Community Participation in Education Delivery: A Study of How Community Schools Target OVCs in Chipulukusu, Zambia

Brenda Kalemba

Master's Thesis for the Award of Philosophy (MPhil) in Development Studies - Specializing in Geography

Department of Geography

Faculty of Social Sciences and Technology Management

Norwegian University of Science and Technology (NTNU)

Trondheim, Norway

Spring, 2013

DEDICATION

To the memory of my beloved late mum who never lived to see my success, to my dear husband and my dearest children for the time I had to live home and physically unable to attend to your needs.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

In recent years, the importance of education as a catalyst for personal, social and economic development has gained much recognition. This is evident from global commitments towards UPE at the world education declaration on EFA in 1991 as well as being the second MDG to be attained world over by 2015. In most developing countries, such recognition has increased the demand for education particularly primary schooling. However, high poverty levels and the impact of HIV/AIDS pandemic still deny many children access to primary education. In order to cater for those who are excluded, there has been an increased advocacy for community participation in education delivery. This has also helped to spread education costs among the stakeholders. However, most urban slum areas in Zambia still face inadequate education facilities. This has resulted into the growing number of community schools which target OVCs. The OVCs are mostly excluded from state schooling due to inability of their parents or guardians to meet some 'hidden' financial costs in government basic schools. The main objective was to find out how community schools targeted OVCs and provided them with primary education.

By using a qualitative approach to research enquiry, three community schools in Chipulukusu compound are examined for this purpose. The study's results show that through a participatory approach to education delivery, community schools delivered education to the OVCs despite their many challenges such as having fewer and untrained teachers, inadequate financial resources, limited teaching and learning materials. This study also notes that community schools' interventions were perceived differently by various stakeholders indicating a diversity of interests among different stakeholders. None the less, the results actually showed that community schools had increased access to primary education and put the country on a right track towards achieving MDG 2. Hence community schools present a model worth emulating.

ABREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

APCDC: Acting Provincial Child Development Coordinator

CSO: Central Statistical Office

CRC: Convention on the Rights of the Child

DEBS: District Education Board Secretary

EFA: Education for All

FGD1:   Focus Group Discussion- local community

FGD2:   Focus Group Discussion- members of PCSC/PTA

FPCSFP: Former Provincial Community Schools Focal Person

FBE: Free Basic Education

GD1:   Group Discussion- teachers

GD2   Group Discussions - Pupils

GHC: Gomes Haulage Company

HIV: Human Immunodeficiency Virus

AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

HoCCS: Hands of Compassion Community School

HoCI: Hands of Compassion International

MDG: Millennium Development Goals

MMGCS: Mapalo Morning Glow Community School

MoE: Ministry of Education

OVCs: Orphans and Vulnerable Children

PCSC: Parents Community School Committee

PTA: Parents and Teachers Association

SAP: Structural Adjustment Program

UPE: Universal Primary Education

WB: World Bank

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF BOXES

CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1   Introduction

Following the world declaration on Education for All (EFA), coupled with the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) second priority, there is evidence that demand for primary education has increased. However, a reasonable number of marginalized children continue to be excluded from this. According to UNESCO (2013b), 57 million children are out of school and most of them are in least developed countries and fragile nations. This paper focuses on the Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) who find access to primary education through community schools. This is because community schools have been praised for focusing on the disadvantaged and for involving the local communities in their management strategies. Based on the aforementioned, community schools are targeting OVCs in a way that has not just improved access to education but has also resulted into good learning outcomes as well as high completion rates. Using the participatory and community development concepts to research inquiry, highlights on how community schools target the OVCs of Chipulukusu compound are given herein. This paper further gives views of how various stakeholders perceive community schools' interventions and it highlights the challenges faced by community schools. All the research findings are considered as a guide to give viable recommendations and suggestions for further research inquiry

1.1   Problem Statement

The importance of education as an engine to development is reflected in the way many developing countries pledged to provide universal primary education after being liberated from the colonial rule (Dyer, 2002). Commitments to provide education for all (EFA) were made at the conference in Jomtien in 1990 and reaffirmed in Dakar in 2000. These, together with the incorporation of universal primary education as the second millennium development goal to be achieved by 2015, have made news headlines world over. Furthermore, the importance of education as a catalyst for national development has also been acknowledged by many states and scholars, and the World Bank report of 2006 states that:

"Educational attainment has various societal benefits that are not fully captured by the individual. For example, it is generally associated with enhanced democracy and lower crime, while girls' schooling in particular has been shown to reduce fertility, empower women, and thereby contribute to the welfare of children in the family. In addition, education has intrinsic value, enabling people to lead fuller lives as informed and active participants in society" (in, Namphande, 2007, 8)

Although education was accorded the status of a basic human right by the United Nations in 1948, there is much to be done to ensure universal enjoyment of this right. Many African countries and Zambia in particular, have been faced with the challenge of providing education to all the deserving children. Economic constraints have limited the provision of school infrastructure in most areas. The rural and urban slum areas are the most underserved in social infrastructure and education infrastructure in particular. In Zambia, these areas continue to record high poverty levels as well as high HIV incidences. The HIV pandemic has left many children orphaned and vulnerable. Such vulnerable children have had limited access to many social services of which education falls among them. Following the Dakar World Education Forum in 2000, there has been a wider participation of stakeholders with strong emphasis on the importance of civil society's participation towards achieving the goal of EFA by 2015 (Nishimuko, 2009). In its efforts to show commitment towards achieving this goal, the Zambian government has through the Ministry of Education (MoE) encouraged the establishment of alternative forms of education delivery, such as community schools and private schools. Community schools which operate in underserved areas, run by non-state actors such as international/local NGOs, churches or local communities are providing primary education to the orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) who cannot be taken up into public schools. Community schools are purely non-state actors' initiatives, and are aimed at filling up the gap left by public institutions. Even though they are looked at as secondary alternatives to public education due to the many challenges they face, community schools are still able to compete favorably with public schools and produce good results. It is in this context that this study seeks to provide answers on how community schools are targeting OVCs and providing them with primary education despite having many challenges.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The main aim of this study is to provide insight on how community schools are meeting the primary education needs of OVCs in an urban slum area. The study adopts a qualitative approach to research inquiry by using the Alternative Development Theory as the main theoretical underpinning for the research findings and analysis. The specific objectives and questions for this thesis are given below:

Main Objectives and Questions:

1. To discover how community schools are targeting OVCs and meeting their primary education needs.
    - ➢ What services do community schools offer to OVCs?
    - ➢ Who are the main stakeholders and how do they participate?
    - ➢ How does their participation create opportunities for the OVCs in community schools?
2. To find out how community schools are perceived by different stakeholders.
    - ➢ What are the perceptions towards community schools' education by government officials, local community members, community schools managers and teachers, and the children themselves?
3. To explore the challenges faced by community schools and how these can be addressed.
    - ➢ What challenges do community schools face?
    - ➢ How are these challenges addressed to ensure that community schools are models of primary education provision in urban slum areas?

1.3 Significance of the Study

Zambia like many other sub-Saharan African countries is faced with the problem of HIV/AIDS pandemic which has increased the number of orphans and vulnerable children in the country. It is estimated that 20% of Zambia's children under the age of 17 are orphaned mainly due to HIV/AIDS pandemic (Takanayagi, 2010). Studies have shown that many OVCs are less likely to be in school and this in a way can slow the country's economic development. This is because such children are forced into income generating activities as a livelihood strategy at an early age (MoFNP, 2006). It is important to note that the adoption of free primary education policy in 2002

by the Zambian government saw an increase in primary school enrolments (MoE, 2005). Even though enrolment increased, some OVCs could still not be absorbed in the public schools because many could not afford some hidden financial demands in public schools. This attracted the attention of local communities, NGOs and churches to come up with community schools that claimed to be working closer to the community in underserved areas and providing education to marginalised children at absolutely no cost. Since community schools are run by non-state actors, the alternative development approach is being used to give an understanding of how these schools are targeting OVCs of Chipulukusu compound of Ndola district and providing them with primary education.

In Zambia, few studies have been done on community schools and these have mainly focused on the role of community schools in complementing government's efforts. I have not seen much study on how community schools are targeting OVCs and providing them with primary education by looking specifically on what they offer, the participation of various stake holders and their perceptions of community education and how the challenges faced by community schools are addressed.

In addition, this study comes at a right time when the public sector is not able to meet the service delivery due to economic constraints, when there is high demand for education and coupled with world demands to achieve UPE by 2015 as in the second MDG. It is important to note that this study will bring to light information based on the assumption that involvement of the local community and other stakeholders in education management breeds efficiency, is effective and reduces the overall cost of education delivery.

It is assumed that such information given by this study will help policy makers to appreciate the efforts of the non-state actors through community schools hence the need to support such initiatives and see how best they can be improved and sustained. With a current high demand for community based education, a study such as this one is very relevant in the Zambian context.

1.4   Motivation for carrying out this study on community schools

From a series of lectures in (GEO 3053), a course on Theories of Development and Social Change and from (BARN 3300), a course on Children and Development in the South, I was motivated to do this study on community schools. Community schools' operations are amazing

in that, they rely on local human resources who work more or less like volunteers, are initiated by local communities, target the OVCs who fail to gain access to government schools but still deliver an education comparable to that offered by government basic schools. Having been a teacher in a government school for almost 10 years I wanted to gain an insight on what was special about these community schools. This is because there was high demand for community based education especially among the poor population of Zambia. In addition, I thought having being an employee of MoE, would be to my advantage in terms of gaining access to community schools as well as to the MoE offices to collect my data. All this would ultimately culminate into contribution of knowledge to the field of education in a new dimension where education delivery is placed in development perspectives debates.

1.5   Defining key terms

1.5.1   Community schools

According to DeStefano, Moore, Balwanz, and Hartwell (2007), a community school is a community-based learning institution, involving an active participation of the local community in their areas of operation in terms of management and organization of the school. These schools are usually designed to meet the education needs of vulnerable children especially the orphans and girls. It is important to note that the managing of these schools differ greatly within and across nations. For instance, in Zambia, three types of community schools are identified and these include: community schools entirely run and supported by the local community; those supported by NGOs, churches or the ministry of education; and those run more or less like a private institution. This study focuses on those community schools which receive some kind of external support.

1.5.2   Primary education

Citing several scholars, Rose (2007b) defines Primary education as the level of education which is both a fundamental right as well as an education that is important for human and social development. According to WCEFA (1990), every person has the right to benefit from education opportunities that meet their basic learning needs such as literacy, oral expression, numeracy and problem solving. All these are required by human beings to be able to survive, develop full capacities that in turn allow them to live, work and participate in development. Therefore, basic education is more than just an end in itself but a foundation for lifelong learning and human

development on which a country may be built. In Zambia, the education system is divided into three stages. The first 7 years of formal schooling are for primary education, the next 5 years for secondary school while the last 4 to 5 years are for tertiary education (MoE, 2005).

In this study, primary education will be taken as referring to education instruction children receive in the first 7 years of their formal education. This is because in Zambia, most of the community schools are by design supposed to offer the first 7 years of basic education. In addition, the community schools I carried out my study fall in this category that offer primary education according to the definition I have given.

1.5.3   A stakeholder

The term 'stakeholder' is a powerful and significant one in the stakeholder theory of organizational management and ethics (Phillips, Freeman, & Wicks, 2003). Bryson (2004, 22) has used this term to refer to "persons, groups or organizations that must somehow be taken into account by leaders, managers and front-line staff". Evidence from recent studies seem to suggest that, in the last 20 years, the term 'stakeholder' has assumed a prominent place in public and nonprofit management theory and practice. However, Post, Preston, and Sachs (2002) note that despite its widespread use the term is not given any precise definition. This in a way suggests that it can mean different things to different people.

In this thesis stakeholders are defined as those individuals, groups of people or organizations who are affected by or can affect decisions of any entity of their interest. Hence this thesis focuses on stakeholders' participation in community schools because they hold a stake in a direct or indirect way. However, it is not in the interest of this research work to use stakeholder as a unit of analysis to research inquiry. This just gives the reader an understanding of who a stakeholder is as this term is repeatedly used in this thesis.

A child

Although many studies have provided evidence that different societies and communities world over have defined childhood in many varied ways, Kendall (2007, 369) contends that "there has been a consolidation of international power and authority behind one particular definition of childhood: any person under18 years of age". Numerous debates have arisen on the effect of setting an age bound definition for a child. However, the advantage of an internationally age-

6

bound definition is linked to what are appropriate and/or inappropriate activities, rights or responsibilities towards children. And O'Neill (1999) contends that the 1989 Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) serves as a basis for debates, actions and concerns towards children. For instance, the CRC stipulates that children have a right to freedom of religion, association, access to health care, education, social security, and must be protected from sexual abuse, trafficking, torture, economic exploitation, participating in armed conflicts etc. It is important that all states have a responsibility to ensure that all children within their boundaries are protected from all activities that may cause harm to their lives.

Zambia has adopted the international definition and a child is defined as any person below the age of 18 (GRZ, 2006).

An Orphan

There have been debates on defining who an orphan really is. And Abebe (2005) identified different types of orphan such as famine orphans, malaria orphans or children abandoned due to poverty. Another group of orphans he refers to are those children who have lost one or both biological parents. Variations in the categorization of orphans were also noted in the south African context where children who had both or one of their parents dead but absorbed in the extended kinship safety networks and cared for by older people were not really regarded as orphans (Meintjes & Giese, 2006). However, the widely accepted definition of an orphan is a child who has lost either one or both of his or her biological parents. In the Zambian context an orphan is defined as "a child below the age of 18 that has lost one or both parents" (GRZ, 2006, viii).

Vulnerability

Vulnerability is central to current conceptualizations of children and their rights in general and particularly with reference to children who are affected by HIV/AIDS. The big question is to define what these vulnerabilities are. According to Kendall (2007), vulnerabilities are conceptualized differently by different actors. For instance, the World Bank uses a social risk framework to define vulnerability as opposed to the UN that uses human rights based framework. The social risk framework entails that a vulnerable child is poverty stricken, exploited or abused culminating into less school time, having health and/or psychological

problems. The human rights model entails that children are vulnerable if their rights to full life are violated. It is important to note that these two approaches to vulnerability actually overlap. In the Zambian context a vulnerable child is a person below the age of 18, who is in or likely to be in a risky situation where he/she is likely to suffer significant physical, emotional or mental stress that may result in the child's rights not being fulfilled (GRZ, 2006).

1.5.4 *Operational definition for an OVC*

It is beyond the scope of this study to outline all the definitions associated with this category of children referred to as OVCs. For instance a statement by UNICEF that most children on the street of Lusaka in Zambia are orphans suggests that death of parents has a causal relationship with homelessness. However, a closer look at the study's findings showed that 78% of street children were actually not orphans but had parents. Therefore, such findings suggests that there could be other causes of homelessness, especially that close to half of the street children who participated in the study had both parents (Meintjes & Giese, 2006). This shows how complicated it can be to defining concepts.

Therefore, an OVC in this thesis is defined as an orphan who has lost one or both parents and/ or a vulnerable child without adequate basic needs, is emotionally and mentally affected and is under the age of 18. It is important to note that all the children I included in my research fell under this category of children as given by this operational definition of who an OVC is.

1.6   Organization of the thesis

This thesis comprises of nine chapters organized as follows; chapter one presents introduction which gives the general context in which this study was done. A detailed rationale for understanding how community schools target OVCs and offer them primary education is given and key terms used in this study are defined. Chapter two provides details of background information and gives profiles for both Zambia and the study area. In this chapter I give an assessment of Zambia's economic and poverty situation, how it affects children and its linkage to vulnerability. All these assessments will finally serve as back-up information to the overall findings presented in this thesis.

In chapter three, I present the theoretical framework in which the Alternative Development theory is broadly discussed in which community initiated development such as in the case of

community schools are embedded in. this chapter zeroes down to discuss participation and community development concepts which guided the analysis of this thesis.

Chapter four discusses the methodology used to collect data for this study. All the data collection methods and techniques discussed here relate to qualitative approach to research inquiry. Of interest in this chapter is a brief discussion on issues of reliability, validity and data analysis approaches used in this thesis.

The results on ways of targeting OVCs in community schools which zeros on identifying stakeholders and their participation, services offered by community schools and opportunities created for the OVCs are presented in chapter five. The subsequent chapters six and seven present results on perceptions towards community schools and challenges faced by community schools respectively.

Chapter eight discusses the main findings of this thesis while chapter nine summarizes the key findings and draws some conclusions to support the suggested topics for further research as well as the given recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO: BACKGROUND INFORMATION AND DESCRIPTION OF STUDY AREA

2   Chapter Overview

This chapter gives the reader a general view of Zambia's profile. The country's location and climatic conditions are taken as a starting point due to the importance of geo-positioning information in any research work. This chapter highlights the demographic and socio-economic conditions of the country and Chipulukusu compound (the actual study area). Information on the development of the Zambia's education system is given with a bias towards primary education as it is the main focus of this study. The OVC and HIV situations are given to basically understand how these two are linked and contextualize community schools as providers of primary education to the OVCs. The second part of the chapter gives a discussion specifically linked to the study area. Finally, a summary that highlights the main issues addressed in this chapter is given.

2.1   Country Profile

2.1.1   Location and climatic conditions

Zambia is a land-locked country in sub-Saharan Africa. The country shares international boundaries with the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Tanzania in the north, Malawi and Mozambique in the east, Zimbabwe and Botswana in the south, Namibia in the southwest and Angola in the west. Zambia covers a land area of 752,612 square kilometers, which is about 2.5 percent of Africa.

The country lies between latitude 8 and 18 degrees south and between longitude 20 and 35 degrees east. It has a tropical climate with three distinct seasons: the cool dry winter from May to August, a hot dry season during September and October, and a warm wet season from November to April. Rainfall patterns vary with the northern part of the country receiving the highest rainfall, with an annual average ranging from 1,100 mm to over 1,400 mm. The southern and eastern parts of the country have less rainfall which range from about 600 mm to 1,100 mm annually, and this often results in droughts (CSO, 2009).

The country has an average altitude of 1200 meters above sea level. Its relatively high altitude combined with the country's geographical position has produced both temperate and sub-tropical ecosystems. Temperatures range from about 15 to 33 degrees Celsius with extreme heat limited to the southern valleys around the Zambezi River, (Hartslief, 2013).

2.1.2   Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of Zambia

Population

The population of Zambia has been increasing from 7,759,161 in 1990, 9,885,591 in 2000 and 13, 046, 508 persons in 2010, thus giving an annual average growth rate of 2.8 percent between 2000 and 2010. It was also noted that of the 2010 population, 49 percent were males while 51 percent were females. The 2010 regional distribution of the population also showed that 7,978,274 people (61 percent) resided in rural areas while 5, 068, 234 (39 percent) resided in the urban areas. The density of Zambia's Population increased from 7.5 in 1980 to 9.8 in 1990 to 13.1 in 2000 and it currently stands at 17.3 persons per square kilometer (CSO, 2011). The country's population is still very young with a low life expectancy of 47.3 in 2010, lower than life expectancy in 1980 which was 51.9 years (UNDP, 2011b). It is important to note that Zambia has a youthful population which is evident from her population structure comprised of a broad base with a very narrow top. According to CSO (2011), more than half of Zambia's population (53%) is aged 18 years and below. This kind of population structure is typical of developing countries and it poses problems of equitable access to public services such as education and health. This is because state governments finds it hard to meet its obligation of service provision mainly due to huge demands for such services and lack of financial resources in already constrained economies.

Economy

Zambia has a mixed economy consisting of a modern urban sector that mainly follows the railway line and a rural agricultural sector. For a long time, the modern sector has been dominated by parastatal organizations, while private businesses dominated the construction and agriculture sector. However, since 1991, the government has actively pursued policies that facilitated private sector growth with less state control. With the introduction of the liberalized

market-oriented economy, most parastatal were privatized and some were liquidated. Copper mining continues to be the country's main economic activity, accounting for 95 percent of export earnings. However, following a sharp decline in copper prices in the mid-1970s coupled with an increase in oil prices, the country's economy deteriorated. In the 1980s, attempts were made to minimize dependency on copper exports by diversifying the economy, but this did not achieve the desired results. However, Zambia embarked on implementing vigorous Structural Adjustment Programs (SAP) amidst a stagnating economy. Unfortunately, the SAPs failed terribly and subsequently led to an increase of poverty levels among the majority of Zambia's population CSO (2009).

In an effort to halt the economic recession, the Zambian Government launched an Economic Recovery Program where spending on public services was reduced while encouraging foreign investment in productive areas such as Manufacturing, Agriculture, Tourism etc. This was aimed at turning around the protracted decline of the economy into a sustained positive growth. According to MoFNP (2006), Zambian's economic performance considerably improved during the period of the implementation of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) and the Transitional National Development Plan (TNDP) from 2002 to 2005. Such positive growth was largely due to the overall impact of the economic reforms that started in the early 1990s. In view of this, an economic review report of Zambia in 2011 showed that structural reforms boosted Zambia's economic growth with a three-fold increase in per capita income since 2003. This was mainly due to good economic policies such as investment incentives that enhanced efficiency and encouraged competition (Hartslief, 2013)

Poverty situation

The Government Republic of Zambia defines poverty as the "inability of an individual, family or community to attain a minimum standard of living" (GRZ, 2006, ix). In this sense, poverty is evidenced by lack of basic needs and services such as food, beddings, shelter, health care services, roads, markets, education, information and communication.

According to MoFNP (2006), the Living Conditions Monitoring Survey (LCMS) of 2004 indicated that as much as 68 percent of the population was classified as economically poor falling below the poverty line and earning less than 111, 747 Zambian kwacha about 20.8 US

Dollar per month . The poverty was still high in spite of the implementation of the PRSP and a positive economic growth. This implies that the country's improved economic performance discussed above had not translated into significant declines in poverty. In the same vein, Kumar, Dennis, Guloba, Kambole, and Tiwari (2012) acknowledge that Zambia's economy has been growing faster than its peers, both mineral and non-mineral producing countries. It has also remained resilient to global financial crises and its economy was estimated to grow at 7% in 2012, slightly above the 2011 growth which was around 6.8%. Furthermore, the authors hold that Zambia's robust economic growth failed to reduce poverty basically for two reasons: firstly the industrial driven growth failed to create employment opportunities beyond those who were already in employment. Secondly, the urban centered growth could not make enough spillover to the other two-thirds of Zambia's population in rural areas who depend mostly on agriculture. It is also worth noting that the variations in poverty incidences between rural and urban areas were also experienced within urban areas. The highest incidences of poverty in urban areas are among the low cost households at 58 percent and these are mostly in slum areas (MoFNP, 2006).

