EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE.....	343

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2-1: International Human Rights Treaties .....	33
Table 2-2: Alignment of areas for literature review to sub-research question.....	40
Table 2-3: Summary of Focus of Literature Surveyed, Author and Year .....	89
Table 3-1: Major research paradigms and their philosophical assumptions .....	95
Table 3-2: A comparative summary of attributes of Quantitative, Mixed Methods and Qualitative research approaches.....	107
Table 3-3: Proportionate sample size from the seven government secondary schools in Mutare urban district.....	123
Table 3-4: Teacher and learner samples distribution per stratum per school.....	124
Table 3-5: Alignment of research questions, objectives, unit of analysis, instruments and nature of data .....	132
Table 3-6: Cronbach’s alpha reliability of internal consistency for Likert-scale sections .....	139
Table 3-7: Improvements on data collection instruments after pilot study .....	140
Table 4-1: Distribution of Biographical characteristics of teacher respondents (N=163) .....	152
Table 4-2: Distribution of biographic characteristics of learner respondents (N=143) .	154
Table 4-3: Distribution of school heads participants by gender, age, teaching and heading experiences, academic and professional qualifications .....	156
Table 4-4: Distribution of Guidance & Counselling focal person participants by gender, age, teaching and heading experiences, and academic and professional qualifications .....	157
Table 4-5: Responses on teachers’ level of familiarity with the international human rights treaties that inform the CFS concept.....	159
Table 4-6: Responses on teachers’ level of familiarity with Zimbabwean national education policies that enhance the CFS environments concept.....	161
Table 4-7: Responses on teachers’ understanding of the specific CFS principles .....	164
Table 4-8: Main theme and sub-themes on teachers’ understanding of the CFS environments concept .....	166
Table 4-9: Triangulation table of findings from quantitative and qualitative data .....	178
Table 4-10: Teachers’ responses on school-based support offered by the school administration, colleagues, parents, and learners in teachers’ role in the promotion of CFS environments.....	180
Table 4-11: Theme and sub-themes on school –based support offered teachers in their role in the promotion of CFS environment.....	184
Table 4-12: Triangulation table for quantitative and qualitative data .....	192

Table 4-13: Frequency in use of teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments.....	195
Table 4-14: Theme and sub-themes on teacher strategies to promote CFS environments.....	200
Table 4-15: Triangulation table for findings from quantitative and qualitative data .....	209
Table 4-16: Responses on teachers' challenges in the promotion of CFS environments .....	212
Table 4-17: Learners' responses on challenges hindering teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments.....	215
Table 4-18: Theme and sub-themes on the challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.....	218
Table 4-19: Triangulation table of quantitative and qualitative data .....	228
Table 4-20: Teachers' responses on approaches to teacher professional development .....	230
Table 4-21: Theme and sub-themes on implications for teacher professional development.....	233
Table 4-22: Triangulation table of quantitative and qualitative data .....	239



**LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 1-1: The UNICEF Child-Friendly Schools Model ..... 4

Figure 2-1: Core principles of the Child-friendly schools approach ..... 50

Figure 3-1: The research design connection ..... 116

Figure 3-2: Concurrent triangulation research design ..... 117

Figure 3-3: A summary diagram of the research methodology adopted in the study. .. 149

Figure 5-1: Proposed Zendah (2015) Comprehensive CFS Environments Promotion Framework..... 272

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter serves as an overview and introduction of the study. It is meant to contextualise the problem under study from international, regional and national background and perspectives. The chapter also outlines the statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, research objectives, and significance of the study. It also presents definitions of the key terms, and highlights the delimitations of the study. The following section is a representation of the background to the study.

### **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

The concept of Child-Friendly Schools (CFS), internationally advocated by UNICEF, employs a holistic approach to child development, encompassing a wide range of different components that are mutually enhancing, complementary and inseparable (Silova, Johnson & Heyneman, 2007; UNICEF, 2009). This educational initiative is grounded in the principles of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) which asserts that children have a right to basic education. The same international instrument insists on what form of education it should be in terms of its design, organization, management, content, processes and learning environments. The CFS concept does not only help children to realise their right to a basic education of good quality, but it also enhances their health and well-being. It is meant to guarantee learners safe and protective places for learning, raise teacher morale and motivation, and mobilise community support for education (Health & Education Advice & Resource Team, 2013; Umar, Kinakin & McEachern, 2012). It is the issue of school environments which this study focuses on.

The philosophy and principles of the CFS initiative are realised under different names in different continents and countries. In America, United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand, schools have adopted the School-wide Positive Behaviour Support (SWPBS)

concept, which is more of a proactive and preventative approach than a reactive and punitive one (Bryer & Beamish, 2005; George, White & Schlaffer, 2007; Osher, Bear, Sprague & Doyle, 2010; Simonsen, Sugai & Negrón, 2008). This initiative includes the application of evidence-based strategies and systems to help schools increase academic performance, increase safety, decrease problem behaviour, and establish positive school cultures (Kincaid, Childs, Blasé & Wallace, 2007). The Rights Respecting Schools (RRS) initiative employed in United Kingdom and North America, Canada in particular uses the UNCRC as a basis for building an inclusive and respectful school culture. It targets the school's ethos and culture to improve well-being and develop every child's talents and abilities to their full potential (Sebba, 2014; UNICEF Canada, 2008).

In some western and central African "conflict-affected" countries, such as Liberia, Sierra Leone, Ethiopia, Kenya, Rwanda, Burundi, Sudan, Kenya, Democratic Republic of Congo and Uganda among others, rocked by civil wars and political instability, education systems have adopted the Education for Peace (EFP) school programme (Chelule, 2014; Johnson & Johnson, 2005; UNESCO, 2013). The aim of this initiative is to create violence-free and peaceful school environments catering for emotional, social and intellectual needs of diverse school populations (Brahm, 2006). Despite operating under different names, what is common and binding among these curriculum initiatives is that they all recognize the fundamental principles of the UNCRC.

### **1.2.1 Characteristics of child-friendly school (CFS) environments**

A school environment is the totality of different features of the school conditions in terms of the physical, emotional and social well-being, learning and teaching (classroom), health, and safety environments. Also the friendliness of that environment should cater for its key stakeholders namely; learners, teachers and parents (Health & Education Advice & Resource, 2013; Shaeffer, 2013). In child-friendly school environments, the learner has the right to be curious, to ask questions and receive answers. An opportunity is afforded the learner to argue and disagree, to test and make mistakes, to know and not to know, to create and be spontaneous. In doing all this, the learner should be recognised and respected (Orkodashvili, 2010; Prishtina, 2012;

UNICEF, 2009). The United Nations Girls Education Initiative forum (2006) asserts that the issue of quality education in child-friendly school environments is not only about what children learn and how they learn. It is also about the preparedness and competencies of teachers to deliver it. Teachers are expected to have knowledge, skills and sensitivity to help build resilience in children, especially for the orphans and children in difficult circumstances who need preparation to persevere and triumph over the challenges they will face in life. However, advocates of the child friendly school environments are aware that the creation and promotion of such environments require broad-based efforts by the entire school community that includes educators, teachers, learners, law enforcement agencies, businesses and faith-based organisations (Adelman & Taylor, 2007). There are key desirable features observable in child-friendly school environments which include:

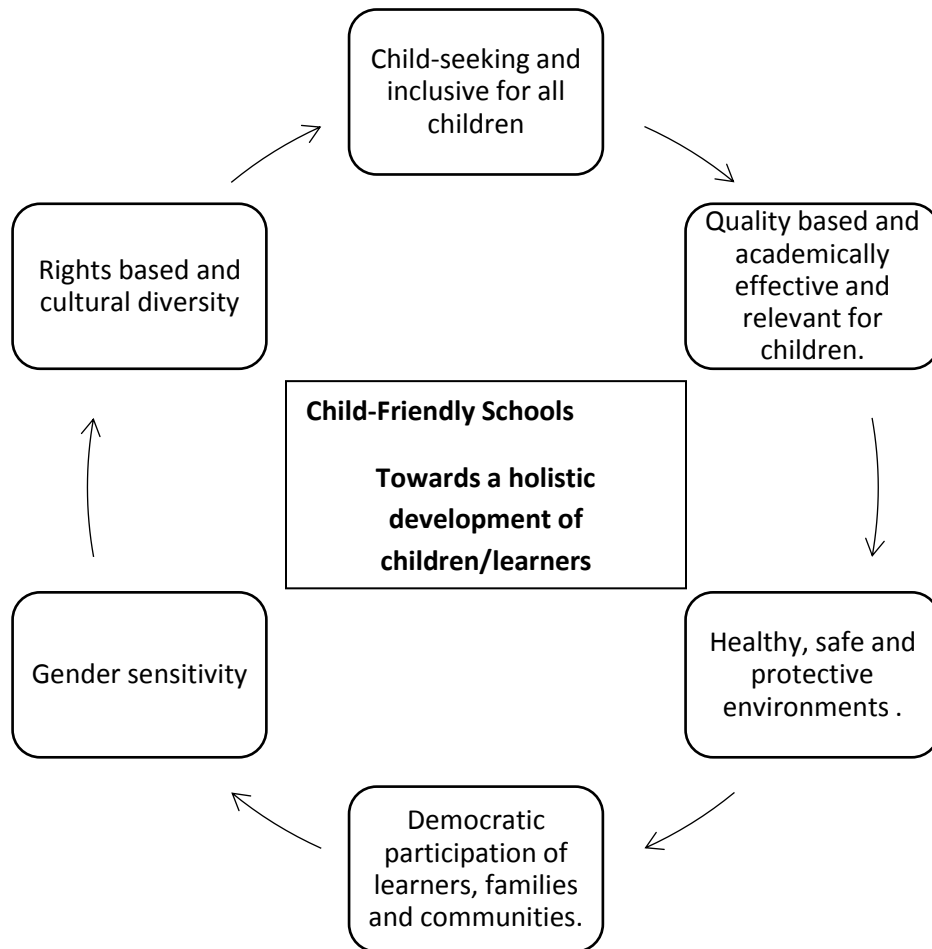
- confident teachers and learners,
- effective communication structures,
- child-centred teaching and learning practices,
- safe environments that stimulates learning, and
- effective management student behaviours (Orkodashvili,2010; Sushmita, 2014; Williams, 2010).

Above all, child friendly school environments should “act in the best interests of the child and be concerned about the ‘whole’ child and about what happens to children in their families and communities, that is, before they enter school and after they leave it” (UNICEF, 2008: iv). A child-friendly school environment is protective, ensuring that learners are protected from being hurt and mistreated; physically or mentally. It also assures learners that they can learn in a safe and healthy environment, which represents a place of sanctuary rather than one of risk and danger. Such an environment allows learners to grow and reach their full potential (Mannathoko, 2006; Orkodashvili, 2010; Shaeffer, 2013). In child-friendly environments, schools have the obligation to ensure that every learner experiences a sense of belonging, respect, dignity and safety; and that every teacher has the opportunity to effectively teach (Madu& Okoye, 2013; Prishtina, 2012). In short, child-friendly school environments

strive to adapt to the needs of the individual learner, rather than adapt the learner to the needs of the school (Shaeffer, 2013). In consideration of all the cited characteristics of child-friendly school environments, the researcher found it interesting to examine the role of teachers in the creation and promotion of the much desirable school environments.

### 1.2.2 Conceptual Framework of the Child Friendly Schools (CFS)

The CFS framework is a comprehensive, multifaceted and dynamic educational reform driven by a child-rights philosophy that views the role of schools as that of promoting the development of the ‘whole’ child (UNICEF, 2009). The diagram below illustrates the interrelatedness of the CFS approach’s key pillars.



**Figure 1-1: The UNICEF Child-Friendly Schools Model**

Source: Prishtina, 2012 and UNICEF Ethiopia, 2010

It is clear from the literature on the characteristics of the child-friendly schools concept and from Figure 1.1 that this curriculum initiative calls for whole school development. There is need for the creation of a positive school climate that would enable positive changes in the learning context to take place. Therefore, investigating the teachers' role in ensuring that these positive behavioural changes are realised among both learners and teachers is vital. Findings from this study are likely to inform various education stakeholders about the support required by teachers to promote this noble curriculum initiative.

### **1.2.3 Importance of teachers in curriculum initiatives**

Generally, it is assumed that adolescents spend a large portion of their time in school, which gives teachers more access to learners than any other professionals. This prevailing assumption presents teachers with an array of multiple roles and responsibilities inside and outside the confines of the classroom. These roles include that of a mentor, caregiver, authority figure, role model, coach, and surrogate parent, among others (Julius, Ngao, Mulwa & Mugambi, 2012; Kottler, 2006). Teachers are therefore, considered as the single most important factor in creating an effective and inclusive classroom. Learners tend to be greatly influenced, not only by a teacher's instruction, but also by a teacher's care and compassion. Teachers are therefore, expected to develop relationships with learners that are built on trust, mutual respect, and true affection (Kottler, 2006; Wright & Lindqvist, 2008). In some circumstances, teachers are called on daily, if not hourly, to wear a number of different hats and functions in diverse roles for which, at times, they may not be adequately prepared. When it comes to the implementation of educational initiatives such as the child-friendly school (CFS) environments, teachers assume the role of change agents. They are believed to have the skill and power to stimulate, facilitate, and coordinate the change effort (Cohrssen, Church & Tayler, 2011; Lunenburg, 2010; Thompson, Andreae, Bell & Robins, 2013). Countries in Latin America and the Caribbean observed that, without the input and commitment of teachers, changes in education are impossible (Campos, 2005). As signatories to the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990), teachers in countries worldwide, including Zimbabwe, have a mandate to afford learners school

environments which uphold their rights. The international UNICEF 2009 child-friendly school approach has encouraged teachers to focus on the needs of the 'whole' child. The idea is for teachers to care about what happens to children in their families and communities before they enter school and after they leave school (Crosson-Tower, 2010; Orkodashvili, 2010; UNICEF, 2009). Teachers are believed to be capable of creating positive school environments regardless of learners' past experiences. They have means, ways and practices they may employ to deliberately shape and promote school environments which are learner-friendly (Lipmann, 2010; Taole, 2013).

#### **1.2.4 International studies**

Worldwide, educators, policymakers and researchers agree that teachers have a significant role and impact on students' learning environment (Chetty, Friedman & Rockoff, 2011; Yoder, 2014). It is also generally acknowledged that effective teachers do more than promote academic learning. They teach the 'whole' child. Teachers help promote the social and emotional learning skills learners need to become responsible citizens. The skills include collaborating with others, monitoring their own behaviour and making responsible decisions (American Institutes for Research, 2014). In a survey to evaluate the implementation of the SWPBS initiative in UK, the Human Rights Watch, in collaboration with the American Civil Liberties Union (2009), revealed that 220 000 learners in public schools were subjected to hostile and violent school environments by their teachers through the use of corporal punishment. In these environments, learners were reportedly struggling to succeed. Learners involved in the survey confessed that the hostile environments made them want to lash out against teachers or other students. Also some teachers who participated in the survey acknowledged that the use of positive strategies such as the SWPBS were more effective than corporal punishment and other reactive measures. The teachers' positive acknowledgement of the effectiveness of the initiative was an indicator of their preparedness to promote it.

In UK, Australia and New Zealand, teachers who promoted and employed the SWPBS model found improvement in student behaviour and increased satisfaction among them because they felt more effective in their teaching (Bacon, 2011; Horner, 2007; Kincaid, Childs, Blasé & Wallace, 2007; Savage, Lewis & Collese, 2011). Despite the recorded

positive impact of the SWPBS initiative, teachers in various countries raised concerns about lack of resources, overcrowded classrooms, and poverty as militating factors. Teachers were failing to effectively create nurturing school cultures which allowed learners to thrive (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2009; Spaulding, Irvin, Horner, May, Emeldi, Tobin & Sugai, 2010). The highlighted challenges suggest that even in first world countries, school environments are not friendly for every learner, and teachers are finding it difficult to perform effectively.

Sebba (2014) evaluated the UNICEF UK's Rights Respecting Schools initiative and established that all the 31 schools which promoted it were characterized by very positive relationships between learners, between teachers, and between learners and teachers. Listening, respect and empathy were found to be evident in the schools and there was little or no bullying among learners. Both teachers and learners reported experiencing a strong sense of belonging. The same evaluation also revealed that learners, teachers and some parents in the schools had extensive knowledge and understanding of the CRC. This was reflected in their use of rights respecting language and in their attitudes and relationships. In 2008, UNICEF Canada developed a toolkit for Canadian schools emphasizing on learner participation in all school activities and decision making. Teachers were expected to model rights respecting attitudes and behaviours. They were encouraged to give learners regular opportunities to learn about, and exercise their rights and responsibilities (National Economic and Social Rights Initiative, 2008). Teachers were also guided by the toolkit to create a classroom charter aiming at including learners in the decision-making processes of the classroom and to nurture a positive classroom atmosphere (UNICEF Canada, 2010).

Bredenberg (2008) observed that in Southeast Asia, the child-friendly movement had an emphasis on participatory learning and action approaches. This made the initiative highly eclectic in character, manifesting different directions in different places depending on the input and support of teachers and parents. The researcher went on to opine that even a well-trained teacher would still have limited impact on the learning environment if children came to school hungry or if parents did not provide support for homework. This clearly indicates that for teachers to effectively promote child-friendly school



environments, they require a lot of support from, and collaboration by the parents and community.

### **1.2.5 African studies**

In an evaluation of the impact of CFS initiative on Delta State in Nigeria, Chika and Elo (2010) established that school heads and teachers recognized, respected and protected the rights of the child. School management was made participatory to involve teachers, learners and community members in order to reduce tension between the various actors. In an effort to up-skill school heads and teachers, the state sponsored them periodically to workshops or seminars on how to manage and teach in child-friendly schools. On the contrary, Olaleye (2011) conducted a study evaluating the school learning environments in Nigerian primary schools and established that teachers were not motivated to work hard in promoting child-friendly school practices because the working conditions were not encouraging. Madu and Okoye (2013) carried out a similar research in Enugu State, which revealed that basic facilities in schools were inadequate with respect to their child-friendly status. Quality teachers to promote school child-friendly principles were lacking as teachers had not received in-service training on child-centred pedagogies. These contrasting findings clearly show the impact of teacher contribution in the creation of positive school environments for both staff and learners. It is also an indication of the necessity for teacher professional development in child-friendly school environments issues.

Sang Mutua and Korir (2014) established that in Kenya, teachers were ideally placed to help learners with their social and emotional development and to promote CFS environments, because they were in regular contact and spent long periods with learners. They went on to argue that teachers had extensive knowledge of their learners' development gained over time, and learners were more likely to open up to their teachers because they were familiar and likely trusted. Also in the promotion of education for peace, researchers agree that teachers have the potential to have a great impact in the moulding of the next generation as their business is to help learners to achieve higher standards of knowledge, ability, skills, and moral character (Julius, Ngao, Mulwa & Mugambi, 2012; Wawire, 2006). Mannathoko & Mangope (2013)

confirmed that in Botswana teachers were not relating well with parents because they felt that teachers were the cause of their children's poor performance. This mistrust between teachers and parents had an implication on learners' welfare. The researchers went on to recommend that teachers act as intermediaries between schools and the community so as to create a strong relationship that would benefit children academically. UNICEF Mozambique (2007) reported that the country realized that the CFS initiative was not about building new schools, but was about creating a place where children felt safe to learn, to grow up healthy and ready to take an active role in their communities. The country embarked on training of teachers, school directors and school council members on CFS principles and practices, all in an effort to develop a shared vision of the child-friendly schools concept.

Research findings in South Africa highlighted both the positive and negative impact of teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments. Taole (2013) observes that teachers had conflicting beliefs about their roles in the schools in general, and classrooms in particular. They upheld the notion that teachers "know-all" and that they must explain concepts to learners, and that they occupied a central position in the teaching and learning process. Such beliefs were found to be working against the CFS principle of democratic participation of learners in all learning activities. On a positive note, Modipane and Themane (2014) revealed that teachers trained in the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) Life Orientation (LO) programme to implement the CFS principles were agreeable, forthcoming and eager to share their understanding of the CFS concept. They were able to identify the relationship between the principle of child-centredness as a base for inclusivity and democratic participation. These teachers saw themselves as agents of change in their schools. Regarding their practice in the classroom the teachers indicated that they were conscious of the importance of treating all learners alike irrespective of their performance in class or their socio-economic background. The reviewed cases suggest that the teacher's role is vital in the promotion of child-friendly school environments in most countries internationally and regionally.

### **1.2.6 Zimbabwean studies**

Existence of hostile school environments is rife in Zimbabwe as established by many researchers (Chemhuru, 2010; Gudyanga, Mudihlwa & Wadesango, 2014, Machingambi, 2012; Magwa, 2014; Mandiudza, 2013; Maposa, 2013; Mugabe & Tshabalala & Khosa, 2014; Sango & Chiinze, 2015; Shumba, 2011; UNICEF, 2005). Gudyanga, Mudihlwa and Wadesango (2014) studied bullying in schools and established that the majority of teachers were not comfortable and confident to tackle cases of bullying themselves and would refer them to the administration. There was almost unanimous confession by teachers of the need for more skills and support to enable them to deal with bullying cases. On issues of inclusivity and provision of emotional and social well-being support, it was established that very few teachers could teach in sign language, thus, creating an unfriendly learning environment for deaf learners (Mpofu & Shumba, 2012). It was also revealed that teachers were not making pupils aware of issues and forms of child abuse. In a few cases where pupils reported cases of abuse to their class teachers, the latter were reportedly not keen to pursue the matter further (Ncube & Hlatywayo, 2012; Tshabalala & Khosa, 2014).

Eight years back, before Zimbabwe had officially adopted the CFS initiative, research studies had revealed that trained teachers both male and female were the worst perpetrators of many forms of child abuse (Leach & Machakanja, 2004; Mitchell & Mothobi-Tapela, 2004; Shumba, 2004 & 2006; UNICEF, 2008). It was also established that 98% of primary school girls were victims of sexual abuse by trained teachers of between 0-5 years teaching experience (Nhundu & Shumba 2001). On the other hand, female trained teachers constituted 71, 3% of perpetrators of child emotional abuse (Shumba, 2001). 96% of the girls who participated in a research study on gender violence in schools revealed that they had been beaten by at least one teacher despite the administration of corporal punishment having been banned on girls (Leach & Machakanja, 2004; Mitchell & Mothobi-Tapela, 2004). Shumba (2001) also revealed that 78, 9% of child physical abuse perpetrators were male while 21, 1% were female. Again, much more worrying was that 92, 1% of the perpetrators were trained teachers while 7, 9% were untrained. This scenario seems to have a bearing on the nature of both pre-service and in-service training or education of those involved; which this study

also sought to establish. The forms of physical abuse ranged from beating, whipping, hitting, clapping or slapping, punching with fists, to kicking or pinching. In a study to evaluate the implementation of CFS concept in five primary schools in Chiredzi district, the researcher observed that the success of the CFS concept largely depended on teachers' involvement and commitment. However, study findings revealed that most teachers were not happy to be at their stations of work resulting in high staff turnover. There was very little effective teaching and learning because teachers were demotivated and not committed to their work. They vowed to resort to their traditional method of lecturing because they did not have resources to promote and employ child-centred and activity-oriented teaching methodologies (Mandiudza, 2013). Of significant concern is a research study by Machingambi (2012) which revealed that poor teacher-student relationships and unfriendly school practices such as the use of corporal punishment were among major contributing factors to school dropouts in two rural secondary schools in Masvingo district. The fact that only two rural secondary schools within the same district and most probably of the same social, physical and academic status yielded such negative teachers impact implies that the practice may be rife across the country. The researcher advocated care by teachers through fostering authentic, caring classroom climates and caring pedagogy that promotes academic success and learner retention.

To confirm the extent and prevalence of this negative practice by teachers, The Standard of 30 November 2014 published a speech by the Minister of Primary & Secondary Education, Lazarus Dokora who revealed that 237 school children experienced different forms of child abuse between January and September of the same year. The Minister went on to say that these children had gone through the schools psychological services. Out of these 237 reported cases, the sexual abuse form numbered 123. The minister also highlighted that in 2013, a total of 245 cases was recorded where teachers had been accused of having sexual relationships with students. He concluded his speech by declaring that "the ministry has a zero tolerance policy on gender based violence and abuse of learners, and we aim to make the school environments safe for all children and address issues of victimization and bullying" (Veneranda, 2014).

In light of all the cited disturbing evidence of learner maltreatment by teachers, a pertinent question then arises: *What ideal role should high school teachers play to promote child-friendly school environments?* The expected role should create school environments capable of attracting learners into the school system and retain them there until completion of their study levels, that is, Ordinary and Advanced levels.

### **1.2.7 The current study**

This study focused on Mutare urban government secondary schools in Manicaland province of Zimbabwe. Sango and Chiinze (2015) acknowledge the rife learner maltreatment by teachers in different forms in Mutare district primary schools and the existence of negative and hostile school environments. Findings of this study would potentially indicate what is happening in secondary schools within the same district in relation to hostile school environments. Earlier researchers have shown much interest in evaluating the implementation of the CFS initiative but very little attention on assessing the role of the implementers (teachers) for either its success or failure. The researcher served as a secondary school teacher in Mutare urban for ten years and is currently in her tenth year as a secondary school teacher educator (lecturer). It is during this service experience that the researcher observed that most teachers were not adequately inducted or skilled to effectively implement or promote emerging curriculum initiatives such as the Gender Issues Education (2000), Human Rights Education (2005), Environmental Education (2004-2010), Child-friendly Schools (2009), Life Skills, Sexuality and HIV & AIDS Education (2010-2015), among others. Usually these initiatives came along with circulars or a policy document prescribing what is expected of the schools and teachers. In the majority of cases, the researcher observed that the teachers did not have access to the initiative documents so they had very limited knowledge and understanding of the initiative they were meant to implement and promote (Chinyani, 2010; Mandiudza, 2013). In addition, the researcher was a guidance and counselling teacher for seven years in secondary school and is currently involved in offering trainee teachers psycho-social support services. Exposure gained in the execution of duty motivated the researcher to seek an understanding of the vital role teachers play in the promotion of child-friendly school environments. The intrinsic desire

to contribute towards the welfare of learners at all academic levels became the driving force to embark on this study.

### **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Teachers are detached from promoting child-friendly school environments resulting in the existence of hostile school environments for some learners. These hostile school environments and the rate of maltreatment or abuse of learners by some teachers have pushed some children out of school (Machingambi, 2012; Magwa, 2014). Punishment of learners in different forms in the Zimbabwean primary and secondary formal education system has become an aid teachers are using to preserve and uphold discipline in the classroom environments (Chemhuru, 2010). In agreement with the same observation, Mugabe and Maposa (2013) lament that teachers have a tendency of bullying some of their pupils, especially those who fail to measure to their expectations. Sango and Chiinze (2015) also revealed that in schools there was rampant child beating and physical abuse purportedly in the name of punishment and child training. The authors also established that 90% of child participants in their study comprising both girls and boys confirmed that teachers were using objects like sticks, hosepipes, electric cords, ropes, rulers, wire, fan belts, sjamboks, chalk duster and even open hands to beat them. All this is contrary to the provisions of the nation's Secretary's Policy Circular No P 35, No 5 of 2000, and the Director's Circular No 27 of 2008. Also this indiscretion of teachers in the use of beating tools resulted in learner death (Laiton, 2015). The study by Sango and Chiinze (2015) also established that 75% of respondents who were victims of this maltreatment expressed some negative feelings like anger, sadness and hatred towards teachers and the whole school system. Numerous studies concur that violence against learners in any form has long-lasting effects on victims which include contracting sexually transmitted infections including HIV (Magwa, 2014), trauma, loss of attachment, fewer interpersonal relationships, reduced self-esteem, and depression (Mugabe & Maposa, 2013; Sango & Chiinze, 2015). Magwa (2014) establishes that on child sexual abuse, 83, 3% of the participants revealed that they clearly viewed some teachers as potential perpetrators and 100% of the interviewed school heads pointed out that teachers exploited their power and sexually abused students. The researcher

lamented that under the hand of respected and trusted teachers, students are damaged leading to immense suffering of victims and creation of a bad reputation for the teaching profession (Magwa, 2014). Student teachers on Teaching Practice who were attached to qualified and experienced mentors also perceived that their mentors in secondary schools were subjecting learners to different forms of child abuse ranging from sexual abuse, physical abuse, emotional abuse and to abuses in the “hidden curriculum” ( Shumba, 2011). In a fact sheet report on child abuse in the education sector, the Zimbabwe Parliament Research department (2006) revealed that male teachers constituted 99.1% of perpetrators in child abuse cases, of which 65.5% were of sexual nature. Of much concern, 81.6% of these cases were committed by trained teachers and only 18.4% by the untrained teachers. Of late, teachers have become “predators” of their own “flock”. In another study, Mugabe and Maposa (2013) revealed that teachers were found to be inciting learner misconduct. In some cases, some teachers flout school regulations by engaging in improper sexual association as well as sharing alcoholic drinks and cigarettes with learners. In other cases, teachers discouraged prefects from “over committing” themselves to prefect duties under the pretext that it negatively affected students’ academic performance. These teachers perceive the provisions of Circular P.35 as disempowering them in the eyes of mischievous learners. Such teachers have quietly relinquished their responsibility of administering learner discipline and are turning a blind eye to offenders. However, 76% of the teachers who participated in the study claimed ignorance of the circular provisions.

The background of the study has shown the international and regional recognition of the centrality of the teacher’s role in the provision of quality education. However, the reviewed cases in the Zimbabwean context, has clearly portrayed that some teachers’ actual roles and practices do not always lead to quality education. In Zimbabwe, overtly or structurally, teachers are not positively engaged to promote child-friendly school environments. Hence, this study seeks to examine teachers’ role in the promotion child-friendly school environments and the implications for teacher professional development.

## **1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The study sought to answer one main research question and five sub-research questions

### **1.4.1 Main Research Question**

What role do teachers play in the promotion of child-friendly environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools?

### **1.4.2 Sub-Research Questions**

1. What is the teachers' level of understanding the child-friendly school environments concept?
2. How are teachers supported to promote child-friendly environments in schools?
3. What strategies do teachers employ to promote child-friendly school environments?
4. What challenges do teachers encounter in the promotion of child-friendly school environments?
5. What are the implications for teacher professional development?

## **1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of this study was to examine teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools. The study aimed at giving insights into the crucial role, responsibilities and practices teachers are capable of employing in the promotion of child-friendly environments within different contexts of their schools. It also aimed to ascertain the levels of teachers' understanding of the CFS concept, how they are supported to promote it, their practical effort, and the challenges they encounter in the process. The study sought to highlight some implications for teacher professional development in light of the findings of the study.

## **1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

In light of the research questions, this study sought to:



1. Examine teachers' level of understanding of the child-friendly school (CFS) environments concept.
2. Ascertain how teachers are supported to promote of child-friendly environments in schools.
3. Identify the strategies teachers employ to promote child-friendly school environments.
4. Examine the challenges teachers encounter in promoting child-friendly school environments.
5. Establish implications for teacher professional development.

## **1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

International and regional research studies on teachers' role in curriculum implementation generally concur that it is pivotal in most educational initiatives. However, in Zimbabwe, a considerable number of studies have not focused specifically on teachers' role in relation to CFS promotion. Evaluation studies on CFS implementation mainly focused on ECD centres (Mpofu & Shumba, 2012), primary schools (Mandiudza, 2013; Sango & Chiinze 2015; Tshabalala & Khosa, 2014) and very few on secondary schools. Learners in secondary schools are more likely to be adolescents and these are assumed to be significantly aware of their rights and aspire a lot for their voices to be heard, hence, the need to examine how teachers are affording them child-friendly schooling. This study enables teachers to be aware of viable ways and means they can employ to ensure that school environments are child-friendly in terms of child-centredness, inclusiveness, democratic participation, and protection principles. Findings also encourage teachers to make a reflection of their practice in the hope of changing for the better. The study also serves as a source for teachers, head teachers, school principals, educational policy makers and all other relevant stakeholders in Zimbabwe and beyond to understand and appreciate the current school practices that promote child-friendly environments. The shared insights will help to assess how those practices were also contributing to the realization of quality basic education. Since the study aimed at examining teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools, other schools in similar settings stand

to benefit from the results in some way. This study is arguably the first one to specifically focus on teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments in Zimbabwe. The findings are likely to benefit and inform teacher professional development systems on how best to adequately develop both pre-service and in-service teachers to be knowledgeable about CFS issues. It encourages all those involved in teacher professional development services to reflect on their current practices and programmes in relation to child-friendly schooling issues in the hope of mainstreaming the concept into the current teacher education curriculum. This study may not generate a theory, but future researchers may rely on this study to investigate other CFS related issues such as; impact of student-unfriendly college environments, differences in CFS implementation between government and mission schools, and learners' perceptions of child-friendly schooling.

## **1.8 OVERVIEW OF THE METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY**

### **1.8.1 Research approach**

The study adopted a pragmatist research paradigm whose epistemology used mixed method research approach, and which is better complemented by a concurrent triangulation research design. Both qualitative and quantitative data were solicited concurrently to examine the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly school environments.

### **1.8.2 Sampling**

The selection of both schools and participants or respondents for the study was done using the stratified purposive sampling technique. All the seven government secondary schools, the school heads, and guidance and counselling focal persons were purposively included in the study. Teacher and learner respondents in the study were selected using stratified random sampling for them to be representative.

### **1.8.3 Research Instruments**

The study employed semi-structured questionnaires to gather quantitative data from teachers and learners and semi-structured interviews and document analysis to collect qualitative data.

### **1.8.4 Data collection**

Both quantitative and qualitative data were concurrently collected, in an effort to save time and financial costs.

#### **1.8.4.1 Quantitative component**

The collection of data for this component was through semi-structured questionnaires administered on both teachers and learners. Appointed school link persons in each of the participating schools were engaged in the distribution and collection of the questionnaires.

#### **1.8.4.2 Qualitative component**

Qualitative data was collected through interviews with school heads and guidance and counselling focal persons. A semi-structured interview guide directed the dialogues. Scheduled appointments were put in place showing dates and times. Interview proceedings were voice recorded and immediately transcribed for analysis.

### **1.8.5 Data Analysis**

Both quantitative and qualitative data collected were presented, analysed and discussed thematically. Sub-research questions were the basis of the themes.

Quantitative data were analysed statistically using SPSS and presented as descriptive statistics in form of frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. In some instances, some inferential statistics was used in the form of chi-square test, among others. For the coded and themed qualitative data, thick narrative descriptions were presented. A detailed research methodology is presented in the third chapter of this study.

## **1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

In terms of its scope, this study focused on examining the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly school environments, and establishing how this role was recognized, appreciated and supported. It also aimed to ascertain teachers' understanding of the CFS initiative, the support offered, and teacher practices for its realization. Challenges hindering the teachers' effort will also be highlighted as well as the implications for teacher professional development. The study involved 170 teachers, 145 learners, 7 guidance and counselling focal persons and 7 school heads, targeting seven government secondary schools in Mutare urban district, Manicaland province of Zimbabwe.

## **1.10 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS**

The following terms were contextually defined for the purpose of this study.

### **1.10.1 Teachers' role**

Prinsloo (2006) defines teacher's role as the duty of care, which is, looking after the physical and mental well-being of learners, and also the duty to maintain order at a school. In this study, it refers to the functions, responsibilities and behaviours expected of teachers in their professional duties. The responsibilities encompass strategies teachers employ in their daily interactions with learners which promote child-friendly schooling.

### **1.10.2 Child**

Article 1 of the guiding principles on the CRC (1990) defines a 'child' as any person below the age of 18. In this study, a child refers to anyone registered in formal learning system. The terms child, student, and learner, are used interchangeably in this study.

### **1.10.3 Child-friendly school environments**

Khush (2011) asserts that child-friendly school environments are conditions in which children are happy to be and are able to learn. In this research study CFS environments referred to all school conditions, settings, policies, and services offered to children that uphold their rights and interests. Environments in which children feel safe, motivated,

and supported to be engaged in all learning activities physically, socially, emotionally, and health wise

#### **1.10.4 School environments**

Moore (2012) borrows from a social-ecological perspective and defines school environment as a place where staff and learners live, work, operate, and interact with each other. In this study, school environments refer to all conditions, settings, policies, and services offered learners to operate and function in, regarding the physical, social, psychological (emotional), classroom/learning, policies, health, and safety environments.

#### **1.10.5 Promotion**

Definition of the word 'promotion' is usually contextual. In manufacturing industry, Oyedupo, Babatunde and Sufian (2012) define promotion as a set of activities undertaken to boost sales of a product or service. In the education context, promotion of a curriculum initiative refers to all planned activities and processes to ensure its sustainability and buy-in from other stakeholders (UNESCO, 2011). In this study, promotion refers to the support and effort made by teachers in their execution of professional duties to create child-friendly school environments.

#### **1.10.6 Initiative**

Fletcher (2006) defines an initiative as the start of something, with the hope that it will continue. In curriculum, it is meant to represent specified educational philosophies. In this study, the term initiative refers to the UNICEF CFS concept. The terms initiative, approach, programme, and concept are used interchangeably to refer to the CFS.

#### **1.10.7 Teacher professional development**

DeMonte (2013) defines teacher professional development as systematic efforts to bring about change in the classroom practices of teachers, in their professional knowledge, skills, attitude and beliefs, and in the learning outcomes of students. This definition implies in-service training. In this study, teacher professional development refers to both pre-service and in-service training and all the planned training activities meant for teachers at national, provincial, district or school levels to up-skill them on

child-friendly schooling issues. The terms teacher professional development/training, continuing teacher education, in-service teacher education, and staff development are used interchangeably in this study.

## **1.11 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY**

This study comprises five chapters

**1.11.1 Chapter 1** gave an introduction to the study from an international, regional and national background or context of the problem under investigation. It also highlighted the statement of the problem, research questions and research objectives, purpose and significance of the study, among other preliminary issues. .

**1.11.2 Chapter 2** reviews literature related to the problem being investigated under sub-headings derived from the sub-research questions. The theoretical framework is articulated as well as a discussion of the debates on child-friendly school environments in different contexts is made.

**1.11.3 Chapter 3** describes the methodology used for data collection, giving justification for the choice and relevance of the research paradigm, approach, design, instrumentation, and data collection procedures.

**1.11.4 Chapter 4** presents, analyses, interprets, and discusses data thematically.

**1.11.5 Chapter 5** gives a summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations.

## **1.12 SUMMARY**

In this first chapter of the study, the researcher presented an overview of the study by discussing the background to the study from international, regional, and national perspectives. This helped in contextualizing the study. The chapter also outlined the purpose and significance of the study, and gave scholarly and operational definitions of the key terms. In the next chapter, the researcher makes an analytic review of related literature to provide a base for the whole study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: RELEVANT LEGISLATION AND REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The previous chapter focused on the introduction and conceptualization of the study. It highlighted the background to the study from international, regional and national perspectives. The statement of the problem under study, research questions and objectives, purpose of the study and its significance were also discussed. An overview of the research methodology, definition of key terms as well as the research study chapter outlines also formed part of chapter one.

In this second chapter, the researcher focuses on three major aspects of the study, that is, the theoretical framework which informs and directs this study, relevant legislation which guide the CFS educational approach and a review of the literature related to the study. An articulation of the theoretical framework is presented, highlighting its main attributes and how it informs the current study. A detailed discussion on the review of related literature is also made in this chapter under the sub-headings derived from the sub-research questions. The issues, ideas, and concerns in relation to teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments are critically analysed.

#### **2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

This section discusses the theoretical framework that provided the organization and direction of the study. Imenda (2014) asserts that a theoretical framework is the soul of every research project. It determines how a researcher formulates the research problem, how one goes about investigating the problem, and what meaning(s) the researcher attaches to data accruing from such an investigation. From another perspective, the theoretical framework can be viewed as a "blueprint" for the entire

dissertation inquiry, serving as a guide on which to build and support one's study (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). The authors go on to say that it also provides the structure to define how one will philosophically, epistemologically, methodologically, and analytically approach the research as a whole. These definitions of a theoretical framework suggest that formal theory may inform and direct research in the provision of explanations to certain contextual issues and relationships. In simple terms, a theoretical framework consists of the selected theory (or theories) that undergird the researcher's thinking with regards to the researcher's understanding and plan for the research a topic. It also highlights the concepts and definitions that are relevant to the research topic. In other words, it can be described as the foundation from which all knowledge is constructed (metaphorically and literally) for a research study (Grant &Osanloo, 2014).

The study was premised on the school as a social organization, with teachers, learners, as its key players within a school environment. Therefore, a theory that relates to the characteristics of these entities as they affect learning was adopted. It is also essential at this point to acknowledge that quality learning in any school system depends on the way the learner is valued, interacts with others, the learning experiences presented to him or her, and the environment within which the learning takes place (Cross-Tower, 2010; Yoder, 2014). In light of the significant purpose of a theoretical framework identified, this study was informed by the role theory in general, and organizational role theory in particular. Literature has shown that role theory has a relatively long developmental history.

### **2.2.1 Role theory**

Role theory cannot be traced to one seminal thinker or article. Rather, it is believed to have evolved gradually as similar interests arose across the social sciences (Whelan, 2014). Literature has shown that the gradual development of role theory can be broken down into three chronological stages: the pre-cursive stage (Cooley, 1902; Dewey, 1922), the conceptual development stage (Biddle, 1979 &1986; Liton, 1936 & 1945; Mead, 1934; Thomas & Biddle, 1966), and the empirical research stage (Holsti, 1970). It is the last stage that the current study finds relevant. Literature has also shown that it was not until after World War II that role concepts started to appear in empirical



research (Holsti, 1970). However, there is also evidence of the application of role theory in 21<sup>st</sup> century research in a foreign policy discipline (Benes, 2011; Harnisch, 2012; Sekhri, 2009; Thies, 2009). In the current stage of role theory development, role concepts have been adopted in empirical research in many different contexts in many different disciplines such as, teacher leadership (Murillo, 2013), inter-professional education (Michalec & Hafferty, 2015), and education feminism (Thayer-Bacon, Stone & Spiecher, 2013). Literature has also shown that in this current stage, most applications of role theory focus on derived role concepts such as role conflict, role stress, role ambiguity, and role overload (Tang & Chang, 2010; Zhou, Zeing, Hu, Xi & Tan, 2014), as opposed to testing the fundamental assumptions upon which role theory is built.

In a broader sense, role theory deals with interaction between individuals who occupy positions in a social system. It is also devoted to the study of behaviour using the notion of role (Sekhri, 2009). The theory began as a theatrical metaphor (Thomas & Biddle, 1966). It proposes that individuals' persona change according to the role they play. It is also important to note that role theory is not about the conduct of a particular individual; rather, its interest lies in the behaviour associated with a role, the situational demands that will activate that role, and the patterned characteristics of people occupying that role (Biddle, 1986; Biddle & Thomas, 1966). In the field of education, it therefore implies that policy makers imagine and suppose that their schools should adopt and accomplish a range of duties, tasks and commitments. In school settings, school leadership, teachers, parents and learners are expected to play different complementary roles in the promotion of child-friendly school environments.

The role performance of individuals in an organization is determined by norms, demands and rules as well as by the role performances of others in their respective positions (Biddle & Thomas, 1966 in Sekhri, 2009). It is also determined by those who observe and react to the performance and by the individual's particular capabilities and personality. This means that in school settings, individuals in general, and teachers in particular, have and manage many roles in their practice. Teachers are expected to adhere to a set of rules or norms that function as plans or blueprints to guide their behaviour. It is in such situations where provisions of different treaties and policies

explored in Section 2.4 come into play. Roles specify what goals should be pursued, what tasks must be accomplished, and what performances are required in a given scenario or situation (Sekhri, 2009). The role theory holds that a substantial proportion of observable, day-to-day social behaviour is simply persons carrying out their roles. It also proposes that human behaviour is guided by expectations held both by the individual and by other people (Benes, 2011). Some authors assume that role theory is predictive, implying that if people have information about the role expectations for a specified position, for example, teacher, a significant portion of the behaviour the person occupying that position can be predicted. In other words, people are primarily conformists, that is, they try to meet expectations held by others (Helena et al., 2014). In the case of classroom practitioners, there is need to conform to professional ethics in order to safeguard learners' well-being. However, role theory also argues that in order to change behaviour, it is necessary to change roles, for roles correspond to behaviours and vice versa (Sekhri, 2009). This argument points closely to the fact that teachers need to be exposed to a variety of roles in their execution of duty, in the hope that these roles may influence their behaviour positively with regard to the promotion of CFS environments.

Besides heavily influencing behaviour, roles tend to also influence beliefs and attitudes of individuals. From these propositions of the role theory, it can be assumed that the theory tends to bridge individual behaviour and social structure. In this study, the theory helped in establishing teachers' roles dictated by their professional ethics, the school system, and by their social interactions, to see how these guided their behaviour in relation to the promotion of child-friendly school environments. However, it should be noted that the individual, in turn, influences the norms, expectations, and behaviours associated with roles. Teachers' knowledge, understanding, and appreciation of child rights is therefore, likely to influence the change in roles expected of them in the promotion of CFS environments. It is also assumed that a change in role may lead to a change in attitude which may result in teachers having a positive personal growth and development with regard to the CFS approach.

Interest in role theory across different disciplines has given rise to distinct perspectives on the theory. Though all the perspectives use the concept role, the perspectives are based on different assumptions, employ different conceptualizations, and ask fundamentally different questions (Whelan, 2014).

### **2.2.2 Perspectives of Role Theory**

Despite the presence of a number of role theory perspectives, this study was informed by the organizational role theory perspective, which examines roles in organizations. In order to appreciate the adoption of this role theory perspective, it is necessary to give a brief overview of the five different perspectives as presented by Biddle (1986) in an attempt to develop the notion of role.

#### **2.2.2.1 Functional role theory**

The functionalist approach sees a role as a set of expectations that society places on an individual. Through unspoken consensus, certain behaviours are deemed appropriate and others inappropriate (Biddle, 1979, 1986; Holsti, 1970). For example, it is appropriate for teachers to contact learners' parents to redress anti-social behaviours, but inappropriate to blame parents for the behaviour of their child. In this perspective, role is one of the important ways in which individual activity is socially regulated. Roles tend to create regular patterns of behaviour and are thus, a measure of predictability (Benes, 2011; Sekhri, 2009). However, roles in the functionalist perspective are relatively inflexible and are more or less universally agreed upon. The perspective recognizes that different roles interact, for example, that of a teacher and learner. This recognition is quite relevant in the current study where teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly environments is likely to encourage discipline among learners, and discipline of learners allows teachers to effectively manage their classrooms for better academic achievement. If taken to extremes, the functionalist role perspective results in role becoming a set of static, semi-global expectations laid down by a unified, amorphous society (Owens & Valesky, 2007). However, despite its clear provisions, functional role theory has difficulty explaining certain kinds of professional behaviour; for example, abusive behaviour of teachers towards learners. Such behaviour violates or contravenes the norms defining the teacher's role; hence, its adoption to inform the

current study may be limited in addressing that deviant behaviour some teachers engage in resulting in unfriendly schooling for some learners.

#### **2.2.2.2 Symbolic interactionist role theory**

The interactionist definition of role is more fluid and subtle than the functionalist perspectives. A role, in this perspective, is not fixed or prescribed but something that is constantly negotiated between individuals. According to Mead (1934) in Benes (2011) children adopt roles in the development of a self in three stages, however, for adults who are beyond game stage, they continue to adopt roles and adapt them through interpersonal interactions. Whilst this perspective tends to recognize the pragmatic philosophy in social organizations and the principle of democratic participation in the CFS approach, it is limited in that, if roles remain un-prescriptive and subject to choice, achieving desirable educational goals may be difficult.

#### **2.2.2.3 Structural role theory**

This perspective is greatly influenced by Linton (1936) and its interests are similar to those of functional role theory. Roles are conceived of as patterned behaviours attached to social positions within stable organisations. However, in this perspective, little attention is given to norms. Instead, attention is focused on social structures and theorists seek to mathematically express structured role relationships. Also, the focus is not on behavioural norms or expectations. Rather, attention is focused on using mathematical symbols to describe the structure of relationships among roles (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Though structural role theory tends to bring clarity and explicit logic to the study of roles, its rigid nature, limiting assumptions, and use of mathematical symbols has hampered its adoption (Whelan, 2014). When examining teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments, such a role perspective is likely to be less applicable for it appears to be more teacher-centered than learner-centered. It tends to focus more on relationships among school administrative structures and worry less about relationships with the beneficiaries (learners) of the system.

#### **2.2.2.4 Cognitive role theory**

This perspective of role theory is housed in cognitive social psychology. It is focused on understanding the relationship between role associations and behaviour (Lynch, 2007).

It is concerned with linking expectations and behaviour via mental associations (Collier & Callero, 2005). While the application of this perspective has been quite successful in marketing, there seems to be limited literature on its application in education.

#### **2.2.2.5 Organisational role theory (ORT)**

The last major perspective in role theory, which guides and directs his study is the organizational role theory. Theorists aligned to this perspective appear to have developed a version of role theory that focuses on the manner in which individuals accept and enact an array of roles in social systems that are pre-planned, task-oriented, and hierarchical (Parker & Wickham, 2005). Just as in functional role theory, roles are believed to be associated with identified social positions and to be generated by normative expectations (Biddle, 1986). The major proposition of this perspective is that within an organisation, there are multiple sources of expectations. For example, expectations may represent the official demands of the organisation, the specific requests of an immediate supervisor, or the pressures of informal groups (Whelan, 2014). Consequently, much of the work of different players in organisational role theory focuses on understanding and managing problems associated with managing role expectations. It is within this role theory perspective that derived concepts of role such as role ambiguity, role conflict, role-taking or embracement, role confusion, and role overload emerge. In an organizational context such as a school, role behaviours are the recurring patterns of actions that are considered important for effective functioning in that particular role and in that particular organization, resulting in the achievement of organizational goals (Wichham, 2007).

At this point, it should be noted that although these perspectives differ on their points of focus concerning the issue of roles, there is also clear evidence that they interrelate a lot. In this study, although the focus is on organisational role theory, there is cross-cutting and borrowing from other perspectives in order to have a deep appreciation and understanding of the role behaviours expected of teachers and teachers' actual understanding of those behaviours in the promotion of child-friendly school environments.

#### **2.2.2.5.1 Relevance of ORT to the current study**

The propositions of organisational role theory assist in informing school leadership and teachers of their vital role in ensuring learners' child-friendly schooling. The Organisational Role Theory (ORT) acknowledges existence of multiple roles for individuals and this helps teachers to select the varied roles they should play in different school environmental contexts that are in the best interest of learners. School leadership is also informed by this theory on how to manage, support, and direct teachers in their operations to meet the demands of CFS principles. The ultimate result in ORT, of achieving organisational goals, is fundamental for teachers in providing learners with quality education, ensuring learner retention, and enhancing positive academic achievement. ORT has been applicable in other researches and found to be of much success. For example, Parker and Wickman (2005) conducted a study to expand the explanatory power of ORT in identifying the non-work roles that impacted on an employee's working life and it revealed that there exist many categories of non-work roles. Of concern was lack of organisational support in those roles.

The importance of adopting ORT as a framework teachers can use to promote CFS environments is at different levels. Firstly, its definition of an organisation places teachers at a strategic role position that ensures their commitment to goal achievement. The multiple sources of expectations in ORT inform teachers of the varied beneficiaries of the CFS approach, which are learners, teachers, and parents. This realisation is likely to encourage the creation of collaborative teams in teaching practice and professional development. School leadership is expected to borrow heavily from ORT on ways and means of managing and directing teachers in their execution of roles in promotion of CFS environments. The derived role concepts in ORT, such as role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload can be utilised by teachers in understanding the challenges they are likely to encounter as they play their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

It is of essence to acknowledge that assumption of roles within an organisation is complex. In the same vein, a school as an organization is expected to achieve the mandate of national educational reforms which may require change in teacher roles and

behaviours. In realisation of this mandate, it is therefore, necessary to establish the role and behaviours of teachers in Zimbabwean secondary schools in ensuring child-friendly environments.

### **2.2.3 Derived Role Concepts**

From the different versions or perspectives of role theory discussed, it can be noted that this is a fruitful approach to understanding humans and society. As a result of this notion, various derivatives and additional role concepts have emerged and developed. Five of these role related concepts are discussed and linked to the current study.

#### **2.2.3.1 Role confusion**

Role confusion is a situation where an individual has trouble determining which role he or she should assume in a certain scenario or situation. For example, if a teacher happens to be at the same school with her or his daughter, in a disciplinary hearing, what role should the teacher assume? In the current study, it may imply that many times, as teachers strive to promote CFS environments, they are confronted with multiple roles resulting in role confusion. In some school contexts, this has forced teachers to become standbys (Capmos, 2005).

#### **2.2.3.2 Role conflict**

Role conflict results when an individual encounters tensions as the result of incompatible roles. In most cases, role conflict tends to violate both the chain of command principle and the unity of command principle in classic organizational role theory. The chain of command principle refers to a clear, single flow of authority that leads to desired goal attainment in hierarchical organizations (Whelan, 2014). The unity of command principle requires that there be only one leader with one plan toward an objective and the subordinate has to receive orders from one superior (Tang & Chang, 2010; Safaria, Othman & Wahab, 2011). In such situations, role conflict will occur within the same person. In a school system, this is likely to happen when teachers are expected to assume a counsellor or leadership role. This intra-role conflict can manifest in four ways: conflict between defined role behaviours and the focal person's values; conflict between defined role behaviour and resources, including time and the capabilities of the focal person; conflict caused by different roles, with different or

incompatible expectations; and conflicting expectations occasioned by incompatible policies or standards of evaluation (Owens & Valesky, 2007). In some cases, role conflict can happen between two people who are unable to establish a satisfactory complementary or reciprocal relationship. The present study sought to examine the type of role conflict which secondary school teachers are likely to experience in their effort to promote child-friendly schooling.

#### **2.2.3.3 Role ambiguity**

Role ambiguity can be defined in terms of unpredictability in outcome and response, or lack of clarity in requirements. It can come from contradictory elements or vagueness in job roles or expectations (Owens & Valesky, 2007; Whelan, 2014).

#### **2.2.3.4 Role strain**

Role strain refers to the felt difficulty in fulfilling role obligations. In contrast to role conflict, where tension is felt between two competing roles, the tension in role strain comes from just one role. In role strain, expectations may be beyond what the focal person is able to achieve or the individual may feel pushed to the limits of ownabilities. It is also assumed that role strain is a result of role overload. Role overload describes situations in which employees feel that there are too many responsibilities or activities expected of them in the light of the time available, their abilities and other constraints (Whelan, 2014; Zhou et al, 2014). Some of the challenges teachers may encounter in the promotion of CFS environments are likely to be related to the propositions of these derived role concepts. This study therefore, sought to establish how role strain may negatively affect teachers in their effort to promote child-friendly school environments, wherever it surfaced, and how it could be managed.

#### **2.2.3.5 Role distance**

Role distancing is a strategy that allows the individual to play the role but to deny 'the virtual self' that is implied in the role for the allocating performers. A variety of signals may be used to convey role distancing which include: people explaining their lack of commitment to the role in a straight-forward manner or while enacting the role and people behaving in a way which contradicts with the role (Boland, 2013). In some cases, individuals play a role but remain detached from it to avoid any negative aspects



of the role (Thompson & Hickey, 2005). In school settings, teachers may be found to role distance from the implementation of educational reforms such as CFS if they do not clearly understand the initiative, or they are not supported enough to effectively promote it. It was therefore, important in the present study to examine what caused teachers to role distance from their expected behaviours in the promotion of CFS environments and ascertain how this affected learners.

#### **2.2.3.6 Role embracement**

Role embracement refers to the complete adoption of a role. When a role is truly embraced, the self disappears completely into the role. An earnest embracement of a role involves three things which are an admitted or expressed attachment to the role; a demonstration of qualifications and capacities for performing it; and an active engagement or spontaneous involvement in the role activity at hand (Thompson & Hickey, 2005). In examining the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments, these derived concepts of the role helped in establishing teachers' understanding of their expected role, strategies they employed to promote child-friendly schooling and some of the challenges that hindered teachers from promoting CFS environments.

### **2.3 CONCLUSION**

The first section of chapter two discussed the theoretical framework which guides and directs this study. Literature has shown that role theory has a long developmental history which resulted in the 'birth' of varied perspectives of the same theory. The perspectives have different foci and propositions and each has its fair share of strengths and limitations. Significant research has focused on derived concepts of role such as role confusion, role conflict, role ambiguity, role distance, and role embracement, among others. Organizational role theory, which was adopted for the current study, respects collaboration for the achievement of organizational goals; hence, school stakeholders have to closely collaborate as administrators, teachers, parents, and learners to promote viable and sustainable CFS environments.

The following section presents an exploration of some international treaties and national policies that inform the CFS approach. In the current study, it is against the propositions

of these treaties, conventions and policies that the teachers' level of understanding and strategies in the promotion of CFS environments were measured.

## 2.4 RELEVANT LEGISLATION AND TREATIES INFORMING CFS APPROACH

As a rights-based educational approach, literature has shown that CFS is greatly informed and directed by a number of international and continental treaties, conventions and declarations. The principle of right to education is provided for in many of these standard-setting instruments ranging from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) to various conventions, declarations, recommendations, frameworks and programmes of action. The following section focuses on giving brief explorations of some of the major international and continental treaties and conventions on children's rights showing their provisions in relation to child rights in education.

### 2.4.1 International Human Rights Instruments

The following Table 2.1 presents the provisions of different international and continental human rights treaties or instruments informing the CFS approach.

**Table 2-1: International Human Rights Treaties**

Treaty/Convention	Related Article Number	Provision
Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)	26	Everyone has the right to education...Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among all nations, racial or religious groups...for the maintenance of peace. Parents have a prior right to choose kind of education that shall be given to their children.
Convention Against Discrimination in Education (CADE) (1960)	3 and 4	There are two fundamental principles of the right to education which are, non-discrimination and equal opportunity for all citizens.

International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) (1966)	13 and 14	There are four essential features of the right to education which include: availability, accessibility, acceptability, and adaptability. The obligation is for all nations to respect, protect and fulfil each of these essential features.
United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) (1989)	1; 2; 3; 4;12;13; 15;16;17; 9;28;29 37; 42	Basically all the articles of this instrument uphold the rights of the child in different sectors. However, of special interest are articles 28: Right to education; and 29:Goals of education. <i>Article 28</i> states that all children have the right to a primary education, which should be free...For children to benefit from education, schools must be run in an orderly way, without the use of violence. Any form of school discipline should take into account the child's human dignity. Governments must ensure that school administrators review their discipline policies and eliminate any discipline practices involving physical or mental violence, abuse or neglect...Young people should be encouraged to reach the highest level of education of which they are capable. <i>Article 29</i> notes that children's education should develop each child's personality, talents and abilities to the fullest. It should encourage children to respect others, human rights and their own and other cultures.
African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) (1999)	31	Provisions are similar to those in the UNCRC, with a few important variations or differences, for example, Article 31 which is specific to African children. It provides for the responsibilities of the child specifying that all children are responsible to their families, society, the state and other legally recognized communities and international community. <i>Article 24</i> states that all people shall have the right to a general satisfactory environment favourable to their development.
African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights (ACHPR) (1981)	17 24	Every individual shall have the right to education. All people shall have the right to a general satisfactory environment favourable to their development.
Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (2000-2015)	Goal No.2	Achieve universal primary education by ensuring that by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling.
UNICEF's Child-friendly Schools Manual	Vision and purpose	Quality education is education that works for every child and enables all children to achieve their full potential. The purpose

(2009)		of the CFS model is to move schools and education systems progressively towards quality standards. It is meant to address all elements that influence the well-being and rights of the child as a learner and main beneficiary of teaching, while improving the school functions in the process.
--------	--	--

Designed by the author.

In recognition of the provisions of these treaties and conventions, the current study sought to examine teachers' level of awareness and understanding of these treaties in relation to the CFS approach. The aim and focus was to establish teachers' role in ensuring learners benefit from all these provisions and to highlight some challenges teachers encountered in their effort to promote and facilitate child-friendly schooling. It is imperative therefore, that Zimbabwean teachers be exposed to these instruments in order for them to effectively and genuinely promote educational reform. In an effort to show its commitment to most of these international treaties, Zimbabwe crafted its own national policies derived from these. The following section gives a description of some the major educational policies that enhance the CFS approach and elaborations on how schools and teachers should operate in line with these policies.

**2.4.2 Zimbabwe's Policy Regulations Informing the CFS Approach**

As a nation, Zimbabwe has ratified most, if not all the identified international and regional human rights instruments. The country has domesticated these instruments into a plethora of legal instruments and policies aimed at promoting and upholding the rights of the children. This effort has resulted in the thinking and acknowledgment that abusing children is illegal, and in people caring for children in schools. This means abusive teachers are criminals and should be punished accordingly (Matope & Mugodzwa, 2011).

In order to direct the school operations, the Zimbabwean government, in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, has shown its commitment to upholding the rights of children in the provisions of the national constitution, the Education Act of 1987, the Secretary of Education and Culture Circular P35 of 3 May 1993, and the Directors'

Circular No 27 of 2008, among others. Besides these policies on children's rights in education, the civil society (NGOs), in collaboration with the Zimbabwean government, developed the Children's Act 5:06: No 9 of 1997 and Zimbabwe Children's Charter (2011) among others.

#### **2.4.2.1 The Zimbabwean Constitution Amendment (No. 20) 2013**

A national constitution is regarded as the supreme law upon which all other policies are drawn. The current Zimbabwean constitution is very clear on its position with regard to human rights in general and child rights in particular. Part 3 Section 81 subsection (1) states that:

*Every child, that is to say, every boy and girl under the age of eighteen years, has the right to ... be heard; to be protected from ...maltreatment, neglect or any form of abuse, and has a right to education. Subsection (2) defines that a child's best interests are paramount in every matter concerning the child (p.38-39).*

This constitutional provision implies that the government has a commitment to the welfare of children be it in the homes or schools. In their execution of duty and interactions with learners, teachers are therefore, expected to recognize the rights of learners. Organised school activities should be child-friendly and serve the best interests of the child (UNICEF, 2009). Where school environments become physically, mentally and socially violent and hostile, it means that child rights, as stipulated by the constitutional requirements, would have been violated.

This current study sought to establish the teachers' level of awareness and understanding of the constitutional requirements with regard to the school environments meant to be created for learners. Such understanding, or lack of it, is likely to have an impact on the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.

In an effort to specifically direct the education sector to what is required of it in terms of handling and management of learners, the Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 was designed, developed and adopted for use in all schools. To date, this policy document has undergone a number of amendments but has maintained its core mandate.

#### **2.4.2.2 Zimbabwe Education Act (1987)**

The Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 clearly posits that its mandate is to provide for the fundamental rights to, and objectives of, education in Zimbabwe. Chapter 25/04 Part 11 Section 4 subsection (1) and (2) state:

*Notwithstanding anything to the contrary contained in any other enactment, but subject to this Act, every child in Zimbabwe shall have the right school education. No child in Zimbabwe shall be discriminated against by the imposition of onerous terms and conditions in regard to his admission to any school on grounds of his race, tribe, place of origin, national or ethnic origin, political opinions, colour, creed or gender.*

The Act's provision requires teachers to be non-discriminatory in their treatment of learners. This calls for serious commitment on the part of teachers to put the CFS principle of inclusiveness into practice. The assumption is that where there is adherence to the demands of the Education Act, more learners will be enrolled in schools and the rate of retention is likely to be high. Section 69 of the Act focuses on regulations that provide for "discipline in schools and the exercise of disciplinary powers over pupils attending schools, including the administration of corporal punishment"

This study aimed to ascertain the extent to which teachers were knowledgeable about the provisions of this Act and how they made reference to it in their strategies to promote CFS environments.

#### **2.4.2.3 The Secretary of Education and Culture Circular P35 of 1993**

Despite the provisions of the Education Act on corporal punishment, and the growing consensus that the practice breaches children's fundamental human rights, educators continued administering corporal punishment as a tool aimed at restoring discipline (Chemhuru, 2010). Circular P35 defines the national procedures of handling learner misconduct in schools and clearly forbids the use of corporal punishment by teachers without the school head's recorded approval. It states that:

*Every school head should strive to cultivate a school climate where pupils will or can develop internal discipline which is not initiated by fear of punishment. A school ethos which promotes self-discipline among pupils supported by positive remedial disciplinary and pro-active measures, where necessary, is preferred to situations where pupils avoid misdemeanours because the alternative could be infliction of physical pain by the Head.*

This Circular P35 provision regulates teacher physical abuse which Section 53 of the Zimbabwe constitution reiterates by saying “no person may be subjected to physical and psychological torture or cruel inhuman and degrading treatment or punishment.” Such regulations have serious implications on teachers in terms of their strategies of maintaining discipline in the classrooms, where they are expected to desist from using this dehumanizing method of curbing misconduct (Mugabe & Maposa, 2013).

This study sought to establish the level of awareness and appreciation by teachers of this circular’s provisions and how this could be useful in their promotion of CFS environments. The study also aimed at capturing teachers’ concerns and feelings about this circular with regard to teacher learner relationships.

#### **2.4.2.4 The Director’s Circular No. 27 of 2008**

The Directors’ Circular No 27 of 2008 is basically a directive on compulsory establishment of child abuse prevention and management reporting structures at every educational institution under the purview of the then Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture. The objective is for schools to establish structures that are child-friendly in terms of reporting child abuse. The circular clarifies the roles of schools and teachers in the protection of learners against abuse.

In recognition of the provisions of this circular, this study sought to examine how teachers in the selected government secondary schools adhered to the provisions of this tool and how they employed the provisions as strategies to assist learners who would have encountered any form of abuse.

#### **2.4.2.5 Children’s Protection Act 5:06 No. 9 of 1997**

This Act is the legal framework of childcare. All sectors involved with children are guided by the provisions of the Act. In terms of safety, Section 14 empowers educators to remove children from places where their living conditions are undesirable to places of safety. This move is applicable where infrastructure in some schools tends to expose learners to the risk of harm or injury. This Act instructs schools to ensure children are aware of their right to protection from sexual violence and abuse and to identify children who may have been victims of violation of this right.

The current study focused on examining teachers' knowledge and understanding of this Act and establishing how they used it as a tool to promote protective school environments and how teachers' lack of awareness of this instrument increased chances of child abuse.

#### **2.4.2.6 Zimbabwe Children's Charter (2011)**

The Zimbabwe Children's Charter is a product of the junior parliament of Zimbabwe in collaboration with the Child Protection Coalition. It is a response to government efforts to uphold child rights not reaching out to all children to ensure that their rights are respected, protected and promoted. In this charter, children's expectations are premised on the human rights instruments that the government of Zimbabwe has ratified particularly the UNCRC and ACRWC. The provisions of this charter cut across all the sectors that cater for the welfare of children. For the education sector in particular, the charter states that:

*We want quality education to be available for all of us despite background, location, tribe, physical status, sex and religion. Counselling services must be found in all schools. Reporting mechanisms in schools to be established that are child-friendly and respond to children's needs. We want to be protected from all forms of abuse. We want to exercise our right to participation and give our opinions in decision making at all levels. Schools should opt for alternative forms of disciplining us that uphold our humanity and respect our inherent dignity.*

These are the voices of children giving a representation of their opinions on the 'what and how' of the education they expect to enjoy.

This study focused on ascertaining teachers' awareness and appreciation of the provisions of this children's charter and the extent to which teachers adhered to these provisions in their strategies to promote CFS environments. It was also assumed that teachers' lack of awareness, understanding and appreciation of either of the cited policy instruments meant to enhance the CFS approach was a hindering factor in teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly schooling.

## **2.5 REVIEW OF LITERATURE GERMANE TO THE STUDY**

This section of chapter two highlights and discusses issues related to works of authorities with regard to teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly school



environments. Literature was reviewed firstly on teachers' knowledge and understanding of the CFS concept. Further related literature on school-based support for teachers in the promotion of the initiative was reviewed and discussed, as well as strategies employed by teachers to promote CFS environments, and challenges hindering teachers from promoting the initiative. Lastly, the review of related literature focused on implications for teacher professional development with regard to teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. Issues raised in reviewed literature provided useful insights on teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments.

Table 2.2 below shows how literature review was aligned to research-sub-questions to ensure relevance and relatedness to the study,

**Table 2-2: Alignment of areas for literature review to sub-research question**

Research question	Sub-research question	Main heading for literature review	Sub-headings for literature review
1. How do teachers understand child-friendly school environments concept?		Teachers' understanding of the child-friendly schools concept	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Origins of the CFS concept</li> <li>• Mandate of the CFS concept</li> <li>• Quality education in CFS approach</li> <li>• Teacher knowledge of child rights internationally.</li> <li>• Teacher knowledge and understanding of CFS in Africa.</li> <li>• Principles of the CFS initiative.</li> <li>• Characteristics of a child-friendly school.</li> <li>• School environment contexts.</li> </ul>
2. How are teachers supported to promote CFS environments in schools?		School-based support for teachers to promote CFS environments.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• School leadership support.</li> <li>• Teacher peer support.</li> <li>• Parental support.</li> <li>• Learner support.</li> </ul>
3. What strategies do teachers employ to promote CFS environments?		Teacher strategies to promote CFS environments.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Student-centred discipline.</li> <li>• Positive teacher language.</li> <li>• Learner responsibility and choice.</li> <li>• Teacher warmth and support.</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cooperative learning.</li> <li>• Teacher and learner classroom discussions.</li> <li>• Learner self-reflection and self-assessment.</li> </ul>
4. What challenges do teachers encounter in the promotion of CFS environments?	Challenges hindering teacher promotion of CFS environments.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher burnout.</li> <li>• Lack of teacher affiliation.</li> <li>• Non-existence of teacher personal connectedness.</li> <li>• Lack of training on the CFS concept.</li> <li>• Inadequate resources and facilities.</li> <li>• Lack of school leadership and peer support.</li> <li>• Lack of parental involvement.</li> </ul>
5. What are the implications for teacher professional development?	CFS initiative: Implications for teacher professional development.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• In-service professional learning communities.</li> <li>• Pre-service professional development.</li> </ul>

As already explained, alignment of areas of literature review was meant to carefully control literature review and ensure maintenance of the focus of the study.

