

Themes, Procedures and Strategies that lead to Conflict Transformation and Management Primary School Curriculum in Zimbabwe.

Thondhlana Saiden

Lecturer Department of Educational Studies
Zimbabwe Open University

ABSTRACT

The study aimed at establishing themes, strategies and procedures that could lead to the crafting of a primary school conflict transformation and management curriculum. It was a qualitative study. It adopted a case study design. The instruments employed were a review of related literature tool, open ended questionnaires and focus group protocol. The sample consisted of 227 teachers and 120 children purposively chosen. The major findings were that strategies such as negotiation, arbitration and mediation, procedures such as academic controversy, creating a cooperative environment, circle time, pastoral care and peer support and training and different themes for content, methodology, assessment and management and administration in schools and classrooms should guide the crafting the conflict transformation and management of the primary schools. The study recommended that the Curriculum Development Unit of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education in Zimbabwe be guided by the following strategies, procedures and themes in crafting the conflict transformation and management primary school curriculum and that other African countries could find the strategies, procedures and themes useful in crafting a similar curriculum.

KEY TERMS: Strategies, Procedures, Themes, Conflict Transformation, Conflict Management, Curriculum, Primary School, Zimbabwe.

INTRODUCTION

The need for the introduction of peace education in all schools from pre-school to tertiary institutions was highlighted at a meeting of the University of Peace held in Addis Ababa Ethiopia from December 18 to 20 in 2006. It was resolved at this meeting that all African countries come up with a curriculum running from pre-school to tertiary institutions (Abebe, Gbesso and Nyawalo, 2006).

The above decisions could have been sparked off by the fact that in the last four decades Africa has experienced conflicts which have led to serious violence resulting in much loss of life, for example, ethnic genocide in Rwanda and Burundi, inter-clan violence in Somalia and religious conflicts in Sudan (Kaiser, 2001).

In Zimbabwe the only efforts to address conflict issues are found in workshops that were spearheaded by the Office of the President. Zimbabwe introduced workshops on Conflict Transformation and Management with the help of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 2002. The first workshop took place in the Netherlands and was attended by the then Secretary for Education, the Deputy Director Curriculum Development Unit and representatives of other government departments including the President's Office. The implementing agency of the project was the Office of the President and Cabinet. The purpose of the project was exploring ways of reducing tension in the country.

The second workshop of the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture took place in South Africa in Cape Town in October 2003. This workshop was attended by Director Disciplinary Services, the Provincial Education Director Matebeleland North and the Deputy Director Curriculum Development Unit. This workshop was a preparatory stage to cascade concepts of the themes of conflict transformation to all personnel in the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture. In 2004 workshops were held for all Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture, Deputy Directors Head Office and Regions in Kariba while Provincial Education Directors attended their workshop in Nyanga. These workshops were facilitated by the UNDP and the centre for conflict Resolution of the University of Cape Town. Officials at regional offices were subsequently trained at 17 day workshops in 2005 and 2006 and these were supposed to cascade the training to District Education Officers, Education Officers, school heads and teachers. An analysis of the workshop materials revealed that the workshops did not cover conflict transformation and management specific for schools. They covered general conflict transformation and management issues. Researchers like Johnson & Johnson (1995) advise that conflict resolution issues related to schools should address such issues as creating a cooperative context first before dealing with negotiation, then mediation and arbitration. These researchers also spelt out the need to train in academic controversy. These workshops only covered materials on negotiation, mediation and arbitration. Other researchers like Coleman & Deutsch (2001) suggest that workshops on conflict resolution should cover such information as having a curriculum that leads to peaceable classrooms and peaceable schools. The workshops did not cover this material as well. Issues like prejudice and bullying are also suggested by other researchers (Sellman, 2003). The workshops did not also address these issues.

Marashe, Ndamba and Chireshe (2009) undertook a study to establish the teaching of Traditional Religion in Zimbabwean primary schools. The study entailed a content review of the primary school Religious and Moral Education syllabus.

In another study undertaken in three provinces in Zimbabwean schools, Tumbo and Moyo (2013) identified interventions that were to be explored that could lead to effective conflict resolution in schools. These are school dialogues for example talk on morality in schools through dialogues, education for living and guidance and counseling. The strategies could also include peace education in schools, teaching about children's rights and responsibilities and effects of conflicts. Strategies such as sensitisation workshops on conflict prevention, management, resolution and transformation, familiarizing pupils on bullying in schools, mainstreaming Conflict Prevention, Management, Resolution and Transformation (CPMRT) in curriculum, establishing child support groups and use of arts to teach CPMRT for example drama and creating school community links could also be used.

Tumbo & Moyo (2013) also established that the CPMRT programme was relevant in schools to help develop peaceful schools and individuals and contribute towards community development. It was to start from Grade 4 to 7. The lower grades, it was established, could be taught by parents. This is in contrast with what is done in other countries where the programme begins at kindergarten. Tumbo and Moyo (2013) found that the programme was to be taught through audio CDs, booklets, magazines and television programmes. Conflict prevention, management, resolution and transformation (CPMRT) is understood as a systematic way of trying to deal with conflict in a professional way which is not corporal (Tumbo & Moyo, 2013). These studies could not establish themes, procedures and strategies that could aid curriculum developers into coming up with an appropriate curriculum for the primary schools.

A comprehensive conflict resolution programme would include aspects such as peer mediation, dialogic approaches, whole school cultural approaches and communication and regulation approaches (Sellman,2003; Townley ,1999). Coleman & Deustch (2001) view a comprehensive conflict resolution as constituting peer mediation, conflict resolution training in the curriculum, teaching strategies of cooperative learning and academic controversy , whole school wide cultural change and embracing parents, caretakers, local clergy, local police officers and members of the local community. Specific schemes include anti- bullying schemes, developing cooperative groups, circle time and citizenship (Sellman ,2003). A comprehensive conflict resolution programme in a primary school enjoys the following advantages: presents opportunities for learning or improved efficiency, develops the skills of communication, opens up important issues or highlights problems, develops trust, relieves anxiety, suspicion and stress (Rawlings,1996). Furthermore, if proper conflict resolution mechanisms are instituted heads of schools and teachers are left with more time to attend to their core business of administration and teaching and this tends to greatly improve pupil performance(Caulfied,2000). If conflict is not managed well destructive characteristics of conflict namely creation of fear and neurosis, lowering of confidence, self esteem and security, destruction of creativity and aggression and violence (Rawlings,1996) occur.

In Zimbabwe to the best of the researcher's knowledge no research has been undertaken in respect of the issues in this paper. This paper hopes to make a modest contribution to themes, procedures and strategies that could lead to the content of a conflict transformation and management primary school curriculum in Zimbabwe.

Statement of the Problem

There is no curriculum in place in the Zimbabwean Primary schools to address issues of conflict transformation and management over ten years after the University of Peace meeting has resolved that African countries had to come up with such a curriculum. The main research question guiding this study was therefore: What themes, procedures and strategies could guide curriculum developers in coming up with a primary school conflict transformation and management curriculum in Zimbabwe?

Research Sub- Problems

The following sub-problems guided this study:

- What themes, procedures and strategies could guide the crafting of the primary school content for conflict transformation and management?
- Which themes, procedures and strategies could guide the methodologies for imparting conflict transformation and management in the primary schools?
- What themes, procedures and strategies could guide the assessment procedures for the conflict transformation and management programme in the primary school?
- What themes, procedures and strategies could guide school and classroom management and administrative procedures leading to conflict transformation and management?