Poverty and vulnerability

Studies on poverty and vulnerability have shown a close link between these two terms. However, it's worth noting that poverty measures a household's well-being (or lack thereof), reflecting a current state of deprivation, of lacking resources or capabilities to satisfy current needs. While vulnerability, may not so much reflect on how well off a household is currently, but what its future prospects are. What distinguishes the two is the presence of 'risk' (uncertainty in the level of future well-being). Without uncertainty, there would be no distinctions between poverty and vulnerability, as the future will be certain (Chaudhuri, 2003) .

Therefore, if we understand vulnerability as exposure to risks, then it can potentially cause people to enter into poverty. In this sense, exposure to risks constitutes elements of poverty; hence vulnerability is a part and component of poverty itself. Since about 68% of Zambia's population is classified as poor, this indicates high levels of vulnerability among Zambian's population. Therefore education has been identified as an important factor that can ensure some level of certainty in one's future, thereby justifying the high demand for education world over.

Children and poverty

The high poverty levels among more than half of Zambia's population have reduced many families' capacity to look after children. Hence many children live and work on the streets as most of them fail to enroll or simply drop out of school.

Poverty prevents children from enjoying their basic rights such as education, quality health and protection from abuse and neglect. Poor children usually don't have enough to eat and they are more likely to suffer from malnutrition which ultimately hinders their full development. Extreme poverty is a major problem faced by OVCs and jeopardizes the future of these children (GRZ, 2006). Estimates show that over one million children in Zambia are in the category of orphans, disadvantaged and vulnerable children. These children are extremely vulnerable and suffer severe deprivation, fall prey to abuse, exploitation and risk HIV infection (MoFNP, 2006).

HIV situation in Zambia

According to the UNAIDS fact sheet, Sub-Saharan Africa remains the most heavily affected in the global HIV epidemic. In 2011, it was estimated that about 23.5 million people living with HIV resided in sub-Saharan Africa, representing 69% of the global HIV burden (UNAIDS, 2012). In the same year, it was also estimated that between 900,000 and 1,100,000 of Zambia's population was living with HIV.

The high HIV prevalence rate in Zambia disables people's ability to move out of poverty and hunger due to loss of productive labor. This is mainly caused by sickness, death and /or the financial cost of caring for the chronically sick, the selling of productive assets to cope financially, and the loss of economic growth due to the epidemic's various impacts. The rising number of female and child-headed households and orphans is strongly linked to the HIV/AIDS epidemic. HIV/AIDS is also hampering the country's ability to sustain its recent educational attainments such as the MDG2 (UNDP, 2011a). Studies have also shown that HIV and AIDS in Zambia was the main reason for the drop in life expectancy from 54 years in 1980 to 38 years in 2005 (MoE, 2008). As the epidemic takes its toll on adults, many orphans have come to rely on ageing and often impoverished grandparents. Summing up different literature, (Lund & Agyei-Mensah, 2008) suggest that Africa is the most conducive place to effectively care for orphans but it was worrying as Africa's traditional system is seemingly breaking down. However, other

scholars have argued that this is a debatable issue because there is no evidence to prove this seemingly breakdown. None the less, this break down may be partly true because Lund & Agyei-Mensah found out that, the Queen Mothers' Association (QMA) in Manya Krobo district in Ghana took care of the OVCs. The OVC situation is desperate because population dynamics suggest that, there will probably be fewer grandparents to care for the next generation of orphans, hence there will be more child headed homes. For instance, it is estimated that Zambia has more than 75,000 street children and child-headed households account for an estimated 1-2 percent (MoFNP, 2006).

2.2   Development of Education in Zambia

In Zambia, two types of education are identified and these are; the formal and non-formal. According to Coombs, Prosser, and Ahmed (1973), formal education is structured from primary through secondary school to university offering a variety of specialized programs, while non-formal education is any organized learning activity outside the formal system of education. The discussions on education in this thesis delve around the formal system. Henkel 1989 (in Kelly, 1999) contends that formal learning was started by the first missionaries who settled in Zambia towards the end of the 1800s. Schools were set for the locals so that they could read the bible for smooth evangelism. From there onwards, faith based institutions play an important role in providing education.

2.2.1   *Primary Education Vis-à-vis International Agreements*

Education in Zambia is meant to serve the individual's social and economic development and improve quality of life. For instance it promotes desirable attitudes, values and ways of behavior which open children's minds to new ideas (MoE, 1996). In view of this, (Browne & Barrett, 1991) contend that studies have shown that education development leads to better health and nutrition, improved hygiene, economic benefits, higher child survival rates and lower fertility rates. The importance of education and primary education in particular is recognized on a global scale as seen in a number of world declarations such as the MDG 2 which advocates for UPE to be achieved by all countries by 2015 (World Bank, 2013). Achieving UPE is seen as an important aspect of development that calls for international agreements. It is worth noting that primary education in the Zambian context is very important because it lays a foundation on which all further education will later be built. Furthermore, it is the only education which most

children can afford because higher education is quite expensive and not affordable to many poor families. Apart from this, primary education is very important because Zambia has a young population, hence it is important to pay attention to the education needs of a multitude of children.

2.2.2 Impact of Economic reforms on Education

According to MoE (2008), the economic reforms in the 1990s forced the Zambian government to reduce expenditure on education. Such developments at the end of the century led to school infrastructure deterioration, lack of adequate furniture, text books and other learning materials. This was worse in certain places such as rural areas with inadequate school facilities. In urban areas, government schools were overcrowded due to inadequate infrastructure and fewer teachers. In addition, government had no resources to employ the required number of teachers due to financial limitations. The estimates given by the Central Statistical Office (CSO) show that 9000 teaching vacancies remained unfilled due to lack of resources by the Zambian government to employ teachers to fill up those posts (Robson & Sylvester, 2007). These economic shifts had a negative impact on Zambia's education and some communities began running community schools while the private sector participation in education provision increased (DeStefano et al., 2007).

2.2.3 Primary education in the era of HIV/AIDS

The HIV/AIDS pandemic has affected many aspects of social, economic and educational development world over with its greatest impact being in sub-Saharan Africa region (UNAIDS, 2002).

Zambia has been severely affected and the education sector has experienced a rise in the number of teachers reported as sick or dying. This is threatening the attainment of policy goals such as improvement in educational quality and management Kanyanta 2004 (in Robson & Sylvester, 2007). In the same vein (MoE, 2008) hold children orphaned by HIV/AIDS are mostly absent from school to work and contribute to family income. If they have a surviving parent affected by AIDS, they are involved in taking care of sick parents (UNDP, 2011a). This in a way can potentially sustain the poverty cycle among the poor households if their children's educational development is cut short. Furthermore, it is hampering the country's ability attain its goal towards UPE.

2.2.4   Development of Community Schools in Zambia

Even though the concept of community school is not new to Zambia, Chondoka 2006 (in MoE, 2008) notes that, by the end of the 1800s, European missionaries had already established similar schools which they called village or bush schools. However, community schools became popular in the 1990s and one of the possible explanations for this was the effects of the financial crisis on the social sector in the developing world. According to Wood (2007, 1),

> "The 1980s and 1990s have been labeled years of crisis in education in the countries of the developing world. National budgets for education did not grow in response to rising demand, spurred by the international commitment to Educational for All. Public goals and practical realities on the ground became separate and occasionally contradictory worlds. Donors found education frustrating as an area for investment and, in many instances backed away……………"

Wood further acknowledges that the notion of education as a product of community efforts and source of community change led to a different approach towards education where communities got actively involved through community schools. Community schools grew in number across Africa shortly after the 1990 Jomtien Conference on Education for All. This is because agendas for education grew whereas national governments did not have the capacity to cope with such growths as some remained excluded. In Zambia, community schools are an important characteristic of the Zambian education system. According to MoE (2008) the first ever recognized community school in Zambia dates back to 1992 when an American woman established such a school in a residential area south of Lusaka. By the mid 1990s many community schools emerged in areas where government schools were lacking or very far away, or overcrowded and where parents could not afford to pay fees in government schools. It is estimated that by 1996, 55 community schools were established.

Community schools have been growing since then and by 2006 they accounted for 34% of basic schools distribution, catering for 16% of the basic school population. This was higher than private/church schools and grant aided schools that accounted for 5% and 5% basic distribution respectively, catering for 3% and 4% of the basic school population respectively. Results from the same survey conducted by MoE in 2008 show that, the government was the leading provider

accounting for 56% of basic school distribution, catering for 77% of the of basic school population.

2.3 The study area profile

Chipulukusu compound is one of the slum areas of Ndola district located in the north eastern part of the district. Most studies done on Ndola's slum areas have not tallied information to specific slum areas hence there is scanty documented information with specific reference to any slum area and Chipulukusu is not an exception. None the less, some information given to describe the study area is based on raw data collected from the field as well as field observations made by the researcher.

2.3.1 *Demographic and socio-economic characteristics of Chipulukusu compound in Ndola district*

Ndola district, in which we find Chipulukusu compound, is Zambia's third-largest population district. The district is approximately 320 kilometers north of Lusaka and it is the administrative capital of the Copper belt region of Zambia. The district's main economic activities are industrial based where most manufacturing companies mainly operate to support the mining activities as well as the Zambia's only oil refinery plant, INDENI. The town has few key attractions and these include; the Copper belt Museum, the Slave Tree in Makoli Avenue, and the Dag Hammarskjold Memorial site where the United Nations secretary-general died in a plane crash in 1961(Hartslief, 2013). Ndola's industries offer semi skilled low paying jobs to most inhabitants of slum areas especially those of Chipulukusu compound. This is because Chipulukusu is the largest slum area and it is located closer to the city center and industrial area.

Population

According to CSO (2011), Ndola has a total population of 455, 194 inhabitants, catering for 23.2% of the total population for the copper belt region distributed among the region's 10 districts. A survey done by the city of Ndola reported that about 14.5% of Ndola's population lives in slum areas where a quarter of the population was classified as illiterate in 2009. A large portion of people in these low cost areas (71.7%) were either not employed or looking for employment. Furthermore only 11.1% of the population in Ndola's slum areas was in formal employment mainly employed as unskilled or semi-skilled workers. The remaining 17.2% were

engaged in informal income generating activities such as road side open stalls NCC (2010). Furthermore, NCC (2010) report results show that Chipulukusu compound is the largest slum area with a population of 32,066 inhabitants, accounting for almost half the population of all the 11 slum areas in Ndola district.

Field findings indicated that most guardians and parents to the children who participated in pupils' Group Discussion (GD2) in Chipulukusu compound were not in formal employment. It was discovered that those parents/guardians who were employed worked as unskilled or semi skilled laborers such as; security guards, plumbers, carpenters, bricklayers, clerks in the central business area and industrial area. Others worked as house helpers in the surrounding medium and high income residential areas. Since most of the people in Chipulukusu are not employed, they mainly depend on selling by open road sides stalls as a means of getting an income (refer to figure1; picture (1b) below. Some of the residents were so vulnerable that they depended on donations from local community members as well as their relatives. This was the case with one of the OVCs who was kept by her poor grandmother. Refer to figure 2 which shows an unemployed woman who was taking care of her orphaned grandchildren. All her three grandchildren were community school pupils.

Housing conditions in Chipulukusu compound

According to NCC (2010), the UN projects that almost 1 billion of the world population live in unplanned settlements under life and health threatening conditions. It also reported that only 10% of the population in Ndola's unplanned settlements had access to piped water and 7% had flush toilets in 2009.

During the period of data collection, I observed that most residents of Chipulukusu compound do not have access to piped water and many of them live in mud houses. During (GD2) with the pupils from the three community schools, it was discovered that over 90% of the children came from overcrowded homes with average room occupancy of 5 persons per room. I also observed that Chipulukusu lacks drainage facilities and refuse was indiscriminately disposed of. In view of this, the UNDP (2011b) contends that service provision to Zambia's population remains a big challenge. Services such as sanitation are lacking in most rural areas, and in peri urban areas they are usually not sufficient to cater for all the people. This has forced those not serviced to find

alternative means to deal with their sanitation problems. Many use pit latrines and shallow wells and communal water points as major sources of water hence there are usually recurrent problems of diseases such as cholera. Please see figure 1; picture (1a) showing the housing conditions and ways of getting water from a central point because most houses lack piped water.

2.3.2   *Demographic and socio-economic characteristics vis-a-vis vulnerability*

Studies have shown that there is a positive relationship between vulnerability and the social economic condition of households. This issue has been touched by (Hart, 2008) who contends that, households with larger number of children are more likely to experience poverty, hence a positive relationship between household size and poverty.

Among the vulnerable households, decisions to pay for their children's education embraces the costs both immediately and in terms of opportunities lost as well as the benefits of schooling. In Chipulukusu this was evident in that poor families took their children to community schools where they paid nothing. Where education was less valued, children were engaged in selling as a livelihood strategy to increase the economic base while others combined school and selling. Refer to figure 1; picture (1b) below which shows some incoming generating activities like selling by the roadsides.

(1a) Housing Conditions and ways of Fetching Water   (1b) Roadside Open Stalls

Figure 1: Social Economic Conditions in Chipulukusu; pictures 1a & 1b

Figure 2: Unemployed Woman with her Orphaned Grandchildren

Source: Fieldwork pictures

2.3.3   Primary education provision in Chipulukusu compound

Chipulukusu just like any other slum area in a developing country is faced with a problem of being underserved or lack of most public services. According to unpublished data compiled by the DEBS office in 2012, Ndola has 60 public basic schools and 60 community schools. In Chipulukusu there are only three government basic schools which are not sufficient to cater for all the school aged children (MoE, 2012). In fact this is one of the reasons which justify the establishment of many community schools in this area.

2.4 Location of the study area

The study area is depicted in Figure 3.
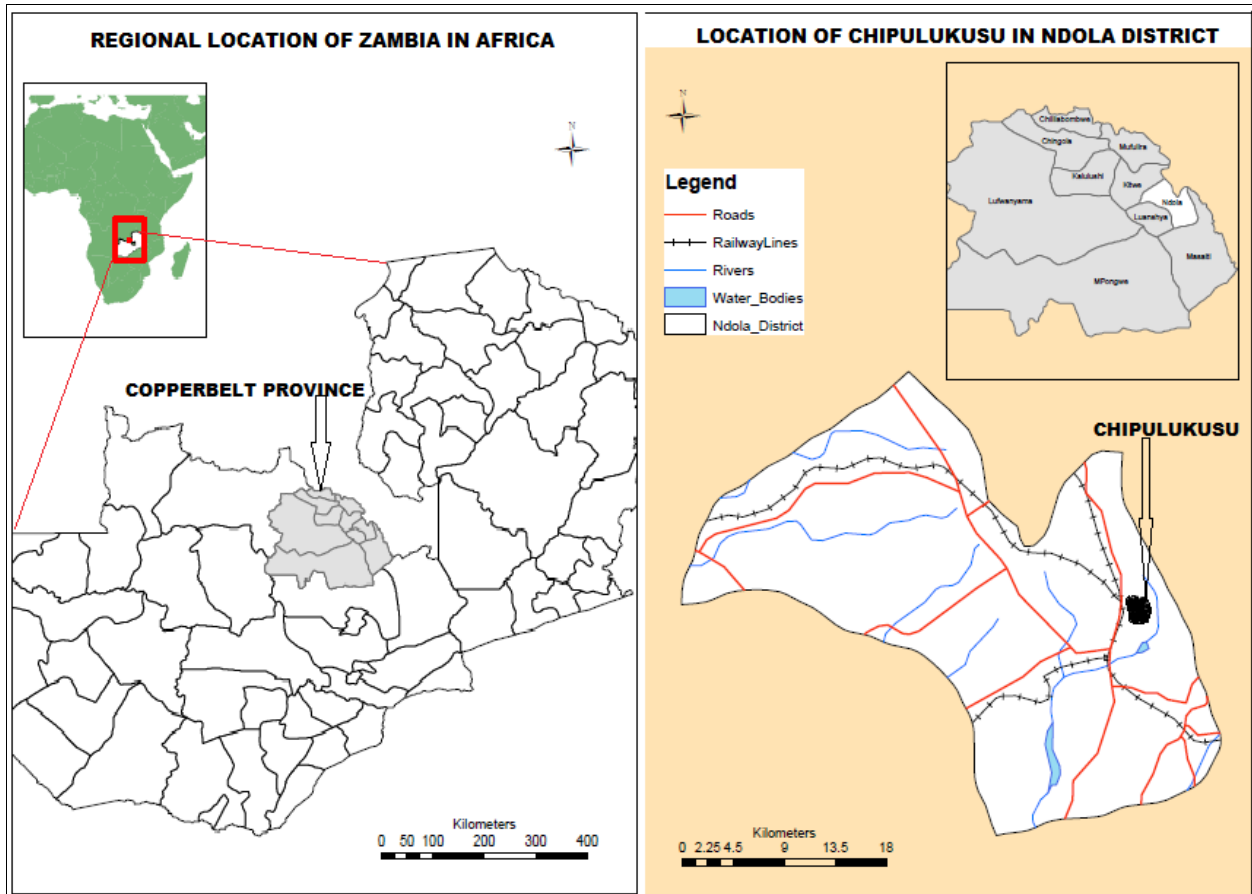
Figure 3: Location of the study Area (Chipulukusu compound)

Source: shape files from- (http://www.diva-gis.org/data accessed on 8th march, 2013 at 10:15 AM).

2.5 Summary

The chapter gave an overview of Zambia's country profile and with a special focus on Chipulukusu compound, the study area. Information on the poverty situation, HIV/AIDS situation at national level and the available education facilities in the local area were given in a context that justifies the involvement of communities in education provision to the OVCs. Community schools are thus helping the Zambian government to achieve its obligation of

providing primary education to all as per international agreements such as the second MDG. With all this in mind, the next chapter gives the theoretical perspectives that guided the analysis of this study.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

3   Chapter Overview

This chapter defines the theoretical perspectives which guided this study. The alternative development paradigm, the main theory used for this study is discussed to give the reader a review on how the major development theories serve to explain the findings for this study. It is important to note that the alternative development embraces a wide range of concepts which cannot all be applied to this study. Therefore, I discuss only the relevant concepts which are participation and community development concepts. The second part of this chapter gives the analytical framework on which the data analysis for this study was based. Finally, a conclusion raps up the chapter by giving highlights of what was addressed in the chapter.

3.1   Education in Development Perspective

3.1.1   Education in Development Theory

Modernization theory in development studies became popular in the aftermath of the Second World War period as a dominant approach to explaining development. This theory viewed and explained development as a homogenizing project in which poor countries were suppose to catch up with advanced countries to attain modernity or development and reduce the widespread inequalities (Pieterse, 2010). The advantage of understanding development in this way was that, what the less developed countries lacked could be identified and addressed. For instance, capital and technological injection into the economy were some of the factors identified as means to achieving modernity while education just like health was seen as an essential component to the development of human capital that would steer up the process of economic growth.

In this way, education was seen as a vehicle for transmitting social norms, occupational skills, political views and/or religious values. It was also clear that an educated person had greater powers to impact positively on development. This strong relationship between education and economic development led foreign donors to assist develop formal educations systems as a primary strategy towards modernity Zachariah (1985). Thus education under modernization theory was seen an investment in people that would prepare a nation for the next stage of

development and primary education funded programs became a priority locally and internationally. The modernization theory had its own pitfalls and it was criticized by the dependency theorists who emphasized on societal dynamism. Marxist theorists argued that it was impractical to prescribe development process as different countries have different structures and capabilities Huntington 1971 (in Mweene, 2006). They also argued that development in the developed countries was a result of exploitation of developing countries by the developed countries.

The modernization theory had a major weakness in that the development process was engineered by national states using the top-down approach to development where national states were conduits for development

Placing educational development within the mainstream approaches to development discussed above, the national states of many developing countries failed to provide the education services to all the deserving children due to financial constraints. These financial crises as Pieterse (2010) argue were mainly due to a move towards a market oriented approach in the development discourse that was popular during the Neoliberal era in the late 1980s and early 1990s. During this period, national states were advised to reduce funding on social services of which education had the largest share.

These economic reforms had an adverse impact on provision of social services in sub-Saharan African countries where most countries' economies were already weak and Zambia in particular was not spared from this impact. Many developing countries are faced with a problem of widespread poverty and MoFNP (2006) contends that about 68% of Zambia's population was classified as poor. Hence many children from poor families drop out of school in order to work and contribute economically to their households. OVCs are hit the most due to the already vulnerable situation they are in. Thus, the pitfalls to mass education approaches calls for alternatives and these are discussed below in detail as a guide to the theoretical underpinnings used for the analysis of this study under the umbrella of alternative development.

3.1.2 *Education and Alternative Development Theory*

Alternative development is an approach that is concerned with local development and it challenges mainstream development approaches to development. It is often said to be a part of

global alternative to development. Even though not consistently practiced, proponents of alternative approaches to development have come to accept that development efforts are generally more successful if the community participates. In support of this, Parnwell (2008) holds that top-down approaches to development such as the modernization theory is faced with the challenge of uneven development, partly as a by-product of an orthodox capitalist development process. Hence, the need for an alternative approach to development that works closer to the community it intends to benefits is proposed.

Bottom-up development is an alternative approach that encourages community participation, gives people a sense of ownership and is believed to be more sustainable and more cost effective. Placing education in development theory, the starting point for the realization of the importance of participation was during the Neo liberal era. The climax of this period was the economic reforms of the late 1980s/early 1990s which forced many developing nations to move towards in market oriented economy. According to (MoE, 2008) such reforms forced the Zambian, government to cut spending on public services of which education was negatively hit. For instance, the government could not employ teachers or rehabilitate school infrastructure and no new schools were built. With the high population growth, access to education became difficult to many children especially the OVCs. In the same vein, the world declaration on EFA in 1990 emphasized the need for partnerships in education provision as this is too huge a responsibility for national governments to handle solely.