### 2.5.1 Teachers' Understanding of the Child-Friendly Schools Concept

The following section focuses on assessing teachers' conceptualisation of the CFS initiative through a discussion of the origins and mandate of the CFS concept, CFS principles, characteristics of a child-friendly school, and different contexts of the school environment. Related literature is reviewed to give insights on teacher awareness, their interpretation, attitudes and beliefs towards the issues under discussion. First and foremost, it should be understood that in different contexts, teachers profess different levels of knowledge and understanding of the CFS concept (Khush, 2011; Modipane & Thamane, 2014; Sang, Mutua & Korrir, 2014). Since the CFS initiative is deeply grounded in the CRC provisions (UNICEF, 2009), significant literature reviewed on this

aspect is related to teachers' awareness, knowledge and understanding of the CRC, and their beliefs and attitudes towards child rights education. It should also be realized that teachers are responsible for implementing educational initiatives, and in order for them to effectively carry out the task they require adequate understanding of the meaning and thinking underpinning the change (Shaeffer, 2013; Taole, 2013). Researchers concur that the larger proportion of the CFS principles is implemented and applied in the classrooms. It involves teachers translating the provisions of the initiative document into practice, embracing new teaching methodologies and providing a broader range of learning experiences (Davidson, 2007; Handler, 2010, Mandiudza, 2012, Sango & Chiinze, 2015). Acquisition of such skills is likely to be realised where teachers have gained a deeper understanding of the curriculum initiative at hand, hence the need for relevant teacher professional development on CFS concept. Teachers' understanding, knowledge and appreciation of the CFS concept may be manifested through their behaviour and attitudes. In their day to day interactions, teachers who have a sound understanding of the concept are likely to model it through talk and action (Modipane & Themane, 2014). The impact of teacher knowledge and understanding of CFS approach on learners can easily be observed in their behaviours and achievement (Godfrey, Osher, Williams, Wolf, Berg, Forrent, Spier & Aber, 2012).

The current study sought to assess teachers' knowledge and understanding of the CFS concept in terms of the origins of this initiative, its developmental history, its key principles, its characteristics, and the different contexts of the school environment. It is assumed that teachers' level of understanding of these aspects heavily impacts on their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **2.5.1.1 Origins of the CFS concept**

The CFS approach is a product of a number of international human rights interventions which include: Human Rights (1948), Education for All (EFA) (1990), Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (1990), Dakar Framework for Action (2000), and the former Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (2000 – 2015), among others. While all the five international interventions focused on needs-based programming, the CRC appeared more biased towards rights-based programming. In 2009, UNICEF availed an

international CFS manual document designed and grounded in the provisions of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1990). Bredenberg (2008) describes the CFS initiative as a long searched solution for practical ways to translate many of the CRC ideals into concrete applications, particularly in the developing world. In other words, CFS can be perceived as a means of transforming the concept of child rights into classroom practice and school management (Weshan, Al-Faori&Sakal, 2012). UNICEF Canada (2012) reiterates that all social systems and agencies which affect children are to be based on the principles of the CRC. This is particularly true for schools which, despite disparities in access across much of the world, serve a large percentage of children of both primary and secondary school age. Heijnen-Maathuis (2008) concurs with the idea that CFS is a strategy that ‘translates’ the CRC into policy and practices while reinforcing the role of education as a vehicle for overcoming marginalisation and social exclusion.

It is against the realisation of the relevance of this international human rights instrument that this study sought to assess teachers’ level of awareness and understanding of the CRC instrument requisite for them to appreciate and promote the CFS approach.

#### **2.5.1.2 Mandate of the CFS concept**

The child-friendly schools (CFS) initiative emerged as a response to growing concerns about the often poor quality of basic education, especially in developing countries (UNICEF, 2013). In developed countries where the approach is more preventive than reactive, it came to standardize the handling and management of teacher-maltreatment of learners and learners’ anti-social behaviours (Spaulding, Irvin, Horner, May, Emeldi, Tobin & Sugai, 2010). CFS is an international initiative meant to promote a rights-based concept of quality that goes beyond good teaching methods and learning outcomes to include health, safety and adequacy of school facilities and supplies (Orkodashvili, 2010; UNICEF, 2009). Mannathoko (2013) states that the CFS concept represents a pragmatic pathway towards quality in education that has evolved and is still evolving. The initiative started from the principle of education as a human right to a child-centred ideology that regards the best interest of the child as paramount at all times. Orkodashvili (2010) defines CFS as an approach to promote quality education in

schools for all children, especially among the most vulnerable and hard-to-reach populations, both in everyday circumstances and in emergencies. It focuses on the needs of the 'whole' child and cares about what happens to children in their families and communities before they enter school and after they leave school (Yoder, 2014). It can also be viewed as a holistic approach to child development, encompassing a wide range of different components that are mutually enhancing, complementary and inseparable (Pirozzi, 2011; Silova, Johnson & Heyneman, 2007). The authors referred to concur on two aspects of the CFS initiative, that are; quality and the 'whole' child. It therefore, implies that teachers require a shared vision of these aspects so that they are addressed and catered for, as teachers play their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

### **2.5.1.3 Quality education in the CFS concept**

Quality education is often defined in terms of academic excellence, which is a narrow and limited perspective. However, the aspect of quality education in the CFS approach has a broader meaning which recognizes both measurable and non-measurable outputs, as well as the process by which education takes place (Heijnen-Maathuis, 2008). The same author goes on to assert that this kind of quality accepts education as a right in itself and acknowledges schools as places in which rights are practised.

Quality in child-friendly school environments focuses on pedagogical excellence and learning outcomes with considerations of health, nutrition, availability of adequate facilities, services and supplies, to ensure safety and protection of learners. The quality is also grounded in the reality of being linked to the wider community that makes education real and the school curriculum relevant. There should be quality processes, quality environment, quality teachers and quality learners (Pirozzi, 2011; Silova, Johnson & Heyneman, 2007). Maduewesi (2005) concurs that quality learning occurs when systems of the home, community, schools and peers come together to form a protective circle that nurtures and develops students' growth. Prishtina (2012) asserts that quality supports the development of knowledge of facts and procedures, skills, views and values, and the creative and emotional development of the child. Bredenberg (2008) views quality from a different perspective, asserting that quality education

depends on the positive relationships among learners and between teachers and learners. He goes on to say that social interaction based on mutual trust and respect is fundamental to a quality learning environment. There is no place for beating, bullying, verbal abuse or the denigration of groups or individuals in a quality learning environment. This assertion places teachers in a central role to ensure the required quality. The issues raised on quality also suggest that it is a standard measure aspect of the CFS initiative, hence; teachers are expected to match the standards. It becomes necessary therefore, that Zimbabwean teachers' understanding of quality education be investigated with the intention of establishing how that understanding or lack of it, impacts on their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **2.5.1.4 International teacher-knowledge of child rights**

In the developed world, USA, UK, Australia and parts of Asia, teacher understanding and appreciation of the CFS versions such as the School-wide Positive Behaviour Support (SPBS) and Rights Respecting Schools (RRS), Promoting Rights in Schools (PRS), are measured against their interpretation of the CRC instrument (Bryer & Beamish, 2005). Teachers are also expected to appropriately interpret the CRC in the teaching and learning of child rights, commonly referred to as the Child Rights Education (CRE) (Jerome, Emerson, Lundy & Orr, 2015). These authors carried out a study to evaluate implementation of the teaching and learning of CRE in twenty-six countries. They highlighted that CRE is basically teaching and learning about the provisions and principles of the CRC. In the same study, it emerged that teachers' lack of knowledge and lack of training in the teaching of CRE was attested to by 54% of the respondents.

In United Kingdom, Howe and Covell (2010) and Covell, Howe and Polegato (2011), carried out an evaluation study on 16 primary schools which adopted a rights-based approach to education, focusing on 'rights, respect and responsibility'. These researchers established that most teachers were relatively knowledgeable about the approach, and where teachers had focused primarily on rights rather than responsibilities, learners had developed a clearer sense of mutual obligation and ethical behaviour. The authors also established that teacher motivation and job-satisfaction had

greatly improved. Tibbits echoed similar findings concluding that “children, who learn about their rights and the CRC tend to be more respectful and grow in psychosocial competencies”(2005:6). Although Tibbits’ focus was more on the impact of CRE on learners, rather than on teachers’ role, it can be assumed that the effective teaching of CRE was because of teachers’ sound understanding and appreciation of the initiative. Sebba and Robison (2010) also conducted an evaluation of UNICEF’s Rights Respecting Schools Award programme and noted that teachers’ adequate knowledge and appreciation of the programme had positive effects on teachers. The knowledge teachers had of the programme encouraged them to re-connect to some broader aims and ethical purposes of education. On the part of learners, relationships between them and teachers improved. Learners felt empowered to respect the rights of others and demonstrated positive attitudes towards inclusion and diversity.

In countries like Ireland and Scotland, teachers presented themselves as active agents for CRE with the potential for collaboration, legitimating, and transformation (Morgan & Kitching, 2006; Waldron, Kavanagh, Kavanagh, Maunsell, Oberman, O’Reilly, Pike, Prunty & Ruane, 2011). Jerome et al., (2015) revealed that teachers in all the 26 countries under study were fully aware of the CRC instrument and schools were in possession of the document. However, teachers cited various reasons for not implementing CRE, such as lack of systematic approaches to the training of teachers on the initiative; which was the most outstanding reason (UNHCHR, 2010).

Despite evidence of teacher’s understanding of child rights education in the developed world, Bajaj (2012) observes that a close analysis of the role of educators in the promotion of CRE in India revealed contradicting messages. The author established that in some school settings, teachers were seen as obstacles to CRE through their role as gate-keepers with an interest in retaining traditional forms of authority. This observation was supported by Tibbits (2005) opining that educational initiatives tended to work well where CRE training sessions were frequent, methods were participatory and teachers were knowledgeable and enthusiastic. These insights point to the fact that teachers need to be involved in the development of CRE at district, school or classroom level, working along with NGOs. This involvement is likely to promote a direct

relationship with teachers and children, thus, start a bottom-up process in CRE development (Gerber, 2008). Bajaj (2012) also observes that where teachers were actively involved in the development of local CRE, they could easily act as 'legitimizing agents' through modeling human rights values through their own changed behaviour. He goes on to say that teachers could convince parents and other community members of the value of child rights education as well as assist children in learning and in subsequent action.

An evaluation of the implementation of the proactive School-wide Positive Behaviour Support (SWPBS) initiative in New Zealand by Savage, Lewis and Colless (2011) established that the successful implementation of this initiative heavily depended on the perceived need for it by the teachers, a willingness to learn new skills, and preparedness to implement ideas in the classroom. The same study also revealed that in some cases, teachers' prior beliefs of the initiative impeded it. Conversely, in an analytic assessment on child-friendly environment of a higher secondary school in Nepal, Vaidya (2014) observed that teachers' buy-in of the programme yielded positive results. Teachers did not limit the teaching methods to lecture method only, but they also used demonstration, collaboration, project work, case studies and observations, among others. In this school, teachers were reported to have abandoned all types of physical, corporal and mental punishment. In light of this insight, the present study aimed to establish the beliefs and willingness of Zimbabwean secondary school teachers to contribute to the CFS environment concept.

Abdul (2008) highlights that as far back as 1990s, several Middle East and North African countries had adopted pedagogical reforms such as student-centred learning, competency-based curricula, and focus on critical thinking. However, despite these efforts, little evidence of a significant shift away from a traditional model of teaching had been observed because teachers were less involved in the development of the reforms. In Algeria, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child recommended enhancing awareness of the CRC among professionals working with, and for children, especially teachers. Earlier, country evaluations had shown that there were significant rates of school dropouts, particularly from low-income households because of deteriorating



quality of education and prevalence of violence in schools. Teachers were still practicing corporal punishment in schools.

Literature has shown that even in developed countries, there are varied levels of teacher understanding and appreciation of child rights, which are the backbone of the CFS approach. It is therefore, in light of such evidence that the current study aimed to establish the extent of teachers in Zimbabwe's knowledge and appreciation of child rights.

#### **2.5.1.5 Teacher knowledge and understanding of the CFS concept in Africa**

In some African countries, for example, Botswana, the CFS concept has remained a foreign intervention for most of the teachers (Mannathoko, 2006). In some provinces of South Africa, the approach is said to have conflicted with teachers' existing conceptions and beliefs on school environments (Williams, 2010). On the contrary, in the Limpopo province of South Africa, teachers professed a sound understanding of the CFS principles. They claimed to have adopted and promoted them and were at ease to explain the interrelatedness of the key principles to their peers (Modipane&Thamane, 2014). The compromised teacher understanding of child-friendly schooling could be as a result of many factors. Some teachers regarded the CFS initiative as an "imposed" add-on to their already overloaded programmes (Mandiudza, 2013; Prishtina, 2012). They claimed that the initiative was not based on their pre-service or in-service teacher education. In the majority of cases, it had been developed and delivered through donor funded workshops, printed teacher guidelines, and standards documents, giving teachers very limited time for understanding it (Broad & Evans, 2006; Olaleye, 2011). The scenarios cited may be closely related to this study because of the prevalence of donor supported educational initiatives in most African countries, Zimbabwe included.

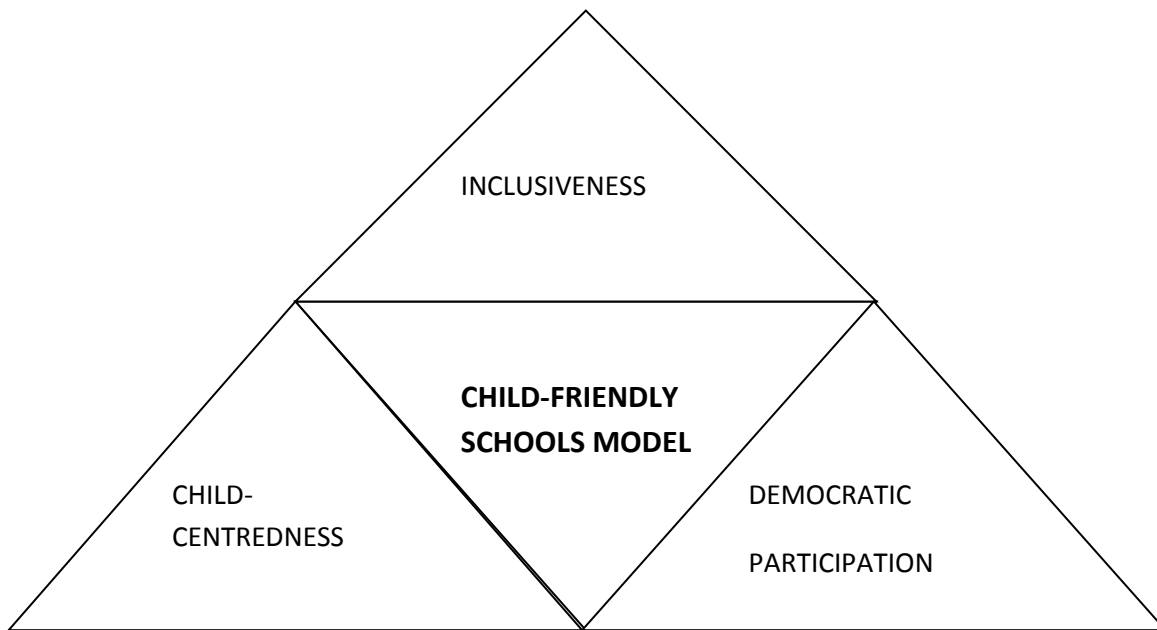
Figure (2013) carried out a study on the teaching of child rights in five African countries namely; Ghana, Uganda, Gambia, Liberia, Malawi and Zambia which revealed that many teachers still saw the teaching of children's rights as a threat to adult authority. Such teacher perceptions and attitudes were a barrier to them to seeking knowledge or understanding of the CFS concept. In an effort to address this concern, Jerome et al.

(2015) posited that work with teachers needed to address their knowledge and attitudes and acknowledge their agency in creating change.

Insights gained from the reviewed literature in this section suggest that globally, regionally, and nationally, teachers have a hazy idea of the CRC instrument from which the CFS principles are derived. There seems to be very little or no research evidence in Zimbabwe on why teachers are at this insignificant level of the CRC knowledge. The findings of this study are likely to provide insights and suggestions on how best in-service and pre-service teachers may be exposed to this vital international human rights instrument in order for them to effectively promote CFS environments. In order to objectively assess teachers' understanding of the CFS concept, it is important to unpack the concept and examine how teachers understand each component in relation to the promotion of child-friendly school environments. The following sections deliberate on CFS principles, characteristics of a child-friendly school, and the different contexts of the school environment

### **2.5.2 Principles of the CFS Approach**

The CFS initiative is based on three inter-related, interactive and complementary principles. This means that implementation of one of the three gives impetus to the other principles. Madu and Okoye (2013) present the three main principles diagrammatically as shown in Figure. 2.1.



**Figure 2-1: Core principles of the Child-friendly schools approach**

Source: (Adapted from Madu & Okoye, 2013: 3)

Each of these three principles has a central focus, and related literature is reviewed to inform the assessment of teachers' understanding of each or all of them.

### **2.5.2.1 Inclusiveness**

Inclusiveness is a fundamental component of the CFS approach which ropes in the aspect of child-seeking education. It aims at reaching all excluded children, particularly children from poor families, rural areas, minorities and children with special needs (Madu & Okoye, 2013; Silova et al., 2007). The same sentiment is echoed by Hlatywayo and Muranda (2014) that inclusiveness in the contexts of CFS environments is about the child's right to participate and the school's duty to accept the child. In a school system, this CFS principle is exercised by ensuring that respect for, and response to, diversity in the learning environment for all learners regardless of gender, social class, ethnicity, and ability (Armstrong, 2005; Sierra & Towell, 2011). When schools respect and welcome diversity, they respond to it as an opportunity rather than a problem to be solved. School environments should enable both teachers and learners to feel comfortable with diversity (UNESCO, 2009; Yoder, 2014). Teachers, therefore, need to

understand that every child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities and needs. When children have access to school, it can only be meaningful if they are able to remain in the system and learn.

Despite these ideal aspirations of inclusiveness, significant research has shown otherwise. In an investigation of secondary school teachers' attitudes towards, and knowledge about inclusive education in Bangladesh, Khan (2011) established that teachers had diverse conceptualizations of inclusive education. Insufficient knowledge and lack of training on the concept were identified as barriers to the promotion of inclusiveness. In Ghana, Sarfo (2011) observed that teachers believed that the practice of mainstreaming children with special needs was an infringement of the rights of those children and an over burden for teachers. Leatherman and Niemeyer (2008) presented a different dimension of teachers' attitudes towards inclusion by suggesting that teachers' previous experiences in inclusive classrooms influenced their present feelings. Those who were impacted positively tended to implement inclusive practices by involving all learners in classroom activities, including those with disabilities. However, the same teachers who implemented inclusive practices indicated that appropriate pre-service training, support from administrators, and support from resource personnel were important to providing a successful inclusive school environment. One important factor which ensures retention and progression of learners in the school system is equitable participation in the learning activities of the classroom (Machingambi, 2012). While previous research focused on identifying teachers' shortfalls in promoting inclusiveness in the classroom, none looked at teachers' exposure to policy instruments that inform the implementation of this education principle. Interviews and survey investigations in this study on the hindrances to teachers' promotion of CFS environments covered this literature gap. Findings of this current study are also a step towards increasing teacher knowledge and understanding of the CFS principle of inclusiveness, not only in Zimbabwe, but also in other developing countries.

#### **2.5.2.2 Child-centredness**

The child-centredness principle emphasises safe-guarding the interests of the child, making them central to all decision-making in the school system. It requires that schools

provide the best possible conditions to ensure that all children enjoy their rights (Jerome, Emerson, Lundy & Orr, 2015). This principle also allows freedom for children to think, experience, explore, question and search for answers (Lal, 2014). School personnel, particularly teachers should prioritize learners' emotional and physical well-being and build relationships with learners that are positive and respectful. Child-centredness should translate to school practices such as child-centred pedagogy in which learners become active participants in a healthy, safe and protective learning environment. While celebrating the positive aspects of this CFS principle, it should be noted that incorporating child-centred approaches in school activities demands hard work and effort from teachers and learners alike (Lal, 2014). The author goes on to suggest that success in implementation and promotion of this principle requires careful study and a thorough comprehension of its mandate, as well as genuine recognition of its value, on the teachers' part.

In light of the reviewed literature on this principle, it is therefore, vital that the current study sought to examine how teachers in Zimbabwean secondary schools engaged learners in child-centred activities which promoted child-friendly schooling. To ensure positive change from their old beliefs and practices, there is need for teachers to be developed in child-centred skills that promote meaningful learner engagement.

### **2.5.2.3 Democratic participation**

Democratic participation entails that learners are the right holders, thus, making them and all those who facilitate their rights to have a say in the form and substance of their education (UNICEF, 2008). Where schools adhere to this principle, representatives of students, teachers, parents, and community are included in a transparent and open decision-making process that fosters quality schooling for all students (Elmeski, 2011). Democratic and authentic participation fosters ownership, helps build cohesive communities, and produces students and community members who are productive members of society (UNICEF, 2009, 2013). Respect for children's rights supports their social and emotional development which also ensures their human dignity and fundamental freedoms. It is vital for learners to reach their full potential. Practices of fairness, non-discrimination and active meaningful participation of the family, home,

school and community represents this principle. The principle also encourages learners to engage actively in all school activities and decision-making through formalized structures.

It is imperative, therefore, to sensitise teachers on the importance of democratic participation of learners at all levels of decision making. That is likely to motivate them to remain in school and be accountable for their learning and academic performance..

Besides the three core CFS principles presented by Madu and Okoye (2013), there is a fourth principle of protection which can be viewed as a linking factor to the core principles. Education stakeholders expect schools to be safe, secure and protective of learners in all daily activities.

#### **2.5.2.4 Protection**

The principle of protection in CFS approach expects schools to acknowledge that all children have a right to learn in an environment where they can grow and reach their potential, and that they have a right to be protected from being hurt and mistreated, physically and mentally(Australian National Safe Schools Framework, 2013; UNICEF, 2009). In school settings, it is assumed that learners may be subjected to hurt, harm, and mistreatment from their teachers, peers, and other members of the school community. It therefore follows that teachers have a clear responsibility to exercise their duty to care and to ensure the welfare of learners. When offered such protective environments, learners are likely to feel safe from harassment, aggression, violence, and bullying (De-Bruyn & Tinio, 2013). The Australian National Safe Schools Framework (2013) describes a safe and supportive school as a place where the risk from all types of harm is minimized, diversity is valued and all members of the school community feel respected and included. Learners become confident that they will receive support in the face of any threats to their safety or well-being. There is a strong interconnection between student safety, student well-being and learning (Steinberg, Allenworth & Johnson, 2011). When student safety and well-being are enhanced, students feel connected to their school and have positive and respectful relationships with their peers and teachers. They are bound to feel confident about their social and emotional skills and satisfied with their learning experiences at school.

Literature has shown the essence of the core principles in CFS approach, and the assumption is that teachers in different school contexts should practice at least one of these as they strive to promote child-friendly schooling. The current study sought to establish teachers' level of awareness, knowledge, and understanding of these principles in their role of promoting CFS environments. It sought also to identify sustainable teacher professional development approaches which ensured improved teacher awareness of these CFS principles. A close examination was also done to establish the extent to which teachers employed strategies that were related to these principles in their effort to promote child-friendly schooling.

After having discussed the core CFS principles, the next section presents what characterizes a child-friendly school in which observable standard benchmarks of the CFS approach would be in practice.

### **2.5.3 Characteristics of a Child-Friendly School Environment**

Schools, in their effort to create and promote child-friendly school environments, can borrow heavily from the proponents of responsive approaches who strongly believe that “the environment shapes the learner, and that learners influence their environment” (Lipman, 2010). A school's environment encompasses different contexts or forms which include the physical environment (infrastructure; buildings and playgrounds), classroom environment (learning and teaching), socio-emotional environment, and health environment. From a broader perspective, the school environment may include digital learning spaces, digital technologies for communication, learners being outside the classroom in circumstances such as travelling to and from school, and school policies and regulations (Yoder, 2014). A school with child-friendly environments should cater for its key recipients; the learners, teachers and parents (Shaeffer, 2013).

In child-friendly school environments, every person has a right to be protected from all the elements that are detrimental to one's health or well-being. Learners have a right to be curious, to ask questions and receive answers (Jerome, Emerson, Lundy & Orr, 2015; Yoder, 2014). This points to the fact that teachers should afford learners an opportunity to argue and disagree, to test and make mistakes, to know and not to know,

and to create and be spontaneous (Crosson-Tower, 2010). CFS environments are meant to be of good quality in terms of their learners, curriculum content, and teaching-learning processes (Mannathoko, 2013). In recognition of teachers' contribution, Mannathoko (2006; 2013) and UNESCO (2005) concur that the issue of quality in CFS environments is not only about what children learn and how they learn; it is also about the preparedness and competencies of teachers to deliver it. Teachers must have the knowledge, skills, and sensitivity to help build resilience in children, especially for the vulnerable ones who need preparation to persevere and triumph over challenges they may face in life (Allen, 2010). However, advocates of the CFS environments believe in a multi-sectoral approach focusing on prevention, intervention and responsive practices that increase the safety and security of both learners and school personnel (Adelman & Taylor, 2007).

There are key desirable features observable in a school with child-friendly environments which include: confident teachers and learners, effective communication structures, child-centred teaching and learning practices, safe environments that stimulate learning, and effective management of student behaviours (Das, 2014; Orkodashvili, 2010; Williams, 2010).

Above all, CFS environments should "be in the best interest of the child and be concerned about the 'whole' child. The school should care about what happens to children in their families and communities, that is, before they enter school and after they leave" (UNICEF, 2008: IV). A school with child-friendly environments is protective and ensures that learners are protected from harm, hurt and maltreatment physically or mentally. It also ensures learners through its policies and regulations that they learn in a safe and healthy environment which "represents a place of sanctuary rather than risk and danger" (Allen, 2010: 4). Such environments allow learners to grow and reach their full potential (Mannathoko, 2006, 2013; Orkadashvili, 2010 & Shaeffer, 2013). Child-friendly school environments also afford learners an opportunity to experience a sense of belonging, respect and dignity, and provide every teacher an opportunity to effectively teach (Madu & Okoye, 2013; Prishtina, 2012). In short, a school with child-friendly



environments strives to adapt to the needs of the individual learner, rather than the learner to the needs of the school (Jerome et al, 2015; Shaeffer, 2013; Yoder, 2014).

It is, against this realisation of characteristics of a child-friendly school that the current study focused on examining the strategies teachers were employing to provide learners the much desired child-friendly school environments. The study also sought to ascertain the nature of support teachers were offered at school level that enabled them to create these characteristics of a child-friendly school.

In their execution of duty, teachers interact with learners in different school environments, and the CFS approach expects teachers to always do things in the best interests of the learner. It is therefore, crucial for teachers to be aware of the different contexts of the school environment and reflect on different roles they need to play to ensure learners' child-friendly schooling.

#### **2.5.4 Contexts of School Environment**

In order for teachers to effectively promote child-friendly school environments, there is need for them to be aware of the different contexts of the school environment. Teachers interact and engage with learners in these environments, hence the need for them to play a pivotal role in ensuring learners' safety and security. The contexts of the school environment can be varied depending on the focus of concern. In this study, only three contexts will be deliberated on, which include: the physical, classroom, and psycho-social, and social school environments. The assumption is that, it is within these school environments where teachers mostly engage with learners and are likely to impact on their learning either positively or negatively.

##### **2.5.4.1 Physical school environment**

In its narrowest sense, physical school environment refers to the infrastructure which includes all the buildings, classrooms, sanitation facilities, water sources, specialist rooms, playgrounds, roads, flowers, and many others things that can meet the eye. It can also refer to physical structures in relation to spaces, equipment, tools, and sources of information that a school offers. From a different perspective, this context of school environment refers to a physical space that supports multiple and diverse teaching and

learning programmes and pedagogies (Kuuskorpi & Gonzalez, 2011). The authors go on to argue that such an environment encourages social participation and provides a healthy, comfortable, safe and stimulating setting for its occupants. It is assumed that the school's physical environments affect everyone's behaviour through enhancing or interfering with students' learning and independence (Stonehouse, 2011).

Insights from reviewed literature suggest that teachers need to have a significant appreciation of the physical school environment. It is therefore, vital that this study sought to discover the role of teachers in the selected Zimbabwean secondary schools, in the promotion and facilitation of child-friendly schooling within the physical environments of their schools and to establish teachers' strategies in creating child-friendly physical school environments.

#### **2.5.4.2 Classroom environment**

A large amount of a child's time at school is spent sitting in a classroom. This is the place where children gain knowledge and skills deemed necessary and appropriate for them to achieve success in the global society (Hannah, 2013). A classroom environment is 'the third teacher that can either enhance the kind of learning that optimizes students' potential to respond creatively and meaningfully to future challenges or compromise it (Fraser, 2012; Robinson, 2012). The same sentiments are shared by Hannah (2013) that if not carefully thought out, a classroom environment can stifle creativity or promote positive learning. Miller and Cunningham (2011) note that the classroom environment encompasses a broad range of educational concepts including the physical setting, the psychological environment created through social contexts, and numerous instructional components related to teacher characteristics and behaviour. It therefore, follows that the teacher has to design, direct and manage all operations of the classroom and has a role and responsibility of making it positive to learners. A positive classroom environment is determined by the level of shared perceptions of the teacher and learners in that environment (Fraser & Pickett, 2010).

There are certain features that determine a positive classroom environment which include; the physical arrangement of the classroom, learners' seating arrangement, classroom schedule, class rules, teacher-learner relationships, and peer-modelling,

among others (Banks, 2014). In addition to these features, class composition, class size, and classroom management have a bearing on creating a classroom climate. Classroom climate identifies relationships among learners with each other, with the teacher and how this translates into learning (Miller & Cunningham, 2011). In recognition of their classroom autonomy, teachers should work towards creating positive learning environments and be able to identify and foster classroom conditions that make it conducive for desirable behaviours to occur in the classroom. Child-friendly classroom environments are likely to maximize students' opportunities for learning and promote the idea of students as partners and collaborators with teachers in their own learning (Stonehouse, 2011).

Having realised the intensity of teacher involvement in the classroom environment, the present study aimed at capturing teachers' strategies in the promotion of child-friendly classroom environments with the intention of establishing their professional skills in doing so.

#### **2.5.4.3 Psycho-social environment**

Psycho-social school environment is based on the interaction of key players in the school or classroom, namely learners and teachers. It refers to the interpersonal relationships in the school (Banks, 2014; Miller & Cunningham, 2011). It is also about the students' experiences of the learning situation (Blum, 2005). In order to ensure learners a good psychosocial school environment, constant school routines should be in place to safeguard good cooperation between student and teacher and between school and home. School rules should be reflected in form of respect and responsibility. Teacher support and peer acceptance has a positive influence on attitudes toward school among children (Moore, 2012). There is likely to be a strong, positive relationship between students' level of motivation and engagement and their perceptions of the school environment as being socially supportive (Hannah, 2013; Miller & Cunningham, 2011). Positive psychosocial environments encourage learners to be able to understand the feelings of others, control their own feelings and behaviours, and get along with their peers and teachers (Takakura, Wake & Kobayashi, 2005).

Reviewed literature on this aspect suggests that teachers need to have basic psycho-social skills which enable them to be supportive educators. Teachers are expected to promote the psycho-social development of their learners by attending to their social needs which are likely to impact on their psychological and academic achievement. It became imperative therefore, in this study, to explore the role of guidance and counselling teachers in particular, and other teachers in general, in promoting child-friendly psycho-social school environments.

#### **2.5.4.4 Social school environment**

A school's social environment has a broad influence on students' learning and growth. The type of school environment is shaped by many factors which include the school's espoused goals and values; principal or school head's leadership style; subject teaching and discipline methods; policies regarding grading and tracking; and inclusion or exclusion of students and parents in the planning and decision-making processes (Blum, 2005). Above all, the most important aspect in determining the social school environment is the quality of students' relationships with other students and with the school staff (Thapa, Cohen, Guffey, & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2013). In all these factors that shape the social environment, teachers have a role to play to ensure learners' supportive school environments. When learners are exposed to supportive school environments, they are likely to become motivated to achieve, be engaged in school activities, and develop a strong liking for school. The positive outcomes are likely to promote learners' sense of "connectedness" (Blum, 2005), "belongingness" (Takakura, Wake & Kobayashi, 2005), or "community" (Loukas, 2007). Connectedness, belongingness and community all refer to students' sense of being in close respectful relationships with peers and adults at school. This phenomenon is often termed "school bonding" or "social bonding".

From the reviewed literature, it is clear that teacher knowledge and understanding of all the aspects related to the CFS concept deliberated on, or lack of it, has an impact on teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. It is against this realisation that this current study aimed at establishing the level of teacher understanding of the CFS

concept, with the intention of identifying relevant teacher professional development models that can effectively inform teachers on this educational initiative.

It is also essential at this point to recognise and appreciate that this educational reform or change cannot just happen automatically. Considerable effort is expected of relevant stakeholders to ensure total teacher buy-in of the programme. The following section presents viable and sustainable support teachers require within the contexts of their schools to promote child-friendly school environments.

## **2.6 SCHOOL-BASED SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS TO PROMOTE CFS ENVIRONMENTS**

Of late, teachers have become a major topic of discussion and are occasionally blamed for poor implementation of new educational reforms such as the CFS initiative. However, it should be noted that teachers operate within school contexts. Schools have become complex systems made up of parts with greater interdependence than earlier believed possible (McKenzie, Bantwini & Bogan, 2013). These authors continue to argue that failure to acknowledge this complexity is a major reason for the predictable failure of educational reforms. Bishop made a similar observation that teachers are able to sustain any educational change when there are “mechanisms in place at multiple levels of the school system to support their efforts” (2008: 51). In relation to the promotion of CFS environments, school-based support may include: deepening teachers’ understanding of the principles involved, availability of resources, changing institution infrastructure, and related policies. It may also mean spreading the educational reform to other aspects of the school structures, such as discipline, pastoral care, and taking ownership of the reform (Prishtina, 2012; Shaeffer, 2013).

Literature has shown that teachers require adequate support from the school leadership, other staff, learners, and parents to effectively promote an initiative like the CFS. It is therefore, against this understanding that this study focuses on establishing the nature and extent of school-based support offered to teachers which enables them to promote CFS environments.

### **2.6.1 School leadership support**

School leadership is generally regarded as the key factor in making a difference to the environments of schools and in promoting the learning of their students (Alkarni, 2014). School leadership is not just confined to the school head alone, but includes members of the senior management team, heads of departments and parents, and all who exercise leadership in some form during their daily interactions (Bishop, 2008). With increasing pressure for quality in education, it has been found out that school leadership has a vital role to play in ensuring learners friendly and safe school environments to enhance their performance. School leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school (Barber & Mourshed, 2007; Bishop, 2008; Wallace Foundation, 2012). This is evident in a research study conducted in USA by Holland (2007) which encouraged school principals to be “out of the office into the classroom”. In the study, school principals and teachers were found to be working closely in order to have a shared vision of what they expected of their learners. One principal of a primary school made herself a regular visitor in the classroom. In appreciation of her support, one school teacher described the principal as:

*Accessible, friendly, and practical. She will get on the floor with the kids. She will talk to you about what you are doing. She used to be a teacher, and she can share so much with us.*

In this scenario, there is evidence of a strong relationship between school head and teachers, which is based on transparency and mutual trust. Teachers are likely to respect such school leadership style, where they are listened to, shown concern for their well-being, and given affirmation and encouragement (Boerema, 2011; Crawford, 2014; Holland, 2007). Supportive school heads should be frequently visible in different parts of the school environment (classrooms, playgrounds, school trips) modelling CFS principles, meeting with teachers in individual, team, and whole-school meetings (Clair, 2011; Mohammed- Elmeski, 2011). In the adoption of new educational reformssuch as CFS, variation of teacher support and practices is strongly dependent on the school leader’svision and understanding of teachers’ role and impact on goals and objectives of the initiative. The history, culture and background of the school, its general vision and

mission can also influence the nature of support teachers can get from school leadership.

Literature has also established that school leadership heavily influences learning, both for students and teachers. In a study to evaluate school principals' contribution in maintaining curriculum content standards, Killion (2012) revealed that successful principals shaped the culture of their schools, set clear expectations, and shared leadership with others to create productive and safe environments for students and staff. The author suggested a shared leadership approach as a way of empowering teachers in their decision-making on issues affecting the learning and welfare of students. Cultivating leadership in teachers encourages teachers to play their role in realizing the school vision, and it is likely to improve relationships which can enable teachers to teach at their best and students to learn at their utmost (Wallace Foundation, 2012). It should also be noted that teachers become motivated and satisfied with their job responsibilities when they are adequately supported. Cheung and Wong (2011) made an observation that while it is the students' perceptions of their teachers that sets the daily learning process in motion, it is also the teachers' perceptions of how they are valued and supported by their school's leadership that often has an influence on their daily decisions to motivate students.

Evidence of the impact of school leadership support was reported in a study in Hong Kong by Cheung and Wong (2011) revealing that without the support of the school heads, all curriculum reforms initiated by the government in the 1970s and 1980s would have been "symbolic" and few of real changes would have occurred.

Although much literature has highlighted the importance of school leadership support in the promotion of CFS environments, it should be noted that there are different leadership styles. Research has shown that the type of leadership style has a bearing on the nature of support offered to teachers (Demir, 2008). Hardman (2011) identifies three types of leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant. He goes on to argue that the leadership style of a school head is interpreted and defined through his or her teachers' behaviours.

There is also an assumption that the style of leadership and leadership behaviours influence teacher engagement and interactions with learners (Northouse, 2007). Having taken note of this assumption and insights from the reviewed literature of this aspect, the current study explores the nature of leadership support offered to teachers in the selected Zimbabwean secondary schools. The aim is also to establish how this leadership support enables and empowers teachers in their role to promote CFS environments. Research has shown that transformational leadership style is likely to yield positive results especially in the implementation of educational reforms (Fullan, 2011).

#### **2.6.1.1 Transformational leadership style support**

Schools in the 21<sup>st</sup> century require school administrators who focus their attention on using facilitative power to make second-order changes in their schools (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). Transformational leadership provides such focus. This kind of leadership generates collective action through empowering those who participate in the process. It facilitates the redefinition of people's mission and vision, a renewal of their commitment, and the restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment (Fullan, 2011). A study in New York evaluating the effects of transformational leadership on school climate and environment established that each school leader in the schools under study developed the school climate by making decisions that produced immediate change. The concerned leaders focused on safe learning environments, high behaviour and attitude expectations, and accountability. Leadership role modelling was an important component in making these changes (Brooks, Giles, Jacobson, Johnson & Yimaki, 2007). This type of leadership appears very relevant in the support required of teachers in their role to promote CFS environments. However, a few non-school studies have indicated the negative effect of transformational leadership, which is its total dependence on the leader (Ishikawa, 2012; Schuh, Zhang & Tian, 2012) while reducing followers or subordinates' creativity (Eisenbeib, 2013).

In view of the effectiveness of this leadership style, the present study sought to examine the nature of leadership style that school heads of the selected secondary schools are using to support teachers in promoting CFS environments.



### **2.6.2 Peer (collegial) support**

Besides support offered by school leadership for teachers to adopt and adapt to educational initiatives, research has also reported the impact of teacher peer support, also referred to as peer coaching (Foltos, 2013; Langelotz, 2013; Scott & Miner, 2008). Peer coaching is defined as a partnership between teachers in a non-judgmental environment built around a collaborative and reflective dialogue (Scott & Miner, 2008). The authors go on to describe it as a confidential process through which instructors share their expertise and provide one another with feedback and support. The assistance offered is to enhance learning by refining present skills, learning new skills and solving classroom-related problems (Foltos, 2013). Findings from a study involving pre-service teachers indicated that peer coaching fostered the exchange of teaching methods and materials. The coaching was also found to cultivate the development of teaching skills (Vacilloto & Cummings, 2007).

It should be noted from the description that this is more of an instructional coaching which is more relevant and applicable in the classroom school environment. In an evaluation of teachers' perceptions of this coaching, Harper (2015) reports that teachers had a positive appreciation of it. This observation is also shared by Foltos (2013) who noted that peer coaching created a forum for addressing instructional problems, reduced isolation among teachers, and built collaborative norms to enable teachers to give and receive ideas and assistance. This practice appears to be of much relevance to teachers as they play the role of promoting CFS environments. Teachers are expected to share their understanding of the principles guiding this initiative and collaborate on what they should do to ensure learners enjoy the desired environments. Peer coaching can further a teacher's individual professional development for improving the school climate (Scott & Miner, 2008).

Despite the positive impact of school-based support for teachers, literature advocates collegial coaching model, which is built on a trusting relationship between a pair of teachers. It is designed to be non-competitive, mutually respectful and focused on the continual improvement of their teaching skills (Harper, 2015). However, if teachers adopt this approach of peer coaching to promote CFS environments, no one teacher is

to act as an expert and the other a novice or apprentice. Instead, both teachers should together act as equals who are looking to collaboratively improve their teaching skills. Also, collegial coaching is not just a process for initiating new teachers into the profession. Instead, it should have a positive impact on all teachers no matter how long they have been in the profession or what their background may be (Foltos, 2013). When experienced teachers take heed of these cautions, it creates an opportunity for them to update old skills, unlearn old habits and acquire new perspectives of handling learners (Harper, 2015).

Reviewed literature on this section has shown that teachers genuinely require fellow teachers in order for them to effectively embrace an educational initiative. In recognition of that fact, this study aims to ascertain how collegial peer coaching for new teachers on creation of CFS environments is likely to be of importance in providing them with personal emotional support in order to accommodate the numerous demands of the profession. It is also the intention of this study to examine how this peer support empowers teachers in their understanding and strategies to promote and facilitate child-friendly schooling. And for the novice teachers, the study seeks to establish how this kind of school-based support would assist in the transmission of the school culture to them.

### **2.6.3 Parental support**

Children come from homes, families or parents to attend school. This implies that the home and school should work closely together for the well-being of the learners. Dor (2012) observes that effective partnership between teachers and parents is essential to meet the needs of the children they “share”. Also teacher perceptions of parent involvement and support in school programmes can play an instrumental role in influencing the teacher’s relationship with the student. From their own perspective, teachers also attest that parents’ attitude about their children’s teachers matter. Parents’ view of teachers can shape their children’s attitudes about school, affect their levels of family-school meeting, and influence their school enrolment decisions (Schueler, Capotosto, Balena, McIntyre & Gehlback, 2014). In a study to assess parents’ involvement in schools and attitudes of teachers and school counsellors, Dor (2012)

reported that parents' positive support for teachers and school had an influence on children's behaviour and educational outcomes. The same sentiments were shared by several researchers who confirmed that parental involvement and support of teachers significantly decreased classroom disciplinary problems and lowered absenteeism, as well as improved children's self-image (Epstern, 2008; Sanders & Lewis, 2005).

While literature has shown the importance of parental support of teachers in the implementation of educational programmes, some research findings have revealed otherwise when it comes to reality. In the majority of cases, the desired collaboration and interaction between teachers and parents is often quite limited (Epstern, 2008), and parents are usually communicated with only in cases of negative student behaviour (Sanders & Lewis, 2005). In other cases, teachers felt that such collaboration tended to undermine their professional status (Epstern, 2008). In light of this research evidence, the present study sought to establish the nature of parental involvement in support of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. This is also with the view to finding out the opinions of the Zimbabwean teachers on parental involvement and how it impacts the promotion of sustainable CFS environments.

#### **2.6.4 Learners' support**

Literature has so far shown that school-based support for teachers in promoting CFS environments comes from different key players. However, it is also of importance to recognize that the major beneficiaries of this initiative (learners) can support teachers to achieve their goal. Learners who hold positions of responsibility such as school prefects and class monitors, work as link persons between the teachers and the rest of learners. Muli (2011) describes school prefects as the "bridge" between the staff and student community. In their effort to create friendly and safe school environments for all learners, teachers cannot be in all places at once. In American schools, prefects were found to supervise young learners while they work and play at lunch time and provided an additional set of "eyes" for teachers at break time.

A research carried out in Kenya, examining the role of prefects in the governance of public secondary schools, established that 22.2% of respondents believed that prefects

monitored other students assisting the school administration in the management of learners (Muli, 2011). In their execution of duty, prefects are expected to be role models for other learners by maintaining the standards of discipline. These are selected, well behaved and exemplary learners who are delegated the organization and coordination of school activities role (Mugabe & Maposa, 2013). This provision of prefects or class monitors is likely to be used as a point of reference for teachers in dealing with student anti-social behaviours. The involvement of learners in the governance of their school encourages them to develop a democratic attitude, the right attitude to work, and a sense of belonging to both school and society (Njue, 2014). The author further argues that the learners' co-operation in decision making can result in school improvement in terms of school climate and environment.

The insights gained from reviewed literature suggest that learners have a significant contribution in the educational interventions meant to uphold their welfare in schools. The prefect structure offers teachers meaningful support in their role to promote CFS environments. It is through the realisation of the importance of learner support that this current study sought to explore how learners in Zimbabwe secondary schools assist teachers in their strategies to promote CFS environments. In making this exploration, the intention was also to find out from learners if they acknowledged the effort of teachers in promoting child-friendly schooling.

Reviewed literature on school-based support has revealed that teachers require support from different key stakeholders in order for them to effectively promote CFS environments. Stonehouse (2011) asserts that providing child-friendly learning environments in even the most ideal circumstances requires critical reflection with colleagues, learners and families. This explains why this study focuses on discovering the nature and level of support that Zimbabwean secondary school teachers are offered within respective school contexts which enhance their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

## **2.7 TEACHERS' STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE CFS ENVIRONMENTS**

No matter the kind of support teachers may get from the other key players as highlighted in the previous section, they always remain the major players in ensuring learners CFS environments. Teachers are deemed the custodians of their classrooms and hence, they are responsible for crafting interpersonal and instructional strategies which support and promote positive learning environments (Bridgeland, Bruce & Hariharan, 2013). In a study to evaluate the implementation of SPBS in New Zealand, Savage, Lewis and Colless (2011) established that the success of the implementation of this initiative heavily depended on the perceived need for it by the teachers, their willingness to learn new skills, and preparedness to implement these strategies in the classroom. Similarly, an analytic assessment on the child-friendly environment of a high secondary school in Nepal by Vaidya (2014) revealed that teachers' buy-in of the programme yielded positive results. Teachers did not limit teaching methods to lecture method only, but they also used demonstration, collaboration, project work, case studies and observations, among others. Another positive observation was that teachers prohibited all types of physical, corporal and mental punishment. Teachers were making constant efforts to protect children from abuse and harm. In New York schools, research findings were that efforts were made to prevent bullying of foster children in schools. Teachers were encouraged to ensure supervision of break times and individual work with students who were identified as bullies and victims. A close collaboration was established between teachers and learners working together to establish and reinforce a set of rules about bullying, thereby creating a positive anti-bullying school climate (Vacca& Kramer-Vida, 2012).

Mehdinezhad (2011) argues that the most important thing teachers can provide their learners with is a classroom learning environment in which they feel comfortable. Teachers should strive to create a learning environment that encourages positive social interaction, active engagement in learning, and self-motivation.

Whilst research evidence has proved that teachers have a vital role to play in the promotion of child-friendly schooling in other nations, there seems to be no research study conducted in Zimbabwe to substantiate this argument. There is also very limited

literature on what teachers are capable of contributing in the promotion of CFS environments. In recognition of this, the present study sought to highlight some feasible and sustainable strategies teachers can employ to transform Zimbabwean secondary schools into child-friendly institutions which is likely to fill in the literature gap on this aspect.

Bridgeland et al. (2013) identify ten viable practices teachers can adopt to promote child-friendly classroom environments. For the purpose of this study, only seven of these practices will be discussed since there is significant interrelatedness and overlaps among them. It is assumed that with permitting and conducive school contexts, Zimbabwean secondary school teachers are likely to be informed by these practices and may adopt all or some to enhance their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

### **2.7.1 Student- centred discipline**

As alluded earlier on, the CFS approach emphasizes the centrality of the learner in all the school activities. Student-centred discipline is described as a type of classroom management strategy teachers can use in their classrooms (Hamre&Pianta, 2010). These authors argue that teachers need to use disciplinary strategies that are developmentally appropriate for their learners and that motivate learners to want to behave in the classroom. These authors suggest that teachers should desist from the use of punitive measures to get learners to behave. There is need for shared classroom norms and values between the teacher and learners. This strategy is likely to allow learners to connect the rules to the vision of how the classroom should operate and this may increase learner buy-in of the approach (Osher, Bear, Sprague & Doyle, 2010). Yoder (2014) suggests that teacher classroom management strategies should be proactive rather than reactive. He goes on to suggest that the use of the Recognizing; Understanding; Labelling; Expressing; Regulatory (RULER) approach can be effective. The focus of this approach is to develop emotional literacy in learners. They are taught how to identify their emotions, understand the precursors to an emotional reaction, and be able to express and regulate their own emotions (Rivers, Brackett, Reyes, Elberston & Salovey, 2013).

In light of what literature says on the above teacher strategy, it is imperative to equip Zimbabwean teachers with student-centred discipline skills that ensure child-friendly classrooms.

### **2.7.2 Positive teacher language**

Teacher language refers to what teachers say to students and how they say it (Denton, 2014). The author goes on to argue that teacher language is one of teachers' most powerful teaching tools. However, it should be noted that teachers may use this tool either positively or negatively. How teachers use language (both written and spoken) can have a powerful effect on students' learning. Literature has shown that teacher language can lift students to their highest potential or tear them down (Denton, 2014), and small comments can destroy learners' self-esteem or boost it. Teacher language should be a language of success, of hope, and of possibility that fosters students' sense of identity (Denton, 2014). Respectful language between teachers and learners and between learners and other learners may be a signal of respectful relationships. The language a teacher uses should assist learners to monitor and regulate their own behaviour rather than to be told how to behave. It is also believed that teacher language shapes how students think, act, and ultimately, how they learn.

In their effort to promote CFS environments, Zimbabwean secondary school teachers may need to adjust their language to offer differing degrees of challenge and support to meet the diverse needs of their learners. It is important to note that the majority of learners in this level of education are adolescents who are likely to be very sensitive to verbal comments passed about them. The current study explored how the teachers communicated with learners and how learners regarded teachers' language in those conversations be they verbal or written.

### **2.7.3 Learners' responsibility and choice**

Responsibility and choice refers to the degree to which teachers allow learners to make responsible decisions about their work in the classroom. The teacher is expected to create a classroom environment where democratic norms are put into place for learners to provide meaningful input on the development of the norms and procedures of the

classroom. Such environments promote peer tutoring and cross-age tutoring. When students extend their learning to help others, they often feel more responsible in the classroom. Seashore, Leithwood and Wahlstrom (2010) suggest that teachers dealing with learners who have challenging behaviours should provide them with opportunities to make choices. This is another way of teaching such learners that they can influence others without having to resort to challenging behaviour. It is also done to increase students' inclusion, productivity, and independence. Teachers need to be aware that they can work together with parents to generate a list of choices for the learners, but the learner, whenever possible, makes the final selection.

The employment of this strategy in the promotion of CFS environments requires teachers to consider learners as equal partners in the learning process. It was the aim of this study to establish how teachers make learners responsible for their own learning and how this strategy enhances teachers' role in the promotion on CFS environments.

#### **2.7.4 Teacher warmth and support**

This attribute refers to the academic and social support that students receive from their teacher and peers. The teacher needs to create a classroom environment where the learners feel cared for (Hiejnen-Maathius, 2008). The care for learners can be expressed in different ways. One teacher participant in a study by Vaidya (2014) expressed the love and care for his learners saying:

*You (teacher) should be able to know the background of each child, even if you have forty-five pupils. They are yours. You are the parent. As a teacher, you are supposed to find the reason why a child skipped school.*

Such sentiments are clear evidence of teachers' efforts to make schools child-seeking and inclusive as expected of child-friendly school environments. In the same study, teachers allowed children to build a respectful friendly relationship with them and shared their concerns. In a warm and supportive classroom environment, are structures where learners feel included and appreciated by peers and teachers. Teachers assign learners to do projects in groups in which they get a chance to share what they learn. In Limpopo province of South Africa, a study by Modipane and Thamane (2014) revealed that teachers were assisting some of their learners to access social grants and obtain



school uniforms. They also offered counselling for abused children or referred them to social workers. In their classroom practice, the teachers were conscious of the importance of treating all learners the same, irrespective of their performance in class or their socio-economic background.

In a study to evaluate HIV-competence of two primary schools in rural Zimbabwe, Campbell, Andersen, Mutsikiwa, Pufall, Skovdal, Madanhire, Nyamukapa and Gregson (2015) found that teachers showed a deep understanding of the potential for schools to serve as protective and inclusive environments. Such environments are meant to ensure the well-being of all children, and for teachers to take on roles beyond academic duties. One teacher participant commented that:

*A school should be like a home. Teachers should be like parents and there should be love. The school should have an environment where a child is happy to be.*

In light of the cited comments with regard to teacher warmth and support as a way to promote CFS environments, this study aimed at establishing how Zimbabwean teachers could be professionally equipped with appropriate skills to enhance their role in the promotion of child-friendly schooling.

### **2.7.5 Cooperative learning**

Cooperative learning refers to specific instructional tasks in which teachers have learners work together toward a collective goal. It has important effects on improving academic success of learners, self-esteem, and developing desirable attitudes towards school and classmates (Kus, Filiz & Altun, 2014). This practice promotes positive interdependent, individual accountability, one another's successes, application of interpersonal and social skills, and group processing. Learners are likely to develop attitudes of trust, tolerance, acceptance and cooperation when exposed to such learning environments (Ostrosky, Jung, Hemmeter & Thomas; 2008)

Zimbabwean secondary school teachers need to realise that the current 21<sup>st</sup> century learners are more comfortable with collaborative and cooperative learning; hence, it

was the focus of the present study to assess how and when teachers employ this strategy to create child-friendly learning processes.

### **2.7.6 Teacher-learner classroom discussions**

These are conversations learners and teachers have around curriculum content. The teacher has to make curricular modifications which enhance student performance in completing activities and reduce the likelihood of challenging behaviours. Hiejnen-Maathius (2008) notes that teachers need to be prepared to consider inadequacies in learning content, the process and the environment rather than inadequacies in the child. There is need for teacher reflection on what they teach and how they teach it. By using this strategy, teachers have an opportunity to ask more open-ended questions that encourage learners to elaborate on their own thinking and on the thinking of their peers (Green, 2012). This strategy enables learners and teachers to constantly discuss issues and build upon each other's thoughts. Most of the dialogue should be learner driven and assist in developing learners' communication and listening skills. In Australian and the English and Jordanian American schools, teachers adopted classroom strategies such as restorative practices, Socratic circles, and student action teams to instil peace values among learners (Al-Zyoud, Brown & Morgan, 2013; Shaw, 2008). Research has also shown that when teachers and learners both exhibit cooperation, classroom discussions can be beneficial to learners and to teacher confidence (Atwood, Turnbull & Carpendale, 2010). The same sentiments are shared by Green (2012) who established that when the right environment was established and the teacher presented the learners with adequate guidance for discussions, learners were able to communicate their views, ideas, and conclusions with their classmates confidently. However, for some teachers, this strategy may be intimidating for it allows learners to question the teacher's answer or information in the text book.

Teachers in Zimbabwe secondary schools may be employing this strategy quite often. However, this study aimed at ascertaining how and when it is used with the intention of investigating teachers' attitude and beliefs about the strategy in the promotion of CFS environments.

### **2.7.7 Learner self-reflection and self-assessment**

This is an opportunity given to learners to actively think about their own work, a chance to assess their own work and eventually think about how to improve their own work. The student engagement makes them also learn when and how to seek help and where to look for resources. In an action research on the effects self-assessment on student learning, Kelberlau-Berks (2006) discovered that the strategy gave learners an opportunity for goal setting. Research findings revealed that learners were very realistic with their goals and were motivated to achieve their set goals. Motivated learners are likely to remain in the school system. Goal setting affords them responsibility and independence, and encourages ownership of learning. It accommodates diversity of learner readiness, experience and backgrounds (Spiller, 2012).

Teachers usually assume that it is their sole duty to assess learners, and the provisions of this strategy may pose a challenge to others. The present study sought to establish how this strategy can enhance learner motivation resulting in reduced anti-social behaviours, increased chances of positive academic achievement and school connectedness. Reviewed literature has presented practical strategies teachers may employ to promote CFS environments, and this study sought to establish how Zimbabwean secondary school teachers were likely to effectively employ them if afforded an enabling supportive base.

Whilst it is possible for teachers to adopt some of the highlighted strategies in their role to promote CFS environments, their efforts may be curtailed by some teacher-related and environmental-related challenges.

## **2.8 CHALLENGES HINDERING TEACHER PROMOTION OF CFS ENVIRONMENTS**

The task of creating child-friendly school environments can be challenging for both experts and novice teachers. It is a task that requires the ability to be responsive to new demands and changing needs (Allen, 2010). Despite the ideal roles in the promotion of CFS environments, in reality teachers are faced with a number of challenges. There are several factors that may restrict teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments

and these can either be professional or school related. Literature has shown that lack of time, inadequate resources, lack of teacher motivation, and poor teacher-parents collaboration are some of the challenges (Campbell et al., 2015). In South Africa, Williams (2010) established that teacher effort to promote caring schools was compromised by obstacles such as teacher burden, over-sized classes, inefficient governing bodies and support teams, and inadequate training for teachers. Teacher burnout, lack of teacher affiliation, and non-existence of teacher personal connectedness were also other barriers researchers reported on (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011).

### **2.8.1 Teacher Professional-Related Challenges**

As professionals, teachers may experience a number of challenges that tend to impede their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **2.8.1.1 Teacher burnout**

The level of teachers' commitment is considered to be a key factor in the success of any educational reform agenda as it heavily influences teachers' willingness to engage in cooperative, reflective and critical practice. However, it should be noted that most educational initiatives, such as the CFS concept, make teachers struggle to find a balance between the personal and the professional. This mental struggle manifests as burnout which is a construct closely associated with chronic job stress and frustration (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Zhang & Sapp, 2009). A defining feature of teacher burnout is emotional exhaustion, and when teachers become emotionally exhausted, they lose the ability to provide learners with support (Tsouloupus, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch & Barber, 2010). Student misbehaviour has been noted as one of the most significant stressors and causes of burnout among teachers (Everston & Weinstein, 2006; Friedman, 2006). It should also be realized that teacher burnout has a negative impact on teacher competence, care, and trustworthiness (Zhang & Sapp, 2009). Also, a teacher experiencing burnout has low morale, low self-esteem, and is physically exhausted (Roloff & Brown, 2011).

In recognition of this barrier to teacher promotion of the CFS environments, it is vital that the current study examined how burnout affects Zimbabwean secondary school

teachers and how it limited teachers' capacity to promote CFS environments that cater for diverse learner needs.

#### **2.8.1.2 Lack of teacher affiliation**

Teacher affiliation refers to students' perceptions of their relationships with their teachers (Brackett, Reyes, Rivers, Elberston & Salovey, 2011). Students' relationships with supportive teachers are meant to promote a sense of connectedness in the classroom, which should result in less problematic behaviour and enhanced pro-social behaviour (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). In contrast, students who experience inadequate relationships with their teachers may feel disconnected or alienated. In the majority of cases, students who feel alienated from school are more likely to engage in anti-social and delinquent behaviour and fail academically (Brackett et al., 2011). Positive teacher affiliation promotes greater school attendance and academic achievement. Teacher affiliation can also refer to the relationships among teachers themselves. When teachers have supportive attitude towards each other and are willing to share openly with their peers, they are inclined to be more open to professional development and innovation (Collie, Shapka & Perry, 2011). And in agreement with that observation, Pas, Bradshaw and Hershfeldt (2012) postulate that when teachers and other school staff get along well, trust, respect, and help one another; they develop higher levels of efficiency. Teachers will feel more comfortable and confident in handling challenges in their classrooms. Having realised the negative impact of lack of teacher affiliation, the present study sought to capture Zimbabwean teachers' perceptions of collegiality and establish how they are likely to enhance their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **2.8.1.3 Non-existence of teacher personal connectedness**

Teacher personal connectedness to school is often thought of as a composite of feelings of pride and belonging at the school, of being respected by others, and overall job satisfaction (Butler, 2012). Teachers who experience high job satisfaction are likely to demonstrate greater commitment and motivation to promote positive learning environments. On the contrary, teachers experiencing low job satisfaction tend to feel anxious, worried or depressed (Ho & Au, 2006). At a basic level, teacher motivation is linked to how teachers feel they are being treated and the way they perceive their own

working and living conditions. In a study to evaluate the implementation of the child-friendly schools programme in two rural schools in Zimbabwe, Mandiudza (2013) reported that most teachers were in deep dissatisfaction with their working conditions; hence, they had very limited appreciation of the initiative. Campbell et al. (2015) also reported that poor teacher salaries were an affront to their own self-respect and their dignity and standing in the community. Poor working conditions could not entice teachers to take on extra roles demanded by CFS principles (Williams, 2010; Thompson et al., 2013). In some cases, teachers cited that the amount of work required by the school system in relation to CFS implementation tended to overwhelm them (Madu & Okoye, 2013; Mannathoko, 2006). The demands were deemed to be removing teachers from their primary purpose. Teachers confessed that it would be too much for them to be expected to create 'perfect' school environments where every child's needs would be catered for (Williams, 2010).

Literature has shown that consistent with theories of motivation (for example, Maslow, 1954), fulfilment of teachers' basic needs for security, belonging, and respect may encourage teachers to develop and maintain higher order competencies necessary to effectively support all learners (Ho & Au, 2006). It is imperative therefore, to ascertain how teachers in Zimbabwean secondary schools can be afforded these core psychological needs in order to be connected to their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **2.8.1.4 Inadequate training on the CFS concept**

UNICEF (2013) report on CFS implementation in southern and eastern Africa revealed that efforts to implement the initiative have focused on improving schools infra-structure and provision of some material resources such as textbooks to realise changes in schools and classrooms. However, the evaluation report highlighted that in reality, the expected changes were unlikely to happen if teachers remained ill-prepared to facilitate and lead the changes. Too little attention and effort have been devoted to preparing teachers for their responsibilities associated with the promotion of CFS environments (Olaleye, 2011; Sang, Mutua & Korir, 2014). Literature has shown that many teachers at international, regional, and national levels have very limited knowledge and

understanding of the CFS concept (Figue, 2013; Jerome et al., 2015; Mandiudza, 2013; Mannathoko, 2006). In some cases, teachers were found to be struggling to understand what learners are expected to do and how best teachers were to help students achieve what was needed (Mandiudza, 2013; Mpokosa & Ndaruhutse, 2008). Also differences between teachers' beliefs and the underlying ideology of the CFS initiative were found to be an inhibiting factor to teachers' promotion of the initiative. A study by UNICEF (2010) in Bosnia and Herzegovina reported that teachers felt the child-friendly schools approach had changed their working conditions and had brought up new challenges for them to deal with in the classroom. Teachers argued that they needed more time to integrate CFS principles into the existing curriculum and extra time to focus on the developmental skills of learners with special needs. When such a scenario arises, it is the duty of the school leadership to challenge teacher beliefs and practices that interfere with the philosophy of the educational initiative (Killion, 2012). To develop a fundamental understanding of the CFS concept, teachers need to be engaged in effective professional development. The degree of change required in schools in general and classrooms in particular, to fully achieve CFS environment, cannot simply be accomplished in schools where teachers work in isolation from one another (Gulamhussein, 2013). This observation suggests that teachers are likely to get a better and appropriate understanding of the CFS concept if exposed to collaborative and on-going professional development. This study therefore, attempted to establish the challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.

## **2.8.2 School context related challenges**

Besides the challenges which are teacher-related, there are also challenges which are school context related. The former challenges tend to heavily impact on teachers' efforts in the promotion of CFS environments since the remedy is usually beyond their control.

### **2.8.2.1 Inadequate resources and facilities**

The primary purpose of positive and supportive school environment is to bring a significant change in learner behaviour through active participation and critical thinking of the learner. This cannot happen without the availability and proper use of school facilities and other needed resources (Afework & Asfaw, 2014). The authors further

argue that quality, relevance and access to education can be attained if educational resources are adequately available and are properly utilised in an educational institution. School facilities consist of all types of buildings used for academic and non-academic purposes, equipment, classroom facilities, furniture, instructional materials, audio-visual aids, toilets, ICT, and library and laboratory materials. Availability of such resources is essential in the promotion of CFS environments. Therefore, school resources and facilities need proper attention as they have much value in the support of teachers' and students' morale and motivation (Khan & Iqbal, 2012). The present study sought to establish the state of resources and facilities in Zimbabwean secondary schools with the intention of examining how the inadequacy negatively affects the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. It should also be noted that the availability of these resources and facilities plays a significant role in improving the quality of education. Despite the highlighted importance and impact of school resources and facilities on the existence of positive and friendly supportive learning environments, the reality in many schools poses a lot of challenges for teachers.

Large classes, fewer material resources, and limited learning spaces force teachers to make difficult decisions about how to use material resources such as computers, textbooks, and specialist rooms. A study conducted by USAID (2010) in Ethiopia revealed that school resources such as electricity, water, computer rooms, and science laboratories were lacking or absent in many schools. The same study established that in most schools, the numbers of students in classes were large and there was no space for teachers and students to arrange group discussions and to move around. The CFS approach expects schools to operate at certain basic standards. In Zimbabwe, the Schools Improvement Grants (SIG), a programme funded by UNICEF, was meant to address this concern. The current study aims to ascertain how teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments is hindered by the inadequacy of resources. Ogbu (2015) conducted a study in Nigeria, evaluating the influence of inadequate materials and facilities in teaching and learning, and found that the inadequacy hinders various classroom interaction patterns in some subject learning, especially those focusing on practical skills.



Research has also shown that the quality of the resources and facilities have a bearing on both teachers and students' morale and achievement (Afework & Asfaw, 2014; Mphale, 2014; Savascie & Tomul, 2013). Teachers' and students' comfort is an important factor in building their motivation towards teaching and learning. Being comfortable is a combination of many factors which include an attractive school compound with trees, flowers, enough places for taking rests, reading places, portable water, noise control, and proper sanitation, among others (Barnes, 2011). A study in New York City's public school to establish the relationship between school building conditions and school attendance, reported that in schools with poor and low quality facilities, students attended less days on average and had lower grades in standardized tests (Duran-Narucki, 2008). The same study found out that the quality of school infrastructure had a significant effect on school attendance and dropout rates. Students were less likely to attend schools in need of structural repairs, schools that used temporary structures, and schools that understaffed janitorial services. The sample of schools involved in this study is comprises some which offer double sessions, that is, having two schools in one. Certain classes attend lessons up to mid-day and the other remaining classes have their lessons from mid-day to late afternoon. The reviewed literature has also shown that the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments with regard to student retention and comfort is likely to be compromised where quality school resources and facilities are lacking. In recognition of these opinions, this study focused on establishing the state and condition of infrastructure in Zimbabwean secondary schools and how it is affected teachers in their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **2.8.2.2 Lack of parental involvement and support**

Parents' involvement refers to parents' participation in the entire educational process. It can also be used to describe parental expectations and beliefs regarding academic achievement, and parental behaviour at home and in school, in order to improve children's educational performance (Dor & Brooke Rucker-Naidu, 2012). As alluded to in section 2.5.3 parental support is vital in teacher promotion of child-friendly schooling. Research has also revealed that parental involvement leads to better attendance, higher scores in standardized tests, higher motivation to study, lower absenteeism, and

improved behaviour at home and at school (Epstein, 2008; Ferrara & Ferrara, 2005; Ratcliff & Hunt, 2009).

This study sought to examine how parental involvement impacts on Zimbabwean teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly schooling. It is also necessary to examine the effects of non-parental involvement on teachers' efforts to create child-friendly school environments as well as identify some reasons for non-involvement from both teachers and learners' perspectives. Research has also shown that lack of parental involvement is two-folded. There are some parents who manifest negative involvement and others who are totally passive and keep a distance from all the activities of the school. A comparative study conducted by Dor and BrookeRucker-Naidu (2012), evaluating teachers' attitudes towards parents' involvement in USA and Israel schools identified three major reasons for non-involvement of parents. Teachers were finding it difficult to get parents to collaborate, miscommunication, "helicopter parents", and disrespect and mistrust. In this study, teachers commented that they were experiencing difficulty in getting parents to volunteer and collaborate with school activities.

Teachers in Zimbabwean secondary schools could be experiencing similar or different scenarios hence; the need for the current study to investigate how parents are involved in supporting teachers to promote CFS environments. The USA teachers assumed that low level parental involvement could be due to parents' lack of time, or their having other priorities. However, contrary to this assumption, earlier studies had shown other reasons like teachers not sufficiently trained for working with parents (Baum & Swick, 2007; Epstein & Sanders, 2006), the interplay of contextual and cultural elements (Ratcliff & Hunt, 2009), endless parental involvement as children grow older (Berthelsen & Walker, 2008). Miscommunication, which referred to the difficulty of maintaining open and frequent communication with parents, was experienced from parents whose children needed close and consistent attention. Parents were found to have developed a pessimistic attitude towards teachers and the school where their children were enrolled (Sapungan & Sapungan, 2014).

Negative parental involvement can also be experienced by teachers where parents question the teacher's authority and professionalism. In some cases, parents do not trust the teacher's judgment which may lead to inappropriate, contemptuous behaviour towards the teacher. This is likely to cause tension, disappointment, fatigue, disrespect, and lack of gratitude among teachers (Dor & Brooke Rucker- Naidu, 2012; Sapungan & Sapungan, 2014). Parents do not recognise the role and responsibility of teachers and show very little appreciation of teachers' work. In extreme cases, parents may be found imposing various demands on teachers. However, teachers may also think that parents are overwhelmed with other duties to participate in school issues. America's National Centre for School Engagement and Family Support highlights that teachers' unwillingness to accept parents as equal partners, and the thinking that parents are prone to violate client confidentiality are some common barriers to parental involvement in schools. The present study sought to investigate how negative parental involvement is likely to thwart teachers' effort in the promotion of safe and secure school environments for all learners.