Purpose of the Study

The study was aimed at highlighting the themes, procedures and strategies that would lead to the crafting of a conflict transformation and management primary school curriculum.

Significance of the Study

The study is significant to a variety of people:

- To curriculum planners in enabling them to come up with an appropriate conflict transformation and management primary school curriculum,

- To school heads and teachers in empowering them in transforming and managing conflicts in schools and classrooms.
- To the children in that they will be exposed to an appropriate curriculum and hence improve learning, peace and their teaching.
- To parents of the surrounding communities in that they will be exposed to training that will empower them to transform and manage conflicts in their homes and communities leading to development.

Limitations of the Study

The study was confined to literature study and views from school personnel and children. The study could have involved parents and other stake holders. The study was a case study of only two districts namely Shurugwi and Gweru districts. Study results cannot therefore, be generalized to other areas.

Delimitations of the study

The study was delimited to the two districts of Shurugwi and Gweru in the Midlans Province in Zimbabwe. It was an exploration of themes, procedures and strategies to enable the crafting of a conflict transformation and management primary school curriculum.

Review of Related Literature

The literature review will cover a conceptual framework of conflict, conflict transformation and conflict management and the theoretical framework of the study.

Conceptual Framework

Conflict

Conflict Resolution Manual (2000) defines conflict as the energy created when individuals or groups of people pursue incompatible goals in their drive to meet their needs and interests. Mullins (1999, p.816) defines conflict as “behaviour intended to obstruct the achievement of some other person’s goals”. Northcraft & Neale (1990, p.220) define conflict as resulting “if individuals have separate but incompatible interests”. Rue & Byars (2003, p.285) define conflict as “an overt behavior that results when an individual or group of individuals think a perceived need of the individual or group has been blocked or is about to be blocked”.

The above definitions agree that conflict arises when there is incompatibility of interests, needs or goals.

Conflict Transformation

Conflict transformation is changing of the political agenda of conflict, reducing the relative importance of issues on which antagonism exists and emphasising the issue on which commonality prevails (Sadomba and Hlatswayo, 2012). The above definition points out that in conflict Transformation the conflict resolution leaders hunt for areas of commonality to bring disputants to a situation of good relations that existed before the conflict.

Conflict Management

Conflict Management is a philosophy and a set of skills that assist individuals and groups in better understanding and dealing with conflict as it arises in all aspects of their lives (Sadomba & Hlatswayo, 2012; Moran, 2001). What is implied is that groups and individuals are equipped with skills of dealing with conflict in conflict management.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

The study was premised on social pedagogy theory. Hatton (2003) cites The Social Pedagogy Development Network defining Social Pedagogy as an academic discipline that draws on Care theories from various related disciplines such as education, sociology, psychology and philosophy. In essence, it is concerned with the well-being, learning and growth of a child. This is underpinned by humanistic values and principles which view people as active and resourceful agents, highlights the importance of including them into the wider community and aims to tackle or prevent social problems and inequalities.

This is done through active involvement of the people concerned and getting their views despite their differences.

Petrie, Buddy, Cameron, Wigfall and Simon (2006) posit that social pedagogy emphasises team work and valuing the contribution of others in bringing up children. The child is seen as a social being, connected to others and at the same time with their own distinctive experiences and knowledge.

ThemPra (2015) advances the following aims of social pedagogy:

- It is holistic education that is education of the head (cognitive knowledge) heart, (emotional and spiritual knowledge) and hands (practical and physical skills).
- It creates a holistic well-being that is strengthening health sustaining factors.
- It enables children to grow up as self-responsible persons who take responsibility for their society and
- It promotes human welfare and prevents or eases social problems.

Conflict transformation and management is viewed as fulfilling the above aims of Social Pedagogy and therefore, any themes procedures and strategies designed should lead to the fulfilment of these aims.

ThemPra (2015) advances the following pathways as Social Pedagogy;

- Providing opportunities for learning,
- Building strong and positive authentic relationships which are non-hierarchical,
- Enabling children to empower themselves,
- Working with the head, heart and hands in everyday activities and
- Cultural impact on what is possible in practice.

Conflict transformation and management is therefore, viewed as enhancing the personal, relational approach in student's training and education where fostering sound pedagogical values and attitudes is seen as important as the acquisition of knowledge and skills. Petrie et al., (2006) posit that pedagogues (teachers) are trained in such issues as group-work, working with conflict and challenging behaviour, teamwork and working with disabled children. The teachers' colleges are therefore viewed as institutions that should have these issues in their curricula.

ThemPra (2015) states the social pedagogy has emerged to address culturally specific problems through educational means and as every culture encounters their own unique problems, solutions to social problems are highly dependent. The area on culture and religion and conflict resolution takes into consideration the above view.

Furthermore, Petrie et al., (2006) contends that social pedagogy builds on an understanding of children's rights not limited to procedural matters or legislated requirements so teachers in practice and in their training are supposed to be prepared in sharing in many aspects of the children's daily lives and activities. It therefore, means children's associative life is seen as an important resource which teachers should foster and make use of in their teaching.

Social pedagogy also emphasises the centrality of relationships and the importance of listening and communication (Petrie et al., 2006). These are central issues in conflict resolution.

The above views of social pedagogy are in line with the unity-based world view. The key principles of this world view are the recognition that:

- The world is one,
- Humanity is one,
- Humanity's oneness is expressed through infinite diversity of talents, thoughts, tasks, physical characteristics and life experiences,
- The central challenge of life is to create unity in the context of diversity and
- To successfully meet this challenge, we need to learn how to resolve conflicts in a peaceful and just manner. Maintaining unity while recognising diversity in the world is a mammoth task.

In the Unity-Based world view:

- Institutions aim to achieve justice through participatory, consultative process,
- Individuals and groups seek opportunities for growth and development,
- Human relationships are based on truthfulness, equality and service,
- The essential oneness and wholeness of the human race is recognised and all forms of prejudice and segregation are rejected,
- Women and men participate equally in the administration of human affairs and
- Human development and prosperity are achieved through application of universal ethical principles and processes of consultative decision making and governance (Danesh and Danesh, 2002).

Lastly, social Pedagogy is underpinned by the practical (Petrie et al., 2006). This implies the use of certain methods and creative activities. Conflict resolution strategies require children and adults practise how to transform and manage conflicts.

Methodology

The study adopted the qualitative research paradigm. This is so because the researcher intended to find issues requiring common sense knowledge of people (Lederach, 1997). A case study design was adopted. These were intrinsic case studies of Gweru and Shurugwi districts where no attempt was made to generalise beyond the case or even to build theories (Silverman, 2010). The study used related literature review analysis' quester – views, open – ended interviews and focus groups discussions. The quester-view enabled the researcher to gather data because it is easy to construct and cheaper to administer (Denzin, 1997). Individual in-depth interviews enabled participants to express unique or controversial perspectives without fear of censure (Cresswell, 2008). Focus group discussions are collective interviews. In collective interviews participants, through their interaction could provide data and some insights which could not be revealed through interviews with individuals. Focus groups result in collective synergy (Kruger & Casey, 2000 cited in Gall et al, 2007). Related literature review analysis provided information on the issues from various countries in the world. The sample consisted of 227 teachers including heads, 180 children and the District school's inspectors of the areas under study. The sample of teachers was purposively selected

and children were also purposively selected. Only those who showed interest were chosen. The researcher followed Merriam's (2009) analysis of qualitative data. The study was undertaken within three months. This time allowed for member checking.

