Examining the remote rural Early Childhood Development schools' responses to the challenges of resource demand in Zimbabwe: a multiple site case study

By

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ABSTRACT

This multiple case study looked at remote rural ECD schools from Chiredzi and Zaka districts in Zimbabwe and investigated their responses to challenges posed by resource demand. There is a substantial international literature focusing on advancing ECD which has contributed to the grounding of this study. My study makes a contribution towards building child-friendly ECD schools in Zimbabwe. Eight schools were chosen using purposeful and snowballing sampling methods. A qualitative method of inquiry was employed to illuminate the experiences of schools" leadership in their endeavour to create responses to resource demand and the extent to which they address effective teaching and learning for ECD in the schools. Thus, a total of twenty-four interviews and documentary reviews were used in the study. The study was underpinned by two effective theories; Invitational and Transformational leadership theories. The data was analysed. The findings from my study suggest the following:

ECD education is funded by the parents and the community at large, hence school heads are mobilising teaching and learning resources from the community. Schools do benefit from donations from parents, UNICEF and Plan International in terms of infrastructure. Nutritional health and safety aspects in ECD schools are far below national requirements. Although school heads are conducting staff development programmes, the human resource such as para-professionals and seconded teachers are not skilled to teach these children. Inspite of providing support to teaching and learning in remote rural ECD schools, it is not effective due to large classes and a limitation of all other inputs. School heads are being over-worked and are finding it difficult to cope with their many responsibilities. In addition, the existing high demand for resources places a strain on their management.

Based on the research findings, two models for ECD were developed; „a child-friendly school" and „a professional learning community" models. The research also proposes recommendations to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education as well as to primary school heads. Finally, the research makes suggestions for further studies.

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

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10 October 2014

Mrs Svosve Evangelista (212562920)
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Protocol reference number: HSS/1074/014D
Project title: Examining the rural ECD schools' responses to the challenges of resource distribution in Zimbabwe: A multiple site case study

Dear Mrs Evangelista,

Full Approval – Expedited Application

In response to your application received on 03 September 2014, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol have been granted FULL APPROVAL.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

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I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

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DEDICATION

To my two daughters, Tambudzai and Rumbidzai, my niece, Panashe-Vaneshree, and nephew, Peter-Mukudzei. May this serve as an inspiration to each of you. Remember, with God everything is possible.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ACSD	Accelerated Child Survival and Development
ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
AGM	Annual General Meeting
ARNEC	Asia-Pacific Regional Network for Early Childhood
ARV	Antiretroviral
BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Module
BSPZ	Better Schools Programme in Zimbabwe
CBOs	Community Based Organisations
CFS	Child-Friendly school
CIET	Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CRDC	Chiredzi Rural District Council
DEO	District Education Officer
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EI	Education Inspectors
ETF	Education Transition Fund
EFA	Education for All
EHT	Environmental Health Technician
EMIS	Education Management Information Systems
EPPE	Effective Provision of Pre-School Education
FACT	Family Aids Caring Trust
HIV/AIDS	Human Immuno-deficiency Virus/Acquired Immuno-deficiency Syndrome
IDEC	International Development Education Centre
IFAD	International Fund For Agricultural Development
IMCI	Integrated Management of Childhood Illnesses
INRURED	International Research and Training Centre for Rural Education
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MENARO	Middle East & North America Organisation
MoWCA	Ministry Of Women and Child Affairs
NERDC	Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council

NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NICHD	National Institute for Child Health and Human Development
OAU	Organisation of African Unity
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OC	Organisational Commitment
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PC	Professional Commitment
PRS	Poverty Reduction Strategies
RA	Responsible Authority
RCZ	Reformed Church in Zimbabwe
RDC	Rural District Council
RRA	Remote rural area
SBMC	School Based Management Committee
SDC	School Development Committee
SDP	Staff Development Programme
SHA	Schools Health Assessment
TC	Town Council
TIC	Teacher-in-Charge
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WASH	Water, Sanitation and hygiene
WCARO	West and Central Africa Regional Office
WHO	World Health Organisation
WSC	World Summit for Children
ZRDC	Zaka Rural District Council

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This study examined the remote rural Early Childhood Development (which I refer to as ECD throughout this thesis) schools" responses to the challenges of resource demand in Zimbabwe. In this introductory chapter, I highlight the background of the study, explain the problem statement, rationale and motivation of the study which is given as my experiences, its significance which is directly linked to its beneficiaries, and the research objectives and research questions. All key terms that are going to be met throughout the thesis are defined. I highlight briefly the assumptions, limitations and delimitations of the study. I finally present the general structure of my thesis.

1. 2 Background of the study

During the colonial era ECD programmes were restricted to a few children who were mostly in town (Mpofu & Shumba, 2012). During that period there were private bodies and individuals who were running ECD centres (Zvobgo, 2005). This scholar further states that ECD centres had a tendency of charging exorbitant fees which most of the people could not afford. This meant that children in remote rural areas and poor communities had no access to ECD education. Even with the attainment of independence in 1980, there was no immediate government intervention to provide accessible ECD education to the majority of Zimbabwe"s children (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). However, in 1990 the government accepted that ECD education, be an integral part and formalised this system of education, hence declaring it a human right (Myers, 2006).

In 1999, His Excellence the President; Robert, Gabriel Mugabe set up an inquiry on Zimbabwe"s education and training (Zvobgo, 2005). In an effort to make ECD accessible to the majority, the Ministry of Education incorporated a two year ECD programme integrated into the mainstream primary schools as recommended by the Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry (Myers, 2006). Urban and other communities that managed the costs started early, soon after this incorporation by the ministry. However, it was not compulsory since there was

no documented policy on ECD education in Zimbabwe. Remote rural communities did not respond to this initiative due to reasons like non-commitment by the government, unavailability of resources, poor resource base, lack of craft literacy and competence on how to go about it (Myers, 2006).

In 2005 the government formulated the ECD Education Policy 12 of 2005 derived from the Education Act of 1996a, which responded to the 1999 Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry. Findings from this enquiry indicated that the majority of the children in the country did not have access to ECD, as a result their development was compromised (Mugweni & Dakwa, 2013). Therefore, one of the commission"s recommendations called for rigorous strategies to promote increased accessibility of ECD as an aspect of the national policy to advance the overall quality of education at primary level in Zimbabwe (Zvobgo, 2005). This urgency to implement this ECD programme was also necessitated by the need to respond to the millennium goals of other countries. UNESCO (2009) reporting on the world summit on the millennium goals highlights that Zimbabwe was a member of the conferences and having contracted the protocol agreement was to make education accessible to the majority of the children.

To pursue this goal, the Ministry of Education brought about a new statutory instrument directing all primary schools to create and sustain at least two ECD classes for 3-4 year olds which is ECD-A and 4-5 year olds which is ECD-B (Statutory Instrument, 12 of 2005). This ECD policy framework will be discussed in detail in Chapter Two). The ECD-A class was going to proceed to ECD-B the following year and ECD-B to Grade One the following year. This meant a compulsory basic education; for which every child is to undergo a nine year primary course. This notion of incorporating two such classes ECD A-B was inclined to render assistance to pre-formal education to all children in the country inclusively; this time the ministry of education had no lenience to non-conformity by any local authority or school (Tshabalala & Mapolisa, 2013). This was meant to benefit the poor and disadvantaged children and families, especially the remote rural, since it was now accessible to all the children (Young, 2008). This was to universalise access and equity for ECD education to all children. This led to internal efficiency and sustainability while at the same time trying to redress the imbalances which were rooted in poor socio-economic statuses and social discriminatory practices by providing a fair educational and life starting point to children from all backgrounds (Tshabalala & Mapolisa, 2013).

In most African countries, and Zimbabwe is no exception, parents and communities, local and international NGOs and some funding agencies provide most resources for the ECD services (UNICEF, 2010). Meeting costs of ECD services like payment of ECD staff, provision of equipment and materials as well as the construction of infrastructure in done by the communities (ADEA, 2003). This African policy framework is to be discussed in detail in Chapter Two. From a survey carried by ADEA (2006) several countries had no state provision of pre-primary places, like Zimbabwe. However, there were only three countries with the highest government provision: Benin, Niger and South Africa (UNICEF, 2010). Thus, the saliency of member countries in Sub-Saharan Africa as an important concept in African culture is emphasised by a proverb ‚*kugadza nyembe huona dzevamwe'*, which translates into English as to be a successful leader one should always get advice from others as to how they do it (member countries). This proverb can be interpreted to imply the need for the Zimbabwean government to emulate other states when dealing with its developmental issues since they are most likely to face similar problems. Hence, to address these challenges, Zimbabwe, like many other African countries, increased efforts to initiate integrated ECD programmes, where schools, parents and communities come together for the implementation of this programme (UNESCO, 2010).

Though Zimbabwe was dealing with policy in almost similar ways like other African countries, the implications of the ECD policy meant that resources were supposed to be secured for these classes. These are teaching and learning materials, qualified human personnel, appropriate infrastructure, nutrition, health and safety facilities (including, water, sanitation and hygiene [WASH] facilities) and financial backup. According to the Education Report (2010), the integration was done virtually without any resource distribution to schools by the government (Dokora, 2014) as cited in (Herald, 4 September, 2014). It is a clear indication that, like most countries in Africa, the government of Zimbabwe committed itself on paper, not practically (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Every primary school in the country was expected to accommodate and make learning effective for the ECD classes. Most importantly, no child was supposed to get a refusal for admission at a school nearest to the place where s/he resides (Education Act, 1996a). This impacted differently on schools since Zimbabwean schools fall under different local governance. I must explain this further, so that the scenario of my study is understood by my readers.

Schools in Zimbabwe are categorised in two groups, either government or non-government (Education Act, 1996b). Government schools are owned and run by central government; whereas, authorities such as Town Councils (TCs), Rural District Councils (RDCs), churches, farmers and trustees own and run non-government schools. Such organisations are referred to as Responsible Authorities (RAs) (Chikoko, 2006). Hence, this study was conducted in non-government schools which are governed by Rural District Councils (RDCs). The Rural District Council (RDC) is the local „arm" of the Ministry of Local Government and Public Works. Through the Rural District Council it is this ministry (Ministry of Local Government and Public Works), not the Ministry of Education, that owns the greatest number of schools in the country (Rukanda & Mukurazhizha, 1997; Chikoko, 2006). Rukanda and Mukurazhizha (1997) further explain that this arises because about 80% of the black majority of Zimbabwe live in rural areas, and most schools are in rural districts.

The 1987 Education Act and the 1991 Education Amendment Act influenced a number of statutory instruments that institutionalised and gave operational guidelines to decentralised legal bodies that would look into developmental issues of the school at the local level (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992). For the purpose of ensuring a fair and equitable provision of primary education throughout Zimbabwe, every local authority (Responsible Authority) was instructed to establish and maintain primary schools for all children in the area under its jurisdiction (Education Act, 1987). The 1991 Education Amendment Act states that the responsible authority (RA) of every school should establish a development committee entrusted with control of the financial affairs of that particular school. The operational guidelines for SDCs are detailed in Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992, which will be discussed in detail in chapter two together with the ECD policy. The Government decentralised the control and running of schools to local authorities, and this was implemented in all schools (Chikoko, 2006).

Given the fact that the government was not going to tolerate any non-conformity by schools and their authorities, SDCs and responsible authorities, in this case the Rural District Councils (RDCs), were expected to play a crucial role in developing and promoting the ECD education programme in their schools. The school authorities felt compelled to implement the policy, because the inclusion was not well planned since no resources were in place. The timing of this decentralisation of authority to local school bodies was irrational. It was around 2006 was when Zimbabwe started struggling with economic hardships. Shortage of material

resources as well as issues relating to the lack of capacity on the part of the local authorities to function effectively in the decentralised strategy by the government appear to strongly give challenges to the possibilities for the smooth running of the ECD programme (Mugweni & Dakwa, 2013). There was not going to be any appropriate development in schools by these local authorities (RDCs) with their School Development Committees (SDCs) considering the economic background of these remote rural areas (Mugweni, 2011). The socio-economic and socio-political status of the community determined the school"s coherency to the government stipulations on this early childhood education (Myers, 2006). This created problems for the remote rural communities in terms of having to come up with adequate suitable teaching and learning materials, infrastructure that include classrooms and toilets, playground equipment, trained teachers and/or coming up with the money to hire para-professionals to teach the children (Hlupuko, Kufakunesu, Denhere, Chinyoka & Ganga, 2013).

Mugweni (2011) ricochets that, from the richness of the community and the responsible authorities (RAs) therein lays the richness of the school. According to Statutory Instrument (87 of 1992), the decentralisation of power directly implies that the socio-economic status of the community and the resource base of the Responsible Authority had a direct impact on resource availability in these ECD schools. If the responsible authority"s resource base is strong, it can fund all programmes in the school and the infrastructure will reflect that status. However, the RDCs have nothing to give to their schools and the parents are poor (Mpofu & Shumba, 2012). Most remote rural ECD schools are in low rainfall areas with high food insecurity and poor community livelihoods (Gardeva & Rhyne, 2011). It follows therefore that due to a lack of all the required resources, ECD is compelled to encounter several problems (Zvobgo, 2005; Tshabalala & Mapolisa, 2013; Hlupuko et al., 2013).

The experiences that are faced by these remote rural ECD schools in the implementation of the ECD programme cannot be left unattended. Recent researches done in this area reveal challenges faced by these schools which include inadequate, inappropriate infrastructure, untrained personnel hired to teach the children and inadequacies of teaching and learning equipment (generally the available equipment in the schools is poor) (Mugweni, 2011; Taruvinga, Mushoriwa, Hannah & Muzembe, 2011; Bukaliya & Mubika, 2012; Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013).There is no history recorded or recalled about the promotion of child maternal health , that is, immunisation, health check-ups, referral services, treatment of minor illness and even feeding programmes. These have no history in most of these remote rural

ECD schools (Mushoriwa & Muzembe, 2011). Tshabalala and Mapolisa (2013, p. 43) claim, „although it is mandatory for all primary schools to implement the ECD programme, the present writers assumed that conditions in most primary schools, particularly in rural areas, might negate the noble intentions of this policy". It is against this background that I was motivated to explore the remote rural ECD schools" responses to these challenges and the extent to which their responses address effective teaching and learning. The study would give these school leadership teams a chance to make their voices heard and speak their minds about how they respond to such challenges. They were pronouncing responses to resource demand that were unquestioned or complemented. Therefore, a new day has come for them to share their views on how they harmonise resource mobilisation and school leadership and management in order to promote effective teaching and learning by the ECD classes.

1. 3 Statement of the problem

High resource demand in the remote rural ECD schools of Zimbabwe is posing some challenges to the running of these schools. According to Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013), the inclusion of ECD into the mainstream primary schools was not timely, rational and clear since communities acknowledged that they were not prepared to shoulder the running costs for the programme. This resulted in learners being habituated in unsatisfactory infrastructure and generally the SDCs and local authorities not prepared for the ECD programme in terms of personnel and play equipment. School heads acted in accordance with policy instructions, because they felt inferior to question the policy (Pence, 2004; Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013).

Similar results were found from studies that were conducted by Zvobgo (2005), Mugweni (2011); Mushoriwa and Muzembe (2011) positing many challenges that are faced by remote rural ECD schools. When a programme is not supported by the government, it is more like a „sketch" that loads schools with problems, and it is very difficult for school heads to run schools without sufficient resources (Frederick, 2011). Integration of ECD into the mainstream primary schools in Zimbabwe, (especially the remote rural) without any commitment by the government in terms of resource apportionment, created various leadership and managerial challenges for school heads.

1. 4 Rationale and motivation for the study

This section is intended to dilate upon the rationale and motivation to the study. Three sub-sections are outlined. The first sub-section propounds my experiences as a learner; the second sub-section puts forward my experiences as the school head and lastly sub-section three elaborates on my commitment towards change and transformation in the remote rural ECD schools of Zimbabwe.

1.4.1 My personal experiences as a learner

The stories of remote rural ECD schools in the book; *Transformation Education: The Zimbabwean Experience:* written by Zvobgo in 1990; *ECD programmes in Zimbabwe:* written by Sibanda in 1996 and *ECD in Zimbabwe Ordinary Primary Schools in Gweru:* written by Nyoni in 1996 have been my source of inspiration. I was born and grew up in a remote rural area where we were totally under privileged, actually marginalised in all aspects of life, but worse of all, in our education. We suffered from intense social oppression; we were stereotyped, dehumanised and treated as inarticulate remote rural children. We went to school with empty stomachs, poorly dressed, bare footed and no school fees. We could spend weeks without going to school because of bad weather; we had inadequate classrooms, so we habituated under the trees. When the rain came, we were told to run home. Our toilets were pole and daggar constructs with very shallow pits which were dug by school children as punishment. We used to be punished for coming late to school; and generally were late on account of the great distances that we walked to school. It is eight kilometres from my home to that nearest school. Despite how early we started the journey to school, we had to be late. With the exception of the school head our teachers were not trained. So, when I read these books (mentioned above) the dormant memories become vivid in my mind. The experiences as a victim, a target of the remote rural school background where resource demand is never met, can never be erased.

1.4.2 My personal experiences as school head

My personal and professional disposition as a school head brought me to a practical understanding that remote rural ECD schools are experiencing challenges posed by resource demand. Having been in the teaching field for 27 years, I was working in this environment whereas a school head, I was really tormented by resource demand in my school. I was interested in understanding how other school heads were responding to such challenges. In

the few schools I visited, I was eager to learn how they respond to challenges of resource demand.

I am even more interested to examine the effectiveness of these remote rural schools‟ responses in addressing ECD teaching and learning in their schools. After all, this scenario of working under a challenging atmosphere has some notable influence on the school leadership and management. This study was motivated by the realisation that the ways in which the school management is influenced by the current resource demand is still unattended or unvisited. Recent research by Mugweni (2011); Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013); Mugweni and Dakwa (2013); Tshabalala and Mapolisa (2013); Hlupuko, Kufakunesu, Denhere, Chinyoka and Ganga (2013) among others, exposed the challenges that are met by ECD school heads due to the inclusion of ECD in the main primary schools. With this research, it was believed to exhume how these schools are responding to those challenges and how effective are their responses in addressing ECD teaching and learning. It was also believed that school heads were going to articulate strategies they are using to buffer challenges from resource demand in order to promote effective teaching and learning in ECD. Previous researchers stated above confirm the existence of challenges of resource demand in Zimbabwe‟s remote rural ECD schools, however there is not yet one research carried out that has revealed strategies that can be used to buffer these challenges. Hence this study intends to go further and suggest strategies that can be employed to buffer the challenges.

1.4.3 My commitment towards Change and Transformation in Zimbabwe

My interest in remote rural ECD school leadership and management is greatly influenced by my personal commitment to the transformation and improvement of education quality in these schools. These remote rural ECD, children like any other children in other parts of the country and world over, have the right to basic quality education (Zimbabwe Education Act, 1987; Pence, 2004; Young, 2008). In 1990, the government of Zimbabwe accepted that ECD education is an integral part of the formal education system and it was declared a basic human right (Myers, 2006). The school heads are also bound to a job description similar to any other heads in other parts of the country with rich resource bases, all things being equal, to effectively promote the running of the school. However, the scenario in remote rural ECD schools leaves a lot to be desired; heads are busy fighting the challenges of resource demand.

This paints a clear picture that there are responses from these schools that are not given a chance to manifest.

1.5 Critical research questions

In pursuit of the issues raised above, the study revolved around the following questions:

1. How do remote rural ECD schools respond to resource demand in Zimbabwe?

2. To what extent are remote rural ECD schools" responses effective in addressing ECD teaching and learning?

3. How does the existing resource demand influence the remote rural ECD school management?

1. 6 Significance of the study

This section revolves around the target audience who will benefit from the research.

1.6.1 School heads, deputy heads and TICs

The findings of this study will be useful for school heads in Zimbabwe and African countries on the continent, particularly in terms of challenges encountered by schools posed by demand for resource in this new ECD programme. The research will provide schools with the platform to cross-examine their own management skills in as far as promoting effective teaching and learning in the ECD with such a demand on resources.

The participants (school heads, deputy heads and TICs) will grow professionally through the experience and practical involvement they will have from this research and will gain some insights into different perspectives through their engagement with the data production process. The core function of this study is to promote effective and efficient remote rural ECD schools management despite the pressure they face by the demand for resources. The study aims to make life easy and bring hope for the remote rural ECD schools leadership as well as promoting quality service delivery to the ECD children.

1.6.2 District Education Officers (DEOs), Education Inspectors (EIs) and District ECD trainers

It is hoped that the views and recommendations put forward will help supervisors like the District Education Officers, Education Inspectors and district ECD trainers to better understand the programme and be in a position to assist and direct school heads, deputy heads, TICs and teachers as they carry out their duties with the ECD children. The District Education Officers will also gain from this research since their supervision will be made easy by the recommendations from this research. They will have exposure on how remote rural ECD schools are responding to resource demand in their districts. These District Education Officers (DEOs) will have insight to plan human resources development workshops with such schools to share ideas from this study. The study will give the District Education Officers (DEOs) a wider spectrum of understanding on the situation in remote rural ECD schools that will help them to proportionately deploy trained teachers and distribute resources whenever the district receives a portion of resources from the donor business communities.

1.6.3 Educational planners and policy makers

Educational planners of Zimbabwe and world over are going to benefit from this research as Government initiatives should always be backed by the government subsidises. These educational planners and the policy formulators will realise the importance of consulting all stakeholders in matters that will demand stakeholder input before endorsing policies for implementation.

1.6.4 Local authorities

It is believed that the study would submit possible suggestions to help the implementation of the ECD programme through changing the attitudes of all the key stakeholders within and outside the school system. The study will enhance speculative lenses for all relevant stakeholders especially the Responsible Authorities (RAs), SDCs and various communities regarding the issue of resource mobilisation in ECD schools. Resource mobilisation is critically a mandated function of the SDCs (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992). This will help all stakeholders to work as a system in order to timeously and meticulously furnish their ECD schools with required resources in order to make management of schools easier for school heads.

1.7 Definition of key terms

Before getting into details of this write-up, it is important that the key terms that are in the study are clearly defined. Attention is focused on the title of this study, as this helps to clarify details for the use of these words, „early childhood development‟, „school development committee‟, „school head‟, „para-professionals‟, „resource demand‟, „Teacher-in-Charge,‟ „remote rural school‟ and „resources‟.

1.7.1 Early childhood development (ECD)

Early Childhood Development is a programme that endeavours to consciously promote the 0-5 year olds‟ development and education (Bukaliya & Mubika, 2012). This refers to the formal teaching of young children 3-5 year olds by teachers in the primary school. This ECD is not a separate entity in the school but it is integrated into the main stream primary school, under one line of supervision; the school head, deputy head and the Teachers-In-Charge (which I refer to as TIC throughout this thesis). ECD forms the bridge that connects the 3-5 year olds‟ learning processes with the care and facilities delivered by the schools to support child development (Tshabalala & Mapolisa, 2013). Therefore, ECD as defined in this thesis includes education, early socialisation, setting up of adequate nutrition, provision of basic health care and also the nurturing and stimulation of these children (3-5 year olds) within established main primary schools.

1.7.2 School Development Committee (SDC)

School Development Committee (referred to as SDC in this thesis) is comprised of five parents/guardians chosen by fellow parents/guardians of children enrolled at the school (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992). This is done at an Annual General Meeting (AGM) which is usually held at the beginning of the year which is held again after a year making one year as their „term of office‟. The school head, the deputy head and one senior teacher are ex-officio members who are in the committee by the strength of their positions in the school. Where the Responsible Authority (RA) of the school is a local authority, a councillor appointed by the Minister of Local Government and Public Works for that Ward, stands as a committee member and for any other relevant authority or body, a person is appointed by that authority or body (Education Act, 1996b; Chikoko, 2006). Hence, this SDC comprises of nine members.

This SDC is assigned to provide assistance in the operation and development of the school. It is mandated to collect fees and levies from parents and mobilise resources for the school (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992; Statutory Instrument, 106 of 2005). The SDC advances the moral, cultural and physical welfare of the children and teachers. This team links the school and the community, thereby supporting the welfare of the school for the benefit of the school community, present and future (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992). Therefore, according to this thesis the SDC is the corporate body, which ensures that the parents and the communities contribute to the progress of ECD education at the local level.

1.7.3 School Head

Research documents the school head as the school operations officer, who sets the standards for the school including high performance expectations for teachers and children through goals and vision articulation, developing communication networks, resource procurement, and developing organisational facilities to support teaching and learning (Leithwood, Strauss & Anderson, 2007; Spillane, Camburn & Pareja, 2007; Wallace Foundation, 2007). The school head is the head teacher (Berns, 2007). The school head is mandated with two different responsibilities: leadership and administrative roles. Therefore, in this research the term school head refers to the one who is in charge the school, performing both administrative and leadership roles.

1.7.4 Para-professionals

Para-professionals are individuals who work under the direction of licensed teachers (Foote & Rinaldo, 2010). In the Zimbabwean scenario; para-professionals work under the direct supervision of the Teacher-in-Charge (infant department) to enhance the participation of ECD learners in the school. The ministry of education requires all para-professionals working in ECD schools to have completed ordinary level with at least two subjects or better (Statutory Instrument, 106 of 2005). This qualification is equivalent to completion of four years of lower secondary school, or the core curriculum equivalent to Grades 10 and 11. So these para-professionals" qualifications may vary from one school to the other. In addition to the Ministry of Education"s hiring guidelines, each school has its own policies and procedures such as hiring local candidates who need no accommodation at school, allowance

packages, job description involving class-size and working hours. In this context, these para-professionals are those teachers who are hired to teach the ECD children in the primary schools.

1.7.5 Teacher-in-Charge (TIC)

In this study Teacher-In-Charge refers to the baseline supervisor in the department of infants in a primary school. The infant department branches from ECD to Grade Three. TIC for this infant department oversees the ECD classes in a school. S/he attends to all supervisory duties like teaching and learning, staff development, resource requisition, needs identification, and making reports to the school head for attention.

1.7.6 Resource demand

Oxford student dictionary (2010, p. 987) defines it as, ‚a very firm request for learning materials". This relates to the number of students who wish to use the learning materials. These resources may range from human, instructional, financial, infrastructural, health and primary care facilities. In this study resource demand refers to the need of trained teachers, adequate and suitable learning materials, infrastructure, finance, health and nutritional facilities by the ECD children.

1.7.7 Remote rural school

The remote rural school is that school which is located outside the cities/towns, farms or resettlement areas which are characterised by slower pace of life in the country (discussed in detail in Chapter Two). Remote rural schools are identified by numerous aspects that adversely impact the provision of quality education (Zvobgo, 2005).

1.7.8 Resources

It is a source or supply from which benefit is produced (The Students Dictionary, 2009). According to this study these resources are categorised into five groups. These categories are teaching and learning materials, human, financial, infrastructural and primary health care facilities. These are the resources that are crucially in demand in the study. Each of these resources is explicitly elaborated below.

Teaching and learning materials refer to a variety of educational materials that teachers and children use in the classroom or outside during teaching and learning processes. These can be things like play and audio-visual materials, stationery, toys, models, consumables like paints, or/and other teaching and learning media.

Human resources are the skilled personnel that provide instruction and health services to the children. These can be the teachers and „food handlers" at the school, nurses from hospitals or clinics providing primary health care to the ECD children.

Financial resources are revenue from whatever source collected by the SDC for running the school. It can mean money donated to the school by NGOs, UNICEF, and other stakeholders or paid in by the parents as fees and levies. For the benefit of this study whatever money receipted in the school or entered into the SDC bank account from all possible revenue sources is referred to as financial resource. However, this study is primarily interested in the money channelled for the benefit of the ECD teachers and children.

Infrastructural resources are those constructions that shelter and/or render service to the learners during the time they spend at school. These apply to structures like classrooms, ablution blocks, rest-rooms, clinics, eating sheds, outdoor play equipment and furniture.

Nutrition, health and safety resources are all primary health care facilities and feeding provided to the children during their time at school. These include presence of functional clean water in child-sized toilets and child-sized wash basins on the school premises for the children, food, medical drugs and other hygiene consumables. It is expected to be hygienic, ventilated, have safe structures and stimulating materials and provide sufficient space for children to play.

1.8 Assumptions, limitations, and scope (delimitations) of the study

It was assumed that the District Education Officers (DEOs) from both Chiredzi and Zaka would allow the school heads to give the researcher all required documents for review. It was assumed that remote rural ECD school heads, deputy heads and TICs were qualified and experienced professionals who could truthfully and accurately answer the interview questions based on their personal and professional experiences. It was also assumed that the remote rural ECD school heads, deputy heads and TICs would respond honestly and to the best of

their individual abilities. Eight remote rural ECD schools were purposefully sampled; four from each district Chiredzi and Zaka. From these eight schools three participants from each school were sampled. These were the school heads, deputy heads and TICs. Hence a total of twenty-four participants were interviewed. There was going to be documentary review of the EMIS documents (to be explained in detail in Chapter Four) completed by the school heads in 2013. I reviewed the 2013 EMIS documents only because it was their first year to complete data for ECD.

The data was limited in that the researcher had only chosen eight schools in nearby districts based on the rural context of the ECD schools but which might not be representative enough of all remote rural ECD schools in Zimbabwe and world over. The findings might only apply to rural schools and not urban contexts since rural and urban contexts are generally different in most respects in Zimbabwean schools. At the same time these findings might apply to remote rural ECD schools in Zimbabwe and Sub-Saharan Africa and not in the western countries and other developed countries. These schools were selected because of their convenience and accessibility since the researcher was a resident school head in the Chiredzi district which is a neighbouring district to Zaka. The researcher also considered the willingness of the District Education Officers, school heads, deputy heads and TICs to support the research. However, the schools were not equal in terms of resources that were based on their economic backgrounds. They had the same Responsible Authorities (RAs), the Rural District Councils (RDCs) but were operating under different SDCs compositions and the individual parents. These schools fall under different political party leadership, specifically the Councillors who were committee members in the SDCs by the strength of being an employee of the Rural District Council (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992). School heads were also different with regards to experience and cultural and professional backgrounds. These heads also varied in terms of accuracy and truthfulness in terms of data supply.

1.9 Structure of the thesis

This study was logically structured so that the researcher could examine the remote rural ECD schools" responses to challenges of resource demand in Zimbabwe. The report consists of seven chapters which serve the following purposes:

Chapter One was the introductory write-up that outlines the starting point to this study. Key terms relevant to this study were illuminated, the background fully exposed, the problem statement, the rationale and motivation well clarified, the significance of the study given in detail and the research objectives and research questions presented. This was followed by the general structure of the thesis.

Chapter Two reviews related literature on current debates about the topic. It focuses on key themes that are grounded by the research questions. The chapter folds with implications of these issues for the study.

Chapter Three presents and discusses the conceptual and theoretical frameworks that underpinned the study. Finally, since this research study examined the responses of remote rural ECD schools to challenges of resource demand, a discussion is given on how these theories could be inviting enough to allow stakeholders to play crucial roles in the transformation of these schools.

Chapter Four provides an account of the research design and methodology adopted. It gives a full justification of this design, the sample, sampling procedures and the justification for such sampling procedures. This chapter describes data elicitation and the analysis procedures. It presents the justification of these methods. This chapter elaborates on the ethical considerations which were accounted for during the data elicitation process.

Chapter Five revolves around presentation and discussion of data elicited through the use of semi-structured interviews and documentary reviews. This chapter is guided by the critical research questions that inform the common interview questions administered to the interviewees. Key issues that emerged from the semi-structured interviews, documentary review, literature review, and theoretical frameworks are discussed. The chapter ends with a section on issues emerging from the discussion of findings.

Chapter Six identifies, discusses and analyses the emerging patterns. The chapter deals with within-case and cross-case (external comparison) analysis providing clear comparison of commonalities and differences in the participants, schools and districts under study.

Chapter Seven focuses on answering the critical research questions as well as the illustration of the proposed models for effective ECD transformation and teacher development. The Chapter also focuses on recommendations to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education; primary school heads and also provides a list of recommendations for future research. Lastly, conclusions of the study are given.

1.10 Conclusion

This chapter provided detailed background information to this study. A detailed explanation of the problem statement, significance, rationale and motivation was described clearly and research objectives and questions were suitably set. A summary of the general structure of the thesis was given. The next chapter provides the literature review of this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LANDSCAPING ECD DISCOURSE LOCALLY AND INTERNATIONALLY

2.1 Introduction

Reviewing literature is necessary and important in academic research since it exhumes the past to produce new knowledge that is used to teach others (Hofstee, 2006). This chapter aims to review the old and give clarity on the term rurality, in possibly the Western versus the African contexts. It also gives the Zimbabwean ECD policy stipulations, as influenced by international developmental frameworks. The chapter further reviews determinant factors that promote the provision of quality ECD education. By benchmarking the standards world over, it gives light on how these determinant factors influence the provision of quality ECD education. Further review is given on the tendencies of resource supply by different countries in Africa and the world to their remote rural ECD schools. The chapter also reviews the resource mobilisation strategies by remote rural ECD school heads to give a clear picture of how nationally and internationally these remote rural ECD school heads mobilise for resources in their schools. The chapter is not justified if it concludes without examining the common challenges faced by these remote rural ECD school heads in balancing school management and resource mobilisation for effective teaching and learning in ECD classes.

2.2 Conceptualising rurality in the Zimbabwean context

Coming up with a uniform definition of the term „rurality" that all countries can agree on, and which could be applied to any situation, has proved difficult. Rurality can have, among other dimensions, identified with community cohesion and governance (Ellis, Devereux & White, 2009; Madu, 2010). According to the Zimbabwean meaning of rurality, it is based on areas where these people are community-based (Makahamadze & Tavuyanago, 2013). Makahamadze and Tavuyanago further explain rurality saying that, rural people are grouped in small communalities under the village headman the „Sabhuku". A cluster of these villages fall under one chieftaincy „uMambo" „Ushe" under a chief „Mambo" „Ishe". The term „chief" „Ishe" „Vashe" in Shona and „Induna" in Ndebele, refers to an individual who, by virtue of ancestry, occupies a clearly defined leadership position in an area (Makahamadze & Tavuyanago, 2013). Traditionally, the chiefs are expected to administer justice and democracy in their areas of jurisdiction (Ellis, et al., 2009; Madu, 2010). However, World Bank (2011a) consent the use of the term „rural" varying from country to country, and rurality

can be of diverse types such as rural/urban fringe, peri-urban, accessible rural or the remote rural. The term "remote" means out of the way, or located far from the main centres of population and society (IFAD, 2010; World Bank, 2011). This is further elaborated by figure 2.1 below:
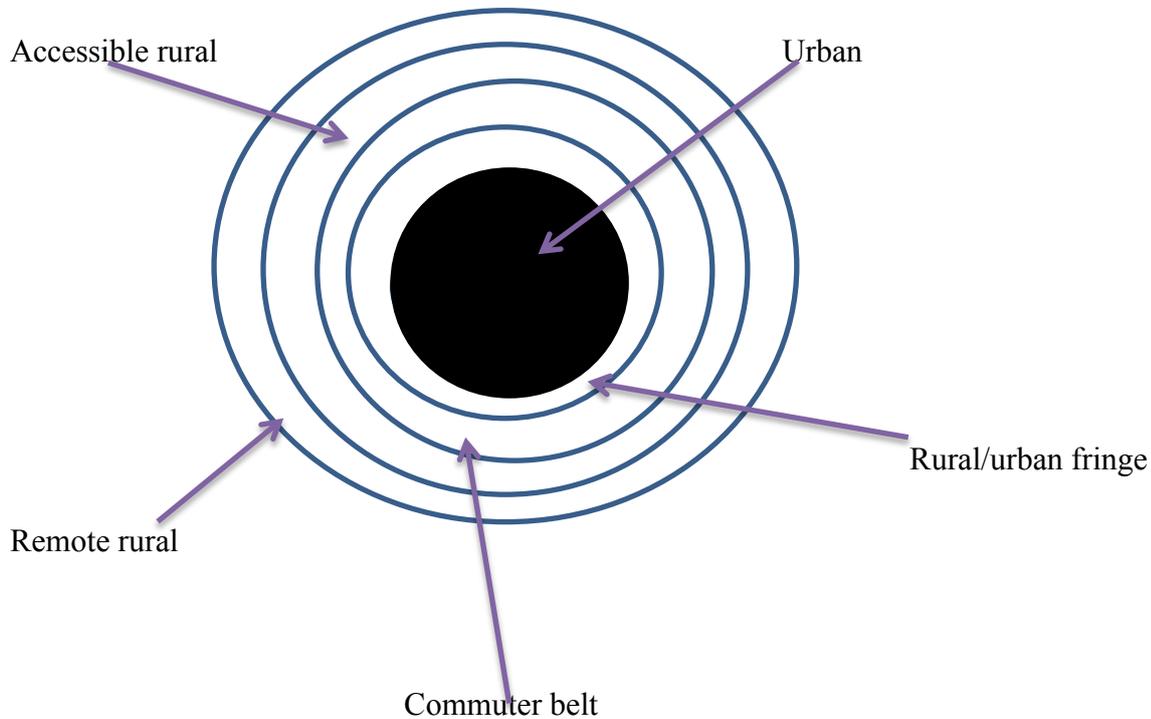
[**Source: World Bank, (2011a).**]

Figure: 2. 1 Settlement areas in the country life

This figure gives the full picture of the settlement/areas in the country life. There is the urban area which is central. It stretches to the rural or urban fringe which is usually called the urban fringe area. People in the urban fringe area are almost city dwellers. They enjoy most of the city facilities like easy transport, banks, electricity just to mention a few. As distance increases from the urban fringe we move into the commuter belt. The urban facilities that are enjoyed by the people are reduced though it is not very far from the urban area. From this region outwards we reach the accessible rural. People in the accessible rural areas can have transport to go to the city. Going to the city is rather expensive because of the long distance. Urban facilities are scarce in the accessible rural areas, and probably the approach area to the remote rural areas.

This study is interested in the remote rural areas of the country settlement. This has low population densities, an abundance of land, poverty and environment which barter the self-sufficiency from peasant farming (Ellis, et al., 2009; Madu, 2010). Makahamadze and Tavuyanago (2013) opine that usually remote rural areas are neglected and their inhabitants remain poorer, invisible, and marginalised, and excluded from decision-making processes. Poverty and political weakness of remote rural populations are cited as main causes of rural neglect (UNESCO, 2010). The following is an INRULED report given by UNESCO in 2010:

> *… governance in developing countries bypass the politically voiceless --- those who suffer multiple deprivations on account of their income, ethnicity, gender, religion and because they live in rural areas … The poor in general and religious, deprivation from essential public services including education ----. The facts clearly are that the social sectors, especially the priority items of human development and education for the politically inarticulate and invisible rural poor, have been crowded out from government budgets by such items as heavy military expenditures, keeping afloat loss-making public enterprises in urban areas, subsidies that do not often reach the poor and external and internal debt-servicing* **(UNESCO, 2010, p. 26).**

This shows that basically, these remote rural people do have aspirations but because they have been socially, politically and economically marginalised, they find no space in contributing to the country"s development programmes. The lifestyle of remote rural people varies greatly from country to country depending on the economic support given to the people by the government (Ellis, et al., 2009; World Bank, 2011a). The government of Zimbabwe has neglected the remote rural dwellers. It is only towards elections that you see the government coming down to the remote rural areas to seek for support (Makahamadze & Tavuyanago, 2013). My living experience is that during election time politicians come via the chiefs to campaign for their parties in the remote rural areas. They take advantage because these areas are poverty stricken. They also take advantage of the chiefs, since traditional leaders are (COPAC, 2013) part of the government"s structure. These chiefs are considered civil servants by virtue of being local leaders and are entitled to hefty remuneration (Makahamadze & Tavuyanago, 2013). The chiefs benefited in the form of the beautiful houses constructed for them by the government. The government committed itself to electrify the chiefs" homes and installed piped-water. So they are on the government payroll and they

are given government vehicles for mobility. When the government comes down to speak to these rural people, it speaks through the chiefs.

Ellis et al. (2009), Makahamadze and Tavuyanago (2013) acknowledge that most of these remote rural areas are underprivileged and lack the basic economic infrastructures. Actually, there is limited access to amenities like electricity, banks, Post Offices, leisure services, super-markets, flea markets and internet shops. There are either no roads or only gravel roads, so travelling is very difficult especially after heavy rains. Most small rivers and streams in these areas have no bridges. Even school children do not go to school during the rainy season. This is the case in the Save-Sangwe areas in Chiredzi district and the Bvukururu and Muroyi areas in Zaka district (areas under study).

In these areas, there is little or no government intervention but only a few non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and donors who support developmental programmes by helping with the provision of the access to education, health and water (UNICEF, 2006). i.e.: most developmental programmes are initiated by these NGOs. Many schools are getting humanitarian assistance from these NGOs, especially the Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) (UNESCO, 2010). From a living experience, remote rural people of Zimbabwe are in except for the help given by these NGOs. They live in a „dark world", isolated and neglected. Poverty has deepened (IFAD, 2010) because of lack of government support and the economic instability in the country. The quality of their existence is worsening year after year due to this economic melt-down in the country. Chiredzi and Zaka districts are also very hot and receive very little and/or erratic rainfall; as a result subsistence farming, as their source of livelihood, is not very productive. Usually they suffer from hunger due to poor soil and drought (Siwale, 2012).

2.2.1 Western versus African rurality

Siwale (2012) opines that, in Britain, as in many other industrialised countries, the media has played a major role in constructing idyllic pictures of the countryside or rural areas in contrast to those in Africa. Ellis et al. (2009) and Woods (2010) posit that in Africa, representations of remote rural areas are generally negative rather than positive. Therefore, Western rural life is the opposite of African, the latter leading poor life styles while most Western countries are developed, unlike countries in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Rural areas in Western countries are often perceived to be places where people can walk, ride, and cycle, sight-see, or simply escape urban stress in search of a slice of tranquillity (Siwale, 2012).Western rural areas offer opportunities for living a lifestyle that is socially cohesive, happy and healthy, and presenting a pace and quality of life that differs from that in the city (World Bank, 2011a; Siwale, 2012). This elucidates that in the Western countries rural areas are peaceful or restful places, which most people escape from cities in a hunt for that „solitude‟ lifestyle. Scott, Gilbert and Gelan (2007) support this by saying that, „commercialised rural‟, is usually portrayed as idyllic, with an air of luxurious aimed at the very wealthy and foreign tourists that can afford safari holidays and enjoy the natural beauty of natural parks. Siwale (2012) confirms that, it is a place attractive for raising children as it radiates the impression of innocence. This presents that, in Western rural, the lifestyle expose children to a danger-free environment, a child friendly atmosphere. Children can only learn from their parents and siblings without outside influences from other people. It is a matter of having families enjoying their living independently, unlike in cities, where children can easily get bad influences from other people.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, the rural is often seen as a place that is lifeless, rigid in expectations of attitudes and behaviour, and unchanging, while cities embody and instil new cultural values (Scott, et al., 2007; Ellis, et al., 2009). Remote rural inhabitants are seen as socially isolated, trapped in old-fashioned assumptions, dangerous beliefs and practices such as witchcraft and unwilling to adapt to the fast-moving life of cities and modernisation (Rye, 2006). This simply means that villages in Sub-Saharan Africa are almost equated to mere ignorance. These remote rural African people are seen as passive citizens who have no say in their tomorrow. They are socially, politically and economically isolated and divorced from active participation and knowledge that is crucial for their progression.

I therefore conclude that there is little pleasant life to be imagined in African remote rural areas. Most African people do not aspire to live in these areas, and rarely consider the areas as places for relaxing. It is only the prospect of labour in contrast to the Western remote rural areas which are considered as places for leisure and recreation. Therefore, I acknowledge that there are differences between life as experienced by children and adults in rural African countries compared to life experienced in rural Western countries. The main reason seems to

be that African countries are still developing so they have other primacies that attract government attention and wealth.

2.3 The education policy framework in Zimbabwe

Education in Zimbabwe is structured around and informed by various international and national policies, including educational policies. Though education policies differ from one country to another, all are influenced in one way or the other by international conventions made by heads of states in conferences. This section outlines the Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992, the Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) of 1999, the Statutory Instrument 12 of 2005 and the international human rights policies and developmental goals that guide countries in formulating educational policies for ECD.

2.3.1 Zimbabwean Policy stipulations on ECD

As discussed in Chapter One, amongst other issues, this study is guided by the principle of the following legislative documents: Zimbabwe Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992, Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) (1999) and the statutory instrument 12 of 2005. This was just a means through which the Zimbabwean government, like any other country in Africa and the world over, wishes to promote ECD education in all its primary schools. Hence, this section is dedicated to highlighting the specifications that are directly linked to ECD in these statutory documents.

2.3.1.1 Statutory Instrument (87 of 1992)

The Education Act, 2006 (Chapter 25: 4) requires that every registered school be governed by an SDC which is elected by the parents/guardians of the school. This committee is responsible for ensuring that the school is adequately staffed with qualified teachers (through the ministry of education), and support staff and also to ensure that the school is well equipped with teaching materials and other assets needed to provide quality education for the children attending in the school (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992). Thus, Zimbabwe adopted a decentralised system of school governance; the powers previously assigned in the higher levels of the education system were now to flow down to school level (Chikoko, 2006). This shift manifested itself through Statutory Instrument (87 of 1992), the legal tool that government mandated the SDCs to govern the affairs of non-government schools.

This study was conducted among SDC-governed schools; the discussion throughout this thesis centres on non-governmental schools. Given the fact that ECD classes are forming an integral part of the primary school system, SDCs are expected to establish and run ECD schools in conjunction with the primary schools. This means that the SDCs are expected to play a crucial role in developing and promoting the ECD programme in their schools, thus mandated to run the ECD programme.

2.3.1.2 Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) 1999
Early childhood used to cater mainly for white children before independence, and soon after independence the government of Zimbabwe did not change anything in this regard till the 1990s. Many children did not have access to early childhood education, since private pre-school fees were so overpriced that most parents could not manage to pay for their children (Dyanda, Makoni & Mudukuti, 2006). In the light of this background, only the rich could send their 4-5 year olds to privately owned pre-schools.

In 1999 the President of Zimbabwe, Mr Robert G. Mugabe set the Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) (Nziramasanga, 1999). The Commission was mandated to identify specific areas in the education system requiring reform, of which ECD was one crucial areas which needed quick attention (Van der Gaag, 2012). Through extensive consultations with various stakeholders into the status of ECD in Zimbabwe, the Commission intended to democratise pre-school education, calling for strategies to ensure better access to ECD education by all. Thus, the Commission recommended that every child should have access to ECD for at least one year prior to Grade One. This shifted the responsibility for running pre-school from privately owned institutions to the ministry of education, sport, arts and culture. This led to a formally regulated programme intended to meet international standards (UNESCO, 2005). This informed the genesis of ECD integration into the primary schools in 2006, as a result executing much inclusivity to ECD education for the rich/poor, urban/rural. This resulted in a nine-year inclusive basic education programme that is accessible to all (Morrison, 2008). Hence, from these recommendations, the ministry of education, sport, arts and culture derived the intentions of the ECD policy which are explained below.

2.3.1.3 Statutory Instrument (12 of 2005)

The concept of ECD-A and ECD-B classes was necessitated by the need to avail pre-school education to all children in Zimbabwe as recommended by the 1999 Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (as discussed above). Taking up these recommendations the ministry of education issued a Statutory Instrument (12 of 2005), which intended to provide guidelines on the integration of ECD classes to existing primary schools. In this respect, this instrument (12 of 2005) directed all primary schools to attach ECD-A (3-4 year olds) and ECD-B (4-5 year olds) classes in public primary schools starting in 2006. The 4-5 year olds are the group of children to proceed to grade one the following year and the 3-4 year olds constitute the ECD-A class proceeding to B class the following year.

In respect of this circular, the SDCs are expected to play a crucial role in developing and promoting the ECD programme at their schools as per Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 stipulated above. SDCs are to decide on fees and levies, construct and furnish ECD classrooms, and to run the ECD programmes in their schools. The SDCs are expected to construct age appropriate toilets for these children, ensure playground equipment (outdoor play centres) are made from smooth logs (matanda) and to provide furniture or mats for children to sit on (Statutory Instrument, 12 of 2005).

In a professional perspective, the District Education Officers (DEOs), district ECD trainers and the school heads are expected to provide essential professional advice on how to best deliver ECD services in all primary schools (Statutory Instrument, 12 of 2005). These officials are informed by this instrument to guard against formal teaching, but children are expected to learn through play-way methods, thus signifying the importance of play centres (Statutory Instrument, 12 of 2005; Alexander, 2008; MoWCA Bangladesh, 2010; Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013). In its preamble the policy circular clarifies, „children are also expected to develop a sense of self-worth, identity and enthusiasm…benefiting from the head start provided before formal learning" (Statutory Instrument, 12 of 2005, p. 1). This has to do with the involvement of learners in what they learn; child-centred learning that accommodates children's interests (Alexander, 2008; Bush, 2010; Haigh, 2011; Steyn, 2014). This propounds that ECD-A and ECD-B classes must be exposed to play-way learning methods offering them wide ranges of child and teacher-initiated experiences that help them to become their best physically, socially, intellectually, emotionally and health.

On health, safety and nutrition the statutory instrument (12 of 2005) stipulates that primary schools should provide quality programmes aimed at ensuring that children grow up healthy, well-nourished and protected from harm. These classes are expected to operate on a teacher to pupil ratio of 1:20. Such classes are supposed to be manned by appropriately qualified teachers as they graduate from teachers‟ colleges and universities. Though the statutory instrument is not clear on who should employ para-professionals, it stipulates the engagement of para-professionals to teach the ECD children; meanwhile schools wait for ECD trained teachers from teachers‟ colleges and universities. Only those teachers with relevant ECD qualifications from colleges and universities of education are paid by the government on a full teacher salary scale. Therefore, para-professionals are to be employed by the SDCs. Although the 1996a education act has a provision for grants to basic education, this statutory instrument (12 of 2005) does not warrant any grant provision to ECD children by the government. It is clear that whilst the government had good intentions to bring about change and transformation in ECD it has been unplanned, untimely and the support provided was not practical in its approach (Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013).

