

**DECENTRALISATION AND QUALITY EDUCATION IN SELECTED COMMUNITY
SCHOOLS IN MUFULIRA AND KITWE DISTRICTS ON THE COPPER-BELT
PROVINCE OF ZAMBIA**

BY

DOMINIC YUMBA

**A thesis submitted to the University of Zambia in fulfillment for the requirement for the
award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Sociology of Education**

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

LUSAKA

2021

Copyright of Declaration

All rights reserved. No part of this thesis may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without prior written permission of the author or the University of Zambia.

© 2021 Dominic Yumba

Declaration

I, **Dominic Yumba**, do hereby declare that this thesis titled Decentralisation and Quality Education in selected Community Schools in Mufulira and Kitwe Districts, on the Copper-belt Province of Zambia is my original work and that the sources of all material referred to have been specifically acknowledged and that it has not been submitted to any institution for any academic purpose.

Signature:.....Date:.....

Certificate of approval

This thesis by Dominic Yumba is approved as fulfilling the requirement for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Sociology of Education by the University of Zambia.

Name Examiner 1.....Signature.....Date:.....

Name Examiner 2.....Signature.....Date.....

Name Examiner 3.....Signature.....Date.....

Chairperson/Board of

Examiners.....Signature.....Date.....

Supervisor.....signature.....Date.....

Co-Supervisor.....Signature.....Date.....

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my father Mr. Moses David Yumba and to my late mother Theresa Shamboko -Yumba who passed away in January 1997, to my late brother and sisters, Clifford Noble Yumba, Joyce Yumba, Harriet Yumba and Priscilla Yumba, to my wife Jennifer and to my lovely children Ndalumba, Bupe Dominic and Purity Hope.

Abstract

The study set out to investigate Decentralisation and Quality Education in Community schools in Mufulira and Kitwe Districts using Right-Based Approach to education; and School-Family-Community Partnership Model by Joyce Epstein. A descriptive survey approach was used in this research and the sample comprised of 45 community schools drawn from Mufulira and Kitwe districts, 45 head teachers, 100 teachers, 45 Parents Community School Community Committee, two DEBS (Mufulira and Kitwe), three officials from Non-Governmental Organisations, namely Zambia Open Community Schools, the Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance, and United States Aid Time To Learn project. The total sample was 195 participants. The statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was engaged to analyze quantitative data. Data were collected through questionnaires, interview guides, focused group discussions, observations and document analysis of literature and institutional records. The findings of the study showed that there were three types of curriculum used in community schools namely, the Zambian curriculum of 2000, the skills, participation, Access to Relevant Knowledge curriculum of 1996, and the Revised Curriculum of 2013. The majority of the teachers, that is 89 percent, indicated that they used revised curriculum of 2013. An examination of the Grade 7 results from community school examination centres, for the period 2014 to 2017, showed that the performance of pupils between those in the studied school and the government schools were similar. The findings showed that resource mobilisation in community schools was a big challenge because community schools were non-profit making organisations. Resources were mobilised mainly from the following: school fees; donations from cooperating partners especially the United States Agency for International Development and The Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance; community contributions; school fundraising ventures and the government. The structure for resource mobilisation and utilisation was the Parents Community School committees. Community schools were monitored and evaluated by Resource Coordinators and senior teachers of nearby schools. Out of 45 schools, the District Education Standards Officers monitored only twelve schools. The study showed that community schools enjoyed some opportunities in the training of teachers in form of short pedagogical courses organised by NGOs and cooperating partners through the government. This study found out that community school pupils enjoyed the flexibility offered by these schools in terms of payment of schools fees, and school uniform policy. Administrative challenges the schools faced were inadequate finances, inadequate infrastructure and learning and teaching materials, and lack of trained teachers. In conclusion, community schools are organized and managed by Parents Community School Committees thereby affording the school managers an opportunity to innovate on activities responsive to their needs. Monitoring of community schools though crucial to ensuring quality education was carried out by non-monitoring and evaluation specialists.

Acknowledgement

Primarily, I thank the Ministry of General Education for facilitating my studies with the University of Zambia. I am greatly indebted to Dr. Emmy Mbozi and Dr. Kalisto Kalimaposo for their patience, encouragement and guidance. I am sincerely grateful to them, for feedback and guidance they provided. I would like to thank the Principal, Mr Malizani Tembo, and members of staff at Mansa College of Education for the encouragement and support I received from them. I also thank the head teachers and teachers of community schools for providing me with information used in this research. I acknowledge all those who assisted me in one way or another during my data collection. I would like to thank Ms. Romanzi Soloka and Ms. Givens Soloka who helped during data collection. I also thank the District Education Board Secretaries of Mufulira and Kitwe Districts for facilitating my data collection during my research.

In the same regard, I would also like to recognize the support of the following people whose contribution was important in the development of this Thesis; Mr. James Chishimbe, Mr. Isaac Chilinda, Mr. Hector Swazi, Dr. Plyson Muzumara, Dr. Madalitso Khuripirika Banja, Dr. Peggy Mwanza, Ms. Charity Mulenga, Mr. Susiku, Mr. Sidney Kauseni, Dr. Richard Hickman, Dr. Grace Chikombola-Chilekwa, Dr. Brenda Haamonga, Mr. Cricket Mbembetu, Mr. Robert Soloka, Ms. Lois Yasini, Mrs. Annie Yasini Banda, Mr. Mooka Mukelebai, Rev. Steven Malesu, Pastor Kelvin Mulofwa, Mr. Fred Chishimba and Mrs. Grace N. Nambula-Changala. I also thank my brothers and sisters Alex, Baxter, Charity and Prudence for their encouragement and support.

Lastly, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my family and friends, without whom I would not have made it through. My special thanks to Jennifer, my wife and to our lovely children, Ndalumba Faith, Bupe Dominic and Purity Hope whose love, support and patience were essential ingredients to the accomplishment of this work.

Above all, I thank God, my loving Father for being gracious to me and making it possible for me to complete my course successfully. May His Holy name be praised forever and ever.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

BESO	Basic Education System Overhaul
CAP	Centre d' Administration Pedagogique
CEPD	Certificate de etudes du premier degre'
CPD	Comites de parents d' eleves NGO-Non-Governmental Organization
DGPE	Diretion generale dela planification de l' education
EDIL	Ecole d'initiative locate (Schools through the initiative of parents)
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
MoGE	Ministry of General Education
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VVOB	The Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance
WOE	Woreda (Local Administrative Unit) Education Office (Ethiopia)
ZOCS	Zambia Open Community Schools

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Copyright of Declaration	i
Declaration	ii
Certificate of approval	iii
Dedication	iv
Abstract	v
Acknowledgement	vi
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms	vii
List of Tables	xiv
List of Figures	xv
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Overview	1
1.2 Background of the study	1
1.2.1 Advantages of decentralisation are as follows:	5
1.2.2 Disadvantages of decentralisation	6
1.3 Statement of the problem	10
1.4 Purpose of the study	11
1.5 The main objective of the study	11
1.6 The objectives of the Study	11
1.7 Research questions	12
1.8 Significance of the study	12
1.9 Definition of terms	13
1.10 Summary	15
CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	16
2.1 Overview	16
2.2 Theoretical framework	16
2.2.1 Rights-based approach	17
2.2.2 Epstein's framework	21
2.2.2.1 Spheres	22

2.3.1 Cooperation	26
2.4 Summary	27
CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW	28
3.1 Overview	28
3.2 The concept of decentralisation	28
3.2.1 Deconcentration	29
3.2.2 Devolution	30
3. 2.3 Delegation.....	31
3.2.4. Privatisation	32
3.2.5 Decentralisation of education in selected countries	32
3.2.5.2 Kenya.....	33
3.2.5.4 South Africa	34
3.2.5.6 Malawi.....	36
3.2.5.7 Tanzania.....	36
3.2.5.7 Decentralisation in education in Zambia	37
3.3 Decentralisation and Quality Education.....	41
3.4 Decentralisation of education and community schools.....	44
3.5 Education in Zambia as it relates to the community.....	46
3.6 Quality education main policies, objectives and strategies of education in Zambia.	50
3.7 Community schools in Zambia.....	52
3.8 Curriculum in community schools.....	57
3.8.1 Resources in community schools.....	58
3.8.2 Performance of learners in community schools.....	59
3.8.3 Challenges in community schools	60
3.8.4 Monitoring and evaluation	61
3.9 Community schools in Africa.....	61
3.10 Summary.....	67
CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY	68
4.1 Overview	68
4.2 Research paradigm.....	68