FINDINGS FROM REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The Curriculum and Conflict Resolution in Schools

Researchers like Crawford and Bodine (1996) and Coleman and Duestch (2001) refer to two approaches of the process curriculum and peaceable classrooms as useful approaches to conflict resolution in primary schools. The process curriculum is characterised by devoting a specific time to teaching the foundation abilities of conflict resolution, principles of conflict resolution and one or more of problem-solving, processes of conflict resolution as a separate course, distinct curriculum, or daily lesson plan (Crawford & Bodine, 1996). The Peaceable Classroom approach is a whole classroom methodology that includes teaching students the foundation abilities of conflict resolution, principles of conflict resolution and one or more aspects of problem-solving namely negotiation, mediation and consensus decision-making. Conflict resolution is incorporated in the core subjects of the curriculum and into classroom management strategies (Crawford & Bodine, 1996). These two approaches imply having conflict resolution in the school curriculum.

The Peaceable Classroom approach views the curriculum as "what happens in real school situations as a result of planned programmes" (Gatawa, 1990:8). It is seen in other words as what happens to children as a result of what teachers do. It, therefore, is the totality of the experiences of a child or groups of children that takes place within the classrooms and school grounds or outside the school. It is viewed as the official curriculum, the operational curriculum, the hidden curriculum and the extra curriculum (Posner, 1995).

Content and Conflict Resolution

Conflict and conflict resolution in its various forms may form the content of one or a series of lessons (Sellman, 2003). In Austria, for example, the Centre for Citizenship Education in schools (2012) has designed five modules on "everybody has rights". The modules have five areas that they handle namely "Fighting together" aimed at non-violent conflict management and communication, "Respect all" aimed at building esteem and self-esteem, "Borders lost" which deals with personal and structural limits, "we are a class" which deals with issues of class community and team building and "It brings diversity" which deals with diversity, similarities and differences as well as with the foreign and familiar.

This programme in Austria uses participatory and interactive methods which help pupils experience the opportunity to participate in exercises where they learn about the issues, that is, they dramatise situations and discuss issues freely. The contents of the modules are adapted to respective age groups. Participants in the learning do role playing, collages, design songs or do pantomimic skill images of issues.

Also regarding the issue pointed out by Sellman (2003) above, Morton (1991) reports of there being in New York in America what was known as the Resolving Conflict Creatively Programme (RCCP). The RCCP is a curriculum based programme. It was a collaborative effort between New York City's Board of Education and a nonprofit group Educators for social responsibility (ESR). RCCP began in 1985 with 18 teachers and by 1991 had over 1000 teachers and 30 000 students in 100 elementary and secondary schools and was also involved in special education programmes.

The RCCP had a ten unit curriculum with lessons on intergroup relations, cooperative learning and dispute resolution techniques. The teachers involved in RCCP set aside lessons for conflict resolution but were encouraged to infuse conflict resolution skills into other subject areas.

Coleman and Deutsch's (2001) report of schools and districts in the United States of America advocate for conflict resolution concepts and skills into the curriculum either as a course that stands alone or as a unit within existing programmes.

The curricula provided lessons and activities for pre-schoolers to University level focused on such themes as, understanding conflict, communication, dealing with anger, co-operation affirmation, bias awareness, cultural diversity, conflict resolution and peace-making. Most of the programmes use a cooperative problem-solving process in their delivery.

In line with the curriculum for conflict resolution, Murray (2000) also developed Primary school level curriculum for children's Rights Education. This curriculum is known as "the world around us" and the materials developed address children's rights of provision, protection and participation. These issues are addressed using five thematic modules namely Module 1, respect, rights and responsibilities; Module 2, children, families and friends; Module 3, education, learning and growing; Module 4, food, health care and homes and Module 5, safe, friendly and peaceful world. Murray (2000) goes on to give details of what is in each module and how the material is to be presented. A lot of child abuse cases are rocking the primary schools in Zimbabwe as exemplified by a report in Action Aid Zimbabwe (2016) of abuse in rural Makoni District concerning child sexual abuse and bullying. An introduction of materials in Murray's modules in Zimbabwean primary school curriculum could go a long way in reducing child abuse cases there by reducing conflicts in schools.

In England and Wales according to Sellman (2003) there is a National Curriculum subject referred to as citizenship in secondary schools and primary schools. The subject aims to endorse the political values of pluralism and democracy. Included in this subject are common values like, truth, honesty, trust and a sense of duty. Schools are also mandated to consider to what extent their ethos, organisation and daily practices were consistent with the aim and purpose of citizenship education and also provision of opportunities for pupils to develop into active citizens (QCA, 1998 cited in Sellman, 2003). According to the above information, schools are required to relate their organization and pedagogic practice to a broader and more active notion of education which emphasises the experiential as well as the intellectual. This could be done through creation of school councils, school parliaments and peer mediation services. In Zimbabwe the Zimbabwe Report of the Presidential Commission, Nziramasanga commission into Education and Training (1999) recommended the introduction of Civic Education in schools.

Elsewhere, Gorter (1986) documents what is emphasized with regards to conflict resolution. Gorter (1986) points out that in Ontario, Canada, values and personal responsibility in society at the international level are taught in relation to religious beliefs, while England and Wales emphasize respect for religious and moral values, tolerance of other races and ways of life, an understanding of the world in which others live and the interdependence of nations. England and Wales also emphasise knowledge of human achievements and aspirations. Japanese students are expected to grow up as citizens who love people everywhere in the world and who will obtain the trust and respect of the international society. The above types of activities are goals intended to foster conflict resolution at international level. In Zimbabwean primary schools such issues as ethnocentrism and xenocentrism are present (Mavhunga, 2006; Makuvaza, 2008; Marashe, Ndamba and Chireshe, 2009). If the above information could be

infused into the curriculum it would go a long way into eradicating ethnocentrism and xenocentrism.

Regarding bullying, McEachern, Kenny, Blake and Aluede (2005) advance the following recommendations and strategies that the programmes to reduce incidences of bullying in school must start early in the elementary grades and that children are to be educated about bullying to increase awareness of the seriousness of these acts and be taught conflict resolution and problem solving skills to help them resolve disputes without resorting to violence or use of derogatory remarks. The above authorities also recommended The Peace Education Foundations (PEF) curricular materials to educate students, teachers and parents, which deal with the dynamics of conflict, how to deal with conflict non-violently and promotion of peace making skills in homes, schools and communities. Bullying is reported as a menace in a number of primary schools in Zimbabwe (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2012; Team Zimbabwe, 2015). Adoption of the PEF curricular materials in the Zimbabwean primary school curriculum would go a long way in reducing bullying in schools.