2.3.2 The International Policy Context

According to Pence (2004) and Young (2008), heads of states believed in human development as a result of poverty reduction, hence they committed themselves to promote the rights of the children. Therefore, the government adopted the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC), World Declaration on Education for All (EFA), Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRS), the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Child Friendly School Policy among others (Pence, 2004; Vargas-Baron, 2005; Aidoo, 2006; Young, 2008). All countries the world over are fighting to fully satisfy the rights of the young children which were rightly inclusive at the World Conference on Education For All (EFA) in Thailand in 1990 (World Bank, 2011b; Aidoo, 2006). According to UNESCO‟s EFA Global Monitoring Report (2006), there was an argument among the heads of states that, the EFA and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) cannot be achieved without significant investment in children‟s well-being.

The heads of states of the 54 countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa believe that the continent‟s future rests in the well-being of the children (Aidoo, 2006). In this conference, countries committed themselves to provide their citizens with basic education as a fundamental human right and in particular, to promote early learning (Aidoo, 2006). They believe that investing in children has a direct correlation with the country‟s future which is peaceful, secured, stable and democratically geared for sustainable development (ADEA, 2006; Aidoo, 2006). This propounds that Africa‟s development originates from these young children, thus ECD is the integral point for economic, social, skilled manpower and progress (ADEA, 2006). Thus the vision of Africa‟s economic transformation is impinged in the investment directed to children‟s education in the continent (Aidoo, 2006). Hence, their educational policies form an integral part of their efforts for child development in an attempt to realise their rights.

Although all countries agreed to be duty bearers in investing in early learning in their countries, it was proven through many researches that in most African countries ECD programmes are funded by parents or sponsored by local and international organisations (UNICEF, 2005; UNESCO, 2005; Zimbabwe Statutory Instrument, 12 of 2005; Myers, 2006; Aidoo, 2006; Kabiru & Njenga, 2009; Rose, 2010). All the aforementioned conventions made by the heads of states have one thing in common; they agreed to promote children‟s rights and the encouragement for partnerships between the school and the communities (UNICEF, 2005; Kaburi & Njenga, 2009). The international policy on child-friendly school, aims to establish harmonious collaborative partnerships between the school and the parents (UNICEF, 2009; Rose, 2010). UNICEF (2005) further illustrates those parents, local and international donors, business communities and local traditional leaders must be in the position to take part in management and funding of ECD education to support SDCs in their endeavour to create child-friendly schools. This promotion of community engagement in school business has a direct bearing on children‟s rights and welfare. Kabiru and Njenga (2009) in support says that, ECD as a new phenomenon requires collaboratives among various stakeholders like the parents, local communities, traditional leaders, government departments, churches, local and international donor communities to realise children‟s needs and meet their critical needs.

Most African countries have already put in place health programmes to care for newly born and young children from maternal diseases, and provide early primary health care

(immunisation against killer diseases) as a means to the goals of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (Aidoo, 2006; UNICEF, 2010). Most of these African countries are effecting the policy of Integrated Management of Childhood Illnesses (IMCI) which was developed by the World Health Organisation (WHO), UNICEF and UNDP in the 1990s (UNESCO, 2006; Aidoo, 2006). With the same information UNICEF (2006) and Aidoo (2006) confirm that several countries have adopted yet another strategy known as the Accelerated Child Survival and Development (ACSD) focused on administering new vaccines to children against diseases, such as vitamin A supplementation: (an immunisation against) yellow fever and Hepatitis B, diarrhoea, home-based treatment of fever, malaria, and maternal and neonatal health. It is noted that in most of these countries, positive results are being realised with improved immunisation analysis. They also put efforts in training health personnel as means to network and promote good health practices in schools, families and communities (WHO, 2003; UNICEF EAPRO, 2005). Though other African countries the continent over are promoting good healthcare practices especially at school level, the Zimbabwean policy directives are set but no practical support is given in this regard (Statutory Instrument, 12 of 2005; Elmore, 2006; Mugweni & Dakwa, 2013). To that end, countries internationally developed ECD policies that are guided by key commitments made by heads of states.

In summary, ECD policies are focused to give every child the best life foundation, which is reinforced by comprehensive and holistic teaching and learning methods that promote a total well-being and development of the child: intellectually, emotional, physical, socially and health. Aidoo (2006) affirms that ECD programmes are best incorporated with respect to child encouragement and stimulation, health and nutrition, social and intellectual development, education, water, sanitation and hygiene, protection from all sorts of abuse and violence. However, I must argue that Zimbabwe has developed such policies, but ECD is practically divorced from most of the above mentioned interventions to promote a total well-being and child development. These interventions can only be effective with the government taking full responsibility. Zimbabwe relegated ECD programmes to communities whose contribution is limited (Mugweni, 2011). This is disputed by Kyoung (2012) who affirms that the Convention on the Rights of the Child emphasise the need for schools to listen to ECD children and meet their needs. The following section gives an episode of the inputs that form a child-centred learning environment.

2.4 Determinant factors or inputs for quality education provision

There are several theoretical contexts and debates on the explanations of quality education established over the years, derived from different theoretical positions, articulated by different parties and entities and from various perspectives. The notion is that quality is elusive and subjective. Its definition is controversial since there is no one absolute meaning to the term. In this study, quality is considered as the relevance to the needs of the recipients in the locality, suitability to local, social and economic conditions, special regards for the under-privileged and inarticulate majority and education provision which support adaptability to the environment by children (Vennam, Komanduri, Cooper, Crivello & Woodhead, 2009). Laine, Behrstock-Sherratt & Lasagna (2011) and Smith (2010) ricochet that the quality of education refers to fitness for a purpose; defined by the customers of the service and the providers in a given context, time and space. The European Commission Childcare Network quality assurance framework highlights that the quality of education should be explained from children, families and professionals" perspectives (Tikly, 2010).

The above three dispositions state that; quality education should satisfy the demands of the learners and the society at large and understandably those of the educators too. Quality education satisfies societal needs and quenches the child"s thirst for education. Education as an investment should meet the anticipated private and societal benefits or returns. Education should help to develop the children in the following areas: physical, social, mental, moral and health. If education is not meeting the needs of the learners, parents and society, it is possible that parents/ guardians may well withdraw or refrain from sending them to school. Parents cannot definitely find it unnecessary to compel their children to undergo a process that does not satisfy their needs and that of the society (Smith, 2010).

Researchers and writers such as Kyoung (2012), Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013), Udommana (2012), Wood (2013), Alexander (2008) and Bergen et al. (2009) among others identified a number of inputs necessary for the provision of this quality ECD education. The Asia-Pacific Regional Network for Early Childhood (ARNEC) (2012) identifies several of these inputs. The first one is the pedagogies and the curriculum. It is believed that the content and the methods of teaching bring justice to education. Secondly, teacher training and status determine the quality of education that is given to the ECD children. Tao, Scott and Zhang (2010) affirm that the quality of work as performed by the teacher cannot be exceeded by the

quality of education provided. The knowledge of the teacher in the content he/she teaches contributes to the quality of education. Thirdly, the physical environment; that is the child-friendliness of the general environment in which the child receives the education has some effect on how the concepts are acquired by the children. This physical environment encompasses things like infrastructure, teaching/learning materials, health, nutrition and safety facilities. Fourthly, class size has a direct impact on how children get chances of direct interaction with the teacher.

The last among the few selected inputs is the parental and community involvement. There is need for a resilient relationship between the school and the community especially the legitimate parents of the children for promoting quality education for ECD children. The school leadership creates an environment that motivates both the teacher and the learner to play their roles effectively. School leadership and its philosophy inform the climate of the learning environment for quality education provision. Supporting inputs are crucial determinants in teaching and learning, and arguably quality work is a result of the system that produces it. Ensuring prevalence of these factors increases the prospects of quality education provision. So quality relies on the above listed factors that are going to be discussed in the next section. The factors work together to lead to quality. Treating separately makes the process of teaching and learning incomplete, culminating in difficulties to achieve quality.

2.4.1 Pedagogical approaches versus the curriculum

According to Bergen, Reid and Torelli (2009), curriculum and its pedagogies usually depict quality of an education system. Provision of quality education is hinged by the processes of teaching and learning in the school (Udommana, 2012). These entail that, curriculum content and pedagogies are two intertwined dimensions that bring about quality education provision in ECD. These two dimensions can promote or demote development of individual capabilities in the classroom. The content and the methods of teaching should communicate to allow child development (Wood, 2013).

ARNEC (2012) and Bergen et al. (2009) identify some features in the ECD curriculum which are activity-based, child-centred, age-appropriate, culturally based and flexible to fully develop the child. This concurs with Wood (2013) predetermining a well-designed and holistic programmes that include play-way methods, art related methods that help the child to

develop intellectually, emotionally, socially, healthily, physically and culturally. In the same essence Wood (2013) and Bergen et al. (2009) highlight that a child-friendly school should provide curriculum and its pedagogies that are holistic, inclusive and suitable to the child‟s developmental level, abilities, and learning styles.

The first two citations (International Development Education Centre Report, 2005; ARNEC, 2012) focus on teaching and learning processes that are suitable and flexible to be used in the Asian as well as international regions as crucial aspects to consider. This is because cultures, socio-economic and political aspects vary from one region to the other across the world. However, all the citations have one thing in common; individual potentialities are the unique innate abilities that are improved and shaped by the curriculum. They all agree to the use of pedagogical approaches that are child-centred and practical to be more prominent than rote methods (Bergen, et al., 2009; Wood, 2013). Such pedagogies allow each and every child opportunities to explore their abilities. The quality of education emanates from learning environments that enable children‟s participation in their learning following strong supporting inputs from their applied pedagogies deliberately created by teachers.

ARNEC (2012) and UNICEF (2009) mention in passing about child development domains, yet the International Development Education Centre Report (2005) indicates all the child developmental domains. The four child development domains are; cognitive, physical, health and emotional. Therefore, the following section has to give brief examples of how pedagogies facilitate these developments in ECD children for quality education provision.

2.4.1.1 The importance of relevant pedagogies to child development

Children understand better the world around them when they learn in the block play (Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013). Therefore, to enhance understanding of the world, children should be exposed to this block play. It is easy for children to acquire discriminatory skills when they are exposed to these blocks in different colours, sizes and shapes. Children should also be exposed to the manipulative learning which helps them to develop eye and hand coordination as well as fine and gross motor skills (Smith, 2010; Wood, 2013). In support Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013) propose that manipulative play activities help children to acquire problem solving skills as well as improving their optical recognition. There are a

variety of these manipulative games that are played by children; these include matching games and bead work which are meant to improve language development, abstract thinking and attentiveness. Actually, quality measures in the teaching and learning processes and activities have a direct correlation to physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of the children. This implies that learning through play under different learning areas need to be given equal opportunities for children to develop wholly.

Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013) and Bergen et al. (2009) suggest that when planning any play activity, early learners must be given enough space to climb, run, balance and develop motor skills. However, when making these play areas educators should bear in mind safety precautions. These play areas provide media for the children to discover aspects in life through investigation. While the teacher follows playing children; teacher-child interaction is further enhanced. This reflects the most important information on the transparencies in the classroom as children interact with teacher and *vice-versa*, as children learn and develop. Most important, this effective child development and learning is highly influenced by socio-cultural factors, theoretical backgrounds and educators" beliefs as they use play-way methods (Wood, 2013).

Teachers play a pivotal role more imperative in the hope for quality. Play is regarded as a strategy put in place for ECD children"s learning and development, and possibly only when these children are actively involved (MoWCA Bangladesh, 2010). Possibly, play-way methods in ECD if applied by skilled teachers in flexible styles proved to be very effective in the actual teaching and learning processes for quality education. Smith (2010), Hughes (2010) and Wood (2013) suggest that play-way methods are important for child development. To further augment that, Wood (2013) and Bergen et al. (2009) proclaim that play develops skills such as; determination, flexibility and originality. Therefore play-way pedagogies are important for learner development in his/her totality. In support Wood (2013) asserts that, there are quite a number of benefits for children when they play; besides developing they are also prepared to take roles in life among other things. In this essence of play-way methods in ECD, the most important aspect is the focus on teacher-child interaction, and some features such as experiential learning, child-centred approaches, play-based and child-friendly teaching and learning (Alexander, 2008; Bergen, et al., 2009; Wood, 2013).

In other words play-way pedagogies are not a pastime series of activities; these are activities that are objective centred and are characterised by earnest abilities and seriousness of a purpose. In view of its importance, teachers are encouraged to prepare and plan for various activities that give children ample opportunities to explore their potentialities. There is need for the teacher to make sure that learning areas are rich in play materials in order to give each child an opportunity to get hold of the learning materials. Bergen et al. (2009) and Wood (2013) posit that the play-way pedagogies are unstructured planned learning by children which should not be disturbed by adults. Children express their emotions in that process and are transformed socially, emotionally and psychologically (Wood, 2013). In this play process, children learn cultural norms, values and practices using thought and language resulting in developing socially. Through play-way pedagogies children develop problem solving skills that lay the basis for academic success. This understanding justified the importance of the curriculum and pedagogies intertwined to provide quality education to the ECD learners. However, Mugweni and Dakwa (2013) argue that, play-way methods cannot be possible in the Zimbabwean rural ECD schools since untrained teachers are not acquainted with play-way methods and materials are inadequate to allow exploration by children.

2.4.2 Teacher training and status

Teacher training is another determinant factor for quality ECD, and implies that quality education provision can be achieved through knowledge upgrading by teachers (Meier & Marais, 2007; Laine, et al., 2011; ARNEC, 2012). The same perspective, UNESCO (2012) highlights the importance of teachers getting their training to suitably teach the children. It is noted that (Udommana, 2012) educational requirements for ECD teachers are different from one country to the other; some countries require professional qualifications like diplomas or college degrees whereas other countries consider in-service training by academic certificate holders. However, Zhai and Gao (2008) introduces the idea that the quality of the teacher is determined when teachers are formally trained and are equipped with a specialised certificate to teach. Zhai and Gao (2008) seem to have taken their authority from the EFA and the MDGs (UNESCO˚s EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2006) where we have the international formalisation of ECD through different policies in different countries the world over. ECD teacher training is formalised and specialised with clear accreditation world over for quality ECD education provision. According to Udommana (2012), each country has set standards for the level of training for ECD teachers. Meier and Marais (2007), Laine et al. (2011) and UNESCO (2012) are sounding the importance of skill training for quality lesson delivery.

The teacher is the instructor and his/her quality matters most. Teaching these little children is a delicate adventure that needs expertise on the part of the teacher. The argument is that quality outcomes cannot be reaped from poor quality inputs, neither a good process can be made out of compromised quality inputs or from a half-cooked teacher. Hence the teacher"s qualification plays a pivotal role in the quality ECD education provision in schools.

It is believed that a powerful army fully equips both the army commander and the fighters. Leaders in these ECD organisations should be trained in this area to ensure quality supervision of ECD education programme. School leaders" qualifications are important in assuring quality (Meier & Marais, 2007; ARNEC, 2012). Snell and Janney (2005) and Laine et al. (2011) maintain that teachers and school leaders require updating their knowledge and skills in the area of ECD to remain in touch with what is current in the area. School based staff development programmes together with external workshops are other quality determinant factors that can help in the promotion of quality ECD provision in schools (ARNEC, 2012). However, it is important for school leaders to give feedback or listen to feedback given after one of the members has attended a workshop (Caruso & Fawcett, 2007). Meier and Marais (2007), as well as Laine et al. (2011) contend that developing teachers" skills at school level is one way of capacitating them to effectively teach and subsequently produce quality work. It is ideal for school leaders to share their knowledge and skills with their staff, since this can deepen the teachers" experience in the area of teaching. According to Caruso and Fawcett (2007) training for the school leaders seems very relevant for quality supervision of the ECD teaching. This is argued by Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013) who pronounce that school leaders in Zimbabwean ECD schools feel inferior to supervise ECD classes since they are not trained.

What is pertinent to this dimension of training is the inclusion of the working conditions specifically aspects like remuneration, working periods per day, benefits and incentives and then personnel development and performance audit (SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2012). Laine et al. (2011) argue that, individual drives need to be maintained by the surrounding environment. Doherty, Forer, Lero, Goelman and LaGrange (2006) and Laine et al. (2011) echo the same sentiments that as leaders it is critical to consider the physical attributes of a school that contribute to a safe and comfortable workplace since this has an impact on quality education, wages, working conditions (for example availability of support staff), and staff

turnover. Laine et al. (2011) go on to say that promoting a high-quality working condition within a school is like setting the stage for successful performance. These dispositions apply that, ensuring safe and pleasant school environment is an important way of enabling teachers to carry out their duties well and to remain committed to teaching. Therefore, teachers are committed to perform well in their day to day activities in accordance with the conditions of services.

The idea therefore is that best teachers out there have the potential to effectively teach, this can however be hindered by the support that he/she gets from the leaders. Teachers need to be recognised and supplied with adequate basic human needs at work so that they concentrate on their work. Therefore while considering how to improve other factors of quality, teacher"s working conditions should be priority. Poor working conditions for teachers can spoil their teaching endeavour and compromise their expertise. For example, low remuneration and high job demand can stifle creativity and commitment in teachers.

2.4.3 Physical environment, teaching and learning material and other resources

According to Rao (2010), the physical environment in the school is an important aspect that needs to be included when listing the determinant factors to quality ECD education. In this section the discussion will revolve around the theoretical overview of both the outdoor and indoor learning centres, teaching and learning materials involved and the general infrastructure for the school environment for quality provision in ECD. In the theoretical context, this is the maternal home that nurtures quality education provision in ECD. A rich and safe environment stimulates learning and total child development.

The characteristics of the physical environment were described by Profeta (2010) as being supportive to children"s needs. The physical environment should allow children to have their lessons child-initiated and teacher-initiated. Profeta (2010) is concerned with the cost and with observing the safety and hygienic precautions of the physical structures for children"s learning. This physical environment should also be culturally specific. The ECD school environment should have enough space for children to have injury free play. The environment school should have affordable facilities which are stimulating. This environment should satisfy cultural aspects. This is important because African parents and community

members are different from those in the Western countries; what may be considered sub-standard by Western people can still be regarded as perfect by African people. Therefore, aspects of safety, affordability and culture can be relevant in developing an ECD centre and the community can only contribute by providing locally available materials and furniture. For example, the Zimbabwean statutory instrument (12 of 2005) recommends mats made from reeds for children to sit on. However, of importance is to set an ECD centre that satisfies safety and health standards and attends to children‟s needs with sizable and stimulating facilities.

Outdoor play areas should be planned strategically to provide an entertaining and stimulating environment for ECD children (Arthur, Beecher, Death, Docket & Farmer, 2008; Waite, 2011). Waite (2011) goes on to say that the outdoor play area should be skilfully erected, for instance, natural school garden can be recommended for a stimulating learning atmosphere for ECD children. McMullen, Elicker, Wang, Erdiller, Sun-Mi, Chia-Hui and Ping-Yun (2005) and Waite (2011) concur that for observation and manipulation ECD children need a variety of natural features like vegetation; aquatic environment like a small, shallow, and clean pond, sand and mud for moulding and collage, animals, insects and birds. The learning dispositions mentioned above show that the exposure of children to a natural environment nurtures originality and stimulation for more discoveries, complex play and autonomy in children. Since children will be active in the child-initiated play, it stimulates observation, innovation, dramatic pretend play, and imagination. Waite (2011) and Arthur et al. (2008) claim that the best contributor to the children‟s emotional development is the natural environment because it provides a sense of independence and autonomy to children. Children benefit from the opportunities they get to feature themselves in this exploratory environment where they experience their own movements as transforming it (Waite, 2011). Thus, in the outdoor play areas, children learn about „nature and nurture‟ through observing living things, and if teachers properly guide the learning children, they will learn to respect both life and nature.

In addition the indoor environment that is naturally set with stimulating materials offers more of the experience than teaching (Bilton, 2010). Smith (2010) and Wood (2013) acknowledge the importance of the physical classroom environment which is appropriately arranged for children‟s learning. With the same sentiment, Caruso and Fawcett (2007) admit that the

effectiveness and efficiency of teacher-pupil interaction during the process of teaching and learning is highly correlated with classroom arrangement. The learning dispositions mentioned above reflect that children need an indoor learning environment that is attractive, stimulating and conducive to manipulative, experimental and self-initiated learning. ECD children learn effectively when they are given chances to discover through self-initiated activities and mostly their learning is increased through vigorous involvement using their hands to manipulate, hearing with their ears, and self-guided explorations. These natural environments provide for independent play and original exploration with various materials. Therefore, ECD learning areas are supposed to be stimulating, child-centred, emotionally safe, and arranged in a way to facilitate learning through play.

Teaching and learning materials from the local environment are usually culturally appropriate, being cost-effective and child-friendly (Meier & Marais, 2007; Profeta, 2010). In the same perception MoWCD (2012) acknowledges the importance of using locally available resources to make low cost, appropriate teaching and learning materials that are child-friendly. These ideas are context specific on making teaching and learning resources from materials that can be found in the local environment. Availability of resource materials used for making teaching and learning resources vary from one region to the other, hence there is much flexibility in terms of context appropriateness. There is need to consult local people like the children, parents and community members to provide some of these required materials. For instance, Udommana (2012) reports a case where parents used resources found in their local areas to make teaching and learning materials for their children.

For ECD, the provision of quality education is highly determined by infrastructural support, for instance in the OECD countries, the governments provide infrastructural support and children have greater access to quality education (UNICEF, 2008). The key policy recommendation is that ECD schools must ensure the suitability and integrity of the classroom with enough illumination, ventilation and space for safe and flexible furniture arrangements to ensure that children have enough space for play as they learn indoors (Awopegba, 2010). The classroom should have enough space for all the children (recommended space is at least 16 square meters for 20-25 children) and be well illuminated so that children can see in every part of the room (NERDC, 2004). The classroom environment should allow free movement by the children. Since the ECD children learn through play, the indoor environment (classroom) should be spacious enough to allow

physical activities where children can work freely in groups or as individuals. These classrooms are supposed to be furnished with child-size furniture (NERDC, 2004; Laine et al., 2011). Each child should have a sitting position (either a chair or a bench) and corresponding tables appropriate for their age. The furniture should be tested regularly for integrity so that they do not pose danger to the children. The main idea for the classroom and furniture is to have a secure and conducive indoor environment for active exploration by children in both child-initiated and teacher-initiated activities for the enhancement of quality ECD education.

To bring this section to a close, the above support that should be given to ECD schools is contradicted by the Zimbabwean schools set-up. Bukaliya and Mubika (2012), Mugweni and Dakwa (2013), Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013) conducted recent researches in different areas in the country and established that ECD children are learning under the trees and are experiencing many inadequacies like furniture, learning materials, suitable outdoor play equipment to mention a few. The government of Zimbabwe has relegated the ECD programme to local communities which are not able to support these requirements due to poverty (Dakwa, 2011; Mpofu & Shumba, 2012; Hlupuko, et al., 2013).

2.4.4 Nutritional, health and safety issues in ECD schools

Among all other quality determinant factors in ECD education provision, health and safety are silent but critical aspect to quality education provision. Efforts are put to monitor the quality of the ECD learning environment, but neglecting the primary health care of the children including their nutritional health. In most countries, publically funded ECD services are required to follow programme quality standards, including health and safety (Awopegba, 2010). Safety needs should be addressed in facility management and maintenance, for example the playground, indoor spaces, and the outdoor play centres. The children‟s health is of importance in the school. Over-crowding of children in the classroom is consistent with higher rates of infection especially with the communicable diseases like tuberculosis and influenza, to mention but a few. These large classes have also high risk of injury when children climb on furniture and equipment not meant for this purpose and teachers are stressed to the point of physically abusing children during learning hours (Montie, Xiang & Schweinhart, 2006). Therefore, it is argued that children should have health and safety benefits in addition to benefits for learning and development with smaller ECD classes.

UNESCO (2009) recommends that, ECD schools should adhere to weekly health inspection of the children, have facilities for storing children"s food, each child in school for less than four hours must receive at least one snack, health monitoring and promotion should be done monthly. Adequate feeding and food inspection by health personnel are essential to ensure good health and nutrition of the children. There is need for oral hygiene and physical inspection in school. All First Aid Box contents should be available in the schools, replacements regularly done and monitoring for expiry dates perfectly done. Each school should have selected staff members trained in the use of the First Aid Box contents. According to UNESCO (2009), these school visits by the health personnel should be recorded and these records should be kept in the school files for future reference.

Mpofu and Shumba (2012), Mugweni and Dakwa (2013) and Tshabalala and Mapolisa (2013) proclaim that, there is no history recorded on government or non-government facilities that are specifically set to provide and monitor health, nutrition and safety of ECD children in schools. The report which was given by Mugweni (2011) reveals that not all parents have extra food to pack for their children to take to school, only a few ECD school children bring food from home, since schools have no facilities to feed children.

2.4.5 Teacher-pupil ratio or class size

Palaiologou (2012) states that while all other inputs play a role in the production of quality, in regression analyses to predict the determinants of quality, the teacher-child ratio is the critical factor that can control other determinant factors for quality education provision. This represents teacher-learner ratio as the most significant determinant to quality education provision especially for the ECD children. Centrally, the provision of quality ECD education is determined by the number of children that are under the auspices of one teacher (Palaiologou, 2012). International standards as given by UNICEF (2010) and UNESCO (2009) approve the ECD benchmark of teacher to children ratio of not more than 1:15. Data from the National ECD Pilot Project (1997-1999) states the subsidy was limited to 25 children per class (Meier & Marais, 2007). I argue to say that, ECD programmes need to be run with small classes of not more than 20 children if quality education is to be maintained. Substantiating this idea is Palaiologou (2012) who indicates that, smaller class sizes are

recommended to enable children to get ample chances of attention from teachers as well as to interact among themselves as children. According to the above standards control checklist, it is agreeable that the average class limit is 20 children per teacher. It is assumed that this average class size allows for quality ECD education provision.

Most of the above studies indicate a strong correlation between class size and the quality of education provided. Quality education in schools has been strongly associated with effective teach-child interaction which is promoted most when the number of children is minimal. Few children assigned to one teacher provide greater opportunities for teacher-child; child-teacher and child-child interaction. Teachers get ample time to cater for individual differences; having much time to give individual attention to the children, resulting in a higher quality education provision. ECD research strongly indicates that smaller class sizes are associated with greater educational effectiveness (Smith, 2010).

I maintain that while small class sizes are mostly recommended for ECD children recent research in Zimbabwe shows the contrary. Though the Statutory Instrument (12 of 2005) stipulates a 1: 20 teacher/pupil ratio, children are over-crowded because of shortage of teachers especially in rural areas (Mugweni & Dakwa, 2013).

2.4.6 Parental and community involvement

Parental and community involvement in the ECD education programme renders the greatest influence to quality ECD education provision. UNESCO (2009) highlights the following key parental responsibilities for quality ECD education: provision include provision of required teaching and learning materials, funding the programme, attending school meetings and even provision of food to the children. In agreeing with this idea, Myers (2006) and Coleman (2013) elaborate the importance of the School Based Management Committee (SBMC) in mobilising parents to get involved in the education of their children by responding to their needs. Parents are expected to fulfil their expectations for the education of their children. There is a clear indication that parents should fully support their children‟s education, financially, materially and via in-service. Myers (2006) and Coleman (2013) are paying attention to the importance of local governance in ECD schools. In Zimbabwe there is the SDC in the Education Act (1992), Statutory Instrument, (12 of 2005) and Statutory Instrument (105 of 2005), Zambia and its local governance (Chimombo, 2004) and Malawi

and its school committees (Rose, 2010). Local governances in ECD schools mobilise parents and communities to meet the needs of the children.

Consequently, parental and community engagement into school business promote local ownership and support and it is considered as the critical aspect for the provision of quality ECD education (Rao & Sun, 2010; ARNEC, 2012). It is a shared priority that parents, families and communities are involved in the education of their children (Ngwenya, 2010; Laine, et al., 2011). The parents should uplift the name of the school by providing support to the school. The SEAMEO-INNOTECH (2012) report claims that sustainable quality child development is only possible through massive parental and community involvement in the ECD programmes. Legitimate parents and the community involvement play a vital role in promoting the ECD programme.

Kyoung (2012) argues that there is need for schools and parents to listen to the children. Children are the main players in ECD education. Their voices need to be given a chance to manifest, for example, they need equipment that is child-friendly during learning through play activities, a curriculum that puts their developmental need first. Thus, in all respects be it the curriculum, pedagogies, physical environment, teaching and learning materials; child appropriateness should be of paramount importance in order to promote quality ECD education provision.

The community and parents should support ECD schools by sending children to school, providing teaching and learning facilities as well as funding the programme (Courtiney, 2008; Coleman, 2013). The school head has an important role in cementing the relationship between the teachers and community for improved resource procurement in the school. The school head has to facilitate a process that brings about a mutual understanding between the teachers and the parents and communities. The parents and community are mostly concerned with effective use of supplied resources by the teachers. As Rose (2010) and Coleman (2013) acknowledge that, community participation is often linked with the ability to mobilise, and make more efficient use of resources. The school head bears the highest post at the school and all decisions are activated from that post. He must therefore take full responsibility to develop relationships between the school and the community for effective resource mobilisation. This will put the SDC into play as the governing body for school (Zimbabwe

Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992). Essentially, „genuine" community participation where parents are encouraged to given due respect and involved in decision-making in the ECD programme can best enhance resource procurement by schools (Coleman, 2013). This SDC makes a very important contribution in serving as a link between the parents and the school community. Hence, the school head will be responsible for maintaining a strong teacher-parental relationship as mediated by the SDC.

Parental participation in early education programmes is the most crucial aspect in the success of the school (Mpofu & Shumba, 2012; Coleman, 2013). One important source of school support is the legitimate parents of the children who promote the programme by actively taking part in making decisions (Cochran, 2007; Coleman, 2013). It is the duty of the school head to pave the way for the prudent participation into ECD programmes by the parents and communities under the auspices of the SDC in which the school head is an ex-officio member of the committee. While the parents are constitutionally partnered in the developmental planning of the ECD programme in the school, they ensure commitment and ownership of the school, which bring resources in the school.

However, teacher-parent association needs an open and fair relationship that give due respect to the positions held by parents in the committees. Coleman (2013) acknowledges that the relationships of the school community with the SDC are beset by many conflicts that are role centred. There is usually a role conflict between the SDC and the school leadership. It is either that the school head would want to take advantage of the illiterate parents that form the SDC or the school committee would also over-play their authority boundaries and make off-side play in the school head"s area of responsibility. Therefore, this responsibility of working with the SDC in the process for ECD resource mobilisation needs much of the school head"s expertise in communication skills and conflict resolutions.

2. 5 Trends of resource provision in Africa and the world

As we had the benchmarks in Section 2.4 for quality ECD education provision we also have to give lee way to the literature to explain how Sub-Saharan Africa and the world over are providing for the ECD programme. As has been discussed in Section 2.4; countries can best respond to resource demand contextually. In countries like China, funding of ECD

programme is shouldered by the communities due to lack of government resources (Korea Institute of Child Care and Education, 2011). This is also happening in Kenya, parents and communities responded positively to the call by the Harambee and immersed themselves in fundraising (Myers, 2006) and resource mobilisation to establish pre-school institutions ranging from day-care centres, nursery schools, and Koranic schools to Kindergartens attached to primary schools. This situation is prevalent in Malawi; parents, communities and traditional leaders are obliged to contribute to ECD educational programme. For example, they contribute in cash or in kind like providing labour and materials to school construction and maintenance (Rose, 2010). The Zimbabwean government has mandated the SDCs to develop, establish and maintain ECD classes in primary schools (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992; Statutory Instrument 12 of 2005; Statutory Instrument 106 of 2005). China, Kenya, Malawi and Zimbabwe have one thing in common. The governments decentralised the mandate to local authorities to run these ECD schools. Thus the SDCs were instructed by the government to mobilise resources for establishing and maintaining ECD classes in their areas. Harambee in Kenya, preschools are managed by committees that are elected by the local community (Kabiru & Njenga, 2009). Kabiru and Njenga proceed to say that these committees spearhead land acquisition and building materials through community collaborative efforts. Kenyan people under the leadership of the local traditional leaders, made contributions in the form of cash, labour and building materials and created the centres for ECD.

In Zimbabwe the government called for the communities to establish and maintain the ECD classes in primary schools across the country. These communities responded positively to the government"s call. ECD-A and B classes are integrated in primary schools of Zimbabwe (Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013). This is entirely the efforts and contributions of the communities. However, Shizha and Kariwo (2011) argue that though parents and communities are willing to take the government initiative on ECD, they are restricted by poverty, especially in rural areas where parents are very poor.

The Palestinian government came to realise its own limited capacity to bring about direct improvement in infrastructural developments in pre-schools than local and international communities built new structures and added classrooms onto existing ones and installed new sanitation systems that made the environment more kid-friendly (Middle East & North

American Organisations" report, 2009). It is clear that in Palestine, national and international communities provided infrastructure, teaching and learning equipment and met all the costs in running the ECD programme. The Palestinian government failed to subsidise ECD in the country and the donor community offers their help (UNICEF, 2009).

Africa and beyond its borders (China & Palestine) communities are responsible for all infrastructural developments in ECD schools. This is done through community mobilisation or networking with local and international communities to make the ECD programme viable. World Bank, UNESCO, UNICEF and other NGOs like Plan International, Save the Children and others are helping in the ECD programmes (UNESCO, 2009).

Sub-Saharan African communities are playing the major roles in funding and running of ECD programme in various countries (Rose, 2010). In some countries local communities fund ECD by contracting and sponsoring on-job-training for para-professionals, creating and maintaining infrastructure and providing materials and equipment for teaching and learning (UNESCO, 2010). The communities have an understanding of their expected roles and responsibilities, which broadly correspond with statutory roles in the government (as discussed above). This community participation is understood as the contribution that is provided by the community in the form of hiring teachers and funding the construction and running of ECD programmes (UNICEF, 2010; UNESCO, 2012).

Rose (2003) and Coleman (2013) acknowledge the situation in rural areas and proposed that, while parents may fail to pay fees and levies for their children, cost-sharing with parents and communities are necessary especially when resources are inadequate in the schools. The school development committees (SDCs) are there to establish strong relationships between the school and the communities in order to mobilise monetary and non-monetary contribution by communities for school development. In reality, different degrees of participation can be considered, depending on the extent and type of involvement by community members; for instance, classroom construction, brick moulding and digging pits for toilets to mention a few. As has been discussed above, in most African countries, the greater percentage on resource contribution to ECD programmes is provided by parents, communities and national and international NGOs. Parents are paying fees and levies, buying uniforms and helping in

(Coleman, 2013) in constructing play centres. NGOs are providing different forms of aid in remote rural ECD schools (UNICEF, 2006).

Remote rural communities have material resources which can provide much needed assistance to local ECD schools (Coleman, 2013). In Palestine local communities are developing ECD play centres by constructing the out-door play centres using poles extracted from trees in their localities (Middle East & North America Organisation, 2012). It is less costly and culturally correct to use local materials to construct play equipment for ECD. Local community individuals with expertise in carpentry carve ECD wooden puzzles and toys and wooden blocks to use in their manipulative lessons (UNICEF, 2010). ECD learning materials are easily accessed from the locality, by both teaches and families (Coleman, 2013). This entails that teachers and family members can make teaching and learning materials using available resources found in their localities.

Besides the construction of play equipment (Coleman, 2013) ECD schools are organising summer arts camps and involving local artists and teachers to bring music, art and drama to ECD children and their families through colourful, fun activities. Multi-stakeholder inclusiveness is of primary importance. Like the involvement of parents and the communities in arts programmes to expand the appreciation for arts and culture in ECD. There are people who can offer knowledge and expertise to teachers and children in the school; local drummers, dancers, poets, musicians can be incorporated as resource persons. The above ideas used in other contexts might be of great help to other schools and communities; however, because of the limited relationship between the ECD schools and the community, little advantage is taken by schools of the great knowledge that is available in the communities (Alexander, 2008). It is necessary to have a variety of skills for successful family, school, and community partnerships; however the most important of all is for the school head to understand the roles that are supposed to be played by the parents in school programmes.

The Kenyan government offers subsidised training for its ECD teachers in the country's education college (Kabiru & Njenga, 2009; Oruta, 2009). The training of ECD teachers by colleges and universities in Zimbabwe is a crucial aspect on how the demand for teachers can be improved in the country (Abadzi, 2008). The Ministry of Education is in charge of the

training and monitoring systems to improve the quality of ECD programmes as well as the training of ECD supervisory personnel (Middle East & North America Organisation, 2012). ANERA (a non-profit organisations based in Palestine) in coordination with the Ministry of Education is developing ECD teachers with occupational standards for caregivers as clusters (MENARO, 2012). In Palestine the national system for training and certification of ECD teachers is government based (UNICEF, 2010).

The learning dispositions cited above, reached an agreement that the governments and/or NGOs are taking the full burden of training the ECD teachers. In all the countries referred to above, training of teachers is a program which is government based with the Ministry of Education manning the program. Those qualified teachers who are accredited by this ministry are put on government full teacher salary. The ECD programme is still gaining its momentum and the number of qualified teachers is presently insignificant for all schools and in many countries, they will increase with time (UNICEF, 2010). ECD is a new comer and qualified teachers to teach ECD are still limited. This is however, common in most countries but since the ministries are training, gradually all schools will be staffed with qualified teachers (UNICEF, 2010).

Since not all schools are staffed with qualified ECD teachers, some communities employed para-professionals who teach the ECD classes in the country (UNICEF, 2010). In Kenya school committees are paying these pre-school teachers (Kabiru & Njenga, 2009; Oruta, 2009). Zimbabwe (Statutory Instrument, 106 of 2005) gives authority and powers to the SDCs to hire para-professionals who teach ECD classes in the schools. The levies that are collected from the parents are used as allowances for the para-professionals. However, no country has confirmed the amount payable to these para-professionals.

South Africa among other Sub-Saharan African countries is funding its early learning programmes. Grants are given to community based ECD centres per child basis through provincial government funds (ADEA, 2006). With the Chinese there is the „Hope project‟ where the government collected contributions from local and international charitable organisations to establish and maintain ECD schools in selected poor communities (Xu, Wu & Zhao, 2010). In Lesotho recurrent funds for school fees for the Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs), training of personnel, maintenance of the buildings, and purchase of

teaching and learning materials are done through donations from local and international charitable organisations such as UNICEF and World Bank (Mncube & Makhasane, 2011, p. 167). Most African countries have benefited from international NGOs, domestic NGOs, and international organisations; the quality of ECD schools improved because of these contributions (UNICEF, 2010). To sustain the resource base of all ECD programmes in schools, there is need for different stakeholders to continue to have unity of purpose working in partnership and supporting one another. However, this partnership, with international donors, is only possible if the government has entered into bilateral communication and relationships with donor countries. The civil society and the vulnerable communities might be prepared to receive donations, but it is only possible when the government has adopted an open door policy on the issue.

In South Africa there are no health facilities established at each ECD centre, however, the Ministry of Health is taking the burden of regularly visiting these schools for health and nutritional check-ups (Mandela, 2005). In the case of Canada; health facilities are established at school level even in remote rural areas but no feeding is done (Rose, 2010). Rose proceeds to acknowledge the Canadian schools funding the training of their health personnel and their salaries. According to the above dispositions, South African nurses, from adjacent clinics regularly move around in schools to give primary health check-ups to children, check on nutritional health care practices and attend to health problems in teachers and children (Mandela, 2005). In most of the developed countries cited above, they have health facilities already for their ECD children.

In this era of decreasing government budgets, increasing decentralisation, and in a region of burgeoning democracies and civil strife, it is imperative to look and to learn from organisations and governments in the region who are experimenting, making investments in and successfully supporting ECD (Report on ECD policy review in Sub-Saharan Africa, 2009). As suggested by this citation, these school committees under the leadership of the school heads can apply for donations from NGOs nationally and internationally. Schools that make requisitions for donation always get them either in the form of books, play material, feeding and even health related packages (UNICEF, 2010).

However, it is important to examine the purpose of parent-school partnerships in school governance and the interjection into school development by donor communities is raising questions with regards to the role of the state. Community and donor participation should work hand-in-hand and check the government, not substitute it (Myers, 2006). The most outstanding consensus that these African leaders agreed on was that government must take the responsibility to provide quality programmes for all children, and give protection and support to their families (Aidoo, 2006).

2.6 Teacher professional development and empowerment as a tool for resource mobilisation in schools

In America little attention was given to the role played by school teachers, but research is revealing that if teachers are given the support they need, they become committed and invest in such a way that they effectively take up their work responsibilities (Flumerfelt & Maxfield, 2009; Pedder & Opfer, 2011). Deeper elaboration was given by Coleman (2013) confirming that empowering people involves opening of responsibility opportunities for the attainment of organisational goals. When teachers are given necessary support in the field of teaching, they become committed and work even harder for the benefit of the school. The school head is the chief central character at the school, the one who has the vision, overview of school systems and how they can play around to come up with the required resources at the school. She/he is responsible for creating and maintaining the processes, systems and support structures to help the teaching staff to develop and improve the knowledge, skills and attitudes to mobilise resources and effectively teach the ECD children.

Caruso and Fawcett (2007) emphasise the need for the school leader to lead by becoming a living example of a commitment to continuous collaborative learning. Regarding this, Hargreaves, Lieberman, Fullan and Hopkins (2010) confirm the importance of the „modelling" function of the school leader. It is important for the school head to always do right things the right way. She/he should be both effective and efficient in whatever she/he does in the school. Effective professional learning involves intensive, sustained, theoretically-based yet practically situated learning, with opportunities to observe good practice to be involved in the coaching and mentoring processes and to take time for reflection (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). It is therefore the duty of the school head to co-ordinate the best practices for resource mobilisation and effective teaching, and to direct the efforts of the teachers to meet the set goals and targets. By so doing the teachers will be forced by these circumstances to

emulate their leader, resulting in the best ways of mobilising resources and teaching of the ECD learners in the school.

The school head is supposed to start by coaching the deputy head and the TIC, as part of leadership in the school. Leadership skills are like any other skills that can be emulated, created and achieved in order to become effective school leaders who can transform teachers" working commitment for the benefit of the school (Caruso & Fawcett, 2007). The condition of successful coaching is reiterated by Hargreaves et al. (2010) who make this observation that, the complex process of empowering the leadership team will be successful only if collegiality prevails in the organisation. The best work in institutions is achieved only when team spirit and commitment prevail among the TIC, deputy and school head. In order to achieve good outcomes as a result of professional empowerment, effective school heads usually cultivate mutual trust and inter-personal relationship with the deputy head and the TIC. The school head should be prepared to share leadership roles with the TIC and the deputy head. The deputy head and the TIC will help in extracting resource mobilisation ideas from the teachers. They are baseline supervisor to the teachers and always work with them so they can easily reach them for ideas. Discourse sessions are necessary with the deputy and the TIC to give them room to share their views and difficulties in this endeavour of resource mobilisation. This will bring unity of purpose within the school; as a result, resource mobilisation will be possible.

Hargreaves et al. (2010) note the position of TICs as exceptional to make change happen. The TIC"s position is near the teachers and have the knowledge and skills in both teaching and supervising teaching and learning in the classrooms. Therefore, it is imperative that school heads should support co-operation and participatory decision-making among teachers through the creation of professional learning communities in schools and the encouragement of the TICs and deputy heads to participate in workshops at cluster, district or provincial levels (Zimbabwe BSPZ, 2000; MENARO, 2012). These leadership seminars will help them get into the business of leadership. The school head should give them time to give feedback, which should also benefit the school head herself/himself. Opportunities like this will expose the deputy head and the TIC to acquire more leadership skills, which will drive them to accept leadership responsibilities in the school. The school head should always give positive feedback to the TIC and deputy head on whatever they propose in the ECD department. This

positive feedback will inspire them to cheerfully take the risks and challenges of new leadership roles. Usually, too often deputy heads and TICs are discouraged when they undergo leadership training which is not recognised, results in not being given opportunities to use these leadership skills. Hence, the school heads should make sure that the TIC and the deputy head are given chances to utilise these skills effectually in the school.

Mentoring is another area that can assist educators in remote rural schools. It focuses on the support of new teachers (Caruso & Fawcett, 2007; Hargreaves, et al., 2010) and school leaders as well as teachers" professional development as a means to mentoring. These are support services that can be given to the head and the teachers in their endeavours in resource mobilisation. Hargreaves et al. (2010) argue that mentoring can be viewed not only as a one-way transfer of knowledge but also as a two-way transfer of knowledge. The most common interpretation of mentoring is the one-way approach, where the head, deputy head and the TIC share skills and knowledge with ECD teachers. However, the two-way view of mentoring has an exchange of skills and knowledge between the leadership team and the ECD teachers. Hargreaves et al. (2010) confirm that even junior teachers can facilitate professional development to the senior staff members. The newly qualified ECD teachers can share skills and knowledge about recent developments in ECD education and teaching resources with the experienced teachers. The school head, deputy and TIC should also have sessions to learn from ECD trained teachers in the school (Chikutuma & Mawere, 2012). Mentoring calls for a swallow of pride by the leadership team, to accept ideas from the junior teachers (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). As has been proved in previous sections of this chapter; most leaders in primary schools are not yet trained to supervise ECD (Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013). They should take advantage of this mentoring aspect to help them learn from the trained ECD teachers for the benefit of the children (Hargreaves et al., 2010).

There is a lot of unutilised resource of capacity and knowledge for the future to be discovered from teachers who teach in America"s classrooms (Elmore, 2006). Teachers are the most important human resource because all other resources in the school need to be manipulated and used by the teachers for the benefit of the children (Laine, et al., 2011). Teachers are the most important assets in the teaching of ECD classes and particularly in difficult times of scarce resources. Investment in them and their capabilities raise their morale and develop a

positive attitude towards effective teaching. If the teachers are given chance to meet and discuss professional matters in relation to subject key areas, they promote their pedagogical philosophies and effective dialogues with children will take place in the classrooms (Elmore, 2006). This initiative should be pursued by the school leadership team as a means to appreciate and call forth their full potential.

Hargreaves et al. (2010) acknowledges the true human resource is not the whole person, but his/her efforts, which will be jointly managed by the individual herself or himself and the leadership of the organisation in which s/he works. This calls for transformational leaders who can use transformational skills to transform weak ways of doing things into best practices among teachers. The school head should send invitational messages to inform teachers that they are able, valuable and worthy (Haigh, 2011) in order to give them full autonomy of sourcing best ideas to effectively teach, at the same time mobilising resources for the ECD children.

Hargreaves et al. (2010) say: although leaders need the skills to be able to plan, organise and control all categories of resources in the school, improvement of teachers" knowledge and skills is the most important aspect to consume the majority of the investment. ECD teachers need on-going job-training to remain in touch with current research in the teaching of ECD children (Purkey & Siegel, 2005; Laine, et al., 2011). This arises because knowledge is always changing, so teachers need to be exposed to training and development so that they can always take part in quality practice with the ECD children (Elmore, 2006; Arthur, et al., 2008; Laine, et al., 2011). The ECD teachers need continual professional improvement to ensure that they meet the relevant needs of the children. Hence, professional development is imperative for all academics, particularly ECD teachers whose mandate is to effectively apply the methods for improving the quality of teaching and learning in their classrooms.

Professional development must attend to subject-matter knowledge and develop teachers" content skills (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). ECD teachers should have separate developmental meetings from the junior classes. This is the case because they have to constantly update their knowledge as a group. This has a clear basis from the sense that professional development is realistic opportunities to learn from and with colleagues inside the school (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). According to the teacher qualification status in most countries that was discussed

earlier in this chapter, trained ECD teachers are a scarce resource in remote rural schools. It is the core duty of the school head to create environments at school level in which individual qualified teachers share ideas with colleagues, for instance, the trained ECD teacher sharing ideas with para-professional teachers at school level. There should be effective collaboration among teachers in the same department to the extent of planning and preparing lessons together, holding demonstration lessons and critiquing each other (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). The leadership team should also get involved in these Staff Development Programmes (SDPs) at school. The core idea behind it is to professionally develop teachers to enhance effective learning by children (Caruso & Fawcett, 2007).

The ECD department is a sensitive learning group in the school that needs the school leadership team to frequently visit and show proper concern (Arthur, et al., 2008). This denotes that the teachers are concerned with the support that the school leadership gives to the ECD department. This support nurtures the teaching and learning atmosphere in the department. Among other things, Arthur et al. (2008) show concern in regular supervision by the school administrative team and the remuneration that is given to the ECD teachers. Hargreaves et al. (2010) stresses the need for school leaders to support early childhood teachers who commit themselves in implementing the appropriate skills. School leadership support is very important for promoting effective teaching and learning especially with limited resources (Hargreaves et al., 2010). Further elaborating this view, Arthur et al. (2008) ascertain that effective teaching in ECD needs abundant support from school leadership. School heads in ECD schools are supposed to be very supportive of the teachers; bolstering their commitment while encouraging a wise use of the hard won resources in order to effectively teach the children.

Teachers are the core players in the teaching process; hence empowerment is not empowerment at school until it reaches the players in the teaching arena (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). Empowerment is not only necessary to the teachers but vitally important, since these teachers deliver the knowledge and content to the children. The effect of resource shortage in ECD is strongly felt by the ECD teachers. Therefore, this section is determined to rationalise the need to empower ECD teachers, as a means to equip the technical resource mobilisers. They should be transformed to become effectively capable in mobilising resources as well as using the resources economically (Laine, et al., 2011).