4.3 Post-positivism	68
4.4 Ontology	69
4.5 Epistemology	70
4.6 Research design	71
4.7 Target population	72
4.8 Sample	72
4.9 Sampling procedures.....	73
4.10 Data collection techniques.....	74
4.11 In-depth interview	75
4.12 Semi-structured interviews	75
4.13 Questionnaires	77
4.14 Focus group discussions	78
4.15 Documents analysis.....	79
4.16 Data analysis.	79
4.17 Reliability of instruments.	80
4.18 Delimitation	80
4.19 Limitation of the study	80
4.20 Piloting of data collection instruments.....	81
4.21 Ethical issues	81
4.22 Summary.....	82
CHAPTER FIVE: PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS	83
5.1 Overview	83
5.1.1 Biographical data of respondents.....	83
There were 195 participants who participated in the study, 108 males and 87 females.....	83
5.2 The nature of curricula used in community schools	84
5.2.1 Formulation of the revised curriculum.....	85
5.2.2 The Revised Curriculum	86
5.2.3 Prominent changes in the Revised Curriculum of 2013.....	86
5.2.4 The focus of the Revised Curriculum.	89
5.2.5 Main Focus Areas	90

5.2.6 Strengths and weaknesses of revised curriculum	90
5.2.7 Weaknesses of the revised curriculum	92
5.2.8 Summary on the nature of curricula.....	94
5.3 Performance of community school pupils in national examination	94
5.3.1 Performance due to commitment to by community school teachers	101
5.3.2 Summary on performance of pupils in community schools.	103
5.3.4 Resource mobilisation	103
5.3.5 Policy on resource mobilisation.....	105
5.3.6 Forms of Resources.....	105
5.3.7 Class teachers’ responses on resource mobilisation	105
5.3.8 Sources of resources.....	106
5.3.9 Government support.....	107
5.3.10 Summary on resource mobilisation.....	110
5.4.1 Monitoring of community schools	110
5.4.3 Centralised monitoring by Ministry of General Education	111
5.4.5 Monitoring team (Standards Officers)	115
5.4.6 Instrument used in monitoring	115
5.4.6 Teachers not satisfied with the frequency of visits of Standards Officers	116
5.4.7 Decentralised monitoring	117
5.4.8 Summary on monitoring.....	119
5.5.1 Administrative challenges	120
5.5.2 Opportunities experienced by Community Schools.....	120
5.5.3 Challenges	120
5.5.4 Class teachers’ responses on books found in the libraries	123
5.5.5 Opportunities enjoyed by community schools	124
5.5.6 Decentralisation	125
5.6.8 Summary.....	128
CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS	129
6.1 Overview	129
6.2 The Curricula in community schools	129

6.2.1 Decentralisation of community schools	131
6.3 Performance of Community School Pupils in national examinations.	133
6.4 Resource mobilisation and utilisation for community schools.....	136
6.4.1 Non-Governmental Organisational Support.....	137
6.4.2 The Ministry of Education.....	141
6.5 Monitoring in community schools	141
6.5.1 Teacher competency.....	144
6.6 Administrative challenges faced in community schools.	146
6.6.1. Language limitations	146
6.6.2 Limited Financial Resources	147
6.6.3 Inconsistence in the reopening and closing dates	148
6.6.4 Lack of qualified staff.	148
6.6.5 Lack of Uniformity	149
6.6.6 Insecurity	150
6.6.7 Opportunities	151
6.6.8 Participating in School Activities	151
6.6.9 Pedagogical.....	152
6.6.10 Partnership	153
6.6.11 Continuing Professional Development.....	154
6.6.12 Decentralisation and Right-Based Approach.....	155
6.6.13 Quality Education and Right-Based Approach.....	157
6.6.14 Theoretical Implications.	157
6.6.15 Right Based Approach.....	158
6.6.16 Joyce Epstein's School-Family-Community Partnership Model	159
6.6.17 Summary.....	160
CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	162
7.1 Overview	162
7.2. Summary of study	162
7.2 Conclusions	164
7.3 Recommendations	166

7.4 Suggestions for future research.....	167
References:	168
Appendix A: Interview Guide for Parents.	178
Appendix B: Interview Guide for District Education Board Secretary.	179
Appendix C: Interview Guide: Non-Governmental Organization.	180
Appendix D: Interview guide for Head teachers or Deputy Head teachers.	181
Appendix E: Questionnaire: Class Teacher	183
Appendix F: Questionnaire: Head Teachers or Deputy Head Teachers.	186
Appendix G: Community School Monitoring Instrument	190
Appendix H: The Respondents Consent to Participate in the Study.	196
Appendix I: Child Protection Checklist	197
Appendix J: Monitoring Instrument for Implementation of HIV and AIDS, Life Skills and Sexuality Activities in Institutions	204
Appendix K: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017	212
Appendix L: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.....	213
Appendix. M: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.....	214
Appendix N: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.	215
Appendix O: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.	216
Appendix P: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016 and 2017	217
Appendix Q: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016 and 2017	218
Appendix R: Bio data of Respondents and Responses	219
Appendix S. Revised Curriculum Early Education	223
Appendix T: Revised Curriculum (ECCDE)	224

List of Tables

Table 1.1	Community Schools.....	9
Table 2.1	Right Based Approach to Education.....	21
Table 5.1	Biographical data of respondents.....	84
Table 5.2	Core Learning Areas are subjects.....	89
Table 5.3	Views of Head teachers on strength and weaknesses.....	92
Table 5.4	Responses from Head teachers.....	93
Table 5.5	Kawama West Community School.....	94
Table 5.6	Luansobe West Community School.....	95
Table 5.7	Murundu Community School.....	96
Table 5.8	Gasto Community School.....	97
Table 5.9	Head Teachers' responses on pupils performance.....	101
Table 5.10	Teachers' responses on pupils performance.....	102
Table 5.11	Frequency of Monitoring in the selected schools.....	113
Table 5.12	Head teachers' responses on Standard officers' monitoring.....	114
Table 5.13	Indicates frequency of comments from supervisor.....	118
Table 5.12	Teachers responses on some challenges.....	121

List of Figures

Figure 2.1	Family – School – Partnership – Community.....	25
Figure 3.1	Different forms and option levels of decentralization in education.....	39
Figure 5.1	Responses on Curriculum.....	85
Figure 5.2	Teachers’ responses on formulation of the revised curriculum.....	86
Figure 5.3	Grade 7 Performance of 2014 according to school type.....	98
Figure 5.4	Head teachers’ responses on performance of Community Schools.....	99
Figure 5.5	Head teachers’ responses on ways of raising resources.....	108
Figure 5.6	Suggestions for resolving resource deficit in schools.....	119
Figure 5.7	Class teacher’ responses on visitation of standards officer.....	116
Figure 5.8	Class teachers’ responses on the number of times they were observed...	118
Figure 5.9	Head teachers’ responses on Continuing Professional Development.....	120
Figure 5.10	Indicates kinds of books found in the Libraries.....	123

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

The main concern of this study was decentralisation and quality education in community schools on the Copper-belt Province. This chapter is organised in six sub-sections comprising the following elements namely; introduction (background of the study, statement of the problem, general objective, specific objectives, research questions, significance of the study).

1.2 Background of the study.

When Zambia became independent from Britain in 1964, one of its main objectives was to develop its educational system. The high demand for education resulted in the construction of many primary and secondary schools in all districts. In 1964, the government took over most of the schools that were run by missionaries and other stakeholders (NGOs, Individuals and Business houses) and introduced a centralised and free education system under the Ministry of Education. One of the reasons, which prompted the government to take over some of these schools, was that it wanted to promote equality of education opportunity for all, and without regard to racial, tribal, or religious inclinations (Kelly, 1999). Before independence there were two educational systems running side by side based on racial lines that were the European Education and the African Education (Kelly, 1999).

Before Zambia's independence in 1964, there was no equality of education opportunity in the country. European education was more efficiently organised and more adequately catered for with funds during the Colonial Government's control of the territory. Rigid separation of the races in education was enforced. There were separate schools for Africans, separate schools for Asians and Coloureds, and segregated schools for Europeans (Mwanakatwe, 2013). The African and the non-African systems of education were quite separate and there was little or no communication between them. Non-

African education and all higher education were not the direct responsibility of the Northern Rhodesia Government in the pre-federation days (Kelly, 1999).