In the Philippines, according to Miranda and Echano (2005) a subject known as Makabayan was introduced in 2002. Makabayan deals with social studies in grades 1 to 3. The Social Studies consist of civics, culture, music, arts and Physical Education. In grade 4 to 6 Makabayan deals with Social Studies consisting of Geography, History and Civics, Home Economics and Livelihood, Music, Arts and Physical Education. Good manners and right conduct are integrated into all learning areas. Makabayan particularly at grade 6 level, focuses on the democratic system and the rights, duties and responsibilities of citizens. Makabayan on the whole is a laboratory of life aimed at developing a healthy personal and national self identity. Makabayan uses integrated units of learning to enable the learners to process, assimilate and systematically practise a wide range of values and life skills including work skills and work ethics (Miranda and Echano, 2005). It also lays stress on the development of social awareness and responsibility, empathy and a firm commitment to the common good. Miranda and Echano (2005) also gave a detailed account of the core values and human rights concepts to be learnt in each area at various grade levels.

In the United States of America, the University of Florida, College of Education (2012) has developed conflict resolution and social problem solving curriculum materials. This curriculum is a school wide programme for 6th to 8th grade students. The curriculum consists of five units namely, understanding conflict, effective communication, understanding anger, handling anger and peer mediation.

Palmer (2001) suggests several ways in which three types of conflict that occur in schools namely conflict over resources, conflict of needs and conflict of values could be resolved through teaching. Palmer suggests that these could be prevented by children learning about other's customs, beliefs, history, problems, hopes and dreams and that in diversity students could be provided with opportunities to present their own points of views. Palmer (2001) also suggests the teaching of deescalating conflict, using the techniques of Ki Aikido which is a Japanese martial art that is based at the study of energy, tense situations, win-win strategies, active listening and decision making. Children's literature can be used in developing correct attitudes.

In Zimbabwe there are no studies aimed at establishing the aspects in the curriculum that could be carriers of conflict resolution skills development and the gaps to be filled so that the curriculum could be used as a tool for conflict resolution skill's development except a study by Marashe, Ndamba and Chireshe (2009). Marashe, Ndamba and Chireshe (2009) undertook a

study to establish the teaching of Traditional Religion in Zimbabwean primary schools. The study entailed a content review of the primary school Religious and Moral Education syllabus. There was, therefore, need to undertake a study to establish how the primary school curriculum is a carrier of material for conflict resolution skills' development and the gaps to be filled.

The curriculum is not only made up of the content but also entails how the content is delivered that is the methodologies employed, the assessment undertaken and the hidden curriculum as already alluded to earlier.

Curriculum Methodologies and Conflict

Regarding methodologies for peace education Abebe, Gbesso and Nyawalo (2006) observe that the traditional passive lecture methodologies are in contradiction with the requirements of learner-centred (participatory, interactive and co-operative learning) required in peace education. Fountain (1999) concedes that learner friendly methods promote values and behaviours conducive to peace. She points out that participatory approaches build up cohesion, reduce bias and lead to the development of problem-solving skills among students. Fountain (1999) outlined the following as some of the participatory methodologies used in peace education programmes; co-operative group work, peer teaching, small group discussions, decision making and consensus building exercises, negotiation, role play and simulations. Amatruda (2006) recommends action techniques and psychodrama methods to be used on a bi-weekly basis to help students communicate more positively with one another allowing them to improve their status with peers in the classroom after use and evaluation with children of 10 to 13 years in an elementary school special education programme. It was found that students' negative behaviour in the classroom decreased, interactions with one another were more positive and attitudes toward their own potential increased as a result of the psychodrama based conflict resolution and skill-building training.

Assessment and Conflict Resolution

Regarding assessment, Harris (2003) points out that assessment should centre on the effects of peace education on learners' attitudes, thought patterns, behaviours and knowledge gained while Fountain (1999) cites the following assessment methods as appropriate for peace education: interviews, focus group discussions, review of school records, observation, rating scales, questionnaires and surveys.

The above mentioned techniques are only a few examples of curriculum programmes that have been introduced in the primary school system in various parts of the world which could aid the researcher in finding out what aspects one has in the education system and which would need to be addressed. In Zimbabwe, assessment is mainly norm-referenced (Chakanyuka, 1995).

Whole School Cultural Approaches and Conflict Resolution in Schools

Whole school approaches to tackling violence in schools have been found to yield good results (Salisbury and Jackson, 1996). Schools need to examine the relationship between aggressive behaviour and their own organisations, policies, discipline and teaching styles. Individual intervention strategies on their own, tend to have a limited impact (Sharp and Thompson (1994) cited in Sellman, 2003). Nelson, Martella and Marchand-Martella (2012) suggest four components of the school wide programme. These are first, the ecological arrangements of common areas of the school that is hallways, cafeteria, rest rooms and playground. Second, there is establishment of clear and consistent behavioural expectations. Third, there is active supervision of common area routines to prevent disruptive behaviour from occurring and to respond effectively when it does occur. Finally, there is use of empirically validated

disciplinary response policies and procedures by classroom supervisors in order to stabilise how staff members respond to problem behaviours in the classroom. In the first year of the programme consensus- building and participatory planning should be undertaken.

Another school wide technique could be open classroom meetings (OCM) proposed by Emmett and Monsour, (1996). These meetings are intended to promote communication and personal relationship skills, listening skills, ability to communicate feelings and problem- solving skills. They are also promotive of mutual respect for each other's differences.

In OCMs children learn to express their own thoughts and feelings and to develop the attitudes and skills necessary to listen to thoughts and feelings of others. Through OCMs children and teachers increase their understanding of and empathy for each other. Increased understanding often leads to increased respect and appreciation for differences and contributions of all class members. Members of the school community also begin to feel more cared for and to care more for each other. Emmett & Monsour (1996) cited Glasser (1969) suggests three types of OCMs namely problem-solving meeting, educational- diagnostic meeting and open ended meeting. OCMs, however, require the following skills: active listening, accurate paraphrasing, identification of feelings and open-ended questioning.

The whole school approach though requiring a huge investment in time and effort requires an initial firm establishment and needs to incorporate the consultation of the wider community (Benthey, 1998 cited in Sellman, 2003). The involvement should continue into implementation. The initiative also needs regular monitoring, evaluation and modification where necessary (Sellman, 2003). There is need for dialogue, direction and cohesion within the school which needs to extend to external agencies and the community served by the school. There should be participation by teachers, the administration staff and parents in framing behaviour management policy and its implementation as a continuous cycle of application, review and modification (Daniels et al., 1998).

Regarding participation, a variety of strategies could be used. These could include quality circles (Robbins, 1993), informal methods (Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert, 1995), committees (Appleby, 1994) democratic centralism structures (Gwarinda, 1993) and suggestion boxes (Appleby, 1994).

In this participation influential members of the school community should give on-going support to whole school cultural change needs. Sufficient commitment to the changes is necessary. When this commitment is available, reduction of violent incidents could be seen within a year (Sharp and Thompson, 1994 in Sellman, 2003).

The issues to be attended to are community relationship, value, organisation, environment, curriculum and training. In Zimbabwean schools the child friendly programme is one such programme.

Supportive environments include the following according to Cohen (1995):

- Cooperation between school and community in developing policies,
- Values of cooperation and non-violence, which permeate all school relationships and teaching styles,
- Principles of school organisation and pedagogic practice built upon notions of equality, inclusiveness and non-violence,
- An environment that is conducive to co-operative behaviour,

- A curriculum that attends to issues of both content and process conflict resolution skills and
- Pupils being given both the training and opportunity to learn how to resolve conflict for themselves.
- If conflict is difficult to resolve it can be arbitrated.

