The State of Violence Against School Children in Tanzania Mainland

An Exploratory Study

2020

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

CDPT   -   Child Development Policy Tanzania

GEM   -   Global Education Monitoring

G&C   -   Guidance and Counselling

HoH   -   Head of Household

IPV   -   Intimate Partner Violence

ISPCAN   -   International Society for Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect

LCA   -   Law of the Child Act

MoHCDGEC   -   Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children

NAHDS   -   National Adolescent Health and Development Strategy

NICMS   -   National Integrated Case Management System

RPFC   -   Responsible Parenting and Family Care

SOSPA   -   Sexual Offences (Special Provisions) Act

UNCRC   -   United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child

UNGEI   -   United Nations Girls' Education Initiative

UNESCO   -   United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

UNICEF   -   United Nations Children's Fund

VAC-   Violence Against Children

VASC   -   Violence Against School Children

WHO   -   World Health Organisation

Acknowledgements

Executive Summary

This study was conducted particularly to look into the current status on violence against in school and out of school children One of the key reasons for this interest, is that, violence against schoolchildren inevitably has a negative impact on their learning, and has the potential to variously interfere with their full access and attainment of basic education, thereby infringing on their fundamental human rights. The second reason is that the Education Policy of Tanzania declares the basic education is compulsory, from pre-school, primary school up to ordinary level secondary school. For that reason, in contemporary Tanzania, most children will increasingly spend their childhood as pupils/students. The third reason is that, consequently, during the school season, which covers most of the year, majority of Tanzanian children will spend most of their day time in school settings, including en-route to and from schools, and some will spend a larger part of their childhood in boarding schools. Based on the foregoing, this study aimed to explore the nature, prevalence, magnitude, perceptions and perpetrators of violence against schoolchildren in mainland Tanzania. It sought to attain a preliminary understating of the problem to inform education stakeholders' intervention strategies for effective prevention and response, as well as to ignite and contribute to a national policy debate on violence against school children in the country. The study is guided by the ecological model as applied to child maltreatment. The main assumption of this approach is that the combined influence of the self (the individual), the family, the community, and the larger culture affect the developmental outcomes for children. In that respect, children, parents, and environmental characteristics combine to shape the probabilistic course of the development of maltreated children. The research is designed as exploratory research and has been undertaken through a descriptive-interpretive methodology. The 'descriptive' dimension seeks to portray the types of violence against schoolchildren and their constitutive elements. The descriptive dimension also helps in clustering the continuum of the settings where violence against schoolchildren occur and in identifying the perpetrators. As such, the study clusters the settings and genres of violence against schoolchildren describes the prevalence and magnitude and identifies perpetrators. The 'interpretive' dimension, on the other hand, explores respondents' perceptions on violence against schoolchildren, identifies the root causes of violence against children and attempts to find explanations on the state of violence against schoolchildren, i.e., why it is increasing and how it is unfolding over time. During sampling procedures and data collection techniques, Tanzania mainland was divided into 7 geographical zones. Half (50%) of the regions in each zone were randomly sampled, hence a total of 16 regions were involved in the study. In each sampled region, two districts were chosen to be involved in the study. The district hosting the respective region's headquarter was purposefully selected as an urban district, and one district which was neither a municipality or a township was randomly selected as a rural/periphery district. Consequently, a total of 32 districts were involved in the study. Selection of schools was done in each of the selected districts for the study. A list of primary and secondary schools was prepared based on the criteria of ownership, public or private. In each list, one school was randomly selected and recruited to be involved in the study. In that respect in each district, four schools were selected. A total of 128 (64 secondary and 64 primary) schools were involved in the study.

The study findings show that, in each of the surveyed regions there are notable fluctuations of incidences on violence against school children. Overall nationally, depending on the type of violence, reported incidences have increased from 1, 635 in 2014 to 7,900 in 2018.

Psychological violence: Nearly 60.9 % of school-going children involved in this study reported to have experienced psychological violence. However, findings indicate 69.9 % of those who had experienced psychological violence stated that it only happens once in a while. On the other hand, at least 25% of all parents involved in the study were of the view that incidences of psychological violence against schoolchildren happen more often in the home settings. Again, 15% of interviewed parents stated that they are not aware of whether such incidents occur or not. Furthermore, findings indicate that there is pervasive normalisation of psychological violence against children happening particularly in the home and community settings. At least 81.7 % of school-going children identified the school setting as the place where they had experienced violence against them.

Physical violence: About 87.9% of all interviewed school children stated that they have experienced physical violence, with more than 90% of all children identifying caning as the type of physical violence experienced. Nearly 10 % of children who stated that they experience physical violence, posited that they experience it on a weekly or daily basis. On the other hand, about 37.1% of all interviewed teachers from rural settings and 16.3 % from urban settings, stated that caning is the type of punishment they administer to students daily or often. Again, 27 % of all interviewed parents were of the view that incidents of physical violence against schoolchildren occur more often in, home settings. At least 89 % of all students interviewed, stated that they have experienced physical violence in the school setting while 10% stated that they have experienced physical violence in home settings. At least 12 % of students stated that in -school children often experience physical violence when on their way to /or from school,

Negligent treatment: The study found that 21.1% of students from public schools and 15.2 % from private schools said they had experienced negligent treatment. Of these, 55.3 % stated that it only happened once in a while, while 27.4% stated that they experienced such treatment almost every day, whereby 41.1% identified the home setting as a place of negligence and 2.5 % said it happened on their way to and from school.

Sexual violence: The study found that 17.0% of school children from public schools and 14.3% per cent from private schools experienced at least one incident of sexual violence. Aggregation of data by gender depicts that 19.3 %%female students in public schools and 14.7%%female students from private schools reported having experienced at least one incident of sexual violence; compared to 14.4%and 13.7 %% in public and private schools respectively. The most common form of sexual violence experienced by students was someone speaking or writing to them with sexual connotation (9.2 %%), showed pornography (6.3 %%), followed by attempted sex (4.8 %%) and touched in a sexual way (3.2 %%). A total of 11%% female students said they have personally experienced sexual violence while on the way to or from school with the same proportion reporting to experience it in the home setting. About 5 %%of all male students interviewed, said they have experienced sexual violence from peers and in the home setting. About 2% of interviewed male students reported to have experienced sexual violence en-route to/from school while 1 % stated they had experienced sexual violence from teachers. Overall 1.8 % school-going children reported having experienced sexual violence in the cyberspace. The study found that 9.2 % of the interviewed students are aware of situations where male students are sexually abused by peers, and 7.6 % of the interviewed students know male students who are sexually abused by out of school males. Again, the study found that 5.2 %% of students reported being aware of female students who have sexual relationships with peers while 3.3 % reported awareness of female students who do the same without of school females.

Perpetrators of violence against school children: About 34.3% %school-going children who reported to have experienced psychological violence mentioned parents and guardians as perpetrators, nearly 26.4 % identified peers ,18.2% identified close relatives and 14.1 % identified others, such as neighbours and strangers. About 47.2 % of all school children who had reported to have experienced physical violence identified teachers as perpetrators, while 20 %% mentioned their parents/guardians, and 10 % % mentioned other students. Of all students who stated to have experienced negligent treatment within six months up to the time of the study, 61.9 %% implicated parents or guardians as perpetrators. Further, 16.2 % % identified matrons, patrons and school chefs, while 10.2 %% stated close relatives. Other categories identified were peers, mentioned by 5.1 %% and teachers mentioned by 4.6 %%. When students were asked who abused them sexually when at home, they mentioned boys in their neighbourhood, motorcycle drivers, students from schools, house-helps, cousin's stepfathers and uncles. On the other hand, students were asked to mention who abused them on the way to and from school, most of them mentioned motorcycle drivers-(i.e. bodaboda and bajaji drivers), followed by boys they meet along the way; public bus conductors, and peers. Over half of them, 51.9%% implicated others i.e., neighbours and strangers as perpetrators of sexual violence, while 26.2 %%mentioned other students, 9.7%% mentioned close friends and 8.3 %% mentioned close relatives.

Perceptions on violence against school children: The study learnt that violence against children meant differently to different people, and that, there is no consensus about what constitutes violence against children in general and school children in particular. There are also disagreements regarding the possibility of having and upholding a standard, universal conception of violence. The majority of stakeholders, especially parents, are of the view that denying a child any of the basic child rights (education, food, healthcare, etc.) equals to violence against children. A significant number of stakeholders indicated that an act can only be considered as violence against a child if it is based on bad intentions, malice, anger or frustration. If the intention is good then it cannot be thought of as violence. Other stakeholders hold the view that if something is accepted in a particular community, then it cannot be considered as violence, because neither the perpetrator nor the victim perceives it as such. Other respondents hold the view that violence occurs when there is bodily harm to a child, considered as crossing the line, and not just inflicting pain, because it is through the pain that, sometimes children learn to differentiate good and bad behaviours especially through punishment. There were also disagreements on whether it is appropriate to apply punishments to children or not. Some respondents were of the view that if a child already knows that to do a certain thing is wrong, they need to be punished if they do it. Others are of the view that children need to be cautioned, guided and but not punished. The latter often were of the view that when a child is disobedient, it's more of a fault of those who are responsible for the child than the child him/herself.

The general conclusion of this study is: All forms of violence are highly prevalent among school children, with physical and psychological forms of violence being the most dominant, while the ones of sexual nature and negligence. The findings from this study underscore the importance of understanding stakeholders' views in general, and victim's (children) own views in particular regarding their experiences and witnesses of violence, to be able to recommend meaningful ways to address the issues. Findings from this study highlight the significance of zooming in and examining the problem of violence against children. The focus on school children specifically, allowed the rural-urban settings, secondary-primary schools, public-private owned school, female-male relationships, difficult to be seen in a blanket of VAC analysis. Further analysis will also be able to shed light on regional and district-wide variations. It is also clear from this study that violence is a complex and context-specific issue. While the overall picture is essential for policy and broad-based programmatic intervention. Strategic interventions need to be informed by in-depth analysis of the problem as it is perpetuated and manifests itself in local contexts. It is important to have a consensus about what is violence, and that consensus needs to be shared across society. In the context of VASC, while the prevalence and magnitude proportions of various forms of violence are significant, it is important to consider that violence is an indicator of vulnerability, and that violence is shrouded by cultural, social and established practices (normalisation) and therefore the norm is that it is obscure than apparent. Looked from this perspective, smaller proportions are incredibly significant because first, they often highlight acute cases, and second, when extrapolated to the total number of schools going children, the actual number of victims will be high.

Recommendations

Some of the emerging recommendations from this study include:

- Advocacy and support in the development of schools' discipline policy: Education Regulation, 2002 on corporal punishment is not sufficient as a school discipline policy. The study found that all the schools i.e. secondary and primary, in rural and urban settings, and private and public owned have discipline teachers, but they do not have an explicit school discipline policy.

- Intervention programmes should target to empower school children individually and collectively to be active actors and the epicentre of their protection.

- Designing, developing and piloting a comprehensive School Child Protection Plan and Programme (SCPP) that can be scaled up to be a national model.

- Advocacy and support for the development of school child protection policy: It is recommended that a thorough review of the Circular No. 11 of 2001 on Guidance and Counselling (G&C) be advocated for, and a comprehensive school child protection policy be developed to guide public and private schools, at both primary and secondary levels.

- Deploying and developing teachers' and councillors' in schools. While more than 80 % of all interviewed students reported that there are designated teachers or counsellors in their respective schools, there are strong indications that these counsellors are not particularly effective. This study recommends bridging of the current gap where teachers have limited specific training on child protection, child empowerment and gender issues through training and development programs. The capacity of teachers to deal with their stress, school setting violence including interpersonal violence between students and cyberbullying should be undertaken. Evidence-based interventions should be tested for upscaling, for example, the Interaction Competencies with Children for Teachers (ICC-T) piloted in Tanzania (see Nkuba et al. 2018).

- Dialogue between teachers, parents, relevant community stakeholders and authorities regarding violence against school children should be formalised and effective strategies and coordinated collaboration instituted.

- The National Integrated Case Management System ((NICMS) offers a great avenue for all-around protection of school-going children, this, however, needs to be customised to the plight of non-school going children.

- Regional and district-level studies on violence against schoolchildren studies and statistics should be undertaken to ensure that context-specific patterns of violence are unveiled and context-specific intervention strategies developed.

1. Introduction

A Tanzanian Swahili maxim '*Watoto ni Taifa la Kesh*o' meaning '*Children are the Future of the Nation*' underscores the significance placed on children in the country. This is in the backdrop of a well-established fact that particularly in the African settings, children have multi-faceted intrinsic value at family and community levels. These include securing conjugal ties, offering social security, assisting with labour, conferring social status, securing rights of property and inheritance, providing continuity through re-incarnation, maintaining the family lineage, and satisfying emotional needs (Dyer, 2007:69).

Despite the indisputable value of children, the social-cultural meaning of childhood is neither uniform nor static[1] and neither are childhood experiences, especially because ideas about what constitutes a 'child,' 'childhood,' and 'ideal childhood' are subjective and shrouded in contestation. In some cultures, for instance, there are rites of passage[2] indicating the transition from childhood to adulthood. In such communities completing certain culturally or socially institutionalised rituals attribute adulthood to an individual regardless of their age. As Thompson (1990) noted, "…a rite of passage formalises and institutionalises personal and family changes into a series of forms that symbolise end celebrate the importance of developmental changes".

Ordinarily, perceptions on what constitutes ideal childhood resonate with discrete and collective child-rearing practices because these are informed by a respective community's culture, its respective customs, norms, values, morals as well as 'economy (Mnzava, 2017:8). In that regard, Kraftl 2006 noted that ideal notions of childhood are context-specific[3]. This is because childhood experiences closely correspond with the meaning members of the society individually and/or collectively foster about children. In similar conviction, Pasura et al (2012:210) conclude that "…there is no universal definition of childhood since childhood reflects the social, economic, cultural and historical contexts within which children are embedded and childhoods are socially constructed out of this meld." Further significance is that there is a coexistence of the ideal childhood experience alongside discrete childhood experiences. This refers to a continuum wherein on one side there are collective childhood experiences and on the other individual childhood experiences. In such a continuum, the two can either be closely aligned or significantly different on a case to case basis, i.e. from society to society, community to community, household to household, or child to child. For that reason, the concept of 'natural rights' is employed to establish universal standards for 'childhood' and 'ideal childhood.' This particular perspective envisages a coherent and uniform idea of childhood and ideal childhood experience hence common definition of a 'child' and designation that universally, each child is born with certain inalienable rights that should be ensured irrespective of their geographical, religious, social, cultural, economic or political contexts (Mnzava, op cit.)

Based on the foregoing, the primary goal is to institutionalise ideal childhood pioneered by universal standards, ensure it becomes the norm at the household and community levels, and in each nation (Bissell, 1999). Respectively, as a foundation for promoting, advancing and realising universal child rights, the children's rights movement promote for universal child protection through national adoption and legislative localisation of universal child rights standards.

The World Health Organisation (1996)[4] defines violence as "The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, that either result in or have a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, maldevelopment or deprivation." This

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1   Zelizer (1985) for instance extensively explain the evolution of cultural meanings of childhood in the West, and the subsequent emergence of the exaltation of children's sentimental worth and the institutionalisation of societal commitment to the welfare of children.

2   See Van Gennep, A.(1960) The Rites of Passage. London and Henley: Routledge and Kegan Paul

3   See for instance the case of Britain as described by Hendrick, H. (1997) Constructions and Reconstructions of British Childhood: An Interpretative Survey, 1800 to the Present. In A. James & A. Prout (eds.) Constructing and Reconstructing Childhood: Contemporary Issues in the Sociological Study of Childhood. London and New York: RoutledgeFalmer

4   See WHO Global Consultation on Violence and Health, (1996). Violence: A public health priority. Geneva: World Health Organization, (document WHO/ EHA/SPI.POA.2).

definition is particularly relevant for this study because besides clearly identifying death and injury as possible consequences of violence, it also highlights other myriad and often inconspicuous ramifications such as psychological harm, deprivation and maldevelopment that compromise the well-being, particularly of victims. These elements are especially pertinent to schoolgoing children because they have direct and indirect implications on their educational experience and learning outcomes. Due to the dire health consequences of violence and its heightened prevalence, WHO in 1996 declared violence a leading worldwide public health problem. [5]Consequently as a result of the noted high prevalence and exacerbating incidents of violence, preventing and responding to violence against children is recognised as an important child protection attribute.[6]

Violence against children is related to varying immediate, long-term and an enduring potential for life-long consequences (Hills, et al, 2017). Also, violence in schools and other education settings causes serious harm to children and adolescents that can last into adulthood (UNESCO (2017). Article 19 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child[7], specifically stipulates violence against children to constitute "…all forms of physical or mental violence, injury and abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment or exploitation, including sexual abuse." In the same inclination, violence against children is described as constituting "…all forms of physical and/or emotional ill-treatment, sexual abuse, neglect or negligent treatment or commercial or other exploitation resulting in actual or potential harm to the child's health, survival, development or dignity in the context of a relationship of responsibility, trust, or power" (WHO, 1999:15). In that sense, child protection entails "…preventing and responding to violence, exploitation and abuse against children, including commercial sexual exploitation, trafficking, child labour and harmful practices such as female genital mutilation and child marriage." (UNICEF, 2006:1).

Children are not a homogenous group and they exist in diverse settings, for example, there are out of school children and in-school children, street children, children living in home settings, young children and teenagers, and many other categories of children. The different categories and settings can significantly determine childhood experiences, including experiences of violence. Violence against children, in general, is a complex social problem which inevitably manifests itself differently in a range of settings. Therefore, to progress closer to universal child rights, (including universal child protection) it is essential to identify and understand the myriad ways and diverse settings children are victims of violence. The gaps identified in this study is that there is a national-level research report illuminating on the general state of violence against children, namely Violence Against Children in Tanzania, (2011) Report, however, we have very limited studies that zoom in on specific categories and settings of children.

In contemporary Tanzania, as a requirement of the education policy, children increasingly spend more of their childhood as pupils/students. The Tanzania Education Policy made education compulsory from pre-school through primary level up to ordinary secondary school level. In this context, the majority of Tanzanian children will spend most of their childhood as students, and consequently spend most of their day time in the school settings alongside time en-route to and from the schools. Furthermore, with the fee-free education policy, the majority of children are/or should be in school. The facts inevitably place the education settings in an exceptionally strategic position to be an indispensable partner in preventing and redressing violence against schoolchildren happening in the school settings and other settings as well. This study, therefore, focuses on school children as a specific category of children.

Several studies have concluded that violence negatively affects children's learning. McGaha-Garnett (2013:1) for instance found that "…exposure to violent home and community environments, as well as an injury due to violence, contribute to both reduced academic progress and increased disruptive or unfocused classroom behaviour." Similarly, Lloyd (2018) found that violence in children's lives often causes disruption to their schooling and harms the quality of their educational experiences and outcomes. Again, Koppensteiner,

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5   WHO (1996) WHA49.25 Prevention of violence: A public health priority. Hbk Res., Vol. III (3rd ed.), 1.11. Geneva: World Health Organization

6   See UNICEF (2017) Preventing and Responding to Violence Against Children and Adolescents: Theory of Change. New York: UNICEF

7   UN General Assembly, Article 19, Convention on the Rights of the Child. www.ohchr.org/en/professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx

& Menezes (2019) found that exposure to violence leads to a substantial deterioration in the educational performance of school children and negatively affects their aspirations and attitudes towards education.

As Akbiyik (2018:5) posits, in contemporary times "…memorizing, repeating and practising is just not enough to be a successful student anymore. Students are expected to search for information, to ask questions, to be creative, to solve problems." As such contemporary learners are expected to think deeply, laterally, critically, creatively and flexibly, which inevitably require a friendly learning environmental setting, at home, at school, en route to and from school, in the community and the cyberspace. Save the Children-Sweden (2016:7) explicate that violence against children impacts their general wellbeing and development; that it has a significant impact on school enrolment and attendance, often evidenced in reported drop-out rates and rates of absenteeism, and that it strongly impacts their academic achievement. Based on the foregoing, a violent environmental setting would naturally affect learners and substantially negatively affect their learning as well as their capacity to learn.

Based on the backdrop of the well documented harmful consequences of violence against children in general and the negative impact violence has in particular on children's learning, this study aims to explore the nature, prevalence, magnitude, perceptions and perpetration of violence against schoolchildren in mainland Tanzania. This study intends to attain a preliminary understating of the problem to inform education stakeholders' intervention strategies for effective prevention and response, as well as to ignite and contribute to a national policy debate on violence against school children in the country.

1.1   The objective of the Study

The main objective of this study was to explore the state of violence against schoolchildren in mainland Tanzania. The specific objectives that guided this study were:

- To investigate the nature, prevalence and magnitude of violence against schoolchildren in mainland Tanzania.

- To identify the perpetrators of violence against schoolchildren in mainland Tanzania.

- To explore stakeholders' perceptions of violence against schoolchildren in mainland Tanzania

- To specify the main causes of violence against schoolchildren and persistent barriers to overcoming the plight in mainland Tanzania.

- To highlight notable innovations to redress violence against schoolchildren in mainland Tanzania.

- Recommend practical ways to restrain violence against school children.

1.2   Study area and coverage

The study was conducted in sixteen (16) regions and thirty-two (32) districts of mainland Tanzania. The regions of Tanzania were distributed into their respective geographical zones. Subsequently, the number of regions each zone should contribute in the study was determined by computing 50% of regions in the zone. The specific regions were then selected through simple random sampling. The regions which were involved in the study were Lindi and Ruvuma from Southern Zone; Njombe, Katavi and Songwe from Southern Highlands Zone; Dodoma and Singida from Central Zone; Shinyanga and Kigoma from West Lake Zone; Mwanza and Mara from Lake Zone; Pwani and Tanga from Coastal Zone; and Kilimanjaro, Manyara and Arusha from Northern Zone.
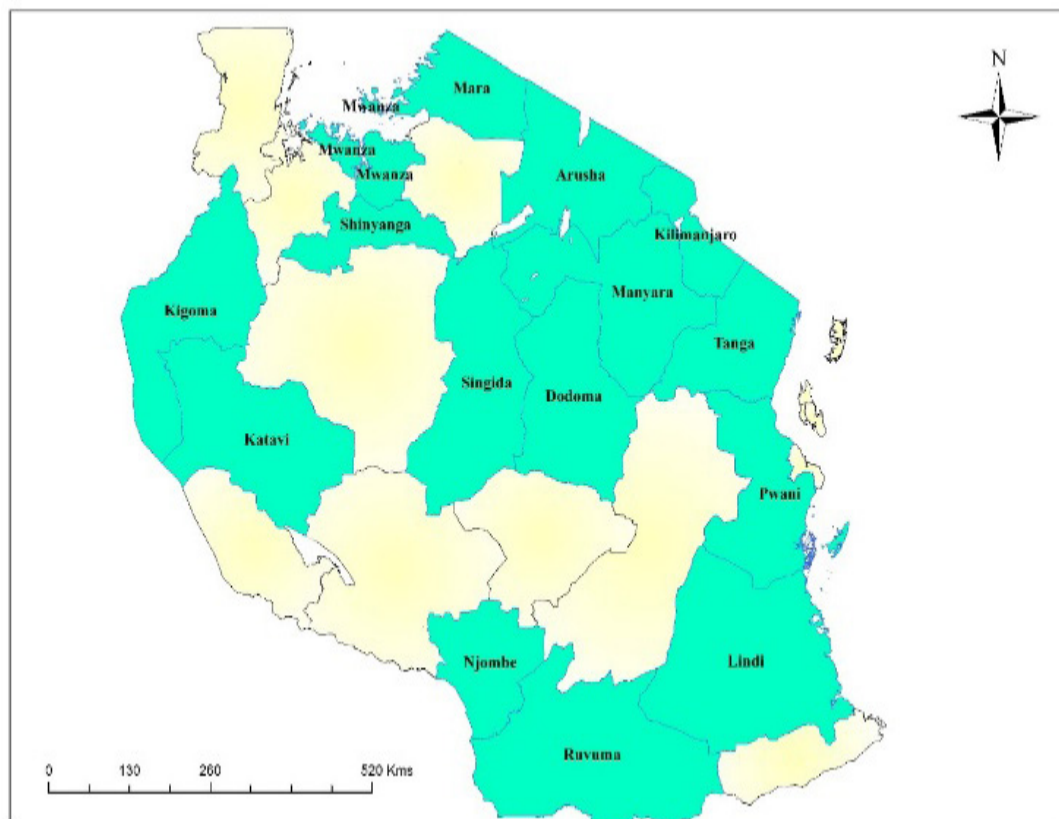
Figure 1: Map of Tanzania mainland showing regions involved in the study

2. Methodology

2.1. Conceptual framework

- This study is guided by the Ecological Model as applied to child maltreatment by Belsky (1984). Operationalised in the context of child maltreatment, the ecological model incline to a transactional and multilevel explanation of violence against school children. The main assumption of this approach is that the combined influence of the self (the individual), the family, the community, and the larger culture affect the developmental outcomes for children. Child, parent, and environmental characteristics combine to shape the probabilistic course of the development of maltreated children. These multi-levels are:

- Ontogenic Development: apart from guiding the assessment of how a particular person (parent, teacher, student, administrator etc) grows to behave in an abusive manner, specific and relevant to this particular study is that in this level the theory guides to explore the attachment issues. The potential for children to learn optimally has been related to the quality relationships they build with their peers, their teachers, their primary caregivers and other individuals who have regular interaction with the child.

- The microsystem: Specific to this study the microsystem dimension examined the immediate context of violence against school children. This included specifying the context in which violence against schoolchildren takes place and includes the family system, the maltreatment itself, and both parent and child characteristics.

- The exosystem contains environmental elements that have a profound influence on a child's development, even though that child is not directly involved with them. Specific to this study this dimension helped the study examine the interaction between the child and family within larger social structures, including both formal and informal structures and the influences they exert on the family thereby determining the experience of a child particularly how they can be correlated with violence against school children. These elements that will be examined include work, neighbourhood, school, formal and informal support networks, socioeconomic status, and available social services.

- The macrosystem: This dimension helped the study examine the embeddedness of the individual, community, and family within the larger cultural fabric. Things that were looked at include the legislative and policy framework; the cultural and social norms influencing behaviour and practices such as the value placed on physical punishment for disciplining children as well as localised initiatives undertaken by national and international civil societies.

2.2. Research design

This is an exploratory study designed to facilitate a fresh understanding from data undertaken through a 'descriptive-interpretive' methodology.' It is exploratory because essentially it is broad-ranging, primarily purposive and a systematic pre-determined undertaking, envisaged to maximise the discovery of specific albeit limited generalisations leading to description and understanding of the violence against schoolchildren phenomena in Tanzania mainland. In this regard the descriptive-interpretive approach in this qualitative study targets to adhere to rigorous scientific processes of qualitative methodology supplemented by quantitative methodology on one hand, and the other an extensive distinctive orientation of the researcher.

In this study, the 'descriptive' dimension seeks to portray the kinds of varieties in which violence against schoolchildren manifests itself and its constitutive aspects. The descriptive dimension will also help in clustering the continuum of the settings of violence against schoolchildren and who are the perpetrators. As such the study will cluster the forms, genres and/or diversity violence against schoolchildren appear in, and its aspects. The 'interpretive' dimension on the other hand explore 'why' violence against children comes

about and how has it has been unfolding over time. This allows the study to attempt to get explanations of questions such as why violence against school children is increasing, subsiding or remaining unchanged. How does it unfold over time and what influences those changes? Respective to violence against school children, the study anticipates unearthing diverse generalisations i.e. specific statements or concepts that will be obtained from the studied cases. These will include among other things, descriptive facts, folklore concepts, cultural orientations, structural arrangements, social-economic processes, convictions, beliefs and belief systems.

2.3. Sampling strategy, sample description and data collection techniques

The stratified multistage sampling design was used to determine schools, students and parents or guardians who participated in the study. Sample sizes reflected 80 % confidence interval. An additional 10 % sample of parents or guardians and students was used to address non-respondents or incomplete questionnaires.

- **Selection of the regions and districts**: In the first case all Tanzania mainland regions were grouped into 7 zones and then due to budget and time constraints, 50% of the regions within each zone were sampled and included in the study. In each sampled region, two districts were chosen based on rural/urban localities.

- **Selection of Schools:** In each district, a pool of 4 schools were randomly selected, in which 2 were secondary schools and 2 primary schools. Beneath sampling of schools by its type, the study also ensured 50-50% weight between public and private composition of the schools in every district. Successively a total of 64 secondary schools and 64 primary schools were randomly selected to participate in the study. Of the 64 secondary schools selected, 32 are located in rural districts, and 32 are located in urban districts and 32 secondary schools are privately owned and other 32 secondary schools are publicly owned. Of the 64 primary schools selected for the study, 32 are located in rural districts and 32 in urban districts also 32 primary schools are privately owned and other 32 primary schools are publicly owned. In that regard, there is a substantial representation of schools by ownership, school type and their localities, however, given the coverage wasn't in all regions and districts in Tanzania hence it will be very ambitious and even impractical to generalise the findings. For clarity of selection of schools and their respective locations and ownership (see Table 1 and Table 2 annexed).

- **Selection of Students:** A two-stage Probability Proportional to Size (PPS) sampling method was used to sample the number of students required for the study. Using the 2019 year school enrolment data collated from the Open Government Portal (http://opendata.go.tz/), the districts and regions enrolment by genders and school type were collated and grouped into zones to form a population (based on school type) and then a sample size per zone was determined using the formula: $n = (z^2 p (1-p) N)/ (e^2 (N-1)+z^2 p (1-p))$. Whereas: n = Sample size; z = standard variate at a given confidence level, i.e. 80 %; p = 0.5; N = Population size; and e = Margin of error, at 5 %. There-after Probability Proportional to Size (PPS) was used to determine the number of students that will participate in study per each selected school. Overall the sample size to be reached was 1149 students and the actual reach was 1824.

In each school, systematic random sampling was used to select students with a 50-50% split on the number of girls and boys per each class. The first step was to divide the required sample size with the number of targeted classes to determine the sample size per class in each school. Afterwards, the total number of students from each targeted class in every school was divided by the sample size required to form the interval number (kth number). The students in each class were each given unique numbers and the sample was drawn after every kth number. The starting number was any number below the kth number. Clarification for the number of students, distribution by gender and computation of sample size.

As shown in Table 1 below, overall 1824 (837 male and 987 female) students participated in the survey. Male students were 45.9 % and female students were 54.1 % of the total students' survey participants. 1014 students (459 male and 555 female) which is 55.6 % of the total number of students who participated were from urban areas and 810 students (378 male and 432 female) which is 44.4 % were from rural areas. The distribution of the sample size between secondary and primary students was approximately equal were 919 (50.4 %) students were from primary schools and 905 (49.6 %) were from secondary schools.

Location	Sex	Private		Public		Grand Total		
		Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary	Total
Urban	Male	81 (49.1%)	84 (50.9%)	161 (54.8%)	133 (45.2%)	242 (52.7%)	217 (47.3%)	459 (45.3%)
	Female	97 (43.1%)	128 (56.9%)	175 (53.0%)	155 (47.0%)	272 (49.0%)	283 (51.0%)	555 (54.7%)
	Total	178 (45.6%)	212 (54.4%)	336 (53.8%)	288 (46.2%)	514 (50.7%)	500 (49.3%)	1014 (55.6%)
Rural	Male	40 (58.0%)	29 (42.0%)	160 (51.8%)	149 (48.2%)	200 (52.9%)	178 (47.1%)	378 (46.7%)
	Female	41 (43.6%)	53 (56.4%)	164 (48.5%)	174 (51.5%)	205 (47.5%)	227 (52.5%)	432 (53.3%)
	Total	81 (49.7%)	82 (50.3%)	324 (50.1%)	323 (49.9%)	405 (50.0%)	405 (50.0%)	810 (44.4%)
Grand Total	Male	121 (51.7%)	113 (48.3%)	321 (53.2%)	282 (46.8%)	442 (52.8%)	395 (47.2%)	837 (45.9%)
	Female	138 (43.3%)	181 (56.7%)	339 (50.7%)	329 (49.3%)	477 (48.3%)	510 (51.7%)	987 (54.1%)
	Total	259 (46.8%)	294 (53.2%)	660 (51.9%)	611 (48.1%)	919 (50.4%)	905 (49.6%)	1824 (100.0%)

Table 1: Description of school children who participated in the survey

- **Selection of Parents:** The study also involved parents/caregivers of the students who have been selected for the study. The study targeted a response rate of 25% for parents or guardians who are primary caregivers of the secondary students and 25% of parents or guardians who are primary caregivers of the primary students. As presented in table 5.2, respectively, the study interviewed a total of 669 parents. Of the total number of parents involved in study 442 (61.1.0%) are parents with primary school pupils while 227 (33.9%) are parents with secondary school students. Furthermore, 357 (53.4 %) of parents were from urban schools and 312 (46.6 %) were from rural schools. In primary schools, 240 (54.3 %) of parents are from urban schools while 202 (45.7 % are from rural/ periphery schools, while in secondary schools, 117 (51.5 %) of parents were from urban schools and 110 (48.5 %) were from rural/periphery schools. Overall, there were more female parents interviewed both at primary and secondary schools 405 (60.5%) compared to male parents (39.5%).

School type	Sex	Urban	Rural/ Periphery	Total
Primary	Male	85 (19.2%)	81 (18.3%)	166 (37.6%)
	Female	155 (35.1%)	121 (27.4%)	276 (62.4%)
	Total	240 (54.3%)	202 (45.7%)	442 (66.1%)
Secondary	Male	43 (18.9%)	55 (24.2%)	98 (43.2%)
	Female	74 (32.6%)	55 (24.2%)	129 (56.8%)
	Total	117 (51.5%)	110 (48.5%)	227 (33.9%)
Grand Total	Male	128 (19.1%)	136 (20.3%)	264 (39.5%)
	Female	229 (34.2%)	176 (26.3%)	405 (60.5%)
	Total	357 (53.4%)	312 (46.6%)	669 (100.0%)

Table 2: Description of parents who participated in the survey

2.4.   Data management and analysis

Quantitative data employed mobile data collection whereby questionnaires were designed in electronic format and data collection was carried out through the use of smartphones. Data was downloaded from the mobile data collection platform for cleaning. The data cleaning exercise involved checking the interview completion time as well as consistency checks. Consistency check involved screening data flag incidences where data is out of range, logically inconsistent or have extreme values. The data cleaning exercise also involved the treatment of gaps or missing information. The cleaned dataset was exported to SPSS V20 for analysis. The analysis involved cross-tabulation and finding the average and median for specific variables of interest. The analysis was informed by analysis plan (dummy tables) which focused on key research areas mainly information about living arrangements, household economic situation, child protection and social protection. Due to a combination of multiple variables, findings were presented in table format while Ms. Excel was used for creating a visualization.

Qualitative was collected using two main techniques, first brainstorming sessions and second focus group discussions. Brainstorming sessions targeted institutional child protection stakeholders' i.e. national level, regional level, district level and the combined session forward and village level and non-state child protection actors, such as international organisations, non-governmental organisations and community leaders such as leaders of religious bodies. Focus group discussions were conducted with teachers, parents and students.

Data from brainstorming sessions were analysed using affinity diagramming technique (also known as affinity mapping or collaborative sorting), which constitute organising related facts into distinct clusters. In a research context, either solitary and frequently appearing issues or ideas in the same or different sessions are noted. Focus group discussions were concisely noted and textual data were thematically analysed. The thematic analysis process involved manual reading, identifying and highlighting flagged or recurring issues relevant to the research questions. Ultimately data clusters from brainstorming sessions and thematic issues from FGDs were coalesced into thematic areas along with VASC components and synthesizing central messages by associating distinct units of meaning.

2.5.   Ethical Considerations

The study attained a research permit from the Tanzania Commission of Science and Technology (COSTECH), and ethical clearance from the National Health Research Ethics Review Committee of the National Institute for Medical Research (NIMR). The study also attained permission to undertake the research from the President's Office Regional Administration and Local Government. The study also prepared customised informed consent forms for all categories of respondents in both Kiswahili and English languages. The informed consent forms were prepared for teachers and parents/guardians identified to participate in the study; for parents/guardians to give permission for their sampled school-going children to participate in the study, and for institutional-based and community-based child protection stakeholders to participate in the study. The study faithfully executed the protocol for attaining informed consent from all respondents involved in the study.

3.   Literature Review

3.1.   Introduction

In contemporary societies, ending violence against children is considered a legal and ethical imperative. Respectively, the United Nation's driven 2030 Agenda for sustainable development goals earmark zero violence against all children with no child is left behind. The main objective of this study is to explore the current state of violence against schoolchildren in Tanzania with the intention of recommending further policy and programmatic measures towards redressing that plight. In that respect, this narrative literature review attempts to concisely highlight existing literature relating to the specific objectives of the study and as well as with respect to the identified settings pertinent to violence against school children.

3.2.   Tanzania's policies and legal framework on violence against school children

Tanzania is among the African countries pioneering policy, legislative and strategic efforts to ensure universal child protection in the country. In 1991 the United Republic of Tanzania ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC),1989, which is the seminal international instrument that recognises, stipulates, and advances the protection of violence against children. The UNCRC specifically obligates ratifying states to legislatively localise stipulated child rights, to protect and enforce those rights and to eliminate all forms of violence or maltreatment of children.

The prevailing Child Development Policy Tanzania (CDPT), of 2008 explicitly localises UNCRC's child rights standards. The respective child protection right is variously codified in Tanzania the Law of the Child Act (LCA), No. 21 of 2009. For example, LCA's Section 9 confers parental duty and responsibility which Sub-section (2) stipulate to include protecting children from neglect, discrimination, violence, abuse, exposure to physical and moral hazards and oppression. Section 12 protects children from harmful employment and Section 13 protect them from torture and degrading treatment. Section 83 protects children against sexual exploitation.

Furthermore, the Tanzania Sexual Offences (Special Provisions) Act (SOSPA) No. 4 of 1998 and the Tanzania Penal Code Cap 16, has provisions that are crafted to protect children, hence by extension school children against sexual exploitation. Specifically, SOSPA Sec. 5; and the Penal Code Section 130 (2) (e) specify the age of consent to sex to be 18 years old and above. In this regard individuals aged 17 or younger in Tanzania are not legally able to consent to sexual activity. For that reason, any person who engages in any form of sexual activity with a minor (i.e., a child below 18 years of age) can be prosecuted for statutory rape. While SOSPA Section 4, and the Penal Code Section 15 (3) state that, A male person under the age of twelve years is presumed to be incapable of having sexual intercourse. "The law is silent on children above 12 years and below 18 years of age who engage in sexual activities with their peers. It is advanced that such a grey area shouldn't exist and therefore should be legislatively provided for. Specifically protecting students from being married, the Written Laws (Miscellaneous Amendment) (No.2) Act, 2016 amends the Education Act, CAP. 353, by prohibiting and criminalising marriages involving school-going male and female children from primary to secondary school. Further inclining towards legislatively eliminating child marriage in Tanzania, which often mostly affect school-going children; on 8th July 2016, a landmark decision of the High Court of Tanzania in Miscellaneous Civil Cause No. 5 of 2016 found to be unconstitutional provisions of Section 13 and 17 of the Law of Marriage Act (CAP 29 R.E. 2002). The respective sections allowed female children who have reached 15 years old to be married with parental or guardians consent or by leave of the court. That judgement was upheld on 15th October 2019 by the Court of Appeal in Civil Appeal No. 204 of 2017. The two judgments direct the Attorney General to cause the amendment of those Sections.

There is an ongoing debate on whether corporal punishment is violence against children or not. The gist of the debate is in explicating the differences between the connotations associated with the concepts 'violence,' 'punishment' and 'disciplining.' Aras et al. (2016:303) state that, "While physical abuse is defined as actions

that may cause injuries or intend to injure, corporal punishment is defined as actions perpetrated to inflict pain rather than injury in order to control or correct the misconduct of children." Still, there are many indications that through legalised corporal punishment in school, the practice repeatedly and pervasively ignores instituted guideline and amount to violence.

The Education Act No. 25 of 1978 Section 60 (o) empowers the Minister responsible for education to develop regulations that provide and control for the administration of corporal punishment in schools. Respectively, the Education Circular No. 24 of 2002 was issued to guide on corporal punishment in Tanzanian schools. Legislatively, corporal punishment in schools is regulated through the Education (Corporal Punishment) Regulations, 2002 issued through Government Notice No. 294 of 2002. Furthermore, the government of Tanzania issued Circular No. 11 of 200111 and its Associated Guide,12 to enable the establishment of Guidance and Counselling (G&C) services for secondary schools with each school required to have teacher-counsellors to work with students and help solve their problems. It has been expected that if school counsellors are effective, they would contribute significantly to reducing incidences of violence against children.

The concrete National Action Plan towards realising child protection is stipulated in the currently active Five-year National Plan of Action to End Violence Against Women and Children (NPAVAWC 2017/18 – 2021/22). This plan of action is consistent with Agenda 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the African Union Commission's Agenda 2063 "The Africa We Want", which envisions a world where all children grow and live free from violence. This Action Plan specifically endeavours to address violence within educational settings, as elaborately incorporated in its 'Thematic Area 7: Safe Schools and Life Skills.' in October 2017, the Ministry of Health, Community Development, Gender, Elderly and Children (MoHCDGEC) adopted the National Integrated Case Management System (NICMS) Framework to connect and coordinate all service providers working with children across the different sectors of HIV/ health, protection, and social welfare.

NICMS is envisaged to be able to effectively coordinate referrals and services across a wide range of government sectors, particularly protection, justice, social welfare, HIV and AIDS, health and education in order to achieve the best outcomes for children. Moreover, in October 2018, the National Agenda for Responsible Parenting and Family Care (RPFC) in Tanzania was adopted. This agenda aims to ignite commitment across all sectors of Tanzanian society to engage and support parents, strengthen families and maintain positive, nurturing homes in which all children will thrive. While the agenda does not directly address school-going children, it is, however, emphatic about redressing violence, including violence against children.

3.3.   Nature, prevalence and magnitude of violence against school children

Review of literature for this study showed that there are ample global level, regional level and national level studies on the nature, prevalence and magnitude of violence against children (VAC). For example, in a report that involved data from 96 countries, Hills et al (2016), conservatively estimated that in a span of the year 2015, up to 1 billion children aged 2–17 years, experienced physical, sexual, or emotional violence or neglect. According to WHO (2020), annually at least 55 milli on children experience some form of violence (i.e., physical, sexual, emotional and psychological violence) in the WHO European Region.

Furthermore, it is estimated that in the United States of America approximately 700,000 children are abused annually. In India, violence against children incidences have been showing an upward trend with a significant increase of more than 500% over a period of the past one decade from 2006 to 2016. prior to that, a national-level study on violence against children in India found that two out of every three children and one out of every two children experienced physical and psychological violence, while one in two children have experienced incidents of sexual abuse.in China an estimated prevalence of child maltreatment between 1988–2013, puts physical abuse at 39.6%, emotional abuse 38.6%, sexual abuse 8.7% and neglect 41.2%.

In sub-Saharan Africa, it is estimated that two-thirds of children suffer physical violence, a quarter suffers emotional violence and a third of girls suffer sexual violence.18 In Tanzania, it is estimated that close to 3 out of 10 females and approximately 1 out of 7 males in Tanzania have experienced sexual violence prior to the age of 18 years. Furthermore, prior to reaching the age of 18 years, almost three-quarters of both females and males have experienced physical violence perpetrated by an adult or intimate partner, and one-quarter have experienced emotional violence perpetrated by an adult. Some of the existing regional level literature focusing specifically on violence against school children include a study by Save the Children Sweden (2016) which is using documents review explored the global prevalence of violence against school children in and around the school environment.

This study, for instance, states that corporal punishment is persistent and institutional throughout low- and middle-income countries, and that peer-to-peer-violence is common in all societies, regardless of income level. Furthermore, while this study indicates that sexual violence is pervasive among school children, it also highlights that 'neglect' is an extensively under-examined topic and that it is rarely included in parallel with other forms of violence against children. Another study conducted by UNESCO (2017:21-26) gives a glimpse of the global status, particularly on school violence and bullying. In this study, it was found that many children in both, developed and developing countries have been victims of bullying. Another study by UNICEF (2016) reports desk review findings on violence against children in education settings in South Asia.

This study found that country-specific evidence in various South Asian countries indicate that many school children are subjected to physical violence by teachers, school staff and peers. Some of the existing country-level studies on nature, prevalence and magnitude of violence specifically on school children are such as a study conducted among school children in India by Deb & Modak (2010). This study showed that approximately 18 to 21% of school children experience psychological, physical and sexual violence in school and at home settings. Findings in this study suggest that female students are more susceptible to sexual violence while male students are prone to experience physical and psychological violence.

In Tanzania, a study by Nkuba et al, (2018) which involved a nationally representative sample of secondary schools found that there is pervasive violent disciplining of school children in home settings. Furthermore, NAHDS, (2018:21) posits that levels of violence in Tanzanian schools are very high and that these levels of violence contribute to absenteeism in school for adolescent girls and boys. Overall, however, the literature review shows that while there are numerous studies on violence against children, there are however very scarce studies particularly in Tanzania, focusing specifically on violence against school children. The current study will therefore attempt to contribute towards filling that knowledge gap.

3.4. Perpetrators of violence against school children

Designing effective interventions to halt violence against schoolchildren incontrovertibly require identification of perpetrators. While specific incidences identify veritable perpetrators of particular offences, policy and programmatic interventions requisite an identification category of perpetrators. This section concisely reviews literature respective to what other studies have identified as principal perpetrators of violence against school children.

Findings of a study a systematic review of relevant school-based literature from about 171 countries by Devries et al (2018) indicate that the principal perpetrators of physical and emotional violence of school children are household members followed by students' peers, while the principal perpetrators of sexual violence particularly for female children are intimate partners. This study also found a high prevalence of physical violence from teachers towards students. Deb & Modak (2010), in a study conducted in India, found that the most common perpetrators of violence against school children were parents and teachers, followed by relatives and elder siblings. The report by the office of the SRSG (2016:7) also flagged teachers and other school staff as likely perpetrators of violence against schoolchildren, stating that in sub-Saharan

Africa it is not uncommon to find teachers bribing female students with higher grades or reduced school fees or supplies in exchange for sex, or blackmailing or forcing girls to have sex with them, for instance by threatening them with bad grades or with not giving them certificates.

In a study that involved primary school children in Uganda, Wandera et al (2017) found that perpetrators of violence against school children include their school peers, school staff and family members. A study conducted in Israel by Khoury-Kassabri et al (2008) brings to the fore high prevalence of students' perpetrated violence toward peers and slightly lower but in no way negligible perpetration against teachers. Furthermore, in this study high levels of students' violence toward peers and teachers were closely associated with the low social-economic status of students' families. Further to students' peer perpetrated violence, a study focusing on West and Central Africa by Antonowicz (2010:23), found that male students, especially in secondary schools, are largely responsible for sexual violence in and around schools, taking advantage of their situation of superiority and abusing younger and weaker children, particularly female students. A study conducted in Taiwan, by Chen & Astor, (2007), found a high prevalence of violence by students perpetrated against teachers. This study found that female teachers were more likely to be victims of violence, while students cited what they perceived as unreasonable expectations by teachers as a reason for violence.

In a study conducted in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania and Cape Town and Mankweng (South Africa) by Wubs et al (2009) it was found that among school children who are or have been in dating relationships, dating violence is pervasive and that it is often perpetrated by male partners regardless of whether the partner is a fellow student or not. In a study that examined teachers' professionalism in Tanzania, Anangisye & Barrett (2005), explicated that teachers were perpetrators of a range of violence against school children, including pervasively administering unauthorised corporal punishment, sexual violence against particularly female school children, and various forms of psychological violence including name-calling and public humiliations. In a study by Nkuba et al (2018) which involved a representative sample of secondary schools in Tanzania, more than 90% of all students reported exposure to violent disciplining by a parent and more than 80% of parents acknowledged using violent discipline techniques. In a study involving secondary schools in Chato District (Tanzania) conducted by George (2019) it was found that male teachers, male students, bodaboda riders, bus conductors, married men, fishermen and strangers are the key perpetrator of sexually related violence against female secondary school children.

The literature review indicates that categories of perpetrators of violence against school children are diverse and can be assorted along with the nature of the violence being perpetrated and the setting where violence takes place. In that respect school children are in constant risks of being subjected to different forms of violence committed by alternating categories of perpetrators in a continuum of settings. It is essential therefore to consistently flag out the perpetrators in an effort to design effective interventions to curb this problem.

3.5.   Perceptions of violence against school children

Perception is an important element in redressing violence against school children because of a functional relationship it has with behaviour (Dijksterhuis & Bargh, 2001). In exploring perceptions on violence against school children, the basic aim is to get an insight into how it is regarded, how it is understood, and how it is interpreted. Perception can be captured at the micro-level, which involve individuals such as school children themselves, parents, teachers, and discrete community members. In that inclination, Gumpel & Meadan (2000:392) posits that a pivotal first step in apprehending school-based violence is the discernment of the subjective perceptions used by different groups of school personnel namely pupils, teachers, and administrators. Perception can also be captured at a social level through an examination of among other things social perception and collective consciousness. Social perception is defined as the perception of social characteristics such as attitudes and opinions of individuals and groups (Gage & Exline, 1953:381).

It constitutes identifying and utilising social signals to make judgments about social roles, rules, relationships, context, or the characteristics, and as such recognised as a major force in the construction of social reality (Jussim, 1991). In this context social perception gives individuals comprehension of whether their own actions, behaviours, attitudes towards children are supported, condoned or spurned. The collective consciousness on the other hand consist of sets of shared beliefs, ideas, and moral attitudes that inform certain experiences and behaviours towards children. In that respect, collective consciousness is manifest in institutional and cultural arrangements, collective representations, self-conceptions, and self-referentiality (Burns & Engdahl, 1998). Collective consciousness is a point of reference for reflective activity, where people observe, monitor, judge, reorient and reorganise the self, consider what characterises the self, what self perceives, judges, could do, should do, or should not do (ibid.).

In a study conducted in Jerusalem, Israel, Gumpel & Meadan, (2000.) found that school-going children infer intentionality of the observed behaviour, as such they perceive behaviour to be violent when it is intentional and its effects are harmful. Another study also conducted in Israel by Benbenishty et al (2002) strongly associated students' personal experience with violence and perceived risk of experiencing or witnessing violence with fear of attending school. In another study conducted among middle school students in the United States of America, Quinn, et al (2007) found that most students perceived use of violence was crucial to defend themselves from other peers or to protect their family members. In this regard, despite their involvement in violence most of these students did not perceive themselves as violent.