The main aim for this separation was that the two systems, although having the same long-term educational aims, started from widely different points and as a result, they greatly varied in the speed and practicability of achieving their objectives. Kelly (1999:83) notes that:

From the start, the objectives of the European system were quite clear. Through its school organisation, syllabus, language and social practice was charged with preparing its pupils for more highly developed, competitive and sophisticated society found in European countries. As the European population was comparatively small - in 1953, for example, when the federation was established, there were some 53,000 Europeans in the Northern Rhodesia compared with some 2,660,000 Africans - the size of the problem was not large and, as a result, it was possible to maintain a system of compulsory education between the ages of 7 and 15 years...

For the Europeans it was possible to sustain a system of compulsory education for the learners between the ages of 7 and 15 years, to make available high standards of school infrastructure and equipment; to supply specialist services, medical as well as educational; at the same time be able to obtain the finances necessary to maintain and to increase these facilities in accordance with the growth of population (Kelly, 1999). Objectives of the African system of education although anchored on similar educational philosophy as of that of the Europeans, were always hampered in their practical achievement by the size of the problem. From the time Zambia attained its independence the policy of succeeding governments has remained the same and the long-term aims were frequently repeated as being:

- i. to avail facilities to many people as resources permit until there is a system of universal primary education for every child.
- ii. to avail resources for secondary and tertiary education having regard to finances available, the supply of candidates fitted by character, personality and ability to profit by them, and the territory's needs and power of absorption, that is increasing the number of qualified Africans

to play a full administrative and public services, in commerce and industry and generally in public life.

- iii. to make available adult education courses intended for adults who wish to carry on with their education especially women and to encourage the production and wide distribution of appropriate books for those made literate by education (Kelly, 1999).

Nevertheless, the promptness with which these objectives could be achieved was unavoidably governed by political and economic factors. Earlier yearly reports and investigations had documented the measure of success, which had been achieved in attaining them, and although the quantity and quality of primary education provided since 1925 favourably equalled with those of other African countries. When Zambia was declared as an independent state, it had a local human resource of only about one hundred African university graduates and less than a thousand African holders of full secondary School Certificate (Kelly, 1999).

The key tasks Zambia had during 1964 were to integrate the different systems of education offered in the country; to promote unity among learners without necessarily requiring a practice of uniformity; to assure equality of educational prospect for all children; to avail such chances rapidly at all stages to meet the needs of the nation for educated and trained men and women; and, in the process, to maintain, extend and improve existing education standards (Kelly, 1999). During the mid-1970s the Zambian government started experiencing financial difficulties in the running of education (Mwanakatwe 1974). As a result, the government decided to decentralise the running of education in Zambia because the government had failed to provide decent education in terms of quantity and quality that the citizens of the country wanted.

This was a period that the Zambian economy started declining because of a major slump (fall) in the price of copper on the world market. Zambia depended mainly on the copper exports to finance major projects and education. Carmody (2009:36) reflected:

The fall in revenue from copper coincided with the rising oil prices that resulted from the oil war of that same year. The over dependence on copper exports had remained as part of the legacy of colonialism. The decline in the revenue also happened at a time when expansionist policies of previous era had resulted in major on-going financial commitments.

Due to these financial constraints, the government of Zambia was prompted to restoring partnerships in the educational provision. It came up with a policy in education to establish new and revitalised partnerships involving all providers of education and all levels: Partnership between the Ministry of Education and non – governmental organisations, private sector, local communities, religious groups, families and individuals (MESVTEE, 1996). In the words of Carmody (2009:59);

Partnership is clearly not a new idea; partnership had been part of the educational system from 1924. It had involved central and local government agencies, missionaries and private sector. However, it had been somewhat in the post – independence developments. In any event, community participation came to be not only recognised but positively encouraged and it was also not that this would not simply be emergency stop-gap strategy but a preferred option.

This resulted in four main providers of education to come on board, the government, independent for profit (Private Schools), grants aided schools and Community schools.

As earlier stated, the government of Zambia started considering decentralisation in 1964 the time it became independent from Britain. This resulted into the formulation of the National Decentralisation Policy in 2002 and the development of a Decentralisation Implementation Plan in 2009. Decentralisation in Zambian context refers to the devolution of power from the central government to the local level in districts up to the school (NDP, 2002). By decentralising to the local and school levels, many of the procedures which are found in the bureaucratic system which impede efficiency in the educational system will be eliminated (MESVTEE, 1996).

A related process of decentralisation in education in Zambia was establishment of Education Boards in 1992. According to section 4.1.2.3 (c) of decentralisation policy, when decentralisation is fully implemented primary Schools will be under the umbrella of the local government (NDP, 2002; Chikulo, 2014).

The vision and the objectives of the government on decentralisation mainly, are to attain an entirely decentralised and democratic elected structure of governance characterised by open, predictable and transparent policy making and implementation procedures, effective participation by the community in decision-making development and administration of their local affairs while upholding sufficient linkages between the centre and the periphery (MoE, 2009).

In being in step with democratic and liberal philosophy that Zambia has embraced, the government has taken on the policy of decentralising, control and management of education system. Decentralisation of education means:

- (a) Surrendering legal rights and financial controls over education to local units. Central authorities will generally exercise only indirect supervisory control over such units.
- (b) Giving local community managerial responsibility and discretion to plan and carry out the programmes and developments or to adjust central directives to local conditions, within guidelines set by the Ministry of Education.
- (c) Relocating of administrative responsibility for specifically well-defined education functions to establishments that are outside the regular bureaucratic structure of the system of education and that are only indirectly managed by the Ministry of Education Science, Vocational Training and Early Education.
- (d) Stripping some responsibility for ownership, power and control over education and transfer of these to charitable organisations or to privately run organisations.

1.2.1 Advantages of decentralisation are as follows:

1. The Ministry of Education will be relieved of the burden of day-to-day business, thereby allowing senior officers to give attention to their main functions.

2. Making of decisions will be done nearer to the points of delivery, where the action is taking place. As a result, this will allow for greater responsiveness to the local needs.
3. The execution design embodies active community involvement in the distribution of services in the Ministry of Education and in decisions on the use of management of resources for schools and colleges (MESVTEE, 1996).
4. By giving authority and power to managers of education at all levels, at the same time ensuring the effective involvement of the community, decentralisation will encourage a sense of ownership and responsibility for educational institutions.
5. Improvement in capacity building at national and local levels will be assured.

1.2.2 Disadvantages of decentralisation

1. Decentralisation that is effective depended upon clear separation of the functions and powers of the different layers of management.
2. To follow laid down policies and uniform procedures at times proves to be problematic under decentralisation.
3. In an effort to spread decision making powers more broadly throughout the organisation inevitably implies a need for increased training of the personnel or workers (Bloom, 1991).

As a decentralised new system, the Ministry of Education Science, Vocational Training and Early Education headquarters will continue to be responsible for:

- (a) Expansion and policy analysis;
- (b) logical planning for the structure as a whole;
- (c) the enhancement of the national curriculum;
- (d) warranting of quality and setting of standards;

- (e) observing and evaluation of results;
- (f) Generating an effective liable system;
- (g) coming up with overall personnel policies for the system; and
- (h) collecting and analysing information. (MESVTEE 1996:127).

The government will also transfer a number of responsibilities and functions to the point where they do not exist. The government recently approved the long awaited National Decentralisation Policy which will empower provinces and districts to manage their own affairs for effective social economic development including education.

The word quality is one of the fundamental ingredients of education policy. The priority of many countries in the world is to increase educational standard and raise the efficiency level of education system (Shabbir et al., 2017). Shabbier et al (2017:76) argue that:

The decentralisation of education system is one of such strategies that increase the role of parents and community in school matters. An educational management structure that is more connected with the local community and less resistant by the ministry of education works more efficiently and effectively because the local authority is more aware of school needs. School management may involve others to take the decision on an issue instead of taking the decision unilaterally. In education, the teachers, parents or community members are active actors that boost the school performance.

“Decentralised education divides the school management system into smaller units but the main power still remains in central management” Shabbir et al (2017:76). In other words decentralised education identifies the roles of all the players namely; Parents Community School Committee, Head teachers, teacher and a Committee member, in the school management for the enhancement of quality education like the set up in the community school. According to Anton de Grauwe (2004:5);

School autonomy and decentralisation are policies that automatically put the school principal at the heart of quality improvement. International research highlights the crucial contribution school management makes to teacher and student performance and identifies the characteristics of a successful principal,

including strong leadership, achievement-orientation and good community relationship.