For reasons best known to them, some parents resort to "helicopter parenting", which is being overprotective and becoming hovering parents. These parents tend to pay extremely close attention to their children's experiences in school. They may question the authority of the teacher and may often side with the child in situations of conflict between the teacher and a child. Teachers spoke of such parents as a burden and felt that parents did not have trust in the teachers (Dor & Brooke Rucker- Naidu, 2012). At times hovering parents may be very involved in the class' daily routines, an involvement that will not be comfortable for the teacher. This may cause teachers to feel that such collaboration undermines their professional status (Epstein & Sanders, 2008).

The other group of parents have a 'we-don't-care' attitude which may be due to a number of reasons like their inability to understand their role in the success of their children, inability to support the school academic undertakings, and lack of skills and resources to support their children and the school. According to Sapungan and Sapungan (2014), parental involvement may be improved by availing transport for parents to get to school meetings, scheduling meetings at convenient hours and days,

and reimbursing parents for the time they take off work to attend meetings. While this may be ideal, it is essential to ascertain how secondary schools in Zimbabwe encourage and motivate parental involvement in helping teachers to effectively play their role in the promotion of child-friendly schooling.

### **2.8.2.3 Lack of peer (collegial) support.**

In section 2.5.2, literature showed that teacher peer support is vital for teachers to effectively promote child-friendly school environments. Teachers are likely to achieve much if they work as a team. However, if that team work and support of each other is not there, it becomes a hindrance in their effort. A study by Modipane and Themane (2014), to assess lessons learnt in the implementation of a child-friendly schools programme in South Africa, reported that some of the teachers' colleagues were not supportive of their strategies to ensure development of CFS environments. The present study focused on establishing why Zimbabwean secondary school teachers were not in a position to support each other as they attempted to promote CFS environments.

## **2.9 THE CFS APPROACH: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

There has been a lot of debate with regard to teacher professional development. It has been argued that initial pre-service training cannot adequately equip teachers throughout their professional careers. This implies that teachers need to continuously be developed in order to be relevant in the ever changing educational trends. Gemeda and Tynjala (2015) define teacher professional development as a process in which a teacher continues to develop the knowledge and skills required for effective professional practice as circumstances change and as new responsibilities are accepted. From this definition, it follows that an educational initiative such as the CFS has brought along new responsibilities for Zimbabwean secondary school teachers. This study therefore, sought to examine the new responsibilities and the extent to which teachers had accepted them in their the promotion of CFS environments. It is also vital at this point to acknowledge that teachers tend to become well prepared when they begin to teach and they continue to improve their knowledge and skills throughout their careers.

In addition to the support from school leadership, colleagues, parents and students for the promotion of CFS environments, teachers in diverse classrooms require ongoing appropriate professional development to be updated and up-skilled with the principles guiding the initiative. Kagawa and Selby (2014) postulate that CFS thinking requires professional development since “a reform that seeks to make schools child-friendly system-wide will succeed only to the extent that it is possible to build a critical mass of trained, committed teachers, education managers and teacher educators” (UNICEF, 2009, 6:8-9). The international manual advocates child-friendly education training for teachers already in service, and ensuring that the reform process can be sustained, the pre-service training in both CFS theory and practice of cohorts of intending teachers. Scholes, Jones, Stieler, Rolfe and Prozzebon (2012) reiterate that teachers require training to be empowered to comply with child-friendly protection requirements and agendas.

According to Steyn (2010), the professional development of teachers plays an important role in schools and is indispensable for continuous school development. The author continues to advise that when schools are exposed to new approaches to learning and teaching, like the CFS, teachers become eligible for professional development to change their thinking and behaviour. This intervention becomes a bridge between where teachers are now and where they need to be to meet the new challenges of guiding all students in achieving higher standards of learning and development (Kagawa & Selby, 2014; Scholes et al., 2012). This view acknowledges literature that observes that the teacher is the facilitator of a child-friendly pedagogy in the classroom, ensuring an overall child-friendly ambience, and is a key contributor to wider change processes involving the whole school and the school in its community.

It also implies that optimally, teachers should be trained in how to animate child-friendly learning. The professional development opportunity should allow teachers to acquire skills in both change advocacy and agency, which they can apply in building a child-friendly culture across the broader school context. The nature of training and composition of participants are matters determined within the country context. Kagawa and Selby (2014) suggest that the menu of training should cover the facilitation of child-

centred pedagogy, administration of child-friendly forms of discipline, and skills building, for effective participation in processes of school assessment and in school improvement planning and implementation. Research has shown that teachers need ownership of this initiative hence; the need for them to be included in planning the reform as opposed to simply being asked to implement it. In Uganda, CFS professional development has been systematically extended to both teachers and principals through training in child-centred methodologies. The focus has been on how to create a child-friendly school environment, psychosocial education and positive disciplinary approaches (UNICEF, Uganda, 2012). In Bosnia and Herzegovina, teachers have been offered basic CFS training followed by advanced instruction in child-centred methodology. Principals and management teams have received training in school improvement planning. This effort has seen all schools in the country implementing at least one of the CFS principles (UNICEF, 2010).

In light of the highlighted insights concerning CFS professional development, it is imperative therefore, to establish the state of affairs with regard to CFS professional development among Zimbabwean secondary teachers. It is also essential to suggest the model of professional development most viable considering all other related factors. Recent research has recommended the professional learning communities (PLCs) model which can be sustainable, valid, and valuable, particularly in today's era of scarce resources and accountability (Smith & Gillespie, 2007; Vescio, Ross & Adams, 2008).

### **2.9.1 In-Service Professional Learning Communities (PLCs)**

There is no universal definition of PLCs, interpretation differ with context. However, there appears to be broad international consensus that PLC suggests a group of people sharing and critically interrogating their practice in an ongoing, reflective, collaborative, inclusive, learning-oriented, and growth-promoting way (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace & Thomas, 2006). The idea of collaborative teacher learning is also shared by Vescio et al. (2008) who assert that PLCs are grounded on two assumptions. Firstly, it is assumed that knowledge is situated in the day to day lived experiences of teachers and best understood through critical reflection with others who share the same experience. This assertion implies that CFS professional development needs to be

contextualized in order to be relevant to both the school and teachers. It must be personalized and responsive to the complex and unique needs and context of the learner. Thus PLCs reject the notion that 'one-size-fits all'. The second assumption is that actively engaging teachers in localized PLCs will increase their professional knowledge and enhance student learning. The two assumptions tend to refute the common and usual 'one-shot' 'pull-out' workshop programmes and in-service days employed indonor-funded educational initiatives (Talbert, 2010). Instead, on-going professional development for teachers ought to be long-term and school-based.

Effective PLCs require time, resources and supportive structures. As adult learners, motivation for professional learning should be linked to relevance, meaning and choice (Broad & Evans, 2006). Internationally, many jurisdictions are exploring financial incentives, career ladders, differentiation of role and other forms of recognition (Cole, 2012). While this is ideal and inspiring, for PLCs to promote CFS schooling, especially in developing countries like Zimbabwe, should be a professional requirement. Teachers need to have learners at heart in order to appreciate the relevance of a programme. In these communities, teachers are expected to shift accountability from an individual teacher to an entire community of teachers, administrators, and support-staff who share responsibility for student safety and protection (Stewart, 2014).

There is also need for trust within the teacher community, cohesive teaching, and particular support from the school leadership. In their study, Cafarella and Penuel (2015) established that the shift of accountability from individual teachers to a whole school community helped teachers to develop a sense of 'comradeship' as well as a collective commitment to student happiness, security, health and belongingness. When teachers were asked what effective professional development looked like, they described it as "learning that is relevant, hands-on, and sustained over time" (Boston Consulting Group, 2014:4). These findings seem to be very relevant of the required teacher professional development to promote CFS environments. The present study sought to capture Zimbabwean teachers' opinions on the kind of CFS professional development currently offered to them and their suggestions on it. One teacher participant in the same study lamented that:

*In this school, professional development is disconnected and abstract for it is not drawing on our own teaching experience.*

The Boston Consulting Group (2014) reported the same teacher concerns about the highly fragmented way in which schools and districts delivered professional learning. It was characterized by key disconnects between what decision-makers intended and the professional learning teachers actually experienced. Such sentiments suggest less buy-in of the nature of professional development programme by teachers who were subjected to it. Miller and Cunnigham (2007) recommend that professional development, especially for new teachers, should include intense mentoring and teaching partnerships that reduce isolation and form productive and meaningful relationships with experienced teachers in the school community. Such teacher engagement is likely to boost their confidence in playing the role expected of them. To show the impact of relevant PLCs, Andrews and Lewis (2007) found that where teachers developed a PLC and recognized its relevance, it not only enhanced their knowledge base, but also had a significant impact on their classroom work. Whilst literature has shown the effectiveness of PLCs approach especially for in-service teachers, there should also be viable and suitable models to cater for the pre-service teachers.

### **2.9.2 Pre-Service Professional Development**

Shaeffer (2013) suggests that in order for child-friendly schooling to effectively expand and to be sustainable, teacher education has to afford trainee teachers the study of the theory of CFS issues and practices during pre-service training. The author recommends that CFS issues be an integrated and comprehensive element of teacher education curriculum. This is likely to be of great help in creating a better balance between theory and practice and to avoid what Bezzina (2006) termed 'teacher transition shock'. Dorji, a lecturer at the National Institute of Education, reported that in Bhutan, the CFS concept was not introduced as a new idea in schools. Instead, it was integrated into the existing pre-service teacher education curriculum. For an example, integration of topics related to CFS principles such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) was made an introductory topic in the Child Development module. Besides integration of CFS



ideas into the curriculum, the two teacher education institutes in Bhutan were practicing what they preach. The institute personnel and policies model CFS principles, with the aim of creating trainee-friendly institute. The rationale for taking that path was the belief that students who would have been trained and groomed in a trainee-friendly institute would likely internalize the concept of CFS more easily and positively implement or promote such an approach in the schools after graduation (Irvine & Harvey, 2010).

In a study to examine teachers' role in child sexual abuse prevention programmes, Scholes, Jones, Stieler, Rolfe and Prozzebon (2012) observe that there are key understandings for both pre-service and in-service professional development for teachers meant to provide a knowledge base to inform school policies and pedagogical decisions. The suggested key considerations include: an in-depth understanding of the diversity of target learner populations, characteristics of the initiative in question, key messages in the programme, and issues in programme evaluation. In Queensland region where this professional development approach was adopted, it was found that teachers with this kind of training both at pre-service and in-service levels had higher confidence in their ability to identify indicators of child abuse and to offer appropriate intervention, than those without training (Mathews, 2011).

Reviewed literature on teacher professional development models and their strengths and limitations has shown that success of educational reforms such as the CFS, heavily depend on the nature of teacher professional development offered. It was the focus of this study to establish how Zimbabwean secondary school teachers are currently developed in CFS knowledge and skills. The study also aims at capturing teachers' suggestions on the model of professional development most suitable for the sustainability of the CFS approach.

Table 2.3 presents a summary of the literature survey and the focus areas. It is an attempt to confirm the relevance of the reviewed literature to the sub-research questions of the study.

**Table 2-3: Summary of Focus of Literature Surveyed, Author and Year**

<b>FOCUS</b>	<b>AUTHOR</b>	<b>YEAR</b>
Relevant legislation and treaties informing the CFS approach (Internationally and in Zimbabwe).	Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations).	1948
	Convention Against Discrimination in Education (UNESCO).	1960
	International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (UNICEF).	1966
	Convention on the Rights of the Child (United Nations).	1989
	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (OAU).	1999
	African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights (OAU).	1981
	Millennium Development Goals (United Nations).	2000-2015
	Child-friendly Schools Manual (UNICEF).	2009
	The Zimbabwean Constitution Amendment (No.20) (Zimbabwe).	2013
	Zimbabwe Education Act (Zimbabwe)	1987
	The Secretary of Education and Culture Circular P 35 (Zimbabwe).	1993
	The Directors' Circular No. 27 (Zimbabwe).	2008
	Children's Protection Act 5:06 (No.9) (Zimbabwe).	1997
	Zimbabwe Children's Charter (Zimbabwe).	2011
Mugabe & Maposa	2013	
Teacher understanding of the CFS approach	Modipane&Thamane	2014
	Khush	2011
	Shaeffer	2013
	Taole	2013
	Orkodashvili	2010

	Mannathoko	2013
	Yoder	2014
	Jerome, Emerson, Lundy & Orr	2015
	Olaleye	2011
	Figue	2013
	Madu& Okoye	2013
	Mandiudza	2013
	Machingambi	2012
	Lal	2014
	Das	2014
	Williams	2014
	Prishtina	2012
	Hannah	2013
	Banks	2014
	Stonehouse	2011
	Miller & Cunningham	2011
School-based support for teachers to promote CFS environments	Alkarni	2014
	Barber & Mourshed	2007
	Bishop	2008
	The Wallace Foundation	2012
	Crawford	2014
	Boerema	2011
	Killion	2012
	Cheung & Wong	2011
	Fullan	2011
	Foltos	2013
	Scott & Miner	2008
	Harper	2015
	Dor	2012
	Muli	2011
Teachers' strategies to promote CFS environments	Vaidya	2014
	Savage, Lewis & Colless	2011
	Mehdinezhad	2011
	Hamre&Pianta	2010
	Denton	2014
	Leithwood&Wahlstrom	2010
	Hiejnen-Maathius	2008

	Kus, Filiz&Altun Green Al- Zyoud, Brown & Morgan Spiller Vacca& Kramer-Vida	2014 2012 2013 2012 2014
Challenges in the promotion of CFS environment	Allen Skaalvik&Skaalvik Roloff& Brown Collie, Shapka& Perry Pas, Bradshaw &Hershfeldt Bulter UNICEF Mpokosa&Ndaruhutse Afework &Asfaw Khan & Iqbal USAID Ogbu Sapungan&Sapungan	2010 2011 2011 2011 2012 2012 2013 2008 2014 2012 2010 2015 2014
Implications for teacher professional development	Kagawa & Selby Steyn UNICEF Uganda Smith & Gillespie Vescio, Ross & Adams Talbert Stewart Boston Consulting Group Gemeda &Tynjala Scholes, Jones, Stieler, Rolfe &Prozzebon Matthews	2014 2010 2012 2007 2008 2010 2014 2014 2015 2012 2011

## 2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The reviewed literature has explored the CFS concept against teachers' knowledge and understanding of the initiative and has established that at international, regional, national, and school levels, teacher profess very limited understanding of this initiative. In different school contexts, school-based support for teachers to promote CFS

environments is not systematic and it all depends on the nature of relationships between members of the school community. Teachers in both the developed and developing world were found to be moderately equipped with some practical strategies which Zimbabwean secondary school teachers are capable of utilising in the promotion of CFS environments. There appeared to be common challenges which hindered teacher efforts to promote CFS environments with lack of appropriate training seeming to be the most outstanding one. In developing countries, lack of resources and inadequate school-based support are issues of concern. It was also revealed in the literature that comprehensive teacher professional development for both in-service and pre-service teachers is vital for the sustainability of this initiative. Teachers need to be empowered academically, socially, emotionally and financially, in order to comply with the demands and expectations of their role in the promotion of CFS environments. In all sections of this chapter, the reviewed literature was made to link with the sub-research questions of the study. This was done to ensure connectivity between question items on all data collection instruments and the reviewed literature. The next chapter describes the research methodology and some justification on the methodological decisions made.

# CHAPTER THREE

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the researcher presented an analysis of literature related to CFS approach and teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments. This chapter discusses the methodology that was employed to answer the research questions in the current study with the intention of explaining and justifying methodology selection. The conceptual framework of this chapter consists of research paradigm and paradigmatic assumptions, the research approach and research design underpinning and directing this study. Methodological procedures on population and sampling employed in the study are described and justified. Issues to do with validity and reliability of data collection instruments, data trustworthiness, data collection and data analysis procedures, and ethical considerations are also examined. The chapter presentation is meant to give a clear and detailed process of how the study was conducted. Descriptions of the pilot and main study are presented.

### 3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

A paradigm refers to an all-encompassing system of interrelated practice and thinking that define for researchers the nature of their inquiry along the ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions (Bauwens, Kennes & Bauwens, 2013; Creswell, 2014). These assumptions upon which a paradigm hinges entail a set of beliefs, values and methods influencing what should be studied, how it should be studied, and how results should be interpreted, which is an axiological assumption (Creswell, 2014; Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011). From this definition, it follows that the philosophical insight of a research paradigm makes it an essential frame of reference with which to observe and understand the world (Babbie, 2012; Mertens, 2010). It can be viewed as a planning framework showing patterns of beliefs and practices that regulate inquiry within a discipline by providing lenses, frames and processes through which investigation is accomplished (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Magwa & Magwa, 2015).

As a philosophical compass, a paradigm helps to clarify research design, to identify and create research designs that may be outside the researcher's past experiences, and also to clarify which designs will work and which will not. In its simplest form, a paradigm can be defined as "a fundamental model or scheme that organizes our view of something" (Rubin & Babbie, 2015: 37).

There are a number of commonly used paradigms in research namely; interpretivism, positivism, post-positivism, pragmatism, critical theory, and constructivism. A researcher's paradigmatic position in social research depends on their understanding of the nature of knowledge (epistemological standpoint), nature of reality (ontological standpoint), values that underpin the research (axiological standpoint), and the process of carrying out research (methodological standpoint) (Creswell, 2009, 2013). In light of the vitality of a research paradigm, the current study is located within the pragmatism paradigm. The chosen paradigm offers an alternative worldview to that of positivism or post-positivism and constructivism and focuses on the problem to be researched and consequences of research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie&Tashakkori, 2010).

It should be noted that the researcher's paradigm position guides the whole research process in terms of research approach to be used for collecting, analysing and reporting data. The positivist philosophy compels a researcher to employ the quantitative approach which upholds the existence of one objective reality that is measurable. When a researcher is guided by the interpretivist philosophy, he/she employs the qualitative approach, engaging in data collection and analysis that holds that there are multiple realities that are open to empirical inquiry, and through social construction, this knowledge can be determined. Lastly, if a researcher is guided by the pragmatic philosophy, the use of mixed methods approach is apparent. This approach uses both quantitative and qualitative tools for data collection and analysis in order to get an enriched understanding and adequate insights into the phenomenon under study. Table 3.1 below presents a summary of the three major paradigms showing their respective ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological philosophical assumptions.

**Table 3-1: Major research paradigms and their philosophical assumptions**

<b>Descriptive</b>	<b>Positivism</b>	<b>Post-Positivism</b>	<b>Interpretivism</b>	<b>Critical Theory</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<b>Synonym</b>	<b>Verify</b>	<b>Predict</b>	<b>Understand/ Interpret</b>	<b>Emancipate</b>	<b>Dialectic</b>
<b>Ontology</b> <b>What is real?</b>	Objectivist, findings are the whole truth, which is realism	Modified objectivist, findings are probably true, and there is transcendental realism	Local, relative, co-constructed realities. There is subjective, objectivity and realism	Historical/ virtual realism shaped by outside forces, material subjectivity	Constructed based on the world we live in and explanations that produce the best desired outcomes
<b>Epistemology</b> <b>What is true?</b>	The only knowledge is scientific knowledge- which is truth, reality is apprehensible	Findings approximate truth, reality is never fully apprehended	Co-created multiple realities and truths	Findings are based on values and local examples of truth	Objective and subjective points of view
<b>Axiology</b> <b>What is the role of values?</b>	Value- free, propositional knowing about the world is an end in itself, is intrinsically valuable.	propositional knowing about the world is an end in itself, is intrinsically valuable.	Value-laden, and biased. Propositional, Transactional knowing is Instrumentally valuable as a	Propositional, transactional knowing is instrumentally valuable as a means to social emancipation,	Multiple stances, e.g. researchers include both biased and unbiased perspectives.
<b>Methodology</b> <b>How do I examine what is real?</b>	Quantitative- Primarily Experimental, Quasi- Experimental	Usually Quantitative- Experimental with threats to validity. Qual- a case study	Means to social emancipation. Often Qualitative and/or Quantitative	which is an end in itself, is intrinsically valuable. Usually Qualitative, but also Quantitative	Quantitative & Qualitative Together (Mixed Methods Approach)

Source: (Aliyu, Muhammad, Rozilah& David, 2014: 80; Milman, 2012: 103)

At this point, it will be important to give a detailed explanation of each of the philosophical assumptions that inform a research paradigm.



### *Ontology*

Ontology refers to the claims and assumptions that people make about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other (Adams, 2014). In other words, ontology refers to people's understandings of the entities they encounter, including the meanings of those entities (Cameron, 2011). This means ontology is all about the nature of the world around us. As a philosophical assumption, ontology addresses the question: What constitutes reality and how can we understand its existence? Within pragmatism, a particular ontological position was chosen, and this is realism. This view holds that the world comprises objectively given objects and structures independent of the researcher (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard & Snape, 2014).

### *Epistemology*

Epistemology is defined as responding to the question of what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Bryman & Bell, 2011) and is also concerned with how knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated to other human beings (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). In other words, epistemology is all about, what it means to know. It should be noted that the kind of epistemological assumptions a researcher makes or holds about knowledge profoundly affect how they will go about uncovering knowledge of social behaviour (Al-Saadi, 2014).

### *Axiology*

Axiology refers to the analysis of values to better understand their meanings, characteristics, origin, acceptance as true, as well as their influence on people's daily experiences (Creswell, 2014). It is a branch of philosophy that studies judgment about value. In other words, it is all about the role of values in research. Researchers demonstrate axiological skill by being able to articulate their values as a basis for making judgments about what research they are conducting and how they go about doing it (Aliyu et al., 2014). The seminal axiological question is: 'What is the ultimate purpose of the inquiry?'

## *Methodology*

Methodology is concerned with strategy or plan of action which lies behind the choice and use of particular methods. It addresses the why, what, from where, when and how data is collected and analysed (Scotland, 2012). The seminal question of a methodology is: 'How can a researcher discover whatever he/she believes can be known?'

The following section gives a brief outline of two major research paradigms, describing their principles and explaining the ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological positions of each. These are positivism and interpretivism. The two paradigms have a complementary role in the current study and their propositions tend to merge in pragmatic research. The pragmatist paradigm, in which the current study is located, is discussed in detail, giving a justification of its choice as well as highlighting the strengths and limitations of the paradigm.

### **3.2.1 The positivist paradigm**

Positivist paradigm is deeply rooted in the positivist philosophy which upholds rigid rules of logic and measurement, truth, absolute principles and prediction (Adams, 2014; Al-Saadi, 2014). Positivists contend that the scientific method is the only way of establishing truth and objective reality (Cameron, 2011; Ormston et al., 2014). They hold that true knowledge only comes from research based in natural sciences through the use of methods, techniques and procedures that offer the best framework for investigating the social world (Scotland, 2012). This conviction is shared by Nightingale (2012), who argues that positivism is predicated on three presuppositions; there is an objective reality, people can know this reality, and symbols can accurately describe and explain this objective reality. There is also an assumption that it is possible to measure patterns of cause and effect that can be used to predict and control natural phenomena (Brown, 2014). The author goes on to assert that the role of measurement is to quantify these patterns in order to reduce the variance (or uncertainty) and to guide positive improvement.

The ontological position of the positivist paradigm is that there exists an objective reality out there in the world, and research findings through collection of numerical data are the whole truth and reality (Milman, 2012). This truth and reality is free and independent of the viewer and observer. A positivist investigator therefore, holds the idea that the universe or world conforms to permanent and unchanging laws and rules of causation (Aliyu, Muhammad, Rozilah & David, 2014). These authors opine that the ontological stance in positivism is also held by the belief that there exists an intricacy and complexity in the universe that can be overcome by reductionism. This is done with an intention of asserting an importance and emphasis on impartiality, measurement, objectivity and repeatability.

Positivism holds the epistemological stance that the only knowledge is scientific knowledge, and that truth and reality is inapprehensible (Milman, 2012). The paradigm emphasizes that genuine, real and factual happenings can be studied and observed scientifically and empirically and can as well be elucidated by way of lucid and rational investigation and analysis (Aliyu et al., 2014). In doing all this, the philosophical perspective expects the researcher to take an objective position, where the inquirer adopts a distant, non-interactive posture to his/her object of inquiry (Dieronitou, 2014). This suggests that there has to be a 'subject-object' relationship to the phenomenon under study. In light of this epistemological stance, some researchers believe that an objective researcher has to have the right data gathering tools to be able to come up with absolute truth for a given inquiry (Aliyu et al., 2014; Creswell, 2010). It is also believed that positivist knowledge is generalizable since it is time and context free.

Positivism upholds an axiological stance that research should be value-free for it to be objective. It further argues that propositional knowing about the world is an end in itself and it is intrinsically valuable (Aliyu et al., 2014). This position expects researchers to employ scientific methods of gathering data which are objective, and to produce results which are value-free.

From a methodological point of view, positivism is inclined to the side of experimentation, coupled with confirmatory analysis and quantitative analysis (Ryan & Julia, 2007). A positivist research is meant to be deductive in nature and to test a prior

hypothesis or theory. However, a contrasting view argues that positivism entails elements of both deductive and inductive approaches (Brown, 2014). It is argued that the paradigm imposes a top-down approach to research, where ontology is placed at the top of the hierarchy and methodology at the bottom (Dieronitou, 2014). The same author goes on to argue that the cause-effect ontological position of positivism constrains research, at the methodological level, to the use of empirical tests under carefully controlled conditions.

### **3.2.2 Interpretivism/Constructivism paradigm**

Interpretivism is also known as the humanistic, constructivist or naturalistic paradigm. This paradigm is believed to have come as an alternative for the dominant positivist paradigm (Mustafa, 2011). The paradigm focuses on a holistic perspective of the person and environment during inquiry. The goal of interpretivist research is to understand and interpret the meanings of human behaviour rather than to generalize and predict causes and effects (Brown, 2014; Wright & Losekoot, 2012). Interpretivism is concerned with exploring why actions or reasons lead to a pattern of behaviour, which leads the researcher to question beyond measurements with the key objectives being understanding and interpreting (Silverman, 2013). This paradigm proposes that it is vital for a researcher to understand motives, meanings, reasons and subjective experiences which are time and context bound. Blaikie (2009) opines that interpretivism follows the traditions of classical hermeneutics, which maintain that meaning is hidden and must be brought to the surface through deep reflections. In light of these assumptions, it then follows that interpretivist researchers begin with individuals and set out to understand their interpretations of the world around them (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The researcher-participant relationship is one of the central tenets of this paradigm. Interpretivists also believe that it is only through this relationship that a deeper meaning can be uncovered which enables researchers to co-construct meaning to explain the emic and idiographic nature of the paradigm (Mustafa, 2011). It is when researchers engage in such processes that they “generate or inductively develop a theory of meanings” (Creswell, 2009:9). Basing on all the arguments put forth, it can be concluded that the interpretivist paradigm emphasizes description of how people feel

inside, how they interpret their everyday experiences, and whatever idiosyncratic reasons they have for their behaviours (Rubin & Babbie, 2015).

Unlike the positivists' 'naïve' pursuit of objectivity in their quest to observe and understand reality, interpretivism adheres to the ontology where reality is a product of subjective experience (Rubin & Babbie, 2015). Researchers in this paradigm discover reality through participants' views, their own background, and experiences (Mustafa, 2011; Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2011). Interpretivism considers that "the social world can only be understood from the point of view of the individuals who are part of the ongoing action being investigated" (Cohen et al., 2007:19). The paradigm also holds an ontological stance that reality is multiple and relative (Wright & Losekoot, 2012). According to the interpretivists, reality is approached from subjects, typically from people who own their experiences and are of a particular group or culture (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). This acceptance of multiple perspectives in interpretivism often leads to a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon under study (Mustafa, 2011). Unlike positivist research which has rigid structural frameworks, interpretivist researchers adopt more personal and flexible researcher structures which are receptive to capturing meanings in human interaction, and make sense of what is perceived as reality (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2011).

The interpretivist epistemological position is described as constructivism, which extends a new definition of knowledge based on inter-subjectivity instead of classical objectivity and truth (Mustafa, 2011). Interpretivism discerns that knowledge is created and sustained by social processes and that knowledge and social actions intertwine (Brown, 2014; Thanh & Thanh, 2015). It is also believed that through the process of these interactions, environmental stimuli are processed by individuals to create their own meanings (Mustafa, 2011). Researchers who subscribe to this paradigm are expected to remain open to new knowledge throughout the study and let it develop with the help of informants. This is in line with the belief that humans have the ability to adapt, and that no one can gain prior knowledge of time and context bound social realities (Thanh & Thanh, 2015; Wright & Losekoot, 2012). The researcher and informants are expected

to be interdependent and mutually interactive since the interpretivist paradigm employs methodologies such as interviews, focus group discussions and observations.

The interpretivist paradigm holds an axiological stance that all research is value-laden and value bound (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). This position seems to suggest that values are inherent and inescapable. It is upon these values that researchers choose a paradigm to follow, data collection and analysis methods to use, methods of interpreting and reporting findings (Brown, 2014; Creswell, 2009). Interpretivists also argue that researchers' values and social characteristics affect the study from inception to conclusion. It is therefore, always essential for researchers to be flexible in their interactions with participants (Wright & Losekoot, 2012). Researchers in this paradigm have a fundamental duty of care to their participants, themselves and other researchers. This also includes the issues to do with how they (researchers) are going to report and represent research data (Yanow & Schwartz-Shea, 2011).

On their methodological point of view, interpretivists employ the qualitative approach in order to adequately understand participants' life-worlds from their own perspective and to avoid misrepresentation of participants' meanings and interpretations of their worldview (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). It is also believed that such an approach results in the emergence of a research design as the study progresses. Interpretivism calls for the employment of a variety of methodologies which include participant observation, interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis, among others.

In recognition of the ontological, epistemological, axiological, and methodological positions of the interpretivist paradigm, it should be acknowledged that the purpose and aim of this paradigm is to understand the life-worlds and the meanings and understandings of the research participants in context (Brown, 2014; Mustafa, 2012).

### **3.2.3 Pragmatism paradigm**

Literature notes that pragmatism emerged through the writings of Peirce, James, Dewey, and Mead, among others (Goldkuhl, 2012; Mertens & Wilson, 2012). In etymological terms, pragmatism is identified as a practical (action-oriented) paradigm to finding solutions for existing problems and issues (Kalolo, 2015). The definition implies

that pragmatism signifies practicality, compromise, prudence and a clear goal orientation in dealing with problems. From another perspective, pragmatism is believed to be a broad research paradigm covering many different areas which include knowledge, language and ethics (Goldkuhl, 2012). These authors note that pragmatism is associated with action, intervention and constructive knowledge, drawing heavily on the inductive and deductive reasoning (Iluah & Eaton, 2013). As a paradigm, it is characterized by its ability to accept all well-constructed paradigms of scientific inquiry as valid when they are appropriate (Kalolo, 2015). The paradigm therefore, provides for the use of both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies to collect information and make inquiry into complex phenomenon of social and natural contexts (Creswell, 2009; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010). Pragmatists assert that what works is what is useful and should be used, regardless of any philosophical or paradigmatic assumptions (Zandvanian & Daryapoor, 2013) and can be described as a better process to answering “what”, “why” and “how” research questions (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). It is acknowledged that pragmatism offers an alternative worldview to that of positivism and interpretivism and focuses on the problem to be researched and the consequences of the research (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2011). These authors go on to argue that pragmatism allows the researcher to be free of mental and practical constraints imposed by the “forced choice dichotomy between positivism and constructivism, and researchers do not have to be prisoners of a particular approach or technique (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011:27).

The pragmatic research philosophy provides for the adoption of mixed methods as the data collection method which opens the opportunity to be objective and subjective in analysing the points of view of the participants (Creswell, 2009; Saunders et al., 2009). It focuses on the problem and tries to find practical solutions through the use of mixed methods (Iluah & Eaton, 2013). By doing so, pragmatic approach allows areas to be studied that are of interest, embracing methods that are appropriate and using findings in a positive manner in harmony with a recognized value system (Creswell, 2009). It therefore, follows that pragmatic research is multi-purpose in nature, making it a good approach that will allow questions to be addressed that do not fit comfortably within a

wholly quantitative or qualitative approach, research design and methodology (Ihuah & Eaton, 2013).

Pragmatic philosophy is concerned with the thinking that choosing between one position (ontology, epistemology or axiology) and the other is somewhat unrealistic in practice. Instead, it argues that the most important determinant of which position to adopt is the research questions (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). However, this paradigm has its own ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological positions in research. The essence of pragmatist ontology is actions and changes, and holding the argument that humans are acting in a world which is in a constant state of becoming (Goldkuhl, 2012).

According to pragmatists, reality is external and multiple, constructed by humans in an ongoing process of action-not in a posited structure of relations (Romm, 2014). They hold that without action, any structure of relations between people is meaningless, but to perform changes in desired ways, action must be guided by purpose and knowledge. The world is thus, changed through reason and action and there is an inseparable link between human knowing and human action (Goldkuhl, 2012). Pragmatists avoid arguing about metaphysical terms such as truth and reality. Instead, they argue that the value of evaluation is not based on whether they discover the truth, but on the demonstration that the results work with respect to the problem that is being studied (Mertens & Wilson, 2012). From this argument, it then follows that pragmatism is typically characterized by a positive attitude toward integrating practice and rejecting traditional dualisms. It prefers empirical over idealistic or rationalistic approaches, as well as agreeing that knowledge and thinking should be seen as forms of activity, as experimental inquiry (Hall, 2013). In terms of their ontological stance, pragmatists believe in an external world independent of the mind as well as that lodged in the mind. They expect researchers to stop asking questions about reality and the laws of nature and direct them towards multiple methods, different worldviews, different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis (Greene, 2012, Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

Pragmatic epistemology objects to viewing knowledge as a 'copy' of reality. Instead, knowledge is constructed in order to better manage existence and take part in the world



(Hall, 2013). This paradigm is concerned with instrumental view of knowledge, that is, knowledge used in action for making a purposeful difference in practice. The knowledge character within pragmatism is thus, not restricted to explanations (key form of positivism) and understanding (key form of interpretivism). Instead, pragmatism caters for other forms of knowledge such as prescriptive (giving guidelines), normative (exhibiting values), and prospective (suggesting possibilities) (Goldkuhl, 2012). In light of this epistemological position, pragmatism provides the justification and rationale for combining methods. In tandem with its practicality, pragmatism acknowledges the claims of both positivism and interpretivism about knowledge and reality (the worldview). Positivism claims that the world exists apart from our understanding of it, while interpretivism insists that the world is created by our conceptions of it. Pragmatism takes a middle of the road stance between the two and argues that our experiences in the world are necessarily constrained by the nature of that world, and our understanding of the world is inherently limited to our interpretations of our experiences (Goldkuhl, 2012). It therefore, means that we are not free to believe anything we want about the world if we care about the consequences of acting on those beliefs. According to pragmatists, truth, meaning and knowledge should be viewed as tentative and changing over time. They argue that what researchers obtain on a daily basis should be viewed as provisional truth that works at that time and that needs to be refined according to changes in the conditions of different contexts (Hall, 2013; Mertens, 2015).

The axiological position in pragmatism is that values play a vital role in interpreting research results through the use of both subjective and objective reasoning (McIntyre, 2014; Romm, 2014). The researcher (evaluator), is therefore, free to develop whatever type of relationships with the participants (stakeholders) which are appropriate for the matter under investigation. The nature of the relationship is judged in terms of its ability to get the results of the study to be used by the intended stakeholders (Mertens, 2015). These opinions complement pragmatists' claim that research always occurs in social, historical, political and other contexts. Researchers should concentrate on what works, which is better and more productive than asking theoretical questions about reality and the laws of nature that governs this reality (Creswell, 2009).

Methodologically, pragmatism has been used to justify the use of mixed methods in research. The focus is to match the method with the purpose of the study (Goldkuhl, 2012; Hall, 2013). Pragmatists assert that what works is what is useful and should be used, regardless of any philosophical or paradigmatic assumptions (Zandvanian & Daryapoor, 2013).

A significant number of researchers who embrace the pragmatic philosophy coupled with mixed methods approach have reported resounding success in such fields as international relations (Friedrichs, 2009), health care (Jansen, 2012), housing project (Ihuah, 2013), marketing (Rolfeld, 2014), and educational research (Kalolo, 2015).

#### **3.2.4 Justification for the pragmatism paradigm in the current study**

In recognition of the major tenets and propositions of pragmatism, there are a number of valid points why the paradigm was selected to direct and guide this study. Etymologically, pragmatism is identified as a practical (action-oriented) approach to finding solutions for existing problems and issues (Kalolo, 2015). Scarce existence of child-friendly school environments and teachers' insignificant role in the promotion of the desired CFS environments is a cause for concern in the Zimbabwean schools. First and foremost, preference for the pragmatic paradigm has been necessitated by the need to have a research paradigm that will signify practicality, compromise, prudence and a clear goal orientation in dealing with the problem at hand. Pragmatism accommodates a variety of research methodologies which can be used to achieve a deeper level of understanding about a particular phenomenon (Kalolo, 2015). The focus of this current study is to gain a deeper, clearer, and better understanding of the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments in order to create knowledge and take appropriate action in the interest of change and improvement. Examining teachers' role in the promotion of this educational initiative cannot be completely achieved by gathering either numerical nor descriptive data alone, hence the employment of pragmatism which allows integration of different perspectives in the elucidation of data interpretation process.

Pragmatism is a better process to answering 'what', 'why' and 'how' research questions (Saunders et al, 2009). In the process of examining teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments, the objective is to determine what teachers are doing, how they are doing it, and why it is important for them to do so. Having noticed that pragmatism is characterized by its ability to accept all well-constructed paradigms of scientific inquiry as valid when they are appropriate means that triangulation of methodologies (quantitative and qualitative) is assumed relevant and effective in searching answers for these questions. Insights gained through the use of pragmatism are likely to give credible results and a deeper understanding and appreciation of the potential teachers have in providing learners with friendly school environments which recognize and uphold children's rights.

Another strong reason for choosing pragmatism in this current research is because of its multi-purpose nature. It allows research questions to be addressed that do not fit comfortably within a wholly quantitative or wholly qualitative approach. This pragmatic stance is likely to meet the current requirements of the highly complex educational systems and expectations. Pragmatic research perceives issues differently in different scenarios and permits different views and interpretations of the world. In the current study, pragmatic approaches are likely to offer the researcher an opportunity to examine teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments from a broader perspective and focus better on the problem with the intention of finding practical solutions to the problem. The paradigm is likely to provide a balanced point between the deductive (quantitative) and inductive (qualitative) perspectives of thinking among the research participants in relation to the CFS concept which will offer practical answers to the research questions.

Lastly, the application of pragmatism in this study is also based on the attempt to link educational initiatives and policies to practice, to explore, describe, and solve educational challenges in their contextual settings. Pragmatism is useful, relevant, and functional in examining the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments in different school contexts.

### 3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

A research approach is defined as a plan or procedure for research that spans from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation (Creswell, 2013). A research approach is also described as the master plan specifying the methods and procedures for collecting and analysing the needed information in a research study (Johnson, 2014). The cited definitions tend to suggest that the researcher’s methodological concerns, the kinds of data sought and their mode of treatment, will all be influenced or determined by the adopted research approach

Up until a few decades ago, the study of social phenomena has been commonly informed by either of the two major research traditions, that is, quantitative or qualitative (Magwa & Magwa, 2015). During the 1970s and 80s, a third research approach, the mixed method (MM) emerged as a critique against the quantitative and qualitative approaches which had dominated health, education, business, and social science methods for several decades (Bazeley, 2015; Mertens, 2015). These three research approaches are usually directly related to certain philosophical positions, research designs, nature and form of data, and research methods to be adopted, as illustrated in Table 3.2.

**Table 3-2: A comparative summary of attributes of Quantitative, Mixed Methods and Qualitative research approaches**

Attribute	Quantitative	Mixed Method	Qualitative
<b>Scientific method</b>	Deductive or ‘top-down’ The researcher tests hypotheses and theory with data	Abdicative reasoning through making logical inference which goes from an observation to a theory.	Inductive or ‘bottom-up’ The researcher generates new hypotheses and grounded theory from data collected from field work.
<b>View of human behaviour</b>	Behaviour is regular and predictable	Behaviour is somewhat predictable	Behaviour is fluid, dynamic, situational, social, contextual and personal
<b>Most common research</b>	Description, explanation and prediction	Multiple objectives	Description, exploration, and discovery

<b>objective</b>			
<b>Focus</b>	Narrow-angle lens, testing specific hypotheses	Multi-lens focus	Wide-angle, 'deep-angle' lens examining the breadth and depth of phenomena to learn more about them.
<b>Nature of observation</b>	Attempt to study behaviour under controlled conditions	Study behaviour in more than context or condition	Study behaviour in natural environments. Study the context in which behaviour occurs.
<b>Nature of reality</b>	Objective (different observers agree on what is observed)	Inter-subjective; Common sense-realism and pragmatic view of the world (i.e. what works is what is 'real' or true).	Subjective, personal and socially constructed
<b>Sample size likely or preferred</b>	larger	Both large and small	Smaller
<b>Types of designs and methods commonly used</b>	Experiments Quasi-experiment Single case design Surveys	Convergent parallel/ Concurrent triangulation Exploratory sequential Explanatory sequential Embedded design	Ethnography Case studies Life history Focus groups Participatory action research Grounded theory
<b>Form of data collected</b>	Collect quantitative data based on precise measurements using structured and validated data collecting instruments (i.e closed-ended items, rating scales, behavioural responses).	Multiple forms	Collect qualitative data (i.e in-depth interviews, participant observation, field notes, open-ended questions). The researcher is the primary data collection instrument.
<b>Nature of data</b>	Variables	Mixture of variables, words and images	Words, images, Categories
<b>Data analysis</b>	Identify statistical relationships	Quantitative and qualitative	Search patterns, themes and holistic features

<b>Inference from data</b>	Generality	Transferability	Context
<b>Results</b>	Generalizable findings	Corroborated findings may generalize	Particularistic findings (i.e. emic) viewpoint Present multiple perspectives
<b>Form of final report</b>	Statistical report (i.e. with correlations, comparisons of means, and reporting of statistical significance of findings)	Eclectic and pragmatic	Narrative report with contextual description and direct quotations from research participants.

Source: (Johnson 2014: 34-35; Rubin & Babbie, 2015: 49-50)

Table 3.2 has given a detailed summary of the attributes of the three major research approaches. It is, however, of importance at this point to briefly highlight the merits of quantitative and qualitative approaches respectively. As for the mixed method research (MMR) approach which the current study adopted, a detailed discussion and justification for its selection is covered in the sections to follow.

### 3.3.1 Quantitative approach

The quantitative approach attempts to produce findings that are precise and generalisable (Rubin & Babbie, 2015). The focus in this approach is on using specific definitions and carefully operationalising what particular concepts variables mean (Tewksbury, 2009). Due to its nature, quantitative approach is found to have significant advantages. The approach is believed to be helpful in testing and validating theories, testing hypotheses, and replication of findings (Everset, 2014). It is useful when carrying out a large scale need assessment or baseline survey by allowing the collection of large quantities of data. Quantitative approach works well in measuring trends, producing results which are numerical (quantifiable), and hence considered more “objective”. Above all, the quantifiable data is likely to provide a clear, quantitative measure that can be used for grants and proposals especially for companies and organizations (Ramona, 2011). Data analysis in quantitative approach is believed to be relatively less time consuming, for it can be done using statistical software. Despite the highlighted merits

of the quantitative approach, it should be noted that its major weakness is that of ignoring a very important human element (that is, depth of an issue) in research.

### **3.3.2 Qualitative approach**

At the core, qualitative approach focuses on the meanings, traits and defining characteristics of events, people, interactions, setting or cultures, and experiences (Everset, 2014). This approach is believed to have much to offer when researchers need to explore people's feelings or ask participants to reflect on their experiences. When it is done well, qualitative approach does provide valuable insights and advances to knowledge (Tewksbury, 2009). It also emphasizes the importance of direct contact with social reality as the springboard for any investigation thus, fashioning an understanding of the social world through that contact (Bryman, 2015). Qualitative approach is responsive to local situations, conditions and stakeholders' needs. The approach is also useful for describing complex phenomena. However, qualitative approach findings are difficult to generalise to other people or other settings, since the findings may be unique to the people included in the research study (Rubin & Babbie, 2015). Another weakness of qualitative approach is that it usually takes more time to collect data compared to quantitative approach, and qualitative data analysis tends to be cumbersome and often time consuming (Ramona, 2011).

### **3.3.3 Mixed Methods Research (MMR) approach**

There is no universally accepted definition of mixed methods research. Numerous proponents and subscribers to this research approach provide different ideas about MMR, from which Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) crafted a generic definition of MMR as a combination of "elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (for example, use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration" (2007:123). This definition suggests that MMR is inclusive, pluralistic, complementary, and eclectic. Research which follows this approach systematically integrate quantitative and qualitative research methodologies at all or at certain stages of a research process (Bamberger, 2013)so as to improve the understanding of the phenomenon being investigated (Rubin & Babbie, 2015). From the

cited definitions it can be concluded that the MMR approach combines the in-depth insights provided by QUAL methods with the statistical analysis and ability to generalize provided by QUANT methods (Bamberger, 2013; Bazeley, 2015).

Johnson (2014) gives a more elaborated definition of MMR approach referring to it as the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers mixes or combines qualitative and quantitative research philosophies or paradigms, methodologies, methods, techniques, approaches, concepts or language into a single research study or a set of related studies. This definition suggests that the complexity of most research problems cannot be deciphered or fully understood from a single unique perspective of a quantitative or qualitative approach (Caruth, 2013; Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015). In sight of the cited definitions show that MMR approach addresses research problems in which clear objective and subjective aspects that require the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches are manifested. Integration of the two sets of data should be done in an articulated and harmonious manner (Caruth, 2013 & Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Mixed methods approach is believed to have emerged from the paradigm wars between quantitative and qualitative research approaches to becoming a widely used mode of inquiry (Terrell, 2012). The current study employed a mixed methods research (MMR) approach which involves integrating quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. This is where words, pictures and narrative (qualitative) can be used to add meaning to numbers(quantitative), while numbers add precision to words (Everset, 2014; Greene, 2012; Harrits, 2011; Migiro & Magangi, 2011; Miller, 2015; Zandvanian & Daryapoor, 2013). Mixed methods approach states philosophical assumptions, gathers qualitative and quantitative data, analyses each type of data, integrates the two forms of data, and draws interpretations by combining the strengths of both data sets (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). It recognises the importance of traditional quantitative and qualitative research approaches but also offers a powerful third approach that provides the most informative, complete, balanced, and useful research results (Brown, 2014). Researchers who subscribe to MMR approach attempt to design research that will have both precision and depth (Plano-Clark & Ivankova, 2016; Zandvanian & Daryapoor,



2013). Subscribers to this research approach also argue that there is no major problem that should be studied exclusively using one research approach or method (Terrell, 2012).

Where MMR approach is adopted for data collection, a researcher must decide about the values of each approach; qualitative and quantitative (equal or dominant) and their time order (concurrent or sequential) (Miller, 2015). On the same point, Terrell (2012) identifies four factors upon which MMR approach depends namely; theoretical perspective, priority of strategy, sequence of data collection implementation, and the point at which the data are integrated. At data analysis stage, the researcher may use statistical techniques and descriptive analytic methods. The triangulation of data collection tools can be used to confirm the validity of research findings, and this is likely to enhance credibility of those findings (Everset, 2014). Triangulation of qualitative and quantitative approaches is likely to capture a more complete, holistic, and contextual portrayal of the unit under study (Terrell, 2012).

### **3.3.3.1 Strengths of mixed methods research approach**

Earlier discussions on the MMR approach suggest that this approach should be viewed and regarded as an extension rather than a replacement of the quantitative and qualitative approaches to research, as the other two approaches continue to be useful and important (Caruth, 2013). MMR has some significant strength when compared to the other two approaches. Pluye and Hong (2014) assert that MMR combines the strengths of quantitative and qualitative approaches to compensate for their respective limitations. The two approaches are employed iteratively or simultaneously to create a research outcome stronger than either method individually. MMR provides researchers with the ability to design a single research study that answers questions about both the complex nature of phenomena from the participants' point of view and the relationship between measurable variables (Ponce & Pagan-Maldonado, 2015).

Another major strength of this approach is that at data analysis and interpretation stages, a researcher can return to the qualitative data and re-read quotes in context of the larger document. At the same time, multiple runs of the statistical analyses could be made on quantitative data until conforming evidence is found (Bazeley, 2015; Maxwell,

2016). In short, it is a strength that MMR advocates “what works” within the precepts of research to investigate, to predict, to explore, to describe, and to understand the phenomenon without making the researcher a prisoner of one particular research approach (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

### **3.3.3.2 Limitations of mixed methods research**

Despite the highlighted merits of MMR, this approach has its fair share of weaknesses or limitations. It is assumed that it may be difficult for a single researcher to carry out both quantitative and qualitative research, especially if used concurrently. It may require a research team (Terrell, 2012). In an attempt to address this challenge, the researcher of this current study worked closely with three other PhD candidates who were involved as research assistants. A one-day induction was conducted to familiarize them with the research purpose, plan, and instruments. The assistants were also involved in the pilot study in order to have a shared experience of the data collection process and for them to have an input in the validation of the research instruments.

Another major limitation is that the approach requires the researcher to have adequate working knowledge and understanding of both quantitative and qualitative research in order to mix them appropriately (Vehvilainen-Julkunen & Horton, 2013). The researcher had opportunities to attend three workshops on this subject hosted by Zimbabwe Open University and University of Zimbabwe in 2016. MMR is also believed to be more expensive and time consuming. To deal with this challenge, the researcher allocated timeframes to all research stages. A pilot study in two schools was done in a month, and data collection for the main study in the seven schools was allocated three months, data analysis and interpretation took five months, and the report write-up was done within three months. This plan left the researcher with the six months to do all the necessary revisits before the final submission of a complete document. On the issue of material and financial resources required, the researcher was offered the Govan Mbeki funding for the study in the hope that something positive will come along.

In order to ease data analysis and data interpretation, this researcher employed the use of the SPSS version 20 software.

### **3.3.3.3 Justification for selecting mixed methods approach in the current study**

In the previous sections, literature showed that MMR enables the researcher to answer many research questions (Everset, 2014) and provides a complete understanding of the complexity of the phenomenon being investigated (Rubin & Babbie, 2015). The primary reason for employing the MMR approach in this current study was the need to get both quantitative and qualitative answers to questions raised in examining teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments in Zimbabwean schools. The current researcher believes that better understanding of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments can be obtained by triangulating one set of results with another, thereby enhancing the validity of inferences. It is also assumed that triangulation will offset the weaknesses of one method by the strengths of another.

Employing MMR in this current study was likely to bring clarity and coherence to the complex but critical role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments, from their status as trainee teacher throughout their professional careers as teachers. MMR is an approach which applies deduction (testing of theories and hypotheses). In this current study, deduction was used to test a number of assumptions pertaining to teachers' competences and skills in the provision of child-friendly schooling. The aspect of induction (discovery of patterns) is expected in MMR approach, and in the context of this study, induction was employed to identify patterns in the way teachers in different secondary schools understood and promoted child-friendly environments. Lastly, MMR applies abstraction, which entails uncovering and relying on the best of a set of explanations for understanding one's results. This aspect was used to gain deeper insights and complete understanding of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments, and the implications for teacher professional development.

Another reason for selecting MMR was its ability to provide results with mutual confirmation, thus giving the researcher more confidence that the research results were valid. This researcher collected multiple sets of data on the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments based on different philosophical assumptions which enriched the research findings. By so doing, the approach served the purpose of complementarity, which is, seeking elaboration, illustration, enhancement, and

clarification of the results from one method with the findings from another method (Molin-Azorin & Cameron, 2010). Data from the quantitative and qualitative components from different researcher respondents/participants assisted in confirming the strategies teachers employed in the promotion of CFS environments and the challenges they encountered in the process.

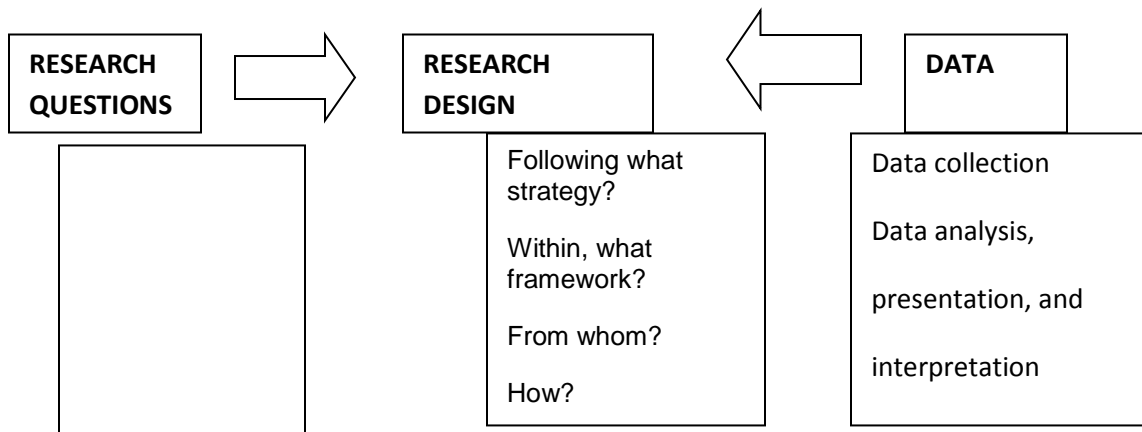
Variety in the nature and size of samples also motivated the researcher to employ MMR approach. The quantitative approach allowed the use of a large sample of both teachers and learners, whereas the qualitative component required purposive sampling. Data from these varied samples allowed the researcher to delve deeper into how and why teachers play differently their role in the promotion of CFS environments. By so doing, the MMR approach served the purpose of initiation (discovering paradoxes and contradictions that lead to the research questions being reframed) (Greene, 2007).

MMR approach was employed because of the flexibility it offered the researcher in the choice of research instruments. It allowed questionnaires, interviews, observations, document analysis, and focus discussions to be employed within the same study which enabled this researcher to come up with detailed reports on how teachers perceive and understand the CFS concept. The approach also put forward participants' different perspectives on how best teachers can be equipped and supported in order to effectively promote CFS environments.

### **3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

There are varied definitions of research design from different scholars and researchers. A research design refers to a procedural plan for answering research questions validly, objectively, accurately and economically (Caruth, 2013; Kumur, 2011). According to Cameron (2014), a research design is a systematic and justified route-map to answering research questions. A research design is a structure of an enquiry meant to deal with a logical problem and not a logistical problem (Yin, 2011). The central role of a research design is to minimize the chance of drawing incorrect causal inferences from data (Allmer, 2012). It is clear from the cited definitions and purpose of a research design that researchers need to be guided and directed by a research design to ensure

that evidence collected enables them to adequately address the demands of research questions or to test theories as unambiguously as possible. A research design is also expected to connect research questions to data or evidence required by providing answers to four questions as illustrated in Figure 3.1.



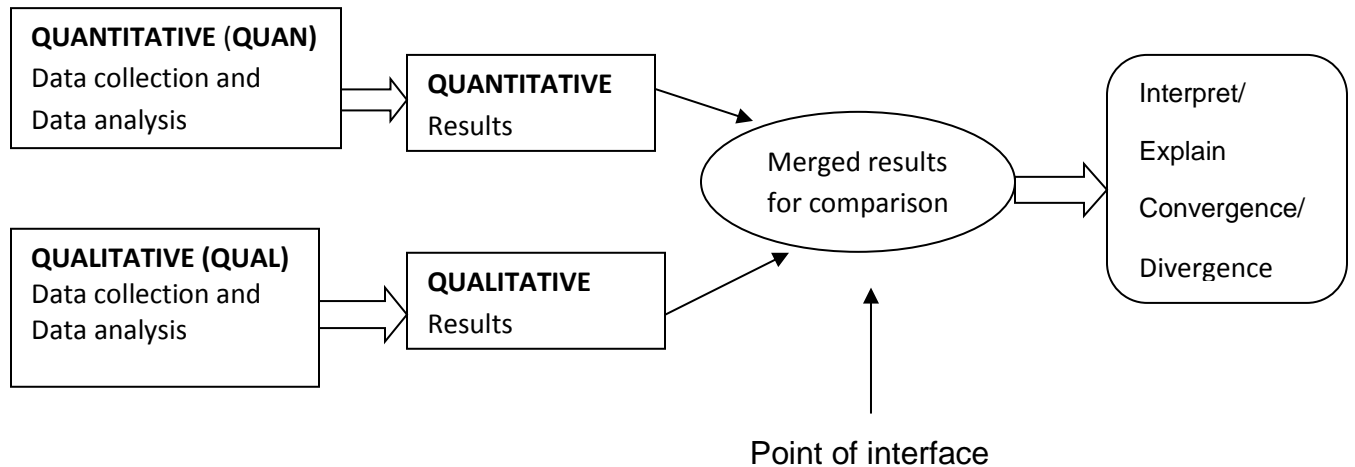
**Figure 3-1: The research design connection**

(Source: Allmer 2012: 3)

A research design connects research questions to data as illustrated in Figure 3.1, which means that it is the design on which the other two aspects depend upon. It is also argued that where a researcher fails to attend to these research design matters at the beginning of the research process, the conclusions drawn will normally be weak and unconvincing, and fail to answer the research questions.

In MMR, there are three basic non-experimental research designs which include the explanatory sequential design, exploratory sequential design, and the concurrent triangulation (parallel) design (Bryman, 2015; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Johnson, 2014). Non-experimental research designs may be used to develop theories, identify problems with current practices, justify current practices, make judgments or determine other practices in similar situations (Patidar, 2013). Such research designs are believed to be closest to real-life situations. The same opinion is shared by Kalaian (2011) who asserts that non-experimental research designs provide a snapshot of the feelings, opinions, practices, thoughts, preferences, attitudes and behaviours of a sample of subjects as they exist at a given time and place.

Figure 3.2 gives an illustration of the concurrent triangulation research design showing the stage at which integration takes place.



**Figure 3-2: Concurrent triangulation research design**

(Source: Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007: 181; Patidar, 2013: 70)

### 3.4.1 Concurrent (parallel) triangulation design

The current study employed the concurrent triangulation mixed research design, illustrated in Figure 3.2, to examine teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments in Zimbabwean government schools. Concurrent triangulation occurs when a researcher collects and analyses both quantitative and qualitative data during the same phase of the research process and then merges the two sets of results into an overall interpretation (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2010). In this research design, both quantitative and qualitative methods are used simultaneously in one phase, to confirm, cross-validate, or corroborate findings within a single study, with both components considered equally important (Peng, Nunes & Annansingh, 2011; Terrell, 2012). Its main purpose is to best understand or develop more complete understanding of the problem by obtaining different but complementary data that validate findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). The intention was also to bring together differing strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of quantitative methods (large sample size, trends and

generalizations) with those of qualitative methods (small sample, details, and in-depth) (Creswell, 2014).

According to Small (2011), concurrent designs can be useful in studies where sequential designs are impractical, when the ordering of data is irrelevant, or when the need for multiple kinds of data for a given time is pressing. Concurrent triangulation research design is also useful when the research questions demand that multiple data types be collected simultaneously.

Concurrent triangulation research design is believed to have some significant strength. Firstly, this research design is familiar to many researchers, and it takes a shorter data collection time when compared to sequential designs. Secondly, employment of this research design offsets weaknesses inherent in one design by using both (Terrell, 2012).

However, concurrent triangulation research design has also some weaknesses. The design requires a great deal of expertise and effort to study the phenomenon under consideration using two different methods. To address this challenge, this researcher constantly sought advice and guidance from the supervisor and where possible made an effort to attend workshops on MMR organised at local level. Wide reading and research on the issue enhanced understanding of this approach. Another major weakness is that it may be difficult to compare to types of data as well as resolve discrepancies if they arise. Revisiting the data sets was done to address this challenge. There may be consequences of having different samples and different sample sizes when merging data sets. This researcher sought both internal and external expertise to solve the challenge.

#### **3.4.1.1 Integration of QUAN + QUAL data in concurrent triangulation design**

Integration of both quantitative and qualitative results can occur at different points/stages/phases in the research process. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) data integration is a fluid process that might occur within the research questions, within data collection, within data analysis, or in interpretation. It is also argued that data integration can occur via techniques such as quantitising data (qualitative converted into

numerical codes that can be represented statistically) or qualitisng data (quantitative data converted into narrative data that can be analysed qualitatively) (Onwuegbuzie& Johnson, 2006). In light of these arguments, it should be noted that data integration focuses on how the results from both methods are similar or different, with the primary purpose being for the data to support each other (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Fielding, 2012). Subscribers of MMR designs believe that there is no model of integration that is better than the other, for the function of integration is to provide additional information where information obtained from one method only is insufficient (Chen, 2012; Fielding, 2012; Small, 2011; Terrell, 2012). Statistical data can be dry, and a clip from an interview can bring the issue alive. Equally, qualitative data can be dense, and statistical data can provide focus. Data integration is all about putting the findings from different methods into dialogue. In other words, data integration is always a matter of innovation (Fielding, 2012).

In the current study, the integration of QUAN and QUAL data occurred at the data interpretation stage. Integration of data at interpretation stage in this study involved analysing the two sets of data separately or independently and then mixing the results during the overall interpretation. The intention was to look for convergence, divergence, contradictions or relationships between two sources of data in relation to examining teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. If the results lead to divergent results, then more than one explanation is possible for the phenomenon under study.

### **3.4.2 Justification for using the concurrent triangulation design**

The use of concurrent triangulation research design is popular with many researchers in MMR, especially the novice ones like the current researcher. This research design is useful in dealing with concurrent quantitative-based questions in the questionnaire dealing with rates, relationships, and cause-and-effect relationships of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. It also addresses qualitative questions in the same instrument, likely to lead to the examination of processes, experiences, and perceptions of different samples of the study about the CFS concept. This means the research design allows the quantitative instruments to be integrated with qualitative open-ended questions (Fields & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). At the same time, the gathering of quantitative



data during interviews offered this researcher more in-depth opportunities to evaluate interviewees' statements and responses in relation to teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments.

Another major reason for employing concurrent triangulation design is its ability to use separate quantitative and qualitative methods in a single phase study as a means of offsetting the weaknesses inherent within one method with strengths inherent in the other method resulting in well-validated and substantiated findings (Chen, 2012). In this study two sets of analysed data were merged at interpretation phase, where areas of convergence or divergence were established. If the latter emerged, it facilitated future research (Creswell, 2013). The fact that concurrent triangulation design allows data collection in a one-phase resulted in a shorter data collection period when compared to other mixed methods designs. This advantage afforded this researcher more time to adequately concentrate on the data analysis process.

### **3.5 POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES**

Population is defined as the entire group of persons or set of objects and events the researcher wants to study (Magwa & Magwa, 2015). Wandera (2011) defines population as well defined or set of people, services, elements, and events, group of things or households that are being investigated in order to gather information required. From the cited definitions, it is clear that a research population is supposed to a designated set of criteria. A research population is composed of two groups; the target population and accessible study population (Magwa & Magwa, 2015). The two authors distinguish between target population and accessible population. A target population includes all the cases about which the researcher would like to make generalisations. This type of population is not always accessible to the researcher, hence, only a part of it that is available can be studied. In the context of the current study, the target population comprises all Zimbabwean government secondary school teachers and Ordinary level learners. The accessible/study population, on the other hand, is often a non-random subset of the target population available for a particular study (Bowen, 2010). It comprises a group of individuals to which researchers have access and can legitimately apply their conclusions. The study population may be limited to a region,

district, city or institutions. In this current study, the accessible population comprised all the 362 teachers, including school heads, and the entire “O” level learners (650 boys & 780 girls) in the seven government secondary schools in Mutare urban district. In their line of duty, all these teachers are responsible for the welfare of learners and therefore, have a role to play in the promotion of CFS environments. As for the learners, they are the recipients and beneficiaries of this educational initiative.

### **3.5.1 Sampling procedures**

Sampling is that part of statistical practice concerned with the selection of a sub-set of individuals from within a population to yield some knowledge about the whole, especially for the purposes of making predictions based on statistical inference (Bamberger, 2012). Basically, this definition seems to be quantitatively biased. From a qualitative perspective, sampling is a process of selecting participants to take part in a research investigation on the ground that they provide information considered relevant to the research problem (Yin, 2013). It is a sub-set of the population selected for a given research enquiry which helps to inform the quality of inferences made by the researcher that stem from underlying findings (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

Sampling in quantitative research typically follows random sampling procedures, whereas qualitative sampling is less direct (Guetterman, 2015). It is believed that qualitative sampling is not a single planning decision, but an iterative series of decision throughout the process of research (Emmel, 2013; Oppong, 2013). However, sampling in mixed methods research involves the selection of units or cases for a research, using both probability/random sampling (to increase validity) and purposive sampling strategies (to increase transferability) (Jeanty & Hibel, 2011; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). However, the utilisation of some form of purposeful sampling is more prevalent in MMR (Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007), and the stratified purposive sampling technique is basic (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). The purposive aspect is inherent in both probability and non-probability sampling techniques.

Patton (2015) explains that purposive sampling involves selecting information-rich cases. The identification of sub-groups in a population, and selection of participants

from each sub-group entails stratified purposive sampling. In light of these insights on what sampling entails, the current study employed a concurrent mixed methods sampling procedure in which a stratified purposive sampling was used to generate data for both quantitative and qualitative components. This meant that the study had two sets of samples produced by a parallel relationship sampling design. The design specifies that the samples for the qualitative and quantitative components of a study would be different but are drawn from the same population of interest (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010).

The first sample sets of 170 teachers and 145 learner respondents were selected through a stratified random sampling procedure to cater for the quantitative component. Three strata were considered for teacher respondents (graduate and non-graduate, and trainee teachers) representing both males and females. Learner respondents were drawn from “O” level classes (boys and girls) in the seven government secondary schools.

Stratified random sampling is a procedure where the examined population is divided into distinct subgroups, called strata, and a pre-defined number (or percentage) of individuals is selected from each stratum (Thompson, 2012). It is believed that stratified random sampling can significantly reduce the sample size without reducing the representativeness of the sample. The sample of 170 teachers came from a total of 385 teachers in the seven government secondary schools in Mutare urban district. The teacher sample, which constitutes 44.1% of the population, participated in answering the semi-structured questionnaire. This sample size was deemed large enough to assure validity of the findings. The 170 teachers were selected from the following teachers’ stratum: graduate teachers (56 male and 89 female), non- graduate teachers (78 male and 112 female), and trainee teachers (15 male and 35 female) as illustrated in Table 3.4. The learner sample of 145 was drawn from 650 “O” level boys and 780 girls respectively.

The proportionate stratification sampling procedure was used for the quantitative component where the sample size of each stratum was proportionate to the population size of the stratum. Strata sample sizes were determined by the following equation:

$$nh = (Nh/N)*n.$$

nh is the sample size for stratum h

Nh is the population size for stratum h

N is total population size

n is total sample size

The teacher and learner populations were divided into subgroups (strata) based on common descriptors such as, qualifications and gender. For the teacher sample, there were three strata (qualifications) and two strata (gender), and two for learner sample considering gender.

**Table 3-3: Proportionate sample size from the seven government secondary schools in Mutare urban district**

Teacher qualifications	Stratum population Size (Nh)	Stratum sample size (nh)	Sub-stratum sample size (male)	Sub-stratum sample size (female)
Graduate	145	64	25	39
Non - graduate	190	84	34	50
Trainee teachers	50	22	6	16
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>385 (N)</b>	<b>170 (n)</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>105</b>
Learner Level				
“O” Boys	650	66		
“O” Girls	780	79		
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1430 (N)</b>	<b>145 (n)</b>		

The actual number of participants from both teachers and learners was calculated using simple proportion based on the actual numbers of each of the teachers’ or learners’ stratum from each school. The total samples from each of the seven government secondary schools based on the number of teachers or learners in each school stratum was calculated to determine the sample size of teachers and learners to cater for the quantitative component as illustrated in Table 3.4

**Table 3-4: Teacher and learner samples distribution per stratum per school**

Teacher Category/descriptor	Sample size per stratum	School A		School B		School C		School D		School E		School F		School G	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Graduate	64	2	1	5	4	5	3	3	9	5	10	2	6	2	6
Non-graduate	84	2	8	8	11	5	5	6	8	8	7	4	3	1	7
Trainee	22	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	3	1	2	1	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>170(S1)</b>	<b>16</b>		<b>30</b>		<b>21</b>		<b>29</b>		<b>34</b>		<b>18</b>		<b>22</b>	
Boys	66	3		10		24		9		11		9		0	
Girls	79	6		14		0		16		14		12		17	
<b>Total</b>	<b>145(S2)</b>	<b>9</b>		<b>24</b>		<b>24</b>		<b>25</b>		<b>25</b>		<b>21</b>		<b>17</b>	

Key: Sch = School

A, B, C, D, E, F, G = Schools

M = Male

F = Female

S1 = Teacher sample size

S2 = Learner sample size

The calculated representative samples for both teachers and learners who responded to the semi-structured questionnaires and it is assumed that the data to be collected were allegeable for generalizations.

For the qualitative component of this study, individuals were selected to participate in the research based on their first-hand experience of the phenomenon of interest. In order to select relevant participants, purposive sampling procedure was followed. Purposive sampling involves selecting information rich cases (Patton, 2015). Participants in this sample were assumed to be directly involved and responsible for the welfare of learners in their respective schools, and therefore, likely to be knowledgeable

about the CFS concept and willing to share their perceptions and experiences with regard to the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.