In a study conducted in the United States of America, Smith & Smith (2006), a linked attrition rate of teachers to perceptions of violence. In this study it was found that teachers in urban schools perceived the threat of violence by students and by intruders from neighbourhoods surrounding schools to be very high which intensified the stress levels of many teachers hence the high attrition rates. In a study by Price and Everett (1997), involving principals of secondary schools in the United States of America, lack of parental supervision at home, lack of family involvement with the school, and exposure to violence in the mass media were perceived as the root causes of violence perpetrated by students in school settings. In a study which involved student teachers conducted in South Africa, Maree & Van Der Westhuizen (2010) school violence was perceived as damaging the trust between teachers and students, while teachers' inconstancy in dealing with incidents of violence was perceived as reinforcing to students the impression that they do not care.

Another study conducted in South Africa involving educators and learners of secondary school by Mwahombela (2004) explored and found that few educators and learners are able to accurately describe the concept of violence. This study also found divided perceptions of corporal punishment in school settings along the in-favour of and against, polemics. In a study involving school going primary and secondary school children and their respective parents undertaken in the Netherlands by Dehue et al (2008), it was learnt that most parents were often unaware of their children's engagement with cyberbullying or being victims of it. This may signal parents low awareness and limited knowledge on cyberbullying as well as limited capacity to handle cyberbullying.

In a study investigating perceptions about bullying behaviour in secondary school Tanzania, Ndibalema (2013) learnt that physical bullying was perceived as the dominant form of bullying. Furthermore, this study also learnt that teachers perceived corporal punishment as an effective way of controlling students' discipline. Again, in Tanzania, a study which involved social-legal child protection actors and sought to investigate their perceptions on child sexual abuse by Kisanga et al (2010) it was learnt that community members' negative perceptions of the judicial system, and their perception that sexual abuse is shameful, contributed to their passivity and non-cooperation with the judicial system in pursuit of justice in child sexual abuse cases. In a study that involved primary school age orphans in Tanzania by Hermenau et al (2015), it was learnt that perceived stigmatisation contributed to their psychological distress. In that respect perceived violence, even if not actual or intended, it can have a negative impact on school children.

In a study that involved dating school-going children in Dar es Salaam (Tanzania) and Cape Town and Mankweng (South Africa), Wubs et al. (2009), it was highlighted that dating violence among adolescents is perceived as common and that such behaviour is undergirded by expectations of male and female behaviour in adolescents' perceptions of their relationships. In this study, it was learnt that males were mostly associated with perpetration of violence while females are more often victims. In a study that involved heads of schools, school inspectors, district education officers, teachers, parents and students of selected ordinary level secondary schools in Bunda District, (Tanzania), undertaken by Machumu & Killugwe (2013), it was learnt that discipline management was perceived as crucial in improving students' academic performance. This study also learnt teachers employ different discipline management skills that in turn contribute to improving students' academic achievement and their behaviour for future life.

Furthermore, this study learnt that creating a positive school climate for learning among students was perceived as sufficient to bolster their achievement and reducing indiscipline behaviours. It is clear that there are diverse perception issues relating to violence against school children that can be investigated. Literature review for this study found that issues of perceptions variously pops up in studies on violence against school children, but that there is very limited research specifically addressing that subject in Tanzania. Furthermore, the review has shown that most of the existing studies on perceptions on violence against school children conducted elsewhere have responded to the exacerbating occurrences of usually high-profile school violence and a few on other incidences of school-based violence. Furthermore, most of these studies have sought to examine the perceptions of members of school settings namely students, teachers and school administrators. The review of the literature did not come across a study that explored community members' perceptions of school-based violence or violence against school children. This study will therefore identify and explore a few specific perception issues to pioneer this research agenda in violence against schoolchildren studies.

3.6.   Etiology of violence against school children

What are the root causes of violence against school children? This is an important question to address because apart from helping in explaining the problem, the answer can inform designing of interventions targeting the core of the malaise. There is ample literature shedding light on the causes of violence against children in general. It is acknowledged in the outset that causes of violence against children regardless of whether they are schoolchildren or not, naturally, apply to school children. However, the particular interest of this study is school children and identification of causes of violence that can be specifically associated with the fact that they are school children. This is important for two reasons. One it helps unveil issues that would otherwise be concealed if the limelight does not specifically zoom-in on school children and their specific experiences. Second, it provides a basis for expanding the hedge of interventions and stakeholders towards universal child protection. This section therefore identifies and concisely reviews literature that has addressed the question on the aetiology of violence against school children.

The root causes of violence are usually inclined to cultural beliefs about anger as well as acceptability of violence (Indermaur, 1996); both of which influence the decision to use violence. In the same inclination, documenting an expansive review of literature on the subject of gender violence in school settings, Leach & Humphreys (2007) stated that most of the violence in the school setting emanate from the societal patterns of gender violence. They highlight that violence in schools often reflect the cascaded unequal and antagonistic gender relations, which are tolerated and normalised by everyday school structures and processes.

On the other hand, looking at the experience of the United States, Devine (1996) posits that one of the factors leading to the abundance of violence in inner-city schools is overcrowding, strongly associating neighbourhoods and children's home settings with a culture of violence which is eventually imported in the school setting. Further on the experience of the United States, Sandhu & Aspy (2000), strongly associate school violence with gender and race issues, and effects of the media on public perceptions of

violent juvenile offenders. Some authors such as Harber (2002), hold that the source of violence in school settings include the various aspects of mass schooling and the ritualisation and legitimisation of corporal punishment used by schools against pupils in most countries.

Furthermore, poverty at household and community level has been closely related to child negligence and/or deprivation, physical, sexual and psychological violence (Drake & Pandey, 1996; Gelles, 1992). In a study that investigated the abuse of female students in African schools, Leach et al (2003), found that peer pressure and poverty contributed to female school children engaged in sex. Poverty for instance causes school girls to seek financial favours from older men in exchange for sex, a strategy authors capture as securing 'Sugar Daddies.' Again, in a study that investigated the causes of physical violence against children and neglect, Belsky (1993) concluded that there not only appears to be no single cause of child maltreatment but no necessary or sufficient causes.

In a study that involved selected secondary schools in Tanzania, Hecker, et al (2018), found a strong association between teachers' violent disciplining and teachers' stress levels, where burnout and job perceptions (pressure and difficulties in class) were noted to be leading triggers of teachers' stress. In a study that explored the effects of drug abuse among Tanzanian youths, Possi (1996), associated substance abuse among students with behavioural disorder including the perpetration of violence.

Again, in a study that among other things explored the causes of peer bullying among school children in Pwani and Dar es Salaam Regions of Tanzania, Hyera, et al (2010), related the problem to children's limited mediation skills, as well as children's lack of respect for others, empathy and caring. This thesis emanated from the fact that often bullied were different in some way, for example, low social economic status or being shy or withdrawn. In the same vein, Mwereke (2015), found that children with disabilities are specifically targeted and experience bullying in primary schools of Tanzania. In a study that involved adolescents, among whom 75 % were school-going children in Kilimanjaro (Tanzania), Sommer et al (2015) found that peer sexual violence perpetrated by boys is rooted in unmanaged intense sexual desire and strong peer pressure to have sex.

It is clear from this concise literature review that violence against school children is attributed to diverse reasons. However, it is also clear that the causes of the problem have received limited research attention. For that reason, patchy information with limited explanations of the root causes of is sprinkled across existing relevant literature. This study therefore, advances this research agenda by setting among its key objectives the exploring of the aetiology of violence against school children.

Learning has been described as a function of the learner's response to the environment (Wang & Lindvall, 1984:161). The environment is understood to comprise two broad dimensions in terms of facilitating learning outcomes. On one hand, it constitutes instructions, meaning the intentional manipulation of the learning environment to facilitate appropriate responses (Ibid), and on the other hand, it constitutes the lived experience of the learner. The latter has multiple implications for learning and learning outcomes. The lived experience consistently and variously imparts lessons to the learner, formerly and informally, intentionally and unintentionally. The nature of the lived experience further has an effect on the learners' capacity to learn and on the quality of learning itself. In this regard, the environment significantly facilitates appropriate or inappropriate responses, i.e., positive or negative learning outcomes, whether by design or as an unintended consequence.

In contemporary societies, school children's lived experience has mainly five environmental settings: the home setting, the community setting, the school setting, en-route to and from the school setting, and the cyber setting. Students' lived experiences in either one or a combination of these environmental settings can be a catalyst or barrier for learning. In that respect violence against school children is a complex problem because it can happen in all these diverse of settings, i.e., school, en-route to or from school, at home, in a community setting and increasingly in cyberspace (UNESCO, 2017).

3.7.   The relationship between violence and children's learning

There is mixed feedback on the impact of violence on learning. A meta-analysis of about 70 studies by Paolucci & Violato (2004) suggests that there are very small negative behavioural and emotional effects of corporal punishment and almost no effect of such punishment on cognition. On the other hand, Ferguson (2013:202) found that corporal punishment has a stronger effect on cognitive performance compared to spanking suggesting that the effects on cognitive performance are minimal when physical punishment does not detract from a nurturing environment under which learning most ideally occurs. Again, a longitudinal study by Straus & Paschall (2009) indicates that the more corporate punishment e.g. spanking, was experienced, the more children fell behind in terms of cognitive abilities than children who were not spanked.

Several studies however have established that violence results in cognitive and intellectual impairment and that children living with violence experience diverse negative impacts on learning. For example, Prothrow-Stith & Quaday (1995) posited that persistent exposure of children to violence either by them being victims of violence or by them witnessing violence in community settings impede their cognitive abilities.

They stated that violence experiences result in the development of problems of poor concentration, short attention span and decline in academic performance. In similar inclination, Devries (2016:1) contend that to a great extent violence experience is extensively related to differential outcomes in education with children who experience more violence more likely to do poorly in school. Again, Money (1982) illustrates that child abuse is related to IQ impairment and learning disability as well as psychosocial or abuse dwarfism, with delay in its arrest resulting in lasting consequences. Furthermore, according to McGaha-Garnett (2013:1) children who experience and are exposed to violence at home and/or community environments suffer from lowered social and emotional competence diminished academic performance, reduced academic progress and increased disruptive or unfocused classroom behaviour. In the same regard, Hecker et al (2016:6) found that harsh discipline including physical and emotional punishment resulted in internalising problems, which in turn is related to lower working memory capacity and lower school performance. Again, a study involving primary school-going children conducted in Tanzania by Hecker et al (2014:6-8) found a positive correlation between corporal punishment and all forms of children's externalising problems, as well as a negative correlation with prosocial behaviour, both of which have a negative influence on learning. It is also worth noting, as Benshoff et al (1994:164) stated, "Within schools, the discipline process has great potential for affecting both positively and negatively, not only student behaviour but also such critical areas as attitudes, self-concept, and self-esteem."

3.8.   Violence in the home settings and children's education

It has been long established that a stimulating home learning environment is critical for academic success and essential to complement and strengthen learning at school (Kellaghan, et al,1993). However, an age-old assumption that universally homes are children's natural havens against harsh realities of the world has been dispelled by increasing rates of physical, emotional, sexual abuse of children in home settings (Craig, 1992). Among other things, violence in the home setting negatively affects children's learning. For example, Kanchiputu & Mwale (2016) examining the impact on the education of children who experience violence in their home-settings in Mpemba locality of Blantyre District in Malawi, found that domestic violence against schooling children harms them emotionally, psychologically and physically and that when it persists such harm hinders the victims' learning process variously including inflicting the victim to lose interest in education.

Again, studies such as Assaad et al (2016) found that witnessing intimate partner violence (IPV) has a negative, statistically significant effect on most of the children's educational outcomes because it is associated to poorer school attendance and poorer academic grades, as well as increasing chances of students to repeat classes and/or to drop out of school. The effect on learning of violence happening in the home setting also

reverberates beyond the immediate children victims. For example, in their study, Carrell & Hoekstra (2010) found that children from troubled families significantly decrease the reading and math test scores of their peers and increase misbehaviour in the classroom.

3.9. Violence in the community settings and children's education

The community setting, including neighbourhoods, have the potential to contribute positively or cause harm to school children thereby to have an impact on their learning. Through a review of numerous studies, Christensen & O'Brien (2003) demonstrate that the community setting is essential for children's construction of social and cultural identity. They posit that it is crucial for the development of social competencies and attributes such as confidence as well as providing a setting for children's autonomous exploration. In this regard, the quality of the community setting is espoused to have enormous implication for nurturing and institutionalising crucial character, attitudinal, behavioural and personality attributes essential for learning. Prout (2003) advances that the contours of children's everyday life and experiences are shaped by the community setting, including the opportunities that are open or closed to children. He underlines for instance, that cities have become less child friendly; that social-economic classes determine different children urban experiences; and that children use of the urban environment can be dangerous.

The community setting therefore can have a fundamentally impact on children's learning. For instance, Guterman et al (2000:572) highlight that community violence experiences among children and youths are linked to a host of psychosocial sequelae including cognitive or academic delays, post-traumatic stress disorder, aggressive and delinquent behaviours and heightened anxiety and depression. In Swaziland, for instance, Reza et al (2009:1969) found that the most common perpetrates of sexual violence against girls i.e. female children younger than 18 years of age, were men or boys from the respondent's relations and neighbourhoods. Meaning that they were from either the home or community setting. Furthermore, Malik (2008) found that children functioning 22 difficulties, including internalising problems and depressive symptoms, are closely related to exposure to community violence. Similarly, Aisenberg & Ell (2005:856) described community violence as a cumulative stressor and noted that it can have severe detrimental effects on children's physical and emotional health as well as school and social functioning. Sharkey et al (2012) also found that community violence was closely associated with children's lower levels of attention and impulse control and lower academic skills, all of which negatively affect learning and learning outcomes.

3.10. Violence en-route 'to and from' school settings and children's education

En-route to or from school setting has also been identified as an avenue for school children to experience violence. Wiebe et al (2013:61) found that in Philadelphia, for instance, it was common for children to be concerned about being the victim of violence while travelling to school and that children felt safer when being accompanied by an adult. School transportation has also been identified as a violence risk avenue for students. Reza et al (2009:1970) found that in Swaziland sexual violence against girls tended to take place in public areas, on the journey to or from school, and in school buildings or on school grounds.

In Tanzania Mark (2009) found that one of a significant barrier for girls to access basic education is gender-based violence (GBV) they experience on their way to or from school. Sommarin et al (2014:2) also found that in Tanzania among other countries, sexual violence on children occur in a many setting, including at home, en route to and from schools, in schools, and in their immediate communities.

3.11. Violence in the school settings and children's education

Literature shows that students can also be victims of violence in school settings. In Tanzania for instance Yaghambe & Tshabangu (2013:48) noted that physical and corporal punishments are much more frequent compared to any other form of punishment. Furthermore, Due & Holstein (2008:122) found that every fourth school child in Tanzania has been a victim of bullying. Again, Mgalla et al (1998:24) in a study conducted in Mwanza, Tanzania found that "Male teachers raped, used other forms of coercion and their

position of authority to force girls to have sex." Interpersonal violence manifested in the form of physical fighting among students is also another dimension of violence experienced by students. Rudatsikira, et al (2007:3) found for instance high prevalence (50.6%) of female and male in-school students who have engaged in physical fights.

According to Ferrara et al (2019) "Children who experienced any type of violence at school may develop reactive attachment disorder, modest physical inactivity, overweight or obesity, diabetes, smoking habits, heavy alcohol use, poor self-rated health, cancer, heart disease, and respiratory disease and other negative outcomes." These behavioural issues and ailments have an inevitable potential of affecting their learning.

3.12. Violence in Cyber-setting and Children's Education

The cyber setting is an emerging medium of violence against school children in the contemporary world. For example, Burton & Leoschut (2013:76) found that in South Africa 20.9% of the students who participated in their study had experienced some form of cyber-bullying or online violence. In Kenya, UNICEF & Intermedia, (2013: 39) found that children aged between 12-17 frequently received hurtful messages through various cyber mediums. Again, Huesmann & Brotman (1994) demonstrate that repeated exposure to television violent scenes may alter children's attitudes about violence and teach them to behave aggressively because they do not only observe aggressive patterns of behaviour but also witness their acceptance and reinforcement.

Numerous studies have found that there is a consistent relationship between cyber-bullying and depression among children and adolescents (Hamm, et al. 2015). Violence in the cyber-setting has also been associated with negative education and learning outcomes. For examples, studies such as Patchin, & Hinduja (2010), found that there is a significant relationship between students' low self-esteem and experience of cyberbullying and that the latter can impact the ability of students to be successful at school. Similarly, Gini & Espelage (2014) found that cyberbullying causes educational harm and it is closely associated to be suicide ideation and suicide attempts among children and adolescents.

Specific to Tanzania, in a study involving secondary schools, Onditi (2017) found that cyberbullying is a growing problem among school-going children, and that online victimisation is closely associated with their negative emotional, social, cognitive, behavioural, and academic outcomes. Furthermore, Onditi (2018) found high uptake of cellphones and internet technologies among secondary school students in Tanzania, and notable incidences of online violence including cyberbullying and online sexual exploitation. Again, Joyce-Gibbons et al. (2018:80-83) exploring aspects of cyberbullying in two secondary schools of Tanzania, found that gender, type of school and level at secondary school are closely related to incidences of cyberbullying. Furthermore, findings in a study involving secondary school students by Onditi & Shapka, (2019) underscored the increasing prevalence of online violence perpetrated against school-going children. In this study, it was learnt that 42% of the students involved in the study reported having cyber-bullied others using electronic communication devices, and 58% stated that they have experienced cyber victimisation.

On the basis of the foregoing, it is evident that globally and locally, there is substantial literature with respect to violence against children. The literature review also demonstrates that persistent violence against schoolchildren in its diverse nature and occurring in a range of environmental settings has a negative impact on the victim's capacity to learn. However, it is also clear that research specifically on violence against school children, in particular, is still very limited, and there is patchy information in this specific category of children especially in Tanzania.

This exploratory study, therefore, advances this research agenda, with an attempt to provide a national overview of violence against school children, and how it is manifested in various environmental dimensions, i.e., home setting, community setting, en route to and from a school setting, school setting and cyber setting. Findings are expected to inform education stakeholders' intervention strategies and to ignite as well as to inform a policy debate on the subject of violence against school children in the country. It is anticipated

that findings from this study will improve understanding of the prevalence, magnitude and determinants of violence against schoolchildren and aid the development of appropriate strategies to address this plight.

3.13. Definition of Key Concepts

Community setting: In the context of this study this setting refers to neighbourhoods and the broader community, both the location, conditions and circumstances that envelop the home setting, the school setting, and the en-route to/from a school setting, where these are embraced within and are constitutive elements of that community. The community setting or rather its characteristics, i.e., its values, its practices, its traditions, norms and customs, and it's way of life can directly and/or in-directly inform, expose, shape and nature the child. A child's behaviour and the child's experiences can be associated with the child's neighbourhood. The study interest is how the community setting provides a violence-free living environment for the child or provide opportunity, and conditions that perpetuate and sustain exposure to, and experience of violence against the child.

Corporal punishment: Except for corporal punishment in schools as provided for by the respective laws and regulations of Tanzania, the study inclines to the definition which refers to corporal punishment as any punishment in which physical force is used and intended to cause some degree of pain or discomfort, however light.[8] It mostly involves hitting (smacking, slapping, spanking) children with the hand or with an implement – a whip, stick, belt, shoe, wooden spoon, or any other object. It can also involve, for example, kicking, shaking or throwing children, scratching, pinching, biting, pulling hair or boxing ears, caning, forcing children to stay in uncomfortable positions, burning, scalding or forced ingestion.

Cyber setting: The cyberspace or cyber-setting in the context of this study refers to the electronic or virtual space created by interconnected computers and computer networks on the Internet. It constitutes the notional environment in which diverse forms of communication and information sharing between the child and anyone else occur over, or is facilitated by computer networks. The internet, phone, social networks, electronic mass media etc are considered constitutive elements of cyberspace. The study interest is how the cyber setting provides a violence-free living environment for the child or provide opportunity, and conditions that perpetuate and sustain exposure to, and experience of violence against the child.

En-route to/from school setting: In the context of this study, the setting constitutes routes that school children take to/from school, the means they use to get to/from school, the person(s) that accompany them en-route to/from school, or lack thereof, and how a combination of these features provide a violence-free passage to/from school or provide an opportunity for the perpetration of any form of violence against school children.

Home setting: In the context of this study, the home setting refers to the domicile of school children and its associated environment, constituting members, the nature of the relationship between members and the extent that setting provides a violence-free living environment for the child or provide opportunity, and conditions that perpetuate and sustain exposure to, and experience of violence against the child. In the context of this study, the home setting also includes issues of violence against schoolchildren happening out of the physical home compound but originating from the home setting. For example, a driver, or relative tasked by the family to shuttle a child might sexually abuse a child while en-route to/from school; or a member of the family might arrange to go and be with a child for sexual purposes elsewhere, outside the physical home setting.

Negligent treatment or violence: The broad definition of child negligence also known as negligent child treatment or violence, constitute the failure to meet children's physical and psychological needs, protect them from danger, or obtain medical, birth registration or other services when those responsible for children's

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8   See The Global Initiative to End Corporal Punishment of Children; The Committee on the Rights of the Child, The Convention on the Rights of the Child and its Treaty Body. Retrieved from: http://www.endcorporalpunishment.org/pages/hrlaw/crc_session.html

care have the means, knowledge and access to services to do so.[9] WHO & ISPCAN, (2006:10, op cit.) insist that negligence occurs where parents or caregivers fail to meet children basic needs while they are in a position to do so. In that respect, behaviour or situation can only be defined as neglectful after a careful examination of the circumstances and intentionality.

Furthermore, as Barnett & Belfiel (2006) highlight, child neglect does not rely on how parents or caregivers believe they are behaving towards the child but rather on how a child and society perceives the parents' behaviour. In that respect, negligence or negligent treatment or violence includes: physical neglect, failure to protect a child from harm, including through lack of supervision, or failure to provide the child with basic necessities including adequate food, shelter, clothing and basic medical care; psychological or emotional neglect: including lack of any emotional support and love, chronic inattention to the child, caregivers being "psychologically unavailable" by overlooking young children's cues and signals, and exposure to intimate partner violence, drug or alcohol abuse; neglect of children's physical or mental health: withholding essential medical care; educational neglect: failure to comply with laws requiring caregivers to secure their children's education through attendance at school or otherwise and abandonment as a practice which is of great concern and which can disproportionately affect, inter- alia, children out of wedlock and children with disabilities in some societies.

Physical violence: The study inclines to the definition by the Committee on the Rights of the Child[10] which explicate that physical violence against children includes all types of corporal punishments (in the study's context except for the corporal punishment in schools as provided for respective laws and regulations of Tanzania), and all other forms of torture, cruel, inhumane or degrading treatment or punishment as well as physical bullying and hazing by adults or committed by fellow children.

School child: In this study refers to a pupil or student registered and attending formal primary or ordinary level secondary private or public schools in Tanzania at the time of the study.

School settings: In the context of this study this setting constitutes formal primary and secondary schools, and exclude among others early childhood development centres, non-formal education sectors such as community-based learning centres, faith-based learning institutions such as madrasas, second-chance or catch-up education learning centres, skills/vocational learning centres. In the context of this study, the school setting also include issues of violence against schoolchildren happening out of the physical school compound but originating from the physical school setting. For example, students might engage in physical fights outside the school compound and beyond school hours for a conflict that originated in the school. Also, a teacher might arrange to meet with a student, or students themselves may make a similar arrangement to meet outside the school premises and beyond the school time for encounters of sexual nature or other issues.

Sexual violence: The study inclines to the definition of child sexual abuse provided by Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse,[11] which describes it as constituting engaging in sexual activities with a child who has not reached the respective nation's legal age for sexual activities. Such activities involve coercion, force or threat, abuse of a position of trust, authority or influence over the child, including within the family; or abuse of a child's vulnerability, notably mental or physical disability or dependence.

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9   See Committee on the Rights of the Child (2011). The right of the child to freedom from all forms of violence. General comment No. 13., section 20

10   Committee on the Rights of the Child, General Comment No. 13, The Right of the Child to Freedom from All Forms of Violence, paragraph 22, 2011

11   Council of Europe Convention on the Protection of Children against Sexual Exploitation and Sexual Abuse, Article 18, adopted 2007, entered into force in 2010; Report of the Consultation on Child Abuse Prevention, 29-31 March 1999. Geneva, World Health Organization, 1999 (document WHO/HSC/PVI/99.1)

It also includes child prostitution and child pornography, the participation of a child in pornographic performances, intentionally causing, for sexual purposes, of a child who has not reached the legal age for sexual activities, to witness sexual abuse or sexual activities, and the solicitation of children for sexual purposes.

Psychological/emotional violence: This is also known as mental violence and is often described as psychological maltreatment, mental abuse, verbal abuse and emotional abuse or neglect.[12] This can include: All forms of persistent harmful interactions with the child, for example, conveying to children that they are worthless, unloved, unwanted, endangered or only of value in meeting another's needs; scaring, terrorising and threatening; exploiting and corrupting; spurning and rejecting; isolating, ignoring and favouritism; denying emotional responsiveness; neglecting mental health, medical and educational needs. Insults, name-calling, humiliation, belittling, ridiculing and hurting a child's feelings. Exposure to domestic violence; placement in solitary confinement, isolation or humiliating or degrading conditions of detention; and psychological bullying and hazing by adults or other children, including via information and communication technologies (ICTs) such as mobile phones and the Internet (known as cyberbullying).

Rural/periphery districts: In this study districts which were not municipalities or townships were considered as rural or periphery settings.

Urban districts: In this study districts which were either municipalities or townships and specifically, those which hosted the headquarters of the respective region were considered as urban districts.

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12   See Committee on the Rights of the Child (2011). The right of the child to freedom from all forms of violence. General comment No. 13., section 21

4.0.   Study Findings

4.1.   Nature, prevalence and magnitude of violence against school children

WHO (2002:5) explicates the nature of violence to be physical, sexual, psychological and deprivation or neglect. It has also been explained above that violence against school children occurs mainly in five settings, namely at home, in the community setting, at school, en-route from and to school, and in cyberspace. This section presents findings on the prevalence and magnitude of violence against school children, with specific reference to the nature of violence and the settings in which it occurs. In prevalence, the study sought to determine the pervasiveness of the problem. Prevalence is captured by the %age of school children victims of violence as we all as the perceived spread of the problem. Magnitude on the other hand attempted to capture the frequency victims experience violence. This is frequently gauged in the scale from never too often. This section present findings on the extent of different forms of violence against school children.

4.1.2.   Reported incidences of violence against children 2014-2018

The enactment of Landmark Law of the Child Act, (LCA) No. 21 of 2009 in the country and the publication in 2011 of the monumental violence against children in Tanzania report triggered multiple interventions and strategies towards the realisation of the universal child rights. In that context, this study was interested to determine the pattern of the statistics on violence against children in the regions involved in the study. It should be noted that the current procedure of recording reported crimes in police stations does not record whether a child is attending school, or not. The study therefore, had to be contented with data on children generally. To that end, the study sought and computed statistics of incidences of violence against children reported to the police department. As per Figure 2, the trend shows unmistakable year after year increase in reported cases of violence against children in the respective regions from 1,635 incidences in 2014 up to 7,900 in 2018. However, the trend is seen to fluctuate when each region is considered separately in that period of time. There are sometimes notable sharp increases like Dodoma in 2017, Tanga in 2017 and 2018, and Mwanza in 2018. All in all, almost all the regions involved in this study there are alternating increases and drops in numbers of reported violence against children cases.
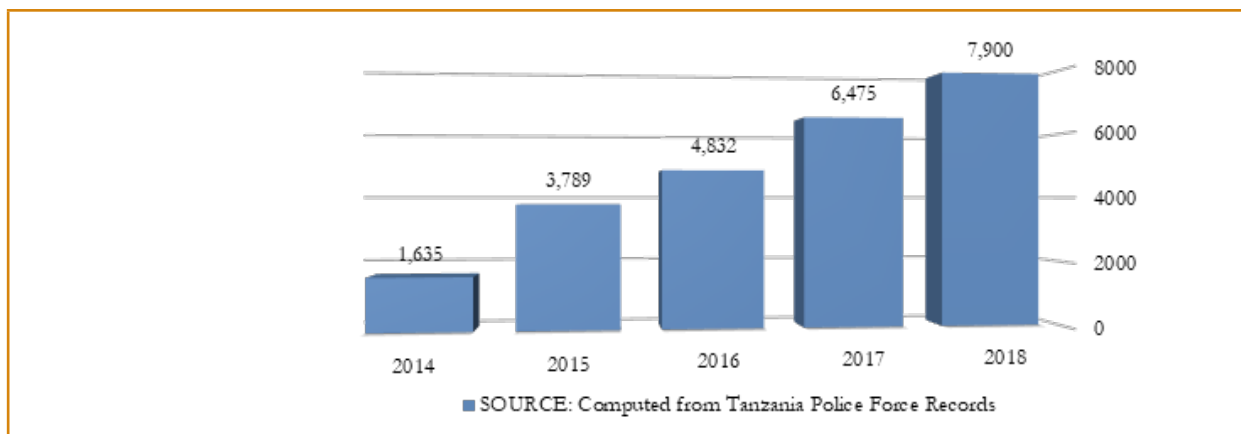
Figure 2: Reported Incidences of VACs in the regions involved in the study for the year 2014-2018

4.2.   Psychological/emotional violence against school children

Psychological or emotional violence against children constitute acts which "…may have a high probability of damaging the child's physical or mental health, or its physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development" (WHO & ISPCAN, 2006:10). These can either be isolated incidents, a pattern of failure overtime on the part of parents or caregiver to provide a developmentally appropriate and supportive environment or habitual, structured and institutionalised practices. Some of the known forms of psychological or emotional violence include "The restriction of movement; patterns of belittling, blaming, threatening, frightening, discriminating against or ridiculing; and other non-physical forms of rejection or hostile treatment (Ibid)."

The following are study findings respective to psychological or emotional violence against school children.

4.2.1. Prevalence of psychological violence against school children

The study found that nearly 60.9 % (60.1% male and 61.6% female) of school-going children involved in this study have experienced psychological violence (see Fig. 3). Overall, more students from private schools in Tanzania (65.8%) reported experiencing psychological violence compared to the students from public schools' 58.8% %. The situation is found to be more common to female secondary students from private schools where 66.1 % reported experiencing at least one incident of psychological violence compared to 59.4 % of female students from public schools and male students (65.4 % and 58.0 % in public and private schools respectively). The most common form of psychological violence experienced by students was being shouted/screamed at (33.3%); stealing or breaking of personal items (33.0%), being cursed/sworn at (32.7%), being insulted (22.1%) and shamed for being an orphan (18.2%).
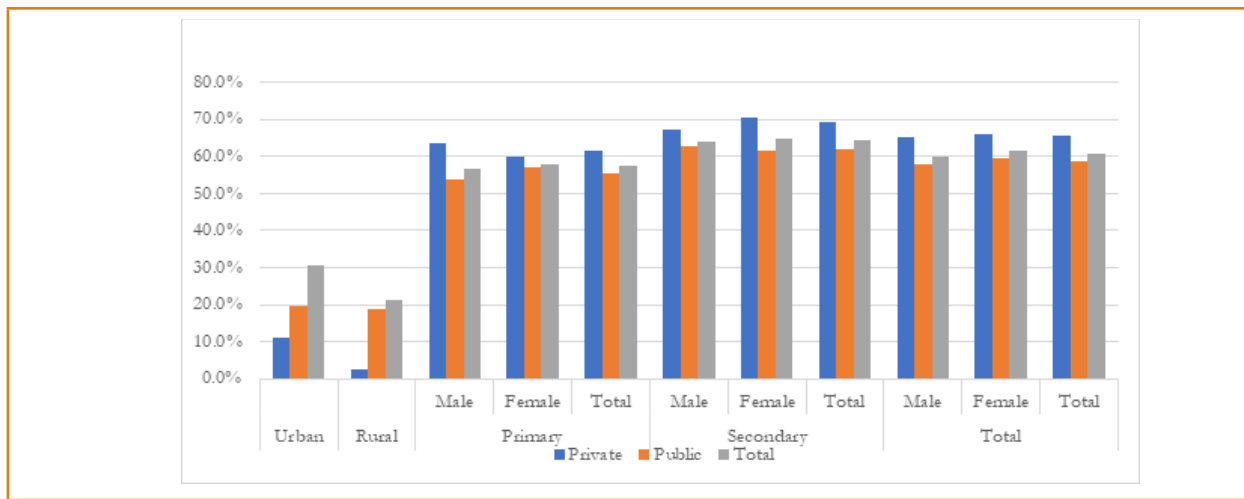
Figure 3: Children who experienced psychological Violence according to school type, ownership, sex and location.

As Table 3 shows,40.1 % (38.2 % male and 41.7 % female) of the interviewed students had experienced psychological violence within the past 6 months up to the time the survey was conducted. Majority of the victims who stated that they experienced psychological violence in that period are female secondary students from public schools (49.5 %) followed by male secondary students from the public schools (44.7 %).

Type of Violence	Sex	Primary			Secondary			Total		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
		In the last 6 months have you ever experienced psychological violence								
Psycho-logical	Urban	t	104 (38.2%)	193 (37.5%)	102 (47.0%)	147 (51.9%)	249 (49.8%)	191 (41.6%)	251 (45.2%)	442 (43.6%)
	Rural	59 (29.5%)	70 (34.1%)	129 (31.9%)	70 (39.3%)	91 (40.1%)	161 (39.8%)	129 (34.1%)	161 (37.3%)	290 (35.8%)
	Private	37 (30.6%)	46 (33.3%)	83 (32.0%)	46 (40.7%)	75 (41.4%)	121 (41.2%)	83 (35.5%)	121 (37.9%)	204 (36.9%)
	Public	111 (34.6%)	128 (37.8%)	239 (36.2%)	126 (44.7%)	163 (49.5%)	289 (47.3%)	237 (39.3%)	291 (43.6%)	528 (41.5%)
	Total	148 (33.5%)	174 (36.5%)	322 (35.0%)	172 (43.5%)	238 (46.7%)	410 (45.3%)	320 (38.2%)	412 (41.7%)	732 (40.1%)

Table 3: Children who have experienced Psychological Violence in the past 6 months according to school type, ownership, sex and location

4.2.2. Magnitude of psychological violence against school children

The study was interested in determining the frequency school children experience psychological violence. In that respect, students who stated that they have experienced psychological violence were asked to recall the rate of occurrence within 6 months up to the time the study was being undertaken. As shown in figure 4, over two-third, 69.9 % (68.1% male and 71.4% female) of the students who reported that they had experienced psychological violence stated that it only happened once in a while, while 19.1 % (19.4 male and 18.9% female) stated that it happened at least every month and 8.9 % (10.6% male and 7.5% female) stated that it happened at least once in a week.
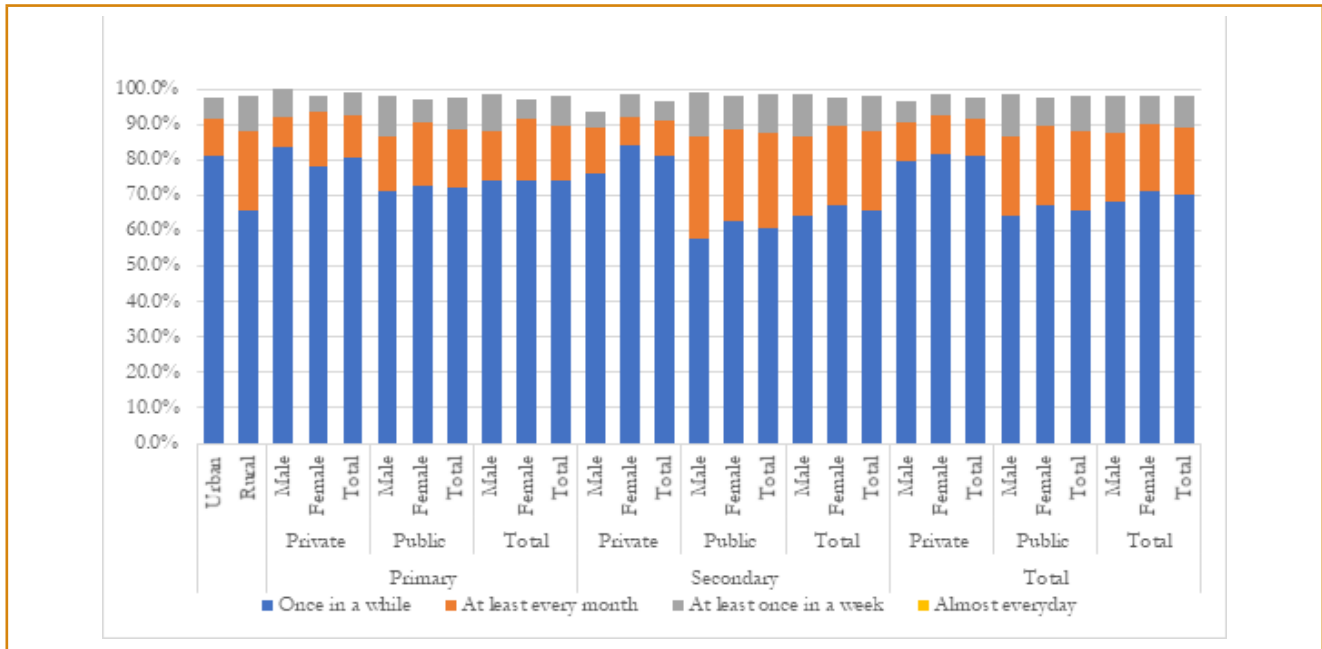
Figure 4: Frequency for experiencing psychological violence over a period of 6 months

The study also sought parents' perceptions regarding the magnitude of psychological/emotional violence against children perpetrated in the home settings. As shown in Table 4, findings indicate that 25 % of all parents interviewed were of the view that such incidents occur often, while 44 % were of the view that such incidents rarely occur.

Furthermore, 15 % of interviewed parents stated that they are not aware on whether such incidents occur or no. Location-wise, more parents in urban setting (31.4 %) felt that incident of emotional/psychological violence occurs often compared to their counterpart in rural areas (18.3 %).

	Location/ Sex	Never	Rarely	Often	Daily	I don't know
In your view how often, incidents of mental/emotional abuse to children by parents, guardians, relative or anyone else happen in your community?						
Location	Urban	43 (12.0%)	153 (42.9%)	112 (31.4%)	0 (0.0%)	49 (13.7%)
	Rural	59 (18.9%)	140 (44.9%)	57 (18.3%)	2 (0.6%)	54 (17.3%)
Primary	Male	32 (19.3%)	70 (42.2%)	40 (24.1%)	1 (0.6%)	23 (13.9%)
	Female	43 (15.6%)	120 (43.5%)	74 (26.8%)	0 (0.0%)	39 (14.1%)
	Total	75 (17.0%)	190 (43.0%)	114 (25.8%)	1 (0.2%)	62 (14.0%)
Secondary	Male	13 (13.3%)	47 (48.0%)	22 (22.4%)	0 (0.0%)	16 (16.3%)
	Female	14 (10.9%)	56 (43.4%)	33 (25.6%)	1 (0.8%)	25 (19.4%)
	Total	27 (11.9%)	103 (45.4%)	55 (24.2%)	1 (0.4%)	41 (18.1%)
Grand Total	Male	45 (17.0%)	117 (44.3%)	62 (23.5%)	1 (0.4%)	39 (14.8%)
	Female	57 (14.1%)	176 (43.5%)	107 (26.4%)	1 (0.2%)	64 (15.8%)
	Total	102 (15.2%)	293 (43.8%)	169 (25.3%)	2 (0.3%)	103 (15.4%)

Table 4: Parents' perceptions on the magnitude of psychological violence against school children.

The study sought parents' perceptions regarding the magnitude of psychological/emotional violence against children perpetrated in route to/from school. As shown in table 5, findings indicate that 17 % of parents felt that incidents of emotional/psychological abuse to students on their way to/from school occurs often, while 40 % of parents stated that such incidents occur rarely. Furthermore, 26 % of the parents stated that they do not know whether such incidents occur or not. In an urban setting, 22.4 % parents reported that incidents of emotional abuse to children on their way to/from school occurs often, which is 50 % more than parents who reported the same in rural areas.

	Location/ Sex	Never	Rarely	Often	Daily	I don't know
In your view how often, incidents of mental/emotional abuse to students that happen on their way to and from their school?						
Location	Urban	67 (18.8%)	136 (38.1%)	80 (22.4%)	3 (0.8%)	71 (19.9%)
	Rural	82 (26.3%)	110 (35.3%)	35 (11.2%)	1 (0.3%)	84 (26.9%)
Primary	Male	44 (26.5%)	64 (38.6%)	29 (17.5%)	1 (0.6%)	28 (16.9%)
	Female	68 (24.6%)	94 (34.1%)	53 (19.2%)	2 (0.7%)	59 (21.4%)
	Total	112 (25.3%)	158 (35.7%)	82 (18.6%)	3 (0.7%)	87 (19.7%)
Secondary	Male	18 (18.4%)	42 (42.9%)	16 (16.3%)	1 (1.0%)	21 (21.4%)
	Female	19 (14.7%)	46 (35.7%)	17 (13.2%)	0 (0.0%)	47 (36.4%)
	Total	37 (16.3%)	88 (38.8%)	33 (14.5%)	1 (0.4%)	68 (30.0%)
Grand Total	Male	62 (23.5%)	106 (40.2%)	45 (17.0%)	2 (0.8%)	49 (18.6%)
	Female	87 (21.5%)	140 (34.6%)	70 (17.3%)	2 (0.5%)	106 (26.2%)
	Total	149 (22.3%)	246 (36.8%)	115 (17.2%)	4 (0.6%)	155 (23.2%)

Table 5: Parents' perceptions regarding the magnitude of Psychological Violence against schoolchildren perpetrated en-route to/from school.

The study also sought parents' perceptions of the magnitude of psychological violence against schoolchildren perpetrated in the home setting. As shown in Table 6, about 15 % of all parents interviewed (about 16 % from secondary and 14 % form primary) stated that it happens often that children are bullied or insulted by parents/guardians/relatives / other people they live with. More parents (15.3% and 17.1 %) from rural primary schools and urban secondary schools respectively reported the same compared to 12.9 % and 14.5 % of their counterparts in urban primary and rural secondary school respectively.

School Type	Location	Never	Rarely	Often	Daily	I don't Know
Children are bullied or insulted by parents/guardians/relatives / other people they live with						
Primary	Urban	83 (34.6%)	108 (45.0%)	31 (12.9%)	3 (1.3%)	15 (6.3%)
	Rural	59 (29.2%)	104 (51.5%)	31 (15.3%)	0 (0.0%)	8 (4.0%)
	Total	142 (32.1%)	212 (48.0%)	62 (14.0%)	3 (0.7%)	23 (5.2%)
Secondary	Urban	28 (23.9%)	65 (55.6%)	20 (17.1%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (3.4%)
	Rural	30 (27.3%)	56 (50.9%)	16 (14.5%)	1 (0.9%)	7 (6.4%)
	Total	58 (25.6%)	121 (53.3%)	36 (15.9%)	1 (0.4%)	11 (4.8%)
Grand Total		200 (29.9%)	333 (49.8%)	98 (14.6%)	4 (0.6%)	34 (5.1%)

Table 6: Parents' perceptions of the magnitude of Psychological Violence against schoolchildren perpetrated in home settings

The study further, sought from teachers the magnitude of psychological/emotional violence against students perpetrated by teachers. As indicated in Figure 5, findings show that of all the interviewed teachers, approximately 5.4 % (3.4% from primary and 7.7% from secondary schools) stated that there are incidents of mental or emotional violence perpetrated by teachers to students that happen daily or often in their respective schools. The situation is more critical in rural areas (9.7%) compared to urban areas where there was no teacher who confirmed the abuse cases. Furthermore, majority of the teachers interviewed 94.6 % (96.6% from primary and 92.3% from secondary) feel that there are rarely or not at all the incidents of mental or emotional abuse to students by teachers in their schools.
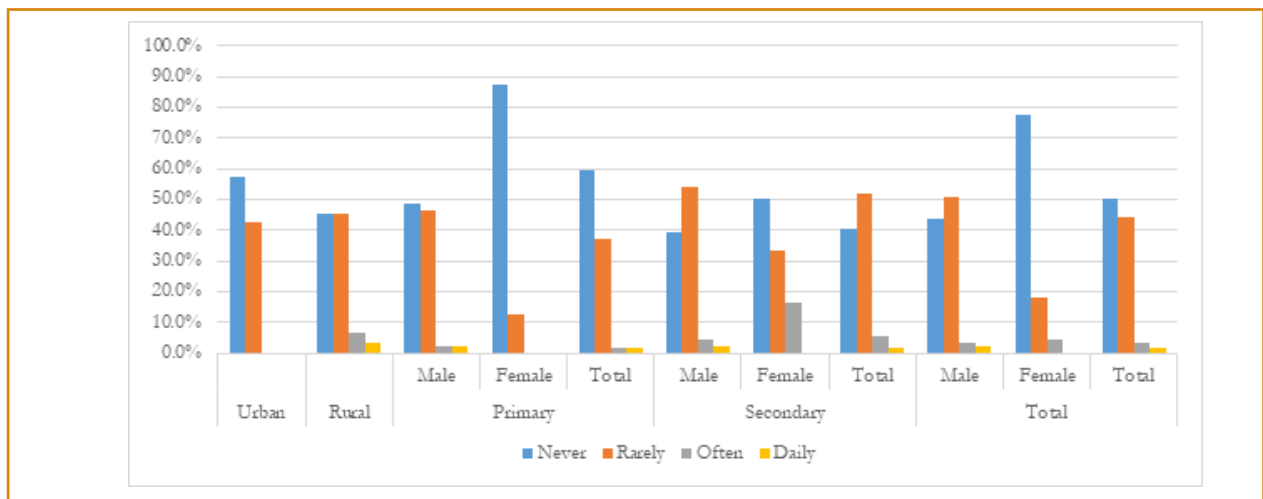
Figure 5: Magnitude of psychological violence perpetrated by teachers to students according teachers

4.2.3. Settings where psychological violence against school children occur

To determine the setting where psychological violence against school children most frequently occur, respondents were asked to specify the place where they had experienced psychological violence or felt that they have been psychologically abused. As Table 7, show, majority of the school-going children 81.7 % (82.2% male and 81.3% female) who stated that they have experienced psychological abuse, identified the school setting as the place where they had experienced the abuse. That situation is relatively similar for secondary and primary students with 82.0 % and 81.4 % respectively, while 15.8 % (13.4% male and 17.7% female) of the students identified the home setting as the place they had experienced psychological and 2.5 % (4.4% male and 1.0% female) stated that it happened on their way to and from the school.

Sex	Location		Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Urban	Rural	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
Where did you experience psychological violence											
At home											
Male	28 (14.7%)	15 (11.6%)	8 (21.6%)	15 (13.5%)	23 (15.5%)	6 (13.0%)	14 (11.1%)	20 (11.6%)	14 (16.9%)	29 (12.2%)	43 (13.4%)
Female	43 (17.1%)	30 (18.6%)	8 (17.4%)	20 (15.6%)	28 (16.1%)	10 (13.3%)	35 (21.5%)	45 (18.9%)	18 (14.9%)	55 (18.9%)	73 (17.7%)
Total	71 (16.1%)	45 (15.5%)	16 (19.3%)	35 (14.6%)	51 (15.8%)	16 (13.2%)	49 (17.0%)	65 (15.9%)	32 (15.7%)	84 (15.9%)	116 (15.8%)
On way to/from school											
Male	9 (4.7%)	5 (3.9%)	2 (5.4%)	5 (4.5%)	7 (4.7%)	0 (0.0%)	7 (5.6%)	7 (4.1%)	2 (2.4%)	12 (5.1%)	14 (4.4%)
Female	0 (0.0%)	4 (2.5%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.6%)	2 (1.1%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.2%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (1.4%)	4 (1.0%)
Total	9 (2.0%)	9 (3.1%)	2 (2.4%)	7 (2.9%)	9 (2.8%)	0 (0.0%)	9 (3.1%)	9 (2.2%)	2 (1.0%)	16 (3.0%)	18 (2.5%)
At School											
Male	154 (80.6%)	109 (84.5%)	27 (73.0%)	91 (82.0%)	118 (79.7%)	40 (87.0%)	105 (83.3%)	145 (84.3%)	67 (80.7%)	196 (82.7%)	263 (82.2%)
Female	208 (82.9%)	127 (78.9%)	38 (82.6%)	106 (82.8%)	144 (82.8%)	65 (86.7%)	126 (77.3%)	191 (80.3%)	103 (85.1%)	232 (79.7%)	335 (81.3%)
Total	362 (81.9%)	236 (81.4%)	65 (78.3%)	197 (82.4%)	262 (81.4%)	105 (86.8%)	231 (79.9%)	336 (82.0%)	170 (83.3%)	428 (81.1%)	598 (81.7%)

Table 7: Setting where School Children experience Psychological Violence

The study specifically inquired whether school-going children have ever experience psychological/emotional violence when they are en-route to and from school. Findings show that overall 42.8 % of all students interviewed were of the view that incidents of emotional abuse never happen to students on their way to and from school. Close to 9 % of all children interviewed stated that such incidents happen often while 26 % of students stated that such incidents rarely happen. Furthermore, 22.4 % of all children interviewed stated that they do not know whether incidents of emotional abuse to students occurs when they en-route to and from school. Comparisons between urban and rural setting show that about 11 % of all children in urban areas think that incidents of emotional violence en-route to school occurs often compared to only 5.8 % of students who reported on the same in rural/periphery areas. There is slight difference between private and public schools as 8.9 % of students in public school think incidents of emotional violence happens often on their way to and from school compared to 7.6 % of students in private schools.

4.3. Physical Violence against School Children

According to WHO & ISPCAN (2006:10, op cit.), physical violence against children constitute Intentional use of physical force against the child that results in or, has a high likelihood of resulting in, harm for the child's health, survival, development or dignity. Some of the identified forms of physical violence include use or non-use of object to hit or beat a child, as well as kicking, punching, shaking, biting, strangling, scalding,

burning, poisoning and suffocating a child otherwise harming a child physically (Ibid). The following are study findings respective to physical violence against school children.

4.3.1. Prevalence of Physical Violence against School Children

Findings as depicted in Table 8 show that 87.9 % of all children interviewed have experienced one or more forms of physical violence in their life. More female (90.6 %) reported having experienced various forms of physical violence compared to male (84.8 %). Students who have experienced one or more forms of violence were slightly more in private schools (89 %) compared to public schools (87.5 %). Likewise, despite that more than 80 % of students in urban and rural schools have experienced violence. It is worth noting that physical violence was reported more in urban settings (90.1 %) than in rural settings (85.2 %). There is an insignificant difference between the proportional of students' experiences of physical violence in primary and secondary schools.