Community schools in themselves are decentralised entities, which have been operating autonomously from inception, unlike public or government schools.

The local community came on board as partners in the provision of primary and secondary education. They organised themselves and came up with community schools, which are now dotted all over Zambia. The phenomenon of community schools is a consequence of economic constraints in the period of ten years that community schools have mushroomed from 55 in 1996 to 2500 in 2006 (Oki, Chakufufyali, and Chinombwe, 2008). In 2016, there were about 3000 community schools in Zambia providing education to almost 600 000 students (Statistical Bulletin 2016). Community schools contribute 12.62% of the total population on the Copper-belt Province. The number of community schools from 2017 to 2018 decreased to 2480 because some schools were upgraded to full-fledged government schools.

According to Educational Statistical Bulletin of 2016, community schools were the second largest providers of education with the total of 8,823 primary schools in Zambia. This accounted for 28 percent of the total enrolment in primary schools as of 2016, which showed that community schools were a crucial pillar in resolving the challenge of access to education for eligible children. Statistically, this means that of all the pupils enrolled in the primary, education 28 percent were absorbed by community schools as of 2016.

According to MDG report (2013) from 2006-2010 Zambia made a noteworthy progress towards meeting the eight millennium Development Goals (MDGs) mainly in primary school enrolment, child malnutrition and the fight against malaria. To that effect, Community schools as partners with the government in the provision of education contributed significantly to the progress made.

Table 1.1 Shows Community Schools in Zambia from 1996 – 2018.

(Source Education Statistical Bulletin, 2016; Chondoka and Subulwa, 2004)

Year	Number of Community School
1996	55
1997	123
1998	220
1999	373
2000	416
2003	1,335
2004	1908
2006	2500
2016	3000
2017	2480
2018	2480

Community Schools have significantly helped especially the OVCs and children from poor households, to access education. In 2010, the 2,851 community schools had 546,899 pupils that represented about 18 percent of total primary school enrolment.

According to Chondoka and Subulwa (2004:1):

After 1995 many community schools were opened in the country by different NGOs or individuals. In 1996, the government of the Republic of Zambia decided to establish an organisation to monitor and co-ordinate the overall activities of the community schools in the country. ZOCS, the flagship of the community schools in Zambia facilitated the formation of Zambia Community Schools Secretariat (ZCSS), an umbrella body of community schools in Zambia with support from UNICEF, the sole partner to Community Schools Movement in Zambia at that time.

Since then these community schools have been in existence up to this day and they have been supplementing government's efforts in the provision of education to the citizens of Zambia (Mwansa, 2006). In 1992 Dr. Janice Stevens and Sister Bernadette Mc. Kenna supported Sister Maureen O' Keef to set up the first community school. The school was called Misisi Open Community School, and it was in an open field of Misisi compound south of Lusaka.

Later on community schools were registered under Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS). This body was active and still managing community schools in Lusaka, Kafue, Kabwe and other parts of the country (Carmody, 2000). At the time of the study ZOCS was working with 550 schools and it had supported about 69 536 (39, 104 girls and 30432 boys) pupils in 8 provinces and 37 districts. This organisation has been instrumental in coming up with policy documents such as the Operational Guidelines for Community Schools of 2007 and Education Act of 2011 which embrace community schools as legally mandated to be operational in Zambia (MESVTEE, 2013). MoE (1996) observes that:

Communities that wish to establish schools, that would operate as community schools outside the government or District Education Board system, will be strongly encouraged to do so. The Ministry will contribute to the running costs of such school through the provision of teachers and teaching supplies, or through a system of capitation grants.

The government of the Republic of Zambia invited partnerships to supplement its efforts in the provision of education. Communities, individuals and Non – Governmental Organisations (NGOs) mobilised themselves and came up with community schools.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Community schools came into existence because of the need for additional places, and in order to accommodate out of school children and the youth (Kelly, 1996). One of the

many reasons for the existence of community schools is to offer free education to the vulnerable children who cannot afford to go to private and public schools in the community (Mwansa, 2006). There were 2 644 community schools in Zambia in 2011 and on the Copper-belt Province 30 351 male pupils and 31 255 female pupils were enrolled in community schools in grades 1-7 (Educational Statistical Bulletin, 2011). Community schools operate under a form of decentralisation in the sense that they operate autonomously. There is no formal centralised organ of government that provides direction to community schools as in public, private and grant aided schools. Therefore, community schools can provide a picture of what formal schools (public, private and grant aided schools) can face under decentralisation (Mukwena, 1992). Community schools are becoming a consequential part of the education system in Zambia and thus warrant further investigation. These community schools have been in existence for over 20 years now. Since they have been in existence for such a long time, the paucity of empirical research on the quality of primary education within a decentralised context of their schools motivated this study. It is for this reason that this study sought to investigate the quality of primary education within a decentralised context in selected community schools of the Copper-belt Province.

1.4 Purpose of the study.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the quality of primary education within a decentralised context of the community schools.

1.5 The main objective of the study

To investigate the quality of primary education within a decentralised context in the community school.

1.6 The objectives of the Study

The following were the objectives of the study:

1. To examine the nature of curricula used in community school within the decentralised context.

2. To examine the performance of community school pupils in national examinations.
3. To determine resource mobilisation and utilisation for community schools.
4. To assess the monitoring system that is used to ensure delivery of quality education in community schools.
5. To examine decentralised structural administrative challenges and opportunities of community schools.

1.7 Research questions

The study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What nature of curricula do community schools use within the decentralized context?
2. How is the performance of community schools pupils in the national examinations?
3. How is resource mobilisation and utilisation for community schools undertaken?
4. What kind of monitoring system is used to ensure delivery of quality education in community schools?
5. What are the decentralised structural related administrative challenges and opportunities faced by community schools?

1.8 Significance of the study

The study attempted to provide empirical research findings on decentralization and quality education in community schools on the Copper belt Province. The findings of

this study might help educational administrators and other stakeholders in finding a lasting solution on the operations of community school in Zambia. They will be able to make well-informed decisions on community schools. This information will also add value to the already existing knowledge on community schools. The study will also contribute to the exchange of experiences among stakeholders at the same time provide useful information and ideas for the improvement of education delivery in community schools. It is hoped that the Ministry of General Education may use the study findings to make appropriate interventions on community schools.

1.9 Definition of terms

Community school A community School is a community based, owned and managed learning institution that meets the education needs of vulnerable and out of school children, especially orphans who for a number of reasons cannot enter public government schools (Care International Zambia, 2000); Yolande Miller-Grandvaux, 2002).

Opportunity In this study, an opportunity is a favorable or advantageous circumstance or combination of circumstances availed to a person or institution. For example, Parents Community School Committees in Zambia have been given an opportunity to be in the forefront to organise and manage schools.

Stakeholders Individuals or people who can affect or who are affected by an institution. They have power to participate in what is going on in the institutions in terms of negotiations and changes in the future of the institution. In the Zambian situation, parents, the community, teachers, civic leader and traditional leader are Stakeholders.

Resource Mobilisation Resource Mobilisation simply means organising resources. Recourses refer to all activities involved securing new and additional resources for the community school. Resources can include many different things

(labour, experts, books, computers) not just money. Apart from money, one can raise support from volunteers, receive material donations from NGOs, and receive material support in kind from the community (well-wishers). When all these resources are put into one pool, (including cash donations) it is referred to collectively as resource mobilisation.

Resource Utilisation It simply means to put into proper use the resources collected (in this case by the community schools).

Partnership A partnership is an alliance or relationship between two or more people, for example, partnership between community schools and the government. Partnerships are often based on trust, equality, and mutual understanding and obligations. Some partnerships can be formal, where the people involved come to terms using written agreements, or informal where written agreements are not there but agreements are arrived at verbally. (www.seasite.niu.edu/lao/undp/whatispartnership.htm). In the study the government invited partners in the provision of education namely; Non-governmental organisations, private sector, local communities, religious groups, families and individuals.

Primary Education Primary education is referred to as elementary education. Primary education is inclusive of grades one to seven; it is considered the main foundation stone of a child's educational future.

Management In the case of community schools, management and organisation is executed by the parents community school committees, composed of parents, community school head teacher and teachers and prominent community members (MOGE, 2016). The parents community school committees plan, set objectives, manage resources and employ teachers. The management procedure is concerned with helping the members of an association to realise individual as well as organisational intents within the changing environment of organisation Gray in (Kochhar, 2012).