This thesis considers two concepts; participation and community development concepts under Alternative Development Theory because it is not possible to apply all the notions of this Theory. The choice of these two concepts is based on the assumption that, participation of various stakeholders in education delivery will help reduce the inequalities brought about by orthodox approaches to development. According to Lund (1994), alternative development does not view local people as passive recipient of aid but as active partners who should take part in decision making processes with regard to developmental issues in their areas. Moreover, Mweene (2006) found out that participatory approaches taken by NGOs to meet people's basic needs were more effective than state led strategies. In this vein, alternative development approach through participation and community development concepts is relevant to this study as it provides strategies used to meet primary education needs of the OVCs.

3.1.2.1 Participation

The widespread use of the language of participation in development across a spectrum of institutions, from radical NGOs to local government and even to the World Bank raises questions about the exact meaning of this buzzword. According to Cornwall (2008, 269), Participation can be used to "signify almost anything that involve people". Mikkelsen (2005) quoting the world bank defines participation as a process through which stakeholders have an opportunity to influence and share control over development initiatives and make decisions over the use and control of resources that affect them. On the other hand, Dale (2000) adds another dimension and contents that participation may also refer to the involvement of a range of other stakeholders who may have different interests and abilities.

Participation in development appears to be a highly contested concept and approach. Therefore, Cornwall (2008) proposes the importance of understanding the differing degrees and kinds of participation. In this vein, Cornwall advises that most typologies of participation carry a normative assumption which places different forms of participation along an axis of good to bad participation. Many of these typologies and ladders of participation have been produced based on the intentions of those who produced them. Among them, Arnstein's 1969 ladder of participation is one of the best known and it was originally developed in the late 1960s but still retains contemporary relevancy. Arnstein's Ladder of participation is shown below in figure 4.
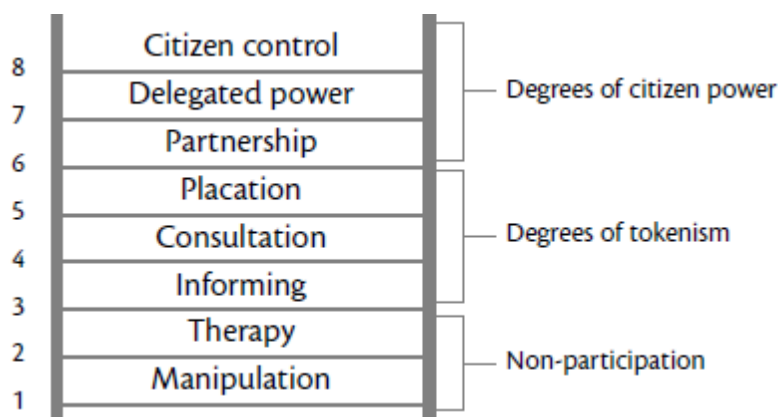
Figure 4: Ladder of Participation

Source: Arnstein (1969, 217)

According to Arnstein (1969) Citizen control appears at the top of the ladder, representing good forms of participation with a category at the bottom of non-participation in which therapy and manipulation are placed. On this ladder, a distinction is made between citizen power which includes citizen control, delegated power and partnership, and tokenism in which she includes consultation, informing and placation.

Arnstein's ladder is important for this study because it will help me explain the stage along the ladder in which stakeholders' participation in the three community schools fall. This will help to give insight on the kind of participation which exists in community schools and areas for improvement will be identified.

Studies have shown that bottom up approaches yield more benefits than state led development strategies. Oakley (1991) hold that the benefits or achievements of people's participation include the following:

- **Efficiency**: there is a greater chance that available resources will be used more efficiently when there is greater participation in a project. It is cost effective because local people take responsibility and administer the project.
- **Effectiveness**: participation allows people to use their resources and skills in a more effective way.
- **Self reliance**: participation allows people to think about solutions instead of focusing on their problems thereby sustaining the project. It actually removes the mentality of being dependant but rather people become aware of the problems and they become more confident and this fosters greater independence.
- **Coverage**: most government programs do not reach out to all those in need hence participation of non-state actors will reach and provide services to underserved areas.

It is important to note that the community schools I studied have adopted a participatory approach in order to attain some of the benefits I have outlined above as given by Oakley.

3.1.2.2 *Participation in Practice*

With reference to Arnstein's ladder presented above, it is possible to find a project oscillating between two stages due to blurring boundaries made between the distinctions. The blurring boundaries maybe partly due to the involvement of different actors in the participatory processes, each with different perceptions and interests. This was observed at the three community schools by assessing the different ways in which community schools were perceived by different stakeholders. For instance, the government officials did not have trust in those running community schools and the DEBS emphatically put it that, initiators of some community schools had personal interests, such as getting external funds to their own benefit.

Different views on what really participation is and who participates is what complicates this concept. Mikkelsen (2005) adds that the conceptual diversity of participation may indicate or amount to little or to more than it being a catch word devoid of real content.

For this reason, participation has been highly criticized and (Parnwell, 2008) contends that participation only occur in words and not in practice.

3.1.2.3 *Critic to participatory approach to development*

Despite being the hallmark of alternative development and its strength with regard to local development agency and grassroots approach, different scholars have recently questioned and criticized participatory approaches. According to Hailey (2001) the role and status of participatory facilitators who are seen as outsiders can use their positions and authorities to override existing decision making process within the community. Furthermore, there is suspicion that experts who advocate for participatory approaches to development sit on some high moral ground and immune to criticism and there is little research to critically explain their motives, actions and agendas. In this way other stakeholder's contribution may be of less value or no value at all even though participation approach claims to be rooted in a dynamic relationship of mutual trust and respect. Pieterse (2010) hold the same sentiments that participation is a deeply problematic concept that seem to just be an improvement on the top-down approach as it tend to exclude others especially those who are on the receiving side of developmental efforts.

3.1.3 Community development concept

Community development is another concept under the umbrella of alternative development paradigm that is used to guide the analysis for this study.

A community

According to Mathie and Cunningham (2003), community is a slippery concept. It is used in a range of senses such as denoting actual groups of people as in a village, neighborhood or ethnicity boundary. It can also refer to particular qualities expected among people as in 'a sense of community'. Bray (2000) quoting Hillery (1955) contends that there are 94 alternative definitions of community and observes that the list is still not exhaustive. Without going too deeply into the matter, it is useful based on the observation by wolf et.al 1997 (in Bray, 2000) to note that a community has at least some common features such as; a network of shared interests and concerns, a symbolic or physical base, an extension beyond the narrowly-defined household and has something that distinguishes it from other similar groups. For the purpose of this study, I define a community as referring to people living in a defined locality and/or other people or organizations outside the local community who share common interests with the local people.

Community development

According to Chavis and Wandersman (1990), community development is some kind of a process which aims at improving the conditions of community's life. Pieterse (2010) defines community development as development below national level which served as a subsidiary theme in the colonial times and during modernization era but now receives a new emphasis with alternative development. Therefore, community development is in line with the new agenda of government rollback and decentralization, and individual participation that results in collective and individual good. According to Roodt (2001, 470) community development is defined as "the conscious process wherein small geographically contiguous communities are assisted by the more developed community to achieve improved standards of social and economic life". This is all done primarily through local efforts by local community participation at all stages from goal selection through mobilization of resources to execution of projects, enabling local communities to become self-reliant. According to Mansuri and Rao (2004), community driven development project supported by aid organization aims at improving access to public services by enhancing a

31

community's capacity to act collectively to obtain the public good. In the same vein, Fonchingong and Fonjong (2003) acknowledges that the concept of community development, stresses on the importance of increasing people's sense of responsibility, and looking at external assistance as just supplementary, but never replacing local initiatives or efforts. In view of this, I see community development concept very appropriate as a guide to data analysis for this thesis. This is because community schools are a local initiative, with an aim to improve access to education for the excluded and underserved populations of Chipulukusu compound.

Community development concept: an alternative approach to local development

The greatest advantage of the community development concept is that it is a part of alternative development with an emphasis is on development from below and applies a participatory approach. Several studies have also shown that the participatory approach in community development is beneficial in a number of ways such as; better managed and maintained community projects than those managed by local governments, improved access to public services through community constructed facilities. In the field of education for instance, Jimenez and Sawada 1999 (in, Mansuri & Rao, 2004) reported that community managed schools in El Salvador had fewer absentees than centrally managed schools. Therefore, it is also important to go by Wandersman and Florin (1990) assertions that community development efforts have positive impacts in various communities. In the same vein Shaw 1971 (in Cooke, 2001) recognizes the value found in group processes such as the capability of groups to produce more and better solutions than those working alone and that groups learn faster than individuals. In this study, the concept of community development will be used on the assumption that it refers to development that is initiated by the local community whose influence have had a positive impact on the management of community schools in Chipulukusu compound.

3.1.4 *A critic to community development concept*

Available literature suggests that, community development concept has also been criticized just like any other concepts in the alternative development paradigm.

According to Cooke (2001), community development concept with its emphasis on group action, fall victim of group dysfunction due to free riding which limits the effectiveness of the group approach to development. Moreover, Mansuri and Rao (2004) have acknowledged that projects

in poorly organized communities are more likely to be mismanaged hence impacting negatively on the bottom up approach to development as in community development. In addition, the local community may also lack adequate resources to scale up. Hence, they may be forced to rely on external funders such as the state or NGOs, whose resources maybe earmarked for their own agendas. Heavy dependency on state funding as Woost 1997 (in Pieterse, 2010, 199) put it may just mean that "we are still riding in a top-down vehicle of development whose wheels are greased with a vocabulary of bottom-up discourse". Despite the critics to community development concept, it still remains vital in the field of development studies as it seeks to provide an alternative to failed state driven approach to development, hence, its relevance to this study.

3.1.5 *Critic to the alternative development paradigm*

Despite gaining popularity as an approach to development since the 1970s, alternative development theory like any other theory has not gone scot-free. Critics have claimed that alternative development approach simply represent 'a new form of top-down, paternalistic development occurring further down the development hierarchy. Participation emerges more prominently in words than in tokenistic deeds, and is often coerced rather than natural' (Parnwell, 2008, 114). Others have criticized alternative development for putting too much attention on local development and ignoring national and international policies and their impact on local development and this undermines globalization.

Despite all these critics alternative development is still appropriate as a means of meeting the needs of people especially those not captured by main stream developmental efforts. In view of this, Parnwell (2008,113) contend that "bottom-up development has gained in momentum and prominence since the 1970s, to the extent that it now challenges orthodox approaches as the mainstream paradigm in many parts of the developing world". In the education sector, decentralization of educational management and financing and the expansion of NGOs and public-private service provision stimulate competition and efficiency among schools as well as broader access. Hence, many donors often call for a greater engagement of the civil society for effective accountability and service delivery at the local level.

3.2 Analytical approach

This section of the thesis provides an analytical approach for the study of community schools and how they are targeting OVCs. It gives a critical review on how both participation and community development concepts are applied to guide the analysis of data in order to provide answers to the set questions outlined in chapter one above.

Participation

According to Dale (2000), participation may refer the involvement of a range of various stakeholders who may have different interests and abilities in a project. Going by this definition, community schools in Chipulukusu compound have adopted a participatory approach which includes different actors at play. The participatory approach to development in this study is used due to the advantages it is associated with, in comparison to the top-down approach. This is in line with Oakley's assumed benefits of participatory approaches discussed above in this chapter. In this study it was observed that the bottom-up approach had a lot of benefits which included improved maintenance of the community schools, increased participation from donors and well wishers who provided financial assistance, improved accountability and effectiveness in community schools. Various stakeholders were identified and among them being the local community, the Parents Community School Committee/ Parents and Teachers Association (PCSC/PTA), local government officials, local business entities, local organizations, external NGOs, community school managers, community school teachers and the community school pupils. Their participation was analyzed to give answers to the extent to which they have created opportunities for the OVCs.

Since the proponents of participatory approaches claim that participation applies a bottom-up approach and that it instills a sense of ownership and encourages application of innovative ways to development, this assertion helped to identify how innovative community schools are in trying to provide primary education to the OVCs. Many ways were identified among them being the use of an approach that met other needs of the children including giving the OVCs gifts, meals, medical services and offering them scholarship beyond primary education. It was also observed that sustenance of these community schools depended on the schools innovative capabilities. For instance, MMGCS made blocks for sale to raise funds while a school garden at HoCCS sustained the feeding program. It is also important to note that participatory approaches have been

34

criticized for being naïve on issues of power relations and blurring boundaries on who participates and for what purposes as evidenced from Arnstein ladder of participation discussed in above. Such criticisms helped through detailed analysis of the perceptions of different stakeholders to gives information on how participation is actually applied in practice.

Community development

Since community development has been defined as development below national level and as an alternative approach to failed state driven development, the concept becomes relevant as a guide to data analysis for this study. This concept helped to explain how local development through the development of community schools is necessary in increasing access to public services for the underserved populations in slum areas such as Chipulukusu compound. For the purpose of this study and by use of the community development approach, different stakeholders especially those residing in Chipulukusu mobilize themselves in ways that help provide primary education to the OVCs in community schools. For instance, the PCSC/PTA members are actively involved in sourcing for external funds that help to run the community schools while the teachers displayed an admirable commitment to their job despite the problems they were facing. This is why Mansuri and Rao (2004) is of the view that community managed projects are better managed and well maintained than state controlled projects due to community involvement at a local level.

3.3   Summary

This chapter discussed how the alternative development approach is relevant to this thesis as it claims to apply bottom up approaches that are more beneficial to meeting the needs of the marginalized than the top-down approaches. Within the alternative development, the concept of participation as well as community development concept guided the data analysis for this study.

Therefore, positioning myself within the alternative development paradigm with its claims for greater involvement of those affected by the development process with no one single recipe to

provide answers to questions, I discuss the theoretically based methods used to collect data for this thesis in the methodology chapter below.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4   Chapter Overview

The methodology which was used for this research is discussed in this chapter. A brief description of a research design chosen is given to understand how it differs from and relates to a research methodology. Furthermore, an overview of the two commonly used research methodologies, thus; qualitative and quantitative is also given. This background information serves as a basis for understanding the context in which the type of methodology (qualitative approach) used for this paper was chosen. Therefore, qualitative data collection methods will be discussed, outlining the actual instruments used and their underpinnings and challenges. In addition, approaches to data analysis and issues regarding validity and reliability, limitations encountered as well as ethical concerns will be discussed. Finally, a summary is given to highlight the main issues addressed by the chapter.

4.1   Selection of respondents

Sampling involves the acquisition of information about a relatively small part of a larger group or population with an aim of making inferential generalizations about the larger group. Sampling in social research is important because it is often impossible or undesirable to obtain information from the entire population According to Mikkelsen (2005), the selection of respondents for any qualitative study is very critical and crucial. This is because the sample is usually small and poses critical questions of generalizations and this is the greatest weaknesses ascribed to qualitative research. However, the use of few subjects maybe beneficial because many aspects will be studied, thereby giving a deep understanding of the subject in focus. Based on the above points and using a qualitative approach, my study did not have a lot of respondents.

I selected my research subjects using the purposive sampling technique. A purposive sampling technique allows the researcher to select a representative sample that meets the criteria of the study (Bui, 2009). In addition, Mikkelsen (2005, 193) holds that "it is becoming normal practice in qualitative research in development to let sample selection be determined by informational

consideration". This actually indicates that the main purpose for sampling should be directed towards information maximization. In view of this, I carefully selected my respondents in a way that would help bring forth information that will be suitable for providing answers to the research questions set for this study. My sample included the following:

In-depth interviews with Key informants (7)

- The District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) (1)
- The Acting Provincial Child Development Co-coordinator (APCDC) (1)
- The Former Provincial Community Schools Focal Person (FPCSFP) (1)
- Local business man (1)
- Community Schools' Managers at each school studied (3)

Focus group discussions (4)

- Members of the local community; Focus Group Discussion (FDG1)
- Members of the PCSC/PTA committee from the community schools; Focus Group Discussion (FGD2)
- Teachers for community schools; Group Discussions (GD1)
- 40 Pupils from three community schools; Group Discussions (GD2)

The government officials, community school managers and a local businessman contributed rich information on how community schools were providing primary education to the OVCs. All these were regarded as key informants for this study. Members of staff provided information on how they were negotiating the challenges in trying to give the best education to the OVCs while the local community discussed on how they perceived the intervention of these schools and how they participated. The pupils also outlined the ways in which they were benefiting from community schools and how they looked at these schools from their own perspective. It is important to note that the selection of pupils was done in two stages. Firstly, it was purposively done in that only those who were in their last grade of primary school and also aged 12 and above were included. Secondly those who met the above criteria were randomly sampled to come up with actual number of the respondents. The members of the PCSC/PTA brought out the main challenges that these schools were facing and also what they thought would be the best solutions to help solve some of the problems faced by community schools.

4.2   Research Design

Every research study has a design, and Yin (2011) contends that for this reason, researchers seek to use strong designs so as to strengthen the validity of their studies and to ensure that data are collected properly to address the research topic being studied. According to Kvale (1996, 98), research designing "consists of overall planning and preparing the methodological procedures for obtaining the intended knowledge". Furthermore, these procedures include among other things transcribing, analyzing, verifying and reporting of the collected data. On the other hand, De Vaus (2001) uses an analogy to explain a research design. For instance, when constructing a building, it is important to know the type of building, a factory, school or residential home before deciding on what materials to order and putting critical deadlines. Similarly in social research, it is helpful to consider a particular research design or structure before data collection or analysis begins. It is equally important to note that research design is not just a work plan but it ensures that the research questions are answered. De Vaus further states that many texts confuse research design with methods and the failure to distinguish between designs from a methodology usually leads to poor evaluation of research designs. In his view, a research design is a logical structure of enquiry. In the same vein, Marshall and Rossman (1999) holds that a research design is the result of a series of decisions the writer makes based on methodological knowledge but also on research questions and conceptual framework surrounding the research questions. The two authors further argue that research design and methods details the overall design, such as the site or population of interest, specific methods for gathering data, how to ensure the study's trustworthiness and ethical issues.

The methods of collecting data for my study are very critical because they are the building blocks for the research design I used and these will determine the credibility of this study. Enderud 1984 (in Mikkelsen, 2005, 139) defines research methods as "tools to be used for answering specific questions and for solving different scientific or practical problems".

In social research, methods of data collection are grouped into two broad methodological categories namely; qualitative and quantitative. Methodology has been defined by Kitchin and Tate (2000) as a set of rules and procedures used to investigate a situation or phenomenon and there is a clear distinction between qualitative and quantitative methodologies.

4.3   Qualitative approach to research inquiry

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000) Qualitative research approach does not measure phenomenon in terms of quantity, amount, intensity or frequency nor experimentally examine it but rather puts emphasis on the qualities of entities, processes and meanings that are not examined nor measured. It therefore, stresses the socially constructed nature of reality and seeks to answer questions that stresses on how social experience is created and given meaning. On the contrary quantitative research puts emphasis on the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes. Similarly, Kitchin and Tate (2000) contends that qualitative data are generally unstructured and consists of words, pictures and sounds while quantitative data are structured and consists of numbers or empirical facts that can easily be quantified and analyzed by using numerical statistical techniques. Despite both methods being concerned with bringing out individual's perspective on the subject matter, it has been argued that qualitative seem to bring more meaning to what is being studied. This is supported by Denzin and Lincoln (2000, 3) who hold that "qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them". Therefore, qualitative approach to research is suited to uncovering the unexpected and new avenues. Hence, Marshall and Rossman (1999) is of the view that this flexibility is necessary when gathering qualitative data in order to respond to the unexpected and refined research questions. Furthermore they note that while some scholars have argued that flexibility put qualitative researchers in a dilemma; others have in fact argued that flexibility is its greatest strength because it encourages exploration, discovery and creativity.

Hence qualitative methodology unlike quantitative is appropriate in studies that do not start with assumptions of a pre-existing world that can be known or measured. But rather sees the social world as one that is dynamic, changing and always being constructed through the intersection of social, cultural, economic and political processes (Smith, 2001). In addition, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) also observes that qualitative researchers stresses on the social construction of reality, the intimate relationship the researcher has with what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape such inquiry. In such researchers, questions are answered by stressing on how social experience is created and given meaning.

Against this background, the qualitative approach was found suitable for my research whose primary aim was to discover how community schools through participation of non-state actors were targeting OVCs and providing them with primary education. Literature analysis revealed that a lot of children in slum areas as well as in remote areas were not in school mainly due to lack of schools in these poorly serviced areas as well as their inability to meet the education demands in public schools. This situation inspired members of the community to start schools that were easily accessible and not as financially demanding as public schools but still offering the same kind of education. It was fascinating to discover how community schools which are sometimes looked at as second class, competes favorably with well established government schools.

Therefore, the qualitative approach which was used to collect data is also in line with the theoretical framework of alternative development approach which guides the explanation on how various stakeholders participate in education provision. The main questions for this study were basically aimed at discovering the type of services community schools offered to the OVCs and what opportunities these children had. The study also sought to provide answers to how the stakeholders were participating in community schools and how they perceived community schools' interventions. Finally, the study brought to light the challenges faced by community schools and how these challenges were being addressed. These kinds of questions could only be answered by using an approach such as qualitative that emphasizes on an in-depth understanding that gives meaning to the actual reality on the ground. Therefore, the qualitative approach was found to be most suitable for this research. It is also important to note that qualitative data can be collected by using a variety of methods. In this vein, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) contends that qualitative approach uses multiple methods or *triangulation* so as to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question. Therefore, this research took a multi-method approach to ensure that the conclusions drawn were valid and reliable and the actual methods used to collect field data are discussed below.