Type of Violence	Sex	Primary			Secondary			Total		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Physical	Urban	213 (88.0%)	251 (92.3%)	464 (90.3%)	196 (90.3%)	254 (89.8%)	450 (90.0%)	409 (89.1%)	505 (91.0%)	914 (90.1%)
	Rural	154 (77.0%)	188 (91.7%)	342 (84.4%)	147 (82.6%)	201 (88.5%)	348 (85.9%)	301 (79.6%)	389 (90.0%)	690 (85.2%)
	Private	101 (83.5%)	123 (89.1%)	224 (86.5%)	102 (90.3%)	166 (91.7%)	268 (91.2%)	203 (86.8%)	289 (90.6%)	492 (89.0%)
	Public	266 (82.9%)	316 (93.2%)	582 (88.2%)	241 (85.5%)	289 (87.8%)	530 (86.7%)	507 (84.1%)	605 (90.6%)	1112 (87.5%)
	Total	367 (83.0%)	439 (92.0%)	806 (87.7%)	343 (86.8%)	455 (89.2%)	798 (88.2%)	710 (84.8%)	894 (90.6%)	1604 (87.9%)

Table 8: Children who have ever experienced Physical Violence according to school type, ownership, sex and location

Table 9, shows various forms of physical violence that school children reported having ever experienced. Findings show that canning is leading a form of physical violence experiences as more than 90 % of all children stated that they have experienced canning. Again, 54.9 % stated that they have experienced being beaten/slapped, and 54.7 % stated that they have experienced physical violence in terms of being told to bend and other forms of punishment. Furthermore, about 23 % reported that they have been locked-in, or made to stay in one place for a long time, and the same proportion stated that they have been kicked or hurt. Overall, there is insignificant difference between children in urban and rural settings in terms of types of forms of other forms of physical violence, experiencing locking/staying long in one place and kicking/hurting and beating/slapped. There is a slight difference between rural (53.2%) and urban (56.8%) setting in terms of experiencing physical violence in form of bending.

Comparison between male and female students shows that almost 10 % more of male students have been experiencing all forms of physical violence except canning.

Sex	Location		Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Urban	Rural	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
Beating/ Slapped											
Male	232 (56.7%)	184 (61.1%)	61 (60.4%)	160 (60.2%)	221 (60.2%)	50 (49.0%)	145 (60.2%)	195 (56.9%)	111 (54.7%)	305 (60.2%)	416 (58.6%)
Female	273 (54.1%)	192 (49.4%)	69 (56.1%)	169 (53.5%)	238 (54.2%)	70 (42.2%)	157 (54.3%)	227 (49.9%)	139 (48.1%)	326 (53.9%)	465 (52.0%)
Total	505 (55.3%)	376 (54.5%)	130 (58.0%)	329 (56.5%)	459 (56.9%)	120 (44.8%)	302 (57.0%)	422 (52.9%)	250 (50.8%)	631 (56.7%)	881 (54.9%)
Bending											
Male	245 (59.9%)	183 (60.8%)	60 (59.4%)	146 (54.9%)	206 (56.1%)	62 (60.8%)	160 (66.4%)	222 (64.7%)	122 (60.1%)	306 (60.4%)	428 (60.3%)
Female	241 (47.7%)	209 (53.7%)	42 (34.1%)	137 (43.4%)	179 (40.8%)	93 (56.0%)	178 (61.6%)	271 (59.6%)	135 (46.7%)	315 (52.1%)	450 (50.3%)
Total	486 (53.2%)	392 (56.8%)	102 (45.5%)	283 (48.6%)	385 (47.8%)	155 (57.8%)	338 (63.8%)	493 (61.8%)	257 (52.2%)	621 (55.8%)	878 (54.7%)
Canning											
Male	378 (92.4%)	268 (89.0%)	95 (94.1%)	233 (87.6%)	328 (89.4%)	94 (92.2%)	224 (92.9%)	318 (92.7%)	189 (93.1%)	457 (90.1%)	646 (91.0%)
Female	471 (93.3%)	367 (94.3%)	108 (87.8%)	300 (94.9%)	408 (92.9%)	159 (95.8%)	271 (93.8%)	430 (94.5%)	267 (92.4%)	571 (94.4%)	838 (93.7%)
Total	849 (92.9%)	635 (92.0%)	203 (90.6%)	533 (91.6%)	736 (91.3%)	253 (94.4%)	495 (93.4%)	748 (93.7%)	456 (92.7%)	1028 (92.4%)	1484 (92.5%)
Kicking/ hurting											
Male	110 (26.9%)	98 (32.6%)	27 (26.7%)	79 (29.7%)	106 (28.9%)	18 (17.6%)	84 (34.9%)	102 (29.7%)	45 (22.2%)	163 (32.1%)	208 (29.3%)
Female	96 (19.0%)	60 (15.4%)	14 (11.4%)	56 (17.7%)	70 (15.9%)	26 (15.7%)	60 (20.8%)	86 (18.9%)	40 (13.8%)	116 (19.2%)	156 (17.4%)
Total	206 (22.5%)	158 (22.9%)	41 (18.3%)	135 (23.2%)	176 (21.8%)	44 (16.4%)	144 (27.2%)	188 (23.6%)	85 (17.3%)	279 (25.1%)	364 (22.7%)
Locked/ Staying long in one place											
Male	110 (26.9%)	98 (32.6%)	27 (26.7%)	79 (29.7%)	106 (28.9%)	18 (17.6%)	84 (34.9%)	102 (29.7%)	45 (22.2%)	163 (32.1%)	208 (29.3%)
Female	96 (19.0%)	60 (15.4%)	14 (11.4%)	56 (17.7%)	70 (15.9%)	26 (15.7%)	60 (20.8%)	86 (18.9%)	40 (13.8%)	116 (19.2%)	156 (17.4%)
Total	206 (22.5%)	158 (22.9%)	41 (18.3%)	135 (23.2%)	176 (21.8%)	44 (16.4%)	144 (27.2%)	188 (23.6%)	85 (17.3%)	279 (25.1%)	364 (22.7%)
Others**											
Male	145 (35.5%)	117 (38.9%)	60 (59.4%)	146 (54.9%)	206 (56.1%)	62 (60.8%)	160 (66.4%)	222 (64.7%)	122 (60.1%)	306 (60.4%)	428 (60.3%)
Female	176 (34.9%)	100 (25.7%)	42 (34.1%)	137 (43.4%)	179 (40.8%)	93 (56.0%)	178 (61.6%)	271 (59.6%)	135 (46.7%)	315 (52.1%)	450 (50.3%)
Total	321 (35.1%)	217 (31.4%)	102 (45.5%)	283 (48.6%)	385 (47.8%)	155 (57.8%)	338 (63.8%)	493 (61.8%)	257 (52.2%)	621 (55.8%)	878 (54.7%)

*****Others includes burning, drowning, hair plucking, cut with objects, beating with objects, attacked by a group of other students and threatened with a knife*

Table 9: Some of the forms of physical violence experienced by school children

Students who took part in the study were asked whether they have experienced physical violence within 6 months up to the time the survey was undertaken. As depicted in Table 10, findings show that, overall, 22 % of all children interviewed stated that they have experienced physical violence in the aforementioned timeframe. There is 4 % more of children in a rural setting who stated that they have experienced violence within the aforementioned period compared to urban settings. Comparisons between primary and secondary schools shows that about 3 % more of children in primary school have experienced violence in 6 months prior to the survey compared to their counterparts in secondary schools.

Location/		Primary			Secondary			Total		
School Ownership	Sex	Yes	No	I Can't recall	Yes	No	I Can't recall	Yes	No	I Can't recall
Urban	Male	39 (18.3%)	148 (69.5%)	26 (12.2%)	34 (17.3%)	148 (75.5%)	14 (7.1%)	73 (17.8%)	296 (72.4%)	40 (9.8%)
	Female	54 (21.5%)	176 (70.1%)	21 (8.4%)	57 (22.4%)	170 (66.9%)	27 (10.6%)	111 (22.0%)	346 (68.5%)	48 (9.5%)
	Total	93 (20.0%)	324 (69.8%)	47 (10.1%)	91 (20.2%)	318 (70.7%)	41 (9.1%)	184 (20.1%)	642 (70.2%)	88 (9.6%)
Rural	Male	36 (23.4%)	105 (68.2%)	13 (8.4%)	25 (17.0%)	112 (76.2%)	10 (6.8%)	61 (20.3%)	217 (72.1%)	23 (7.6%)
	Female	58 (30.9%)	125 (66.5%)	5 (2.7%)	48 (23.9%)	143 (71.1%)	10 (5.0%)	106 (27.2%)	268 (68.9%)	15 (3.9%)
	Total	94 (27.5%)	230 (67.3%)	18 (5.3%)	73 (21.0%)	255 (73.3%)	20 (5.7%)	167 (24.2%)	485 (70.3%)	38 (5.5%)
Private	Male	12 (11.9%)	77 (76.2%)	12 (11.9%)	20 (19.6%)	79 (77.5%)	3 (2.9%)	32 (15.8%)	156 (76.8%)	15 (7.4%)
	Female	27 (22.0%)	85 (69.1%)	11 (8.9%)	33 (19.9%)	121 (72.9%)	12 (7.2%)	60 (20.8%)	206 (71.3%)	23 (8.0%)
	Total	39 (17.4%)	162 (72.3%)	23 (10.3%)	53 (19.8%)	200 (74.6%)	15 (5.6%)	92 (18.7%)	362 (73.6%)	38 (7.7%)
Public	Male	63 (23.7%)	176 (66.2%)	27 (10.2%)	39 (16.2%)	181 (75.1%)	21 (8.7%)	102 (20.1%)	357 (70.4%)	48 (9.5%)
	Female	85 (26.9%)	216 (68.4%)	15 (4.7%)	72 (24.9%)	192 (66.4%)	25 (8.7%)	157 (26.0%)	408 (67.4%)	40 (6.6%)
	Total	148 (25.4%)	392 (67.4%)	42 (7.2%)	111 (20.9%)	373 (70.4%)	46 (8.7%)	259 (23.3%)	765 (68.8%)	88 (7.9%)
Total		187 (23.2%)	554 (68.7%)	65 (8.1%)	164 (20.6%)	573 (71.8%)	61 (7.6%)	351 (21.9%)	1127 (70.3%)	126 (7.9%)

Table 10: School Children who have experienced any form of Physical Violence within 6 months up to the time of the survey

Findings further show that 73.6 % of students attending private schools stated that have experienced physical violence 6 months prior to the survey. This is 4.8 % more compared to students in rural areas where 68.8 % of students reported the same. Overall, a slightly high proportional of male students reported experiencing physical violence 6 months prior to the survey. Again, about 8 % of all children interviewed stated that they cannot recall whether they experienced physical violence prior to the survey or not. In urban schools, 10 % of all students interviewed did not recall whether they experienced physical violence prior to the survey or not.

The study also inquired of teachers how often punishment to students constitute canning in their schools. As shown in Figure 6, over a quarter (27.9 %) of the teachers interviewed stated that punishment to students in their respective schools constitutes canning either daily or often. The findings show more teachers from secondary school's 30.8 % confirmed this compared to teachers from primary schools' 25.5 %. The use of canning is found to be critical in rural areas where 37.1 % of the teachers interviewed confirmed on

either daily or often their punishments to students constitutes canning compared to 16.3 % of teachers interviewed from urban areas. Also, the findings show approximately 65.8 % (66.1% from Primary and 65.4% from Secondary Schools) of the teachers interviewed stated that rarely punishment of students constitutes canning in their schools. The use of corporal punishments including canning was mentioned by teachers who were interviewed (66.7%) as one among the main reasons for students' not feeling safe in schools.
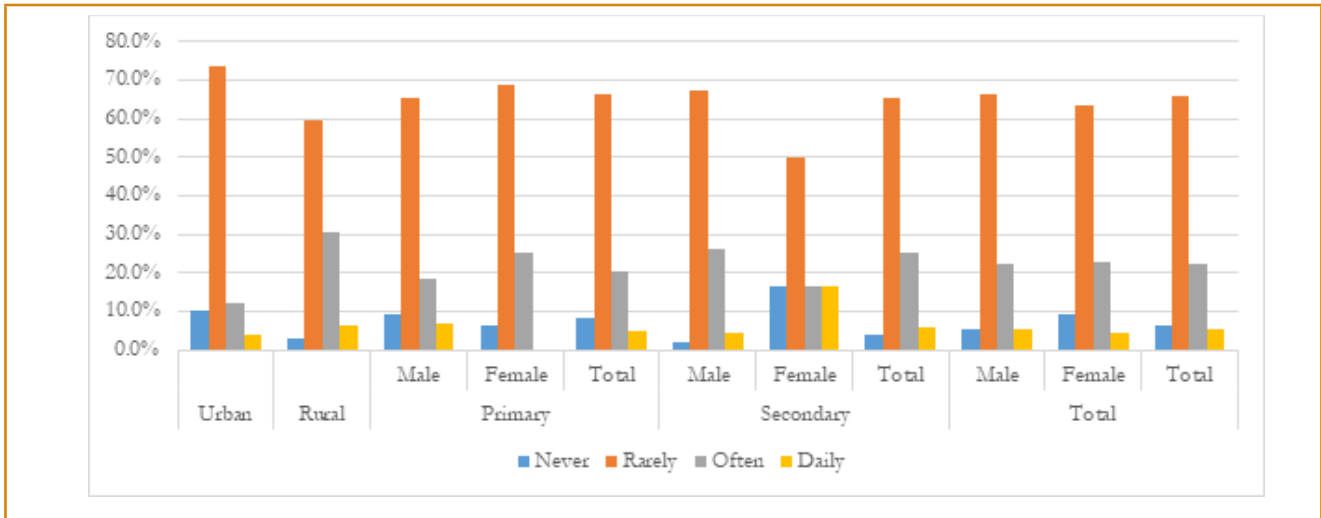
Figure 6: Administration of canning as part of the punishments to students according to teachers

4.3.2. Magnitude of physical violence against school children

The study explored the magnitude school children have been experiencing violence within the period of 6 months up to the time the study was undertaken. As depicted in Table 11, findings show that out of all children who stated that they experienced physical violence within that peeped, nearly 10 % of them have been experiencing it in a weekly basis or every day. However, comparison between public and private school shows that more than twice the proportion of students attending public school (i.e., 8.9 %) reported experiencing physical violence almost every day compared to private schools where only 3.3 % reported the same. Female students suffer more physical violence on daily basis compared to boys and notably in public schools were 5.8 % of female students stated that they are experiencing physical violence on daily basis compared to 2.2 % of boys.

Comparisons between rural and urban areas show that 7.6 % of students in an urban setting are experiencing physical violence almost on a daily basis while 7.2 % of students in rural settings are experiencing the same in the same frequency. Likewise, 9.2 % of children in urban are experiencing physical violence almost once in every week while 8.4 % in rural areas reported the same.

Sex	Location		Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Urban	Rural	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
	How many times you have experienced physical violence in the last 6 months										
Once in a while											
Male	56 (30.4%)	44 (26.3%)	10 (25.6%)	50 (33.8%)	60 (32.1%)	16 (30.2%)	24 (21.6%)	40 (24.4%)	26 (28.3%)	74 (28.6%)	100 (28.5%)
Fe-male	70 (38.0%)	61 (36.5%)	22 (56.4%)	44 (29.7%)	66 (35.3%)	25 (47.2%)	40 (36.0%)	65 (39.6%)	47 (51.1%)	84 (32.4%)	131 (37.3%)
Total	126 (68.5%)	105 (62.9%)	32 (82.1%)	94 (63.5%)	126 (67.4%)	41 (77.4%)	64 (57.7%)	105 (64.0%)	73 (79.3%)	158 (61.0%)	231 (65.8%)
At least every month											
Male	8 (4.3%)	9 (5.4%)	1 (2.6%)	8 (5.4%)	9 (4.8%)	1 (1.9%)	7 (6.3%)	8 (4.9%)	2 (2.2%)	15 (5.8%)	17 (4.8%)
Fe-male	19 (10.3%)	27 (16.2%)	4 (10.3%)	28 (18.9%)	32 (17.1%)	3 (5.7%)	11 (9.9%)	14 (8.5%)	7 (7.6%)	39 (15.1%)	46 (13.1%)
Total	27 (14.7%)	36 (21.6%)	5 (12.8%)	36 (24.3%)	41 (21.9%)	4 (7.5%)	18 (16.2%)	22 (13.4%)	9 (9.8%)	54 (20.8%)	63 (17.9%)
At least once in a week											
Male	7 (3.8%)	1 (0.6%)	1 (2.6%)	1 (0.7%)	2 (1.1%)	4 (7.5%)	4 (3.6%)	6 (3.7%)	3 (3.3%)	5 (1.9%)	8 (2.3%)
Fe-male	10 (5.4%)	13 (7.8%)	1 (2.6%)	9 (6.1%)	10 (5.3%)	3 (5.7%)	10 (9.0%)	13 (7.9%)	4 (4.3%)	19 (7.3%)	23 (6.6%)
Total	17 (9.2%)	14 (8.4%)	2 (5.1%)	10 (6.8%)	12 (6.4%)	5 (9.4%)	14 (12.6%)	19 (11.6%)	7 (7.6%)	24 (9.3%)	31 (8.8%)
Almost everyday											
Male	2 (1.1%)	7 (4.2%)	-	4 (2.7%)	4 (2.1%)	1 (1.9%)	4 (3.6%)	5 (3.0%)	1 (1.1%)	8 (3.1%)	9 (2.6%)
Fe-male	12 (6.5%)	5 (3.0%)	-	4 (2.7%)	4 (2.1%)	2 (3.8%)	11 (9.9%)	13 (7.9%)	2 (2.2%)	15 (5.8%)	17 (4.8%)
Total	14 (7.6%)	12 (7.2%)	-	8 (5.4%)	8 (4.3%)	3 (5.7%)	15 (13.5%)	18 (11.0%)	3 (3.3%)	23 (8.9%)	26 (7.4%)

Table 11: Frequency of School Children to experiencing Physical Violence in the last 6 months before the survey

The study probed parents' views regarding the magnitude of incidents of physical violence to children in the home setting perpetrated by parents, guardians, relatives, or any other else in the community. As shown in Table 12, findings show that 52 % of all interviewed parents stated that such incidents rarely occur while 27 % of all interviewed parents were of the view that such incidents occur often. Furthermore, 30 % of parents in urban areas stated that incidents of physical violence at home occurs often-this is almost 7 % more than parents in rural areas who had a similar view.

	Location/Sex	Never	Rarely	Often	Daily	I don't know
In your view how often, incidents of physical violence to children by parents, guardians, relative or anyone else happen at your community?						
Location	Urban	27 (7.6%)	197 (55.2%)	108 (30.3%)	1 (0.3%)	24 (6.7%)
	Rural	48 (15.4%)	150 (48.1%)	74 (23.7%)	5 (1.6%)	35 (11.2%)
Primary	Male	22 (13.3%)	80 (48.2%)	50 (30.1%)	(0.0%)	14 (8.4%)
	Female	31 (11.2%)	147 (53.3%)	73 (26.4%)	(0.0%)	22 (8.0%)
	Total	53 (12.0%)	227 (51.4%)	123 (27.8%)	(0.0%)	36 (8.1%)
Secondary	Male	12 (12.2%)	49 (50.0%)	25 (25.5%)	1 (1.0%)	11 (11.2%)
	Female	10 (7.8%)	71 (55.0%)	34 (26.4%)	2 (1.6%)	12 (9.3%)
	Total	22 (9.7%)	120 (52.9%)	59 (26.0%)	3 (1.3%)	23 (10.1%)
Grand Total	Male	34 (12.9%)	129 (48.9%)	75 (28.4%)	1 (0.4%)	25 (9.5%)
	Female	41 (10.1%)	218 (53.8%)	107 (26.4%)	5 (1.2%)	34 (8.4%)
	Total	75 (11.2%)	347 (51.9%)	182 (27.2%)	6 (0.9%)	59 (8.8%)

Table 12: Parents' perceptions on the magnitude of incidents of Physical Violence to children perpetrated in home settings

The study also probed parents on the magnitude children get physically hurt through physical violence in home settings. As shown in Table 13, about 11 % (near 10 % in secondary and 11 % in primary school) of all parents interviewed stated that often children get physically hurt by parents/guardians/relatives / other people they live with through physical violence. Findings show that highest proportional of parents in urban settings (about 12 % in primary schools and 14 % in secondary schools) stated that children are hurt physically through physical violence by people they live with.

Children are physically hurt by parents/guardians/relatives / other people they live with						
Primary	Urban	93 (38.8%)	101 (42.1%)	28 (11.7%)	3 (1.3%)	15 (6.3%)
	Rural	69 (34.2%)	101 (50.0%)	20 (9.9%)	0 (0.0%)	12 (5.9%)
	Total	162 (36.7%)	202 (45.7%)	48 (10.9%)	3 (0.7%)	27 (6.1%)
Secondary	Urban	36 (30.8%)	56 (47.9%)	16 (13.7%)	0 (0.0%)	9 (7.7%)
	Rural	42 (38.2%)	49 (44.5%)	6 (5.5%)	1 (0.9%)	12 (10.9%)
	Total	78 (34.4%)	105 (46.3%)	22 (9.7%)	1 (0.4%)	21 (9.3%)
Grand Total		240 (35.9%)	307 (45.9%)	70 (10.5%)	4 (0.6%)	48 (7.2%)

Table 13: Parents' perceptions regarding the magnitude of physical hurt caused by Physical Violence perpetrated against schoolchildren in home settings.

The study further inquired of parents their awareness of the magnitude of incidents of physical violence to school children happen when they are on the way to/from school. As shown in Table 14, findings show that 39.1% and 42.6% of parents interviewed in rural and urban areas respectively were of the view that such incidents rarely occur. Furthermore, 14 % of parents interviewed were of the view that such incidents occur often with 17 % and 10 % of the parents in urban and rural areas respectively sharing that view.

In your view how often, incidents of physical violence to students that happen on their way to and from their school?						
Location	Urban	79 (22.1%)	152 (42.6%)	61 (17.1%)	6 (1.7%)	59 (16.5%)
	Rural	91 (29.2%)	122 (39.1%)	30 (9.6%)	4 (1.3%)	65 (20.8%)
Primary	Male	48 (28.9%)	73 (44.0%)	18 (10.8%)	3 (1.8%)	24 (14.5%)
	Female	73 (26.4%)	115 (41.7%)	39 (14.1%)	4 (1.4%)	45 (16.3%)
	Total	121 (27.4%)	188 (42.5%)	57 (12.9%)	7 (1.6%)	69 (15.6%)
Secondary	Male	20 (20.4%)	40 (40.8%)	16 (16.3%)	1 (1.0%)	21 (21.4%)
	Female	29 (22.5%)	46 (35.7%)	18 (14.0%)	2 (1.6%)	34 (26.4%)
	Total	49 (21.6%)	86 (37.9%)	34 (15.0%)	3 (1.3%)	55 (24.2%)
Grand Total	Male	68 (25.8%)	113 (42.8%)	34 (12.9%)	4 (1.5%)	45 (17.0%)
	Female	102 (25.2%)	161 (39.8%)	57 (14.1%)	6 (1.5%)	79 (19.5%)
	Total	170 (25.4%)	274 (41.0%)	91 (13.6%)	10 (1.5%)	124 (18.5%)

Table 14: Parents' awareness of the magnitude of incidents of Physical Violence perpetrated against School Children en-route to/from school.

The study sought of parents their awareness of the magnitude of physical violence amongst school children. As shown in Table 15, the study found that overall, 12 % of parents stated that often children are hurt physically by violence caused by other children. This is widely reported by parents in urban secondary schools with 17 % of parents reported that such incidents occur often. Again, about 3 % of parents from rural secondary schools reported that such incidents occur daily.

School type	Location	Never	Rarely	Often	Daily	I don't Know
Children are hurt physically caused by violence among children						
Primary	Urban	52 (21.7%)	143 (59.6%)	29 (12.1%)	2 (0.8%)	14 (5.8%)
	Rural	45 (22.3%)	122 (60.4%)	23 (11.4%)	1 (0.5%)	11 (5.4%)
	Total	97 (21.9%)	265 (60.0%)	52 (11.8%)	3 (0.7%)	25 (5.7%)
Secondary	Urban	22 (18.8%)	60 (51.3%)	20 (17.1%)	2 (1.7%)	13 (11.1%)
	Rural	30 (27.3%)	63 (57.3%)	9 (8.2%)	3 (2.7%)	5 (4.5%)
	Total	52 (22.9%)	123 (54.2%)	29 (12.8%)	5 (2.2%)	18 (7.9%)
Grand Total		149 (22.3%)	388 (58.0%)	81 (12.1%)	8 (1.2%)	43 (6.4%)

Table 15: Parents' awareness of the magnitude of physical violence amongst school children

The study sought teachers' perceptions of the magnitude of physical violence against schoolchildren perpetrated by teachers in the school settings. As indicated in Figure 7, findings show that of all the teachers interviewed 3.6 % (5.1% from Primary and 1.9% from Secondary Schools) stated that there are incidents of physical abuse such as fighting, hitting, pushing and beating of students by teachers that happen on daily or often in their schools.

The situation is more critical in rural areas (6.5%) compared to urban areas where there was no teacher who confirmed daily or often occurrence of such physical abuse cases. Majority of the teachers interviewed 91.8 % (94.9% from primary and 88.5% from secondary) schools feel that there are rarely or not at all such incidents physical abuse to students by teachers in their schools.
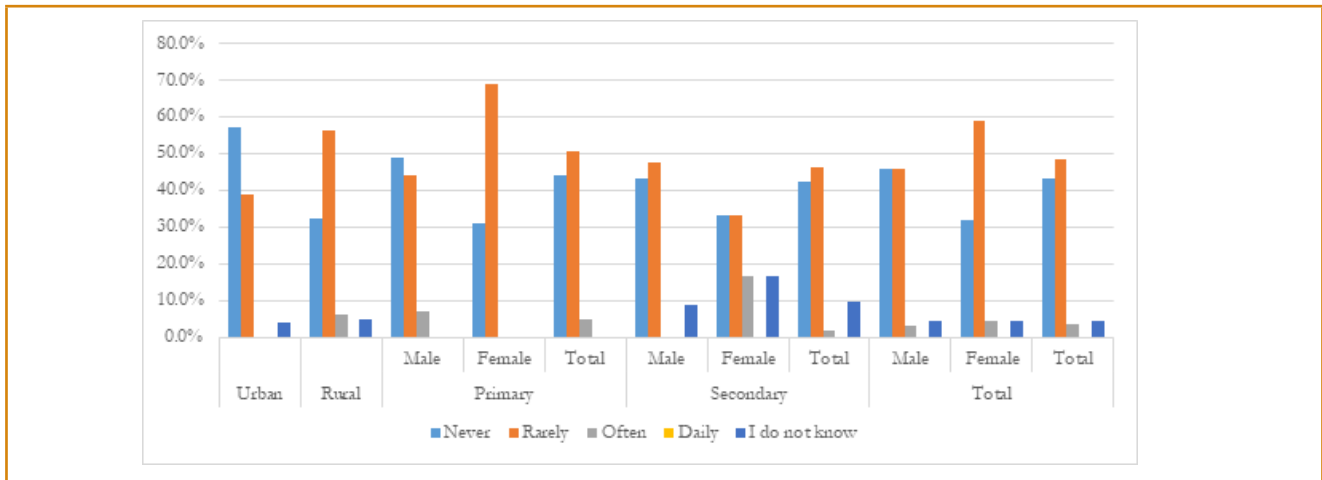
Figure 7: Magnitude of physical violence perpetrated by teachers to students in school settings according to teachers

4.4.   The settings where school children experience physical violence

Findings show that among school children involve in this study, most of the physical violence incidents happen mainly in the school setting and to a lesser extent in the home setting. As Table 16 illustrates, 89 % of all the students interviewed stated that they have experienced physical violence in the school setting while 10 % stated that they have experienced physical violence in the home setting. There is a significant difference between where physical violence occurs between secondary and primary schools. In secondary schools, 92.5 % of students reported to experience physical violence in school and 6.6 % reported that such incidents are occurring while at home. For primary school students, 85.4 % of physical violence are experienced in schools and 13.3 % at home. Findings further reveal that 11.1 % of students attending private schools experienced physical violence when at home compared to 9.5 % of students from public schools. The study found that about half of female students are experiencing physical violence in a school setting compared to 40.2 % of male students. In private schools, exactly 50 % of female students are experiencing physical violence in a school setting compared to 38.1 % of male students who are experiencing the same.

The study also found that 90.7 % of students in rural settings reported experiencing physical violence while in school compared to 87.6 % of their counterparts in urban settings. Furthermore, 11.4 % of students n urban areas experience physical violence at home compared to 8.1 % of students in rural areas who experience physical violence at home.

Sex	Location		Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Urban	Rural	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
At home											
Male	33 (3.7%)	20 (3.0%)	9 (4.1%)	23 (4.1%)	32 (4.1%)	6 (2.3%)	15 (2.9%)	21 (2.7%)	15 (3.1%)	38 (3.5%)	53 (3.4%)
Female	69 (7.7%)	35 (5.2%)	28 (12.7%)	45 (7.9%)	73 (9.3%)	11 (4.1%)	20 (3.8%)	31 (3.9%)	39 (8.0%)	65 (6.0%)	104 (6.6%)
Total	102 (11.4%)	55 (8.1%)	37 (16.8%)	68 (12.0%)	105 (13.3%)	17 (6.4%)	35 (6.7%)	52 (6.6%)	54 (11.1%)	103 (9.5%)	157 (10.0%)
On way to/from school											
Male	4 (0.4%)	4 (0.6%)	0 (0.0%)	5 (0.9%)	5 (0.6%)	1 (0.4%)	2 (0.4%)	3 (0.4%)	1 (0.2%)	7 (0.6%)	8 (0.5%)
Female	5 (0.6%)	4 (0.6%)	2 (0.9%)	3 (0.5%)	5 (0.6%)	1 (0.4%)	3 (0.6%)	4 (0.5%)	3 (0.6%)	6 (0.6%)	9 (0.6%)
Total	9 (1.0%)	8 (1.2%)	2 (0.9%)	8 (1.4%)	10 (1.3%)	2 (0.8%)	5 (1.0%)	7 (0.9%)	4 (0.8%)	13 (1.2%)	17 (1.1%)
At School											
Male	365 (40.6%)	268 (39.6%)	91 (41.4%)	227 (40.0%)	318 (40.4%)	94 (35.3%)	221 (42.3%)	315 (40.0%)	185 (38.1%)	448 (41.1%)	633 (40.2%)
Female	422 (47.0%)	346 (51.1%)	90 (40.9%)	264 (46.6%)	354 (45.0%)	153 (57.5%)	261 (50.0%)	414 (52.5%)	243 (50.0%)	525 (48.2%)	768 (48.8%)
Total	787 (87.6%)	614 (90.7%)	181 (82.3%)	491 (86.6%)	672 (85.4%)	247 (92.9%)	482 (92.3%)	729 (92.5%)	428 (88.1%)	973 (89.3%)	1401 (89.0%)

Table 16: The settings where school children experience physical violence

4.4.1. School children's experiences of physical violence en-route from and/or to school

The study explored school children's experiences of physical violence while en-route to and/or from school. As Table 17 indicate 61.7 % of all children are of the view that physical violence while en-route to schools never happens. However, a significant proportion (about 12 %) of students especially those in urban setting stated that students often experience physical violence when on their way to and/or from school. More female students think physical violence happens when en-route to and/or from school, whereas 13.3 % of female students in urban setting reported that physical violence when commuting to school happens often compared to 9.8 % of male students in urban and 5.8 % of their counterpart in rural settings who reported the same. Comparison between private and public school shows that about 12 % of students in both secondary schools think students often experience physical violence while en-route from and/to school.

In primary school, private schools slightly high proportional of students (8.9 %) thinks physical violence happens more often when en-route to and/or from school compared to public schools (5.6%). Furthermore, 29 % of students interviewed reported they think physical violence rarely happens when students are going and/or returning to school. Again, in urban setting 32.7 % of children feel rarely such violence is experienced by students compared to 24.6 % of children in a rural setting who felt the same. When students were asked to mention the main perpetrators of physical violence they are en-route from and/or to school, majority of students mentioned that public urban bus (daladala) conductors followed by motorcycle drivers (bodaboda). Other passengers and other people along the way to/from school were also mentioned to be responsible for physical violence.

Fre-quency	Sex	Urban	Rural/ Periph-ery	Primary		Secondary		Grand		
				Private	Public	Pri-vate	Public	Private	Public	Total
		In your view how often do incidents of physical violence (e.g. pushing violently, hitting and beating) to students (including yourself) happen on their way to and from their school?								
Never	Male	256 (55.8%)	254 (67.2%)	(0.0%)	190 (59.2%)	82 (72.6%)	157 (55.7%)	163 (69.7%)	347 (57.5%)	510 (60.9%)
	Female	301 (54.2%)	308 (71.3%)	(0.0%)	224 (66.1%)	112 (61.9%)	178 (54.1%)	207 (64.9%)	402 (60.2%)	609 (61.7%)
	Total	557 (54.9%)	562 (69.4%)	(0.0%)	414 (62.7%)	194 (66.0%)	335 (54.8%)	370 (66.9%)	749 (58.9%)	1119 (61.3%)
Rarely	Male	153 (33.3%)	101 (26.7%)	30 (24.8%)	111 (34.6%)	21 (18.6%)	92 (32.6%)	51 (21.8%)	203 (33.7%)	254 (30.3%)
	Female	179 (32.3%)	98 (22.7%)	30 (21.7%)	111 (34.6%)	43 (23.8%)	108 (32.8%)	73 (22.9%)	204 (30.5%)	277 (28.1%)
	Total	332 (32.7%)	199 (24.6%)	60 (23.2%)	96 (28.3%)	64 (21.8%)	200 (32.7%)	124 (22.4%)	407 (32.0%)	531 (29.1%)
Often	Male	45 (9.8%)	22 (5.8%)	10 (8.3%)	18 (5.6%)	9 (8.0%)	30 (10.6%)	19 (8.1%)	48 (8.0%)	67 (8.0%)
	Female	74 (13.3%)	25 (5.8%)	13 (9.4%)	18 (5.6%)	26 (14.4%)	41 (12.5%)	39 (12.2%)	60 (9.0%)	99 (10.0%)
	Total	119 (11.7%)	47 (5.8%)	23 (8.9%)	19 (5.6%)	35 (11.9%)	71 (11.6%)	58 (10.5%)	108 (8.5%)	166 (9.1%)
Daily	Male	5 (1.1%)	1 (0.3%)	-	2 (0.6%)	1 (0.9%)	3 (1.1%)	1 (0.4%)	5 (0.8%)	6 (0.7%)
	Female	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.2%)	-	2 (0.6%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.6%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.3%)	2 (0.2%)
	Total	6 (0.6%)	2 (0.2%)	-	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.3%)	5 (0.8%)	1 (0.2%)	7 (0.6%)	8 (0.4%)

Table 17: School Children's experiences of Physical Violence en-route from and/or to school:

4.4.2. School children's experiences of physical violence in the home setting

Delving further to understand issues of physical violence against school children, the study explored whether and the extent school children experienced corporate punishment in the home setting. Table 18 illustrates that 69.7 % of all children interviewed reported that they have been rarely receiving canning at their home with 70.1 % of boys and 69.3 % being girls. However, 6 % of all children reported that they often are canned at home. About 7 % of female students are often canned at home, this is slightly higher compared to boys (4.4 %). Students attending public school are leading in terms of being canned often at home with 6.4 % compared to 3.8 % of their counterparts attending private schools.

Comparison between primary and secondary schools shows that about 8 % of students in primary schools are often canned at home compared to 3.4 % of students in secondary schools. In public primary schools, about 9 % of female students reported being canned often at home.

Frequency of experiencing violence	Sex	Primary			Secondary			Grand total		
		Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
	How often do you get caned, hit or beaten by parents, guardians, relative or anyone else at your home?									
Never	Male	18 (14.9%)	52 (16.2%)	70 (15.8%)	45 (39.8%)	97 (34.4%)	142 (35.9%)	63 (26.9%)	149 (24.7%)	212 (25.3%)
	Female	22 (15.9%)	38 (11.2%)	60 (12.6%)	65 (35.9%)	113 (34.3%)	178 (34.9%)	87 (27.3%)	151 (22.6%)	238 (24.1%)
	Total	40 (15.4%)	90 (13.6%)	130 (14.1%)	110 (37.4%)	210 (34.4%)	320 (35.4%)	150 (27.1%)	300 (23.6%)	450 (24.7%)
Rarely	Male	97 (80.2%)	243 (75.7%)	340 (76.9%)	67 (59.3%)	180 (63.8%)	247 (62.5%)	164 (70.1%)	423 (70.1%)	587 (70.1%)
	Female	110 (79.7%)	267 (78.8%)	377 (79.0%)	108 (59.7%)	199 (60.5%)	307 (60.2%)	218 (68.3%)	466 (69.8%)	684 (69.3%)
	Total	207 (79.9%)	510 (77.3%)	717 (78.0%)	175 (59.5%)	379 (62.0%)	554 (61.2%)	382 (69.1%)	889 (69.9%)	1271 (69.7%)
Often	Male	6 (5.0%)	25 (7.8%)	31 (7.0%)	1 (0.9%)	5 (1.8%)	6 (1.5%)	7 (3.0%)	30 (5.0%)	37 (4.4%)
	Female	6 (4.3%)	34 (10.0%)	40 (8.4%)	8 (4.4%)	17 (5.2%)	25 (4.9%)	14 (4.4%)	51 (7.6%)	65 (6.6%)
	Total	12 (4.6%)	59 (8.9%)	71 (7.7%)	9 (3.1%)	22 (3.6%)	31 (3.4%)	21 (3.8%)	81 (6.4%)	102 (5.6%)
Daily	Male	-	1 (0.3%)	1 (0.2%)	-	-	-	-	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.1%)
	Female	-	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	-	-	-	-	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
	Total	-	1 (0.2%)	1 (0.1%)	-	-	-	-	1 (0.1%)	1 (0.1%)

Table 18: School children's experience of corporate punishment at home.

Table 19 below illustrates that more than half of students interviewed reported to know colleagues who rarely get canned, hit or beaten at their home by parents, guardians, relative or anyone else. About 17 % of all children interviewed, stated that they know colleagues who are canned, hit or beaten at their home setting. About 18 % and 16 % of students in primary and secondary school respectively are aware of their colleagues who are canned, hit or beaten by parents, guardians, relatives or anyone else at home.

A significant proportional (21.8 %) of students stated that they do not know what is happening to their colleagues at home in relation to canning or being beaten by parents, guardians or other relatives at home. Female students are slightly more aware of children who are often canned or beaten at home setting.

Frequency	Sex	Primary			Secondary			Grand total		
		Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
		As far as you know how often do other children you know get caned, hit or beaten by parents, guardians, relative or anyone else at their home?								
Never	Male	12 (9.9%)	28 (8.7%)	40 (9.0%)	10 (8.8%)	21 (7.4%)	31 (7.8%)	22 (9.4%)	49 (8.1%)	71 (8.5%)
	Female	1 (0.7%)	24 (7.1%)	25 (5.2%)	24 (13.3%)	27 (8.2%)	51 (10.0%)	25 (7.8%)	51 (7.6%)	76 (7.7%)
	Total	13 (5.0%)	52 (7.9%)	65 (7.1%)	34 (11.6%)	48 (7.9%)	82 (9.1%)	47 (8.5%)	100 (7.9%)	147 (8.1%)
Rarely	Male	60 (49.6%)	169 (52.6%)	229 (51.8%)	68 (60.2%)	167 (59.2%)	235 (59.5%)	128 (54.7%)	336 (55.7%)	464 (55.4%)
	Female	57 (41.3%)	178 (52.5%)	235 (49.3%)	90 (49.7%)	175 (53.2%)	265 (52.0%)	147 (46.1%)	353 (52.8%)	500 (50.7%)
	Total	117 (45.2%)	347 (52.6%)	464 (50.5%)	158 (53.7%)	342 (56.0%)	500 (55.2%)	275 (49.7%)	689 (54.2%)	964 (52.9%)
Often	Male	21 (17.4%)	65 (20.2%)	86 (19.5%)	13 (11.5%)	35 (12.4%)	48 (12.2%)	34 (14.5%)	100 (16.6%)	134 (16.0%)
	Female	25 (18.1%)	51 (15.0%)	76 (15.9%)	34 (18.8%)	60 (18.2%)	94 (18.4%)	59 (18.5%)	111 (16.6%)	170 (17.2%)
	Total	46 (17.8%)	116 (17.6%)	162 (17.6%)	47 (16.0%)	95 (15.5%)	142 (15.7%)	93 (16.8%)	211 (16.6%)	304 (16.7%)
Daily	Male	1 (0.8%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.2%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (1.4%)	4 (1.0%)	1 (0.4%)	4 (0.7%)	5 (0.6%)
	Female	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.6%)	2 (0.4%)	2 (1.1%)	3 (0.9%)	5 (1.0%)	2 (0.6%)	5 (0.7%)	7 (0.7%)
	Total	1 (0.4%)	2 (0.3%)	3 (0.3%)	2 (0.7%)	7 (1.1%)	9 (1.0%)	3 (0.5%)	9 (0.7%)	12 (0.7%)
Don't Know	Male	27 (22.3%)	59 (18.4%)	86 (19.5%)	22 (19.5%)	55 (19.5%)	77 (19.5%)	49 (20.9%)	114 (18.9%)	163 (19.5%)
	Female	55 (39.9%)	84 (24.8%)	139 (29.1%)	31 (17.1%)	64 (19.5%)	95 (18.6%)	86 (27.0%)	148 (22.2%)	234 (23.7%)
	Total	82 (31.7%)	143 (21.7%)	225 (24.5%)	53 (18.0%)	119 (19.5%)	172 (19.0%)	135 (24.4%)	262 (20.6%)	397 (21.8%)

Table 19: School children's awareness of their colleagues who experience corporal punishment

4.5.   Negligent treatment or violence against school children

Child neglect refers to a preventable deficit in meeting a child's basic needs, including the failure to provide adequate supervision, health care, nutrition, clothing, shelter and safe living conditions, as well as other physical, emotional, social, educational, and safety needs. In that context below are study findings respective to school children's experiences of negligent treatment.

4.5.1. Prevalence of negligence violence against school children

In order to determine if the school children have experienced negligence violence, the study examined assorted variables of negligence. The study considers a student to have experienced negligence if when asked responded "Yes" to either of the following variables i.e. did not get enough to eat and/or drink, had to wear dirty or torn clothes or clothes that were not warm enough/too warm or shoes that were too small, not taken care of when sick (for example, taken to see a doctor or given medicine), did not feel cared for,

felt you were not important, felt there was no one looking after you supporting you or helping you when needed. Table 20 shows the proportion of student who perceived that they have experienced negligence.

Type of Vio-lence	Sex	Primary			Secondary			Total		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
		Have you ever felt neglected?								
Ne-glect	Urban	205 (84.7%)	229 (84.2%)	434 (84.4%)	60 (27.6%)	51 (18.0%)	111 (22.2%)	97 (21.1%)	94 (16.9%)	191 (18.8%)
	Rural	42 (21.0%)	40 (19.5%)	82 (20.2%)	43 (24.2%)	36 (15.9%)	79 (19.5%)	85 (22.5%)	76 (17.6%)	161 (19.9%)
	Pri-vate	12 (9.9%)	18 (13.0%)	30 (11.6%)	22 (19.5%)	32 (17.7%)	54 (18.4%)	34 (14.5%)	50 (15.7%)	84 (15.2%)
	Public	67 (20.9%)	65 (19.2%)	132 (20.0%)	81 (28.7%)	55 (16.7%)	136 (22.3%)	148 (24.5%)	120 (18.0%)	268 (21.1%)
	Total	79 (17.9%)	83 (17.4%)	162 (17.6%)	103 (26.1%)	87 (17.1%)	190 (21.0%)	182 (21.7%)	170 (17.2%)	352 (19.3%)

Table 20: Students who experienced neglect according to school type, ownership, sex and location.

As Table 21, shows, findings indicate 21.1 % of students from public schools in Tanzania stated that they experienced negligence compared to 15.2 % from private schools. The data shows negligence is perceived more by secondary students 21.0 % (26.1% male and 17.1% female) compared to primary students 17.6 % (17.9% male and 17.4% female). Males students who are studying in primary and secondary public schools are found to be victims of negligence (20.9% and 28.7% respectively) more compared to other groups. Additionally, the most common forms of negligence experienced by students were 'did not get enough to eat and/or drink' reported by 9.1 % of the students interviewed and 'had to wear dirty or torn clothes or clothes that were not warm enough' (reported by 6.0 % of the students interviewed), followed by 'did not feel cared for' (4.0 %) and 'not taken care of when sick' reported by 3.3 % of the students interviewed.

The study sought to determine the prevalence of negligence against school children within the range of six months up to the time the study was undertaken. As shown in Table 21, 10.8% of the students interviewed (12.9% male and 9.0% female) stated that they have experienced negligence within the aforementioned period. Findings reveal more students had experienced neglect violence at public schools (12.7 %) compared to private schools (6.5 %). Male students in primary and secondary public schools were found to be more victims of negligence (13.7% and 17.4% respectively) compared to other groups.

Table 21: Children who experienced negligence within the past 6 months according to school type, ownership, sex and location

Type of Violence	Sex	Primary			Secondary			Total		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
		In the last 6 months have you ever experienced neglect violence								
Neglect	Urban	16 (6.6%)	20 (7.4%)	36 (7.0%)	33 (15.2%)	24 (8.5%)	57 (11.4%)	49 (10.7%)	44 (7.9%)	93 (9.2%)
	Rural	33 (16.5%)	23 (11.2%)	56 (13.8%)	26 (14.6%)	22 (9.7%)	48 (11.9%)	59 (15.6%)	45 (10.4%)	104 (12.8%)
	Private	5 (4.1%)	7 (5.1%)	12 (4.6%)	10 (8.8%)	14 (7.7%)	24 (8.2%)	15 (6.4%)	21 (6.6%)	36 (6.5%)
	Public	44 (13.7%)	36 (10.6%)	80 (12.1%)	49 (17.4%)	32 (9.7%)	81 (13.3%)	93 (15.4%)	68 (10.2%)	161 (12.7%)
	Total	49 (11.1%)	43 (9.0%)	92 (10.0%)	59 (14.9%)	46 (9.0%)	105 (11.6%)	108 (12.9%)	89 (9.0%)	197 (10.8%)

Table 21: Children who experienced negligence within the past 6 months according to school type, ownership, sex and location

4.5.2. Magnitude of negligence violence against school children

The survey examined the frequency of experiencing negligence within the aforementioned 6 months. Findings show that over half of the student's 55.3 % (55.6% male and 55.1% female) who had stated that they experience negligence, posited that they experienced such situations once in a while, while over a quarter of them i.e. 27.4 % (25.9% male and 29.2% female) stated that they experience such conditions almost every day.

Additionally, 9.6 % of them (11.1% male and 7.6% female) posited that they experience such conditions at least every month and 7.6 % (7.4% male and 7.9% female) experienced neglect violence at least once in a week as shown in Figure 8.
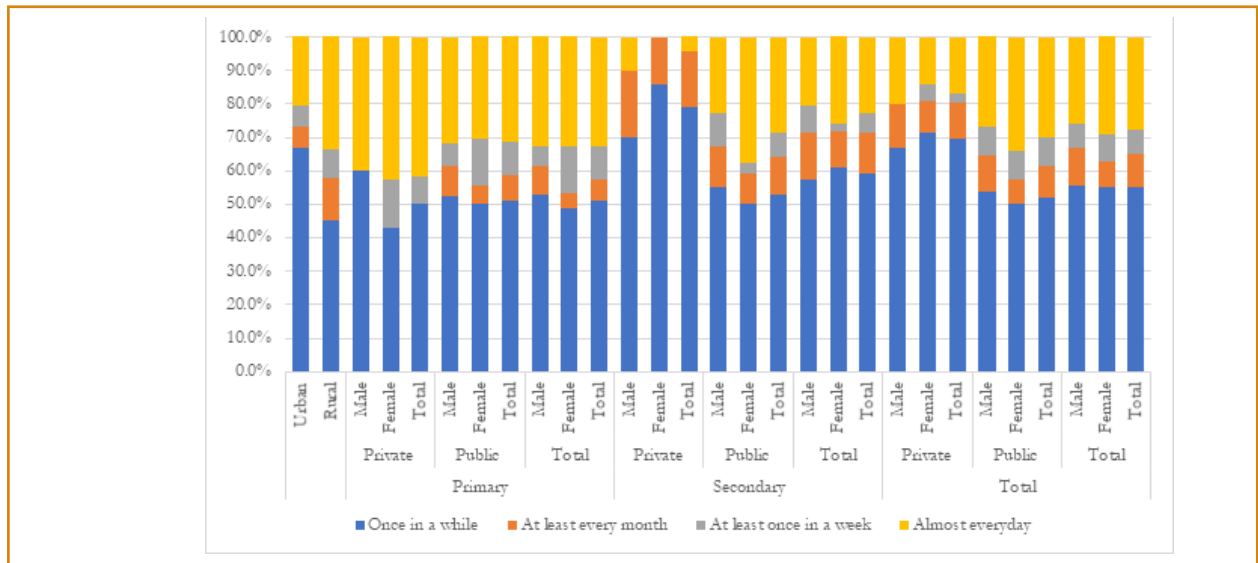

Figure 8: Magnitude of school children's experience of negligence over the last 6 months

4.5.3. Settings where school children experience negligence

The study explored the setting where school children mostly experienced negligence. As per Figure 9, over half i.e. 56.3 % (55.6% male and 57.3% female) of school children stated that they most experience that situation at home. Again, 41.1 % (42.6% male and 39.3% female) said they experienced that at school while 2.5 % (1.9% male and 3.4% female) mentioned that they experienced that on their way to and from the school.
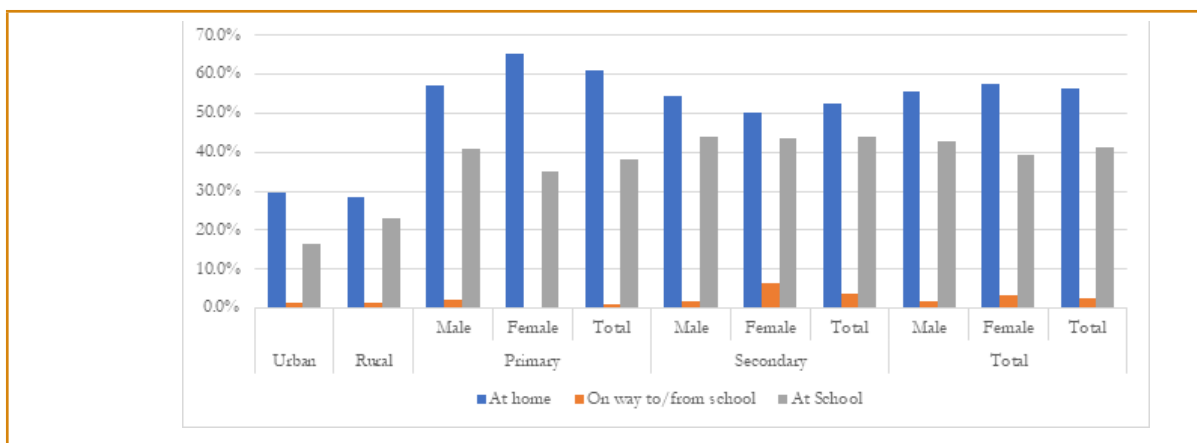

Figure 9: Setting where school children most experienced negligence

4.6.   Sexual violence against school children

Sexual violence refers to the involvement of a child in sexual activity that he or she does not fully comprehend, is unable to give informed consent to, or for which the child is not developmentally prepared, or else that violates the laws or social taboos of society. According to Mathews & Collin-Vézina (2019:135), among other things, sexual violence is evidenced in "The inducement or coercion of a child to engage in any unlawful sexual activity; the exploitative use of a child in prostitution or other unlawful sexual practices; the exploitative use of children in pornographic performance and materials." There are also arguments that child marriages should be recognised as forced marriage and a form of abuse including sexual abuse[13]

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13   See Chantler, K. (2012). Recognition of and Intervention in Forced Marriage as a Form of Violence and Abuse. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, Vol.13, No. 3, pp.176–183

building from the strong legal foundation relating to the age of consent.