Organisation A social entity of people that is designed and managed to meet a want or to pursue collective aims. Community schools as organisations have a management

structure that defines relationships between the different happenings and the affiliates, and divides and allots roles, responsibilities, and authority to carry out different kinds of duties. Establishments or institutions are open systems – organisations affect and are affected by their location. In this study, it means an organised body of stakeholders (for example, the Parents Community School Committees) with a particular purpose in the running of community schools.

1.10 Summary

The chapter was focused on the introduction, background, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study. This chapter also looked at the background of education in Zambia and how parents, non-governmental organisations and other stakeholders evolved community schools so to solve the problem of their children of not going to school. The main concern of this chapter was about decentralisation and quality education offered in community schools on the Copper-belt.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Overview

This chapter discusses theoretical perspectives relevant in explaining certain characteristics associated with this study.

2.2 Theoretical framework

For its theoretical framework the study used right-based approach to education which was spear headed by developmental groups and a School-Family-Community Partnership Model by Joyce Epstein. At the 2000 World Education Forum held in Dakar (Senegal), the international community reaffirmed its commitment to achieving, Education for All, a movement introduced 10 years earlier at the World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien (Thailand). Participants also adopted the Dakar Framework for Action and identified six specific goals:

1. Expand early childhood care and education
2. Provide free and compulsory primary education for all.
3. Promote learning and life skills for young people and adults.
4. Increase adult literacy by 50 per cent, especially for women.
5. Achieve gender parity by 2005 and gender equality by 2015
6. Improve the quality of education (UNICEF, 2007: xi)

Right-Based approach to education is very important. Schooling that is respectful of human rights – both in words and in action, in schoolbooks and the schoolyard – is essential to the realisation of quality education for all (UNICEF, 2007)

School-Family-Community Partnership Model by Joyce Epstein is concerned with the education of the child. Epstein's (1987, 1995) theory of overlapping spheres of influence, for example, identifies schools, families, and communities as major institutions that socialise and educate children. A central argument or proposition of the

theory is that certain areas, such as student academic success, are of interest to each of these institutions, and are best achieved through their cooperative action and support (Epstein, 2002).

2.2.1 Rights-based approach

According to UNICEF (2007) the right-based approach takes on board stakeholders such as parents, communities, teachers, NGOs and cooperating partners, for it realises that without them, little would be realised in terms of child's right to quality education (UNICEF, 2007).

Rights-based approach to development is an approach to development spearheaded by many developmental groups and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) to achieve a positive change of power relations among the various development actors. This practice illuminates the distinction between human rights and economic development. There are two stakeholder agencies in rights-based development—the rights holders (who do not have full rights) and the duty bearers (institutions which are committed to fulfill the holders' rights). Rights-based approaches aim at strengthening the office of duty bearers and empower the rights holders.

Education has been lawfully recognised as a right for all human beings since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of human rights in 1948. This has been acknowledged in many worldwide human rights treaties, Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966) and the convention on the Eradication of All Forms of Discrimination against women of 1981 (UNICEF, 2007). The human rights treaties establish an entitlement to free, compulsory elementary education for all school going children; an obligation to develop secondary education, supported by measures to render it accessible to all children, over and above equitable access to tertiary education; and a responsibility to provide basic education for persons who have not completed primary education.

Additionally, they insist that the purpose of education is to enhance personal development, strengthen respect for human rights and freedoms, promote effective participation of individuals in a society that is free and promote friendship, tolerance and understanding. The right to education has long been documented as encompassing not only access to the provision of education, but also the obligation to eradicate discrimination at all stages of the educational structure, to set minimum standards and develop the quality of education. Furthermore, education is essential for the fulfillment of any other civil, political, economic or social right.

The convention of the United Nation on human rights of the child of 1989 further strengthens and broadens the concept of the right to education, in particular, through the obligation to consider in its implementation the convention's four core principles: non-discrimination; the best interests of the child; the right to life, survival and development of the child to the maximum extent possible; and the right of children to express their views in all matters affecting them and for views to be given due weight in accordance with their age and maturity

Rights of human beings are not merely legal entitlements that can be achieved through the passing of legislature and policy. Human rights are standards and principles that directly affect the interactions between individuals in their communities. The creations of formations of a sustainable and human rights with respect to education for all school going children requires that the concept of education is understood and owned by parents, families and all members of the community. Education is not an activity which is isolated. Activities, attitudes and behaviours of the entire membership of community affect the realisation or denial of rights of education. Zambia is a signatory to the right based approach to education as such it has an obligation to provide quality education to every child in the country. As it is Zambia has not lived up to its promise to provide quality education to every child in the country as is evidenced by the existence of community schools spearheaded by parents in the communities. The ideal situation and based on the right based education, to which Zambia is a signatory as earlier mentioned, the Zambian government should be fully responsible to provide primary education to

every child in the country. The government of Zambia has created an enabling environment for Zambians and other stakeholders to establish learning institutions for the promotion of primary education.

An advancement of human rights-based approach to education requires a framework that provides a solution to the right of access to education, the right to quality education and respect for human rights in education. These dimensions are symbiotic and interlinked and a right-based education requires the realisation of all three. The right to quality education requires a commitment to guaranteeing worldwide access, including taking all necessary procedures or steps to reach the most marginalised children (UNICEF, 2007). UNICEF (2007:47) observes that:

“...getting children into schools is not enough; it is no guarantee of an education that enables individuals to achieve their economic and social objective and to acquire the skills knowledge, values and attitudes that bring about responsible and active citizenship.”

A study, which was carried out by the Southern, and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (1995-1998), for example, measures primary school students' reading ability against standards put in place by national reading experts and sixth-grade teachers. UNICEF (2007:27) notes that:

In the four out of seven countries, fewer than half of sixth grade students achieved minimum competence in reading. Poor achievement is also evident in the study conducted by the Programme d'Analyse des Systemes Educatifs de la CONFEMEN (PASEC) in six French-speaking African countries in 1996-2001: Achievement levels were low in French or Mathematics for up to 43% in Senegal for learners struggled to put several numbers with two decimal point in order.

To attain quality education is also a challenge in developed nations. Current studies indicate that large numbers of students in these developed countries do not acquire the basic skills to be competent in today's world.

To guarantee quality education in agreement with the Dakar Framework for action (2002) and the objectives of education expounded by the Committee on the Right of the

child attention must be paid to the relevance of the curriculum, the teacher's roles, and the nature and ethos of the learning environment. A right-based approach demands an obligation to recognising and upholding human rights of children while they are in school-including respect for identity, agency and integrity. This will contribute to improved retention rates, and makes the progress of education empowering, participatory, transparent and accountable (UNICEF, 2007). UNICEF (2007: 27) observes that:

In addition, children will continue to be excluded from education unless measures are taken to address their right to freedom from discrimination, to adequate standard of living and to meaningful participation. A quality education cannot be achieved without regard to children's right to health and well-being. Children cannot achieve their optimum development when they are subjected to humiliating punishment or physical abuse.

This conceptual framework brings out the need for a holistic approach to education, showing the universality and indivisibility of all human rights. The following sections set out the central elements that therefore need to be addressed in each of the three dimensions mentioned above. From the Right-based Approach, some concepts were embraced like the right to access to education and the right to quality education.

Table 2.1 Right Based Approach to Education

1	The right to access to education	Education throughout all stages of childhood and beyond Availability and accessibility of education Equality of opportunity
2	The right to quality education	A broad, relevant and inclusive curriculum Right-based learning and assessment Child-friendly, safe and healthy environments
3	The right to respect in the learning institution environment	Respect for identity Respect for participation rights Respect for integrity

2.2.2 Epstein’s framework

Epstein’s model school-family-community partnership has been used so that it could help explain the enhancement of the education of the learner in community schools. Usually, families and schools have been viewed as tools with utmost effect on the development of children. However, communities have received increasing attention for their role in socialising youth and ensuring students success in a variety of societal domains. According to Epstein (1987, 1995), theory of overlapping spheres of influence, for example, recognises schools, families and communities as the most important institutions that socialise and educate children. Parent involvement is an important factor in the quality of education of the child. School-Family-Community Partnership Model by Joyce Epstein is an influential model in parent involvement study. The model relooks at the relationship between schools, families, and communities as one of the overlapping spheres of influence that share a concern about the child’s

success. The main key element of the theory is that certain goals, such as student academic success, are of interest to each of these institutions and are best achieved through their cooperative action and support. In this vein, Heath and Mclaughlin (1987) maintained that; Community participation is very noteworthy because challenges of educational accomplishment and academic success request resources beyond the scope of the school and most families.