Teacher empowerment is a process whereby a teacher develops both personally and professionally (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). This process has three outcomes attached to teacher performance: Organisational Commitment (OC), Professional Commitment (PC), and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) (Bogler, 2004; Robbins, Judge, Odendaal & Roodt, 2011). Empowered teachers display professional growth, developed in their competences and better positioned to solve their own problems in their classrooms. With this empowerment, teachers are believed to have accumulated skills and knowledge of improving the situation in which they operate (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). Hence, when teachers are empowered they possess such traits as having access to decision-making in the school, their status is improved and their knowledge increased. Empowered teachers have the potential to participate in critical decision-making that directly affect their work (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). This can involve issues relating to ECD departmental budgets, staff development programmes, resource mobilisation programmes and some other critical issues. These empowered teachers are confident, genuine and can make sound decisions that are effective in the school‟s ECD department (Hargreaves, et al., 2010).

By having grown professionally, the teacher‟s perception is open to accommodate the opportunities offered by the school for growth and development (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). This gives the teacher vision to continue increasing knowledge and expanding skills as they work in the ECD department. Usually when one is empowered, s/he is entitled to due respect granted on the strength of knowledge and expertise one demonstrates, resulting in support given by other teachers. Empowerment brings „self-efficacy‟ which gives teachers the knowledge and confidence that they are equipped with the skills and abilities to effectively mobilise resources as well as teach their children.

Hargreaves et al. (2010) believe that empowerment gives teachers autonomy to consider themselves as sources of knowledge and skills in the working circle. The ECD teachers who are empowered are no longer slaves to their classroom scenario. They have the passion to make collections of teaching and learning materials, develop the curriculum in connection with the national syllabus and to select resource-books and plan relevant instruction (Chiome, 2011). That makes teachers free to control situations even in the absence of the TIC, deputy or the school head. They have the perception that they can make an improvement to their

general school situation and their classrooms in particular. Teacher empowerment can really help to alleviate resource mobilisation problems in remote rural ECD schools.

Hargreaves et al. (2010) speculate that teachers, who believe that they can make a difference in their working area, simply do. Thus, when ECD teachers have the perception of their competence and ability to prepare teaching and learning media, they simply do. These teachers can work successfully and effectively with little or without supervision carrying out extra duties, beyond normal work hours and feel satisfied to be over-committed. Teachers who possess that high sense of status tend to participate in more OCBs and feel highly committed to school work (Xu, Wu & Zhao, 2010). This has definite implications for teachers who are fully aware that they embrace respect and admiration of their colleagues due to skills and knowledge they possess. They become more enthusiastic to contribute to the development of their school. Overcommitted teachers, who have the respect and admiration from their colleagues will not sit back and wait for teaching and learning materials from the administration office (Bogler, 2004). These teachers will definitely improvise, dedicating their time to look around in local environment for teaching and learning materials for their classes.

Hargreaves et al. (2010) argue that one"s commitment to organisational development is stimulated by the professional growth and development as a result of the supportive environment. When teachers perceive opportunities for their empowerment, they will act for the good of the school. ECD teachers are working in a new and challenging sphere that demands for more preparation of media every day after work, so the school environment should nurture teacher commitment (Haigh, 2011). Hickman (2010) asserts that teachers who are happily working usually demonstrate more OCBs.

In an environment of wavering economic hardships where funding is uncertain, school heads are encouraged to embrace effective leadership skills that can help them to make informed decisions on how to mobilise resources for their schools (Liebermann, 2008; Hargreaves, et al., 2010). It is all about skills possessed by the school head for mobilising and managing resources that can promote effective teaching and learning by ECD classes in the school. School heads usually work in environments characterised by limited resources (Caruso & Fawcett, 2007). Liebermann (2008) and Hargreaves et al. (2010) bring the ideas of working

with limited resources saying that leadership should involve itself in the efficient and effective use of resources acquired with difficulty in schools to achieve maximum results. As has been the case, funding is not consistent/reliable in remote rural ECD schools of Sub-Saharan African countries. Material resources are too limited in these remote rural schools. Therefore, the school head has to decide how best these limited resources can be used to promote effective teaching and learning by the children. It is one of the critical roles of the school head to ensure optimum use of these scarce resources. The school head plans, justifies, defends the school budget and manages to run the school within the limited resources. The school heads are expected to plan efficiently and effectively in the usage of these resources to ensure effective learning by the ECD children.

The proper management of existing resources is crucial if the school leader and his leadership team wish to establish a sound culture of effective teaching and learning (Naidu, Joubert, Mestry, Mosoge & Ngcobo, 2008). This has been further commended on by Hargreaves et al. (2010) and Lieberman (2008) confirming that it is clear that school leaders are required to improve the level of utilisation of educational facilities in order to realise effective use of available resources. Economic and wise use of available resources is called upon even to the teachers in the classrooms. School heads are expected to economically apportion resources to ECD classes depending on the class enrolment and needs. Monitoring and evaluation programme around these classes is also necessary to verify whether the resources are faithfully used.

2.7 Challenges faced by remote rural ECD schools

Challenges in the ECD programmes are similar in most of the African countries (Vargas-Baron, 2005). Identical challenges are common in most African countries in the remote rural ECD schools. The government is not recognising the importance of ECD education to the children‟s future; of which funding is shouldered by communities which is posing vast challenges in the programme (Tikly, 2010). Early childhood education is not yet a commitment to most African states; the governments are not yet allocating an adequate portion of funding (UNESCO, 2009). This emphasis on children‟s rights and protection was supposed to be backed by the government, meaning that the government was supposed to take the lion‟s share, in terms of resource contribution in the implementation of ECD

education programme. Now lack of funding is becoming challenging to school heads in running ECD schools in remote rural areas.

Mugweni (2011) identifies many challenges that are faced by remote rural ECD schools; among them is lack of appropriate infrastructure. Integration of ECD into the main primary school was an attempt to provide inclusive early childhood education to children in the country. However, in remote rural areas, parents and communities are relegated to provide resources in ECD schools; as a result they are poorly resourced. The learners are learning and habituating in unsatisfactory infrastructure and inappropriate play equipment. Mostly, these ECD centres are operating under sub-standard physical and academic environments as a result giving challenges to those who run the schools. Mushoriwa and Muzembe (2011) confirm that most remote rural Zimbabwean primary schools are having ECD classes under the trees. It is very difficult for remote rural communities to afford building classrooms for the ECD children, especially when considering that the areas are poverty afflicted (Mugweni, 2011). This view is supported by Zvobgo (2005) who provides challenges that hamper progression of the ECD programme in remote rural schools, which lack funding, teaching and learning materials to improve infrastructure.

Remote rural people are struggling to make a living with their families, since their economic lives are influenced by the erratic rainfall which causes drought (Zvobgo, 2005; Gardeva & Rhyne, 2011). They suffer high food insecurity, as a result struggle to feed, dress or pay levies for their children, because they have no income activities to get money to buy food and clothes or pay school levies for their children. As a result (Zvobgo, 2005) confirms that children fail to attend school due to the inability by the parents or guardians to pay school levies. Zvobgo (2005) goes on to say that in remote rural ECD schools, children"s turnout is negatively impacted by drought.

When parents fail to understand the value of ECD education, they tend to lose focus and fail to send them to school (Berns, 2007; Frederick, 2011). ECD education is a new phenomenon and due to lack of awareness most people, especially in rural areas, fail to understand the importance of the programme. Many parents regard ECD as a „child-day-care" programme and they do not consider it as a priority for their children (Mushoriwa & Muzembe, 2011). This has a similar loophole in most African countries: inadequate knowledge in the public

realm *vis-à-vis* the significance of ECD; and relegated importance of ECD within government (UNICEF, 2005). This denotes that even the government is not regarding ECD as an important programme in the country. The communities are used to seeing important programmes being funded by the government, now when they look at ECD; they take it as a sketch programme (Frederick, 2011). It is a very difficult situation for the school heads to partner with parents and communities that do not value this educational programme.

One of the critical challenges is the unavailability of qualified ECD teachers in the schools (Frederick, 2011). Considering teachers qualifications in the schools, Mugweni (2011) confesses that most ECD classes are managed by para-professionals. Further expatiating the view of teacher qualification are Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013) who elaborate that most remote rural ECD classes are manned by under qualified personnel. Recruitment of trained teachers to remote rural areas is not universally problematic; there are certain poor „hard-to-find remote rural schools" that continually face challenges of trained teachers (Monk, 2007; Laine, et al., 2011). This is the situation in China and it is common in most parts of the region like the underprivileged rural areas where qualified teachers are scarce (Rao, 2010). The above dispositions show that, remote rural schools are manned by the untrained personnel called para-professionals. This situation is threatening the attainment of quality education in ECD.

The issue of untrained teachers; teaching the ECD children draws attention to the fact of irrelevant curriculum and the use of unsuitable pedagogies in teaching and learning processes. Rao (2010) pronounces that the Chinese situation in ECD schools is renowned for over-crowding of children and use of whole group instruction. UNESCO and UNICEF (2012) also claim that, teaching and learning in ECD schools is still not conforming to the play-way methods; teachers are using didactic and academic methods of teaching. Early childhood education is facing developmentally inappropriate practices because these untrained teachers are using theoretical teaching giving little attention to methods that nurture child development. The para-professionals are not developed or equipped with appropriate practices of developing the curriculum and pedagogies suitable for the ECD children. Hence, they use out-dated teaching methods, since they are not knowledgeable of new pedagogies (Chikutuma & Mawere, 2012). These para-professionals lack up-to-date teaching skills and

knowledge, since they are not trained; as a result they compromise the quality of instruction in the classes.

Most parents in the rural communities do not have disposable income to pay ECD para-professionals allowances (Mugweni, 2011). The ECD programme is sponsored by parents and communities, who are failing to pay for their children. This brings to light the issue of low and irregular para-professionals allowances complicating efforts to improve the quality of early childhood education in remote rural ECD schools. Below is a quoted Kenyan situation:

> *Para-professionals get low and irregular allowances although most of Kenya's early childhood centres are public and usually attached to primary schools, they are mainly funded and managed by parents and local communities through parent/teacher associations(PTAs) or centre-based committees. Teachers' salaries are mostly, if not entirely, covered by parental fees, unlike primary teachers, who are paid by the Government on an official salary scale. The level of ECD teachers' remuneration depends on the total number of children enrolled and parents' contributory capacity and salary payment is irregular and fluctuates monthly depending on parents' contributions* (Hyde & Kabiru, 2006, p. 16).

These allowances are determined by the enrolment and more specifically by the capacity of the parents to pay for their children. It is greatly appreciated how these local communities collaborate and sacrifice the meagre resources to promote ECD in many parts of the world as shown above. However, in poor rural areas, lack of government funding on para-professionals" allowances is putting pressure on parents who cannot even provide for the education of their children (UNICEF, 2010). Many para-professionals are not getting their allowances on time; it is revealed that 90 per-cent of these para-professionals have owed allowances of about three months" worth (UNESCO, 2012). This late payment of allowances brings dissatisfaction in para-professionals, compelling them to spend time trying to earn incomes from other sources instead of planning and preparing for the next day"s lessons (UNICEF, 2010). This affects the children"s learning and worse the hard won school resources at the expense of the children. It is a pity for remote rural ECD schools that most trained teachers who are supposed to be paid by the government do not want to teach in remote rural areas (Lyons, 2006). Indeed, recruiting trained teachers to remote rural schools has presented a challenge for district-level leaders for years (Laine, et al., 2011). Remote

rural communities will continue to suffer in paying the para-professionals but ECD trained teachers are flooding in urban ECD schools (UNICEF, 2010). Indeed, this is posing big challenges to school heads and SDCs in running the schools.

Chikutuma and Mawere (2012) acknowledge the greatest challenge occurs when supervisors are being incompetent or unable to plan and run staff training workshops in ECD. Intensifying this issue Amponsah (2004) ricochets that; there are no feasible programmes in the surveyed districts to train school heads, teachers and para-professionals. It is clearly stated in the above literature, hence I argue that supervision skills need to be developed starting from the ministerial level to the grassroots. Many of these so called supervisors are incompetent and illiterate about what should really be done by teachers and children in the field of early childhood education (Chikutuma & Mawere, 2012). Amponsah (2004) cites one prototype:

> *A classic example of this is the recent appointment of the senior education officer at the Ministry Headquarters to co-ordinate early childhood services throughout the country. The officer is not a qualified early childhood person, but has qualifications in primary teaching. This officer is expected to offer a supervisory role both in the administrative and professional areas, not only to the ECD teachers, but to parents, families, and the community at large. So, this is indeed a major challenge in the development of quality service for young children and their families* **(Amponsah, p. 29)**.

In the same breath Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013, p. 36) state that school heads are not competent enough to supervise ECD activities, since they are not trained in the area. Myers (2006) mentions among others, ineffective monitoring of schools by District and Provincial officials is all part of the problem in ECD African countries. The requirements for ECD teacher training are more exceptional. Having a university degree tends to disguise most teachers as qualified to teach ECD classes; yet the degree in question might have nothing to do with early childhood theory or training. It is a prevailing challenge in many countries having these graduate teachers supervising ECD classes yet they are not trained for this particular sector (Doherty, et al., 2006; Meier & Marais, 2007). These diploma/degree-holder teachers, school heads and District or Provincial Officers who are mandated to teach or supervise the ECD classes need to be developed in their pedagogical and supervisory skills.

In addition, large classes at early years of learning interfere with the capacity of teachers in teaching (O"Sullivan, 2006). There are many inadequacies in the ECD schools in terms of teaching and learning materials like drawing materials, sizable furniture, outdoor play centres or even age appropriate toilets; all these negatively affects the quality of education (Mugweni & Dakwa, 2013). The other concern behind these citations is over-population in the classroom, which is related to little or no access to learning equipment and other learning materials which are most important and critical in the development of children"s basic skills and above all competencies (Mugweni, 2011). In some places they have introduced shifts and sometimes the shifts are triple in order to solve the problem of large classes, this has resulted in minimal contact hours which have a great impact in children"s development (Abadzi, 2008). According to Oruta (2009), most of the ECD centres attached to public primary schools in Kenya share facilities such as toilets; the condition of these toilets are not suitable for the young children in pre-school/the lower primary school. This purports that there are no age appropriate sanitary facilities in the schools. The ECD children are exposed to insecurity and unhealthy standards by sharing facilities with primary children. This creates problems for the school heads, since they are accountable for the dangers that affect these children.

2.8 Conclusion

The focus of this chapter was to review related literature on how the ECD schools respond to resource demand in the Sub-Saharan Africa and countries beyond. It started by defining African rurality as compared to western rurality. The international policy guidelines were exposed and the Zimbabwean ECD policy was given. The chapter assessed several quality determinants which are „key" to the provision of quality ECD education. The chapter went on to review the resource provision trends in Africa and the world over. The review went further to expose challenges that are faced by school heads in running their ECD programmes. Different systems which are used by school heads to mobilise resources for their schools, was noted.

It was noted that most of the governments in various countries cited in this chapter have decentralised establishing and maintaining ECD schools to local governance and the communities with minimum contribution from the government. Most countries enacted the twelfth and thirteenth principles of the CFSs; democratic participation by the parents, communities. Hence, the co-ordination of parents, local communities and the donor communities (both local and international) are taking part in providing resources to the ECD

schools. Parents and local communities are providing resources in terms of levies they pay and in the form of materials and labour. They have SDCs that are spearheading this resource mobilisation under the auspices of the school heads and chiefs.

The school heads are star players in running the process of resource mobilisation, simultaneously managing the effective and economic use of the resources by the teachers. The authorities strongly agreed that the school heads cannot perform all administrative roles alone therefore deputy heads, TICs and teachers need to be developed and empowered. Administrative decision-making proved to be sound from a group than from one individual. Through this leadership team, the parents and communities can be persuaded via the SDCs to physically produce teaching and learning resources or/and collectively build and supply furniture and all necessary resources for effective teaching and learning in the ECD classes.

It was noted that empowering the management team is not sufficient unless the ECD teachers are fully professionally developed and empowered. For effective teaching and learning, ECD teachers should be empowered and professionally developed so that they adopt the OCBs. It was noted that most of the ECD instructional materials can be made manually and locally from natural or recycled materials. Hence when teachers have adopted the OCBs they can work beyond normal duties and facilitate the production of these articles. These teachers can still do it through scraping around in the locality or linking directly with individual parents, which might be more effective.

However, the only noted challenge was owed salaries, especially to the para-professionals. Remote rural parents can hardly obtain adequate money to pay for their children‟s levies. These teachers are disheartened by this salary issue. The issue of using para-professionals which might take a decade to fully supply all schools with ECD trained teachers since colleges and universities are producing teachers in small number each year and most of them are absorbed in town. Overall, the issue of resource demand has perpetuated the reciprocal duties of school heads. The way in which schools respond to resource demand depends on the leadership styles adopted by the school head. For effective lesson delivery by teachers, this depends solely on the leadership strategies used by the school head.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

3.1 Introduction

As stated in the first chapter of this thesis, the focus of this study is to examine remote rural ECD schools" responses to resource demand and the extent to which these responses address teaching and learning needs in the ECD classes. In this chapter, I present the theories that underpin this study. There are two theories that make up a theoretical framework for this study. The two theories are Invitational Leadership Theory and the Transformational Leadership Theory. I am using Invitational leadership Theory as reconstructed by Purkey and Siegel (2003) and I am also using Transformational Leadership Theory as advocated by Burns (1978).

I begin this chapter by presenting the theoretical orientation of the research. Following that is the presentation and discussion of the Invitational Leadership Theory in relation to the study, and then the same is going to be done for the Transformational Leadership Theory. In these discussions, I include the influence of each theory on teacher personal and professional development and empowerment as leadership intentions for effective ECD teaching and learning. I proceed to discuss how school heads use each theory to influence stakeholders to contribute to the ECD resource mobilisation. This is followed by a discussion on Invitational education, bringing in the learner as invited to learn. Finally, I conclude the chapter by presenting a prerogative discussion on how school heads as invitational transformers play crucial roles in harmonising high demand to low supply of resources in remote rural ECD schools. These theories are discussed separately in that order.

3.2 The theoretical orientation of the study

In this section, prior to delving into the elaboration on how these theories underpin the study, it is important to explicitly elaborate on how the two theories are relevant for the qualitative research approach used in this research. Each theory is going to be elaborated independently, giving the key features that classify them under the interpretivist paradigm and more importantly workable with the qualitative methods.

3.3 Invitational Leadership Theory

Invitational Leadership Theory is predominantly concerned with how people are connected, co-operate, and communicate (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey & Novak, 2008). It is concerned with the total progress by all who work together with the organisation (Purkey, 2006). Invitational Leadership Theory is regarded as a principled theory of practice that is concerned with a set of constant suppositions about human activities and philosophy (Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008). This is all about how people interact with each other in their everyday practices in the organisations. The founder of Invitational Leadership Theory, William Watson Purkey (1991) outlines that in Invitational leadership the most important aspect is respect, which regard people as associates who are capable, valuable, responsible and deserving of respect. Invitational leadership is an ethical endeavour, where the leader intentionally gives respect and trust to himself and stakeholders at inter-personal and professional levels (Purkey & Novak, 2008). This leader is unique in seeking to empower members of the organisation asking them to meet their goals as a condition of success and self-fulfilment (Purkey, 2006; Reimer, 2010). This entails that invitational qualities portrayed by the leader support the effort exerted by others in the organisation in their attempt to succeed, for instance learners, teachers and the community. It has to do with unity of purpose and how the leaders are concerned with the individual and organisational changes.

Invitational leadership believes in total participation by team members in the organisation as a way of achieving a fair ground between the leaders and the led (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008). Invitational leaders are mostly concerned with people and their intimate success while the leaders take care of all necessary aspects of the organisation (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey, 2006). In this version, Purkey and Novak (2008) classified Invitational Leadership Theory in the qualitative framework. This involves the interpretive research that is concerned with how people work together, experience their own life and how they construct meanings to their actions (Merriam, 2009). Invitational Leadership Theory was created to respond to the development of an inviting environment that calls for all those involved to realise their potentialities (Purkey, 2006). Therefore it has been located in the interpretivist paradigm. These contextual factors play a very important role as the school head invites learners, teachers, parents and both local and international communities to work successfully as a team in the establishment and maintenance of safe and

child-friendly ECD schools. It is for this reason that qualitative research study was deliberated most suitable for this study. Having appropriately chosen the Invitational Leadership Theory to underpin the study will help the remote rural ECD schools transform into a better state.

3.3.1 The evolution of the Invitational Leadership Theory

Invitational leadership is an inspirational move from the same leadership theories that are based on power differentials between the leader and the followers, to a different leadership style that supports unity of purpose among colleagues showing individualised consideration in the educational system (Steyn, 2014). This study grants a method to developing and maintaining conducive and effective remote rural ECD schools by applying Invitational Leadership Theory and practice (Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008; Smith, 2012). Invitational Leadership Theory is devoted to developing a conceptual background that takes care of the total situation and culture of the remote rural ECD schools by inviting all stakeholders to successfully transform the schools into welcoming climates that are nurtured by relevant resources for holistic teaching and learning (Haigh, 2011). This was augmented by Purkey and Novak (2008) who acknowledge Invitational Leadership Theory as a more comprehensive, universal style of leadership that speaks of the total situation in which leaders operate.

Invitational Leadership Theory is based on some beliefs that attempt to define the area of concern and develop ways of intentionally supporting people to realise their unlimited capabilities in the areas of worthwhile human effort (Purkey, 2006). It is believed that Invitational Leadership Theory tries to invite all concerned people to be successful (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey & Novak 2008; Steyn, 2010). From the above citations it is clear that the school heads have those intentions to invite people so that they can realise their potentials. Before I go further, I must elaborate the concept of „inviting".

Invitational Leadership Theory believes that the way a leader interacts with others displays invitations or disinvitations/repelling attitudes. Bhengu and Mkhize (2013) assert that the disinvitations metaphor refers to messages to people (intentional or unintentional), which are uncaring, patronising, devaluing, intolerant, discriminatory and hurtful. This propounds that disinviting messages send intentional/unintentional communication that others are incapable,

worthless and irresponsible. People are keenly aware of the nuances in massages they receive; they remain passive and decide not to take part. To the contrary, an invitation is a gesture that appeals for *esprit de corps* (attention) (Haigh, 2011; Pedder & Opfer, 2011). In addition, Bhengu and Mkhize (2013) describe invitations as those messages that are friendly, that telling people that they have ability, value and are responsible. This entails that inviting messages affirm and guide people to deliberately choose to join and participate in the organisation. Parents and communities feel at liberty to join the organisation when they are invited. Therefore, the way in which people respond to the leader of the organisation is usually subjected to how people feel welcomed or unwelcomed. This is helpful in understanding, for example, the manner in which teachers and other stakeholders respond to the school head‟s „invitations or disinvitations‟ (Bhengu & Mkhize, 2013; Steyn, 2014).

The purpose of Invitational Leadership Theory is to develop the perfect working environment that intentionally summons success for everyone in the school (Steyn, 2005; Haigh, 2011). Extending this view, Stillion and Siegel (2005) and Steyn (2010) posit that Invitational Leadership Theory strives to summon all concerned stakeholders to become successful. Further augmenting the idea, Purkey and Novak (2008) and Steyn (2005) describe it as a set of beliefs that aim to develop an entire work environment that is cordial and encourages stakeholders to become aware of their collective capabilities. This postulates that the main aim of education is to support people so that they become conscious of their capabilities in life, thus achieving the societal goals through taking part in the development of the nation. This leadership style revolves itself around giving an inspirational motivation to others towards common goals through equipping them to realise their endless possibilities (Burns, 2010; Shaw, Siegle & Schoenlien, 2013).

To achieve Invitational Leadership Theory goals, it is the duty of the invitational leaders to take heed. Stillion and Siegel (2005) articulate that, invitational leaders work to develop a warm work climate where stakeholders are able to accomplish set objectives and potential while taking part in common vision and mission of the group. This is to say that invitational leaders are ethically committed to create an inviting climate that accepts people as able, valuable and responsible. These leaders value teamwork and group effort, and they aim to utilise the available possibilities in all areas of human effort.

The inclusion of the five powerful factors (5Ps) specifically helps to make Invitational leadership an exclusive and common leadership theory (Stillion & Siegel, 2005). In substantiating that, Smith (2012) and Shaw et al. (2013) opine that messages are communicated through inter-personal action, but also through organisational policies, programmes, processes, and physical environments. Further elaborating the point, Purkey and Novak (2008) affirm schools becoming invitational through concentrating on a specific framework that comprises of five areas that contribute to success/failure: the places, policies, programmes, processes, and people. The authors are certain that the aforementioned elements add up to the development of a constructive school environment and finally an effective and successful organisation. Aptly, this asserts that every individual and everything within the school community and from the outside environment contribute to disadvantage learners from benefitting in their educational endeavour (Steyn, 2005; Purkey, 2006). Ideally, these elements should be welcoming in nature so as to develop a school in which all stakeholders contribute in supplying resources for ECD learners to develop intellectually, emotionally, socially, physically, healthily and culturally. The following section initiates in the theoretical base of the five powerful „Ps".

3.3.2 The powerful 'Ps' of the Invitational Leadership Theory

Firstly, *places* refer to the physical environment of an organisation (Purkey & Novak, 2008). In considering improvements regarding places, we refer to the physical environment of an organisation (Purkey, 2006; Shaw, et al., 2013) like, outdoor play centre, well-maintained buildings and grounds, Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) facilities and attractive classrooms with well displayed indoor play areas. These can send invitational messages to the learners and to the community. Since places are seen physically by the naked eyes, they are important to ensure a positive environment with well managed features to illuminate the organisation"s appearance (Purkey & Novak, 2008).

Secondly, the development of inviting *programmes* becomes yet another component in Stallion and Siegel"s (2005) framework for creating a warm and effective organisation. Invitational leaders believe that it is essential to monitor programmes to attain the objectives which they were meant for (Purkey, 2006). A school with warm and inviting environment presents a variety of innovative and attractive programmes. For instance, day-to-day activity timetables for the school, teacher-parental associations, and academic and co-curricular programmes, excursion and sports competitions to mention a few. Schools with inviting

programmes find many people who have an interest to partner with the school. Thus, parents prefer to send their children to a particular school, withdrawing them from another school.

Thirdly, the component of *policies* is another area which determines success or failure in Invitational leadership. Policies are written or unwritten procedures, codes or rules that are provided by the school to enhance the intended operations of individuals in the organisation (Purkey, 2006). Invitational leaders always formulate polices which create positive and productive opportunities for the organisation, without stifling creativity and individuality (Burns, 2010; Smith, 2012). School policies which are successfully formulated in a warm school climate are developed to enhance togetherness, collaboration and communication (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008; Peddler & Opfer, 2011). Schools that create such policies develop a supportive, instead of a competitive environment. These school policies are democratically developed, easy to understand, and made available to everyone involved. Usually these policies are a result of a participatory decision making process, where every member has a contribution.

Fourthly, *'processes'* are the democratic coordinator of the other Ps in Invitational Leadership Theory (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey & Novak, 2008). A process is how something is accomplished (Purkey, 2006). The process addresses the ways in which people, programmes, places and policies function (Purkey & Novak, 2008). This purports that a process is actually the way in which policies and programmes are run by those people responsible in the school. The processes that are engaged in the school should invite free participation by all stakeholders in order to transform the school. Ideas, suggestions, and concerns are welcomed in the inviting school.

The fifth element is the aspect of *people* who can contribute to success or failure of the organisation (Purkey & Novak, 2008). Purkey (2006) affirms that the most important aspect in life are people; creation of a respectful, optimistic, trusting and intentional nation is done by people, hence every worthwhile human endeavour should be focused to improve life experiences in the school setup. In this essential area, leaders should successfully develop effective schools in which people can realise their influence in the progress of the school (Burns, 2007). People are the only resource that is geared to transform schools by developing

an inviting school environment. School leaders should create and nurture supporting collegialities in order to summon forward the human potential. Therefore, the following section is going to account for the four principles that are used to make collegial relationships among people for improving the school environment.

3.3.3 The key principles underpinning the Invitational Leadership

Strategically summoning people, places, policies, programmes, and processes within the context of trust, respect, optimism, and intentionality offers an approach which targets to achieve effective transformation of schools (Egley, 2005; Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008; Steyn, 2014). Optimism is the belief that people have unutilised capabilities for progress and development (Purkey, 2006; Reimer, 2010). Shaw et al. (2013) suggest that the main function of the leader is to develop and maintain hope and optimism in the organisation. Purkey and Novak (2008) acknowledge a hopeful leader as one who has the ability to regard challenging situations as opportunities and consider the unmanageable to be simply tests. This has an impression that the optimistic leader sees difficulties rather than impossibilities, embracing challenges and change. This leader treats everyone in the school accordingly fully convinced that they are able, valuable, and responsible (Purkey & Novak, 2008). Actually this leader has hope in everyone in the school, including people in the school community and the outside communities.

Respect is the most essential requirement in human life (Purkey, 2006). Invitational leaders have the belief that everyone is due respect (Egley, 2005; Steyn, 2014). This entails that everyone is worthy, due to be recognised and respected. When an individual is respected, it depicts the belief in the worth and value of that particular individual. Respect among organisational members lead to an inviting, inclusive workplace where individuals are regarded as unique beings who can flourish.

Trust is a critical part of effective leadership contributing directly to an organisation's success (Stillion & Siegel, 2005). It is an art of having confidence in our performance and those of others (Egley, 2005; Purkey & Novak, 2008). Consequently, development of confidence in us and others is the trademark of an effective leader who can easily contribute to the success of an organisation (Burns, 2007; Steyn, 2010).

Safe and effective schools are easily identified with the creation and maintenance of inviting physical environment, policies, programmes and processes that are implemented by people who are intentionally welcoming others to successfully work together in the organisation (Purkey, 2006). Intentionality is another important component to the Invitational Leadership Theory. An intention is; a decision to objectively perform an action in a certain style in order to accomplish a set goal (Steyn, 2010; Shaw, et al., 2013). Steyn (2014) defines intentionality as the ability to associate one‟s intentions with the action taken. Therefore, purpose and meaning are significant aspects of intentionality, hence understanding our intention and the way we want it to happen gives clarity and direction to our work (Stillion & Siegel, 2005). This propounds that intention is to know what we want to achieve as well as knowing the technique that we use. Therefore, the art of creating and pursuing certain straight forward intentions help the process of organisational growth and success.

It is the relationship between the five P's and the four basic principles that makes the Invitational Leadership Theory comprehensive. The four basic assumptions exemplify the characteristics of invitational leaders, which should also be possessed by every individual in the organisation. People are responsible for creating respectful, optimistic, trusting and intentional organisations (Purkey, 2006). When implemented in the educational setting, the elements of Invitational leadership combine to create an environment that is cohesive, efficient, and conducive for success. In possession of the four basic assumptions, invitational leaders play around with the physical environment, stakeholders, programmes, processes and policies to invite everyone who has a stake in the success of the school to participate and synergy is generated as all work toward a common goal (Stillion & Siegel, 2005).

3.3.4 Promoting effective teaching and learning through Invitational Leadership Theory

Invitational Leadership Theory has the assumptions that learning can only be supported if the learners are invited into the learning experiences (Haigh, 2011). This is to say that the goal of Invitational Leadership Theory is to create a school environment that supports ECD learners in the school by instilling in them intellectual, emotional, social, physical, health and cultural development. According to Purkey (2006), the school environment should be overwhelmed with an atmosphere of excitement and satisfaction for all the learners. Smith (2012) suggests

that every child counts for an invitational school which is effective and safe. If learners are given chances to participate in school activities, there is much hope of success for individual learner (Purkey, 2006; Haigh, 2011).These invitational schools possess warm environments that provide for a variety of stimulating and attracting programmes for the children (Steyn, 2014). Hence, Invitational Leadership Theory provides a background for making ECD schools more stimulating, nourishing, and inspiring for every learner in the learning process (Smith, 2012; Steyn, 2014). Steyn (2010) and Smith (2012) pronounce that, effective schools are inviting in nature.

Invitational schools are concerned with formulation of inviting learning activities that help in the monitoring and eliminating de-motivational elements that disturb learning at both personal and the organisational levels (Foote & Rinaldo, 2010). This removal of all obstacles that interferes with progress in the school is the critical target of a learning invitation (Purkey, 2006; Smith, 2010). This propounds that Invitational Leadership Theory removes the negatives that prohibit learners from learning. Thus, when all inhibitors are removed from the school environment, learners would be the position to realise their unlimited potentials. Given an optimally inviting environment, in such an inviting environment free from inhibitors, each learner discovers the most suitable ways of exploring and manipulating; for example in child-initiated learning, ECD learners need an opportunity to a stimulating environment because they are young and are intrinsically motivated with a self-belief in their personal interests (Greer, 2012). They must be fully convinced that their teachers have the skills and knowledge, constantly inviting learners at a convenient time, in the correct format to experience good learning (Fulton & Britton, 2011; Steyn, 2014).

The five pillars are crucial for creating the environment for (for example places) effective ECD learning (Smith, 2012; Steyn, 2014). It is easy to identify a well arranged and exciting classroom environment (Purkey & Novak, 2008; Bergen, et al., 2009). Invitational teachers intentionally create exciting play areas and present interesting play-way pedagogies that invite and attract ECD children to like learning. Programmes encourage active engagement with significant content (Steyn, 2005; Purkey, 2006; Meier & Marais, 2007). Programmes, whether formal or informal, curricular or co-curricular, should benefit everyone (Purkey & Novak, 2008; Rabichund & Steyn, 2014). Holistic pedagogies intertwined with the relevant curriculum taught by trained and committed teachers who are caring can help to intensify the effectiveness of the instructional programme, as well as promote the standards for child

development (Bredekamp & Copple, 2009; Bilton, 2010; Palaiologou, 2012; Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013).Waite (2011) added that the establishment of attractive and exciting programmes is critical especially for learners. Learners should be supported to take responsibility, to be involved, and to speak with their own voices (Steyn, 2010; Kyoung, 2012). This can only be achieved when the programmes offered at the school are responding to the needs of the learners for instance, giving them chances to compete in curricular activities, academic competitions and child-initiated learning. By so doing ECD learners feel encouraged to take the learning initiative, be involved and speak their minds. Subsequently, Kyoung (2012) affirms the Convention on the Right of the Child which emphasises the need for schools to listen to ECD children.

Policies influence the experiences of those involved in the school (Steyn, 2014). The invitational leaders develop inviting policies regarding how ECD teaching and learning processes and programmes should be run. Common polices in the ECD school systems are the timetables stipulating workloads per day, feeding schemes, immunisation (primary-health care and services), and education policies, for instance, the teacher: pupil ratio. Policies should reflect trust, optimism, respect, care and intentionality for learners in the school (Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008). These policies are inviting enough to attract children to feel wanted and learn happily (Alexander, 2011; Burns, 2010).

Education is the dynamic result of the interaction of two processes; teaching and learning (Haigh, 2011). This propounds that learning is what learners do, and teaching is what teachers do. In ECD the learner is the main player and the teacher follows to guide and instruct (McMullen, et al., 2005; Smith, 2010; Chikutuma & Mawere, 2012). The process is more important than the end result; how children learn matters (Riner, 2003; Smith, 2010). The interaction between the teacher and the learners is what we call learning. Hence, the right choice of learning pedagogies is of great importance to the ECD learners (Steyn, 2014). Well planned and prepared lessons taught by invitational teachers help to increase the effectiveness of the instructional processes, as well as promoting physical, emotional, social, intellectual and healthy development in the learners (Kehily, 2009; Palaiologou, 2012; Wood, 2013).

Bredekamp and Copple (2009), Hughes (2010) and Profeta (2010) indicate that invitational leadership is focused on improving health and safety in schools for the learners. Hence, the environment should basically be safe from diseases and the learners should have the primary

health care facilities accessible to them. This is to say that a healthy body nurtures the mind to function expeditiously (Smith, 2010). However, it is argued by Waite (2011) and Hughes (2010) that learners often feel disinvited when teachers overlook or take them for granted, eliminating them from taking part in school activities. Hughes (2010) and Haigh (2011) further explain that these learners are disheartened and discouraged when teachers take no cognisance to invite ECD learners to participate in school life. They are marginalised because of their age. Invitational teachers offer to create caring environments, programmes, processes and policies that give learners opportunities to realise their potentials. The following section gives us the episode on how empowered and professionally developed teachers can create school climates that nurture effective learning by ECD learners.

3.3.5 Implementing professional development of teachers through Invitational Leadership Theory

This section elaborates fully the principles of the Invitational Leadership Theory inclined to teacher development. As was discussed in Section 2.5, the teacher is the most important resource in the school (Elmore, 2006; Laine, et al., 2011). Deiner (2010) and William (2010) confirm that investment in teachers results in effective change in teaching and learning. Apparently, Deiner (2010) and Haigh (2011) assert that investment in people often results in effective change.Teachers will not improve their teaching strategies, unless they learn new strategies to teach (Hargreaves et al., 2010; Sigurðardóttir, 2010; Pedder & Opfer, 2011). Knowledge is contingent; professionals need constant up-dating of knowledge and skills, for effective teaching (Steyn, 2005; Arthur, et al., 2008; Reimer, 2010). Hence, invitational theory aims to empower teachers with much needed relevant skills and up-to-date knowledge in order to effectively teach the ECD learners.

Effective teaching is an obligation for all educators in the school community. Hence, fostering a supportive community that contribute to the seasoning of novice teachers to become effective teachers and grooming of seasoned teachers to become great teachers is important in providing a professional development framework for the teachers and a conducive learning environment for learners (Fulton, Yoon & Lee, 2005; Haigh, 2011). According to the research conducted by Steyn (2005), proposed is a model that brings about effective change in how teachers teach. Hence, the following sub-section gives us the details of the model.

3.3.6 Proposed model for influencing teacher professional development in schools

The growing body of research on professional development contributes consistent strategies for planning and implementing professional development that may lead to the improvement of programmes in schools (figure, 3.1 below).

Improved teacher Learning and learner Performance

Educators learning styles

Processing preferences: Environmental; Emotional; Socio-ecological; Psychological; Physiological Learning features: Discourse attunement; Sharing learning concerns; Contribution respected;

Educator commitment and change

Personal goals
Capacity beliefs
Context beliefs
Emotional   arousal

Effectiveness of Professional Development

Transformational leadership

Identifying & sharing a vision
Cultivating acceptance of cooperative
Goals
Creating high expectations
Providing individualised support
Offering intellectual stimulation
Providing an appropriate
model Strengthening school culture

Requirements of programme

Form; Time; Duration
Collective participation
Support by management &
Educators
 Type professional development
Core features of professional
Development programmes
Evaluation

Out-of school conditions

Policies and
Programmes of
Authorities and local
Community
Resources
Funding
Control

In-school conditions

School culture
School structure
School size
Regular PD
Collaboration
Feedback

Figure: 3.1 Factors influencing the professional development of educators (**Steyn, 2005, p. 266**).

Identified are factors that are found in the model such as learning styles of teachers, teachers' commitment to change, Transformational leadership, personal factors, out-of-school conditions, in-school conditions and requirements of a professional development programme (Steyn, 2005). The following paragraphs briefly describe how each of these factors impacts on professional development.

3.3.6.1 Learning styles of educators

These professional development programmes are based on the needs identified among the teachers (Steyn, 2005). Invitational leadership ensures effective professional development by personalising these sessions, for example taking the para-professionals who are unable to plan work for the children or those who cannot interpret the syllabus. Teachers are involved in learning programmes that accommodate their preferences, and this makes them acquire knowledge and skills and become motivated to use what they learnt for the benefit of the children.

These professional development programmes consider a number of elements like the individual's environmental, emotional, socio-ecological, psychological and physiological processing preferences. Environmental factors focus on comfortable and well equipped venues for professional development programmes. The emotional factors focus on personal ownership; teachers are interested to be considered in staff learning for self-efficacy (Steyn, 2010). Sociological factors are understood through a collaborative process by „seasoned teachers" within and outside the school, in order to gain expertise from others, as a result enhancing teaching (Steyn, 2014). Physiological factors are based on considering all sense organs versus materials that match individual needs (Haigh, 2011; Steyn, 2014). This refers to the use of auditory, visual, tactile, and kinaesthetic materials, matching them to each trainee"s strengths (Steyn, 2005). There is need for attunement to others' discourse. Due to learning diversity, the way in which teachers participate in the programmes should be respected since they are from diverse backgrounds, for instance para-professionals and trained teaching staff developed together. During the programmes, all the participants have the right to air their views and be heard. Participants should feel that they are not threatened with regard to their identity. For example, infant teachers who are now teaching ECD phase change in their teaching methods and may feel that their experiences are threatened since they have to change their teaching strategies. These teachers are changing from academic teaching to play-way methods suitable for ECD.

3.3.6.2. Educator commitment and change

The teachers' commitment is very important since professional development will not have impact if the teachers are not committed (Leithwood, 2007). Teacher's individual aspirations offer a vital source of teacher commitment, thereby stimulating the teacher's course of action. Capacity beliefs refer to emotional conditions, for example, self-efficacy, self-confidence, academic self-concept and aspects of self-esteem (Steyn, 2005; Purkey & Novak, 2008). When the teacher has trust in himself or herself, s/he is dedicated to become part of the learning community. Context beliefs revolve around the school environment (the SDC structure); their funding of professional development programmes in the school or provision of other resources for teachers to effectively implement changes in their classroom practices (Steyn, 2005; Purkey, 2006). Schools that already have environments that reveal inviting practices can easily become intentionally inviting for professional development of teachers. The school has to develop an attitude of enthusiasm in teachers, to activate a learning spirit and to maintain spirit for continuous learning.

3.3.6.3 Transformational leadership

School leaders play an important role in developing the overall warm climate of a school (Steyn, 2010). If the school head chooses to send inviting messages; the school climate will be enhanced, and the total school environment will be effectively transformed (Steyn, 2005; Purkey, 2006). Usually the school head's leadership philosophies are closely related to teachers' morale at the work place and outcomes. Transformational leadership involves a special kind of leader and follower relationship, in which the leader can make ordinary people do extraordinary things in the face of difficulty (Steyn, 2005). The transformational leader has the influence, inspiration, stimulation and attention that should be given to the teachers (Steyn, 2010).

3.3.6.4 In-school conditions

The value and benefits from collaborating trainees and trainers have greater value than the costs in terms of time, energy and resources used during the training programme (Purkey & Novak, 2008). Working in an inviting, friendly and supportive school environment makes the school less intimidating and more worthwhile (Steyn, 2005). School culture is a variable that affects teacher commitment to change, bearing in mind that teacher commitment has a direct impact on professional development. Professional development should therefore provide

opportunities for teachers to discuss their achievements and problems as they employ new strategies (Snell & Janney, 2005). In this way, the collaboration will contribute towards the development of a positive school culture that is committed to being inviting and the creation of better learning opportunities for all (Steyn, 2005). Individual follow-up, staff dialogues, mentoring and coaching usually make the programme more effective and continual (Snell & Janney, 2005; Steyn, 2005; Purkey & Novak, 2008). Therefore, the school as an open system does not operate in isolation, but is part of a larger system in which it has to meet goals set by for instance, the ministry of education (Steyn, 2005).

3.3.6.5 Out-of-school conditions

Conditions outside schools have the potential to influence how the schools function (Steyn, 2014). Outside school conditions impact on professional development as part of the school system. Policies and programmes of authorities and local community and legislation are tailored to improve learners' abilities to succeed in school (Steyn, 2005; Shaw, et al., 2013). The quality of teaching and learning depends on the provision of structural and technical resources from the outside environment. Parents, communities and other stakeholders provide the school with technical resources such as equipment and materials and financial resources like family income and school funding (Steyn, 2005). Planning for continuous professional development depends more on the availability of the necessary funding, for example para-professionals continue to attend workshops as long they get sponsorship from the parents, community or local and international donors.

3.3.6.6 Requirements of programmes

There are some important structural factors that influence professional development like the duration of the programmes, the content-focus and the processes of learning and coherence (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey & Novak, 2008). Quick fixes are not encouraged; teachers who need training should also be involved in planning the appropriate time for their training. To treat time as a linear, uniform concept may lead to misdirected professional development efforts and a lack of meaningful teacher participation (Steyn, 2014). Professional development programmes should have a long life span to allow assimilation of skills in the teachers (Snell & Janney, 2005; Steyn, 2005). Collective participation contributes to a collaborative professional spirit where teachers develop the same values and goals regarding teaching and learning in ECD (Egley, 2005). In the absence of collective participation, the possibility for change and development in the school is inadequate. In order for professional

development programmes to be effective, both leadership and other teachers should support them, for example the school head, TIC and deputy head should support the para-professionals (Steyn, 2010). The professional development programme should suit the need of particular trainees (as discussed above), at school level these activities should suit, for example, newly inducted teachers. They and seasoned teachers cannot be trained together. Hence the one-size-fits all can be inappropriate, since the training sessions will include para-professionals and junior trained teachers who might be operating at different stages in mastery of certain skills and knowledge (Steyn, 2005; Shaw, et al., 2013).

The content should be regulated and modified to be suitable for the teachers who are being trained, thus ECD content should be considered commensurate for para-professionals. Teacher trainees should be actively involved during the programme presentations and feedback on their inviting practices afterwards (Snell & Janney, 2005; Shaw, et al., 2013). Active learning encourages teachers to become involved in meaningful discussions, planning and practice as part of the professional development programmes in the course (Steyn, 2010). The programme should be evaluated, but this should be based on behavioural change, making a follow-up to evaluate how these teachers teach. However, the school's approach should conform to conditions for successful development of an autonomous learning system where the most valuable asset is the school's ability to build upon its lived experience, to learn from experience and to turn it into a better performance by inviting all to work out for themselves what that performance will be (Steyn, 2005).

In accordance with the above discussion based on Invitational Leadership Theory, the school transformation system is based on the professional development of the teachers who take part in professional learning communities to effectively teach the ECD children. The professionally developed teacher has a marked difference which is noted in individual and team work, like planning lessons together, preparing media and organising exciting pedagogies which invite children to learn. The whole process brings about improved teacher effectiveness in teaching and improved learning by ECD children.

3.3.7 The influence of Invitational Leadership Theory on stakeholder involvement

School heads are not confined in the school community only, but to invite the outside community to contribute to the upkeep of the ECD programme (Ngwenya, 2010; Sigurðardóttir, 2010; Greer, 2012; Shaw, et al., 2013). Networking is the first and foremost duty that the invitational leaders are required to perform. Like any other organisations, the school cannot operate in isolation; it needs integration and communication with all stakeholders; for instance, parents, traditional leaders, communities both local and international, government departments (like teachers" colleges and universities) and various ministerial departments for its survival (ADEA, 2006). Invitational leaders need to connect these interaction channels for collaboration and cohesion (Purkey, 2006).Therefore this section is devoted to stakeholder involvement for ECD resource mobilisation.

Stakeholder involvement in school programmes is a worldwide renowned exercise and is regarded as the most effective contemporary educational transformation (Ngwenya, 2010). Invitational Leadership Theory believes that stakeholder involvement has high contributory factors to the development and maintenance of safe and effective schools (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008). Invitational leaders are dedicated to develop effective schools by involving all stakeholders in the decision-making processes (Smith, 2012; Steyn, 2014). Stakeholders are interested in being engaged in the school business as long as such engagement are well planned and organised (Ngwenya, 2010). This collaboration of the minds and efforts does not only enhance the management style of the school head but also impacts positively the realisation of effective teaching and learning as all stakeholders collectively embark on a quality conscious campaign (Ngwenya, 2010).

The invitational leaders display optimistic attitudes when engaging with stakeholders, and even when presented with a difficult situation like shortages of resources. The leaders are compelled by such difficult situations to trust and respect all stakeholders so that teamwork is maximised (Purkey & Novak, 2008). When resources are insufficient, these leaders demonstrate willingness to engage in these initiatives that see the school through. The characteristic of optimism is a key component of being a leader because change is accepted as a necessary step for personal and professional enrichment instead of being perceived as a threat (Purkey & Novak, 2008). The school leaders are intentional when they demonstrate such acts as engaging in relationships with stakeholders, conducting meetings, and working

with teachers and children in the school. Education should involve all role players: learners, parents, teachers and the community. Invitational Leadership Theory believes that every individual has untapped potential that is waiting to be discovered and this potential can be realised when these people are invited (Elmore, 2006; Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008). Therefore, by intentionally inviting stakeholders in ECD programmes, schools make resource mobilisation an easy task.

Invitational leaders maintain the school as an open system to allow and maintain regular and clear two-way communication with all stakeholders (Ngwenya, 2010). Thus, parents are encouraged to contribute in the formulation of school policies and actively participate in decision-making processes on the school programmes. The school leaders promote parent and community volunteer participation, where parents can come to construct play centres at the school or hand make teaching and learning materials for ECD learners (Bush, 2008; Smith, 2012; Udommana, 2012). Leaders maintain a welcoming school environment to allow parents to feel comfortable, valued, needed, and cherished (Ngwenya, 2010; Steyn, 2014). Teacher-parent collaboration can give good benefits to remote rural ECD schools (UNICEF, 2010). Invitational school heads adopt open door policies in schools to establish working structures that enforce resource mobilisation by the parents and communities. This gives a leeway for parents and communities to take part in the programmes for the sake of their children"s education. It is a socialistic ideology that parents and communities are contributing in the educational programmes for a better nation through a strong foundation in ECD (UNICEF, 2006; UNESCO, 2012).

Invitational leaders communicate with the parents in a non-judgemental attitude to understand reasons for non-involvement (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008). Sometimes parents just need information and encouragement in order to participate in school programmes (Ngwenya, 2010; Greer, 2012). Therefore, it is vital for school leaders to make some home visits especially for the parents who do not attend school meetings for whatever reason (Stillion & Siegel, 2005). The venues for the parent-teacher meetings should be changed from the school to other places like the community centres and church locations, for those parents who may be intimidated by the school environment to attend (Ngwenya, 2010). Thus invitational leaders need to be patient but continue to

encourage parents who are reluctant to get involved in school programmes. Though parents are poor; if they are given some education they support the school programmes (Amponsah, 2004). Having good relations with parents and community members result in benefits to schools in a number of ways (Courtiney, 2008; Rose, 2010).