The whole school approach should have clear conflict management policies and procedures. This would be integrated with school policy areas such as equal opportunity, anti-harassment/bullying, welfare, discipline, occupational health and safety policies. The whole school approach also advises that school administration should model affective management of conflict, staff should model positive, co-operative and collaborative relationships as well as using co-operative processes in the classrooms.

Strategies that could enhance Conflict Transformation and Conflict Management in Primary Schools

Negotiation

Researchers like Crawford and Bodine (1996), Coleman and Deutsch (2001) and Johnson and Johnson (1995) recommend training in negotiation in the primary school curriculum for pupils and training school personnel and parents in negotiation as a way of instilling conflict transformation and management skills. Johnson and Johnson (1995) advise that after a cooperative context has been created, children, school personnel and parents should be taught negotiation as a technique of resolving conflict before mediation and arbitration. Johnson and Johnson (1995, p.48) define negotiation as “a process by which persons who have shared and opposed interests want to work out an agreement”

Maddoc (1988) cited in Mwenda-Sithole (2006, p.27) defines negotiation as “the process we use to satisfy our needs when someone else controls what we want”. Negotiation occurs because one has something the other wants and willing to bargain to get it. In this context, parties to a dispute hold discussions or dealings about a matter with a view to reconciling differences and establishing areas of agreement, settlement or compromise. Similarly, Piennar and Spolestra (1996, p.3) view negotiation as “a process of interaction between parties directed at reaching some form of agreement that will hold and which is based upon common interests with the purpose of resolving conflict despite widely dividing differences”. Both definitions emphasise interaction in a bid to reach some agreement based on common interests. However, negotiation is a process not an event.

Negotiation in a school situation is carried out for two purposes. These purposes are the resolution temporarily of conflict of interests with strangers and the resolution of ongoing conflict of interests with family, colleagues and friends (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

There are basically two approaches to negotiation. These are the problem solving approach or interest-based negotiation and the competitive approach or positional negotiation (Mwenda-Sithole, 2006).

Problem Solving or Interest-based Negotiation

The problem solving or interest-based negotiation puts more emphasis on parties' interests (Mwenda-Sithole, 2006). Some sources of interests could be beliefs, values, perceptions and orientations. Crawford and Bodine (1996) contend that negotiation between primary school pupils ought to be problem-solving in nature. The approach is designed for parties who have a need to create or maintain healthy relationships. Parties discuss issues that face them and express the interests, values and needs that they bring to the table. Instead of focusing on

competitive measures and winning the negotiation, parties collaborate by creating solutions which maximise the meeting of all parties' interests, values and needs (Fisher, Ury & Patton, 1981).

Interest based negotiation is a co-operative process which focuses parties away from their positions and onto using interests and objective criteria for making decisions (Fisher, Ury & Patton, 1981).

The interested based negotiation is used (a) when parties have interdependent interests, desires and concerns; (b) when possible to create integrative solutions which provide mutual gains for parties (win/win). A win/ win outcome involves using problem-solving based on principled negotiation theory; individuals in conflict come to a consensus on a joint resolution without locking into positions or destroying relationships (Crawford & Bodine, 1996):(c) When an ongoing relationship between parties is important;(d) when switching from adversarial interactions to more co-operative one (e) when there are principles for example human rights standards which parties are bound to uphold (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, 2006).

The interest-based negotiating process follows five stages (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, 2006). The first stage is identifying substantive psychological and procedural interests. This involves interest being met, importance of needs, interest of greater or lesser priority, ability to communicate needs and their importance to other parties, the determination of interests of other parties, why interests are important to them.

The second stage is about getting started. This involves starting with parties discussing issues and educating one another on their interests, needs and concerns. If one party offers a position or solutions they have to reframe the position or solutions in terms of the interests they are articulating.

The third stage is the managing of the issues. This requires clarity in the statement of issues. The framing of issues in acceptable ways to other parties or party is also necessary. Issues should not be stated in win/lose terms or in ways which suggest a certain outcome. Issues are also ordered at this stage. Grouping together of issues that are common or could be easily resolved is also undertaken during this stage.

The fourth stage is the problem-solving and option generation. This entails jointly determining the strategy of problem solving. It also involves reminding of parties' interests and others' interests. Thereafter, there is the generating of options which will meet all or most of the interests. A range of options rather than focusing on one option at a time is really necessary. The generation of options requires looking at the problem from different perspectives.

The fifth stage is evaluating options. Here evaluation of a number of options is generated. This entails looking at how well they meet needs of all parties. If no clear best solutions are generated, parties look at integrating aspects of different proposals. Here also there is exploring of issues if parties can make trade-offs based upon their priorities for settlement or reframing issues.

The Conflict Resolution Manual (2000) lists a number of issues to be considered to turn negotiation to interest-based negotiation which includes the issues that follow. In interest-based negotiation parties state a position on an issue asking why the position is important to

them. It is important to listen to underlying interests, needs and concerns the party used to construct their position. They should avoid framing issues in win/lose terms or anything that predispose parties to a certain position. Persons should be separated from a problem. It involves looking for solutions with mutual gain that is win/win solutions, educating parties on their interests and showing them how certain solutions can increase their benefits. When a proposal is attached the parties should not become defensive but instead should involve asking why parties feel the proposal will not work and getting the underlying interests. It also entails creating general principles to guide development of proposals and the decision making process. Areas of common ground ought to be identified and in the process parties should avoid generating options and immediately evaluating them. The use of objective criteria in evaluating options is paramount. It also involves using impartial outside experts to evaluate options or educating parties about the ramifications of certain options. There is need to keep a number of options on the table during the evaluation process and look for ways to integrate merits of a range of options.

There are three interest types namely substantive, psychological and procedural (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, 2006). Substantive interests relate to physical resources such as money, land or time while psychological interests relate to issues of trust, fairness and respect. Procedural interests relate to the way the dispute will be resolved, that is, who will be involved and how decisions will be made.

The Competitive Approach or Positional Negotiation

Positional negotiation refers to a competitive process in which parties make offers and counter-offers which they feel will resolve the conflict (Moore, 1996). It starts with parties making an offer which will maximise their benefit. Each party attempts to draw the other a bargaining range using a series of counter offers and concessions. Exchanges of offers typically start to converge on a solution which both parties find acceptable or parties remain far apart resulting in impasse. This type of process tends to end in a compromise, where gains and losses to both parties are distributed according to the ability of the negotiators and the strength of their negotiating position.

Moore (1996) discusses when positional negotiation is appropriate. Moore (1996) points out the following situations, when stakes are high, when parties are negotiating over resources which are limited such as money or time, when there is little or no trust between parties, when a party perceives it benefits from making the other party lose, when co-operative relationship later is of lesser priority than a substantive win at the table and when parties have sufficient power to damage the other if they reach an impasse.

The positional negotiation process has six stages (Moore, 1996). These six stages are determining your best solution, determining your bottom line, determining the best solutions and bottom lines of the other party (ies), creating a negotiating strategy that is, issues to agree, issues to concede to gain more, issues you cannot concede or compromise, getting started by ordering issues and optimising solutions.

There are two styles of positional negotiation namely the soft and hard (Moore, 1996). The soft style occurs when participants are friends, the goal of negotiation is agreement, negotiation entails making concessions to cultivate relationship, the participants are soft on people and problem and there is trust of each other. It also involves changing positions quite easily, making offers, disclosing the bottom line, accepting of one sided losses to reach agreement, search for a single answer that is the one the parties will accept, insistence on agreement, parties trying to avoid a contest of will and parties yield to pressure.