In that respect, there are numerous specific sexual offences against children encompassed under the concept of sexual violence. Some of them are such as rape including statutory rape, sexual assault of a child, any form of sexual activity with a child, the abuse of a position of trust which leads to a sexual offence against a child, sexual grooming and meeting a child following sexual grooming, encouraging, arranging or causing the involvement of a child in prostitution or pornography. In that context, the following are study findings relating to sexual violence against children.

4.6.1. Prevalence of sexual violence against school children

The study attempted to capture a holistic picture of the prevalence of sexual violence against school-going children. In that respect, the survey explored a range of sexual violence variables and asked a student to say "Yes" if they have ever had such an experience and to say 'No' if they have never had such an experience. The following variables were explored: showed pornography, experienced consented or forced kiss, touched in a sexual way, if someone changed/took off their clothes in front of the child (indecent exposure), if someone made the child take their clothes off in order to see, touch or play with their private parts, if someone made the child touch their private parts, if someone touched the child's private parts if someone involved the child in making pornography if someone tried to or made the child have sex with them, if someone gave the child money with the intention of having sex with them if someone spoke or wrote to the child in a sexual way. As Figure 10 shows, more students from public schools in Tanzania (17.0% %) reported having experienced at least one incident of sexual violence compared to the students from private schools' 14.3%. The situation is more common to female students from public schools where 19.3 % reported experiencing at least one incident of sexual violence compared to 14.7 % of female students from private schools and compared to male students (14.4 and 13.7 % in public and private schools respectively). The most common form of sexual violence experienced by students was someone speaking or writing to them in a sexual way (9.2 %) and showed pornography (6.3 %), followed by tried to or made you have sex with them (4.8 %) and touched in a sexual way (3.2 %).
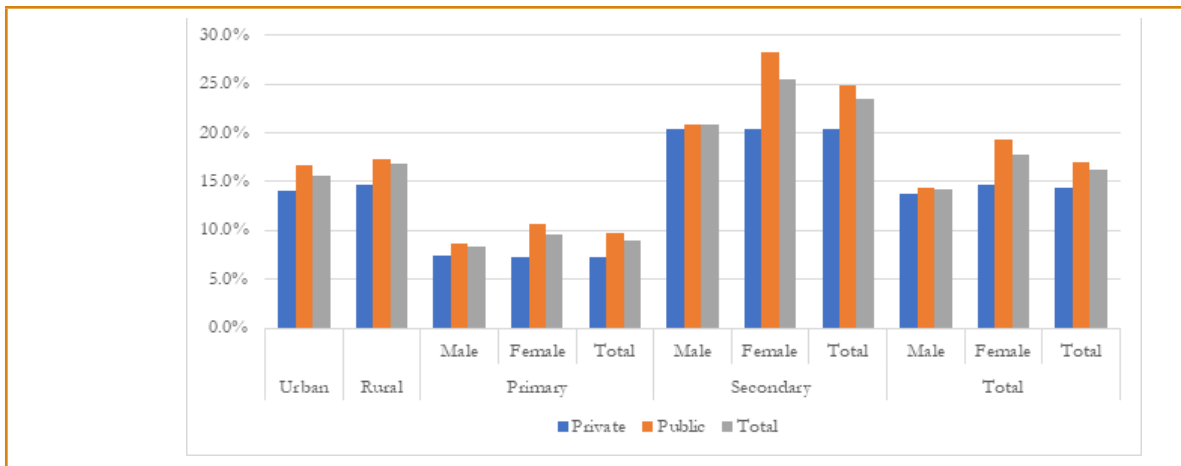

Figure 10: Children who have experienced sexual violence according to school type, ownership, sex and location

Findings show that more female students than male students reported to have personally experienced sexual violence either at home, en-route to and from school, or in the school setting. As Figure 11, show, 11 % of female students stated that they have personally experienced sexual violence while on the way to or from school with equally same proportional reporting to experience it from other people in the home setting. About 10 % of female students reported having experienced sexual violence from their fellow students. Comparison between students from primary and secondary schools shows that more female students from secondary schools have experienced sexual violence. In public secondary schools, for instance, about 20 % of girls have experienced sexual violence on their way to or from school. Likewise, 18.8 % of girls reported having experienced sexual violence from people in their home setting while 15.8 % experienced it from

their fellow students. In private secondary schools' 14.4 % experienced sexual violence at home setting, 13.3 % from their fellow students and 11.6 % en-route to/from school. Additionally, 2.4 % of female's students stated that they have experienced sexual violence from their teachers with the highest proportional coming from students in secondary school (4.1 %).
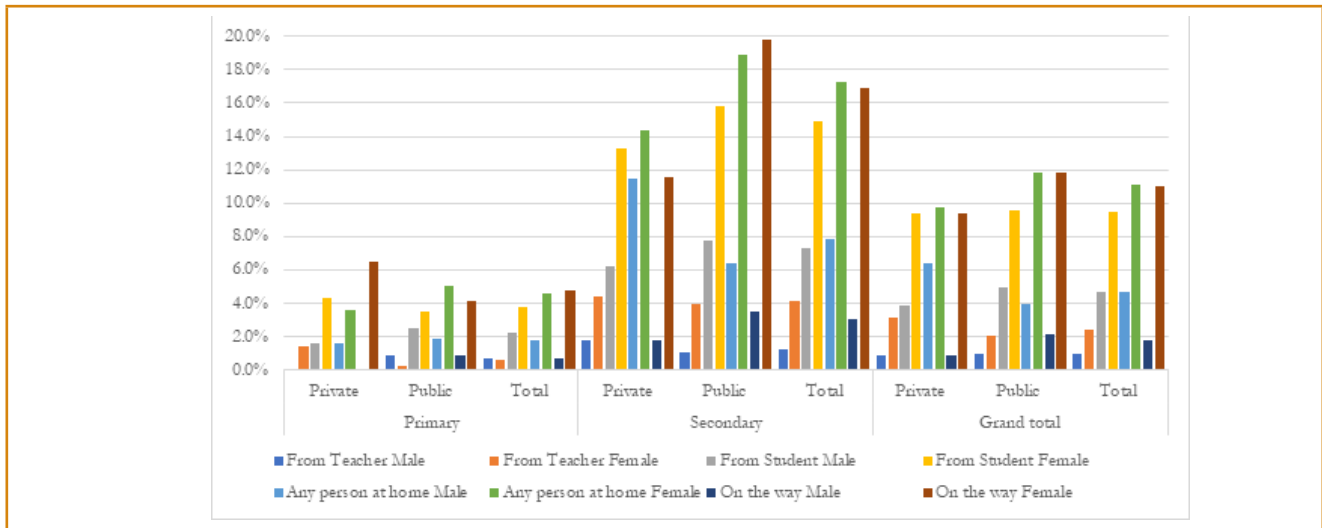

Figure 11: Students who reported to experience Sexual Violence in school, and en-route to/from school and at home

There is a notable proportion of male students who reported to have personally experienced sexual violence. About 5 % of all male students interviewed have experienced sexual violence from their fellow students and in the home setting. About 2 % of male students interviewed reported to have experienced sexual violence en-route to/from school while 1 % stated that they had experienced sexual violence from teachers. There are more male students who reported to experience sexual violence from fellow students (7.8 %) in public school compared to a private school (6.2 %). Also, more male students (11.5 %) attending private secondary schools reported having experienced sexual violence in the home setting compared to 6.4 % of male students who attend public secondary schools.

The study explored the prevalence of sexual violence against school children in a period of six months up to the time the study was being undertaken. The findings show 7.9 % (6.5 % male and 9.2 % female respectively) of the students interviewed had experienced sexual violence within that period. Majority of the victims are female secondary students (14.6 %) and male secondary students (10.6 %) from public schools, followed by female secondary students from private schools (9.4 %). In addition, the survey examined the frequency for experiencing sexual violence in that period.

4.6.2. Awareness on sexual violence perpetrated by teachers

The study inquired of the students who were involved in this study about their awareness of the existence of sexual violence perpetrated by teachers. As shown in Figure 12, close to 60 % of all children interviewed are of the view that incidents of sexual violence perpetrated by teachers to students never happens while 22 % of them stated that they did not know. A notable proportional of interviewed students (i15.1 % males and 15.9 % females) with a majority of them coming from secondary schools reported that such incidents rarely happen.

In public secondary schools, there is 27.5 % of all students who stated that such incidents rarely occur (26.2 % males and 28.6 % females); while in private secondary schools 14.3 % of students (16.8 % males and 12.7 % females) reported that sexual violence incidents from teachers rarely occur.
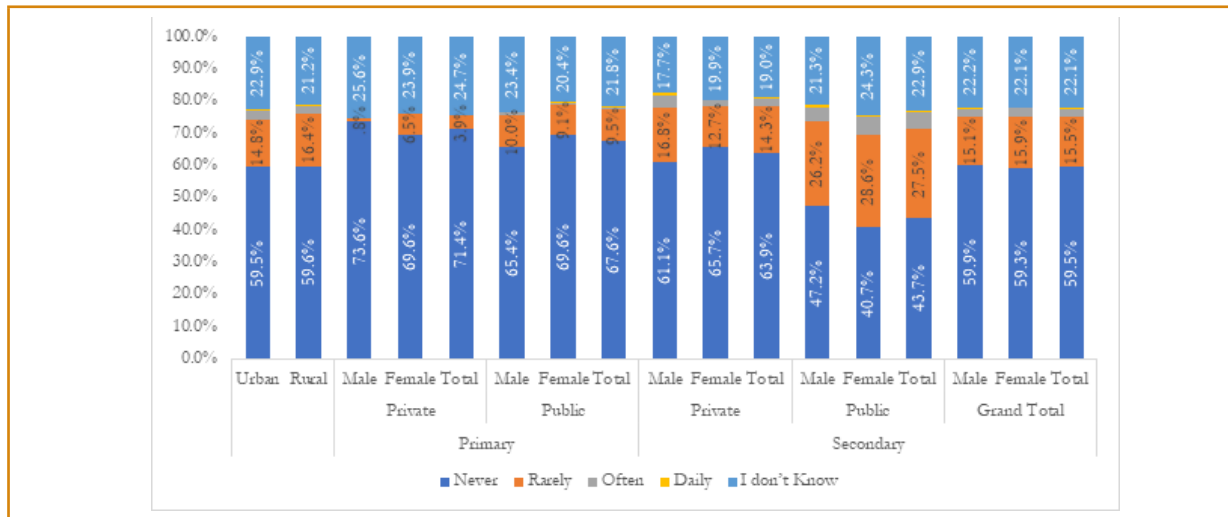

Figure 12: Awareness on sexual abuse experienced by students from their teachers

The study explored the awareness of parents regarding the occurrence of incidents of sexual violence against children by teachers in schools. Of the total 669 interviewed parents, 37.2% were of the view that no such incidents happen in schools, 31.6% stated that they were not aware whether such incidents occur, 25.7% said such incidents are rare and 8.7% stated that such incidents occur often. Further disaggregation of parents' responses showed that 36.8% of all female parents interviewed and 37.9% of all male parents interviewed stated that incidents of sexual violence against school children by teachers in schools never happen. Of those parents who stated that incidents of sexual violence against school children by teachers never happen, most were parents of primary school going students (42.4% female and 45.8% male) and parents of secondary school going students were fewer i.e., 24.5 % male and 24.8 % female. Furthermore, of the total parents involved in the study, 9% male and 8% female were of the view that sexual violence against schoolchildren perpetrated by teachers in schools occurs often. Of the parents who think such incidents occur often, 14% are parents of secondary school-going children and 6% are parents of primary school-going children. The rural-urban disaggregation of responses shows that of all interviewed parents, 32.2% of those residing urban settings think there is no sexual violence perpetrated by teachers against school children while 42.9% of parents residing in rural settings held the same view. Data also shows that 9.5% of parents residing in urban areas were of the view that such incidents occur frequently and 7.7% of parents in rural areas held the same view.

4.6.3. Involvement of in-school male children with older female sexual partners

The Law of the land is strict on statutory rape[14] when it happens to girls, but there is a palpable silence when it comes to boys. There is a limited social, cultural and emotional stance against boys engaging in sex with older women, and in some cases, it is celebrated as proof of the boy's sexual prowess. There is also limited research in examining the consequences of such practices on boys in general, and in-school boys in particular. This study intended to find out the prevalence of school in -schoolboys' sexual involvement with older females. Findings indicated in Figure 13 show that 24.5% of all interviewed students know who has a sexual relationship with older women. In public secondary schools, 28.3 % (27.7% male and 28.9% female) students reported knowing male students dating older women.

Likewise, in public primary schools, 11.1% of students reported being aware of the same issues. Findings further show the same issues are known to about 20% of students in urban areas compared to 14.7% in rural areas.
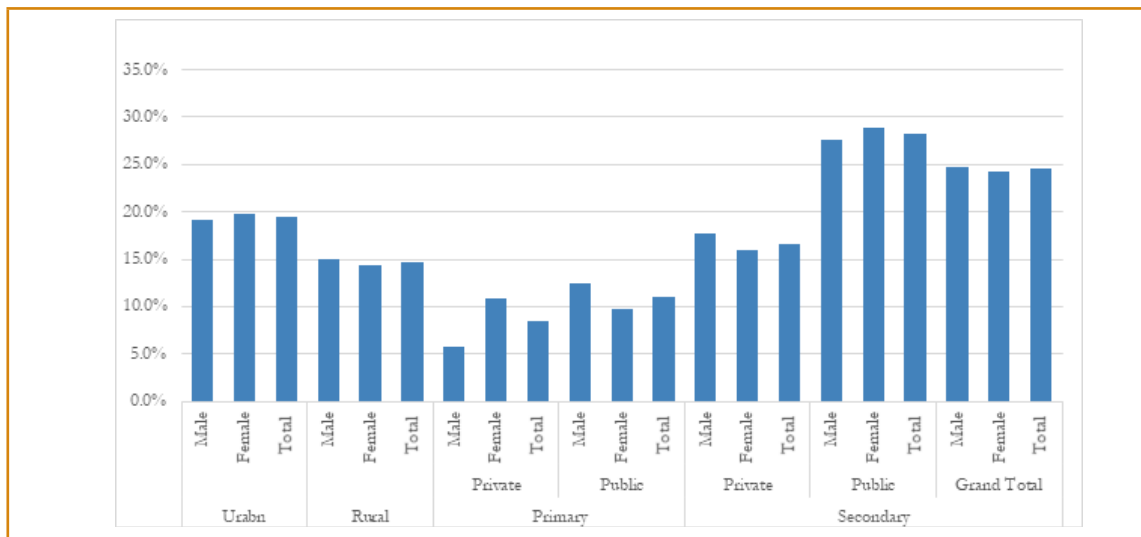
Figure 13: Awareness of male students' involvement with older women among fellow students.

4.6.4. Same-sex offences involving in-school boys and girls

The study explored the prevalence and magnitude of same-sex offences against school-going children. Findings indicated in Figure 14, show that 9.2% of all students interviewed are aware of situations where male students are sexually abused by their peers. About 10% female and 8.4% male of all interviewed students reported being aware of the same. This is a combination of public secondary schools (12%) and public primary schools (10%) % of students in and respectively reported to be aware of situations where male students are sexually abused by fellow male students. In public secondary schools (13.1 %) female students reported being aware of the same while in public primary school, 9.7 % of both male and female students reported the same.

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14   see Penal Code, section 130; SOSPA, No. 4 of 1998 section2(e)

Students in urban schools (11 %) are more aware of incidents of male students being sodomised by other male students compared to schools in a rural setting (6.9 %).
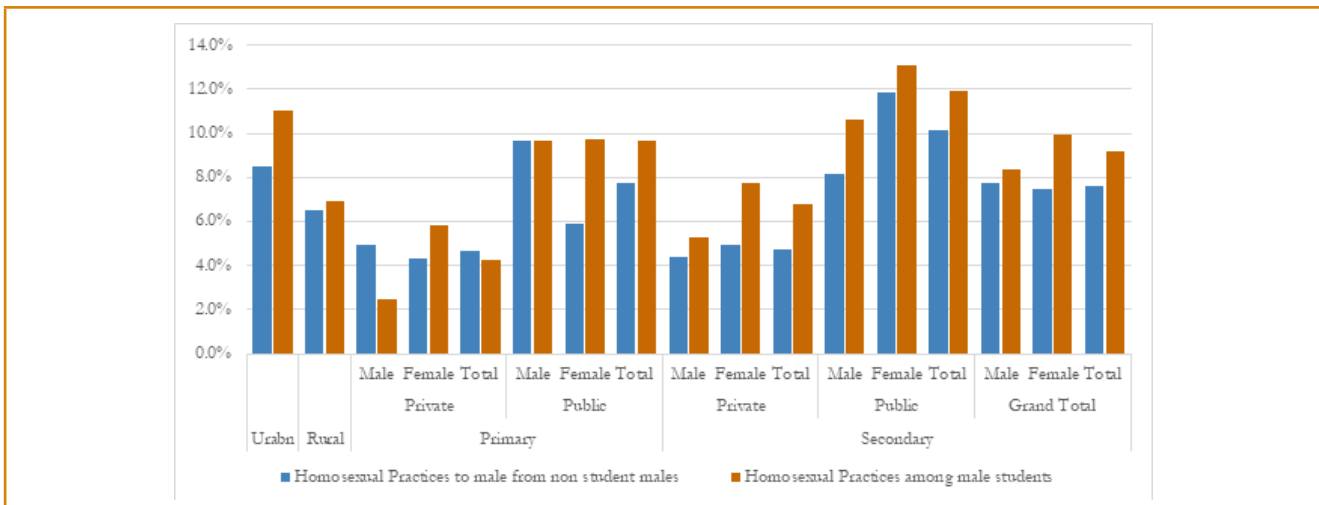

Figure 14: Students awareness of homosexual practices among male students in school

4.6.5. Magnitude of sexual violence against school children

The study found that 20% of student respondents in urban and rural settings feel that incidents of sexual violence against students en-route to and/or from school is rare. Only 5% of students in privately owned primary schools said there is sexual violence en route to or from school, compared to 2.9% of their counterparts in public schools. In secondary schools, however, 13% of the students in public schools said the violence is present compared to 11% of students in private schools. Female students recorded the highest proportions in both private and public schools on the occurrence of sexual violence. The same is felt by 2.9% to 5.8% in primary and 13.3% to 16.1% in secondary school male students. Also 2.8% to 4.1% in privately-owned primary schools. A total of 7.1% to 9.2% of public and private secondary school students also say there is sexual violence. Findings show that 34.4% of students stated that they are not aware of sexual violence among students en route to and/or from school, while 37.4% think such incidents do not happen. There was a negligible difference among student in rural and urban schools and 35.9% of females said they are not aware.

The study explored the extent of sexual violence among school children for six months up to the time the study was conducted. As Figure 15, shows, over two-thirds, 70.3% (72.2% male and 69.2% female) of the students stated that they were periodically sexually abused within that period, 17.9% (14.8% male and 19.8% female) said it happened at least every month and 6.9% (5.6% male and 7.7% female) said they were abused at least every week. The proportion of those who said at least every day is small, in the context of child protection, those would be the most affected.
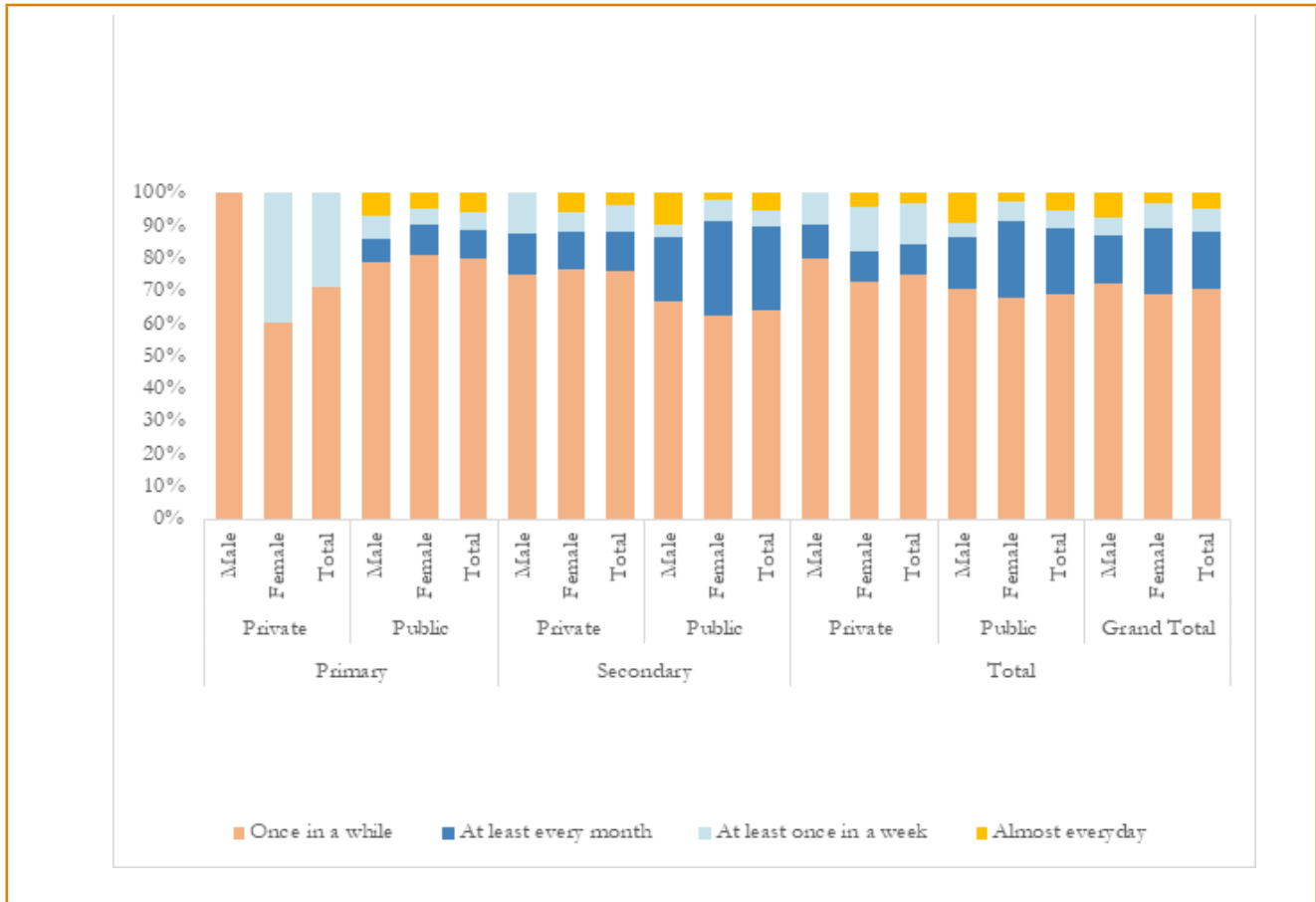
Figure 15: Frequency of school-going children experiencing sexual violence within the range 6 months up to the time of the study

The study attempted to establish the magnitude and type of the occurrence of sexual offences against school children. In those respective, students who participated in this study were asked about the frequency of occurrence. As shown in Table 22 below, 86.3% of students think the incidence of male students being sexually abused by fellow male students occurs rarely. However, 7.1% of students think such incidents happen often. In rural settings, about 9% of students think such incidents occurs often while in urban settings it is 6%. In the context of violence against children and based on universal child rights, it is important to be aware that while the %-age of this plight is essential, the fact that there is a prevalence of any %age is considered significant. In that respect even, 0.6% of the respondents who posits that such incidences happen daily, is important because it may mean an awareness of a case where a child is being abused daily.

The study also found that, as shown in Table 22, apart from male students being sexually abused by their fellow students, about 13% state that they were aware of incidents occurring often where male students are sexually abused by out of school males.

	Urban	Rural	Private			Public			Grand Total		
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	To the best of your knowledge, how often do incidents of male students being sexually abused by other male students happen?										
Never	9 (8.0%)	1 (1.8%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (4.5%)	1 (3.2%)	5 (8.2%)	4 (5.3%)	9 (6.6%)	5 (7.1%)	5 (5.1%)	10 (6.0%)
Rarely	95 (84.8%)	50 (89.3%)	8 (88.9%)	20 (90.9%)	28 (90.3%)	52 (85.2%)	65 (85.5%)	117 (85.4%)	60 (85.7%)	85 (86.7%)	145 (86.3%)
Often	7 (6.3%)	5 (8.9%)	1 (11.1%)	1 (4.5%)	2 (6.5%)	3 (4.9%)	7 (9.2%)	10 (7.3%)	4 (5.7%)	8 (8.2%)	12 (7.1%)
Daily	1 (0.9%)	0 (0.0%)				1 (1.6%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.7%)	1 (1.4%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.6%)
	To the best of your knowledge how often do male students have anal intercourse with male partners who are not students?										
Never	2 (2.3%)	0 (0.0%)				1 (1.9%)	1 (1.7%)	2 (1.8%)	1 (1.5%)	1 (1.4%)	2 (1.4%)
Rarely	71 (82.6%)	47 (88.7%)	10 (90.9%)	12 (80.0%)	22 (84.6%)	47 (87.0%)	49 (83.1%)	96 (85.0%)	57 (87.7%)	61 (82.4%)	118 (84.9%)
Often	12 (14.0%)	6 (11.3%)	1 (9.1%)	3 (20.0%)	4 (15.4%)	6 (11.1%)	8 (13.6%)	14 (12.4%)	7 (10.8%)	11 (14.9%)	18 (12.9%)
Daily	1 (1.2%)	0 (0.0%)				0 (0.0%)	1 (1.7%)	1 (0.9%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.4%)	1 (0.7%)

Table 22: Students awareness of the frequency of sexual offences against school children

The study also sought to capture students' perception of same-sex offences among students. As shown in Table 23, about 12 % of students who are aware of incidents of male students being sexually abused by other male students think such incidents are rapidly increasing. Again, 3% reported that such incidents are widely spread. However, there is a significant proportion (77.4%) of students who feel such incidents are very few.

There are insignificant differences among male and female students, public and private schools and urban and rural settings

	Urban	Rural	Private			Public			Grand Total		
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	To the best of your knowledge how prevalent is the tendency of male students being sexually abused by other male students?										
Does not exist at all	10 (8.9%)	3 (5.4%)	1 (11.1%)	1 (4.5%)	2 (6.5%)	4 (6.6%)	7 (9.2%)	11 (8.0%)	5 (7.1%)	8 (8.2%)	13 (7.7%)
Very few	84 (75.0%)	46 (82.1%)	7 (77.8%)	18 (81.8%)	25 (80.6%)	46 (75.4%)	59 (77.6%)	105 (76.6%)	53 (75.7%)	77 (78.6%)	130 (77.4%)
Rapidly increas-ing	14 (12.5%)	6 (10.7%)	1 (11.1%)	3 (13.6%)	4 (12.9%)	7 (11.5%)	9 (11.8%)	16 (11.7%)	8 (11.4%)	12 (12.2%)	20 (11.9%)
Wide spread	4 (3.6%)	1 (1.8%)				4 (6.6%)	1 (1.3%)	5 (3.6%)	4 (5.7%)	1 (1.0%)	5 (3.0%)

Table 23: Students' perceptions of the trend of same-sex offences involving male students.

The study further explored the prevalence and magnitude of sexual practices among female students. In that respect, students who participated in this study were asked of their awareness about incidents of female students having a sexual relationship with fellow female students and with other non-student females. As shown in Figure 16, 5.2% of students reported that they are aware of students who have a sexual relationship with their fellow female students while 3.3% reported awareness of female students who do the same with non-student females. Students from secondary schools are more aware of the aforementioned incidents compared to primary schools. About 10% of female students from private secondary schools are aware of female students who have a sexual relationship with their female students. Likewise, students from urban settings (6.3%) are more aware of homosexual practices among female students with their fellow students compared to those from rural settings.
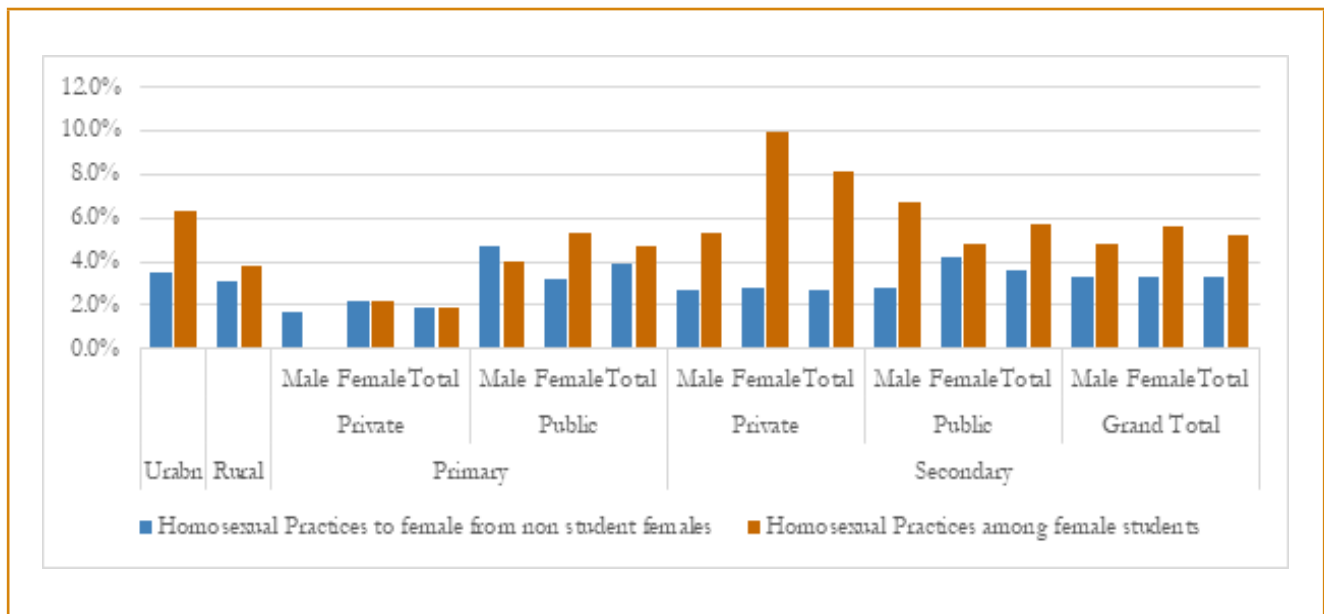

Figure 16: Students' awareness of sexual practices among female students

The magnitude of sexual practices involving female students, as per Table 24 below, shows that 90.5% of students who reported to be aware of homosexual practices among girls feel that such incidents rarely happen. However, 7.4% of students reported that such incidents happen often, 10% of male students think that such incidents occur frequently compared to 5.5% of female students who have similar perceptions. Comparison between urban and rural settings shows that about 13% of students in rural settings feel such incidents occurs often compared to 4.7% of students in urban areas who feel the same. On another hand, about 11% of students who are aware of same-sex practices among female feel that such incidents are rapidly increasing. More male students (18%) said that such incidents are rapidly increasing compared to female students (5.5%). More students in rural settings (12.9%) reported that the aforementioned incidents are rapidly increasing compared to 9.4% of students in an urban setting who feel the same. More students (12.1%) in public school think homosexual practices among school girls increases rapidly compared to 6.9% of students in private schools.

Respons-es	Urban	Rural	Private			Public			Grand Total		
			Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
	To the best of your knowledge, how often do female students have sexual relationships with other female students?										
Never	1 (1.6%)	0 (0.0%)				1 (3.1%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.5%)	1 (2.5%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.1%)
Rarely	59 (92.2%)	27 (87.1%)	7 (87.5%)	20 (95.2%)	27 (93.1%)	27 (84.4%)	32 (94.1%)	59 (89.4%)	34 (85.0%)	52 (94.5%)	86 (90.5%)
Often	3 (4.7%)	4 (12.9%)	1 (12.5%)	1 (4.8%)	2 (6.9%)	3 (9.4%)	2 (5.9%)	5 (7.6%)	4 (10.0%)	3 (5.5%)	7 (7.4%)
Daily	1 (1.6%)	0 (0.0%)				1 (3.1%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.5%)	1 (2.5%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.1%)
	To the best of your knowledge how prevalent is the tendency of female students to have sexual relationships with other female students?										
Does not exist at all	2 (3.1%)	0 (0.0%)				2 (6.3%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (3.0%)	2 (5.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (2.1%)
Very few	54 (84.4%)	26 (83.9%)	7 (87.5%)	19 (90.5%)	26 (89.7%)	23 (71.9%)	31 (91.2%)	54 (81.8%)	30 (75.0%)	50 (90.9%)	80 (84.2%)
Rapidly increasing	6 (9.4%)	4 (12.9%)	1 (12.5%)	1 (4.8%)	2 (6.9%)	6 (18.8%)	2 (5.9%)	8 (12.1%)	7 (17.5%)	3 (5.5%)	10 (10.5%)
Wide spread	2 (3.1%)	1 (3.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (4.8%)	1 (3.4%)	1 (3.1%)	1 (2.9%)	2 (3.0%)	1 (2.5%)	2 (3.6%)	3 (3.2%)

Table 24: Students perceptions of the trend of sexual offences involving female students.

Students who were involved in this study were also asked about the magnitude of sexual violence occurring amongst students. As shown in Figure 17, in public primary school overall 24.8% of students reported that such incidents occur daily while 21.1% think they occur rarely. Comparison between male and female students shows that 28.7% of male think such incidents occur daily compared to 21.2% of female students who agree. In public primary schools, 4.1 % of all students think sexual violence among students occurs often. Unlike in other school categories, no student in the public primary school reported being aware of the occurrence of sexual violence among students themselves. On the other hand, in public secondary schools, 13.7% of students think such incidents occur often while 36.6% responded that they occur rarely.
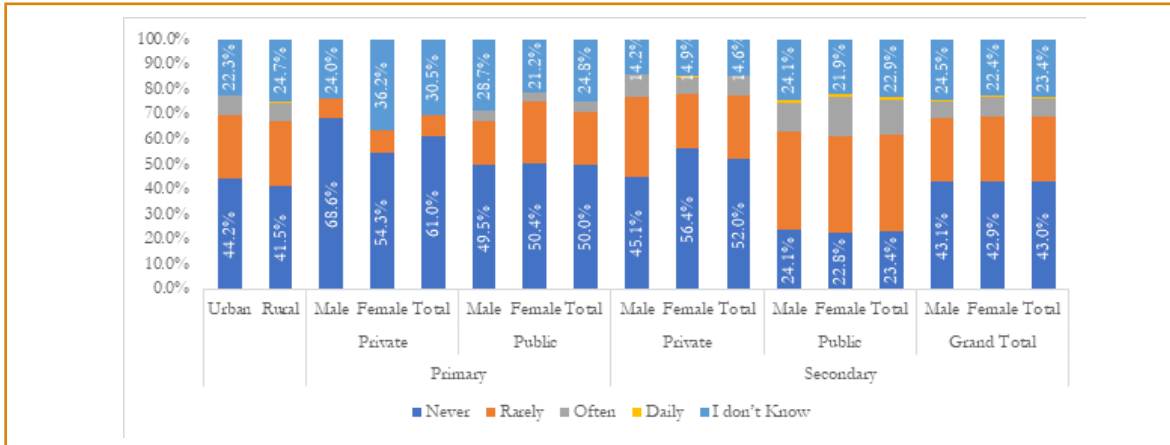
Figure 17: Magnitude of Sexual Violence among students

The study sought from parents their perception of the magnitude of sexual violence against school children in the home settings in their respective communities. As indicated in Table 25, findings show that 10% of all interviewed parents posited that incidents of sexual abuse against school children perpetrated by parents, guardians, or relatives in their community happen often. Furthermore, 40% of all parents interviewed stated that such incidents happen rarely. In urban settings, 12% of parents stated that such incidents occur often while 9% of their counterparts in rural areas agreed.

Additionally, 18% of all parents interviewed said that they did not know whether such incidents occur or not. Overall, 22% of interviewed parents who have children in secondary schools stated that they are not aware of sexual violence happening to school children, while 17% of their counterparts with children attending primary schools also stated that that they were not aware of such cases.

	Location/ sex	Never	Rarely	Often	Daily	I don't know
In your view in your community how often incidents of sexual abuse or violence by parents, guardians, relative or anyone else happen at their homes						
Location	Urban	105 (29.4%)	149 (41.7%)	42 (11.8%)	2 (0.6%)	59 (16.5%)
	Rural	104 (33.3%)	116 (37.2%)	28 (9.0%)	0 (0.0%)	64 (20.5%)
Primary	Male	58 (34.9%)	69 (41.6%)	18 (10.8%)	1 (0.6%)	20 (12.0%)
	Female	96 (34.8%)	101 (36.6%)	25 (9.1%)	1 (0.4%)	53 (19.2%)
	Total	154 (34.8%)	170 (38.5%)	43 (9.7%)	2 (0.5%)	73 (16.5%)
Secondary	Male	25 (25.5%)	46 (46.9%)	9 (9.2%)	-	18 (18.4%)
	Female	30 (23.3%)	49 (38.0%)	18 (14.0%)	-	32 (24.8%)
	Total	55 (24.2%)	95 (41.9%)	27 (11.9%)	-	50 (22.0%)
Grand Total	Male	83 (31.4%)	115 (43.6%)	27 (10.2%)	1 (0.4%)	38 (14.4%)
	Female	126 (31.1%)	150 (37.0%)	43 (10.6%)	1 (0.2%)	85 (21.0%)
	Total	209 (31.2%)	265 (39.6%)	70 (10.5%)	2 (0.3%)	123 (18.4%)

Table 25: Parents' perception of the magnitude of Sexual Violence against schoolchildren perpetrated in home settings.

Apart from asking parents about their perception on the magnitude of sexual violence against school children in the home setting, the study also sought their views on the magnitude of sexual violence against school children while en-route to/from school. As indicated in Table 26, findings show that about 30% of all parents interviewed stated that they were not aware. More parents (31.3%) of secondary school children stated that they are not aware, compared to 25.1% of parents of primary school children.

In your view how often incidents of sexual abuse or violence to students that happen on their way to and from their school?						
	Urban	92 (25.8%)	121 (33.9%)	62 (17.4%)	3 (0.8%)	79 (22.1%)
	Rural	101 (32.4%)	73 (23.4%)	34 (10.9%)	1 (0.3%)	103 (33.0%)
Primary	Male	56 (33.7%)	48 (28.9%)	25 (15.1%)	0 (0.0%)	37 (22.3%)
	Female	86 (31.2%)	79 (28.6%)	35 (12.7%)	2 (0.7%)	74 (26.8%)
	Total	142 (32.1%)	127 (28.7%)	60 (13.6%)	2 (0.5%)	111 (25.1%)
Secondary	Male	25 (25.5%)	34 (34.7%)	12 (12.2%)	0 (0.0%)	27 (27.6%)
	Female	26 (20.2%)	33 (25.6%)	24 (18.6%)	2 (1.6%)	44 (34.1%)
	Total	51 (22.5%)	67 (29.5%)	36 (15.9%)	2 (0.9%)	71 (31.3%)
Grand Total	Male	81 (30.7%)	82 (31.1%)	37 (14.0%)	0 (0.0%)	64 (24.2%)
	Female	112 (27.7%)	112 (27.7%)	59 (14.6%)	4 (1.0%)	118 (29.1%)
	Total	193 (28.8%)	194 (29.0%)	96 (14.3%)	4 (0.6%)	182 (27.2%)

Table 26: Parents' perception of the magnitude of Sexual Violence against School Children perpetrated in en-route to/from school.

The study also inquired of parents' perception regarding the magnitude of sexual violence amongst students. As indicated in Figure 18, findings show that 35.1% of parents are of the view that incidents of sexual abuse amongst students rarely occur while 28.1% are convinced that such incidents do not take place. Furthermore, 25% of parents do not know whether such incidents occur or not. Overall, 11.4% of all parents said incidents of sexual violence amongst students happen often. Again, 13.4% of parents from urban areas think that such incidents occur often, compared to 9% of their counterparts in rural areas.
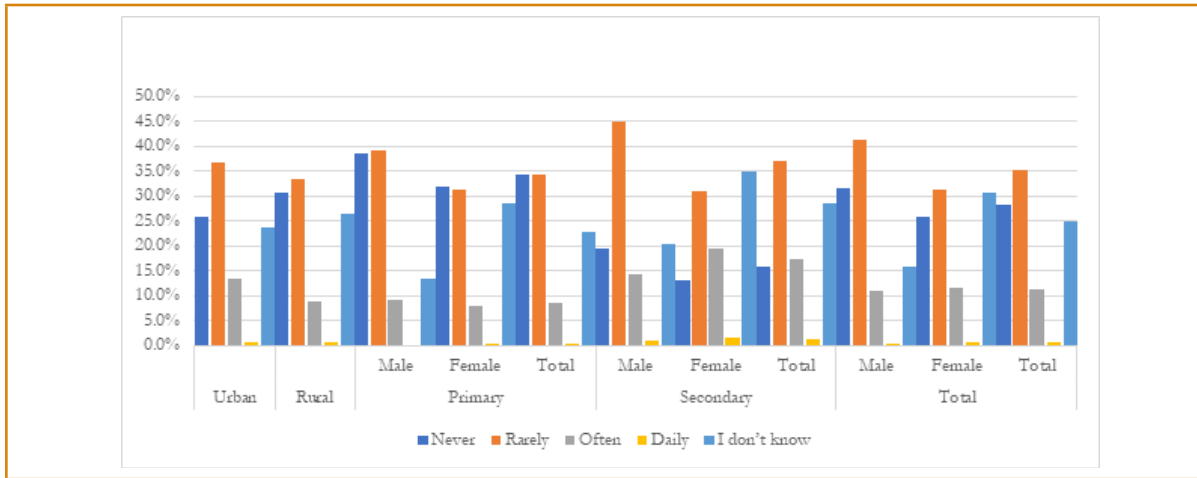

Figure 18: Parents' perception of the magnitude of Sexual Violence amongst students

The study sought the teachers' perceptions regarding the magnitude of sexual violence amongst students in school settings. Findings as per Figure 19 shows that 10.8% (6.8% primary and 15.4% secondary schools) of teachers interviewed said there are incidents of sexual abuse and violence amongst students happens daily or often in their schools. Almost 14.5 % of the interviewed teachers in rural areas and 2.0% in urban areas confirmed that incidents of violence happen often.
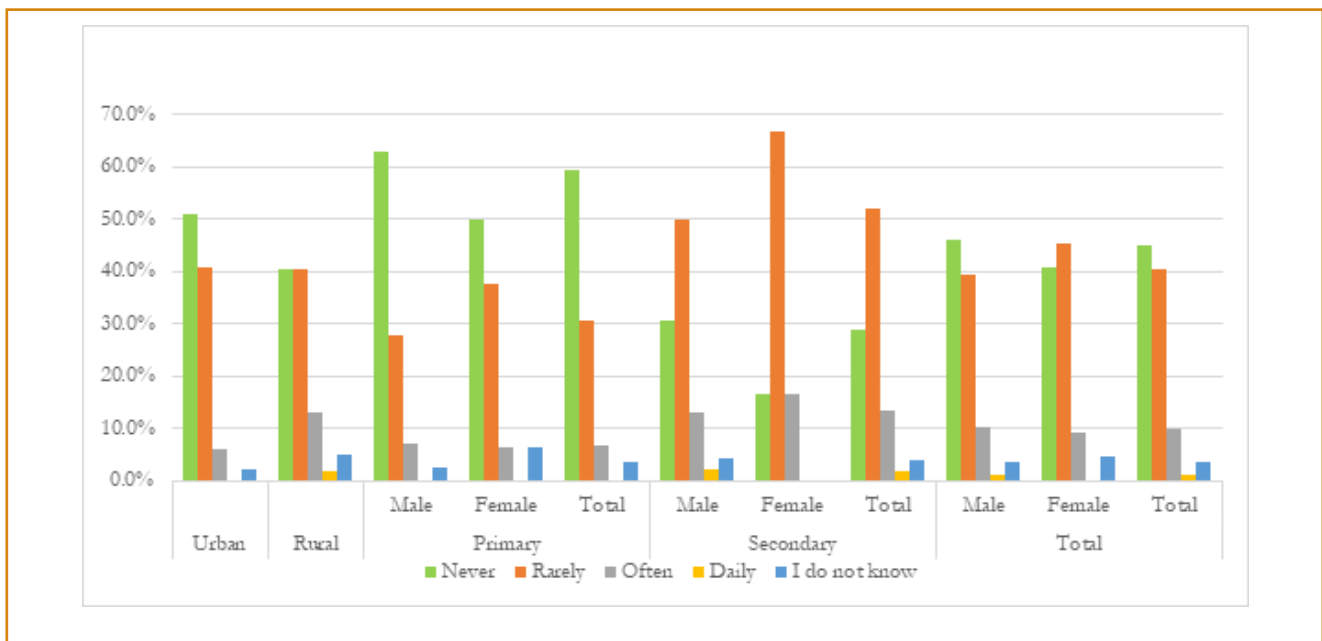

Figure 19: Magnitude of Sexual Violence amongst students according to teachers

The study further pursued the teachers' perceptions of the magnitude of sexual violence against schoolchildren perpetrated by teachers. As indicated in Figure 20, findings show that approximately 2.7% (1.7% primary and 3.8% secondary schools) of the teachers interviewed stated that there are incidents of sexual abuse or violence against students carried out by teachers often or daily in their respective schools. The results show more cases in rural areas compared to the urban areas according to 3.2% and 2.0% of the teachers' responses respectively. However, 77.5% (84.7% primary and 69.2% secondary) of the teachers interviewed stated that such incidents occur rarely or not.
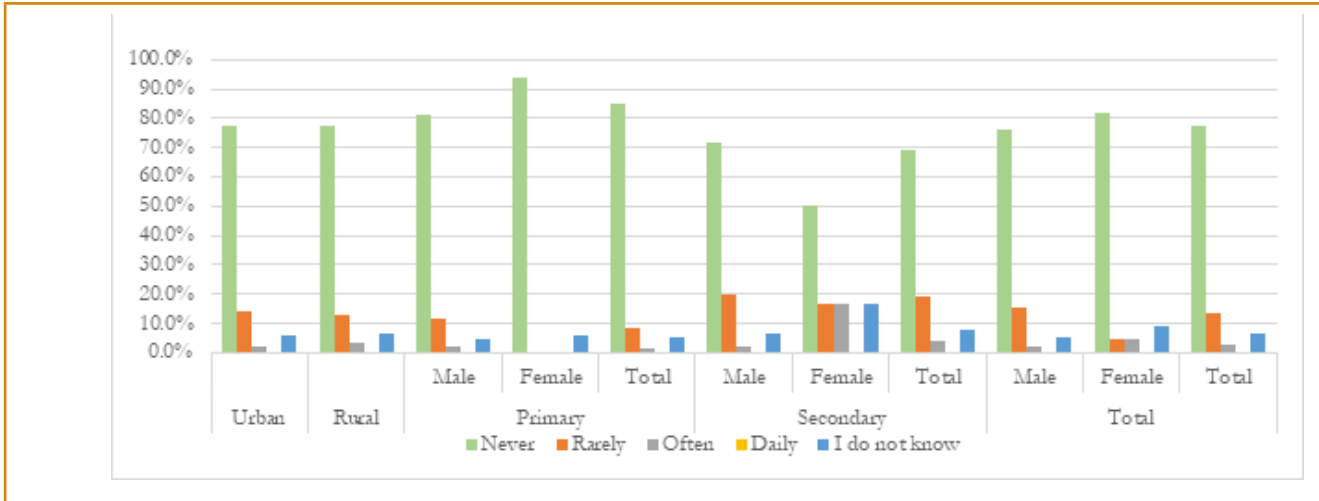

Figure 20: Magnitude of Sexual Violence perpetrated by teachers against students according to teachers

4.6.6. Settings where sexual violence against school children occurs

Overall, 1.8% of school-going children reported having experienced sexual violence in the cyberspace, whereby 3.2% of secondary school students reported the same. Most of the cyber sexual violence is done by people unknown to them, who usually send messages on their social media account requesting them to have sexual relations. Some students mentioned being invited by their friends to watch pornography on their phones.

About 8% of all school children interviewed perceive that incidents of sexual violence happen more often en-route to and/or from school mainly (about 10%) against female students, as shown in Table 27. A high proportion (10%) of students in an urban setting, felt that such incidents occur more often compared to their rural counterparts (5.2%).