Invitational leaders exhibit inviting behaviour to form partnerships with donors and local businesses to provide resources, funding, and expertise to benefit ECD learners (Ngwenya, 2010; Greer, 2012). Developing partnerships with donors and the business communities help to develop a sense of ownership in their schools (Schmidt, 2004; Shaw, et al., 2013). This confirms that, if schools build trusting relationships with parents and the community, they respect the name of the school and get involved in the ECD programme. This makes resource mobilisation easier to deal with, having the parents supporting the school. If school leaders build relationships with donors and the business community, this sector assists immensely (Smith, 2012; Shaw, et al., 2013). It has proved to be a crucial role that invitational school heads manage their relationships with donors and community members for the transformation of remote rural ECD schools (Burns, 2010). Working as a group towards resource mobilisation for ECD would really be a walk-over deal, unlike individual projects.

The bigger the group working towards the development of ECD programme, the lesser the intensity of contributions expected from each member player. This has been discussed in Section 2.4.6, where people contribute through labour service, money, hand-making toys and even donating necessities for the children (ARNEC, 2012). Thus, this sharing of responsibilities buffers the discomfort among contributors. Hence, invitational school heads in the remote rural ECD schools can better transform schools by involving teachers, parents, local and international donor communities to co-operatively work for the procurement of resources for the ECD classes.

3.3.8 Influence of Invitational Leadership Theory on school leadership

Invitational leaders exhibit more aspects of personally and professionally inviting behaviours (Steyn, 2014). Invitational leadership aims at inviting all interested stakeholders to succeed (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey, 2006). They send positive messages to the learners, teachers, parents and the community making them feel they are valued, able, responsible, and worthwhile (Haigh, 2011). These messages are often delivered through the school"s policies, programmes, practices, and physical environments (Purkey & Novak, 2008). Invitational

leaders are compelled to intentionally work with all stakeholders in order to transform their schools (Stillion & Siegel, 2005). Teacher morale and attitude towards work is positively correlated with the personally and professionally inviting behaviours of the school head (Haigh, 2011; Steyn, 2014).

Invitational leaders are optimistic in their encounters (Purkey, 2006). Stillion and Siegel (2005) depict that optimistic leaders reframe problem situations as opportunities and view the impossible as merely difficult. The notion of facing challenges in remote rural ECD schools by the school heads reflects the prime function of a leader; i.e. keeping hope alive. Stillion and Siegel (2005) posit that an optimistic leader mirrors problem circumstances as opportunities and observe the impossible as merely difficult. Invitational leaders accept this optimistic view of humans and their potential (Purkey & Novak, 2008). In the midst of these challenges caused by resource demand, the characteristic of optimism could prove to be an active component for success for remote rural ECD schools. Stillion and Siegel (2005) maintain that optimistic leaders embrace both challenge and change, expecting that the outcome will be a positive one (Haigh, 2011; Steyn, 2014).

Invitational leaders value respect as the most innate needs of all human nature (Purkey, 2006). Haigh (2011) affirms that people are able, valuable, and responsible and should be treated accordingly. By respecting others, the invitational leaders demonstrate a basic belief in the worth and value of their fellow workers, students, parents, and the community. This respect to fellow organisational members leads to an inviting, inclusive workplace where diversity is the norm and every individual can flourish (Stillion & Siegel, 2005). The hallmark behind a professionally inviting school is the notion of shared responsibilities in school partnerships; development of professional leadership and management (Williams, 2010). The school heads share responsibilities among staff members where the deputy heads and the TICs undertake leadership roles at the school, however this can be possible when respect prevails among the staff members.

Trust is closely related to respect. Burns (2007) and Purkey and Novak (2008) acknowledge trust as having confidence in the abilities, integrity and responsibilities of ourselves and others. With the same line of thought, Haigh (2011) opines trust as a crucial element that contributes to the success of an organisation. Trust lies at the heart of a functioning cohesive team in the school (Steyn, 2010). Trust is critical to Invitational leadership because it

recognises the interdependence of human beings (Stillion & Siegel, 2005). This connotes that, invitational leaders establish trust in their abilities, integrity and responsibilities and that of teachers, parents and communities. Transformation of the school is all but impossible without trust, so building trust among teachers, parents and the community is a critical element for resource mobilisation. Invitational Leadership Theory believes that such unified teams that are based on trust and are a critical component for successful change (Haigh, 2011; Rabichund & Steyn, 2014).

Intentionality is at the very heart of Invitational Leadership Theory (Purkey & Novak, 2008). As Stillion and Siegel (2005) conclude that intentional leaders know what they intend to bring about as well as how they intend it to happen giving clarity and direction to leadership work. Invitational leaders join followers in the development and design of appropriate places, policies, programmes, and processes to attain their shared aims (Purkey & Novak, 2008). A commitment to work intentionally in developing a suitable school environment is characterised by both purpose and direction for the advantage of all role-players in the school. Developing and maintaining specific and clear intentions facilitates the process of resource mobilisation in schools (Purkey, 2006). School leaders intentionally create productive opportunities for the institution, without stifling creativity and individuality.

3.4 The Transformational Leadership Theory

Martin (2005, p. 840) describes Transformational leadership as, „the personal qualities needed to recognise the need for change and to be able to bring it about". Transformational Leadership Theory focuses more on setting vision and direction for the organisation. It also develops and motivates team members to do more than they originally intended or thought possible by redesigning the organisation. Transformational leadership requires members to identify with the leader's vision and sacrifice their self-interest for the organisation (Bass, 2008; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2009). This theory is important to this study because it is primarily concerned with the leadership qualities, knowledge and values required in remote rural ECD schools to change successfully.

Burns (1978), the founder of this Transformational Leadership Theory classified it in the qualitative framework. This is connected to the interpretive paradigm that is concerned with understanding the subjective world of human experience (Burns, 1978; Merriam, 2009). This is just because interpretivists believe that the world is socially created and hence the purpose

is to realise how people make meaning in their daily experiences (Flick, 2014). Therefore, through the interpretivist lenses I can use the Transformational Leadership Theory to explore important leadership roles in inspiring teachers, parents and both local and international communities to be committed and work as a team in the mobilisation of resources for the ECD schools. It is for this reason that qualitative research study was chosen as the most suitable for this study and the Transformational Leadership Theory was chosen to underpin the study. Following is a discussion on the principles of the Transformational Leadership Theory as related to this study.

3.4.1 Principles of Transformational Leadership

There is well documented evidence from recent literature that Transformational leadership has notable effects on organisational and subordinate outcomes that include improved satisfaction and commitment by the subordinates for the betterment of the organisation (Kouzes & Posner, 2010; Shields, 2011; DuBrin, 2012). These relationships are based on principles that guide the Transformational Leadership Theory bringing subordinate satisfaction and organisational outcomes. Transformational leaders portray leadership behaviours as a means to produce subordinate and organisational outcomes. It is vitally important to give a detailed theory base of the Transformational Leadership Theory so that when its applications to this particular study are discussed, it will be understood. The principles of this theory are the lenses that will be used to view all the discussions yet to come in this chapter.

Hickman (2010), Shields (2011) and Warrilow (2012) identified four principles of Transformational Leadership Theory which are: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual attention. Transformational leadership is a leadership style that is principled to share a vision between the leader and the followers (Burns, 2010). Transformational leaders are role models to their followers and share the vision and mission with the followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2010; Robbins, et al., 2011). Shields (2011) propounds that a Transformational leader is that leader who always stimulates maximum work performance from the followers who in turn work beyond what they are expected. DuBrin (2012) also supported them saying that the leader is the most capable and the „overseer‟ of all. These infer that the leader is an exemplary figure in an organisation which is transformed in character and performance. The Transformational leader is professionally craft literate and

competent in nature (Warrilow, 2012), someone who can „walk the talk", a transparent leader who is professionally ethical. Dimensionally, the Transformational leader is like a written syllabus that is plainly interpreted and followed by the followers. They are always emulated and trusted by the followers.

Shields (2011), Kouzes and Posner (2010) are interested in the Transformational leaders" behaviours as used to boost teacher motivation for school reform. The leader provides inspirational motivation to the followers and expects maximum performance for the benefit of the organisation (Hargreaves, et al., 2010; Robbins, et al., 2011). Followers are faced with challenges that are attached to reasons for working towards these challenges. This shows the leaders" abilities in establishing and maintaining confidence in their followers. Therefore, followers are motivated to work maximally, especially when they trust, appreciate and respect their leader (Robbins & Coulter, 2007; Shields, 2011). The underlying influence process is prescribed in terms of arousing interest for work among followers through an awareness campaign on the importance of over commitment for the sake of the organisation (Cranston, 2009; Fulton & Briton, 2011). The leader conveys clear messages about being hopeful, encouraging followers to put their utmost efforts so that the organisation can also grow and develop (Bush, 2009; Hickman, 2010; Warrilow, 2012).

Followers are intellectually challenged by the leader in order to contemplate their problems in the organisation and provide new strategies to solve the problems (Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Warrilow, 2012). The leader promotes brainpower, wisdom and careful problem solving. Followers have the autonomy to try new strategies to solve organisational problems, since they have confidence in their leader who will not criticise them in public when these strategies differ from his/hers (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). All the mistakes that are made by the followers in their endeavour to solve organisational problems are taken as learning procedures, since trust and respect are prevalent in the organisation (Hargreaves, et al., 2010; Shield, 2011). Transformational leaders provide a supportive environment where required resource materials are available and opportunities for professional development are provided (Elmore, 2006; Cranston, 2009). The leader is ready to coach the followers as means to professionally develop them. Actually, professional development of followers is the primary priority for the Transformational leader as a means to bring about organisational outcomes and follower satisfaction at work.

Transformational leaders build confidence in the followers, believing that they are worthy, valuable and capable in all human worthwhile activities, hence they treat each one as unique, important and a contributor to the workplace (Robinson, et al., 2008; Hargreaves, et al., 2010; Hickman, 2010). The followers are provided with challenges and learning opportunities as individuals, through some coaching to develop suitable behaviours that is expected in the organisation (Shields, 2011; Warrilow, 2012). Much importance is given to the professional development of the followers (Bush, 2009; Williams, 2010). Each follower is treated as an individual coached, mentored and given ample opportunities for professional growth (Warrilow, 2012). The followers form the playing team in the field who are supposed to effectively perform to bring change to the system. The moment the followers are coached and supported, there is a greater chance for positive outcomes in the organisation.

Dedication and Commitment as exerted by the leader, is the most critical element central to the responsibilities of an effective leader (Alexander, 2008). According to Shields (2011), leadership is accountability. Taking responsibility by the leader is a great stride in commitment, since it involves psychological challenges that are complex to human activity. This leader takes responsibility by committing to a purpose, which in most cases are influenced by situational incidents and is most critical when situations are difficult (Alexander, 2008). In such instances leaders demand for undertakings and achievement from followers, hence they continue motivating them. Leaders communicate purpose of commitment to followers, for the survival of the organisation.

Improvement of human resources and relations within the system is part of the leadership roles. This takes into consideration aspects like providing support and encouragement, recognising worthy contributions from followers and providing coaching and mentoring. Transformational leaders consult others on decisions, thereby empowering and delegating as well as encouraging co-operation and teamwork. Transformational leadership is all about improving innovation and adaptation to the entire system (Hickman, 2010). Most importantly, the Transformational leaders explain the urgent need for change in the organisation through the articulation of an inspiring vision about the organisation. Encouraging innovative thinking, facilitating collective learning and the courage to take risks to promote change in the organisation is part of leadership (Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005;

Warrilow, 2012). As has been reflected by the above principles, Transformational Leadership Theory deals mainly with leader and follower business for organisational transformation. Therefore, following is the contribution of this theory to teacher development and empowerment for effective teaching in the ECD classes.

3.4.2 The influence of the Transformational Theory in teacher development and empowerment

This section is going to elaborate fully the principles of the Transformational Leadership Theory inclined to teacher development and empowerment. As was discussed in Section 2.6, the teacher is the most important resource in the school. Hence this precious resource needs to be equipped with relevant tools and up-to-date knowledge in order to have an effective state of the play in the remote rural ECD schools. The transformational school head provides opportunities for professional development and empowerment to teachers building up their commitment towards the achievement of school goals (Bush & Middlewood, 2013). Professional development and empowerment for teachers bring a sense of commitment for effective teaching of the learners. This school head therefore develop an environment that support change and cultivate a culture that maintains the developed change (Laine, et al., 2011; Shields, 2011). Such leadership gets positive support from the teachers/team members for effective ECD teaching and learning.

Idealised influence provides for leadership that support followers with ideas, role modelling and portraying moral values and ethical principles. The school head provides ideas that inspire and motivate teachers to work towards something extraordinary in the school. By accommodating teachers" self-interests and their shared values, the school head contribute in maximising their performance outcomes in the organisation. That ability to stimulate and inspire teachers to work outstandingly is the critical influence of the transformational school head. Resource demand is a challenge in remote rural ECD schools, it purports for the school head who can inspire the teachers to jointly mobilise resources and use them effectively and economically in the school. ECD classes are dismissed very early during the day but these teachers remain in the classrooms for some hours preparing for the next day"s lessons (Bredekamp & Copple, 2009; Kehily, 2009; Bilton, 2010). Teachers are bound to commit themselves entirely for the benefit of the school. Due to this inspiration they get from the school head, they are „wired" to work beyond the call of duty for the benefit of the learners.

Transformational leaders have the capacity to promote alignment between people and school structures to ensure coordination throughout the organisation towards the set vision (Leithwood, 2007; Kouzes & Posner, 2010). The leader demonstrates optimism and encourages commitment by the teachers to a common vision. Thus, the school head has the capability to inspire the ECD teachers to use effective strategies for looking around for resources to furnish their ECD classrooms to improve teaching and learning. This influences the teachers towards activities like the improvising of teaching and learning media in order to avert the danger of teaching these children without media (Chikutuma & Mawere, 2012; Smith, 2012). Teachers will perform beyond their normal schedules as a result of the leader"s influence.

A transformational leader understands that the followers need to develop professionally and he/she pays attention to those concerns by providing circumstances where they should solve problems with new strategies (Hickman, 2010; Laine, et al., 2011). It is easy for ECD teachers to understand and accept the vision set by the school head as ‚theirs". Whether the school head engages with other things in other school departments, the ECD teachers and their TIC will remain and endure the determination to realise the vision. Usually the transformational school head is responsive to the circumstances and teachers become committed/accustomed to the circumstances to ensure that the set goals are achieved. Teachers surpass their own self-interests and commit themselves to pursue the goals for a greater good for ECD learners. A group of inspired teachers can make a campaign for ECD teaching and learning materials in the local communities and families. Teachers with the backing of the transformational school head can create a big reserve of resources, especially with the knowledge that (as proved by literature in Section 2.6) ECD teaching and learning media can be made from locally available or recycled materials.

Modelling by the leader has many potential effects upon an organisation, since it is the foundation for leader influence. The leader models the way through personal examples and dedicated performance (Kouzes & Posner, 2010; Laine, et al., 2011). This propounds that the transformational school head is responsible for the environment and one way to influence it is to demonstrate his/her behaviour and commitment. The behaviour and commitment of the transformational school head can be easily emulated by the teachers. Behaviour demonstrated is better emulated than behaviour preached (Cranston, 2009). A transformational leader is

principled to lead by examples whenever the leader prototypes transformational leadership strategies; deputy heads and Teachers-in Charge (TICs) will also implement a Transformational leadership style. The same applies to when the leader prototypes effective leadership, deputy heads and Teachers-in-Charge (TICs) will follow suit (Leithwood, 2007; Laine, et al., 2011). This demonstration of good character by the transformational school head has a coaching effect on the staff at large. School middle management can easily practise effective leadership styles emulated from the school head and improve the ECD department.

A transformational leader is the most knowledgeable in terms of skills and expertise in the organisation (Shields, 2011). The deputy head and TIC are also lower-level team leaders describing a form of coaching by the transformational school head. They are coached in duties which involve aspects of supervision and staff development. Deputy heads and TICs retain a certain percentage of their teaching time supervising ECD teachers and giving feedback after supervision. They take care of other teachers, leading, managing, „monitoring and evaluating their teaching", distributing resources and writing reports to the school head. This indicates that there is much contribution provided by the middle management team to school improvement (Cranston, 2009).

Distributed leadership is believed to give autonomy to every individual to exercise leadership roles as contrary to preserving it for top individuals in the organisation (Myers, 2008; Laine, et al., 2011). This aspect of distributed leadership emphasises the generation of human and social capital within the organisation (Hargreaves, et al., 2010). There are many responsibilities that can be held by school deputy heads and TICs to support professional development and growth for teachers; for example, facilitating staff development programmes for the newly qualified teachers and para-professionals. New teachers are inducted and mentored by the TICs and deputy heads and qualified teachers need to up-grade their teaching skills through staff development programmes facilitated by the TIC and the deputy head. The deputy head and TIC can use training needs identification strategy, going around identifying developmental needs within the teachers then use that information to plan and implement programmes to capacity build teachers along such areas.

Transformational leaders stimulate the intellectual capabilities of teachers by encouraging them to deal with surfacing problems using new strategies (Warrilow, 2012). The transformational school head therefore gives autonomy to teachers to freely explore strategies that can be used to do away with surfacing problems in the organisation. However the leader is prepared to absorb both positive and negative outcomes from teachers since this is regarded as a learning process. This connotes that the school head creates an environment that is tolerant of mistakes in the school. The school head respects all the views that are proposed by the teachers, but constructively corrects while work is done amicably. Transformational leaders always have positive approaches to addressing team member contributions in decision-making. When the ECD teachers are given the obligation to make decisions that are later backed by the school head, they can even bring more new ideas into the school system.

Finally, a Transformational leader considers individual uniqueness among teachers; each teacher is treated as an important contributor in the school (Cranston, 2009; Warrilow, 2012). In individualised consideration, challenges and professional development opportunities are provided by the leader through coaching in various areas where skills and knowledge are developed. The hallmark of the Transformational leadership theory is in the professional development and growth of the teachers (Fulton & Britton, 2011; Greer, 2012).

3.4.3 Efficacy of Invitational and Transformational leadership on resource demand

Although most authors are of the opinion that Invitational Leadership Theory and Transformational Leadership Theory have varied in principles and practices, many authors confirm that Invitational leadership significantly supports Transformational leadership (**Fig. 3.1**), enhancing maximum performance by individuals and groups for goal achievement in the organisation (Steyn, 2005; Warrilow, 2012). Others believe that Invitational leadership is a sub-set of Transformational leadership (Weihrich, Cannice & Koontz, 2008). Therefore, according to this study, these theories complement each other to make a formidable tool for remote rural ECD schools" transformation. Therefore, this section is giving a brief evaluation of the two theories and how they augment each other in this study. The section deals much on how these theories can be used in the mobilisation and utilisation of resources for the transformation of remote rural ECD schools.

The important advantage of the Invitational Leadership Theory is that it has shifted from emphasising power differential between the leaders and the followers and focuses on working together as a team pursuing one common goal (Purkey & Novak, 2008; Steyn, 2014). It is a blend of leadership qualities, values, and principles which invite all interested stakeholders to succeed (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Purkey, 2006; Purkey & Novak, 2008). Burns (2007) proclaims that is the right time when present leaders in practice should acquire skills and knowledge that are effective. Invitational Leadership Theory emphasises the need to invite all the people who are interested to work together and achieve common educational goals. Thus having an open door policy where everyone; learners, teachers, parents, local and international communities are invited to work together for the development of the school. The collective vision of the leader and followers is to work together in harmony and protect the pursuance of the agreed decisions (Greer, 2012). Invitational Leadership Theory removes the negatives that inhibit learners and teachers from effective teaching and learning. Most importantly, Invitational Leadership Theory was designed to be useful in harsh work environments where people are incompetent, underpowered and disengaged (Reimer, 2010; Haigh, 2011).

Like any other theories, Invitational Leadership Theory has few conceptual weaknesses that reduce its capacity to be used alone in total effective leadership. Invitational Leadership Theory is criticised for using soft strategies and ideas for inviting those who are interested (Haigh, 2011). It needs to be more than an excuse for the status quo (Steyn, 2010; Shaw, et al., 2013). It is not clear as to how the leaders practically co-ordinate change among the invited.

Transformational Leadership Theory has more advantages than disadvantages. The overall evidence establishes that Transformational leadership is strongly correlated to high teacher retention, maximum individual and group performance, and high teacher satisfaction (Robbins, et al., 2011). Transformational leadership is geared to teacher motivation for maximum performance in organisational outcomes (Robbins & Coulter, 2007; Warrilow, 2012). Transformational Leadership Theory puts emphasis on supporting professional development that creates skill and knowledge improvement in the teachers (Weihrich et al., 2008; Warrilow, 2012). The Transformational leader role models and inspires teachers to take ownership of the school and take the initiative of working as a team for the common good (Kouzes & Posner, 2010; Shields, 2011). This Transformational Leadership Theory to the

transformation of the remote rural ECD schools can make the resource demand challenges possible to overcome. The idea of inspiring the teachers to keep them working is to create an environment to develop powerful additional ideas for harmonising high resource demand to low resource supply in remote rural ECD schools.

Like any other theory, Transformational Leadership Theory is also liable for some „potholes‟. Fulton and Bilton (2011) and Warrilow (2012) opine that Transformational Leadership Theory forces followers to work very hard but at the end they lose more than what they get from their work. Followers are encouraged to work more than their stipulated hours for the good of the organisation (Kouzes & Posner, 2010; Shields, 2011). Transformational Leadership Theory doesn‟t consider the interests of the workers, the vision which is pursued is set by the leaders, however, the workers are compelled to buy it because the leaders disguise it with trust and respect (Pieterse, Knippenburg & Stam, 2010; Katz & Earl, 2010; Shields, 2011). In this instance, individual interests are sacrificed for organisational enhancement. Although the theory states that work-related over commitment by the teachers is of paramount importance, there is need for a balance between the efforts and rewards. Transformational Leadership Theory omits the need by the leader to interact with higher officers and the outside communities who are appreciated for their participation in the survival of the school; for example, networking, consultation for assistance, partnering with stakeholders in school projects (Yukl, 2008; Pieterse, et al., 2010).

The use of these theories in giving direction to this study was impounded by the theoretical capacities in transforming school cultures, becoming more relevant to the study because of the current economic situation in Zimbabwe. These theories have vital principles of transforming teachers and the school heads to be optimistic, committed and hard-working under economic harsh conditions for the betterment of the disadvantaged ECD learners in the remote rural areas.

The most needed motion for transforming ECD schools in remote rural areas is by having ideas from intellectual giants in the world linked to the world of moral determination, teamwork and collective identity (Fulton & Bilton, 2011; Warrilow, 2012). The intellectual capacity, moral devotion and unity of purpose are essentials for this situation if ECD learners in remote rural areas are to benefit from the education system. The moral and intellectual aspects of human qualities are much needed in this transformational process. It needs

patriotic, committed, dedicated and united intellectuals who can make use of the available resources in their environment in order to transform the ECD programme in remote rural areas. The status quo of the education system needs transformation of the ECD sector alone. Intellectual resourcefulness and intensified cohesive team work will support the school"s transformation (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Burns, 2007; Pedder & Opfer, 2011). Under the influence of these two theories, the school heads inspire cohesive teams in such a way that the impossible will be made possible for resource mobilisation. In this respect, school heads send invitational messages to all stakeholders to cultivate and inspire wisdom to allow easy resource mobilisation in the schools.

The school leader seeks to develop and maintain skills and knowledge that are needed to improve leadership effectiveness in current educational organisations. It is apparent that no one leadership theory can achieve leadership excellence; but a combination of these. Substantiating this idea are Bush and Middlewood (2013) who affirm that, effective leadership is not related to any one leadership theory. With the same perspective Burns (2007) acknowledges that there are many pathways pointing to effective leadership. Two theories of leadership are stronger in combination than one, in changing how school heads work together with stakeholders to improve resource provision to enhance effective ECD learning in remote rural schools (Bush, 2007). The critical task was for me to get augmenting leadership theories with consistent principles that provide school heads with the skills and knowledge to become effective in difficult times in the remote rural ECD schools. Invitational and Transformational Leadership Theories; when combined, have proven to form effective leadership. Therefore, this study is underpinned by these two effective leadership theories.

3.5 Conclusion

The chapter has provided a framework of the theoretical orientation of the study to establish its coherence with the theoretical framework. Consulted authorities prove that effective leadership is not related to any one leadership theory (Burns, 2010; Bush & Middlewood, 2013). Hence two theories underpin this study; Invitational and Transformational leadership Theories. Principles and leadership behaviours of both theories were fully discussed.

It was noted that Invitational Leadership Theory has a direct influence on promoting an exciting learning environment for the learners and a professional learning community for the teachers. It was also noted that the invitational leaders can successfully create school environment that allows learners, parents, teachers, and businesses and local and international donors to successfully implement the ECD programme. Though Invitational leadership is a multi-faceted approach to invite everyone to take part in the transformation of ECD schools, however, it lacks the transformative ideologies that are needed to inspire stakeholders to successfully change the schools.

It was also noted that Transformational Leadership Theory is confined to the school premises (Yukl, 2008; Pieterse, et al., 2010). Transformational Leadership Theory does not go outside the school boundaries to invite stakeholders, but it can only provide strategies for the stakeholders who are invited by the invitational leader to pursue the school vision. Transformational leaders set visions and provide a supporting environment for the vision to be realised through connectedness, co-operation and communication.

Though it was noted that both theories have great influence on teacher development and empowerment, Invitational Leadership Theory leaves a void that is filled by the Transformational Leadership Theory **(Fig. 3.1)**. Professional development and empowerment of teachers cannot be complete without the application of the principles of the transformational theory to develop commitment in teachers (Steyn, 2005). Therefore; Transformational leadership does not work directly on learners, but develops and empowers teachers to effectively teach them. Transformational leader inspires the teachers to work beyond their normal work load in order to improve the school learning system. Teachers are encouraged to put their utmost effort for the benefit of the learners.

The theories mirror the capacity to cement a fair relationship between the resource mobilisation and school leadership. Therefore this chapter is concluded with claim that the Invitational and Transformational Leadership Theories occupy a strong position in the appropriateness of transformation of remote rural ECD schools. In Chapter Four, a detailed account of the research design and methodology that was used in conducting the study is presented.

CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the theoretical frameworks that underpin this research study. This chapter introduces the methodological state of the play for this research. The chapter brings in a full episode of the research paradigm that reinforces this research as well as the research design that gives direction or guideline for the choice of methodology. This study employs the qualitative research methodology in order to obtain the first hand data. The case study is used as the research tool in this study which gives birth to two data elicitation methods, namely, the semi-structured interviews and the documentary reviews. Advantages and disadvantages of these methods are respectively given. The sampling procedures are also presented giving a comprehensive evaluation of the procedures. Detailed explanations on data analysis and procedures to ensure accuracy or trustworthiness of the study are given.

4.2 Research paradigm

Bertram and Christiansen (2014) opine that a paradigm is a model or framework that symbolises a precise worldview that describes, for the researchers who embrace this view, what is acceptable to research and how this should be done. A paradigm may be viewed as a set of basic principles or worldview that defines how one views the world and one‟s relationship with it (Merriam, 2009; Flick, 2014). These basic beliefs include ontology, epistemology and methodology. Where basically ontology specifies form and nature of reality (Creswell, 2013) epistemology refers to how the creation of knowledge is theorised and methodology specifies how the researcher goes about practically studying whatever is believed can be known (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). It follows therefore, that in order for me to carry out research; I had to place the research within a paradigm. The paradigm basically determined my choice of the research design and the methodology to use in gathering and analysing research data. According to Neuman (2006), three main influential paradigms can underpin a research design; these are the positivist approach, the interpretive approach, and the critical approach. In each one of these paradigms, it is important to determine the ontological, the epistemological and the methodological bases in order to choose an appropriate paradigm for a research. Among these three, I considered the relevance of the interpretivist paradigm to my study.

The interpretivist paradigm assumes that reality is created inter subjectively through the meanings and understandings established socially and experientially (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Interpretivist researchers embrace an ontology that denies the existence of an external reality (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011). In this paradigm reality does not exist outside and independent of people"s interpretations of it. What is of value is the participant"s own interpretations of reality. So reality is based on the people and how they interpret it.

How people understand themselves, others and the world is determined by the link between the researcher and the researched (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Interpretivist assumes that people cannot be separated from what they know, that is, reality cannot be separated from people"s knowledge of it. Truth is created through dialogue (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In this paradigm knowledge claims are created as the study is proceeding, it emerges through interactions between the researcher and the participants.

An interpretive approach is pivoted upon real-life representational methods such as discussions and in-depth explorations, observation and text analysis (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). They use meaning oriented methodologies, such as structured or unstructured interviewing, and participant observation, that highly depend on the inter-personal relationship between the researcher and participants (Merriam, 2009). The procedural instruction is to transcribe the comments that are given in the participants" meaning as they unfold (Creswell, 2013; Flick, 2014). The researcher and the researched are joined together in an inter-change of words and opinions. If we are to study lives in social interaction, they must be studied from within the social settings which are natural and this should not be done out of context (Hennink, et al., 2011). These methods ensure that there is adequate dialogue between the researcher and the participants, in order to understand the social world and the meaning these participants attach to it. This helped me during data analysis, where I searched for meaning through direct interpretation of what I heard during interviews as reported by the participants, and what was recorded from the documentary reviews.

This research is situated within an interpretive paradigm which underpinned my research design with an emphasis on qualitative research. Interpretive paradigm endeavours to pick up

human experiences in the world (Cohen, et al., 2011). As it believes in subjective social reality, the interpretivist paradigm identifies research as a means to investigate the meanings and interpretations of social participants in specific situations (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). In order to get the real information about what is being investigated, it is best that the researcher listens to the voices of the concerned people and understands from within (Cohen, et al., 2011). Interpretivist concerns itself with the behaviour and actions of the participants, which can be ascertained by sharing of experiences through interactions.

4.3 Research design

A research design is a plan or a strategy of how the researcher intends to collect and analyse data in order to answer the research questions, essentially a plan aimed at assisting answers to be obtained from research questions (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Following the same line of thought are Cohen et al. (2011), who refer to research design as a procedure for collecting, analysing and reporting on research. However, Flick (2014) argues that research design should be a spontaneous process which takes place in every stage of the research project. These writers imply that a research design comprises of a number of mechanisms that include the research questions and objectives, sampling procedures, data elicitations methods, ethical issues and data analysis. Therefore, I argue that research design is a procedure that guides research. The first in the procedure is data elicitation which is guided by a problem that needs answers. The analysis part of the procedure is simply done to give meaning to the meaningless data after elicitation. Finally, the reporting is done to answer the questions that caused the research to be conducted. Therefore, a research design is a systematic procedure of getting solutions to problems through sourcing answers from relevant stakeholders.

This research was framed within the qualitative approach. Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) pronounce a qualitative study as an investigation procedure of understanding a phenomena based on words that are captured from participants, as conducted in a natural setting. Denzin and Lincoln (2011) acknowledge qualitative research as an investigation which is useful for examining and understanding a topic under study. Cohen et al. (2011) state that the qualitative research approach uses concepts and clarifications so as to attempt to interpret human behaviours in a way that reflects not only the analyst's view, but also the views of the people whose behaviour is being described. The researcher's emphasis is on verbal description of a situation by the people in the situation in a natural setting. The researcher has to look closely at what the participants say, their actions and their historical backgrounds in a

given situation. The researcher has to capture interactions in these natural settings in order to understand the differences and commonalities in certain contexts. Hence, qualitative research is a broad term that comprises various forms of inquiries that enhance our understanding of social phenomenon without disrupting the natural setting (Check & Schutt, 2012).

Along these lines of thought, qualitative research investigates the patterns and behaviour which are produced from the meanings of comments that are presented in the participants' own words. Qualitative research addresses questions that have the aim of developing an awareness of the importance and practical dimensions of human life and the social worlds (Merriam, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Central to good qualitative research is to gather the meaning from the social and human setting as the experiences are expressed and understood by the people in the situation (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). Understanding of the subjective world of human social experience and clarifications of the participants" subjective meanings can be possible only through interaction with them in their real life context. For the researcher to investigate the meanings and interpretations of social life by participants in specific situations, calls for a face to face interaction with these people in their natural situations. This forms the biggest advantage of this design to my study. For instance, in this case, for me to understand the responses that were given by Zimbabwean remote rural ECD schools to resource demand, I needed to directly and physically contact the people in their schools. A full discourse was needed, which brought in data of what was actually happening in the schools.

Qualitative research emphasises the importance of analysing people"s words, experiences and background information in order to understand their situation (Merriam, 2009; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). My task as the qualitative researcher was to analyse the given words and experiences as related by the participants in order to produce and present patterns. I remained as near as possible to the creation of the world as my participants experienced the situation. After close consideration and observation, recording and making a critical analysis of the topic under study; I found some formation of data which developed. This meant that I had to look into things in their natural backgrounds, attempting to make sense of what was happening in terms of the meanings the school leadership teams brought to their schools. I needed to analyse the words to report detailed views from the school heads, deputy heads and

TICs" perspectives. The record of the discourse between the school leadership and I (as researcher) when analysed and interpreted brought a qualitative report.

I used the qualitative approach because it has its roots in my study. I was more concerned with understanding why remote rural ECD schools responded to resources demand the way they were doing. I had to assess their knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and behaviours, which corresponded to the first objective of my research (Section 1.6). Another reason why I opted for the qualitative approach was that it allowed the school heads, deputy heads and the TICs to give much richer answers to questions I put to them during interviews, as a result giving valuable insights that might have been missed by the documentary review data (Merriam, 2009; Cohen, et al., 2011). It meant that this was an advantage, as I was given freedom by this approach to use a number of data elicitation methods which generated data in their original taste.

Most importantly, qualitative research design was predominantly used in this study since it required seeing and hearing and perhaps touching and experiencing activities in natural environments (Merriam, 2009; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). I had to see them in their schools, hear them talk about their situations and even see the physical schools environment in which they operated. Qualitative research is explicitly selective in terms of the methods of choice. Methods used in qualitative research hunt for people"s life experiences, beliefs and feelings (Merriam, 2009; Cohen, et al., 2011). These methods should allow for the exploration of human social life, be it through observation, historical reviews, and life story interviews. This process should bring about empirical materials of human experiences. The interaction between a phenomenon and its context is best understood through case studies (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2014). It cannot be doubted that I conducted my research using case study methodologies. This section therefore, is going to give a detailed explanation on why I selected and used case studies as the best suitable tool for this research study. Later I have provided an evaluation on the merits and demerits of using the case study research method for this particular study.

4.4 The case study as research methodology

Methodology is an on-going procedure carried out by the researcher to understand the phenomenon which is under study (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Wertz, Charmaz, McMullen,

Josselson, Anderson & McSpadden, 2011). Corbin and Strauss (2008) define methodology as means and ways used by researchers to critically study social phenomena. From these writers I understand that methodology is about the various ways in which a phenomenon is understood. Methodology specifies how one gets the answers for the research questions. Usually methodology, chosen for a study, is guided by the research questions. Naidoo (2012) asserts that, in qualitative research, questions like „why" and „how" are generally used. However, Wertz et al. (2011) assert that in qualitative research, the researcher has the task to expose what happened, how it happened and most importantly, why it happens the way it does. This is to say I needed to register that my first research question tries to elicit responses from participants on how the remote rural ECD schools in Zimbabwe respond to resource demand; the second question focuses on the extent to which the responses address effective teaching and learning in ECD classes and the third one focuses on how the existing resource demand influences the remote rural ECD schools management. These research questions pertinent to the choice of the case study, proved to be the most appropriate methodology in getting answers.

Firstly, case studies are time-based, geographic, structural, organised and have other settings with confinements like boundaries drawn around the case; they can be described with reference to physical characteristics defined at personal and groups levels; and they can be defined by the roles that are played by people who participate in the study (Stake, 2006; Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2014). From the same ideology Yin (2014) observes the case study method as a practical and first-hand investigation that explores an existing phenomenon within its real-life context.

These definitions express that case study research emphasises the investigation of an issue with clear parameters or boundaries around the problem. Case studies consider well established groups or organisations and time framework as integral characters in research processes. Through case study the research process is conducted in a structured organisation or institution where individuals have distinct roles and responsibilities to play. For instance, these cases are set in Zimbabwe, Masvingo province in Chiredzi and Zaka districts. This is further taken down to selected ECD schools in remote rural areas. In the schools, there are distinctive individuals who are playing specific roles, like the school heads, deputy heads and the TICs. Case studies give a clear line of operation, which allows for generalisation. Beyond reasonable doubt, case studies prove to be the most appropriate methodology for my study.

Secondly, case studies explore, present and give reports on the complex and vibrant events; describing exchanges of words, human activities and other factors (Cohen, et al., 2011). This entails that, case study research carefully defines and clearly specifies what elements of the case are studied. Case studies clearly pinpoint the portion of the programme or other phenomenon which should be focused on by the investigation. For instance, in this study, it was the case of resource demand in remote rural ECD schools. This study was carried out directly in its actual life context by getting into the remote rural ECD schools to enquire how these schools respond to resource demand. This inquiry was targeted on the individuals and groups that are directly involved in leadership like the school heads, deputies and the TICs. These school leadership teams are facing the upshots of resource demand in their leadership roles. They form the shielding team that are in positions to respond to resource demand; hence could tell their life stories, their experiences and how they interpreted these experiences.

Thirdly, these case studies deal with typical situations of people in the natural settings, providing readers with an understanding of the ideas in a more clear way than presentations of theories or principles done in abstract terms (Cohen, et al., 2011). These case study contexts are distinctive and they can be different from one environment to the other; hence they explore, present and report the complicated vibrant and on-going events, human contacts and other factors in an exceptional way. For instance, each case was treated uniquely involving the participants concerned in the real situation, by way of talking to them, observing them while in the schools. Readers can get a clear picture on how remote rural ECD schools are responding to the demand for resources from this study.

4.4.1 Multiple case studies

As for this case of resource demand in remote rural ECD schools of Zimbabwe, it needed to be carried out in several of these schools. Hence, I decided to make use of a multiple case study as it is capable of providing insight and exploration into varied responses by school heads, deputy heads and the TICs. This helped me to get a representative sample that spoke for all stakeholders in remote rural ECD schools of Zimbabwe. The study was conducted at several sites with multiple cases considered to be examples of the same type of case sharing common characteristics (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Lapan, Quartaroli & Riemer, 2012).

Multiple case studies provided me with the chances to cross-case analyse the data (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Yin, 2014). This is because each school was taken to be an independent entity, it was treated as a case, hence a multiple case study. The multiple case study approach was applied to harness any features unique to individual schools as they respond to resource demand in order to promote effective teaching and learning in ECD. Therefore, the case study design was seen as the most appropriate to achieve this goal.

This multiple case study enabled me to explore differences within selected schools and between individual participants. I examined several schools, to understand the similarities and differences between these schools and how they actually respond to resource demand. Conducting the study at various schools that share common characteristics, the ECD schools in remote rural areas responding to resource demand, gave a clear picture and enough generalisation of the case. Although these site schools are located in remote rural areas, it was assumed that the experiences, beliefs and the responses they give to resource demand might be different/similar in one way or the other. Hence, multiple case studies offered me that leeway to cross examine the cases, within the schools and across schools.

Yin (2014) also asserts that, it is important to use many cases since this will provide some analytical benefits. With the same line of reasoning Yin (2014) continues to say that, studies that are considered convincing and robust by readers are usually conducted using multiple cases. Yin is considering the influence that is given to the findings by the number of cases studied. Data elicited from various cases can convince more than from a single case. This type of a design is associated with some advantages. As Merriam (2009) and Yin (2014) put it, rigorous qualitative case studies provide vast chances to researchers to investigate and explain a topic under study using several of data sources. Case studies allowed me to explore individuals or organisations (Merriam, 2009; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Yin, 2014) using some complex interferences, relations, group of people, or software package and provide the deconstruction and the successive reconstruction of different phenomena. Yin (2014) and Merriam (2009) acknowledge another advantage saying that case studies provide its readers with highlights on understanding how ideas and abstract principles can fit together. These advantages add to what has been discussed earlier as benefits offered by the multiple case studies.

The fact that a certain method is considered appropriate is not enough to qualify it as an all-round methodology to use. Multiple case study methodology is also aligned with some demerits. Generally, case studies are extremely time consuming and expensive to conduct (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Merriam, 2009). Baxter and Jack further explain some of the difficulties that are attached to doing multiple case study research, like the need for physical and direct involvement through inter-personal relations between the researcher and the participants; situational costs in terms of time, travelling costs and materials, the need for using a variety of methods, instruments, sources as entities for triangulation; the lack of controls and the complications of different settings and time-based changes.

There is no way I could carry out a multiple case study research without physically visiting sites and talking to the people, which proved to be very costly. I made sacrifices and obtained some funding from my family so that I could visit all the schools sampled. Actually, I visited these schools twice, the first visit involved sampling and seeking consent and the second was for the actual data elicitation process. In this study, I must highlight that there was no compromise on the costs attached to the visits to those remote rural ECD schools. Doing research requires determination on the part of the researcher. This determination helped me get essential knowledge from these schools to answer my research questions.

In most cases, case study researchers become chaotic and permit confusing evidence on biased opinions to influence the course of the findings and conclusions (Yin, 2014). Yin further argues that, case study research is very difficult to conduct, regardless of the fact that most researchers consider it as a „soft" approach, the softer the research method, the more complicated it is to conduct. With the same argument, Bertram and Christiansen (2014) assert that, case study research reports are mere simplified descriptions of natural proceedings and the readers are anticipated to interpret and produce their own conclusions. Usually multiple case studies dilute, distort or exaggerate the overall analysis; thus the more the cases studied in a single research project, the greater the chances for misrepresentation of cases (Yin, 2014).

Despite laid out shortfalls of the multiple case study research above; it proved imperative for use in this research study. Though qualitative research is subjective in nature, I tried to guard

against all researcher predispositions. I took no sides in my research work, I accepted all that I heard and experienced. I worked from an inductive point of view. I used a number of data sources and multiple methods in order to corroborate the data. I wanted to ensure that this issue of resource demand was examined through various lenses which allowed for numerous mechanisms of the practices that should be exposed and realised. Data analysis was done ensuring credibility of data so that conclusions could be made by readers from the report and not their own deductions. The following section will provide great detail of the sample and sampling procedures used in this study.

4.5 Sampling technique

The sample and the sampling design in qualitative research have to be appropriate. Before I chose the sampling design, I considered a number of key aspects in sampling, namely the sample size, the representativeness and limits of the sample, the access to the sample and the sampling strategy to be used (Cohen, et al., 2011). I could not gather data from the whole population of Zimbabwean remote rural ECD schools. So, I aimed at developing a thorough investigation on resource demand without generalising population.

I aimed at eliciting my data from participants who were „information rich‟ and who could best assist to apprehend the detailed interest of my research, resource demand in remote rural ECD schools. Appropriateness and adequacy of the sample are the major key factors that guided my sampling procedures, since qualitative research is mostly concerned with the quantity of data (Struwig & Stead, 2013). This required me to purposefully derive my sample so that data generated is rich about resource demand in remote rural ECD schools (Check & Schutt, 2012). This meant that nothing was of importance in case studies but making a proper selection of the participants who could give full details of the required data to answer my research questions. For the semi-structured interviews and the documentary review, a sampling strategy was carefully chosen that combined purposeful and snowball sampling procedures (Creswell, 2013). I made my sampling decisions and used the aforementioned combination so as to obtain suitable participants who could give the most reliable and credible data to answer my research questions.

4.5.1 Purposive sampling

The case schools for this study were carefully chosen using the purposive and snowball sampling designs. Therefore, this sub-section is dedicated to the purposive sampling and the following sub-section will give the details on snowballing and the efficacy of combining the two in this study. Neuman (2006), Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) and Creswell (2013) purport that in purposive sampling the researcher is encouraged to use many sampling procedures in order to find all possible cases of the most appropriate participants to respond to the questions. Amplifying the idea are Cohen et al. (2011) who describe purposive sampling as an empirical sampling method used in qualitative research, targeting to apprehend the meaning of the phenomena from a natural setting as experienced by the participants. This means that purposive sampling method is mainly focused on the selection of quality participants that can effectively supply credible data that is required to answer the questions which guided the study (Merriam, 2009). With this descriptive background of this sampling design, when selecting participants, one should deliberately consider to select the most appropriate participants who represent different cases and opinions from such cases (Creswell, 2013).

In this purposive sampling, I needed to choose participants for this research, depending on attributes that were critical to the evaluation (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011; Struwig & Stead, 2013; Yin, 2014). I needed to select the schools that had school heads, deputy heads and TICs who were seasoned and stationed in the schools for a number of years; (most important, school heads, deputy heads and TICs who have been running the ECD programme since the official integration in 2006) though it was difficult to find such characters due to staff-turn-over which for some reason was associated with teacher retention in remote rural schools. I would not want to come across a situation where I might visit my study site/school to meet novice participants who might fail to give the detailed responses required about the problem in question.

Subsequently, by using the purposive sampling, I managed to choose participants who were knowledgeable about the study because of their professional experiences (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011; Struwig & Stead, 2013). I was certainly sure that the data elicited from such participants could be very informative for the phenomenon being studied. Usually with purposive sampling, the sample is representative of the population of the remote rural

schools. Although the extent of the sampling error could not be estimated and bias might be present, I devised a plan to circumvent and minimise such errors. To minimise the sampling errors and biases, steps were taken to ensure trustworthiness (discussed later in this chapter). However, I learnt from other researchers (Schumacher, 2010; Woodall, 2013) that combining the purposive and the snowball sampling procedures can successfully eradicate all sampling errors and researcher bias. Though these researches were conducted a long time ago, they were found useful to use as reference in this study. Following is the detailed description of how these two sampling procedures were most appropriate for my study.

4.5.2 Snowball Sampling

Snowballing is a specialised type of sampling which uses personal contacts to build a sample to be studied (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). According to Check and Schutt (2012), researchers use this method to identify appropriate participants who are difficult to locate. This prescribes that snowball sampling is not based on random sampling but recruitment of participants is done using other participants. This is referred to by Kurant, Markopoulou and Thiran (2011) as a recruitment method that uses a referral system where the first identified participant can refer to further nominations of others who have the same characteristics as herself/himself.

In most cases snowball sampling is often used because one may be dealing with a sensitive topic or because the people under study are hard to find due to low numbers of such people (Merriam, 2009; Drăgan & Maniu, 2012). Usually, snowball sampling technique is often used in areas that are remote, where researchers find it difficult to identify necessary candidates (Kurant et al., 2011; Yin, 2014). As has been discussed earlier in chapter two, remote rural people are a hidden population, inarticulate and invisible at the same time marginalised socially, politically and economically (Madu, 2010). There are many schools in each district but few of these schools lie in the remote rural areas, I knew I might be tempted to do my research with schools in the urban fringe, the commuter belt or accessible rural areas, so I chose to use this sampling procedure which removes sampling decisions from me. I was too determined because I wanted to get the most credible data from what actually happens in the remote rural ECD schools. Hence, to be able to get this sample right I had to use snowball sampling to get the most knowledgeable individuals for my study.

People with specific characteristics that are needed for the research are easily found through recommendations that are given by the first nominated participant (Merriam, 2009; Kurant, et al., 2011; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). Snowball sampling focuses on sampling techniques that are based on the judgement (as proposed by the purposive sampling) of the researcher (Krista & Handcock, 2011). Upon my judgement and or required characteristics in mind, I requested the District Education Officers from both districts, Chiredzi and Zaka, each to recommend one information-rich school that is in the remote rural areas of their districts. The DEOs supervise all schools in their districts, thus I considered them to be well informed about these schools. Chiredzi District Education Officer recommended Vukosi primary school and the Zaka District Education Officer recommended Muzorori primary school. When I got the names of these two schools, I went out to the schools and personally introduced myself to the school heads to expand my sample. Referrals should continue so that the researcher gets other potential participants to make up the study sample (Merriam, 2009; Sigurðardóttir, 2010; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011; Yin, 2014). Thus, I visited the first schools in each district, the school heads further nominated other schools with the characteristics I required. This referral system continued until I got a reasonable number of schools. This facilitated the identification of hard-to-find cases (Merriam, 2009; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). As a result, I managed to reach those hidden schools far away in the remote rural areas of these districts.

The process was very cheap, simple, and cost-effective and it needed little planning compared to other sampling techniques (Salganik & Heckathorn, 2004; Lohr, 2009). However, like any other procedure snowballing has some disadvantages attached to it. I was aware that I had little control over the sampling method; since the participants nominated schools they know well (Drăgan & Maniu, 2012) however, this was a „blessing in disguise". It helped me to reduce researcher bias. I followed the nominations and reached furthest schools in remote rural areas. Aptly, to eliminate all errors/biases associated with this design, I also referred to previous researchers, for example, Schumacher (2010) who successfully made a combination of purposive and snowball sampling in their study of cultural beliefs and practices in the rural areas of the Dominican Republic. Likewise, in a research done in the faculty of health, Leeds Metropolitan University, Woodall (2013) used a combination of snowball and theoretical probability sampling. This literature informed the sampling procedure that I followed. Research can influence other research, and I knew I was not going to make an error by combining purposive sampling with snowball sampling methods in order

to reach the hard-to-reach participants who can give rich data to answer my research questions. Purposive sampling is not just an agenda of getting rightful participants (but „how‟ to get the rightful participants) thus I employed snowballing to get those unknown and rightful participants.