The sample set in this study comprised the seven (7) Guidance and Counselling focal persons and seven (7) school heads for the respective schools involved in the study. No calculations were done to establish the sample. Instead, the researcher deliberately handpicked these participants based on their administrative positions in the schools. The qualitative sample set was individually interviewed with the intention of capturing their views, feelings and attitudes on teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments.

### **3.6 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS**

Data collection instruments are the fact finding strategies for obtaining relevant information concerning the problem under study (Zohrabi, 2013). There are many strategies of data collection, and the choice of an instrument or research tool depends mainly on the attributes of the subjects, research topic, problem question, objectives, design, expected data and results (Wandera, 2011). In MMR, triangulation of research instruments is meant to supplement each other with the intention of boosting the validity and dependability of the data. Two data collection instruments used in this study were the semi-structured questionnaire and in-depth semi-structured interview.

#### **3.6.1 Semi-structured questionnaire**

A semi-structured questionnaire includes a combination of both structured (closed-ended) and unstructured (open-ended) segments within the same questionnaire (Zohrabi, 2013). This type of questionnaire is often designed in a way where a closed-ended (either yes/no or multiple choice question) item is followed by a very open probe for further explanation about why the respondent selected a given response to the preceding question. In this study, a semi-structured questionnaire was used to solicit data from teacher and learner respondents. The questionnaire for teachers addressed issues about their understanding of the CFS concept, the strategies they employed to promote the concept, and the challenges they encountered in the process. The

questionnaire for learners established their benefits from the CFS environments or their challenges due to the absence of such environments.

According to positivists, a questionnaire is viewed as a more objective research tool that can produce generalizable results because of large sample sizes (Harris & Brown, 2010). In the current study, 170 teachers and 145 learner samples were used. These sample sizes are relatively large and the use of a questionnaire made it possible to collect data quickly and cheaply courtesy of the question items are well structured and clear to elicit relevant research data. Another advantage of the questionnaire is that it gives all chosen participants an opportunity to provide feedback. The feedback is generally anonymous, which encourages openness and honesty (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman & Pedersen, 2013). The structured questions can be processed by software packages such as Excel and the Software Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). On the other hand, the unstructured questions in a semi-structured questionnaire allow for richer feedback that may provide explanations for what is happening as well as participants' opinions, attitudes, feelings, and perceptions of the problem under study. The open-ended questions in the semi-structured questionnaire also allowed for issues to emerge that were not necessarily foreseen by the researcher. Respondents' convenience is another advantage of a questionnaire. Administered questionnaires can be completed at the respondents' convenience which gives them a chance to check necessary documents and even to reflect on their responses making data more valid.

Despite the highlighted strengths of a questionnaire, this research instrument has some significant limitations. Designing and developing a 'valid' questionnaire requires certain skills, and in some cases there can be a fault in the questionnaire design and wording, resulting in misinterpretation of the questions and collection of irrelevant data. In order to address this shortcoming, the researcher tried to produce clear and precise questionnaire items. Also, supervisor assistance was sought on the design and development of the questionnaire and piloting the instrument improved both design and wording. Both questionnaires for teachers and learners were pilot tested and the feedback gained used to fine-tune the final questionnaire version.

The possibility of a poor return rate is another limitation of a questionnaire which is likely to affect data analysis and interpretation processes. To reduce the chances of poor return rate, the researcher worked closely with link teacher respondents conveniently chosen at each school to ensure maximum return rate. Where possible, the researcher and her team waited while the respondents completed the questionnaires. This ensured that questionnaires were completed by the rightful respondents. Although the waiting while respondents completed the questionnaire items could have had some researcher bias on the collected data, it was likely to improve on the validity and reliability of the research findings (Zohrabi, 2013). In some cases, it was difficult to motivate potential respondents to complete questionnaires. To address this challenge, the researcher briefly gave an advocacy message to both teachers and learners for them to appreciate the value of the research study to them respectively.

#### **3.6.1.1 Justification for the use of the semi-structured questionnaire**

There are two major reasons why semi-structured questionnaire were used to collect data in this study. Firstly, a semi-structured questionnaire enabled the researcher to retain control of required data through close-ended questions while also allowing for a wider range of responses to open-ended questions. This combination of questions enhanced the reliability and validity of findings on the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. Secondly, it allowed the researcher to get varied responses from a large proportion of the teacher and learner populations with regard to teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments through concurrent triangulation of data gathering methods within the same research instrument.

#### **3.6.2 In-depth semi-structured interview**

Campbell et al. (2013) define an in-depth semi-structured interview as a guided interview with a limited number of pre-determined closed-ended questions, and many open-ended questions with the aim of stimulating discussion on a given topic. In-depth semi-structured interview is also defined as a procedure characterized by a structured and unstructured content (Dick, 2014). It is also believed that in-depth semi-structured interview data constitutes the empirical backbone of much qualitative research in social sciences. Researchers conduct interviews because they are interested in other people's



stories, opinions, feelings and views on the phenomenon under study (Seidman, 2012). Interviews tend to acknowledge that subjects dealt with in a study have the ability to talk and think, thus, providing in-depth information pertaining to participants' experiences and viewpoints of a particular topic (Turner, 2010). The in-depth semi-structured interviews were held with seven school heads and seven G & C teachers in the respective secondary schools.

Semi-structured interviews comprise a mix of structured and unstructured questions. In this data collection method, questions are planned prior to the interview but the interviewer gives the interviewee the chance to elaborate and explain particular issues through the use of open-ended questions (Alsaawi, 2014). The structure of a semi-structured interview is usually organized following an interview guide containing topics, themes, or areas of discussion during the course of the interview (Pathak & Intratat, 2012). In-depth semi-structured interviews are characterized by key features such as flexibility, interactivity, and comprehensibility (generative) (Ahmed & Ahmed, 2014).

*Flexibility* means there are no strict rules regarding the structure of questions or sequence of the questions. Instead, the researcher covers the topics in an open order by following interview schedule. Here the interviewee is given space to explain his or her views freely through probing used by the interviewer to keep the interview on the relevant track (Alsaawi, 2014). The interviewee also enjoys this flexibility and freedom in deciding what needs to be described or argued, and how much explanation to offer (Pathak & Intratat, 2012). This key feature of in-depth interview assisted in clarifying and expanding on the data from the teacher questionnaires with regard to how teachers enacted their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

Second key feature, *interactivity*, assumes that the interview is an interactive or effective two-way communication process where initial conversation is triggered by the interviewer and the following questions occur in relation to the interviewee's responses. This feature tends to suggest that an in-depth interview must be conducted face to face in order to achieve intense experience for both the interviewer and interviewee (Dick, 2014). Conducting face-to-face in-depth interviews with school heads and Guidance

&Counselling teachers helped in exploring meaning and language with regard to teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments.

The third feature of *comprehensibility/generative* is where the researcher probes or uses other techniques to get full understanding of the participant's view or meaning, feelings and perspectives (Edwards & Holland, 2013). The intention is to achieve depth of answer in terms of penetration, exploration and explanation. In-depth interviews are generative in the sense that new knowledge or thoughts are likely, at some stage, to be created. This key feature of in-depth interview permitted the current researcher to fully explore all the factors that underpinned teachers' answers, reasons, feelings, opinions and beliefs on how they played their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

### **3.6.2.1 Strengths of in-depth semi-structured interviews**

This method of data collection has some significant advantages. First, in-depth interview provides more detailed information than what is available through other data collection methods, such as questionnaires. In-depth interview can uncover valuable insights and enable the researcher to find out the 'real story or experience' from the people in the know. Second, the approach also provides a more relaxed atmosphere in which to collect information, where participants may feel more comfortable having a conversation with the researcher and are likely to open up on a one-on-one basis. The third advantage is that data collected through in-depth interview is of high quality and enables a skilled interviewer to respond to questions and probe for greater detail. This also allows questions to be added or altered in real-time, if needed. Another advantage of this type of interview is that it resolves the problem of the researcher pre-determining what will or will not be discussed in an interview since it is the direction of the interview not the interviewer that determines what needs to be discussed next. Last but not least, in-depth interview can reveal emotional dimensions of social experience that are not often evident in behaviour (Pugh, 2013).

### **3.6.2.2 Limitations of in-depth semi-structured interviews**

The validity and reliability of data collected through an in-depth interview highly depends on the skills of the researcher in asking clear and precise questions. There are chances of misinterpretation of questions by the interviewees and hence, provision of irrelevant

data. In order to address this weakness, the pre-planned interview schedule was pilot-tested and feedback and suggestions effected to improve the instrument. The use of an occasional spontaneous question makes the answers difficult to quantify and analyse. Also, spontaneous questions, asked of some and not of other interviewees, can be seen as unfair, or possibly misleading. The researcher briefly worked with experienced researchers to gain skills on how and when to interject during interview to avoid possible bias. In-depth semi-structured interviews can be both labour and time-intensive, since there is much room for probing and giving necessary clarifications. To deal with this shortcoming, the researcher tried to adhere to time allocated for each interview and worked within the time frame scheduled for completion of collecting data through this approach.

### **3.6.2.3 Justification for the use of in-depth semi-structured interviews**

There are a number of reasons why the current study opted to use semi-structured interviews as a data collection tool. The first reason was that the interviews provided a history of behaviour in relation to teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. Conducting these one-on-one interviews was likely to highlight individual versus group concerns. The assumption was that issues related to the CFS concept that did not arise in a group situation would be addressed in individual interviews. School heads and G & C focal persons who were interviewed were likely to reveal divergent experiences and "outlier" attitudes about the CFS initiative and the role the teachers were supposed to play to promote it. Information from these key participants gave a fast overview of each school and its needs and concerns in relation to the implementation of CFS principles and the required teacher professional development to effectively promote the initiative. Data collected from in-depth semi-structured interviews assisted in clarifying and complementing the findings from semi-structured questionnaires, as well as allowing comparison of findings which provided a detailed understanding of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments.

### **3.6.3 Document Analysis**

Documents are important sources of research data. A great deal of the collected knowledge of organizations and programmes is stored in documents (Owen, 2014). As

such, documents serve equally as informants, interviewees or indeed sources of evidence (Wesley, 2010). In the current study, documents were used to expand, triangulate and explain data collected through questionnaires as well as to provide a base from which to develop interview questions. In the majority of cases, documentary evidence acts as a method to cross-validate information gathered from interviews and surveys, given that sometimes what people say may be different from what people are expected to do according to policy (Viswambharan & Priya, 2015). Document analysis initiated data collection for both quantitative and qualitative components. It was assumed that starting with document analysis provided a better understanding of the phenomenon under study as well as other related puzzles which could be explored by questionnaires and in-depth semi-structured interviews.

In this study, the researcher reviewed four documents related to the CFS concept in general, and the education act and policy circulars on learner management strategies in particular. The documents were purposively selected, in recognition of the four criteria for quality documents, which are: authenticity (genuineness and unquestionable source); credibility (free from errors and distortion); representativeness (typical of a kind); and meaning (clear and comprehensible evidence) (Wesley, 2010).

The following documents were analysed:

- a) Zimbabwe's Education Act
- b) The Secretary's Circular P 35 of 1993
- c) The Secretary's Circular No. 5 of 2000
- d) The Director's Circular No. 27 of 2008

Three main procedures were followed in the reviewing of the documents that is, skimming through all documents to become familiar with the contents, generating themes and categories on the principles and standards of the CFS approach from the literature, and ascertaining what was expected of schools and teachers in the promotion of CFS environments in these documents.

### 3.6.4 Alignment of research items

The following Table 3.5 shows the alignment of research questions, objectives, unit of analysis, research instruments, and nature of data.

**Table 3-5: Alignment of research questions, objectives, unit of analysis, instruments and nature of data**

Research Question	Research Objectives	Unit of analysis	Research instrument	Nature of Data
1.How do teachers understand the child-friendly school environments (CFS) concept?	1.Examine teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept.	Teachers Learners	Questionnaire Interview Document analysis	QUAN QUAL
2.How are teachers supported to promote child-friendly environments in schools?	2.Ascertain how teachers are supported to promote of child-friendly environments in schools.	Teachers Learners	Questionnaire Interview	QUAN QUAL
3.What strategies do teachers employ to promote CFS environments?	3.Identify the strategies teachers employ in the promotion of CFS environments.	Teachers Learners	Questionnaire Interview Document analysis	QUAN QUAL
4.What challenges do teachers encounter in the promotion of CFS environments?	4.Examine the challenges encounter in the promotion of CFS environments	Teachers Learners	Questionnaire Interview	QUAN QUAL
5.What are the implications of CFS initiative for teacher professional development?	5.Establish the implications of the CFS concept for teacher professional development	Teachers Learners researcher	Questionnaire Interview Document analysis	QUAN QUAL

## **3.7 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

Before and after collecting research data, the researcher needs to consider the validity and reliability of the data. There are various ways of magnifying the validity and reliability of the instruments, data, and findings of a research study.

### **3.7.1 Validity**

Validity is concerned with whether the research is believable and true and whether it is evaluating what it is supposed or purports to evaluate (Leedy & Ormrod, 2009; Zohrabi, 2013). In other words, validity is an essential criterion for evaluating the quality and acceptability of research. Validity in general, refers to the appropriateness and meaningfulness, correctness, and usefulness of any inferences a researcher draws, based on data obtained through the use of an instrument and processes (Drost, 2011; Leung, 2015). In this regard, the quality of research instruments is very critical because research conclusions are drawn based on the information obtained through the use of the instruments. There are various procedures of boosting the validity of research instruments and the data to be collected, which include: external validity, content validity, and face validity, among others.

#### **3.7.1.1 External validity**

External validity refers to the extent and manner in which the research findings can be generalised to some group of subjects, settings, and times that are not included in the study (Drost, 2011; Crawford & Khorsan, 2014; Leung, 2015). This usually depends on the degree to which the sample represents the population. To ensure high external validity in this study, simple stratified random sampling was employed to select both teacher and learner respondents within each stratum. Relatively large teacher and learner samples were involved to complete the questionnaires to ensure generalisability of findings. The researcher also worked closely with selected school link persons to ensure maximum questionnaire return rate.

#### **3.7.1.2 Content validity**

Content validity refers to qualitative type validity where the domain of the concept is made clear and the analyst judges whether the measures fully represent the domain (Drost, 2011). In other words, this type of validity is a means of ensuring that indicators

tap the meaning of a concept as defined by the researcher. Sireci (2014) describes four aspects of content validity as: domain definition, domain representation, domain relevance, and appropriateness of instrument construction procedures.

*A domain definition* provides the details regarding what the instrument measures and so transforms the theoretical construct to a more concrete content domain. To evaluate the domain definition involves acquiring external consensus that the operational definition underlying the instrument is congruent with prevailing notions of the domain held by experts in the field. On this aspect, the researcher consulted the district CFS inspector on the shared definition of the CFS concept during the reconstruction and modification of the research instruments after the pilot study. To further ensure content validity of the research instruments in this study, the researcher provided a theoretical definition of the CFS concept acceptable to the supervisor, peers, and participants.

*Domain representation* refers to the degree to which an instrument adequately represents and measures the domain as defined in the tool specifications. To evaluate the CFS domain representation, external and independent input was essential. The researcher selected indicators that thoroughly covered the CFS domain and its dimensions. Subject matter expertise was sought from the district CFS inspector in reviewing and rating all the questionnaire and interview items. Essentially, the task of the inspector was to determine if the question items fully and sufficiently represented the targeted domain.

*Domain relevance* addresses the extent to which each item on the instrument is relevant to the targeted domain. An item may measure an important aspect of a content domain and so it would receive high rating with respect to domain representation. For this reason, during pilot study, the district CFS inspector, school head, and G & C focal person were requested to rate the degree to which each question item on both questionnaire and interview guide was relevant to specific sub-themes of the research study. Coupled with domain representation, domain relevance helped to evaluate whether all important aspects of the content domain were measured by the instrument, and whether the instrument contained trivial or irrelevant content. The researcher's

thorough study of content validity, prior to constructing the instruments, helped to avoid these potential imperfections.

*Appropriateness of the instrument development process* refers to all processes used when constructing a research instrument to ensure that the instrument content faithfully and fully represents the construct intended to be measured and does not measure irrelevant material. There should be in place, strong quality control procedures during research instrument development. The supervisor's review input and pilot testing of the instruments helped in the selection of the most appropriate questions and flagging of question items which could be ambiguous and difficult for some sample group.

In order to assess the content validity of the research instruments in this study, the researcher sought the analysis and opinions of fellow PhD candidates and the expert contribution of the supervisor. Further content validity of both the questionnaire and interview guide was ensured by having a composition of questions drawn from each sub-research theme. Comments from pilot study on the nature of questions also helped to improve the content validity of the instruments.

### **3.7.1.3 Face validity**

Face validity refers to the extent to which an instrument looks as if it measures what it is intended to measure (Patton, 2015). This implies that if one looks at an instrument and understands what is being measured, that instrument has face validity. In other words, face validity refers to making common sense, being persuasive and seeming right to the reader (Drost, 2011). In theory, this type of validity refers to instruments or measurements that have the appearance of truth or reality. However, measurement experts generally hold face validity in low regard, maybe because of its vagueness and subjectivity. It should be noted that face validity is used equally in both quantitative and qualitative research because one is looking for what the instrument is measuring. In this study, as a check on face validity, the instruments were sent to the supervisor to obtain suggestions for modification.

### **3.7.1.4 Measures to ensure validity**

The researcher ensured validity of results by measuring external, content and face validity of the results. A number of ways were employed to ensure external validity of



the results. For the selection of respondents within each stratum, simple random sampling was used. Relatively large samples for both teachers and learners were involved in the study, that is, 170 out of 385 for teachers and 145 out of 1430 respectively. The two sets of samples responded to the questionnaires to ensure generalisability of the results. The use of mixed method, research and triangulation of research techniques assisted in ensuring external validity.

With regards to content validity, the researcher employed two strategies. First and foremost, composition of the questionnaire items was drawn from all the sub-themes of the research study to ensure that all the aspects of the problem under study were covered. To enhance the first strategy, the researcher sought teachers' and fellow PhD candidates' assistance to closely assess if the two questionnaires were comprehensively covering all the research questions and whether the question items were clear and precise. Input from the instrument reviewers was incorporated into the final questionnaire version and this was likely to ensure content validity.

Finally, to ensure face validity, the researcher presented the research instruments to the district inspector in charge of school environments to scan through them, checking on the structure of the questionnaire, its length, appropriateness of the preamble, adequacy of instructions, clarity of items, level of difficulty (especially for learners), and legibility of print, among others. Input and contributions on each of the referred to aspects was seriously considered and adopted in order to ensure face validity of the research instruments.

### **3.7.2 Reliability**

Reliability refers to the degree of consistency or accuracy with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure (Drost, 2011; Noble & Smith, 2015). This means that if a study and its results are reliable, the same results would be obtained if the study were to be replicated by other researchers using the same method. However, it should be noted that while reliability in quantitative research refers to exact replicability of the processes and the same results, the essence of reliability for qualitative research lies with consistency (Babbie, 2012; Noble & Smith, 2015). In sum,

reliability is consistency of measurement or stability of measurement over a variety of conditions in which basically the same results should be obtained. In an effort to ascertain the validity and reliability of the research instruments before engaging them in the main study, the researcher conducted a pilot study. Reliability can be measured in different procedures which include: test-retest reliability, inter-rater reliability, and internal consistency reliability, among others.

### **3.7.2.1 Test-retest reliability**

Test-retest reliability focuses on the stability of measurement and is determined by administering a test at two different points in time to the same individuals and determining the correlation or strength of association of the two sets of scores (Droessaert & van-Dinther, 2015). There are two necessary assumptions in test-retest reliability. The first is that the true score does not change between administrations. The second is that the time period between administrations is long enough to prevent learning, carry-over effects, or recall. In short, test-retest reliability is concerned with the repeatability of observations made on, or by individuals (Takaki, Taniguchi & Fujii, 2014). In this method, reliability can either be quantified as the canonical correlation between the two sets of repeated questions or be determined through considering repeated responses within a participant as longitudinal data and compute the intra-class correlation coefficient (ICC) based on a mixed-effects linear model (Vaz, Parsons, Passmore, Andreau & Falkner, 2013). In the current study, neither of these reliability tests was employed. However, Droessart and van-Dinther (2015) argue that there are generally no standard criteria for the interpretation of either canonical correlation or ICC, but a general guideline suggests that values of above 0.75 indicate good to excellent reliability and values below 0.75 correspond to poor to moderate reliability.

### **3.7.2.2 Inter-rater reliability**

Inter-rater reliability is the measurement of the consistency between evaluators in the ordering or relative standing of performance ratings, regardless of the absolute value of each evaluator's rating (Graham, Milanowski & Miller, 2012). In research, this type of reliability is meant to show the magnitude of agreement achieved between data coders (Hallgren, 2012). A significant number of authors concur that the most popular method used for testing inter-rater reliability is correlation. Correlation tests the relationship

between the scores of two raters, which can be achieved by reporting Pearson coefficient, and the relationship among the scores of all the raters can be tested using Cronbach's alpha (Liao, Hunt & Chen, 2010).

### **3.7.2.3 Internal consistency reliability**

This is a measure of how well the items on the instrument measure the same construct or idea. The internal consistency of an instrument indicates whether items on a test that are intended to measure the same construct produce consistent scores or are correlated (Tang, Cui & Babenko, 2014). In this study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated to measure internal consistency reliability of question items of the different sections in the two questionnaires (teachers' and learners' respectively).

The Cronbach's alpha is reliability test score showing the ratio of true score variance and observed score variance (Ritter, 2010). It is usually expressed as a number between 0 and 1, and the acceptable values of alpha range from 0.70 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Khalid, Khan and Mohd-Zain (2012) present detailed categories of Cronbach's alpha reliability values as rules of the thumb, as 0.9 = excellent; 0.8 = good; 0.7 = acceptable; 0.6 = questionable; and 0.5 = poor or unacceptable. The Cronbach's alpha is typically used when the researcher has several Likert-type items that are summed or averaged to make a composite score. It is used in such cases to determine whether items are consistent with one another in a test based on total or average point, to determine whether the items measure a hypothetical variable (Bindak, 2013). In short, the coefficient alpha means a prediction of correlation between two samples drawn randomly from the total items.

Cronbach's alpha is convenient for calculating because it requires only a single measurement given at one time. It is more practical than other reliability coefficients in case of limited time and resources. In the current study, there were five themes to examine teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments and Cronbach's alpha was calculated using the SPSS for each theme or section of the questionnaire for teachers and learners. Pilot study responses were used to measure the internal consistency based on number of items per theme as illustrated in Table 3.6

**Table 3-6: Cronbach’s alpha reliability of internal consistency for Likert-scale sections**

SECTION	Themes	Type of respondents	Cronbach’s Alpha	Number of items
B	Teachers’ understanding of the CFS concept	Teachers	0.7	23
C	School-based support for teachers to promote CFS environments	Teachers	0.8	22
D	Teachers’ strategies to promote CFS environments	Teachers	0.9	15
		Learners	0.7	15
E	Challenges faced by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments	Teachers	0.9	19
		Learners	0.7	10
F	Implications of CFS for teacher professional development	Teachers	0.8	16

Sections D and E of teachers’ questionnaire had excellent Cronbach’s alpha reliability value of 0.9 while sections C and F had a good reliability value of 0.8. Only section B had an acceptable reliability value of 0.7. The values ensured the researcher valid and credible data collection. For the learners’ questionnaire, the calculated reliability value for the two sections was an acceptable 0.7, which again ensured collection of reliable data.

#### **3.7.2.4 Pre-testing research instruments**

In order to ascertain the validity and reliability of the research instruments, a pre-test of the research instruments was undertaken before embarking on full scale data collection of the main study. A pilot study refers to a small scale test of the methods and procedures to be used on large scale (Hazzi & Maldaon, 2015). The main importance of a pilot study lies in improving the quality and the efficiency of the main study. In short, a pilot study can be used as a small version of a full-scale study or trial run in preparation for the main study. Pilot study is essentially a feasibility study of the tools and the process of implementing them (Kumur, 2011). In the current study, the pilot study was conducted to afford the researcher an opportunity to revisit the research instruments with the intention of ensuring their validity and reliability. The exercise also assisted in

improving the clarity and precision of the question items, numbering of the question items per section, noting of any omissions on the instruments, and identifying any logistical challenges that could negatively affect the main study.

The pilot study was conducted with 15 learners, 20 teachers, a school head, and 1 G & C focal person from a local government secondary school, who did not participate in the main study. Both teachers and learners managed to complete the questionnaires within the stipulated 30 and 40 minutes respectively. Most questions seemed clear and were easily understood, but it emerged that the CFS concept required some unpacking for learners in order for them to give relevant data which addressed the demands of the research questions. As a result, a preamble of the CFS concept was given on the questionnaire just after the instructions. In the actual study, teacher interviewees were asked to define the CFS concept as part of assessing their understanding of the concept. Besides having a preamble in the learners' questionnaire, some question items in the teachers' questionnaire were adjusted, rephrased or completely dropped. Improvements made on the research instruments are shown in Table 3. 7.

**Table 3-7: Improvements on data collection instruments after pilot study**

Type of instrument	Nature of correction effected	Item before pilot testing	Item improvement after pilot testing
Learners' questionnaire	Preamble of the CFS concept	No preamble	Child-friendly schools (CFS) concept is an international educational intervention with a mandate to promote school curriculum implementation processes; conditions; policies; rules and regulations; teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interactions that serve the best interest of the learners and uphold the rights of the child.
Teachers' questionnaire	Question relevance	Comment on what you know about any one of the listed national policies	Choose any one of the listed national policies and show how it relates to the CFS concept.
Teachers'	Question clarity	Measuring levels of	Measuring levels of agreement to the

questionnaire		priority in the training of CFS principles	ranking of CFS principles: SA; A ;U; D; SD
	Merging of questions 12 & 13	Q 12 rating of teachers' knowledge of the CFS concept Q 13 rating the importance of the CFS	Q 11 rate the level of your understanding of each of the six CFS principles on a five point scale
Interview schedule for G & C teachers	Interview method	Note-taking	Voice recording
Interview schedule for school heads	Interview schedule sections alignment	Section D interview questions focusing on teachers' strategies	Section D interview questions focusing on teachers' challenges in the promotion of CFS environments

### 3.7.3 Data trustworthiness

In qualitative research, the terms validity and reliability are also applicable, with validity referring to the integrity and application of the methods undertaken and the precision with which the findings accurately reflect the data. Reliability describes the consistency within the employed analytic procedures (Noble & Smith, 2015). However, unlike quantitative researchers who apply statistical methods for establishing validity and reliability of research findings, qualitative researchers aim to design and incorporate methodological strategies to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings (Anney, 2014; Loh, 2013). Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose four alternatives for assessing the trustworthiness of data in qualitative research, that is, credibility, dependability, conformability, and transferability.

#### 3.7.3.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to the confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings (Macnee & McCabe, 2008). It establishes whether or not the research findings represent plausible information drawn from the participants' original data and is a correct interpretation of the participants' original views (Anney, 2014). According to Merriam (2009), the aspect of credibility deals with the question "How congruent are the findings with reality?" There are a number of credibility strategies a researcher can employ, which include: prolonged and varied field experience, pilot study, reflexivity,

triangulation, member checking, peer examination, frequent debriefing, establishing authority of researcher, and structural coherence. In this study, not all of the mentioned credibility strategies were employed. With regard to prolonged and varied field experience, the researcher developed an early familiarity with the culture of participants before data collection dialogues took place. Since the seven government secondary schools were in town and relatively close to the researcher's workplace, preliminary visits to the schools were done just to get an overview of the school cultures. Pilot testing of the interview schedule was another strategy the researcher employed to ensure credibility of findings. Pilot-testing ensures that a research instrument can be used properly and that the information obtained will be consistent (Simon, 2011). In this study, the credibility triangulation strategy was effected through the use of a wide range of informants, that is, teachers, school heads, G & C focal persons and learners, all to provide data on teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. There was also triangulation of interview responses and responses from open-ended questions in both teacher and learner questionnaires. Member checks of data transcripts to assess accuracy were conducted on the spot, in the course, and at the end of data collection dialogues. This was done through making informants read the transcripts of dialogues to which they participated to check on expression misrepresentation. Last but not least, frequent debriefing sessions between the researcher and the supervisor to get input on alternative approaches were consistently employed.

### **3.7.3.2 Transferability**

Transferability refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts with other participants. It is believed to be the interpretive equivalent of generalisability (Anney, 2014). The researcher is supposed to facilitate the transferability judgment by a potential use through thick description and purposeful sampling. In the majority of cases, the small samples in qualitative research are usually deemed unsuitable for generalisability. However, some researchers argue that transferability is all about the researcher's ability to demonstrate how, in terms of the contextual data the case study locations compare with other environments (Loh, 2013, Merriam, 2009 & Yin, 2011). In the case of the current study, the number of schools involved was significant and acceptable for the results to be transferable. Provision of

thick description of the phenomenon under study was used as a strategy to ensure transferability of findings. The researcher gave detailed description of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments representing the actual teacher experiences in the seven government secondary schools. The criteria used for the selection of research participants were well elaborated to justify the inclusion of specific informants who were thought strategic and relevant.

#### **3.7.3.3 Dependability**

Dependability is closely related to credibility, since demonstration of credibility goes some distance in ensuring dependability (Yin, 2011). Dependability refers to the stability of findings over time. It involves participants' evaluation of the findings, interpretations and recommendations of the study to make sure that they are all supported by the data collected (Cohen et al, 2011). Dependability can be established using; audit trail, code-recode, overlapping methods, and ensuring that the processes are reported in detail to enable future researchers to repeat the work or gain same results (Anney, 2014 & Yin, 2011). In the current study, the researcher ensured dependability of findings by adequately explaining the research design and its implementation.

#### **3.7.3.4 Confirmability**

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results of an inquiry could be confirmed or corroborated by other researchers. It is concerned with establishing that data and interpretations of the findings are not figments of the researcher's imagination, but is clearly derived from the data (Macnee & McCabe, 2008; Merriam, 2009). In other words, confirmability is all about the researcher's comparable concern for objectivity. According to Bowen (2010), confirmability can be achieved through an audit trail, reflexive journal and triangulation. In the current research, triangulation of research approaches, instruments and sources (participants) was employed to promote confirmability and reduce researcher bias. With regard to audit trail, the researcher maintained a log of all research activities, developed memos, and documented all data collection and analysis procedures throughout the study. This approach enabled the researcher to reflect on how the study was unfolding.



### **3.7.3.5 Measures to ensure data trustworthiness**

A number of measures were employed in this study to ensure credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of data. The use of a pilot tested semi-structured interview guide with voluntary participants ensured data credibility. The researcher strove to produce thick descriptions of the problem under study with the intention of capturing the actual teacher experiences in relation to the CFS concept. Also, the researcher's collaboration with the supervisor, peers and CFS experts assisted in providing more relevant insights for necessary improvements, thus heightening the aspect of credibility.

The researcher precisely described the selection of relevant participants to be involved in this study, duration time for data collection, and the number of sessions to be conducted. All was done to ensure transferability of the research findings. Interview data transcripts were made as detailed as possible and were kept safely for necessary revisits. By doing so, the researcher ensured dependability and confirmability of findings.

## **3.8 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES**

In this study, data were concurrently collected. Through the use of school link persons, the researcher visited each school at most three times, to administer semi-structured questionnaires to both teachers and learners, and conduct face-to-face interviews with school heads and G & C focal persons.

### **3.8.1 Data collection procedures using questionnaires**

All the seven government secondary schools involved in this study were in Mutare urban location and relatively close to the researcher's workplace and residence. The furthest school was about twelve kilometres. The proximity of the schools made it convenient for the researcher to hand-deliver the questionnaires to the selected respondents at each school. During the other two visits, the researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with the school head and the school G & C focal person. During the first school visit, the researcher collected the completed questionnaires and that

guaranteed a high return rate. For any outstanding unreturned questionnaires, the researcher requested the school link person to do a follow-up.

### **3.8.2 Data collection procedures using semi-structured interviews**

In order to create a shared vision of the phenomenon under study with the interviewees, the researcher had a 'joining' dialogue before the commencement of each interview session. Each interview participant was given a consent form to read through and then sign to confirm their willingness to participate in the study. The researcher made an effort to conduct the interviews in appropriate settings and the sessions took 30 to 40 minutes. With the permission of interviewees, the interview sessions were voice recorded in order to accurately capture the responses and allow revisiting whenever required. Data collected through interviews was transcribed within two days in order to retain the contextual freshness.

## **3.9 DATA ANALYSIS**

The current research adopted a mixed method research (MMR) approach, which means it had three types of data, that is, quantitative data, qualitative data, and mixed data. Quantitative data was obtained from standardized survey with close-ended questions, whereas qualitative data comprised all kinds of non-numerical or verbal data from transcripts of open-ended interviews. Mixed data came from the semi-structured questionnaires which had both standardized and open-ended questions. In light of the above research status, the researcher employed mixed analysis. Mixed analysis involves the use of both quantitative and qualitative analytic techniques within the same framework which is guided either a priori, a posteriori, or iteratively (Green, 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Combs, 2011). In this approach, the researcher had to be adept at analysing both QUAN and QUAL data collected, as well as integrating the results that stem from both components analysis in a coherent and meaningful way that yields strong meta-inferences (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

### **3.9.1 Analysis of QUAN data.**

Quantitative data analysis seeks to understand and explain connections (Bettis, Gambardella, Helfat & Mitchell, 2014). Summary tables and basic descriptive and

inferential statistics are powerful ways of analysing QUAN data. It is also believed that most primary relationships are evident in contingency tables and correlation matrices. There are various statistical tools that can be used to analyse QUAN data, such as Excel and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The tools referred to were employed in the current study to present descriptive statistics on teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. Inferential statistics, in the form of Chi-square test, was calculated in some tables to detect trends in data and make inferences from the characteristics of the teachers involved to the characteristics of the entire teacher population in relation to their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

In the current study, means and standard deviations were calculated for each item to establish which are more positive or negative. The number of respondents to each questionnaire item in the tables varies due to some non-responses to certain items.

### **3.9.2 Analysis of QUAL data**

Qualitative data analysis is an iterative, ongoing process, with the goal of analytically reducing large amounts of data from either interviews, focus group discussions or observations to make data manageable (Hoyos & Barnes, 2012; Lacey & Luff, 2009). The reduction of data can be done through producing summaries, abstracts, codes and memos. There are multiple analytic styles, such as narrative analysis, thematic content analysis, framework analysis, and grounded theory analysis, among others. The goal is for researchers to seek relationships between various themes that have been identified, or to relate behaviour or ideas to biographical characteristics of participants, such as, age, gender, qualification or job experience (Lacey & Luff, 2009).

#### **3.9.2.1 Grounded theory**

This is an inductive analysis process in which the testing of an emerging theory against existing theories or against further analysis of data is carried out. In this analytic style, the resulting theory "emerges" from the data through a process of rigorous and structured analysis (Hoyos & Barnes, 2012). At the heart of this type of analysis is the idea of the constant comparative method. In this procedure, concepts or categories emerging from one stage of the data analysis are compared with concepts emerging from the next. The researcher continues with the process of constant comparison until

they reach the theoretical saturation, that is, when no new significant categories or concepts are emerging. This strategy was not employed in the current study.

### **3.9.2.2 Narrative analysis**

Narrative analysis is a form of qualitative analysis in which the researcher focuses on how participants impose order in their lives and actions in which they have participated (Bold, 2012). It aims to investigate, not just how stories are structured and the ways in which they work, but also who produces them and by what means. Analysis is also done on the mechanisms by which they are consumed, and how narratives are silenced, contested or accepted (Robert, 2014). In other words, narrative analysis is concerned with narration as an active process of meaning-making, ordering and structuring of experience. Despite its analytic interpretive attributes, this style was not used in this study.

### **3.9.2.3 Thematic content analysis**

Thematic content analysis is a descriptive presentation of qualitative data. It is an analytic strategy used to analyse classifications and present themes (patterns) that relate to the data. This means that it is a process that involves cutting across data in search of patterns and themes by giving all units of data a particular code (Ibrahim, 2012; Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas, 2013). Thematic content analysis illustrates the data in great detail and deals with diverse subjects via interpretations. It can be flexibly applied to enable both surface (descriptive) and in- depth (interpretive) analysis as required (Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas, 2013). By so doing, this strategy gives the researcher an opportunity to understand the potential of any issue more widely, thus, allowing the researcher to determine precisely the relationships between concepts and compare them with the replicated data. In recognition of its strengths, this data analysis technique was employed to cater for the qualitative data component in the current study. It was also employed in the analysis of documents.

In the current study, data from interviews was transcribed within the shortest possible time after the interview sessions. Thematic content analysis and open-coding system was used to analyse data. Categories or themes established were assessed on how

they converged or diverged on issues relating to the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.

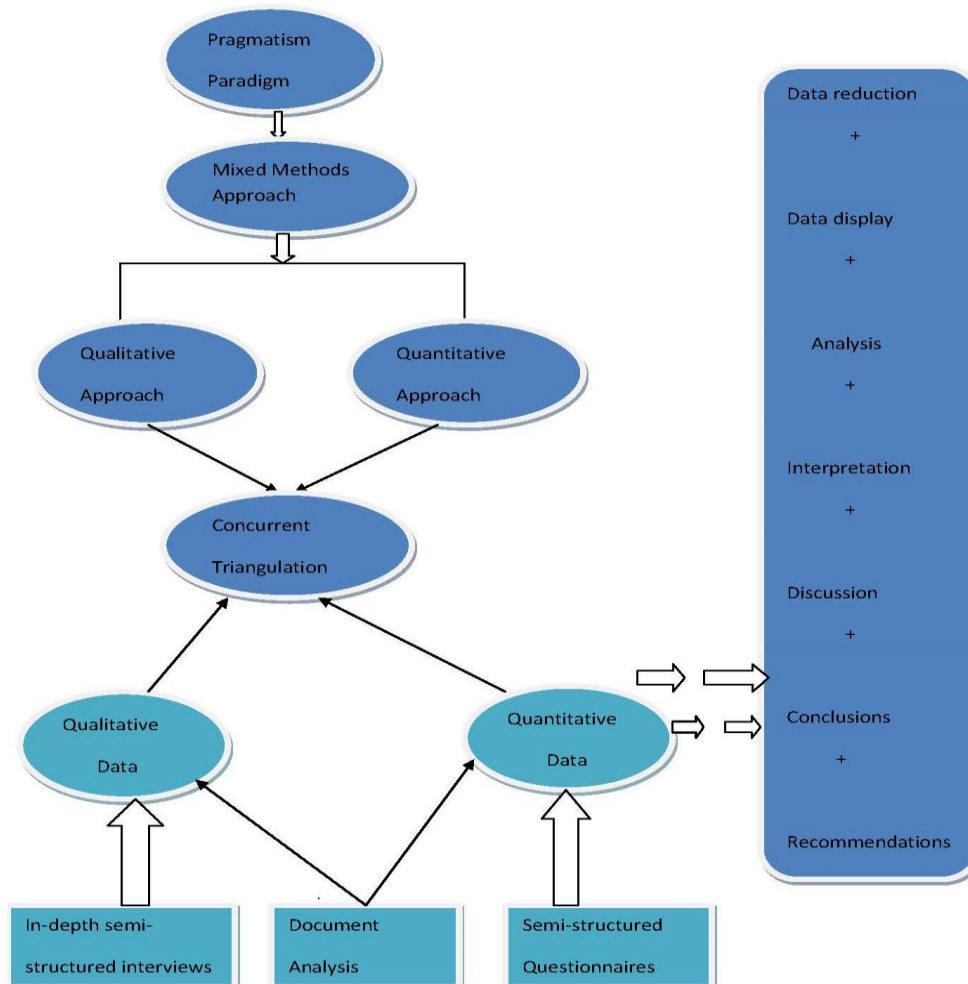
### **3.10 ETHICAL ISSUES**

In order to protect the physical and mental integrity of the participants, and to respect their moral and cultural values, a number of ethical considerations were adhered to. First and foremost, the researcher obtained an ethical clearance from Fort Hare University. Thereafter, she sought permission from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, the Provincial Education Director, District Schools Inspector, and the school heads in written form. Participants were briefed on the purpose and procedures of the study, their roles in the study, and how they were likely to benefit from the research findings. Participation was voluntary and a free way to withdraw at any time of participants' choice without suffering victimisation was assured. Participants were assured that their names and letters of informed consent were to be kept confidentially and their responses would be used solely for the purposes of this current study. And to enhance ethical measures, data collected was safely kept for verification if need arose. The researcher also made an effort to produce a report free from bias towards any group of participants and provided certain offices with copies of the research document.

### **3.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter, the researcher discussed and justified the research methodology which was used in the current study. The researcher discussed the pragmatic research paradigm, the mixed methods approach, and the concurrent triangulation research design which guided and directed the current study. Philosophical assumptions of pragmatism in relation to the epistemological, ontological, axiological and methodological stances were discussed. Attributes of a semi-structured questionnaire and an in-depth semi-structured interview, research instruments used in data collection, were also discussed. Issues of data and results validity and reliability were also discussed. Data collection and data analysis procedures were discussed and measures to ensure ethical conduct were highlighted. In the following chapter, the researcher presents, interprets and discusses research findings. Both quantitative and qualitative

data mark the point of interface where the two data sets were integrated for interpretation and reporting of the results. Figure 3.3 gives a diagrammatic summary representation of the research methodology this study adopted.



**Figure 3-3:** A summary diagram of the research methodology adopted in the study.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to explore the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly school environments. In the previous chapter, a description of the research paradigm, approach and design that shaped the study was presented, and a justification for the methodological decisions made was discussed. All other methodological procedures followed in gathering and analysis of data were discussed. In this chapter, guided by the objectives of the study and following procedures outlined in the previous chapter, data gathered using questionnaires, interviews and document analysis are presented, analysed, interpreted and discussed.

Semi-structured questionnaires were administered to teachers and learners. The questionnaire instrument for teachers was divided into six sections; the first section addressed the biographical variables of the respondents to provide the context in which information was gathered. The last five sections covered the guiding sub-research questions which included teachers' understanding of the child-friendly school environment concept, school-based support for teachers to promote CFS environments, teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments, challenges hindering teachers' promotion of CFS environments, and implications for teacher professional development. A total of 170 questionnaires were administered to teachers inclusive of trainee teachers, and a total of 163 were returned constituting a return rate of 95.9% which is very high in comparison to 50% which is considered acceptable (Fan and Yan, 2010). Millar and Dillman (2011) also posit that depending on how rigorous and how long the surveys are, the acceptable response rate ranges from as low as 10% to as high as 65%. The high return rate in this study could be attributed to the commitment and work relations of the selected link-persons in their respective schools. The questionnaire for learners had three sections, section A covered biographical variables of the respondents, and the last two sections solicited learners' views on teachers'

strategies, and on challenges hindering teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. The 145 questionnaires were personally administered to learners during class time to make sure that they were completed and returned as the researcher waited to ensure non-discussion of responses. A total of 143 of the questionnaires were returned representing a return rate of 98.6% which again was high and is most likely to give very valid results. Despite the excellent questionnaires return rate, it was noted that many respondents, from both teachers and learners, did not answer the open-ended questions which could have slightly compromised the validity of the results. It also emerged that some teacher respondents chose not to give responses to certain question items, especially in the last two sections of the questionnaire. This resulted in variations in the number of respondents to each item in some tables. This shortfall was compensated for by the interview questions and responses.

The in-depth semi-structured interview guide was used with 7 school heads and 7 Guidance & Counselling focal persons, addressing the same aspects as those of the questionnaire, as a follow-up to enhance and confirm the responses obtained from teachers and learners. The two sets of data were analysed independently and merged at interpretation.

## **4.2 BIOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS AND PARTICIPANTS**

In order to obtain a deep understanding of responses and comments of respondents, it is important to be aware of their biographical characteristics which include their gender, age, position of responsibility, highest academic and professional qualifications, and work experience. The biographic characteristics provided the context in which information was gathered. The biographical data of teachers, learners, school heads and G & C focal persons is presented on Tables 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 respectively.



**Table 4-1: Distribution of Biographical characteristics of teacher respondents (N=163)**

Biographical variable	Variable description	Frequency	Percentage%
Gender	Male	57	35.2
	Female	106	64.8
<b>Total</b>		<b>163</b>	<b>100</b>
Age	25 and below	16	9.8
	26-30	17	10.4
	31-35	29	17.8
	36-40	25	15.4
	41-50	62	38.0
	51 and above	14	8.6
	<b>Total</b>		<b>163</b>
Highest academic qualification	“O” Level	27	16.6
	“A” Level	48	29.4
	Bachelor’s Degree	72	44.2
	Master’s Degree	13	8.0
	Other (BTECH)	3	1.8
	<b>Total</b>		<b>163</b>
Highest professional qualification	Certificate in Education	24	14.7
	Diploma in Education	83	50.9
	Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE)	25	15.4
	Undergoing training	31	19.0
	<b>Total</b>		<b>163</b>
Position of responsibility	Subject teacher	45	27.6
	Class teacher	69	42.2
	Head of Department	25	15.4
	Senior teacher	21	12.8
	Deputy head	1	0.8
	Other (Hostel warden)	2	1.2
<b>Total</b>		<b>163</b>	<b>100</b>
Teaching experience	Below 1 year	38	23.3
	1-2 years	8	4.9
	3-4 years	4	2.5

	5-6 years	9	5.5
	7 years and above	104	63.8
<b>Total</b>		<b>163</b>	<b>100</b>
Type of school	Boarding Only	0	0.0
	Boarding & Day	58	41.9
	Day Only	105	58.1
<b>Total</b>		<b>163</b>	<b>100</b>

It is clear from Table 4.1 that there were more female teacher respondents 106 (64.8%) than male teacher respondents of 57 (35.2%). This reflected a gender imbalance skewed towards females as indicated in the teacher population Table 3.4 in Chapter 3. The skew towards females was more pronounced in Guidance and Counselling responsibilities in which all the seven focal persons were ladies. However, this gender imbalance of interviewees was compensated for by five male school heads against two female school heads. For the purposes of this study, however, the participation of both male and female teachers was vital as it enabled the researcher to get balanced views, perceptions and experiences on their role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments.

As shown in the table, a significant number 62 (38.0%) of the teacher respondents fell within the age range of 41-50. This represented a cohort of relatively old and may be mature teachers who could be more concerned with the academic and social welfare of learners. Table 4.1 further shows that the majority of the teacher respondents were holders of a Bachelor's 72 (44.2%) and a Masters' 13 (8.0%) degree constituting a total of 85 (52.2%) degreed teachers. The teachers' degree qualifications made the researcher to assume that they would be having sound understanding of child rights education and would most likely appreciate their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

All the other teacher respondents, except trainee teachers, were professionally qualified with either a Certificate in Education 24 (14.7%) or Diploma in Education 83 (50.9%) with 25 (15.4%) being qualified teachers with a Post-Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE). These teachers had presumably studied child development component during

training and were likely to provide relevant information on teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments.

The same table, Table 4.1 illustrates teacher respondents' positions of responsibility in their respective schools. There were 69 (42.2%) class teachers, 25 (15.4%) heads of departments, 21 (12.8%) senior teachers, 1 (0.8%) deputy school head, and 2 (1.2 %) hostel wardens. All these different categories of special responsibilities ensured the researcher a representation of diverse experiences of teachers in their role to promote of CFS environments.

In terms of teaching or work related experience, 104 (63.8%) had 7 years and above experience, which could have a significant influence in their opinions with regard to teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. This cohort of teachers was already in service when the Zimbabwean government first embraced the CFS approach in 2009 and a significant number could have got an opportunity to attend workshops related to this curriculum initiative.

The majority of teacher respondents 105 (58.1%) was in day only schools and the minority 58 (41.9) was in schools offering both boarding and day services. This variation was of importance because it enabled the researcher to tap the experiences of teachers in both school settings in relation to their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

**Table 4-2: Distribution of biographic characteristics of learner respondents (N=143)**

Biographical variable	Variable description	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender	Male	66	46.5
	Female	77	53.5
<b>Total</b>		<b>143</b>	<b>100</b>
Age	15 and below	26	18.4
	16-17 years	106	74.6
	18 and above	11	7.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>143</b>	<b>100</b>
Form	Form 3	61	43.0
	Form 4	82	57.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>143</b>	<b>100</b>

School composition	Boys only	22	15.5
	Girls only	17	12.0
	Boys and Girls	104	72.5
<b>Total</b>		<b>143</b>	<b>100</b>
Position of responsibility	School captain	2	1.4
	Vice school captain	3	2.1
	Prefect	21	14.8
	Class monitor/representative	15	10.6
	None	102	71.1
<b>Total</b>		<b>143</b>	<b>100</b>

Learners are the major beneficiaries of the CFS approach, hence, all that teachers do in promoting it should be confirmed by learners who are the recipients of teachers' effort. It can be observed from the biographic variables of learners that the respondents were drawn from varied backgrounds. There were more female learners 77 (53.5%) than male learners 66 (46.5%). The statistics reflect the learner gender distribution in Mutare urban government secondary schools where there are more girls than boys. The majority of these learners 106 (74.6%) were in the 16-17 years age group which constitutes the middle adolescent stage. A few 15 (18.4%) were aged within 15 and below age range and it was observed that there was a group of learners 11 (7.0%) aged 18 years and above. Although according to legislation, these were no longer children, but they were suitable and relevant according to this study's definition of terms.

The learner respondents were a representation of the "O" level category, 61 (43.0%) Form 3 and 82 (57.0%) Form 4. Respondents were also drawn from schools with a varied learner population. There were 104 (72.5%) learners from schools with both boys and girls, 22 (15.5%) from boys only and 17 (12.0%) from girls only schools. It is therefore clear that learner respondents were quite representative of their specific school settings on the issues under investigation.

A significant number of learner respondents held different school positions of responsibility ranging from 2 (1.4%) school captains, 3 (2.1%) vice school captains, 21 (14.8%) prefects, and 15 (10.6%) class monitors. The majority 102 (71.1%) had no

positions of responsibility. These varied positions ensured the researcher varied opinions from the sample on teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments and learners' support to ensure existence of such environments.

**Table 4-3: Distribution of school heads participants by gender, age, teaching and heading experiences, academic and professional qualifications**

Participant	Gender	Age in years	Teaching experience	School head experience	Highest academic qualification	Highest professional qualification
R1	Male	52	9	19	B.Ed	Dip in Education
R2	Female	49	22	7	BA	Cert in Education
R3	Male	59	6	25	M Educ Admin	Cert in Education
R4	Male	44	18	7	M.Ed	Dip in Education
R5	Male	54	10	18	M.Ed	Cert in Education
R6	Male	56	9	19	M.Educational Management	Cert in Education
R7	Female	59	29	6	Master in Pub Management	Cert in Education

From Table 4.3, it is evident that all the interviewed school heads were holders of a degree either at undergraduate or postgraduate level, with varied number of years in both teaching and administration. These academic qualifications made the participants confident in their administration positions and were at ease in responding to questions which probed their role in the promotion of CFS environments. All the school heads were professionally qualified holding either a Certificate in Education (C.E), Diploma in Education (D.E) or Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE). This assured the researcher of professional responses to the interview questions. Two female and five male school heads were interviewed which allowed a balanced representation of data from different gender concerning the problem under study.

**Table 4-4: Distribution of Guidance & Counselling focal person participants by gender, age, teaching and heading experiences, and academic and professional qualifications**

Participant	Gender	Age in years	Teaching experience	G & C Focal person experience	Highest academic qualification	Highest professional qualification
GC1	Female	47	24	4	“O” Level	Dip in Education
GC2	Female	50	25	8	BSc in Counselling	Dip in Education
GC3	Female	42	20	2	BA	PGDE
GC4	Female	46	23	7	“O” Level	Dip in Education
GC5	Female	48	24	8	“O” Level	Dip in Education
GC6	Female	51	25	Less than 1 yr	M Educ Admin	Dip in Education
GC7	Female	47	23	Less than 1 yr	BA	PGDE

Table 4.4 shows details of the seven Guidance and Counselling focal persons who participated in the study for the generation of qualitative data. Of great interest was that all of them were females which led the researcher to an assumption that ladies are more involved or pro-active in the caring and welfare of learners in different aspects of school life. Another striking observation was that all of the female teachers had more than twenty years of teaching experience and less than ten years as G & C focal persons. The vast teaching experience of these participants meant that these were very senior and mature teachers who were likely to provide valid data for the study. One of these participants was a holder of a Master’s degree in Educational Management, three had undergraduate degrees and the other three had “O” level as their highest academic qualification. This diversity in academic qualifications was likely to give diverse ideas about the CFS environment concept. All the seven teachers were professionally qualified with five of them holding Diploma in Education and the other two holding Post-Graduate Diploma in Education qualifications. This professional qualifications diversity also assisted the researcher in collecting qualitative data from participants who were aware of what was expected of their profession and the roles and responsibilities attached to that. Their interview responses helped to address the demands of all the research questions in terms of their role and practice in the promotion of CFS

environments. The next sections present and analysed at a collected in line with the sub-research questions that guided the study in answering the main research question.

### **4.3 RESULTS ON TEACHERS' LEVEL OF UNDERSTANDING OF THE CFS ENVIRONMENTS CONCEPT**

This section presents data on teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept with reference to both international human rights declarations and local national education policies which inform and direct the concept. The focus was to assess teachers' level of awareness, familiarity and accessibility to these instruments in an attempt to answer the first research question of the study.

#### **4.3.1 Quantitative results on teachers' level of understanding of the CFS environments concept**

It was revealed in Chapter 2 that the CFS concept is heavily informed by a number of international human rights treaties or declarations and some local national education policies. In an effort to appreciate teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments, quantitative data was collected and analysed to establish how teachers understood the CFS environment concept and what they required to gain the expected understanding of the concept. In order to capture the teachers' level of understanding the CFS environment concept, and to address the demands of the first research question: 'How do teachers understand the CFS environments concept?' respondents were made to answer eight items in question 7 and seven items in question 8. The items elicited responses on teachers' level of familiarity with the international human rights treaties or declarations and with Zimbabwe education policies which inform and enhance the CFS concept. Teachers responded to a five-point Likert scale ranging from very familiar to not familiar at all. Table 4.5 presents data on teachers' familiarity with the international instruments which inform the CFS concept which was also an indicator of their understanding of their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

**Table 4-5: Responses on teachers' level of familiarity with the international human rights treaties that inform the CFS concept**

International human rights treaty	VF	F	MF	SLF	NF	Total	M	ST.D
United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (UNDHR)	14 (8.6)	53 (32.5)	40 (24.5)	37 (22.7)	19 (11.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.41	1.065
Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)	14 (8.6)	54 (33.1)	43 (26.4)	30 (18.4)	22 (13.5)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.05	1.185
Convention against Discrimination in Education (CDE)	18 (11.0)	39 (23.9)	40 (24.5)	35 (21.5)	31 (19.1)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.87	1.284
Convention against torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment	27 (16.5)	36 (22.1)	40 (24.5)	41 (25.2)	19 (11.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.07	1.267
Education for All (EFA)	81 (49.7)	37 (22.7)	15 (9.1)	20 (12.4)	10 (6.1)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.98	1.281
The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (ACHPR)	13 (7.8)	42 (25.9)	44 (27.0)	30 (18.4)	34 (20.9)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.85	1.253
African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Children (ACRWC)	14 (8.6)	44 (27.0)	48 (29.5)	27 (16.5)	30 (18.4)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.91	1.231
UNICEF Child-friendly Schools (CFS) Manual	29 (17.8)	36 (22.1)	38 (23.3)	28 (17.2)	32 (19.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.01	1.379

VF=Very Familiar; F=Familiar; MF=Moderately Familiar; SLF=Slightly Familiar; NF=Not Familiar at all; M=Mean; ST. D=Standard Deviation. (Mean: 1- 2.4 =Low; 2.5 – 3.4=Moderate; 3.5 – 5=High)

The findings presented in Table 4.5 revealed that teachers were at varied levels of familiarity with different international human rights treaties that inform the CFS approach confirmed by the calculated mean scores. 5 out of the 8 items had mean scores ranging from 3.01 to 3.41 which is less than 3.5, which signified that teachers had moderate familiarity with most of the international human rights treaties that inform the CFS approach. Only 3 items had mean scores of between 2.85 and 2.91 which was above a low of 2.4, which indicated that teachers were slightly familiar with the Convention



Against Discrimination in Education, African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, and African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Children. The varied levels of familiarity with these treaties also meant varied teacher understanding of the CFS concept. 67(41.1%) respondents indicated that they were familiar with the UNDHR treaty, a result which signified that teachers had some knowledge of human rights issues. However, a handful of the respondents 19 (11.7%) expressed no knowledge of the instrument which enforces recognition of human rights upon which most of the CFS principles are heavily dependent. Teachers' responses on their familiarity with the CRC treaty revealed that 111 (68.1%) had moderate to high familiarity, with a calculated mean value of 3.05. The findings portrayed a positive indicator in teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. Some teachers 52 (31.9%) expressed low to zero familiarity the CRC treaty which guides and directs the CFS approach. On the CDE treaty, teachers confirmed that they generally had moderate familiarity, with a calculated mean (standard deviation) of 2.87 (1.284). It emerged that most teachers had some knowledge of the EFA treaty as evidenced by 133 (81.6%) indicating moderate to high familiarity with this popular international treaty. The responses had a calculated mean (standard deviation) of 3.98 (1.281). The findings revealed that teachers had sound background of the CFS principle of equal accessibility to education for all children. Teacher respondents also portrayed moderate to slight familiarity of the ACPHR treaty which scored a calculated mean of 2.85

Another international treaty where teachers showed encouraging level of familiarity was the ACRWC. 106 (65.1%) confirmed that they had moderate to high familiarity of the instrument which was quite positive and requisite for their role in the promotion of the CFS environments in the African context. 57 (34.9%) expressed limited to no familiarity at all with this African tailored international treaty which could compromise their role in the promotion of CFS environments. When requested to show their level of familiarity with the UNICEF CFS international manual guide, 103 (63.2%) indicated that they had some moderate to high familiarity of this guide. A significant number 60 (36.8%) of teachers reported that they had no familiarity with the CFS manual guide; a scenario which was likely to negatively impact on their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

Generally, the findings from the teachers' responses on their level of familiarity with the international treaties that inform the CFS environments concept suggested that the teacher respondents had some significant background of the CFS approach. However, for those teachers who lacked adequate familiarity with these CFS related treaties, it could have negatively impacted their understanding and appreciation of the CFS environments concept.

**Table 4-6: Responses on teachers' level of familiarity with Zimbabwean national education policies that enhance the CFS environments concept**

Zimbabwe national education policy	VF	F	MF	SLF	NF	Total	M	ST.D
Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan for girls, orphans, and vulnerable children (2010 – 2015)	14 (8.6)	48 (29.5)	44 (27.0)	29 (17.8)	28 (23.3)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.94	1.229
Zimbabwe Education Act 1987	28 (17.2)	56 (34.3)	25 (15.2)	34 (20.9)	20 (12.4)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.23	1.298
Children's Protection and Adoption Act 5:06 of 1997.	8 (4.9)	28 (17.2)	44 (27.0)	38 (23.3)	45 (27.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.47	1.203
Secretary's Circular No. P35 of 1993	24 (14.7)	48 (29.5)	45 (27.7)	25 (15.2)	21 (12.9)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.18	1.237
Secretary's Circular No. 5 of 2000	12 (7.4)	27 (16.5)	37 (22.7)	35 (21.5)	52 (31.9)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.46	1.292
Director's Circular No. 27 of 2008	4 (2.5)	14 (8.6)	40 (24.5)	37 (22.7)	68 (41.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.01	1.109
Zimbabwe National Constitution: Amendment No. 20 : 2013	14 (8.6)	30 (18.4)	24 (14.7)	35 (21.5)	60 (36.8)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.40	1.368

VF=Very Familiar; F= Familiar; MF=Moderately Familiar; SLF=Slightly Familiar; NF=Not Familiar at all; M=Mean; ST.D=Standard Deviation. (Mean: 1- 2.4 =Low; 2.5 – 3.4=Moderate; 3.5 – 5=High)

Table 4.6 presents responses on teachers' levels of familiarity with the national education policies derived from the international human rights treaties meant to enhance the CFS approach in Zimbabwean schools. The results revealed a significant contrast in the levels of familiarity with those in Table 4.5. 4 out of the 7 items had calculated mean scores of between 2.01 and 2.47 which is less than 2.5. This showed that teachers had slight familiarity levels with most of the national CFS related policies including Children's Protection and Adoption Act 5.06 of 1997, Secretary's Circular No. 5 of 2000, Director's Circular No. 27 of 2008, and Zimbabwe National Constitution No. 20 of 2013, which could negatively impact on their role in the promotion of CFS environments. The other remaining 3 items had mean scores of between 2.94 and 3.23, which again was less than 3.5, and indicated that teachers had moderate familiarity with Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan for girls, orphans, and vulnerable children (2010-2015), Secretary's Circular No P35 of 1993, and Zimbabwe's Education Act of 1987.

The Zimbabwean government had a five-year national strategic plan for girls, orphans and other vulnerable children enforcing their enrolment and protection in school. 106 (65.1%) indicated that they had moderate to high familiarity with this document. The researcher assumed that teachers got exposure to this document from workshops organized by some non-governmental organisations. However, a significant number 57 (41.1%) confirmed having very limited familiarity with the same instrument. The Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 guided and directed the education system from a few years after independence. A majority of 109 (66.7%) teachers, with a moderate mean of 3.23, indicated moderate to high familiarity with the Act. The findings made the researcher assume that most of the senior teachers in the service could have had an opportunity of interacting with the instrument in their line of duty due to long working experience. Teachers' familiarity levels with the Children's Protection and Adoption Act, which is a legal framework of childcare, was very low, with a calculated mean of 2.47. Only a handful of 36 (22.1%) expressed high familiarity with this Act. However, on a more positive note, most teacher respondents 117 (71.9%) revealed that they were familiar with Circular P 35 of 1993 which directs and guides teachers on the management of learner indiscipline in schools. Teachers' level of familiarity with the Secretary's Circular 5 of 2000 which addresses the issues of prevention and

management of cases of child physical, emotional and sexual abuse was rather low. Only 76 (46.6%) had moderate to high familiarity with this policy document. A significant number 87 (53.4%) of respondents confirmed that they were not familiar with the instrument and this potentially compromised their role in the promotion of CFS environments. Director's Circular 27 of 2008 is another document teachers were requested to indicate their level of familiarity with. It emerged that only 58 (35.6%) teachers were familiar with the instrument and the entire 105 (64.4%) respondents were not familiar at all with the circular. The circular makes a directive on compulsory establishment of child abuse prevention and management reporting structures at every educational institution to ensure learner friendly school environments. It was disheartening to discover that many teachers 95 (58.3%) were not familiar with the supreme national legal instrument, the Zimbabwe National Constitution No 20 of 2013. Only 68 (41.7%) reported having moderate to extreme familiarity with the national constitution. This scenario was likely to promote much violation of children's (learners') constitutional rights. The calculated mean and standard deviation values indicated that teachers had very limited familiarity with the CFS related policy circulars.

#### **4.3.1.1 Teachers' accessibility to CFS related national education policy circulars**

When asked whether their schools were in possession of the national CFS related policy circulars, 52 (31.9%) teachers confirmed that the documents were available, 32 (19.6%) refuted the availability of the circular documents, and a big number of 79 (48.5%) respondents indicated that they were not sure whether the schools had these documents or not. In response to a follow up question soliciting whether the teachers had access to the available documents, 138 (84.7%) teachers disagreed to having access to the circular documents and only 25 (15.3%) of the respondents agreed to having access to the documents. These results meant that the teachers' inaccessibility to policy circulars negatively impacted on their knowledge, appreciation, and understanding of the CFS environments concept.

#### **4.3.1.2 Teachers' understanding of the CFS principles**

Besides establishing teachers' familiarity with instruments that inform the CFS approach, it was also of essence to ascertain teachers' understanding of individual CFS principles in order to examine their role in the promotion of CFS environments. The

study questionnaires had items that sought teachers' ratings of their understanding of specific CFS principles. Table 4.7 presents results of their responses.

**Table 4-7: Responses on teachers' understanding of the specific CFS principles**

Principle	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Total	Mean	ST.D
Rights-based and cultural diversity	11 (6.7)	48 (29.4)	64 (39.3)	28 (17.2)	12 (7.4)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.11	1.012
Health, safety and protection	21 (12.9)	54 (33.1)	61 (37.5)	16 (9.8)	11 (6.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.36	1.046
Quality-based and academic effectiveness	22 (13.5)	64 (39.3)	55 (33.7)	13 (8.0)	9 (5.5)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.47	1.008
Gender-sensitivity	44 (27.0)	45 (27.7)	50 (30.6)	17 (10.4)	7 (4.3)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.63	1.117
Child-seeking and inclusivity	33 (20.2)	49 (30.1)	54 (33.1)	20 (12.3)	7 (4.3)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.50	1.079
Democratic participation of learners & families	29 (17.8)	41 (25.2)	58 (35.6)	24 (14.7)	11 (6.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.33	1.132

M=Mean; ST.D=Standard Deviation. (Mean: 1- 2.4 =Low; 2.5 – 3.4=Moderate; 3.5 – 5=High)

#### **4.3.1.3 Rights-based and cultural diversity principle**

A large proportion of teachers 123 (75.4%) rated their understanding of the rights-based and cultural diversity principle from good to excellent, with a calculated moderate mean (standard deviation) of 3.11 (1.012), which signified that teachers had a sound understanding of this CFS principle. The finding was a positive indicator of teachers' understanding of their role in the promotion of CFS environments. However, a handful of teachers 12 (7.4%) rated their understanding of the principle poor.

#### **4.3.1.4 Health, safety and protection principle**

This principle was adequately understood by both teacher respondents. A very significant number of 136 (83.5%) teachers indicated that their understanding of this principle ranged from good to excellent, with a calculated mean (standard deviation) of

3.36 (1.046). Only 27 (16.5%) rated their understanding of the principle from fair to poor. Such results suggested that teachers had sufficient understanding of this principle and were likely to promote child-friendly school environments in the related aspects.

#### **4.3.1.5 Quality-based and academic effectiveness principle**

Similar to the first two CFS principles, 141 (86.5%) teachers indicated understanding of a principle which is directly related to their everyday duties and expectations in schools. Teachers rated themselves as having good to excellent understanding of this principle. This result assured the researcher that teachers could comfortably promote CFS environments in issues to do with academic work because they confirmed to adequately understanding what was expected of them.

#### **4.3.1.6 Gender-sensitivity principle**

Gender issues and concerns have increasingly become topical in Zimbabwe, both in social and academic circles, and both in-service and pre-service teachers have been exposed to different forums where such related issues have been discussed. Respondents indicated having very high understanding of the principle, 139 (85.3%) teachers reporting the range of their understanding rate of the principle from good to excellent. Only 7 (4.3%) teachers reported having a poor understanding of this principle.

#### **4.3.1.7 Child-seeking and inclusivity principle**

Issues of inclusivity in education are regularly referred to both at school level and in teacher education. 136 (83.5%) teacher respondents confirmed that they had a good to excellent understanding of this principle. However, 27 (16.6%) teachers rated their understanding of the principle poor with a calculated high mean (standard deviation) of 3.50 (1.079), which indicated that most of the teachers were aware of inclusivity issues and were likely to implement them in their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **4.3.1.8 Democratic participation of learners and families principle**

Unlike with the first five principles, a significant number 35 (21.4%) of teachers indicated that their understanding rate of this principle ranged from poor to fair. However, 128 (78.6) teachers indicated having an understanding rate ranging from good to excellent. Generally, teacher respondents portrayed good understanding of all the six CFS principles with minimum variations.

On the whole, quantitatively, teachers portrayed a moderate level of understanding of the CFS concept. In an attempt to confirm and complement the quantitative responses on the first sub-research question: ‘What is the level of teachers’ understanding of the CFS environments concept?’ in-depth semi- structured interviews were conducted and the following section presents the results.

#### 4.3.2 Qualitative results on teachers’ level of understanding of the CFS environments concept

To answer the first sub-research question, in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted with the seven school heads, and seven G & C focal persons. Themes and sub-themes emerged during these interviews pertaining to teachers’ understanding of the CFS environments concept. The main themes derived from the sub-research question and generated other sub-themes which included: teachers’ familiarity with CFS related international human rights treaties, familiarity with national education policy circulars, creation of conducive learning environments, availability of CFS related policy circulars, teachers’ accessibility to the policy documents, teachers’ understanding of CFS principles, and impact of understanding CFS concept. Table 4.8 presents the main themes and sub-themes which are discussed in detail in the subsequent sections.

**Table 4-8: Main theme and sub-themes on teachers’ understanding of the CFS environments concept**

Theme	Sub-Themes	Related Issues
Understanding of CFS environments concept	Familiarity of international human rights treaties	Very limited familiarity to international human rights treaties that inform and direct the CFS environments concept affects teachers’ understanding of it.
	Conducive learning environments	Definition of the CFS concept, which included safety and happiness of learners.
	Availability of CFS related policy circulars/documents	Schools’ possession of CFS related national education policy documents not known to all teachers.
	Accessibility to national CFS related policy documents	Limited accessibility to CFS related policy documents resulting in limited teachers’ understanding of the concept.
Understanding of the	Knowledge of CFS	Six interrelated CFS principles:

individual CFS model principles	principles	Rights-based and cultural diversity; healthy, safety and protection; quality-based and academic effectiveness; gender sensitivity; child-seeking and inclusivity, and democratic participation of learners and families.
	CFS principles of emphasis Impact of CFS understanding	Type and location of school determines the CFS principle(s) of emphasis. Sound CFS understanding ensures effective promotion of CFS environments.

#### 4.3.2.1 Teachers' familiarity of international human rights treaties

Most school heads and G & C teacher interviewees expressed very limited familiarity with the international human rights treaties such as the CRC upon which the CFS concepts hinges. This unfamiliarity was potentially negatively affected teachers' understanding and appreciation of the CFS approach. One school head expressed that:

*I am not very familiar with most of these international instruments in terms of what they provide but I had a chance of hearing them mentioned or referred to during our meetings or during workshops although not in much detail. This school is not in possession of any these documents (R1).*

Two or three of the school heads revealed that they had interacted with a few of these international instruments during their academic studies, especially those who had Master's degrees. Education for All (EFA) was found to be familiar to many participants and they were able to explain how it informs the CFS concept.