The hard style has the following attributes: participants are adversaries, the goal is victory, making concessions as condition of the relationship, hard on people and the problem. There is distrust of each other as participants dig in to position and participants make threats. There is misleading as to the bottom line. There is demand of one-sided gains as the price of agreement. There is also search for a single answer that is one the party will accept, insistence on one's position and trying to win a contest through applying pressure.

Arbitration as a Conflict Resolution Strategy

Arbitration in the school has to be undertaken by teachers and school heads (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). Arbitration places a pupil in direct confrontation with a teacher that is behavioural-interactional conflict or an element of activity such as school rules that is behavioural-structural conflict (Sellman, 2003). Arbitration is employed when negotiation and mediation have failed (Johnson & Johnson, 1995; Crawford & Bodine, 1996; Sellman, 2003). Arbitration, according to Pienaar and Spoelstra (1996, p.7) is based on an intervention by a third-party in an attempt to reach an agreement but the final decision lies with the arbitrator. Mwenda-Sithole (2006) agrees with the above and says arbitration is a semi-judicial and more formal dispute resolution process whereby parties are heard before a neutral decision maker, the arbitrator. Here the disputing parties do not have control over the outcome of the dispute.

Typically, the parties appoint the arbitrator. The arbitrator is given powers to render a decision. The arbitrator's decision is either binding or non-binding on the parties depending on the arrangement made by the parties prior to entering the arbitration process (UN Conflict Resolution Manual, 2001, Mampuru and Spoelstra, 1994).

The arbitration process is made up of three stages. Four steps are there before the hearing which is agreement to submit the grievances to arbitration, determining the issue for arbitration,

choosing an arbitrator or arbitration panel and preparing the case (Zimbabwe Open University Module EA3PD404, 1995). The second stage is the hearing which has four steps namely, determining the issue if not already determined, making opening statement presenting evidence and with witnesses cross-examining opposition witnesses and summarisation of arguments and presenting remedies (Zimbabwe Open University Module EA3PD404, 1995).

The last is after the hearing which has two steps namely submitting of briefs and the arbitrator rendering a decision and opinion (Zimbabwe Open University Module EA3PD404, 1995).

Going hand in glove with arbitration is what is referred to as fact- finding. Madziyire et al., (2010) view it as a procedure whereby an individual or individuals termed neutrals, conduct hearings with a view to grasping issues and proposing solutions based on supporting arguments and evidence. The fact-finders submit written arguments and recommendations which may be aimed at breaking an impasse (dead-lock). Fact finding is not really a strategy but an enabling process.

Arbitration has the following advantages over litigation, according to Mwenda-Sithole (2006). Firstly, it is especially suitable for disputes where a neutral person with highly specialised knowledge of the subject matter is needed. Secondly, it is appropriate where the parties' business relationship makes the publicity and formality of the courts is unsuitable so it offers the parties the confidentiality they desire. Thirdly, it is less formal than litigation, its costs are lower than litigation and offers quicker resolution of disputes. Some cases are, however, complex particularly cases which are against reluctant respondents, these might take long

periods and increase the costs. Where enforcement of foreign awards are concerned, arbitration is advantageous over litigation and has greater effectiveness due to a number of international conventions and laws like the convention on the recognition and enforcement of foreign arbitral awards which a number of countries have adopted.

Arbitration has limitations over litigation and other strategies of conflict resolution. According to Mwenda-Sithole (2006) it is not the best dispute resolution mechanism where the dispute can be resolved by negotiation or mediation, especially where parties have a business professional or personal relationship which could be preserved.

The researcher now goes on to review literature on mediation.

Mediation as a Strategy of Conflict Resolution

According to Johnson and Johnson (1995), training in mediation in a school ought to follow creation of a cooperative environment and training in negotiation. Mediation started in the 19th century in both England and United States and was confined to labour disputes (Mwenda-Sithole, 2006). Mediation, according to Numeijer cited in Pienaar and Spoelstra (1996, p.6), "is the process through which agreements are reached with the aid of a neutral third party or helper". Pruitt and Kim (2004, p. 65) have the same definition of mediation as Numeijer above. The third party in mediation should have no decision making power and no vested interest in either of the parties (Mampuru and Spoelstra, 1994, p.31). The mediator acts mainly as communication and problem solving catalyst or as an agent to maximise the exploration and operation of alternatives, while the responsibility for the final agreements rests with the conflicting parties (Pienaar and Spoelstra, 1996, p.7). The mediator's role may be passive or active. The passive mediator ensures that the procedural flow and momentum of the negotiation dialogue are maintained. The mediator keeps the sides in dialogue by ensuring that negotiating schedules and deadlines are observed so that the mediator acts as a process oriented monitor (Mampuru and Spoelstra, 1994). For the mediator to be effective he/she must be acceptable and credible, must be neutral and recognised as impartial, experienced and potentially helpful (Gunduza and Namusi, 2004).

The United Nations (UN) Conflict Resolution Manual (2001) provides the mediation process.

The Mediation Process

The UN Conflict Resolution Manual (2001, p.46) discusses the following steps of mediation which are: (a) it starts with the introduction which includes among other things a description of the process and ground rules which provide behavioural guidelines for participants (b) parties are then in turn given an opportunity to present their understanding of the conflict (c) a list of issues are created and an agenda is devised to guide parties through the resolution process and lastly (d) as specific solutions are reached, parties are asked to confirm their acceptance.

The UN Conflict Resolution Manual (2001) offers two other fundamental elements namely that mediation is an interest based method that seeks to reconcile interest of the parties not to determine which is right or powerful or wrong and that mediation is voluntary, that is, parties cannot be coerced into mediation and they may opt out of the process anytime.

The UN Conflict Resolution Manual (2001) distinguishes two forms of mediation namely shuttle mediation and long-term shuttle mediation.

Shuttle Mediation

Shuttle mediation refers to the movements the mediator makes back and forth (shuttle) to meet separately with conflicting parties, until they are willing to meet each other directly. In separate meetings, the mediator explains the process and the parties tell their stories to the mediator in order to feel confident of their ability to face their opponent. This contributes to a feeling of having been heard by someone even if the opponent turns out to be an unresponsive listener and therefore, enables them to listen to the other side's story when they do meet.

The need for shuttle mediation may also arise during the middle of the mediation process. When there is danger of the process breaking down because one side begins to doubt the process, or feels at a disadvantage, then mediators can meet with both parties separately.

No study has been undertaken in Zimbabwean primary schools regarding the usefulness of shuttle mediation. In the United States of America and the United Kingdom, shuttle mediation has been used to resolve conflict which could not be resolved by simple mediation. In a school situation shuttle mediation can be used in cases of group conflict either of teachers or pupils. The head of the school or a senior teacher could shuttle mediate.

Long-term Shuttle Mediation

When there is a major block in communication, the mediator needs to have repeated contacts with the separate sides. This is true in polarised conflict. When there is complete lack of trust and the parties are, therefore, unwilling to have any contact with other side(s) the mediator(s) may guide the separate sides through the mediation process allowing them to try out a solution in safety and confidentiality, before attempting it with the opponent. The process of shuttling between sides may go on for a very long time before they are willing to meet directly.