As a framework for increasing parental involvement in education, the model identifies six types of educational involvement and encourages schools to come up with activities that involve schools, families and communities within the six types. The model has been influential in shaping social policy concerning parental involvement in education.

Involvement of a parent is recognised as an important factor in improving the quality of education of a child. Because of its importance, understanding how parents help their children and how schools can encourage greater parent-participation have been important research focus in education and sociology. Joyce Epstein proposed the School-Family-Community-Partnership Model in the late 1980s, which soon became influential in parent participation research. The model is segmented into two main components called spheres (Epstein, 2002).

2.2.2.1 Spheres

The first segment indicates the partnership of schools, families, and communities as spheres, which overlap. According to Epstein (2002), the spheres assume that schools, families, and communities each have a role and influence in the education of a child. The overlap of the spheres indicates that the interests and influences of the stakeholders in a child's education are mutual. Time and experiences: two factors influence the degree of overlap of the spheres. Hence, time in schools, the age of the child, and the experiences of the child in the family and in school can influence the degree to which schools, families, and communities have mutual interests and influence on the child. For instance, parents are more involved in school when their children are young. Thus, the

Partnership Model would depict a greater overlap of parents and schools for a Grade One pupil than for a student in secondary school (Epstein, 2001; Epstein et al., 2002).

The second sector of the Partnership Model exemplifies the interpersonal relationships and patterns of influence that are most central in the education a child. According to the model, there are two types of interactions: those within organisations and those between organisations. Furthermore, there are several stages of interactions. Normal, organisational interactions happen between families and schools. This type of interaction embraces communication in the form of bulletins and reports about the activities and performance of the school. Precise, individual interactions are mainly those between parents and teachers (Epstein, 2001; Epstein et al., 2002).

The main concept that underlies both parts of the Partnership Model is that all stakeholders in a child's education have mutual interests and influences. The main shared interest is a caring concern that the child be successful. Furthermore, the model proposes that shared interests and influences of stakeholders can be promoted by the policies, actions, beliefs, attitudes, and values of the stakeholders. Though this might seem like common sense, the model is different from earlier theories, which talk about school-family relationships. This Partnership Model revises earlier conceptualisations that regarded families and schools as existing in detached or separated spheres, which entailed that they had separate responsibilities. The model also revises conceptions of the school-family relationship as one that must be progressive. In a progressive relationship, parents are expected to play a bigger role than schools, and vice versa, in certain periods of a child's life. The Partnership Model recognises that schools families and the community at large have a part to play about their child's development, health, and safety at home or at school

- a) Type 1-Parenting: Parents have a special place in the education of a child according to (Epstein, 2001) and that parents should take a very active role in the child's education.
- b) Type 2-Communicating: Families and schools communicate with each other in many ways. Communicating activities embraces school-to-home and home-to-

school communications about school and classroom programmes and children's progress (Epstein 2002). Schools send home notes and flyers about events and activities that are important. According to Epstein model, Parents should provide teachers information about their child's health and educational history. A website of the school is an additional mode of communication with parents and families.

- c) Type 3-Volunteering — According to Epstein model type 3 element volunteering, parents are supposed to volunteer their services to the schools where their children learn. Parents are encouraged to volunteer their skills, labour, talents or any service considered relevant to the educational needs of the school.
- d) Type 4- Learning At Home — Parents are encouraged to help the child to know the value of education and help the child to do his/her homework. This model also emphasises parents to take the child on field trips, for example, to a zoo or to any other related place as an extra curricula activity.
- e) Type 5- Decision-making: Parents participate in school decision making when they are incorporated into the school governance committees or join organisations, such as the parent/teachers association.
- f) Type 6-collaborating with the Community: Collaborating with the activities of the community encourage the cooperation of schools, families, and community groups, organisations, agencies and individuals (Epstein, 2002).

Family-School-Community Partnerships to enhance student success

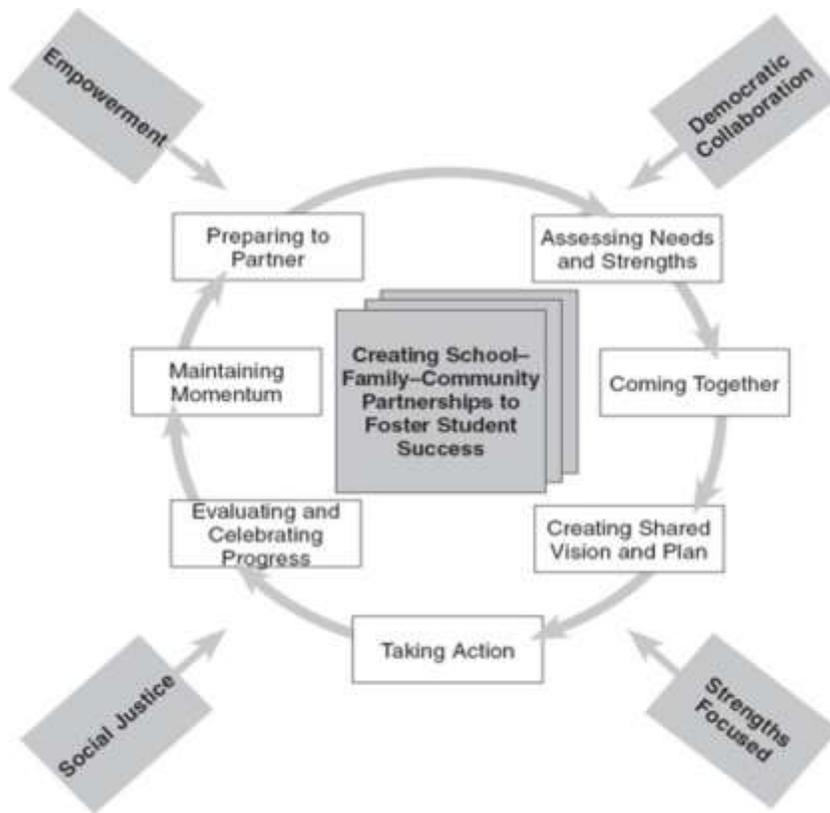


Figure 2.1 Family-School- Partnership-Community

The Epstein mode guided this study in framing questions on the various types of partnerships. That is, it guided in the development of research and selection of target groups, for example, parents, DEBS, head teachers and teachers.

Epstein (2002) reviewed that families and schools, communities have significant roles that they play in education, development, and welfare of students. Just within communities, there are many resources-human, economic, material and social-those may sustain and supplement home and school activities. Type 6 activities identify and integrate community resources in many different ways to develop schools, support families, and help students to succeed in school and in life (Epstein 2002).

A long time ago parents were seen as essential evil in education. Nowadays this kind of thinking has been abandoned (Kochhar 2014). According to Kochhar (2014:16):

The modern educator seeks the active interest and cooperation of parents in education of their children. In the new school, every week is 'Education Week' when the schools are open to visitors. The new school realises that home and school share a mutual interest and responsibility in the child's total living and that without cooperation of home and school, there cannot be full success in educating the child. The result is that parents and teachers meet in small or large groups to discuss their common problems. In some schools, parents assist in the office and classrooms; they participate in trips and many other social and community undertakings

Kochhar (2014) acknowledges the notion of Epstein (2002) that parents are important in the education of children. A long time ago, parents detached themselves from the education of their children, for that duty was given to the schools. Vandergrift and Green (1992:57-59) observes that;

Parent involvement means both parents' support and active participation in their children's formal education. Supportive parents encourage, show sympathy, reassure and show understanding when it comes to their children's formal education. Parents are active when involved in observable actions like supervising their children's homework or attending activities at their schools.

Parent involvement comprises the basic responsibilities of parents at home, basic responsibilities of schools to communicate with parents' active involvement at school level, parents' involvement in learning activities at home, as well as decisions made by parents at forums that influence the formal education of their children (Epstein in Brandt, 1989; Epstein, 2007; Epstein, 2008). The relationship between the parent and the school takes place on three levels, that is, those of cooperation, participation and partnership (Kruger, 2011).