Frequency	Sex	Urban	Rural/ Periphery	Prima-ry		Secondary		Grand		
				Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Total
	In your view how often, incidents of sexual abuse or violence (making sexual statements, unwelcome sexual advances, proposing sex, coercing into sex - for example giving promises for sexual favours or threatening bad things if you do not have sex, proposing marriage) to students that happen on their way to and from their school??									
Never	Male	178 (38.8%)	168 (44.4%)	70 (57.9%)	146 (45.5%)	38 (33.6%)	92 (32.6%)	108 (46.2%)	238 (39.5%)	346 (41.3%)
	Female	180 (32.4%)	156 (36.1%)	54 (39.1%)	150 (44.2%)	56 (30.9%)	76 (23.1%)	110 (34.5%)	226 (33.8%)	336 (34.0%)
	Total	358 (35.3%)	324 (40.0%)	124 (47.9%)	296 (44.8%)	94 (32.0%)	168 (27.5%)	218 (39.4%)	464 (36.5%)	682 (37.4%)
Rarely	Male	93 (20.3%)	72 (19.0%)	9 (7.4%)	58 (18.1%)	20 (17.7%)	78 (27.7%)	29 (12.4%)	136 (22.6%)	165 (19.7%)
	Fe-male	108 (19.5%)	90 (20.8%)	13 (9.4%)	55 (16.2%)	30 (16.6%)	100 (30.4%)	43 (13.5%)	155 (23.2%)	198 (20.1%)
	Total	201 (19.8%)	162 (20.0%)	22 (8.5%)	113 (17.1%)	50 (17.0%)	178 (29.1%)	72 (13.0%)	291 (22.9%)	363 (19.9%)
Often	Male	31 (6.8%)	17 (4.5%)	5 (4.1%)	9 (2.8%)	8 (7.1%)	26 (9.2%)	13 (5.6%)	35 (5.8%)	48 (5.7%)
	Fe-male	70 (12.6%)	25 (5.8%)	8 (5.8%)	10 (2.9%)	24 (13.3%)	53 (16.1%)	32 (10.0%)	63 (9.4%)	95 (9.6%)
	Total	101 (10.0%)	42 (5.2%)	13 (5.0%)	19 (2.9%)	32 (10.9%)	79 (12.9%)	45 (8.1%)	98 (7.7%)	143 (7.8%)
Daily	Male	3 (0.7%)	1 (0.3%)	-	0 (0.0%)	-	4 (1.4%)	-	4 (0.7%)	4 (0.5%)
	Fe-male	1 (0.2%)	3 (0.7%)	-	1 (0.3%)	-	3 (0.9%)	-	4 (0.6%)	4 (0.4%)
	Total	4 (0.4%)	4 (0.5%)	-	1 (0.2%)	-	7 (1.1%)	-	8 (0.6%)	8 (0.4%)
I don't know	Male	154 (33.6%)	120 (31.7%)	37 (30.6%)	108 (33.6%)	47 (41.6%)	82 (29.1%)	84 (35.9%)	190 (31.5%)	274 (32.7%)
	Fe-male	196 (35.3%)	158 (36.6%)	63 (45.7%)	123 (36.3%)	71 (39.2%)	97 (29.5%)	134 (42.0%)	220 (32.9%)	354 (35.9%)
	Total	350 (34.5%)	278 (34.3%)	100 (38.6%)	231 (35.0%)	118 (40.1%)	179 (29.3%)	218 (39.4%)	410 (32.3%)	628 (34.4%)

Table 27: The magnitude of school-going children experiencing Sexual Violence en-route to and/or from school.

The researcher asked students who had experienced sexual violence within six months' period up to the time the study was undertaken to identify the settings in which the incidents occurred. Findings depicted in Table 28 show that 42.8% (46.3% male and 40.7% female) of the students who acknowledged to be sexually abused said it happened in school. The situation is similar for both private and public schools, as well as male and female secondary school students (75.0% male and 58.8% female in private secondary schools and 50.0% male and 41.7% female in public secondary schools). Again, 38.6% (42.6% male and 36.3% female) said sexual violence happens at home. The situation is found to be generally more among public school students (39.8%) compared to private school students (34.4%). A total of 52.4% (62.5% male and 46.2% female) of primary school students, and 33.0% (34.2% male and 32.3% female) of secondary school students, posited that in that period they had experienced sexual violence at home.

Sex	Location		Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Urban	Rural	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
Where did you experience sexual violence											
At home											
Male	8 (30.8%)	15 (53.6%)	1 (50.0%)	9 (64.3%)	10 (62.5%)	2 (25.0%)	11 (36.7%)	13 (34.2%)	3 (30.0%)	20 (45.5%)	23 (42.6%)
Female	18 (37.5%)	15 (34.9%)	3 (60.0%)	9 (42.9%)	12 (46.2%)	5 (29.4%)	16 (33.3%)	21 (32.3%)	8 (36.4%)	25 (36.2%)	33 (36.3%)
Total	26 (35.1%)	30 (42.3%)	4 (57.1%)	18 (51.4%)	22 (52.4%)	7 (28.0%)	27 (34.6%)	34 (33.0%)	11 (34.4%)	45 (39.8%)	56 (38.6%)
On way to/from school											
Male	3 (11.5%)	3 (10.7%)	1 (50.0%)	1 (7.1%)	2 (12.5%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (13.3%)	4 (10.5%)	1 (10.0%)	5 (11.4%)	6 (11.1%)
Female	14 (29.2%)	7 (16.3%)	1 (20.0%)	6 (28.6%)	7 (26.9%)	2 (11.8%)	12 (25.0%)	14 (21.5%)	3 (13.6%)	18 (26.1%)	21 (23.1%)
Total	17 (23.0%)	10 (14.1%)	2 (28.6%)	7 (20.0%)	9 (21.4%)	2 (8.0%)	16 (20.5%)	18 (17.5%)	4 (12.5%)	23 (20.4%)	27 (18.6%)
At School											
Male	15 (57.7%)	10 (35.7%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (28.6%)	4 (25.0%)	6 (75.0%)	15 (50.0%)	21 (55.3%)	6 (60.0%)	19 (43.2%)	25 (46.3%)
Female	16 (33.3%)	21 (48.8%)	1 (20.0%)	6 (28.6%)	7 (26.9%)	10 (58.8%)	20 (41.7%)	30 (46.2%)	11 (50.0%)	26 (37.7%)	37 (40.7%)
Total	31 (41.9%)	31 (43.7%)	1 (14.3%)	10 (28.6%)	11 (26.2%)	16 (64.0%)	35 (44.9%)	51 (49.5%)	17 (53.1%)	45 (39.8%)	62 (42.8%)

Table 28: The setting where school-going children experienced Sexual Violence

4.7. Perpetrators of violence against schoolchildren

Knowledge about the perpetrators of violence against school children is crucial in developing effective prevention strategies (Devries et al, 2017). This section presents findings on flagged perpetrators of violence against schoolchildren.

4.7.1. Perpetrators of psychological/emotional violence against schoolchildren

The study identified perpetrators of psychological violence against schoolchildren. This was done through questions to school-going children who stated that they have experienced psychological violence within 6 months up to the time the study was undertaken. The study revealed that over a third of perpetrators of psychological violence i.e. 34.3% (34.4% male and 34.2% female) are parents and guardians, as per

Table 29 below. Nearly 26.4% (25.6% male and 26.9% female) identified fellow students as perpetrators of psychological violence, 18.2% (15.6% male and 20.1% female) identified close relatives and 14.1% (16.6% male and 12.1% female) identified others, such as neighbours and strangers.

Sex	Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
A teacher									
Male	1 (2.7%)	1 (0.9%)	2 (1.4%)	6 (13.0%)	2 (1.6%)	8 (4.7%)	7 (8.4%)	3 (1.3%)	10 (3.1%)
Female	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.8%)	1 (0.6%)	4 (5.3%)	3 (1.8%)	7 (2.9%)	4 (3.3%)	4 (1.4%)	8 (1.9%)
Total	1 (1.2%)	2 (0.8%)	3 (0.9%)	10 (8.3%)	5 (1.7%)	15 (3.7%)	11 (5.4%)	7 (1.3%)	18 (2.5%)
A close friend									
Male	2 (5.4%)	1 (0.9%)	3 (2.0%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (4.8%)	6 (3.5%)	2 (2.4%)	7 (3.0%)	9 (2.8%)
Female	0 (0.0%)	6 (4.7%)	6 (3.4%)	2 (2.7%)	4 (2.5%)	6 (2.5%)	2 (1.7%)	10 (3.4%)	12 (2.9%)
Total	2 (2.4%)	7 (2.9%)	9 (2.8%)	2 (1.7%)	10 (3.5%)	12 (2.9%)	4 (2.0%)	17 (3.2%)	21 (2.9%)
Other students									
Male	6 (16.2%)	28 (25.2%)	34 (23.0%)	22 (47.8%)	26 (20.6%)	48 (27.9%)	28 (33.7%)	54 (22.8%)	82 (25.6%)
Female	12 (26.1%)	33 (25.8%)	45 (25.9%)	20 (26.7%)	46 (28.2%)	66 (27.7%)	32 (26.4%)	79 (27.1%)	111 (26.9%)
Total	18 (21.7%)	61 (25.5%)	79 (24.5%)	42 (34.7%)	72 (24.9%)	114 (27.8%)	60 (29.4%)	133 (25.2%)	193 (26.4%)
Parent/ guardian									
Male	14 (37.8%)	41 (36.9%)	55 (37.2%)	11 (23.9%)	44 (34.9%)	55 (32.0%)	25 (30.1%)	85 (35.9%)	110 (34.4%)
Female	12 (26.1%)	45 (35.2%)	57 (32.8%)	32 (42.7%)	52 (31.9%)	84 (35.3%)	44 (36.4%)	97 (33.3%)	141 (34.2%)
Total	26 (31.3%)	86 (36.0%)	112 (34.8%)	43 (35.5%)	96 (33.2%)	139 (33.9%)	69 (33.8%)	182 (34.5%)	251 (34.3%)
Close Relative									
Male	5 (13.5%)	21 (18.9%)	26 (17.6%)	4 (8.7%)	20 (15.9%)	24 (14.0%)	9 (10.8%)	41 (17.3%)	50 (15.6%)
Female	14 (30.4%)	23 (18.0%)	37 (21.3%)	11 (14.7%)	35 (21.5%)	46 (19.3%)	25 (20.7%)	58 (19.9%)	83 (20.1%)
Total	19 (22.9%)	44 (18.4%)	63 (19.6%)	15 (12.4%)	55 (19.0%)	70 (17.1%)	34 (16.7%)	99 (18.8%)	133 (18.2%)
House Helper									
Male	1 (2.7%)	2 (1.8%)	3 (2.0%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (2.4%)	3 (1.7%)	1 (1.2%)	5 (2.1%)	6 (1.9%)
Female	3 (6.5%)	2 (1.6%)	5 (2.9%)	1 (1.3%)	1 (0.6%)	2 (0.8%)	4 (3.3%)	3 (1.0%)	7 (1.7%)
Total	4 (4.8%)	4 (1.7%)	8 (2.5%)	1 (0.8%)	4 (1.4%)	5 (1.2%)	5 (2.5%)	8 (1.5%)	13 (1.8%)
Others									
Male	8 (21.6%)	17 (15.3%)	25 (16.9%)	3 (6.5%)	25 (19.8%)	28 (16.3%)	11 (13.3%)	42 (17.7%)	53 (16.6%)
Female	5 (10.9%)	18 (14.1%)	23 (13.2%)	5 (6.7%)	22 (13.5%)	27 (11.3%)	10 (8.3%)	40 (13.7%)	50 (12.1%)
Total	13 (15.7%)	35 (14.6%)	48 (14.9%)	8 (6.6%)	47 (16.3%)	55 (13.4%)	21 (10.3%)	82 (15.5%)	103 (14.1%)

Table 29: Perpetrators of Psychological Violence against School Children

It is interesting to note that parents and/or guardians are mentioned as the main perpetrators of psychological violence against school-going children, considering the findings that indicate this form of violence happens mainly in the school settings. It is also worth noting that teachers are not mentioned by students as perpetrators of psychological violence. On the specific issue of who are the main perpetrators of psychological violence against school-going children when they are en-route to/from school, respondents mentioned their fellow students, street boys and other community members, motorcycle drivers- (bodaboda and bajaj drivers), public bus conductors, and neighbours.

4.7.2. Perpetrators of physical violence against schoolchildren

As illustrated in Table 30, 47.2% of all school children (28.7% female and 18.5% male) who had stated that they have experienced physical violence reported that they experienced it from their teachers while 20% (11.9 % female and 8.1% male) mentioned their parents/guardians as the perpetrators. Findings further show that more students in secondary schools (53.3%) experience physical violence from teachers compared to primary school students (41.2%). Again, 25.2% of children in primary schools' experience violence from their parents/guardians compared to 14.8% of those in secondary schools.

Sex	Location		Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Urban	Rural	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
A teacher											
Male	178 (19.8%)	114 (16.8%)	45 (20.5%)	89 (15.7%)	134 (17.0%)	48 (18.0%)	110 (21.1%)	158 (20.1%)	93 (19.1%)	199 (18.3%)	292 (18.5%)
Female	236 (26.3%)	216 (31.9%)	55 (25.0%)	135 (23.8%)	190 (24.1%)	105 (39.5%)	157 (30.1%)	262 (33.2%)	160 (32.9%)	292 (26.8%)	452 (28.7%)
Total	414 (46.1%)	330 (48.7%)	100 (45.5%)	224 (39.5%)	324 (41.2%)	153 (57.5%)	267 (51.1%)	420 (53.3%)	253 (52.1%)	491 (45.1%)	744 (47.2%)
A close friend											
Male	20 (2.2%)	17 (2.5%)	11 (5.0%)	9 (1.6%)	20 (2.5%)	2 (0.8%)	15 (2.9%)	17 (2.2%)	13 (2.7%)	24 (2.2%)	37 (2.3%)
Male	5 (0.6%)	13 (1.9%)	1 (0.5%)	8 (1.4%)	9 (1.1%)	1 (0.4%)	8 (1.5%)	9 (1.1%)	2 (0.4%)	16 (1.5%)	18 (1.1%)
Total	25 (2.8%)	30 (4.4%)	12 (5.5%)	17 (3.0%)	29 (3.7%)	3 (1.1%)	23 (4.4%)	26 (3.3%)	15 (3.1%)	40 (3.7%)	55 (3.5%)
Other students											
Male	36 (4.0%)	44 (6.5%)	6 (2.7%)	26 (4.6%)	32 (4.1%)	14 (5.3%)	34 (6.5%)	48 (6.1%)	20 (4.1%)	60 (5.5%)	80 (5.1%)
Female	41 (4.6%)	35 (5.2%)	9 (4.1%)	29 (5.1%)	38 (4.8%)	11 (4.1%)	27 (5.2%)	38 (4.8%)	20 (4.1%)	56 (5.1%)	76 (4.8%)
Total	77 (8.6%)	79 (11.7%)	15 (6.8%)	55 (9.7%)	70 (8.9%)	25 (9.4%)	61 (11.7%)	86 (10.9%)	40 (8.2%)	116 (10.7%)	156 (9.9%)
Parent/guardian											
Male	75 (8.4%)	52 (7.7%)	16 (7.3%)	65 (11.5%)	81 (10.3%)	19 (7.1%)	27 (5.2%)	46 (5.8%)	35 (7.2%)	92 (8.4%)	127 (8.1%)
Female	114 (12.7%)	74 (10.9%)	32 (14.5%)	85 (15.0%)	117 (14.9%)	29 (10.9%)	42 (8.0%)	71 (9.0%)	61 (12.6%)	127 (11.7%)	188 (11.9%)
Total	189 (21.0%)	126 (18.6%)	48 (21.8%)	150 (26.5%)	198 (25.2%)	48 (18.0%)	69 (13.2%)	117 (14.8%)	96 (19.8%)	219 (20.1%)	315 (20.0%)
Close Relative											
Male	26 (2.9%)	29 (4.3%)	8 (3.6%)	25 (4.4%)	33 (4.2%)	5 (1.9%)	17 (3.3%)	22 (2.8%)	13 (2.7%)	42 (3.9%)	55 (3.5%)
Female	47 (5.2%)	26 (3.8%)	9 (4.1%)	34 (6.0%)	43 (5.5%)	8 (3.0%)	22 (4.2%)	30 (3.8%)	17 (3.5%)	56 (5.1%)	73 (4.6%)

Total	73 (8.1%)	55 (8.1%)	17 (7.7%)	59 (10.4%)	76 (9.7%)	13 (4.9%)	39 (7.5%)	52 (6.6%)	30 (6.2%)	98 (9.0%)	128 (8.1%)
House Helper											
Male	5 (0.6%)	1 (0.1%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.4%)	2 (0.3%)	2 (0.8%)	2 (0.4%)	4 (0.5%)	2 (0.4%)	4 (0.4%)	6 (0.4%)
Female	11 (1.2%)	4 (0.6%)	6 (2.7%)	2 (0.4%)	8 (1.0%)	1 (0.4%)	6 (1.1%)	7 (0.9%)	7 (1.4%)	8 (0.7%)	15 (1.0%)
Total	16 (1.8%)	5 (0.7%)	6 (2.7%)	4 (0.7%)	10 (1.3%)	3 (1.1%)	8 (1.5%)	11 (1.4%)	9 (1.9%)	12 (1.1%)	21 (1.3%)
Others											
Male	62 (6.9%)	35 (5.2%)	14 (6.4%)	39 (6.9%)	53 (6.7%)	11 (4.1%)	33 (6.3%)	44 (5.6%)	25 (5.1%)	72 (6.6%)	97 (6.2%)
Female	42 (4.7%)	17 (2.5%)	8 (3.6%)	19 (3.4%)	27 (3.4%)	10 (3.8%)	22 (4.2%)	32 (4.1%)	18 (3.7%)	41 (3.8%)	59 (3.7%)
Total	104 (11.6%)	52 (7.7%)	22 (10.0%)	58 (10.2%)	80 (10.2%)	21 (7.9%)	55 (10.5%)	76 (9.6%)	43 (8.8%)	113 (10.4%)	156 (9.9%)

Table 30: Perpetrators of Physical Violence against School Children

The study also found that 10% of all students who experienced violence, mentioned other students as perpetrators. More students (11.7%) in rural areas experienced violence inflicted by peers compared to 8.6% of students in urban schools. Likewise, 8 % of all students who have experienced physical violence, reported close relatives as perpetrators. Primary school children experience different types of violence three times more than those in secondary schools. Additionally, about 3% of students (all female) from private primary schools reported having experienced physical violence from house helpers.

Findings further reveal that about 10% of children have experienced physical violence from other people. Male students (6.2%) experienced violence from other people more compared to female (3.7%). Likewise, more students from urban settings (11.6%) reported experiencing physical violence from others compared to students from a rural setting (7.7%). Comparison between primary and secondary schools shows that about 10% of all students in all schools have experienced physical violence from other people. When asked to mention who are those other people, students mentioned neighbours, adults in the street/villages and other street/village boys/girls.

Furthermore, the study inquired frequency of students feeling oppressed and/or physically hurt by their teachers. Figure 21 shows more than half of all students feel there are no cases of them being oppressed and/or physically hurt by their teachers. However, about 8% of students interviewed reported that incidents of students being hurt and oppressed by teachers happen often. In public secondary schools, 11% of students feel that often students are hurt by their teachers, while 9.8 % think students are often oppressed by their teachers. On another hand, 30% of students feel incidents of students being hurt by teachers occurs rarely. Likewise, 34.3% of incidents of students being oppressed occurs rarely.
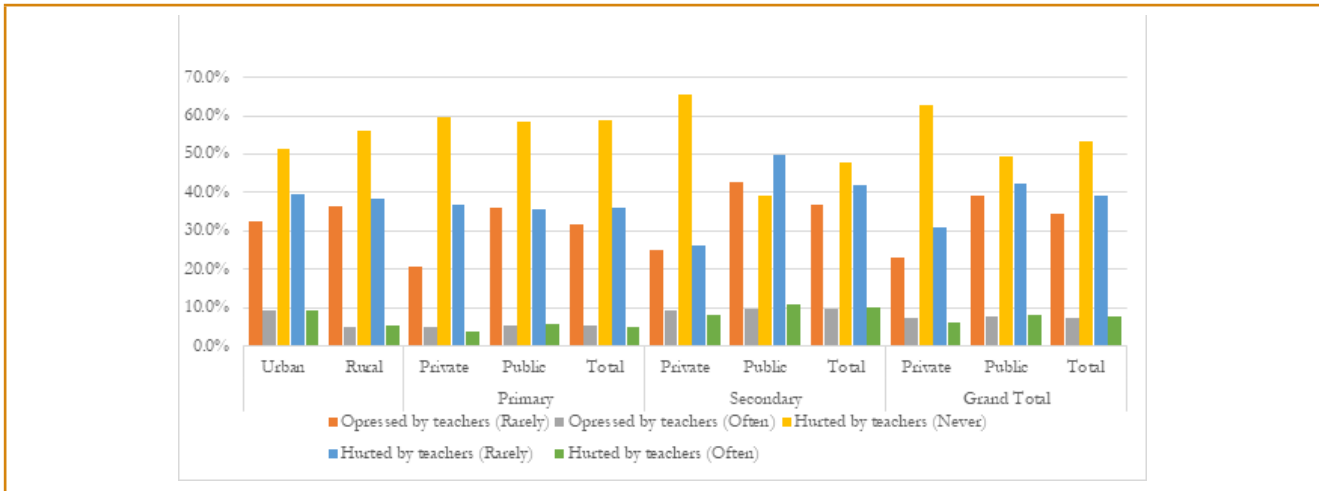
Figure 21: Students' perception on how often bullying, insults, punishment or hurting are caused by teachers in school

The study explored further on perpetrators of violence, prevalence and magnitude of students fighting and/ or hurting each other. According to findings, 8.4% of all students interviewed said incidents of students being hurt physically by other students occurs often, while 17% of students feel that often students are engaging in physical fights themselves. Further, 9.7% of students in public schools and 5.4% in private schools reported that incidents of students being hurt physically by their colleagues occur often. In the same way, 20.7% of students in public schools and 8.1% in private schools reported that often students engage in a physical fight. Incidents of engaging in a physical fight are twice higher (22.3%) in primary schools compared to secondary school (11.4 %). The above is illustrated in Figure 22 below.
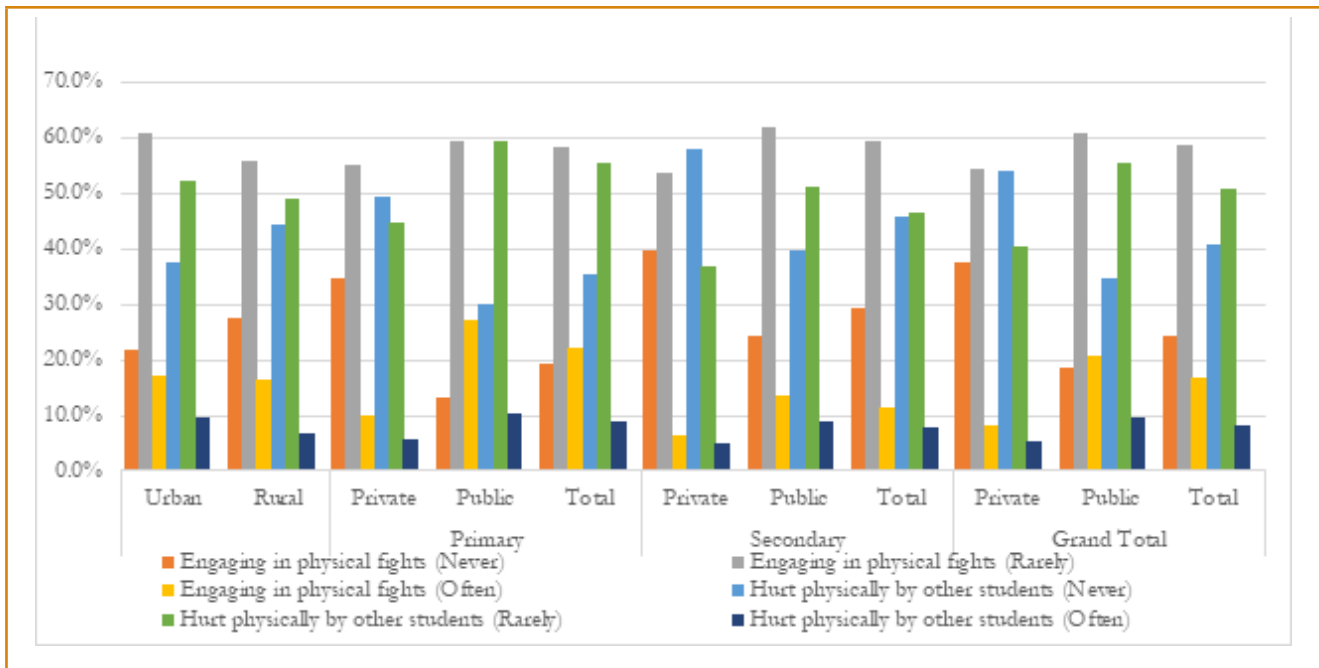
Figure 22: Prevalence and magnitude of physical fights and hurting among students

4.7.3. Perpetrators of negligence and violence against school children

To identify the main perpetrators of negligence, students who said they had experienced negligence within six months up to the time the study was undertaken, were asked who they perceived as perpetrators of negligence. As per Figure 23, the majority of them i.e. 61.9% (58.3% male & 66.3% female) implicated parents or guardians as perpetrators. A further 16.2% (19.4% male & 12.4% female) identified matrons, patrons and school chefs, while 10.2% (12.0% male & 7.9 % female) mentioned close relatives.

Other categories identified by respondents are peers 5.1% (3.7% male & 6.7% female) and teachers 4.6% (3.7% male & 5.6% female).
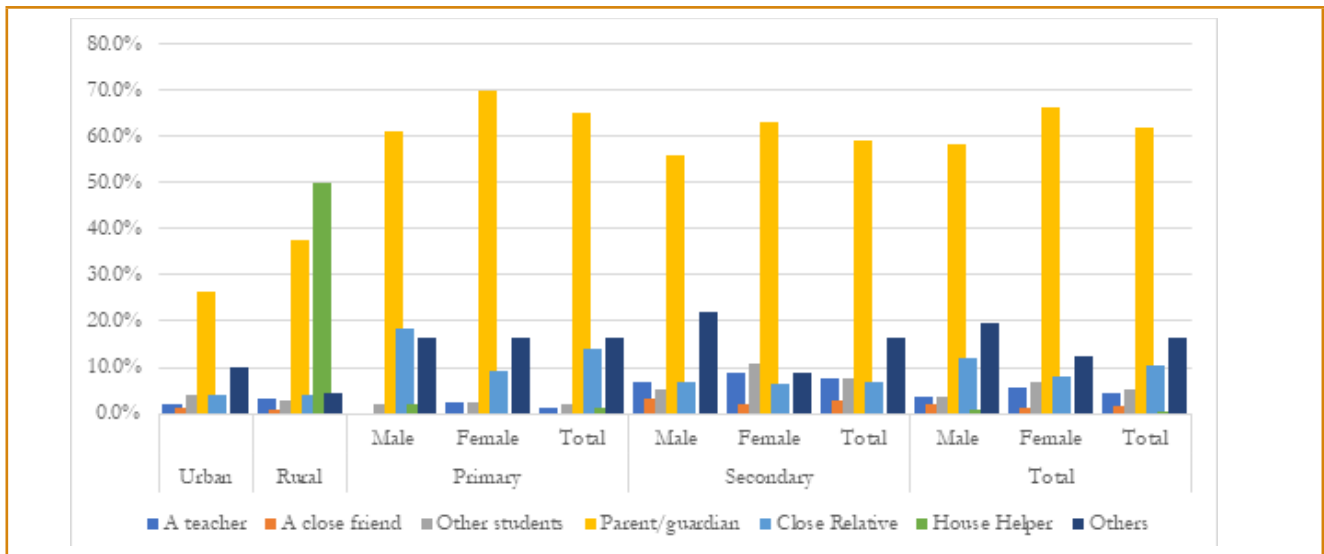

Figure 23: Identified perpetrators of negligence against school children

4.7.4. Perpetrators of sexual violence against school children

On the question about perpetrators of sexual abuse at home, students said these are boys in the neighbourhood, motorcycle drivers, peers from other schools, nannies, cousins, stepfathers and uncles. On the other hand, students were asked to identify abusers on the way to and from school, most of them mentioned motorcycle drivers (bodaboda and bajaji drivers), followed by boys they meet along the way; public bus conductors, and fellow students.

When the students who had experienced sexual violence within the aforementioned 6 months period were asked to identify the perpetrators, as shown in Table 31, over half,51.9% (38.9% male and 59.3% female) implicated neighbours and strangers, peers 26.2 % (29.6% male and 24.2% female), close friends 9.7 % (16.7% male and 5.5% female) and close relatives 8.3% (7.4% male and 8.8% female).

Sex	Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
A teacher									
Male	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Fe-male	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Total	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
A close friend									
Male	0 (0.0%)	4 (28.6%)	4 (25.0%)	1 (12.5%)	4 (13.3%)	5 (13.2%)	1 (10.0%)	8 (18.2%)	9 (16.7%)
Fe-male	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (11.8%)	3 (6.3%)	5 (7.7%)	2 (9.1%)	3 (4.3%)	5 (5.5%)
Total	0 (0.0%)	4 (11.4%)	4 (9.5%)	3 (12.0%)	7 (9.0%)	10 (9.7%)	3 (9.4%)	11 (9.7%)	14 (9.7%)

Other students									
Male	0 (0.0%)	1 (7.1%)	1 (6.3%)	2 (25.0%)	13 (43.3%)	15 (39.5%)	2 (20.0%)	14 (31.8%)	16 (29.6%)
Fe-male	0 (0.0%)	5 (23.8%)	5 (19.2%)	6 (35.3%)	11 (22.9%)	17 (26.2%)	6 (27.3%)	16 (23.2%)	22 (24.2%)
Total	0 (0.0%)	6 (17.1%)	6 (14.3%)	8 (32.0%)	24 (30.8%)	32 (31.1%)	8 (25.0%)	30 (26.5%)	38 (26.2%)
Parent/guardian									
Male	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
Fe-male	0 (0.0%)	1 (4.8%)	1 (3.8%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.4%)	1 (1.1%)
Total	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.9%)	1 (2.4%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.9%)	1 (0.7%)
Close Relative									
Male	0 (0.0%)	3 (21.4%)	3 (18.8%)	1 (12.5%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.6%)	1 (10.0%)	3 (6.8%)	4 (7.4%)
Fe-male	1 (20.0%)	3 (14.3%)	4 (15.4%)	1 (5.9%)	3 (6.3%)	4 (6.2%)	2 (9.1%)	6 (8.7%)	8 (8.8%)
Total	1 (14.3%)	6 (17.1%)	7 (16.7%)	2 (8.0%)	3 (3.8%)	5 (4.9%)	3 (9.4%)	9 (8.0%)	12 (8.3%)
House Helper									
Male	0 (0.0%)	1 (7.1%)	1 (6.3%)	0 (0.0%)	3 (10.0%)	3 (7.9%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (9.1%)	4 (7.4%)
Fe-male	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.1%)	1 (1.5%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (1.4%)	1 (1.1%)
Total	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.9%)	1 (2.4%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (5.1%)	4 (3.9%)	0 (0.0%)	5 (4.4%)	5 (3.4%)
Others									
Male	2 (100.0%)	5 (35.7%)	7 (43.8%)	4 (50.0%)	10 (33.3%)	14 (36.8%)	6 (60.0%)	15 (34.1%)	21 (38.9%)
Fe-male	4 (80.0%)	12 (57.1%)	16 (61.5%)	8 (47.1%)	30 (62.5%)	38 (58.5%)	12 (54.5%)	42 (60.9%)	54 (59.3%)
Total	6 (85.7%)	17 (48.6%)	23 (54.8%)	12 (48.0%)	40 (51.3%)	52 (50.5%)	18 (56.3%)	57 (50.4%)	75 (51.7%)

Table 31: Perpetrators of Sexual Violence against School Children in the last 6 months

4.8. Perceptions of violence against school children

The section aims to present the perception differences of parents, teachers, children and child protection institutional actors regarding violence against school children. It has been notably highlighted that, "… notions of what is acceptable and unacceptable in terms of behaviour, and what constitutes harm, are culturally influenced and constantly under review as values and social norms evolve," (WHO 2002:4). On those basis behaviours that amount to violence against school children may naturally differ from place to place according to societal/community tolerance to different forms of violence, socio-cultural views, society and family structure, parents and children (Kaya & Aktas, 2013). In that respect, to develop comprehensive and effective intervention programmes to curb violence against school children, it is inevitably essential to discern the perceptions of various relevant strategic parties. The following section present findings on the perception of violence against school children.

4.8.1. The concept 'violence' and its operationalisation to schoolchildren

The study indicates that concept violence is perceived very differently across a range of stakeholders. For instance:

- Most stakeholders, especially parents hold the view that denying a child any of the basic child rights (education, food, healthcare, etc) amounts to violence against children.

- A notable number of stakeholders indicated that an act can only be considered as violence against a child if it is based on bad intentions, malice, anger or frustration. If the intention is good then it cannot be thought of as violence.

- Some stakeholders are of the view that if it is considered normal in a particular community, then it cannot be considered as violence because neither the perpetrator nor the victim perceives it as such.

- Other respondents are of the view that violence is not about just physical or emotional pain, because it is through the pain that sometimes children learn to differentiate good and bad behaviours, especially through punishment. For them, violence occurs when there is bodily harm to a child. When that happens, it is considered as 'crossing the line.'

- There were also disagreements on whether it is appropriate to apply punishments to children or not. Some respondents were of the view that if a child already knew that to do a certain thing is wrong, they need to be punished if they do it. Some said children need to be cautioned, guided and not punished. The latter was of the view that when a child is disobedient, the fault is in those responsible for the child, and not the child him/herself.

- Some respondents were of the view that there is a mix up of an appropriate Swahili concept to depict 'violence' - the closest being 'ukatili.' translates to 'cruelty' and not violence. It was highlighted that the disadvantage is that it focuses attention on physical and sexual violence and underplay psychological/emotional violence and negligence treatment. It is advised that the Institute of Swahili of the University of Dar es Salaam or the National Kiswahili Council, propose an official Kiswahili name of concept for 'violence' that can be adopted and used across discipline of violence against children.

- Some respondents were of the view that there is no specific significance in qualifying school child vis a vis a child. "A *child is just a child, whether in school or not, they are just children and deserve the same treatment and same rights….it is why even in police records (they) do not record whether it is a schoolchild or street child, just age is enough.*"(KII, Male National Coordinators, DSM, 6th January 2020).

4.8.2. The national trend of violence against school children

The study learnt that most institutional stakeholders and community-based child protection actors hold a consistent perception that there is a proliferation of violence against children in general and school children in particular in contemporary Tanzania. It was highlighted that while technology, (in particular television and social networks), as well as awareness-raising efforts, have shed a consistent spotlight on incidents of VAC and as such have increased reporting rates, still in contemporary societies incidences of VAC in general and VASC, in particular, are exacerbating; while settings, perpetrators and types of violence are more diversified. In particular, it was noted that sodomy (ulawiti) was rare in the past but increasingly becoming a routine form of abuse against male and female children. It was also noted that while sodomy in the past was more common within the family setting, increasingly it is perpetrated by random strangers who entice school children with small gifts and favours; while the rate of older school children abusing peers, vulnerable or younger children is increasing.

4.8.3. The possibility of a standard/universal conception of violence

The study also learnt that there is disagreement in regards to the possibility of having and upholding a standard, universal conception of violence. It was noted that the meaning stakeholders attach to an individual or collective experience of violence are largely informed by socially constructed meanings of those experiences and the imperceptible normalisation process. For example:

- Most students, parents, and teachers do not perceive corporal punishment as violence unless it is extremely excessive.

- Most students and a notable number of parents and teachers do not negatively perceive excessive punishment if it is intended to improve discipline and academic performance. So, the end justifies the means.

- Some students and communities would not perceive themselves or certain cases as constituting child negligence or child violence because of their way of life and their culture, although an outside view can surmise such a case as negligence or any other form of violence.

4.8.4. School children's perceptions of their safety

The study explored to what extent children feel happy, safe or peaceful at school, at home and en-route to and from school. Figure 24, shows the findings of children reported to feel unsafe at home, in a school setting and on their way to and from school. Of all interviewed children, 5% felt unsafe when en-route to and from school while 4% stated that they feel unsafe while at school. About 6% of all girls interviewed felt unsafe when en-route to and from school, mainly from secondary schools (6.4%). Overall, 5% of boys felt to be unsafe in school compared to 3.3%girls. Similarly, 5.3 % of boys in secondary schools reported feeling unsafe when in school. Overall, students in secondary school almost equally felt they are unsafe in school and when en-route to and from school, while in primary school, more students felt to be unsafe when en-route from and/or to school. Findings show that about 3% of all children interviewed felt they unsafe at home. Again, girls recorded high %age (3.2%) compared to boys (2.4%). Comparison across primary and secondary schools shows that more boys (3.3%) at secondary school level feel unsafe at home compared to (1.6%) of boys in primary schools.
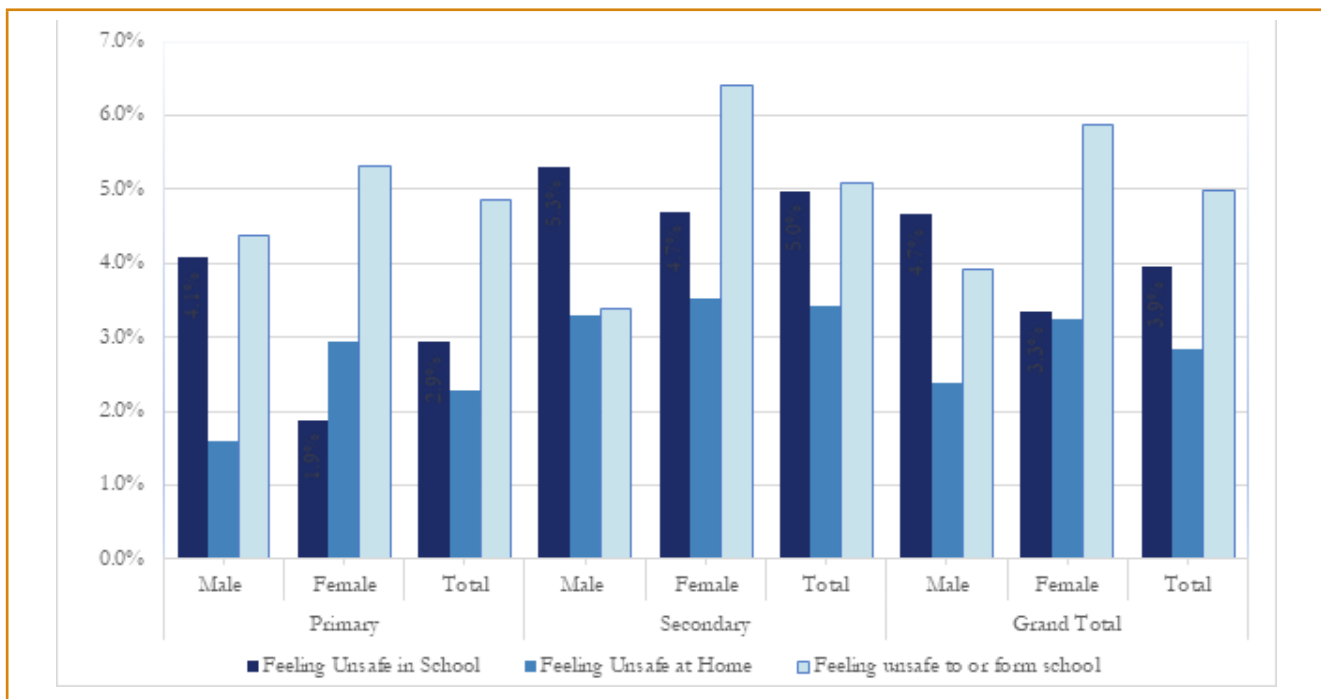
Figure 24: Children feeling regarding their safety at school, home and to and from schools

Among students who stated that they feel unsafe at school, 27.8% boys and 33.3% girls in primary schools and 57.1% boys and 33.3% girls in secondary schools mentioned fear of being beaten and physically injured by teachers or staff (excluding corporal punishment) as the main reason they felt unsafe at school. Other reasons include unclean toilets/water and sanitation facilities (33.3% and 22.2% of boys and girls respectively in primary schools) and sexual comments/advances from other students (33.3% & 20.8%of boys and girls respectively in secondary schools).

Furthermore, for students who stated that they felt unsafe at home, 71.4% and 23.1% of boys and girls respectively in primary schools stated that what makes them feel unsafe at home are fear of physical injury from being beaten by parents and/or relatives, sexual comments/advances made by guardians/parents and other residents in the household. In secondary schools, there were various reasons why children reported to feel unsafe at their home; these include lack of basic needs such as food, sexual advances from the guardian, hard work, verbal abuse from guardians, lack of care and support from biological parents and unsupportive parents on their children's education.

4.8.5. Parents' perceptions of their school-going children's safety

The study sought parents' perception regarding their school-going children's safety at school, home and on the way to and from school. As indicated in Figure 25, 25% of all parents interviewed reported that they feel their children are safe at school and home. However, about 25% of parents felt their children are somehow safe at home while about 20% felt they are somehow safe at school. Additionally, 5% of parents stated that their children are not safe at home while 3% stated that they felt that the children are not safe at school.
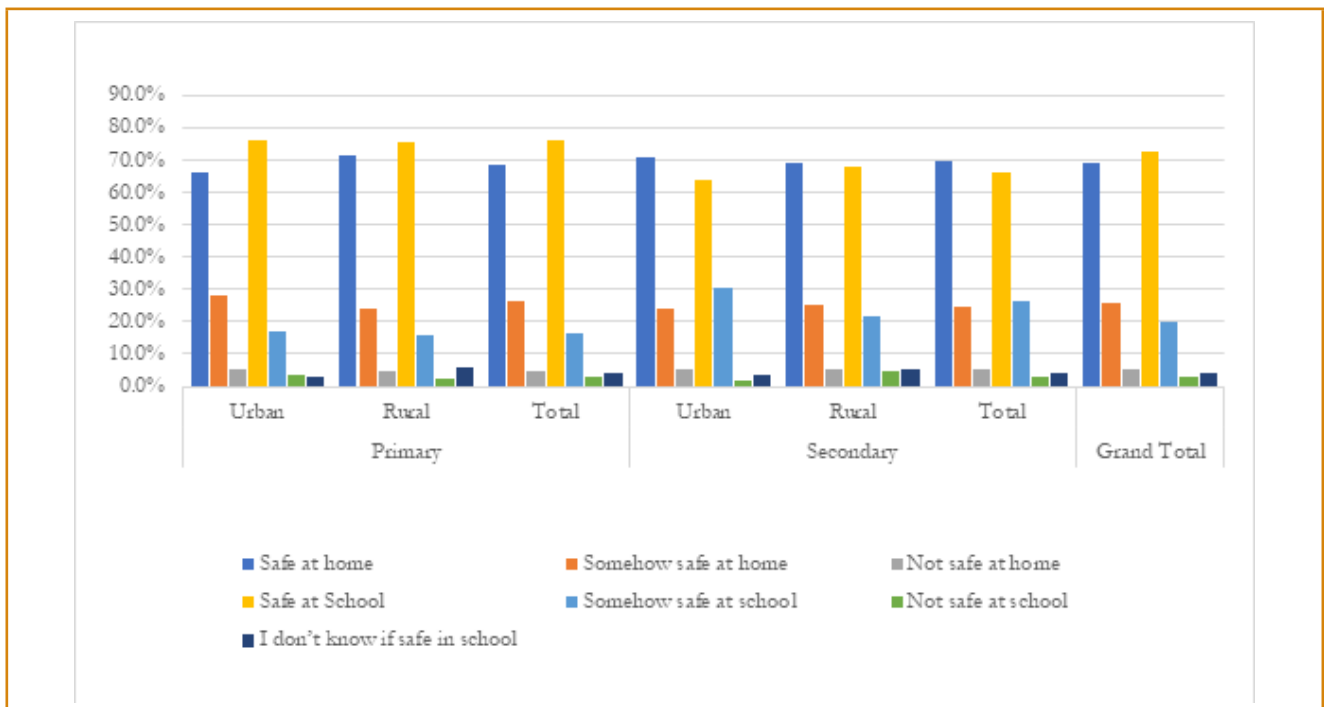
Figure 25: Parents perception on their children's safety in school and home settings

Furthermore, as Figure 26 shows, 42.8% of all the interviewed parents stated that they felt their children are very safe on their way to/from school. Furthermore, 40% of parents felt their children are fairly safe, while 10% stated that they feel their children are fairly unsafe while en-route to/from school. Moreover, 5% of parents stated that they do not know whether the children are safe or not when en-route to/from school, while 2% stated that they feel their children are very unsafe.
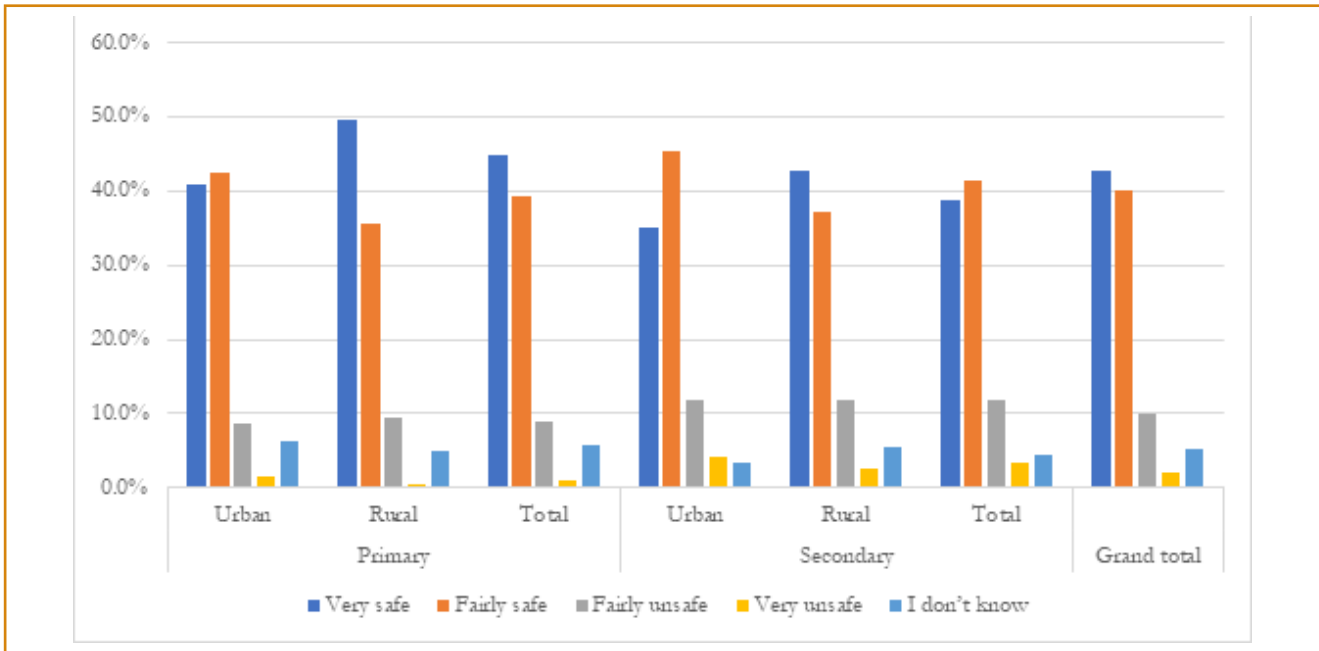

Figure 26: Parents perception on the safety of their children en-route to/from school

4.8.6. Teachers' perceptions of school-going children's safety

The study sought teachers' perceptions of the student's safety in the school setting and the home setting. Findings indicated that 97.3% of all interviewed teachers, (98.3% from primary and 96.6% from secondary schools) were of the view that students felt very safe at schools. More teachers from rural areas (98.4%) compared to teachers from urban areas (95.9%) agreed students feel safe at school as shown in Figure 27, Only 2.7% of teachers interviewed were of the perception that 'somehow' students feel safe at school. Of the teachers who thought that 'somehow' students feel safe at school, 3.8% are from secondary schools and 1.7% from primary schools.