Purposive sampling intertwined with snowball sampling is undertaken with deliberate aims in mind (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Creswell, 2013). I managed to obtain the required sample with required characteristics in eight remote rural ECD schools from the two districts. All of the school heads and deputy heads were substantive in their posts and had served for more than ten years in these schools. However, when they completed the biography tables they referred to experience as „substantive‟in the posts, but in actual fact, they were working as acting heads or acting deputy heads for more than ten years because of the „freezing of posts‟ in the country due to economic hardships in the past ten years. All the participants had a homogeneous background in their respective categories. According to Check and Schutt (2012), homogeneity in background rather than in attitude is the objective in selecting participants for observing and interviewing. The homogeneity was however, slightly limited by the range of the ages of the participants. While the oldest in their fifties the youngest was in his thirties. With a total number of twenty-four participants, I coincidentally managed to be gender sensitive; fourteen men out of the total number formed my sample. Table 4.1 gives the biographic data of the research participants and schools‟ ECD enrolments.

Table 4.1 Biographic data of research participants

1.Goko School				School head				Deputy head				TIC			
Location	Level	RA	ECD enrolment	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience
Remote rural	Pr&ECD	RDC	140	+51	M	Bed	12yrs	+41	M	Bed	1yr	+51	F	CE	4yrs
2.Hlolwa School				School head				Deputy head				TIC (ECD)			
Location	Level	RA	ECD enrolment	Age	Sex	Qualification	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience
Remote rural	Pr&ECD	RDC	139	+51	M	Bed	3yrs	+51	M	Bed	18yrs	+41	F	DE	1yr
3.Mande School				School head				Deputy head				TIC			
Location	Level	RA	ECD enrolment	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience
Remote rural	Pr&ECD	RDC	62	+51	M	Bed	16yrs	+51	F	Bed	1yr	+41	F	CE	10yrs
4.Vukosi School				School head				Deputy head				TIC (ECD)			
Location	Level	RA	ECD enrolment	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience
Remote rural	Pr&ECD	RDC	141	+51	M	BA	14yrs	+41	M	Bed	1yr	+41	F	Bed	21yrs
5.Mashi School				School head				Deputy head				TIC (ECD)			
Location	Level	RA	ECD enrolment	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience
Remote rural	Pr&ECD	RDC	97	+51	M	Bed	15yrs	+31	F	Bed	2yrs	+41	M	Bed (ECD)	2yrs

6.Dambara School				School head				Deputy head				TIC			
Location	Level	RA	ECD enrolment	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience
Remote rural	Pr&ECD	RDC	159	+51	F	Bed	25yrs	+51	M	CE	5yrs	+51	M	DE	12yrs
7.Mungwezi School				School head				Deputy head				TIC			
Location	Level	RA	ECD Enrolment	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience
Remote rural	Pr&ECD	RDC	130	+51	M	Bed	15 yrs.	+41	F	Bed	1yr	+41	F	DE	4yrs
8.Muzorori School				School head				Deputy head				TIC			
Location	Level	RA	ECD enrolment	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience	Age	Sex	Qualifications	Experience
Remote rural	Pr&ECD	RDC	164	+41	M	BSc. Psychology	12yrs	+51	M	Bed	5yrs	+41	F	BSc Geo	3yrs

For issues related to the protection of the schools identity as well as the sensitivity of the research, the eight school heads identified pseudo names which are being used in this study. These are Goko, Hlolwa, Mande and Vukosi for Chiredzi district and Mash, Dambara, Mungwezi and Muzorori for Zaka district. I must point out that **(Table 4.1)** six schools out of eight had an enrolment of over hundred ECD children, which clearly designated viability of the ECD programme in these schools.

4.6 Data elicitation methods

According to Yin (2014), case studies use various methods and instruments for data generation, from the number of sites to a researcher practically using physical encounters to confront participants to respond or supply data on the research topic. Similarly, Check and Schutt (2012) express that case studies are focused on the use of multiple data sources, this best helps to ensure the credibility of data. Potential data sources in case studies may include, though not limited to interviews, observations, documentary reviews, archival records, interviews and physical artefacts (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2014).

The above writers indicate that participants" words and actions represent the data that I look for and these require methods that allow me to capture language and behaviour. Effective qualitative research relies on different kinds of knowledge from different sources. Consequently, if one is restricted to one data source, the data generated might fail to give a wide range of knowledge and depth of understanding of the phenomena under study. This principle was applicable in the generation of data in this study as it lies in qualitative research. Thus, research needs to generate data through different methodologies, from different perspectives, by different instruments so as to elicit the thickest data in order to strengthen the depth of understanding in the area of research. The methods and tools which were employed in this research were of a qualitative nature that included interviews and documentary reviews.

Semi-structured interviews were used to generate data from the remote rural ECD school heads, deputy heads and the infant TICs. The 2013 Educational Management Information Systems (EMIS) documents, generally called the (ED 46 C1) were reviewed. Because of the confusion surrounding this term I prefer using EMIS throughout this thesis. The 2013 EMIS document was the first to include sections that required ECD data. No such comprehensive

and rich data that included ECD was captured since the integration of ECD in 2006. Therefore, not all sections of this EMIS document were reviewed but only those that concerned ECD. The following section will provide comprehensive details of these data sources.

4.7 The interview

The interview is one of the most commonly used sources of data elicitation and is mostly used in qualitative research. In qualitative research the most important undertaking is to gain access to the participants" experiences, feelings and social settings in order to elicit information about their views and lives (Kvale, 2007; Merriam, 2009; Turner, 2010). An interview is a discussion that is held between two people; one individual posing questions prepared to elicit information and the other responding to questions on the topic under study (Merriam, 2009; Brinkmann & Kvale, 2014). Amplifying the idea are Cohen et al. (2011) who regard an interview as an inter-change of opinions by two or more people on a phenomena under study with the aim to produce knowledge that can be used to answer research questions. All it means is a form of a discourse or a face-to-face interaction which is geared on a topic of interest. Next in this section, is the detailed amplification of the semi-structured interviews and how data was recorded, followed by documentary reviews as data sources considering their merits and demerits in this research study.

4.7.1 Semi-structured interviews

A semi-structured interview has a direct elicitation from the participants which allows flexibility within the discussion (Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). In the same line of thought Merriam (2009) exposes semi-structured interviews as guided interviews that are not fully structured; they belong to both structured and unstructured interviews. Interview guides with a set of questions are prepared when one is using semi-structured interviews. The guides allowed me to generate some questions to develop interesting areas of enquiry during the interviews (Kvale, 2007; Merriam, 2009; Flick, 2014). I needed to gather data about ECD resource demand issues in remote rural areas, required to at least partly guide the interview. Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) suggest that the researcher will be having a structured section of the interview while still allowing the majority of the interview to be guided by a loose set of questions on issues to be explored. The combination of structured and unstructured sections permitted me to gather the information I needed while still allowing me to respond to the situation at hand (Patton, Parker & Neutzling, 2012).

The majority of the interview was comprised of open-ended questions and I gave the participants leeway to digress. However, because of the time limit, if the participant veered off the issue, I had to introduce a new question to try and bring the interview back to one of the main topics. To ensure that I was able to gather as much information as required for the study, I tried to guide interviews so that the same topics or issues were raised with each participant to allow each to react and give his individual perspectives. I must point out that I reviewed the questions after each interview. If new information was gained or new ideas introduced by a participant, I had to modify the questions for the remaining participants.

Consistency is perfect in semi-structured interviews; I gave all the participants the same questions (Merriam, 2009; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011). This means that semi-structured interviews allowed for all participants to be asked the same questions within a flexible framework, but however, there was no defined ordering of the questions (Christine, 2005). I encouraged participants to talk about their experiences in response to the open-ended questions; however the ordering of further questions was determined by their responses.

This semi-structured interview method was chosen in this study as the most appropriate method to achieve my research objectives. Check and Schutt (2012) note that interview data is elicited directly from the „horse"s mouth" (first-hand data), so it is „real" and is neither biased or incorrect; depicting exactly what the participant really wants to say. The participants were predominantly the school heads, deputy heads and the TICs, who played significant roles in the resource mobilisation and promotion of effective teaching and learning in ECD classes. As they were interviewed they brought varied and comprehensive accounts of how they respond to resource demand in their schools.

Advantages of these interviews were that they enabled me to get first-hand data from the participants. This direct interaction was the main source of the advantage of the interview as a research method. This method to data elicitation helps the researcher to be sensitive to participants" language and attach meaning to their responses (Merriam, 2009; Flick, 2014; Yin, 2014). Semi-structured interviews make a follow up on specific ideas and issues; as a result they provide much more detailed information about how participants feel their perceptions and opinions on the topic under study. I could probe deeper into a response given

by a participant. Participants" own words were recorded, and they were allowed to clarify ambiguities. I could instantly make follow ups on incomplete answers. It allowed me to develop a more peaceful atmosphere in which to elicit information, at the same time participants felt more relaxed engaging in dialogue with me about their situation.

However, there are a few limitations and drawbacks in the semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews are prone to bias (Merriam, 2009; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). The school heads might have wanted to show that they are responding positively to resource demand in the school, so their interview comments could have been biased. Responses from the TICs could have been biased due to their post in the ECD programme or for a number of other reasons like poor relationships with the school heads or teachers. These TICs could have given biased comments. Biased participants always tell lies in order to cover up their intentions. To eliminate such bias, I always informed the participants that, there were a number of other participants that were being interviewed at that school and elsewhere so that they should definitely be aware of the data they gave. I also asked probing questions whenever I felt a sense of bias or lies.

Different interviewers may understand and record interviews in different ways (Merriam, 2009; Check & Schutt, 2012). The interviewer might be biased and ask closed questions, thus the interviewer can affect the data if it is not consistent in terms of the questions that are asked and/or time given to the interviewee to elaborate on their comments. Semi-structured interviews can be time exhaustive. Conducting interviews, transcribing them, analysing the data, providing feedback and reporting is time consuming. Semi-structured interviews cannot be used for many people at once. Each interviewee has to get a time limit to be interviewed.

However, having these limitations discussed, does not render this method redundant, every effort was made to design a data elicitation for bias free scenarios. I was determined to develop mechanisms in conducting interviews to allow for minimal bias as well as economic use of time and costs. Researcher bias did not pose any problems to me as discussed earlier on; I took no sides. I had no preconceived hypothesis; I accepted the data as it was given, asking the questions consistently and giving the participants adequate time to react to them. The length of time did not affect me because I scheduled ample time per school, therefore I had sufficient time to complete my interviews at each site. To cut the costs on travelling, I

was hosted by chiefs in both districts. Though I had some difficulties in climbing up the mountains from where I was hosted to Muzorori school in Zaka district, I managed to complete my interview process without compromise.

4.8 Recording the data

According to Merriam (2009) and Check and Schutt (2012), data recording is a process that involves the recording of information using a „machine" during the process of the interviews. The interviews were approximately 45 minutes long and I relied mainly on audio-recording as the participants had consented to be tape-recorded. I chose to use the voice-recorder since I assumed this was the most suitable method of picking up the real responses by the participants, thereby ensuring the accuracy of the data captured. The use of the audio-recorder also allowed me to concentrate (Naidoo, 2012; Brinkmann & Kvale, 2014) on the interview and the participants" responses. I always verified that my audio-machine was recording at the same time encouraging the participants to speak audibly so that all that they said was recorded. However, since I had scheduled ample time per site, I also copied data from the EMIS documents for each school before leaving. After the data elicitation processes, I had to replay my audio-recorder to transcribe the data. This is a tiresome process since one needs to listen attentively and transcribe accurately what was said, thus I personally transcribed. These texts from the semi-structured interviews and the EMIS documents (to be discussed in the following section) are kept under „lock and keys" by my Supervisor.

4.9 Documents reviews

Documents are any written proof that give information about the investigated phenomena and are existent with/without research being conducted (Fitzgerald, 2007). They form part of the life and activities in it since they give comments on life activities (Cohen, et al., 2011). Normally documents are produced for specific purposes other than those of the research but it can be used by the researcher for research purposes (Burke & Christensen, 2008). Documents are ready-made source of data easily accessible to the researcher (Merriam, 2009). Fitzgerald (2007) asserts that documents give important details and evidence pertaining to the background and philosophies of organisations. This means that in government institutions like schools, there are certain documents that are compiled by the school heads as a requirement for the purposes of projecting, monitoring and evaluation of schools by the ministry. These documents usually contain confidential information of the school as an organisation. They contain the history of the school mainly on resources; be it human,

material, infrastructural capacity and learner enrolments. In Zimbabwe the ministry of primary and secondary education uses the EMIS document to annually get information about schools" resource capacities. This is the document which was used in this study.

According to the Zimbabwean EMIS document (ED 46 C1, p. 1) „instructional notice", school heads are urged to complete all sections of the form and to ensure accuracy in the data, failure to do so will be treated as „an act of misconduct". These documents are usually compiled with great care since they are backed by these legal sanctions threatening to charge school heads who fail to supply correct and accurate information about the school. The EMIS document is the most used document by the ministry of primary and secondary education in Zimbabwe to meet detailed annual reporting requirements for schools and the various types of resources.

Potentially, the EMIS document has been considered a useful document in this study. In case studies, there is a great benefit when one uses documents, they corroborate and augment evidence from other sources (Yin, 2014). They provide independent lens so that the researcher can apprehend all relevant information, and allow for confirmation (Naidoo, 2012). The documents exposed information that was not established through the interviews, hence they were chosen due to their ability to corroborate data from semi-structured interviews thereby making the findings more trustworthy. This research method has a great deal of advantages. To understand a phenomenon, I needed to know its history (Merriam, 2009). The fact that I used these documents with historical records, puts me in the position to study the past and understand how remote rural ECD schools respond to resource demand. This review gave me a clear picture of the identity and quality of resources that are used by these schools, thereby reflecting on the quality of education given to the remote rural ECD children in Zimbabwe. With documentary reviews there is no room for reacting to the data since the information given in the document is not subject to modification or distortion as is done during interviews where the researcher and the participant interact (Burke & Christensen, 2008). Since the data has already been created, there are no wastages in terms of time, money, expertise or other resources (Yin, 2014).

Like any other method, documentary review too has some disadvantages. According to Patton, Parker and Neutzling (2012), documents are prone to some limitations such as the correctness and entirety of the data. Flick (2014) and Merriam (2009) assert that one needs to take extreme caution in using such secondary data. This entails that some official documents are written by individuals from second hand source or subjective data based on their ideologies. The data might get diluted or exaggerated at some point (Merriam, 2009; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). It is therefore dangerous to accept generalisations based upon such findings (Flick, 2014). Hence, the use of documentary evidence did not guarantee objectivity, consistency, or even accuracy. Documentary evidence subjected me to dangers of bias; however, the following precautions were taken.

Although the aforementioned disadvantages could subject me to dangers of collecting inaccurate data from the EMIS documents, I had considered them already before choosing it as the corroborating method in my study. I am a seasoned school head by profession, I understand the preparation of the EMIS document and how school heads regard this document in the schools. It is one of the security items in the school, which should be kept under „lock and keys". It is a primary document that is produced as a direct record of an event or process by a witness or subject involved in it (Merriam, 2009; Cohen, et al., 2011). The selection of data by school heads when completing this document is very strict and there are no chances of delegating this duty to lower level officers. I understand the risk taken by the school heads in inflating information. Really, I found the EMIS document as a valuable and reliable source of data to corroborate the interview data in my study.

4.10 The process of data analysis and interpretation

Data analysis is described as techniques used to search and categorise useful data from transcriptions and to explore the relationships among the resulting categories (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009; Check & Schutt, 2012). Data analysis involves making sense of the data generated from the field work (Vithal & Jansen, 2006; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011). In the same vein Cohen et al. (2011) describe data analysis as making sense of data in terms of what the participants comment about the situation at hand, identifying patterns, themes, categories and commonalities in the data. This entails that data is elicited in a raw and junk form **(see Fig. 4.1)**. Then analysis is a process of searching, summarising and giving meaning to the data in relation to the problem that is being studied. Data needs to be classified, categorised and interpreted so that it makes sense to the readers. Since I used two methods

(interviews and documentary reviews) to elicit data, I tried by all means to use similar methods of analysing the data. Therefore, below are the sections that explain how interview and documentary data was analysed.

4.10.1 Analysis of interview data

In this study I adopted the four step approach to data analysis described by Creswell (2009) to analyse documentary and interview data. This general analysis procedure is demonstrated in Fig. 4.1 below.
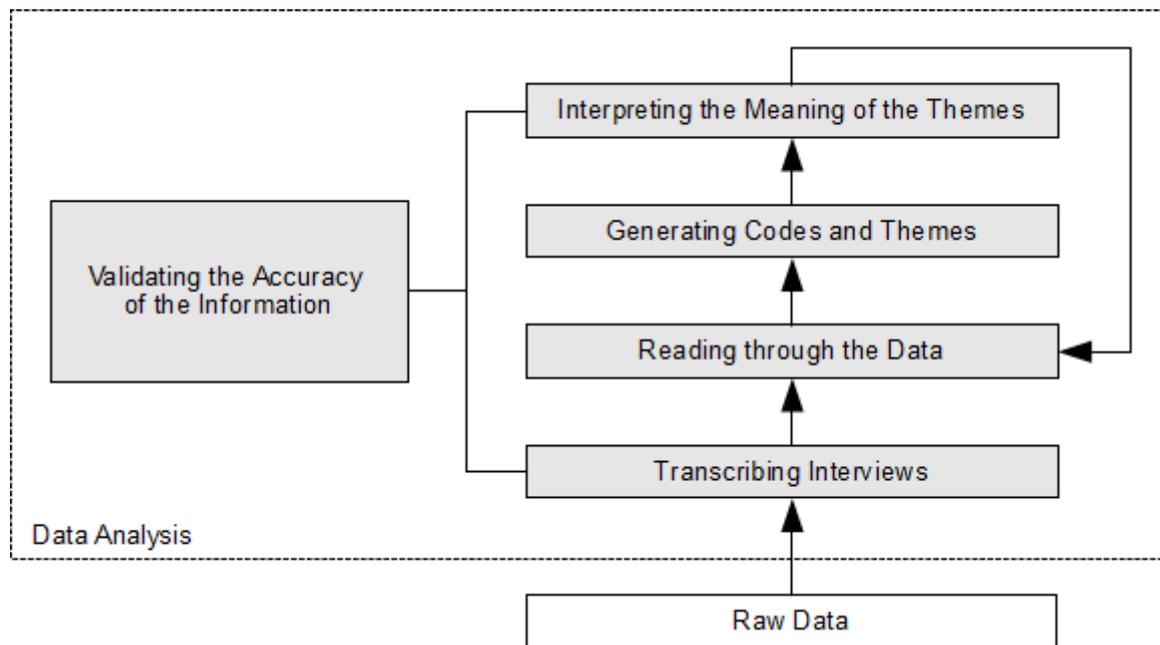
Figure: 4. 1: Steps of qualitative data analysis (**adapted from Creswell, 2009, p.185**)

Firstly, I patiently and perfectly recorded all important information of the recorded interview data (which is raw) from the voice-recorder to a text format (Creswell, 2009; Remler & Van Ryzin, 2011; Struwig & Stead, 2013). I preferred to transcribe the data myself because, repeated listening to the voice-recorder made me familiar with my data. Secondly, I repeated reading these transcripts as well as listening to (Green et al., 2007; Struwig & Stead, 2013) recordings of the interviews in order to make sure I had accurately transcribed what were recorded. I wanted to be certain that the original taste of the data was not distorted in this initial phase. The re-reading and annotation of transcripts, and making preliminary observations helped me to get the feel of the data. In actual fact, by reading through the transcribed data, I got to understand the general meaning of the data, and this helped me to identify relevant codes and themes (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009). This brought clarity to

the part I played and parts played by the participants; providing the foundation (Green, 2007; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2011; Creswell, 2013) for developing one traceable story from different stories given by the participants, into a clearer picture of what the participants wanted to comment about resource demand in remote rural ECD schools.

Thirdly, I generated codes and themes from the transcript. Coding can be defined as the process of arranging raw data into pieces or sections of transcript before attaching meaning to data (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009). With the same line of thought Green (2007) and Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011) define codes as descriptive tags that are given to pieces or sections of the transcript. Here I noted single words or short phrases in the transcripts and applied labels. Coding is more than inserting labels to the pieces and sections of the transcript (Struwig & Stead, 2013). These segments were labelled with terms that described the data on different levels of abstraction. I used computer software marking the text on line. I just needed to be clear about what I was asking of the data. The coding procedure was iterative in nature; I used pre-defined coding and emerging categories. I performed individual script analysis, and compared the themes in different scripts then across scripts, consistently testing the relationship between the data and my interpretations (Green, 2007).

A thorough cross-examination of the data was done to classify the order in which research participants responded to aspects of resource demand. I further worked through the transcripts, inserting codes, and refining the meaning of each code as necessary to discover more information about the study topic. This compelled me to make a revisit to the work that I had coded previously, to ascertain whether these codes still apply. This process of coding was iterating and non-linear. It involved a forward and backward movement through the transcripts, giving special attention to the research question and considering the theoretical concepts. After coding all the data, I „cut and pasted‟ codes into piles by code, thus taking data extracts out of their original context putting them together with other examples of data on the same topic and looking for patterns across the data, the themes. The patterns and relationships I found under these themes formed the basis of my report.

Fourthly, I had to deduce and understand the implication of the identified themes. According to Creswell (2009), qualitative research is interpretative by nature. After this analysis has taken place, the researcher‟s task is to answer the 'so what' question and to offer explanations

for the groups that have emerged (Struwig & Stead, 2013). After having transcribed and presented the interview data, I interpreted the meanings of the coded data against the conditions of my study, its background and experiences and compared these findings to information brought together from the literature or theories (Green, et al., 2007; Green, 2007; Creswell, 2009). This ability to explain social phenomena helped to ensure generalisation of this study to other settings, since it exposes better evidence about the topic.

4.10.2 Documents analysis

Document analysis is a form of qualitative research method in which I interpreted the EMIS documents from the study site schools to give voice and meaning to the issue of resource demand for ECD (Burke & Christensen, 2008). I incorporated coding of content into themes similar to how interview transcripts were done. The same was done to the documentary data; I also transcribed it separately from the interview data and study site independently. The validation of accuracy or trustworthiness **(shown on Fig. 4. 1)** of the research findings, is continuous and done in different stages of research process as given below:

4.11 Ensuring trustworthiness of the findings

Trustworthiness is ensured by the mechanisms that the researcher developed, accurately and ethically elicited, analysed and given the report about the study results (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2014). As a qualitative researcher I have the responsibility to demonstrate that the entire research process was worthy (Curtin & Fossey, 2007). All research must respond to principles that act as criteria against which accuracy or trustworthiness of the research can be authenticated (Creswell, 2009; Merriam, 2009). In this research I employed various strategies in the generation of data, and in the presentation of my findings, to establish the trustworthiness of the research (Curtin & Fossey, 2007).

Since qualitative research requires special criteria to establish trustworthiness, Merriam (2009) asserts principles for assessing the trustworthiness of qualitative research. In the main, qualitative research is involved in underlying assumptions that are reflected by these four principles. These include credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability, use of comprehensive description and selected quotes. For Merriam (2009), the notion of trustworthiness incorporates the above concepts. So, in this research, the model of Merriam (2009) was employed to ensure the trustworthiness of the research.

4.11.1 Credibility

According to Flick (2014), when results from a qualitative research are tested to be reliable and believable from the view point of the participants in the research; they are credible. This author point out that qualitative research describes or understands the phenomena under study from the participants" eyes. Hence, the participants are the only people who can legitimately determine credibility of the data. In this study, I demonstrated that the participants of the study are appropriately recognised and pronounced, grounded on the way in which the study was conducted.

In order for the researcher to establish credibility Remler and Van Ryzin (2011) and Flick (2014) propose triangulation and flexibility. Ensuring of data credibility can be done through triangulation, thus using different sources, sites and even different data collection methods. In the case of this study (methods triangulation), I corroborated interview data with data from the EMIS documents. I also considered site triangulation, which I achieved with the participation of several remote rural ECD schools in the research. Site triangulation (eight schools) reduced the effect of particular local factors peculiar to one school in the study. I compared data from one site to the other, thus, from one school to the other. When similar findings emerge from different sites; they are rated credible by the readers (Shenton, 2004). At the same time I compared data from various participants in the sample; the school heads, deputy heads and the TICs. I interviewed twenty-four participants as another form of triangulation (source triangulation). Here cross case site analysis was done based on individual viewpoints and experiences, verified to bring an ultimate rich analysis that strengthen credibility of the findings. Therefore, using multiple sites, methods and data sources enhanced the credibility of my data and helped me to confirm the data accuracy (Baxter & Jack, 2008). This varied triangulation of sources, sites and methods is important for augmenting the credibility of data (Merriam, 2009).

I applied several strategies to ensure honesty in the participants" contributions. In particular, I gave an opportunity to every participant to withdraw from taking part (if they feel uninterested) in the study so as to ensure that only those who were genuinely willing could participate in honesty. I encouraged all participants to be free from the onset of each interview session, with the aim of establishing a rapport in the opening moments. Most important, I pointed out to the participants that there were no predetermined right responses

to the questions **(Appendices 5, 6, & 7)**. I also developed some strategies to dispose deliberate untruths, like the use of probes to lobby for more information and the use of iterative questioning, raising issues that were raised previously to test the truthfulness in their responses.

Merriam (2009) ricochets that; qualitative inquiry work can be assessed by the researcher through relating to an existing body of knowledge. My research methods are well established both in social science research generally and in qualitative investigation in particular. I was dedicated to employ specific procedures, such as the simple questioning technique during interview sessions. History influences current knowledge, I got the benefit of previous studies that were successful to derive data analysis methods for my study (Green, et al., 2007, Cohen et al., 2011; Check & Schutt, 2012; Creswell, 2013; Yin, 2014). Credibility was also ensured by the blending of the two sampling procedures (purposive and snowballing), which helped me to get the hard-to-reach remote rural participants who gave credible data. I was also aware that my views, feelings, perspectives and predispositions could influence the interpretation of data; hence I was flexible throughout interviews (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

4.11.2 Transferability

Stake (2006) and Yin (2014) explain the term transferability, as it refers to the extent to which results produced from a qualitative research can be universal and applied to other situations, contexts or settings. Merriam (2009) agrees that transferability is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations. From a social scientist point of view, transferability is the obligation of the person making the generalisations. I therefore, ensured transferability by carefully defining the research background and the expectations that were important to this study. It is important that relevant rich explanation of the resource demand in remote rural ECD schools is given to let readers to have full understanding of it, thereby allowing them to compare the instances of the phenomenon described in the research report with those that they have seen emerge in their situations (Shenton, 2004; Merriam, 2009). The work of Rolfe (2004) highlights the importance of the researcher drawing an accurate boundary of the study. In order to make transferability easier to my readers, the following measures were diligently applied in various sections of this document:

- Location of the study and total number of schools taking part in the study (Section 1.7);

- Clarity on characteristics expected from participants who contributed data (Table 4.1);

- The number of participants who were interviewed (Table 4.1);

- The data elicitation methods that were used (4.7.1 and 4.9);

- The number and length of the data generation sessions (Appendices 5, 6 & 7) and

- The time period over which the data was collected (Appendices 5, 6 & 7).

To ensure the transferability of this study, I combined the purposive and snowballing sampling procedures. A full representation of all stakeholders was considered in this sample. They were chosen because of their representativeness of the population about which conclusions were made. In addition to the measures of ensuring transferability discussed above, I carefully collected rich descriptive data, which could be compared to other research (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

4.11.3 Dependability

Given the same context with the same participants to repeat such a research, the findings should be replicated (Shenton, 2004; Merriam, 2009). However, Bertram and Christiansen (2014) acknowledge the correlation between credibility and dependability, arguing that when an attempt to ensure credibility can also ensure dependability with the same strategies then. Most of the measures to ensure dependability are discussed in Section 4.11.1. The only issue I could additionally consider as a measure to ensure dependability was accounting for ever-changing contexts in which I conducted my research. The criterion of dependability in qualitative research therefore underscores that the researcher should account for the dynamic contexts inside the research environment (Shenton, 2004; Merriam, 2009). I took the accountability by relating the changes that took place in the research environment and recording how these changes influenced the way I approached the study. Therefore dependability entails the ability by the researcher to account for the changes in the study design and the changing conditions in relation to what was studied (Neuman, 2006; Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

4.11.4 Confirmability

According to Bertram and Christiansen (2014), qualitative research tends to accept that each research when done perfectly, adds some knowledge into the body of literature. Confirmability therefore refers to the extent to which results found from a study can be confirmed or augmented by other researches. There are a number of strategies that can be used to ensure confirmability in qualitative research. I documented the techniques used for examining and re-examining the data during the course of this study. Confirmability is based on data reviews and uses transcribed data to confirm (Merriam, 2009; Yin, 2014). Therefore, in qualitative research, two similar study results should be used to confirm one another. Thus, confirmability therefore refers to the confirmation of the trustworthiness of the data.

During data analysis, in this study, I coded and re-coded to confirm the data. An audit trail, which included the dates of interviews, the names of participants and schools at which the research was carried out, letters to schools seeking permission to carry out the research and the audio-tapes recorded during the interviews were used to ensure the confirmability of the data.

Triangulation is one of the techniques that can be used to confirm data accuracy; however, I would not want to get lost in the data so I stopped eliciting data immediately when I reached data saturation. Thus, in order to bring some order to the voluminous amount of data I gathered, it was necessary for me to organise and manage the data from these multiple sources and multiple methods to come together in the analysis (Tuckett, 2012) process rather than handling it individually. I rightly understand that one danger associated with various sources is the generation of vast amounts of data that need organisation and analysis (Stake, 2006; Merriam, 2009; Tuckett, 2012; Yin, 2014).

4.11.5 Thick descriptions

I used „thick description" to enhance the trustworthiness of my research. I described each of the situations in each school in sufficiently rich detail so that readers can draw on their own explanation and conclusions from the rich data presented.

4.11.6 Selected quotes

I used „selected quotes" which were appropriate to indicate the responses of school heads,

deputy heads and TICs in respect of ECD resource demand and how it had an impact on teaching and learning. Using these succinct citations enhanced and gave valuable support to data interpretation. I did reproduce enough sections of the transcript to actually bring to the fore the status of ECD in Zimbabwe.

4. 12 Ethical considerations

From my preliminary discussion it is clear that my research incorporated school heads, deputy heads and TICs who were interviewed. Since I involved human participants, I was compelled to consider ethical issues. I had to provide participants with adequate information about their welfare during their participation; so I assured them of the strictest confidentiality, anonymity, privacy, informed consent, dignity, feedback and declaration of safety either emotionally or physically during and after the process (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Further, as Fontana and Frey (2005) state, researchers should take extreme care to avoid any hurt to the participants. Whilst the researcher has a right to search for knowledge, truth and reality, extreme caution should be taken for safe guarding the rights of the participants (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Supporting this idea are Cohen et al. (2011) who assert that in conducting research, it is crucial to consider ethical issues to avoid problems that may arise during the process of generating data and also to protect the rights of the participants.

These citations are focusing on standards such as confidentiality, informed consent, anonymity and the participants" rights. Consequently, respect for people and respect for the truth are two guiding principles when one is undertaking research. For credible research, it is very important to give assurance to participants of confidentiality, because participants feel unsafe to reveal their private details, opinions and emotions in public documents knowing that their names would be published. So, to respect participants in my study, the following procedure described below was undertaken:

Obtaining of the ethical clearance renders green light to eliciting data and reviewing documents in selected organisations. Interviews involve invasion into organisations or personal privacy through the interpersonal discussions that are done during interviews (Merriam, 2009; Cohen, et al., 2011), hence the need for ethical clearance from the Research Office of UKZN. Also documentary reviews involve invasion into the school and ministry"s private information, hence the need to consider ethics. Neuman (2006) further points out that

a researcher has no right to unethically conduct research in a school, but should be aware that participants are supporting him/her if they decide to participate. I had to get permission of invasion from the gatekeepers and participants. I wrote letters to the District Education Officers of the two districts; Chiredzi and Zaka seeking for authorisation to conduct my research in chosen schools in their districts. I wrote other letters to the school heads, deputy heads and the TICs seeking their consent to take part in the interviews. It was important to ensure that participants took part in the study with confidence. I expounded in detail, the reasons for carrying out the study and how the information generated from them would be used. I informed them about the tape recording during the interviews, and explained that it would be treated with stringent confidentiality and that their responses would be anonymous. I further explained to them all their rights in the process including the right to stop participation in the research at any time they felt they were no longer interested (Merriam, 2009; Cohen, et al., 2011). All the participants, after being fully informed as to the nature and purpose of the study, agreed to be involved as volunteers. All the participants gave their consent in writing after having read a document comprising all the important information; these copies are contained in Appendix A of this thesis. The University of KwaZulu-Natal granted me the ethical clearance necessary to carry out the research for this study; this copy is enclosed on page (i) of this thesis.

To protect the identity of the participants and the schools, I requested each school head to find a *self-styled* name for their school which I used throughout the research, writing and reporting. The following were the pseudo names: Dambara, Goko, Hlolwa, Mande, Mash, Muzorori, Mungwezi and Vukosi. Subsequently, the anonymity of the schools was respected and the confidentiality of participants were also maintained. Everything that was said or shared in confidence was kept confidential, and nobody"s identity has been mentioned in any reports or disclosed, as had been agreed upon (Christians, 2008; Merriam, 2009). The participants were treated with equality, respect, appreciation and human dignity was respected to the best of my ability. The actual measures implemented at each stage of the research will be described in the relevant chapters.

4.13 Conclusion

This chapter provided an outline of the research paradigm that underpins the study so as to establish its rationality to the research design. The chapter includes a full episode of the qualitative methodology and clearly highlighted how the case study was used as a tool for

this research. Noted in the chapter was the relationship between the case study research as a mother to the chosen research methods, the semi-structured interviews and the EMIS documentary reviews. Evidence was given that these methods were in line with the goals of the research. Advantages, disadvantages of these methods, and employed strategies on how the disadvantages were harmonised in the study were given. Sampling procedures were elaborated upon and a comprehensive evaluation was also given. Detailed explanations on data analysis, interpretation, measures to ensure trustworthiness and the ethical issues of the study were given. Chapter Five focuses on data presentations and discussions.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Four provided a detailed discussion of the research design and methodology that was used in generating data that would answer research questions that guided the study. This chapter presents and discusses data that was elicited from 24 research participants in 8 study sites in remote rural ECD schools of Chiredzi and Zaka districts in Zimbabwe. The purpose of this study was to examine the remote rural ECD schools" responses to the challenges of resource demand in Zimbabwe. I must mention that the demands of the topic were to examine the extent to which these responses could address effective teaching and learning in the ECD classes. It was not all about responses but the promotion of effective teaching and learning by the children. The challenges met by these remote rural ECD schools were to be exposed during the interviews as indicated by the topic, but most important was how they addressed these challenges in order to promote effective teaching and learning in their schools. This study was supposed to clarify the relationship between resource mobilisation in the remote rural ECD schools and school management. The chapter revolves around the reflection on how I made sense of the data from the voices recorded during the interviews and the data reviewed from the 2013 EMIS documents.

The common questions used in the interviews were informed by the critical research questions which guided me in this study. Before data presentation, it is important for me to give a clear explanation on how critical research questions branched to form common interview questions. Each critical research question had a number of common questions that were intended to address it. Therefore, critical research question one was addressed by responses for interview Question One and Question Two. Research question Two was addressed by the responses given for the interview Questions Three, Five and Seven and finally the third research question was addressed by responses to interview Questions Four, Six and Eight.

As I reiterated earlier, this section is dedicated to the presentation of data elicited from the EMIS documents and from the semi-structured interviews. Interview data was presented first then corroborated by data from the EMIS documents. In my data presentation I frequently

referred to qualitative data obtained from the EMIS documents to augment and/or support the data obtained from the interviews.

In my data presentation I cited *verbatim* quotes from participants with the intention of producing coherent arguments that strengthen my presentation. I tried to elicit the natural experiences of the participants through their comments, since the study was situated within the qualitative approach. As reiterated above, interview questions were grouped according to the critical research questions which deal with specific aspects in the study, I strongly adhered to the use of themes (Creswell, 2009) as highlighted in Chapter Four. There were pre-defined and the emerging themes from the elicited data, these were used sequentially in this presentation. I included brief quotations to highlight themes which developed from the interviews. In the light of this background, I discussed the following themes to answer my three critical questions as indicated below:

1. How do remote rural ECD schools respond to resource demand in Zimbabwe?
  ➢ Infrastructural resources
  ➢ Teaching and learning materials
  ➢ Human resources
  ➢ Financial/Funding resources
  ➢ Nutrition, health and safety resources
  ➢ Stakeholder involvement

2. To what extent are remote rural ECD schools' responses effective in addressing ECD teaching and learning?

  ➢ Effects of low supply of resources to ECD teaching and learning
  ➢ Strategies for promoting effective teaching and learning in ECD

3. How does the existing resource demand influence the remote rural ECD school management?

  ➢ Remote rural school heads are: „between the devil and the deep blue sea"
  ➢ Insufficient funding in remote rural ECD schools poses a challenge to school management

- ➢ Managerial challenges faced by remote rural ECD school heads
- ➢ Mitigation of challenges experienced by the school heads in resource mobilisation

5.2 Remote rural ECD schools' responses to resource demand

The remote rural ECD children have access to education and they have various types of resources that only help them to learn. Participants claimed that children have access to a variety of resources (though limited) in their schools. These resources ranged from infrastructural, teaching and learning materials, human, financial/funding, nutrition, health and safety. This section is dedicated to present data on these resources as given by the participants and documentary reviews. Each sub-section takes care of one type of resources and finally the sixth sub-section is devoted to answer how these resources are mobilised.

5.2.1 Infrastructural resources

What emerged was ECD children have access to the toilets but, these toilets were neither suitable nor adequate for the children. Inappropriate infrastructure was a challenge that school heads identified in their schools. They resented that their schools were operating with unsuitable, sub-standard and unhealthy toilets. ECD children were sharing toilets with the main stream grades. These toilets were not age appropriate for ECD children, which was a grave concern for the administration. This situation was inviting danger in the form of a fatality where one child might accidentally fall into the squatting hole. This school head had this to say:

> *Our toilets are insufficient that ECD children congest with the main stream grades, which is unhealthy for this tender age. The number of squatting holes and the enrolment do not tally. They should be 15 boys and 12 girls per squatting hole. This is the regulation gazetted by the ministry of health. We don't have toilets meant for the ECD so we are even afraid of the size of the squatting holes. They are large, and the Blair toilets are dark inside so that these little children cannot see. It's always wet inside, this is not healthy at all, since most of these children come to school bear-footed* **(Goko School Head).**

All the schools acknowledged access to classrooms by their children and teachers. A common thread running through most of the responses was the idea that classrooms were inadequate since they allocated one classroom for all the ECD classes. Suitability of classrooms was another area of interest for ECD, it was clear that most of the schools did not build standard classrooms for ECD but they allocated those already used by the main primary school grades which were not user-friendly to ECD children. Despite the number of ECD classes they had in the school, most participants testified that they allocated or built at least one classroom for the ECD children. One school head had this to state:

> *I mean five classes are sheltered in one classroom. Each class gets a portion of the learning time to learn while inside the classroom but at any given time four classes will be learning outside, either under the trees or at the outdoor play centre. Our children are learning under the trees. Five classes are sharing one classroom. When it is raining or in winter they come into the classroom and no proper learning takes place* **(Goko School Head).**

Other schools echoed different scenarios in relation to classrooms for ECD. They did not allocate any classroom to the ECD children, since they were given permission to use church buildings in the school premises during bad weather. All the classes, both ECD-A and ECD-B, were using these church buildings. However, they were not allowed to display any teaching and learning materials in these church buildings. One of the deputy heads had this to say:

> *We have no classrooms allocated to ECD, but we have 94 ECD children in ECD-A and ECD-B classes. We have a church building where the children go to when it is raining. When the weather is good, they learn outside, at the play centre or under the trees. In the church building we are not allowed to display play areas. It is for shelter only* **(Mungwezi School Deputy Head).**

Emerging data shows that all the schools had classes under the trees. Classrooms were inadequate in all the schools. The above data is corroborated by the EMIS data which revealed that for 2013; schools like Dambara, Goko, Mash, Muzorori, Hlolwa and Vukosi each had one classroom for ECD classes, while Mungwezi and Mande had no classrooms for ECD classes.

All schools lamented the notion that they had inadequate classrooms for ECD in their schools. All schools affirmed that they had one session; all children starting school at the same time in the morning. They expressed that the children learnt independent groups according to their classes but they alternated the use of the classrooms, thus classes took turns to have lessons inside the classroom. This was only when the weather was fine, during rainy days children clustered in this classroom. One of the TICs had this to say:

All classes come in the morning but when one class is inside the classroom, other classes are outside. We have classes under the tree here at our school, it's true. Every day we have classes learning under the trees. Only on bad weather days they gather in the classroom and all the teachers will be inside also. Really, no teaching would be taking place; only silencing and reprimanding the children. How can we expect them to teach over 150 in one classroom? **(Muzorori School TIC).**

The importance of standard classrooms was supported by (Pence, 2008; Awopegba, 2010) illustrating the key policy recommendation on ECD classrooms with ensured suitability and integrity with enough illumination, ventilation and space for sitting arrangements to allow free play and interaction with the teacher. Emphasised again is the number of children occupying the room as compared to the classroom capacity, at least 16 square metres for 20-25 children (NERDC, 2004) to allow free movement by the children during learning periods. Although it is important to have adequate and suitable classrooms for the ECD children (Tshabalala & Mapolisa, 2013) point out that there is a serious classroom shortage in Zimbabwean rural schools where some classes are held outside under trees.

Inside these classrooms, most schools confirmed that furniture was still a big problem for the ECD children. Most schools had furniture for a few children, which was the main reason for taking turns to use the classrooms. Children sat on the benches or chairs when inside the classrooms or on the ground when under the trees. One of the school heads had this to say:

Our furniture comprises plastic chairs, tables and benches. This furniture can only accommodate one class of 30 children, so when they go, out they sit on the ground. Children can only use the furniture when inside the classroom, which is only one at a time. During bad weather days when all classes get into the classroom, children scramble for the furniture, so the teachers opted to put all the furniture aside and make all children to sit on the floor **(Goko School Head).**

While some schools had few seats for the ECD children, most of the schools had nothing. Children sat on the floor and when writing, they laid flat on the floor. The participants lamented over the issue of children sitting on the floor. They cited health problems, saying children were catching colds especially during the winter or rainy season. One of the TICs had this to say:

> *There is no furniture in the library (used as a classroom) so children sit on the floor. When the children want to write it is difficult because they would be seated on the floor, so they sleep flat on the floor to write. Even when it is cold they sleep on the floor which it is not healthy because children catch colds* **(Mande School TIC).**

The aforementioned data is corroborated by the EMIS data which reveals that half of the schools had nil sitting and writing facilities while the other half had few writing and sitting places for their children. The conditions under which these ECD children were operating contradict the requirements, with the expectations of the ECD classroom furniture (NERDC, 2004) stipulating that, the classroom is supposed to be furnished with child-size furniture. Each child should have a seat, either a bench or a chair, which should regularly be tested for integrity so that they do not pose danger to the children. This is further supported by results from a study carried out in Thailand on ECD in 2004, which affirms that learning through play is facilitated by physically child-centred and emotionally safe school environments (Smith, 2012). Smith further denigrated the conditions in these classrooms, suggesting that every child deserves to learn under inviting and safe environments.

The participants indicated the availability of outdoor play centres, however they lamented on the inadequacy of the play structures in these play centres. Basically, the outdoor play materials were available and suitable but they were inadequate, so there was a need for more structures so that all children could have opportunities to use them. The structures that were available could not permit all the children to play and learn. This is what one deputy heads had to say:

> *We have a play centre but it's not fully developed, however children can go there and play. The outdoor play centre is intact but needs to be completed. It still needs more structures to be added for there to be sufficient structures for all the children to play at one time, especially during break time* **(Mande School Deputy Head).**

The responses provided by the participants revealed that most schools were operating without enough structures at their outdoor play centres. However, Arthur et al. (2008) advise that the outdoor play environment should be sufficient and planned with lots of entertainment facilities for the young children. Appositely, McMullen et al. (2005) draw attention to the view that children need to be exposed to natural environments with trees, water, sand, animals, birds, flowers to mention a few, for observation and manipulation. Extending this line of thought is Arthur et al. (2008) explaining that children develop their emotional health into the sense of individuality and autonomy as a result of their contact with the natural environment. Chikutuma and Mawere (2012) support the idea by saying that the outdoor environment provides great chances for children to learn in an experiential way. Hence, the outdoor play centres in these schools were not matching the requirements of the standard outdoor play centres.

In summarising on the issue of infrastructure, the participants revealed that schools were operating with unsuitable/inadequate infrastructure, ECD children were habituated in allocated primary classrooms, others were accommodated in church buildings which were on the school premises and the rest were learning under the trees. The outdoor play centres were not suitably constructed; most of them had few play structures that could not accommodate all the children. Furniture was neither adequate nor suitable for the ECD children, most schools had a few seats in form of plastic chairs and benches and the rest sat on the floor.

5.2.2 Teaching and learning materials

From the responses, it was evident that all the schools could afford to access teaching and learning materials that were suitable for use by these children. They had lots of teaching and learning materials at their disposal, these varied from toys, models, stationery and other real features like the plants and water/sand tanks found in the school environment. These were either used indoors or outdoors. It was realised that most schools confirmed that instructional materials were adequate and suitable for the ECD classes. The only problem that hindered these schools from using enough of these instructional materials was that they had no space for all children in one classroom; neither could they make displays under the trees or in the church buildings. One of the deputy heads said:

In the classroom we have quite a number of learning materials which we received from UNICEF. We have teaching and learning materials from UNICEF, those that teachers are busy making, these that parents are also hand-making and stationery. We have many of these resources **(Mande School Deputy Head).**

In rounding off this section, I must clearly indicate that the responses revealed that teaching and learning material resources were sufficient and suitable for use by the children in the remote rural ECD schools under study. This was in line with Tikly (2010) and Vennam et al. (2009) who emphasise the need for quality ECD education provision through the accessibility of adequate teaching and learning materials which are mobilised from the local environment.

5.2.3 Human resources

There were three categories of teachers manning the ECD classes in the schools, namely the ECD trained teachers, para-professionals and the seconded primary trained teachers. While ECD trained teachers were those teachers who were accredited by the Ministry of Education through teachers‟ colleges and universities, para-professionals were individuals who were employed by the SDCs to man ECD classes. Participants raised concern that these para-professionals had varying qualifications that start from at least three „O‟ levels and the lowest qualification was unidentified. This indicated a very low quality of the teacher, whose qualifications were not even identified, making them unsuitable to teach these children. This was how one other school deputy head described the para-professionals:

*We have o*ne *para-professional, an Ordinary level holder and a helper whose qualifications are not even identified. The two are managing the 94 pupils at this school* **(Mungwezi School Deputy Head).**

The third group of teachers who were teaching the ECD children in these remote rural ECD schools were the seconded qualified teachers. These teachers were not trained to teach ECD but in most cases they were „infant‟ teachers. This category of teachers was the TICs who were seconded due to their flair for teaching infant classes. Most of the participants indicated that these seconded teachers had very little knowledge in ECD matters which made them unsuitable to teach these children. This is how one of the school heads described them:

Seconded teachers are primary school trained teachers who are seconded to teach the ECD children. E. g. if we have an interested teacher; he/she by the permission of the district education office, can be transferred to teach the ECD children. This secondment is done through a recommendation by the school head. It is like our TIC, she was trained to teach infant grades but now she has been seconded to teach ECD through my recommendation **(Vukosi School Head).**

While the participants showed that ECD trained teachers were still few in schools, EMIS data indicates that in 2013 only two schools had one ECD trained teachers each, while the rest depended on para-professionals. The general impression from the aforementioned data is that ECD trained teachers were very few in the schools. This was further corroborated by one of the school heads:

We should get more than 5 trained teachers for ECD but I once consulted the District office requesting for another trained teacher, the District Education Officer (DEO) said; 'we have to serve other schools to get qualified teachers first, before we can give you an extra teacher'. We are very fortunate; I do not know about other schools in this area. I think they don't even have one ECD qualified teacher like we do **(Muzorori School Head).**

The employment of para-professionals to teach ECD children is supported by UNICEF (2010) stipulating that the situation in most countries is that the number of ECD trained teachers is still insignificant. This is further supported by Frederick (2011), Mugweni (2011) and Rao (2010) who acknowledge the employment of para-professionals in many countries due to the shortage of ECD trained teachers. This is also supported by the Zimbabwe Statutory Instrument (106 of 2005) authorising the SDCs to employ the para-professionals to teach the ECD children. However, though the general impression by participants was that the District Education Officers are committed to posting, at most, one ECD trained teacher at every school, before posting the second one; the remote rural staffing pattern is emancipated by Lyons (2006) positing that attracting teachers to remote rural schools has presented a challenge for education departments for years (Mugweni, 2011) and remote rural ECD schools continue to suffer in paying the para-professionals yet ECD trained teachers are in over-supply in urban ECD schools.

Although the suitability of teacher was being compromised in these schools, it was noted that the schools had teachers to teach the children. It was noted again that rarely could a remote rural ECD school have more than one ECD trained teacher; they were supplemented by seconded primary trained teachers and the para-professionals. It was confirmed that seconded teachers and para-professionals had no expertise in teaching ECD. Thus, the aforementioned responses showed that teachers were accessible but were not suitable to teach ECD classes. This was confirmed by one of the school heads:

> *Our TIC and the para-professionals are not trained to teach ECD so they end up confusing the ECD children for deeper content* (**Vukosi School Head**).