2.3.1 Cooperation

Cooperation could be reflected as the chief level of parent involvement in the education of the child. Parents support the school at home by being conversant what is happening at school, for instance, indicating their commitment to the school and overseeing

homework. The school cooperates by communicating with parents concerning various issues. For example, underachievement, possible learning obstacles and failure to complete homework.

2.4 Summary

As for the theoretical framework, the study used Rights Based Approach to education, which is based on values of peace and non-violent conflict resolution. It involves accountability of those with responsibilities or obligations in fulfilling, respecting and protecting the right to education for the child.

A right based approach to education for all is all-inclusive, incorporating access to education, quality education (based on human rights values and principles) and the environment in which education is provided. The main objective of this approach is simple; to assure every child quality education that respects and promotes her or his right dignity and optimum development.

The research also used Joyce L. Epstein's Model, School, Family and Community Partnership. The model encourages the school, family and community to work in partnership for the benefit of the child. The main purpose of this partnership is to help the young ones to succeed in school and in life after school. There are many reasons for developing school, family and community partnerships. According to Epstein, partnerships can improve school programmes and school climate, provide family services and support, increase parents' skills and leadership, and connect families with others in the school and in the community and help teachers with their work. Nevertheless, the main aim of creating partnerships is to help all the learners to succeed in school and in their future life. When parents, teachers, students and others consider one another as partners in education, a caring community is created and as a result it will motivate students appreciate and attend lessons regularly.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Overview

This chapter provides a review of available literature that is considered to be of direct relevance to this study: decentralisation and quality education in community schools on the Copper-belt. The first part looks at community schools in Zambia and the second part will look at what is pertaining in Africa. For better understanding of the literature review, words like decentralisation, quality, education, community and school have been defined.

3.2 The concept of decentralisation

Decentralization has several meanings; the concept of decentralisation is problematic to define precisely. The notion is about division of power cutting and functions between a central government and a local institution. However, a number of concepts are associated with decentralisation. The World Bank (nd) defines decentralisation as the transfer of authority and responsibility for public functions from the central government to subordinate or quasi-independent government organisations and the private sector. It is also referred to as the dispersal of decision-making power to the lower organs of an institution (Hannagan, 2004)

Decentralisation as defined by Barrera-Osorio *et al*, (2009) is the transfer of national government's responsibilities and competencies for delivering public services to the local or subnational level. This entails that decision-making powers and responsibilities related to the public service are handed over to those who are nearer to where these services are required. From the education point of view, Botha (2013) postulates that decentralisation is the moving of educational resources together with decision-making tasks for the use of these resources to schools and their communities for several objectives.

On the other hand, Chikulo (2014) affirms that decentralisation is the assignment of fiscal, political and administrative tasks and decision-making away from the central government to its field units, district administrative units, other levels of government,

regional or functional authorities, semi-autonomous public authorities parastatal organisations private entities and non-governmental private or charitable organisation (McGinn and Welsh, 1999).

In complementing the above definitions of decentralisation National Development Plan (2002) reveals that decentralisation is about transference of responsibilities, authority, functions, as well as power and suitable resources, to provincial, district, and sub-district levels.

In essence, as observed by Rondinelli, et al (1981) decentralisation seeks to spread out provision of services such as planning, management as well as utilisation and allocation of resources to either field or subordinates units, or functional authorities, non-governmental private or voluntary organisations rather than keeping them in the hands of the central government.

Mowhood (1983) and Smith (1985) cited in Schulz and Yaghmour, (2004) describe decentralisation as any act by which central government formally surrenders power to actors and institutions at lower levels in political administrative and territorial hierarchy. Therefore, it involves shifts of those who govern, about transfers of authority from those in one location or level vis-à-vis education organisations, to those in another level (McGinn and Welsh,1999). Any decentralisation process is multifaceted because it includes many players in the process, overlapping policies, and varying commitments to implementations of decentralising measures. This entails that in a complex context, the goals behind the process of education decentralisation might produce different outcomes from the originally envisioned results (Vale, 2016.)

There are various forms of decentralisation namely, deconcentration, delegation, devolution and privatisation.

3.2.1 Deconcentration

According to Aucoin and Bakvis (1988), the term deconcentration is described as the process of transferring some responsibilities from the central administration to lower units within its jurisdiction. In addition, Fiske (1999) states that decentralisation refers

to the government's responsibility from the central department to the lower level at the same time the central government retains its control. In other words deconcentration is a procedure of passing over of some amount of administrative power or responsibility to lower levels or agencies (Rondineli, 1984). Unlike decentralisation where decision-making powers are transferred from a central to a local level, deconcentration seeks to transfer functions and resources to lower units of the same system while authority over decision-making and use of resource remains with the centre. According to the National Decentralisation Policy (NDP) (2002: IV), in the case of government administration, deconcentration would entail the transfer of some functions performed at headquarters of the Ministry to Provincial, District and/or sub-district offices while power and authority are retained by the centre.

The researcher observes that while deconcentration has potential to improve efficiency in the delivery of services, its success depends mainly on the degree of autonomy enjoyed by the entities to which responsibilities have been transferred. This autonomy can vary considerably along a continuum, with centrally concentrated decision-making power at one end and at the other, independent decision-making powers granted to lower-level entities for different aspects of management (e.g. organisation, resources, activities, external relations, etc.). Botha (2013) records that in this form of deconcentration, schools in a district are answerable to the district, which, in turn is answerable to the central office. The central office is mandated to formulating of rules and policies that other levels down the line should apply when making decisions and carrying out their assumed responsibilities (Botha, 2013).

3.2.2 Devolution

According to Cheema, Nellis and Rondinelli (1983:21), devolution is defined as the "creation or strengthening, financially or legally of subnational units of government, activities of which are substantially outside the direct control of the central government" This is the transfer of powers and authority, function and resources by legal and constitutional provisions to lower levels. The transfer is within prescribed political

structures and is institutionalised by constitutional means. Devolution is also considered to be a higher extreme of decentralisation (Buye, 2007). When the central government transfers some of its powers and authority to democratically elected councils, local authorities or regional governments, it empowers them by law, to determine local taxes, raise own revenue and decide on how to use it. Under this form of decentralisation leadership is accountable to the local population through a system of election (World Bank) (nd); (DIP, 2009). This is the strongest approach to the decentralisation process as it involves a permanent transfer of authority from higher level of government structure to the lower levels of authority (Heredia 2007:14). For example, the government of Zambia through the Ministry of Education allowed the communities through the Parent Community School Committees to organise and manage community schools by transferred power and authority to the PCSCs. The local people through elections put the PCSCs as the management of community schools into leadership. Therefore, Zambia community schools are decentralised by default.

3. 2.3 Delegation

Rondinelli (1981:181-207) uses this term to refer to the type delegation that includes the transfer of planning, decision-making management authority for carrying out precise functions to semi-autonomous organisations acting as arms of the central government at subnational level. This is a transfer of functions and resources to a subordinate authority with the capacity to act in behalf of the superior authority without a formal transfer of authority in the same structure. As an example, this occurs when an office of lower level is assigned to perform some duties or tasks by the higher office. However, the lower office will be required to consult the higher office on matters that require decision-making (World Bank (nd); the central authority can rescind these powers whenever it contemplates fit to do so. As an example, a school found guilty of financial mismanagement may have the money and the power to manage its own resources withdrawn or revoked (Botha, 2013). Community schools and other institutions of learning or organisations can verify to the existence of delegation because every time the head-teacher leaves office he or she leaves the deputy or senior teacher to attend to school business.

3.2.4. Privatisation

Privatisation is the divestiture of state interests in public enterprises and the subsequent sale of such to private sector such as when a Parastatal departmental store is sold off to shareholders (World Bank (nd)).

Privatisation can range in scope from leaving the provision of goods and services entirely to the free operation of the market to “Public-Private Partnerships” in which the government and the private sector cooperate to provide services or infrastructure, (World Bank (nd)). As the name suggests privatisation generally involves active involvement of private sectors in the management of goods and services either completely or partially

Biais, Bruno and Enrico Perotti (2002) observe that among the many facets of privatisation are private organizations taking over duties that were once performed by government; contracting out the management of public services or facilities to commercial enterprises; funding public sector programs through the capital market and allowing private organisations to participate; and lastly transferring service provision from the public to the private sector through the divestiture of state-owned enterprises. However, it is worth noting that privatisation is not applicable to public administration, since local authorities and related public offices cannot be privatised (NDP, 2002: V).