The main reasons mentioned by teachers that caused students to feel 'somehow' safe in schools were lack of a school fence (66.7%), intimidation or verbal abuse from teachers/staff (66.7%), fear of being beaten or physically injured by teachers-excluding corporal punishment (66.7%), corporal punishments by teachers including canning (66.7%), sexual comments from teachers or staff (33.3%) and lack of school guards (33.3%).
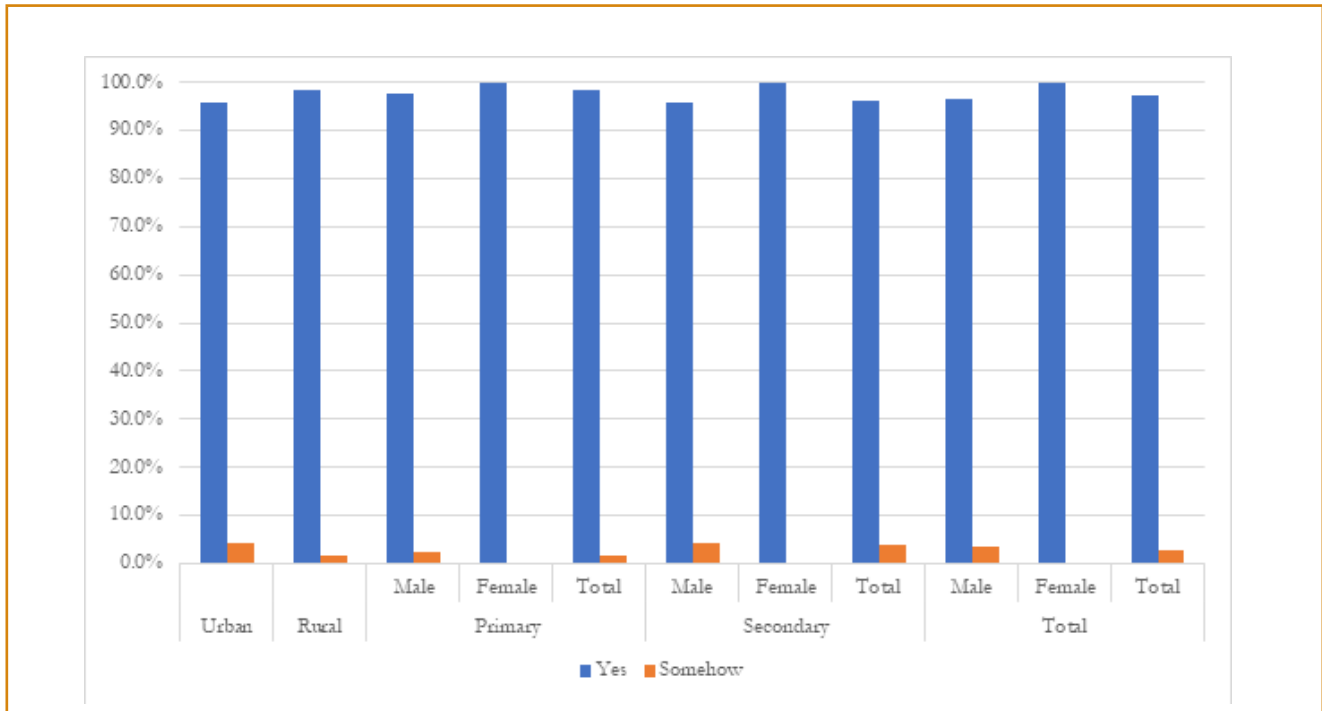
Figure 27: Students' perception of safety at schools according to teachers

The study sought the judgement of teachers whether they think students/pupils feel safe in their homes. It found that only 44.1% (40.7% primary schools and 48.1% secondary schools) teachers interviewed were of the view that their students feel safe in their homes. Of all interviewed teachers, 45.0% (45.8% from primary and 44.2% from secondary schools) were of the view that 'somehow' students feel safe in their respective homes, while 4.5% of the teachers posited that students do not feel safe in their respective homes. Findings show that majority of teachers who posited students do not feel safe in their homes were from secondary schools (5.8%) compared to 3.4% teachers from primary schools as shown in Figure 28. The main reasons pointed out by teachers on why they think students 'somehow' or ' not at all' feel safe in their respective homes were intimidation or verbal abuse from parents, guardians, relatives or other people they live with (60%), corporal punishment by parents or relatives e.g. whipping or caning (32.7%), discrimination between children based on gender by parents or relatives (30.9%), sexual comments/advances from guardians or other relatives (27.3%) and physical injury caused by parents and or relatives (21.8%).
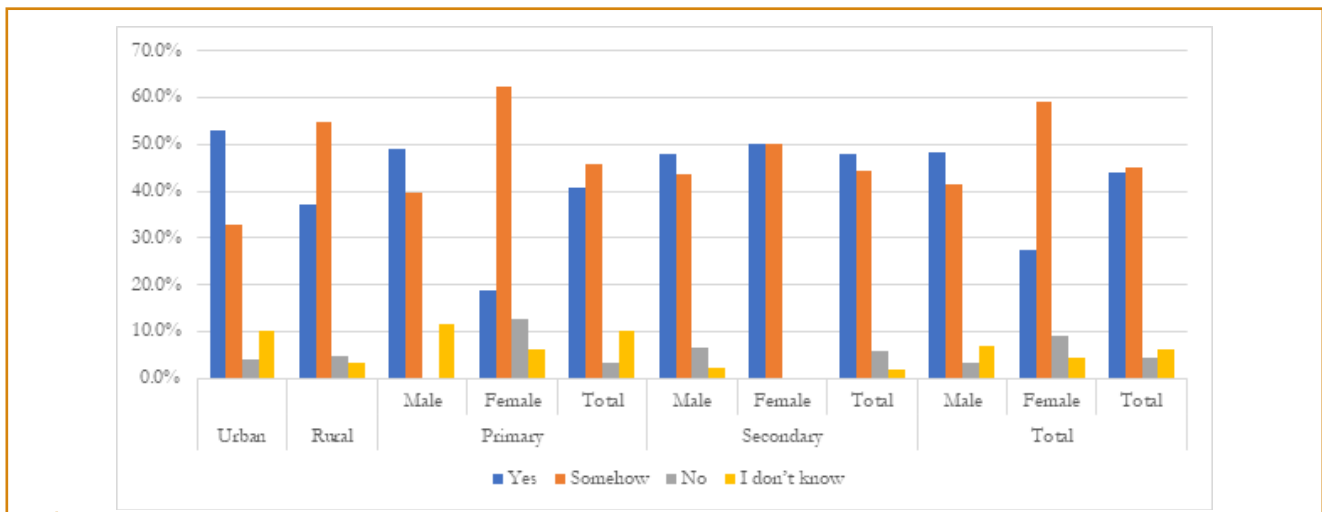
Figure 28: Students' feelings of safety in their homes according to Teachers

4.8.7. School children's perceptions of punishments in the school setting

Students were asked which punishment is most effective when they misbehave in class or school. As per Table 32, overall 62.4% of students across all school are of the view that canning is the most effective form of punishment. A slightly higher per cent (6%) of students in primary school perceive canning as the most effective punishment for misbehaving children compared to their counterparts in secondary schools. Furthermore, about 4 % more students attending private primary schools perceive canning as the best punishment compared to their counterparts in public schools. Likewise, there is a notable difference in terms of perception for the most effective punishment for misbehaving students in private and public secondary schools. More students (63.8%) in public secondary schools think canning is the best punishment compared to 50.3% of students who reported the same in private secondary schools. Comparison between male and female students shows that overall more female (32.7%) preferred canning compared to male students (29.7%). There is no significant difference in terms of location and the preferred form of punishment for misbehaving students in class/school. Apart from canning, 13. 9% of students mentioned other punishments which they think are most effective for their misbehaving colleagues in class/school. Model of punishment mentioned frequently includes assigning work to misbehaving students, such as in the garden/farms, suspending them from attending classes, inviting their parents and giving them warning, informing their parents and suspending them from school depending on the type of the offence.

Sex	Location		Primary			Secondary			Total		
	Urban	Rural	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total	Private	Public	Total
When students misbehave in class or school what do you think is the most effective punishment they should get?											
To be canned											
Male	287 (28.3%)	255 (31.5%)	87 (33.6%)	213 (32.3%)	300 (32.6%)	59 (20.1%)	183 (30.0%)	242 (26.7%)	146 (26.4%)	396 (31.2%)	542 (29.7%)
Female	336 (33.1%)	261 (32.2%)	89 (34.4%)	212 (32.1%)	301 (32.8%)	89 (30.3%)	207 (33.9%)	296 (32.7%)	178 (32.2%)	419 (33.0%)	597 (32.7%)
Total	623 (61.4%)	516 (63.7%)	176 (68.0%)	425 (64.4%)	601 (65.4%)	148 (50.3%)	390 (63.8%)	538 (59.4%)	324 (58.6%)	815 (64.1%)	1139 (62.4%)
Sweeping											
Male	55 (5.4%)	38 (4.7%)	14 (5.4%)	41 (6.2%)	55 (6.0%)	9 (3.1%)	29 (4.7%)	38 (4.2%)	23 (4.2%)	70 (5.5%)	93 (5.1%)
Female	65 (6.4%)	50 (6.2%)	20 (7.7%)	44 (6.7%)	64 (7.0%)	20 (6.8%)	31 (5.1%)	51 (5.6%)	40 (7.2%)	75 (5.9%)	115 (6.3%)
Total	120 (11.8%)	88 (10.9%)	34 (13.1%)	85 (12.9%)	119 (12.9%)	29 (9.9%)	60 (9.8%)	89 (9.8%)	63 (11.4%)	145 (11.4%)	208 (11.4%)
Cutting grasses											
Male	53 (5.2%)	34 (4.2%)	6 (2.3%)	28 (4.2%)	34 (3.7%)	26 (8.8%)	27 (4.4%)	53 (5.9%)	32 (5.8%)	55 (4.3%)	87 (4.8%)
Female	58 (5.7%)	40 (4.9%)	9 (3.5%)	22 (3.3%)	31 (3.4%)	31 (10.5%)	36 (5.9%)	67 (7.4%)	40 (7.2%)	58 (4.6%)	98 (5.4%)
Total	111 (10.9%)	74 (9.1%)	15 (5.8%)	50 (7.6%)	65 (7.1%)	57 (19.4%)	63 (10.3%)	120 (13.3%)	72 (13.0%)	113 (8.9%)	185 (10.1%)
Frog jump											
Male	5 (0.5%)	16 (2.0%)	0 (0.0%)	11 (1.7%)	11 (1.2%)	2 (0.7%)	8 (1.3%)	10 (1.1%)	2 (0.4%)	19 (1.5%)	21 (1.2%)
Female	8 (0.8%)	9 (1.1%)	2 (0.8%)	11 (1.7%)	13 (1.4%)	3 (1.0%)	1 (0.2%)	4 (0.4%)	5 (0.9%)	12 (0.9%)	17 (0.9%)
Total	13 (1.3%)	25 (3.1%)	2 (0.8%)	22 (3.3%)	24 (2.6%)	5 (1.7%)	9 (1.5%)	14 (1.5%)	7 (1.3%)	31 (2.4%)	38 (2.1%)

Others											
Male	59 (5.8%)	35 (4.3%)	14 (5.4%)	28 (4.2%)	42 (4.6%)	17 (5.8%)	35 (5.7%)	52 (5.7%)	31 (5.6%)	63 (5.0%)	94 (5.2%)
Female	88 (8.7%)	72 (8.9%)	18 (6.9%)	50 (7.6%)	68 (7.4%)	38 (12.9%)	54 (8.8%)	92 (10.2%)	56 (10.1%)	104 (8.2%)	160 (8.8%)
Total	147 (14.5%)	107 (13.2%)	32 (12.4%)	78 (11.8%)	110 (12.0%)	55 (18.7%)	89 (14.6%)	144 (15.9%)	87 (15.7%)	167 (13.1%)	254 (13.9%)

Table 32: School children's perception of the effectiveness of corporal punishment

To collaborate findings on student's perception on corporal punishment, the study asked students who participated in this study two questions: Whether canning was the best and effective way to discipline student; and whether it was okay for students to be canned when they misbehave in class/school. Findings, as depicted in Figure 29, show that 56.3 % male students think it's OK for misbehaving students in class/school to be punished through canning and equally, 56.1 %female students think the same. There is a slight difference between male and female students in terms of their perception on canning whereby 30.1% % of males think canning is the best and effective way to discipline students in their school compared to 25.8 % female who thinks the same. School comparison shows that more students in public schools (55.6%-60.5%) think it's OK for students to be canned when they misbehave in class/school compared to private schools (47.8%-55.8%). A slightly higher number of female students compared to boys expressed that they think it's OK for canning to be applied for misbehaving students in school settings. However, while the findings show that more than half of students interviewed think it's OK for misbehaving students to be punished through canning, more than 70% of them do not think canning is the best and effective way to discipline students in school.
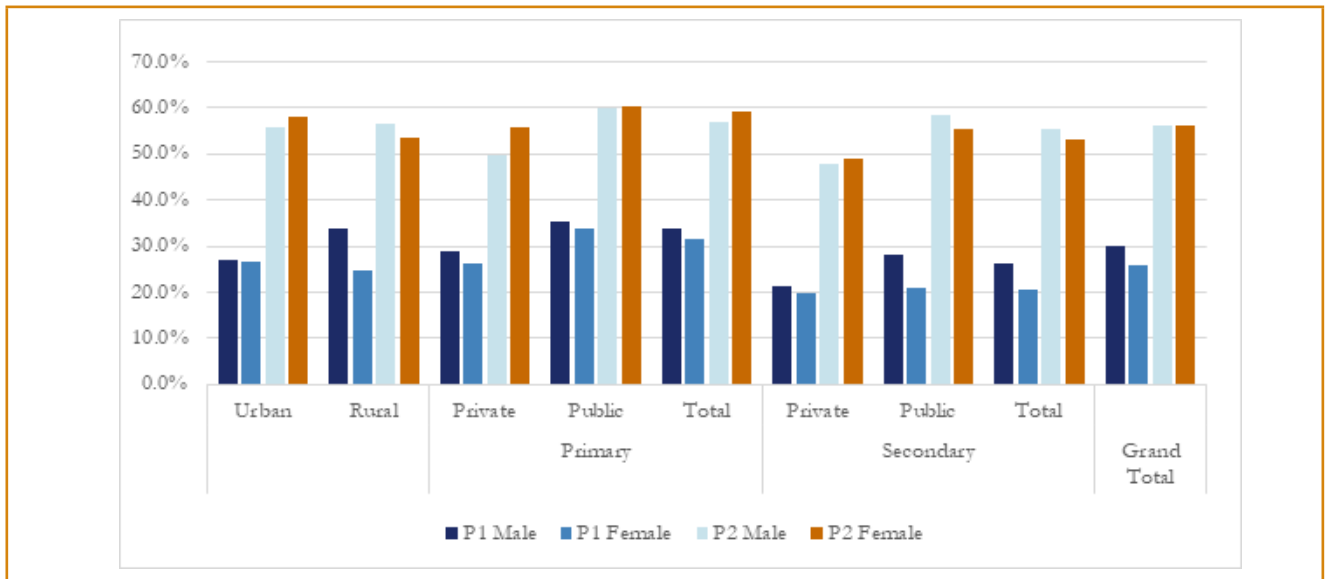
Figure 29: Students who think it's OK for them to be canned when they misbehave and think it is the best and effective discipline approach

The study explored further perceptions of school-going children regarding corporal punishment through asking them the questions, P3 Canning is not violence but the way to discipline students; P4 Canning is the main form of punishment in school. Findings depicted in Figure 30 show that almost 61% of male and female students acknowledge that canning is the main form of punishment in their respective schools. Furthermore, more than half of both male and female students think that canning does not constitute violence rather it's a way of disciplining students. Overall, the majority (64.8% male and 55.5% female) of students in public primary schools think canning is not violence, but rather a way of disciplining a student. Likewise, a high proportion of students in public secondary school think canning is not violence, 57.8% male and 57.1% female.
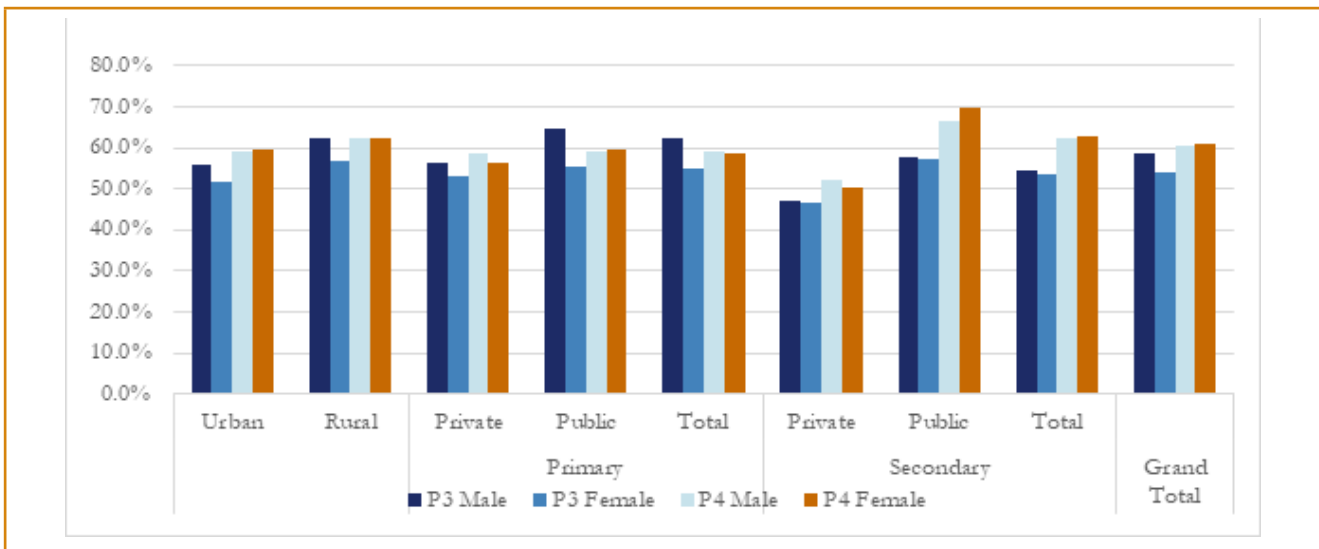
Figure 30: Students who think canning is not violence and it's the main form of punishment in school

The study probed students further to understand how they think students will relate with their teachers in absence of canning in school. Findings depicted in Figure 31 show that less than half of students think that teachers will not be respected if canning is banned in schools. This implies that more than 50% of all students interviewed still think that teachers will still be respected by their students even if there is no canning in school. This suggests that interviewed students view that canning does not underline the respect of students to teachers. Comparisons across private and public schools show that the majority of students (close to 50 %) think that the absence of canning may affect students' respect for their teachers. Less than 40% of all students in private secondary schools think teachers will not be respected if there will be no canning while 43.8%-44.2% of students in private primary schools thinks the same.
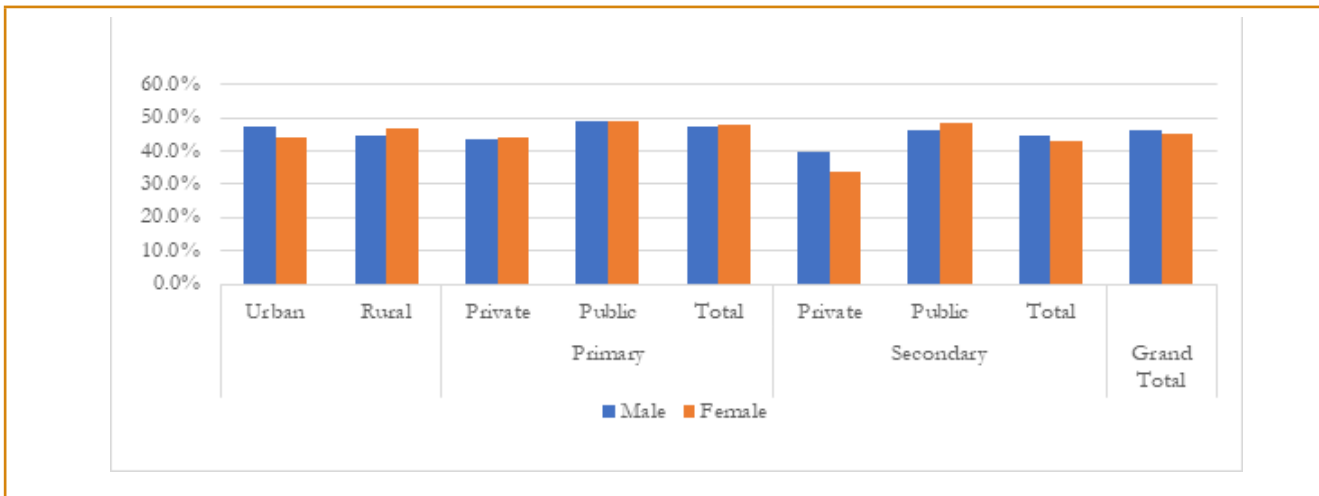
Figure 31: Students who think teachers will not be respected if there is no canning in schools

The study also explored students' perceptions regarding the use of harsh punishment to improve discipline and academic performance. As illustrated in Figure 32, findings show that 33.2% of all students interviewed feel it is OK for harsh punishments to be applied in schools to improve discipline and 27.1% feel there are harsh punishments used in their schools. Furthermore, 17.1% of students were of the view that it is OK for harsh punishments to be used in schools to improve performances. More students in public schools than in private schools are of the view that harsh punishments are used in their schools. For instance, 42.2% of students interviewed (equally between male and female) in public secondary schools feel that harsh punishments are applied in their schools compared to 19.7% of students in private secondary schools. Again, more students (36.2% secondary schools and 36.8% primary schools) think it is OK for such punishments to be used to improve discipline in their schools.

In public secondary schools, 20% of both male and female students feel that it's OK for harsh punishments to be applied to improve performance in their schools.
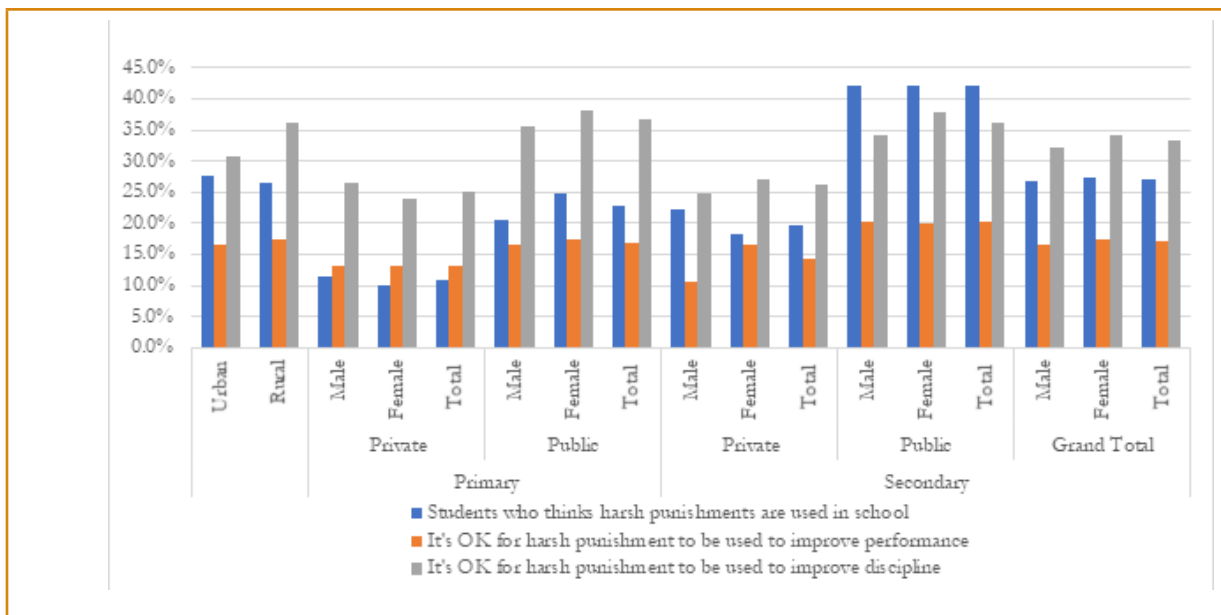

Figure 32: Students perception of harsh punishment in school

The study enquired what students consider to be harsh punishment in their schools. In response, students mentioned excessive canning which sometimes is administered by multiple teachers to a single student. Other types of punishments which were also mentioned by many students are digging holes, clearing bushes around the school, carrying gravel, cleaning toilets for the whole school and/or fetching water for a week while others are in class, frog jumping and push-ups, standing with one leg for a specified time in the mid-day sun. It is worth mentioning that these punishments are not listed in the corporal punishment regulations.

4.8.8. Parents' perceptions of punishments for school-going children

Qualitative findings indicate that parents in Tanzania are hugely supportive of corporal punishment as the main form of punishment they know is effective. As one respondent remarked, "*To be honest, the modern push for abandonment of corporal punishment in our society and our schools will result in utter lack of discipline because in Africa compared to the developed world where they successfully use alternative discipline approaches are very different. We are far from being the same in so many levels,*" (respondent, regional level brainstorming session).

There is also frequent reference to religious teachings which underscore the critical role of canning, as a form of punishment recommended by both Islamic and Christian religious teachings. In Christianity for instance, several biblical verses are cited as validation of God mandated corporal punishment for children. These include:

- *Proverbs 23:13*: "Don't withhold discipline from a child; if you beat him with a rod, he will not die."

- *Proverbs 13:24*: "He who spares the rod hates his son, but he who loves him disciplines him diligently."

- *Proverbs 19:18:* "Discipline your son, for in that there is hope; do not be a party to his death."

In that respect, it has been noted for instance by Ellison et al (1996), that Christians support the use of corporal punishment based on religious ideology. Furthermore, it has also been highlighted by Giladi (2014) that, corporate punishment of children seems to be accepted in Islamic law. Although many Islamic sources reprimand parents or teachers who apply this form of punishment excessively.

To capture their perception of corporate punishment, parents were asked a range of questions in the form of six scenarios:

- Scenario 1: Parents who think it is OK for parents/guardians to whip/cane children when they misbehave

- Scenario 2: Parents who think it is okay to have caning/whipping by a guardian/parent as a standard punishment for children when children misbehave.

- Scenario3: Parents who think canning a child it's not violence rather a way to discipline students

- Scenario4: Parents who think it is OK for a child to be hurt by a teacher or a parent as long s/he was in the process of being punished for misbehaving

- Scenario5: Parents who think whipping/caning are the best/effective ways of disciplining children at your home

- Scenario6: Parents who think if students are not canned at school, they will not respect their teachers.

As indicated in Figure 33, 49 % of all parents interviewed feel that it is OK for them to whip/cane children when they misbehave. Furthermore, 41% think that canning a child does not constitute violence rather it's a way of disciplining their children. Further to that, about 42% of parents think if students are not canned at school, they will not respect their teachers. Additionally, 21% of parents posited that they use canning as a standard punishment when children misbehave at their home. Moreover, 3% of parents stated that they think it is OK for children to be hurt by their teachers or parents as long as they are in the process of being punished for misbehaving. The study also found that, although many parents are of the view that it is okay to cane their children when they misbehave, only 17% of them think whipping/canning children is the best/effective way of disciplining children at home.
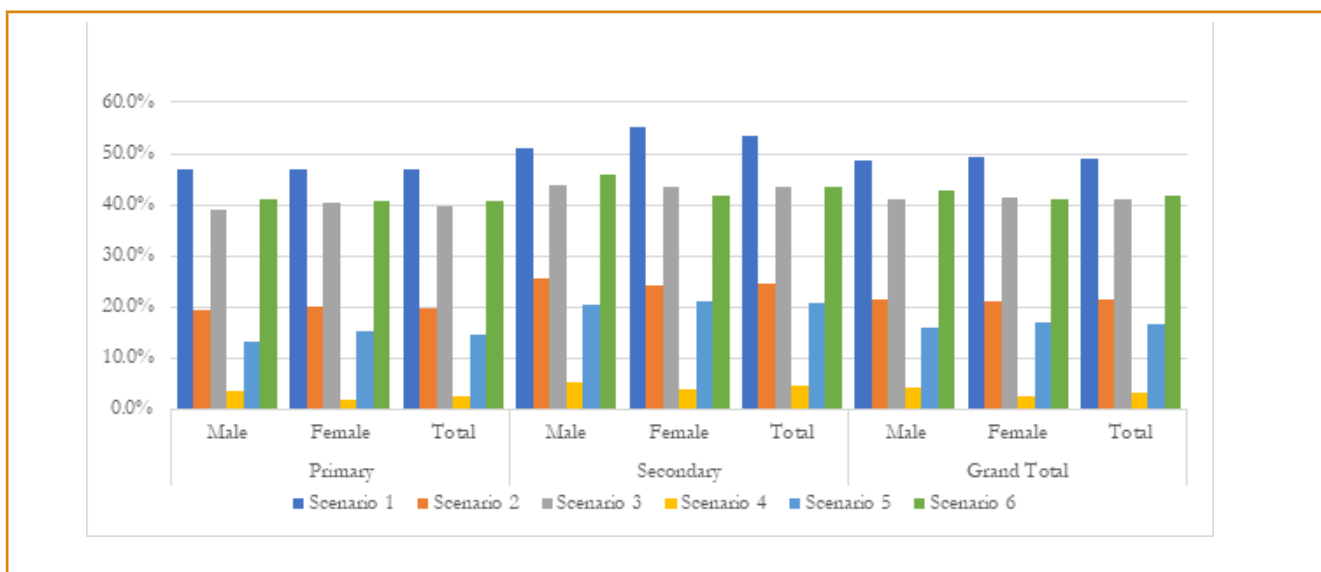
Figure 33. Parents' perceptions of canning as a mode of punishment for school children's misbehaviour

Furthermore, the study explored the parent's perception of emotional/psychological torture as a form of punishment, such as yelling at a child and child labelling. As indicated in Figure 34, 33 % of all parents interviewed were of the view that it is OK for a child to be intimidated by being yelled at by a teacher or parents when they are misbehaving. Moreover, about 3% of parents believed that it is OK to call children names when their behaviour is bad or academic performance is poor e.g. naughty, bed wetter, stupid, and such.

The study found that more parents (about 39%) of secondary school students believed that it is OK to yell at children whey they have misbehaved compared to about 31% of their counterparts of primary schools.
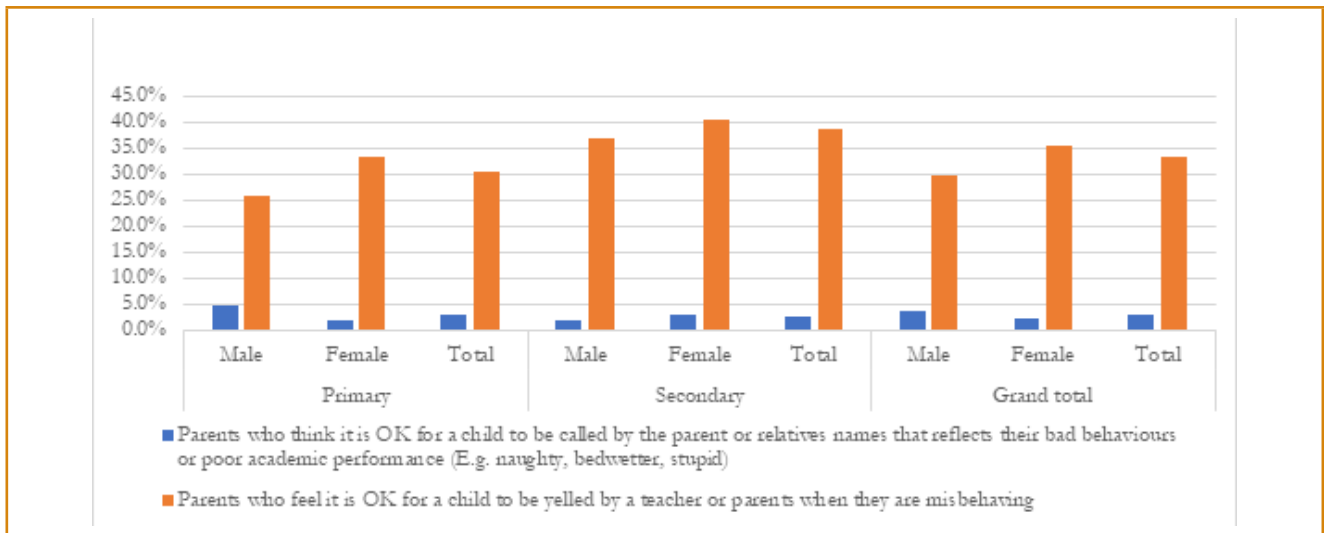

Figure 34: Parents perceptions of emotional/psychological violence as a form of punishment for school children's misbehaviour

4.8.9. Parents' perceptions of alternative non-violent forms of discipline

Despite the majority of parents expressing their endorsement of corporal punishment and some approving of psychological torture as a form of punishment, over 80% of all interviewed parents stated that they believe there are better ways than those for disciplining their children. Slightly more male parents (86%) agree that there are better ways of disciplining at home and school apart from caning, beating and/or yelling and intimidating children compared to 84% female parents. Again, 87.6% parents with primary school-going children acknowledge that there are better ways to discipline children, and 78.4% parents with secondary school-going children hold the same view, as shown in Figure 35.
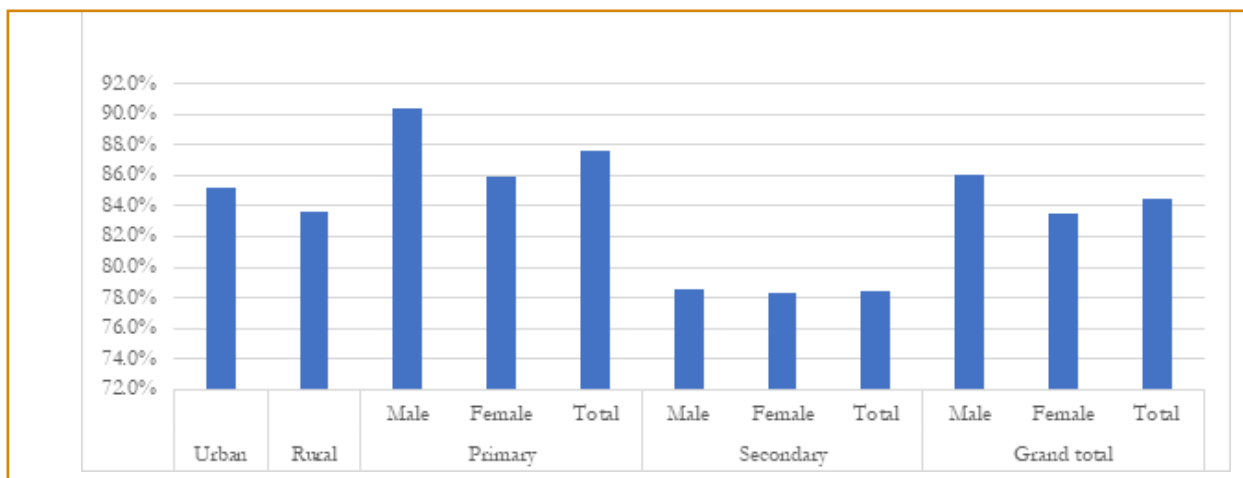
Figure 35: Parents who agree that there are other better ways of disciplining their children at home other than caning, beating and/or yelling/intimidating.

4.8.10. Parents' perceptions of sexual violence against school children

To capture their perception on sexual violence against school children, parents were asked a range of questions in four scenarios:

- Scenario 1: Parents who think it is OK for a female child to have a sexual relationship with a male adult as long as the child consented.

- Scenario 2: Parents who think it is OK for a female child to have a sexual relationship with a male adult as long as the adult is supporting/taking care of her.

- Scenario 3: Parents who think it is OK for a male child to have a sexual relationship with a female adult provided that she can take good care of him.

- Scenario 4: Parents who think if a male adult makes sexual comments or advances towards a girl student, it is usually because the girl invites it.

As indicated in Figure 37, over 10% of all parents interviewed blame children for sexual advances or comments made by male adults, assuming that female children often encourage it themselves. A male-female parent aggregation shows that 11% of female parents shared such opinions, and 10 % of male parents also share the same view. The study further found that about 3% of all interviewed parents think it is OK for a female child to have a sexual relationship with a male adult as long as the child has consented. The 6% of male parents from secondary schools think it is OK for a female child to have a sexual relationship with a male adult as long the child consented, and close to 4% of female parents from secondary schools are of the same view. Additionally, 3% of all parents interviewed felt it is OK for a female child to have a sexual relationship with a male adult as long the adult is taking care/supporting her, while 4% of male parents of secondary school students agree that it is OK for both male and female children to have sexual relations with female/male adults as long they are supporting them and about 4% of female parents from secondary schools also think the same. Again, 2.5% of parents interviewed, think it is ok for a male child to have sexual relations with a female adult provided that she can take good care of him.
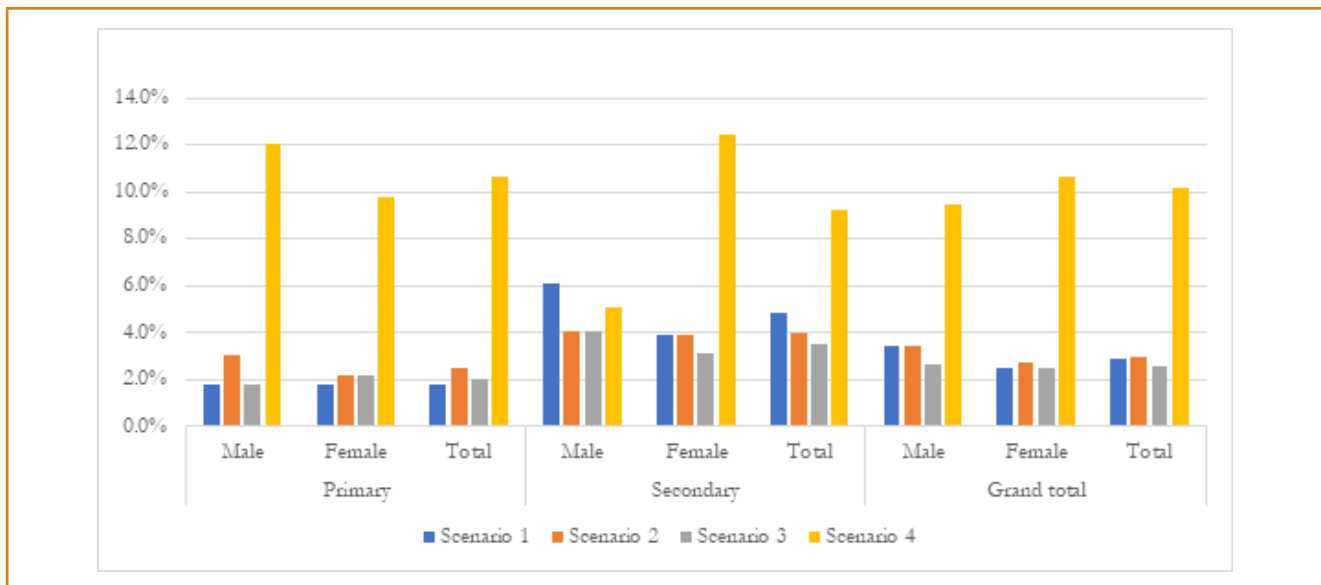

Figure 37: Parent's perception on sexual violence

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4.8.11. Teachers' perceptions of violence against children in schools

The study explored teachers' perceptions of physical violence against school children. To that end interviewed teachers were asked their opinion regarding the following two scenarios:

- 'It is OK' for students to be whipped or caned by teachers for misbehaving in school or class,

- 'It is OK' for a student to be hurt by a teacher as long as it was a punishment for misbehaviour.

As shown in Figure 38, 94.6% (100.0% primary school and 96.2% secondary school, teachers interviewed stated that 'It is not OKAY' in both scenarios. Furthermore, the study inquired of teachers whether they believe that they have a good comprehension of what constitutes as physical violence against school children. As indicated in the figure below, 98.4% of teachers from rural settings stated that they know about physical violence, while 89.8% of teachers from urban settings agreed.
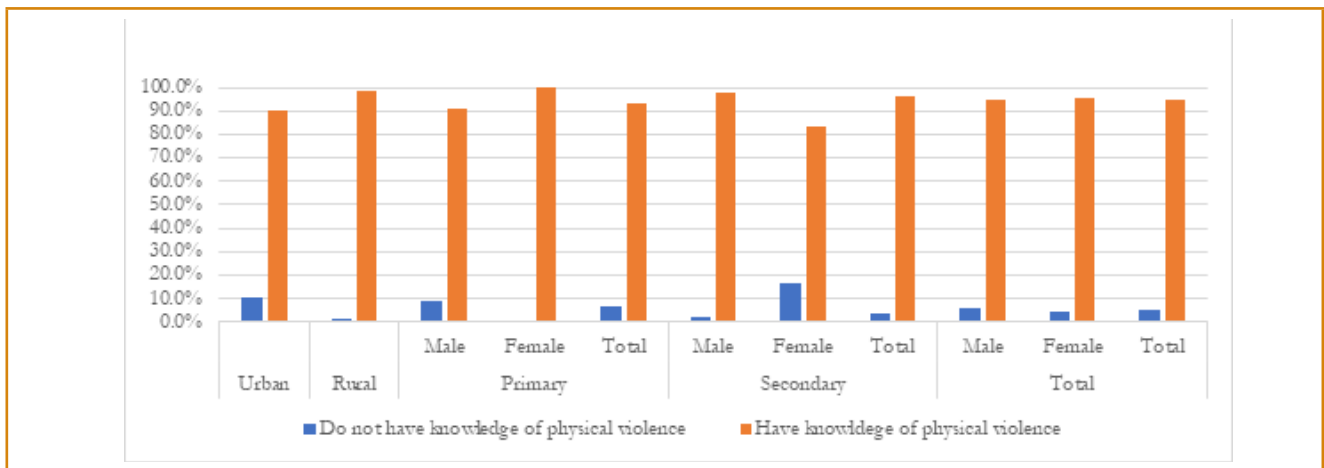
Figure 38: Teachers' perceptions of their comprehension of physical violence against school children

The study also explored teachers' perceptions of sexual violence against school children. Interviewed teachers were asked their opinions on the following five scenarios:

- 'It is OK' for a girl to be punished by a male teacher if she refuses a love proposal from him.

- 'It is OK' for a teacher to impregnate a girl, as long as he marries her or pays for damages as tradition and customs dictates.

- 'It is OK' for a female student to have a sexual relationship with a male teacher as long as the student has consented.

- 'It is OK' for a female student to have a sexual relationship with a male teacher as long the teacher is supporting/taking good care of her.

- 'It is OK' for a male student to have a sexual relationship with a female teacher provided that she can take good care of him.

As indicated in Figure 39, 95.5 % of all the teachers interviewed (91.5% primary schools and 100.0% secondary schools) responded that *'It is not OKAY'* to all of the above scenarios. However, 4.5% teachers responded that 'It is Okay' or somehow 'Okay,' to some of the scenarios above. Furthermore, teachers' perception of sexual violence against school children was explored. As indicated in the figure below, 98.4% teachers in rural settings and 91.8% teachers in urban settings stated that they have awareness of sexual violence against school children.
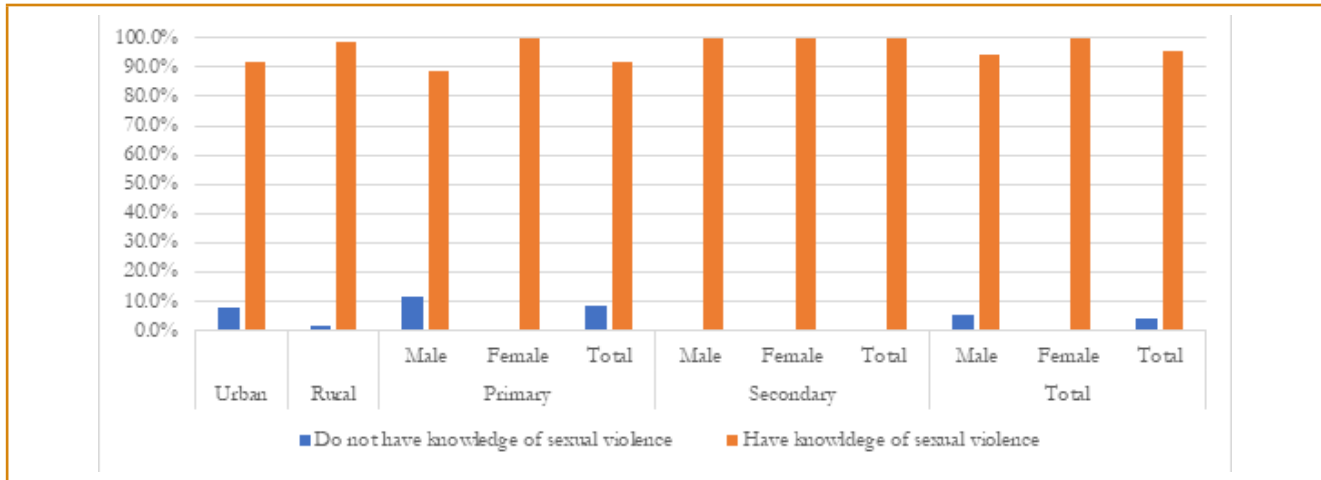
Figure 39: Teachers' perceptions of sexual violence against school children

The study also explored teachers' perceptions of psychological/emotional violence against school children. Interviewed teachers were asked their opinion of the following two scenarios:

- *'It is OK'* for students to be called by the teacher names when they misbehave or perform poorly academically, such as '*naughty, stupid*, and others'.

- *'It is OK'* for students to be yelled at by teachers when they misbehave.

As shown in *Figure 40*, 54.5% interviewed teachers respondent that, *'It is Not Okay,'* for both scenarios. However, 45.9% teachers said *'somehow Okay'* to either of the scenarios above. Those who responded *'it is Okay'* or *'somehow Okay*, were 50.0% secondary school teachers, while 42.4% were primary school teachers. Furthermore, the study sought to understand whether teachers had a good comprehension of what constitutes psychological/emotional violence against school children. Findings indicate that 46.8% teachers in rural settings stated that they do not have an adequate understanding of psychological/emotional violence against school children, while 44.9% teachers in urban settings also shared the same view.
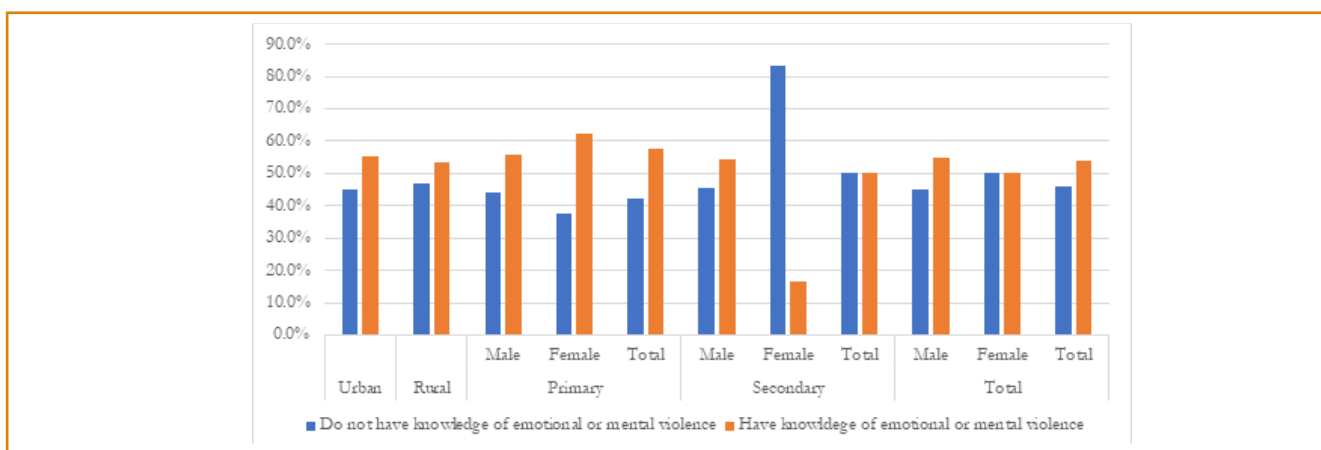

Figure 40: Teachers' perceptions on psychological/emotional violence against school children

4.9.   **Practices and perceptions of reporting violence against school children**

This study identified that school children periodically experience diverse forms of violence. This study has also attempted to determine the magnitude of the problem. However, one of the most important indicators to ascertain whether official records capture the actual prevalence and magnitude of the problem is to examine the inclination towards reporting, and associated practices and perceptions. Furthermore, gaps in existing reporting mechanisms have been identified, such as non- existent or weak reports, as contributing factors for perpetrators to act with impunity (GEM-Report Team & UNGEI, 2017). This study therefore, explored parents' and children's practices and perceptions in reporting various forms of violence perpetrated against school children.

The study explored parents' perception on whether school-going children are aware where to report if they experience any form of violence or abuse, as well as their perception on whether their school going children are comfortable to report in case they are in any way abused. As shown in Figure 41, findings show 28% of all the interviewed parents stated that their children do not know where to report in case they experience violence/abuse. More parents (30.8%) in urban secondary schools feel their children don't know where to report violence compared to 27.3% of their counterparts in rural schools. The situation is the same in primary schools where 30% of parents in urban school felt that their children don't know where to report compared to 24.8% of those in rural primary schools. Again, 35% of all interviewed parents were of the view that their children will not be comfortable to report if they experienced violence/abuse. About half of all parents in urban secondary schools felt that their children will not be comfortable to report if they experience violence/abuse.
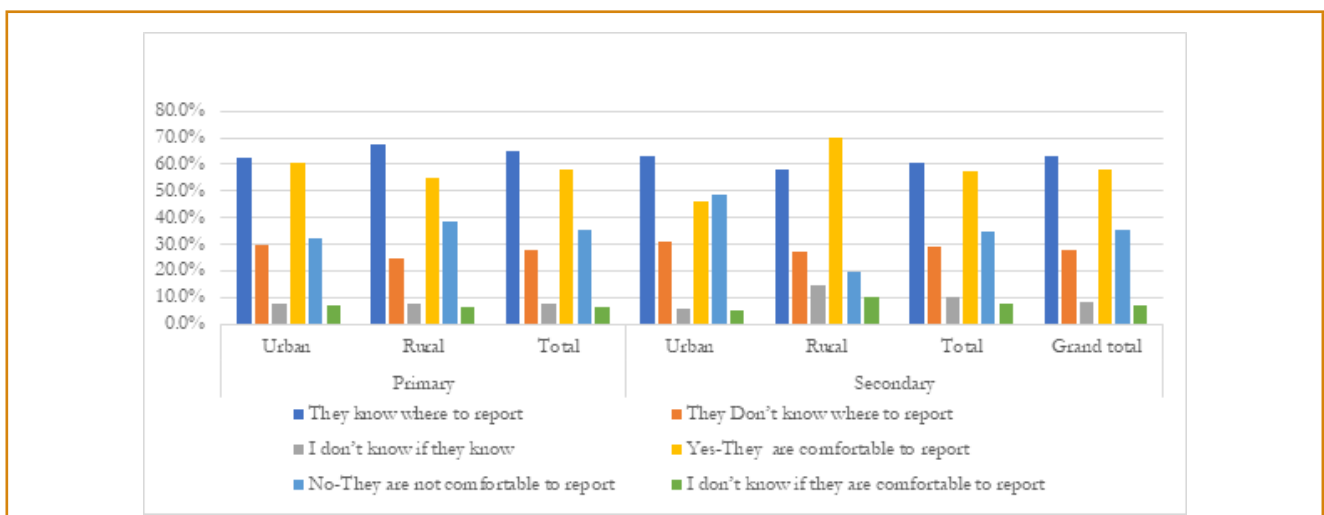

Figure 41: Parents' perception on whether children know where to report and their confidence

The study further explored the teachers' perceptions on whether students' victims of violence know how and where to report. As shown in Figure 42, 88.3% of all interviewed teachers stated that students know how and where to report cases of abuse. More teachers from primary schools (91.5%) posited that their students know how and where to report the cases of abuse compared to 84.6% from secondary schools. Furthermore, 95.9% of teachers from urban settings stated that they are sure students know how and where to report incidents of experienced violence, while 82.3% of teachers from rural settings had the same view.
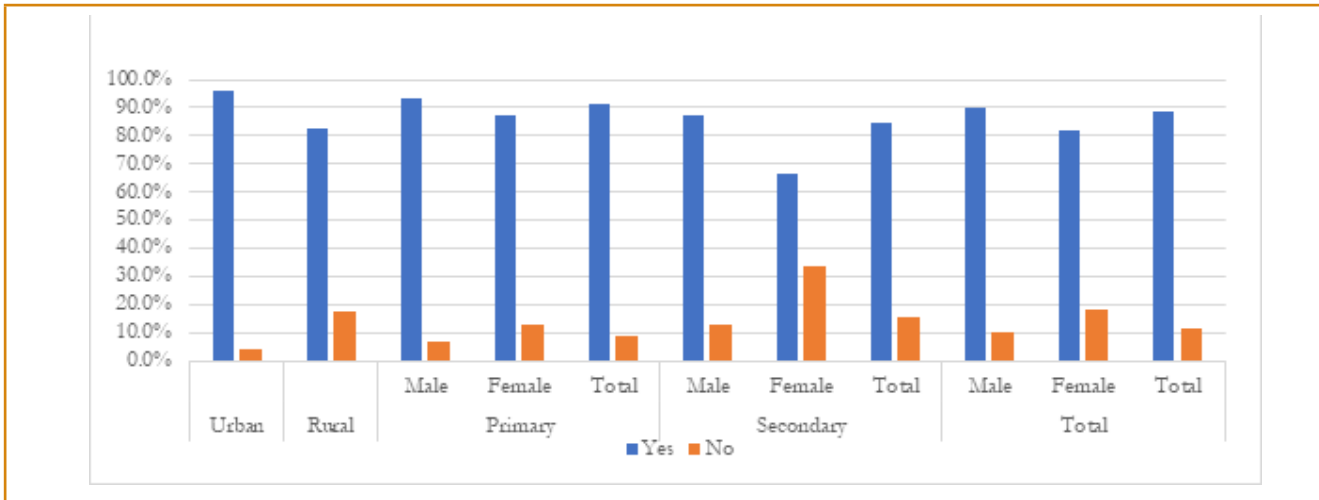
Figure 42: Teachers' perceptions on whether students know how and where to report cases of violence

The study sought to understand parents' awareness or perception of where actually or most likely their school-going children will report in case they experience violence/abuse. As shown in Figure 43, 68% of parents believed that their children are most likely to report to parents/guardians, while 12% stated that their children will report to school administration (i.e. teachers/headteachers). Moreover, 21% of parents in urban secondary schools stated that their children report violence cases to their friends while in rural secondary schools the same proportion of parents stated that children report to teachers/headteachers. About 11% of parents said that children report to other people such as ward/village leaders and gender desks.
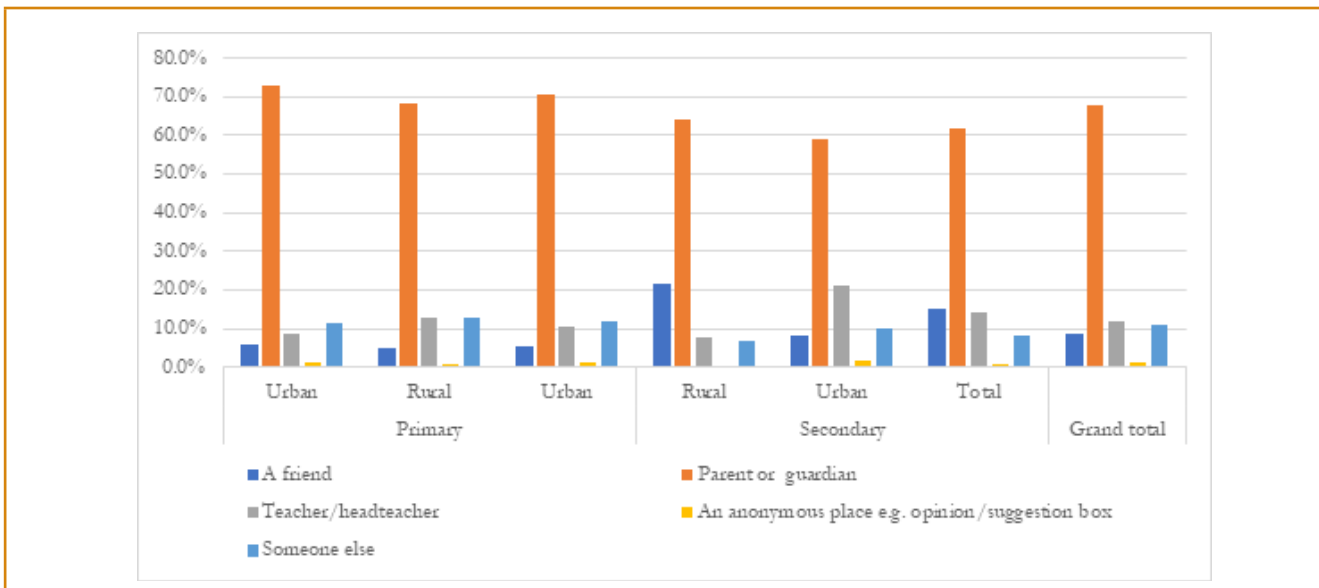

Figure 43: Parent's perception on whether children report violence

The study also explored the teacher's knowledge or perceptions regarding the likelihood that students will report incidents of violence. As shown in Figure 44, over three-quarters (79.2%) of all the interviewed teachers believed that students who have been harassed or abused would feel comfortable to report, while 19.8% thought that students would not feel comfortable to report. Teachers in primary schools were more confident that students would feel comfortable to report (89.8%) compared to those in secondary schools (67.3%).