4.4   Qualitative Data Collection Methods

Data serves as the foundation for any study hence the researcher decides on how s/he will generate the required data. Kitchin and Tate (2000) have distinguished two types of data namely: primary and secondary. Primary data is generated by the researcher while secondary

data is generated by somebody else. Kitchin and Tate suggests the importance of using primary data where possible because this data is context dependant to any study but secondary data will not have been written with your purposes in mind. Furthermore, self generated data allows one to know how such data were generated, the problems encountered and any foibles in the encoding. But when using secondary data you may have little knowledge as to why certain things were recorded, hence there is heavy dependence on inserting meaning into your analysis. Based on this understanding, primary data were used as the main source of data for this study while secondary were used to supplement and validate primary data. The different instruments used to collect primary data for this study are discussed below.

4.4.1 Interviews

Interviewing is probably the most commonly used qualitative technique in social research (Kitchin & Tate, 2000). An interview has been defined by Kvale (1996) as an inter-view; an inter change of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest. Kvale further explains that an interview has an advantage in that the researcher can produce a rich and varied data set in a less formal setting. However, it has also been criticized for its lack of objectivity particularly due to the human interaction inherent in the interview situation. Interviews come in many ways that range from highly structured to completely unstructured. Details of the types of interviews which were used to gather data for this research work are given below.

4.4.2 In depth interviews with key informants

In depth interviews are used to get participants to provide an account of their experiences, their view of the world and the meanings they ascribe to it. This method allows the researcher to generate a lot of information very quickly, cover a wide range of topics, clarify issues raised by participants and be able to come up with the unexpected themes Valentine (2001). In this study, key informant interviews were conducted with the DEBS, three community schools' managers, two other government officials and one businessman who is helping HoCCS. These provided an understanding on how community schools were important in the education system and basically outlined the main services these schools were offering to the OVCs. Perceptions of community schools' interventions came out clearly with government officials being concerned on the quality of education offered by community schools while the school managers were happy and perceived community schools as a good alternative to public schools. All the community

schools' managers brought out the issue of a holistic approach to education delivery which was practiced by community schools. Given below in figure (5a) and (5b) are selected field pictures showing how some key informant interviews progressed.

4.4.3 Focus group

A focus group consists of six to ten subjects who are led by a moderator to discuss a topic in focus for the group. It is normally characterized by non directive style where the primary concern is to encourage a variety of view points on a topic Chrzanowska 2002 (in, Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). In qualitative research, focus groups are very important because the researcher explores meanings and experiences from different perspectives thereby gaining reach information. However, some of the weaknesses of this method include the temptation for the moderator to get actively involved in the discussion thereby undermining the issue of impartiality. Furthermore, it may also be difficult for the moderator/ group facilitator to manage the relationships between group members. In this situation, the moderator or facilitator should encourage as many viewpoints as possible so as not to limit the scope of the discussion (Crang & Cook, 2007; Longhurst, 2010).

The focus group discussions for this thesis targeted the members of the community and PCSC/PTA committees for community schools. The focus of these discussions were to find-out how the local community was involved in these community schools and how such involvement was contributing to the core idea of providing education to the OVCs. It also highlighted on how these schools were perceived by the local community. The local community's concern was that such projects should not be hijacked by selfish organizations and they wanted to get even more involved than just being used in order to get external funds that benefited a few individuals. However, to avoid jeopardizing the collection of data using this method, strict measures and controls were applied to deal with potential problems. For instance, the problem of group or power relationships was handled by making it clear at the beginning of the session that the main idea of the discussion was to get different views from all the participants and that they were encouraged to freely participate. During the discussion, the moderator and researcher encouraged all the participants to discuss and participate freely. The moderator also acted in a neutral way not supporting any member but giving direction so that the aim of the discussion was not lost. In line with this, Templeton 1987 (in Crang & Cook, 2007) has advised that the moderator should

be an expert on the procedure but leave the group to be experts on the topic. This avoids circumstances such as when a moderator maybe told s/he is wrong by a participant with first hand information. This was well taken into consideration by the moderator and the researcher to avoid potential problems during the discussion.

In addition, teachers were also targeted in group discussions to give insight mainly on how they were negotiating the challenges, which they encountered while delivering education to the OVCs. Some pictures are given below in figure (6a) and (6b) to show some of the group discussions for teachers and members of the local community progressed.

4.4.4   Direct Observation

According to Wolcott, 1995 (in, Kitchin & Tate, 2000), observation demands the researcher to watch field events as they unfolds and to systematically note and record such events. Observation as a data collection method for this research targeted the whole school set up. I particularly observed the OVCs in the schools and took note of the kind of activities they were involved in. This gave me an idea on how these community schools are meeting the education needs of these children. I also observed the teachers and how they went about their normal routines, such as observing their regular meetings, weekly preparations, what they were wearing and eating and also how they were relating to their pupils inside and outside the classroom setting. Their relation to other visitors including me was equally observed. The teachers' behaviour gave information on how committed community teachers are and how they contributed to creating an environment that was conducive for providing education to the OVCs. I also observed the conditions of the classrooms and the infrastructure inside and how the overall teaching progressed. This revealed some of the opportunities children in community schools have and also the challenges facing these schools. I also observed the time students spend on different tasks, by looking at the routine time table and any extraordinary activity. Extraordinary activities in the schools told a story of how other stakeholders were involved in these community schools and also the services these community schools offer to the OVCs. This method was used to supplement evidence given by respondents through the various types of interviews discussed above and it was also used to form follow up questions during interview sessions. This method was useful because it enabled me to produce rich detail and description of non verbal things that people would not otherwise talk about. In support of this, Marshall and Rossman (1999)

acknowledge that observation assumes behavior is purposeful and expressive of deeper values and beliefs and can be used to discover complex interactions in natural social settings. However, observing complex behavior is a real challenge and it can to some extent compromise the validity of results. This was well handled because observed behavior was actually confirmed by data from other source since my study used triangulated data to ensure validity and reliability of results. The pictures below in figure (7a) and (7b) show some classes in progress.

(5a)   (5b)

Figure 5: Key Informant Interviews; pictures 5a & 5b

(6a) Teachers' Group Discussion at MMGCS   (6b) Local Community Members FGD

Figure 6: Focus Group Discussions; pictures 6a & 6b

(7a) A class at HoCCS   (7b) A Class at WIPHAN community School

Figure 7: Lessons in Progress; pictures 7a & 7b

Source: Fieldwork pictures.

4.5   Secondary data sources

Secondary data is very important in any research because it gives background information on what has been studied and shows the gaps on the particular subject under investigation. Hence, Mikkelsen (1995) argues that it is a crime not to use secondary data when conducting research. According to White (2010), secondary data consists of information that has been collected by other people for another purpose but is available for others to use it. Therefore, it is important to carefully exam them before using them. This is the greatest weakness of secondary data because data that is already manipulated may not be trustworthy. However, if used carefully they can save on time and resources involved in collection of primary data and it can also be used to support an argument. Secondary data used for this research were collected by consulting the education policy documents, the guideline documents for running community schools, the Zambia national child policy document and various books and internet sources. Some of these sources gave information on the state of vulnerability and the OVCs problem in Zambia. It also pointed to the need for community schools in underserved areas in which there are too few schools to meet the demand for primary education

In this study, secondary data were carefully examined and the information obtained helped to further inquiry, validate and verify primary data collected by the various methods discussed above.

4.6   Ethical issues

Every project undertaken has some ethical issues associated with it. Research ethics refer to "the extent to which the researcher is ethically and morally responsible to her/his participants, the research sponsors, the general public and her/his own beliefs" (Kitchin & Tate, 2000, 35). Kvale (1996) contends that ethical concerns are very important in research as they protect participant's privacy and anonymity with regard to their personal information. This is further supported by Hay (2010) who gives three main reasons why researchers should behavior ethically. Firstly, ethical behavior protects the rights of the researched and secondly it creates a favorable climate for continued research. Finally, ethical behavior is attributed to the growing public demands for accountability of researching institutions such as universities. Therefore, it is professional for researchers to behave ethically correct as this helps to reduce any harm the research may have on

the research subjects or the environments involved in or affected by the research. In view of this several scholars hold that ethical considerations have traditionally revolved around topics of informed consent, right to privacy protecting the identity of the subject and protection from harm (either physical, emotional or any kind). Informed consent entails that research subjects are informed about the overall purpose of the investigation, any possible risks and benefits from participation in the project. In addition, it further involves obtaining the voluntary participation of the subject with his or her right to withdraw from the study at any time. The greatest problem with the concept of informed consent is around the question of who should give the consent. In institutions for instance, a superior's consent to a study may imply more or less subtle pressure on employees to participate (Christians, 2000; Kvale, 1996; Marshall & Rossman, 1999). In this study, the purpose of the study was clearly explained to the research subjects that it was purely academic so as not to ignite false expectations. Subjects were told that they were free to withdraw in the course of the study if they wished to. For the pupils for instance, informed consent was sought through the administration department before conducting any group interviews.

On the other hand, anonymity or confidentiality refers to the protection of subjects' privacy by changing their names and identifying features or simply publishing personal data behind a shield anonymity. However the problem with confidentiality is that insiders still recognize the disguised locations or persons. In such situations, publication of information should be done only when the research subject has agreed to that and that it should be explicitly stated on the consequences this may have (Kvale, 1996). In this study, the pupils, teachers and the key informants were guaranteed that their interviews would be treated confidentially and permission was given by the key informants to publish the results once the report was ready. In this way, this study took ethical consideration into account and this made it professional and at the same time protecting the rights to privacy of the institutions studied as well as the research subjects involved in the study. The picture below in figure 8 shows the researcher explaining the purpose of the study and research ethics to the pupils so that they are fully informed.

Figure 8: The researcher explain ethical concerns to the pupils

Source: Fieldwork pictures

In this way, the do no harm principle was given a high priority in the way data were collected for this thesis. According to Ennew, Abebe, Bangyai, and Noonsup (2009), when doing research on children, the methods used should not remind them of their distressing experiences or feelings. In order to ensure that children were protected from any harm, the school managers were fully aware of the aims of the research and the methods that I used to collect my data. They would from time to time monitor how I was collecting the data and the children participated freely as they were comfortable and felt protected by the school management. Protecting our informants is very important because while we can leave, they cannot. Thus it may be necessary not to utilize some of the information given by our informants if it puts them in danger (Bøås, Jennings, & Shaw, 2006). In order to protect my key informants and go according to the do no harm principle in research, I broadened the spectrum of people from which I got the information for this thesis.

4.7 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Dey 1993 (in Kitchin & Tate, 2000) suggests that the core of qualitative analysis consists of description, classification and seeing the interconnection of the collected data. Furthermore, Crang and Cook (2007, 133) acknowledges that data analysis as a process "involves doing nitty-gritty things with paper, pens, scissors, computers and software. It's about chopping up, (re)

ordering, (re) construction and (re) assembling the data we have so diligently constructed". This process as Marshall and Rossman (1999) rightly put it, is all about translating a mass of data into a neat product, bringing order and structure through a written report for readers to get meanings of the study in focus. Based on the above, data for this research work were organized for analysis in the following ways: the data was sorted out, coded according to identified themes such as using unique management/governance approaches towards education delivery, involvement of various non state stakeholders, collaborating with state government. Data were organized into such meaningful categories and then interpreted to gain an insight on the inter connectedness of the field data with regard to the subject on how community schools were targeting OVCs.

4.8   Data validity and reliability

All good studies aim to be valid and reliable. According to Kitchin and Tate (2000, 34) validity concerns "the soundness, legitimacy and relevance of a research theory and its investigation". In addition, validity involves issues of truth and knowledge. Pervin 1984 (in Kvale, 1996) holds that, validity in a broader sense pertains to a degree that a method investigates what it is intended such that our observations reflect the phenomena or variable of interest to us. In addition, Janesick (2000) reminds us that validity in qualitative research deals with description and explanation and whether or not the explanation fits the description. In other words, is the explanation credible? Furthermore, Janesick also notes that qualitative researchers do not claim that there is one way of interpreting an event as there is no one correct interpretation. Hence we need to cross check our work with other research works.

Reliability on the other hand pertains to the consistency and trustworthiness of research findings. It is often treated in relation to whether a research finding is reproducible at other times and by other researchers (Bui, 2009; Kvale, 1996; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). For instance reliability is concerned as to whether the interview subjects will change their answers and give different replies to different interviewers. Thus, reliable research results should also be consistent when done by different researchers. However it is worth noting that reliability of results is more useful in quantitative results and maybe pointless in qualitative research, as Janesick (2000) reminds us that, the value of a case study in qualitative research is actually its uniqueness.

In view of the above this study took several ways to ensure that its results are valid and reliable. Firstly, the teaching background of the researcher was advantageous as it gave easy access to the community schools in Chipulukusu area. It also helped me to make interviewees comfortable and interact in an easy atmosphere and this helped to gain good quality information. Secondly, doing research in a local environment removed issues of language barrier as I could communicate effectively using the local language and it was easier to make follow-ups were I was not satisfied with the answer. In order to engage all the targeted 40 pupils in group discussions, I engaged a researcher assistant, a teacher at Hands of Compassion Community School. However, I was also personally active in data collection and did not depend entirely on the research assistant. This was because I understood the topic very well, knew what I was looking for and I wanted to be as close to the collected data as possible. For instance, community schools where perceived differently by various groups. While some thought they were second class, parents/guardians valued these schools preferred their children to be in community schools than in public schools. I basically wanted to provide answers to the main objective which looked at 'how community schools were targeting OVCs'. Thirdly, I used different research instruments to collect data from different angles in order to get understanding from different perspectives and this helped in the final analysis as I managed to confirm the emerging trends in my data. This also helped to draw conclusions that were more convincing and accurate. Despite all these precautions, data collection still proved to be an uphill battle and the next session discusses some of the challenges that were faced in the field.

4.9   Challenges Encountered

The biggest challenge was the failed focus group discussion with members of the community on the date we had arranged. Few members showed up and many gave various excuses for not attending such as being busy with income generating activities. Many thanks go to my moderator for explaining to the members of the community how important their participation was to my study as well as to their community schools. Fresh arrangements were made and it received an overwhelming response with members eager to air their views. We had a successful discussion and I arranged snacks to be served during that meeting. This made the discussion brighter and more interactive.

Another problem was with some pupils at HoCCS who withdrew before the end of the whole data collection process. They actually thought I was coming from an NGO with gifts to give but they were disappointed when I explained the purpose of the study. I started quite well but they decided to withdraw. Working under the research ethics described above, I had no choice but to replace them and start afresh. This whole process was hectic but two teachers at HoCCS helped me get all the planned data in good time.

Arranging the PCSC committee meeting at Mapalo community school also proved to be challenging. This was because some of key persons in the committee were working outside the city at the time of my study and the other members of the committee felt uncomfortable to meet without the presence of their colleagues. I was lucky because that same week I planned for a discussion, the school had an annual general meeting. I discussed with the school manager whether I could meet with the committee members on that same day and he did not object to that. He then called the coordinator of the committee who made arrangements with the other members to meet on that Saturday afternoon. This idea was great to them because they just had to come once to the school and attend both meetings. The meeting was successful and snacks were served as refreshments to the participants. Many thanks go to the management of Mapalo for their contribution towards the refreshments. At Wiphan, I had problems with the teachers because most of them gave excuses not to attend the discussion. Hence slightly above half of them participated.

With regard to key informant's interviews, the first interview date I planned to have with the DEBS could not materialize because he had another important meeting to attend to in Kitwe (one of the cities in Zambia). However, I managed to make fresh arrangements to interview him in good time and I even had enough time to make follow ups for further clarification on some issues. I must admit that he was always willing to accommodate me as long as I made arrangements in advance and reminded him in good time. This helped me get valuable information for my research and the informal setting made both the interviewee and interviewer at easy. This also helped to remove the power relations that exist since the interviewee is my superior at work and that could have had a negative impact on the quality of the collected data if the whole process was too formal.

4.10 Summary

This chapter gave a detailed overview of how data for this research work were collected. The qualitative approach was discussed outlining the main instruments used to collect primary data. This chapter also explained how the qualitative instruments or actual tools were used to collect data outlining both their advantages and disadvantages. Furthermore, the chapter also considered discussing on the procedure used to analyze the data as this is very important without which the whole research would be meaningless. Issues of reliability and validity as well as ethical concerns were equally given attention and it was clearly explained on how these were tackled. Finally, the challenges encountered during data collection were also outlined and ways of how they were sorted out discussed. All in all, this research followed the main standards of a professionally written piece of work and it is hence a valid and reliable piece of academic work. With this in mind, the next chapter presents the main findings for this research particularly making reference to how community schools are targeting the OVCs in Chipulukusu compound.

CHAPTER FIVE: WAYS OF TARGETING OVCs IN COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

5   Chapter Overview

This chapter gives empirical evidence from fieldwork findings with regard to how community schools are targeting OVCs and providing them with primary education. The main findings in this chapter are centered on how partnering with various stakeholders is helping in meeting the primary education needs of the OVCs. The chapter also gives information on the background of non-state actor's involvement in education, their roles and the impact it has on community schools. Furthermore, the practices employed by community schools are also given as they equally help in targeting OVCs. Collaboration with the government was also another discovery that helped community schools provide primary education to the OVCs.

5.1   Involvement of various non state stakeholders (a participatory approach)

5.1.1   Background to the involvement of non-state actors in community based education

Zambia experienced a political and economical shifts in the early 1990s, the period during which the country was in transition away from a socialist economy (DeStefano et al., 2007). In view of this, MoE (2008) notes that such economic reforms demanded the government to cut down its spending on social services of which education was the largest consumer of state funds. During this time, a large number of children especially those from poor families were out of school mainly due to lack of and/or inadequate public schools or the inability of poor families to meet the financial costs associated with government schools. In underserved areas such as rural or urban slum areas, a concern arose among the local communities, churches and NGOs over the large number of uneducated children and they began to form community schools. It is important to note that the country's current education policy recognizes the role of community schools in education provision as evidenced by the following quotation from the MoE that "the human and financial resource constraints that beleaguer the Ministry of Education have made the existence of community schools a necessity rather than an option" (MoE, 2007, 1). From this statement by MoE, one can safely say that community schools which are mostly run by non state stakeholders are valued by the government and forms an important part of the education system in Zambia.

5.1.2 The main stakeholders and their participation in community schools

This study identified a number of stakeholders who have a stake and participate in various ways in the operation of community schools. To justify the engagement of such partnerships at local community level, the MoE acknowledges that community schools have developed a bottom up approach as communities have intervened to provide education to children who are not able to access conventional or government schools (MoE, 2007). In this study, the main stakeholders identified ranged from local community members, local businesses to donors and NGOs both within and outside Zambia. The MoE, the PCSC/PTA, community school managers, teachers and pupils themselves are equally stakeholders. The roles and participation of these stakeholders are discussed below.

5.1.2.1 The local community: their role /participation in community school

Interviews from community schools' managers and results of the focus group discussion (FGD1) reviewed that, the local community's participation in community schools was mainly through labor provision. For instance, the participants in FGD1 recalled how they participated by digging the foundation for HoCCS at the inception of the school project and one of the participants emphatically said that:

> *"We are very much involved in the works at HoCCS even from the very beginning. We were actively involved in building the first structure starting from digging of the foundation for this school. You see, at the start of the project, we also had a school field and we, I mean people of Chipulukusu we would organize ourselves into groups and we used to take turns to work in the school field just to raise money for the building project and operational costs of this school. This is our school and it is in our community and we are proud to see it grow to this level"* (Direct quotation from focus group discussion).

The above quote is in line with how MoE (1996) conceptualizes community schools as using a bottom up approach which allows participation of the local people. The FPCSFP was also in support of community participation and stated that, the role played by the local community in education delivery should not be ignored.

56

In addition, the APCDC held the same sentiments about local community's participation and said that local communities' participation in community schools in whatever small way is very important to help sustain these schools which run on a 'voluntary basis'. This implies that communities are getting more involved in education delivery and it is yielding great benefits because through local community participation, funds were raised to build the school and also the cost of labor was cut because local community members worked as part of their participation.

5.1.2.2 Roles of the local business communities in community schools

This study also reviewed that the local business community in Ndola district was involved in community development works. Such involvement helps to reduce the inequalities that exist with regard to accessing social services like education. Their involvement in community schools is aimed at giving the OVCs a chance to move out of vulnerability through education just like the privileged children. Gomes haulage company (GHC), a local company in Ndola district has been involved in many community development works and it is helping HoCCS to build classrooms as part of their social responsibility. Below are selected pictures in figure (9a) and (9b) showing how (GHC) is helping to create opportunities for the OVCs to learn in a good environment by participating in building some spacious classrooms. In this way, participation of the business community is helping in improving and increasing educational infrastructure. This is a good thing because it will help to reach out to many more OVCs in desperate need of education.

When asked to comment on what motivated (GHC) to get involved in helping community schools, the chairman for the Company acknowledged that partnerships have a lot of advantages. He believes that people with the project idea must have something to start with in project development as this gives a sign of commitment. He also mentioned that, their company is always ready to support such initiatives. In view of this, DeStefano, Hartwell, Balwanz, and Moore (2006) rightly put it that the development of community schools in underserved areas has encouraged participation of various stakeholders. Hence community schools offer primary education in a more cost-effective way than government schools.

5.1.2.3 Role of Donors/NGOs in community schools

Donors and NGOs basically offer financial support to community schools. For instance, WIPHAN community school is sponsored by WIPHAN international (A USA based NGO). The school manage at WIPHAN in an interview stated that WIPHAN international was solely

supporting the operational costs of WIPHAN community school. The similar situation prevailed at Mapalo Morning Glow Community School (MMGCS) where the school got some financial assistance from Northrise University in Ndola as well as from a USA based school board. The manager of MMGCS strongly stressed the importance of non-state sponsorship and mentioned that they were able to meet the needs of the OVCs by using what came to their school through their sponsors. He further stated that *"the USA school board basically sees to it that MMGCS has the funds it needs to buy equipment and other teaching material and that all these are properly managed".* In his statement he brought in another aspect of accountability when using donor funds. In the same vein, Rose (2007b) rightly puts it that the use of NGO support improves on accountability of the service providers to the beneficiaries of such services. Furthermore, DeStefano et al. (2006) contends that achieving the goals of EFA require that countries should involve non-governmental actors who support underserved communities to create and run their own schools. It is important to note that NGO participation is only possible when spaces for participation are open. In this way OVCs in Chipulukusu are benefiting from education due to the support from NGOs/Donors which help in the day to day operations of community schools.