The aforementioned scenario of having untrained teachers in the ECD classes is discouraged by Zhao and Gao (2008) stating that ECD teacher training must be more formalised and specialised for the realisation of the EFA and MDGs (UNESCO"s EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2006) where we have the international formalisation of ECD through different policies in different countries the world over. It is in the same vein that ARNEC (2011) and UNESCO (2012) are sounding the importance of skills training for quality lesson delivery. Udommana (2012) and UNESCO (2012) emphasise the need for each country to set a standard for the level of training with the argument that teaching these little children is a delicate adventure that needs expertise on the part of the teacher to improve child-teacher interaction. This scenario of unskilled teachers teaching the ECD children have the Invitational and Transformational Theories bringing in the idea of schools developing professional learning communities in order to develop teaching skills and knowledge among teachers (Deiner, 2010; Haigh, 2011; Pedder & Opfer, 2011; Bush & Middlewood, 2013; Shields, 2011; Hickman, 2010). This is presented in a model given by Steyn (2005) which influence teacher professional development in schools (See Section 3.1).

5.2.3.1 Teacher-Pupil ratio or class size

The impression given by the participants was ECD teachers were inadequate in the schools, whether trained or untrained. Teacher-pupil ratio or the class size means how many children learn under the guidance of one teacher. This emerged when the participants were asked about their school ECD enrolments and the teacher establishment in this particular

department. The participants claimed that they could not employ adequate teachers since these teachers were paid by the parents. This is what one of the participants had to say:

Each teacher is supposed to teach 20 children but here this policy does not work. Each teacher has nearly 40 children, double the expected teacher/pupil ratio. It is done deliberately; only one teacher out of the four is trained and is paid by the ministry. The three para-professionals are paid by the SDC from the levies that are paid by the parents. So the more children we attach to the teacher, the more the money we have to pay these para-professionals **(Muzorori School Head).**

Although it was clear from the participants that policy stipulation on teacher-pupil ratio should operate at 1:20, this was not the state of the play in all the case study schools. This contradicted with the Statutory Instrument 12 of 2005 which stipulates a teacher to pupil ratio of 1: 20. These school heads had a reason for having large classes, they deliberately moved away from the policy stipulation to fundraise for the para-professionals allowances. Most school heads also appeared to accept the idea of keeping large class size in order to raise funds for the para-professionals allowances. They believed that, without national school funding, schools could not endorse the teacher-pupil ratio stipulated by the ministry policy because they needed money to pay the para-professionals. Hence, the participants adopted the idea of over-crowding children in order to have enough money to pay the para-professionals. This is what one of the school heads had to say:

The SDC was supposed to employ four of these para-professionals but due to the unavailability of funds, we agreed to take three and raise the teacher-pupil ratio in order to pay their salaries **(Goko School Head).**

The evidence from the EMIS documents corroborates this story by indicating that most study site schools had over-crowded classes above the stipulated teacher-pupil ratio. According to the aforementioned data, participants were concerned with the number of para-professionals they pay as compared to the number of children paying the money. Consequently, the idea of large class sizes was contrary to the findings of the studies by UNICEF (2008) and UNESCO (2009) putting the global average teacher-pupil ratio at 1:21. The statutory instrument (12 of 2005) stipulates 1: 20 teacher-pupil ratio in ECD classes.

From the responses mentioned above and EMIS data, it was apparent that the schools had desisted from the main objective of providing suitable education to the learners which was contrary to the reasons given in the following researches: UNESCO (2010) is indicating the benefits of smaller class sizes. Montie et al. (2006) and Naudeau et al. (2011) conducted research which shows that small class sizes have a positive influence on child development. The reasons given by the participants on over-crowding children to fund-raise for para-professionals" allowances is supported by SEAMEO INNOTECH (2011) who asserts that schools should maintain teachers" individual needs, so as to retain the teachers and motivate them to get the best out of them. This was supported by Doherty et al. (2006) who posit that a teacher"s wellbeing has a bearing on the quality of education provided to the ECD children. Similarly, the transformational/invitational leaders (Burns, 2007; Bush, 2010) respond to the individual needs of their followers for effective service delivery. However, it is argued that these school leaders are taking advantage of the children to motivate their teachers.

5.2.4 Financial/Funding resources

Based on data from the interviews and EMIS data from the eight schools, funding of ECD was basically done by parents of the ECD children through levy payment. In response to the questions about how the ECD programme was being funded in the schools, the participants responded that they largely bank on school levies. The levy is paid on termly basis. Zimbabwe has three terms in an academic year; January to April is term one; May to August is term two and September to December is term three. Zimbabwe is currently using the American dollar (US$), due to the devaluation of the Zimbabwean dollar in 2008. This is what one of the school heads had to say:

> *In terms of monetary sources, we have payment of levies by parents* **(Vukosi School Head).**

These above-mentioned responses were augmented with the EMIS data which indicates that parents were paying levies for their ECD children. School heads expressed disgruntlement in the omission of the ECD children from the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM). The ECD children were paying levies like any other school children but they were not eligible to educational grants given by the government. They felt that ECD children and parents were

segregated by the government, considering how remote rural families were suffering from poverty due to drought. HIV/AIDS is claiming many lives, leaving child-headed families due to poor health facilities and lack of education in remote rural areas. This is what one school head had to say:

> *BEAM policy is depriving and disadvantaging the ECD learners. The ECD children are not eligible for grants. They pay levies for their education and obtain no grants from the government. This BEAM is a government grant given to school-going children from primary to secondary levels. The anticipated recipients of BEAM are the Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) maybe due to HIV/Aids. This BEAM is meant to fight financial problems affecting the ability of children to access education due to increasing HIV/Aids deaths and poverty in the country* **(Vukosi School Head).**

Participants confirmed that the entire levy that came from the few parents who afforded to pay each term were used to pay allowances for the para-professionals, buying teaching and learning resources and to finance these para-professional staff development workshops and touring other schools. This was confirmed by one of the school heads:

> *Parents are paying levies as our source of revenue in the school. These levies are solely used for ECD purposes, like buying stationery, paying the para-professionals and sending the para-professionals for workshops in the district or outside* **(Dambara School Head).**

These aforementioned responses communicate the positive responses given by communities to the call made by the government to establish and maintain the ECD classes in primary schools across the country (Education act, 1996a; Statutory Instruments, 106 of 2005, 12 of 2005; Chikutuma & Mapolisa, 2013). This concurs with the Chinese government which puts the responsibility of funding ECD on the local communities (Korea Institute of Child Care & Education, 2011). This is also happening in Kenya; parents and communities are funding ECD (Myers, 2006) and prevalent in Malawi where communities are contributing to the construction and running of ECD schools through paying in cash and/or in kind, labour and providing building materials (Rose, 2010). Principle Number 3 of the Child Friendly Schools policy (UNESCO, 2012) acknowledges that in most countries local communities are funding ECD by contracting para-professionals and the monitoring teams, developing the school

infrastructure, subsidising the training of teachers and their supervisors and providing teaching and learning materials (UNESCO, 2010). However, these findings differ from the Zimbabwean Education Act (25:04, p. 7) which stipulates the payment of „lowest possible fees consistent with the maintenance of high standards of education…… are including the making of grants and other subsidies to schools by the government." Zimbabwe, unlike other States, gives no grants and other subsidies to the ECD children. ECD schools rely solely on funding by parents.

Most school heads lamented that some parents were defaulting on their levy payments and this had negative repercussions on attempts to provide adequate and suitable resources to the ECD learners. Some school heads were persisting, but to no avail. The head of Mash school said:

> *Money is not sufficient. Our pupils; the ECD A and B pay   US$15 per term just like the grade 1-7. We even take some money paid by the ot*her grades to pay *these para-professionals but still it doesn't work. The parents are not paying the levies* **(Mash School Head).**

From the above-mentioned responses, non-payment of levies was common in the case study schools especially for the ECD children. All the school heads raised concerns about the fact that defaulting on levy payments was not unexpected since the remote rural areas are poverty stricken. For instance this school head affirmed that:

> *In these remote rural areas, our parents are really poor; it is not easy to bring up a family while the parents are not working.... They don't have any other source of income besides their fields ... If the rains fail them it means even the school is affected, our parents are willing but they are poor… They complain of hunger, they don't have where to start* **(Muzorori School Head).**

The aspect of poverty in remote rural areas is justified by IFAD (2010), Madu (2010) emphasising that among other countries, poverty in Zimbabwe has deepened because of erratic rainfall, a lack of government support and present economic instability. Defaulting on levies by parents is acknowledged by Mugweni (2011) who purports that while the country is economically stressed, parents may fail to pay fees and levies for their children, communities

should share the costs of running the ECD programme to lessen the intensity of the burden on the parents. The Invitational leadership theory, believes that parents can be fully involved in the education of their children if invited into the process by school leaders (Purkey, 2006).

5.2.5 Nutrition, health and safety resources

Nutrition involves itself with feeding patterns in the schools, that is, preparation of the food and monitoring of children while eating. The health aspect revolves around the monitoring of ECD children while in school by the health personnel. The ECD children are still in the child immunisation programme, so health personnel visiting schools for health check-ups and immunisation was important to this study. Another crucial issue was to look into Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH) facilities like the toilets, sources of domestic water and washing stations in the school. (Toilets are not going to be re-discussed since they were discussed under infrastructure).

The participants explained the health and nutritional services offered to these ECD children during their time in school. Among the schools were six schools that had feeding schemes. All these schools were near the clinics, where the Environmental Health Technicians (EHT) frequently visited the school to check on how children were fed. The EHTs also checked on the cleanliness of the toilets. This was echoed by the school TIC of Vukosi when she said:

> *Feeding of the ECD is done by Malilangwe Development Trust. Once we get the porridge in the beginning of the year we know we are safe for the whole year. These children bring food from home and these children have two feeding periods. The first feeding time is the porridge, and the second is the food they bring from home. We make sure these children are monitored when they eat, especially with the food from home. There is a danger in cold food….Our children are really healthy, we are about 200-300m from the clinic. The Environmental Health Technician (EHT) regularly visits the school to check for the expiry date of the porridge, its storage and the toilets. She even comes to assess even how the porridge is cooked and how these children eat* **(Vukosi School TIC).**

It was noted that these two districts experience some differences in the issue of primary health checks. All Chiredzi district schools in the study reported to have the Family Aids Caring Trust (FACT) coming to schools on an annual basis to carry out a health assessment programme. They had formal procedures to be followed, with parental/guardian involvement and referrals done. They had written records kept at the school for future reference on the health of the children.

> *FACT is bringing the School's Health Assessment programme. It is usually called SHA. The last time they came on the 24 of March. Just recently, 2014, they assessed pupils from ECD to grade seven. They don't come randomly; the FACT people tell us the date prior to visiting and the date is announced so that when they come even the parents will be aware. When they come to tell us the date, they leave forms that we complete. When they come back they asses and leave the forms with the school head, then the parents/guardians are informed by the school head. Those parents/guardians with referred children would take their children to the clinic for treatment* **(Mande School Deputy Head).**

In contrast, the participants from Mungwezi and Muzorori schools in Zaka district showed that, there was no feeding programme in their schools. They encouraged parents to pack some food for their children when they left for school. These participants showed concern, since most of the children brought no food to school. Parents were poor; they had no extra food to pack for the child, so children spent the whole day without anything to eat. These schools rarely had nurses coming to check the health of the children. They only witnessed nurses coming to their schools during National Immunisation Programmes or outbreaks. This information was given by one of the school TICs who asserted that:

> *We have no nurses coming to school. They only come when there are national immunisation programmes. Like last time they came when there was the outbreak of stomach worms. Till now we don't see nurses here. We do not have a feeding programme here, parents give children food, but most parents do not have extra food to give the children to take to school* **(Mungwezi School TIC).**

Both districts had one thing in common in the health issue, all schools had health teachers. These teachers were trained in basic skills to help children with minor illnesses and injury

cases. These teachers frequently attended training workshops, they were given preventive drugs like the delta prim (malaria preventive tablets) and they were bearers of the basic First Aid Kits. This is what one of the TICs had to say:

> *The nurses rarely come to check the health of these kids. The nurses come here once a term, which is insufficient. They only come when they have the national programme. We have never come across such serious illness or cases of malaria. We have a trained school health teacher who collects basic drugs from the local clinic, like the malaria preventives (the delta prim) and the first aid kit contents* **(Muzorori School TIC).**

The schools felt a bit safe on health matters on account of having the teachers who were trained as health technicians in their schools. The health personnel from clinics in the district were not coming to check the health of the children, however it was noted that they came during national programmes only or disease outbreaks. The situation of health facilities in these schools contradicts the standards found by Rose (2010) in Canada; where health facilities are established at school level even in remote rural areas. The idea of training teachers to be health technicians in school is supported by Rose (2010) who found that Canadian schools fund the training of their health personnel and pay their salaries.

Among these study site schools, there are similarities with South Africa, where nurses from adjacent clinics regularly visit schools to check on the children‟s primary health, nutritional health and attending to children who needed immediate medical attention (Mandela, 2005). The notion of the health teacher is supported by UNESCO (2009) which recommends on weekly health inspections, daily feeding, training of health teachers and every school having a Standard First Aid Box. UNESCO (2009) continues to recommend evidence of monthly visits from the Health Worker for routine immunisation; supplementation and other health services like feeding programmes. All records should be available at the school (UNESCO, 2009). The notion of nutrition and health in ECD schools is accentuated within the findings of numerous research studies which indicate that health and safety in schools need improvement for the benefit of the students and teachers (Deiner, 2010).

5.2.6 Stakeholder involvement

This sub-section is to respond to the „how‟ of the critical question one. Study site schools were getting support for running the ECD programme through stakeholder involvement. What emerged was that parents, communities both local and international donors were interested in taking part in the ECD programme in the remote rural areas of Chiredzi and Zaka districts. The school heads opened their doors to all stakeholders to participate in the programme. For instance, most schools acknowledged feeding programmes being run by donors in their schools; all schools acknowledged receipt of teaching and learning resource kits and in other schools donors built either a classroom or a block of toilets and the outdoor play centre. The following is a comment from one of the participants:

> *First and foremost the donor community has come to our assistance…… We have*
> *Plan International which built the classroom block and toilets for ECD. We have*
> *UNICEF which came to our assistance with lots of teaching and learning materials.*
> *We get our resources mainly from donors like Plan International, UNICEF and*
> *Malilangwe Development Trust* **(Vukosi School Head).**

As it stands, from the data elicited, not all schools benefitted from classroom construction by the donors. One school in the Zaka district (Muzorori-UNICEF) and three schools in the Chiredzi district (Goko, Hlolwa and Vukosi-Plan International) had toilets, classrooms and outdoor play centres built by the donors. UNICEF supplied all schools with teaching and learning materials. They believed „Rome was not built in a day‟. The processes was still on-going, the schools were expecting more donations in the area of, feeding, teaching and learning materials, furniture or constructions of classrooms and toilets. This is what one of the school heads said:

> *Presently Malilangwe Development Trust has promised to build ECD classrooms and*
> *provide furniture* **(Mande School Head).**

These initiatives by donors are just similar to what was done by Middle East and North American Organisations in (2009) in Palestine when the Palestinian government realised it had limited capacity to bring about direct improvement in infrastructural developments in pre-schools. The donor community assisted them by building user-friendly structures for the

ECD children. This is also in line with the Transformational Theory augmented by the Invitational Theory, in that; transformation of schools is a result of the school leaders inviting all stakeholders to participate in the transformation of the schools (Steyn, 2005; Warrilow, 2012). However, this donor participation was contradicted by Shizha and Kariwo (2011) who claim that the government must take the responsibility of ensuring that children and their families get support and protection, since it (government) signed the convention on education for all. This belief by Shizha and Kariwo could have worked if the government of Zimbabwe was financially upright; therefore, instead of waiting for the government, stakeholders need to collaborate and transform their schools.

What emerged was that the parents and the community are contributing to ECD resource supply. Data solicited show that the majority of the contribution to ECD learning came from the local communities and parents. Parents were responding positively to all requests from teachers through the children or during meetings. Parents made efforts in buying their children required items. The participants showed that parents were co-operating and had a passion for making their children‟s life at school safe and exciting. Community members were also volunteering to provide other equipment that were used for learning by the children. One of the deputy heads had this to say:

> *Parents are buying chairs and stationery like crayons, pencils, uniforms, snacks and other things.---- Other elders in the community helped in making drums….Our parents are very co-operative* **(Hlolwa School Deputy Head).**

The school heads showed that they had no problem in getting teaching and learning materials from the parents and the community. Parents were hand making these materials from locally available materials. If children were told to bring finished articles from home, parents responded positively and sent the children with the articles. There was a good rapport between the parents and teachers while parents were being involved in the education of their children. They develop a sense of ownership. Schools revealed that they had a lot of these teaching and learning materials. This is what another deputy head had to say:

Parents also hand made some of the teaching resources. ... We have things like mats, dolls, balls; rattles and other items; they are the parents who provide these. So we have quite a number of these resources for teaching that are even brought in by the community. We have a lot of these teaching and learning materials, the teachers only ask the children to bring these and the parents make them and children bring (**Mande School Deputy Head).**

Stakeholder involvement, as used by the school heads provides an approach to establishing and maintaining child-friendly schools by applying the principles of the Invitational Leadership Theory (Steyn, 2014). This notion of establishing and maintaining child-friendly schools, which all the participants in all the schools felt strongly about, is again substantiated by Haigh (2011) who aptly confesses leadership involvement in raising the needs of the followers and promoting dramatic changes of individuals, groups and organisations through democratic participation of stakeholders.

Parent and community involvement in the study site schools were supported by the Sub-Saharan African communities (Rose, 2010) when traditionally the Sub-Saharan African communities played an integral role in ECD education provision in a variety of ways, in particular by providing assistance and contributions in cash or kind. It is further supported by UNESCO (2010) acknowledging parents contributing through labour and materials to school construction and maintenance. Middle East and North America Organisation (2012) supported the initiative by parents hand making teaching and learning materials. Parents are expected to take part in the education of their children to promote local ownership and to provide and sustain quality child development (Rao & Sun, 2010; ARNEC, 2011; SEAMEO-INNOTECH, 2012). Taking this idea further, Udommana (2012) and MoWCD (2012) acknowledge the responsibility taken by parents in Myanmar, to manually make low cost, appropriate teaching and learning materials for their children using locally available resources that are child friendly.

During the interviews, participants acknowledged the important part played by teachers in resource mobilisation in schools. ECD teachers and the main stream primary school teachers were committing themselves in physically making teaching and learning materials. This was an initiative that teachers in the whole school embarked on in order to make the environment suitable for ECD teaching and learning. The ECD teachers were committed to work extra

time after dismissing the children, to prepare media for the following day"s lessons. In this regard school heads were acknowledging over-commitment by all the teachers within a cohesive working group, to achieve quality implementation of the ECD programme. This is what one of the school heads had to say:

> *Our teachers here helped with the building of the climbers, the water tank at the outdoor play centre. I am happy because they are not the ECD teachers only who get engaged in planning and working for the ECD play centre. In fact, all the ECD teachers are females who cannot do constructions. The main stream male teachers are showing interest in assisting. The ECD teachers always take their time to gather materials from the environment needed for teaching. They also hand make some of the teaching materials as part of preparation for their lessons* **(Muzorori School Head).**

Innovation by teachers is supported by Steyn (2010) and Warrilow (2012) where teachers are developing Organisational Citizenship Behaviours (OCBs) through the leader"s influence, motivation, stimulation and consideration of individual teachers. School heads have opened the opportunities for cohesive team work, co-ordination and good working systems where teachers are not forced to work, but perform their duties (and even extra) autonomously to pursue the collective vision (Steyn, 2010). The TICs in the schools were making great sacrifices in order to make teaching and learning possible in the school. The position of the TICs gave them the obligation to closely supervise the ECD teachers giving them full autonomy to help in resource mobilisation. This emerged from what one of the school heads explained:

> *Our TIC is very supportive. He is working hard to refurbish the outdoor play centre which was destroyed by the termites. Even the teachers are supportive. Just recently another teacher said: 'I am going to photo copy these papers with my money because it is* part of *my work'* **(Mash School Head).**

Sharing of leadership duties and the empowerment of the leadership team is supported by Cranston (2009) positing that the transformational leadership is an essential aspect of empowering the middle management with relevant skills and knowledge (deputy head and the TIC) to take care of other teachers in for instance, leading departmental initiatives,

coaching, monitoring and evaluating their teaching, mobilising resources for improved teaching and learning (Fulton & Britton, 2010). According to the views given by school heads above, remote rural ECD schools under study are responding to resource demand by involving all stakeholders. The school heads had taken initiatives, opened their hands and become invitational for community integration and collaboration to bring resources and ideas in order to get the minimum requirements for ECD teaching and learning. As leaders, these school heads were communicating invitational messages to the parents, community and teachers as a way of showing them that they are welcome to participate in resource mobilisation for ECD (Bhengu & Mkhize, 2013).

In summarising this question, I have to show clearly that responses revealed many similarities among the study site schools. There were also many similarities among the TICs, deputy heads and the school heads. There were some differences in the school level operations like how heads and their SDC contracted with problems, how heads coached the middle management for supervising the teachers and further coaching them. Having presented how the remote rural ECD schools were responding to resource demand, I shift my attention to question two.

5.3 The effectiveness of remote rural ECD schools' responses in addressing ECD teaching and learning

Focusing on question two, I asked my participants: „To what extent do remote rural ECD schools" responses address effective teaching and learning in ECD?" Emerging stories among the participants showed that they understood the essence of the holistic curriculum and the pedagogies which should be used in order for these children to develop physically, emotionally, intellectually, socially and healthily. To answer this critical question, there are two sub-sections under some themes where I explain views from participants on this question. The second sub-section is involved in the strategies used by the school heads to enhance effective teaching and learning in ECD.

5.3.1 Effects of low supply of resources to ECD teaching and learning

Before I devolve in the detail of what emerged from the interviews, I must submit the interests of the pedagogies and curriculum as understood by the participants. This curriculum

refers to the lessons and academic content taught in the ECD programme. This age range of 4-6 year olds have certain knowledge and skills they are expected to learn, which include learning standards and objectives they are expected to meet, like what one of the school heads said:

Children are supposed to be developed socially, morally, mentally, emotionally, physically and healthily **(Vukosi School Head).**

The pedagogies entail the teaching methods, that are framed within the objectives of the ECD programme and the ways in which such objectives are met. This is the core process of practice of teaching that can make the curriculum relevant or not. For instance, the play-way teaching methods are recommended to be better suited to teaching the ECD children than most academic or theoretical approaches. This is what this deputy head explained:

In ECD the learner is the player. In most cases these teaching and learning resources are used by the children. The children manipulate, touch and play as they learn. They need things like plastic and metal cans which they fill with water while learning. They are failing to effectively learn due to resource insufficiency **(Goko School Deputy Head).**

Hence these pedagogies main concern is „how‟ the teaching and learning occur. ECD children are regarded as unique individuals, who must be given that autonomy to construct their own understanding through the teacher‟s guidance. They learn as they play, under the teacher‟s auspices. This is what one of the participants had to say:

These children learn through play, the teacher is only a director who just follows to see if the children are working in these areas. However, due to lack of skills and knowledge in teachers, these children are not given the relevant pedagogies **(Muzorori School Head).**

Their knowledge of curriculum and pedagogies in ECD is supported by Udommana (2012) who claims that provision of quality education is a result of knowledge of teaching and

learning practices by teachers. Similar thoughts are put forth by ARNEC (2011), Alexander (2008), Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013) and MoWCA Bangladesh (2010) describing the ECD curriculum as activity-based, child-centred, age-appropriate, culturally based and flexible to fully develop the child. In substantiating this idea I refer to UNICEF (2009) and Chikutuma and Mawere (2012) highlighting to support play-way methods and art related methods that help the child to develop intellectually, emotionally, socially, healthily, physically and culturally. Although, there are specified delineations, what is to be done in the provision of the relevant curriculum and pedagogies, emerging voices from the participants were talking about failure by schools to provide the holistic curriculum through the use of the play-way methods. Children need to manipulate things in order to learn from these concrete items. This is not possible because there are shortages of classrooms. As a result, the teachers are hard-pressed by this shortfall to occupy the children through teaching in abstract or concept theorisation. This is explicitly acknowledged by one of the school heads who said:

> *In the first place where there is hot seating; (hot seating is whereby children learn under the trees….) it reduces time for teaching. As a result children lose lessons. Sometimes the children do not have enough practice. Teachers end up theorising because of no resources* **(Dambara School Head).**

In this case, many classes were supposed to get a chance of entering the classroom to learn, using the displayed learning materials in the classroom. The teachers were not allowed to take the learning materials outside since these materials were supposed to be used by the class which would be occupying the classroom at each moment. According to them the fact that they had children learning under the tree was not pleasing. Teachers could not display learning areas under the tree. These teachers were not allowed to do team teaching, because children were too many to occupy one classroom. Each class teacher had to squeeze in and teach all the indoor lessons in that short period of time allocated to his/her class. This constrained some teachers to theorise in order to complete the day‴s work. Hence, there were classroom shortages that in turn influenced the type of pedagogies to be adopted by teachers. This issue of resources had bad impact on teachers not sticking to the holistic curriculum and using of relevant pedagogies. This participant had this to say:

> *Teacher-pupil ratios are too high and definitely affect teaching and learning. As   I have already said, one teacher is teaching double the number she is supposed to*

teach for that matter she is not trained to teach. What wonders can we expect from Nazareth? **(Muzorori School Head).**

The participants believed that ineffective teaching and learning was caused by the shortage of classrooms and large class size. This is supported by Pence (2008) positing that good quality ECD education provision has the basis in the infrastructural development of the school. Montie et al. (2006) maintain that if children are over-crowded, there is high risk of disease, infections, and children are prone to greater risk of injury and teachers are obliged to abuse the children due to stress of having many children to teach. Extending this idea of large class size, Kyoung (2012), Smith (2010) and O'Sullivan (2006) acknowledge over-population being related to poor teaching and learning in the schools, since children would be having shortages of learning equipment that is critical in the development of children's basic skills.

The participants said that pupils should have access to play materials during learning periods. They agreed that children should not scramble for materials during learning time. Though it was important for children to have materials for use during learning periods; they had double trouble with many children scrambling for play materials and over-crowding in the classrooms. Participants believed that children's learning was compromised one way or the other. The quality of the teachers was also a determinant factor for using the suitable pedagogies and adhering to the relevant curriculum. The participants were showing concern with the quality of teachers who taught ECD classes, especially para-professionals who were not even trained to teach. They had seconded primary trained teachers who were not trained to teach ECD at all. Most schools had less than half of the ECD teachers who were not trained to teach ECD. They were operating with teachers who were ignorant of what they should teach. These teachers had problems in interpreting the syllabus; the syllabus determines what should be taught and how to teach. This teaching was described as „confusing" to the learners by one of the school head who said*:*

One out of five teachers is trained to teach ECD, so the interpretation of the syllabus is not properly done. Children are taught what they are not supposed to be taught. This teaching is rather confusing to these little children **(Goko School Head).**

The issue of unqualified teachers teaching the ECD children is also lamented by Rao (2010), UNICEF (2012), Chikutuma and Mawere (2012) and UNESCO (2012) claiming that para-professionals are not developed or equipped with appropriate practices of developing the curriculum and pedagogies suitable for the ECD children, they still use didactic and academic rather than the recommended holistic learning through play methods of teaching. Though some of the participants laid blame on these para-professionals and the seconded trained teachers for not teaching the relevant curriculum using suitable pedagogies, some removed the blame from these teachers. These teachers were just blamed for being mandated to take a duty, the seconded trained teachers and the para-professional and even the TICs were not to blame for all the misleading teaching instilled in the ECD children. They were not trained to teach ECD. This was echoed by one of the deputy heads who said:

> *Teachers are not trained to teach ECD so at times we should not blame them for failure to teach effectively. How can we expect the untrained teacher to teach the right thing?* **(Goko School Deputy Head).**

The issue of the teachers not teaching the expected content through the suitable pedagogies was not the solution to the ECD children. Teaching is a professional duty that needs training. There were no ways the para-professionals and the seconded trained teachers could do it without training. The participants echoed much concern on the need to have ECD trained teachers in their schools rather than pointing fingers at innocent individuals who were just hired to help the children. This school head had this to say:

> *We have challenges with qualified specialist teachers who can* help to *develop the children as required* **(Vukosi School Head).**

The idea of how teachers work is determined by their training. This becomes the source of the difference, if the school had no ECD trained teacher, the development of children tells the story. However, generally all the schools had the problem of qualified ECD teachers to teach the children. Most participants agreed that as school administrators, they were not competent to supervise ECD classes. They received no formal training or staff development on professional expectations that are favourable to the ECD children. This point was echoed by one of the school heads saying:

Teachers are failing to perform well because of the school leadership team; we were not trained to supervise ECD. .....The paraprofessionals need our help as supervisors, but we cannot help because we do not have the skills. We need some form of training in order to stand a chance of making teaching effective **(Goko School Head).**

`In summarising this section, I have to state that the comments from participants suggested many commonalities among all the site schools and among the participants. Teaching and learning was not effective in the schools, because of lack of skills and knowledge in both the teachers and the school leadership team, insufficient teaching and learning time due to inadequate classrooms, among other things. This meant to say no justice was served on the curriculum and the pedagogies, due to the low supply of the resources.

5.3.2 Strategies for promoting effective teaching and learning in ECD

Children‟s learning is the primary function of the ECD schools, so promoting of effective teaching in the classroom is one of the most important functions that are critical for the school head, deputy head and the TIC. It is their responsibility as school leadership to provide an appropriate and well-planned programme in the schools for teachers to acquire the required knowledge and skills, in order to effectively teach the children. This brings forth their style of response to resource demand on teachers as resources in the school. While they respond to resource demand they are giving support to enhance effective learning in ECD. In this regard, all the participants in all the case study schools shared similar views in using various strategies to promote effective learning by ECD children.

Though the teaching of ECD was affected by low supply of resources, the participants purported that they held accountability to employing techniques to harness the effects of low supply of resources to teaching and learning by the children. The school heads believed in mentorship. Mentoring programmes were perceived as an effective staff development approach for para-professionals, seconded trained teachers and the leadership team. By establishing the teacher mentoring programmes in their schools, they believed that they gave strong foundation to these novice teachers. They believed that mentoring was a valuable process in perfecting teaching skills for para-professionals. They considered mentoring as a

development-oriented initiative that should see all the school leaders rich in skills and knowledge on ECD. In this case the participants generally accepted that a mentor teacher should lead and advise the para-professionals, seconded teachers and the administration in how to teach and handle ECD.

Typically, the ECD trained teachers were used to mentoring even their supervisors and this was done with trust and respect of hierarchy. Having one qualified ECD teacher was enough for the school leadership team and other ECD untrained teachers in the school to access skills and knowledge to use in the handling of ECD although it was procedural and professional for the junior teacher to listen to the seniors articulating how teaching and learning processes are done. The new broom sweeps clean. They respected the skills and knowledge in the junior teachers and were using them as the ECD resource persons. The leadership team, especially the school heads, swallowed the pride of being the supervisors and learnt from these young teachers. For example, the school head of Mash appointed the junior teacher to be the TIC for the ECD department because of his expertise. He had this to say:

> *The TIC is a degree holder in ECD and he is now studying for a Masters in ECD. He is the TIC in that department because of his expertise. He is the one who supervises the infant department, because he has the right skills* **(Mash School Head).**

Elaborating on the notion of mentoring is Courtney (2008) who points out that mentoring focuses on the backing given to junior teachers by school leaders as well as mentoring by way of promoting professional development among teachers. De Pree (2011) supports the two-way mentoring done by these schools as the best way of exchanging skills and knowledge between the leadership team and the ECD teachers. Consistent with the preceding two-way mentoring system Elmore (2006) posits that there is immense available resource of capacity and knowledge in teachers waiting to be utilised, thus using ECD trained teachers as mentors promotes sharing of wisdom. According to the teacher qualification status in most countries, trained ECD teachers are a scarce resource (Amponsah, 2004) in remote rural schools, so the school head‟s core duty is to create environments at school level in which individual qualified teachers share ideas with colleagues; for instance, the qualified ECD teacher sharing ideas with para-professional teachers at school level (Haigh, 2011).

The notion of mentoring has its origins in the goals of the Invitational Leadership Theory (Purkey & Novak, 2008) which emphasises the improved collaborations among teachers and school heads as a substantial element in school improved staff development. Reimer (2010) asserts that teachers should operate from an environment overwhelmed with trust, respect, optimism, and intentionality that summon every person in the school to experience achievement. Warrilow (2012) expands on the preceding response, as he contends that transformational leaders use individualised consideration to respond to individual needs of their followers by treating each follower as an important participant to the work place.

The participants expressed views that well-planned and administered staff development programmes were the most critical factors in the improvement of teaching skills by the ECD teachers. As leaders, they totally involved themselves in the school based staff development programmes, which were facilitated by the ECD trained teachers. They attended these programmes in order to learn, to give support to the programme and to verify facilitators" commitment. This school head had this to comment:

> *We have a qualified teacher trained to teach ECD, we take advantage of that teacher to help others. My administrative team and I also attend these staff development sessions to learn as well as to support the programme* **(Muzorori School Head).**

Participants were of the opinion that the quality of ECD learning was directly correlated to the effectiveness of teaching and learning in the classroom. Hence, they viewed the aspect of their leadership roles as to provide the necessary programmes at school and even elsewhere to promote teaching skills improvement. Therefore participants from various schools had effectively planned and were delivering staff development programmes at school level. The schools were using the knowledge from the ECD trained teachers to change the teaching of ECD in the school for the better. The most important aspect of these school based staff development programmes was the improvement indicators in the para-professionals. From the responses, most para-professionals were professionally developing as a result of these school based staff development programmes. For example, one of the school heads had this to say:

We are having staff development programmes at school level. We are assuming that our teachers especially the para-professionals could be taught how to interpret the syllabi, how to plan, and how to teach. We are having these staff development sessions at school level using the ECD qualified teacher we have. These school based staff development courses are so effective. These teachers are now able to plan lessons, draw up schemes of work and even teach the play-way method **(Goko School Head).**

Participants believed that the ECD teachers needed to take part in identifying areas for staff development, since they believed that teachers are aware of their weaknesses. They involved para-professionals in the development and implementation of staff development programmes as a way to make it meaningful to them. They felt that their collaboration with the teachers could result in improved ECD teaching and learning.

We hold infant-staff development sessions like demonstration lessons and we discuss thereafter. Usually I involve them in the choice of what to take for staff development. Yes, needs identification can only be effective if we involve the people who should learn. We just assume this can have meaning to them, because they know where they are lacking in their day-to-day work **(Mungwezi School TIC).**

Most of these participants referred to the clinical supervision, which they said was done in-class and were hopeful that they accomplished improvement in the teaching and learning in ECD classes. They described it as one of the staff development procedures in schools. This type of supervision helped them to do the initial planning of the lesson with the teachers through to the conference phase and lastly, planning for the next lesson to be observed. The participants rated this model as very effective, especially for these para-professionals. This is what one TIC had to say:

As an expert in ECD teaching and learning I do clinical supervision to help them improve their teaching. I look at the teacher's strengths, weak areas which need improvement and we give recommendations. We sit down together for planning, working together until we evaluate the lesson **(Mash School TIC).**

One other strategy used by these schools was that of having demonstration lessons and lesson supervisions/observations and records inspections. They believed that these types of supervision had the purposes of influencing the teaching process and promoting pupil learning. For instance, the schools considered demonstration lessons (model lessons) as being effective in helping ECD teachers to effectively teach the children. They presented these lessons in the classroom, with all members present. They demonstrated how to use new teaching materials or implement new methods so that teachers could be able to note exact teaching skills/approaches that could be used by their children. All the study site schools had one or two people from the leadership team who had knowledge in the ECD supervision. They held demonstration lessons facilitated by either the ECD trained teacher or one of the knowledgeable people in the leadership team. This was explained by one TIC when she said:

I go for lesson observations, book inspection and do records inspection. Then as a department we have model lessons. These are demonstration lessons, when we have an expert teaching while others are there. It is done to exhibit good teaching skills. Either or the qualified teachers in the infant department or I do it. I am not really trained for this ECD but I attended training workshops as the TIC **(Mande School TIC).**

Expanding on the notion of collegiality, Pedder and Opfer (2011) provide evidence that the most powerful predictor of effective teaching and learning is the intensity of relationships among the teachers. Membership is a hallmark of Invitational Leadership Theory (Burns, 2010; Haigh, 2011). The essence of support given to the teachers is supported by Maxfield and Flumerfelt (2009) from their research, revealing that if teachers are given the support they need; responsibility avenues are opened for the achievement of organisational goals. Coaching of para-professionals by the TIC and the deputy heads is evident, since they are influencing the ECD teachers by applying clinical supervision which is only possible under a collegial relationship (Pedder & Opfer, 2011).

Some schools in the study site had zero ECD trained teachers. They believed in sourcing knowledge and skills from outside their schools. These teachers were sent for outside workshops. School heads and their SDCs were sponsoring these excursions to the workshops. Consequently, the various participants at most of the sample schools claimed that they were sending their ECD teachers and the TICs for workshops at district and provincial levels. It

was believed among the participants that these workshops were giving the ECD teachers the knowledge and skills they needed to use in their daily work. After attending these workshops, they developed some skills in the process; this was complemented by one of the school heads who said:

> *The infant department (this includes ECD teachers) hold workshops at school level; attend workshops at district level and even at provincial level. The district has organised workshops once a term for ECD teachers facilitated by district ECD trainers. They bring new ideas- just yesterday they brought a new book with a new format on how they should be supervised. So we are happy because they are improving quite well* **(Dambara School Head).**

Zimbabwe BSPZ (2000) and MENARO (2012) support the idea of sending teachers to participate in workshops at cluster/district or provincial levels. Deiner (2010)says that although school heads need the skills to be able to plan, organise and control all resources in the school, teachers‟ professional development is the most critical of these skills and demands and requires the most investment. This is the case because knowledge is contingent to ECD teachers and requires continuous relevant on-job training to remain in touch with up-to-date knowledge in teaching the children (Arthur et al., 2008).

Besides sending the ECD teachers for workshops, some schools were even sending them to visit other schools in the district to learn and emulate. In each district, the ministry established a model ECD school. These model schools were established in town, at government schools that were better resourced. Most of the ECD teachers in the model school were trained, so they had the skills and knowledge required for the running of ECD classes. These schools sent their teachers to observe how they manage their classrooms. This is what this school head said:

> *We sent the teachers to visit other schools to acquire new strategies and these are incorporated by ECD teachers. Recently they were in town touring the district model school and they came back and shared the information. In town ECD is mainly taught by trained teachers. They get up-to-date skills from those teachers from colleges. This*

has some benefits to the teaching and learning since we are experiencing positive changes **(Vukosi School Head).**

Most schools had taken a further step by sending the para-professionals to teachers" training colleges under the UNICEF training programme. UNICEF in connection with the ministry of education, is sponsoring para-professionals for in-service training at the teachers" colleges. In order to avoid interfering with the children"s learning, para-professionals go there during school holidays. According to these schools, UNICEF only caters for the tuition fees, feeding and accommodation expenses for these para-professionals, schools are taking care of the transport costs. This was explained by one school head, who said:

We have started to send our para-professional teachers to Morgenster teachers' college for in-service under the UNICEF programme **(Hlolwa School Head).**

UNICEF (2010) and MENARO (2012) substantiate this view by elaborating that in the mean time when the number of ECD trained teachers is still significant; some organisations are coordinating with the Ministry of Education to develop ECD teachers with occupational standards.

These participants were concerned with the grooming of the ECD children, at this young age, as a way of evaluating the degree to which teaching and learning is effective in their schools. They argued that if ECD children were involved in sporting competitions, confidence was built in them at an early age. They believed that if a child was to experience the excitement of winning and the discontent of losing early in life through competitive sports or academic showcasing, they would be well prepared for the reality of life. They observed their ECD children being motivated by inter-house competition at school level. They observed these children demonstrating a sense of originality and determination to present their poems, plays or memory verses during assemblies. One of the deputy head said:

Rhymes and songs are presented at assemblies even by ECD children to prepare them to speak the second language. We have a time table that shows how and when these children should present at the assembly. This programme is drawn at the beginning of the term, every class is involved even the ECD. ----. When the time comes for them to present they do it with confidence, just like any other child. We also give them merit

awards and points are displayed on the school notice board. These ECD children are affiliated to school competition houses. So when they perform well they are awarded a point but when a group member does something bad, we go remove a point. This is done while every child watches. These children will maintain their houses until they leave the school. It boosts the character and ability to be competitive. They compete and get prizes during sports competitions **(Mande School Deputy Head).**

The schools expressed concern in assessing their schools performance in terms of the ECD classes. They organised sports competitions at cluster level. The teachers were attending sports meetings and workshops where they were taught the requirements for ECD sporting activities. The participants believed that these sports meetings were also helping their teachers to develop coaching skills. They prepared their children and finally went for competitions with other schools. The participants expressed self-assurance by the way their teachers coached the children in order to put their schools on board. They had the belief that sports competitions were helping them to gauge their schools" teaching standards. This school head had this to say:

They held sports meetings at cluster and district level, then they held competitions with other schools. This helps our teachers to update their skills as well as assessing the effectiveness of our teaching **(Vukosi School Head).**

The involvement of ECD children in sports competitions is supported by Haigh (2011) and Smith (2012) who advocate that success for every student is mostly determined by the opportunities they get to participate in school activities. These school activities, among others may vary: academic and sport competitions, assembly presentations, and group guidance presentations. This is further supported by Shaw et al. (2013) encouraging ECD schools to organise arts functions involving local artists and teachers to bring music, art and drama to ECD children and their families through colourful, fun activities.

5.4 Existing resource demand influence on remote rural ECD schools management

For the final critical research question three, it was mainly directed to school administrators, heads and the deputy heads, though it was given to the TICs. The question was more interested in the relationship between resource mobilisation and how the school was being managed. I asked: „How does the existing resource demand influence the remote rural ECD

school management?" The TICs were asked: "In your opinion, how does resource demand influence the way your school is being run?" Therefore, this section is divided into three sub-sections: the first two are focused on data concerning different challenges that were faced by school heads due to resource insufficiency and the last sub-section is focused on mitigation of challenges by school heads in the process of resource mobilisation.

5.4. 1 Remote rural ECD school heads: 'between the devil and the deep blue sea.'

During my interviews, I learnt that remote rural ECD school heads were sitting on a time bomb, because they operated under financial deficits every month and encountered a lot more managerial challenges. The way they articulated their stories was difficult to believe, however, I had to believe them because they used simple explanations to support their experiences. The ECD programme was funded by parents (as presented above) and there was no other source of revenue in the schools. These funds were utilised to pay para-professionals, sponsoring workshops, buying teaching and learning materials and the building of appropriate structures for ECD amongst other needs. Besides financial challenges, these heads had more managerial challenges that were caused by resource mobilisation. One of the school heads had this to say:

> *Resource mobilisation is bringing confusion in the part of the administration. The SDC is not academic, they don't stay here, they go to their homes. In the community they back bite the administration. The problem remains with the school head. The ministry officials, when they come, expect order in all school. How can this be possible without resources? We are lost in the midst of this confusion* (**Mungwezi School Head).**

To fully elaborate the situation in which these school heads were, I must start by presenting the financial crisis, and later managerial challenges.

5.4.2 Insufficient funding in remote rural ECD schools poses a challenge to school management

School leadership and transformation of teaching and learning have the basis in proper support through the provision of required resources; this can only be possible in the

availability of money. Though schools cannot run without a financial backup, funding was not that simple, especially with the peasant farmers. Parents were failing to pay the little amount that was charged per child per term. This state of the play influenced the way these schools were being run. All the participants agreed that running of schools needed sufficient funding. Most of the schools in the sample were operating in deficit. These school heads were in a predicament. They had no choice; it was like they were caught between the devil and the deep blue sea. Actually, „the revenue inlet pipes were thinner than the outlet pipes,‟ as was said by this school head:

> *The inlet pipe for school funds is too small compared to the outlet pipe* **(Mash School Head).**

To make matters worse, the parents were incapacitated to pay the levies due to poverty. Parents only relied on their fields, yet the rains were said to be erratic, they got little from their harvest. They neither afforded to feed their children nor dress them. Paying of school levies was secondary, and in most cases they paid for the primary grades first. This is what one of the school heads had to say:

> *About 10% of the parents can pay levies, of which each child should pay US$20-00 a term. In most cases they pay for the upper grades first and ECD last. Our children are 126 in number but only 10% can pay the levies. It is true we are running a deficit* **(Hlolwa School Head).**

ECD education demand in the remote rural areas was very high. Some of these schools had an enrolment of 159 ECD children. According to the Statutory Instrument (12 of 2005), they were supposed to operate at 1:20 teacher to pupil ratio. Most of the schools had large class sizes of up to 47 children, as a way of fund-saving. This initiative proved unsatisfactory, because the parents were failing to make payments. The school heads played around with figures but they were not able to get out of the dilemma. All the heads agreed that they were in a dilemma, the toughest time that one could get into. It was only that they stopped „fearing the devil because they were holding his hand‟. It was like most of them were in a similar situation, they had bombs in their pockets, but they did not know when it would explode. However, they knew the time would come when the bomb/devil would react. Their situation was described by one of the school heads:

We are running a deficit, like I said, we cannot get out of it because these para-professionals have owed salaries, if we fire them they can sue us (**Mungwezi School Head**).

Instead of hoping to get out of this situation by getting ECD qualified teachers who were employed by the government posted to the school, school heads were sure to be caught. Schools owe para-professionals their allowances. Some schools were verementing but it did not work, still they were running a deficit. When they get the ECD trained teachers they are supposed to fire the para-professionals, with all outstanding amounts settled in full. If they fire the para-professionals without paying their dues, the school heads might get into danger of being sued. They were confused, they were not sure of what to pray for; praying to get ECD trained teachers and get sued or praying to continue with the para-professional and getting drowned deeper in the deficit. This is what one of the school heads had to say:

So yes we are accruing a deficit each month, we are going to be sued like what happened to one of our school heads last term. The head was sued by the para-professional when he discharged her after they got a qualified teacher from the ministry (**Goko School Head**).

Some workers find joy at their work place; however, this was different to the situation faced by the remote rural ECD school heads in the study site schools. Some were developing cardio-vascular diseases because of the schools‟ financial status. Among the other schools, one school was already caught. No one was answerable besides the school head. This appeared to be more of a family affair than the job affair. When the school would be taken to court under any circumstances, the school head would be the first plaintiff with the SDC as witnesses. This school head explained his entanglement thus:

Every morning when I see someone coming this way I think of those people who come for their money or debt collectors…Settling of school debts is affecting the running of this school. The school is being taken to courts. I am in trouble with these debts. Debt collectors are always coming here…. I have sleepless nights and I am developing High Blood Pressure (BP) because of the affairs of this school (**Mash School Head**).

When one is confronted head-on, one has to find a solution. This was not the case with these remote rural ECD school heads. They wanted to get the levies from the parents by sending children home to collect the levies. Due to poverty, few parents responded with payment, but the rest withdrew their children from school. The children stayed at home until later when the schools stopped chasing away the children. For example, one of the school heads said:

Parents have a tendency of sending their children especially when they are busy in the fields but when we make a follow-up for money, they withdraw their children. Yes these children will come later when we have stopped chasing them (**Muzorori School Head).**

Chasing children away from school for levies was not backed by the government policy, so the parents reported the school heads. This did not go well with the school heads, who were victimised because of that. It is the government policy that protects the rights of the children but these facilitated problems for the school heads. This was explained by one of the school heads:

One of our Heads was victimised when he was reported to have chased away the children for not paying levies (**Muzorori School Head).**

Government policy does not allow school heads and the SDCs to chase away children for non-payment of levies. It is believed that children are minors and have no money to pay. The parents were paying for their children, so policy was set to protect the rights of the children. School heads and their SDCs were encouraged to consult parents for payment of levies and not to interfere with the child. However, this policy was seen by school heads in the site school as an inducement to make parents pay. This policy barred them from getting the levies from the parents. One school head lamented:

Government policy on 'no sending away of children for school levies' promotes non-payment of levies by the parents. This is intensifying our problems (**Mash School Head).**

The issue of owing para-professionals allowances was similar to the results from a survey conducted by UNECSO (2012) in African countries depicting that 90% of para-professionals had allowances owing, hurting their morale and causing them to compromise their work and effectively wasting the hard won school resources at the expense of the children (UNICEF, 2010). Further, elaborating on this issue is Mugweni (2011) who explains that research is revealing that parents from the rural communities are economically crippled and are unable to pay allowances of para-professionals.

5.4.3 Managerial challenges faced by remote rural ECD School Heads

In all the schools the participants referred to various challenges experienced by school heads as they tried to manage the ECD programme in the schools. It was not easy to procure resources for the ECD department. Parents were willing but could not provide for their children because of the remote rural contextual problems like poor rainfall, unemployment and poverty. This made it difficult for the school head to secure resources from the parents. This TIC had this to say:

> *Resources are got through thick and thin, the school head does not have peace of mind at all. If we can get more donors to bring in resources, because the parents in this rural set can't wholly provide. Parents are poor and they cannot get money to pay for their children, especially now when the rains are failing to fall* (**Muzorori School TIC).**

Shortages of resources in the school can be evaluated from different perspectives. Teachers are non-administrators who evaluate resource shortage as indicators of poor administration. This facilitated formations of cliques in the school that gave resistance to good school management. School administration felt that the teachers should support the administration during such a situation, however this is opposite. This deputy head had this to say:

> *Once resources are scarce, learning processes are hampered and the running of the school suffers great resistance from teachers. Teachers always plead for resources in the head's office. It is not easy to lead an organisation full of insufficiency. Everything is insufficient, and this can result in administration weakness. Teachers always*

comment negatively as though the administration is not doing well. So this disturbs the administration in their day to day activities **(Vukosi School Deputy Head).**

Based on the above responses by the two participants, school heads were facing a number of challenges. The most notable challenges were funding that was creating inadequacies in learning and teaching materials, over-crowded classes, feeding of the children, sizable furniture, standard toilets and classrooms and equipment and materials for use in the outdoor play centres. This problem had been worsened by constant erratic rainfall in the areas. All this was causing chaos at school as if the leadership was weak. Although these were the challenges that were normally faced by the schools; in this section, the interests of the question revolve around administration issues, like funding and balancing of responsibilities by the school head. Consequently, these were the challenges created by resource demand as speculated at an organisational perspective. The first section deals specifically with funding challenges, the second will be involved with the general challenges as seen by the school heads. The last segment of the section deals with how the school heads mitigate these challenges as their roles in ECD resource mobilisation.