The findings also show that more teachers from urban areas (87.8%) feel confident that students who have been harassed or abused would feel comfortable to report the cases of abuse compared to 72.6% in secondary schools. Findings show that 56.8% of all the interviewed teachers felt that students would most likely be comfortable to report incidences of violence to school administration, i.e., teachers/head

of schools. Furthermore, 18.9% of the interviewed teachers stated that the students would most likely be comfortable to report violence incidences to parents or guardian, while 11.7% mentioned that students would most likely be comfortable to report such incidences to their friends, and an equal %age mentioned others such as head boy and girl, matron and patron.
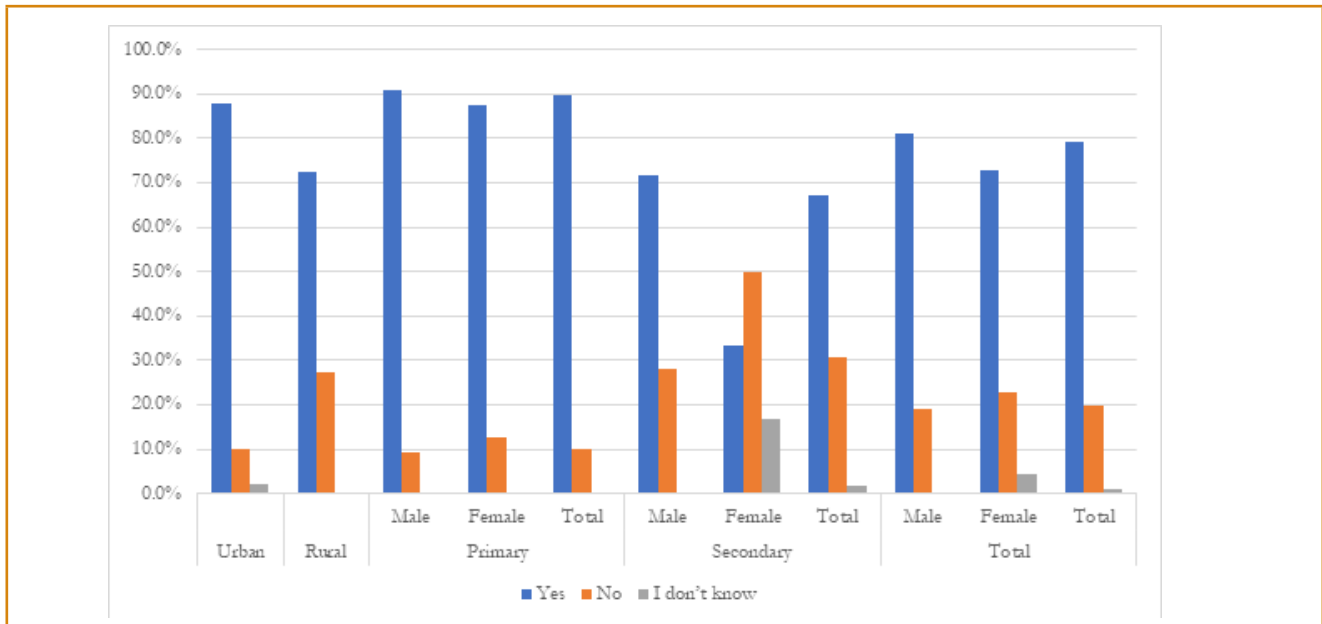

Figure 44: Teachers' perceptions on whether victims of abuse would feel comfortable to report incidents

The study also sought to learn from parents whether they are confident that when school children report cases of violence, appropriate measures will be taken and perpetrators will be held accountable. As shown in Figure 45, less than half of all parents interviewed stated that they are very confident that perpetrators of abuse will be punished when the case is reported. About 11% of parents stated that they are not confident while 12.7% stated that they do not know. More parents (about 44%) of rural secondary school students are very confident perpetrators will be punished compared to their counterparts in urban schools (about 36%).
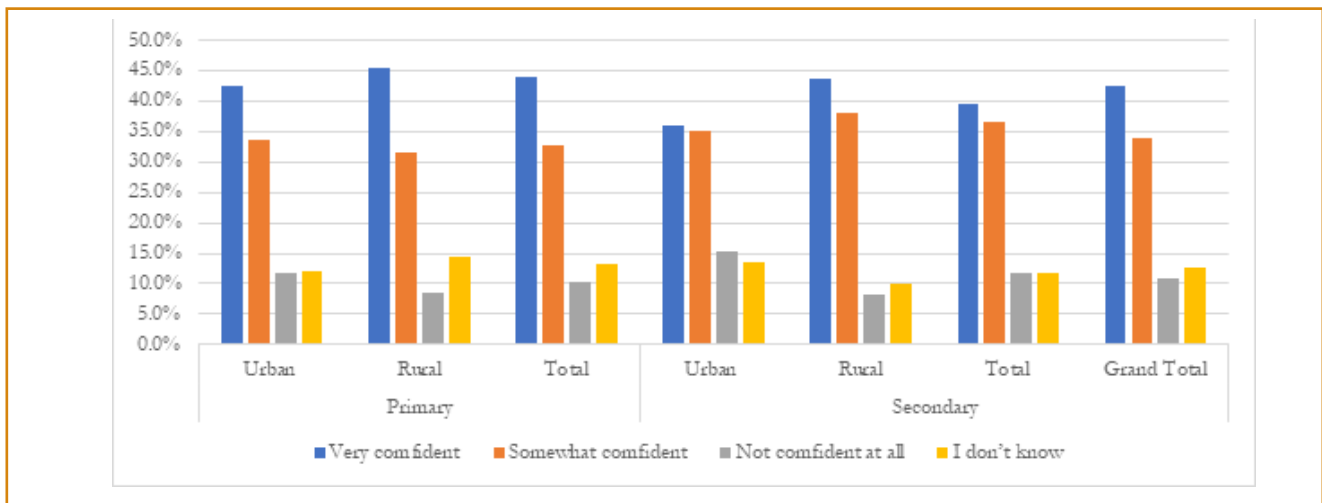

Figure 45: Parents' confidence perpetrators will be effectively punished

The study also sought to understand teachers' confidence to respond to received cases of violence against schoolchildren and act accordingly for perpetrators to be held accountable. As shown in Figure 46, over half of the teachers interviewed (50.5%) were confident that those who abuse children will be punished. The primary school teachers (57.6%) were more confident that those who abuse children will be punished compared to secondary school teachers (42.3%). Findings show teachers in urban areas (53.1%) are more confident that those who abuse children will be punished compared to the teachers in rural areas (48.4%). Overall, approximately 43.2% of teachers feel somehow confident or not confident at all that those who

abuse children will be punished. More secondary school teachers (51.9%) feel somehow confident or not confident at all that those who abuse children will be punished compared to 35.6% counterparts in primary schools.
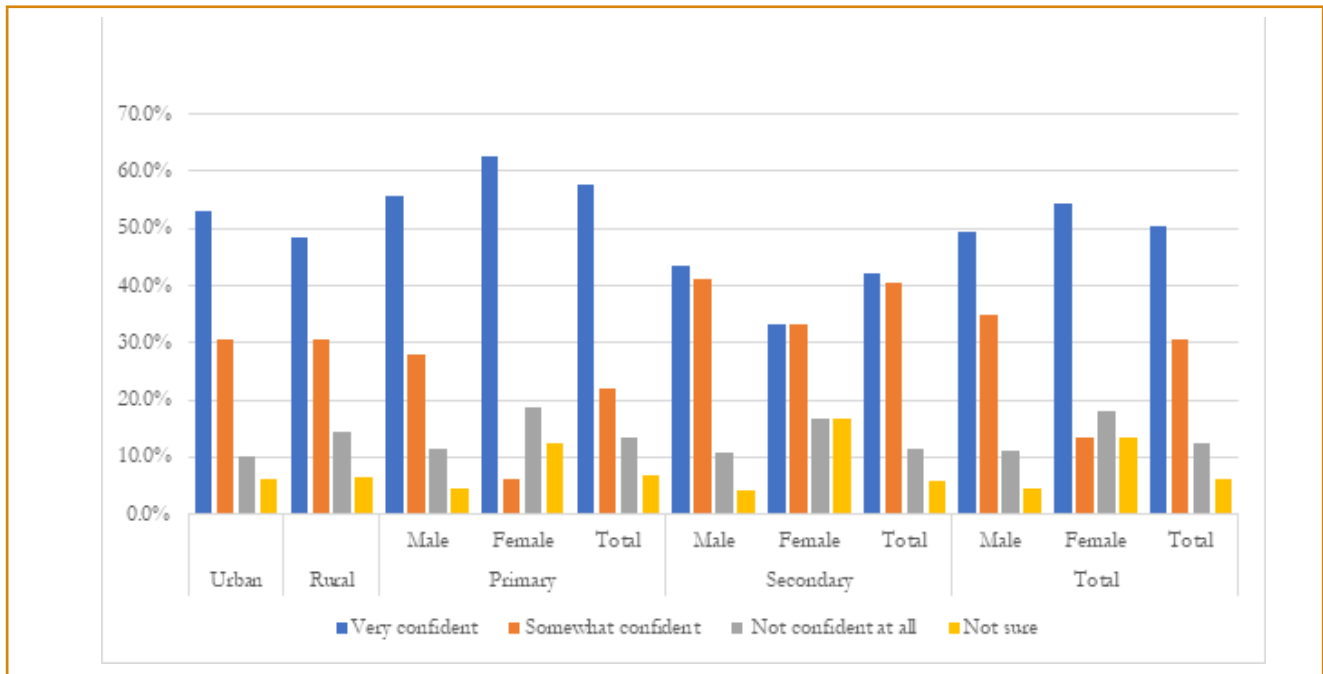

Figure 46: Teachers' confidence that perpetrators of child violence will be held accountable

4.9.1. Practices and perceptions in reporting psychological/emotional violence

As per Figure 47, 50.8% (52.5% male and 49.5% female) of the school-going children who stated that they had experienced psychological violence within the past 6 months up to the time the study was being conducted stated that they reported the incident to appropriate people. More primary school students (53.4 %) stated that they reported psychological violence committed against them compared to secondary school students (48.8%). Findings show further that more students attending public schools (51.9%) reported psychological violence compared to children attending private schools (48.0%).
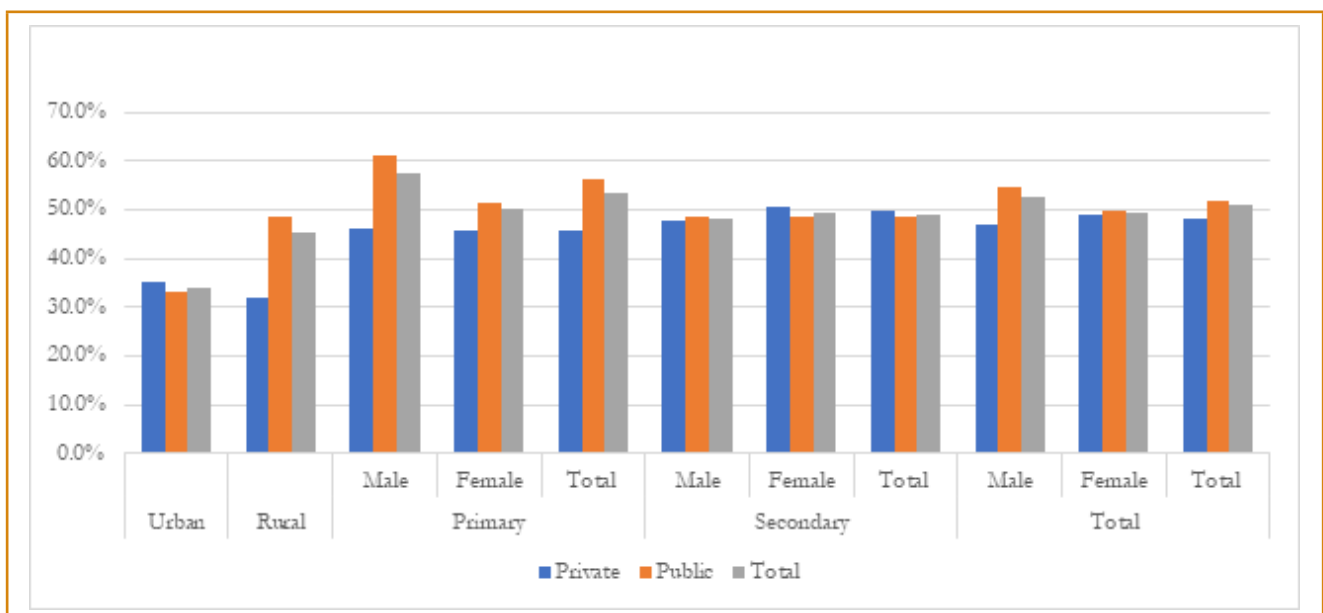

Figure 47: Proportion of children who reported psychological violence experienced according to school type and ownership

The study found 25.5% (27.2% male and 24.3% female) of the school going students stated that they reported psychological violence against them to their teachers followed by 16.5% (16.6% male and 16.5% female) who reported such incidents to their parents or guardians, 5.6% (5.0% male and 6.1% female) stated that they reported such incidents to others such as village leaders, neighbours and the police while 2.2% (3.1% male and 1.5% female) stated that they reported to their very close friends.

Findings also show that more than half of all students interviewed think that incidence of mental/emotional abuse (e.g. name-calling, teasing or taunting, threatening, bullying) do not get reported. Furthermore, 37.6% of students have a feeling that only a few incidents are reported while 2.4% feel that about half of all incidents are reported and 2.7% think most of the incidents are reported. In public primary schools, 3.1% of children feel all incidents of emotional mental abuse en-route from and/or to school are reported while 2.6% of students in public secondary schools feel the same.

For those students who were victims of psychological violence but did not report such incidents, as shown in Figure 48, majority of them (47.4%) stated that they didn't know such incidents were to be reported, while 31.1% had other reasons for not reporting, including some stating that they decided to forgive. Some decided not to report at all or did not consider it such a big thing to report and 8.1% said they didn't know the appropriate place to report.
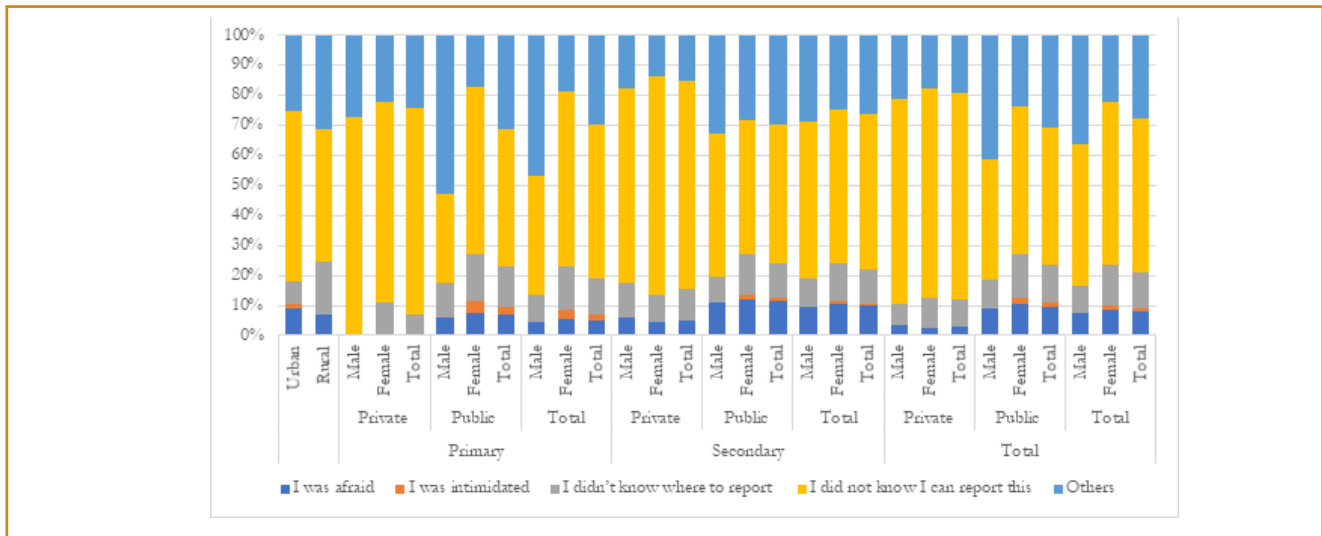

Figure 48: Reasons for not reporting psychological violence

Additionally, as Figure 49 shows, only 40.6% (41.9% male and 39.6% female) of students who reported psychological violence were confident and confirm that actions were taken against perpetrators as a result of their report. More primary school students (43. %) were confident that actions were taken as a result of their report compared to those in secondary schools (36.3%).
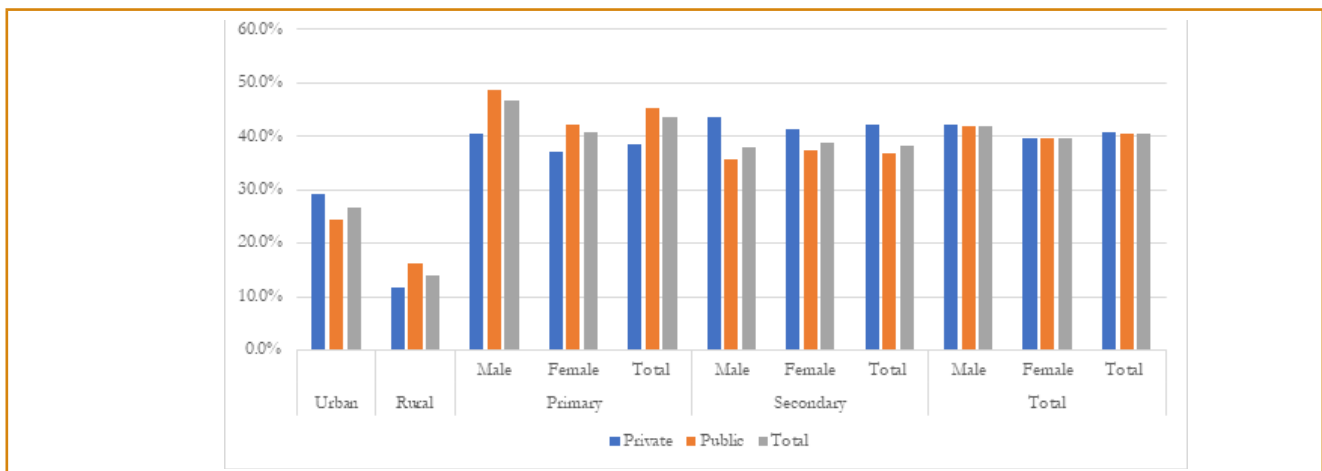

Figure 49: Students who confirmed that action was taken against perpetrators of psychological violence after they reported the incidents

The study further explored parents' perception of reporting of incidents of psychological/emotional violence against school children by parents, guardians, relatives or anyone else. As shown in Figure 50, 55.3% of parents who were aware of the occurrence of such violence did not know whether such incidents are reported or not. About 37% of all parents who are aware of the occurrence of incidents of mental/emotional abuse against children at home were of the view that such incidents are never reported. Across all school types, about 5% of all parents hold the view that only a few of such incidents get reported.
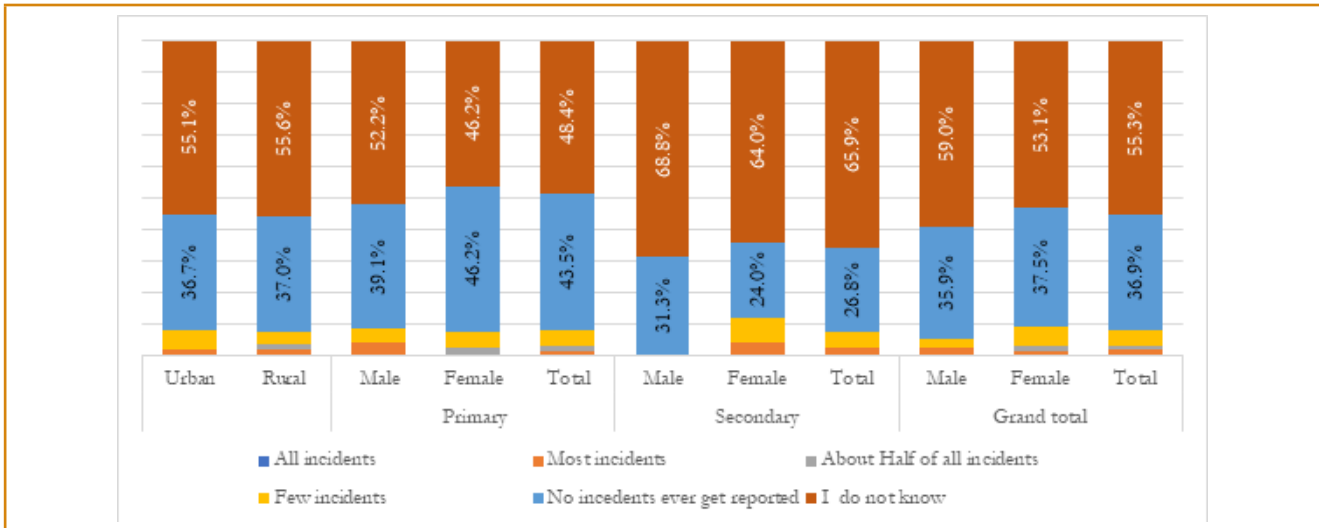

Figure 50: Parents' perception on the frequency of reports on incidents of mental/emotional abuse to children by parents, guardians, relative or anyone

Furthermore, the study explored parents' views on how many incidents of mental/emotional violence against students that happens on their way to/from school is reported. As illustrated in Figure 51, 61.3% of parents who are aware of the occurrence of such incidents do not know whether such incidents are reported or not. Again, 34.2% believe that such incidents are never reported while 4.5% think that only a few are reported.
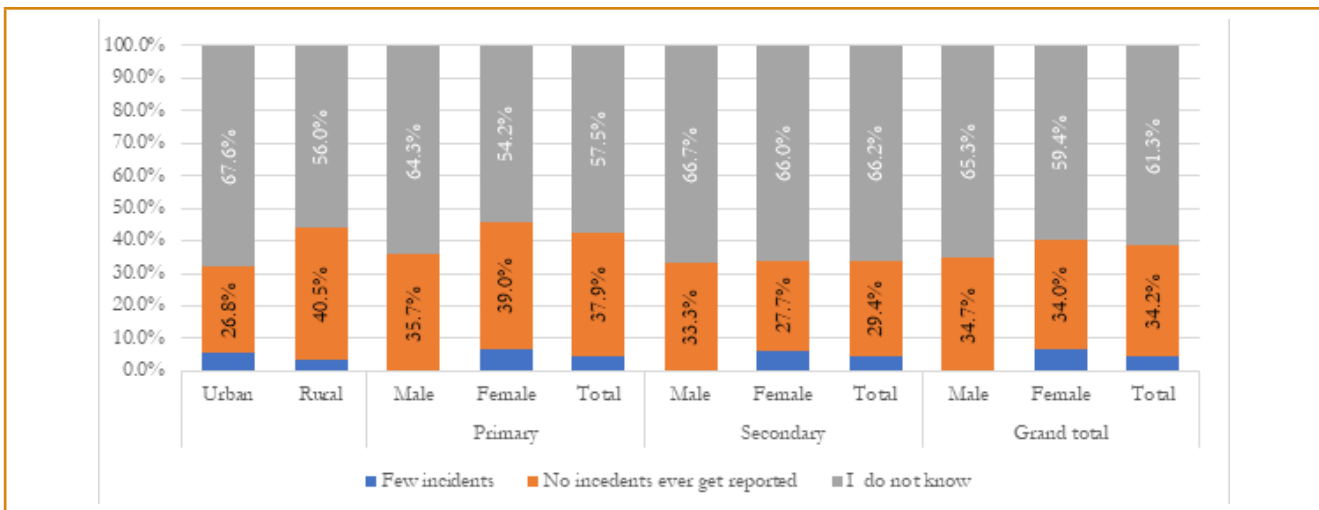

Figure 51: Parents' view on quantity of reported cases on mental/emotional abuse against students that happen on their way to and from school

The study also explored teachers' perceptions on the reporting of incidents of psychological/emotional violence against school children by teachers in the school setting. Findings show that only 18.8% of teachers believe that *'most'* or *'all'* of the incidents on mental or emotional abuse against students by teachers are reported. The primary school teachers (21.7%) were more certain that most or all of the mental or emotional abuse incidents are reported compared to 16.7% of secondary school teachers. Only 9.4% of teachers in rural areas think all or most of the mental or emotional abuse incidents by teachers is reported compared to 33.3% in urban areas. Findings also show that over three-quarters of the interviewed teachers 75.5% (73.9% primary schools and 76.6% secondary schools) feel that few or none of the incidents on mental or emotional abuse by teachers are reported.

4.9.2. Practices and perceptions in reporting cases of negligence

The study further intended to find out whether school-going children victims of negligence tend to report such situations. As indicated in Figure 52, findings show that only 32.0% (37.0% male and 25.8% female) of students who had experienced negligence in the past 6 months reported the incident appropriately. More secondary school students (34.3%) stated that they reported the negligence they experienced compared to primary school students (29.3%). Data shows that more students from private schools (36.1%) stated that they reported cases of experienced negligence compared to students in public schools (31.1%).
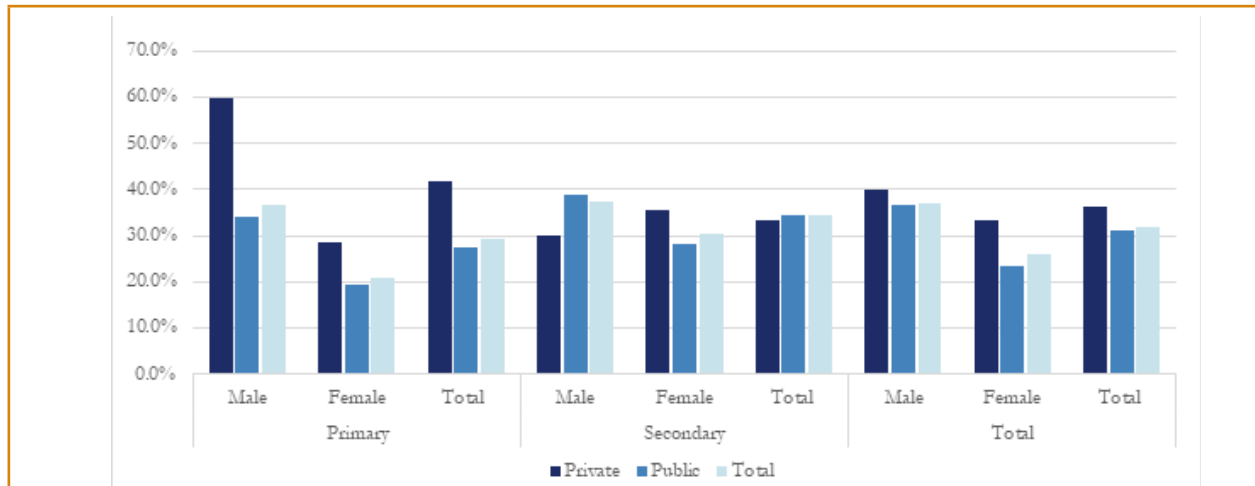

Figure 52: Proportion of school-going children who reported negligence according to school type and ownership

The study showed that of all victims of negligence who reported the incidents, 20.2% (23.1% male and 19.9% female) did so to their parents or guardians while 4.6 % (6.5% male and 2.2% female) reported to their close relatives. Furthermore, 4.1% (3.7% male and 4.5% female) reported to others, such as their neighbours and religious leaders, and 2.5% (1.9% male and 3.4% female) stated that they reported to their teachers. The study also learnt the reasons why others chose not to report. As shown in Figure 53, majority of them (36.5%) stated that they didn't know they can report, followed by 16.2% who said they didn't know where to report and 8.6% who stated that they were afraid to report.
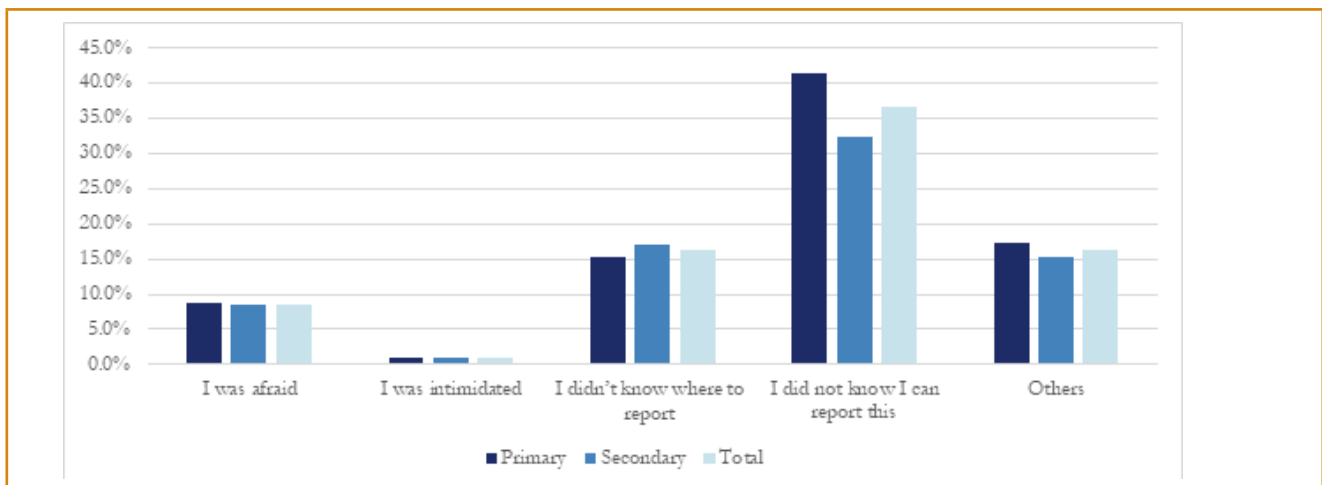
Figure 53: Reasons for school-going children victims of negligence not to report the situation

It was also interesting to learn whether school-going children who report negligence are confident that appropriate measures will be taken. As shown in Figure 54, findings indicate that only 9.6% (12.0% male and 6.7% female) of students who had experienced neglect or violence were confident and affirmed that actions were taken against perpetrators of neglect as a result of their reports.

Secondary school students (12.4%) are more confident that actions were taken as a result of their reported cases of neglect compared to primary school students (6.5%).

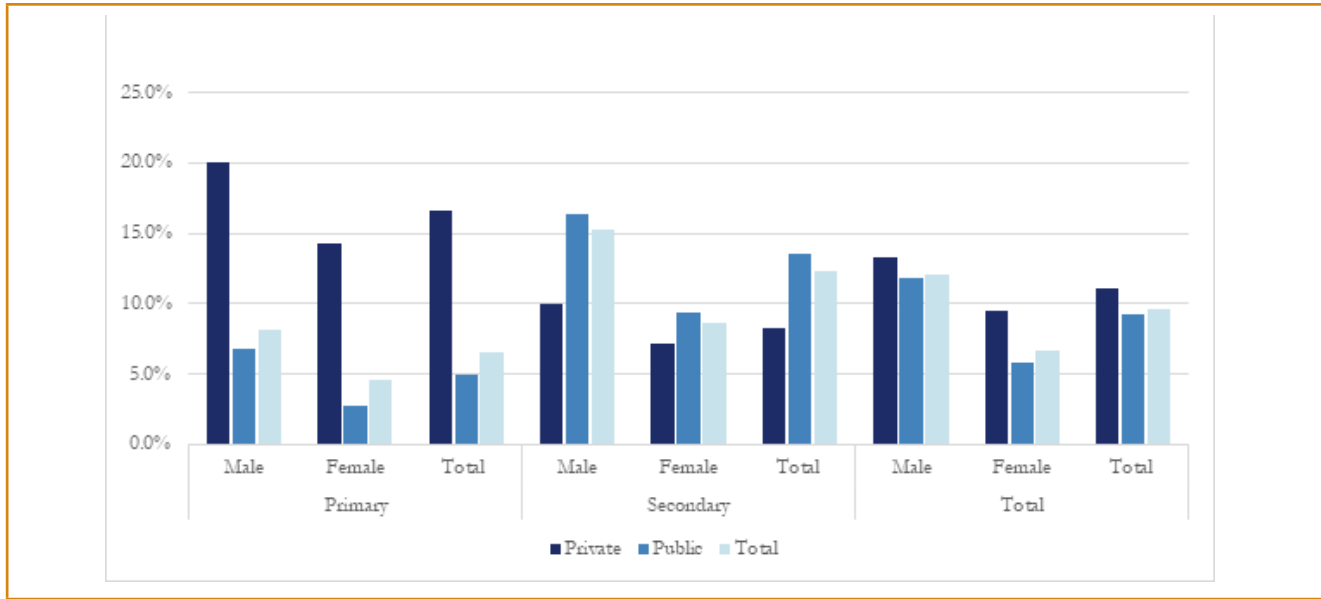*Figure 54: Confidence level among school going children on action being taken as a result of them reporting cases on negligence*

4.9.3. Practices and perceptions in reporting of physical violence

More than half of all students interviewed feel that no incidents of physical violence experienced en-route to and/or from school ever gets reported, as indicated in Figure 55. However, 37.5% interviewed students believe that a few incidents of physical violence are reported while about 4% think that almost half of all incidents are reported. Students attending private secondary schools are more likely to report cases of physical violence while en-route to school, with 35% students saying that about half of all incidents are reported, while 7% think all incidents are reported. More than half think that a few cases of violence are reported. In private secondary schools alone, 10% female and 38.7% male students think all incidents of physical violence are reported. Additionally, 33.3% of students feel about half of all incidents are reported. On the contrary, only 4% of female students in public secondary schools think half of all incidents are reported. In primary schools, half of all students interviewed think no incidents of physical violence ever get reported while 34-40% of students think only a few incidents are reported.
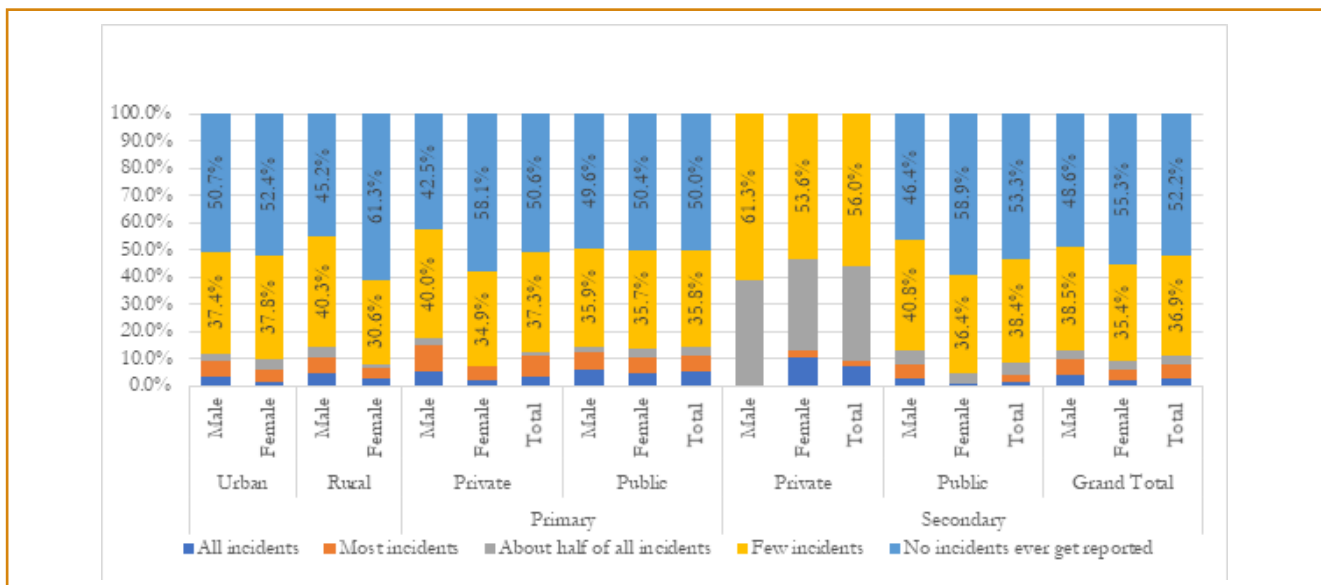

Figure 55: School children's perception of the reporting of Physical Violence experiences en-route to and/ or from school

The study also explored parents' perceptions to report cases of physical violence against school children at home. The findings show 84.7% of parents who are aware of physical violence against children at home stated that they do not know whether such incidents are reported or not. Slightly less than 5% of parents feel few incidents are reported while about 12% said they are aware of such cases but they are not reported. In urban areas, 8.3% of parents said few incidents are reported, while in rural areas parents said they do not know or that such incidents are never reported.

The study also sought parents' views on the reporting of physical violence against schoolchildren en route to/from school. As shown in Figure 56, 61% of parents who stated that they are aware of the physical violence experienced by students on their way to/from school averted that they do not know whether such incidents get reported or not. Furthermore, 29% believed that such incidents are never reported while about 7% said few incidents are reported. A comparison between parents of secondary school children and those of primary school children shows that, 64% of parents in the latter group don't know, while 31% said incidents are reported and 58.2% believed that such incidents are not reported. Only 6% of parents of secondary school children who are aware of the occurrence of physical violence en-route to/from school were of the view that most of such incidents are reported.
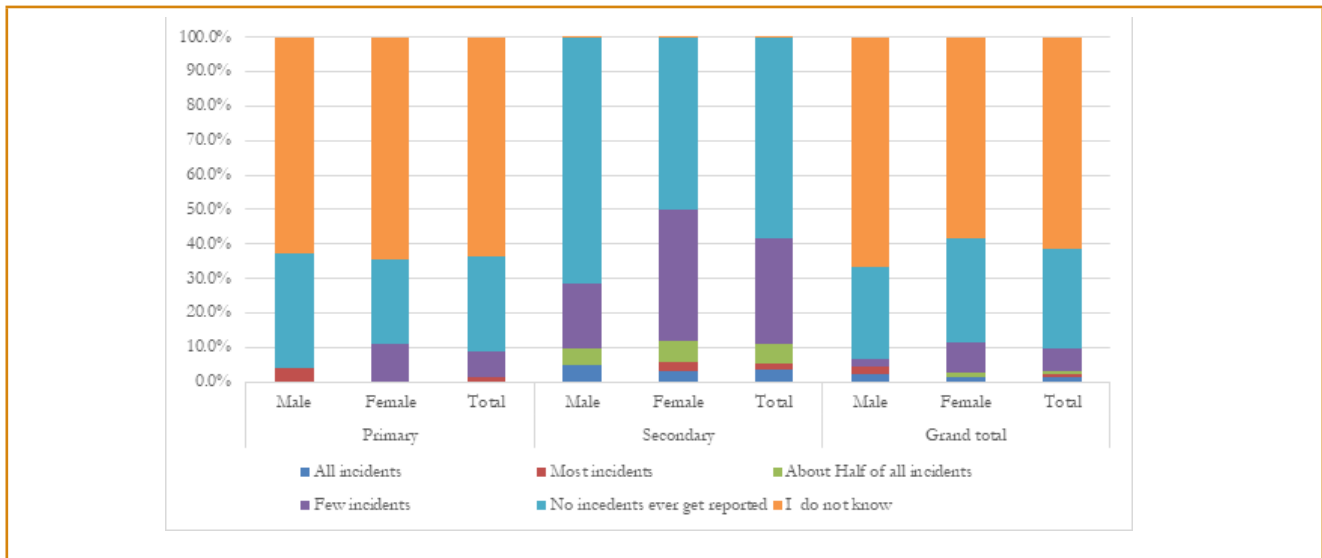
Figure 56: Parents' view on the number of reported cases of Physical Violence against Students that happen on their way to and from school

The study wanted to know teachers' if cases of physical violence against school children by teachers are reported. Findings show that only 20.6% of interviewed teachers thought that most or all of the physical abuse cases against students caused by teachers are reported. The primary school teachers (33.4%) were more confident that such cases are reported compared to 4.0% of teachers in secondary schools. Only 12.8% of teachers in rural areas think all or most of such physical abuse cases are reported compared to 36.9% of teachers in urban areas. Findings also show that 70.7% (63.7% primary school teachers and 80.0% secondary school teachers) are of the view that few or none of the incidents are reported.

4.9.4. Practices and perceptions in reporting sexual violence

As shown in Figure 57, only 36.6% (27.8% male and 41.8% female) of students who experienced sexual violence in the past 6 months reported the incident accordingly. More secondary school students (37.9%) are found to report cases of sexual abuse compared to primary school students (33.3%). Of those who reported the incidents, majority 25.5% (11.1% male and 34.1% female) did so to their parents or guardians and 4.1% (5.6% male and 3.3% female) reported to their teachers, while 2.8% (1.9% male and 3.3% female) reported to their very close friends.
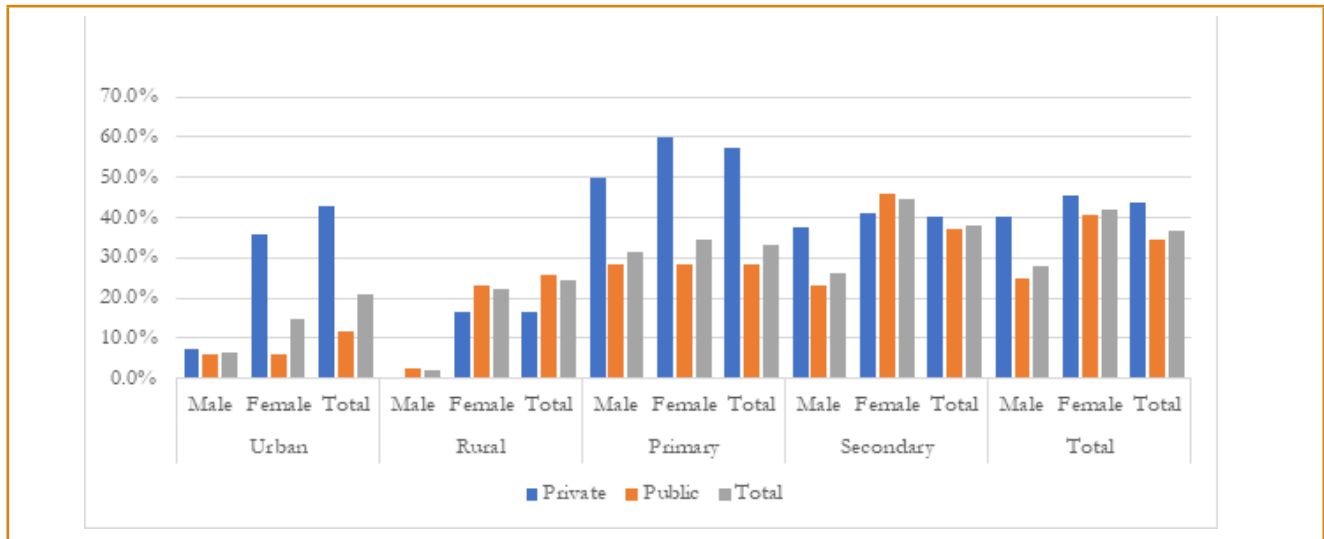
Figure 57: Proportion of children who reported violence experienced according to school type and ownership

Among victims of sexual violence at school who did not report the incidents, 27.6% said they didn't know they were supposed to report, 23.4% were afraid to report and 10.3% didn't know where to report, as seen in Figure 58.However, the fact that students did not identify specifically school counsellors, particularly in secondary schools as the place where they can report sexual violence raises some red flags in terms of their availability and their effectiveness.
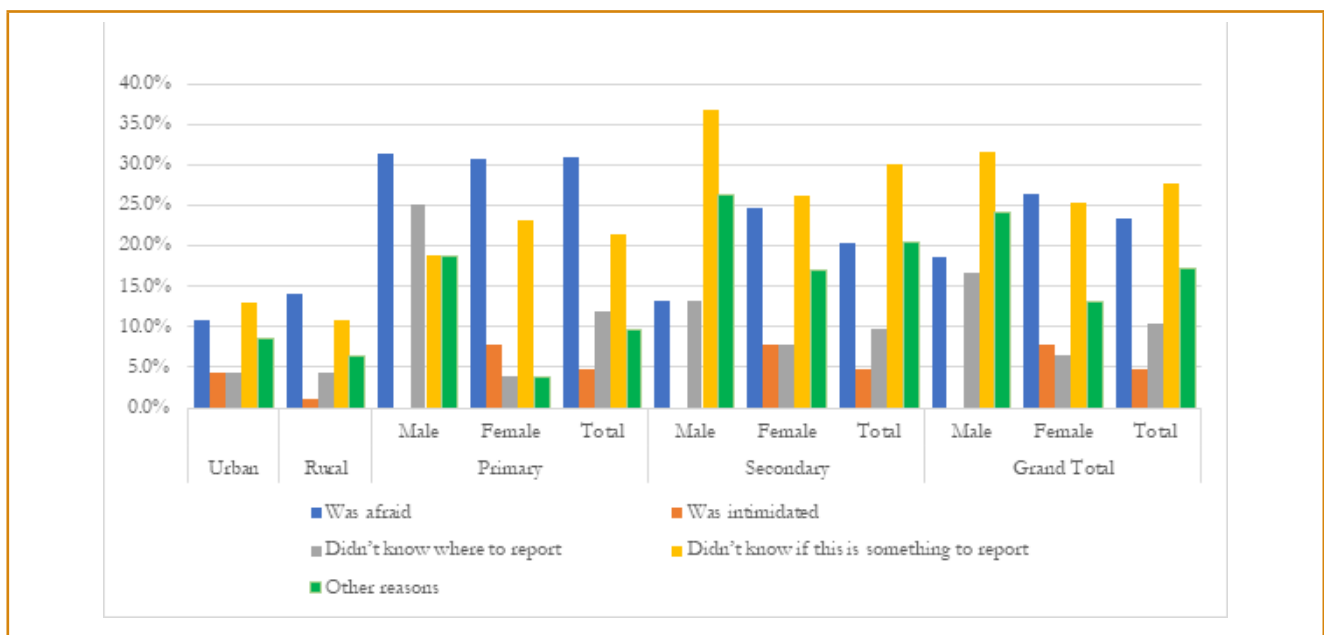
Figure 58: Reasons for not reporting cases of Sexual Violence

Furthermore, as shown in Figure 59, only 29% (20.4% male and 34.0% female) of student victims of sexual violence were confident and affirmed that after their reporting, actions were taken against perpetrators. Secondary school students were found to be more confident (30.1%) that actions were taken as a result of their reports compared to primary school students (26.2%).