Finally, HoCCS is also supported financially, by Hands of Compassion International (HoCI), a UK based NGO). The Bank of Zambia and the Rotary club of Ndola are examples of other local partners supporting community schools. These two have for instance, bought text books for the OVCs at HoCCS and MMGCS. In addition, the school manager at MMGCS noted that the rotary club in the USA through the local rotary club helped them build a new ablution block. Please see below the picture of a new ablution block at MMGCS which is a result of donor participation in figure 10. Such kinds of developments are purely a result of good partnerships between concerned parties. Therefore, the OVCs have greatly benefited in having good sanitation facilities which is important for any education institution. Actually this indicates the benefits of external sponsorship in that, it goes directly to the beneficiary. For instance Rose (2007b, 33) acknowledges that donors are more likely to give support in project delivery "where there is low political will and /or capacity of states to manage contracts". This situation is also common in many other developing countries as DeStefano et al. (2006) rightly put it that, the problem of underserved areas in developing countries is due to government's failure to provide services to the poor. Hence there is need for support from non state actors such as NGOs.

(9a)   (9b)

Figure 9: Participation of GHC in constructing classrooms; pictures 9a & 9b
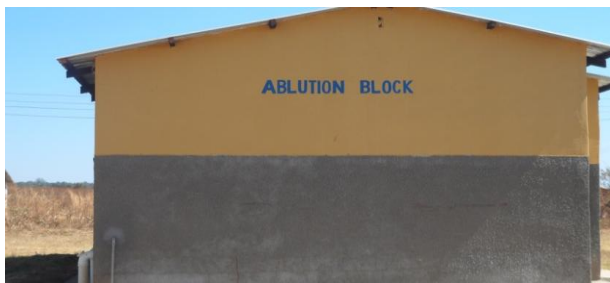
Figure 10: Newly built Ablution block at MMGCS through stakeholders' participation

 Source: researcher's own fieldwork pictures.

5.1.2.4   *Roles of the PCSC/ PTA*

According to MoE (2007), the PCSC is a governing board for community schools which is mostly composed of members from communities within which community schools operate. Its core objective is to deal with management issues and provides checks and balances to ensure

smooth running of community schools and account for the funds that come to their community schools through their donors and other well wishers. During a group discussion with members of the PCSC/PTA in (FGD2), the major roles of the PCSC/PTA were to:

Box 1: Roles of the PCSC/PTA

> - *Mobilize other parents and members of the community to participate in working at the community schools and implement penalties to those parents who abscond.*
> - *Sensitize the community on the importance of their children's education*
> - *Talk to the children on the dangers of social evils such as beer drinking, smoking criminal acts, casual sex, early marriages and child labor.*
> - *Speak to the donors on behalf of teachers regarding their working conditions.*
> - *Ensures that school funds from the donors are well managed and accounted for in a transparent manner.*
> - *Identify the OVCs in the community for recruitment in community schools*
> - *Ensure that teachers and community members work together in a way that benefits the child*
> - *Organize community members for meetings called for by the school management*

These committees are very important and it is clear that the community and parents are more involved in their children's education. This is one of the advantages of community based education. Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) contends that parents' associations in community schools are very effective and active than in public schools, thereby contributing to high pupils' achievements. Such committees also show initiative in resolving issues, organizing funds for operational costs of community schools. This great community involvement encourages communities to develop a sense of ownership, as Oakley (1991) notes that peoples' participation in development projects help them to develop a sense of ownership which comes along with many other benefits. In this case, the local community in Chipulukusu is benefiting from community schools in so many ways, such as having their children in these schools for free and gets a reasonably good education.

5.1.3 *Advantages of non-state actors in education*

Partnering with various stakeholders such as the ones listed above has resulted into positive impacts in community schools. For instance, teachers work harder and pupils are encouraged to attend school regularly and this has improved school results. Mundy (2008) contends that over the past two decades, educational systems across a large number of developing countries have undergone changes in the way they are managed and governed. The emphasis has been on the creation of public-private partnerships, encouraging decentralization and enhancing local level participation. It works on the assumption that such reforms will utilize resources more effectively and mobilize additional funds. In the same vein, Nishimuko (2009) acknowledges the importance of non-state actors such as NGOs in development which dates back to the 1970s and 1980s because they were perceived as responding to failure of state led development. Fowler 2000 (in Nishimuko, 2009) also points out that NGOs are expected to be effective in service delivery, such as education or health to the vulnerable, builds local capacity through a people centered approach, and are gaining leverage on international and national policies towards social development goals. Thus, as seen from the above developments, it is purely a result of good partnerships that for example, more classrooms are built.

Furthermore, members of the community in (FGD1) mentioned that the financial support community schools receive from donors and/or NGOs was the main reason for success in good community schools. It was reckoned that donor support improved accountability in their work because donors monitored closely on how their donations were used, and demanded reports to account for resource use. This emphasis on accountability made them tick and they were able to carry out most of the day to day activities even on small funds, thereby making community schools more cost effective.

In the same vein, Moono (2006) found out that NGOs were very effective in delivering services to the vulnerable in society because they were better placed at identifying the local needs and constraints of the vulnerable and more adaptive to local conditions. From this we can say that non-state stakeholders have many advantages in delivering services to the needy because they work close to the people they serve. Since they are locally connected, NGOs' support goes directly to the beneficiary hence cutting on the bureaucratic process adopted by the state in their execution of projects.

61

5.1.4 Disadvantages of using non-state stakeholders in provision of education

On the other hand, service delivery by non-state stakeholders has not gone without criticism. According to Parnwell (2008) bottom up approaches have been criticized for representing a new form of top-down approaches because participation occur mainly in words and not in practice.

In the same vein, Nishimuko (2009) contends that the difficult part of depending on donor funds is that donors have a preference in the way their funds are used. For this reason, recipients of the funds have less input but are left voiceless with no option apart from just accepting such conditions to keep their organization going. In this study, the larger amount of the donor funds went to the welfare of the OVCs while teachers' conditions of service were not a priority. This explains why most of community schools' teachers are less or not qualified at all because it will be costly to hire and pay qualified teachers in community schools. In view of this, one of the government officials, a key informant, when asked to comment generally on the operations of community schools expressed concerns over the poor conditions of service for community school teachers and stated that:

"Poor communities in which community schools operate do not have the capacity to look into teachers' welfare and these teachers who handle our children need to live and they sacrifice a lot. This is why the government should come in and support the teachers in community schools. Even the NGOs who come to help must also be interested in the teachers as much as they are interested in our children".

Such problems are a common feature when it comes to spending donor funds, hence its shortcomings.

5.2 Unique management/governance approaches towards education delivery

5.2.1 Use of local human resources

Using local human resources was found out to be a good way that helped community schools in targeting OVCs in primary school provision. This is one of the rationales for operating community schools. According to Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002), community schools engage local staff as a strategy for successful results. This was found to be the case in all the

three community schools because almost all their teachers and other supporting staff came from within Chipulukusu compound. DeStefano et al. (2006) contends that governments in developing countries are faced with a challenge of providing sufficient trained teachers and meeting their high wage bill. However, complementary education models of education have overcome this by taking on local teachers who are less qualified or not trained at all and work more or less on a voluntary basis. The government periodically arranges in service training for these teachers. In this study, community school teachers were willing to work with a small salary or more or less like volunteers because they felt obliged to participate in development projects in their community. This is also one of the benefits of community development as discussed in the theory chapter above.

5.2.2   *Sourcing for external funding and encouraging local initiatives*

It was also discovered that all the three community schools in this study receive external funding which help in running their community schools. Apart from this, these schools are also innovative and proactive in sourcing for external funding. This is important because they need funds to survive and continue providing education to the OVCs. For instance, during an interview with the manager of MMGCS, he stated that:

> *The school is now making blocks for sale so as to raise funds to enable them create a good learning environment for the OVCs and also to be able to provide these children with all they need for quality education.* (Refer to the photo of the block making machine picture in figure 11a below)

In the same vein, HoCCS has a school garden which supplies vegetables to sustain the feeding program for the OVCs. See the photo for the school garden at HoCCS in figure (11b) below. Apart from being innovative the school management committees are also actively involved in sourcing for extra funds. It was during (FGD2) where one of the participants when discussing on the roles of the PCSC/PTA stated that:

> *"as a way of offering better services we sent proposals sourcing for funds from local businesses and it was through this initiative, that GHC came on board and is helping in the construction of classrooms to extend this community work and reach out to more OVCs".*

(11a) Block Making Machine at MMGCS   (11b) A School Garden at HoCCS

Figure 11: Innovative ways adopted by community schools; pictures 11a & 11b

Source: Fieldwork pictures.

5.2.3   Abolishing school uniforms

The other important approach adopted by community schools in targeting OVCs is allowing them to learn without uniforms. This was identified as a cost measure strategy among parents who could simply not afford to buy uniforms as is the case in government schools.

5.2.4   Community action for the OVCs - Home visits to the OVCs

Visiting the OVCs was a form of community action that in a way explained how community schools in Chipulukusu compound are targeting the OVCs. This shows the extent to which community schools have taken an approach that makes OVCs feel loved and accepted by the community. One of the pupils during the group interview (GD2) pointed out how she appreciated such visits and said:

> "I like this community school. We have nice teachers, who even share things one can take home such as relish or maize meal for nshima (Nshima is Zambia's traditional staple food). I stay with my grandmother who is not working and we literally have nothing. However, we receive small help from our family members. Teachers and other members

of this community visit us from time to time and I think they are more helpful than our own relatives who stay afar.

Such home visits are initiated by the PCSC/PTAs committees and are done in collaboration with the community school management. It is during such visitations that parents/guardians are sensitized on the importance of education. Hence parents are now encouraging their children to go to school and many are completing their primary education more than before. In (FGD2) with the PCSC members at MMGCS, when asked to mention the roles of the committee one of the female participants was very passionate about home visits and said:

"We organize home visits to the OVCs; we counsel and encourage them spiritually to hope for the better. You see, we are able to do this because our community school is not as congested as government school and we are also neighbors in this compound. I think such visits are beneficial because teachers have reported improved performance and attendance for children we visit"

This approach gets community members actively involved in community schools and this has led to success in most of these community schools.

5.3   Collaborating with government

The 1990 world Declaration on Education for all observed that national, regional and local educational authorities are obliged to provide basic education for all. In Zambia for instance, the government supports government schools in areas such as paying teachers' salaries, providing learning materials and teaching materials, constructing and rehabilitating schools, offering scholarships but it has limitations due to financial constraints. Therefore local communities have taken an initiative to organize themselves and fill up the gap left by government provision (MoE, 1996). Such collaborations between various stakeholders are known for bringing benefits to the intended beneficiaries. However, (Bray, 2000) warns against the negative side of involving local communities in the provision of primary education. This is usually a disguised means to move the burden of financing education on the backs of the poor. In fact this is why (Rose, 2007b) holds that the state should support the non-state providers of education to those populations which are hard to reach. In support of such collaborations, the DEBS in an interview, stressed government's commitments towards service provision and said that "30% of government

financial allocations to the ministry of education go towards funding community schools and this is policy". The members of the PCSC/PTA committees as well as community school managers held the same sentiments and acknowledged that the Zambian government through the DEBS office was involved in a number of ways in their schools such as:

- Organizing workshops for community school teachers to teach them on planning and effective teaching
- Giving books and note books to the OVCs whenever available
- Giving small grants to community schools

Such kind of government involvement in community schools is a pure indication of a good relationship between government and community schools. It further shows how government appreciates the role played by community schools in reaching out to the marginalized in societies, such as the OVCs of Chipulukusu compound. However, the community school manager at MMGCS expressed concern over the inconsistence in financial assistance to community schools. He lamented at the bureaucratic way of doing things which caused some beneficiaries to give up and miss out completely. When asked to comment on what could be the reason for that, he mentioned that one of the delaying factors could be the unclear way in which such funds were distributed. He further noted that such dealings raised questions of transparency and suspicion that some community schools were sidelined and could not benefit from such funds.

None the less, government's involvement and assistance to community schools in Chipulukusu compound was appreciated and the teachers in group discussions (GD1) acknowledged that government's support and involvement in community schools had improved the quality of education delivery to the OVCs.

5.4   Services offered by community schools

Through field observations, key informant interviews, group discussions (FGD1&2) and (GD1&2), it was noted that community schools use an approach that incorporate provision of extra services in addition to education. The OVCs in community schools were served a meal

every day; they also received gifts from time to time such as school bags, books, pens, pencils, cloths, shoes and the like. Some pupils at HoCCS and WIPHAN were given uniforms whenever they received something from their donors for uniforms. At WIPHAN community school, the OVCs got free medical services throughout the year. In cases where the medical situation needed further investigation, the pupils were sent to a local private hospital Mary berg hospital in Ndola district. Furthermore, the school manager at WIPHAN community school during a key informant interview stated that, OVCs who were identified as coming from hostile family environments had a chance to be adopted in WIPHAN houses/orphanages where they could receive parental care and continue enjoying their childhoods. Some of the community schools like HoCCS adopted an approach that included the teaching practical subjects like carpentry and needle work which gave pupils practical skills. Such skills would help them earn a living if they do not go further in their education. These community schools are also sponsoring the OVCs beyond primary education in community schools to high school level. This gives the OVCs an opportunity to complete their high school education which is up to grade 12 in the Zambian education system. Below are selected pictures in figures 12a, 12b, 12c, & 12d showing some of the services offered by community schools.

(12a)   Pupils getting food at WIPHAN   (12b) Feeding at MMGCS

(12c)   Medical screening   (12d) Carpentry Lesson

Figure 12: Services offered by Community Schools; pictures 12a, b, c and d

Source: fieldwork pictures

Importance of offering extra services

Offering extra services to the OVCs in community schools is one of the practical ways which community schools are targeting OVCs. For instance the feeding program encourages pupils to attend lessons regularly because many children come from vulnerable families where it is difficult to afford a decent meal due to high poverty levels. During a group discussion (GD2)

with the community school pupils, they mentioned feeding in community schools as one of the main incentive to attend school because they were usually hungry in their homes. In line with this, the school manager at WIPHAN community school stressed the importance of the feeding program and other services they offered and stated that:

> *"We have a feeding program as you can see for yourself where we give a meal to the OVCs in this school for free. We provide them with free medical care throughout the year. Another thing is that eeh, we offer absolutely free education. It is not like in government schools where pupils are required to pay PTA funds which are mandatory even after declaring primary education as free by the government."*

This approach to education which involves offering more than just education to the OVCs in community schools was equally referred to by both the school manger at MMGCS and at HoCCS.

Field results showed that all the three community schools were offering extra services to the OVCs and all the participants in this research, the pupils and teachers, members of the community, community school managers and some government officials acknowledged the importance of such an approach to education. It was observed that, when children receive extra services, they attended school more regularly and they had a higher chance of performing very well and completing primary education. After completing primary education, they had a chance to be sponsored further through secondary education. In view of this, Rose (2007a) contends that alternative education systems provide additional support to young children who still have chance to gain access to formal system. In Zambia for instance, as a way of improving illiteracy rates as well as responding to international demands, the government pronounced Free Basic Education (FBE) in 2002. This pronouncement was policy and basic schools were directed to stop charging any form of fees for primary school pupils and uniforms were no longer compulsory (MoE, 2008). The FBE had a positive effect on enrollment as DeStefano et al. (2007) notes that enrollment increased by 30% from 2002 to 2004. Furthermore, one would expect that the implementation of FBE would draw pupils from community schools to basic schools. It was surprising that community schools which by design serve the poorest and most vulnerable children in the Zambian context grew in number and increased access to primary education. An assessment by the MoE on the impact of FBE revealed that more pupils actually moved from

government schools to community schools. This implies that community schools in Zambia address other constraints which are more important to families than the direct costs of schooling MoE (2004). It is worth noting that offering other services is an important factor to successful education and many community schools have adopted an approach that offers more than just education and this is what was prevailing at all the three community schools as discussed above.

5.5   Opportunities created for the OVCs in community schools

5.5.1   Access to education

According to UNESCO (2013b), there are about 57million children out of school with the least developed countries heavily hit by this problem. In view of this, UNESCO (2007) has identified a number of factors which affect access to education such as, rapid population growth where four out of five new births occur in developing countries. In addition, almost half the developing world's population is classified as children and this has made it difficult for already constrained economies to provide education to all children. In Zambia for instance, access to basic education is still a problem and the government tried to address this problem by implementing the Basic Education Sub Sector Investment Program (BESSIP) between 1999 and 2000. This has worked well and increased enrolment for basic education (MoE, 2005). However, the government is encouraging the participation of civil society to improve access to primary education. In this way, community schools have increased access to education particularly among the excluded populations such as the OVCs in urban slum areas. According to MoE (2008) enrolments in community schools increased from 6,600 pupils in 1996 to 470,000 in 2006.

In an interview with the DEBS, he indicated that community schools had done very well in terms of access and stated that out of 13,020 new entrants in Ndola district in 2012, government schools could only take up 8333; private schools took up 1474 while 3213 were taken up by community schools. Going by these figures, one would safely say that community schools are doing well in terms of access to basic education. Access to education is a great opportunity which the OVCs in Chipulukusu compound have.

5.5.2   Learning outcomes and pass rates

Community schools are faring well in the area of achieving the learning objectives. According to Chakufyali (2008) various researchers have revealed that despite the difficult circumstances in

which community schools operate such as insufficient teaching and learning materials, untrained teachers, there is effective teaching and learning that go on. Furthermore, DeStefano et al. (2007) contends that complementary education programs in Bangladesh, Egypt, Ghana, Mali and Zambia achieved greater learning outcomes than in government schools. In view of the aforementioned, a focus group discussion (FGD1) with members of the community in Chipulukusu compound revealed that community schools had taught their children how to read and write and this made parents happy with the intervention of community schools. Table 1 below shows the pass rate for grade 7 pupils in the three community schools over a period of five years.

Table 1: Percentage Pass Rate for Grade Seven Pupils at WIPHAN, MMGCS and HoCCS
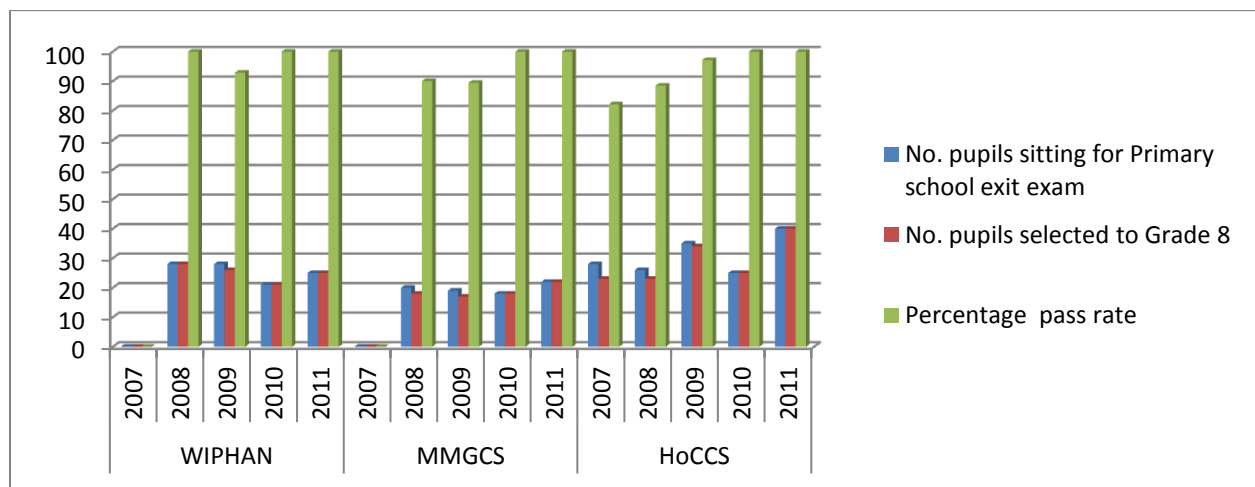
Source: researcher's own field data compilation

The above table indicates the importance of community schools in helping pupils to learn and pass the grade seven (primary school exit examination). From this table, it can also be said that community schools have been progressing very well because the pass rate has been improving. For instance, the pass rate for HoCCS rose from 82 % to 88 % to 97% to 100% 100% in the period 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011 respectively. This kind of achievement enjoyed by community schools is partly due to the experience gained over the years and also a result of more involvement of various stakeholders and their overwhelming commitment. Also the services offered by community schools such as the feeding program which encourages regular pupil

71

attendance and more concentration explains this good performance. In this way, participation of various stakeholders is paying off. This is because it has encouraged division of labor as each stakeholder contributes uniquely to the success of community schools.

5.5.3 Completion rates

Community schools are giving the OVCs an opportunity to finish their primary education. For instance during (FGD), one female participant stated that:

> *"Community schools are very close to our homes and children don't complain of walking long distances, these schools are also not congested and they offer food and other things which encourage our children to complete primary education and proceed to secondary school. It is really a blessing to have community schools in this compound as many are hit by HIV/AIDS, have no jobs or are simply poor".*

According to DeStefano et al. (2007) the completion rates for pupils in community schools in Zambia stood at 72% and it was exactly the same with public schools which was equally 72%. So community schools are equally doing well in helping the OVCs to complete their primary education.

5.5.4 Opportunity to benefit from services offered by community schools

It is important to note that, the OVCs in community schools have an opportunity to benefit from services offered by these schools. These include services which have already been mentioned above such as continued bursaries to high school level, medical screening, free education, community care, feeding program, having caring teachers and the like. In a way, the OVCs are benefiting directly from stakeholders' participation who among them are; NGOs, local businesses and organizations as well as from the local community and the government.