The same sentiments were shared even among G & C focal persons, who by the nature of their responsibilities were supposed to be in possession of the CRC document. One of these focal persons noted:

*I have very little knowledge of these treaties because I just hear of them in passing during G & C workshops but I have not had a chance of accessing these documents. I usually think these documents are relevant to legislators not us teachers (GC4).*

Some school heads bemoaned the fact that, even at national, provincial, or district level, personnel were not familiar with the international human rights treaties which guide and



inform the CFS approach although it is an approach embraced by the government ten years back. They argued that even during workshops and meetings the district schools' inspector and other officials from the ministry showed limited knowledge of the treaties. One of them expressed that:

*It is unfortunate that teachers are expected to implement and promote a curriculum approach which they don't have a sound background of. During some national, regional or district meetings, our bosses have difficulties in explaining to us the provisions of some international human rights treaties which they refer to in their presentations (R2).*

It was clear from the responses that familiarity with international human rights treaties which inform and direct the CFS environments concept was very limited right from the top to the school level.

#### **4.3.2.2 Creating conducive learning environments**

When requested to give their understanding of the CFS environments concept, all the participants had a shared idea that it has to do with learners' comfort and security. All the school heads were quite articulate about what the concept entails although they could not link their descriptions to the international human rights treaties. One school head gave a comprehensive description thus:

*CFS concept is an approach which caters for learners' interests and rights. It assumes that children learn best when they enjoy being in school and when they feel safe and cared for. It encourages schools to be comfortable places for learners (R3).*

Although teachers had shown very little understanding of the link between the CFS environments concept and some international human rights treaties, they appeared to have some sound understanding of what CFS environments entail. A Guidance and Counselling focal person observed that:

*CFS environments concept is about protecting the learner when at school, in matters concerning the child's welfare, interests and rights. The environments*

*help learners to be directed towards their rightful areas of strength and interest which is likely to improve their academic performance and develop to their fullest potential (GC6).*

From such a comprehensive definition of the CFS environments concept, the researcher assumed that teachers were quite clear of their role and what was expected of them in the promotion of CFS environments. Teacher participants also indicated the influence they had on learners in directing their learning process. When further probed on the forms or types of school environments teachers were targeting to make learner-friendly, one G & C focal person commented:

*Classroom environments, playgrounds, conditions of operation or policies, rules and regulations, teacher-learner interactions, and learner-learner interactions should be child-friendly all the time (GC7)*

Such a response was a clear evidence of teachers' knowledge of what CFS environments should entail and some were quick to highlight the benefits of such environments to the learners, teachers and the whole school. The school heads, teachers and the DSI concurred that CFS environments produce observable desirable features such as confident teachers and learners, and disciplined and focused learners.

#### **4.3.2.3 Availability of CFS related policy circulars in the schools**

In response to the question on whether schools were in possession of local or national education CFS related policy documents or circulars, school head participants indicated that the documents were available in the schools. In some cases, the researcher was shown files containing the documents which were kept in the school offices. One school head claimed:

*This file contains most the CFS related circulars such as the P35 of 1997; 27 of 2008 and 5 of 2000 among others (R5).*

Such a scenario assured the researcher of reasonable exposure of the relevant documents to teachers in order to enhance their role in the promotion of CFS environments. It was also some evidence of the Zimbabwean government's

commitment to embracing this international curriculum intervention. The DSI confidently expressed that all school heads were in possession of all the CFS related circulars and it was his mandate to ensure that these documents were in schools. On the contrary, five of the G & C focal persons professed ignorance of the availability of these circular documents. They were not sure whether their schools were in possession of the CFS related circulars or not. One of them had this to say:

*Circular documents are usually in the custody of the school head, and it difficult for us ordinary teachers to know and be sure of which ones are available or not available (GC1).*

The uncertainty by teachers of the availability of local CFS related policy could have had a negative impact on their role in the promotion of CFS environments. This revelation by the teachers also made the researcher to further probe how accessible these documents were to teachers.

#### **4.3.2.4 Accessibility to CFS related policy circulars by teachers**

The researcher probed if teachers had access to the available CFS related policy circulars which school heads confirmed were available in the schools. G & C teachers had varying responses to this question. Two of them concurred that they had limited access to the documents, and three revealed that access to the circulars was conditional. They said school heads would only avail the documents when a case arose which would require some reference to a particular circular. Only two focal persons were excited to show files containing some of these CFS related policy circulars. One of them delightedly shared that:

*My school head appreciates my position and responsibilities by providing me with ministry policy documents which are relevant to my department and which make my work more manageable. I have a file containing copies of policy circulars addressing issues of learner welfare (GC4).*

For those G& C focal persons who were not having access to the circulars, it was clear that they did not like the practice of some school heads keeping away these relevant documents from teachers. They openly blamed school heads for denying them access

to circular documents which were meant to enhance their understanding of the CFS environments concept, as reflected by the following sentiment:

*Accessibility of the CFS related circulars is not guaranteed since they are kept in the school head's office but I think all teachers would greatly appreciate having access to them and be familiar with their content and what is required of teachers. It is not our fault at times that we expose our learners to hostile school environments. We lack information (GC5).*

Almost all the school heads were of the view that policy circulars were meant for them and making them accessible to teachers was not mandatory. They argued that most teachers had poor reading culture and there was no guarantee that they would ever read the circulars when availed to them. They explained that reference was usually made to these circulars during staff development meetings. One school head had this to say:

*Teachers are permitted to access these circulars when there is need, also contents or provisions of the circulars are deliberated on during our school staff development meetings. I constantly remind teachers not to administer corporal punishment on learners or discriminate anyone. The other thing is that no teacher in this school has ever requested for a circular document, however, there is no harm if teachers are provided with personal copies, but I do not see them having time to read through the documents (R3).*

It was very clear from both G & C focal persons' and school heads' responses that accessibility to CFS related circulars by teachers was quite limited and this could have compromised their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **4.3.2.5 Teachers' understanding of the CFS principles**

The researcher referred to the six CFS principles, and then probed the participants' understanding of each of those principles. Most G & C focal persons showed encouraging understanding of most of the principles although they had challenges in showing how they interrelated. Health, safety and protection and gender sensitivity were adequately explained. The rights based and cultural diversity and quality academic

delivery principles were satisfactorily explained by most teachers but school heads were very articulate on almost all the six principles. The shared explanations were:

*Schools need to have litter-free surroundings, clean running water, functional ablutions and secured premises and swimming pools for health and protection reasons (GC2).*

On the principle of democratic participation of learners and families, teachers were not comfortable embracing it totally for fear of interference from other parties. Teachers were not sure of the level of involvement required and they shared varying perceptions on the principle.

Almost all school heads manifested sound understanding of each of the six CFS principles and they were able to explain what each one entailed. One school head was quick to realise the interrelatedness of these principles saying:

*My understanding of these CFS principles is that they complement each other such that they require to be fairly understood in order to address their mandate. It is unfortunate my teachers' understanding of these principles may not be very encouraging due to varied reasons (R5).*

#### **4.3.2.6 Schools' CFS principles of emphasis**

When asked on their CFS principles of emphasis, both school heads and teachers from different schools had different examples which were influenced by the school's geographical location and the school's learner composition. It was established that the five schools located in the high density residential areas were more concerned with health, safety and protection of learners. In one school, the safety and protection component was emphasized because of history of some event which happened. One of the school head shared a testimony thus:

*We experienced a sad event in this school where a learner died whilst out on an educational trip. Investigations on the matter revealed that the learners were made to be alone somewhere out of sight of the teachers who were in their*

*company. From that incident, teachers in this school are so particular with learners' safety inside or outside the classrooms (R3)*

On the issue of health, most participants concurred that environmental and personal hygiene were emphasized on, and different schools had different interventions to ensure that this CFS principle was recognized. A certain G & C focal person had this to say:

*This school regularly invites personnel from Ministry of Health and Child Care to address our learners on issues of personal hygiene and cleanliness, and awareness on disease outbreaks. On the aspects of safety and protection, the school engages police officers to sensitise learners on some criminal activities happening in the neighbourhood. We are also in partnership with Youth Alive organization which often comes to equip learners with life skills and sensitise them on their rights and responsibilities (GC2).*

Teachers were also quick to give gender sensitivity as the other aspect most schools emphasised on, especially in schools with boys and girls. The participants explained that most of the schools' activities in both academic and co-curricular areas, boys and girls, were given equal opportunities to show their potential. One of the teachers proudly shared that:

*Boys and girls are made to carry out the same routine duties such as, sweeping and scrubbing floors. Positions of responsibility are offered to both boys and girls as long as they are capable and they meet the criteria. Learners are also afforded the chance to make choice of their academic subjects, that is why we have girls doing Building and Woodwork and on the other hand boys who into Food & Nutrition and Fashion & Fabrics. The school has girls-soccer and boys' netball teams respectively (GC3).*

Only one G & C focal person from a school located in a low density residential area indicated that their school emphasized the rights and cultural diversity aspect. She had this to say:

*The learners' population at this school is so diverse in terms social, religious and cultural backgrounds. We have Indians, coloureds and blacks. In terms of social status, we have learners from very affluent families, others middle class families and the rest from 'struggling' families. On religious persuasions, we have Moslems, Hindus, Christians, and others. Despite these differences, we try our level best to make them feel comfortable and be happy to be in this school. Currently, learners from different backgrounds are harmoniously relating with very limited discrimination or ridicule. Our current school head-girl is an Indian and she is working very well with all other learners. Indian and Moslem learners in this school are allowed to wear the school uniform according to their religion and culture. They are also allowed to have skin marks which symbolize celebration of their religious festivals (GC7).*

On the same question of CFS aspects of emphasis, only one school head opined that the six CFS aspects were interrelated and the schools were emphasizing all, but with variations. The school head elaborated how each aspect was being addressed. Of interest was the explanation given on the aspect of democratic participation of learners, which was given thus:

*This school has the facility of a Suggestion Box where learners are free to drop in their concerns and it is opened twice in a term involving the G & C focal person, two other G & C teachers and two learners for transparency purposes (R6).*

Another school head from a school offering boarding facilities explained how they addressed the aspect of democratic participation of learners by saying:

*We have a vibrant Child School Development Committee (CSDC) structure which is involved in making recommendations on how the school should operate and what resources should be provided to cater for learners' welfare and academic work. We also have a Boarders Student Representative Committee which is responsible for consulting the rest of the boarders' population on the planning of their breakfast, lunch and dinner menus (R7).*

Only one school head indicated that his school emphasised on the principle of quality and effective academic delivery which was ensured by affording learners qualified teachers in various subject areas. He had this to say:

*As we do staff rationalization, we try our level best as administration to allocate relevant teachers for relevant subjects so that learners are not short-changed and the teachers are comfortable and confident of their subject content (R5).*

The researcher further probed the participants on how new teachers in the schools were made aware of the CFS principles of emphasis. Varied responses were offered both positive and negative. The school heads were of the opinion that there was formal induction of new teachers with regards to schools' position in CFS environments. One school head confidently expressed that:

*In this school, the deputy head and two senior teachers are responsible for inducting new teachers in the school culture, mission, vision, tone and status. It is also my belief that these administrators induct teachers on our CFS principles of emphasis (R1).*

On the contrary, most G & C focal persons bemoaned that new teachers were rarely inducted on CFS environments in the schools. In the majority of cases, teachers were only made to know about these environments when a case arose. One focal person observed:

*There is no induction given to new teachers with regards to CFS environments, instead senior teachers are more concerned with administrative issues focusing on the teachers instead of interests of the learners. Usually, most of us are made aware of child-friendly school environments when a case of child abuse happens (GC 5).*

#### **4.3.2.7 Impact of teacher CFS understanding**

When the participants were probed on the effects of non-induction of CFS environments on their role to promote the approach, most of them bemoaned that they were limited in knowledge, skills and understanding of the concept. A few confirmed to be better



knowledgeable of the CFS approach and its principles from workshops organized by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) which are child-oriented. One G & C focal person said:

*In this school, we are fortunate that almost all G & C teachers are offered opportunities to attend different workshops to do with learners' welfare and in these workshops issues to do with child-friendly school environments are deliberated upon. We are usually provided with reading materials on the matters and we use the literature as reference whenever we encounter related cases. This has enhanced our understanding of the CFS concept and it has helped us a lot in guiding and counselling learners (GC7).*

School heads had varied ratings on their teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept and how it impacted on their role in the promotion of such environments. Generally, teachers' understanding was deemed average in most schools which resulted in satisfactory manner of promoting the approach. One of the school heads positively expressed that:

*Many teachers in this school are found to be engaged in activities involving learners which are child-friendly. There are vibrant clubs such as the First Aid, Interactive, and Peer Education which are learner oriented. These clubs promote clean and healthy school environments and they cultivate and reward good behaviour among learners. The teachers are very supportive of learners in good and bad circumstances. We have teachers in this school who have been accompanying to seek medical services or even to attend court cases. Teachers are always ready to report cases of child abuse to me or other administration members (R3).*

Some school heads were of the idea that many teachers were not giving themselves enough time and commitment to adequately understand the CFS approach. A school head from one school felt that:

*The CFS environment concept is not complicated to understand and implement because it assists teachers to have a more positive perception of learners but*

*teachers tend to give it very little attention because the approach emphasizes on children's rights. With limited understanding and appreciation of this approach, teachers are found to role-distance themselves from its promotion. There is need to adequately inform teachers of this noble approach in order to implement it effectively (R6).*

This opinion was expressed generally by both focal person and school head participants. Teachers were sceptic of promoting a curriculum innovation which they had little understanding of.

#### **4.3.3 Document analysis of CFS related policies**

In an effort to further explore sub-research question on teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept, the researcher made a purposive selection of four education policy circulars for document analysis. The circulars were deemed more specific on what schools were expected to do in each area of concern. The circulars were: The Zimbabwe's Education Act of 1987; Secretary's Circular P35 of 1993; Secretary's Circular 5 of 2000; and Director's Circular 27 of 2008. Thematic content analysis was applied on all the documents and some coding of themes was done and later on elaborated on. It was established that these documents clearly indicate the target recipients and school heads are the main part of their target readers. The policy circulars centralize the whole policy implementation on the school head and there are specific directives for the classroom teacher. This was assumed to be a terrible omission because teachers feel left out and they are likely forced to think that the promotion of CFS environments is an administrative task or responsibility. However, it emerged from the document analysis that the circular provisions are clearly laid out in sub-sections which are likely to enhance teachers' understanding of what is expected of them. These circulars clearly address the CFS concept and the standard school structure required to promote the concept. Results from document analysis suggest that all teachers should be provided with the relevant circulars to gain better understanding of the CFS environments concept.

#### 4.3.4 Main findings on teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept

Responses to both quantitative and qualitative questions to establish how teachers understand the CFS environments concept revealed that there was limited familiarity with international human rights treaties that inform the approach. Awareness and accessibility to national education policy circulars was also very limited and all this negatively impacted on teachers' understanding of the concept. It was also generally perceived that teachers' lack of knowledge and understanding of the CFS environments concept had negatively affected teachers' role in the promotion of the approach. The following table, Table 4.9 presents the main findings on teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept derived from quantitative and qualitative data.

**Table 4-9: Triangulation table of findings from quantitative and qualitative data**

Findings (Quantitative data)	Findings (Qualitative data)
Teachers agreed they had moderate familiarity with international and national policy instruments that inform and enhance the CFS environments concept.	Affirmed to having limited familiarity and awareness of international human rights treaties that inform the CFS concept. Confirmed availability of national policy circulars that enhance the CFS environments concept.
Confirmed limited access to the available national CFS policy instruments.	Bemoaned limited access to the available CFS related policy circulars.
Rated teachers' understanding of individual CFS principles ranged from fair to good.	Noted moderate understanding of the CFS environments concept.
Confirmed non-induction of teachers on CFS principles of emphasis in their respective schools.	Recommended adequately informing teachers on the CFS environments concept to ensure better understanding and appreciation of the concept, and effective promotion of the approach.

Table 4.9 presents a summary of both quantitative and qualitative findings on teachers' understanding of the CFS environments showing where they converged or diverged.

##### 4.3.4.1 Interpreting the triangulation table.

From the quantitative data, both qualified teachers and trainee teachers revealed that they had low to moderate familiarity with the international human rights treaties which inform and guide the CFS environments concept. There was also indication of not

having adequate access to policy circulars that enhance the CFS environments approach which schools were in possession of. Teachers confirmed understanding of the individual CFS principles, possibly from their personal exposure and experiences as they indicated that they were not inducted in the CFS approach. The highlighted shortcomings validated teachers' limited understanding of the CFS environments concept in its totality.

Findings from qualitative data corroborated teachers' limited familiarity with international human rights treaties that inform the CFS approach and admitted having limited access to policy circulars enhancing the approach which all schools indicated to be in possession of. Teachers testified to having sound understanding of the CFS principles gained from their own reading and experiences but bemoaned non-induction on the approach at school level. Teachers argued that their inadequate understanding of the CFS approach negatively impacted on their role in its promotion and appreciation.

#### **4.4 RESULTS ON SCHOOL-BASED SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS TO PROMOTE CFS ENVIRONMENTS**

Teachers' role in the promotion on CFS environments cannot solely depend on their understanding of the CFS approach. Instead, effective appreciation and promotion of this concept also requires support from relevant stakeholders. Quantitative and qualitative data were gathered to answer the sub-research question one, "How are teachers supported to promote child-friendly environments in schools?" The researcher assumed that teachers' effort in the promotion of CFS environments is likely to be sustainable if offered relevant school-based support. It is for this reason that this study sought to establish the kind of support teachers got from different stakeholders within their school contexts in their role to promote CFS environments.

##### **4.4.1 Quantitative results on school-based support for teachers in the promotion of CFS environments**

Teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments happens within varied school contexts, and hence is likely to be varied depending on the nature of school-based support offered by the school administration, fellow teachers (colleagues), parents, and

learners. Teacher respondents were first asked to indicate whether they received some induction on CFS environments when they joined their current schools. 130 (79.8%) reported that they were not inducted and only 33 (20.2%) agreed to having received some induction. The questionnaire had twenty other items that sought to establish how teachers were supported at school level in their role to promote CFS environments. Respondents were requested to show their level of agreement to the suggested forms of school-based support. Table 4.10 presents results of their responses to the statements related to forms of school-based support.

**Table 4-10: Teachers’ responses on school-based support offered by the school administration, colleagues, parents, and learners in teachers’ role in the promotion of CFS environments**

Category	Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	Mean	ST. D
School Administration	New teacher induction	20 (12.3)	36 (22.1)	34 (20.8)	47 (28.8)	26 (16.0)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.86	1.276
	National policy availability	17 (10.4)	42 (25.8)	37 (22.7)	44 (27.0)	23 (13.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.91	1.229
	Teacher awareness of policies	46 (28.2)	62 (38.0)	25 (15.4)	22 (13.5)	8 (4.9)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.71	1.159
	Provision of resources	26 (16.0)	48 (29.5)	44 (27.0)	34 (20.8)	11 (6.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.26	1.175
	Boost of teacher confidence	26 (16.0)	41 (25.1)	62 (38.0)	26 (16.0)	8 (4.9)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.31	1.075
	Dealing with disciplinary cases	31 (19.0)	55 (33.7)	47 (28.8)	19 (11.8)	11 (6.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.46	1.145
	Following of correct procedures	44 (27.0)	72 (44.2)	37 (22.7)	8 (4.9)	2 (1.2)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.91	.894
	Opportunities to gain knowledge and skills	26 (16.0)	65 (39.9)	51 (31.2)	19 (11.7)	2 (1.2)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.58	.936
Colleagues	Sense of attachment to learners	54 (31.1)	68 (41.7)	27 (16.6)	13 (8.0)	1 (.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.99	.936
	Teacher collegiality	27 (16.7)	57 (35.0)	56 (34.3)	18 (11.0)	5 (3.0)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.50	1.015
	Senior teacher assistance	27 (16.7)	52 (31.8)	49 (30.0)	26 (16.0)	9 (5.5)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.38	1.107

	Induction on school's CFS principles	17 (10.5)	47 (28.8)	51 (31.2)	38 (23.4)	10 (6.1)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.14	1.082
Parents	Parental knowledge of teachers	38 (23.1)	57 (35.0)	41 (25.1)	16 (9.8)	11 (6.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.75	1.082
	Parental acceptance of teacher invitations	31 (19.1)	56 (34.3)	52 (31.8)	21 (13.0)	3 (1.8)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.56	1.001
	Parental participation in school activities	24 (14.7)	45 (27.6)	76 (46.7)	13 (8.0)	5 (3.0)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.43	.943
	Parental confidence in teachers' conduct	33 (20.3)	59 (36.2)	51 (31.2)	17 (10.5)	3 (1.8)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.63	.982
Learners	Learner respect of teachers' decisions	25 (15.4)	36 (22.1)	51 (31.2)	37 (22.7)	14 (8.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.13	1.182
	Learner confidence in teachers	22 (13.5)	32 (19.6)	44 (27.0)	39 (23.9)	26 (16.0)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	2.91	1.271
	Prefect-teacher relationship	44 (27.0)	63 (38.7)	37 (22.7)	14 (8.6)	5 (3.0)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.17	1.056
	Senior-junior learner relationship	61 (37.4)	57 (35.0)	27 (16.6)	10 (6.1)	8 (4.9)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.68	1.107

SA: Strongly Agree; A: Agree; N: Neutral; D: Disagree; SD: Strongly Disagree ST.D: Standard Deviation (Mean: 1 – 2.4 Low; 2.5 – 3.4 Moderate; 3.5 – 5 High)

#### 4.4.1.1 School administration support

In response to eight items soliciting for teachers' level of agreement on the nature of support offered by school administration, in the majority of cases, teachers generally agreed that they were getting meaningful support. On the issue of induction, 73(44.8%) respondents confirmed to not getting that kind of support in their role in the promotion of CFS environments, while 56 (34.4%) agreed that new teachers were inducted on the CFS concept. 34(20.8%) respondents were not sure of the practice. In order for teachers to effectively play their role, school administrators are expected to avail teachers with CFS related policy circulars. A total of 67 (40.6%) teachers denied that such support was offered them, only 59 (36.2%) indicated that CFS policy circulars were availed to them, while 37 (22.7%) respondents were neutral about this kind of support by the school administration. On the contrary, a big proportion, 108 (66.2%) of

teachers agreed that their school administrators were making them aware of policies prohibiting abuse of learners. Adequate resources in terms of time, material and human resources are essential in the promotion of CFS environments. A significant number 74 (45.5%) of teacher respondents indicated that their school administrators were providing them with adequate resources to promote CFS environments. On the issue of how teachers were treated to boost their confidence in promoting CFS environments, 67 (41.1%) respondents confirmed that they were offered support that boosted their confidence and an almost similar number of 62 (38.0%) respondents revealed that they were uncertain of being treated by the school administration in a manner which boosted their confidence in promoting CFS environments. On the issue of dealing with undisciplined learners, 86 (52.7%) teachers agreed that they were offered support by the school administration, and this result was complemented by 116 (71.2%) respondents who confirmed that school administration assisted teachers in following correct procedures in handling learners' anti-social behaviours. The study also revealed that school administrators supported teachers in gaining knowledge and skills on the CFS approach as confirmed by 91 (55.9%) teachers with 51 (31.2%) being neutral about this kind of support.

The high mean scores ranging from 3.50 to 3.99 for 9 items out of 20 indicated that teachers strongly agreed that they were offered meaningful support from school administration, colleagues, parents, and learners, to promote CFS environments. The remaining 11 items had mean scores of between 2.87 and 3.43 indicating that teachers were getting moderate support in new teacher induction, availability of national CFS circulars, provision of resources, boosting of teacher confidence, dealing with disciplinary cases, and teacher-prefect relationship among others.

#### **4.4.1.2 Collegial support**

It is believed that teachers require teamwork and shared vision in their role of promoting CFS environments hence, the study also sought to ascertain how teachers supported each other to ensure learners' friendly school environments. The results revealed that in the majority of cases, teachers were offering each other support in the promotion of CFS environments. A total of 122 (72.8%) teachers agreed that they were encouraging

each other to have an attachment with learners and another form of school-based support was confirmed by 84 (51.7%) teachers that they were working closely together to ensure learner friendly school environments. 56 (34.3%) respondents had a neutral opinion on this kind of school-based support and, whilst 23 (14.0%) refuted the existence of such collegial support. A substantial number of teachers 77 (48.5%) reported that senior teachers mentored junior teachers in CFS principles. Such results indicated that teachers were offering each other help to understand and promote CFS environments.

#### **4.4.1.3 Parental support**

Teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments is likely to be enhanced where parents of the learners offer teachers adequate and relevant support. The current study, therefore, sought to establish how teachers are supported by parents to ensure learner friendly school environments. Teacher respondents were requested to respond to four items showing their level of agreement to the suggested parental support. 95 (58.1%) respondents indicated that parents made some effort to meet and know their children's teachers and a total of 87 (53.4%) agreed that parents were complying with teachers' invitations to discuss learners' academic and welfare issues. There were also positive reports by 92 (56.5%) teachers that parents had confidence in the conduct of teachers among learners. Despite these positive findings on parental support offered to teachers in their role in the promotion of CFS environments, significant numbers expressed that they were uncertain whether parents were supportive or not. On all the four items to be responded to, an average of 55 (33.2%) teachers expressed their uncertainty on the suggested school-based parental support. All these findings pointed to the fact that teachers needed parental support to effectively play their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **4.4.1.4 Learners' support**

The major beneficiaries of the CFS approach are learners and in this study it was also essential to establish how learners assisted teachers in their role to promote CFS environments. It is for this reason that teacher respondents were requested to confirm the kind of support learners were offering teachers by responding to four suggested items. Generally, teachers reported that learners were satisfactorily supportive. On the



issue of depending on teachers' decisions on their academic and social welfare, only 61 (37.5%) teacher respondents agreed that they were receiving that kind of support from learners and 51 (31.2%) were not sure. Teachers' responses on learners confiding in teachers about their academic and social challenges indicated that only 55 (33.2%) agreed to the statement. In contrast 65 (39.9%) expressed disagreement to having this kind of support from learners. Such results made the researcher aware of the limited support teachers were offered by learners in their role to promote CFS environments. On a more positive note, 107 (65.7%) teachers confirmed that prefects were working closely with the teachers to ensure CFS environments. It was also affirmed by the majority of 118 (71.4%) respondents that senior learners were directing junior learners to adhere to school rules and regulations. This result had a high mean of 4.16 and standard deviation of .991 and a calculated coefficient variation of .24. This implied that there was no general consensus among the respondents concerning the kind of support teachers got from learners in their role to promote CFS environments.

#### **4.4.2 Qualitative results on school-based support offered teachers in their role to promote CFS environments**

The main theme of school-based support generated other sub-themes which included, school administration, collegial, parental, and learner support. Table 4.11 presents the main theme and sub-themes which are further elaborated in the following sections.

**Table 4-11: Theme and sub-themes on school –based support offered teachers in their role in the promotion of CFS environment**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Sub-themes</b>	<b>Related issues</b>
School-based support	School-administration support	Teacher attendance of CFS related workshops. Offering teachers transport. Providing learning resources for G & C. Supporting teachers in dealing with delinquent learners.
	Collegial support	Team teaching. Management of the Psycho-Social Support (PSS) box. Peer consultation. Offering of guidance and counselling services.
	Parental support	Members of the School Development Committees (SDCs). Parents' attendance of school activities.

		School donations from parents.
	Learners' support	School prefects' body. Whistle-blowers. Members of the Child School Development Committee (CSDC). CFS related school clubs. Use and management of the Suggestion Box.

**4.4.2.1 School administration support**

The implementation of the CFS approach and its complementary programme, School Improvement Grants (SIG) in Zimbabwe, has been the responsibility of school administrators which include school heads and their assistants, deputy school heads, senior teachers and head of departments (CfBT Education Trust, 2013; Mandiudza, 2013). This study, however, sought to ascertain how school administrators supported teachers in their role to promote CFS environments. Interviews were conducted with school heads and G & C focal persons on this aspect. Results from the main theme and sub-themes are presented in the subsequent sections.

**4.4.2.2 Workshop attendance**

Since the adoption of the CFS approach in Zimbabwean secondary schools, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE), with the assistance of non-governmental organisations such as Plan International Zimbabwe had been organizing and running numerous workshops. The workshops had been meant to sensitize and equip teachers with relevant information on the CFS approach. Both school heads and G & C interviewees concurred that school administrators offered teachers the opportunity to attend CFS related workshops. Most G & C focal persons were very appreciative of what they gained from workshops in relation to their understanding of the CFS approach. One of the G & C focal persons had this to share:

*Teachers are usually supported by the school administration because each time there is a workshop related to guidance and counselling, two or more teachers are allowed to attend. During staff briefings, those who would have attended a workshop are afforded time to report back to other teachers. We are made to*

*attend workshops rotationally, which has made many of us to greatly benefit from the workshops (GC3)*

Some participants, however, expressed disappointment about how chances to attend workshops were offered. They felt that the school heads were making the same teachers to attend workshops for financial benefits and only a few teachers had the necessary information on the CFS environments. One participant openly reflected that:

*Attendance of CFS related workshops is not for every teacher in this school. At times, senior teachers are made to attend yet they are not involved in G & C lessons. Workshops should be school-based, in order for teachers to appreciate and promote CFS environments, to benefit all of us (GC7).*

The school heads reiterated that it was essential for teachers to get exposure and better understanding of child-friendly school environments through sharing of experiences with teachers from other schools at workshops. It was also reported that non-governmental partners had the financial resources to conduct workshops which catered for children's rights. One school head expressed that:

*Each time we get communication from the education offices concerning workshops, we definitely send representatives and we expect a feedback to benefit others. In most cases the school pays for transport and accommodation expenses for the teachers. We would not like our teachers to miss out on important matters such as the CFS approach (R5).*

Such revelations confirmed that schools complemented government effort in ensuring teachers' knowledge and skills to promote CFS environments.

#### **4.4.2.3 Provision of resources**

In all the seven schools, the interviewed G & C focal persons concurred that their respective school administrations were providing them with adequate and relevant teaching resources in terms of printed, electronic and human materials. In one of the schools, the focal person excitedly said:

*Our school head is very supportive in the teaching and learning of G & C. The school permits to invite resource persons to address learners on different issues and concerns. At times we are afforded to go visit other schools for a variety of school activities. In some cases, the school provides us with transport to do follow-up on learners who just drop out of school non-procedurally (GC1).*

One of the teachers showed the researcher a collection of video discs which were said to be part of the resources the school provided for the learners, which were played during lessons or clubs.

Besides opportunities to attend CFS environments related workshops and provided with relevant resources, teachers reported that they got maximum support from school heads and senior teachers in dealing with misbehaving and delinquent learners. The rendered support was viewed as empowering and enhancing teachers' respect and control of learners.

Findings on this sub-theme clearly suggested that teachers greatly needed school heads' support in order for them to better understand the CFS approach and to play an effective role in promoting it.

#### **4.4.2.4 Collegial support**

When teachers were asked how they supported each other in their role to promote CFS environments, it emerged that this type of support was not guaranteed in the majority of cases. Since teachers confirmed that they operated at varied levels of understanding of the CFS approach, it therefore, followed that their preparedness to support each other to promote it was also varied. All the female G & C focal teachers expressed disappointment in their male counterparts. It was revealed that some young male teachers were less concerned with learners' interests in their interactions. The school heads appeared to share the same sentiment and observation. One female school head bemoaned that:

*Some male teachers are so indifferent and are not supportive when it comes to issues relating to girl-learner sexual or physical harassment. They usually blame the girls for whatever misfortune which would have happened to them. At*

*times, these teachers accuse fellow G & C teachers of becoming too involved in learners' personal and social affairs. In some isolated cases, the unsupportive teachers are found to be involved in improper associations with learners (R2).*

On the contrary, the participants reported that female teachers were more concerned with the welfare of learners in all aspects of their school life. Teachers claimed that they consulted each other whenever a disciplinary case arose and, in some cases, helped each other to offer counselling services depending on the nature of the challenge. On academic issues, both teacher and school head participants concurred that teachers engaged in team-teaching in order to afford learners the best at departmental or subject level. When probed why female teachers were more supportive of each other than their male counterparts, it emerged that most G & C teachers were females who appeared to have a better understanding and appreciation of CFS environments.

On a more positive note, in two of the schools, it emerged that teachers collaborated in the management and manning of the PSS box. Members of the school health committee, which included both female and male teachers, were reported to be very supportive of each other in ensuring learners friendly school environments. One participant commented thus:

*Majority of teachers in this school have a lot of interest in the feedback from PSS box because at times it concerns their interactions with learners. Usually, both female and male teachers come together to address the raised concerns (GC4).*

#### **4.4.2.5 Parental support**

Even though CFS environments seem more applicable in school settings, the researcher also aimed to establish the input and contribution of parents in ensuring learners access to the desired environments. School heads and teacher participants from the same schools had similar views on the nature of parental support offered teachers in their role in the promotion of CFS environments. Interviewees from schools geographically located in high density residential areas and those from low density residential areas held divergent views on the nature of parental support, possibly because of the social status of the parents. A school head gave the observation that:

*Unfortunately, parental support for teachers to promote CFS environments is very minimal and not encouraging at all maybe because of the geographical location of the school. I have observed that schools in high density areas seem to suffer lack of parental support compared to those in up-town suburbs. Maybe this is historic. Our parents seem to have too much on their hands, always running around to cater for basic provisions for their families such that they seem not to have time for school business even the academic welfare of their children. Whenever cases arise which require the involvement of parents, they rarely cooperate. The school is always having challenges in engaging and recruiting parents for non-formal activities. Some parents may be unaware of their crucial role in the development of the school and the overall welfare of their children whilst at school (R6).*

Teachers from schools in low density area expressed different views on parental support. They reported that some parents donated labour, resources and expertise for the development of schools. One teacher reported that:

*Most parents are very supportive of everything to do with the teaching and learning of their children. Whenever they are invited to school for meetings or other activities, they come in numbers. Some parents volunteer to be engaged in the renovations of school buildings or they donate hostel resources such as mattresses, curtains of kitchen utensils (GC7).*

Participants from all the seven schools concurred that parental support was usually offered through the services of School Development Committees (SDCs). It was reported that these were representatives of parents and were closely working with school administrations in the running and development of schools. One participant had this to say:

*Individual parents always think that they are adequately represented by the SDC and they seem to have very little time to be engaged in school activities (R1).*

Such results suggest that parental support was not adequate for teachers in their role in the promotion of CFS environments. In some cases, teachers complained of parental

bias, especially in learners' disciplinary issues. Some parents were reported to be taking sides with their children and showing very little confidence and faith in teachers' decisions or advice.

#### **4.4.2.6 Learners' support**

Learners are the major beneficiaries of the CFS environments and all other stakeholders collaborated to ensure them these environments. In order for teachers to effectively promote CFS environments, it is essential for the learners themselves to offer them the necessary support. Teachers were asked of the nature of support learners offered them in their role to promote CFS environments. Teachers' views and opinions on this question were both positive and negative. Firstly, teachers expressed mixed feelings on the effectiveness of prefects' body in almost all the seven schools. There was a consensus that today's prefects were not as reliable as those of the yester-years. One of the teacher participants bemoaned that:

*Unfortunately, our prefects are not very reliable. At times they are implicated in disciplinary scams and they lack command of other learners. The prefects' body is expected to work closely with teachers in the monitoring and supervision of other learners, however, some of these prefects are not very effective and reliable. The prefect board in this school is a mixed bag. Some prefects are very good, reliable and effective, and these work very religiously with teachers in monitoring and supervising other learners to ensure friendly school environments for everyone. Then there is another crop of prefects who seem to be wrongly placed. They appear not concerned with the call of duty. Instead they just enjoy the privileges of being prefects. Some do not care for anyone and they are very rough to both teachers and other learners (GC2).*

Despite the shortcomings of school prefects' support, teachers, however reported some learners who were helpful in giving necessary information to teachers of some happenings which created hostile school environments for other learners. Such learners were called "whistle-blowers". Teachers expressed that they valued such learners' input in their role in the promotion of CFS environments. A school head expressed that:

*Learner support is given through provision of information to teachers of problem learners or those who will be facing social challenges but not empowered enough to open up. Learners may bring information on deviant learners involved in bullying others, alcohol or substance abuse. Whenever we receive such tip-offs, we carry on further investigations and take the necessary interventions to address the concern. We are forced, at times, to make follow-ups on school dropouts (R4).*

Besides coming in person to volunteer information, teachers reported that most of the learners offered their support for teachers to promote CFS environments through maximum utilization of the Schools' Suggestion boxes. Learners were reported to be dropping in varied issues of concern and teachers were making efforts to address most of the issues raised, hence, responding to learners' needs and upholding their interests and rights.

In two schools, participants reported the existence of Child-School Development Committees (CSDCs), a student structure working closely with school administration in the running and development of the schools. One of the school heads expressed thus:

*Ordinarily, every school should have a Child-School Development Committee (CSDC) structure which makes recommendations on how the school should be run and what resources should be provided to cater for learners' welfare and academic work. Unfortunately, some schools do not have this structure at present but there is need to have one soon. This school has a student parliament structure where class captains represent their constituents and this is done to supplement the 43: 900 teacher-pupil ratio in terms of supervision and monitoring of learners (R7).*

Another positive report given on learner support by teachers was their involvement in CFS related clubs such as the Interactive club; HIV & AIDS support club, and Environmental Management club. Members of these clubs were said to be ambassadors of good behaviour. Members of these clubs denoted prizes for outstanding learners in some disciplines during speech and prize giving ceremonies.



#### 4.4.3 Main findings on the school-based support offered teachers in their role to promote CFS environments

Although teachers are the key players in the promotion of CFS environments, research results suggests that support from other players is essential. School administration, fellow teachers, parents, and learners have their special ways of supporting teachers in their endeavour to ensure learners friendly school environments. Table 4.12 presents the main findings on the school-based support for teachers' in their role in the promotion of CFS environments obtained from the research data.

**Table 4-12: Triangulation table for quantitative and qualitative data**

Findings (Quantitative data)	Findings (Qualitative data)
Teachers confirmed non-induction in the CFS approach upon joining their current schools.	Concurred to not having received any specific induction in the CFS approach as new teachers in their respective schools.
They asserted satisfactory school administration support.	Acknowledged encouraging school administration support in form of opportunities to attend CFS related workshops and provision of G & C teaching and learning materials.
Teachers expressed limited collegial support.	Bemoaned limited collegial support in the promotion of CFS environments. Noted teachers' commitment to the promotion of CFS environments varied depending on understanding of the concept.
They acknowledged receiving varied levels of parental support in their role in the promotion of CFS environments.	Parental support varied with location of schools and social status. Donations in terms of labour and resources. Non-participation of parents in some school activities due to divided attention between children's academic work and their social responsibilities.
Teachers validated how learners worked closely with them to ensure school- friendly environments	Use of suggestion and psycho-social support boxes empowering learners to bring their concerns to teachers. Prefects not as reliable as before. Provision on valid information of challenged learners by others.

Table 4.12 above presents a summarized version of findings drawn from quantitative and qualitative data respectively. The researcher found some of the results converging

or diverging on some aspects of school-based support for teachers in their role to promote CFS environments.

#### **4.4.3.1 Interpreting the triangulation table**

Quantitative data established that teachers were getting satisfactory support from school administration in their role in the promotion of CFS environments. Induction of the CFS approach to new teachers was deemed a non-event. However, they expressed satisfaction on the effort by the school administration in making teachers aware of the prohibition of abusive measures on learners. Teachers generally acknowledged that not all teachers were afforded the opportunities to attend CFS related workshops except those engaged in the teaching of G & C. However, they confirmed meaningful provision on CFS related teaching and learning materials.

On the aspect of collegial support, teachers acknowledged offering each other minimal support in their role of promoting CFS environments, which varied according to positions of responsibility. There was confirmation that parental support was offered in different forms and at different levels. Teachers also concurred having meaningful learner support that enhanced their role. They justified the use of suggestion boxes in the involvement of learners in the promotion of CFS environments.

From qualitative data, it emerged that teachers concurred to the importance of school-based support in their role in the promotion of CFS environments. They expressed satisfaction with school administration support. However, they bemoaned that opportunities to better understand the CFS concept were not offered to all teachers equitably. There were some teachers who were afforded the opportunity to attend CFS related workshops and these were ready to offer each other support in their role to promote CFS environments.

Teachers reiterated that parental support was varied and in some cases, not there at all. They expressed dissatisfaction with some parents' behaviours on issues to do with learner misconduct where parents were reported to be taking sides with their children.

Support offered teachers by learners was judged as moderate as prefects were viewed as unreliable and less committed to their duties. However, there was positive learner support in the effective use of the Suggestion and Psycho-social support boxes.

#### **4.5 RESULTS ON TEACHERS' STRATEGIES IN THE PROMOTION OF CFS ENVIRONMENTS**

In addressing the demands of the sub-research question three, "What strategies do teachers employ to promote child-friendly school environments?" this study sought to explore the different ways teachers were utilising to ensure learner friendly school environments in every respect. Teachers' understanding of the CFS concept and adequate and relevant support offered them at school level has a significant bearing on the strategies they opt to employ in the promotion of CFS environments. Teacher respondents were subjected to fifteen items to show the frequency in use of the suggested strategies. The effectiveness of these strategies could be better confirmed by the learners who are the major beneficiaries of the CFS approach. Learners were also given a questionnaire in which they were requested to respond to the same items indicating the level of frequency in use of the strategies. A chi-square test was calculated to show the relationship between the item responses of teachers and learners on the strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.

##### **4.5.1 Quantitative results on teachers' strategies to promote CFS environments**

Table 4.13 presents responses on the frequency in use of strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments from teacher and learner respondents' perspectives.

**Table 4-13: Frequency in use of teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments**

Strategy	Respondent	ET	AET	OCC	R	N	Total	Mean	Chi-square test
Teacher knowledge of learners	Teachers	37 (22.7)	56 (34.4)	65 (39.9)	3 (1.8)	2 (1.2)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.79	66.031 df =3 Asy Sig .000
	Learners	11 (7.7)	14 (9.8)	72 (50.3)	19 (13.3)	27 (18.9)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	2.74	
Knowledge of learner challenges.	Teachers	35 (21.5)	77 (47.3)	48 (29.4)	1 (0.6)	2 (1.2)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.91	68.926 df= 3 Asy Sig .000
	Learners	27 (18.9)	39 (27.2)	50 (35.0)	14 (9.8)	13 (9.1)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.37	
Listening to learner concerns	Teachers	47 (28.9)	69 (42.4)	43 (26.3)	3 (1.8)	1 (0.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.01	57.000 df= 3 Asy Sig .000
	Learners	29 (20.3)	22 (15.3)	56 (39.2)	15 (10.5)	21 (14.7)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.29	
Learner respect of each other	Teachers	56 (34.4)	65 (39.9)	36 (22.1)	3 (1.8)	3 (1.8)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.09	98.129 df=3 Asy Sig .000
	Learners	42 (29.4)	34 (23.8)	39 (27.2)	4 (2.8)	24 (16.7)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.44	
Valuing learner experiences	Teachers	55 (33.7)	72 (44.2)	30 (18.4)	4 (2.5)	2 (1.2)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.14	70.006 df=3 Asy Sig .000
	Learners	36 (25.2)	40 (28.0)	38 (26.6)	11 (7.7)	18 (12.5)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.39	
Learner protection from violence	Teachers	75 (46.1)	70 (42.9)	14 (8.6)	3 (1.8)	1 (0.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.26	106.521 df=3 Asy Sig .000
	Learners	75 (52.4)	30 (21.0)	25 (17.5)	7 (4.9)	6 (4.2)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.52	
Equal chances in learning	Teachers	97 (59.6)	52 (31.9)	10 (6.1)	2 (1.2)	2 (1.2)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.36	105.294 df=3 Asy Sig .000
	Learners	40 (28.0)	37 (25.8)	43 (30.1)	9 (6.3)	14 (9.8)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	4.11	
Conducting oneself professionally	Teachers	106 (65.0)	43 (26.5)	11 (6.7)	2 (1.2)	1 (0.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.51	161.442 df=3 Asy Sig
	Learners	70	36	27	3	7	<b>143</b>	3.20	

y		(49.0)	(25.1)	(18.9)	(2.1)	(4.9)	<b>100</b>		.000
Enforcement of school rules	Teachers	96 (58.9)	50 (30.7)	13 (8.0)	1 (0.6)	3 (1.8)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.56	173.368 df=3
	Learners	59 (41.3)	32 (22.4)	20 (14.0)	8 (5.6)	24 (16.7)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.34	Asy Sig .000
Display of school rules	Teachers	48 (29.4)	58 (35.5)	43 (26.5)	8 (4.9)	6 (3.7)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.50	116.632 df=3
	Learners	49 (34.3)	40 (28.0)	22 (15.3)	8 (5.6)	24 (16.7)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.56	Asy Sig .000
Discussion of learner challenges	Teachers	58 (35.6)	52 (31.9)	40 (24.5)	8 (4.9)	5 (3.1)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.82	105.307 df=3
	Learners	32 (22.4)	21 (14.7)	32 (22.4)	16 (11.1)	42 (29.4)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.64	Asy Sig .000
Meaningful involvement of learners	Teachers	32 (19.7)	76 (46.6)	48 (29.4)	6 (3.7)	1 (0.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.91	95.988 df=3
	Learners	37 (25.8)	31 (21.7)	38 (26.6)	10 (7.0)	27 (18.9)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	2.87	Asy Sig .000
Offering of G & C services	Teachers	53 (32.6)	55 (33.7)	50 (30.7)	2 (1.2)	3 (1.8)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.81	89.308 df=3
	Learners	64 (44.7)	33 (23.1)	28 (19.6)	6 (4.2)	12 (8.4)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	4.12	Asy Sig 0.00
Parental involvement	Teachers	49 (30.1)	72 (44.1)	36 (22.1)	5 (3.1)	1 (0.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.94	87.308 df=3
	Learners	49 (34.3)	50 (35.0)	40 (28.0)	3 (2.1)	1 (0.6)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.89	Asy Sig .000
Other stakeholders involvement	Teachers	50 (30.7)	70 (42.9)	37 (22.7)	4 (2.5)	2 (1.2)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	4.00	137.951 df=3
	Learners	64 (44.7)	51 (35.7)	18 (12.6)	7 (4.9)	3 (2.1)	<b>143</b> <b>100</b>	3.90	Asy Sig .000

ET=Every Time; AET =Almost Every Time; OCC= Occasionally; R = Rarely; N = Never

\*df = 3,  $p < 0.05$ . Statistically, there was a significant difference between learner and teacher respondents on the frequency in use of the strategies because  $p$  is less than 0.05.

What is observable from Table 4.13 is that all the teacher respondents, 163 (100%) and all the learner respondents 143 (100%), attended to all the fifteen question items. It is also clear from the results of the chi-square test that there were statistically differences between teacher respondents and learner respondents on the rating of frequency in strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.

Results presented in Table 4.13, generally portrayed that responses on strategies employed by teachers on the promotion of CFS environments from teachers and learners agreed on many of the question items. The calculated mean scores for teacher responses ranged between 3.79 and 4.56 whereas mean scores for learner responses ranged from 2.74 to 4.12, which indicated that both teacher and learner respondents concurred that teachers frequently used various strategies in the promotion of CFS environments. The two sample respondents agreed that strategies such as knowing learner challenges, protecting learners from violence, parental involvement, other stakeholders' involvement, discussion of learner challenges, and offering guidance and counselling services, were frequently used. However, there were significant variations on some strategies from teacher and learner respondents. On the strategy of knowing the learner to create friendly school environments, the findings diverged. A significant number of teachers 93 (57.1%) indicated that they employed this strategy almost every time and 65 (39.9%) indicated that they occasionally used the strategy. On the contrary, only 25 (17.5%) indicated that the strategy was employed almost every time. Of significance were 75 (50.3%) learner respondents who revealed that the strategy was occasionally employed, and 46 (32.2%) indicated that the strategy was rarely used. These results were confirmed by a calculated mean of 3.79 which is relatively high compared to a low mean of 2.74 for learners' responses.

On the strategy of knowing and attending to learners' academic and social challenges, 112 (68.3%) teachers confirmed its employment almost every time and 48 (29.4%) used the strategy occasionally. A number of 66 (46.1%) learner respondents also acknowledged that teachers were employing this strategy frequently to promote child-friendly school environments and 50 (35.0%) expressed that teachers used this strategy occasionally. Majority of teachers 116 (71.3%) asserted that they employed the strategy

of listening to learners' ideas and opinions to ensure establishing friendly school environments. 43 (26.3%) confirmed using the same strategy occasionally. However, learners viewed it differently, with a significant number 36 (25.3%) indicating that teachers rarely employed this strategy. This learners' observation was confirmed by a calculated high mean of 4.01.

Both teacher and learner respondents gave their observations on the frequency of employing the strategy of insisting on respect among learners for them to assist in the promotion of CFS environments. 121 (74.3%) teachers acknowledged that they always employed the strategy whilst 76 (53.3) learners concurred. Valuing learners' experiences was another strategy teachers were employing every time, and this was confirmed by a majority of 127 (77.9%). A significant number of learners 76 (53.3%), shared the same sentiments. However, 29 (20.2%) learners bemoaned that teachers rarely used this strategy.

On the issue of protecting learners from violence, such as bullying, an overwhelming number 145 (89%) of teachers indicated that they employed this strategy every time and the same observation was made by 105 (73.4%) learners. Also, 149 (91.5%) teachers declared that they always offered learners equal chances in all learning activities as a strategy to promote CFS environments. Slightly more than half, 77 (53.8%) learners revealed that teachers employed this strategy almost every time. The calculated mean (standard deviation) of a high 4.11 (1.192) confirmed the findings. In their role to promote CFS environments, teachers are expected to be role models for learners in the way they conduct themselves. 149 (91.5%) confirmed that they every time conducted themselves professionally before learners, an observation shared by 106 (74.1%) learners. Enforcing school policies on learners' anti-social behaviour was another strategy 146 (89.6%) teachers claimed to be frequently employing in their role to promote CFS environments. 91 (63.7%) learners concurred. 106 (64.9%) teachers reported that they displayed all school policies, rules and regulations, and code of conduct for all learners to see, read and adhere to. However, 32 (22.3%) refuted this view.

Teachers also indicated that they employed the strategy of discussing with learners their academic and social challenges. A significant number of 110 (67.5%) teachers agreed that they used the strategy every time. This is another item where learners had a totally different idea. A very significant number of 58 (40.5%) learners posited that teachers rarely employed this strategy to ensure learner friendly school environments. On the issue of actively involving learners in the organization of all school or classroom activities, 108 (66.3%) acknowledged using the strategy and 66 (47.5%) agreed to that. To ensure that learners are comfortable and happy, offering guidance and counseling is vital. 108 (66.3%) teachers expressed that they were using it as a strategy to ensure learners CFS environments and 97 (67.8%) reported the same observation.

Parents are key players in the curriculum of their children; hence, their involvement in the promotion of CFS environments is of great significance. 121 (74.2%) teachers reported that they always used the strategy of inviting parents to discuss learners' academic and behaviour issues. 99 (69.3%) learners concurred. The findings were supported by a very high calculated mean (standard deviation) of 4.00 (.839). Besides the involvement of parents, personnel from other relevant stakeholders are essential in addressing and sensitizing learners on some social issues. 120 (73.6%) teachers indicated that they always invited resource persons from other stakeholders to assist them in ensuring learner friendly school environments. The majority of learners 115 (80.4%) agreed that teachers used this strategy.

The highlighted findings suggest that the respondents acknowledged teachers' effort to promote CFS environments. However, it was clear from the learner respondents' views that teachers were occasionally employing the strategies which could have negatively impacted on the results of their effort. On the part of teachers, there could be reasons why they used the strategies sparingly in their role in the promotion of CFS environments.



#### 4.5.2 Qualitative results on teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments

School head and G & C teacher participants were interviewed to generate qualitative data on the strategies employed to promote CFS environments. The main theme generated sub-themes which included interest to know the learners, emphasis on interpersonal skills, offering guidance and counselling services, emphasis on school rules and regulations, and partnering with relevant stakeholders. Table 4.14 presents the results on the strategies employed by teachers in their role to promote CFS environments.

**Table 4-14: Theme and sub-themes on teacher strategies to promote CFS environments**

Theme	Sub-themes	Related issues
Strategies to promote CFS environments	Knowing the learner	Teachers make an effort to know the learners at individual levels. Knowing them by name, their capabilities and challenges. Listening to their concerns. Impartial treatment of learners. Involving learners in the organization of learning activities.
	Emphasis on interpersonal skills	Teachers encourage learners to respect and listen to each other. Teachers encourage collaborative learning. Teachers identify learner potential in leading others. Learners are equipped with effective communication skills.
	Guidance and counselling services	Teachers respect and value the shared experiences of learners. Motivate learners by providing relevant learning materials. Offer learners information mental health issues. Support learners who are in distress.
	Emphasis on school rules and regulations	Teachers display school policies and codes of conduct. Protect learners from any unpleasant situations. Enforce school policies in dealing with issues of bullying.
	Partnering with relevant stakeholders	Teachers engage resource persons from relevant stakeholders. Freely discuss learners' academic work and behaviour challenges with parents.

#### **4.5.2.1 Knowing the learner**

Interview participants were posed with a question on how they portrayed knowledge of their learners at individual level. The responses indicated that teachers made an effort to know their learners by name, which increased attachment and belonging. Teachers reported that they were working with very large classes which made it difficult at times to know all the learners by name but they confirmed the importance of knowing their academic and social backgrounds. Both school heads and G & C teachers concurred that knowing learners ensured increased discipline. One of the school heads observed that:

*Learners tend to respect teachers who know them by name. In the majority of cases, they dread to misbehave because they are identifiable, and on the part of teachers, it helps in dealing with learners when one is aware of their social backgrounds (R1).*

The participants further indicated that class social records were important documents which every teacher should have. Being aware of learners' capabilities and challenges was reported to be vital in addressing learners' needs which would encourage them to remain in school until completion. Teachers agreed that the other viable way of knowing learners was to listen to their concerns. This was expressed thus:

*Learners are diverse and they have diverse concerns which teachers need to listen to and address accordingly. There is no need for teachers to assume the challenges learners will be experiencing at school. Instead, teachers should create platforms for learners to air their views and opinions on issues that concern their welfare and interests (R6).*

There was also a shared consensus among participants that learner segregation negatively impacted school environments. G & C teachers openly confirmed that some teachers publicly treat learners differently either way and thus creating hostile learning environments for some learners and suppression of their potential. One G & C teacher shared thus:

*Teachers need to be impartial in their treatment of learners, especially adolescents who need support for smooth transition into adulthood. At times, teachers tend to enjoy humiliating learners in front of their peers which lowers their self-esteem and eventually they hate to be in school, which may result in dropping out of school. Teachers should show love and care for all learners regardless of their social background or academic competencies (GC2).*

The participants also highlighted the need for teachers to identify talent or potential in learners and assign them duties accordingly. One school head bemoaned that some learners ended up misbehaving to gain teachers' attention:

*I always encourage my teachers to engage learners in different activities according to their potential and that keeps them motivated and happy to be in school. Given the chance, some learners are better organizers than their teachers (R2).*

Most responses on this teacher strategy in the promotion of CFS environments endorsed the importance of good teacher-learner rapport.

#### **4.5.2.2 Emphasis on interpersonal communication skills**

Participants were further probed how they promoted learner-learner interaction. Both school heads and G & C participants expressed disappointment with some learners who could not relate well with others at school. There emerged a unanimous agreement that learners had an input in the promotion of CFS environments hence, teachers were committed in fostering good interpersonal skills. Teachers reported that they encouraged learners to respect and listen to each other:

*In this school, we emphasise on respect of one another among both teachers and learners. We always encourage our learners to be tolerant with each other and accept diversity. Our learners come from different social backgrounds but once they enter the school gate, we expect them to value each other and be prepared to work with everyone. Some practical subjects require collaborative learning and we group our learners randomly and in the majority of cases, they productively work together (GC3).*

Good interpersonal skills are usually portrayed through effective communication. Teachers talked of varied activities that learners were engaged in to boost their communication skills, as reflected in the following expression:

*Teachers encourage learners to be members of different clubs such as Debate, Interactive, and Peer education. Besides engagement in these clubs, all our learners have the opportunity of making presentations of their choice during assembly or Speech and Prize giving events (GC1).*

On the contrary, some teachers felt that fostering such skills among learners was not an easy task for teachers. They expressed that teachers were supposed to model these skills in their dealings with learners, for them to emulate and practice. Some school heads complained of some teachers' conduct among themselves or with learners. One school head had this to share:

*Teachers should stop teaching learners interpersonal skills. Instead, they should practice the skills for learners to see and copy. It is disheartening that there are some teachers who cannot relate well with their colleagues and they may end up fighting in the presence of learners. The same teachers do not relate well with learners and these become failures in their role in the promotion of CFS environments (R5).*

From the results, it was evident that working on the quality of teacher-teacher, teacher-learner and learner-learner interaction was a vital strategy teachers needed to embrace in their role to promote CFS environments.

#### **4.5.2.3 Offering guidance and counselling services**

Interview responses indicated that learners had many concerns and challenges which required teachers' interventions to address them. The teacher participants concurred with school heads that learners needed to be guided and directed along the right and relevant processes in order to reach their full potential. They cited different forms of guidance which learners required and expressed that whenever teachers offered the required guidance, learners were likely to be happy to be in school. Teachers were able to give some benefits of guidance, as shown below:

*Teachers are capable of serving many learners from trouble if they offer guidance at the right time and in the right manner. Appropriate guidance can be offered where teachers value and respect the experiences of learners. Democratic participation of both learners and parents is vital where teacher guidance is required. We need to provide learners with relevant guidance in order to keep them motivated and focused. Guided learners are usually disciplined and a pleasure to teach (GC7).*

Although this was a shared sentiment by most teachers, there were some who complained about how difficult some learners were to accept teacher guidance, especially in the choice of subjects at Form 3 and 5. Some learners were reported to be refusing guidance on social issues such as choice of friends. One G & C teacher bluntly expressed that:

*When it comes to offering guidance to our learners, it is frustrating at times because they do not listen to our advice. Some of these learners tend to know it all and they have very little respect of what teachers guide them to do. As their teachers, we know their academic capabilities and would like to help them in the choice of subjects at “O” or “A” level but some resist our input. Eventually, these learners would fail the examinations (GC5).*

On the aspect of offering learners counselling, the teacher and school head participants unanimously agreed that this was a vital intervention and strategy teachers employed to ensure learner friendly school environments. The participants concurred that learners had diverse challenges at school and counselling services were inevitable. However, most teachers bemoaned their limited skills to offer this service, as reported below;

*Both teachers and learners look up to G & C teachers for the offering of counselling whenever a case which requires such service arises. The school administration expects these teachers to effectively offer the service, but it is quite unfortunate that most of G & C teachers are not trained to do counselling. They usually depended on the basic skills they had gained from workshops. Teachers are committed to offer counselling to distressed learners and it is likely*

*that they would remain in school and develop a positive attitude towards themselves and others. Teachers need to be up-skilled with counselling skills. Of late, there have been a lot of reports on learners who are into drug and substance abuse and teachers are conducting awareness programmes on the dangers of such practice (GC6).*

Teachers also complained of lack of appropriate counselling facilities which curtailed the effectiveness of this strategy in their effort to promote CFS environments. Most G & C teachers reported that they used their offices as counselling rooms and these were shared offices which compromised the aspect of confidentiality. One teacher said:

*It is not very exciting to talk about counselling services as a strategy we employ to ensure learners CFS environments because there is no proper room to offer the service. Learners bring their issues to us in our offices or base rooms and we try to attend to them but the environment is not conducive for such services. There will be no privacy and confidentiality and this short changes the learners. Some learners have just decided not seek counselling services because they are aware of the situation. We require a proper counselling room well equipped and strategically positioned (GC4).*

#### **4.5.2.4 Emphasis on school rules and regulations**

Participants were asked to explain their contribution in the management and handling of learners and many of them reported that they enforced the school rules and regulations. Teachers asserted that learners were supposed to be fully aware of the school rules and regulations in order to abide by them. School heads expressed the importance of teachers in ensuring that the rules and regulations were adhered to. When probed how they enforced the rules and regulations, one teacher had this to say:

*I am a class teacher and I make sure my learners know the school rules and regulations by displaying them on classroom notice board. I usually encourage learners to regularly read the rules and regulations and whenever a class member violates any of those, I make him or her to identify which rule or*

*regulation would have been broken and then take the appropriate action to rectify the situation (GC7).*

On their own, learners are capable of exposing each other to very hostile school environments through bullying behaviour. Both teacher and school head participants concurred that the practice of bullying was a cause of serious concern in schools. They also cited cases of some learners who dropped out of school because they were subjected to a lot of bullying in school and out of school. One school head emotionally expressed thus:

*Ours is a school located in high density residential area known for crime and all sorts of anti-social behaviours by both men and women. Some of our learners are involved in these bad activities and at times they choose to engage in such behaviours whilst at school and this has badly affected some learners. I received reports of some girls or boys who have been subjected to bullying whilst coming or going out of school. I always encourage the teachers to be on the alert of such learner anti-social behaviours, and I strongly feel together we can reduce the practice (R6).*

Teachers also bemoaned the many reported incidents of bullying, labelling or discrimination happening in the schools among learners, with some happening in their presence during in class or out of classroom activities. Teachers expressed that during their guidance and counselling lessons, they bring bullying related issues for discussion and debate and they always discouraged learners from such bad behaviour. Teachers cited some isolated cases where they physically intervened to stop a fight or save a learner from humiliation and ridicule by other learners. All the female G & C focal persons expressed serious concern of these learner anti-social behaviours, thus:

*We have both boys and girls we have invited for counselling because many other learners had come to me reporting of their bad behaviour and attitude towards others. These learners beat, scold or belittle their schoolmates. Girl learners complain of their names tarnished due to unfounded rumours and it is affecting them (GC1).*

*Twice or thrice in a week, I am made to attend to cases of bullying or accusation of theft or loose morals reported to me or other teachers (GC4).*

*I have devised an approach where I meet boys and girls separately once in a week just for thirty minutes to give them highlights on the effects of bullying or discrimination on other learners. This is the time I use to deliberate on gender related issues, such as sexually immoral behaviours for girls and drug and substance abuse for boys respectively (GC6).*

*During assembly time each week, the school head affords me ten minutes to present something related to issues of bullying, stigma and discrimination, cyber-bullying which cause school environments to become unfriendly for other learners (GC7).*

However, G & C teachers complained that in some cases, perpetrators of such anti-social behaviours were not adequately reprimanded which tended to increase the practice in some schools. They expressed that at times their basic counselling failed to be of remedy. They felt school heads should not hesitate to suspend or eventually expel such learners as a deterrent measure to other prospective bullies. School heads were not very keen to deliberate on issues of learner suspension or expulsion citing it was complicated and controversial. One school head had this to say:

*Suspending or expelling a learner is not the best of practice if we are to adhere to the principles of the CFS approach. Instead, we should device means and ways of helping the child within our school structures and this is where guidance and counselling comes into play. We rely on our G & C teachers and believe they can handle anti-social behaviour issues very amicably (R3).*

The participants' shared sentiments were that both school administration and teachers were supposed to work closely to enforce school rules and regulations and speak with one voice on the measures against those who violate the set standards.



#### **4.5.2.5 Partnering with other stakeholders**

The importance and relevance of other stakeholders in the promotion of CFS environments was confirmed by the participants. Teachers indicated that learners came from homes and had parents or guardians who would expect the best out of them, hence were concerned about the nature of environments their children are exposed to whilst at school. Teachers reported that they expected and appreciated parents or guardians who cooperated when invited to discuss academic or social issues about their children. One of the participants expressed that:

*In their effort to ensure learners CFS environments, they also needed the input and contribution of other key players such as parents, other government sectors and non-governmental organizations. The school administration assists them to invite resource persons from relevant stakeholders teachers would have identified, to come and address our learners on health, natural disasters, crime, and child abuse issues among others (GC2).*

On the issue of parental involvement, teachers and school heads had diverse feelings and observations. Majority of teachers confirmed that parents were cooperative when invited to discuss academic or behaviour issues of learners. Teachers identified two categories of parents namely; the 'supportive and appreciative parents' and 'knowing it all and hovering parents'. One G & C focal person said:

*It is very noble to involve parents or guardians in our effort to offer learners friendly school environments, but at times it is not easy and smooth as we expect it to be. Parents are different and their contribution in school administrative issues is also varied in some cases to the extremes. Some parents are very positive in all their interactions with teachers. They trust and have faith in the teachers and they value their suggestions about the good of their child, yet there is another crop of parents who may cause havoc when invited to school to discuss their child. Such parents come ready with answers and suggestions for every point raised. They side with their child in his or her presence and blame teachers for almost everything. These are difficult parents who compromise our role in the promotion of CFS environments (GC6).*

School heads participants agreed to most of the sentiments raised by the teachers about parental involvement to ensure learners friendly school environments but they also aired a different dimension to the matter. They expressed that in some isolated cases, teachers were found to be lacking proper skills to handle and interact with parents. One school head regrettably expressed that:

*Parents are a delicate stakeholder who requires appropriate skills to handle and interact with, especially on issues to do with the welfare of their children whilst at school. They rarely want to be summoned to school because it effects their social or business engagements. When they are done with paying school fees for their children, they delegate all other responsibilities to the teachers. Most of our teachers are young and immature when it comes to dealing with parents (R6).*

The participants reported that involvement of other stakeholders was quite crucial in teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments if timeously and properly incorporated.

#### **4.5.3 Summary of main findings on the strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments**

The following table, Table 4.15 presents the main findings on the strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.

**Table 4-15: Triangulation table for findings from quantitative and qualitative data**

<b>Findings (Quantitative data)</b>	<b>Findings (Qualitative data)</b>
Teachers indicated that knowing the learners and establishing a bond with them made it a basis for employing other strategies in the promotion of CFS environments.	Building a good rapport with learners strengthens learners' sense of belonging to the school and motives learners to remain in school until completion.
Confirmed that organizing all teaching and learning activities in the best interest of learners was a viable strategy in the promotion of CFS environments.	Teaching and learning activities which address learners' needs and interests tend to motive learners. Meaningful involvement of learners in all that concerns them boost their confidence and promote learner discipline.
Teachers substantiated that healthy learner-learner interactions ensured creation and existence of CFS	Healthy learner-learner interactions can ensure friendly school environments for all. Teachers can

environments to benefit both teachers and learners.	model good interpersonal skills which learners can emulate and practice.
Teachers verified the importance of enforcing school rules and regulations to ensure that all learners enjoyed friendly school environments.	Different teachers have different ways of enforcing school rules and regulations. Double standards in handling learner indiscipline de-motivate teachers in their role to promote CFS environments.
Incorporation of relevant stakeholders, such as parents, other government sectors and non-governmental organisations was rated vital in the promotion of CFS environments.	Support and services from other key players such as parents and NGOs complement teachers' effort in ensuring learners CFS environments.
Teachers testified that guidance and counselling was an essential learners' support service offered at individual or group level.	Effective and appropriate guidance and counselling services require skilled teachers and suitable facilities should be in place for learners to enjoy and benefit.

The summarized version of the findings from quantitative and qualitative data presented in Table 4.12 indicated where it converged or diverged.

#### **4.5.3.1 Interpreting the triangulation table**

Teachers' responses from quantitative data revealed that there are varied strategies teachers can employ to promote CFS environments. They affirmed that having a sound knowledge of the learners, that is, knowing them by name, their social background, and realization of their potential and challenges enhanced learners' sense of belonging. Teachers asserted that valuing learners' needs, interests, and experiences kept them motivated to remain in school until completion. The strategy of involving learners meaningfully in all teaching and learning activities was reported to be helpful in keeping learners disciplined and focused. It was also clearly revealed that equipping learners with relevant interpersonal skills enhanced collaborative learning and tolerance among learners.

Teachers were also confident that they had the capacity of enforcing school rules and regulations in order to protect learners from incidents of bullying, stigma and discrimination. They substantiated that the incorporation of relevant stakeholders such as parents, other government, and NGOs was vital in the promotion of CFS environments. The offering of guidance and counselling services to learners was also confirmed to be an ideal strategy in ensuring learner friendly school environments.

Responses from qualitative data indicated that teachers need to establish a good rapport with learners in order for them to feel free and attached. This sense of belonging motivated learners to remain in school and value its relevance in their development. Teachers asserted that meaningful involvement of learners in the organization of all teaching and learning activities was rated as a viable strategy which needed to be employed cautiously because it tended to retard syllabus coverage. Interviewed teachers opined that this strategy assisted in boosting learner confidence and enhancing learner discipline but, too much dependence on learners' interests was difficult when dealing with big classes.

The teacher and school heads participants concurred that equipping learners with appropriate interpersonal skills ensured tolerance of diversity among learners. Learners needed to be encouraged to respect and listen to each other, but teachers needed to model tolerance and impartiality on learners. Teachers also mentioned the need to enforce school rules and regulations in an effort to protect learners from any unpleasant events such as bullying. They reported that varied ways were employed to ensure that learners were aware of those rules and regulations. The participants openly admitted that they needed the input of other relevant stakeholders such as parents, other government sectors and NGOs to ensure learners CFS environments. However, teachers bemoaned that some parental involvement yielded negative results. Teachers highly appreciated offering guidance and counselling to learners, but complained of lack of skills and inappropriate facilities to offer the service. Basically, findings from both quantitative and qualitative data converged on most of the issues to do with teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **4.6 RESULTS ON CHALLENGES IN THE PROMOTION OF CFS ENVIRONMENTS**

The findings in the previous section confirmed that teachers devised varied and viable strategies in the promotion of CFS environments. However, further investigations by the researcher revealed that teachers encountered numerous challenges in their role to promote CFS environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools. Quantitative and

qualitative data was meant to answer the sub-research question thus: “What challenges do teachers encounter in the promotion of child-friendly school environments?”