Figure 59: Students who confirmed actions were taken against perpetrators of sexual violence

The study explored the perception of reported cases on sexual violence against students caused by teachers. Findings show that slightly over 75% of all students involve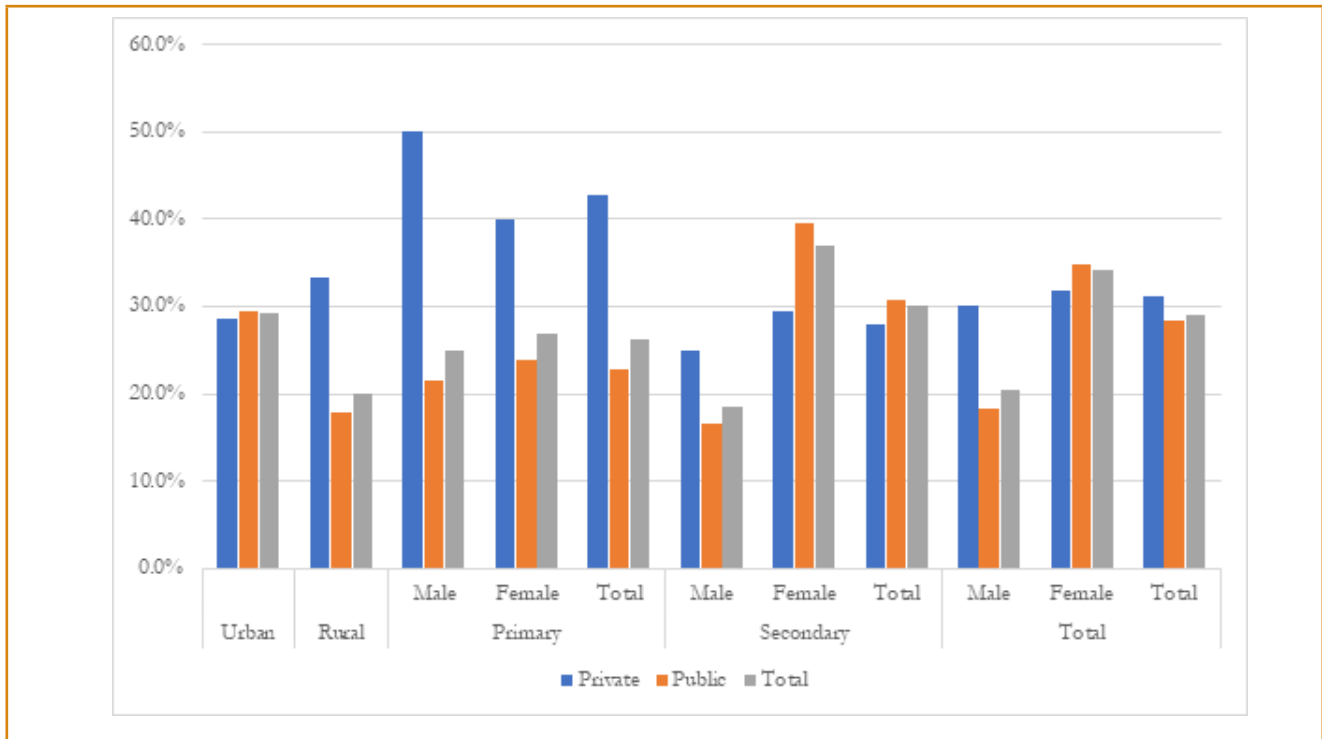d in this study are of the view that incidents of sexual violence by teachers against students are never reported. There is a notable proportional difference in terms of perceptions on reporting sexual violence perpetrated by teachers between public and private secondary schools. 18.7% of students in public secondary schools think few incidents are reported compared to 13.4% of students in private secondary schools. Similarly, about 10% of students in public schools believe that all cases of sexual violence by teachers are reported compared to only 4.2% of students in private schools. Likewise, in primary schools, 8.1% of students in public primary schools think all incidents of sexual violence are reported compared to only 4.1% of students in private primary schools. Except for public secondary schools, in all other schools, the %age of those who think cases of sexual violence by teachers are never reported is higher among female students.

4.9.5. Students' perceptions on the reporting of sexual violence cases between students

As shown in Figure 60, overall, 69.1% of students think incidents of sexual violence between students are not reported, a majority of them being females (males 65.8%, 71.8% female). However, in secondary schools, students reported that few cases of sexual violence perpetrated by their fellow students are reported. In public schools, 29.1% of students (28.5% male, 29.6% female) said few such cases are reported. In private secondary schools, 23.1% of students think that few incidents are reported. More male students (30.9%) in private secondary school think few of the aforementioned incidents are reported compared to only 18.2% female students who think the same. Despite the majority of students stating that incidents of sexual violence between themselves are not reported, about 6% of students feel all incidents are reported. Majority of those who feel all incidents are reported are male students (7.1%) compared to female students (4.8%).

The comparison of primary and secondary schools shows that more students in primary schools (7.8% private, 6.3% public) feel all incidents of sexual violence are reported compared to secondary schools (1.2% private, 5.9% public).
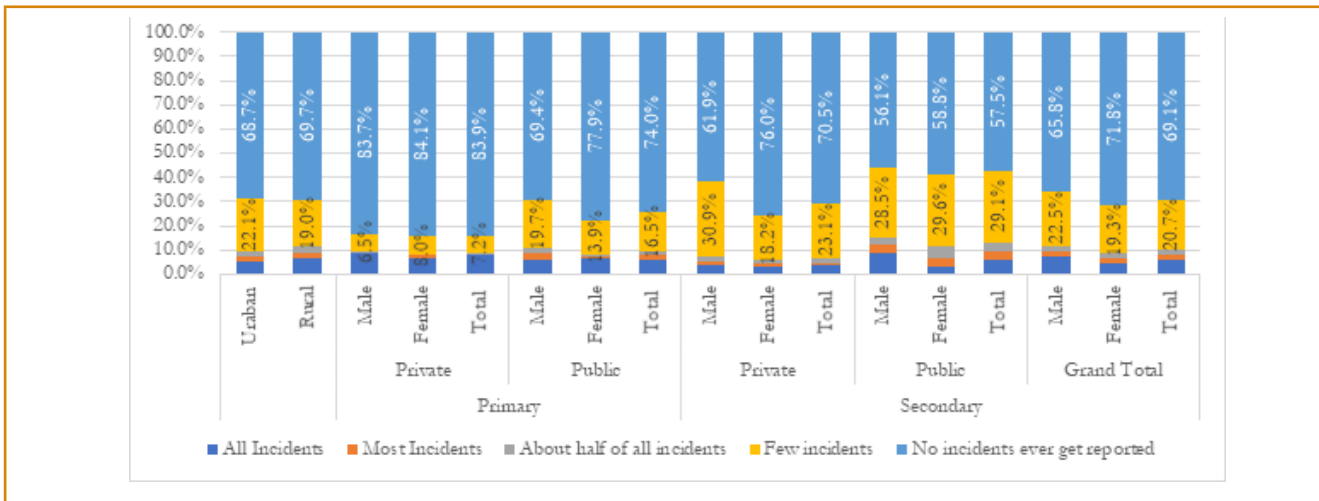

Figure 60: Perception on reporting cases of Sexual Violence between students

4.9.6. Perception on the reporting of sexual violence cases en route to/from school

As shown in Figure 61, 44.9% interviewed students feel few incidents of sexual violence occurring en-route to and from school are reported while 34.3% feel no such incidents are reported. 17.3% of students don't know whether such incidents are reported. There are very few students who think most incidents are reported (3.5%) while 1.7% think about half of such cases are reported. Across all school types, findings show that private primary schools recorded the highest proportion (about 6 %) who feel that almost half of all incidents of sexual violence are reported, dominated by male students 7.1%. Likewise, in secondary schools, male students recorded a slightly higher proportion of the total students who think most of the incidents are reported with 7.1% and 4.6% being from private and public school respectively.
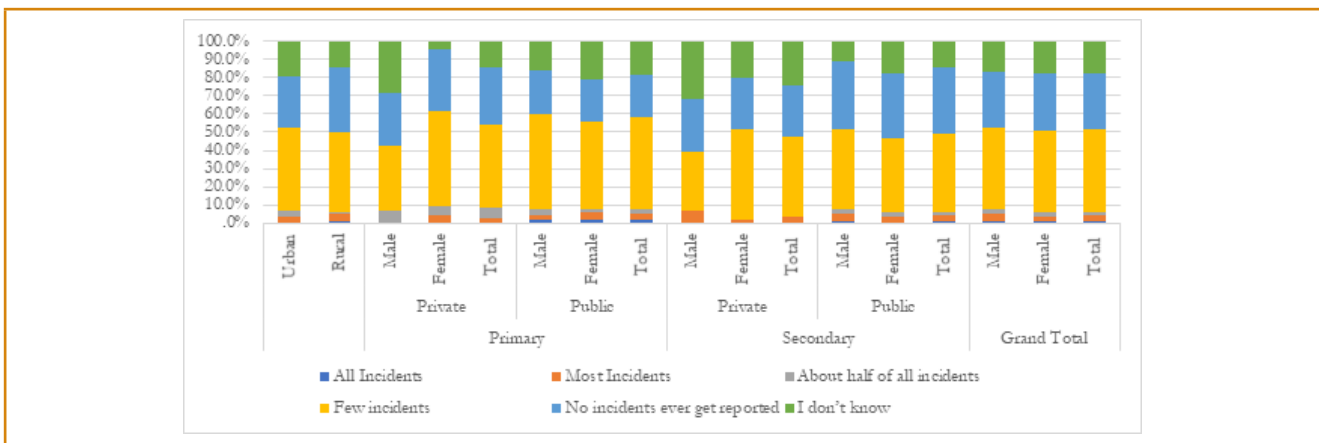
Figure 61: Perception of reporting Sexual Violence cases occurring en route to school

4.9.7. Parents' perceptions on reporting of cases on sexual violence against schoolchildren perpetrated by teachers

Regarding whether incidents of sexual abuse perpetrated by teachers against school children are reported, more than 50% of the interviewed parents said they did not know, as per Figure 62. The rural-urban comparison shows that 66% of parents in urban areas said they did not know, compared to 56% in rural areas who said the same. Furthermore, 32.4% of parents are of the perception such incidents never get reported, while 1.1% believe about half of all incidents are reported. 5% of male and 3% of female parents are aware of few incidents being reported, mainly in primary schools. However, 5% of parents in urban

areas reported being aware of few cases of sexual violence being reported compared to 2.2% counterparts in rural areas.
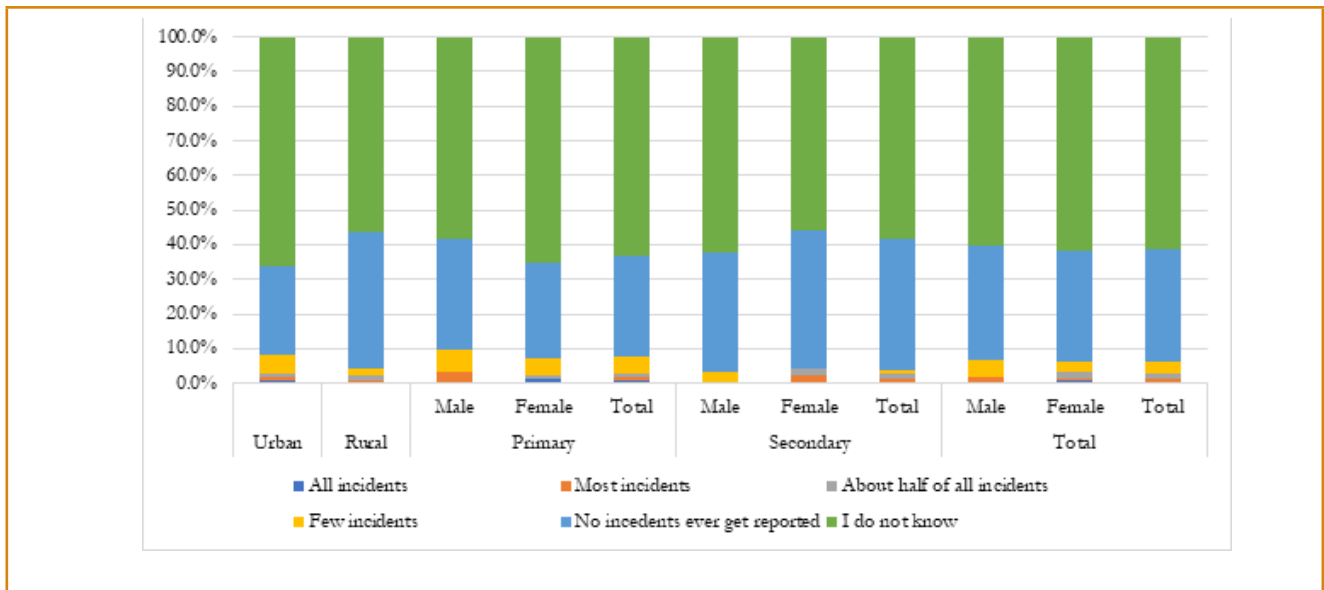
Figure 62: Parents' perceptions on the reporting of Sexual Violence incidents against School Children perpetrated by teachers

The study also explored whether parents are aware or think that incidents of sexual violence happening amongst students themselves are reported. As shown in Figure 63, 60% of parents who stated that they are aware of incidents of sexual violence amongst students do not know whether they are reported. Furthermore, about 33% of parents who are aware of such cases, were of the view that no such incidents are reported. There is a slight difference between urban and rural parents where a large proportion of parents (43%) in rural areas believe that no such incidents ever get reported while a large proportion of parents in urban areas (66%) said they did not know. Generally, less than 5% of parents who are aware of sexual violence amongst students responded positively to the issue of reporting.
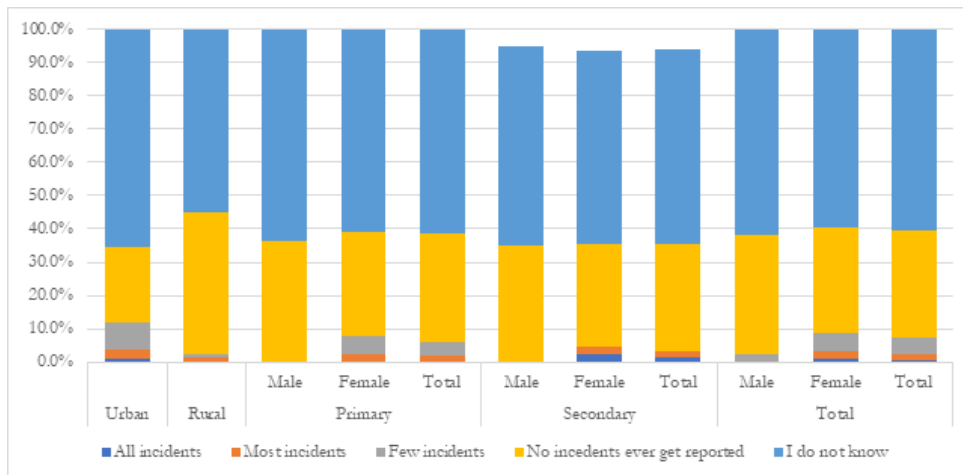
Figure 63: Parents' perceptions on reporting cases of Sexual Violence amongst School Children

The study explored parents' awareness of whether sexual violence against school children at home is reported. As indicated in Figure 64, 67% of parents who posited that they are aware of the occurrence of sexual violence at home said they did not know whether such incidents are reported. Furthermore, 20% stated such incidents are never reported while 11% believed that only a few of such incidents are reported.

Overall, more female parents (21.2 %) were of the view that such incidents are not reported compared to 18.4% of male parents.
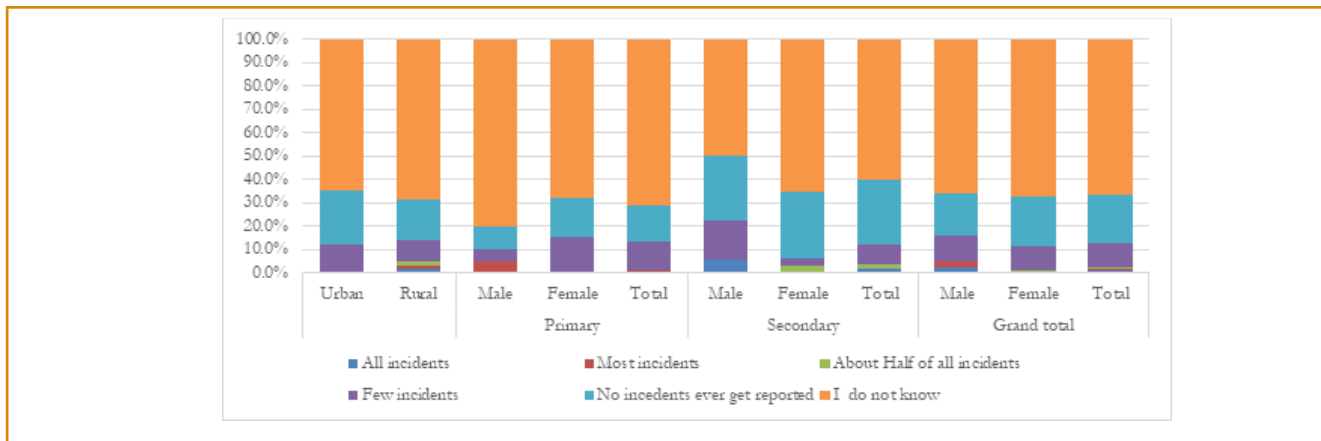
Figure 64: Parents' view on the reporting of cases on Sexual abuse or Violence by parents, guardians, relatives or anyone else at home

The study also explored the teachers' perceptions of whether sexual violence against schoolchildren perpetrated by teachers is reported. The study found that only 5.6% of all the interviewed teachers believed that, 'all' or 'most,' cases of sexual violence against schoolchildren perpetrated by teachers are reported. Secondary school teachers (8.3%) were more certain that 'all' or 'most,' of such incidents are reported while none of the primary school teachers expressed that opinion. The situation is more serious among teachers in rural areas whereby all of them think cases are not reported compared to the 12.5% counterparts in urban settings. Findings also show that majority of the teachers interviewed 83.3% (83.4% primary schools, 83.3% secondary schools) think that 'few' or 'not at all,' cases are reported.

The studies sought to learn from teachers are if incidents of sexual violence amongst students at school are reported to teachers, parents or any authority. Findings show that only 22.8% of interviewed teachers were convinced that *'all'* or *'most,'* of the cases are reported. Secondary school teachers (22.9%) were more certain that *'all'* or *'most,'* such incidents are reported compared to 22.7% of their counterparts in primary schools. Findings also show that 26.0% of teachers in urban areas believe that, 'all' or 'most*,'* such incidents are reported, while 20.6% of the counterparts in rural areas hold the same view. Findings also show that approximately two-thirds interviewed teachers, 66.6% (63.6% primary schools, 68.5% secondary schools) are of the opinion that *'few'* or *'not at all,'* incidents are reported to teachers, parents or any authority.

Parents' awareness of reported cases of sexual violence against schoolchildren en-route to/from school is indicated in Figure 65. Of all the parents who stated that they are aware of sexual violence against school children while en-route to/from school, 66% said they did not know if these cases were reported. Furthermore, 30% stated that such incidents are never reported while 3% said only a few cases are reported.
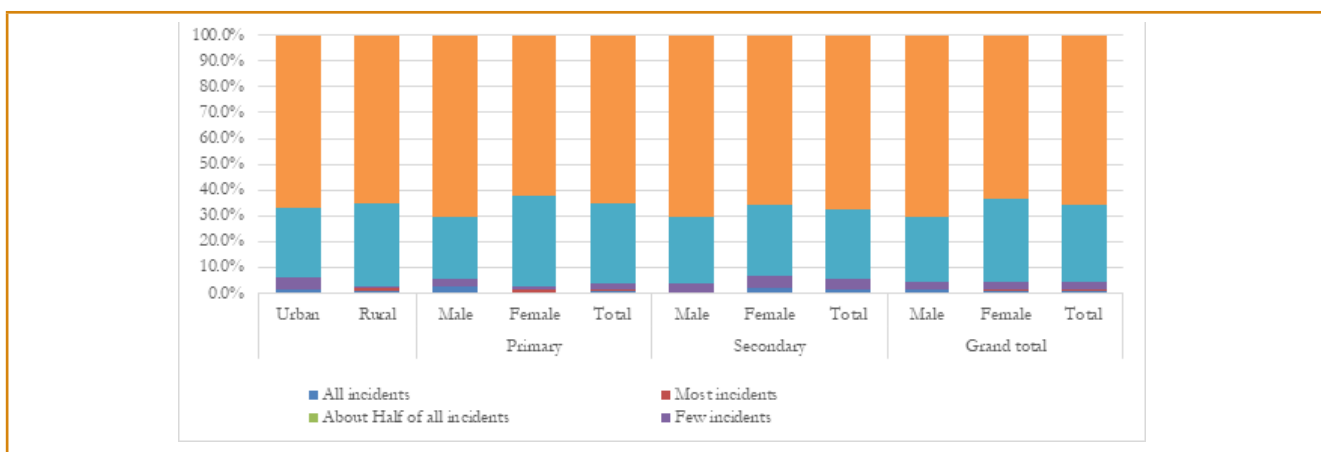

Figure 65. Parents' view on reported incidents of Sexual abuse or Violence to students happened on their way to and from school

4.10.   Root causes of violence against schoolchildren and persistent barriers to overcoming the plight

According to the findings above, most respondents are of the view that, compared to a few decades ago, in contemporary Tanzania violence against school children is particularly exorbitant. This section attempts to identify the perceived aetiology of violence against schoolchildren and explore explanations for its continued persistence and proliferation. The following synthesized thematic issues are respondents' proffered root causes of violence against school children.

4.10.1. The collapse of community parenting and its associated community child protection system

Contemporary times attest to a rapid crumbling of community parenting and its associated community child protection system which were essential for child protection.

> *"It seems community parenting in Tanzania's ethnic groups did not receive scholarly attention much, but in my opinion, in the past, it was the backbone of the child protection system. It is not nostalgia …community parenting was institutionalised and part of a lifestyle. There were mutual expectations in the community, a kindred way of life, shared values systems, homogenous lifestyles, taboos and sanctions which informed and supported community child-rearing. If someone mistreated a child for instance and was cautioned by elders, it had heavy weighed, but today, there are no elders and no respect for elders even in cases where they are still around." (male respondent, KII, December 2019).*

To support the idea of community parenting as a key part of child-rearing and child protection, the study showed that in Tanzania there are several ethnic and Kiswahili maxims espousing the notion that, a child belongs to the community. For example, an aphorism '*Mwana si wa M'mwe*' is a Chasu saying metaphorically translating to mean "a child does not belong to one person." Another example is a Swahili axiom "*mtoto wa mwenzako ni wa kwako*" meaning "another person's child is also your child." An overwhelming number of respondents hold the view that the notion of community parenting and community child protection has been eroded by contemporary socio-economic transformations and intensifying individualism.

It was recognised that while changes may be inevitable, the key problem identified was a slow social response to appropriately address inordinate changes, consciously weighing on them and setting up appropriate and effective child-rearing practices and child protection measures consistent with the changes. Instead, there are mushrooming associated destructive sayings such as "*Mtoto wa Mwenzio Mkubwa Mwenzio.*" Which metaphorically translate to "To you, another person's child is a grownup." This cliché is destructive especially because its sexual undertones to mean that a child is a child to his/her parents, but others should consider him /her a grown-up. It was also observed that the frequently floated and various piloted concept of village/ *mitaa* child protection committees have not managed to rise to the challenge of replacing or complimenting community parenting and community child protection.

- The social-cultural transformation which has seen the decay of community parenting; increased individualisation, attrition of social, cultural, and moral values. There are no longer shared values about what is right and what is wrong. There is a proliferation of indecent practices and lack of discipline and self-control across society.

- There is no social accountability in both urban and rural settings when someone is known to have done something unacceptable. In modern societies, the only recourse is the police, which in everyday life it can't be effective. Traditional society has sanctions including taboos, being ostracised by the community, warnings by elders, curses, among others, which collectively determined social behaviour and to a large extent effective to keep people in check.

4.10.2. Customary, habitual alongside institutionalized traditional practices

The study revealed existing various customary, habitual and institutionalized traditional practices which are responsible for psychological conditioning of victims and perpetrators of violence against school children. Such practices are accentuated as perpetuating and sustaining different forms of violence against children. As it has been noted, acceptable and unacceptable behaviour and elements of harm, are culturally influenced. In this regard, such practices normalise acts which in the national and international law can be considered violence. In this instance neither perpetrators nor victims consider such acts as abnormal or violent because they are both psychologically conditioned to embrace such acts, to cooperate and to participate as per their culturally defined roles and modes of behaviour. An example was given of a custom in one of Tanzania's ethnic[15] groups where there is a certain period socially and culturally sanctioned for boys who have reached puberty to defile young girls.

"*…n this period, mothers would be chasing their young daughters, sometimes as young as eight or nine years old to go out and play, knowing that they most likely will run into boys who will most likely rape her,*" (female respondent, KII, December 2019).

"*...there is also a traditional dance which is always danced at night and involves exclusively unmarried boys and girls. Essentially this is an opportunity for boys and girls to eat, drink, dance, have fun and have sex. No mother ever asks her daughters what happened at the dance or caution her about it, they all know what is supposed to happen.*" (female respondent, KII, December 2019)

Respective to this culture, it was reported that young-men in that ethnic group have a free pass to sleep with young girls most of whom often have not even seen their first menstrual periods. The justification for such a practice was the girls needed to be ready for marital duties when they get married.

> "From *what I understand these young men are unmarried and are supposed to prepare girls for marital duties so that older men who marry these girls do not struggle with virginity. If a man marries a girl and finds her a virgin, they can be furious and chastise her away, for she has not been playing with her fellow children…. some might even send her back to her parents so that she can be better prepared for marital duties,*" (female respondent, KII, December 2019)

In such a culture, girls seem to be prepared for only marriage, marriage at a very young age. The custom described most likely constitute statutory rape, and the effects of such practice can result in child pregnancy. However, neither the victims nor the perpetrators or members of the society seem to view it as violence against female children. On the contrary, it is a custom which seems to be socially embraced and facilitated.

4.10.3. Children's abuse-eliciting characteristics

Qualitative findings indicated that a child's character may contribute to him/her becoming a victim of violence. For instance, recurring lack of discipline and misbehaviour among students was highlighted as one of the triggers of violence. In that context, teachers were asked, how often students arrive late to school, are absent from school, cheat in tests and exams, commit acts of vandalism and theft, intimidate each other, are intimidated or orally abused by teaching staff, use words or threats to bully or intimidate teachers or other school staff or use drugs and/or alcohol. As shown in Figure 66, of all the interviewed teachers, 46% stated that in their respective schools' students behave or manifested such behaviours either often or daily. On the other hand, 53.1% of teachers stated that in their schools, such behaviours or attitudes among students occurred rarely or not at all. The daily or frequent occurrence of these behaviours and attitudes by students were posited more by the interviewed secondary school teachers (51.8%) compared to primary school teachers (40.0%).

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15   The respondent asked the researcher to not divulge the name of the ethnic group until a study has been conducted and the custom verified.

Again, the daily or frequent occurrence of these habits is found to be more confirmed with teachers from rural areas (54.9%) compared to the teachers from urban areas (34.7%)
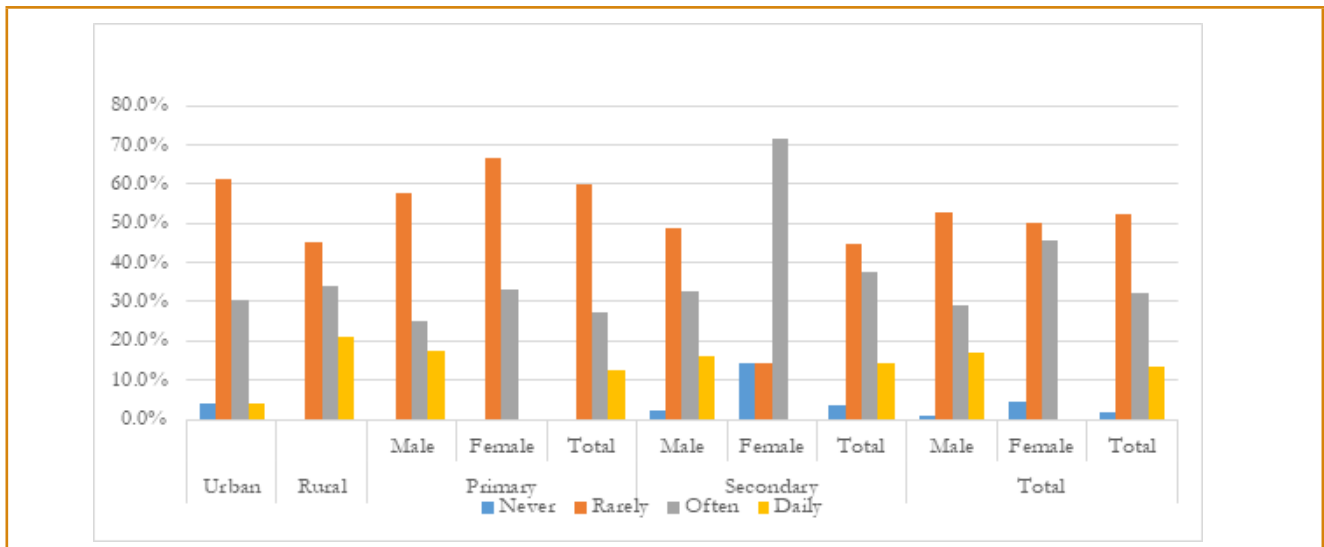

Figure 66: Occurrence of students' negative behaviours and attitudes in schools according to teachers

The study found that 8% of parents (9.3% secondary schools, 7.9% primary schools) said that children often use words or threats to bully or intimidate parents and other relatives. As shown in Table 33, the study also revealed incidents of violence by school-going children happening at home or at school which may trigger violence from parents, guardians or teachers. Reasons such as coming late to school, returning home late, being absent at home or school without valid reasons, vandalism and robbery among others. The study found that overall, 9% and about 11% of parents of primary and secondary school students respectively reported that often their children return home late. About 1% of parents of students in primary and secondary schools reported that such incidents occur daily. Furthermore, about 8% of parents said students are often absent from home without good reasons. Between 6% to 11% of parents of students in primary and secondary schools respectively reported the same. The incidents of students being away from home without good reasons are slightly higher in urban areas, 10.4% in primary schools and 11.1% of secondary schools. In terms of the magnitude of the problem, 1.2% parents posited that the aforementioned incidents occur daily. In rural areas, about 2% of parents of students in primary and secondary schools reported such incidents occurs daily. In terms of acts of vandalism and robbery by school-going children, about 6% of parents felt such incidents occur often while 1% said they occur daily. About 8% and 5% of parents from secondary and primary schools respectively said such incidents occur often among their children.

Children use words or threats to bully or intimidate parents or other relatives						
Primary	**Urban**	110 (45.8%)	84 (35.0%)	20 (8.3%)	1 (0.4%)	25 (10.4%)
	Rural	90 (44.6%)	85 (42.1%)	15 (7.4%)	1 (0.5%)	11 (5.4%)
	Total	200 (45.2%)	169 (38.2%)	35 (7.9%)	2 (0.5%)	36 (8.1%)
Secondary	**Urban**	43 (36.8%)	56 (47.9%)	12 (10.3%)	1 (0.9%)	5 (4.3%)
	Rural	44 (40.0%)	41 (37.3%)	9 (8.2%)	2 (1.8%)	14 (12.7%)
	Total	87 (38.3%)	97 (42.7%)	21 (9.3%)	3 (1.3%)	19 (8.4%)
Grand Total		287 (42.9%)	266 (39.8%)	56 (8.4%)	5 (0.7%)	55 (8.2%)

Table 33: Parents' perceptions on children's abuse eliciting characteristics.

To tentatively ascertain prevalence and magnitude of indicators of student's indiscipline in school, students were asked how often they arrive late to school, skip school and/or tend to plagiarise. As indicated in Table 34, findings show that 32% said late arrival at school happens often. About 22% believed that students skip school often, while 16% stated that plagiarisms happen often.

	Sex	Coming Late			Not attending school			Plagiarism		
		Never	Rarely	Often	Never	Rarely	Often	Never	Rarely	Often
Urban		10.7%	56.9%	32.3%	19.0%	58.8%	22.2%	33.4%	48.9%	17.7%
Rural		8.0%	61.1%	30.9%	14.8%	63.6%	21.6%	35.7%	50.2%	14.1%
Primary										
Private	Male	23 (19.0%)	82 (67.8%)	16 (13.2%)	43 (35.5%)	66 (54.5%)	12 (9.9%)	74 (61.2%)	34 (28.1%)	13 (10.7%)
	Female	31 (22.5%)	87 (63.0%)	20 (14.5%)	47 (34.1%)	78 (56.5%)	13 (9.4%)	74 (53.6%)	50 (36.2%)	14 (10.1%)
	Total	54 (20.8%)	169 (65.3%)	36 (13.9%)	90 (34.7%)	144 (55.6%)	25 (9.7%)	148 (57.1%)	84 (32.4%)	27 (10.4%)
Public	Male	15 (4.7%)	203 (63.2%)	103 (32.1%)	27 (8.4%)	221 (68.8%)	73 (22.7%)	64 (19.9%)	187 (58.3%)	70 (21.8%)
	Female	15 (4.4%)	190 (56.0%)	134 (39.5%)	30 (8.8%)	201 (59.3%)	108 (31.9%)	110 (32.4%)	158 (46.6%)	71 (20.9%)
	Total	30 (4.5%)	393 (59.5%)	237 (35.9%)	57 (8.6%)	422 (63.9%)	181 (27.4%)	174 (26.4%)	345 (52.3%)	141 (21.4%)
Secondary										
Private	Male	28 (24.8%)	69 (61.1%)	16 (14.2%)	42 (37.2%)	60 (53.1%)	11 (9.7%)	63 (55.8%)	46 (40.7%)	4 (3.5%)
	Female	42 (23.2%)	110 (60.8%)	29 (16.0%)	87 (48.1%)	78 (43.1%)	16 (8.8%)	93 (51.4%)	82 (45.3%)	6 (3.3%)
	Total	70 (23.8%)	179 (60.9%)	45 (15.3%)	129 (43.9%)	138 (46.9%)	27 (9.2%)	156 (53.1%)	128 (43.5%)	10 (3.4%)
Public	Male	12 (4.3%)	149 (52.8%)	121 (42.9%)	15 (5.3%)	198 (70.2%)	69 (24.5%)	64 (22.7%)	173 (61.3%)	45 (16.0%)
	Female	8 (2.4%)	182 (55.3%)	139 (42.2%)	22 (6.7%)	209 (63.5%)	98 (29.8%)	86 (26.1%)	173 (52.6%)	70 (21.3%)
	Total	20 (3.3%)	331 (54.2%)	260 (42.6%)	37 (6.1%)	407 (66.6%)	167 (27.3%)	150 (24.5%)	346 (56.6%)	115 (18.8%)
Grand Total	Male	78 (9.3%)	503 (60.1%)	256 (30.6%)	127 (15.2%)	545 (65.1%)	165 (19.7%)	265 (31.7%)	440 (52.6%)	132 (15.8%)
	Female	96 (9.7%)	569 (57.6%)	322 (32.6%)	186 (18.8%)	566 (57.3%)	235 (23.8%)	363 (36.8%)	463 (46.9%)	161 (16.3%)
	Total	174 (9.5%)	1072 (58.8%)	578 (31.7%)	313 (17.2%)	1111 (60.9%)	400 (21.9%)	628 (34.4%)	903 (49.5%)	293 (16.1%)

Table 34: Prevalence and magnitude of indicators of students' indiscipline in schools

Among primary schools, 21.4% of students in public primary schools say plagiarism occurs often compared to 10.4% of students in private primary schools. Likewise, about 36% of students in public schools reported that students arrive late to school often, and 27.4% reported that students are often absent from school. In secondary schools, public schools were leading in late arrivals (42.6 %), frequent absence from school (27.3%) and frequent plagiarism (18.8%). There is an insignificant difference between rural and urban schools. Likewise, there is no notable difference between male and female students who think the aforementioned incidents happen often at their school with exception to absenteeism, with female leading (24%) compared to about 20% of males.

The study also explored the prevalence and magnitude of exhibited bad behaviours by students in schools. As illustrated in Figure 67, findings show that overall, more than 70% of students feel incidents of threats/ intimidation towards teachers never happen. More than half of students feel vandalisms/robbery done by students rarely happens. In public schools, about 4% of students said often students' threat/intimidate teachers often.
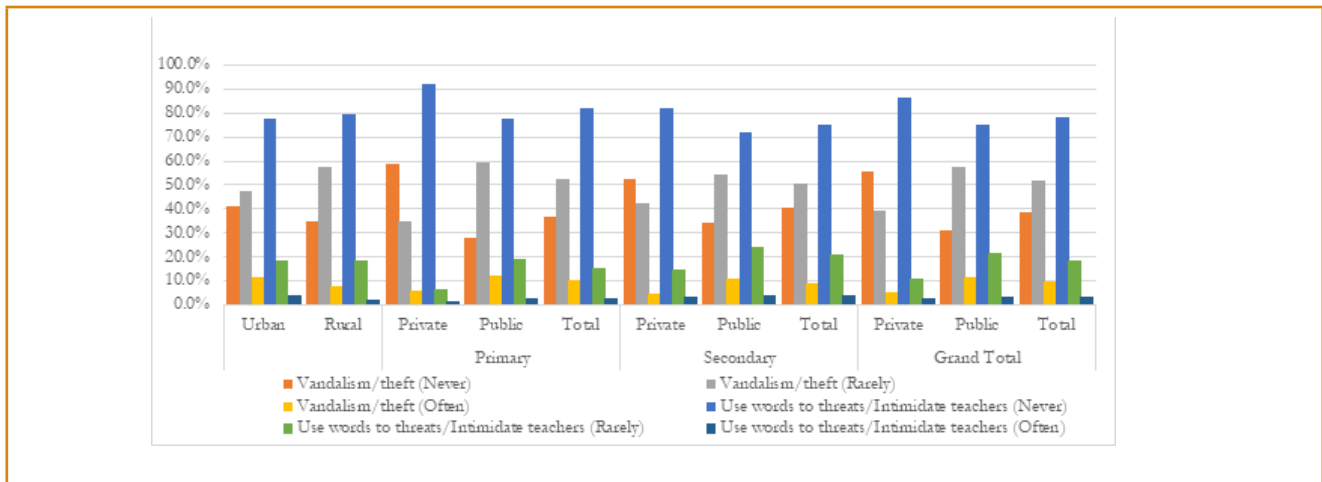

Figure 67: Prevalence of students' acts of vandalism/bullying/intimidation of teachers/other staff

4.10.4. Persistent barriers to overcome violence against school children

• Schools do not have school social welfare officers. The teacher-counsellor concept does not seem to be working for several reasons. Furthermore, while teachers have some training on psychology, however social work experts are best trained for the role. Lack of school social workers means there is a big gap in addressing violence at school.

• Lack of a clear and shared understanding on the reasons behind challenges is exacerbating and hinders the design of effective strategies. Most of the current strategies are designed based on the symptoms of the problem rather than the root causes of the problems. For example, there is over-reliance on the laws and regulations and sparse efforts for strategic community engagement and collaboration. Laws and regulations are important to deter and reprimand perpetrators, but from a child rights perspective, the priority is for children to be free from all forms of violence this is a core element of child rights. That can be achieved as more and more people, as well as more and more communities, appreciate the meaning and value of espoused child rights and standards which takes deliberate and strategic community engagement.

• While there is always room to improve relevant policies, legislation, regulations, plans and strategies, the persistent challenge is how to effectuate the already child-friendly policy and legislative environment. Transitioning existing policies and legislations into leaved experiences that make a difference each day on the lives of children was highlighted as a problem because it is a societal transformation that takes time and does not happen overnight. It needs persistent efforts and effective strategy targeting grassroots, committed resources which are often not available or enough for the purpose.

• It was noted that school settings have not been looked like a centrepiece of efforts to tackle violence against children, and most efforts and strategies are looking at the community at large. For that reason, there are a lack of a national school child protection policy and school child protection guidelines. These are important to inform school child protection policies. While most schools involved in this study said they have child protection policies, there is no much conviction about that claim. Schools have traditionally focused on delivering education and child protection has frequently been the issue of social welfare department and police. In that respect, there is a major capacity building to be done if schools are to realise their strategic potential in ending violence against school children. Such capacity-building needs to be guided by a comprehensive school child protection policy.

- Challenges associated with detecting, identifying and proving violence against school children. Respondents highlighted that enforcement of child protection rights is through the judicial system, and frequently violence against children have been difficult to prove in court such that perpetrators often walk free without consequences. At the same time, there is very little capacity among parents and teachers to detect and identify violence, often until it is too advanced and the child has already suffered substantially.

- The challenge of coordinating efforts at all levels of the formal and informal child protection systems. The policy and legislative framework are at the national level and expected to be cascaded bottom down. As such there is clear coordination at national, regional, district level, however, coordination at ward level to the village/street level is quite fuzzy. Moreover, the coordination appears to be reactive rather proactive. The systems that are in place are mostly about responding to incidences of violence and not about preventing incidences of violence against children. There are little child protection capacity and investment, particularly at the community level. The system must be made more affordable. For that reason, there are limited outreach activities by social welfare officers.

5. Conclusions & Recommendations

5.1. Conclusions

The study examined four-forms of violence against school children, while acknowledging that clear boundaries are difficult to define and children rarely experience only one form of violence. The study found that all forms of violence are highly prevalent among school children, with physical and psychological forms of violence the most dominant, while sexual and negligence are of notable proportions.

Child protection interventions in schools seem to be ineffective. For example, neither parents nor teachers mentioned designated teacher-counsellors as the likely authority students will be comfortable to report incidents of abuse. Furthermore, teachers claim in the first instance that they are highly confident that students will report incidences of violence perpetrated against them, follow up collaborating questions reveal that they are highly sceptical that students will report such incidences. There is, therefore, a low number of cases reported on various forms of violence against school children which signals that few cases are addressed. Without holding perpetrators responsible, the conditions for perpetuating and sustaining the problem flourish.

The problem of violence of school children is a problem of opportunity, it is existing and passive until there is an opportunity for it to be effectuated. The opportunity is found in the settings where school children are found, i.e., at home, at school, en-route to/from school, at the community and the cyber setting. Findings from this study underscore the importance of understanding stakeholders, views in general, and victims (children) own views in particular regarding their experiences as victims and witnesses of violence to be able to confront the problem in a meaningful way.

Findings from this study highlight the significance of zooming in and examining the problem of violence against children. The focus on school children specifically has allowed the rural-urban, secondary-primary, public-private, female-male examination, difficult to see in a blanket Violence Against Children (VAC) analysis. Further analysis will also be able to shed light on regional and district-wide variations.

It is also clear from this study that violence is a complex and context-specific issue. While the overall picture is essential for policy and broad-based programmatic intervention. Strategic interventions need to be informed by in-depth analysis of the problem as it is perpetuated and manifests itself in local contexts. Again, it is important to have a consensus about what is violence, and that consensus needs to be shared across society.

In the context of Violence Against Children in Schools (VACiS), the prevalence and magnitude proportions of various forms of violence are significant. It is important to consider that violence is an indicator of vulnerability, and that violence is shrouded by cultural, social and established practices (normalisation) and therefore the norm is that it is obscure than apparent. Looked from this perspective, smaller proportions are incredibly significant. This is because first, they often highlight acute cases, and second, when extrapolated to the total number of schools going children, the actual number of victims will actually be very high.

5.2.   **Policy and Programmatic Recommendations**

The recommendations provided, consider that in contemporary Tanzania most children spend a substantial amount of their childhood (i.e. from pre-school up to ordinary level secondary school) and the main part of their day time en-route to/from school and in the school settings. While some violence against children may happen during night time, it is believed that the night provides some protective cover to children especially those leaving at home with their parents. It is believed that most violence against schoolchildren happens during day time where various opportunities are explored by perpetrators. In this regard, schools need to be safe for children to learn and to espouse a friendly learning environment. Equally important, is that schools have a strategic advantage equal or superior to the home setting to detect, identify, and trace incidents of violence against children happening in all other settings. In this context rather than piecemeal interventions, the school setting should be considered a critical strategic pillar that should have a comprehensive child protection system in place.

HakiElimu as an established and reliable non-state actor. It contributes variously in the education sector in Tanzania through advocacy for the improvement of education policy, awareness-raising in the community, and through direct programmatic interventions in schools. In that respect, recommendations are for policy advocacy and programmatic interventions as follows:

5.2.1. Policy recommendations

- The Government efforts to have school counsellors are commended, but at the moment it does not seem to realise its full potential, specifically to effectively redress violence against school children. Respondents involved in the study identified two reasons. First, is that designated school counsellors are also teachers. The two roles attract huge conflict of interest in terms of effectiveness. It is recommended that advocacy be undertaken to change that guideline and replace teacher-counsellor with school social workers.

- Keeping records of child's issues is crucial to realise child rights and should be an important inclusion in police records.

- Advocacy and support for development of a comprehensive school child protection policy. It is recommended that a thorough review of the Circular No. 11 of 2001 on Guidance and Counselling (G&C) be advocated for, and a comprehensive school child protection policy be developed to guide public and private schools, in both primary and secondary level. While more than 80 % of all students interviewed reported that there are designated teachers or counsellors in their respective schools, there are strong indications that these counsellors are not particularly effective. This policy will also address the current gap where teachers have limited specific training on child protection, child empowerment and gender issues.

- Education (corporation punishment) Regulation, 2002 is not sufficient as a school discipline policy. The study found that all the schools i.e. secondary and primary, in rural and urban settings, and private and public owned have discipline teachers, but they do not have an explicit school discipline policy. It is therefore recommended that the school discipline policy is revised.

5.2.2. Programmatic Recommendations

- Designing, developing and piloting a comprehensive School Child Protection Plan and Programme (SCPP). This should constitute a school-based child protection programme focusing on comprehensive prevention, detection, and identification of violence against school children, as well as provide adequate support to victims and ensure perpetrators are held accountable. It is essential that students, parents, institutional child protection actors, community child protection actors, teachers and school administrators, take part in developing and implementing the programme.

- Children should be empowered to be active actors in their protection and the protection of their colleagues. It is an open fact that in contemporary times, children contend with many challenges despite ongoing child protection efforts. Some of the problems including risks of violence, substance abuse and addictions, mobbing, peer pressure, changes in family structure, among others. In that respect, children should have necessary affective and social skills to be able to cope with all such challenges.

- Corporal punishments and other forms of harsh punishments are used to discipline difficult students and to enable teachers to manage the class. Children being difficult is a manifestation of deeper problems, and canning or giving harsh punishment. While it may subdue the child, it does not necessarily address the problems behind the behaviour. The study, however, found a lack of conviction about the effectiveness of alternative forms of punishments. Evidence for alternative forms of disciplining needs to be generated and shared. Guideline for alternative forms of disciplining should also be developed to help build the capacity of teachers and schools.

- The capacity of teachers to deal with their stress and school violence including interpersonal violence between students and cyberbullying should be undertaken. Proven intervention should be tested for upscaling. For example, the Interaction Competencies with Children for Teachers (ICC-T) piloted in Tanzania (see Nkuba et al. 2018).

- Dialogues between teachers, parents and relevant community stakeholders and authorities on violence against school children should be formalised and effective strategies developed. For example, bodaboda drivers have been singled out as leading perpetrators of statutory rape, impregnation and desertion of female school children. The National Integrated Case Management System ((NICMS) offers a great avenue for -all-around protection of school-going children. This, however, needs to be customised to the plight of school-going children.

- Regional and district-level studies on violence against schoolchildren studies and statistics should be undertaken to ensure that context-specific patterns of violence are unveiled and context-specific intervention strategies developed.

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6.1. Annexes

Table 1: Sampled regions and districts

Zones	Regions	No of regions in a zone	Proposed no of regions to be samples	Name of the sampled regions	Name of the sampled districts	Type of location
Lake zone	Kagera, Geita, Mwanza, Simiyu and Mara	5	3	Mwanza	Mwanza City	Urban
					Kwimba	Rural
				Mara	Musoma MC	Urban
					Rorya	Rural
West Lake zone	Tabora, Shinyanga and Kigoma	3	2	Shinyanga	Shinyanga MC	Urban
					Ushetu	Rural
				Kigoma	Kigoma MC	Urban
					Uvinza	Rural
Central zone	Morogoro, Dodoma and Singida	3	2	Dodoma	Dodoma City	Urban
					Kongwa	Rural
				Singida	Singida MC	Urban
					Mkalama	Rural
Northern zone	Kilimanjaro, Manyara and Arusha	3	3	Arusha	Arusha MC	Urban
					Longido	Rural
				Kilimanjaro	Moshi MC	Urban
					Same	Rural
				Manyara	Babati	Urban
					Simanjiro	Rural
Northern zone	Dar Es Salaam, Pwani and Tanga	3	2	Pwani	Kibaha MC	Urban
					Kibiti	Rural
				Tanga	Tanga City	Urban
					Kilindi	Rural
Southern zone	Mtwara, Lindi and Ruvuma	3	2	Lindi	Lindi MC	Urban
					Ruangwa	Rural
				Ruvuma	Songea MC	Urban
					Nyasa	Rural
Southern Highland Zone	Njombe, Iringa, Mbeya, Katavi, Rukwa and Songwe	6	3	Njombe	Makambako TC	Urban
					Njombe Rural	Rural
				Songwe	Tunduma Town Council	Urban
					Momba	Rural
				Katavi	Mpanda Town Council	Urban
					Nsimbo	Rural

Table 2: Schools and Sample Size

Zones	Regions	District Name	District Location	Total Students in the zone	Zone Sample Size (80% CI)	District Sample Size	Actual District Sample Size Reached
Lake Zone	Mwanza	Mwanza City	Urban	70,773	164	68	69
		Kwimba	Rural			36	66
	Mara	Musoma Municipal	Urban			24	81
		Rorya	Rural			36	69
West Lake Zone	Shinyanga	Shinyanga Municipal	Urban	33,497	164	41	45
		Ushetu	Rural			29	44
	Kigoma	Kigoma Municipal	Urban			54	74
		Uvinza	Rural			40	68
Central Zone	Dodoma	Dodoma City	Urban	44,489	164	75	88
		Kongwa	Rural			41	57
	Singida	Singida Municipal	Urban			28	46
		Mkalama	Rural			20	46
Northern Zone	Arusha	Arusha Municipal	Urban	56,577	164	71	102
		Longido	Rural			14	30
	Kilimanjaro	Moshi Municipal	Urban			28	29
		Same	Rural			54	45
	Manyara	Babati	Urban			82	83
		Simanjiro	Rural			33	33
Coastal Zone	Pwani	Kibaha Municipal	Urban	38,633	164	42	70
		Kibiti	Rural			20	43
	Tanga	Tanga City	Urban			74	106
		Kilindi	Rural			28	18
Southern Zone	Lindi	Lindi Municipal	Urban	24,856	164	23	47
		Ruangwa	Rural			27	52
	Ruvuma	Songea Municipal	Urban			78	109
		Nyasa	Rural			36	63
Southern Highland Zone	Njombe	Makambako Town Council	Urban	28,083	165	34	47
		Njombe Rural	Rural			23	65
	Songwe	Tunduma Town Council	Urban			31	33
		Momba	Rural			21	27
	Katavi	Mpanda Town Council	Urban			34	33
		Nsimbo	Rural			22	36

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