5.6 Summary

This chapter presented empirical evidence on the way in which community schools target the OVCs of Chipulukusu compound. The highlights indicate that community adopted an approach that allowed participation of various stakeholders in a number of ways such providing financial support to community schools. The services offered by community schools were also outlined and finally, by using a participatory approach to education delivery, community schools created great opportunities to the OVCs such as accessing and completing primary education.

CHAPTER SIX: DIFFERENT PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS COMMUNITY SCHOOLS' INTERVENTIONS IN EDUCATION

6   Chapter Overview

This chapter analyses the responses from interviews, group discussions and field observations with regard to how different stakeholders perceive community schools' intervention in Chipulukusu compound. The assessment of these different perceptions gives a hint on why some stakeholders look at these schools as successful with a core purpose of helping the marginalized children while others look at them as a means to enrich selfish individuals. Furthermore, different perceptions on community schools gave information on why the OVCs and their parents/guardians preferred community schools to government schools. Hence, this section presents the different perceptions held by different interest groups and these are linked to the later discussion presented in chapter eight.

6.1   How do pupils in community schools perceive community schools' interventions in their community?

It was discovered that, the children emphasized on the benefits and opportunities they had in community schools which their counterparts, especially those in government schools did not have. However they were also aware that community schools had some limitations, such as having no examination center because they still had to write exams from the nearby government schools.

The pupils expressed positive sentiments that community schools prevented them from being on the street, from early marriages as in the case of girls, kept them from child labor or other vices such as prostitution among the girls and stealing among the boys.

Some pupils talked about the experiences of their counter parts in other schools indicated that they were far much better in community schools. Almost all the pupils in my study viewed their community school far much better than government schools and their views are listed below in box 2.

Box 2: Pupils' perceptions of community schools

- *In community schools we learn more hours than in government schools.*

- *We have a feeding program and we no longer have to worry about what we will eat.*

- *Our teachers are very friendly and teach very well.*

- *We are taught extra subjects such as needlework and carpentry not offered   in government schools at primary level*

- *We are allowed to be in school without uniform.*

With reference to school uniforms one of the pupils narrated his friend's experience at a government and said;

"I have a friend from a government school, who before his parent bought him a school uniform, his friends at school were laughing at him and he even started missing school at least twice a week and then his results started to become bad and he almost stopped school. But when his uncle bought him a uniform, he was very happy to go to school and he now feels comfortable to be in class with a uniform. I think in community schools we are better off and I would not want to learn in a government school".

Pupils also compared their school to other community schools in Chipulukusu and they were aware that other community schools were not doing well and one of the pupils in (GD2) stressed that:

Also in this area some community schools are very bad and OVCs in such schools are suffering but we don't know why. Maybe they don't have money, we don't understand. Pupils from there would also want to come to our community school but it is not big enough. We are very lucky in this school because we receive a lot of things.

The children thus perceived their community schools as giving them good opportunities because they got tangible benefits.

6.2 The community school teachers' perception

Teachers' perceptions about community schools are equally important because teachers are at the center of the whole process of delivering education.

Their views equally emphasized on the opportunities that the OVCs in community schools have. However, the teachers pointed out that their welfare was not looked into as their monthly allowances could not meet their basic needs. None the less, they were happy and committed to their work. They actually felt attached to these children whose families they knew and understood the vulnerability of their pupils.

From my own field observation, I discovered that there was a distinctive gender perception among the teachers in that the male teachers were so much interested in having their welfare attended to as a matter of urgency while the female teachers were somehow content working more or less like volunteers. The possible reasons could be cultural where men in Zambia are regarded as bread winners providing for their families. This probably explains why the female teachers in community schools outnumber the male teachers by far. (Refer to table 2 in chapter seven on the number of teachers by gender). Some of the general views on community schools from the teachers' own perspectives are listed in box 3 below.

Box 3: Teachers' Perceptions of community schools

- *As teachers, we have an opportunity to offer formal education to the OVCs in this compound and give them a hope for a better future.*
- *Community schools have well maintained classrooms conducive for teaching and learning.*
- *Community school teachers do not go on strike like government teachers do. Hence our pupils learn more and are likely outperform pupils from government schools during primary school exit examinations*
- *Coming from the same compound encourages team work among teachers in community schools.*
- *Community schools take care of OVCs' welfare but not teachers' welfare.*

Teachers really lamented over their poor conditions of services and wished their plight could be taken to higher heights so that those with the power such as the government, NGOs as well as well wishers could support them financially. Such complaints are common with projects that depend on external funding such as donor funds. Nishimuko (2009) acknowledges that the position of donors in some projects reflects more donor /NGO's intentions rather than the needs of the community. This came out strongly for instance when teachers were asked to comment on how they compare themselves to their counterparts in government schools. Actually teachers in community schools perceive their counterparts in government schools better than themselves. This is because government teachers have good conditions as well as job security. However, they still maintained that children in community schools had better opportunities than those in government schools due to many benefits which community schools offer to its pupils. Such benefits are outlined in chapter five above.

6.3 Local Community's perception

Community schools operate in vulnerable communities which are underserved and where most of the poorest people live. In Zambia these vulnerable areas include rural and urban slum areas. Therefore, it is important to understand how the local community perceives community schools which operate in their compound.

The focus group discussion, (FGD1) with members of the Community as well as discussions with members of the PCSC/PTA, (FGD2) brought out community's perceptions on community schools' interventions in Chipulukusu compound. Community perceptions were mainly centered on the fact that vulnerable parents could still send their children to school because community schools offered more than just education as presented in chapter five above. Some of their views are listed in box 4 below.

Box 4: Local community's perceptions

> **Positive perceptions**
>
> - *Community schools take care of our children's educational and other needs. For instance, children are given uniforms, books, food.*
> - *Community schools continue to pay for our children's education beyond primary education.*
> - *Community schools encourage team work and this has helped to strengthen the social ties within our community.*
>
> **Negative perceptions**
>
> - *Full community participation seem to be in a dilemma due to inadequate consultation and we just follows blindly*
> - *We don't have a lot of trust in the school management and other community members.*
> - *We fear that this project maybe hijacked by some interested organizations like churches*

It is important to notice that the negative views given are in line with the complications associated with participation hence its critique. The critiques to participatory approaches have been discussed at length in chapter three above.

6.4 Government officials' perception

The government officials during key informant interviews also talked about how they perceived community schools. They added another dimension on the need for better organization in community schools. For example, the DEBS had mixed feelings towards the existence of community schools and perceived them as a good initiative though he expressed concern over the quality of education offered by community schools. Some of the views of the three government officials interviewed are listed below in box 5.

Box 5: Government Officials' perceptions

Positive perceptions:

- *Community schools are a good initiative and help the MoE to identify areas where to build new schools.*
- *A community initiative which encourages some direct support from NGOs, churches and other donors is a good thing.*
- *Community schools have reached and captured those in areas where government schools are not there or were they are inadequate.*

Negative perceptions

- *Most community schools don't meet the required minimum standards. For instance, many lack qualified teachers, resources and they also lack effective PSCS/PTA committees.*
- *Most community schools are disorganized, today they are here and tomorrow they are not. As a result, MoE doesn't even know the actual number of community schools because some operate illegally and it is difficult to monitor them.*
- *Some are run like businesses by selfish individuals who use the OVCs as a means to getting donations and enrich themselves.*
- *Community schools are regarded as secondary as they get whatever remains after funding government schools.*

The above positive sentiments show some appreciation on the value of community schools. In view of this, Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) are of the view that involvement of the local communities in education helps in decentralizing education management, which in turn spreads the costs of basic education as communities pay for education through partnerships.

However, the consequences of partnerships are not entirely positive as the government officials also pointed out that community based education was not all that organized. With such negative sentiments in mind, several studies seem to suggest that, local participation in education

provision is sometimes misunderstood. The fact that spaces are open for participation does not mean that those spaces will be meaningfully occupied. This is because those who claim to participate may just mismanage the whole purpose of participation (DeStefano et al., 2007).

6.5   Business community/sponsors' perceptions

Perceptions by business community centered more on the need for good partnerships between the local communities and local businesses so that there could be an effective way towards social responsibility. The following were some of the views expressed by the businessman involved in sponsoring HoCCS.

Box 6 Perceptions of the business community/sponsors

> - *Business community creates an opportunity for the vulnerable to progress in life and break the poverty cycle.*
> - *Partnerships in execution of projects seem to be less expensive but are more effective.*
> - *Community schools supplements government's efforts, hence they are a good thing and they should be encouraged and supported.*

On the other hand, the businessman also expressed concern over lack of transparency by some people who claim to be engaged in helping the poor through community development works. He commented that cheating and lack of trust also discourage some donors or well-wishers to help those in need for fear that their help might be in vain or abused. Therefore, some community schools have suffered greatly due to people who pretend to help others while their agendas are self enrichment.

None the less, the perceptions of the businessman were more on the positive benefits of partnerships and Naidoo (2009) acknowledges that establishment of viable collaborative are key to success of both new and existing community schools. In fact since the world Education in Dakar in 2000, there has been wider emphasis on participation of various stakeholders in education development towards achieving EFA (Nishimuko, 2009).

6.6 Summary

This chapter gave an overview of different perspectives from various interest groups on community schools' interventions in Chipulukusu compound. All those interviewed perceived community schools as a good community initiative that gave the OVCs a chance to have primary education. The perceptions of all stakeholders were both positive and negative. However, the direct beneficiaries such as the pupils and the local community expressed more positive than negative views while the government officials' views were more on the negative side.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CHALLENGES FACED BY COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

7   Chapter Overview

This chapter presents the major challenges faced by community schools in Chipulukusu compound. It also explains how these challenges are limiting the provision of primary education to the OVCs. Furthermore, field observation and interviews gave rich information on how some of the challenges are being addressed or negotiated. Finally, a summary of what this chapter addressed is given.

7.1   Few and less and/or unqualified teaching staff

Community schools by nature depend on volunteer teachers. It is for this reason that most of the community schools teachers are not qualified because these schools cannot manage to hire and pay qualified teachers. Therefore, community schools face a challenge of having few teachers who are mostly unqualified or less qualified. Based on field findings, the table below gives an over view of the teacher crisis problem in community schools. This table also gives the total number of pupils in each school to show the extent of teacher shortfall.

Table 2 Number of teachers by gender/ number of pupils at HoCCS, MMGCC and WIPHAN

Name of community school	No. of Teachers			No. of pupils		
	Male	Female	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
HoCCS	3	5	8	241	238	479
MMGCC	2	6	8	143	131	274
WIPHAN	2	5	7	113	107	220

Source: researcher's own field data compilation.

According to Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) the lack of qualified teachers is often a weakness of community schools and that those with some training are usually less qualified. In the same vein DeStefano et al. (2007) contends that community school teachers in Zambia have less formal education than their counterparts in government schools. They note that in 2004 about 84% of government teachers had a primary school teachers' certificate obtainable in two years while only 16% of community school teachers had this qualification. The data collected from the three schools revealed that HoCCS had only one properly qualified teacher according to minimum requirement by government and MMGCC had two while none of the teachers at WIPHAN had the minimum required qualification. The rest had either preschool qualification or no training at all.

7.2   Limited financial resources

Community schools suffer from inadequate and irregular financial support from either government, donors, poor communities or business partners. The interview with the DEBS gave evidence to this effect as he stated that:

"If as ministry of education we get money, donor money especially, 30% and I say again 30% go to community schools".

The FPCSFP was equally concerned about the financial crisis in community schools while the APCDC gave his point of view from his experience with community schools in rural areas and he stated that:

"In rural areas, community schools have no support what so ever from the government or any NGO, but from the community itself. Community members give community school teachers gifts in kind such as groundnuts, maize to compensate on the time they seemingly waste on their children"

The above statements show the extent to which community schools suffer financial crises. For instance, the financial assistance from the government is very small, irregular and sometimes difficult to get. The community school managers pointed out that lack of financial resources was a major factor limiting their activities and capacity to reach out to more OVCs because the OVC problem in Chipulukusu compound is very real.

In line with financial challenges, Chakufyali (2008) contends that community schools suffer inadequate financial support from the government and where they receive this support it is usually delayed. This according to Rose (2007b) in a way has resulted in only a few sustained community schools and this is why Bray (2000) argues for government's partnerships with community schools in order for them to survive and be effective.

7.3 Poor physical infrastructure and inadequate teaching materials

Infrastructure in most community schools is usually not adequate. The desks for example are usually old and broken and the classrooms or toilets may not be adequate or below standards. However, only WIPHAN community school had challenges with infrastructure while HoCCS and MMGCS had no real infrastructural problem. From field observation HoCCS and MMGCS had spacious classrooms conducive for learning which was impressive. While at WIPHAN community school I observed that some pupils sat on the floor during lessons due to inadequate desks. This is probably the reason why the APCDC acknowledged that:

"The major challenge that community schools face is infrastructure. Infrastructure is in certain cases non existence".

According to Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002), poor infrastructure and lack of text books in many cases is a major challenge faced by community schools. However, it is worth noting that it is not always true for schools with some kind of support from either NGOs or donors to have extreme infrastructural problems. In this study, the benefits of participation of various stakeholders like donors are yielding good results. This is because schools like HoCCS and MMGCS have benefited from infrastructural development through donor support.

7.4 Challenges of working with the local community

The interviews with community school mangers and teachers' discussions revealed that communities were not very supportive and this proved to be a big challenge. Some of their views regarding less community support were as follows:

- *Parents / guardians do not appreciate the importance of education as they still send their children to sale on the streets instead of sending them to school.*

- *Some community members abscond from work when called upon by community school management.*
- *Some community members don't trust the school management and PCSC.*

7.5 How these challenges are negotiated

Community schools have continued to be important in the education sector despite the many challenges they face. Community schools mainly partner with different stakeholders in order to deal with their many challenges. They have also become innovative and resourceful. For example, the community schools were sourcing for more funds. Apart from this, they are also innovative for instance; HoCCS maintained a school garden to sustain the feeding program while MMGCS sold building blocks to raise money for the school's financial needs.

With regard to partnerships, Naidoo (2009) argues that collaboration with different stakeholders such as NGOs or donors or religious groups and the like are beneficial as they provide financial support as well as governance issues. The greatest advantage of such organization is that they deliver services to the underserved and they are not motivated by personal profits but with an understanding of doing good for social improvement and for public good (Nishimuko, 2009). The problem of untrained teachers is being dealt with by encouraging all teachers to attend the in service training workshops organized by the MoE through the DEBS office. Furthermore, during a teachers' group discussion (GD1), one of the participants stated that the lack of teaching materials forced them to be more creative by using the board more productively, making photo copies of the parts of the texts they planned to teach, and it worked very well.

7.6 Summary

This chapter discussed the main challenges that community schools are facing. The one which came out strongly was limited financial resources which limited the operations of these community schools. Lack of qualified teachers as well as fewer teachers was another challenge of big concern. However the chapter has also shown that these challenges were negotiated in a way that did not really limit the process of teaching because teaching progressed amidst all these challenges. In the next chapter the major findings this study are discussed and explained by making special linkages to the theoretical approaches that were used to guide the analysis.

CHAPTER EIGHT: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

8   Chapter overview

This chapter discusses the findings presented in chapters five, six and seven. It basically gives an in-depth analysis of different issues raised with regard to how community schools are targeting OVCs and providing them with primary education. These include issues such as participation of various stakeholders, the use of a holistic approach that is responsive to local needs and use of an innovative management approach. Furthermore, the perceptions of different stakeholders are analyzed and discussed. I use the alternative development theory and in particular participation and community development concepts to understand how community schools target OVCs in Chipulukusu compound. These two concepts have been discussed at length in chapter three above because they are used as a guide to understand and provide an informed assessment of what happens in community schools. Reference will be made to the set research objectives and questions in chapter one to give an informed evaluation on how well the research questions were addressed. Finally a summary will be given to give highlights on the issues addressed by this chapter.

8.1   Explaining lessons learnt from community schools' experiences: how do community schools target OVCs and provide them with primary education?

Community schools have made great achievements with regard to provision of primary education in Chipulukusu compound. This study revealed that, achievements in community schools were mainly centered on four main areas which included; increased access to education, high completion rates, high learning outcomes as well as benefiting from the services offered by these schools.

8.2   Participation of various stakeholders in participatory debates perspectives

One of the questions to be answered by this study is 'to find out how different stakeholders participate in community schools'. It was discovered that participation of different stakeholders created great opportunities for the OVCs. Of importance to note, is that, partnerships in education delivery are not a new phenomenon. In the developing world it became prominent

during the neoliberal era when national governments were forced to cut spending on public services. In education delivery, participation of various stakeholders became inevitable after the world declaration on EFA in Jomtien in 1990. This is because national governments did not have the capacity to provide education to all deserving children. The advocacy for participation in education delivery is now being strengthened by recognizing UPE as the second MDG to be attained by 2015.

8.2.1 *Participation of various stakeholders and achievement of community schools (what participation does)*

In chapter five, various stakeholders were identified and each of the stakeholders had a significant role to play which contributed positively to the achievement of community schools. The main stakeholders identified included international NGOs and donors, local business communities, local organizations and the government, the local community, PCSC/PTA committees, community school teachers and management as well as the pupils themselves. In terms of specific roles the donors/NGOs supported community schools financially and the government equally released small grants and arranged some training workshops for the teachers. The local community helped in counseling pupils and in identifying the OVCs in the community, while the PCSC/PTA helped in management issues and fundraising ventures.

In participatory debates, Cornwall (2006) reminds us that involvement of people in development is an essential ingredient of getting development interventions and policies right. In fact, participation with its promises of giving the poor a voice and choice is becoming something that no one could oppose. Most studies have observed that projects that involve participation of the people, who are the beneficiaries, have a better chance of succeeding than those which do not involve participation of the intended beneficiaries. Going by Cornwall's remarks, this study observed that participation of various stakeholders in all the three community schools contributed to the success of these schools. For instance at the inception of HoCCS, the local community provided labor and built the first classroom block. The motivation for their active participate came out clearly in (FGD1) in that their children would have an education that was assumed would move them out of vulnerability. Furthermore, community schools are easily accessible as they operate within reach and also parents no longer had to pay school fees because

community schools offer absolutely free education and continued bursaries up to high school level is guaranteed.

Such motivations suggest that the local community in Chipulukusu compound had some level of understanding of the importance of education and this inspired them to start community schools. Most importantly, they believed they needed to do something to help solve the problem of limited access to primary education in their area.

The local participation in community schools in Chipulukusu compound is paying off because it has also encouraged donors and business communities to offer financial support to these schools. The chairman for GHC, one of the sponsors, believes that community initiated projects are a good thing because, the poor benefit and the resources are closely monitored by the sponsors to avoid misuse of such resources. It is important to note that participation of various stakeholders in education delivery is very relevant in a country like Zambia, where access is still a problem, where poverty levels are high coupled with high HIV/AIDS incidences and with a large number of OVCs. All this explains why the Zambian government is encouraging non state actors to provide education to those not reached by the state. In this study, all the three community schools received financial support from non state stakeholders. The external funds helped the community schools to offer extra services to the OVCs such as a meal every day. The community schools managed to deliver all the services because there was pressure from their donors to account for the way in which donor funds were used. This is beneficial in that funds are effectively used to achieve the intended purposes. In addition donors/sponsors also helped in infrastructural development in these schools. The advantage of good infrastructure is that, it creates a conducive environment in which education is successfully delivered. In this way participation is paying off because the children have access to education, can benefit from the other services offered by these schools and have an opportunity to learn in a good environment. Without donors' participation, it would be difficult for community schools to target OVCs in a special way that includes giving them more than just education.

The three community schools also showed some level of efficiency, effectiveness as well as cost effectiveness due to stakeholders' participation. For instance, donors were consistent in releasing funds and the use of unqualified and /or less qualified teachers who are lowery paid

reduced the educational costs of community schools. In addition, the teachers worked extremely hard to produce good results and these results are shown in table 1 above.

I observed that community school teachers never went on full holidays even during normal school holidays and again these teachers stayed longer at work preparing their lessons in advance. Another observation was that of close monitoring of teachers and other workers by the school management. This seems to be part of the reason for such high commitments as well as being answerable to the local community. This is what participation does in that stakeholders feel part of the project due to their involvement at beginning of such projects. Actually the school managers at both HoCCS and MMGCS spearheaded the development of their community schools and they really valued these schools, were very dedicated to their. Such dedication to is very important and it has contributed to producing of good results in community schools. Furthermore, community schools achieved good results with untrained and/or less trained teachers. These teachers represent what may be called '*good learning facilitators'* because they learn as they teach.

A study by DeStefano et al. (2007) on community schools in Zambia, revealed that, where data were available, community school pupils out performed government school pupils in terms of meeting learning outcomes. Their research results suggest that community schools are cost effective, because they have good results with unqualified lowery paid teachers

The findings of this study are actually consistent with Oakley's perceived benefits of participation discussed in the Theory chapter above. This is because I found out that pupils' performance at the end of their primary education was very good and improving as indicated in table1 above. All this was achieved under difficult circumstances such as relying on local unqualified or less qualified teachers. In a way, this suggests that community based education in Chipulukusu compound is both effective, cost-effective and it has increased access to primary education. In addition, the local people appreciated the achievement of community schools as well as the other services which the OVCs had an opportunity to benefit from. Such success could be one of the reasons for an increased demand for community based education. Above all, donors' pressure on community schools to account for the funds which came through to these schools meant that such funds were used in a more transparent manner that benefited the intended beneficiaries. In this way, participatory approach to education delivery yielded great

benefits to the OVCs in Chipulukusu compound. These benefits are outlined in chapter five above and section 8.1 of this chapter. Therefore, the question on what opportunities participation creates has been addressed.

Participation of the PCSC/PTA and community school management was equally beneficial because they took an initiative to approach organizations and source for funds. It was through such moves that GHC started supporting HoCCS, Northrise University and Ndola rotary club helping MMGCS, while Bwana Mkubwa mine partnered with WIPHAN to take care of the OVCs' health issues.

Apart from just seeking help, MMGCS was also selling building blocks to help raise funds for their school. I found this very interesting and I can safely say that; community schools with their innovative ways towards education delivery are showing positive pathways to self reliance. Self reliance is also one of the benefits and ultimate goal of participatory approaches to development. Hence the participatory approach to education delivery adopted by the three community schools resulted into great benefits to the OVCs.