#### 4.6.1 Quantitative results on challenges faced by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments

Reviewed literature highlighted that teachers encounter a number of challenges in their effort to promote CFS environments. In this study, teachers were exposed to sixteen items on some possible challenges and they were requested to indicate their level of agreement to those. The quantitative results on challenges that hinder teachers in their role to promote CFS environments are presented and analysed in the subsequent Table 4.16 and the following sections.

**Table 4-16: Responses on teachers’ challenges in the promotion of CFS environments**

Challenge	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	Mean	ST.D
Lack of CFS concept background	56 (34.4)	63 (38.6)	27 (16.6)	13 (8.0)	2 (1.2)	<b>161</b> <b>(98.8)</b>	3.93	1.066
Unfamiliarity with CFS related international human rights treaties	49 (30.1)	56 (34.4)	34 (20.9)	20 (12.3)	1 (0.6)	<b>160</b> <b>(98.3)</b>	3.76	1.121
Inaccessibility to CFS related circulars.	49 (30.1)	50 (30.7)	44 (27.0)	11 (6.7)	8 (4.9)	<b>162</b> <b>(99.4)</b>	3.72	1.163
Lack of CFS approach understanding	59 (36.2)	39 (23.9)	39 (23.9)	22 (13.5)	3 (1.8)	<b>162</b> <b>(99.4)</b>	3.77	1.184
Lack of training in the CFS approach.	53 (32.5)	57 (35.0)	29 (17.8)	17 (10.4)	7 (4.3)	<b>163</b> <b>(100)</b>	3.80	1.166
Lack of relevant skills to promote the CFS approach	32 (19.6)	58 (35.6)	43 (26.4)	18 (11.0)	12 (7.4)	<b>163</b> <b>(100)</b>	3.48	1.178
Lack of CFS induction for new teachers.	64 (39.3)	48 (28.4)	28 (17.2)	15 (9.2)	6 (3.7)	<b>161</b> <b>(98.9)</b>	3.88	1.206
Inadequate resources	62 (38.1)	45 (27.6)	31 (19.0)	11 (6.7)	14 (8.6)	<b>163</b> <b>100</b>	3.74	1.395
Lack of clarity on CFS policies	28 (17.3)	47 (28.8)	55 (33.7)	22 (13.5)	9 (5.5)	<b>161</b> <b>(98.8)</b>	3.25	1.288
Negative teacher attitude and lack of commitment	33 (20.2)	45 (27.6)	37 (22.7)	19 (11.7)	27 (16.6)	<b>161</b> <b>(98.8)</b>	3.20	1.396

Poor team spirit and team work	39 (23.9)	47 (28.8)	52 (31.9)	18 (11.0)	5 (3.2)	<b>161</b> <b>(98.8)</b>	3.56	1.134
Lack of administration support	46 (28.2)	55 (33.7)	38 (23.3)	19 (11.7)	2 (1.2)	<b>160</b> <b>(98.3)</b>	3.75	1.126
Lack of parental support	38 (23.3)	59 (36.2)	35 (21.5)	17 (10.4)	14 (8.6)	<b>163</b> <b>(100)</b>	3.50	1.335
Poor working conditions	56 (34.4)	54 (33.1)	30 (18.4)	16 (9.8)	7 (4.3)	<b>163</b> <b>(100)</b>	3.82	1.17
Lack of on-going professional growth	52 (31.9)	47 (28.8)	37 (22.7)	15 (9.2)	10 (6.1)	<b>161</b> <b>(98.8)</b>	3.63	1.356

SA: Strongly Agree; A: Agree; U: Uncertain; D: Disagree; SD: Strongly Disagree; ST.D: Standard Deviation (Mean: 1 – 2.4 Low; 2.5 – 3.4 Moderate; 3.5 – 5 High)

Generally, the results presented in Table 4.13, revealed that teachers had many challenges in their promotion of CFS environments. The findings were confirmed by 12 out of 15 items having mean scores between 3.50 and 3.93 signifying strong agreement that there were challenges which included, lack of understanding, lack of CFS training, lack of CFS induction, lack of resources, poor working conditions, and negative teacher attitudes, among others. 119 (73%) teachers agreed that they did not have adequate background of the CFS approach which yielded a calculated high mean (standard deviation) of 3.93 (1.066). Few respondents 15 (9.2%) disagreed with the existence of the cited challenge. The collected data revealed that 105 (64.5%) teachers confirmed that lack of familiarity with international treaties that inform the CFS approach was a challenge in their role to promote CFS environments and 34 (20.9%) respondents were uncertain whether it was a challenge or not. Failure by teachers to access CFS related circulars available in their respective schools was another challenge which 99 (60.8%) teachers agreed to encountering in the promotion of friendly school environments. However, 19 (11.6%) respondents reported not having access to the circulars was not a challenge. The poor understanding of the CFS approach by teachers was cited as a challenge that compromised teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. 98 (60.1%) confirmed that it was a challenge and 39 (23.9%) were uncertain. The calculated mean indicated that teachers generally agreed that lack of CFS

understanding was a major challenge in their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

The majority of the teacher respondents were already in service and 110 (67.5%) of them expressed that their biggest challenge was that they were not trained in the CFS approach. The responses were also represented by a calculated mean of 3.80. This lack of training resulted in another challenge of not having relevant skills to promote the initiative. 90 (55.2%) indicated that they did not have the required skills, whilst 30 (17.4) did not view it as a challenge. Teachers tend to appreciate and understand the CFS concept better if they are inducted on it. However, 112 (67.7%) teachers asserted that they were never inducted in the CFS environments when they joined their respective schools. Lack of induction was viewed as a challenge in the promotion of CFS environments, and only 21 (12.9%) teachers disagreed that it was a challenge.

The availability of varied resources is essential in the promotion of CFS environments. However, 107 (65.7%) teacher respondents in this study acknowledged that lack of adequate resources in the schools was a challenge in their role in the promotion of CFS environments. 25 (15.3%) teachers did not view lack of resources as a challenge. Another cited challenge was lack of clear policies on the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments to which 75 (46.1%) agreed. A significant number of 55 (33.7%) were not certain of this situation whether it was a challenge or not, and 31 (19.0%) refuted this as a challenge.

In situations where resources were adequate, teachers' negative attitude and lack of commitment in the promotion of CFS environments was also mentioned as a challenge 78 (47.8) teachers agreed to, but 46 (28.3%) teachers disagreed that it was a challenge. On another note, 86 (52.7%) teachers confirmed that poor team spirit and team work among teachers and learners was an extreme barrier in the promotion of CFS environments and 52 (31.9%) were uncertain. In their role in the promotion of CFS environments, teachers need to be supported by the school administration, and lack of such support was cited as major hindrance to which 101 (61.9%) teachers agreed. Besides lacking this kind of support, 97 (59.5%) teachers also reported that lack of parental support was another barrier in their role to promote CFS environments. Poor

working conditions and lack of teacher motivation were other reported challenges to which 110 (67.5%) teacher respondents concurred. Generally, teachers' responses on their challenges in the promotion of CFS environments had mean scores that ranged from 3.20 to 3.93 indicating moderate to high scores which reflected a large coefficient variation in the sample that was being studied.

Besides the presented results from the teacher respondents, learners were also exposed to a section on which they were to indicate their level of agreement with the challenges assumed to be hindering teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. The respondents were presented with 10 items on which they were to respond using a 5 rating Likert scale.

**Table 4-17: Learners' responses on challenges hindering teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments**

Challenge	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	Mean	ST.D
Inadequate resources	55 (38.5)	39 (27.2)	20 (14.0)	19 (13.3)	10 (7.0)	143 100	3.28	1.365
Large class sizes	61 (42.6)	30 (21.0)	19 (13.3)	21 (14.7)	12 (8.4)	143 100	2.99	1.553
Inadequate learning space	62 (43.4)	36 (25.2)	19 (13.3)	16 (11.1)	10 (7.0)	143 100	3.12	1.55
Learner indiscipline	58 (40.6)	25 (17.5)	26 (18.1)	17 (11.9)	17 (11.9)	143 100	2.95	1.581
Lack of teacher motivation	39 (27.2)	26 (18.2)	44 (30.9)	22 (15.3)	12 (8.4)	143 100	2.36	1.331
Poor working conditions	53 (37.1)	25 (17.5)	31 (21.6)	23 (16.1)	11 (7.7)	143 100	3.13	1.512
Lack of parental support	46 (32.2)	34 (23.8)	26 (18.2)	21 (14.7)	16 (11.1)	143 100	2.80	1.49
Lack of administration support	38 (26.6)	35 (24.5)	31 (21.7)	17 (11.9)	22 (15.3)	143 100	3.09	1.511
Teachers' negative attitude towards learners	36 (25.2)	41 (28.7)	28 (19.6)	20 (14.0)	18 (12.5)	143 100	2.86	1.565
Lack of cooperation among teachers	50 (35.0)	29 (20.3)	43 (30.0)	10 (7.0)	11 (7.7)	143 100	3.07	1.417



SA: Strongly Agree; A: Agree; U: Uncertain; D: Disagree; SD: Strongly Disagree; ST.D: Standard Deviation (Mean: 1 – 2.4 Low; 2.5 – 3.4 Moderate; 3.5 – 5 High)

From the results in Table 4.14, it was clear that all the 10 items had calculated mean scores of between 2.36 and 3.28, but less than 3.5, which indicated that the learner respondents agreed that inadequate resources, large class sizes, inadequate teaching and learning space, learner indiscipline, and lack of parental support were the major challenges teachers were encountering in their role to promote CFS environments. The other five challenges, lack of teacher motivation, poor working conditions, lack of administration support, teachers' negative attitude and lack of commitment, and lack of teacher cooperation were rated as moderately affecting teachers in their effort to promote CFS environments. The results concurred with the responses from teacher respondents on the same items as presented in Table 4.13. Responses on individual question items confirmed the prevailing situation. 94 (65.7%) learners agreed that inadequate resources was a major challenge for teachers in their role to promote CFS environments, against 29 (20.3%) who disagreed and 20 (14.0%) who were uncertain. The finding was similar to the teacher responses of 107 (65.7%) agreeing that inadequate resources hindered their effort in the promotion of CFS environments.

Another cited challenge was of large class sizes, to which 91 (63.6%) learner respondents confirmed and 19 (13.3%) were uncertain. Only 33 (23.1) disputed this as a challenge. The calculated 2.99 mean score indicated that this challenge was of significance to the teachers.

A majority of 98 (68.6%) learner respondents indicated that inadequate learning space was a challenge derived from the large class sizes. Only 26 (18.1%) disagreed to it and 19 (13.3%) were not sure in their rating. A calculated mean score of 3.12 confirmed that both teachers and learners were negatively impacted by the limited learning space which made it difficult to employ child-friendly teaching and learning methods.

On the challenge of learner indiscipline, 83 (58.1%) learner respondents agreed to it whereas 34 (23.8%) disagreed that it was a challenge for teachers. It was of interest to note that learners did not seriously consider teacher motivation as a factor in the

promotion of CFS environments. Only 65 (45.4%), which is less than half the sample size (N=143) agreed that lack of teacher motivation was a challenge hindering teachers' promotion of CFS environments. A significant number of 44 (30.9%) respondents was not sure whether this was a challenge or not, and 34 (23.8%) disagreed that this was a challenge at all. The calculated mean score of 2.36 confirmed that this challenge had less impact and significance in the role of teachers to promote CFS environments.

The other four remaining cited challenges were viewed as significant barriers in the promotion of CFS environments. 78 (54.6%) learners agreed that the poor working conditions teachers were subjected to were a barrier in their role of promoting CFS environments. Only 34 (23.8%) disagreed and 31 (21.6%) were uncertain of the rating. On the issue of lack of administration support, 73 (51.1%) respondents confirmed that it was a barrier, whereas 39 (27.2%) disputed that it was a barrier. The challenges of teacher attitude and lack of teacher team work and team spirit were confirmed by slightly more than half of the respondents, with the former having 77 (53.9%) and the latter 79 (55.3%). Of interest were 43 (30.0%) learner respondents who were not sure whether there was cooperation among teachers or not and whether lack of that cooperation was negatively impacting on teachers in their role to promote CFS environments. On the whole, the learner responses presented revealed that they totally agreed that teachers were encountering various challenges in their effort to promote CFS environments.

#### **4.6.2 Qualitative results on the challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments**

Findings from quantitative data portrayed that teachers were faced with numerous challenges in playing their role in the promotion of CFS environments. Teacher respondents confirmed the challenges by responding to the guided and suggested challenges. However, the researcher saw it befitting to complement these findings with qualitative data from in-depth semi-structured interviews conducted with school heads and G & C focal persons respectively. The challenges are shown in Table 4.18 and elaborated in the subsequent sections

**Table 4-18: Theme and sub-themes on the challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments**

Theme	Sub-themes	Related issues
Challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments	Inadequate background information.	The origins of the CFS concept alien to teachers. Teachers unfamiliar of the international treaties that inform the CFS concept. Non-existence of a national CFS policy. No induction on CFS environments for new teachers.
	Lack of access to CFS environments related policy circulars.	School heads custodians of policy circulars. Limited access to circulars by teachers. Referral to circulars occasionally.
	Inadequate knowledge and skills.	Poor understanding of the CFS concept. Not formally trained in the CFS approach. Unavailability of relevant CFS literature.
	Lack of resources.	Limited learning space. Large class sizes and overcrowded classrooms. Inadequate sports materials. Specialist rooms and laboratories not adequately resourced. Limited funds for educational trips.
	Unclear policies on teachers' role.	Role confusion. Unavailability of clear policies on teachers' role.
	Negative attitude and lack of commitment.	CFS approach in favour of learners. An imposed top down approach. CFS principles implementation requires time and resources. Teachers overwhelmed with the demands of other duties.
	Lack of school administration support.	Less attention by administration to teachers' concerns. Prioritizing other issues. Double standards in dealing with teachers and learners.
	Lack of parental support.	Uncooperative parents. Over-domineering parents.
	Poor working conditions.	Lack of teacher motivation. Poor salaries and living conditions. Lack of respect for the teaching profession.
	Non-availability of opportunities for professional growth.	Limited study- leave for teachers. Training in the CFS approach for a few teachers. No funds for massive up-skilling of teachers in the CFS approach.

#### **4.6.2.1 Inadequate background knowledge and understanding on the CFS approach**

School heads and G & C focal persons were presented with numerous questions soliciting their responses on teachers' knowledge of the origins and background of the CFS approach. The participants were exposed to a number of CFS related international treaties and national education policies that inform the approach. Generally, they strongly felt this was a foreign education approach which was not very suitable in their poorly resourced schools. They expressed concerns that the concept was donor initiated and there was very little involvement of the teachers who are the implementers. Participants were also sceptical about the non-existence of a National CFS policy which made it difficult, especially for school heads to enforce the approach. One school head opined that:

*From my own understanding, the CFS approach is very noble and necessary in our schools. However, my worry is the lack of buy-in of the initiative by many teachers due to lack of understanding of this concept. Many teachers have just heard of this concept in passing or maybe they have heard it for the first time when you administered your questionnaires to them. The background of this approach was never adequately explained to the majority of the teaching staff. There are some who have a feeling that this is the school head's business and they have nothing to do with it. The other challenge is that currently, there is no National CFS policy in place; we just work with assumptions (R3).*

Lack of well-structured induction for new teachers on CFS environments in schools was cited as a related challenge to teachers' compromised understanding, knowledge and appreciation of the CFS approach. Teachers join schools from different backgrounds and it cannot be assumed that all have a sound background of the concept. G & C participants were very vocal on the issue of the vital induction missing in CFS environments for every new teacher joining a new school. Two participants concurred on this challenge, as reflected in the following comments:

*It should not be taken for granted that every teacher is aware and understands the CFS approach. Yes, we usually see our District Schools Inspector driving a*

*vehicle written 'Child-friendly Schools' but majority of us do not bother to understand what all this, is about. I strongly feel that school heads should take upon themselves in their respective schools to conduct a well-structured induction programme for all teachers joining the school or as a refresher intervention for those already in the system. There is need for teachers to know and understand curriculum initiatives that they are expected to implement and promote (GC4).*

#### **4.6.2.2 Inaccessibility to CFS related policies by teachers.**

Despite the observation of a missing National CFS policy as a challenge for teachers in the promotion of CFS environments, teacher participants bemoaned their lack of access to the available CFS related policy circulars in schools. Teachers expressed that school heads were the custodians of all the communication documents from the ministry and it appeared they jealously guarded the documents such that many teachers would not have access to them. The teachers complained that information in some of those circulars specifically referred to teachers and was supposed to be availed to them for proper implementation. Some G & C focal persons reported that teachers were getting frustrated by this behaviour of some school heads. One emotional participant had this to share:

*School heads use different leadership styles which either promote or demote CFS environments. On the issue of making CFS related circulars accessible to teachers, it is not always easy or guaranteed. Some school heads keep circulars in their offices, neatly filed and gathering dust on the shelves and do not want teachers to have access to these profession related documents. We are only instructed to implement or promote a curriculum initiative we are not well versed with. School heads hide from us the relevant support materials we are supposed to use or refer to. This could be one of the reasons why some teachers are so indifferent to this CFS approach. They believe it is the school head's business because he is the only one having access to the documents (GC 6).*

On the contrary, school heads refuted that teachers were barred from accessing CFS related policy circulars. Instead, they blamed teachers for a poor reading culture and

lack of concern for other issues. It was cited that schools made deliberate effort to bring or refer to some of these policy circulars during staff development meetings. The idea of keeping circulars in the school office was a ministry requirement for safe-keeping and accountability purposes. One school head had this to say:

*In my experience as a school head, I do not recall an incident where a teacher requested access to a particular circular document and was denied. Most teachers seem not to bother much about communication which comes to them through circulars. They tend to think it is meant for me the school head. Teachers usually have a poor reading culture. Sometimes I pin-up a circular on staffroom notice board for them to read but two weeks down the line if I refer to its contents during staff meetings they always appear surprised like they are hearing news things. I have come up with a strategy of making copies of circulars I think are essential for teachers and distributed to all HOD s for their departmental files (R3).*

The teachers made an appeal to the school heads that enough copies of CFS related policy circulars be reproduced at school level for every teacher which would likely enhance their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **4.6.2.3 Lack of adequate resources**

Both school head and teachers shared the same views on inadequacy of teaching and learning resources, in the areas of learning space, sporting equipment, and laboratories and special rooms, and funding for school activities. However, participants quickly acknowledged that shortage of textbooks was no longer a challenge. They were very grateful for the 2013 UNICEF one-on-one textbook allocation initiative to all primary and secondary school learners across the nation. Despite the adequacy of textbooks, both teachers and school heads cited that there was lack of other vital resources which made it difficult for teachers to promote CFS environments. There was an outcry from both teachers and school heads that classrooms were overcrowded resulting in very limited walking and working space for both the teacher and the learners. The CFS approach encourages participatory methodologies and collaborative learning and teachers bemoaned that their employment was a nightmare for them due to very large classes.

Sentiments of some school heads about the issue are captured in the following comments:

*This is a very big school with more than a thousand learners. Our facilities cannot accommodate this big number at once; hence, we have a double learning session which is basically like having two schools in one. Our Form 1 and 2 classes have an average of sixty learners per class and this is an abnormal load for a teacher. In majority of cases, our teachers become overwhelmed with these big classes and usually fail to cater for individual learner differences. At times they encounter the challenge of learner indiscipline. It is difficult to monitor such big numbers. Even the quality of academic work can be compromised (R2).*

*Our school has learners talented in different sporting disciplines, but our biggest challenge is of inadequate sporting equipment. The school playgrounds are in a sorry state and sport kits for different ball games need to be replenished. Sports involve a lot of travelling and the school does not have enough funds to cater for the trips. We have some boys in this school who are so much committed in sports and they seem to enjoy being in school for that reason (R1; R4).*

*We offer learners at least two practical subjects and have practical lessons every week. However, the only problem is of poor resourced laboratories or practical subject rooms. The equipment in these special rooms is not matching the big classes we have. Learners tend to scramble for the limited available equipment. Some learners resort to bunk practical lessons because they are frustrated by the shortage of resources, especially in the Food and Nutrition subject where every girl would want to try out a recipe (GC7).*

The shared teacher experiences confirmed that the non-availability of resources in the schools was a major setback for teachers in their role to promote CFS environments.

#### **4.6.2.4 Unclear policies on teachers' role**

Teacher participants complained about lack of clarity on what role they were supposed to play in the promotion of CFS environments. They bemoaned that it was just left to speculation which caused confusion in their execution of duties. However, school heads were convinced that teachers were quite aware of what was expected of them in the promotion of this initiative. One teacher bluntly said:

*It is very unfair for us to be expected to promote and appreciate a curriculum initiative we do not fully understand and which has no clear instructions on what we are supposed to do. Our school head does explain clearly to teachers what their role is in this approach. We need a clear binding policy spelling out our role, and then we will do as expected (GC6).*

The school heads were not in agreement. They blamed teachers for refusing to acknowledge their role in the promotion of CFS environments. However, they accepted the missing policy clarity and promised to assist in making teachers realize their much needed role. One school head had this to share:

*Yes, to a certain extent, some of our teachers are not aware of their expected role in the promotion of CFS environments but every time I refer to a circular related to this approach, I make an effort to clarify how they should contribute towards its implementation or mandate. I think it is essential to continue reminding teachers of their role in ensuring learners friendly school environments (R5).*

It is clear from this finding that school heads were putting efforts in making teachers aware of their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **4.6.2.5 Negative attitude and lack of commitment**

In the implementation of all curriculum innovations, teachers' attitudinal behaviour has an impact either way. It also emerged that teachers had attitudinal challenges which hindered them from playing an effective role in the promotion of CFS environments. Teachers' negative attitude towards CFS could be a result of many factors but both school heads and teachers concurred that there were some teachers who were so



indifferent towards the CFS approach. They lacked commitment in whatever school activity that was an extra load or duty. One school head used harsh words to describe such teachers:

*It is quite unfortunate that teaching staff is a 'mixed grill' sort of. We have teachers of different personalities despite age and qualifications. The school has very old and senior experienced teachers, but among them are some who are adamant to change. They glued to what they know and cannot accept change, especially to do with children's rights. To them, children's rights promote learner indiscipline. Then, there is another cohort of young teachers from colleges and universities whom seem to have very limited professional ethics. They seem not care much of what is expected of them and do very little to ensure learners CFS environments (R2).*

On the other hand, teachers expressed that their development of a negative attitude and lack of commitment towards the promotion of CFS environments was caused by a number of factors which were not of their own making. One of the teachers complained that:

*High workloads, harsh working conditions and lack of incentives are major challenges for us. We have abnormal teaching loads and so many other tasks to perform and that leaves many teachers tired and demoralised. There is very little time for me to cater for individual learner differences both in academic or social issues (GC3).*

This shared sentiment suggested that teachers were not motivated to embrace the CFS approach under the circumstances they were operating in. Teachers felt the approach's demands were overwhelming.

#### **4.6.2.6 Lack of school administration and parental support**

As noted earlier, teachers need support from school administration and parents for them to actively play their role in the promotion of CFS environments and when this support lacks it becomes a challenge. Teachers were not happy with some responses they got from either school administration or parents in their effort to ensure learners friendly

school environments. There emerged reports that in some cases requisition from teachers for procurement of resources were not immediately honoured or were completely ignored. Teachers complained that it made their academic delivery difficult. Another concern was of double standards in dealing with misbehaving learners. Teachers' sentiments were as follows:

*Our school administration seems to too busy to urgently attend some of our requests and this negatively impacts on our execution of tasks. Some cases to do with learner indiscipline are kept on hold forever and in the end, these culprits become heroes in the school. Then, in other isolated instances the same administration applies very harsh punitive measures on very mild and minor learner misconducts. These double standards in handling learners have caused some learners to drop out of school (GC6).*

*In this school, learners seem to know who is responsible for enforcing discipline and who is not. Some learners are at liberty of reporting teachers to the school head whenever they feel their rights have been violated. This practice has caused division among teachers and between teachers and school administration. Some have resorted to pay a deaf ear and blind eye to all situations involving learners' misbehaviour. They have role-distanced themselves from correcting the anti-social behaviours and consider it an administrative task (GC1).*

Besides failing to get adequate administration support, lack of positive parental involvement in school issues was reported to be a challenge for teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. Teachers felt that some parents were not cooperative when invited to schools for issues which concerned learners' academic or social welfare. In some cases, when they chose to come, they were either in hurry to leave or they were not respecting teachers' reports about their children. Some parents were reportedly causing havoc at schools disturbing the whole system:

*Parents do not readily accept teachers' invitations to school. They always find some excuses and when they decide to come they are capable of causing havoc.*

*There was an incident where a parent came in the school on invitation because her child had misbehaved. Instead of listening to the teachers' concerns, the parent went mad and started scolding every teacher including the school head (GC5).*

The cited sentiments revealed that there was need for strong collaboration between teachers and parents to ensure learners friendly school environments.

#### **4.6.2.7 Poor working conditions**

Effective teaching and promotion of CFS environments by teachers can only be guaranteed if teachers' working conditions are conducive to offer such services. Teachers strongly complained that their working conditions very poor and demoralizing which negatively impacted on their role in the promotion of CFS environments. They cited a number of areas in which they thought they were being short-changed:

*Our working conditions are pathetic to say the least. Right as I am talking to you, I do not have bus fare to go back home and I do not know whether tomorrow I will manage to come. Financially, we are hard hit and this affects our commitment to work. At times, relationships at workplace are strained and teaching and learning resources are not available leaving us frustrated. Some of our conditions of services are not favourable and that makes us very unhappy. At times we are made to conduct lessons under tree shades which is not conducive for proper learning (GC1).*

*Due to teacher shortages because of posts freeze, some of are forced to teacher abnormal classes without an incentive. At times, we go out on trips with learners without any travelling and subsistence allowances. How do they expect me to care proper care of learners on an empty stomach later alone attending to their concerns? It is the system which has caused us to lack commitment in our work (GC4).*

The shared sentiments suggested that teachers could only promote CFS environments on the condition that their welfare was catered for.

#### **4.6.2.8 Lack of opportunities for professional growth**

Teachers are learners too. They need to continuously upgrade their knowledge and skills, especially on new curriculum innovations such the CFS approach. There was an outcry from teachers that there were very little to no opportunities for teachers to do further studies in the disciplines related to the CFS approach. Only a handful of teachers were reported to have undergone some two or five days' workshop trainings on the CFS approach. These few teachers were the only ones appreciating the concept. One teacher had this to say:

*Many senior teachers in this school did not learn about child rights when they trained. It is a new concept to them and may be difficult for them to readily accept. These are the appropriate people to offer training opportunities on the CFS approach. All teachers in the service should be trained in the concept either at school or cluster level (GC3).*

*My understanding of the CFS approach is that it is donor-driven curriculum initiative. Training of teachers on the approach depends on the availability of funds, so it is found that available funds can only cater for very few teachers and the rest are made to grapple in the dark. We will appreciate a situation where continuous professional development is done at school level for everyone to benefit (GC2).*

From the reported findings, it was clear that teachers were not finding it easy to promote CFS environments. They were faced with numerous challenges which were either individual oriented or environmental oriented.

#### **4.6.3 Summary of main findings on the challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments**

Research results for this section have shown that teachers are faced with numerous challenges in their endeavour to promote CFS environments. Table 4.19 gives a triangulation presentation of the findings generated from quantitative and qualitative data.

**Table 4-19: Triangulation table of quantitative and qualitative data**

Findings (Quantitative data)	Findings (Qualitative data)
Teachers confirm little background knowledge of the CFS approach. Poor familiarity of informing treaties and national policies.	Unfamiliarity with international treaties informing and lack of accessibility to policy circulars decreased knowledge and skill levels.
Confirm limited accessibility to national policies enhancing the CFS concept	Contend that resources were inadequate to match big class sizes. Specialist rooms ill-equipped and limited funds to procure resources and fund educational trips.
Admit lack of knowledge and skills to promote CFS environments due to lack of training or induction.	Express dissatisfaction with administration and parental support. Lack of clear policies on teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments.
Assert the lack of material and financial resources resulted in the development of poor team spirit and teamwork. Development of an attitudinal barrier and lack of commitment,	Bemoan of poor working conditions resulting in the development of negative attitude and compromised commitment.
Admit poor working conditions, lack of administration and parental support beset CFS environments promotion.	Complain about the non-availability of opportunities for professional growth to enhance understanding and appreciation of the CFS environments concept

The summarised version of the quantitative and qualitative data is illustrated in Table 4.15, showing where they converged or diverged.

#### **4.6.3.1 Interpreting the triangulation table.**

Teachers' responses to quantitative questions revealed that poor background knowledge of the CFS approach hindered teachers' understanding and appreciation of the concept. They related this challenge to limited familiarity of international treaties and inaccessibility to national policies that inform the approach. Teachers affirmed that lack of knowledge and skills to promote CFS environments was a result of lack of training and induction on the concept, thus compromising teachers' role and effort. The respondents confirmed that resources were inadequate and that there was poor team spirit and teamwork. They also revealed that lack of administration and parental support were barriers in their effort to promote CFS environments. Teachers endorsed that poor working conditions hindered their commitment.

The qualitative data exposed that teachers had shared sentiments that school resources were inadequate in comparison to the large number of learners which made it difficult for them to employ participatory methodologies. Ill-equipped specialist rooms and laboratories demoralized both teachers and learners. The participants blamed poor fees collection systems which made schools financially challenged and fail to procure needed resources or fund educational trips. Teachers noted that lack of resources, administration, and parental support, and poor working conditions were contributing factors to teachers' development of negative attitude and lack of commitment in promoting CFS environments. Apart from the cited challenges, teachers complained about lack of clarity on their role in the promotion of CFS environments. They were worried about the non-existence of a national policy to this effect, which made life difficult for them in trying to execute their powers on learners. Most teachers in schools had no basic training in the CFS concept and the few who had been trained were having challenges in inducting others. There was a recommendation for a continuous school-based professional development to cater for more teachers and ensure increased buy-in of the initiative.

#### **4.7 RESULTS ON IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

From the findings presented in the previous sections, drawn from both quantitative and qualitative data, it was confirmed that teachers have a vital role to play in the promotion of CFS environments. It also emerged that teachers require adequate knowledge, skills and understanding of the CFS approach in order to value and appreciate it. The potential of availability of relevant school-based support to increase teachers' effectiveness in their role was acknowledged. The results also established the diverse strategies employed by teachers in an effort to afford learners friendly school environments. However, it was also confirmed that in the process of playing their role, teachers were faced with numerous challenges. It is therefore, against this background that the researcher further solicited for a way forward, guided by the fifth sub-research question: "What are the implications for teacher professional development?" The study sought to explore how best teachers can be professionally developed to effectively and

efficiently play their role in the promotion of CFS environments. Teacher professional development refers to systematic efforts to bring change in the classroom practices of teachers, in their professional knowledge, skills, attitude and beliefs, and in the learning outcomes of students (Demote, 2013). For both pre-service and in-service teachers, it is essential to walk through this process in order to be equipped with knowledge and skills needed to promote CFS environments and complement the national goal of access to education for all children.

#### 4.7.1 Quantitative results on implications for teacher professional development

Teacher respondents were presented with sixteen items on viable approaches to teacher professional development. They were requested to show their level of agreement to the suggested approaches. The total number of respondents to each item in the following table varies due to some non-responses to certain items. Table 4.20 provides responses on approaches to teacher professional development on CFS environment concept.

**Table 4-20: Teachers’ responses on approaches to teacher professional development**

Approach	SA	A	U	D	SD	Total	Mean	ST.D
CFS concept issues in teacher education curriculum.	89 (54.6)	31 (19.0)	28 (17.2)	7 (4.3)	6 (3.7)	161 (98.8)	4.13	1.049
International treaties informing CFS approach exposure	95 (58.3)	40 (24.5)	16 (9.8)	6 (3.7)	5 (3.1)	162 (99.4)	4.18	1.257
CRC provisions in teacher education	106 (65.0)	41 (25.2)	13 (8.0)	2 (1.2)	1 (0.6)	163 100	4.52	.78
(CRE) in teacher education curriculum.	81 (49.7)	62 (38.1)	17 (10.4)	1 (0.6)	2 (1.2)	163 100	4.33	.847
National CFS related policies in teacher education	62 (38.1)	64 (39.2)	28 (17.2)	8 (4.9)	1 (0.6)	163 100	4.09	.919
Exposing trainee teachers to student-friendly colleges.	83 (51.0)	56 (34.5)	17 (10.4)	2 (1.2)	2 (1.2)	160 (98.3)	4.39	.78
PLCs for in-service teachers	80 (49.1)	75 (46.0)	5 (3.1)	1 (0.6)	1 (0.6)	162 (99.4)	4.45	.713
CFS PLCs at district level.	66	63	25	5	2	161	4.20	.847

	(40.6)	(38.6)	(15.3)	(3.1)	(1.2)	(98.8)		
CFS PLCs at cluster level.	57 (35.0)	68 (41.8)	24 (14.7)	7 (4.3)	4 (2.5)	160 (98.3)	4.03	.99
CFS PLCs at school level.	52 (31.9)	66 (40.6)	35 (21.3)	5 (3.1)	5 (3.1)	163 100	3.94	.989
National CFS related policy circulars for all teachers.	100 (61.4)	35 (21.4)	21 (13.0)	3 (1.8)	2 (1.2)	161 (98.8)	4.36	.851
CFS continuous workshop training for school heads	58 (35.7)	59 (36.2)	31 (19.0)	8 (4.9)	4 (2.5)	160 (98.3)	3.96	1.086
M & E of CFS environments at school level	76 (46.7)	50 (30.7)	22 (13.5)	8 (4.9)	4 (2.5)	160 (98.3)	4.32	.822
M & E of CFS environments at district level	82 (50.3)	58 (35.7)	14 (8.6)	4 (2.5)	2 (1.2)	160 (98.3)	4.06	.967
Informing school policies with teachers' knowledge and understanding	74 (45.5)	60 (36.9)	18 (11.0)	5 (3.1)	3 (1.8)	160 (98.3)	3.96	.962
Vital role of teachers in CFS	77 (47.2)	63 (38.7)	16 (10.0)	3 (1.8)	1 (0.6)	160 (98.3)	4.25	.996

From the results presented in Table 4.17, it is evident that teachers strongly agreed to the approaches to teacher professional development to enhance the role of implementers in the promotion of CFS environments. The calculated mean scores of more than 4 confirmed these results. 14 out of 17 items had calculated mean scores of between 4.03 – 4.52 and the remaining three had mean scores more than three. The results also indicated that teachers were very sure of what would boost their confidence in promoting CFS environments. However, of interest were the moderate responses on the items which referred to professional learning communities (PLCs) at cluster and school levels respectively. 109 (66.9%) respondents strongly agreed to conduct PLCs at cluster level, which indicated that it was a viable approach in professionally developing teachers in their role to promote CFS environments.

On the issue of monitoring and evaluation for the promotion of CFS environments, teachers indicated that they were more comfortable with the District Schools Inspector (DSI) carrying out the task. Exactly half 82 (50.3%) of the respondents expressed that they strongly agreed that teachers were to improve their knowledge, skills, and



understanding of the CFS approach where they were professionally monitored and evaluated by someone from the ministry. However, it was of interest to note that a significant number 31 (19.0%) of teacher respondents were not certain whether it was of any positive impact to continuously train school heads in CFS issues.

The first six items focused on pre-service teacher professional development, and it was of interest to note that teachers agreed to all the suggested approaches. On the issue of integrating CFS concept in teacher education curriculum, 120 (73.6%) agreed to the suggested approach. When further probed on enhancing teachers' familiarity of international human rights treaties that inform the CFS approach, 135 (82.8%) teachers agreed that trainee teachers were to be exposed to these instruments whilst undergoing training. The idea of incorporating CRC provisions in the Professional Studies teacher education syllabus was greatly supported and agreed to by 147 (90.2%) respondents. The infusion of Child Rights Education in all teacher education subject areas was another approach which the respondents agreed to, confirmed by 144 (87.8%) teachers. From the previous sections, it emerged that accessibility to CFS related circulars by teachers in schools was limited; therefore, 126 (77.3%) respondents agreed that trainee teachers were supposed to be made familiar with the relevant CFS policy circulars whilst undergoing training. Reviewed literature cited that teachers were finding it difficult to promote CFS environments because many of them graduated from colleges which had no student-friendly environments. On the same note, 139 (85.5%) agreed that it was a viable teacher professional development approach to expose trainee teachers to student-friendly colleges in order to value and appreciate the concept in the schools.

Teachers confirmed the importance of availing a National CFS policy as a way of developing teachers and 135 (82.8%) respondents agreed that all teachers should be provided with all relevant CFS policy circulars in their respective schools to use as reference sources in their role to promote CFS environments. Majority of the respondents 140 (85.9%) endorsed that teachers valued recognition and appreciation of their vital role in the promotion of CFS environments by other stakeholders as a way of boosting their professional morale. The calculated mean scores ranging from 3.96 to

4.52 indicated that teachers were in total agreement with most of the suggested approaches to teacher professional development. Generally, responses given by teachers on the implications for teacher professional development and the suggested approaches to ensure efficiency in teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments were very positive and diverse.

#### 4.7.2 Qualitative results on the implications of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments for teacher professional development

Teachers admitted to having limited understanding of the CFS environments concept, raised concern about school-based support, submitted varied strategies they employed to promote CFS environments, and bemoaned the numerous challenges they encountered in the process. The researcher further engaged the interview participants to draw out implications for teacher professional development with regard to all that they had discussed. The major theme generated sub-themes presented in Table 4.21.

**Table 4-21: Theme and sub-themes on implications for teacher professional development**

Theme	Sub-themes	Related issues
Implications for teacher professional development	Integration of CFS concept in pre-service teacher education	Child Rights education to be a study component in teacher education. Trainee teachers to be exposed to international human rights treaties that inform the CFS concept. National education CFS related policy circulars to be availed in teacher education. Teachers' colleges environments to be student-friendly
	Continuous training in CFS approach for in-service teachers	Professional learning communities on CFS issues to be established at district, cluster, or school levels. School heads to continuously train in the CFS concept. All teachers to be availed with all CFS related policy circulars. National CFS policy to be in place.

	Monitoring and evaluation of CFS environments	CFS environments to monitored and evaluated by school or district administrators. Teachers' input on the approach to inform school policies.
	Incentivising teachers for their effort	The vital role of teachers in the CFS approach to be acknowledged. Some form of incentives for CFS teacher champions.

**4.7.2.1 Integration of the CFS concept in pre-service teacher education**

Both school heads and G and C focal persons were presented with the question “What are the implications of all that has been said about teachers’ role in the promotion of CFS environments for teacher professional development?” In simple terms, the question required responses on how best to professionally develop teachers for an effective role in the promotion of CFS environments. The participants were quick to point out that teachers needed to be adequately trained in the concept through the teacher education process not by attending one or two day workshops. The participants acknowledged that sound understanding and appreciation of the CFS approach was a process rather than an event. Trainee teachers were supposed to be introduced to the concept from the onset of their training course so that they would view it as part and parcel of their professional competences. The sentiments of participants on this idea were represented as follows:

*In my work experience of thirty years, I witnessed curriculum innovations which failed to yield the intended results because they were meant for teachers in-service and forgetting those in training. Curriculum planners should bear in mind that teacher education is the manufacturer and schools are the consumers and the two should closely work together for a common cause. If trainee teachers are meant to study the CFS approach as their curriculum component, they are likely to have a better understanding of it and when graduate and join the service they will easily implement or promote the approach (R7).*

*During training, student teachers tend to take everything in their curriculum seriously for that determines their passing of the course. If the CFS concept is integrated in teacher education curriculum, there will be enough time to give adequate information and skills in its implementation (GC5).*

*Remember, out of all the international human rights treaties that you referred to, I confidently acknowledged my high familiarity with EFA because this concept came on board around 1980s when we were training and we were introduced to it as part of our course curriculum. We were made to know of its philosophy, its provisions and benefits. When we joined the service, we comfortably implemented it and we played a significant role for its fruition (R3).*

The participants also unanimously agreed that it was very possible for trainee teachers to be exposed to all the international human rights treaties that inform the CFS if the concept was integrated in their curriculum especially in the Professional Studies (PS) syllabus or in the National Strategic Studies (NASS) syllabus. They argued that colleges had the capacity of providing such documents to students as soft copies because of their stable internet connectivity. It also emerged from an earlier interview question and responses that teachers were having difficulties in accessing the CFS related policy circulars available in their schools. The participants felt it was necessary for colleges to source these documents from the Education provincial office and reproduce them for distribution to trainee teachers. It was also suggested that the documents could be used as sources of reference in the relevant subject areas. Participants shared the following:

*I have heard that trainee teachers are offered an exit workshop towards the end of their course, where resource persons are engaged from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MOPSE) and other relevant stakeholders to sensitise them on issues to do with conditions of service, acts of misconduct, and many other things. I would suggest that the personnel from our ministry should take this opportunity to provide the necessary CFS literature so that teachers join the service well-equipped to promote CFS environments (GC3).*

*During our days in colleges, every student was required to have TP resource file containing all the essential documents for use whilst in the schools. I would like to think that this practice is still ongoing and we expect all our new teachers to be in possession of these vital CFS related policy documents. I have the strongest feeling that if the teaching or training of the CFS concept starts in teacher education, definitely teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments will be greatly enhanced (R6).*

One of the school head participant brought a different dimension on the integration issue when he argued that:

*Charity begins at home. What I mean is that trainee teachers should first enjoy student-friendly college environments in order for them to extend the gesture to learners in schools. Teacher educators should be models of this approach so that trainee teachers would emulate and adopt. It is unfortunate that some of the teachers endured hostile school environments and would unconsciously expose learners to similar unfavourable conditions. It is my hope that if student teachers are groomed and exposed to friendly learning environments they are likely to understand and appreciate the concept better (R5).*

#### **4.7.2.2 Continuous training in CFS issues for in-service teachers**

The participants were asked how teachers, already in service, could be professionally developed to effectively promote CFS environments. Generally, the participants felt it was not easy to afford in-service teachers adequate training in the CFS approach due to limited time and financial resources. Currently, such training was reserved for school heads and G and C focal persons. The participants complained that the approach was ineffective because the bulk number of teachers had very little knowledge and understanding of this approach and that negatively impacted on their role in the promotion on CFS environments. Another concern raised was that the training was too spaced apart and of very short duration. One of the participants commented that:

*Training of in-service teachers in CFS issues is not systematically organized. In the majority of cases, they are donor-funded and only happen when funds are available. The trainings do not happen continuously such that each time will be like a new beginning. We would have forgotten most of the issues previously deliberated on. I have heard of Professional learning communities happening in other countries for such curriculum initiatives but I do not think it is the model adopted in Zimbabwe. It is unfortunate I cannot say much about this teacher professional development approach because it is not practiced in our country, but it would be interesting to attempt it (R2).*

Besides lobbying for continuous training, the participants expressed dissatisfaction with the non-availability of a National CFS policy which made it difficult for school heads to enforce teachers to effectively play their role. They also expressed the need for making all the CFS related policy circulars available to all teachers so that they constantly referred to them in the execution of their duties.

#### **4.7.2.3 Monitoring and evaluation of CFS environments**

Participants generally agreed that for the purposes of checking progress and the impact of the CFS environments in schools, it was essential to employ a monitoring and evaluation mechanism. When they were probed on how best this could be done, there emerged a general feeling that officials from the ministry were supposed to carry out that task. Teachers argued that if the monitoring and evaluation was locally done it was likely going to be biased. Participants responded as follows:

*The promotion of CFS environments is a directive from government to us teachers, therefore, we expect our superiors to be responsible for assessing the expected standards. The DSI should visit schools to check on what and how teachers are promoting CFS environments. If this is professionally done, teachers are likely to enhance their understanding of the concept and perfect their skills in promoting it (GC1).*

*I am not worried about who does the M and E, but my concern is the benefit of the exercise. I think the exercise's outcomes should inform school policies on*

*CFS environments. It should be an exercise were teachers are offered an opportunity to give feedback on the approach and their input should be considered for enhancing teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments (R6).*

The participants were worried that for years now no such exercise had been done which could be a contributing factor why some teachers had no commitment to the task.

#### **4.7.2.4 Incentivising teachers**

Responses from quantitative data confirmed that teachers had a vital role in the promotion of CFS environments. During interviews it also emerged that the only way for stakeholders to acknowledge this role vitality was to appreciate teachers in different ways. The participants confessed that teachers were demoralized by many things in their profession and there was great need to motivate them. Below are some of teachers' sentiments over this issue:

*As the school head, I always remind my teachers that once they entered the school gate, the learners' needs took precedence over everything. I encourage them to offer learners the best of services despite our poor working conditions. However, I know this not happening with our teachers, they need to be incentivized somehow. I fortunately I do not know how because this practice of giving teachers monetary incentives was banned and as a government school we cannot risk to do it (R7).*

*This CFS approach is so demanding and requires us to go an extra mile in all our engagements with learners, but our efforts are not recognized. We are expected to cater for learner differences be it in academic or social matters but it seems it is part and parcel of our normal duties. At times I attend to learners' issues over weekends but my time and efforts are not compensated. There is likely to be no effective teacher professional development on CFS issues if teachers remain underpaid and languishing in poverty and distress (GC2).*

On the whole, teachers shared brilliant ideas on this section on implications for teacher professional development with regard to their vital role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### 4.7.3 Summary of the main findings on implications for teacher professional development

Presented below, in Table 4.22, are the major findings on the implications of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments for teacher professional development.

**Table 4-22: Triangulation table of quantitative and qualitative data**

Findings (Quantitative data)	Findings (Qualitative data)
Confirmed the importance of integrating CFS approach content in teacher education.	Claimed that adequate training of the CFS approach was possible in teacher education. Acknowledged teacher educators were to be role models in CFS environments. Noted the need for the two ministries to collaborate in teacher professional development.
Testified the importance of availing relevant CFS documents to all teachers	Indicated non-availability of relevant CFS documents was a setback in teacher professional development. Observed that exposure to the vital documents should take place in teacher education.
Expressed the need for establishing professional learning communities to enhance teachers' knowledge and skills in the promotion of CFS environments.	Noted the need for massive and continuous teacher professional development on CFS concept. Observed that systematic training programmes should be in place to allow a smooth flow of issues comprehension.
Endorsed the necessity of monitoring and evaluation of CFS environments	Noted the need for Personnel from the ministry to be responsible for monitoring and evaluation of CFS environments. Observed that M and E results be used for improving the promotion of the approach. Recommended teachers' feedback to inform CFS school policies.
Substantiated the need for incentivizing teachers for their role in the promotion of CFS environments	Advocated incentivising teachers for their role in the promotion of CFS environments is essential. suggested teachers' role in this initiative to be recognized and appreciated. Recommended improved teachers' conditions of service to enhance their participation.



#### **4.7.3.1 Interpreting the triangulation table**

The results from quantitative data revealed that teachers agreed to the different approaches that could be employed in teacher professional development with regard to their role in the promotion of CFS environments. They confirmed that adequate teacher development on the curriculum approach is more sustainable if it begins in teacher education. They endorsed the importance of exposing trainee teachers to all the necessary CFS literature whilst undergoing training by making buy their syllabus component in some subject areas. They further asserted that child rights education was suitable for infusion in all other subject areas. The participants agreed that continuous training of in-service teachers was vital and the establishment of professional learning communities was viable at district level. In order to check for progress and impact, respondents confirmed the importance of a programmed assessment of CFS environments. They also indicated that effective teacher professional development on CFS environments needed appreciated and motivated teachers.

Responses from qualitative data verified these sentiments, where participants called for close collaboration between the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoSPE) and the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development (MHTESTD). They opined that the spirit and positive attitude towards the CFS approach should be developed in teacher education. The participants argued that colleges had the capacity to provide trainee teachers with all the necessary and relevant CFS literature, unlike in schools where resources are limited. For the in-service teachers, the participants advocated a massive and continuous training of teachers in the CFS approach and the training programmes to be systematically organized. Like all other curriculum initiatives, the participants felt strongly the need for an assessment of CFS environments by the ministry personnel. They reiterated that the outcomes of the evaluations were to inform the school policies and enhance teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. Above all, the participants bemoaned of lack of teacher motivation due to poor working conditions and limited appreciation of their effort. They claimed that teachers were ready to be professionally developed in the CFS approach provided their welfare was catered for, and the necessary support was offered.

## **4.8 DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS THEMATICALLY**

The study aimed at examining the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools from the teachers, school heads and learners' perspectives. In this section, the research findings are discussed in the light of the themes drawn from the sub-research questions that guided the study. The discussion focuses on findings generated from descriptive statistics (frequencies, means and standard deviations), inferential statistics (chi-squares) and qualitative data from open ended questions and interviews. The discussion is done with reference to literature, both in local and international settings.

### **4.8.1 Teachers' Understanding of the CFS Environments Concept**

The first sub-research question of the study sought to ascertain teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept. It is very likely that teachers' sound understanding of this concept or lack of it has a bearing on their role to implement or promote it. Teachers' understanding of the CFS concept was the basis upon which all the other areas of this study's concerns were derived.

It emerged from the study that teachers' familiarity with the international human rights treaties that inform the CFS approach was very limited. Such treaties as Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), Convention against Discrimination in Education (CDE), African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Children (ACRWC), Education for all (EFA), and UNICEF Child-Friendly Schools Manual, among others were not well understood. Reviewed literature portrayed that Zimbabwe is a signatory to all of these treaties (UNICEF, 2013), which is very likely that hard or soft copies of these instruments were available in respective ministries including the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE). This finding was confirmed by both teachers and school heads from questionnaires and interviews, and it gave an impression that the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environment is compromised. A few teachers who professed to be familiar with some of these treaties explained that it was out of their personal research or the demands of some studies they were engaged in. Many teachers revealed that they were quite familiar with the EFA although it came along long back around the 1980s. Interviewees claimed that all teachers' colleges and schools

were mandated to embrace the EFA and its philosophy in order to have a better understanding of the initiative. Teachers' exposure and familiarity with the CRC, in which the CFS environments concept is enshrined, was reported to be rather low. It appeared as if teachers were hearing of this treaty for the first time, and the state of things pointed to the fact that teachers had very little background information on the origins of the CFS concept. The finding concurred with observations by Chinyani (2010) and Mandiudza (2013) that teachers in Zimbabwe had difficulties in implementing the CFS approach because they were not aware of its philosophy and were considering it foreign and unsuitable for learners. A similar situation was reported with teachers in Botswana, where teachers resisted implementing the CFS approach because they viewed it as a foreign intervention in the management of learners (Mannathoko, 2006). In USA, UK, Australia and some parts of Asia, teachers' understanding and appreciation of CFS versions such as the Rights Respecting Schools (RRS) are measured against their interpretation of the CRC, which is found to be very good (Jerome, Emerson, Lundy & Orr, 2015). Coming to the UNICEF CFS Manual, teachers indicated, in the questionnaire, that they were slightly familiar with it. During interviews, teachers openly expressed that they were not aware of the manual document, but they knew of a ministry vehicle bearing the Child-Friendly Schools in-print and showing that it was a donation from UNICEF. It was very interesting to realize that teachers showed more awareness of the vehicle than its purpose. Familiarity with the remaining mentioned international human rights treaties was a nightmare for many teachers. They reported that reference to some of these treaties was made during workshops but due to limited time, how they informed the CFS concept was rarely explained to teachers. The teachers' sentiments in the current study confirm Talbert's (2010) observation that workshop trainings are usually ad-hoc interventions done racing against time.

Zimbabwe has made considerable effort in showing its commitment to ensure learner CFS environments by crafting and coming up with several CFS related policies which all schools are mandated to implement. Such policies include; the Zimbabwe Education Act of 1984, Secretary's Circular P35 of 1993, Secretary's Circular 5 of 2000, and Director's Circular 27 of 2008 among others. Teachers reported to be very unfamiliar with all of these policies. They acknowledged that schools were in possession of the

documents but they were hearing of the circular titles for the first time from the researcher. Responses from the questionnaires represented the same sentiments. However, it emerged from both interview and questionnaire responses that most teachers had no access to these policy documents. Interview participants regretted this sad scenario, and claimed it was a contributing factor to teachers' limited understanding of the CFS environments concept. School heads admitted that they were the custodians of these documents and they were only comfortable to avail them to teachers when a related case arose. The varied responses from interviewed teachers concerning their accessibility to policy documents was a testimony of different school heads' different leadership styles which impacted differently on teachers' confidence and performance (Sigilai & Bett, 2013). The research findings indicated that teachers were not offered adequate support by their school heads to gain better understanding of CFS concept. It is unfortunate that the identified school heads' behaviour contradicted Killion's (2012) assertion that as managers, school heads should mobilize and provide teachers with the necessary resources and documents to ensure efficiency in teacher performance. Teachers also attributed their poor understanding of the CFS environments concept to the non-existence of a clear policy on teachers' role especially in this curriculum initiative. The analysed policy circulars bear witness to this teacher concern. The circulars clearly indicate a list of the intended recipients, and teachers were not part of the list. When the school heads were probed further on this anomaly, they quickly pointed out that in the MoPSE structures, school heads represent teachers.

Despite lack of training and background information on the CFS approach, further questioning to establish teachers' understanding of specific CFS principles revealed that teachers had encouraging understanding of what each principle entails although some had difficulties in relating how these principles were implemented in the schools. This finding affirmed Modipane and Thamane's (2014) observation about the Life Orientation teachers in Limpopo province of South Africa who had undergone an intensive training in CFS principles for two years, and had a sound understanding of the CFS principles and were able to explain the interrelatedness of the key principles to their peers. In this study, majority of the teachers were comfortable in explaining three of the six principles; rights based and cultural diversity, health, safety and protection, and gender sensitivity.

Teachers from multi-racial schools managed to elaborate on the aspect of cultural diversity and cited relevant situations where this principle was upheld and recognized and how it impacted on learners. Teachers and school heads concurred on how issues of gender parity were ensured in the schools. Questionnaire responses also confirmed teachers' good understanding of these principles. However, it was worrisome that the open-ended question responses and interview results revealed that teachers were not very clear about which CFS principles were of emphasis in their respective schools. They blamed this confusion of lack of CFS environments induction for new teachers on the schools. On the other hand, school heads claimed that their schools had embraced all the six principles. Although the principles are interrelated and tend to complement each other, the explanations given on how they were doing it left a lot to be desired. On the issue of non-induction for CFS environments, school heads contradicted teachers' sentiments arguing that school senior teachers and head of departments were responsible for offering the induction and they were confident the services were offered. The conflicting messages could be a result of poor management and monitoring skills on the part of the school head or a *laissez-faire* leadership style.

Overall, the study's findings on this section showed that teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept was moderate and impacted negatively on their role in the promotion of CFS environments. Teachers were not trained in this approach and hence, were found lacking in knowledge and skills to effectively promote CFS environments. This finding validated observations by Mandiudza (2013) that teachers in Zimbabwe were ignorant of the provisions of the CRC and it heavily compromised their knowledge of the CFS approach. A number of reasons were cited why teachers were lacking in knowledge which included teachers' negative attitude of the initiative. Teachers expressed dissatisfaction in the manner the approach was introduced. They regarded it as an 'imposed' add-on to their already overloaded responsibilities (Prishtina, 2012). They complained that they did not have either pre-service or in-service training in the CFS approach and the little training offered them was through donor funded workshops and provision of printed teacher guidelines which afforded teachers very limited time of understanding the approach. Such revelations gave the impression that teachers are in great need of support from different relevant stakeholders to increase their

understanding and knowledge of the CFS concept. They need support to improve on their skills and to enhance their role in the promotion of CFS environments. The next section discusses findings on school-based support for teachers to promote CFS environments in Zimbabwean government secondary schools.

#### **4.8.2 School-Based Support for Teachers to Promote CFS Environments**

The second sub-research question for the study sought to establish school-based support for teachers in their role to promote CFS environments. The support is expected from school administration, teacher colleagues or peers, parents and learners. Findings from questionnaires and interviews revealed that teachers were getting moderate to adequate support from these stakeholders.

##### **4.8.2.1 School administration support**

Teacher respondents and teacher participants concurred that their school administrators were offering them satisfactory support which made it possible to effectively play their role in the promotion of CFS environments. The positive acknowledgement of such kind of support was in agreement with Alkani's (2014) assertion that school administration's teacher support is a key factor in making a difference to the school environments and in promoting enabling learning for students. The study revealed that in the majority of cases, school heads were responsive to teachers' requests for learning resources but this was refuted by teachers during interviews, who claimed that their requisition for some resources was not given immediate attention. The school heads explained that some teachers' requests required approval by the school financial board; hence, it was not possible to get immediate feedback. However, besides the complaint of delayed support, teachers happily reported that the school administrators were very supportive on issues to do with learner indiscipline. Teachers appreciated the effort of schools in offering guidance and counselling services to learners but bemoaned lack of appropriate infra-structure for the services. On another positive note, the study revealed that teachers were allowed to start CFS related clubs and were funded for their club activities. It also emerged that invitations of resource persons were done by the approval of school heads. Teachers reported getting assistance from the school administration in handling parents who

came to schools on invitation. From the open-ended question on other forms of school administration support, teacher respondents indicated that they were offered transport to go for school exchange visits. Teachers also testified that at times they were supported in engaging in follow-up of school dropouts. By offering such kind of support, school heads were exercising a shared leadership approach as a way of empowering teachers in their decision-making on issues affecting the learning and welfare of learners (Cheng & Wong, 2011). Teachers expressed gratitude for opportunities offered to attend CFS related workshops which broadened their understanding and appreciation of the CFS approach. However, the interviewed teachers were honest enough to disclose that the workshop opportunities were only meant for a handful of teachers, usually G and C focal persons and senior teachers. This anomaly likely caused division among teachers and possibly resulted in lack of team spirit in the promotion of CFS environments since teachers at the same school would not be having a shared vision on this concept.

#### **4.8.2.2 Collegial support**

Foltos (2013) asserts that the assistance teachers offer each other is vital in enhancing learning by refining present skills, learning new skills and solving classroom-related problems. The study findings showed that teachers offered each other support in order to effectively promote CFS environments. However, it was saddening to learn that there were some teachers who were so indifferent and showed very little concern about the approach or its benefits. Teachers indicated the different forms of support they offered each other which included, team teaching in their respective subject areas. The school heads spoke highly of this practice and acknowledged that it had boosted the schools' pass rates at both "O" and "A" levels. The realization of good pass rates affirmed Murtaza's (2011) opinion that 'weak' and 'strong' versions of collegial relations plausibly produce or sustain quite different conditions of teacher performance and commitment. Interviewed teachers also expressed that the practice helped in improving teacher relationships and increasing learners' respect of their teachers. This finding closely relates to what is expected in a school with child-friendly environments, where the needs and welfare of the key players, that is, learners and teachers are catered for (Shaeffer, 2013).

From the interviews and questionnaire open-ended questions, teachers talked about Suggestions and Psycho-Social Support (PSS) boxes, and they highlighted that teachers assisted each other in the manning and management of these boxes. It came to light that the contents of these boxes were every teacher's concern because it was a form of evaluation and feedback from learners on the services and environments the schools were offering them. However, school heads were not very keen to credit teachers on this issue because some teachers were totally against the use of these boxes by learners. Teachers shared that they consulted each other on issues to do with learner indiscipline and they effectively employed the referral system wherever possible. They acknowledged that they were able to identify talent and competencies in each other, and they were affording one another opportunities to utilise those in the promotion of CFS environments. The interviewed G and C teachers testified that they worked closely with the rest of other teachers in identifying learners in need of counselling services. Some of the teachers were said to be very effective school counsellors who enhanced the CFS environments.

#### **4.8.2.3 Parental support**

Children come from homes, families or parents to attend school. This simply implies that teachers and parents should work closely together for the well-being of learners. The study established that parental support for teachers to promote CFS environments was varied depending on the nature of the parents. Teachers talked of both positive and negative involvement of parents in school business. Generally, both teachers and school heads agreed that parents were offering significant support to teachers to complement their effort to promote CFS environments. This finding confirmed Dor's (2012) opinion that an effective partnership between teachers and parents is essential to meet the needs of the children they 'share'. School heads applauded the involvement of parents as members of the School Development Committee, representing all other parents. The membership afforded parents to be exposed to the daily running and management of schools. This assisted in parents having a better appreciation of teachers' work and responsibilities in their interactions with learners. Teachers and school heads from schools located in low density residential areas professed receipt of maximum support from parents, especially in the manner they attended Speech and



Prize Giving and Consultation Day events or even Annual General School meetings. However, the opposite was said of parents in schools located in high density residential areas. The latter parents were reported to be very uncooperative when invited to schools for whatever cause with regard to their child. Mannathoko (2013) reported that in Botswana parental involvement in school activities was very poor because parents blamed teachers for poor academic performance of their children. However, in this study, teachers thought parents were uncooperative because of the harsh economic situation. Parents were believed to be more concerned with engaging in activities that made it possible to bring food on the table than 'wasting' time attending to school activities. This finding was the same as the observation by UNICEF (2009) in an evaluation report on the CFS approach in Thailand where parents were regularly invited to schools at least once per semester to present observations and suggestions for school activities. Parents were also expected to discuss their children's academic performance and behaviour. The evaluation report highlighted that parental attendance at these formal meetings was inconsistent across schools due to work obligations and family commitments.

The present study brought to light the unbecoming conduct of some parents who chose to visit schools on invitation. Both school heads and teachers concurred in reporting incidents where some parents showed very little respect of teachers' ideas or advice concerning their children especially in disciplinary cases. Parents were reportedly taking sides with learners and at times calling teachers names in the presence of learners. Teachers complained that this stripped them of their authority and dignity and it made learners to disrespect teachers and to become very uncontrollable. Such revelations meant that teachers' role to promote CFS environments is compromised.

Teachers reported a positive gesture from parents who donated materials, expertise, and labour to schools to support teachers in their work and responsibilities. Some school resources, such as, furniture, sports equipment and books were received from parents. Some parents were volunteering to coach different sport games and others provided transport to ferry learners during educational trips. And another exciting contribution parents offered teachers was acknowledgement of their competencies and

hard work especially after publication of examination results. Teachers in some of the schools involved in the study were treated to a party to thank them for good results. On the whole, the study established that positive parental involvement in the promotion of CFS environments yielded positive outcomes.

#### **4.8.2.4 Learners' support**

Besides the vital support from the previously mentioned key players, the study also aimed to establish how learners supported teachers in their role to promote CFS environments. Learners are the major beneficiaries of the CFS environments, and teachers had varied views on how they supported teachers. There were both positive and negative reports about learner support. Organized learner support in administrative issues is usually expected to come from school prefects or any other learners holding positions of responsibility. The expectation is supposed to tally Muli's (2011) description of a prefect as a 'bridge' between school staff and student body. The study findings portrayed a rather different picture of prefects. Teachers complained that some school prefects were very incompetent and ineffective in carrying out their duties. There emerged reports of prefects being implicated in serious disciplinary cases. Teachers complained of some prefects abusing their positions of responsibility to bully other students and intimidate the junior learners. This reported scenario is the total opposite of what Muli (2011) reported about prefects in American schools who supervised young learners while they worked and played at lunch time, and provided an additional part of 'eyes' for teachers at break time.

On a positive note, a school head from one of the boarding schools reported that learners were actively involved as members of the Child-School Development Committee (CSDC). It was revealed that the committee worked closely with the Parent-School Development Committee in running and managing school development business. Learners in this committee were described as very helpful in suggesting viable interventions that ensured learner friendly school environments. Learner support for teachers to promote CFS environments was mentioned in their effective utilisation of schools' suggestion boxes. This approach ensured learners some opportunity to voice their concerns in recognition of the CFS principle of democratic participation of learners.

However, there emerged mixed feelings among teachers on the use of suggestion boxes. Some teachers and school heads contended that, while learners were welcome to express their feelings, opinions, and suggestions through the use of this facility, sometimes learners were confused about their roles and responsibilities ending up abusing the facility. However, other participants appreciated the learners' constructive input which came through suggestion boxes. They confessed that some ill-practices such child sexual abuse perpetrated by teachers or fellow students were brought to the attention of the school authorities and quickly and effectively addressed courtesy of the suggestion box utilisation. Teachers argued that knowing and addressing learners' concerns was the only ideal way of improving practice and services offered to the learners. These teacher sentiments affirm Welsh's (2011) definition of learner participation as that of developing a culture in schools where all children have a voice and have the opportunity to play an active role in decisions that affect their learning and welfare.

On the whole, the study findings on the theme of school-based support for teachers to promote CFS environments, clearly showed that teachers require genuine support from school administrators, fellow teachers or colleagues, parents, and learners to effectively promote CFS environments in schools. Despite being offered the mentioned support, the implementation or promotion of the CFS environments required teachers' professional effort. The next section discusses findings on teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **4.8.3 Teachers' Strategies in the Promotion of CFS Environments**

The study results significantly brought to light several viable and sustainable strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. Basically, teachers derived their strategies from a broad context where they took into consideration the input of other key players in the process. Of great interest and a significant departure from findings on the first two themes, in this section, the findings were derived from teachers' and learners' responses to questionnaires. The learners were subjected to the same questionnaire items as those of the teachers, and were to indicate the frequency in use of the suggested strategies. The findings were exciting in that they either

converged or diverged on some aspects. Findings from the interviews affirmed or contradicted some of the teachers' responses or those of the learners. The discussions of the findings on the various strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments are presented in the following sub-sections.

#### **4.8.3.1 Knowing the learners**

Teacher and learner responses from questionnaires indicated that teachers frequently used this strategy and interview results confirmed it with elaborations of how and why it was employed. In a study to assess how teachers developed child-friendly environments in early childhood education in Pakistan, Murtaza (2011) asserted that teachers' positive attitude towards learners was very important. Learners were believed to develop a strong sense of belonging when they realized that teachers cared and supported them. Interviewed teachers reiterated that they made effort to know their learners by name and strove to identify their strengths and weaknesses. This strategy was similar to that employed by some schools in Thailand which introduced an annual home visit scheme by teachers to better understand learners' living contexts, demands and challenges (UNICEF, 2009). Teachers explained that knowing learners as individuals helped in providing them with moral support and creating a better understanding between school and learners. The school heads appreciated this strategy because they thought it decreased learner indiscipline. They argued that learners dreaded to misbehave if they were personally known by their teachers and they strove to do better in their academic work to impress the teachers. However, the school heads were quick to warn that some teachers abused the strategy for their own personal advantage, where some cases of improper association were traced back to the employment of this strategy. The learners' responses indicated that teachers were not employing this strategy frequently. This contradiction in findings from teachers and learners was explained during interviews where teachers expressed their worry and concern about the large classes at their disposal. The schools' teacher-learner ratio was reported to be abnormal and unmanageable. There was discontent by teachers over this issue. They argued that it was impossible to know more than fifty learners per class as individuals. This finding confirmed Kewaza and Welch's (2013) observation in

Uganda that working with large classes is difficult for teachers to satisfy all the needs of the learners who have different interests, personalities and capabilities.

The study results also revealed that teachers engaged with learners on one to one dialogues in order to gain knowledge of their strengths and weaknesses, their likes and dislikes. In doing so, teachers claimed that they listened to the ideas and opinions of learners every time. However, learners noted that this strategy was occasionally employed. Teachers explained that it was so because of overload of responsibilities.

#### **4.8.3.2 Learner-centred teaching and learning activities**

Weimer (2013) proposes that the learner-centred approach is where a teacher challenges learners in a safe and respectful manner to develop, collaboratively or individually, their own solutions to problems given. The findings in this study showed that teachers employed strategies closely related to this proposition frequently in their role to promote CFS environments. Teachers testified to employing participatory methodologies in which learners had fun, significantly improved their performance and which resulted in decline in the dropout rates. In a study to assess child-friendly environments in a secondary high school in Nepal, Vaidya (2014) found out that teachers were not limiting teaching methods to lecture method. Instead, they used demonstration, collaboration, project work, case studies, and observations, among others. They believed that in such environments, learners felt safe, encouraged, happy, and empowered. In an effort to maximize the benefits of this strategy, both teachers and learners agreed that teachers actively involve learners in decisions about how the school or classroom activities were organised. Teachers reported that in trying to motivate learners, and for effective learning, they provided relevant learning materials. The teachers' claims reflected Murtaza's (2011) concern that when preparing learning activities, teachers need to think about learners' abilities, because they have different abilities and levels of understanding. In one class, there would be slow and fast learners, hence, teachers needed to prepare activities which involved all learners and engaged them fully in the learning process. Interviewed teachers and school heads revealed that certain school system challenges were hindering teachers from employing this noble strategy.

#### **4.8.3.3 Effective interpersonal communication skills**

Reviewed literature gave insights that student-centred discipline and teacher language determine learner-learner and learner-teacher interactions and relationships (Denton, 2014; Hamre & Pianta, 2010 & Yoder, 2014). In this study, both teachers and learners unanimously agreed that teachers employed the strategy that fostered discipline in learners and placed emphasis on healthy interpersonal communication skills among learners and teachers. Teachers acknowledged the employment of disciplinary strategies that are developmentally appropriate for learners, to motivate them to have self-control and to be self-disciplined. However, learners hinted that teachers occasionally employed punitive measures to get learners to behave. Enforcement of school and classroom rules and regulations was another way teachers employed to protect learners from unpleasant situations such as bullying and any other form of abuse or harassment. In order to promote effective interpersonal and communication skills, teachers reported that they taught learners how to identify their emotions, understand the precursors to an emotional reaction, and to express and regulate their own emotions (Rivers, Reyes, Elberston & Salovey, 2013). Teachers and learners agreed that at times, the rules and regulations were displayed on classroom notice boards for learners to read, acquaint themselves with, and most importantly, adhere to them.