The steps taken by a mediator in the extended process might include any or all of the following issues pointed out by the UN Conflict Resolution Manual (2001). Initially, there should be establishment of the mediator's credibility through reputation, experience and concern. Secondly, the mediator should demonstrate a balanced approach and willingness to listen to all sides. Thirdly, the process should involve analysing and mapping the conflict and identifying possible entry points into the conflict. It also entails building relationship of trust with key people on each side, including groups that seem to be excluded and marginalised, as well as the recognised major parties. The mediator should interpret the fears, hopes and intentions of each side to other and also clarify misunderstanding of public statements and positions of each side. The process also involves carrying specific message between sides, when they request it and helping each side to assess the response or to predict the reactions for other side(s). Lastly, the process involves representing the views of an opponent well enough to enable an individual to practise negotiating through the mediator, encouraging direct contact and arranging for it to happen, getting out of the way and allowing the sides to negotiate directly.

Mwenda-Sithole (2006) advances the following advantages of mediation; that it is suitable for any issues capable of being settled by negotiation especially where parties have had business, professional or personal relationships, it can be used for commercial, civil, labour, family, interpersonal, community, complex public disputes and environmental cases in which there are many parties as well as potential solutions and it can be rights based or interest based. Mediation is rights based when the mediator looks at rights of disputants. It is interest based when it focuses on interests or needs of parties. In this case it looks at a solution acceptable to both parties in conflict. Interest based mediation has the following characteristics: it looks to the future, focuses on relationships, seeks to restructure relationships, results in accommodative resolution and results in custom-made solutions (Mwenda-Sithole,2006).

Mediation, according to Mwenda-Sithole (2006), is not appropriate in two situations, that is, mediation is not appropriate where disputes between the parties includes allegations of fraud and bad faith and where constitutional principles, civil rights or other fundamentals are in question.

In a primary school situation, cases that could be mediated include disputes over whose item it is, name calling disputes, gossip disputes and bullying cases.

Madziyire et al., (2010) add two other limitations of mediation namely; disputants can use it to buy time and that it fails to cater for psychological and emotional aspects of negotiation because no formal presentations are made. The discussion now turns to a form of mediation referred to as peer mediation.

Peer Mediation as a Conflict Resolution Strategy

Sellman (2003, p.1) views peer mediation as a structured process which offers pupils experiencing a problem, dispute or conflict the opportunity to reach a mutually satisfying outcome facilitated by neutral third-parties from among their peers. Baginsky (2004) views peer-mediation as a process whereby people involved in a dispute enter voluntarily into agreement to resolve the problem collaboratively.

Procedures for conflict Transformation and Conflict Management

Creating a Cooperative Atmosphere

Johnson and Johnson (1995) argue that two contexts exist at schools which are cooperative or competitive. Managing conflict does not require competition but requires cooperation. Competition means students have to defeat each other to get what they want. Rewards are therefore, restricted to those who perform best (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). Competition focuses on winning not on maintaining good, long-term relationships. Cooperation on the contrary seeks outcomes that are beneficial to everyone involved (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). Cooperation focuses on both achievement of goals and maintaining good working relationships.

There is need to resort to cooperative learning where students work in small groups to accomplish shared learning goals. In cooperative learning, children have two responsibilities namely to learn the assigned material and ensuring that other group members also learn the material. Cooperative learning uses a criterion-based evaluation system in which student achievement is judged against a fixed set of standards (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). Johnson and Johnson (1995) identify three types of cooperative learning which are formal cooperative learning, informal cooperative learning and cooperative base groups.

In formal cooperative learning students work together for one class period or several weeks to reach their goals. There are two goals aimed at the achievement of the task given and working together effectively.

In informal co-operative learning, ad hoc groups are used that last a few minutes to one class period. The lessons comprise focused group discussions that are interspaced with lectures or observation.

Cooperative base groups are long-term, that is, they can take several years. They are made up of heterogeneous learning groups with a stable membership (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1992). The group provides support needed for each member to progress academically and develop cognitively and socially. Base groups meet daily in elementary schools (Johnson and

Johnson, 1995). Here members discuss each person's academic progress, assist each other and verify that each group member is completing assignments and progressing satisfactorily. The members inform absent group members about work that was missed.

It should be noted that simply placing students in groups and telling them to work together, does not always result in cooperative outcomes (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). For cooperation to be achieved, it should exist at the three levels, that is, at classroom, school and district level (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). Cooperative teams for school staff could be collegial support groups and cooperative teams at district level which could be district level administrators using collegial support groups (Johnson & Johnson, 1995). In Nepal, schools have formed clusters of five to ten schools. These schools pool their resources together easing the problem of shortages of resources (Khaniya, 1997). Furthermore, the schools have an exchange programme in the supervision of teachers (Khaniya, 1997). This has led to better performance by teachers in their teaching. In the Zimbabwean school system very little of cooperation is fostered. In Zimbabwe a study by Chisaka and Vakalisa (2003) and Chisaka (2001) on the effect of ability grouping, established that pupils in low ability classes were regarded as of low intelligence and were discriminated against. There is no promotion of cooperation. The researchers recommended the use of mixed ability grouping to promote cooperation.

Peer Support and Training

Peer support exists in a variety of ways. The strategies include peer mentoring (O'Connell, 1995), peer counselling (Kaye and Webb, 1996) and peer mediation already discussed (Unwin and Osei, 2000).

These types of intervention strategies provide support from within the pupil's immediate community, peers rather than adults. Pupils appear more willing to trust each other and they are less likely to receive sanctions (Sellman, 2003). Adults rarely have sufficient time to devote to inter-pupil conflict and can sometimes perceive as trivial what is important to children (Rawlings, 1996, cited in Sellman, 2003). There are quite a number of practical strategies children could use in real life situations like "Anger Rules" (Douglas, 1999), Red: stop, Amber: Think and Green: Do. The use of these mediational devices encouraged children to extend the thinking time between action and reaction which is a crucial ingredient of emotional intelligence and management of relationship (Goleman, 1996 cited in Sellman, 2003). Researches on the effectiveness of these training techniques have shown that children are receptive to such training particularly at an early stage (Sellman, 2003). There is no evidence of the use of peer support and training in Zimbabwean primary schools.

Another strategy pointed out by Sellman (2003) which is in use especially in United Kingdom schools is Pastoral care. The discussion switches over to a discussion of this strategy.

Pastoral Care and Conflict Resolution in Schools

In the United Kingdom schools, according to Sellman (2003), pastoral care is provided by both the delivery of personal health and Social Education. This is taken as a discrete subject and large schools are broken down into smaller family groups (Power, 1996 cited in Sellman, 2003). Pastoral care is taken as a tool for pupil empowerment and support but it is associated with power. Teachers provide valuable moral support to individuals but can act as buffers between pupils' social and emotional needs and other functions of the school (Cooper and Upton, 1991 cited in Sellman, 2003).

There are a number of interventions delivered under the umbrella of pastoral care that attempt to respond to inter-pupil conflict or train pupils with conflict resolution skills. The approaches encourage cooperation of pupils in generating and implementing solutions to problems. The approaches include circle time and peer support and training. There is no evidence of the use of pastoral care in the Zimbabwean primary school system. In Zimbabwean schools it could be linked with health education and social studies.