8.2.2   What doesn't participation do?

Participation debates with its promises of giving the voiceless a voice, a choice and power have not been all rosy. According to Hailey (2001), there is a danger that outside facilitators of participation may use their position to override the local decision making process. This study revealed that outside participants especially donors made decisions that were not locally favored. This was reflected in (FGD1) were one of the participants complained that there was no wide consultation to decision making at HoCCS and he emphatically stated that

"We started very well at HoCCS at the inception of the project with wide community consultation. But now we don't know. We only hear that this is what is happening and we are in a dilemma. It's like some interest groups like the Anglican Church want to hijack this school".

In all the three community schools, I discovered that members of the community and management did not have real power and were sometimes confused on what their real role was. The outside funders made decisions, which had to be followed by those on the ground. This is because those on the receiving side were not powerful and they were at the mercy of those with the financial power. The major complaint was that, donors made decisions such as spending

money on feeding the OVCs as a priority without looking into other issues like teachers' welfare. Moreover, the school management or PCSC/PTA committees did not have power to change this. This situation fits very well in Arnstein's ladder of participation presented in chapter three which reminds us of power relations that can hinder good participation. In this case, I can say that community participation in the three community schools was in oscillation between the first and second stage on the ladder of participation. I say so because some community members felt that the current participation was manipulative were the local people did not have real power while the management and sponsors thought there was enough consultation. So the boundaries were not clearly defined. Moreover, this could be the reason why Arnstein holds that this ladder is just a simple model because reality could be much more complicated. Actually, field data seem to suggest that, the current participation being practiced at all the three community schools is some kind of plastic participation due to some of the issues regarding power and control which I have pointed out above. This gives an indication on how complicated participation can be and (Bray, 2000; Cornwall, 2008) hold that such complications are common as participation of different actors is perceived differently by those practicing it and some may have hidden agendas or interests.

Furthermore, the participatory approaches adopted by the three community schools did not bring trust among stakeholders as it were. For instance, the DEBS's sentiments on government's plan to take over all community schools show the extent of mistrust among different stake holders. Such mistrust may also explain why community schools are considered secondary and receiving less financial support from government allocation even though government appreciates their contribution towards education delivery. In my view, it could be that the Zambian government fears competition for donor funds as this could lead to antagonism between the government and community members. Above all, it could be possible that the government want to meet its obligation towards education provision to all its citizens. Being complicated as it were, with no one single answer; the mistrust also prevailed among community members themselves and between the community and school management and their sponsors. In this study, participation approach to education delivery as well as qualitative approach to research inquiry has helped me to get an insight and explain why participation did not give real power to the local people. This according to my analysis is caused by participation of different stakeholders who may have their own agendas for engaging in partnerships. In addition, the existence of mistrust among

stakeholders could have contributed to less financial support from the government and other donors and potential sponsors. In line with this, Pieterse (2010) hold that participation which does not give real power to the stakeholders especially those on the receiving side, may just be an improvement on the top down approach. Going by these sentiments, it suits with what actually prevailed at the three community schools because the local people did not have real power.

8.3   Benefits of community development projects

Community projects are known for their tangible benefits to the intended beneficiaries. All those who participated in this research attested to the fact that children who could be out on the streets had a chance to be in school. This is because community schools which operate locally, closer to the beneficiaries encouraged the OVCs to be interested in education.

Results from (FGD1) revealed that community schools helped to meet the high demand for education in Chipulukusu compound. These schools also enrolled those OVCs who had earlier dropped out of school due to vulnerable conditions like being orphaned by HIV or being exposed to household economic crises. According to Diochan 1997 (cited in Mathie & Cunningham, 2003), community development concept involves collective action at local level where collective action involves identifying problems to develop solutions that creates opportunities for personal fulfillment of the affected people. In view of this, people of Chipulukusu compound, realizing the OVCs' limitations towards accessing primary education started running community schools to improve the situation or solve this problem. Therefore most parents and the children themselves expressed satisfaction towards the development of community schools in Chipulukusu compound.

The research results also showed high levels of commitment from teachers, school management and the community at large. Part of the reason for such commitments is that these stakeholders felt attached to the community and they just wanted to offer their best and give the OVCs a good basic education. Members of the community equally worked hard and were actively involved in management issues and fundraising ventures as well as counseling the children who needed it. Such counseling improved children's attendance and eventually led to good performance. These commitments explain the achievements which good community schools have attained. Since all

this is happening at a local level, therefore, the community development concept perfectly explains the success experienced by the three community schools. These schools could therefore offer education to the OVCs and meet their other needs through the other services they offered. The highlights of such service are discussed below.

8.4 Services offered by community schools

Field findings suggest that all the three community schools adopted a holistic approach to education. I refer to it as holistic because community schools did not just offer education to the OVCs but also attended to their other needs and offered extra services. These services are presented in chapter 5. Since one of the questions to be addressed by this thesis to is to find out the services offered by community schools, this sub section analyses these services to drawn viable lessons.

Explaining the lessons learnt from services offered by community schools

Education, a meal, gifts, continued bursaries to high school level, medical screening, health talks, practical subjects, home visits and counseling were the common services offered by all the three community schools.

These services are very important to the overall well being of a child. For instance, almost all the children in the three community schools come from vulnerable families. Results from pupils' group discussion (GD2), showed clearly that these children did not have enough food to eat in their homes. All the children, thus 100% in (GD2) indicated that they valued the meals they got from their school. In this vein, MoFNP (2006) acknowledges that the OVCs suffer deprivation as they don't have enough to eat and suffer extreme poverty. Supported by such evidence, this thesis proved that a meal offered by the community school meant a lot to the OVCs and all the children, community members and the teachers acknowledged this fact.

The food offered to the children encouraged them to attend school regularly and it helped pupils to concentrate more and this ultimately improved their performance. According to Hossain (2004) the Food for Education (FPF) which gave poor families monthly wheat grains in return for regular school attendance resulted in higher enrolment and completion rates among the poor children in Bangladesh. Therefore, I can say that such moves as serving a meal to the OVCs in

community schools are more than welcome and they seem to be in line with international policies aimed at eradicating illiteracy.

With regard to health issues, studies have shown that health children have a sound mind and are more likely to perform better in school than sick children. UNESCO (2013a) holds the same sentiments and contends that article 24 of the UN Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC) of 1989 recognizes the importance and advantages of child health such as good nutrition, good sanitation and personal hygiene. Furthermore, sound heath is also the main focus of goal number 1 of the EFA goals of 2000. This in my view shows how important good health is in achieving good education outcomes. Therefore, attending to the OVCs' health is part of the reason for the success of community schools. Please see the photo on medical screening at WIPHAN in figure 12; picture (12c).

In addition to this, pupils at WIPHAN community school had an opportunity to be adopted in WIPHAN houses or orphanages if identified as being prone to abuse in their families. This service of adoption protected the OVCs from emotional torture and in a way helped them to have good concentration at school. Researching on children institutionalized at SOS village in Zambia, (Moono, 2006) found out that the OVCs benefited for being at an institution village because out there, many lacked adult care, were homeless and roam the streets and had no access to health or education facilities.

Furthermore, offering practical subjects was another service the OVCs benefited from community schools. Practical subjects like carpentry taught the OVCs life skills which they could use to earn a living if they did not progress further along the ladder of education. Such skills are important to Zambia because she suffers high unemployment levels. For instance, between 70 and 80% of the OVCs who participated in the study indicated that their parents/guardians were unemployed. So life skills education in the Zambian context can be a solution to high unemployment levels. In this way, community schools are also concerned about equipping the OVCs with practical skills that can help them earn a decent livelihood.

Community schools also offer extended sponsorship to the OVCs up to secondary education level. I find this encouraging to pupils because in Zambia, secondary education is quite expensive and some pupils have stopped school at primary level due to lack of resources. In view

of this, I actually found out that two of the teachers at HoCCS were once pupils at HoCCS and benefited from the extended sponsorship offered by HoCCS. This definitely shows the level of community schools' commitment towards reducing vulnerability among the poor populations of Chipulukusu compound. All this is possible because of active participation of various stakeholders. For example, the teacher of carpentry at HoCCS is a local carpenter who came to teach the pupils twice a week on a voluntary basis. This kind of participation from various stakeholders is beneficial in many ways. Without participation and without being committed to local development as in the case of community development concept, all these achievements would be a night mare. The Participatory approach to education has encouraged local people to fill up these spaces for participation and help in whatever small way just for community schools to be successful. Please see the picture on the local carpentry workshop at HoCCS in figure 12; picture (12d) above.

8.5   Explaining perceptions of various stakeholders

Since perceptions on community schools' intervention in Chipulukusu compound is one of the questions to be answered by this thesis, perceptions of different stakeholders are explained below as a way of drawing lessons learnt from the experiences of community schools.

8.5.1   *Positive perceptions in theoretical perspectives*
In chapter six, a number of issues were raised with regard to positive perceptions towards community schools' interventions by different stakeholders. For instance, the OVCs perceived them as good initiatives because they received gifts and a meal every day. In addition, they also boasted about a conducive learning environment, having caring and committed teachers and spending more time at school than their counter parts in government schools. Hence, they rated themselves as better off in community schools. Community school teachers and management, members of the local community and PCSC/PTA, government officials as well as the businessman all raised some positive views.

Positive sentiments suggest that projects initiated by the local community yield a number of benefits mainly due to stakeholders' participation and commitment. For instance, the local community members would from time to time pop up in at these community schools to just be abreast with what was happening. The local community members were ready to provide their

help to community schools when and as necessary. Likewise, the MoE, donors, NGOs and business community continued their support to these community schools in whatever way as shown in chapter five above. The benefits which these community schools enjoyed are in line with what (Oakley, 1991) notes as the benefit of stakeholders' participation in community development projects in the theory chapter above.

Actually, the involvement of different stakeholders in the three community schools improved the way of using the available resources because they managed to deliver education and other services with limited resources. Due to this, the OVCs enjoyed a range of benefits offered in community schools and they perceived these schools positively. In addition, perceiving the community schools' intervention as positive for instance due to gifts, and meals as was the case with the OVCs and members of the local community, just shows the existence of wide spread vulnerability and high poverty levels among the inhabitants of Chipulukusu compound. None the less, the participation of various stakeholders explained the successes of community schools. This is so because each stakeholder uniquely contributed to the operations of these schools. According to Naidoo (2009), community schools are successfully organized because they rely on several stakeholders such as the local communities, NGOs and other providers of external assistance.

8.5.2   *Negative perceptions and theoretical perspectives*
It is important to note that perceptions were mixed as outlined in chapter six above. Serious negative perceptions were expressed by the government officials as well as the chairman for GHC. The teachers' main concern was their poor conditions of service while the local community expressed their mistrust towards other stakeholders like the school management.

The DEDS's negative perception on community schools was very strong and it was the exact opposite of the good side and successes which all the three community school managers talked about. My impression on this simply indicates that it can be hard and difficult to get good answers from government officials. However, it also seem to suggest that the operations of community schools vary greatly in that some are very organized while others are not and others are like a moving pendulum with a combination of good and bad management. This was actually confirmed by the pupils during (GD2) who were aware that other OVCs in other community

schools were not as privileged as they were and speculated that maybe such community schools were experiencing financial difficulties.

Furthermore, the DEBS negative perceptions could also indicate that community schools are not monitored regularly and that management varied from one school to another. I say so because field evidence suggests that the three community schools were very organized and well managed. However, the DEBS negative sentiments could be that the government may have a desire to implement a uniform model towards education delivery. This is because the DEBS was in full support of the government's manifesto of taking over all the community schools. However, I see a danger in such a move towards education delivery in that it would just take Zambia back to state driven control which actually failed to meet the educational demands for all. However, the variations among community schools are true because I observed that in the three community schools, even though all got some external funding, there were a few variations. For example, at HoCCS the committee which comprised of community members and the teachers was called PTA while at MMGCS and WIPHAN the same committee was called PCSC.

Mistrust among and between stakeholders as well as role confusion resulted into negative perceptions especially among the members of the community who participated in (FGD1) as well as the PCSC/PTA in (FGD2). Going by Arnstein's ladder of participation presented in chapter three above, this just confirms the complications and politics of the participatory approach. From the discussions, I actually observed that community members in Chipulukusu compound were not sure whether they had full control and this deeply disappointment them. Such discoveries fit very well with (Arnstein, 1969) sentiments that, in participatory approaches, power of decision making may not be equally distributed because other stakeholders are excluded. This just shows that community schools in Chipulukusu compound have not yet reached the highest level of participation of citizen control and power. This is so because all the three community schools were not independent of outside influence. For instance, spending of donor funds prioritized pupils' needs such as the feeding program at the expense of teachers and other supporting staff conditions of service and the people on the ground had no power to change this.

8.6   Explaining the challenges of community schools

Despite all their achievements, community schools still face serious challenges such as; relying on unqualified and/or less qualified teachers, having limited teaching and learning materials, and inadequate financial resources.

All these are presented in chapter seven above. For example, table 2 reflects the teacher crisis problem in community schools. This together with limited financial resources came out to be the major challenge facing community schools. What I find interesting is that, despite the teacher crisis in community schools, these schools showed steady progress in their final exam results. (Refer to table 1). This in a way tells that, there is much more to producing better results than just having qualified teachers. One of the reasons for these good results could be attributed to the 'sense of community' which is in line with the community development concept. This is because teachers put in their best as they feel part of belonging to the community schools. I also find the management approach in community schools which include participation of various stakeholders as presenting a better model worthy emulating.

Community schools face serious financial problems. For example they only get 30% of government allocation towards basic schools. Thus poor government funding could partly be the reason for inadequate teaching and learning material, inadequate desks and lack of qualified teachers in most community schools. In view of this, (Bray, 2000) argue that, only the most prosperous and well organized communities can run community schools independently. Actually this statement suggests that running an education institution is quite complicated and expensive and left along, poor communities cannot manage unless they have organized partnerships where each contribute in a way that can lead to success of community schools.

Despite all these challenges, the three community schools produced good results and from my field data analysis, I also discovered that the dropout rate was steadily dropping from 15% to 10% to 8% to 6% in 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011 period respectively.

8.7 Summary

This chapter discussed and analyzed the main findings of the study and how they fit in the theoretical underpinnings adopted to explain the findings. The discussion highlighted that community schools' intervention in Chipulukusu compound through a participatory approach to education delivery yielded many benefits. These schools were regarded as institutions which met the primary education needs of the excluded population in Chipulukusu compound. However, full community participation was lacking mainly due to heavy dependence on outside facilitators. Hence, I find all these results to be consistent with the theoretical perspectives of participation and community development concepts under the umbrella of alternative development presented as presented in chapter three above.

CHAPTER NINE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9   Chapter Overview

This chapter gives a summary of the study's main findings showing how the data answered the set questions. The study sought to give an understanding on how OVCs were targeted by community schools specifically by looking at; what services community schools offered to the OVCs, identifying the main stakeholders, their participation and opportunities created for the OVCs. Bringing out perceptions of different stakeholders and discovering the challenges faced by community schools were also questions to be answered. Finally I give my concluding remarks, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

9.1   Summary

The field data for this study sought to explain how community schools were targeting the OVCs in three community schools in Chipulukusu compound. The samples included in this study were drawn from the three community schools, the local community, a local business company, the District and Provincial Education Offices, and the Provincial Youth and Child Development Office. Samples were generally small but had a wide coverage representing most of the stake holders involved in community schools.

I positioned myself within the Alternative Development Theory whose proponents advocate for a bottom up approach to development. In view of this, I used the Participation and Community Development Concepts to guide the analysis for this study.

The analytical approach comprised of the Participation and Community Development concepts which revealed that various stakeholders were participating in the operations of the three community schools. The stakeholders' participation brought positive results associated with bottom up approaches to education delivery. Among the benefits of bottom up approaches were; efficiency, effectiveness and cost effectiveness and innovativeness. Such benefits led to successes which community schools enjoyed like good exam results, capturing the excluded and good learning outcomes. Furthermore, participation of various stakeholders helped community

schools to provide extra services not offered by government schools. Some of the service included a meal, medical services, gifts like pens, books, school bags, shoes, cloths etc, offering practical subjects like carpentry and needlework. Therefore, the OVCs had a unique opportunity to benefit from such services offered by community schools. However, such participation came along with a whole host of problems commonly associated with bottom up approaches to development. There were mistrusts among and between various stakeholders and the local community did not have real power in decisions making. The lack of real power was due to the fact that the three community schools heavily depended on outside funding for them to function smoothly and attain good results and success. This meant that they had to bend to decisions made by those who were more powerful such as donors and/or NGOs who supported them financially. Their major sponsors were both local and international. For instance, HoCI supported HoCCS, WIPHAN international supported WIPHAN community school and Northrise University supported MMGCS.

Furthermore, different stakeholders perceived these schools differently with the people on the ground having more positive perceptions while those who participated from a distance expressed a more balanced view though more inclined towards the negatives with regard to community schools' interventions. This reinforced the mistrust between stakeholders and in view of this, Bray (2000) holds that community managed schools may suffer management crisis due to lack of expertise among the community members running these schools. Going by these sentiments, the DEBS strongly supported government's idea of taking over all the community schools. However, I see a danger in taking over these schools because it may just take us back to the criticized state driven approach to education delivery which could not reach out to all those in need of education. This in a way would also be in conflict with international policies which call for improved partnerships in service provision of which education is one of such services.

Community schools also had a lot of challenges and the most prominent ones were lack of qualified teachers who were also very few. The other serious problem was lack of or inadequate financial resources for smooth operations of these schools. These challenges limited their operation as they could not meet the high demand for community based education in Chipulukusu. They could also not buy all the required teaching and learning materials and teaching depended heavily on the innovativeness of the community school teachers.

The teachers displayed extraordinary dedication to their work and this fits very well in the community development approach in which the stakeholders feel part of the development project and give it the best they can. This is what kept the community schools on track and helped them to compete favorably with well established government schools in terms of examination results. In fact results in this study revealed that community schools have shown a steady improvement in examination results in the recent past. Therefore, the participatory and community development approach to development, explained how community schools targeted the OVCs by involving different stakeholders who uniquely contributed to the success of community schools. Furthermore, Community schools delivered primary education to these children by offering services such as a meal every day which encouraged regular attendance, high completion rates high learning outcomes.

9.2   Conclusions

In conclusion, I would say, this study has significantly contributed to the understanding of how community schools target OVCs through a participatory approach to education delivery. In addition, the qualitative approach to research inquiry allowed me to get rich detailed information on various issues. For instance, during group discussions and interviews, expressions from some participants helped me to get deeper into the analysis and try to extrapolate what that could mean. For example, the DEBS expression on funding like *"If as ministry of education we get money, donor money especially, 30% and I say again 30% go to community schools"*. This expression tells a lot and it could mean the extent of mistrust one has towards those running community schools or that community based education takes a second place etc.

However, the impact of community schools is much appreciated in poorly serviced areas such as Chipulukusu compound. This is because community schools have visible benefits such as increasing access to primary education for the excluded and continued support up to secondary school level. Community schools in this way help in preventing the OVCs from child labor, early marriages, dropping out of school, roaming the streets or engaging in criminal activities.

The high poverty and unemployment levels as well as the impact of HIV in Chipulukusu explain the widespread vulnerability experienced by many local people. If left alone, many children of

the poor would increase to number of illiterate people in Zambia. However, community schools are turning this scenario upside down by offering primary education to the OVCs in this compound. By adopting a participatory approach to education delivery, community schools are offering more than just primary education to these OVCs. Some of the services they offer include; a meal every day, gifts, medical support and continued financial support through secondary school. All these are possible due to the active participation of various stakeholders identified in chapter five above. The Participation and Community Development concepts under the umbrella of Alternative Development helped to explain the success of community schools. As a result of this, most governments as well as the International Community recognize the importance of participation at grassroots level. Community schools benefited greatly from this approach because the intended beneficiaries had an opportunity to education.

Furthermore, the government also felt obliged to support such initiatives and 30% of its budget went towards supporting community schools. In view of this, Rose (2007b) contends that governments in low income countries are the main providers of primary education. Moreover, the school management, PCSC/PTA committees and teachers themselves appreciated government support in whatever small way.

Results from this study also showed that community schools were perceived differently by different stakeholders. For instance, those who benefited directly such as the OVCs, parents/guardians of the children and members of the community had more positive perceptions than negative views. The outside facilitators such as the government officials, sponsors and business community expressed much more balanced views though the DEBS had more negatives than positive views. However, the negative perceptions held by some stakeholders, were overridden by the positive perceptions because community schools showed real benefits like producing good results comparable to those of government schools (refer to table 1 above). Thus, community schools had a significant impact at local, district and national levels. Despite facing a lot of challenges such as shortage of and/or lack of properly qualified teachers and having limited financial, resources community schools still managed to negotiate these challenges and provide an education which was very efficient and effective.

Way forward for community schools

Community schools retain their educational relevance due to their approach which is responsive to real education needs. They are in line with international educational agreements such as the second MDG which advocates for compulsory primary education to all children by 2015. Apart from this, they are catering for the poor vulnerable children affected by adverse economic crisis and the HIV pandemic. In this vein, it is also important to note that poverty has been identified on a global scale as a significant barrier to education for many children which has resulted into 57 million children not having access to education (UNESCO, 2013b). With high poverty levels experienced in Zambia, community schools which offer absolutely free education become very relevant.

Furthermore, Zambia has youthful population and in need of services such as primary education to cater for the young people. Therefore the relevance of community schools is considered important because they have increases access to education. In view of this, the development and operations of community schools in which the educational needs of the OVCs are met should be encouraged and given full support by government, NGOs, civil society, business community as well as well wishers. This is because education is not just a need but a basic human right to be enjoyed by all humans without discrimination of any kind. It is actually incredible to see how many children have come to rely on the community schools in Zambia. Hence, this should be an eye opener to the government to reflect on what is special in these community schools, the opportunities they have given to the OVCs are quite remarkable as discussed in chapter 5 above.