There are challenges that were faced by the remote rural ECD school heads. The whole lot of the school heads" duties were being doubled by this ECD programme including a class to teach. They were complaining about having this ECD work as well as fulfilling all the expectations of the school head. When these ECD duties were added, the ministry did not remove some of the duties to create a balance. For example one school head (expressing what other school heads had told me) said:

We have a lot of challenges as school heads. We require a lot of time since we have other expected loads and teaching classes. We have no adequate time to assist the ECD programme or mobilise resources due to shortage of time. Of course I share my leadership roles but at the end of it all I have to be accountable. It is very dangerous to assume that everything is going on well. The greatest challenge is time and secondly getting the resources. Remember, I am a teaching head; time is always a problem **(Vukosi School Head).**

I want to believe the school heads were allowed to delegate, but to a certain extent. The aforementioned explanation by the Vukosi school head showed that accountability remained with the school head: the head of Mande school expressed the same sentiment.

> *ECD is an additional load to an already loaded job description. It is even worse since ECD comes without any resources attached to it. It is really a struggle. I am tempted to delegate some of the supervisory duties to the deputy and the TIC. I have to maximally use the SDC to mobilise the resources since the ministry officials will not listen to stories when they come for inspection. We are between two Gods, this mammoth task and the ministry, yet they do not give us any resources to run the programme* **(Mande School Head).**

Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013) acknowledge the notion of over-work load by the school heads. Most of them have classes to teach, yet are expected to mobilise for ECD resources (Amponsah, 2004; Chikutuma & Mawere, 2012). This is further supported by Myers (2008) who affirms that school hours are inflexible; teachers are over-worked and under-supported. However, this spirit of lamenting during difficult times is contrary to the Invitational Leadership theory which believes that optimistic leaders should keep hope alive under the philosophy that team members are capable, valuable and responsible even in difficult times; through respect, trust and intentionality amongst them (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; De Pree, 2011; Haigh, 2011).

The participants felt that no matter how hard they tried to work, there were some issues which were compromised, e.g. if the school head could take most of his time attending to the ECD issues, the primary grades would not have enough administrative attention. They needed to supervise those classes. They talked of cost-cutting every programme in the school in order to accommodate the ECD in their day to day programmes. This is what the school head of Goko had to say:

> *This would affect our running of the school; the number of visits that I was supposed to make in the main stream classes is reduced. We are cost-cutting everything to accommodate ECD which came without anything. I think if resource mobilisation was done by the government it was not going to rob us of our time to do our administrative duties. The school head's job description does not include this*

resource mobilisation. We were hired to manage the schools and achieve the organisational goals. School heads are not politicians who should talk a lot to convince people. The ministry was supposed to relieve us a bit so that we concentrate managing schools. Yes it is a noble idea of having ECD being formally run in schools, but whose baby is it? Even if the government gave the mandate to the SDCs the school head is inclusive as an ex-officio member of the SDC. It affects the smooth running of our schools. Our business these days is to run ECD programmes, nothing else **(Goko School Head).**

The school heads were doing more work which was not part of their job description. They were not happy with too much involvement in the community, as professionals they wanted to maintain their dignity and have good relations with the community. They felt that they were becoming very unpopular because of this ECD resource mobilisation; parents were losing trust in them as professionals in the community. The SDC were blamed for their unprofessional conduct in the school affairs, since they complained about the school administration in the community. This was creating confusion about the school heads, which affected the normal running of their schools. For instance, one school head had this to say:

Resource mobilisation is bringing confusion in the part of the administration. The SDC are not academics, they don't stay here, they go to their homes. In the community they back bite the administration. Parents have no trust in the school administration because of what they hear from the SDC. Yes remember the SDC are parents also who should pay for their children. They also suffer the same problem of poverty with their fellow men there, so they want to cause confusion so that they are not troubled with the payment issue. What we agree on as a committee is not what they preach in the community. They want to be good people in front of the parents. The problem remains with the school head. The ministry officials, when they come, expect order in the school. How can this be without resources? We are lost in the midst of this confusion **(Mungwezi School Head).**

The interviews demonstrated that the leadership team was acknowledging the chaos that was caused by this resource insufficiency to the running of the school. They agreed that there was no peace between the school leadership team and staff because of resource shortage. These

school leaders were in double trouble. Ministry officials were expecting peace and tranquillity in schools, but resource shortage brought conflicts among staff members.

> *Lack of resources creates challenges particularly when there is a serious shortage causing of scrambling for resources and conflicts among teachers. Teachers exchange words in the process of vying for these resources* **(Vukosi School Head).**

The prevalent feeling among the TICs was that the teachers were giving strong reasons for blaming the school head. They were accusing them of ignoring the problems concerning ECD matters while attending to the problems from the main stream. The TIC of Mande school had this to say:

> *I think if it was grade seven they should have got this furniture but it is the ECD, they are still sitting on the floor. Take for example; how long have we been with this ECD and they are still sitting on the floor, but all other classes have furniture. Do they mean to say there is no money for buying chairs, even plastic ones? Remember these kids are paying the same amount as the other grades. I think something should be done. ECD is waiting for donors yet other classes are given resources. So the negative attitudes start with the administration* **(Mande School TIC).**

There is an underlying culture that determines success or failure in change programmes; interested stakeholders in changing organisations are critical components that should plan as teams for successful transformation of organisations (Bush, 2009). This is supported by the that change programmes are impossible without connectedness and co-operation among team members (Stillion & Siegel, 2005; Haigh, 2011).

School heads are suffering from „inferiority complex", since they lack craft literacy and competence in the ECD area. They admitted incompetence in supervising ECD teachers because they were neither professionally trained nor staff developed to man the ECD programme. One of the deputy heads had this to say:

> *The worst thing in the education system is to supervise what you do not know. School leadership team needs to be in-serviced. We cannot tell the ECD teachers how to teach. Supervision is all about helping the teacher to teach effectively. We even*

hesitate to give oral comments on what we see happening in the ECD department,
because we know nothing **(Goko School Deputy Head).**

This is supported by Chikutuma and Mapolisa (2013) who cited one of the ECD school heads in Gweru urban district of Zimbabwe saying that they feel incompetent to supervise the ECD programme since they lack the required knowledge in the area. Further supporting this notion Amponsah (2004) and Chikutuma and Mawere (2012) echo the same sentiments saying that the greatest challenge is that education officers are incompetent to develop and implement staff development programmes in ECD from District and Provincial officials in most African countries. The school heads felt betrayed by some teachers, who they feel they were supporting, but the teachers do not co-operate by working hard. Some teachers are taking advantage of the school heads that are unfamiliar with ECD content to play around with the ECD children. They sounded very concerned when complaining of the way these teachers play around with the children. This is what the school head of Goko said:

Teachers are taking advantage of us the school management, since we were not
trained to supervise ECD. They take that advantage and play around with the kids.
Especially the qualified teachers, they know what is really expected of them by the
curriculum and syllabi but they take advantage **(Goko School Head).**

The school heads in the site schools worked in suspicion with their local community, because they broke into the school offices to steal school property like ECD porridge and other valuable materials. They agreed that it was because many people were not working and the area was poverty stricken; hunger was the greatest threat. School heads were complaining about this destructive attitude by the local community. One of the school heads had this to say:

We have various challenges like…. insecurity of these properties during the
school holidays and weekends. The community vandalise our property. They break the
ECD offices searching for the porridge and other things. They steal many things from
the school **(Goko School Head).**

Remote rural schools agreed on the challenge of accommodation in their schools. Most of them were lamenting on the need to prepare for ECD trained teachers" accommodation. They cited accommodation problems as one problem that made them unable to get ECD trained teachers. These teachers refused to be posted to remote rural schools because of the poor standards of accommodation. One of the school heads said:

> *We have a shortage of teachers' accommodation here. Once; a qualified teacher went away due to the shortage of accommodation. We had allocated her a 'box room' and an outside kitchen, but she complained of insecurity. Then she went to the district office to further complain and she was transferred to another school. We were supposed to have two qualified teachers by now. If we had enough accommodation, that would have relieved us from having the untrained (as well as wasting a lot of money) paying many para-professionals* **(Goko School Head).**

The notion of facing challenges in remote rural ECD schools by the school head is focused on by Steyn (2014) who reflects the prime function of an optimistic leader is keeping hope alive. In extending this argument, Stillion and Siegel (2005) posit that an optimistic leader embraces tricky situations as opportunities and regards the impossible as merely difficult. Faced by these challenges that are posed by resource demand, optimistic leaders have the opportunities to prove their effectiveness in transforming the remote rural ECD schools. Stillion and Siegel (2005) argue that these effective leaders embrace challenges, anticipating that after such endurances the end result will be positive (Steyn, 2010).

5.4.5 Mitigating of challenges experienced by the school heads in resource mobilisation

This section is mostly interested in how the school heads responded to the challenges outlined above. It was the school heads" attitude to those challenges and the way they responded to the challenges, which was crucial to resource mobilisation in the remote rural schools. This decided the way in which they responded to resource demand in their schools. It is perfect to say; the central responsibilities of the school head at the school were to manage all the required resources so that school"s educational goals and priorities were achieved. The school head worked with the SDC and the school leadership team to develop the strategic development plan for resource procurement in the school. Therefore, this section presents

what emerged from the participants as the roles of the school heads in securing resources for the ECD classes.

The school heads emphasised the conception that they were the leading professionals in the schools. They broadcasted their accountability in setting the school vision, leadership and motivation of teachers to pursue the vision for the school to meet the aims and targets of the ECD programme. They said that they were mandated to undertaken the development of policies and programmes to ensure that resources were mobilised and used efficiently and effectively for improved teaching and learning in the ECD classes. This was explained by one of the school heads, who said:

> *Through our SDC and community we have a committee for ECD which complement the SDC committee. We established the committee to look into ECD issues. It focuses particularly on ECD matters. The objectives of this committee are to: 1) Mobilise the payment of levies by the parents; 2) Encourage the buying of school uniforms for children and feeding; 3) Improve the provision of user friendly infrastructure; 4) Provide security that is needed to the learner; accompanying the learner to and from. This committee has succeeded in mobilising funds for the purchase of chairs that are child friendly (***Vukosi School Head).***

The use of the SDCs has relevance to Myers (2006) paying attention to the importance of local governance in ECD schools (Statutory Instrument, 87 of 1992). This is supported by Rose (2010) who affirms on Malawi and its school committees. School governing bodies in ECD schools mobilise parents to meet to the needs of the children. Participating school heads were in agreement that they recognised the benefits of having good rapport with the parents and the community. They were acknowledging the progress they made through such involvement. They believed that, whenever they involve the parents and community in good faith, they made positive results. One of the school heads gave her story thus:

> *On meeting the parents we discuss issues concerning the school. We call them to observe what is going on at the school. Usually we call them twice a year. We actually take the parents to see the situation at school. We tour the school with them, the classrooms, furniture, books, play areas, cooking place, the toilets, washing stations and even the water sources. We discuss and come up with solutions. Usually*

when we do that we have positive results, like having parents brings needed resources **(Dambara School Head).**

Heads" perspective on successful teacher-parent partnerships at the school level was supported by the welcoming school climate they established. They described an attitude of mutual respect given to the parents, in sharing issues together as a means to fully involve them in the education of their children. They believed that though most parents were poor, they could do more if the school leadership and SDC informed them what to do. They raised the point of involving the local leaders and the chiefs as part of the community in resource mobilisation. They were empathetic about this idea of involving the chief whom they referred to as the „big man" in the community who could assist only when they were involved. The school heads showed that the survival of their ECD was because they gave the chiefs their due respect. They proclaimed that consultation of the local leaders on school programmes was one of the roles of the school head. This is what one of the school heads had to say:

We have talked to the chief in the area to resettle nearby families to expand the school area to build the outdoor play centre for ECD. Our school has a small area for further constructions. We are happy because the chief responded positively on that. So we are only waiting for these people around the school to resettle then we expand our territory **(Hlolwa School Head).**

Further, the school heads highlighted the importance of consulting the chiefs in the process of resource mobilisation. It was clear from the comments given that the chiefs had powers over their people. Instead of the schools having direct confrontation with the defaulting parents, school heads were using the local leaders to mobilise their people to pay levies or effectively contribute to ECD programme. This is what one of the school heads had to say:

Our traditional leaders like the headman and the chiefs are helping to mobilise for resources from the local communities. People in our community respect the leadership of the headmen, kraal head and the chiefs. They respond well when they are given an order by their leaders, unlike when they are told by the SDC **(Muzorori School Head).**

Consultation of the chiefs over land issue is in line with Makahamadze and Tavuyanago, (2013) and COPAC (2013) acknowledging chiefs as occupying the ancestry leadership positions in their areas and expected to administer justice and democracy in their areas of jurisdiction. Parent and community involvement is supported by Warrilow (2012) and Ngwenya (2010) purporting it as transformational leadership which mobilises others to innovative positions. It is further supported by the socialistic ideology that communities and families should be involved in the education of the nation for a better nation through a strong foundation in ECD (CFSs UNICEF, 2006). Consistent with the aforementioned statements is Greer (2012) emphasising that all stakeholders must be encouraged to take part in the establishment and management of ECD education. This is also supported by the Government of Zimbabwe (2000) and Statutory Instrument (87 of 1992) confirming the decentralisation of power in school governance.

Steyn (2010 & 2014) pronounces that unity of purpose in the organisations is a result of effective leadership qualities as developed by the invitational leader who invites all interested stakeholders to take part in the organisation. Stillion and Siegel (2005) augment this idea by saying that the assurance of the Invitational Leadership Theory is to invite all interested stakeholders to successfully work together for the benefit of the school. The school heads felt that they were responsible for managing and monitoring the implementation of the resource mobilisation process in their schools. They were applying various ways of luring the donor communities into school matters. All the school heads emphasised the importance of consulting the donor community in the ECD matters. Some schools running feeding programmes, have at least one standard classroom, play centres and toilets (though insufficient) but donated by various donors. So they acknowledged their role of liaison between the school and the donor community. Among many heads cited is one below:

> *I managed to build a friendship with the above mentioned donors who provided us with material resources. Presently Malilangwe Development Trust has promised to build ECD classrooms and to provide furniture for ECD* **(Mande School Head).**

The school heads also believed that incorporating teachers help would take their school a mile further. As one of their roles, they all agreed that when teachers were encouraged, they could make the most of the teaching and learning materials for their classes. Although the ECD teachers were directly involved with the ECD children, the whole school including the

TICs inclusive were helping in the process of making learning materials for ECD. One of the school heads had this to say:

> *Our teachers here helped with the building of the climbers, the water tank at the outdoor play centre. I am happy because they are not the ECD teachers only who get engaged in planning and working for the ECD play centre. In fact all the ECD teachers are females who cannot do constructions. The main-stream male teachers are showing interest in assisting* **(Muzorori School Head).**

Similar sentiments were also echoed by the participating TIC of the same school who supported the view that the whole school community was involved in working at the ECD play centres.

> *The terrain of the outdoor play centre was slippery so I came to the school head with the issue. It was not safe for the children to play there. I managed to get assistance to level the play centre. We used the upper classes boys and most of the work was done by the parents* **(Muzorori School TIC).**

The school heads felt that it was their duty to co-ordinate the SDC and provide security to the already accrued resources as well as maintaining an inclusive, safe and stimulating school environment. Their SDC was linking the school with the parents and community to make the school environment conducive to safe and effective teaching and learning. Most school heads cited vast developments as a result of these effective SDCs. The following is an extract from one of the participants:

> *Provide security that is needed to the learner; accompanying the learner to and from. We encourage parents to come to school and collect their children after school, especially those who are near the school. For those who stay far away we keep the children at school till the upper grades are dismissed, they go together. We are also providing security for ECD resources e.g. from vandalism during weekends and holidays. We have a security guard who patrols during the weekends and during school holidays* **(Vukosi School Head).**

According to the participating school heads, setting of the school vision, selling and its achievement were some of their duties as school leadership. The vision of the school as seen by them had to do with the improvement of school resources. Besides the displayed charts with strategic development plans and school visions, school heads articulated ECD development plans already in place for the school. Usually, I interviewed school heads in their administration offices. They had plans for building classrooms and toilets for the ECD children. Some schools had vision 2020, others vision 2015. Below is one selected ECD developmental plan item taken from one of the schools.

> *The school administration and SDC have planned to build a Block for ECD with independent toilets then electrify the block. Those are our hopes. The building of the block is our strategic plan item number 12. Where there is a will, there is a way. It means by 2020 we would have finished building and electrifying the block* **(Dambara School Head).**

The school heads of the visited schools were visionary and were working very hard to transform the learning standards of their ECD children. They believed that donor engagement was effective in bringing resources for the ECD; however, they were cautious that donations were short lived. So they had plans to supplement donor efforts so that when donors ceased their humanitarian assistance, they could continue without any problems. What they actually want was to refrain from relying solely on donor assistance.

> *Our school has a Strategic Development Plan for 2014-2015; 'to make a nutritious garden for the ECD'. This, we think will go a long way in helping us feed our children instead of waiting for the donor to bring food. Humanitarian assistance is an unsustainable means which can cease any time, so we want to reinforce this feeding programme with a long term one to meet the needs of the ECD children. Yes*! We *are planning to have plants like potatoes, sugar beans and soya beans*, *tomatoes, onions, beets, carrots, garlic and an assortment of dark green leafy vegetables* **(Goko School Head).**

This notion of vision is supported by Purkey and Novak (2008) who affirm that Invitational leaders seek to involve workmates in an important vision and explain the intended outcomes which people need to pursue, and the leaders express high hopes about the future with strong

expressive terms of self-assurance and passion. The school heads believed in fund-raising projects as part of the school head‟s responsibility. The idea was of raising funds for needed items in the school were developed from the technical vocational subjects that were recently introduced in the primary school curriculum (Nziramasanga, 1999). The school heads felt that the fund-raising projects could help them give relief to the poor peasant parents as well as train the children in life skills to fight poverty.

> *We have started a poultry project to raise funds to buy ECD requirements. We thought that if we can fund-raise that will help our parents since money to them is a problem* **(Hlolwa School Head).**

The notion of participating in fund-raising projects in schools is supported by Purkey and Novak‟s (2008) framework for establishing positive and successful organisations through the use of useful programmes (Alderman, 2011).

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented data generated through semi-structured interviews and EMIS reviews. Scholars were drawn from chapter two to support or challenge the data. Components of the theories from chapter three were also drawn as a way of juxtaposing the data. The next chapter presents the analysis across the research sites.

CHAPTER SIX

EMERGING PATTERNS IN THE CASE STUDY SITES

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I pay special attention to abstractions from the elicited data, trying to provide explanations as to why remote rural ECD schools respond to resource demand the way they do, considering Sub-Saharan Africa and world over responses as given by literature within the framework of the invitational and transformational theories. The chapter deals with within-case and cross-case (external comparison) analysis. The analysis brings increased generalisations that reassure me that the themes and problems in one school and school leadership are not entirely unique. In this chapter, I demonstrate that cross-case analysis has a catalytic effect on comparison of commonalities and differences in the participants, schools and districts under study. The actual comparing and contrasting processes assist me to extract knowledge from school heads, deputy heads and TICs, in order to produce new knowledge and augment existing knowledge and experiences, and then disseminate this knowledge for broader purposes in the academic community.

At the centre of my arguments are interactions among participants. Cross-case comparisons of school heads‟ leadership styles in better resourced ECD schools and less resourced schools is done. This involves how individual schools are mobilising for resources and why they mobilise the way they do. The chapter focuses on major cross-case references that are believed crucial for the purpose of responding to research questions that guided this study. These questions are answered fully in the following chapter **(Section 7.2 of this thesis)**. The cross-case references discussed below are interrelated and include: The general features of remote rural ECD schools of Chiredzi and Zaka districts; comparing and contrasting resource patterns in Chiredzi ECD schools; comparing and contrasting resource patterns in Zaka ECD schools; embracing partnerships-„similar parents‟ but „different attitudes‟: generic perspectives; varying perceptions on resource mobilisation by heads, deputy heads and TICs and lastly the challenges of additional job package to the already over-subscribed: that is the „teaching heads‟ versus „non-teaching heads‟. Each theme is discussed below:

6.2 General features of remote rural ECD schools in Chiredzi and Zaka districts

Chiredzi and Zaka districts are neighbouring districts that share comparable life-styles. These districts are identified by community cohesion and governance which fall under chiefs. Chiredzi and Zaka fall under Shangaan and Shona chieftainships respectively, both chiefs report to the same provincial local government office in Masvingo. The schools are in similar settlements, the remote rural areas situated in an arid region which belongs to the Zimbabwean agro-ecological region five. The districts are very hot and receive very little and or erratic rainfall; as a result, subsistence farming is not very productive to sustain their lives. Thus, they always suffer from successive droughts and poverty levels are very high. These areas are neglected and people are treated as passive citizens who are voiceless and as a result, are not consulted in the country‟s developmental programmes. The region seems to be a forgotten area in terms of development (both human and infrastructure). The literacy level of these people is very low. Local politicians like the Ward Councillors take advantage of these people‟s desperation, isolation, poverty and low level of education to gain political mileage. These Councillors are part of the SDC (ex-officio members) by virtue of being central government employees **(as explained in Section 2.2.1).** The politicians influence the parents to defy payment of levies in schools, claiming that Zimbabwean primary education is free. Due to the community‟s low level of education, most of the parents default payments at school, as a result, schools in both districts experience the same problem.

They are socially, politically and economically isolated and divorced from active participation and knowledge that is crucial for their life advancement. They suffer multiple deprivations; like having limited access to amenities, for example, good roads, banking facilities, electricity and well equipped clinics. HIV/AIDS is claiming lives due to lack of education and antiretroviral drugs (ARVs). So there are many child-headed families in these districts. Consequently, due to high temperatures, these districts are prone to malaria. Therefore, the ministry of primary and secondary education, together with the ministry of health and child care, facilitated training of teachers in every school as health technicians called „health teachers‟ to monitor minor cases among teachers and children. These „health teachers‟ are updated with the latest health knowledge through constant training and they are given malaria prevention tablets and packed Basic First Aid kits for use in the schools.

There is no government intervention in the areas. Basically, they rely on few NGOs that give humanitarian assistance to schools and families. In 2010, both districts benefitted from the UNICEF"s Education Transition Fund (ETF) programme where all schools in Zimbabwe received ECD learning kits. Schools in these remote rural areas are owned and run by the central government; the Rural District Councils (RDCs). At school level SDCs are mandated to spearhead development, and the funding is totally shouldered by parents. Both districts are conducting ECD classes under trees. There is an outcry by these schools operating without appropriate toilets for ECD children. ECD children use dangerous toilets; the fear is that they may fall into the toilets. The economic background and other variables discussed above in this section make the development of the remote rural ECD schools difficult in these districts.

Although there are similarities between Chiredzi and Zaka districts, a lot of differences were noted. In Chiredzi district, there is Gonarezhou National Park situated in the southern part of the district where many tourists and NGOs activities are commonly witnessed, so the schools have notable advantages because tourists give donations in form of teaching and learning materials (to be discussed in detail in Section 6.8). Church organisations and other organisations contribute to the growth and development of ECD education by providing infrastructural facilities, while donors and other charity organisations provide funds and technical support for the provision of teaching and learning materials and human resource development. Chiredzi district has the Malilangwe Development Trust, a NGO providing services in the Gonarezhou National Park, giving food assistance and furniture to schools. Plan International is an NGO that is providing infrastructural assistance to Chiredzi district, like building standard ECD classrooms, toilets, outdoor play centre equipment and donating teaching and learning materials. Family Aids Caring Trust (FACT) is an organisation that focuses on family health, especially families and children who are infected/affected by HIV/AIDS. FACT pays school levies for a number of OVCs in the district. To sum up, NGOs" interventions in Chiredzi, I must state that all site schools are being fed, and have benefitted from a standard classroom each, a block of toilets and outdoor play centres.

This is different from Zaka district, where there are no NGOs that provides assistance. Dambara school is benefitting from the Reformed Church in South Africa in the form of feeding ECD children. This district has Muzorori school selected by UNICEF which benefitted from a standard classroom and toilets, though the toilets are not suitable for the ECD children. Only one school (Dambara) of the four site schools have a clinic nearby and

nurses frequently come for health assessment at the school, while other schools rely on „health teachers" due to long distances from clinics. Consequently, Zaka remote rural ECD schools are more underprivileged than Chiredzi district remote rural ECD schools. This is because there is less NGO intervention in Zaka than in Chiredzi district.

Chiredzi district is using seconded teachers **(as explained in Section 5.2)** to teach ECD classes. Among the four schools in Chiredzi district, three big (in terms of enrolment) schools (Goko, Hlolwa & Vukosi) have one seconded teacher each for the ECD. This arrangement was made between the school heads and the District Education Officer, to relieve the schools of paying many para-professionals. These seconded teachers are paid by the government, which makes a difference when some schools apparently pay para-professionals using parents" funds. Schools in Chiredzi are better off in terms of furniture for ECD as compared to Zaka district schools. I must specify that the ground is not level for the two districts under study.

6.3 Comparing and contrasting resource patterns in Chiredzi ECD schools

As has been discussed in the above section, Chiredzi district remote rural ECD schools are better resourced than Zaka district schools. However, among the Chiredzi schools, there are pertinent commonalities and differences that are prevalent. The donors are fostering all four schools. Chiredzi Rural District Council (CRDC) is the responsible authority for all the schools. Chiredzi community is made up of the Shangaan ethnic group, which has a low literacy level. The community is living on ethnic authority land under the jurisdiction of chief Tshovani. Physically, these schools are situated in the villages where teachers and villagers share the same water sources (borehole) and vegetable gardens. This sharing of facilities between the schools and the villagers socialise teachers to communal life. Shangaan is used as the mother tongue language, which is used in teaching the infant children (ECD-A to Grade 3) in remote rural primary schools. So, the communities in Chiredzi share similar perceptions and beliefs about the ECD programme.

Feeding is provided to all the schools by Malilangwe Development Trust. Goko, Hlolwa and Vukosi received donations for a standard ECD classroom each and a block of toilets from Plan International. However, the toilets which were donated are not suitable for the ECD children, though they were built for ECD. These three schools have outdoor play centres

constructions, though the structures are insufficient for the children. All schools are visited once a year by the Schools Healthy Assessment (SHA) team under FACT for all primary school children including ECD. As has been discussed earlier, all these schools have „health teachers" with First Aid Kits with malaria preventive tablets (delta prim) inclusive.

Teaching and learning materials are satisfactorily adequate in Chiredzi schools, but they lack space to display the materials since they have inadequate classrooms. All the schools have at least one ECD trained teacher who is taking the role of the mentor in the school. In these schools, TIC posts are held by the infant trained teachers, some of whom are seconded to teach ECD, that is; Goko, Hlolwa and Vukosi. For Mande, the TIC is an infant teacher who does not teach ECD. All schools in Chiredzi district are doing staff development programmes to up-date skills and knowledge in their teachers. They are involving the district ECD trainers to further train their para-professionals. The para-professionals attend school holiday training sessions sponsored by UNICEF at teachers" colleges like Morgenster and Bondolfi. Due to many class units, all the schools have classes under trees and they have insufficient structures in their outdoor play areas. They all suffer the same distress from defaulting parents.

Although there are these commonalities, there are many differences. Some of the schools are better resourced than the others depending on different variables. While other schools still use the SDCs to deal with ECD matters, Vukosi and Goko schools have elected operating ECD development committees. These two schools have visions for their ECD department. While Goko has started pursuing nutrition garden targeted for 2015; Vukosi is building and electrifying a block for ECD consisting of standard classrooms and toilets.

Hlolwa is already running a poultry project which gives them money to run their ECD programme and ECD teachers are running a fund raising project to fundraise for buying ECD stationery. Hlolwa SDC gave these ECD teachers an initial capital of US$50-00; they sell covers, pencils, sweets, snacks, at the school. Hence, this school has no complaints in terms of stationery for ECD.

Vukosi, Goko and Hlolwa have quite a number of chairs, bought by parents, for the children. Mande school has not yet accessed furniture and they do not have a classroom; presently they are using the school library and a kitchen shed as their classrooms. This shed is used as a classroom during good weather while porridge is prepared in an open space, however, when

it is raining porridge is prepared in the kitchen shed then all the children combine in the library. They are waiting for the donor, Malilangwe Development Trust that promised to build ECD classrooms and to supply furniture. Actually, Malilangwe Development Trust always brings tourists to the school, so officially, Mande is adopted as a tourist model school. The school has a genuine partnership with the donor. It is always benefitting from tourists, taking the school to a better position in terms of teaching and learning materials. FACT is also paying school levies for 20 ECD (OVCs and disabled) children at Mande school. While schools have commonalities, each is running unique adventures as they try to mobilise for ECD resources. The following paragraph is mixed with varied explanations on each school.

Chief Tshovani is contributing to the development of ECD schools in Chiredzi remote rural areas. Hlolwa school head has successfully consulted the chief to expand the school area in order to accommodate ECD structures. Goko School (SDC) reported all defaulters to the chief and the parents are paying levies using material resources like animals and grain. Vukosi is enhancing skills and knowledge in the teachers by sending them to tour other schools like the district model school and the neighbouring schools. Mande school is the only one that has an ECD school garden for children to have practical lessons. Although all schools in Chiredzi take ECD children for sporting competitions, Mande school gives chances to ECD children to present poems, plays, recite memory verses and perform drama at assemblies as a way to assess the effectiveness of their teaching skills and helping children realise their capabilities at this tender age.

ECD policy expects all schools to have suitably and adequately accommodated ECD-A and B classes in schools with necessary requirements by 2015. This is just a stone‟s throw away; we are counting down months to the year 2015. Zimbabwe is a signatory to the Dakar Declaration which among other things; commits African countries to achieve Education for all (UNICEF, 2010). Chiredzi District Education Officer is putting pressure on the primary school heads to meet the 2015 deadline for ECD. In spite of Chiredzi district having some NGOs assisting in the ECD programmes, the school heads have a part to play through inviting them to come to the schools. So, school heads are approaching stakeholders like parents, communities, local and international donors to partner with them for the transformation of their schools. Each school head is striving to have the best ECD school. I

want to believe that school heads are forced to work hard in their schools since the district team is always out on supervision.

> *I have to maximally use the SDC to mobilise the resources since the ministry officials will not listen to stories when they come for inspection* **(Mande School Head).**

6.4 Comparing and contrasting resource patterns in Zaka ECD schools

As has been discussed above, Zaka district remote rural ECD schools are more poorly resourced than Chiredzi district schools. However, among the Zaka schools, there are major similarities and differences noticed. The schools are fathered by one responsible authority, the Rural District Council (RDC) which is Zaka Rural District Council (ZRDC). Zaka community is made up of the Shona ethnic group, where education and literacy level is very low. The community is living on traditional authority land under Chief Bota. Just similar to Chiredzi rural settlements, teachers and villagers share the same water sources (boreholes), the vegetable gardens, church denomination and political gatherings. The life of teachers is not isolated; in fact most of these teachers are locals. Shona is used as the mother language, which is used in teaching the infant children (ECD-A to Grade 3) in remote rural primary schools. So the communities in Zaka share similar perceptions and beliefs about the ECD programme.

As has been explained above, Zaka district schools are poorly resourced. There are few donor activities in Zaka district. All the schools benefitted from the UNICEF"s Education Transition Fund (ETF) programme getting teaching and learning materials for the ECD classes. All the school heads are non-teaching. As a matter of fact, each school has a minimum of four ECD classes, so they habituate some classes under trees. These schools have no suitable toilets for ECD children. Parents and teachers make teaching and learning materials for ECD classes. Therefore, teaching and learning materials are plenty in these site schools. They do not have space to display the teaching and learning materials due to inadequacy of classrooms. Zaka ECD schools do not have furniture for the children; they sit on the floors and on the ground when under trees. Infant trained teachers; the TICs monitor the infant department as well as the ECD classes. There are „health teachers" who take care of health related issues in the schools. With such commonalities, the schools have several differences among them, so I have to analyse each, one at a time.

Dambara Primary School has a feeding scheme for the ECD children. It is run by the Reformed Church in South Africa. This school has a lot of teaching and learning materials from this organisation and their partnership is on-going. The school is also in partnership with the „old boys association", which is made up of working people who did their primary education at the school. This school allocated one classroom to the five ECD classes and in bad weather they use the Reformed Church building in the school premises. However, they have a „vision" for the year 2020, which is being pursued by parents, „old boys association" and the community. They want to build standard classrooms and user-friendly toilets for the ECD. The classrooms are going to be furnished by the Reformed Church in South Africa whom they have partnered with. This school head is one among others who work well with the parents. It is the only school among the Zaka schools that has a school head that is knowledgeable in ECD education and supervises the ECD classes. The deputy head and the TIC are not trained to supervise ECD classes. The school has a clinic closer to the school, so they have regular health check-ups for the children. Environmental Health Technicians (EHTs) from the clinic always come to monitor toilets and children are fed at the school. The description of Muzorori primary school follows in the next paragraph.

This section provides a description of Muzorori primary school. Muzorori Primary School has a classroom block and toilets that were donated by UNICEF. The classroom is standard; however, the toilets are not suitable for ECD children. It is the only school among all the eight schools that runs a toddler class, the 0-3 year olds. This school has no partnership with any organisation with the exception of the parents. The school has no feeding programme; children bring food from home. The school is situated far away from the clinic, so there are no nurses coming for health check-ups. They only rely on the school „health teacher" for minor health problems. They have a well-constructed outdoor play centre with recommended structures and space for the ECD children (Arthur, et al., 2008). This school suffers erratic levy payment which is giving them problems in paying paraprofessionals their allowances. The school head has consulted the chief about defaulting parents, since they are afraid to chase the children from school. The school head and the TIC are not trained to supervise ECD classes; the deputy head (who is doing his Masters" degree in Curriculum Studies) supervises the ECD classes. Following is the description of Mash school.

Following is the description of Mash school. Mash school has allocated its four ECD classes to a classroom which is sub-standard for the children. The school has no outdoor play centre (which was destroyed by termites) and children have no access to outdoor play activities. At this school, teachers donate food for the ECD children, so they have a feeding scheme. The school does not have any partnership with local or international organisations. The school was summoned because of debts. Levy paid by parents for ECD children is insufficient to pay para-professionals allowances. Para-professionals allowances are in arrears. Due to this problem, the school head consulted the chief and the parents are paying instalments since some parents owe the school levies for two years back. There is no money left for any development or buying small stationery for ECD after paying para-professionals allowances.

The school head is not trained to supervise ECD classes. The school takes advantage of the TIC who is a degree holder in ECD and another ECD trained teacher to supervise and mentor the para-professionals. The deputy head has knowledge in ECD education and she helps the TIC in supervising the classes.

Lastly, I have to give the description of Mungwezi school. Mungwezi school is the most disadvantaged school among all schools in the study in terms of classrooms; they have no classroom for ECD. They use the church building with no furniture for these children. Church elders do not allow teaching and learning materials to be displayed in the church building. It is used in bad weather days only; on good weather days, they teach under trees. However, this school has the most appropriately constructed (Arthur et al., 2008) outdoor play centre and the ECD toilets are sited near the play area. There is no ECD trained teacher; the school has a female para-professional who has two subjects at „O‟ level. The other female „helper‟ has no academic qualifications. The school head has no knowledge in ECD, so the deputy head and the TIC are mandated with supervisory duties. This school has no feeding programme and no nurses visit the school because of the distance from the clinic. They depend on the „health teacher‟ for minor health problems. The school has no partnership with any organisation, and they have no hope of having any future plan (vision) for the ECD classes. The parents have a negative attitude to ECD education, they complain about their children spending the whole day under the trees. Hence, payment of levies is problematic in the school.

With such differences, let me cross-case analyse the situation in Zaka schools. Most of the school heads have not yet opened their doors for the outside school community to come into these schools and render assistance. Mostly the schools involve parents, and parents are overburdened since they are stricken by poverty. The school heads have not yet extended their horizon for resource mobilisation, to approach the business and donor communities, government ministries and charity organisations. Defaulting by parents is not severe in all these schools; some of the schools are getting better responses from the parents. Although the parents are poor, the outcry by school heads on non-payment of levies by parents is an indication that parents disapprove of the quality of education that is provided to their children. Most of the middle management team (Deputy Heads and TICs) have the knowledge in ECD, and ECD teachers are relaxing, compromising the quality of learning by the children.

6.5 Embracing partnerships-'similar parents' but 'different attitudes': generic perspectives

Though we have the Shangaan and Shona ethnic groups in Chiredzi and Zaka districts respectively, there is not much difference pertaining to parents of the ECD children. The communities have the same characteristics as already discussed in Section 6.2 above. Parents play their part by sending children to school, making teaching and learning materials, paying levies, coming to construct outdoor play areas and making other sacrifices. They are concerned with the education of their children; parents expect education to meet the anticipated private and societal benefits or returns. The quality of ECD education is failing to convince the parents of the importance of sending their children to school. In some schools as described above, children play under trees the whole day, at the end of the day, children go home very dirty. This does not give a good impression to the parents; they just think ECD is for playing and wasting resources. Parents regard school heads as fleecing their money to pay teachers who make their children dirty. It is noted with regret that parents who doubt the ECD education quality, default paying the levies or contributing to the programme.

Hence the way in which each school regards ECD education can change the parent either to appreciate or shun ECD education. School heads that are seriously supporting ECD education have changed the community"s attitudes towards it. The role of the school head is making ECD events meaningful to teachers and the community. Positive attitudes by school heads are

contagious in influencing teachers and the community to dedicate themselves to difficult objectives, and achieve much more than was initially expected for the betterment of the ECD programme. Some of the school heads neglect (6.4 above by TIC of Mash School) ECD classes, looking down upon the ECD teachers, and take passive position in ECD interventions. This negative attitude is emulated and disseminated by the SDC to parents. Parents in the communities deliberately visit the school for one reason or the other; they see their children scattered under trees while teachers are chatting. Development of a positive attitude among school heads towards addressing ECD education has an impact as it is sensitive to the teacher. This is the school head"s way of influencing the teachers to do the same to the children. The duty of the school head is to see to it that those ECD children are not vulnerable to deprivation of appropriate experiences by running around to fully equip the ECD department with resources. Failure by school heads to satisfactorily play their part pushes parents to develop negative attitudes. I stand my ground as a researcher to urge school heads to stand firm and convince the parents through more commitment, educating them as to why the children are learning under the trees. It is not the school head"s choice to make children learn under the trees. Parents need thorough explanations from school heads, since the politicians are discouraging parents from contributing to the education of their children and considering the parents" low education levels.

However, parental involvement is found to be minimal in a few schools. This situation therefore is hindering execution of ECD programme; as lack of full involvement of parents is inhibiting development of ECD schools. It is proved in this study that parents and the community in general need to be given their due respect and trust. School heads who consult parents during meetings get positive responses from them; however, most of the schools that get resistance from the parents fail to consult them respectfully. Though the education level of the parents is very low, culturally, they know that they are denied of their respect (Ngwenya, 2010). School heads, who consult parents for teaching and learning materials, get a lot of these materials. Parents make drums, mats, toys and the like bringing them to school. Transformation of schools has proved to be easy only when trust and respect prevails between the school community and the parents. School heads that respect, trust and involve parents in earnest, have no problems in terms of negative attitudes.

Research indicates that school heads that are not optimistic focus on the problems posed by the inclusion of ECD in the main primary schools, instead of finding a way forward. They do

not bring hope to their schools; as a result, teachers feel depressed and become incompetent. It is clearly spelt out in this research that the school heads‟ negative attitude is very infectious to the extent of disinviting teachers and parents into taking active participation in the school. They take ECD for „child-care‟ and so they refrain from contributing to the ECD programme. I am convinced that low parental involvement is attributed to teachers‟ poor relations with the outside school community. The parents who are intentionally disinvited feel unwanted and prefer to avoid any connection with teachers. Parents avoid attending teacher-parent meetings, as a way of speaking their minds.

6.6 Varying perceptions on resource mobilisation by school heads, deputy heads and TICs

The School Heads, Deputy Heads and the TICs in this study form a homogeneous sample where all these schools were chosen because they were known to be highly functional schools, and work hard on ECD programme responding well to the ministry policy on ECD. There is prevailing respect, trust, optimism and intentionality among these administrative teams. The School Heads share responsibilities among staff members where the deputy heads and the TICs undertake leadership roles in the school; however this is possible in schools when collegiality prevails. This study shows that even the school heads engage with other activities in other school departments, the ECD teachers and the TIC will continue the effort to achieve planned school goals. The TIC as the low-level team leader coaches other teachers through lesson observation, model lessons, resource making just to mention a few. This contribution by the middle management is making a big contribution to ECD resource mobilisation in these schools. Team work massively prevails in these schools. Competition among cluster schools is taken as a measure to assess school effectiveness, for instance, sports competitions. All these schools attend and the administration and the SDC support these competitions. Respect of hierarchy prevails in all the schools, however, there are a few varying perceptions that emerged among the school heads, deputy heads and the TICs that need to be theorised in this section.

Although oneness is vital in school organisations, the school heads seem to wear different lenses from those worn by the deputy heads and the TICs. ECD is a new phenomenon, no one claims to be perfect; school heads give full autonomy to the deputy heads and TICs to try new and innovative ways of doing things. Deputy Heads and TICs work with teachers; para-

professionals and the seconded teachers, discovering best skills to teach the children. They are liable to help them teach skilfully, hence they understand that these teachers, like any other teacher, need to be groomed. There is a misconception on the part of some school heads who expect to see seconded and para-professionals teach ECD as if they are trained, using the correct pedagogies and relevant curriculum. These teachers are not trained, they are just appointed to teach, and they are undergoing a learning process through those staff development programmes. They need to be given an allowance for making mistakes; some school heads do not tolerate poor teaching by these untrained teachers. One of the deputy heads corrected this misconception saying:

How can we expect untrained teachers to teach the right thing? **(Goko School Deputy Head).**

Some school heads claim to supervise the ECD classes, yet they have no training on how to conduct the supervision. Others delegate supervisory duties to the deputy or TICs who have no knowledge in ECD. These deputy heads and TICs who are not knowledgeable in ECD feel inferior to perform this duty. They are not comfortable to supervise ECD classes, since they are aware of their incompetence.

The worst thing in the education system is to supervise what you do not know. School management team needs to be in-serviced **(Goko School Deputy Head).**

There are different perceptions on resource allocation among all primary school grades. TICs feel that ECD classes are side-lined at the same time deprived of their rights to resource allocation in the school. ECD classes experience unfair resource apportionment by some school heads. ECD children do not have enough and/or no furniture but school heads buy furniture for other grades. ECD to Grade Seven in the primary sector pay the same amount of levies per term. School heads are blamed of referring to NGOs whenever faced by a resource request by ECD teachers. When assisting organisations come to schools, usually they target the most vulnerable groups of children, like the ECD classes, those with learning impairments and obviously the OVCs (UNICEF, 2010). So school heads try to look into areas that are not catered for by assisting organisations. I want to believe however that school heads need to communicate this knowledge to teachers so that they understand why ECD is not considered for resource allocation. Division is threatening most of the school leadership

teams, since the deputy heads and TICs do not understand why school heads reserve ECD demands for the promising donors.

> *ECD has US$1000-00 sleeping in the account, the money is always diverted to other uses if the teachers don't request. We have to accept that as administration we are doing a 'dis-service' to the ECD children. This administration is not promoting the ECD department, if we wanted to buy furniture we could have done so, long ago* **(Dambara Deputy School Head).**

As discussed earlier in this chapter, sentiments from the leadership team can influence the teachers for better or worse. In some schools teachers sabotage their school leadership team in protest for what they call „unfair" resource allocation. Since all staff members are involved in resource mobilisation, school heads have to be transparent, communicating to teachers decisions they make as to how they distribute the resources. This study shows that school heads, who do not exercise transparency and integrity in resource management, face resistance from the middle management team and the teachers. Deputy heads and TICs propose a needs-based resource allocation, since ECD children are suffering severe deprivations in the name of the promising donors.

6.7 Challenges of additional job package to the already over-subscribed: 'teaching heads' versus 'non-teaching heads'

The challenges identified in this study are associated with such challenges on which school heads have little choice or influence. They highlight the continuing tension between their core individual values, administrative duties and leadership demands. School heads are struggling to cope with ever competing responsibilities upon their time, strength and resources. While they focus upon their responsibilities in roles in sustaining and amalgamating what they have already attained in their ECD schools, they also have to manage the challenges associated with mobilising more resources. Nevertheless, primarily they are concerned with success that teachers and children should achieve in their ECD schools, for which resource procurement is the most crucial role in their professional endeavour. However, challenges revolve around important issues of leadership, individual time and professional responsibilities, taking into consideration that most of these school heads have classes to teach.

While heads in small primary schools like Mande and Goko (in Chiredzi district) are disadvantaged on two main counts, they have teaching responsibilities and they are unable to achieve their strategic leadership roles in ECD resource mobilisation satisfactorily. They have classes to teach besides their administrative, management and supervisory duties. They have the stress of planning, preparing and co-ordinating as a class teachers and leading the school. Teaching classes as part of their duties do not exempt them from making sure that all other duties are performed. All other big schools face more challenges pertaining to the number of teachers/classes under their leadership. The challenge rests on the number of teachers each head supervises both primary and ECD, resource mobilisation for ECD and the entire administrative duties. School heads are hard-pressed by the amount of time and energy they devote to ECD school development and maintenance, ensuring that teachers are developed to have up-to-date knowledge and skills and actively supported in terms of teaching and learning resources. Increased workloads that were not part of their original responsibilities, like resource mobilisation for ECD, has compelled these school heads to devote more of their personal time to school-related business. They are the first to come to school and they are the last to leave, taking some of the work to do over-night at home.

Decentralisation of school governance in relation to the ECD programme is an additional work-load for the primary school heads, since the school heads are the „chief advisors" to the SDC. The SDCs are non-professionals who cannot mobilise resources without the school head, so each time meetings are held and decisions are made, the school head is sitting in the steering chair. They felt that the ministry could have revised the primary school head"s job description since the original job-description was loaded with enough duties. When the ECD duty package was added, the ministry did not make any manoeuvres to create a balance. Most of the current researches are revealing that work over-load is the major stress factor and it is also confirmed in the findings of this study for both teaching and non-teaching school heads. It appears that the school heads" workloads were increased by the ECD classes. For them, this is not easy since the supervision team from the ministry will not leave any stone unturned when they come for school inspection. The supervision team is said to have no lenience to school heads that are found wanting during inspection. They expect order in the school, every duty timeously completed, at the same time they are not empathetic about this work overload.

Remote rural ECD school heads are stressed and burnt-out; this is because of the economic hardships faced by the remote rural peasant parents in raising funds to pay for their children"s

levies. Had it not been for poor peasant parents in remote rural ECD schools who fail to provide for their children‟s education; school heads would not be stressed by resource mobilisation. According to them, this type of resource mobilisation is „unusual, confusing and de-humanising‟ especially under the initiation of such professional leaders. It is like the school head is a politician, begging parents and stakeholders to take part in the ECD programme. School heads are not happy with so much involvement in the community, „like politicians‟ they echo. Most of their working hours are spent on campaigning for ECD resources. Relations with the community are being strained since the parents cannot afford the pressure from the school for resource provision. School heads are confused, frustrated and feel very unpopular because of this ECD resource mobilisation.

No matter how hard they might work, some school programmes suffer. When school heads give more time to correspondence with the community, parents, the SDC, chiefs dealing with ECD resource mobilisation and in the process neglecting their primary duty of overseeing instruction in the schools, one cannot expect quality education provision. Quality of education in primary schools in general and ECD in particular is being compromised due to lack of supervision, for instance, inspecting portfolios, lesson observations, records inspection by school heads, as a result of the resource mobilisation process which take much of their time. School heads are so weighed down by routine administrative burden that they hardly find time to visit the ECD classrooms and observe how the teachers are teaching; hence they tend to delegate supervision of ECD to the deputy heads and TICs. It is impossible to give equal attention to all duties, even if they delegate, this is possible to a certain extent since accountability remains with the school head. There was talk of „cost-cutting‟ every administrative duty in the school in order to accommodate the ECD programme in their day-to-day programmes. This creates chaos between the school heads and the teachers, some teachers can only work effectively under maximum supervision. Though these school heads under study proved to have adopted highly creative approaches to tackling challenges posed by resource demand in their schools, some dishonest teachers easily exploit the school head‟s neglect of supervision to continue their self-centred ambitions playing around with the children.

6.8 Conclusion

The multi-site study as a qualitative research approach of this research helped me in this chapter to gain an in-depth knowledge of an organisational phenomenon that had barely been researched. The chapter was concerned with analysis of several sites using cross-case comparisons and explanation building strategies to analyse data. General features were compared between the districts under study. A comparison was given among schools in Chiredzi and those in Zaka districts. An analysis was done to show how parents" attitudes are influenced for better or worse, by the way ECD education is managed in the schools. Discussed were the varying perceptions on resource mobilisation by the three groups of participants; heads, deputy heads and TICs. Comparison was given on school heads" job-package between teaching and non-teaching heads in the study. Thus, having given the summary of this chapter I will now pay attention to the final chapter of my thesis, in which I am going to synthesise the findings, illustrate proposed models for child-friendly schools and teacher effectiveness, tabulate recommendations, highlight issues for further research and finally conclude the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SYNTHESIS, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I presented a cross-site analysis. This chapter presents the synthesis of the findings and relating them to the research questions drawn from the data that is presented in Chapter Five as well as the across site analysis that is presented in Chapter Six. As part of the recommendations, two models are proposed for effective ECD transformation in remote rural schools. Number one model illustrates leadership philosophies that are proposed by the study for effective school transformation. Number two model presents strategies that can be employed in schools to empower teachers as well as developing them professionally. The chapter concludes by outlining recommendations that were derived from the findings, including recommendations to the ministry; school heads and those regarding issues for further research. Lastly, I conclude the chapter.