Circle Time

Circle time gives pupils an opportunity to sit in a group circle and discuss issues of importance, which may include the antecedents or after-effects of conflict. Equality is emphasised by all pupils and adults sit at the same height as pupils away from their desks and take turns to talk. Circle time can be used to deliver a programme of a range of activities to raise self-esteem, develop communication skills and foster trust and cooperation within a group (Sellman, 2003). Morris (1999) and Gibbons (2010) argue that circle time is an ideal format for managing the social dynamics of a classroom and developing a co-operative group.

Circle time develops group reflexivity to tasks and the well being of the members of the class. This is done through making the group responsible for their own success and cohesion. If the activities are not well planned and structured, ownership will not take place. Circle time allows children to get to know more members of their class which has an impact on how other pupils were rated on popularity surveys.

Johnson and Johnson (1995) argue for the use of another conflict resolution strategy known as academic controversy. A full discussion on the strategy follows.

Academic Controversy

Academic controversy exists when one student's ideas, information, conclusions, theories and opinions are incompatible with those of another and the two seek to reach an agreement (Johnson and Johnson, 1992). During academic controversy pupils are normally placed in four member cooperative learning groups and each group is divided into two pairs. The teacher assigns one pair to prove the positive side of a conflict situation or topic and the other the negative side. Children challenge each other by drawing from authoritative sources. The unit for example, might have five –one- hour class periods.

During class one, each pair develops its possible position and plans how to present the best case to the other pair. Near the end of the period pairs are encouraged to compare notes with pairs from the other group who represent their position (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). In period two each pair makes its presentation with all members participating. Opposing pairs are encouraged to take notes and listen carefully (Johnson and Johnson, 1995).

In the third period group members discuss the issue, following a set of rules that help them criticise ideas, not people, differentiate between two positions and assess the evidence and logic supporting each position (Johnson and Johnson, 1995).

During class four the pairs reverse perspectives and present each other's positions, then drop all advocacies and begin developing a group report that synthesises the best evidence and reasoning from both sides (Johnson and Johnson, 1995).

In the last period the groups finalise their reports and present their conclusions to the class, with all four members participating. The teacher evaluates the reports on writing quality, logical presentation of evidence and oral presentation. Each student takes an individual test

and if every group member achieves up to a predetermined criticism, they all receive bonus points. The group process how well they worked together and how they can do better next time (Johnson and Johnson, 1995, p.106).

The theoretical roots of controversy are cognitive development theories, social-psychological balance theories and conflict theories (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). The three theories posit that during co-operative efforts, participants engage in discussions in which cognitive conflict occurs and are resolved in ways that expose and modify inadequate reasoning, motivate new learning and result in a reconceptualisation of the conflict issue.

The controversy process comprises five steps. First, students organize information and derive conclusions. When presented with a problem or decision, they arrange their knowledge and experiences with logic to reach a conclusion. Preparing a position to be advocated clearly affects how well others understand that position and the level of reasoning used in thinking about the position (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). Students' conclusions, however, may be based on categorising and organising incomplete information, limited experiences and specific perspectives.

In the second step students present and advocate opposing positions. They follow a process of argument and counter-argument aimed at persuading others to adopt, modify or drop positions.

In the third step uncertainty, disequilibrium and conceptual conflict is created. Here members advocate different alternatives, criticise and refute positions and challenge each other's conclusions with information that is incompatible with those conclusions. Increased disagreement among group members results in more frequent disagreements with more people disagreeing with a person's position and a more competitive context for controversy. The more affronted a person feels, the greater the conceptual conflict and uncertainty the person experiences (Lowry and Johnson, 1981 in Johnson and Johnson, 1995). Individuals are motivated to know others' positions and to understand and appreciate those positions (Tjosvold and Johnson, 1977 cited in Johnson and Johnson, 1995). Participants develop a more accurate understanding of other positions than do people involved in non controversial discussions.

The fourth step involves students searching for additional information and view the issue from both perspectives simultaneously faced with intellectual opposition within a co-operative context. Students reach for more information, new experiences and a more adequate cognitive perspective and reasoning process in the hope of resolving the uncertainty.

In the fifth step, students create a synthesis that integrates both perspectives. By adopting their cognitive perspective and reasoning through understanding and accommodating others' perspectives and reasoning, students derive a new, reconceptualised and reorganised conclusion. Participation in a controversy results in higher-quality and more creative solutions and discussions (Hoffman, 1964 cited in Johnson and Johnson, 1995) and greater attitude change (Johnson and Johnson, 1985 cited in Johnson and Johnson, 1995).

By 1995, Johnson and Johnson had developed a theory of controversy and tested it in more than 20 experimental and field studies and created a series of curriculum units that they field tested in schools and colleges throughout the United States, Canada and other countries.

Controversy was found to produce higher achievement and retention, recall of more information which can easily be transferred to learning new situations, use of more complex and high-level reasoning and generalisation of principles to a wider variety of situations. Controversy, however, should occur in a co-operative context. Controversy sets the stage for learning how to manage conflict of interests with classmates and staff.

Themes Related to conflict Transformation and Conflict Management

Themes established from the review of related literature and findings from participants and informants associated with the curriculum content included: (1) self-esteem and social skills (2) conflict resolution skills' development (3) democracy (4) respect for differences /values of pluralism (5) human rights (6) bullying and (7) problem -resolving that entail decision making.

The themes established from the review of related literature and participants and informants regarding how content on conflict transformation and management could be delivered (methodologies) entail use of cooperative group work, peer teaching, use of small group discussion ,decision making, consensus building exercises ,use of negotiation, role play, simulation, negotiation, action techniques and psycho drama methods.

The themes established from the review of related literature to do with assessment of mastering of conflict resolution skills include interviews, reviews of school records, focus group discussions, observation, use of questionnaires, surveys and criterion-referenced assessment.

With regard to administration and management practice in both schools and classrooms, the review of related literature and findings from participants and informants brought out a number of issues. First is the establishment of clear and non-consistent behavioural expectations, the establishment of ecological arrangements of common areas of the school and the active supervision of common area routine. Second is the use of empirically validated disciplinary response policies and procedures, the establishment of open classroom meetings and the consultation of the wider community. Third is the need for dialogue, direction and cohesion within the school, the participation in forming behaviour management policy and its implementation and the use of participation strategies. Fourth is the creation of a supportive environment, school administration, modelling, effective management of conflict, instilling cooperative and collaborative relationships, staff-members using cooperative processes in classroom and the need for training teachers, children and parents in conflict resolution.

The review of related literature also revealed that there are two forms of handling conflict in the curriculum. These include having a separate subject normally referred to as Civic Education and taking an integrated approach. The themes pointed out above should be considered in the primary school curriculum and the teachers' college curriculum. Ways that have been found to be effective are those that promote collaboration, democracy, equality and those that have an impact on the whole community.

CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be drawn from the findings:

- That the curriculum be guided by strategies such as negotiation, arbitration and mediation.
- That the curriculum be guided by such procedures as academic controversy, creating a cooperative environment, circle time, pastoral care and peer support and training.

- The curriculum to be guided by different themes for the content, methodology, assessment and management and administration.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations can be advanced regarding crafting of a conflict Transformation and Management curriculum in the primary school:

- That the Curriculum Development Unit of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education in Zimbabwe be guided by the strategies, procedures and themes in designing a conflict transformation and management primary school curriculum.
- That any other African country could craft its own conflict transformation and management curriculum using the views advanced from this study.

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