Teachers indicated that they respected and valued learners' opinions by listening to them and they encouraged learners to respect each other's ideas. They claimed to be role models of the learners and that they demonstrated professional behaviour before learners. They professed appropriate use of language in all their written and spoken communication with learners. This finding validates Denton's (2014) opinion that teacher language can lift learners to their highest potential or tear them down. It should be noted that most "O" level learners are adolescents, who are very sensitive to what is said about them. Small comments can destroy learners' self-esteem or boost. School heads reiterated that the language a teacher uses should assist learners to monitor and regulate their own behaviour rather than tell them how to behave. It is also believed that in promoting CFS environments, teacher language shapes how students think, act, and ultimately, how they learn.

#### **4.8.3.4 Guidance and counselling services**

In the recent past, the MoPSE organised numerous workshops on the viability of School Guidance and Counselling services to be offered learners and each school was mandated to have G and C focal person. These are the teachers who were interviewed in this study. It is believed that learners are confronted with a lot of challenges which tend to hinder them from developing to their full potential. Both respondents and participants in the current study acknowledged that offering of G and C services to learners was an effective strategy employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. The finding confirms earlier findings by Chireshe (2006) that school counsellors' role was very important and impacted positively on learners' academic performance and in social life choices. Another study in Kenya by Nyamona (2011) revealed that the greater majority of secondary school students had their self-concept developed and improved by peer counselling strategy which was a contradiction to the Zimbabwean approach where only teachers offered guidance and counselling services to learners. It emerged also from the study that all the G & C focal persons in the seven schools were female which concurred with Chireshe's (2006) findings that female teachers rated school guidance and counselling services more favourable because they had a flare for it and they had been attending gender awareness orientation on these kinds of services. However, teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the counselling facilities in schools which they described as very basic and compromised counselling ethics such as privacy and confidentiality.

Overall, the study findings showed that teachers employed practical strategies to ensure learners' CFS environments, but in the discussions of the strategies, it emerged that teachers were encountering some challenges which setback their effort. The next section presents a discussion of teacher challenges in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **4.8.4 Challenges Encountered By Teachers in the Promotion on CFS Environments**

The study findings on this theme portrayed that the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments was inhibited by a number of challenges, which were either systemic or professional or both. The challenges included, inadequate background information on

the CFS approach, inaccessibility to CFS related policy circulars, inadequate knowledge and skills, lack of resources, role confusion, teacher burnout, poor working conditions, inadequate support services, among others. Just like in the previous section 4.8.3, learners' questionnaire had a section which required their level of agreement on challenges faced by teachers in their role to promote CFS environments. Discussions of these challenges are presented in the following sub-sections showing how they confirm or refute related literature, and where teachers' and learners' responses converged or diverged.

#### **4.8.4.1 Inadequate background information**

Literature shows that the CFS approach is informed and directed by a number of international human rights treaties to which Zimbabwe is a signatory (UNICEF, 2013). The treaties include, CRC, EFA, CDE, ACRWC, and UNICEF CFS manual among others. It is therefore, essential for teachers to be familiar with all or some of these treaties in terms of their philosophy and provisions, which is vital background information for teachers' understanding and appreciation of the CFS approach. This study established that many teachers were slightly familiar with most of the treaties, but moderately familiar with the EFA treaty. The findings confirm results of an earlier study by Mandiudza (2013) that the teachers' ignorance of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) contributed to the poor conditions in schools, conditions that thwart learning and learners from developing to their full potential. The results in Zimbabwe on this matter contrast with the situation with teachers in UK, who were reported to be very familiar with the CRC, and were able to appropriately interpret it in the teaching and learning of Child Rights Education (CRE) (Covell, Howe & Polegato, 2011). Interviewed teachers highlighted having heard about the treaties in theory during some workshops but they were not familiar with contents. Teachers felt that lack of familiarity with these treaties explained their weak appreciation and misconceptions about the CFS approach. In an attempt to make the CFS approach more relevant and home grown, schools were in possession of some CFS related policy circulars. This study established that teachers had little or no access at all of these documents, claiming that school heads were not comfortable in availing the documents. However, school heads contended that the documents were at the teachers' disposal if they required them.



#### **4.8.4.2 Inadequate knowledge and skills**

Past research indicates that teachers' knowledge and skills are important as they play a crucial role in the implementation of any curriculum initiative (Kuyini & Mangope, 2011; Mukhopadhyay, 2013). Both teachers and school heads in this study openly accepted that they were not trained in the CFS approach; hence, they had inadequate knowledge and skills regarding the concept. The finding concurs with the situation in Enugu state, Nigeria, where quality teachers to implement CFS initiative were found to not having received in-service training on child centred pedagogies (Madu, 2013). Teachers need be trained to be caring and supportive so that they attend to learners' needs.

#### **4.8.4.3 Lack of resources**

Numerous studies on the implementation of CFS approach, locally and internationally (Mandiudza, 2013, Madu, 2013, Mannathoko, 2013, UNICEF- Ethiopia, 2010), reveal that availability of adequate facilities and resources is vital. In this study, teachers, learners, and school heads echoed the same concern that infra-structure facilities and some material resources were inadequate in the sampled schools. There was a deafening outcry about overcrowded classrooms from the three study cohorts. Teachers and school heads complained about unacceptable classroom-student ratio of 65 which was way above the national standard of 40 to 50. Learners echoed the same sentiments that the classrooms were overcrowded with very limited learning space to engage in participatory methodologies. The scenario is consistent with Hueble's (2008) data on international education statistics, that crowded classrooms are more common in Sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia than in other parts of the world. And the finding also concurs with Afework and Asfaw's (2014) experience in Ethiopia, where class sizes are large and there is no space for teachers and students to arrange group discussions and to move around. In the current study, teachers complained that the overcrowded classrooms reduced interaction time between the teacher and learners, which made it also difficult to address individual differences. It also affected the chances for actual classroom participation of all learners. The negative impact of inadequate resources was reported to be rife in practical subject lessons such as Woodwork, Fashion and Fabrics, Food and Nutrition. School science and computer laboratories were reported to be under-equipped and learners scrambled for the few available resources. One

implication of these findings is that teachers are likely to resort to teacher-centred methodologies which turn learners into passive recipients of knowledge (Fullan, 2010).

#### **4.8.4.4 Teacher burnout and negative attitude**

Literature has shown that teachers experience some work-related stress which compromises their ability to effectively carry out their daily duties and responsibilities. This usually results in emotional exhaustion and teachers tend to lose the ability to provide learners with care and support (Bottiani, Bradshaw & Mendelson, 2014; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011). In this study, teachers complained about lack of teacher motivation and being overloaded with responsibilities. They claimed that the CFS approach required teachers to go an extra mile in assisting the learners. Teachers echoed their dissatisfaction with the working conditions which they described as poor and frustrating. Learners also observed that teachers' working conditions were not favourable which was most likely a contributing factor to teacher burnout. It is very likely therefore, that teachers had limited capacity to respond supportively to diverse student ideas and opinions. The findings tend to imply that teachers may develop a negative attitude towards the CFS approach which may result in lack of commitment. These results confirm Jacobson's (2016) assertion that teacher burnout may result from several factors such as educational mandates and classroom discipline issues. Her study confirmed that teacher burnout affects classroom instruction and impacts interaction with all educational stakeholders. A major implication of this finding is that, factors which contribute to teacher burnout should be identified and eliminated in order to motivate teachers. Motivated teachers are likely to provide learners with consistent, high quality, equal educational opportunities that help them reach their full academic potential

#### **4.8.4.5 Inadequate stakeholders support services**

The CFS approach values collaboration of key stakeholders, hence, in their role in the promotion of CFS environments, teachers need to be adequately supported. Mannathoko's (2007) opines that child-friendly schools depend on pro-active partnership. In this study, both teachers and school heads expressed satisfactory collaboration among key players in the promotion of CFS environments. Teachers were generally happy with the school administration support. However, collaboration among

teachers was moderate, maybe because of the varied level of understanding the CFS approach. On the issue of parental involvement, teachers and school heads had mixed feelings. It was found that schools were doing a lot to involve parents in many school activities, but in some cases, were not cooperative. However, earlier research by Tshabalala (2013) established that strong leadership from school heads of schools together with formal organization of parental involvement established parent-friendly schools, regular home-school communication and innovative parental volunteering. This finding implies that school-parent partnership yields positive results in the promotion of CFS environments. In this study, school heads had certain reservations to parental involvement, citing that dealing with parents can be a delicate and time-consuming task. Both teachers and learners highlighted that learner misbehaviour was a barrier to the promotion of CFS environments. Current school prefects were reported to be ineffective and cases of learner misconduct are on the increase in schools. This finding has an implication that teachers need to build confidence in learners in order to cultivate the spirit of self-discipline.

#### **4.8.5 Implications for Teacher Professional Development**

Findings of this study discussed in the previous sections and sub-sections support the importance of in-service continuous professional development as teachers learn to promote CFS environments. This teacher's role has also implications for the pre-service teacher preparation with regard to their curriculum in relation to the CFS environments concept.

##### **4.8.5.1 Pre-service teacher professional development**

Both teachers and school heads affirmed that child rights education and the CFS concept should be integrated in teacher education. Trainee teachers should be exposed to international human rights treaties that inform the CFS approach and be made familiar with the national CFS related policy circulars. Literature shows that an Asian state Bhutan, integrated rights based approach to education and child-friendly schools concept in its teacher education system to ensure effectiveness and sustainability of the initiative (Noble, 2008). The institute personnel and policies model CFS principles to provide trainee-friendly environments. South Africa adopted the same model, where the

University of Limpopo developed a programme to promote CFS principles through an intensive curriculum development process of an Advanced Certificate in Education (Modipane & Themane, 2014).

#### **4.8.5.2 In-service teacher professional development**

The study established that most of the teachers in the sample had work experience of more than seven years and professed very little understanding of the CFS approach for it was not part of their course curriculum. The prevailing scenario implies that many teachers in schools need in-service professional development on the CFS environments concept. Teachers proposed a systematic and continuous professional development at different viable levels. They opted for professional learning communities (PLCs) which empower teachers within their diverse school contexts. It is also argued that in the learning communities, teachers are expected to shift accountability from an individual teacher to an entire community of teachers, administrators, and support-staff who share a responsibility to student safety and protection (Stewart, 2014). The teacher suggestions were against the common and usual 'one-shot' and 'pull-out' workshop programmes and in-service days employed for donor-funded educational initiatives (Talbert, 2010). PLCs appear relevant, hands-on, and sustainable over time. It is a model that promotes the practice of mentoring and teaching partnerships that reduce isolation of new and inexperienced teachers.

#### **4.8.5.3 CFS Monitoring and Evaluation**

Educational initiatives, just like any other programmes, need to be monitored and evaluated to check on progress and impact. Findings of this study revealed that teachers strongly supported the idea of monitoring and evaluating the CFS environments by educational leadership such as the District Schools Inspector (DSI). They proposed continuous process not a one shot event, and a record of success stories and challenges to be kept in order to make proposals for action based on what is considered to be of 'quality'. The fundamental rationale and most critical reason for monitoring and evaluation is to enable teachers to gauge progress and determine whether they are promoting CFS environments as expected or whether it is given a chance to manifest (Mandiudza, 2013). It is also believed that teachers' input in the M & E process will inform school policies on CFS environments. It is an opportunity to

sensitise teachers not to just focus on the learners' academic performance but to consider all the needs of learners.

This study was informed by the role theory in general, and the organizational role theory (ORT) in particular. It emerged from this study that teachers required the support and interaction with other key stakeholders such as school administration, parents and learners among others to promote CFS environments. This finding confirmed the role theory proposition that achievement of the goals of an organization is not about the conduct of an individual, rather it is about the interaction between individuals who occupy different positions (Sekhri, 2009; Wichham, 2007). Teachers also reported that they adopted different roles in different scenarios in order to ensure diverse learners friendly school environments. Such revelations were closely related to the ORT's proposition that within an organisation there are multiple official demands to be met (Whelan, 2014). Despite their effort in the promotion of CFS environments, teachers bemoaned various challenges, which included, inadequate resources, lack of skills, lack of understanding of the CFS concept, and lack of motivation among others. All these challenges negatively impacted on teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. Proponents of the ORT argue that such challenges result in the development of role related concepts such as role confusion, role conflict, role strain, and role distance. In general, the research findings confirmed the major propositions of the role theory.

#### **4.9 CHAPTERSUMMARY**

This chapter presented, analysed and discussed the findings from both quantitative and qualitative data. Questionnaires were administered to teachers and learners, and in-depth interviews were conducted with school heads and G & C focal persons. There was document analysis of some CFS related policy circulars. The discussion of the findings was done in the context of the sub-research questions posed in Chapter 1, and in relation to local and international literature and to theory. The next chapter presents the summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

# **CHAPTER FIVE**

## **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter four presented, interpreted and discussed the findings of this study with regards to current literature, practice, and the theoretical framework which informed the study. This chapter presents a summary of findings, recommendations made, and suggestions for further studies. The chapter commences with restatement of research objectives and sub-research questions. This is followed by a summary of key findings based on the quantitative and qualitative responses. The summary findings are followed by the conclusions that were drawn from the presentation and discussion of the findings.

### **5.2 RESTATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The existence of hostile school environments is an international cause of concern. For decades, different nations implemented varied curriculum interventions to address the problem, of which the UNICEF's Child-friendly Schools (CFS) approach is one. This study sought to examine the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly school environments in some selected Zimbabwean government secondary schools.

#### **5.2.1 Research aim and objectives**

Reviewed literature (Chemhuru, 2010; Machingambi, 2012; Magwa, 2014; Mugabe & Maposa, 2013; Sango & Chiinze, 2015; Shumba, 2011; Zimbabwe Parliament Research, 2006) revealed that learners are exposed to hostile school environments of which in the majority of cases teachers are implicated. It is therefore, against this backdrop that the current study aimed at establishing the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly school environments. The CFS is an approach meant to guarantee learners safe and protective places for learning, raise teacher morale and

motivation, and mobilising community support for education (Umar, Kinakin & McEachern, 2012). The main objective of this study was to explore the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly school environments. This was done by ascertaining teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept. The assumption was that teachers had sound background knowledge of the CFS approach, its origins, principles and benefits for both teachers and learners. The study also sought to establish school-based support offered to teachers to promote CFS environments. Key stakeholders, school administration, fellow teachers, parents, and learners, were expected to assist teachers in their role in the promotion of CFS environments. Furthermore, the study sought to ascertain the strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. This was done by investigating the academic and social strategies teachers applied inside and outside classroom activities that engaged and motivated learners. The study also sought to reveal the challenges teachers encountered in their role to promote CFS environments. It was assumed that there were some contributing factors which hindered teachers from playing an effective role in the promotion of CFS environments. Last but not least, the study aimed at establishing implications of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments for teacher professional development.

### **5.2.2 Main research question and sub-research questions**

The main research question for this study was; what role do teachers play in the promotion of child-friendly school environments in selected government secondary schools in Zimbabwe. This study was guided by five sub-research questions. The first one was; how do teachers understand the child-friendly environments concept. It was meant to ascertain teachers' understanding of the CFS concept, its origins, key principles, and benefits. The second sub-research question focused on the school-based support offered teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. This was meant to establish how key stakeholders such as school administrators, fellow teachers, parents, and learners supported teachers in their effort to ensure learners friendly school environments. The third sub-research question was to identify the strategies employed by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. The concern was to

highlight the social and academic strategies which ensured learners conducive learning environments that motivate them to remain in school and develop to their full potential. The fourth sub-research question was to examine the challenges encountered by teachers in their effort to promote CFS environments. Challenges could be teacher or school-oriented. The last sub-research question was to establish the implications of the CFS concept for teacher professional development.

### **5.3 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS**

This section presents a summary of the study findings. The summary focuses on teachers' understanding of the CFS concept, considers their familiarity levels with the international and local policies that inform the CFS approach. Summary is also given on the type of support offered to teachers by different stakeholders, strategies employed by teachers to promote CFS environments, challenges which hindered teachers, and the implications for teacher professional development.

#### **5.3.1 Teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept**

The sampled teachers included those who were mature and professionally experienced to understand and appreciate the CFS approach. It emerged from the study that teachers were satisfactorily aware of the CFS approach and a significant number had the opportunity to attend several donor organized workshops sensitising teachers on the concept. They satisfactorily managed to give meaningful definitions of the CFS concept and even highlighted some vital benefits of the approach for both learners and teachers. From both quantitative and qualitative data, teachers affirmed that they had low to moderate familiarity with international human rights treaties which inform the CFS concept. Of the few who claimed to be familiar with some of the treaties, it was through the demands of their personal studies. When it came to individual CFS principles, teachers portrayed a sound understanding of all of them. However, teachers complained of limited access to the available national CFS related policy instruments which schools are in possession of. They also bemoaned little or non-induction of teachers on CFS environments status of respective schools. Teachers revealed that provincial and district education personnel appeared to accord school heads greater



responsibility in ensuring the creation and promotion of CFS environments than what was expected of teachers.

### **5.3.2 School-based support for teachers in the promotion of CFS environments**

Teachers acknowledged that they were offered support by different key stakeholders in their role to promote CFS environments. Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that teachers were offered support of different degrees from different stakeholders. Teachers however, noted that they were rarely inducted on issues related to CFS environments upon joining the respective schools as new teachers. They claimed that if ever induction took place, it was neither coordinated nor monitored. Teachers reported that they got significant support from school administration to promote CFS environment in terms of provision of resources and permission to attend CFS related workshops. However, teachers sadly expressed that collegial support was limited and in most cases teachers were overwhelmed with other responsibilities, leaving them with very little time to give learners individual support. Parental support was reported to be varied. Parents from up- town schools or boarding schools were reported to be more supportive and concerned with the learning environments of their children compared to parents from schools located in high density residential areas. It also emerged from the study that school prefects were not as effective as expected. Teachers highly commended whistle-blowers among learners who exposed acts of misconduct, which made it possible for teachers to intervene and ensure learners friendly school environments.

### **5.3.3 Teachers' strategies to promote CFS environments**

The study findings revealed that teachers employed varied strategies in the promotion of CFS environments. They confirmed that building professional and healthy relations with learners enhanced their sense of belonging to school. It also emerged that learners kept motivated by being meaningfully involved in the learning process. Teachers acknowledged the use of varied participatory methods which included demonstrations, project work, case studies, and observations, among others. Fostering effective interpersonal communication skills was another strategy teachers employed to ensure learner friendly school environments. They employed disciplinary measures which promoted self-control and self-discipline among learners, instead of punitive measures.

Teachers reported that they valued the experiences of their learners, listened and attended to the concerns of learners. The use of appropriate language was also cited as a major strategy in ensuring learner friendly school environments. In the case of distressed learners, teachers confirmed that offering guidance and counselling services was vital as it impacted positively on their academic performance and in social life choices. However, it emerged from the study that teachers encountered challenges in their effort to promote CFS environments.

#### **5.3.4 Challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments**

Teachers highlighted a number of challenges which inhibited their effort in the promotion of CFS environments which included, inadequate background information on the CFS approach, inadequate knowledge and skills of the approach, lack of resources, lack of teacher motivation, and inadequate support services. They affirmed their deficiency in familiarity and knowledge of international human rights treaties which inform the CFS concept; hence they did not have adequate understanding of its philosophy. Teachers complained of limited access to CFS related policy documents in their schools, which compromised their knowledge and skills in promoting the desired child-friendly school environments. They reported that there was no induction on CFS environments for new teachers in the respective schools.

Limited human and material resources were other reported barriers to effective promotion of CFS environments. Teachers bemoaned the large classes which resulted in limited learning space and restricted movement during lessons. However, teachers were positive about adequacy of textbooks as a result of the UNICEF textbook initiative. Due to the national freeze in teacher recruitment, teachers complained of abnormal learner-teacher ratio of above sixty learners per teacher. Teachers were finding it difficult to cater for learner individual differences with such numbers.

Lack of teacher motivation to promote CFS environments was indicated as a challenge for teachers. Teachers confirmed experiencing some work-related stress which compromised their commitment to effectively carry out their responsibilities. Teachers complained of poor working conditions and yet were overloaded with responsibilities.

Last but not least teachers revealed that support services from other key stakeholders such as parents and learners was limited and that negatively impacted on their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

### **5.3.5 Implications for teacher professional development**

The research findings established that the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments had some implications for teacher professional development with regard to in-service and pre-service teachers. Both in-service and pre-service teachers agreed that it is vital to integrate Child Rights Education (CRE) in teacher education curriculum. They affirmed the need for trainee teachers to be exposed to CFS related international human rights treaties whilst undergoing training. For the in-service teachers, the importance and effectiveness of professional learning communities (PLCs) at school, cluster, and district levels were presented and strongly supported. Teachers also agreed that the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments required some monitoring and evaluation which would enable teachers to assess progress of their effort.

## **5.4 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study sought to explore the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments. It had been observed through research and media that learners in Zimbabwean secondary schools were exposed to hostile school environments in which teachers were implicated as perpetrators. Teachers appeared to have role-distanced themselves from the responsibility of creating and promoting learner-friendly school environments due to a number of cited reasons. The study identified challenges which included lack of understanding of the CFS approach, lack of knowledge and skills, inadequate resources, lack of teacher motivation, and lack of stakeholder support. The conclusions of this study were drawn from the findings obtained from answers to the sub-research questions.

### **5.4.1 Teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept**

It emerged from the research findings that the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments was first and foremost, heavily impeded by teachers' poor understanding

of the CFS concept. Teachers professed lack of knowledge on the origins and the philosophy of this curriculum initiative. For some research informants, the CFS approach was alien and unsuitable for the Zimbabwean context and learners. Teachers reported limited exposure and access to both international and local CFS related policies informing the CFS approach, for which teacher education and school heads were blamed. Teachers also cited lack of induction on the CFS approach for teachers in schools as a major contributing factor to their poor understanding and appreciation this curriculum initiative. Teachers rated their understanding of specific CFS principles, which included rights based and cultural diversity, child-seeking and inclusivity, quality-based and effective academic delivery, healthy, safe and protective environments, gender sensitivity, and democratic participation of learners and families. The findings revealed that teachers had sound understanding of these principles which could be attributed to their teaching experience and personal research. However, teachers seemed to have difficulties in forming a whole out of these principles and viewing it as a comprehensive holistic approach made up of interrelated components.

#### **5.4.2 School-based support for teachers to promote CFS environments**

Teachers unanimously agreed that in their role to promote CFS environments, they required the support of key stakeholders such as school administrators, colleagues, parents, and learners. This finding implied that teachers' effort needed to be complemented by the school administration in terms of the provision of resources and enforcement of school rules and regulations. School heads claimed offering teachers adequate support to promote CFS environments and in the majority of cases teachers agreed to getting the needed support. However, because teachers were at different levels of CFS concept understanding, collegial support was reported to be minimal. Only those directly involved in the teaching of Guidance and Counselling were reported to be forthcoming in helping others to afford learners friendly school environments. Parental support was reported to be varying depending on a number of factors which included; school geographical location, parents' level of education, the relationship between the school and the community, and the school head's leadership style. It emerged that parental involvement was either positive or negative which also affected

the role of teachers accordingly. Teachers were disgruntled by the minimal support offered by learners. School prefects were reported to be ineffective and unreliable which made the teachers' responsibilities in the promotion of CFS environments more demanding. Teachers were grateful to learners who volunteered information on learner anti-social behaviours. It therefore, came to light that teachers were supposed to build acceptable relationships with other key stakeholders to enhance their role in the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **5.4.3 Teacher strategies in the promotion of CFS environments**

It emerged from the study that teachers employed varied strategies to promote CFS environments which included; knowing the learner, use of learner-centred teaching and learning activities, fostering effective interpersonal communication skills, and offering guidance and counselling services. Teachers confirmed that good teacher-learner relationship laid a strong foundation in building of trust between the two parties and above all it enhanced learner connection to the school. They indicated the positive impact of meaningful involvement of learners in the teaching and learning process. Teachers reported that this strategy helped in keeping learners focused and motivated. It was unanimously agreed that learners enjoyed being in school when their input was valued and they were made to take charge of their learning. However, it also emerged that learner involvement needed to be guided and directed, hence, teachers are required to have effective child-friendly classroom management skills.

Teachers noted that almost all their suggested strategies in the promotion of CFS environments heavily depended on the nature of interactions between teachers and learners and among learners. The employment of effective interpersonal communication skills was highly commended and reported to be vital in learner-friendly school environments. Teachers confirmed being role models in this regard in their communication and conduct before learners.

In their effort to ensure learners CFS environments, teachers noted an array of challenges faced by learners, making it difficult for them to appreciate and benefit from the results. Teachers offered distressed learners guidance and counselling. However,

they complained about lack of resources to offer the services. They were limited in their skills and schools were failing to provide relevant infra-structure for the service.

#### **5.4.4 Challenges encountered by teachers in the promotion of CFS environments**

Teachers confirmed experiencing varied challenges in their effort to promote CFS environments, which ranged from environmental to individual oriented. They complained of inadequate knowledge and understanding of the CFS concept. They had very limited exposure to the international and local policy instruments which inform and enhance the CFS approach. At school level, teachers rarely had access to CFS related policy circulars, which compromised their knowledge and skills in promoting CFS environments. Lack of resources emerged as another barrier teachers encountered in terms of time, learning space, learning materials, and human resources. Teachers bemoaned the overcrowded classrooms which hindered the use of participatory teaching-learning methods. In practical subjects such as Food and Nutrition, Computer Studies and Woodwork among others, teachers reported inadequate tools and gadgets. This scenario was said to frustrate learners resulting in them absconding lessons. In terms of time, teachers complained of having too many responsibilities leaving them with very little time for considering learner individual differences or concerns.

Teachers' negative attitude towards the CFS approach as a result of teacher burnout was also revealed as another challenge encountered by teachers in their promotion of CFS environments. It emerged that teachers had very little appreciation for this approach due to a number of factors which included poor working conditions and inadequate support services from key stakeholders such as parents and learners.

#### **5.4.5 Implications for teacher professional developments**

The research informants concurred on the need to adequately prepare pre-service and in-service teachers for the CFS approach. Teachers noted the importance of familiarizing teachers with the origins and philosophy of the concept, especially at teacher education stage. There emerged a suggestion that teacher professional development on the CFS environments concept be continuous through the establishment of professional learning communities (PLCs) at cluster and district levels.

Teachers realised the need for a monitoring and evaluation of teachers' contribution in the promotion of CFS environments of which the findings would inform curriculum planners and policy makers.

## **5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS EMANATING FROM THE STUDY**

In light of the research findings and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made to enhance teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments.

- In order to ensure relative uniformity and high standard in teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments in their heterogeneous school systems, there is need to familiarise and capacitate teachers on the origins and philosophy of the CFS concept. Teacher education curriculum should integrate Child Rights Education to foster understanding and appreciation of learner rights during teacher training.
- To ensure shared vision and increased understanding of the CFS environments at school level, school heads should be at liberty to avail to all teachers the CFS related policy circulars in their custody. There is need for teachers to fully aware of the provisions of these circulars and what is expected of them in regard with learner rights, interests, and needs.
- Schools need to derive from the international or national CFS framework, their own viable and sustainable school CFS model which will serve as a guide to the school's CFS principle(s) of emphasis.
- For the purpose of teachers having a shared understanding of the individual CFS principles, school administrators, that is, school head, heads of departments, and senior teachers, should take it upon themselves to regularly induct teachers on the CFS environments concept, especially new teachers.
- Where possible, more teachers should be offered the opportunity to attend CFS related workshops at national, district or cluster level, organised by the MOPSE or non-governmental organisations. This is likely to create a platform where teachers interact with personnel that value the CFS concept and offer them a chance to share experiences, success stories and challenges related to the promotion of CFS environments.

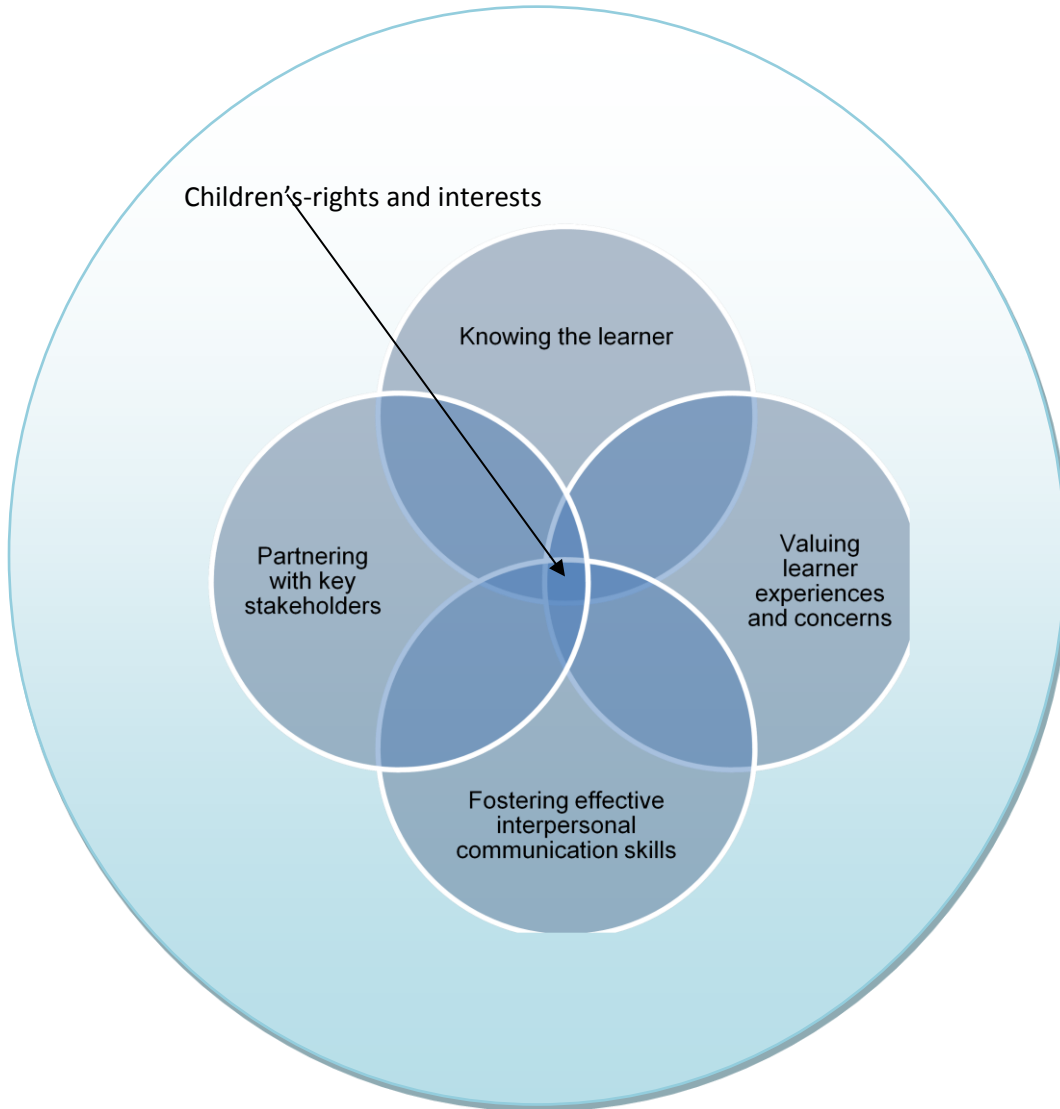
- In their effort to promote CFS environments, teachers should be offered relevant support by key players like school administrators, colleagues, parents, and learners. There is need for consented effort from these stakeholders.
- It is necessary to harness the parental input and expertise in school activities, which is likely to strengthen ownership of plans among stakeholders and enhance the clarity of teacher strategies in the promotion of CFS environments
- Teachers should come up with practical and sustainable strategies to promote CFS environments within the context of their respective schools.
- Schools need to be well-resourced with relevant and adequate materials and human resources which will make it possible to actively engage all learners in the learning process. This will help in keeping learners focused, motivated and attached to their school.
- Teachers should be offered teacher-friendly school environments in order for them to afford learners school-friendly environments in turn. Teachers require favourable working conditions and realization of their vital role in the education of learners.
- The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education should design ways of monitoring and evaluating teachers' effort in the promotion of CFS environments. The results of this exercise will inform policy and practices in the implementation of this initiative.

### **5.5.1 Measures to enhance teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments**

With the guidance of the international UNICEF CFS model illustrated in Figure 5.1, teachers are mandated to promote CFS environments in their respective schools but the level of context diversity has made the desired goals difficult to achieve. It is therefore, against this background that the researcher proposes a framework to assist in enhancing the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environment. The design of this framework was heavily influenced by the insights gained from reviewed literature and findings from the data analysed. The framework heavily borrowed from the teacher



strategies that emerged on the promotion of CFS environments as reflected in both quantitative and qualitative data. Figure 5.1 is a representation of the ideal comprehensive CFS promotion framework.



**Figure 5-1: Proposed Zendah (2015) Comprehensive CFS Environments Promotion Framework**

#### **5.5.1.1 The Comprehensive CFS Framework**

This framework consists of four interrelated pillars which are meant to recognize and uphold children's rights and interests. The pillars provide a strong foundation for child-friendly school environments concept where children are likely to achieve their fullest potential as learners, if their physical, mental, intellectual and emotional needs are

catered for. The model is not limited to the classroom activities, but addresses the whole school environment with teachers engaged in all the four pillars rather than in just one. The framework is likely to guide and direct teachers on viable and sustainable strategies in the promotion of CFS environments. Implementation of this framework supports learners to realise their full potential as healthy and productive members of both their school and community. It is assumed that the use of this framework can be an effective way to tap into the linkage between school environments and academic achievements.

The following sub-sections are a discussion of the major provisions of each of the proposed framework's four pillars or components.

#### **5.5.1.1.1 Knowing the learner**

Shared vision and sentiments of the research informants suggest that existence of a genuine and trustworthy relationship between teacher and learners is core in the promotion of CFS environments. This is a process whereby teachers become more caring and interested in learners' social and academic welfare. It helps in the development of positive rapport and trust between teacher and learners, and among learners. The process is likely to enhance learners' sense of belonging to their school when they feel valued and protected. Knowing learners may also assist teachers in determining learners' readiness to engage in any curriculum activity. When teachers have accurate knowledge about their learners as individuals, they enjoy greater flexibility of thought, greater empathy, greater patience and more accurate attribution of responsibility.

#### **5.5.1.1.2 Valuing learners' experiences and concerns**

Borrowing from education legends like John Dewey, past experiences and prior knowledge enhance interaction and continuity in the effective teaching and learning process. In a school setting, interaction between teachers and learners, learners and the environment, and among learners is inevitable. This aspect of interaction highlights the importance of dialogue and communication in learning and the aspect of continuity emphasises the recognition of learners as designers of their own learning. With the guide of the CFS framework, teachers need to foster confidence in learners by

engaging them meaningfully in their learning process. With the availability of relevant and adequate resources, learners can be assisted to effectively build on what they already know. This model encourages teachers to employ participatory methodologies and afford learners the opportunity to organise and manage learning activities. It is likely to make both teachers and learners accountable for the learning outcomes. By doing so, teachers would promote a democratic learning environment with assertive learners.

Learners have an important role in raising concerns about the standard of care in schools. The assumption of this model is that when their views are respected, they will be acknowledged and acted upon. This model component is meant to encourage teachers to allow learners to raise any questions or concerns with them and not fear reprisal or negative feedback. Teachers should have a duty to protect learners by putting their interests first where concerns are raised. Both reviewed literature and research findings viewed teachers as learners' first line of support, hence; teachers need to give learners the confidence and opportunity to speak out. When teachers create such conducive school environments, learners are likely to feel trusted and to feel that their questions and concerns are respected. However, teachers need to manage learner expectations by being open and honest that things do not always happen as they intend. There is need for teachers to portray sound familiarity and knowledge of the CFS related policy circulars in the way they manage learner behaviours.

#### **5.5.1.1.3 Effective interpersonal communication skills**

The study revealed that a school with child-friendly environments is characterised by confident teachers and learners enjoying the benefits of effective communication structures. It is therefore, against this conviction that the proposed CFS framework assumes that relevant and effective communication skills can help teachers improve their teaching style, strengthening the bond between them and their learners. It should be noted that a positive interaction is essential for a good teacher-learner(s) relationship. However, the motive of this proposed framework is to encourage teachers to establish and maintain a positive professional interpersonal relationship in their schools and classrooms with the help of verbal, para-verbal and non-verbal

communication. A school environment with good interpersonal relationships between teachers and learners is an important element contributing to the students' learning process. Effective interpersonal communication skills promote trust and transparency in teacher-learner relationship which results in respect for each other. Learners tend to prefer teachers who are warm and friendly hence; teachers need to use wisely, the tool of voice. An effective speaking voice is pleasant, natural, dynamic, expressive, and easily heard.

#### **5.5.1.1.4 Partnership with key stakeholders**

It emerged from the study that schools need to engage in collaborative relationships and activities involving school staff, parents and other organisations interested in learners' welfare. This partnership should be based on mutual trust, respect, and shared responsibility for the development and academic achievement of learners. The partnership is also meant to enhance the range of support and opportunities available to teachers, learners, parents and others in the promotion of CFS environments. The rationale behind this thinking is that school partnerships play an important role in decision making and accountability. In this regard, the motive of this pillar in the proposed framework is to encourage sustainability of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments. Teachers need to recognize the relevant roles of other key stakeholders in their effort to ensure learner friendly school environments. Research demonstrates that effective teachers have high levels of other stakeholders' involvement which is strongly related to improved student learning, attendance and behaviour.

#### **5.5.1.1.5 Children's rights and interests**

The highlighted and discussed propositions of all the four pillars of the proposed Comprehensive CFS Environments Promotion framework converge at recognizing and upholding children's rights and interests. Where learners feel that their rights are recognized and upheld, it contributes to school life satisfaction which is indicated by happiness, enjoyment of school, a sense of well-being at school, and quality of life among learners. It is also assumed that learner satisfaction with school may be an important predictor of learners' academic achievement.

## **5.6 ACHIEVEMENT OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The following sub-sections present a discussion on the extent to which the study met the intended objectives. The discussion covers teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept, school-based support for teachers, strategies employed in the promotion of CFS environments, challenges hindering the process, and implications for teacher professional development.

### **5.6.1 Teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept**

The study objective was to examine teachers' understanding of the CFS concept, and the findings established that teachers had limited understanding of the CFS origins and philosophy. They had low familiarity with both international and local instruments and policies that inform and direct this approach. In their respective schools, teachers affirmed limited access to national CFS related policy circulars. However, it was encouraging to note that teachers could confidently explain what each of the six CFS principles entail in theory.

### **5.6.2 School-based support for teacher**

This study also intended to ascertain how teachers were supported at school level in their role in the promotion of CFS environments. It emerged that teachers were offered support in varying levels from different key stakeholders such as school administration, fellow teachers, parents, and learners. Support from school administration was mostly guaranteed in terms of provision of required resources and affording teachers opportunities to attend CFS related workshops. Collegial support was limited because of attitude and lack of knowledge about the approach. Parents were reported to be offering support differently depending on their level of commitment and appreciation of the CFS concepts. Support from learners was rated low and inconsistent.

### **5.6.3 Teachers' strategies in CFS promotion**

It was also the study's intention to identify the strategies teachers employed in the promotion of CFS environments. The study findings revealed that teachers employed varied strategies to ensure desired environments for learners, which were both environmental and professional oriented. Teachers strove to establish healthy and

caring relationships with learners and foster in them, effective interpersonal communication skills. To assist learners in their academic and social challenges, teachers offered guidance and counselling support services through partnering with other key stakeholders.

#### **5.6.4 Teacher challenges in the promotion of CFS environments.**

Another study objective was to examine the challenges encountered by teachers in their effort to promote CFS environments. The study established that there was an array of challenges which barred teachers from effectively promoting CFS environments which included; lack of understanding, knowledge and skills, inadequate resources, limited support from other key stakeholders, and poor working conditions among others. Teachers' beliefs, negative attitude and lack of appreciation were also cited as challenges which hindered the promotion of CFS environments.

#### **5.6.5 Implications for teacher professional development**

After deliberating on all the afore-mentioned objectives, the final intention of this study was to highlight the implications of the study findings on teacher professional development. It emerged that teachers needed to be adequately prepared on the CFS concept both at pre-service and in-service levels. Teacher education curriculum needed to integrate Child Rights Education and trainee teachers needed to be exposed to all the international and local instruments that inform and direct the CFS approach. In-service teachers require continuous learning and induction on CFS related content, skills and methods. Teachers affirmed the need to have a monitoring and evaluation structure on CFS promotion as a mechanism to check the impact and use the findings to improve service.

### **5.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

As a way of rounding off this study, the researcher would like to acknowledge that this examination of teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments undertaken using a mixed method approach was subject to some limitations. The adopted approach calls for the researcher's expertise in both quantitative and qualitative approaches which might have been heavy for the bearer in the current study. The researcher is a teacher

educator responsible for teaching Health and Life Skills education; an area where issues to do with child rights and welfare are core. This orientation could potentially influence her personal knowledge, attitude, beliefs and values about the problem under study which could have impacted on data collection and interpretation.

Similar to other research dealing with human rights issues, this study also faced social, environmental, and personal dilemmas. It was difficult to convince some research informants on the good and value of recognising learner rights either at school or teacher level. Research participants expressed personal opinions about the CFS approach and mostly described it as a foreign curriculum intervention unsuitable for our African school contexts. They viewed it as a contributing factor to learner indiscipline. The researcher patiently engaged with participants to explain the advantages of CFS approach against its disadvantages.

Further, involving learners in study to confirm teacher behaviour and strategies in the promotion of CFS environments could have made teachers feel exposed about their shortcomings on the matter. It could have been also challenging for teachers to be examined on their input to a curriculum initiative in which they were not professionally trained or adequately inducted on.

This study could have been limited in that it involved only seven government urban secondary schools in the biggest education province in Zimbabwe and thus, the results could not be generalized to other schools in rural settings or in other districts.

Despite the highlighted limitations, the researcher hopes that the results of this study adequately answered the research questions that guided the study. It is also hoped that the research findings extended the frontiers of teacher knowledge, policy and curriculum implementation, and teacher professional development in the context of school environments in relation to children's rights. Overall, the level of CFS promotion measure on the ORT theoretical framework of Holsti (1970) was moderate. Inadequate understanding, limited support, inadequate resources, negative attitude, and poor working conditions are some of the reasons for the satisfactory levels of CFS promotion. This existence of hostile school environments is likely to continue until teachers are

thoroughly trained or inducted in the CFS approach. Teacher education needs to work in collaboration with the MoPSE to enhance teacher professional development in CFS issues as well as involving teachers in the curriculum development of the CFS concept.

## **5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY**

This study intended to examine the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments, focusing on urban government secondary schools only, in a single educational district in Manicaland province, Zimbabwe. Further research may explore the same issue on a wider scale involving more than one district and dealing with schools in rural settings to engage in a comparative study and come up with generalizable results.

Future studies may also consider the views of other key stakeholders such as parents, teacher educators, and members of the civic society since the current study worked with a sample drawn from school heads, teachers, and learners.

Further studies should also be carried out to explore learners' perceptions of the CFS environments concept which increase their appreciation of it and maximise benefits for their academic achievement.

## **5.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter gave a presentation of the summary of findings, conclusions of the study, recommendations which included a proposed framework for the promotion of CFS environments. The study purpose was to explore the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.

At first, the study examined teachers' understanding of the CFS environments concept and it emerged that teachers had limited understanding, knowledge and skills on this approach. They presented reasons for this limitation.

In an effort to acknowledge teacher effort in the promotion of CFS environments, the school-based support offered to teachers was investigated, and it came to light that teachers were significantly supported by the concerned stakeholders.



Teachers were also interrogated to identify their strategies in the promotion of CFS environments, to which they cited a number of viable and sustainable strategies. To enhance teacher effort, a framework was proposed which Zimbabwean teachers may adopt to ensure learner friendly school environments. Despite teachers' efforts, they identified a number of challenges which impeded their work. The study therefore, suggested the integration of CFS issues in teacher education curriculum as a sustainable teacher professional development approach. It also recommended a proper M and E structure to ensure effective teacher promotion of CFS environments. In recognition of the current research's shortcomings, the chapter ended with recommendations for further research.

## REFERENCES

- Abdul, H. Y. (2008). *Child Rights situation analysis for Middle East and North Africa (MENA)*. Geneva: Save the Children.
- Adams, I.O. (2014). *The ontological, epistemological and methodological debates in information systems research*. (PhD Thesis) Accra: University for Development Studies School of Business and Law.
- Adelman, H. & Taylor, L.(2007). *Fostering school, family, and community involvement: Effective strategies for creating safer schools and communities*. Washington: Hamilton Fish Institute of School Community Violence & Regional Educational Laboratory.
- Afework, T.H.& Asfaw, M.B. (2014). The availability school facilities and their effects on the quality of education in government primary schools of Harari regional state and East Hararghe zone, Ethiopia. *Middle Eastern & African Journal of Educational Research* 11, 59-71.
- Ahmed, S.P. & Ahmed, M.T.Z. (2014). Qualitative Research: A decisive element to epistemological and ontological discourse. *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences* 8(2): 298-313.
- Aliyu, A. A., Muhammad, U. B., Rozilah, K. and David, M. (2014). Positivist and non-positivist paradigm in Social science research: Conflicting paradigms or perfect partners? *Journal of Management and Sustainability* 4(3): 79 – 95.
- Alkarni, A. (2014). Problems which may challenge the ability of secondary school head teachers in the city of Tabuk to lead their schools professionally. *Annual Review of Education, Communication and Language Sciences* 11 (1): 55-74.
- Allen, K.P. (2010). Classroom management, bullying, and teacher practices. *The Professional Educator* 34(1): 1-14.
- Almer,T.(2012).Research design and data analysis, presentation, and interpretation. *The Internet and Surveillance. Research Paper Series No 12*.
- Al-Saadi, H. (2014). *Demystifying ontology and epistemology in research methods*.(PhD Thesis).University of Sheffield.
- Alsaaw, A. (2014). A critical review of qualitative interviews. *European Journal of Business and Social Sciences* 3(4): 149-156.
- Al-Zyoud, M.S., Brown, E.J., & Morgan, W.J. (2013). Peace education in English and Jordanian schools: A comparative study. *Education Research and Perspectives. An International Journal* 40, 211-235.
- American Civil Liberties Union (2009). *Human Rights at home: Mental Illness in U.S. prisons and jails*. New York: Washington's Legislative Office Focus on Exceptional Children.

Andrews, D., & Lewis, M. (2007). Transforming practice from within: The power of the professional learning community. In L. Stoll & K.S. Louis (eds) *Professional learning communities: Divergence, depth and dilemmas*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Anney, V.N. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: Looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies* 5(2): 272- 281.

Atwood, S., Turnbull, W., & Carpendale, J.I.M. (2010). The construction of knowledge in classroom talk. *Journal of Learning Sciences* 19(3): 358-402.

*Australia National Safe Schools Framework* (2013). New York: Longman Publishing Group.

Babbie, E.R. (2012). *The practice of social research* (12<sup>th</sup> ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Bacon, A.L. (2011). *Successfully implementing School-wide Positive Behaviour Support in elementary and middle school classrooms*. Michigan: Northern Michigan University.

Bajaj, M. (2012). *Schooling for Social Change. The Rise and Impact of Human Rights Education in India*. London: Continuum.

Bamberger, M. (2012). The Mixed methods approach to evaluation. *Social Impact* 1, 67-79.

Banks, T. (2014). Creative positive learning environments: Antecedent strategies for managing the classroom environment and student behaviour. *Creative Education* 5, 519-524.

Barber, M. & Mourshed, M. (2007). *How the world's best performing school systems come out on top*. London: McKinsey and Company.

Barnes, J. D. (2011). The balancing act: The personal and professional challenges of urban teachers. *Penn CSE Perspectives on Urban Education* 9(1): 1-11.

Baum, A.C. & Swick, K.J. (2008). Dispositions toward families and family involvement: Supporting pre-service teacher development. *Early Childhood Education Journal* 35(6): 579-584.

Bauwens, T., Kennes, P. & Bauwens, A. (2013). Paradigms: Waving the flag or flagging the wave? In Beyens K, Christianens J, Claes B, De Ridder S, Tournel, H & Tubex, H (eds). *The Pains of Doing Criminological Research* 17, 23-37.

Bazeley, P. (2015). Writing up multi-method and mixed methods research for diverse audiences. In S.N. Hesse-Biber & R.B. Johnson (Eds.). *The Oxford Handbook of Multimethod and Mixed Methods Research Inquiry*. New York, NY: Oxford.

Benes, V. (2011). *Role theory: A conceptual framework for the constructivist foreign policy analysis*. Paper prepared for the Third Global International Studies Conference

“World Crisis. Revolution or Evolution in the International Community?” University of Porto, Portugal.

Bernard, A. (2005). *Evaluation of UNICEF’s Child-friendly school project in Cambodia*. Phnom Penh: UNICEF-Sida.

Bethelsen, D. & Walker, S. (2008). Parents’ involvement in their children’s education. *Family Matters* 79, 34-41.

Bettis, R., Gambardella, A., Helfat, C. & Mitchell, W. (2014). Qualitative empirical analysis in strategic management. *Strategic Management Journal* 35, 949-953.

Bezzina, C. (2006). Views from the trenches: Beginning teachers’ perceptions about their professional development. *Journal of In-Service Education* 32(2): 411-430.

Biddle, B. J. (1986). Recent developments in role theory. *Annual Review of Sociology* 12(1): 67-92.

Biddle, B.J. & Thomas, E.M. (1966). *Role Theory: Concepts and Research*. London: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Biddle, B.J. (1979). *Role theory: Expectations, identities, and behaviours*. New York: Academic Press, Inc.

Bindak, R. (2013). Relationship between randomness and coefficient alpha: A Monte Carlo simulation study. *Journal of Data Analysis and Information Processing*. 1, 13-17.

Bishop, R. (2008). Effective leadership for educational reform. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies* 43(20): 47-62.

Blaike, N. (2009). *Designing social research*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Blum, R.W. (2005). *School connectedness: Improving students’ lives*. Baltimore: John Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health.

Boerema, A. (2011). Challenging and supporting new leader development. *Educational Management, Administration and Leadership* 39(5): 554-567.

Bogdan, R.C. & Biklen, S.K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods* (5<sup>th</sup>ed.). Boston: Pearson A & B.

Boland, G. (2013). Role and role distance: The Heathcole/Carroll collaboration that reframed the social context for drama-based learning and teaching. *Drama Australia Journal* 37(1): 53-64.

Bold, C. (2012). *Using narrative in research*. London: SAGE.

Boston Consulting Group (BCG). (2014). *Teachers know best: Teachers’ views on professional development*. Washington: Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation.

- Bowen, G.A. (2010). From qualitative dissertation to quality articles: Seven lessons learned. *The Qualitative Report* 15(4): 864-879.
- Brackett, M.A., Rivers, S.E., Reyes, M.R., & Salovey, P. (2012). Enhancing academic performance and social and emotional competence with the RULER Feeling Words curriculum. *Learning and Individual Differences* 22, 218-224.
- Brahm, E. (2006). *Peace Education beyond intractability*. Boulder: University of Colorado.
- Bredenberg, K. (2008). *The Child-Friendly School Movement and its role in promoting stakeholder-driven development throughout the Southeast Asia Region*. Phnom Penh: KAPE USAID.
- Bridgeland, J., Bruce, M., & Hariharan, A. (2013). *The missing piece. A national teachers survey on how social and emotional learning can empower children and transform schools*. Chicago: Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning.
- Broad, K. & Evans, M. (2006). *A review of literature on professional development content and delivery modes for experienced teachers*. Ontario: Ontario Institute for Students in Education.
- Brown, W. L. (2014). Review of paradigms of research for the 21<sup>st</sup> century: Perspectives and examples from practice by Antonina Lukenchuck. *Education Review* 21, 1 – 7.
- Bryer, F., & Beamish, W. (2005). Supporting students with problem behaviour in school settings. *Griffith University; School of Cognition, Language, and Special Education* 1(2): 146-159.
- Bryman, A. & Bell, E. (2011). *Business research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. (2015). *Social Research Methods*. Oxford. Oxford University Press.
- Bulter, C. (Ed) (2012). *Child Rights: The Movement, International Law and Opposition*. Purdue, Indiana: Purdue University Press.
- Cameron, R. (2011). Mixed Methods Research: The five Ps Framework. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods* 9(2): 96 – 108.
- Campbell, C., Andersen, L., Nyamukapa, C., Gregson, S., Pufall, E., Mandanhire, C., Skovdal, M., Mutsikiwa, A., & Gawa, R. (2014). *The role of schools in supporting children affected by HIV: Stakeholder Report*. Harare: Biomedical Research and Training Institute.
- Campbell, J.L., Quincy, C., Osserman, J. & Pedersen, O.K. (2013). Coding in-depth semi-structured interviews: Problems of unitization and inter-coder reliability and agreement. *Sociological Methods & Research* 42(3): 294-320.

- Campos, M.R. (2005). The dilemmas and social responsibilities of teachers: Passive bystanders or active participants? *Project for Education in Latin in America and Caribbean Journal* 1: 6- 23.
- Carless, D., & Harfitt, G.J. (2013). Innovation in secondary education: A case of curriculum reform in Hong Kong. *The New Senior Secondary Curriculum* 9(2): 172-185.
- Caruth, G.D. (2013). Demystifying mixed methods research design: A review of the literature. *Melvana International Journal of Education* 3(2): 112-122.
- Castro, F.G., Killison, J.G., Boyd, S.J. & Kopak, A. (2010). A methodology for conducting integrative mixed methods research and data analysis. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* 4(4): 342-360.
- CfBT Education Trust (2013). *Documentation report on the implementation of the School Improvement Grant (SIG) pilot project*. UNICEF Zimbabwe.
- Charleston, S.C. & Bredenberg, K. (2008). *The CFS Movement and its role in promoting stakeholder-driven development throughout the South and East Asia region*. Sonthara Kong: World Education Inc.
- Chelule, E. (2014). Impediments to implementation of Peace Education in public Universities in Kenya. *Journal of Humanities and Social Science*. 19(3): 174-185.
- Chemhuru, M. (2010). Revisiting the place of punishment in Zimbabwe's primary and secondary school formal education system. *Journal of African Studies and Development* 2(7): 176-183.
- Chen, L. (2012). *A mixed methods study investigating intangibles in the banking sector* (PhD Thesis). University of Glasgow.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, J.N., & Rockoff, J.E. (2011). *The long-term impacts of teachers: Teacher value-added and student outcomes in adulthood*. Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Chetty, R., Friedman, J.N., & Rockoff, J.E. (2014). Measuring the impact of teachers 1: Evaluating bias in teacher value-added estimates. *American Economic Association* 104(9): 2593- 2632.
- Cheung, A.C.K. & Wong, P.M. (2011). Effects of school heads' and teachers' agreement with the curriculum reform on curriculum development progress and student learning in Hong Kong. *School Leadership and Management* 28(5): 505-521.
- Chika, P. E., & Elo, C.O. (2010): *The impact of child-friendly schools initiative*. Minnesota: University of Minnesota.
- Chilisa, B. (2012). *Indigenous research methodologies*. London: Sage
- Chinyani, H. (2010). Beyond the rhetoric of gender equality: Is the school system an agent of change? *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa* 12(7): 240-250.

Chireshe, R. (2006). *An assessment of the effectiveness of school guidance and counselling services in Zimbabwean secondary schools* (PhD Thesis) University of South Africa.

Chitiyo, M., & Wheeler, J. (2009). Challenges faced by school teachers in implementing positive behaviour support in their school systems. *Remedial and Special Education* 30(1):58-63.

Chu, Y. (2014). *A review of studies on luxury hotels over the past two decades*. (Master Thesis). Iowa State University.

Clair, N. (2010). *An analysis of the CFS standards for Macedonia*. St Paul, MN: Miske Witt & Associates Inc.

Cohen, L., Manion, K., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). London: Routledge.

Cohrssen, C., Church, A. & Tayler, C. (2011). *Respectful relationships and responsive engagement. Evidence Paper. Principle 5*. Melbourne: Department of Education and Early Childhood Development.

Cole, P. (2012). *Linking effective professional learning with effective teaching practice*. Melbourne: Australian Institute for Teaching School Leadership Ltd.

Collie, R.J., Shapka, J.D., & Perry, N.E. (2011). Predicting teacher commitment. The impact of school climate and socio-emotional learning. *Psychology in the Schools* 48, 1034-1048.

Collier, P. & Callero, P. (2005). Role theory and social cognition: Learning to think like a recycler. *Self and Identity* 4(1): 45-58.

Cooley, C. (1902). *Human nature and the social order*. New York: Scribner's.

Covell, K. (2010). School Engagement and Rights-Respecting Schools. *Cambridge Journal of Education* 40(1): 39-51.

Covell, K., Howe, B., and Polegato, J.L. (2011). Children's Rights Education as a counter to social disadvantage: A case Study from England. *Educational Research* 53(2): 193-206.

Crawford, M. (2014). *Developing as an educational leader and manager*. London: SAGE.

Creswell, J. W. (2015). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Creswell, J.W. (2014). *Research Design: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (3<sup>rd</sup>ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.

Creswell, J.W. and Plano- Clark, V. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. (3<sup>rd</sup>ed.). USA: SAGE Publication.

Crossman, A., & Harris, P. (2006). Job satisfaction of secondary school teachers. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership* 34, 29-46.

Crosson-Tower, C. (2010). *Understanding child abuse and neglect* (8<sup>th</sup>ed.). Toronto: Pearson Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Crosson-Tower, C. (2013). *Understanding child abuse and neglect* (9<sup>th</sup>ed.). Washington: Pearson Education Inc.

Das, S.N. (2014). *Do child-friendly practices affect learning? Evidence from rural India*. Department of Quantitative Social Science. Institute of Education. London: University of London.

Davidson, E. (2007). The pivotal role of teacher motivation in Tanzanian education. *The Educational Forum* 71(2): 157-166.

De Bruyn, D, and Tinio, L. (2013). *Stopping violence in schools: A guide for teachers*. Paris: UNESCO

De Lisle, J. (2011). The benefits and challenges of mixing methods and methodologies: Lessons learnt from implementing qualitatively led methods' research designs in Trinidad and Tobago. *Caribbean Curriculum* 18, 87-120.

Demir, K. (2008). Transformational leadership and collective efficacy: The moderating roles of collaborative culture and teachers' self-efficacy. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research* 33, 93-112.

DeMonte, J. (2013). *High-Quality Professional Development for Teachers: Supporting teacher-training to improve student learning*. Washington: Center for American Progress.

Denton, P. (2014). *The power of our words: Teacher language that helps children learn* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Northeast Foundation for Children, Inc.

Denzin, N. (2012). Triangulation 2 .0. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* 6, 80-88.

Dewey, J. (1922). *Human nature and conduct: An introduction to social psychology*. New York: Carlyon House.

Dick, B. (2014). Convergent interviewing: A technique for qualitative data collection. Accessed 10/06/16 from [www. aral.com.au/resources/coin.pdf](http://www.aral.com.au/resources/coin.pdf)

Dieronitou, I. (2014). The ontological and epistemological foundations of qualitative and quantitative approaches to research. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management* 11(10): 1 – 17.



Directors' Circular No. 27 Of 2008 *Compulsory Establishment of Child Abuse Prevention and Management Reporting Structures at Every Educational Institution*. Harare: Government Printers.

Dor, A. & Brooke-Rucker Naidu, T. (2012). Teachers' attitudes towards parents' involvement in school: Comparing teachers in USA and Israel. *Issues in Educational Research* 22(3): 246-262.

Dor, A. (2012). Parents' involvement in school: Attitudes of teachers and school counsellors. *US-China Education Review* 11, 921-935.

Droessaert, V. & van-Dinther, J. (2015). Validity and test-retest reliability of the Dutch version of the chronic otitis media questionnaire 12 (COMQ – 12). *The Journal of International Advanced Otology* 11(3): 248 – 252.

Drost, E.A. (2011). Validity and reliability in social science research. *Education Research and Perspectives* 38(1): 105-123.

Duran-Narucki, V. (2008). School building conditions, school attendance, and academic achievement in New York City public schools: A mediator model. *Journal of Environmental Psychology* 28, 278-286.

Dymoke, S & Harrison, J.K. (2006). Professional development and the beginning teacher: Issues of teacher autonomy and institutional conformity in the performance review process. *Journal of Education for Teaching* 32(1): 71-92.

Edwards, R. & Holland, J. (2013). *What is qualitative interviewing?* London: Bloomsbury Academic.

Eisenbeib, S.A. (2013). A double-edged sword: Transformational leadership and individual creativity. *British Journal of Management* 2(1): 54-68.

Eisenhart, M.A. (1991). Conceptual framework for research Circa. *The Psychology of Mathematics Education* 1, 202-219.

Elmeski, M. A. (2011). *Democratic participation and child-friendly schools*. Wisconsin: Miske Witt & Associates Inc.

Emmel, W. (2013). *Sampling and choosing cases in qualitative research: A realist approach*. London: Sage.

Epstein, J.L. & Sanders, M.G. (2006). Prospects for change: Preparing educators for, family, and community partnerships. *Peabody Journal of Education* 81(2): 81-120.

Epstein, J.L. (2008). Improving family and community involvement in secondary schools. *The Education Digest* 73(6): 9-12.

Everset, T. (2014). Resolving the Qual - Quan debate in health care research. *Academic Journals* 5(1): 6-15.

- Fan, W. and Yan, Z (2010). Factors affecting response rates of the web survey.A systematic review. *Computers in Human Behaviour* 26; 132-139.
- Ferrara, M.M. & Ferrara, P.J. (2005). Parents as partners: Raising awareness as a teacher preparation programme. *The Cleaning House* 79(2): 77-82.
- Fielding, N.G. (2012). Triangulation and mixed methods designs: Data integration with new research technologies. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* Published online 30/03/2012. <http://mmr.sagepub.com/content/early/2012/03/28/1558689812437101>
- Figure, A. (2013). *Action for Children's Rights in Education: End of project evaluation report*. Johannesburg: Action Aid.
- Fletcher, A. (2006). *The guide to cooperative games for social change*. Olympia: Common-Action.
- Foltos, L. (2013). *Peer coaching: Unlocking the power of collaboration*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Crown Press.
- Fraser, B. & Pickett, L. (2010). Creating and assessing positive classroom learning environments. *Childhood Education* 86(5): 321-326.
- Fraser, S. (2012). *Authentic childhood* (3<sup>rd</sup>ed.).Nelson College Indigenous.
- Frels, R.K. & Onwuegbuzie, A.J. (2013).Administering quantitative instrument with qualitative interviews: A mixed research approach. *Journal of Counselling& Development* 91(2): 184-194.
- Friedman, I. A. (2006).Classroom management and teacher stress and burnout.*In C.M. Everston & C.S, Weinstein (Eds).Handbook of classroom management* (pp. 925-944). Mahwah, NJ: Elbaum.
- Friedrichs, J. &Kratochwil, F. (2009). On acting and knowing: How pragmatism can enhance international relations research methodology. *International Organization* 63, 701-731.
- Fullan, M. & Hargreaves, A. (2012).*Professionalcapital. Transforming teaching in every school*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Fullan, M. (2006). The future of educational change: System thinkers in action. *Journal of Educational Change* 7(3): 113-122.
- Fullan, M. (2010).*The New Meaning of Educational Change* (5<sup>th</sup>ed.) New York: Routledge.
- Fullan, M. (2011).*Choosing the wrong drivers for whole system reform*. Series Paper No. 204. Victoria: Centre for Strategic Education.
- Gemeda, F.T., & Tynjala, P. (2015). Professional learning of teachers in Ethiopia: Challenges and implications for reform. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education* 40(5):1-27.

George , M.P., White, G.P. & Schlaffer, J.J.(2007). Implementing School-wide behaviour change: lessons from the field. *Psychology in the Schools*. 44, 41-51.

Gerber, P. (2008). Giving a better future through human rights education. *Future Justice* 189-207.

Godfrey, G.B., Osher, D., Williams, L., Wolf, S., Berg, J. Torrente, C., Spier, E., Aber, J.C. (2012). Cross-national measurement of school learning environments: Creating indicators for evaluating UNICEF's Child-friendly schools initiative. *Child Youth Service Review* 34(3): 546-557.

Goldkuhl, G. (2012). Pragmatism versus Interpretivism in qualitative information systems research. *European Journal of Information Systems* 2(21): 135-146.

Gorard, S. (2013). *Research design: Creating robust approaches for the social sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Graham, M., Milanowski, A. & Miller, J. (2012). *Measuring and promoting inter-rater agreement of teacher and principal performance ratings*. Wisconsin: Center for Educator Compensation Reform(CECR).

Grant, C &Osanloo, A. (2014). Understanding, selecting, and integrating a theoretical framework in dissertation research: Creating the blueprint for your "house". *Administrative Issues Journal, Connecting Education, Practice, and Research* 4(2): 12-26.

Green, V.N.(2012). *Effect of classroom discussions on student performance and confidence in the science classroom* M. Ed Dissertation.Montana State University.

Greene, J.C. (2007). *Mixed methods in social inquiry*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Greene, J.C. (2012). Engaging critical issues in social inquiry by mixing methods. *American Behavioural Scientist* 56(6): 755-773.

Gudyanga, E., Mudihlwa, G. &Wadesango, N. (2014). The extent of bullying in some schools in Zimbabwe: A Psychological perspectives, with the notion of designing an intervention model. *Journal of Social Sciences*40(1): 65-74.

Guetterman, T. C. (2015). Descriptions of sampling practices with five approaches to qualitative research in education and the health sciences. *Qualitative Social Research* 16(2): 78 - 95.

Guirguis, L. M. & Chewning, B.A. (2005). Role theory: Literature review and implications for patient-pharmacist interactions. *Research in Social and Administrative Pharmacy* 1, 483-507.

Gulamhussein, A. (2013). *Teaching the teachers: Effective professional development in an era of high stakes accountability*. Washington: Centre for Public Education.

Hall, J. (2013). Pragmatism, evidence, and mixed methods evaluation. *New Direction for Evaluation* 138, 15-20.

Hallgren, K.A. (2012). Computing inter-rater reliability for observational data: An overview and tutorial. *Tutorials in Qualitative Methods for Psychology* 8(1): 23-34.

Hamre, B.K. & Pianta R.C. (2010). Classroom environments and developmental processes. Conceptualization and measurement. In J.L. Meece & J.S. Eccles (Eds). *Handbook of research on schools, schooling and human development*. New York: Routledge.

Handler, B. (2010). Teacher as curriculum leader: A consideration of the appropriateness of that role assignment to classroom-based practitioners. *International Journal of Teacher Leadership* 3(2): 32-42.

Hannah, R. (2013). *The effect of classroom environment on student learning*. Ph.D. Thesis. Lee Honours College.

Hardman, B.K. (2011). *Teachers' perceptions of their principal's leadership style and the effects on student achievement in improving and non-improving schools*. (Ph.D Thesis) Florida: University of South Florida.

Harnisch, S. (2012). Conceptualizing in the Mirefred: Role theory and foreign policy learning. *Foreign Policy Analysis* 8(1): 47-69.

Harper, J. (2015). *Teachers' perceptions on the effectiveness of instructional coaching* (Ph.D Thesis.) California: California State University.

Harris, L.R., & Brown, G.T.L. (2010). Mixing interview and questionnaire methods: Practical problems in aligning data. *Practical Assessment Research and Evaluation* 15(1): 1-19.

Hazzi, O. A. & Maldaon, I.S. (2015). A pilot study: Vital methodological issues. *Business: Theory and Practice* 16(1): 53-62.

Health & Education Advice & Resource Team (2013). Improving teacher training methodologies to encourage child-friendly learning. Iowa: Iowa City Press Citizen.

Heijnen-Maathius, E. (2008). *From parity to equality in girls' education: How are we doing in South Asia*. Kathmandu: UNICEF Regional Office for South Asia & United Nations Girls' Education Initiative.

Hlatywayo, L., & Muranda, Z.A. (2014). An evaluation of the Leonard Cheshire Zimbabwe Trust (LCZT) pilot inclusive education programme in Zimbabwe: the perspective of teachers and heads (Part A). *Journal of Humanities and Social Science* 19(11): 121-138.

Ho, C. & Au, W. (2006) Teaching satisfaction scale: Measuring job satisfaction of teachers. *Educational and Psychological Measurement* 66, 172-185.

- Holland, H. (2007). *Out of the office and into the classroom: An initiative to help principals focus on instruction*. Washington: The Wallace Foundation.
- Holsti, K.J. (1970). National role conceptions in the study of foreign policy. *International Studies Quarterly* 14(3): 233-309.
- Horner, R.H. (2007). *Discipline prevention data*. Eugene, OR: OSEP Centre on Positive Behavioural Interventions and Supports. Washington: University of Oregon.
- Hoyos, M. & Barnes, S.A. (2012). *Analysing interview data*. New York: Warwick Institute for Employment Research.
- Hueble, F. (2008). *International Education Statistics. Pupil-teacher ratio in secondary schools*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Huffman, T. (2013). Pragmatic Fieldwork: Qualitative research for creative democracy and social action. *Journal of Social Justice* 3, 1-24.
- Huges, W. & Pickeral, T. (2013). *School climate and shared leadership*. Washington: National School Climate Center (NSCC).
- Ibrahim, A.M. (2012). Thematic analysis: A critical review of its process and evaluation. *WEI International European Academic Conference Proceedings* 1-14.
- Ihuah, P. and Eaton, D. (2013). The pragmatic research approach: A framework for sustainable management of public housing estates in Nigeria. *Journal of US-China Public Administration* 10(10): 933-944.
- Imenda, S. (2014). Is there a conceptual difference between Theoretical and Conceptual frameworks? *Journal of Social Science* 38(2): 185-195.
- Irvine, J. & Harvey, C. (2010). *Mainstreaming Child-Friendly School (CFS) models and approaches in national pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes*. New York: UNICEF/COL.
- Ishikawa, J. (2012). Leadership and performance in Japanese P & D teams. *Asia Pacific Business Review* 18(2): 241-258.
- Jacobson, D. (2016). *Causes and effects of teacher burnout* (PhD Thesis). Walden University.
- Jansen, Y.J.F.M. (2012). *Pragmatic trials, the mutual shaping of research and primary health care practice. An ethnographic analysis of the role the pragmatic trial methodology fulfils in bridging the science-practice gap*. Holland: Erasmus University Rotterdam.
- Jeanty, G.C. and Hibel, J. (2011). Mixed Methods Research of adult family care home residents and informal caregivers. *The Qualitative Report* 16(3): 635-656.