9.3   Recommendations

The findings presented in this study have prompted me to make the following recommendations.

- The government should consider taking over paying of community school teachers' salaries while the management of community schools be left in the hands of non- state stakeholders. This is because community schools have presented a model which is efficient, effective and cost effective.
- Since, this study dealt more on community participation and observed the benefits as well as the short comings of this approach particularly limited finances and untrained teachers, the government should seriously consider giving bursaries to community school teachers

so that they can properly be trained and retain them in community schools as government employees.

▪ The donors/sponsors should try to empower the community schools so that they can become self reliant and this can be done through small scale businesses. It can be businesses like making and selling building blocks as adopted by MMGCS. I think if properly managed such moves can lead to self reliance and citizen empowerment as shown by Arnstein ladder of participation.

▪ There is need for donors/sponsors to improve on the consultation process to open room for wider consultation and include views from as many stakeholders as possible.

▪ The local community should be more concerned on the future of the community schools, and engage in activities that will help them generate their own money than blaming donors, NGOs or government for their financial problems.

9.4   Suggestions for further research

In this study, it became clear that it is impossible to exhaust all aspects of such an important study. I would like to give suggestions here under upon which other scholars can be interested to research further.

▪ Since this study looked at the stakeholders' perceptions, it would be interesting to get views/perceptions on community schools' interventions in Chipulukusu compound from those outside this bracket. Such a study would get views from for example, teachers in government schools and members of the community whose children are not in community schools.

▪ It would also be interesting to explore any differences that might exist between those community schools found in urban areas with those found in rural areas.

REFERENCES

Abebe, T. (2005). Geographical Dimentions of AIDS Orphan hood in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Norwegian Journal of Geography, 59*, 37-47.

Arnstein, S.R. (1969). A Ladder of Citizen Participation. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners, 35*(4), 216-224.

Bøås, M, Jennings, K.M, & Shaw, T.M. (2006). Dealing with Conflicts and Emergency Situations. In V. Desai & R. B. Potter (Eds.), *Doing Development Research* (pp. 70-78). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Bray, M. (2000). Community Partnerships in Education: Dimensions, Variations and Implications. Retrieved 27/03/2013, from UNESCO http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001234/123483e.pdf

Browne, A.W, & Barrett, H.R. (1991). Female Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: the Key to Development? *Comparative Education, 27*(3), 275-285.

Bryson, J.M. (2004). What to do when Stakeholders Matter: Stakeholder Identification and Analysis Techniques. *Public Management Review, 6*(1), 21-53.

Bui, Y.N. (2009). *How to Write a Master Thesis*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc.

Chakufyali, P.N. (2008). Performance of Community Schools in Zambia (pp. 1-26): The Unversity of Zambia.

Chaudhuri, Shubham. (2003). Assessing vulnerability to poverty: concepts, empirical methods and illustrative examples. *Department of Economics Columbia University available at: http://info. worldbank. org/etools/docs/library/97185/Keny_0304/Ke_0304/vulnerabilityassessment. pdf*.

Chavis, D.M, & Wandersman, A. (1990). Sense of Community in the Urban Environment: A Catalyst for Participation and Community Development. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 18*(1), 55-81.

Christians, C.G. (2000). Ethics and Politics in Qualitative Research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd ed., pp. 133-155). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Ltd.

Cooke, B. (2001). The Social Psychological Limits of Participation? In B. Cooke & U. Kothari (Eds.), *Participation: The New Tyranny?* (pp. 102-121). London: Zed Books Ltd.

Coombs, P.H, Prosser, R.C, & Ahmed, M. (1973). *New Paths to Learning for Rural Children and Youths*. New York: International Council for Educational Development.

Cornwall, A. (2006). Historical Perspectives on Participation in Development. *Commonwealth & Comparative Politics, 44*(1), 62-83.

Cornwall, A. (2008). Unpacking 'Participation': Models, Meanings and Practices. *Community Development Journal, 43*(3), 269-283.

Crang, M, & Cook, I. (2007). *Doing Ethnographies*. London: Sage.

CSO. (2009). *Zambia Demographic and Health Survey- 2007*. Lusaka: Government Printers.

CSO. (2011). 2010 Census of Population and Housing Preliminary Report. Lusaka.

Dale, R. (2000). *Organisations and Development: Strategies, Structures and Processes*. New Delhi: Sage Publications Ltd.

De Vaus, D. (2001). *Research design in social research*: Sage Publications Limited.

Denzin, N.K, & Lincoln, Y.S. (2000). The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Reseach* (2nd ed., pp. 1-28). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc.

DeStefano, J, Hartwell, A, Balwanz, D, & Moore, A.S. (2006). Effective Schools for Disadvantaged and Underserved Populations. Retrieved 25/03/2013, from Association for the Development of Education in Africa http://www.adeanet.org/adeaPortal/adea/biennial-2006/doc/document/B5_1_destefano_en.pdf

DeStefano, J, Moore, A.S, Balwanz, D, & Hartwell, A. (2007). *Reaching the Underserved: Complementary Models of Effective Schooling*. Washington, DC: USAID.

Dyer, C. (2002). Mannagement Challenges in Achieving Education for All: South Asian Perapectives In V. Desai & R. B. Potter (Eds.), *The Companion to Development Studies*. London: Hodder Education

Ennew, J, Abebe, T, Bangyai, R, & Noonsup, T (2009). How do we Protect Children? *The Right to be Properly Researched. How to do Rights-based Scientific Research with Children*. Bangkok.

Fonchingong, C.C, & Fonjong, L.N. (2003). The Concept of Self-reliance in Community Development Initiatives in the Cameroon Grassfields. *GeoJournal, 57*, 83-94.

GRZ. (2006). Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development: National Child Policy. Lusaka.

Hailey, J. (2001). Beyond the Formulaic: Process and Practice in South Asian NGOs. In B. Cooke & U. Kothari (Eds.), *Participation: The New Tyranny?* (pp. 88-101). London: Zed Books Ltd.

Hart, Jason. (2008). Business as usual? The global political economy of childhood poverty.

Hartslief, R. (2013). 2011/12, Zambia Review. 12. Retrieved 5th March, 2013, from www.scribd.com/doc/64262081/zambia-review-2011-12

Hay, L. (2010). Ethical Practice in Geographical Research. In N. Clifford, S. French & G. Valentine (Eds.), *Key Methods in Geography* (2nd ed., pp. 35-48). London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Hossain, Naomi. (2004). *Access to education for the poor and girls: educational achievements in Bangladesh.* Paper presented at the Scaling up poverty reduction: a global learning process and conference'held in Shanghai May.

Janesick, V.J. (2000). The Choreography of Qualitative Research Design: Minuets, Improvisations, and Crystallization. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd ed., pp. 379-400). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Inc.

Kelly, M.J. (1999). *The Origins of Education in Zambia: From Pre-colonial Times to 1996*. Lusaka: Image Publishers Ltd.

Kendall, N. (2007). ''Vulnerability'' in AIDS-affected States: Rethinking Child Rights,

Educational Institutions, and Development Paradigms. *International Journal of Educational Development 28*(2008), 365-383.

Kitchin, R, & Tate, N.J. (2000). *Conducting Research in Human Geography: Theory, Methodology & Practice*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Kumar, P, Dennis, A, Guloba, A, Kambole, K, & Tiwari, S. (2012). Zambia, Economic Brief: Recent Economic Developments and the State of Basic Human Opportunities for Children (pp. 1-52). Washington, DC.

Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage Publications, Inc.

Longhurst, R. (2010). Semi-structured Interviews and Focus Groups. In N. Clifford, S. French & G. Valentine (Eds.), *Key Methods in Geography* (2nd ed., pp. 103-115). London: Sage Publishers.

Lund, R. (1994). *Development Concepts in the Light of Recent Regional Political Changes and Environmental Challenges*. NTNU, Trondheim.

Lund, R., & Agyei-Mensah, S. (2008). Queens as Mothers: The Role of the Traditional Safety Net of Care and Support for HIV/AIDS Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Ghana. *GeoJournal, 2008*(71), 93–106.

Mansuri, G, & Rao, V. (2004). Community Based and Driven Development: A Critical Review. *The World Bank Research Observer, 19*(1), 1-39.

Marshall, C, & Rossman, G.B. (1999). *Designing Qualitative Research* (3rd ed.). London: Sage.

Mathie, A, & Cunningham, G. (2003). From Clients to Citizens: Asset-based Community Development as a Strategy for Community-driven Development. *Development in Practice, 13*(5), 474-486.

Meintjes, H, & Giese, S. (2006). Spinning the Epidemics: The Making of Mythologies of Orphanhood in the Context of AIDS. *Childhood, 13*(3), 407-430.

Mikkelsen, B. (1995). *Methods for Development Work and Research. A guide for practitions*. New Dheli: SAGE PUBLICATIONS.

Mikkelsen, B. (2005). *Methods for Development and Research: A New Guide for Practitioners* (2nd ed.). New Delhi: Sage.

Miller-Grandvaux, Y, & Yoder, K (2002). A literature Review of Community Schools in Africa. Washington, DC.

MoE. (1996). *Educating Our Future: National Policy on Education*. Lusaka: Zambia Educational Publishing House.

MoE. (2004). *Free Basic Education Policy Implementation Assessment*. Lusaka: MoE.

MoE. (2005). 2004 Educational Statistical Bulletin. Lusaka.

MoE. (2007). Operational Guidelines for Community Schools. Lusaka.

MoE. (2008). *Primary Education in Zambia*. Lusaka: Hague.

MoE. (2012). *Ndola District Educational Statistics Data*. Ministry of Education. Ndola.

MoFNP. (2006). Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010). Lusaka.

Moono, M.M. (2006). *A Study of How the Lusaka SOS Children's Home Rebuilds the Orphans and Vulnerable Children's Lives and Capabilities.* (Master of Philosophy in Development Studies), Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Trondheim.

Mundy, K. (2008). From NGOs to CSOs: Social Citizenship, Civil Society and "Education for All" - An Agenda for Further Research. *Comparative Education 10*(1/2), 32-40.

Mweene, C. (2006). *An Assessement of Community Participation and Empowerment through Non Governmental Organisation's Development Work Among the Rural Poor: The Case of World Vision's Intervention in the Gwembe Valley, Zambia.* NTNU, Trondheim.

Naidoo, J.P. (2009). Community Schools and Education For All. Retrieved 28/03/2012 http://www.cedol.org/wp-content/uploads/2012/02/71-74-20091.pdf

Namphande, P.N.W. (2007). *Choice or Deprivation? Primary School Drop outs in Malawi: The Case of Kasungu District.* NTNU, Trondheim.

NCC. (2010). City of Ndola 2009 Squatter Settlement Baseline Survey. Ndola.

Nishimuko, M. (2009). The Role of Non-governmental Organisations and Faith-based Organisations in Achieving Education for All: The Case of Sierra Leone *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 39*(2), 281-295.

O'Neill, W.G. (1999). A Humanitarian Practitioer's Guide to International Human Rights Law *Ocassinal Papers*. RI: Institute for International Studies.

Oakley, P. (1991). *Projects with People: The Practice of Participation in Rural Development*. Geneva: ILO.

Parnwell, M.J.G. (2008). Agropolitan and Bottom-up Development. In V. Desai & R. B. Potter (Eds.), *The Companion to Development Studies* (2nd ed., pp. 111- 114). London: Hodder Education.

Phillips, R, Freeman, R.E, & Wicks, A.C. (2003). What Stakeholder Theory is not. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 13*(4), 479-502.

Pieterse, J.N. (2010). *Development Theory*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Post, J.E, Preston, L.E, & Sachs, S. (2002). Managing the Extended Enterprise: The New Stakeholder View. *California Management Review, 45*(1), 6-28.

Robson, S, & Sylvester, K.B. (2007). Orphaned and Vulnerable Children in Zambia: The Impact of HIV/AIDS on Basic Education for Children at Risk. *Educational Research, 49*(3), 259-272.

Roodt, M. (2001). Participation, Civil Society, and Developmet. In J. K. Coetzee, J. Graaff, F. Hendricks & G. Wood (Eds.), *Development: Theory, Policy and Practice* (pp. 469-482). Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Rose, P. (2007a). NGO Provision of Basic Education: Alternative or Complementary Service Delivery to Support Access to the Excluded *Create Pathways to Access* (Vol. 3, pp. 1-41). Brighton: University of Sussex.

Rose, P. (2007b). Supporting Non-state Providers in Basic Education Service Delivery *Create Pathways to Access* (Vol. 4, pp. 1-61). Brighton: University of Sussex.

Smith, S. (2001). Doing Qualitative Research: from interpretation to action. In M. Limb & C. Dwyer (Eds.), *Qualitative Methodologies for Geographers: Issues and Debates* (pp. 23-40). London: Arnold.

Takanayagi, T. (2010). Orphans and Vulnerable Children's View to Education in an Urban Slum of Zambia.

UNAIDS. (2002). Report on Global HIV/AIDS Epidemic. Geneva.

UNAIDS. (2012). Regional Fact Sheet 2012, Sub-Saharan Africa.   Retrieved 6th March, 2013, from http://www.unaids.org/en/media/unaids/contentassets/documents/epidemiology/2012/gr2012/2012_FS_regional_ssa_en.pdf

UNDP. (2011a). Zambia: Millennium Development Goals Progress Report 2011. In C. H. Buus (Ed.), *Millennium Development Goals* (pp. 1-59). Lusaka.

UNDP. (2011b). Zambia Human Development Progress Report: Service Delivery for Sustainable Human Development. In G. Luchsinger (Ed.), (pp. 1-127). Lusaka.

UNESCO. (2007). Education for All by 2015: Will we make it? *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* (pp. 1- 39). Paris.

UNESCO. (2013a). Toward Universal Learning: What Every Child Should Learn *Universal Education* (Vol. 1, pp. 1-101). Washington, DC.

UNESCO. (2013b). Education for All: Policy Paper *Education for All Global Monitoring Report* (Vol. 09, pp. 1-9).

Valentine, G. (2001). At the Drawing Board: Developing a Research Design. In M. Limb & C. Dwyer (Eds.), *Qualitative Methodologies for Geograhers: Issues and Debates* (pp. 41-54). London: Arnold Publishers.

Wandersman, A, & Florin, P. (1990). An Introduction to Citizen Participation, Voluntary Organisations and Community Development: Insights for Empowerment Through Research. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 18*(1), 41-52.

WCEFA. (1990). *World Declaration on Education For All*. New York: Inter-Agency Commission.

White, P. (2010). Making use of secondary data. In N. Clifford, S. French & G. Valentine (Eds.), *Key Methods in Geography* (2nd ed., pp. 61-76). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Wood, F. (2007). Community Schools: The Solution to Local Needs. In D. Glassman, J. Naidoo & F. Wood (Eds.), *Community Schools in Africa* (pp. 1-8). New York: Springer.

World Bank. (2013). Retrieved 10th March, 2013, from http://data.worldbank.org/about/millennium-development-goals

Yin, K.Y. (2011). *Qualitative Research from Start to Finish*. New York: Guilfold Press.

Zachariah, M. (1985). Lumps of Clay and Growing Plants: Dominant Metaphors of the Role of Education in the Third World, 1950- 1980. *Comparative Education Review, 29*(1), 1-21.

APPENDICES

Interview guide for key informants (government officials)

Introductory Remarks: the researcher introduces herself and the purpose of the interview

1. What is the history of community schools in Zambia and why community schools in urban slum areas?
2. What is the percentage of primary school enrolment catered for by community schools in this district?
3. What services do community schools offer?
4. Do community schools meet the required minimum standards set by the ministry of education? If yes, please explain how, if no, please explain why.
5. What kind of collaboration exists between the ministry of education and the providers of community based education
6. Are there policies that guide such collaboration? If yes, please specify
7. Are there gaps in such policies and if so, how have they hindered the way in which community schools provide education to children in urban slum areas?
8. Please elaborate on how these gaps/challenges are being addressed by different stakeholders and the role your ministry plays?
9. What kind of change would you like to see with regard to the way in which community schools provide education to the OVCs in urban slum areas and whose responsibility should this be?
10. To what extent is your ministry involved in the operations of these schools and how has this participation impacted on the community schools' aim of targeting the OVCs in underserved areas?
11. What is your general view on community schools' involvement in the provision of basic education, especially to OVCs?
12. Are there any complaints you receive from these community schools? If yes please specify what kind of complaints you get.

13. Are community schools worthy targeting as education development strategies?

14. If yes, Please explain further on your response to the question above and if no, please explain why.

15. Could you please comment on any other issues that may be important to this topic?

Concluding Remarks: the researcher conveys her many thanks to the interviewee

<u>Interview guide for key informants (community school managers)</u>

Introductory Remarks: the researcher introduces herself and the purpose of the interview

1. What is the history of this community school?

2. What were the motivational factors that led to the establishment of this school in this area and why?

3. What services does this community school offer to OVCs which may not be found in other schools especially in public schools?

4. How many pupils do you have in your school?

5. What percentage of these pupils are OVCs?

6. How do you conceptualize OVCs?

7. How many members of staff do you have and what are their qualifications?

8. Please comment whether this academic characteristics of the members of staff has an impact on the way basic education knowledge is delivered to the children in your school.

9. Who are the main actors and what are their roles?

10. To what extent has this participation of various actors affected the way in which this school meets the educational needs of OVCs?

11. What kind of collaboration exists between this school and different government ministries interested in children?

12. To what extent has this collaboration impacted on the operations of your school?

13. Is your performance as a school in line with what the ministry of education considers successful performance? Please explain further

14. If yes outline the factors/strategies employed by this community school which have contributed to its success.

15. Specify the help your school receives from different stakeholders and explain how such help has impacted on the operations of this school.

16. How do you compare your school to other community and public schools in this area? Is it better or not? Please elaborate further on your ratings explaining how it is better or why it is not.

17. What challenges does this school face and how do you address such challenges?

18. What alternatives can you identify and how would they be implemented?

19. What has been the trend with regard to educational access, completion rates and pass rates in the past five years?

20. Do you think community schools can be useful models for education development strategies? Please explain further on the answer you have given

21. Please comment on any general issues that you feel are important to this discussion

Concluding Remarks: the researcher conveys her many thanks to the interviewee

Interview guide for the pupils

Instructions: please answer the first 4 questions on individual papers which you have been given and the rest of the questions should be answered as a group.

1. Who is the head of your household and are they in employment?
2. If not employed, what do they do to earn a living?
3. How many are you in your home?
4. Do you have enough food to eat at home?

The following questions must be discussed in a group

5. What do you like about this community school?
6. What problems do you experience in this school
7. Are you better than other schools in this area?
8. If yes, please give ways in which you are better
9. If not please explain in what ways you are disadvantaged?
10. What will you be doing if you were not enrolled in this school?
11. What are your future plans?

Introductory Remarks: the researcher introduces herself and the purpose of the interview

1. What is your main role in community schools?
2. What motivated you to get involved in helping Hands of compassion community school?
3. What is your comment on partnerships in education delivery?
4. How do you perceive community schools' interventions in education delivery?
5. Please comment on any general issues you think are important to this discussion

Closing remarks: the research expresses her gratitude to the interviewee

Focus group discussion with selected members of the local community and community leaders.

Stage 1

Ask participants to introduce themselves specifying their age, whether they were involved at the inception of the school project, if their children have received community based education or whether their children are currently enrolled at the community school. After introductions, participants will be divided into two smaller groups.

Stage 2

Ask groups to discuss at least five important reasons which motivated them to start a community school and how they were involved at the inception of the project. Ask the groups to further discuss the ways in which the school is targeting the OVCs in the local area.

After the discussions, members will be asked to join in a bigger group and priorities three motivating factors and three ways in which their school meets the education needs of the children.

Stage 3

Ask participants to discuss the specific roles they now play as partners in the operations of this school. They should discuss further the ways in which their roles have contributed to the way in which their community school meet the education needs of the children.

After the group discussions, ask participants to reunite in a bigger group and make presentations and prioritize the answers from the discussions.

Stage 4

Ask participant to again discuss in small groups how this school has changed the face of the community. They should also discuss on how they think community based education can reduce vulnerability among the OVCs.

Stage 5

After the fourth session, participants are asked to outline the difficulties the school faces, how they manage to deal with them. Ask members to discuss their perceptions of community schools' intervention in Chipulukusu.

Summary

After the discussions, the main points raised in the discussions were presented to the group to confirm that it is a true representation of what was discussed and members were asked to comment further on any issues they felt was important.

Group discussion with community school's members of staff

Stage 1

Introductions by all the participants specifying when they joined the school, the grades they teach and the qualifications they hold.

Stage 2

a. Divide the members of staff into smaller groups and ask members to discuss how they organize themselves and teach in a community

b. Ask the members to discuss ways in which their school is different from other community and public schools.

c. Ask the group to assess if they are better off than other schools and if yes, let them discuss further on how they are better and they should list some of the things the other schools lack. If no, they should explain why

Ask the members to merge into a bigger group and make presentations of their discussions

Stage 3

Ask members to divide into smaller groups again and ask them to list four opportunities which children have in community school.

Allow the members to merge and make presentations

Stage 4

a. Ask members to discuss on the major challenges they face and ask them to further discuss on how they have managed to still operate even amidst such challenges.

b. Ask members to also discuss on how best such challenges can be addressed by different stakeholders

c. Ask members to comment on the state of the quality of physical school infrastructure and the general learning environment and how they compare it to other community and public schools in the area?

Summary

After merging into a bigger group summary of the findings are presented.

Group discussion with members of the PCSC/PTA executive committee

Stage 1

Ask members to introduce themselves and the role they play in the committee

Stage 2

Discuss the role of this committee in the schools operations.

Discuss the kind of collaboration that exists between this committee, the school management and the ministry of education.

Stage 3

Discuss how the development of this school has affected children's attitude towards education and their future plans

Discuss the general challenges faced by this community school and how such challenges are addressed and what the committee suggests should be done in order to improve the situation?

Researcher's Observation

The researcher carried out physical observation of the general environment, how the pupils interact with the teachers and amongst themselves. Observing the extent to which the community was involved in the school programs.

The researcher observed how classes progressed.