7.2. Research questions restated

Now that I have cross-case analysis presented in Chapter Six, let me proceed to answer the three critical research questions. Below are the generated answers for the study questions.

7.2.1 How do remote rural ECD schools respond to resource demand in Zimbabwe?

The discussions below detail the findings of the responses that were given by eight selected remote rural ECD schools from the two districts, Chiredzi and Zaka of Masvingo province in Zimbabwe. As a way of answering this question, the findings expose the strategies used by school heads to mobilise the following resources needed by the ECD children: (a) infrastructural resources, (b) teaching and learning materials, (c) human resources, (d) financial/funding resources and (e) nutrition, health and safety resources. Each of these findings is summarised in the section below.

7.2.1.1 Infrastructural resources

The study revealed that five schools have donations from UNICEF and Plan International in terms of classrooms; however they have only one classroom with several ECD classes. Only two schools have toilet blocks from the same donations, however the toilets are not age appropriate since the constructors had no knowledge of the dimensions. It was noted that parents supported these projects by constructing the outdoor play areas and buying chairs for their children. Teachers also supported by the construction of structures in the outdoor play areas.

The study brings to the awareness of my readers that no single school was found to have developed adequate and standard infrastructure needed for the ECD children. All that they had were inadequacies in terms of infrastructure; classrooms, toilets, outdoor play facilities and furniture. This created pressure on school heads resulting in habituating ECD children under the trees, in church buildings, school „kitchens‟, libraries and sub-standard classrooms which were no longer used by mainstream primary classes. Children shared toilets with the main primary children which were not age appropriate. Outdoor play areas had insufficient structures to accommodate the children. Children had nothing like enough furniture; schools with more than 100 ECD children had less than 30 chairs. Hence it is established that infrastructure-children ratio is very high and that children were scrambling for these resources.

7.2.1.2 Teaching and learning materials

The study found out that school heads are mobilising teaching and learning resources from the parents. Parents and communities were bringing in resources to school. They volunteered to hand make low cost, appropriate teaching and learning materials for their children using locally available resources that were child-friendly. Some of the materials were donated by NGOs and other charity organisations like; Plan International, Malilangwe Development Trust, UNICEF, FACT and Churches. The study established that these teaching and learning materials were adequate and suitable for the learners.

7.2.1.3 Human resources

The SDCs employed para-professionals to complement the efforts of a few ECD trained teachers in the schools. All the schools had at least one ECD trained teacher, and they relied more on para-professionals. The study reveals that para-professionals were not skilled to teach these children, however school heads were running staff-development programmes set for these para-professionals at school level, district level (facilitated by the district ECD trainers) and during school holidays they went to teachers" colleges for in-service training which was sponsored by UNICEF. The study has established that school heads, deputy heads and TICs needed capacitation in the form of knowledge and skills on how to supervise the ECD classes. Such capacitation was not readily present and abundant among the schools leadership teams and was a discrepancy with one of the quality assurance recommendations that calls for regular in-service training for practicing school heads (BSPZ, 2000).

7.2.1.4 Financial/funding resources

The study established that ECD education was funded by the parents through payment of levies for their children. There was no other revenue source, since these children were not recognised for grants by the government, however this was contradictory to the stipulation of the Statutory Instrument 14 of 2007. It was noted that funds collected from levies were used to pay the para-professionals and no extra funds were left for buying needed stationery or developing ECD infrastructure. The study found that without enough funding remote rural communities will take many years to establish child-friendly ECD schools.

7.2.1.5 Nutrition, health and safety resources

The study found that five schools out of eight were feeding their ECD children from food donated by NGOs and a church organisation. Four schools out of eight were visited once a year by a health organisation (FACT) for children"s health assessment. However, all schools were relying on „health teachers" who were trained by the Ministry of Health and Child Care to take care of minor health cases in schools. The study reveals that there was no safety since children congested for everything. For example, as discussed in **(Section 6.8.1.2)** ECD children sharing toilets with the mainstream primary grades and these toilets were not age appropriate and they sat on the floor during cold weather days. Most importantly, some schools were not feeding the children, whilst most parents could not have extra food to pack

for their children to take to school. This study established that nutritional health and safety aspects in these schools were sub-standard.

7.2.2 To what extent are remote rural ECD schools' responses effective in addressing ECD teaching and learning?

The aforementioned responses to resource demand in the section above are meant to make teaching and learning effective for ECD classes. Therefore, this section is devoted to elaborate on the extent to which these procured resources were effective in addressing teaching and learning for ECD classes. Data shows that teaching of ECD classes was dominated by para-professionals who had little knowledge on how to do their work. School heads were operating professional learning communities within their school systems to equip para-professionals with relevant skills and knowledge for teaching the learners. More details about these issues can be found in **(Section 7.3.3 of this thesis)**. This study establishes that teachers" qualification status plays a pivotal role in the quality ECD education provision in schools.

The study establishes that teaching in remote rural ECD schools was not effective as expected. Although the study had revealed ample evidence for equipping the teachers with necessary skills and knowledge, teaching and learning was not as effective as expected. Over-crowding of children was negatively affecting teaching and learning, reducing teacher effectiveness as one teacher attends to far too many children. Lack of adequate infrastructure, health and nutritional resources and trained personnel were detrimental to teaching and learning processes. Mostly these resources had tremendous impact on the comfort, safety, protection, development and motivation of learners. The best could not be expected from children who learn under such conditions.

To conclude this section, it is asserted that supporting inputs are critical determinants in the process of teaching and learning and arguably quality work is a result of the system that produces it. Ensuring prevalence of these inputs increases the prospects of quality education provision. Therefore the study asserts that quality outcomes cannot be reaped from inadequate and unsuitable inputs; neither a good process can be made out of compromised quality inputs.

7.2.3 How does the existing resource demand influence the remote rural ECD schools management?

The discussion below details the findings regarding the school heads‟ experiences in trying to harmonise high resource demand and low supply of resources. The data shows that school heads were faced with a number of challenges in trying to manage the schools in the usual manner. School heads were work over-loaded and stressed, they could not balance time among many responsibilities put on their plates. Most of their working hours were spent on campaigning for ECD resources but they were also expected to teach as part of their duties. This proved to be difficult/challenging since the quality of education in primary schools was compromised because of non-supervision of teaching and learning by school heads.

7.3 Proposed models for ECD

The development of Zimbabwe‟s ECD schools transformation is basically influenced by the current situation in the schools. Transformation of ECD life should be promoted and nurtured to meet international standards. Therefore, in the light of the conclusions from the life experiences in schools as given by the participants, I propose inclusive and coherent models on how school heads can create ECD child-friendly schools as well as professional learning communities for teachers‟ professional development and empowerment in schools. The models are presented below.

7.3.1 Theoretical influence on school-stakeholder partnerships, a cost-sharing strategy for resource mobilisation

ECD schools should have collaborative relationships with key stakeholders focused on agreed outcomes, for instance; infrastructural development, nutritional health, sanitary development to mention a few. Partnerships become so effective when trust and respect prevail between the school and all stakeholders. School leaders should establish and maintain a healthy and welcoming school environment where church organisations, NGOs, parents and charity organisations feel invited, worthy, valuable, and appreciated to work in cohesive teams in the development of the ECD schools. Schools that are partnered with various stakeholders realise outcomes that are extending beyond what schools could achieve in isolation. In this context, it is evident enough that school-stakeholder partnerships bring opportunities for school transformation to remote rural ECD schools. Therefore, in the light of this background what emerged from the study (literature and theory) calls for school heads

to acquire this knowledge on how leadership theories successfully influence school leadership to utilise stakeholder partnerships for school transformation.

Below is a model (Figure 7.1) showing how school leaders can transform ECD schools to child-friendly schools.
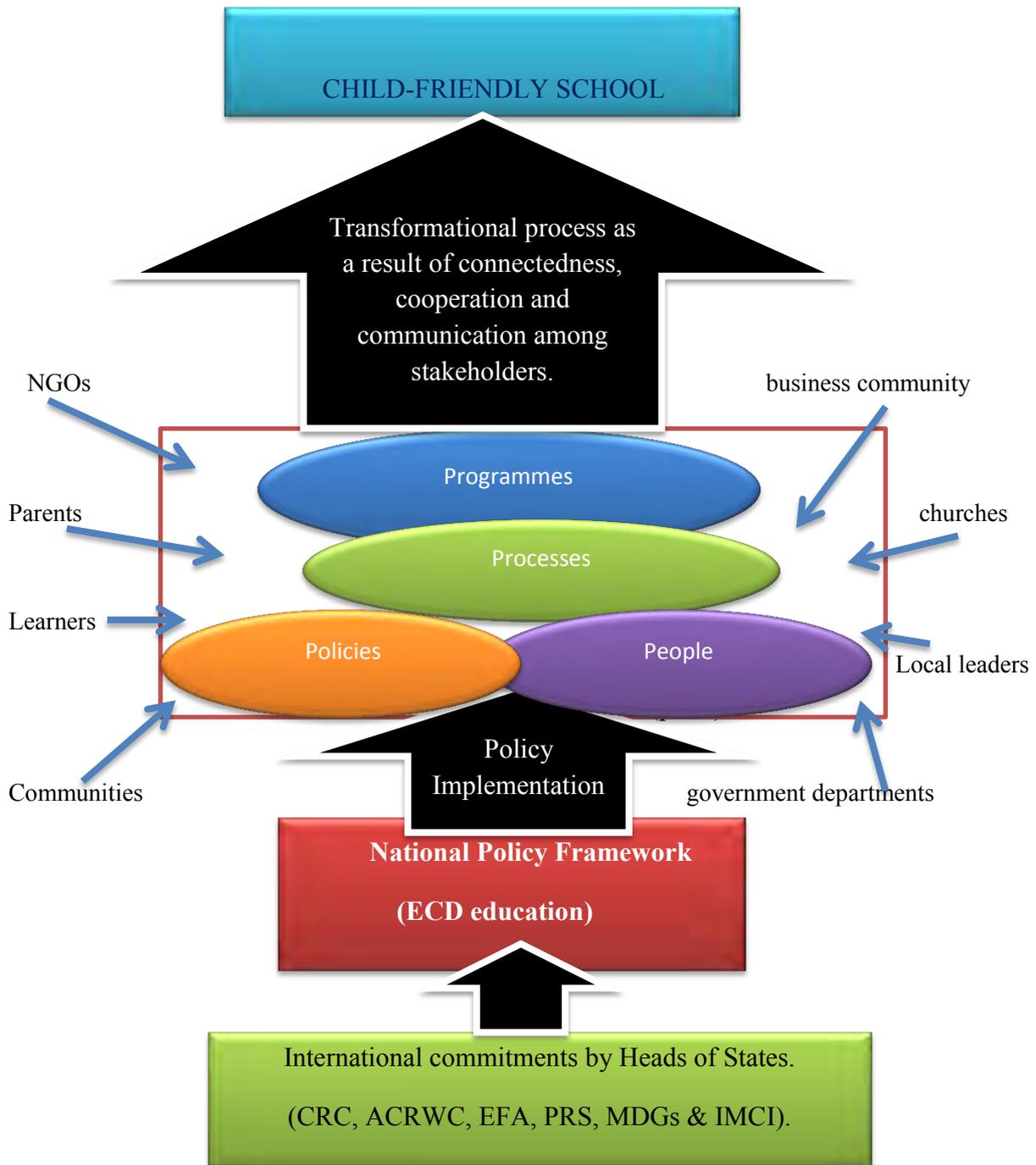
Fig. 7. 1 Proposed model for invitational/transformational leaders in partnership with stakeholders for school transformation

When the ECD education policy is thrown into schools for implementation from the ministry of education, all is directed to school leaders because of the decentralisation of school governance **(Section 2.3.1.1 of this thesis)**. School leaders should employ transformative strategies in order to make their schools attractive to all interested parties. Much of the motivation for implementing successive ECD education programme in primary schools rests primarily with the leaders of individual schools; the School Heads.

School heads examine the physical environment, stakeholders (people) including teachers and learners, programmes, processes and policies to invite everyone who has a stake in the success of the school to participate, generating synergy as all work toward a common goal. All stakeholders, for instance, the churches, parents, communities, NGOs, local leaders, business communities and government departments are attracted to a school that has programmes, processes and policies that invite them. Stakeholders are interested in engaging in partnerships with schools as long as such engagements are well planned and organised. School policies, processes and programmes should allow the school to host stakeholders who bring in new ideas. School heads should consult various stakeholders with planned projects for their ECD schools, for instance, building classrooms, toilets, bringing furniture, books and other materials.

Teachers are staff developed to socialise with the outside school community, they collaborate with parents for resource making. These transformative school heads inspire teachers to work beyond their normal expectations; this is where teachers sacrifice to construct play centres for the ECD children. Due to the processes that are offered by these schools, parents are excited to bring their children to attend school. Children are excited to come to school, absenteeism is reduced because of the feeding programmes and teachers are better prepared in their teaching strategies. It is established by this study that school heads that send invitational messages with clear visions outside the school community, get their schools transformed. School heads should make efforts to establish successful school policies and programmes that allow for the inclusion of all stakeholders in decision-making processes in order to create strong partnerships. School heads should not use one single delivery system option, school community, parents, local community, the chiefs, donor community and ministerial sectors are invited to decide on the most relevant and affordable options of supporting the programme to meet the needs for ECD services in their schools. School heads should adopt

the open-door policy to attract various stakeholders as a means to increase the need for ECD education and reduce the costs that are shouldered by poor peasant parents to effectively transform their schools. Stakeholder partnerships proved to be the best strategy used by the schools in responding to ECD resource demand. By intentionally inviting stakeholders in the ECD programme, schools make resource mobilisation a stress-free and possible task. Through connectedness, cooperation and communication among the stakeholders, there is much reduction of the burden carried by parents. Those schools that successfully invited the stakeholders have lessened the burden on the part of the parents.

Connectedness, co-operation and communication among stakeholders encourage the school transformational process. Stakeholder partnerships in ECD school programmes are international, much-admired, worldwide, practices that bring current educational reform. The moment all stakeholders work cohesively, the unmanageable appears possible in the school. I must point out in this study that school heads, teachers and stakeholders should be aware that, though challenges are militating against their efforts, it is possible to realise operational quality ECD programmes in remote rural areas. The bigger the group working towards the development of ECD programme, the lesser the intensity of contributions expected from each member player. Research shows that when schools engage in stakeholder partnerships they share responsibilities, which in turn buffer the discomfort among contributors. Hence, school heads in the remote rural ECD schools can better transform their schools by involving teachers, parents, local and international donor communities to cooperatively work for development of child-friendly schools in remote rural areas.

7.3.2 Leadership philosophies that make a difference: better leaders for best schools

The emerging state of the play in school leadership in this twenty-first century in all countries has become increasingly multifaceted. The conventions signed by the government to achieve education for all, has set the standard for change without any leniency for backslides by school authorities as the Government imposed ECD programme demands upon schools and expect results by 2015. Much of the motivation for implementing successive ECD education programme in primary schools is primarily entrusted to the heads of individual schools. This study reveals that effective school heads acknowledge their main role for promoting effective teaching and learning by ECD children in the school through the use of effective leadership

theories. There is much evidence from this study that effective leadership styles are strongly correlated to school effectiveness and improvement **(Section 3.4.3 of this thesis)**.

It is this human resource management which engaged most of the school heads" time and which generated the most challenges they face in the schools. In this respect, their leadership styles were heavily teacher-centred for the benefit of the ECD children. Effective school heads demonstrate care and support to the teachers. Organisational development is best possible through individualised consideration given to the teachers by school heads. Effective heads use various approaches and techniques to bring out the best in their ECD staff.

These school heads are bound to invest in teachers, since the quality of education is among other components highly determined by the delivery system. They are investing in their teachers, making sure that they get adequate knowledge and skills that make them effective in their day-to-day encounter with the children. Children cannot learn until teachers continue to learn, teachers should continuously be equipped with relevant skills and up-to-date knowledge in order to effectively teach the ECD learners. It is believed that teachers can only change the way they teach, through continuous up-dating of knowledge and skills. Therefore, it is important to hold a variety of staff development programmes to assist teachers develop knowledge of the content they teach and pedagogies that are effective in improving teaching and learning. Effective school heads provide continuous supportive environment that makes professional development a success in ECD schools.

Effective school heads harness lateral wisdom in teachers including the middle-management team; deputy head and TIC. The study has established that most TICs and ECD trained teachers have knowledge and literature on ECD, hence these school heads delegate supervisory and mentoring duties. There are various roles in which these TICs and ECD trained teachers are encouraged to support the professional learning of their fellow teachers; for instance, they help in inducting and mentoring new teachers to the school and/or co-ordinating staff development programmes for para-professionals and seconded teachers. The ECD trained teachers and knowledgeable TICs facilitate learning in ECD schools, with the belief that understandings and attitudes can be discovered in similar ways as teachers in classroom situations. TICs preserve and spend most of their time identifying training needs, observing teaching and giving feedback to ECD teachers. It is clear from this study that involvement of teachers in many school based staff development programmes is an excellent

way to build strong and positive working and learning environments for both teachers and the ECD children. It is clear that leadership style used by school heads result in major achievements for this effective teaching and learning.

Effective leaders harness the knowledge of all resource persons within or outside the school, recognise this knowledge and share it: this forms their school‟s „knowledge creators‟‟ and „knowledge disseminators‟‟. They trust and respect junior ECD trained teachers (as discussed above) and promote them to „mentors‟‟ as a way to make them realise their capabilities. These junior ECD trained teachers perfect their teaching skills as they facilitate the mentoring programmes. These school heads communicate messages to these teachers informing them that they are able, responsible and worthwhile. Teachers as professional are trusted to work independently, within clear collegial school climate which is mutually understood by all.

Effective school heads are identified as sources of vision for their ECD schools, they work in harmony with all school members; teachers, learners and the SDCs. They make clear visions for their schools and communicate to all the stakeholders, the teachers, parents, communities, Responsible Authorities and even the donor communities. This communication is done through their leadership team, the deputy heads, the TICs and the SDCs. Remarkably, leadership is based on connectedness, co-operation and communication with all stakeholders for the set visions. They communicate inviting messages using collegial relationships, but also through school programmes, policies, practices and the school‟s physical environment. In these schools optimism, respect; trust and intentionality prevail **(Section 3.3.1 of this thesis)**. Such leaders invite all stakeholders to share and pursue their vision for the development of their schools. Through collaborative leadership there is an assurance that the vision set for ECD in the school is realised.

These invitational and/or transformational leaders are ensuring that trust, respect, optimism and intentionality are developed and maintained among the teachers, as well as formulating targets for smooth running of the ECD department. They ideally inspire extraordinary commitment and performance by these teachers through formulation of cohesive teams in the environment of professional learning communities. Though school heads reserve the right to make final decisions, there is strong emphasis upon collaboration and participatory decision-making.

Schools are in a transformational era based on the professional development and empowerment of the teachers who participate in teaching ECD children. Effective school heads take much of their precious time to develop and empower their teacher for the benefit of the schools **(Section 3.4.2 of this thesis)**. Effective leadership skills equip teachers to autonomously work in cohesive teams as they respond to resource demand. Professionally developed teachers make a difference which is noted in individual and team work, like lesson preparation and organising exciting pedagogies which invite children to learn. Distinguishable improvement in schools is noted by the way teachers prepare programmes and processes that are inviting to the ECD learners through giving children opportunities to be heard. They commit themselves to work beyond normal time, for example having inter-schools sport competitions where ECD children realise their capabilities.

This study found that, teachers" perception of their level of empowerment is closely correlated to how they commit themselves to their work on daily basis. School heads that successfully empower their teachers enjoy the fruits; teachers are ready to face challenging situations and to solve their problems on their own. They have gained autonomous, creative and innovative attitudes to the extent that they do not need to bother the school head with minor problems. They are free to face and try new approaches to solve problems. Thus, for all the school heads that successfully developed and empowered their teachers, there is less dependency on the school head for advice. Empowered teachers are noticed by greater willingness to take responsibility, for example, spearheading a construction project for the outdoor play centre with local communities.

7.3. 3 Towards invitational-transformational leadership model for teacher empowerment and professional development

The study has advanced a model **(Section 3.8.1 of this thesis)** on guidelines for transforming ECD schools into professional learning communities where teachers are professionally developed and empowered. This is illustrated below (Fig.7.2) following major categories from transformational theory (left) and invitational theory (right). The school heads provide continuous supportive environment to make professional development a success in their ECD schools. This is explained below:

Improved teaching skills and knowledge for effective learning by children

6. Teacher commitment

Professional-growth

Self-efficacy

Decision-making

Autonomy, Status and Impact

Teacher empowerment and professional development

5.Teacher learning styles

Staff development programmes based on needs identification e.g. Model lessons, clinical supervision, book supervision, classroom tours,

4. Transformational leadership

Visioning

Inspiring

Stimulating

Coaching

Team building

3. Invitational leadership

Trust   Optimism

Policies, processes, places, programmes and people

Respect   Intentionality

2. School external conditions

All stakeholders" involvement

Ministry policies and programmes

Funding of programmes

1. School internal conditions

School culture

On-going staff development

Colleagueship

Motivation

Fig. 7.2 Invitational-transformational leadership theories for teacher empowerment and professional development

1. School internal conditions

The invitational/ transformational leaders have developed school cultures in which teachers commonly hold beliefs, values and norms based on the idea of producing a well-organised learning environment. Their aim is to effectively teach learners; hence they focus on core values necessary for that. This school culture shapes what the school leadership, learners and teachers think and how they act.

2. School external conditions

The school leaders involve various stakeholders in the running of the staff development programmes for their ECD teachers. Funding is done by the parents and UNICEF, ministry departments like BSPZ and the district ECD trainers are participating. This involvement by various stakeholders makes the process viable.

3. Invitational leadership

School leadership and teachers are cultured to work together under trust, respect optimism and intentionality. School programmes, policies and processes are tailored in such a way that every teacher successfully acquires required skills and knowledge on how to teach children.

4. Transformational leadership

School leaders set visions for staff training, inspire them and stimulate them through coaching and team building.

5. Teacher learning styles

Schools assess teacher development needs and run programmes to develop the lacking skills, for instance, syllabus interpretation and lesson delivery. They use different methods to develop these teachers, varying from demonstration lessons, clinical supervision, book inspections, etc.

6. Teacher commitment

Transformational leadership has an influence on teacher"s professional-growth, self-efficacy, decision-making and autonomy among other things on school duties. These traits have direct influence on teacher commitment to school vision and commitment to professional learning community for effective learning by the children.

Teacher empowerment and professional development are processes that result from teacher learning styles and teacher commitment. Therefore, improved teaching skills and knowledge by teachers bring about effective learning by the children.

7.4 Recommendations

This study has made three sets of recommendations; the first set of recommendations is directed to the ministry of primary and secondary education, the second set of recommendations is directed to the primary school heads, while the third set of recommendations is directed to researchers.

7.4.1 Recommendations to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education

The following are recommendations to the education ministry.

7.4.1.1 Protection of the rights of the underprivileged remote rural ECD children

Having reached summary findings based on the results of this study, I have to pen these recommendations. At the centre of the objections given by school heads is the „divorce" of remote rural ECD schools from active participation and knowledge that is crucial for life advancement. They suffer multiple deprivations; ECD children are exposed to insecurity and unhealthy standards with limited access to educational resources, for example, standard classrooms, age appropriate toilets, primary healthcare facilities, nutritional health, well equipped outdoor learning areas, qualified teachers and correct teacher-pupil ratio classes **(Section 7.2 of this thesis).** There is no policy commitment by the government to address the conditions and needs of remote rural ECD schools and communities **(Section 2.3.1.3 of this thesis)**. This emphasis on children‟s rights and protection was supposed to be backed by the government, meaning to say the government is supposed to take the bulk of the responsibility, in terms of resource contribution in order to protect the rights of the remote rural ECD children **(Section 2.3.3 of this thesis).**

7.4.1.2 Communities should complement government efforts not replace it

The government should undertake the duty to improve the lives of all its citizens and not shift childcare totally to parents and communities whose capacity to provide for children has been heavily incapacitated by the country‟s economic crisis. Hence, the government of Zimbabwe

should continue investing in education by supplying quality infrastructure that meets the needs of current and future learners, so as to take upon them the challenge of meeting the global standards in primary education. The ministry has to find ways to involve stakeholders and partners by clarifying roles and communication between the government and all stakeholders as a means to strengthen the demand for ECD and decrease the cost borne by individual remote rural poor peasant parents. Ministry should ensure involvement in ECD should accommodate parents and communities whose support at family and community levels are critical for the existence, improvement and protection of the ECD children.

7.4.1.3 ECD children to benefit from BEAM

Statutory Instrument (14 of 2007) states that; the government would provide grants for underprivileged children. This entails that the underprivileged should attend school because the government pays grants for these children; however, the study shows that the government has marginalised the ECD children from getting grants. There is need for the ministry to consider ECD children for BEAM as the burden of paying school levies is problematic to poor peasant parents in remote rural areas.

7.4.1.4 Ministry to employ teachers not parents employing teachers

There is need to increase the number of ECD teacher trainees in teachers" colleges and universities to eliminate the system"s dependence on para-professionals. In the meantime while schools are relying on papa-professionals, the ministry should take the responsibility to pay para-professionals" allowances and/or second the primary trained teachers to teach the ECD classes while schools wait for the ECD trained teachers from teachers" colleges and universities. The study recommends the idea of seconded teachers to teach ECD classes as a way to alleviate the plight of the schools in paying para-professionals and wasting parents" hard-earned funds that could be used to upgrade the welfare of the ECD children. The study strongly recommends the ministry to guard against District Education Officers and Provincial Education Directors from unfair deployment of trained teachers to schools regardless of location, based on the evidence that town schools are fully staffed with ECD trained teachers while remote rural schools are battling to pay allowances for para-professionals **(Section 5.4.2 of this thesis).**

7.4.1.5 Provisional training for school leadership team

Findings from this study reveals that school heads are relegating supervisory duties to the TICs and deputy heads, because they are not trained to supervise the ECD classes. However, school heads are critical resources which need constant training for quality ECD education. Therefore the ministry should make a provision for training school leadership on ECD education. The ministry has to ensure effective use of the quality assurance programme (BSPZ) in the district including the district ECD trainers to run training workshops for school leadership on ECD education.

7.5 Recommendations to primary school heads

The study establishes that decentralisation of school governance placed school heads in the driver"s seat of school transformation; therefore, they need to be aware of the critical roles they are expected to play in the schools. As professional leaders and agents of transformation, their leadership roles should influence inside school, beyond the school fence and beyond the education bureaucracy setting a school culture that permits teachers, learners, parents and all stakeholders to realise their potentials while working together for school transformation.

7.5.1 Upgrading for school heads

The study reveals that there are no simple answers to achieve leadership excellence; hence it is recommended that school heads should attain and/or modernise their skills and knowledge required to prove effective and efficient in current educational institutes. They should keep themselves abreast with augmenting leadership theories that consistently provide skills and knowledge to succeed in difficult times in the remote rural ECD schools.

7.5.2 Creating a harmonious school culture

It is recommended that school heads inspire teachers to keep them working to create a school culture where unutilised wisdom in teachers is tapped to harmonise high resource demand to low resource supply in remote rural ECD schools. School heads should understand that the significant factor for school transformation is based on improved interactions among teachers and between teachers and school heads. Hence school heads should create school culture that reflects a sense of excitement, satisfaction and autonomy for both students and staff.

7.5.3 Participatory decision making

The study recommends that school heads should put effort to change schools by planning together with all interested stakeholders. Trust, shared leadership and accountability are pivotal traits that should be portrayed by school leaders. It is recommended that school heads properly manage resources and be accountable to all resources channelled into the schools in order to retain the assurance of supporting stakeholders. Finally, school heads should encourage the SDCs to embark on fund-raising and generating funds for the construction of suitable infrastructure in their schools.

7.6 Recommendations for further research

The results of this study should contribute to the current body of research and literature on how remote rural ECD schools respond to challenges posed by resource demand, transformative leadership, as well as what effective school heads could do in order to transform these schools for quality ECD education provision. Thus, there are recommendations and possibilities for future research that emanated from the research findings; however, since ECD is still a new phenomenon in the education community in developing countries, there are various issues that call for research in this area, for instance:

7.6.1 Developing an operational framework on school heads' job description

Firstly, recent research findings reveal that, scholars generated knowledge on how rural ECD schools are operating with inadequate and unsuitable resources. This study highlights the responses that are given by remote rural ECD schools to resource demand in schools and how resource mobilisation is influencing school management. Future research studies should be conducted on developing an operational framework on school heads" job description based on the current ECD programme inserted in their daily duties and responsibilities. School heads" effectiveness in their leadership strategies have direct links with the quality of education that ECD children are provided with. The quality of education too has an impact on parental contribution to their children"s education. Over commitment by school heads has proved to be the critical cause of cardio-vascular diseases, burn-out, incompetence (as a result of too much work) resulting in poor quality of work. These future researches might suggest leadership techniques that can help school heads to cope with their responsibilities for quality ECD education provision.

7.6.2 Communication networks to form partnerships

Secondly, earlier studies regard parents-teacher partnerships as necessary to realise the anticipated objectives in early childhood education. This study reveals that some schools are benefitting from stakeholder partnerships (broader perspective) while other schools have no idea about making partnerships with stakeholders. More details about these issues can be found in **Section 7.2**. Apparently, this study has brought documentation/ model on successful school-stakeholder partnerships for school transformation **(Fig. 7. 1 of this thesis)** these few schools that benefitted, partnered themselves with NGOs that come into the districts on varied interests yet the world over there are various humanitarian organisations that can give more assistance to underprivileged ECD schools. Thus, this study recommends further research so that knowledge is shared and carried to national and international levels on how to use communication networks to form partnerships. Such research might address the idea of communication in the „global village" where schools can formulate their websites and seek donations from national and international donor communities. This might give school heads the zeal to use modern technology for school transformation.

7.6.3 ECD class size reduction

Thirdly, recent research underscores the importance of small class-size for improved teacher-child, child-teacher and child-child interaction. This study reveals that school heads deliberately over-crowded children for the sake of fund-raising para-professionals allowances, in the process compromising the quality of ECD education provision. Therefore, this study recommends for future research to be conducted on the potential benefits and costs of class size reduction, to closely consider the extent to which the reduction of class size impacts on the cost of education for ECD. Knowledge generated from such a study may be useful guidance, not only to school heads but also to policy makers and educational planners.

7.6.4 Gender stereotyping in the teaching of learners

Fourthly, this study has found that among a total of thirty ECD teachers teaching in the site schools, it was noted with regret that only one teacher is male. Among eight TICs, only two are male, postulating that the ECD department is gender biased depriving children of role models from both sexes. Therefore, there is need for research that demystifies all stereotypes

and prejudices associated with males teaching ECD. Such research might try to redress the gender imbalances by informing teachers" colleges and universities to formulate and implement equity policy when recruiting trainees for the ECD sector. This might also convince male prospective ECD teachers who shun teaching of young children to also like the job.

7.7 Conclusion

Firstly, given the two proposed models for effective schools transformation and the other one for teacher empowerment and professional development; I therefore make the following conclusions: The school heads are inviting stakeholders like the parents, local community and the donor community to contribute to the ECD programme. The study has proven that cost-sharing, improved accountability and responsiveness in remote rural ECD schools lead to the development of ECD child-friendly schools. Therefore, it is concluded that all stakeholder involvement proved the best resource procurement initiative for remote rural ECD schools.

Secondly, the study found it inadequate to give all responsibilities to parents and communities yet the government made some commitments towards bearing the duty in promoting the rights and well-being of young children. Therefore, the study strongly concludes that government should provide education services to its nation by providing basic educational facilities in remote rural ECD schools.

Thirdly, this study concludes that remote rural ECD schools are operating under unsatisfactory conditions; this prohibits effective teaching and learning as it would have been expected. Although school heads are working very hard to develop teachers, the study pronounces that teachers as an input is not enough to make teaching and learning effective without all other required inputs. Therefore the study concludes that ECD teaching and learning in remote rural schools is not meeting the quality that is expected, unless all inputs are made.

Fourthly, the study found that there are not enough skilled personnel for supervision and mentoring of ECD activities in schools since the school heads, deputy heads and TICs lack training. Therefore the study further concludes that school leadership teams need training for quality supervision in the ECD schools.

Fifthly, invitational and transformational leadership theories provide explanations of some of the ploys that are used by the remote rural ECD school heads in harmonising resource mobilisation and school leadership. However, the study establishes that, school heads are over-loaded with many duties that they cannot effectively run the schools since most of them have classes to teach. Therefore, as I proceed to the end of this chapter as well as closing the study, I accentuate that reduction of work over-load for school heads is ideal if the quality of education should be maintained. This also calls for the government to subsidise ECD education to reduce stress for school heads.

Finally, I am happy that my study has made a contribution to the body of knowledge and literature. It is significant to make a statement that I am gratified that I have accomplished the goals of my study and, moreover, I have experienced significant personal and professional development during this journey, which can only benefit my future work in the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education in Zimbabwe.

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9.0 APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Letters requesting permission from the District Education Officers (DEOs)

Researcher Name: Svosve Evangelista.

 University of KwaZulu-Natal

 Edgewood Campus

 Private Bag X03

Ashwood

3605 South Africa.

Mobile: 0027789581363 or 00263772631135

E-mail:evangelistasvosve@yahoo.com/svosveeva@gmail.com

10 September 2014.

The District Education Officer

 Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education

 P. O. Box 181

Chiredzi

 Masvingo

Zimbabwe.

Dear sir/madam

Ref: Research on examining the rural ECD schools' responses to the challenges of resource distribution in Zimbabwe: a multiple site case study (PhD) Svosve Evangelista.

This letter seeks to apply for approval to carry out my study in the following schools in your district: This will involve school heads, deputy heads and the Teachers-in-Charge (infant). They are going to participate in interviews on how the school (ECD department) is responding to the challenges posed by resource demand. It also requires documentary evidence from the ED 46 C (1) questionnaires of 2013.

Participation in this research is voluntary. All data elicited will remain anonymous and confidential. No school heads, deputy heads and teachers-in-charge of the infants department will be linked to any data that may be published by the University of KwaZulu- Natal. All the schools will be protected by the use of *self-styled* names; hence no school name will be linked to any data in this study. Therefore, there is no risk in your schools participating in this study.

My supervisor is Doctor TT Bhengu and can be conducted at the university on 0027312603534 or bhengutt@ukzn.ac.za. For further information whenever need arises conduct the university"s Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Office on 00277 31 260 8350 or snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

Your authorisation for schools to take part in this study is highly cherished. The participants" contribution will without doubt contribute significantly to the aforementioned research. I have provided contact details should you need further information concerning this study.

Should you agree to allow your schools to take part in this study, please complete the following:

I _____ (full name and surname) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project. Therefore, I consent on behalf of my schools to take part in this study. I know that participants are permitted to pull out from the study at any time they desire.

 Signature: District Education Officer------------------------

 Date------------------------

Researcher Name: Svosve Evangelista.

 University of KwaZulu-Natal

 Edgewood Campus

 Private Bag X03

Ashwood

3605 South Africa.

Mobile: 0027789581363 or 00263772631135

E-mail:evangelistasvosve@yahoo.com/svosveeva@gmail.com

10 September 2014.

The District Education Officer

 Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education

 P. O. Box 239

Jerera

Zaka

 Masvingo

Zimbabwe.

Dear sir/madam

Ref: Research on examining the rural ECD schools' responses to the challenges of resource distribution in Zimbabwe: a multiple site case study (PhD) Svosve Evangelista.

This letter seeks to apply for approval to carry out my study in the following schools in your district: This will involve school heads, deputy heads and Teachers- in- Charge (infant). They are going to participate in interviews on how the school (ECD department) is responding to the challenges posed by resource distribution. It also requires documentary evidence from the ED 46 C (1) questionnaires of 2013.

Participation in this research is voluntary. All data elicited will remain anonymous and confidential. No school heads, deputy heads and teachers-in-charge of the infants department will be linked to any data that may be published by the University of KwaZulu- Natal. All the schools will be protected by the use of *self-styled* names; hence no school name will be linked to any data in this study. Therefore, there is no risk in your schools participating in this study.

My supervisor is Doctor TT Bhengu and can be conducted at the university on 0027312603534 or bhengutt@ukzn.ac.za. For further information whenever need arises conduct the university"s Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Office on 00277 31 260 8350 or snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

Your authorisation for schools to take part in this study is highly cherished. The participants" contribution will without doubt contribute significantly to the aforementioned research. I have provided contact details should you need further information concerning this study.

Should you agree to allow your schools to participate in this study, please complete the following:

I _____ (full name and surname) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project. Therefore, I consent on behalf of my schools to participate in this study. I know that participants are permitted to pull out from the study at any time they desire.

Signature: District Education Officer------------------------

Date------------------------

Appendix 2: Letters requesting permission from school heads

Researcher Name: Svosve Evangelista.

 University of KwaZulu-Natal

Edgewood Campus

 Private Bag X03

Ashwood

3605, South Africa.

Mobile: 0027789581363 or 00263772631135

 E-maiI:evangelistasvosve@yahoo.com/svosveeva@gmail.com

10 September 2014.

The School head

---------------------- Primary School

P. O. Box-------

 Masvingo

Zimbabwe.

Dear sir/madam

Ref: Research on examining the rural ECD schools' responses to the challenges of resource distribution in Zimbabwe: a multiple site case study (PhD) Svosve Evangelista.

This letter seeks to apply for approval to carry out my study in your school. This will involve you as the school head, deputy head and the Teacher-in-Charge (infant). You are kindly invited to participate in interviews on how your school (ECD department) is responding to the challenges posed by resource demand. Each interview will take approximately 45 minutes. To enable the flow of the interviews these sessions will be audio-recorded and the data files will be deleted at the end of the study. The study also requires documentary evidence from the ED 46 C (1) questionnaires of 2013.

Participation in this research is voluntary. All data elicited will remain anonymous and confidential. Neither; the school head, deputy head nor Teacher-in-Charge will be linked to any data that may be published by the University of KwaZulu- Natal. Therefore, there is no risk in participating in this study.

My supervisor is Doctor TT Bhengu and can be conducted at the university on 0027312603534 or bhengutt@ukzn.ac.za. For further information whenever need arises conduct the university"s Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Office on 00277 31 260 8350 or snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

Your readiness to take part in this study is highly cherished. Your contribution will without doubt contribute significantly to the aforementioned research. I have provided contact details should you need further information concerning this study.

Should you agree to allow your school to take part in this study, please complete the following:

Declaration of informed consent

I _____ (full name and surname) hereby confirm that I have understood the substance of this document and the nature of the research project. Therefore, I consent to take part in this study. I know that participants are allowed to pull out from the study at any time should they desire to do so, and without any negative consequences.

I hereby consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded.

Signature of school head------------------------   Date------------------------

Appendix 3: Letter requesting permission from the deputy heads

Researcher Name: Svosve Evangelista.

 University of KwaZulu-Natal

Edgewood Campus

 Private Bag X03

Ashwood

3605, South Africa.

Mobile: 0027789581363 or 00263772631135

 E-maiI:evangelistasvosve@yahoo.com/svosveeva@gmail.com

10 September 2014.

The Deputy head

 --------------------- Primary School

P. O. Box-------

 Masvingo

Zimbabwe.

Dear sir/madam

Ref: Research on examining the rural ECD schools' responses to the challenges of resource distribution in Zimbabwe: a multiple site case study (PhD) Svosve Evangelista.

You are kindly invited to participate in interviews on how your school (ECD department) is responding to the challenges posed by resource demand. Each interview will take approximately 45 minutes. To enable the flow of the interviews these sessions will be audio-recorded and the data files will be deleted at the end of the study.

Participation in this research is voluntary. All data elicited will remain anonymous and confidential. You will not be linked to any data that may be published by the University of KwaZulu- Natal. Therefore, there is no risk in participating in this study.

My supervisor is Doctor TT Bhengu and can be conducted at the university on 0027312603534 or bhengutt@ukzn.ac.za. For further information whenever need arises conduct the university"s Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Office on 00277 31 260 8350 or snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

Should you agree to take part in this study, please complete the following:

Declaration of informed consent

I _____ (full name and surname) hereby confirm that I have understood the substance of this document and the nature of the research project. Therefore, I consent to take part in this study. I know that participants are allowed to pull out from the study at any time should they desire to do so, and without any negative consequences.

I hereby consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded.

Signature: Deputy head ------------------------   Date------------------------

Appendix 4: Letter requesting permission from the TICs

Researcher Name: Svosve Evangelista.

University of KwaZulu-Natal

Edgewood Campus

Private Bag X03

Ashwood

3605, South Africa.

Mobile: 0027789581363 or 00263772631135

E-maiI: evangelistasvosve@yahoo.com/svosveeva@gmail.com

10 September 2014.

The Teacher-in-Charge (infant)

--------------------- Primary School

P. O. Box-------

Masvingo

Zimbabwe.

Dear sir/madam

Ref: Research on examining the rural ECD schools' responses to the challenges of resource distribution in Zimbabwe: a multiple site case study (PhD) Svosve Evangelista.

You are kindly invited to take part in interviews on how your school (ECD department) is responding to the challenges posed by resource demand. Each interview will take approximately 45 minutes. To enable the flow of the interviews these sessions will be audio-recorded and the data files will be deleted at the end of the study.

Participation in this research is voluntary. All data elicited will remain anonymous and confidential. You will not be linked to any data that may be published by the University of KwaZulu- Natal. Therefore, there is no risk in participating in this study.

My supervisor is Doctor TT Bhengu and can be conducted at the university on 0027312603534 or bhengutt@ukzn.ac.za. For further information whenever need arises conduct the university"s Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Office on 00277 31 260 8350 or snymanm@ukzn.ac.za

Should you agree to take part in this study, please complete the following:

Declaration of informed consent

I _____ (full name and surname) hereby confirm that I have understood the substance of this document and the nature of the research project. Therefore, I consent to take part in this study. I know that participants are allowed to pull out from the study at any time should they desire to do so, and without any negative consequences.

I hereby consent / do not consent to have this interview recorded.

Signature: TIC ------------------------   Date------------------------

Appendix 5: Interview guide for school heads

<div align="center">

SECTION A

</div>

Biographical profile of the school

(Please use a tick in the appropriate column and complete the blanks).

1. Date: ----/------/2014.

2. Time: ----------hrs.

3.Name of the school (Pseudo):---Primary school

4. School location: *rural/urban/resettlement.*

5. Province: ---------------

6. District: ---------------

7. Responsible Authority (RA):   -----------------

8. Do you have a functional School Development Committee (SDC)? *Yes/no*

9. Teacher establishment--------------- (including ECD A&B).

10. Total Primary enrolment------------- (including ECD A&B).

   (ECD ONLY).

11. Enrolment (both A &B):   --------

12. Number of teachers (for both A&B):   --------

13. How many are qualified? (Specialised for infant or ECD only):   --------

14. General qualification for the para-professionals: *Grade 7/ZJC/'O' level*

SECTION B

Biographical profile of the participant.

(Please tick the applicable and complete the blanks).

1. Title: (Ms/ Mr/ Mrs).

2. Gender: (Female/Male).

3. Age:

- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51 and above.

4. Professional qualification:

- Certificate in Education (CE).
- Diploma in Education (DipEd).
- Bachelor of Education (Bed).
- Masters of Education (Med).
- Other (Specify) ----------------------.

6. Designation:

- Substantive School head/Acting School head
- Deputy head/Acting Deputy head
- TIC (Infants)- ECD trained/general primary trained

7. Experience in the above post (Specify in years) --------------------.

8. Did you have any training for running the ECD programme? *Yes/ No.*

9. If yes, specify the duration/level of the training------------

Questions

1. What resources do you have in your school for the ECD classes? [Give more details about these resources: identity and function].

2. How do you get these resources for your ECD classes? [Who provide for the ECD programme and to what extent?]

3. Do you think that the resources that you get/ have for your ECD can make teaching and learning effective?[Considering the quality of each mentioned identity, e.g. infrastructure, teachers, teaching/learning materials, health and nutrition etc.]

4. Are there any challenges in your school that are caused by resources demand to your school? [If yes elaborate giving the nature of the challenges.]

5. How do challenges emanating from resource demand affect teaching and learning in the ECD classes in your school?

6. As the school head how do you address these challenges? [Do you think that you are fully addressing these challenges?]

7. What strategies are you employing to promote effective teaching and learning in ECD? Do you think these strategies are effective?

8. How does resource mobilisation affect the way you are running your school? [If resource mobilisation was not done in its current way, will your running of the school change and in which way?]

Are there any more comments you would like to add?

I will be analysing the data you and others gave me and submitting a draft report to the university in at least two months. I will be pleased to send you a copy to review at that time, if you wish.

Thank you for your time.

Appendix 6: Interview guide for deputy heads

SECTION A:

Biographical profile of the participant.

(Please tick the applicable and complete the blanks).

1. Date: ----/-----/2014.

2. Time: ----------hrs.

3. Title: (Ms/ Mr/ Mrs).

4. Gender: (Female/Male).

5. Age:

- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51 and above.

6. Professional qualification:

- Certificate in Education (CE).
- Diploma in Education (DipEd).
- Bachelor of Education (Bed).
- Masters of Education (Med).
- Other (Specify) ----------------------.

7. Designation:

- Substantive School head/Acting School head
- Deputy head/Acting Deputy head
- TIC (Infants)- ECD trained/general primary trained

8. Experience in the above post (Specify in years) --------------------.

9. Did you have any training for running the ECD programme? *Yes/ No*.

10. If yes, specify the duration/level of the training--------------.

QUESTIONS

1. What resources do you have in your school for the ECD classes? [Give more details about these resources: identity and function.]

2. How do you get these resources for your ECD classes? [Who provide for the ECD programme and to what extent?]

3. Do you think that the resources that you get/ have for your ECD can make teaching and learning effective?[Considering the quality of each mentioned identity, e.g. infrastructure, teachers, teaching/learning materials, health and nutrition etc.]

4. Are there any challenges in your school that are caused by resources demand? [If yes elaborate giving the nature of the challenges.]

5. How do challenges emanating from resource demand affect teaching and learning in the ECD classes in your school?

6. As the deputy head of the school how do you assist in the addressing of these challenges? [Do you think that you are fully addressing these challenges?]

7. What strategies are you employing to promote effective teaching and learning in ECD with those resources that you have? [Do you think these strategies are effective?]

8. How does resource mobilisation affect the way you are running your school? [If resource mobilisation   was not done in its current way, will your running of the school change and in which way?]

Are there any more comments you would like to add?

I will be analysing the data you and others gave me and submitting a draft report to the university in at least two months. I will be pleased to send you a copy to review at that time, if you wish.

Thank you for your time.

Appendix 7: Interview guide for TICs

SECTION A:

Biographical profile of the participant.

(Please tick the applicable and complete the blanks).

1. Date: -----/-----/2014.

2. Time: ----------hrs.

3. Title: (Ms/ Mr/ Mrs).

4. Gender: (Female/Male).

5. Age:

- 20-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51 and above.

6. Professional qualification:

- Certificate in Education (CE).
- Diploma in Education (DipEd).
- Bachelor of Education (Bed).
- Masters of Education (Med).
- Other (Specify) ----------------------.

7. Designation:

- Substantive School head/Acting School head
- Deputy head/Acting Deputy head
- TIC (Infants)- ECD trained/general primary trained

8. Experience in the above post (Specify in years) --------------------.

9. Did you have any training for running the ECD programme? *Yes/ No*.

10. If yes, specify the duration/level of the training-------------.

QUESTIONS

1. What resources do you have in your school for the ECD classes? [Give more details about these resources: identity and function.]

2. How do you get these resources for your ECD classes? [Who provide for the ECD programme and to what extent?]

3. Do you think that the resources that you get/ have for your ECD can make teaching and learning effective?[Considering the quality of each mentioned identity, e.g. infrastructure, teachers, teaching/learning materials, health and nutrition etc.]

4. Are there any challenges in your school that are caused by resources demand? [If yes elaborate giving the nature of the challenges.]

5. How do challenges emanating from resource demand affect teaching and learning in the ECD classes in your school?

6. As the TIC in the ECD department how do you assist in addressing these challenges? [Do you think that you are fully addressing these challenges?]

7. What strategies are you employing to promote effective teaching and learning in ECD with those resources that you have? [Do you think these strategies are effective?]

8. How does resource mobilisation affect the way your school is being run? [If resource mobilisation was not done in its current way, will the running of the school change and in which way?]

Are there any more comments you would like to add?

I will be analysing the data you and others gave me and submitting a draft report to the university in at least two months. I will be pleased to send you a copy to review at that time, if you wish.

Thank you for your time.

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This study examined the remote rural Early Childhood Development (which I refer to as ECD throughout this thesis) schools' responses to the challenges of resource demand in Zimbabwe. In this introductory chapter, all key terms that are going to be met throughout the thesis are defined. I highlighted the background of the study, explained the problem statement, rationale and motivation of the study which is given as my experiences, its significance which is directly linked to its beneficiaries, and the research objectives and research questions. I highlighted briefly the assumptions, limitations and delimitations of the study. I finally expose the general structure of my thesis.

1.2 Definition of terms

Before getting into details of this write-up it is important that the key terms that will feature are clearly defined. Attention is focused on the title of this study, this helps to clarify details for the use of these words, 'early childhood development', 'school development committee', 'school head', 'para-professionals', 'resource demand', 'Teacher-in-Charge,' 'remote rural school' and 'resources'.

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