Jennings, P.A. & Greenberg, M.T. (2009). The pro-social classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcomes. *Review of Educational Research* 79, 491-525.

Jerome, L., Emerson, L., Lundy, L. and Orr, K. (2015). *Teaching and learning about child rights: A study of implementation in 26 countries*. Queen's University Belfast: UNICEF.

Johnson, D.W., & Johnson, R.T. (2006). *Peace Education in the classroom: Creating effective peace education programme*. University of Minnesota. Handbook on Peace Education.

Johnson, R.B. (2009). Toward a more inclusive "scientific research in education". *Educational Researcher* 38(6): 449-457.

Johnson, R.B. (2014). *Mixed methods research design and analysis with validity: A Pruner*. USA: University of South Alabama.

Johnson, R.B., Onwuegbuzie, J. & Tuner, A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed method research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* 2, 112-133.

Julius, M.K., Ngao, G., Mulwa, D., & Mugambi, P. (2012). Peace education for sustainable development: A case of Kenya. *Journal of Research in Peace, Gender and Development* 2(2): 28-33.

Kagawa, F. & Selby, D. (2014). *Child-friendly schooling for peace-building*. New York: UNICEF.

Kalolo, J.F. (2015). The drive towards application of pragmatic perspective in educational research: Opportunities and challenges. *Journal of Studies in Education* 5(1): 150-171.

Kelberlau-Berks, D.R. (2006). *The effect of self-assessment on student learning*. Menian: Webster, Incorporated.

Kewaza, S and Welch, M. (2013). Big class size challenges: Teaching reading in primary classes in Kampala, Uganda's central municipality. *US-China Education Review* 3(5): 283-296.

Khalid, K., Khan, R.A. & Mohd-Zain, S. (2012). Determination of diffusion coefficient activation energy of selected organic liquids using reversed-flow gas chromatographic technique. *Sains Malaysian* 4(9): 1109-1116.

Khan, P., & Iqbal, M. (2012). Importance of school facilities to students. Role of physical facilities in teaching learning process. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business* 4(3): 210-216.

Khan, T.A. (2011). *Investigation of secondary school teachers' attitudes towards and knowledge about inclusive education in Bangladesh*. (Ph.D. Thesis.) Bangladesh: University of Canterbury.

- Khorsan, R. & Crawford, C. (2014). External validity and model validity: A conceptual approach for systematic review methodology. *Evidence-Based Complementary Alternative Medicine* 2014: 694 - 804
- Killion, J. (2012). *Meet the promise of content standards: The Principal*. Oxford: Learning Forward.
- Kincaid, D., Childs, K., & Wallace, F. (2007). Identifying barriers and facilitators in implementing school-wide positive behaviour support. *Journal of Positive Behaviour Interventions* 9(3): 174-184.
- Klingner, J.K. and Boardman, A.G. (2011). Addressing the 'Research Gap' in special education through mixed methods. *Learning Disability Quarterly* 34(3): 208-218.
- Kumur, R. (2011). *Research methodology. A step by step guide for beginners*. London: Sage.
- Kura, S.Y. (2012). Qualitative and Quantitative approaches to the study of poverty: Taming the tensions and appreciating the complementarities. *The Qualitative Report* 17(34): 1-19.
- Kus, M., Filiz, E. & Alhen, S. (2014). Teacher and student thoughts on effectiveness of cooperative learning in Geography teaching. *Educational Research and Reviews* 9(11): 312-319.
- Kuuskorpi, M & Gonzalez, N.C. (2011). *The future of the physical learning environment: School facilities that support the user*. OECD: CELE Exchange.
- Lacey, A. & Luff, D. (2009). *Qualitative data analysis. The NIHR RDS for the East Midlands*. Yorkshire & the Humber.
- Laiton, C. 25 March 2015. Teacher "kills" pupil with a cricket bat. News Day 25 March 2015, p1.
- Lal, K. (2014). Teachers' understanding of child-centred approach and its implementation. *American International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences* 5(2): 159-164.
- Langelotz, L. (2013). Teachers' peer group mentoring- Nine steps to heaven. *Education Inquiry* 4(2): 375-394.
- Leach, F. & Machakanja, P. (2004). *Gender Violence in Schools- Zimbabwe*. Department for International Development No. 5 London: DFID
- Leatherman, J.M. & Niemeyer, J.A. (2008). Teachers' attitudes toward inclusion: Factors influencing classroom practice. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education* 26(1): 23-36.
- Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.C. (2009). *Practical research: Planning and designing* (9<sup>th</sup> ed.). New Jersey: Pearson.

- Leithwood, K. & Sun, C. (2012). The nature and effects of transformational school leadership: A meta-analytic review of unpublished research. *Educational Administration Quarterly* 48(3): 387-423.
- Leung, L. (2015). Validity, reliability, and generalizability in qualitative research. *Journal of Family Medicine and Primary Care* 4(3): 324-327.
- Liao, C & Qu, Y. (2010). Alternative forms test-retest reliability and test score changes for TOEIC speaking and writing tests. *TOEIC Compendium* 10(2): 1-14
- Liao, S.C., Hunt, E.A. & Chen, W. (2010). Comparison between inter-rater reliability and inter-rater agreement in performance assessment. *Annals Academy of Medicine Singapore* 39, 613-618.
- Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Lincoln, Y.S., Lynham, S.A. & Guba, E.G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds). 97-128. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Linton, R. (1936). *The study of man*. New York: Appleton-Century.
- Linton, R. (1945). *The cultural background of personality*. New York: Appleton-Century.
- Lipman, P.C. (2010). *Can the physical environment have an impact on the learning environment?* CELO Exchange, OECD. New York: JCJ Architecture.
- Loh, J. (2013). Inquiry into issues of trustworthiness and quality in narratives studies: A Perspective. *The Qualitative Report* 18(65): 1-15.
- Loukas, A. (2007). What is school climate? *Leadership Compass* 5(1): 1-3.
- Lunenburg F.C. (2010). Managing Change: The role of the change agent. *International Journal of Management, Business, and Administration* 13(1): 1- 6.
- Lynch, K.D. (2007). Modeling role enactment: Linking role theory and social cognition. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour* 37(4): 379-399.
- Machingambi, S. (2012). How do schools push students out of school? A case study of two rural secondary schools in Masvingo district of Zimbabwe. *Journal of Social Science* 30(1): 55- 63.
- Macnee, L.C. & McCabe, S. (2008). *Understanding nursing research: Using research evidence-based practice*. Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Madu, B.C. & Okoye, C.A. (2013). Assessment of the implementation of the UNICEF child-friendly school initiative programme in Enugu State, Nigeria. *Developing Country Studies*: 3(9):1-13.
- Maduwesi, E.J. (2005). *Benchmarks and global trends in education*. Benin: Da-Sylva Influence Enterprises.



- Magwa, S and Magwa, W. (2015). *A guide to conducting research. A student handbook*. Singapore: Strategic Book Publishing and Rights Co. LLC.
- Magwa, S. (2014). Managing sexual abuse of students by teachers. A case study of Masvingo district secondary schools in Zimbabwe. *International Journal of Education Learning and Development*: 2(2): 11- 21.
- Mandiudza, L. (2013). Child-friendly Schools. *Greener Journal of Education Research* 3(6): 283-288.
- Mannathoko, C. (2006). Child-friendly Schools, Care and Support in Schools. *United Nations Girls' Education Initiative Forum* 6(1): UNICEF: Nairobi.
- Mannathoko, C. (2013). *Child-Friendly Schools: Pathways to quality basic education*. Virginia: ASCD.
- Mannathoko, M.C. & Mangope, B. (2013). Barriers to parental involvement in primary schools: A Case of Central North Region of Botswana. *International Journal of Scientific Research in Education* 6(1): 47-55.
- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Mathews, B. (2011). Teacher education to meet the challenges posed by child sexual abuse. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education* 36(11): 13-32.
- Maxwell, J.A. (2016). Expanding the history and range of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* 10(1): 12-27.
- McIntyre, J.J. (2014). *Transportation from wall street to wellbeing*. New York: Springer.
- McKenzie, E.K., Bantwini, B. & Bogan, B. (2013). Supporting teachers to enhance students success in USA and South Africa. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science* 3(15):
- Mead, G.H. (1934). *Mind, self and society*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Mehdinezhad, V. (2011). Teachers' instructional beliefs about student-centred pedagogy. *International Journal on new trends in education and their implications* 2(2): 49-64.
- Mello, E. & Makewa, L.N. (2014). Learner –centred teaching: Can it work in Kenyan public primary schools? *American Journal of Educational Research* 2(11A): 23-29.
- Merriam, S.B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mertens, D.M. (2010). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods* (3<sup>rd</sup>). London: Sage Publications Inc.

Mertens, D.M. (2015). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mertens, D.M. and Wilson, A.T. (2012). *Programme evaluation theory and practice*. New York: Guilford.

Michalec, B. & Hafferty, F.W. (2015). Role theory and the practice of inter-professional education: A critical appraisal and a call to sociologists. *Social Theory and Health* 13, 180-201.

Migiro, S.O. & Magangi, B.A. (2010). Mixed methods: A review of literature and future of the new research paradigm. *African Journal of Business Management* 5(10): 3757-3764.

Millar, M.M. and Dillman, D.A. (2011). Improving response to web and mixed-mode surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly* 75: 249-269.

Millennium Development Goals (2000-2015).

Miller, D. (2015). *Tacit cultural knowledge: An instrumental qualitative case study of mixed methods research in South Africa* (Unpublished PhD Thesis). University of Nebraska: Lincoln, NE.

Miller, A. & Cunningham, K. (2011). Classroom Environment. <http://www.education.com/reference/article/classroom-environment/>. Accessed January 2016.

Milman, N.B. (2012). *The goals of the world historians: Paradigms in the world* (PhD Thesis). Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin.

Mitchell, C. & Mothobi-Tapela, I. (2004). *Taking Action: Gender-Based Violence in and around schools in Swaziland and Zimbabwe*. Kampala: Fountain Publishers.

Mobini, D.A. (2011). Introducing the models and designs in mixed methods research. *Journal of Ratibord* 20(60): 217-234.

Modipane, M. & Thamane, M. (2014). Teachers' social capital as a resource for curriculum development. Lessons learnt in the implementation of a child-friendly schools programme. *South African Journal of Education* 34(4): 1- 14

Molina-Azorin, J.M. & Cameron, R. (2010). The application of mixed methods in organizational research: A Literature Review. *The Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods* 8(2): 95-105.

Moore, C.M. (2012). The role of school environment in teacher dissatisfaction among U.S. public school teachers. *SAGE Open*. 2 (4):1-16.

Morehouse, R. (2011). *Beginning interpretive inquiry: A step-by-step approach to research and evaluation*. Washington: Routledge.

Morgan, D. L. (2014). Pragmatism as a paradigm for social research. *Qualitative Inquiry* 20(10): 1-9.

Morgan, M. & Kitching, K. (2006). *An evaluation of 'Lift Off'. The cross border primary human rights education initiative* (Unpublished formative evaluation report). Accessed online 22 Feb 2016.

Mphale, L.M. (2014). Prevalent dropout. A challenge on the roles of school management teams to enhance students retention in Botswana junior secondary schools. *International Journal of Business and Social Science* 5(11): 187-188.

Mpofu, J. & Shumba, A. (2012). Challenges faced by students with special educational needs in early childhood development centres in Zimbabwe as perceived by ECD trainers and parents. *Anthropologist* 14(4): 327 – 338.

Mpokosa, C. & Ndaruhutse, S. (2008). *Managing teachers: The centrality of teacher management to quality education. Lessons from developing countries*. Paris: UNESCO.

Mugabe, M.J. & Maposa, A.D. (2013). Methods of curbing learner misconduct in Zimbabwean secondary schools. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and their Implications* 4(4): 111-122.

Mugabe, M.J. & Maposa, A.D. (2013). Methods of curbing learner misconduct in Zimbabwean secondary schools. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications* 4(4): 111-122.

Muli, M.W. (2011). *The role of prefects in the governance of public secondary schools in Machakos central division, Kenya*. (M.Ed Dissertation) Nairobi: Kenyatta University.

Murillo, P. E. (2013). *Role Theory and the enactment of teacher leadership*. (D.Ed Thesis.) Western Carolina University.

Murtaza, K. F. (2011). Developing child-friendly environment in early childhood education classrooms in Pakistan. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*: 1(3): 408-418.

Mustafa, R. F. (2011). The P.O.E.M.S of educational research: A beginners' concise guide. *International Education Studies* 4(3): 23-30.

Nhundu, T. & Shumba, A. (2001). The nature and frequency of reported cases of teacher perpetrated child sexual abuse in primary schools in Zimbabwe. *Child Abuse & Neglect* 15, 1517- 1534.

Nightingale, W. (2012). *Positivist approach to research*. Accessed 14/03/16 <http://www.wider-mind./com/research/wdn-positivismv2.pdf>

Njue, N.K. (2014). An assessment of motivation level of prefects in public secondary schools in Gatundu north district, Kenya. *Journal of Social Sciences Research* 3(5): 86-93.

Noble, R. (2008). Rights Based Approach to Education and Child Friendly Schools: *UN Newsletter Bhutan* 1(1): 1-12.

Noble, W. & Smith, J. (2015). Issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research. *Evidence-based Nursing* 18(2): 1-4.

Northouse, P.G. (2007). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (6<sup>th</sup>ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Nyamoma, F.A. (2011). *Perceptions of peer counselling on students' academic performance in schools within Kakamega south district*. (M.Ed. Thesis) Masinde Muliro University of Science & Technology

Ogbu, J.E. (2015). Influences of inadequate instructional materials and facilities in teaching and learning of electrical/ electronic technological education courses. *International Journal of Vocational and Technical Education* 7(3): 20-27.

Olaleye, F.O. (2011). Creating a friendly school learning environment for Nigerian children. *European Scientific Journal* 8(8): 138-147.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J. & Collins, K.M.T. (2007). A typology of mixed methods sampling designs. *The Qualitative Report* 12(2): 281-316.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J. & Combs, J.P. (2011). Data analysis in mixed research: A Primer. *International Journal of Education* 3(1): 1-25.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J. & Johnson, R.B. (2006). The validity issue in mixed research in the schools. *Educational Research Journal* 13(1): 48-63.

Oppong, S.H. (2013). The problem of sampling in qualitative research. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences and Education* 2(2): 202-213.

Orkodashvili, M. (2010). *Quality education through child-friendly schools: Resource allocation for the protection of children's rights*. Kigali: Emerald Group Publishing

Ormston, R., Spencer, L., Barnard, M. & Snape, D. (2014). The foundations of qualitative research. In J.Ritchie, J. Lewis, C. Nicholls & R. Ormston (eds) *Qualitative Research Practice: A guide for social science students and researchers* (pp 1-23) Los Angeles: Sage

Osher, D., Bear, G.G., Sprague, J.R., & Doyle, W. (2010). How can we improve school discipline? *Educational Research* 39, 48-58.

Ostrosky, M.M., Jung, E.Y., Hemmeter, M.L., Thomas, D. (2008). *Helping children understand routines and classroom schedules*. (What Works Brief Series No. 3). Champaign, IL: University of Illinois at Urbana Champaign, Centre on Social and Emotional Foundations for Early Learning.

Owen, G.T. (2014). Qualitative methods in higher education policy analysis: Using interview and document analysis. *The qualitative Report* 19(52): 1 – 19.

Owens, R.G. & Valesky T.C. (2007). *Organisational behaviour in education: An adaptive leadership and school reform*. (9<sup>th</sup>ed.). Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Oyedupo, W.O., Babatunde, A., & Sufian, J.B. (2012). The impact of sales promotion on organization effectiveness in Nigerian manufacturing industry. *Universal Journal of Marketing and Business Research* 1(4): 123- 131.

Parker, M. & Wickham, M. (2005). Organizational role theory and the multi-faceted worker. *International Journal of Project Management* 23, 205-214.

Pas, E.T., Bradshaw, C.P., & Hershfeldt, P.A. (2012). Teacher and school-level predictors of teacher efficacy and burnout: Identifying potential areas for support. *Journal of School Psychology* 50, 129-145.

Pathak, A. & Intratrat, C. (2012). Use of semi-structured interviews to investigate teacher-perceptions of student collaboration. *Malaysian Journal of ELT Research* 8(1): 1-10.

Patidar, J. (2013). Non-experimental research design slide share. Retrieved from <http://www.slideshare.net/drjayeshapatrdar/nonexperimental-research-design>. Accessed 15/05/16

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice*. (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Pearce, D. (2012). Mixed methods inquiry in sociology. *American Behavioral Scientist* 56, 829-848.

Peng, G.C., Nunes, J.M.B. & Annansingh, F. (2011). *Investigating Inform Systems with mixed methods research*. Rome: ISRTAM.

Pirozzi, G. (2011). *Child-friendly schools in Uzbekistan*. New York: UNICEF.

Plano- Clark, V.L. & Ivankova, N.V. (2016). *Mixed methods research: A guide to the field. Volume 3 of Mixed Methods Research Series*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Pluye, P. & Hong, Q.N. (2014). Combining the power of stories and the power of numbers: Mixed methods research and mixed studies reviews. *Annual Reviews* 35, 29-45.

Ponce, O.A. and Pagan-Maldonado, N. (2015). Mixed methods research in education: Capturing the complexity of the profession. *International Journal of Educational Excellence* 1(1): 11-135.

Prinsloo, S. (2006). Sexual harassment and violence in South African schools. *South African Journal of Education*: 26(2): 305- 318.

Prishtina(2012). *Standards for child-friendly schools*. Kosovo: Pedagogical Institute. UNICEF-Kosovo

Pugh, A.J. (2013). What good are interviews for thinking about culture? Demystifying interpretive analysis. *American Journal of Cultural Sociology* 1, 42-68.

Ramona, S.E. (2011). Advantages and disadvantages of quantitative and qualitative risk approaches. *Chinese Business Review* 10(12): 1106- 1110.

Ratcliff, N. & Hunt, G. (2009). Building teacher-family partnerships: The role of teacher preparation. *Education* 129, 495-505.

Ridley, D. (2008). *The literature review: A step-by-step guide for students*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Ritter, N. (2010). *Understanding a widely misunderstood statistic Cronbach's  $\alpha$* . Texas: Texas A & M University.

Rivers, S.E. & Brackett, M.A. (2011). Achieving standards in the English language arts using the RULER approach to social and emotional learning. *Reading and Writing Quarterly* 27(1): 75-100.

Rivers, S.E., Brackett, M.A., Reyes, M.R., Elberston, N.A., & Salovey, P. (2013). Improving the social and emotional climate of classrooms: A clustered randomized controlled trial testing the RULER Approach. *Prevention Science* 14, 77-87.

Robert D. (2014). Fundamental assumptions in narrative analysis: Mapping the field. *The Qualitative Report* 19, 1-17.

Robinson, K. (2012). The third teacher. Designing the learning environment for Mathematics and Literacy Kto 8. *Leaders in Educational Thought* 1(1): 1-8.

Rockinson-Szapkiw, A.J. & Knight, A. (2012). *Building a literature review and identifying a theoretical framework*. Washington: Elizabeth Boyd.

Roloff, M, C., & Brown, L.A. (2011). Extra-role time, burnout and commitment: The power of promises kept: *Business Communication Quarterly* 74(4): 450-474.

Romm, N.R.A. (2014). Exploration of transformative paradigm with pragmatic twist to contribute to educational change. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and their implications* 5(2): 134-141.

Rotfeld, H.J. (2014). The pragmatic importance of theory for marketing practice. *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 31(4): 322-327.

Rubin, A. and Babbie, E.R. (2015). *Empowerment Series: Essential methods for social work*. (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Cengage Learning.

Ryan, M.J. & Julia, M.B. (2007). *The symbiotic nature of hermeneutical versus classical generated knowledge*. Chicago: American Marketing Association.

Safaria, T., Othman, A.B. & Wahab, M.N.A. (2011). Role ambiguity, role conflict, the role of job insecurity as mediator toward job stress among Malay academic staff: A SEM analysis. *Current Research Journal of Social Sciences* 3(3): 229-235.

Sanders, M.G. & Lewis, K.C. (2005). Building bridges toward excellence: Community involvement in high schools. *The High School Journal* 88(3): 1-9.

- Sang, J.K., Mutua, S. & Korir, S.J. (2014). The learner friendly school approach in Kenya: An examination of the role of Guidance and Counselling in secondary schools. *International Journal for Innovation Education and Research* 2(8): 61-69.
- Sango, M.G. & Chiinze M.M. (2015). Child abuse and its effects on teaching and learning in Mutare, Zimbabwe. *Case Studies Journal* 4(1): 1-7.
- Sapungan, G.M. & Sapungan, R.M. (2014). Parental involvement in child's education: Importance, barriers and benefits. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences & Education* 3(2): 42- 50.
- Sarfo.C. (2011). *Basic school teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Ghana*. (Master's Thesis) Development and International Cooperation.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Savage, C., Lewis, J., & Colless, N. (2011). Essentials for implementation: Six years of School-wide Positive Behaviour Support in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology* 40(1): 29-37.
- Savascie, H.S. & Tomul, E. (2013). The relationship between educational resources of school and academic achievement. *International Education Studies* 6(4): 114-123.
- Scholes, L., Jones, C., Stieler-Hunt, C., Rolfe, B., & Pozzebon, K. (2012). The teachers' role in child sexual abuse prevention programs: Implications for teacher education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education* 37(11): 104-131.
- Schueler, B.E., Capotosto, L., Balena, S., McIntyre, J. & Gelhbach, H. (2014). *Measuring parent perceptions of school climate*. Harvard: Harvard University.
- Schuh, S.C., Zhang, X. & Tian, P. (2012). For good or the bad? Interactive effects of transformational leadership with moral and authoritarian leadership behaviours. *Journal of Business Ethics* 116(3): 629-640.
- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of scientific interpretive, critical research paradigms. *English Language Teaching* 5(9): 9-16.
- Scott, V. & Miner, G. (2008). Peer coaching: Implications for teaching and programme improvement. *Transformative Dialogues: Teaching and Learning Journal* 1(3): 121-134.
- Seashore L.K., Leithwood, K., & Wahlstrom, L., & Andersen, S. (2010). *Learning from leadership: Investigating the links to improved student learning*. Minnesota: Wallace Foundation
- Sebba, J. (2014). *UNICEF UK's Rights Respecting Schools initiative and evaluation*. Oxford: Ress Centre for Research in Fostering and Education.

Sebba, J. and Robinson, C. (2010). *Evaluation of UNICEF's UK's Rights Respecting Schools Award*. London: UNICEF UK.

Secretary of Education Circular P35 of 3 May 1993. *Regulations on the Administration of Corporal Punishment in Schools*. Harare: Government Printers.

Seidman, I. (2012). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences*. London: The College Press.

Sekhri, S. (2009). The role approach as a theoretical framework for analysis of foreign policy in third world countries. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations* 3(10): 423-432.

Shaeffer, S. (2013). *Identifying and Promoting Good Practice and Child-friendly Education*. New York: UNICEF: New York

Shaw, G. (2008). *Peace education in central and east Africa: Conference Report*. Quezon: Miriam College.

Shumba, A. (2011). Student teachers' perceptions of the nature, extent and causes of child abuse by teachers in Zimbabwean secondary schools. *Journal of Social Sciences* 28(3): 169-179.

Shumba, A. (2003). Children's Rights in Schools: What Do Teachers Know? *Child Abuse Review*, 12: 251-260.

Shumba, A. (2001a). 'Who Guards the Guards in Schools?' A Study of Reported Cases of Child abuse by Teachers in Zimbabwean secondary schools. *Sex Education* 1(1): 77-86

Shumba, A.(2001b). Epidemiology and etiology of reported cases of child physical abuse in Zimbabwean primary schools. *Child Abuse & Neglect*: 25(2): 265-277.

Shumba, A.(2001c). The nature, extent and effects of emotional abuse on primary school pupils by teachers in Zimbabwe. *Child Abuse & Neglect: The International Journal* 26 : 783-791.

Sierra, H.T.A. & Towell, D. (2011). *Advancing inclusive education for an inclusive society: Reflections on a journey in Latin America*. Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Company.

Sigilai R.M. and Bett, J.C. (2013). Effectiveness of head teachers' leadership styles on the management of public primary school curriculum implementations in Bomet County, Kenya. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies* 4(2): 375-382.

Sigilai, R.M. and Bett, J.C. (2013). Effectiveness of head teachers' leadership styles on the management of public primary school curriculum implementations in Borret County, Kenya. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies* 4(2): 375 – 382.



- Silova, I., Johnson, M.S., & Heyneman, S.P. (2007). Education and the crisis of social cohesion in Azerbaijan and Central Asia. *Comparative Education Review* 51(2):159-180.
- Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing Qualitative Research (4<sup>th</sup> ed.)*. London: Sage Publications Inc.
- Simon, M.K. (2011). *Dissertation and scholarly research: Recipes for success*. Seattle, WA: Dissertation Success, LLC.
- Simonsen, B., Sugai, G., & Negrón, M. (2008). School-wide Positive Behaviour Support primary systems and practices. *Teaching Exceptional Children* 40(6): 32-40.
- Sireci, S. & Faulkner-Bond, M. (2014). Validity evidence based on test content. *Psicothema* 26(1): 100-107.
- Skaalvik, E.M., & Skaalvik, S. (2011). Teacher job satisfaction and motivation to leave the teaching profession: Relations with school context, feeling of belonging, and emotional exhaustion. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 27, 1029-1038.
- Small, M.L. (2011). Methods Study: Recent trends in a rapidly growing literature. *Annual Review of Sociology* 37, 57-86.
- Smith, C. & Gillespie, M. (2007). *Research on professional development and teacher change: Implications for adult basic education*. Melbourne: Melbourne University Publishing.
- Spaulding, S., Irvin, L., Horner, R., May, S., Emeldi, M., Tobin, T., & Sugai, G. (2010). School wide social-behavioural climate, student problem behaviours and related administrative decisions. *Journal of Positive Behaviour Interventions* 12(2):69-85.
- Spiller, D. (2012). *Assessment matters: self-assessment and peer assessment*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Steinberg, M.P., Allenworth, E., & Johnson, D.W. (2011). *Student and teacher safety in Chicago public schools: Roles of community context and school social organization*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Stewart, C. (2014). Transforming professional development to professional learning. *Journal of Adult Education* 43(1): 28-33.
- Steyn, G.M. (2010). Creating intentionally inviting schools through professional development: An appreciative inquiry. *Koers* 75(4): 873-897.
- Stoll, L., Bolam, R., McMahon, A., Wallace, M., & Thomas, S. (2006). Professional learning communities: A Review of Literature. *Journal of Educational Change* 7, 221-258.
- Stonehouse, A. (2011). The 'third teacher'-creating child-friendly learning spaces. *Putting Children First* 38, 12-14.

- Takaki, J., Taniguchi, T. & Fujii, Y. (2014). Reliability, validity, and significance of assessment of sense of contribution in the workplace. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 11, 1594-1604.
- Takakura, M., Wake, N. & Kobayashi, M. (2005). Psychological school environment, satisfaction with school, and health complaints among Japanese high school students. *School Health* 1, 1-8.
- Talbert, J.E. (2010). *Professional learning communities at crossroads: How systems hinder or engender change. Second International Handbook of Educational Change.* New York: Springer.
- Tang, W., Cui, Y. & Babenko, O. (2014). Internal consistency: Do we really know what it is and how to assess it? *Journal of Psychology and Behavioural Science* 2(2): 205-220.
- Tang, Y.T. & Chang, C.H. (2010). Impact of role ambiguity and role conflict on employee creativity. *African Journal of Business Management* 4(6): 869-881.
- Taole, M.J. (2013). Teachers' conceptions of the curriculum review process. *International Journal Education Science*: 5(1): 39-46.
- Tavakol, M. & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education* 17, 253-255.
- Teddlie, C. & Tashakkori, A. (2010). *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Teddlie, C. & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling: A typology with examples. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research* 1, 77-100.
- Terrell, R.S. (2012). Mixed methods research methodologies. *The Qualitative Report* 17(1): 254-280.
- Tewksbury, R. (2009). Qualitative versus quantitative methods: Understanding why qualitative methods are superior for criminology and criminal justice. *Journal of Theoretical and Philosophical Criminology* 1(1): 38-58.
- Thanh, N. C. and Thanh, T. T. L. (2015). The inter-connection between interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methods in education *American Journal of Educational Science* 1(2): 24-27.
- Thapa, A., Cohen, J., Guffey, S. & Higgins-D'Allessandro, M. (2013). *A review of school climate research.* American Educational Research Association. SAGE
- Thayer-Bacon, B., Stone, L. & Spiecher, K.M. (2013). *Education Feminism: Classic and Contemporary Readings.* New York: State of New York University Press.
- Thies, C.G. (2009). *Role theory and Foreign Policy.* Iowa City: University of Iowa.
- Thompson, D., Andreae, P., Bell, T. & Robins, A. (2013). *The role of teachers in implementing curriculum changes.* Denver: Colorado.

- Thompson, S.K. (2012). *Sampling (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.)*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Thompson, W.E. & Hickey, J.V. (2005). *Society in focus: An introduction to sociology*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tibbits, F. (2005). Transformative learning and Human Rights Education: Taking a closer look. *Intercultural Education* 16(2): 107-113.
- Tshabalala, T. & Khosa, M.T. (2014). Awareness of various forms of child abuse: Pupils' attributions- A Case Study of Gomadoda Cluster. *Asian Journal of Social Sciences and Management* 1(1): 23- 28.
- Tshabalala, T. (2013). Perceptions of school heads on parents' involvement in the Zimbabwean primary schools. *International Journal of Asian Social Science* 3 (3): 645-656.
- Tsouloupas, C.N., Carson, R.L., Matthews, R., Grawitch, M., & Barber, L.K. (2010). Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehavior and emotional exhaustion: The importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation. *Educational Psychology* 30, 173-189.
- Turner, D.W. (2010). Qualitative interview design: A practical guide for novice investigators. *The Qualitative Report* 15(3): 754-760.
- Umar, A., Kinakin, R., Mc Eachern, D. (2012). *Interim Report on the UNICEF-COL Child-Friendly Schools Project*. Vancouver:
- UNICEF Canada. UNESCO (2013). *Education for All Global Monitoring Report. Policy Paper: Children still battling to go to school*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2011). *Education for Sustainable Development: An expert review of processes and learning*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2009). *Teaching children with disabilities in inclusive setting*. Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2005). *Teacher involvement in educational change*. Santiago: PRELAC Journal.
- UNHCHR (2010). *Final evaluation of the implementation of the first phase of the World Programme for Human Rights Education. Report of the United Nations Inter-Agency Coordinating Committee on Human Rights Education in the school system*. New York: UN High Commissioner for Human Rights (UNHCHR).
- UNICEF (2013). *Child-friendly schooling for peace-building*. New York: UNICEF.
- UNICEF Canada (2012). *Children's Rights in Education: Applying a rights-based approach to education*. Toronto: UNICEF Canada.
- UNICEF Ethiopia (2010). *UNICEF's Child-friendly Schools: Ethiopia Case Study*. Addis Ababa: UNICEF.

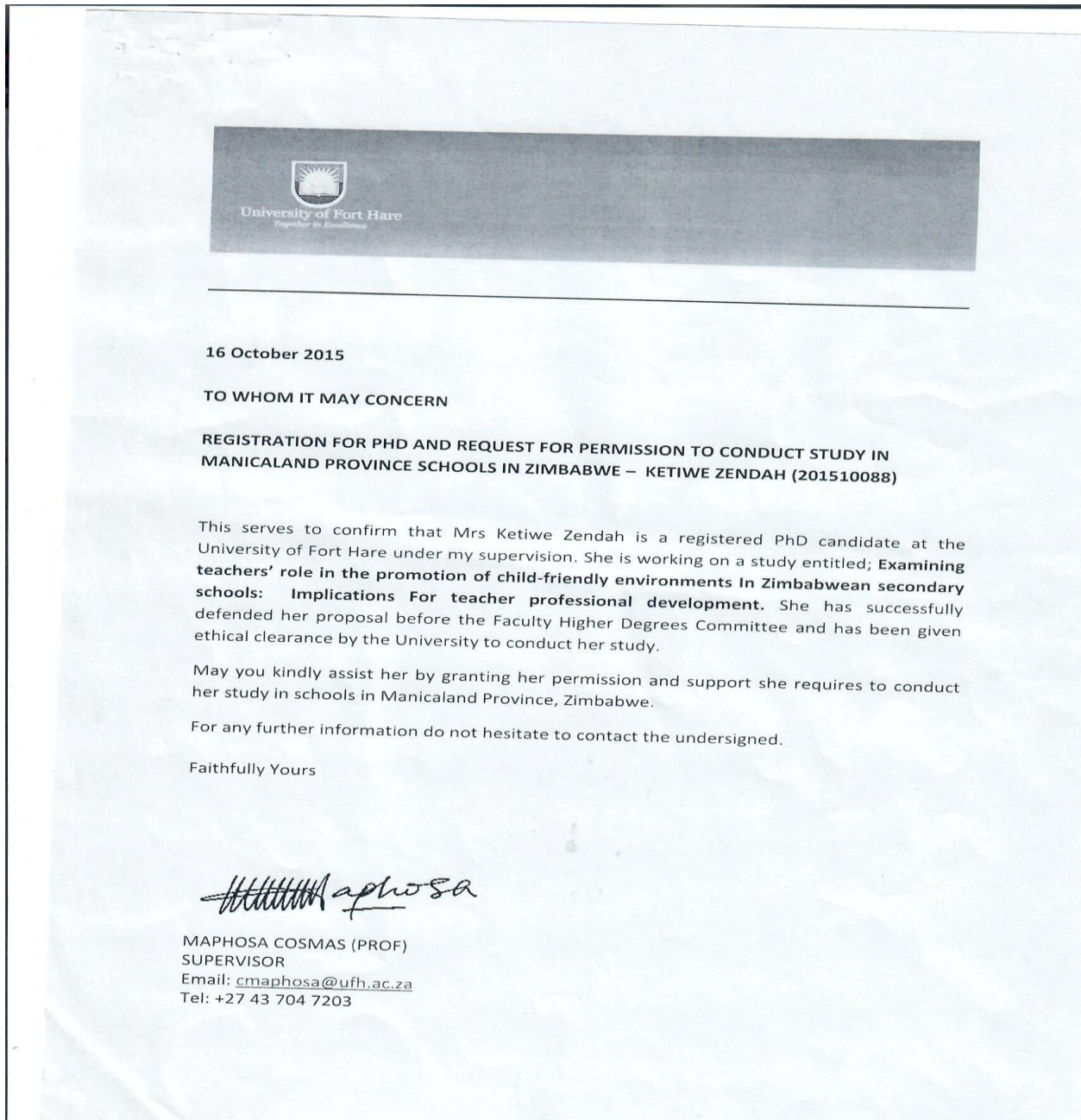
- UNICEF (2009a). *Child-Friendly Schools Manual*. New York. UNICEF.
- UNICEF (2009b). *Child-friendly schools' evaluation. A country report for Nigeria*. New York: UNICEF.
- UNICEF (2009c). *Child-friendly schools' evaluation. A country report for Thailand*. New York: UNICEF.
- UNICEF (2008). *Global Child-Friendly Schools Programming Evaluation Report*. New York: UNICEF.
- United Nations (2000-2015). *Millennium Development Goals*. Geneva: United Nations.
- United Nations (1999). *African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child*. Geneva: United Nations.
- United Nations (1989). *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. Geneva: United Nations.
- United Nations (1981). *African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights*. Geneva: United Nations.
- United Nations (1966). *International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights*. Geneva: United Nations.
- United Nations (1948). *Universal Declaration of Human Rights*. New York: United Nations.
- USAID (2010). *Ethiopia early grade reading study data analytic report: Language and early learning*. Addis Ababa: USAID.
- Vacca, J.S. & Kramer-Vida, L. (2012). Preventing the bullying of foster children in our schools. *Children and Youth Services Review* 34, 1805-809.
- Vacilotto, S. & Cummings, R. (2007). Peer coaching in TEFL/TESL programmes. *ELT Journal* 61(2): 153-160.
- Vaidya, K. (2014). Analytical assessment on child-friendly environment of a higher secondary school in Nepal. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Research and Development*. 1(7): 177-180.
- Vaismoradi, M., Turunen, H. & Bondas, T. (2013). Content analysis and thematic analysis: Implications for conducting qualitative descriptive study. *Journal of Nursing & Health Sciences* 15(3): 398-405.
- Vaz, S., Parsons, R., Passmore, A.E., Andreou, P. & Falkner, T. (2013). Internal consistency, test-retest reliability: The case for using the repeatability coefficient when calculating test-retest reliability. *PLOS One* 8(9): 1-8.
- Vehvilainen-Julkunen & Horton, K. (2013). *Mixed methods in nursing research-principles, advantages and challenges*. Helsinki: University of Eastern Finland.

- Veneranda, L. (2014). Child abuse rampant. *The Standard* 30 November 2014, p2.
- Vescio, V., Ross, D., Adams, A. (2008). A review of research on the impact of professional learning communities (PLCs) on teaching practice and student learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 24, 80-91.
- Viswambharan, A.P. & Priya, K.R. (2015). Documentary analysis as qualitative methodology to explore disaster mental health: Insights from analyzing a documentary on communal riots. *Qualitative Research* 9, 1 – 17.
- Waldron, F., Kavanagh, R., Kavanagh, A., Maunsell, C., Oberman, R., O'Reilly, M., Pike, S., Prunty, A., & Ruane, B. (2011). *Teachers, Human Rights and Human Rights Education: Knowledge, perspectives and practices of primary school teachers in Ireland*. Dublin: The Centre for Human Rights and Citizenship Education, St Patrick's College.
- Wallace Foundation (2012). *The school principal as leader: Guiding schools to better teaching and learning*. New York:
- Wandera, H. (2011). The effects of short term employment contract on an organization: A case of Kenya forest service. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science* 1(21): 184-204.
- Weimer, M. (2013). *Learner-centred teaching: Five key changes to practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Weshan, H.A., Al-Faori, O. & Sakal, R.M. (2012). Child-friendly schools initiative in Jordan. *College Student Journal Publisher* 46(4):1-17.
- Wesley, J.J. (2010). *Qualitative document analysis in political science* (Master's Thesis). University of Calgary.
- Whelan, J. (2014). *A cognitive role theoretical approach to the consumer role*. (Ph.D Thesis.) University of Western Ontario.
- Wichham, M. (2007). *Reconceptualising organizational role theory for contemporary organizational contexts*. (M. Ed Dissertation.) University of Tasmania.
- Williams, S. E. (2010). *Exploring the viability of school-based support for vulnerable children: A case study of two township schools in Johannesburg*. London: University of Sussex.
- Willis, J.W. (2007). *Foundations of qualitative research: Interpretive and critical approaches*. London: Sage.
- Wright, A. & Lindqvist, S. (2008). Listening to our students-development and evaluation of the school level of an inter-professional learning programme. *Journal of Inter-professional Care* 22(4): 475 – 487.

- Wright, N. & Losekoot, E. (2012). Interpretive research paradigm: Points of difference. *Journal of Organizational Change* 4(1): 416-422.
- Yanow, D. & Schwartz-Shea, P. (2011). *Interpretive approaches to research design: Concepts and processes*. Netherlands: Routledge.
- Yin, R.K. (2011). *Qualitative Research from start to finish*. New York: Guilford Press Publications.
- Yin, R.K. (2013). *Qualitative Research from start to finish*. New York: Guilford Press Publications.
- Yoder, N. (2014). *Teaching the whole child: Instructional practices that support social-emotional learning in three teacher evaluation frameworks*. Washington: American Institutes for Research (AIR).
- Zandvavian, A. & Daryapoor, E. (2013). Mixed Methods Research: A new paradigm in educational research. *Journal of Educational and Management Studies* 3(4): 525-531.
- Zhang, Q. & Sapp, D.D. (2009). The effect of perceived teacher burnout on credibility. *Communication Research Reports* 26(1): 87-90.
- Zhou, Y., Zeing, W., Hu, Y., Xi, Y., & Tan, L. (2014). The relationship among the role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, and job stress of Chinese middle-level cadres. *Chinese Studies* 3(1): 8-11.
- Zikhali, J.T. & Perumal, J. (2014). Zimbabwean female principals' promotion of children's rights in disadvantaged school contexts. *Conference Paper* 5708-5713.
- Zikhali, J.T. & Perumal, J. (2014). Zimbabwean female principals' promotion of children's rights in disadvantaged school contexts. *Conference Paper* 5708-5713.
- Zimbabwe Children's Charter (2011)*. Harare: Kubatana Archives.
- Zimbabwe Children's Protection Act 5:06 (1997)*. Harare: Government Printers.
- Zimbabwe Education Act (1987)*. Harare: Government Printers.
- Zimbabwe National Constitution Amendment (No. 20) (2013)*. Harare: Government Printers.
- Zohrabi, M. (2013). Mixed method research: Instruments, validity, reliability and reporting findings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 3(2): 254-262.

# LIST OF APPENDICES

## APPENDIX 1: INTRODUCTION LETTER



## **APPENDIX 2: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR LEARNERS**

### **STUDY TITLE**

Examining teachers' role in the promotion of Child-friendly School (CFS) environments:  
Implications for teacher professional development

Conducted by: Ketiwe Zendah

Supervisor: Professor Cosmas Maphosa

The purpose of the study and the level of my involvement were clearly explained to me. I have understood the importance of the study and the value of my participation. I therefore, voluntarily agree to take part in the study without any reservations.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from participating in the study at any given time and I will not be affected in any way.

I also understand that this consent form will not be linked to any of the research instruments to ensure that my participation remains confidential.

I am informed that upon completion of the research, feedback will be availed to my school on the findings to improve our school environments.

As confirmation of my willingness to participate in this study, I herein- under sign and give my essential details:

Full Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....



## **APPENDIX 3: INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS**

### **STUDY TITLE**

Examining teachers' role in the promotion of Child-friendly School (CFS) environments:  
Implications for teacher professional development

Conducted by: Ketiwe Zendah

Supervisor: Professor Cosmas Maphosa

The purpose of the study and the level of my involvement were clearly explained to me. I have understood the importance of the study and the value of my participation. I therefore, voluntarily agree to take part in the study without any reservations.

I understand that I am free to withdraw from participating in the study at any given time and I will not be affected in any way.

I further agree to audio-recording of my dialogue with the researcher. I also understand that this consent form will not be linked to any of the research instruments to ensure that my participation remains confidential.

I am informed that upon completion of the research, feedback will be availed to my parent ministry on the findings.

As confirmation of my willingness to participate in this study, I herein- under sign and give my essential details:

Full Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

## APPENDIX 4: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL HEADS

### SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA FOR THE SCHOOL HEAD

- Gender.....
- What is your age?
- How long have you been a teacher?
- How long have you been in office as a school head?
- What are your highest academic and professional qualifications?

STUDY GUIDING RESEARCH QUESTIONS	SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
<p>1. How do teachers understand the child-friendly school environments concept?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Would you like to share your own understanding of the Child-friendly schools (CFS) concept?</li> <li>• There are a number of international human rights treaties/declarations, which inform and direct the CFS approach, such as the: UN Declaration of Human Rights; UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) Convention Against Discrimination in Education Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment; Education for All; The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights; African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Children; and UNICEF Child-Friendly Schools Manual.</li> <li>• How familiar are you with these declarations?</li> <li>• Is your school in possession of any these instruments?</li> <li>• In what ways do you think these treaties inform the CFS concept?</li> <li>• Is your school in possession of the National CFS policy document? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• Do your teachers have access to this document? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• The CFS concept hinges on six interrelated principles which are:</li> <li>• Rights-based and cultural diversity; healthy, safe and protective environments; quality-based and academic effectiveness; gender</li> </ul>

	<p>sensitivity; child-seeking and inclusive for all children; and democratic participation of learners and families.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Which national education policies/circulars you think are informed by or enhance the CFS concept?</li> <li>• Is your school in possession of these circulars?</li> <li>• Do your teachers have access to these documents? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• Does your school have its own specific CFS policy? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• Of the six CFS principles, which ones do your school emphasises on? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• How familiar are your teachers of these school-specific CFS principles? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• How would you rate your teachers' <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(i) understanding; and</li> <li>(ii) appreciation of the CFS environments concept?</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<p>2. How are teachers supported to promote child-friendly environments in schools?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What school based- support systems are in place to enhance teachers' role in the promotion of CFS environments from: School administration; teacher colleagues/peers; parents; and learners?</li> <li>• What opportunities do you offer teachers to gain knowledge and skills in the promotion of CFS environments?</li> <li>• How do you motivate your teachers to promote child-friendly school environments?</li> </ul>
<p>3. What strategies do teachers employ to promote CFS environments?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How often do you carry out class visits for your teachers?</li> <li>• From your class visits, how do your teachers show evidence of promoting the CFS concept? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• How sensitive are your teachers to issues of child abuse? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• How do your teachers involve learners in administrative issues?</li> <li>• At what levels do your teachers involve parents in upholding school discipline/ learner welfare? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> </ul>

<p>4. What challenges do teachers encounter in promoting CFS environments?</p>	<p>Basing on what we have discussed about the CFS concept, school-based support and teachers' strategies in the promotion of CFS environments:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What challenges are there that may hinder teachers' promotion of CFS environments? <b>(PROBE ON EACH GIVEN CHALLENGE)</b></li> <li>• How best can these challenges be addressed?</li> </ul>
<p>5. What are the implications for teacher professional development?</p>	<p>In light of the vital role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments, how best should the:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Pre-service; and</li> <li>• In-service teachers be <b>trained</b> and <b>developed</b> to effectively <b>understand</b>, <b>appreciate</b> and <b>promote</b> the CFS environments concept?</li> </ul>

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND PARTICIPATION**

## APPENDIX 5: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR G & C FOCAL PERSONS

### SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

- Gender.....
- What is your age?
- How long have you been a teacher?
- How long have you been a G & C Focal Person/Teacher?
- What are your highest academic and professional qualifications?

STUDY GUIDING RESEARCH QUESTIONS	SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
<p>1. How do teachers understand the child-friendly school environments concept?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Would you like to share your own understanding of the Child-friendly schools (CFS) concept?</li> <li>• There are a number of international human rights treaties/declarations which inform and direct the CFS concept, such as: UN Declaration of Human Rights; UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC); Convention Against Discrimination in Education; Convention against torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment; Education for All; The African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights; African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Children, and UNICEF Child-Friendly Schools Manual.</li> <li>• How familiar are you with these declarations?</li> <li>• Is your G &amp; C department in possession of any these instruments?</li> <li>• In what ways do you think these treaties inform the CFS concept?</li> <li>• Is your department in possession of the National CFS policy document? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• Do you and other G &amp; C teachers have access to this document? (<b>PROBE</b>)</li> <li>• The CFS concept hinges on six interrelated principles which are:</li> <li>• Rights-based and cultural diversity; healthy, safe and protective environments; quality-based and academic effectiveness; gender sensitivity; child-seeking and inclusive for all</li> </ul>

	<p>children; and democratic participation of learners and families.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Which national education policies/circulars do you think inform or enhance the CFS concept?</li> <li>• Is your department in possession of these circulars?</li> <li>• Do you and other G &amp; C teachers have access to these documents? <b>(PROBE)</b></li> <li>• Does your school have its own specific CFS policy? <b>(PROBE)</b></li> <li>• Of the six CFS principles, which ones do your school emphasises on? <b>(PROBE)</b></li> <li>• How familiar are the G &amp; C teachers of these school-specific CFS principles? <b>(PROBE)</b></li> <li>• How would you rate your own and other G &amp; C teachers' <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(iii) understanding; and</li> <li>(iv) appreciation of the CFS environments concept?</li> </ul> </li> </ul>
<p>2. How are teachers supported to promote child-friendly environments in schools?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What school-based support systems are in place to enhance G &amp; C teachers' role to promote CFS environments from: school administration; teacher colleagues/peers; parents; and learners?</li> <li>• What opportunities G &amp; C teachers offered to gain knowledge and skills in the promotion of CFS environments?</li> <li>• How are G &amp; C teachers motivated to promote child-friendly school environments?</li> </ul>
<p>3. What strategies do teachers employ to promote CFS environments?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• How often do you carry out class visits for the other G &amp; C teachers?</li> <li>• From your class visits, how do the G &amp; C teachers show evidence of promoting the CFS environments? <b>(PROBE)</b></li> <li>• How sensitive are the G &amp; C teachers to issues of child abuse? <b>(PROBE)</b></li> <li>• How do G &amp; C teachers involve learners in administrative issues?</li> <li>• At what levels do G &amp; C teachers involve parents in upholding school discipline/ learner welfare? <b>(PROBE)</b></li> </ul>



## APPENDIX 6: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

### INTRODUCTION AND CONSENT

Hello. My name is Ketiwe Zendah. I am a PhD candidate studying with University of Fort Hare, Eastern Cape, South Africa. As part of the requirements of the degree programme, I am conducting a study entitled: “**Examining the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools: Implications for teacher professional development**”. The data gathered will help to improve guidance to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education and your school in strengthening the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly school (CFS) environments concept. Your school has been selected to participate because of the work you are already doing in this area, thus your views are of great value.

My target audiences include school heads; teachers; learners, and Guidance & Counselling teachers. I am requesting you to honestly complete this questionnaire. Please be assured that your responses will be confidential so feel free to be as open as possible.

### INSTRUCTIONS

Please indicate your responses with a tick (✓) in the appropriate box or filling in the provided spaces with brief explanatory notes.

### SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA FOR TEACHERS

Your School Status:

Boarding Only	Day	Boarding & Day
1	2	3

School learner composition

Boys Only	Girls Only	Boys & Girls
1	2	3

1. Gender

Male	Female
------	--------



1	2
---	---

2. Age in years

25 and below	26 to 30	31 to 35	36 to 40	41 to 50	51 and above
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. Highest academic qualification

“O” Level	“A” Level	Bachelor’s Degree	Master’s Degree	Doctoral Degree	Other(Please state)
1	2	3	4	5	6

4. Highest professional qualification

Certificate	Diploma	Post Grad Diploma
1	2	3

5. Position of responsibility in the school

Subject teacher	Class teacher	Head of department	Senior teacher	Deputy head	Any other (specify e.g warden)
1	2	3	4	5	6

6. Teaching experience

Below 1 year	1 – 2 years	3 -4 years	5 – 6 years	7 years and above
1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION B: TEACHERS' UNDERSTANDING OF THE CHILD-FRIENDLY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS CONCEPT.**

**This section seeks to generate information about your level of familiarity of the international human rights treaties and national policies which inform and direct the CFS concept.**

7. Indicate your level of familiarity with the following international human rights treaties that inform and direct to the CFS concept on the five point scale.

International human rights treaty		Extremely familiar	Familiar	Moderately familiar	Slightly familiar	Not familiar at all
		5	4	3	2	1
a.	United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (1948)					
b.	United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC, 1989)					
c.	Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960)					
d.	Convention against torture and other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment (1984).					
e.	Education for All (EFA) (2000).					
f.	The African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights (1981).					
g.	African Charter on					

	the Rights and Welfare of the Children (ACRWC, 1999)					
h.	UNICEF Child-friendly Schools Manual(CFS, 2009)					

From the international human rights treaties listed in Q7, choose one treaty and show how it informs to the CFS concept.....

.....

.....

8. Indicate with a tick (✓) your level of familiarity with the following Zimbabwe national policies, which enhance the CFS concept

National document	policy	Extremely familiar	Familiar	Moderately familiar	Slightly familiar	Not familiar at all
		5	4	3	2	1
a.	Zimbabwe National Strategic Plan for Girls, orphans, other vulnerable children (2000-2010)					
b.	Zimbabwe Education Act 1987					
c.	Children's Protection and Adoption Act Chapter 5:06					
d.	Secretary's Circular Number P35 of 1993					

e.	Secretary's Circular No 5 of 2000					
f.	Directors' Circular Number 27 of 2008					
g.	Zimbabwe National Constitution: Amendment (No.20) 2013. Chapter 4 Part 2					

9. Is your school in possession of these CFS related policy documents

a. YES	
b. NO	
c. NOT SURE	

If YES, do you have access to the available policy documents?

a. YES	
b. NO	

If NO, how has it impacted your understanding of the CFS environments concept?

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

10. Indicate how you rate the level of your understanding of the following CFS principles?

	<b>CFS principles</b>	<b>Excellent 5</b>	<b>Very good 4</b>	<b>Good 3</b>	<b>Fair 2</b>	<b>Poor 1</b>
a.	Rights-based and cultural diversity					
b.	Healthy, safe and protective environments					
c.	Quality-based and academic effectiveness					
d.	Gender sensitivity					
e.	Child-seeking and inclusive for all children					
f.	Democratic participation of learners & families					

Of these six CFS principles, which one(s) does your school give more emphasis on?

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

9. Were you inducted on the school's CFS principles of emphasis?

YES	
NO	

10. From the CFS background information, what is your understanding of the CFS environments concept?

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

### **SECTION C: SCHOOL-BASED SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS TO PROMOTE CHILD-FRIENDLY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS**

**This section seeks to generate information about the school-based support you are offered in your role to promote CFS environments**

11. Show with a tick (√) the level of your agreement to the forms of the school-based support offered teachers in the promotion of CFS environments on the five point

scale (SA- Strongly Agree 5; A- Agree 4; N- Neutral 3; D- Disagree 2; Strongly Disagree 1).

Forms of school-based support	SA 5	A 4	N 3	D 2	SD 1
a. New teachers in the school are inducted on the CFS concept					
b. Teachers are availed with national policy circulars related to the CFS concept.					
c. Teachers are made aware of policies prohibiting abuse of learners					
d. Teachers are provided with adequate resources to promote CFS environments					
e. Teachers are treated in ways that help them to develop confidence in promoting CFS environments					
f. Teachers are supported in dealing with undisciplined learners					
g. Teachers are assisted to follow correct procedures in dealing with learners' anti-social behaviours					
h. Teachers are offered opportunities to gain knowledge and skills on the CFS approach.					
i. Teachers encourage each other to develop a sense of attachment to learners					
j. Teachers work closely with each other to ensure learners CFS environments					
k. Senior teachers assist junior teachers to understand the CFS approach					
l. New teachers are inducted by senior teachers on the school's CFS principles of emphasis					
m. Parents make an effort to meet and know the teachers of their children					
n. Parents readily accept teachers' invitations to discuss learners' welfare					
o. Parents participate in school activities when invited.					
p. Parents have confidence in teachers' conduct with learners.					
q. Learners respect teachers' decisions					

on their academic and social issues					
r. Learners confide in teachers their challenges in academic and social life.					
s. Teachers are involved the selection of school prefects					
t. The prefect body work closely with teachers to ensure CFS environments for all.					
u. Senior learners direct junior learners in adherence to school rules and regulations					

State any other forms of school-based support which you are offered in your role to promote child-friendly environments.....

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

**SECTION D: TEACHERS’ STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE CHILD-FRIENDLY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS**

**12. Indicate with a tick (√) your frequency in the use of the following strategies in promoting child-friendly school environments**

Teachers’ strategies: I.....	Every time 5	Almost Every time 4	Occasionally/ Sometimes 3	Rarely 2	Never 1
a. Know all the learners in my class as individuals (their names; family backgrounds)					
b. Know learners’ academic and social challenges					
c. Listen to the ideas and opinions of learners					
d. Insist on learners to respect and listen to each other					
e. Value the experiences of learners.					

f. Protect learners from unpleasant situations such as bullying.					
g. Offer learners equal chances in all learning activities.					
h. Conduct myself professionally before learners.					
i. Enforce school policies for dealing with learners' anti-social behaviours					
j. Display all school policies and codes of conduct for every learner to read and follow					
k. Freely discuss with learners on their academic or behaviour challenges					
l. Actively involve learners in the organisation of school or class activities					
m. Offer learners guidance and counselling services					
n. Invite parents to discuss learners' academic and behaviour issues					
o. Invite resource persons from relevant stakeholders to address learners on social issues.					

List any other strategies you use to promote child-friendly environments in your school.....  
.....  
.....

**SECTION E: CHALLENGES TEACHERS ENCOUNTER IN THE PROMOTION OF CFS ENVIRONMENTS**

13. Indicate with a tick (√) your level of agreement to the challenges teachers encounter in their role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments

Challenges/Barriers	Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Uncertain 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1
---------------------	---------------------	------------	----------------	---------------	------------------------



a. Teachers do not have a background knowledge of the CFS approach					
b. Teachers are not familiar with the international treaties that inform the CFS concept					
c. Teachers do not have access to CFS supporting circulars					
d. In-service teachers are not trained in the CFS approach					
e. Teachers do not have relevant knowledge and skills to promote the CFS environments concept.					
f. There is no induction for new teachers on the CFS environments concept.					
g. Lack of adequate resources for teachers to cater for child-friendly learning environments.					
h. Instructional resources are inadequate for teachers to offer learner-centred activities					
i. Teachers tend to be overwhelmed by the amount of work required by the CFS initiative.					
j. Teachers feel that it is impossible to cater for every learner's needs.					
k. There are no clear policies on the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.					
l. Teachers' negative attitude and lack of commitment towards CFS environments.					
m. Lack of administration support for teachers to promote CFS					

environments.					
n. Lack of collegial support.					
o. Lack of parental support.					
p. Poor working conditions for teachers and lack of motivation.					
q. Lack of opportunities for on-going professional development on CFS					

List any other challenges which are barriers in your role to promote child-friendly school environments.....  
 .....  
 .....

**SECTION F: CHILD-FRIENDLY SCHOOL CONCEPT: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

14. Indicate with a tick (✓) your level of agreement to the suggested approaches of professionally developing teachers to promote of CFS environments on the five point scale. **(SA-Strongly Agree 5; A- Agree 4; U- Uncertain 3; D- Disagree 2; SD- Strongly Disagree 1)**

Approach	SA 5	A 4	U 3	D 2	SD 1
a. CFS issues should be an integrated and comprehensive element of teacher education.					
b. Trainee teachers should be familiarised with some international human rights treaties related to the CFS concept					
c. The CRC provisions should be a study component in the Professional Studies teacher education syllabus.					
d. Child Rights Education (CRE) should be infused in teacher education curriculum.					
e. Trainee teachers should be familiarised with all the national CFS related policy circulars					
f. Trainee teachers should be offered and exposed to student-friendly college environments					
g. Professional learning communities (PLCs) should be established to cater for CFS training for in-service teachers					

h. PLCs should be organised and conducted at district level					
i. PLCs should be organised and conducted at cluster level					
j. PLCs should be organised and conducted at school level					
k. All teachers in a school should be provided with all the national policy circulars related to the CFS approach					
l. School heads/principals should be mandated to continuously train in CFS issues.					
m. There should be monitoring and evaluation of CFS environments by school heads					
n. There should be monitoring and evaluation of CFS environments by the DSI					
o. Teachers' knowledge and understanding of the CFS concept should inform school policies and pedagogical decisions.					
p. School stakeholders need to recognise and acknowledge the role of teachers in the promotion of CFS environments.					

15. Do you think that teachers have a pivotal role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments?

YES	NO	NOT SURE
1	2	3

**THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY**

## APPENDIX 7: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS

### INTRODUCTION

Your school has been selected to participate in this study to examine the role of teachers in the promotion of child-friendly school (CFS) environments. This study is a requirement for a Degree Thesis and its findings intend to strengthen the role of teachers in the promotion of learner-friendly environments in Zimbabwean schools.

### PREAMBLE OF THE CFS CONCEPT

**Child-friendly schools (CFS) concept/approach is an international educational intervention which mandates schools to have curriculum implementation procedures; conditions; policies; rules and regulations; learner management strategies; teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interactions that recognise and uphold the rights and welfare of the children.**

### INSTRUCTIONS

You are kindly requested to answer **ALL** the given questions. Do not write your name on the questionnaire. The researcher would want to assure you that the information gathered will be kept confidentially and strictly used for the purpose of this study. Your honest responses to the questions will contribute to the success of this study. Tick (✓) in the appropriate box, and where detail is required, please fill in the information in the spaces provided. It is likely to take you 20– 30 minutes to answer the questions.

### SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA FOR LEARNERS

#### 1. Gender

Male	Female
1	2

#### 2. Age in years

15 and below	16 - 17	18 and above
1	2	3

3. Form

Form 3	Form 4
1	2

4. School pupils composition

Boys and girls	Boys only	Girls only
1	2	3

5. School position of responsibility

Head boy/Head girl	Vice Head boy/girl	Prefect	Class monitor/representative	No position of responsibility
1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION A: TEACHERS' STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE CHILD-FRIENDLY SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS**

6. Indicate by tick (√) your level of agreement to the strategies employed by your teachers to promote CFS environments in the school or classroom(s)

Teacher- strategies to promote CFS environments	Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Uncertain 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1
a. Teachers know all learners as individuals (names and family backgrounds).					
b. Teachers know learners' academic and social challenges.					
c. Teachers listen to learners' ideas and concerns.					
d. Teachers insist on					

learners to respect and listen to each other.					
e. Teachers value learners' experiences					
f. Teachers protect learners from unpleasant situations such as bullying					
g. Teachers offer learners equal chances in all learning activities					
h. Teachers conduct themselves professionally before learners					
i. Teachers enforce school policies in dealing with learners' anti-social behaviours.					
j. Teachers display all school policies, rules and regulations					
k. Teachers discuss with learners on their academic and social challenges					
l. Teachers actively involve learners in the organisation of school or class activities					
m. Teachers offer learners guidance and counselling services.					
n. Teachers invite parents to discuss learners' academic and social issues					
o. Teachers invite resource persons from relevant stakeholders to address learners on social issues.					

Give any other strategies teachers in your school employ to afford learners friendly school environments

.....

**SECTION C: CHALLENGES HINDERING TEACHERS FROM PROMOTING CFS ENVIRONMENTS**

7. Indicate by a tick (√) the extent to which you agree with the conditions that hinder teachers to promote CFS environments

<b>Challenges/ Scenarios</b>	<b>Strongly Agree 5</b>	<b>Agree 4</b>	<b>Uncertain 3</b>	<b>Disagree 2</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree 1</b>
a. Inadequate resources					
b. Large class sizes					
c. Inadequate learning space					
d. Misbehaving learners					
e. Lack of teacher motivation					
f. Poor working conditions					
g. Lack of parental support					
h. Lack of administration support on disciplinary cases.					
i. Teachers' negative attitude towards learners.					
j. Lack of cooperation among teachers.					

8. What other challenges do you think hinder your teachers from promoting child-friendly school environments?  
 .....

9. Do you think that your teachers have a pivotal role in the promotion of child-friendly school environments?

YES	NO	NOT SURE
1	2	3

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY**

**APPENDIX 8: MUTARE DISTRICT CFS VEHICLE**





## **APPENDIX: 9 LETTER OF SEEKING PERMISSION FROM MoPSE**

Mutare Teachers' College  
P. O. Box 3293  
Paulington  
Mutare  
2 February 2016

The Permanent Secretary  
Ministry of Primary & Secondary Education  
P. O. Box MP 133  
Mount Pleasant  
Harare

Dear Sir/Madam

### **RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY IN MUTARE URBAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

This correspondence serves to request for your permission to conduct a research study in the secondary schools of the referred to education district.

The research study is a fulfilment of the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education-Curriculum Studies.

***The research title is: Examining teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools: Implications for teacher professional development.***

Data collection process is scheduled for August to October 2016, and will involve: the District Schools Inspector; school heads; teachers; and "O" level pupils in the following seven government secondary schools in Mutare urban district:

- Mutare Boys High
- Mutare Girls High
- Dangamvura High
- Nyamauru Sec
- Sakubva 1 High
- Sakubva 2 High
- Chikanga Sec

Find the attached documents: Ethical Research Clearance Certificate from the host University of Fort Hare- South Africa, a letter of support from my supervisor Prof C Maphosa, and copies of research instruments.

It is my wish to submit to your office a copy of my Doctoral Thesis end of November 2018.

Your granted permission for me to conduct this research in your schools will be greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Ketiwe'.

Ketiwe Zendah (Mrs)

Email [zketiwe@gmail.com](mailto:zketiwe@gmail.com) Cell: 0773708060

## APPENDIX 10: PERMISSION LETTER FROM MoPSE

All communications should be addressed to  
"The Secretary for Primary and Secondary  
Education"  
Telephone: 799914 and 705153  
Telegraphic address : "EDUCATION"  
Fax: 791923



**Reference:** C/426/3 Manicaland  
Ministry of Primary and  
Secondary Education  
P.O Box CY 121  
Causeway  
**ZIMBABWE**

23 February 2016

Ketiwe Zendah  
Mutare Teachers College  
P.O Box 3293  
Pualington  
Mutare

**RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MANICALAND PROVINCE:  
MUTARE DISTRICT: NYAMAURU AND CHIKANGA SECONDARY SCHOOLS;  
MUTARE BOYS; MUTARE GIRLS; DANGAMVURA; SAKUBVA 1 AND  
SAKUBVA 2 HIGH SCHOOLS**

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research in the above mentioned schools in Manicaland Province on the research title:

**"EXAMINING TEACHERS` ROLE IN THE PROMOTION OF CHILD-FRIENDLY  
ENVIRONMENT IN ZIMBABWEAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: IMPLICATIONS  
FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT "**

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Manicaland, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research.

You are required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education by end of December 2016.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'P. Muzawazi'.

P. Muzawazi

**Director:** Policy Planning, Research and Development  
For: **SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION**

riamkwa15

# APPENDIX 11: PERMISSION LETTER FROM PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR

All communications should be addressed to  
"The Provincial Education Director  
Manicaland"  
Telephone: 64216, 64279, 64280  
Telegraphic address:  
"EDUCATION"  
Fax: 60356  
<http://www.moesc.gov.zw>



Ref:P/C/426/3 Manicaland  
Ministry of Primary and Secondary  
Education  
Manicaland Provincial Office  
Cabs Building, Cnr H. Chitepo &  
R. Mugabe Road  
P.O Box 146  
Mutare  
Zimbabwe

7 April, 2016

Ketiwe Zendah  
Mutare Teacher's College  
P.O.Box 3293  
Paulington  
Mutare

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MANICALAND PROVINCE: MUTARE DISTRICT:  
NYAMAURU AND CHIKANGA SECONDARY SCHOOLS; MUTARE BOYS; MUTARE GIRLS; DANGAMVURA  
HIGH 1; SAKUBVA 1 AND SAKUBVA 2 HIGH SCHOOLS.

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research in the above mentioned schools in  
Manicaland Province on the research title:

**"EXAMINING TEACHERS' ROLE IN THE PROMOTION OF CHILD-FRIENDLY ENVIRONMENT IN  
ZIMBABWEAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL  
DEVELOPMENT."**

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the District SCHOOLS INSPECTOR  
MUTARE, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research.

You are required to provide a copy of your final report to the Provincial Education Director for  
Manicaland by December 2016.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'C. Kanoerera'.

C. KANOERERA  
A/ Provincial Education Director  
MANICALAND PROVINCE



## APPENDIX 12: PERMISSION LETTER FROM DISTRICT SCHOOLS INSPECTOR

All communications should be addressed to  
The District Education Director  
Telephone: 67657/67337  
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"  
[Http://www.moesc.gov.zw](http://www.moesc.gov.zw)



ZIMBABWE

Ref: P  
Ministry of Primary and  
Secondary Education,  
Mutare District Office  
P.B.Q 7755  
Mutare

14/04/2016



**THE HEADS**  
NYAMAURU HIGH  
CHIKANGA SEC  
MUTARE BOYS' HIGH  
MUTARE GIRLS' HIGH  
DANGAMVURA HIGH  
SAKUBVA 1 HIGH  
SAKUBVA 2 HIGH

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MUTARE URBAN SCHOOLS: MRS KETIWE ZENDAH: UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE- SOUTH AFRICA.**

Please be informed that the above named has been granted permission to carry out a research study at the above named schools on **"Examining teachers ' role in the promotion of child- friendly environment in the Zimbabwean Secondary Schools: Implications for teacher professional development ,"** provided prior arrangements are made with the heads before embarking on the research.

As usual we bank on your cooperation.



**N.MACHINI**  
DSI-MUTARE





## APPENDIX13: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



University of Fort Hare  
*Together in Excellence*

### ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: MAP031SZEN01

Project title: Examining teachers' role in the promotion of child-friendly environments in Zimbabwean secondary schools: Implications for teacher professional development

Nature of Project: PhD

Principal Researcher: Ketiwe Zendah  
Sub-Investigator:

Supervisor: Prof C Maphosa  
Co-supervisor:

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

**Special conditions:** Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

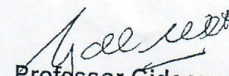
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
  - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
  - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
  - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
  - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

  
Professor Gideon de Wet  
Dean of Research

01 October 2015

## APPENDIX 14: LANGUAGE EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE



**Dr. J. Sibanda (Senior Lecturer: English)**  
School of Education  
Private Bag X 5008, Kimberley, 8300  
North Campus, Chapel Street, Kimberley  
E-mail: [Jabulani.Sibanda@spu.ac.za](mailto:Jabulani.Sibanda@spu.ac.za)  
Website: [www.spu.ac.za](http://www.spu.ac.za)  
Tel: 27534910142  
Cell: 0846282087  
11 June 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby confirm that I have proof read and edited the following PhD Thesis using Windows 'Tracking' System to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the student to action:

**EXAMINING TEACHERS' ROLE IN THE PROMOTION OF CHILD-FRIENDLY ENVIRONMENTS IN ZIMBABWEAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

BY

**KETIWE ZENDAH**

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE  
DEGREE OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION.

Although the greatest care was taken in the editing of this document, the final responsibility for the product rests with the author.

Sincerely



11. 06. 2017

\_\_\_\_\_  
SIGNATURE

\_\_\_\_\_  
DATE