Privatisation in this study is mainly concerned with organisations, which are exclusively in private hands. Community schools do not fall in that category

3.2.5 Decentralisation of education in selected countries

The majority of systems of education have been administered through highly centralised bureaucracies directly by central ministry of education or either by officials stationed at the regional or district level (Glassman: 2007). According to Glassman (2007:179), during the 1990s several countries began to implement changes in the way education was managed by decentralising functions and resource diversifying, service delivery modes and transforming roles and responsibilities within the central MOE and at regional, district, and school levels.

3.2.5.1 UK and Germany.

In Germany and the United Kingdom education is decentralised along a number of different dimensions. For example, in England, Wales and Northern Ireland private examination boards that compete with one another for business (West et al, 2010) administer some examinations. In the UK and Germany management and administration of schools have been decentralised for it is perceived that decentralisation at this level brings about to education system more efficiency, responsiveness and accountability. The distribution of power to the schools rouses educational innovations designed to meet the needs of pupils, parents and employers (Astiz et al 2002: Maslowski et al, 2007: OECD, 2008).

3.2.5.2 Kenya

Before Kenya gained its independence, its education system was under the colonial government and missionaries. Its educational system at that time was tailored to spread Christianity and to prepare the indigenous African communities for blue and technical jobs (Mulwa, 2011:86). This is similar to what happened to Zambia when she gained her independence. Education was provided mainly for spreading Christianity. Snelson (1974:5) points out that the sole object was the spread of knowledge of Christ among heathen and other unenlightened nations. Kelga and Bujra (2009:2) observe that the colonial education system was based on a model of segregation which saw the establishment of separate educational systems for Europeans, Asians, and Africans, a factor that perpetuated inequalities in accessing education more so for African population. As in Zambia, this was a common occurrence in almost all countries which were colonised by Britain. Therefore, when Kenya gained independence in 1963 it restructured its educational system and aligned it to the needs and aspirations of the country. According to Mulwa (2011:86) Kenya has undertaken several educational reforms since its independence. Several committees, commissions and task forces have been set up over the years with a mandate to make suitable recommendations on how to overcome the ever-rising challenges facing Kenyan education. As a result, the government set up education reforms of 2005. Before Kenya embraced decentralisation major decisions concerning to daily secondary school activities were made at the

Ministry of Education headquarters and very little by the principals and board of governors (BOGs) at school level (Mulwa, 2011: 90). Similarly in Zambia, secondary schools head teachers did not have the power to make decisions pertaining daily activities of the school. Even simple decisions were made at higher offices. After schools were decentralised in Kenya according to the educational act of 1968 of Kenya, principals were now given some power by the Minister of Education to make decisions. A parallel situation in Zambia reigns in the way secondary schools and colleges of education operate. Principals and head teachers have been given some powers to run the institutions without repeatedly waiting for instructions of what should be done.

The Kenyan government remains the custodian of policy development, quality assurance and standards, curriculum design. Matters relating to everyday operations, local supervision and resource mobilisation to support education and training, as well as counselling learners and staff, have been decentralised and allocated to local stakeholders at districts and schools (Ministry of Education, 2005). The foregoing corresponds to the Zambian scenario. The Ministry of General education is and will continue to be accountable for 1. Policy analysis and development 2. Strategic planning for the ministry as a whole 3. Mobilising of resources 4. The development of the national curriculum 5. Quality assurance and setting of standards 6. Monitoring and evaluation of outcomes 7. Putting in place an effective accountability system 8. Determination of overall personnel policies for the system and 9. Collecting and analysing data (Ministry of Education, 1996)

3.2.5.4 South Africa

The educational system inherited from the apartheid regime required a complete overhaul to meet the needs and aspirations of the people of South Africa. The task of reorganising the South African education system was not an easy one because of the fragmentation and intricacy of the previous system. According to Pomutl and Weber (2012), the apartheid education was characterised by racial and ethnic segregation and inequality, undemocratic participation, low levels of bureaucratic accountability and

transparency, and top-down policy execution, with power mainly consolidated to protect white privilege. One of the main objectives of the new South African government was to overhaul the educational system by eradicating the racial and ethnic forms of education governance. After the end of apartheid structure, the main task was to normalise the education curriculum embraced by different departments of education (Vale 2016). In South Africa, they evolved the National Educational Policy (NEPA), which was approved in 1999. It was one of the first legislative procedures accepted in the education sector to change the South African Education system (Vale, 2016). Similar to what happened in Zambia, to promote access to education for Zambians, the Zambian government took over all the schools, which were in private hands. That time the centralised way of managing the schools made sense for it was a way of giving access to the Zambian people who were denied education in the colonial era.

According to Vale (2016:609), “the evolution of educational decentralisation in South Africa reveals that the provincial government and the schools have gained autonomy that was unparalleled to their autonomy during the apartheid regime.” From the time decentralisation was embraced in South Africa the government monitors and evaluates these learning institutions ensure that regulations governing education decentralisation are followed. In 1996, the South African School Act (SASA) was approved. Some look at the SASA, as a turning point in transforming education of South African education system (Sayed, 2002). This act was very important legislation because it recognised the general rules that would guide the funding of the South African education apart from defining the basic organisation of the school system in South Africa, laying down the responsibilities of each section of government (Sayed and Soudien 2005). The 1998 Employer Educators (EEA) was set as one of the last decentralisation measures. This act has been questioned because it further empowers the governing bodies of school to appoint and transfer teachers. This kind of policy where a governing board of the school employs and transfers a teacher negates fairness because it might promote corruption or abuse of power. No wonder that some political parties emphatically opposed the EEA alleging that it took away powers of the provincial authorities in matters concerning school employment (Vale, 2016).

3.2.5.6 Malawi

The Malawian government embarked on decentralisation trail through the Ministry of Local Government and rural development (Local Government Act, 1998). The core reason the government decided to embrace decentralisation was to improve service delivery and enhance participatory democracy and good governance (Local Governance, Act 1998)

In Malawi, the education system is managed through an education central office, which has six education divisional offices, which are responsible for running of secondary education, thirty-three education district offices that are responsible of running primary school education in the districts. There are three hundred and seventeen education zones, which are responsible for monitoring and supervision, and schools, which are responsible for teaching and learning. According to Kufaine and Mtapuri (2014), the introduction of decentralisation to different district assemblies was meant to improve service delivery, enhance participatory democracy as well as governance. In this case, the assemblies were encouraged to be independent and self-reliant. Decentralisation promotes flexibility and creativity in doing things, it grants teachers or the workers in their work a sense of belonging to a system, a phenomenon that is visibly vague in the centralised system. Just like in Zambia, though the Malawi government has decentralised education it wields powers over the curriculum, teachers' disciplinary issues, teacher recruitment, promotion, remuneration and resources. For decentralisation to succeed successfully appropriate measures such as putting up appropriate structures, building capacity and monitoring standards need to be inaugurated (Kufain, 2014).

3.2.5.7 Tanzania

Tanzania is among several African countries, which embraced decentralisation policies in the school administration and management to give more responsibilities to lower ranks (Matete 2016). According to Matete (2016), decentralisation in Tanzania has been part of other wider government reforms cutting across different sectors, such as the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP), the Broader National Development Strategy (BNDS) and the Sector Wide Approaches (SWAPs).

Decentralisation is the main ingredient to education prosperity, for many stakeholders are attracted to be part of the contributors of resources and services to education because of it promotes interaction with the community.

Many sections of the society contended that decentralisation brings decisions nearer to people, leads to more equitable distribution of public services and to more participation of the local people in school development plans (Brosio, 2000; World Bank, 2003). This is similar to the Zambian schools local community in partnership with the schools through the boards where members of the community are encouraged to visit the schools to lend a hand. Thus, the issue of community participation undertakes special significance in the light of the fact that the first responsibility for the education of children lies with parents and after that with the wider community in which the family lives (MOE, 1996)

3.2.5.7 Decentralisation in education in Zambia

Zambia as many African countries decided to decentralise its educational system for it believed it was the only way to uplift the standards of educational services in the country. Decentralisation was effected through the setting up of Education Boards at school, college and district levels (MoE, 1996). The decentralisation of educational system in Zambia meant:

1. Yielding legal and financial controls over education to local units like Provincial Education Office, District Education Office and the School in that order.
2. Delegating local units with managerial responsibility and discretion to plan and implement programmes and assignments or to adjust central directives to local conditions, within guidelines set by ministry headquarters (MOE, 1996)

Botha, Marishane, Merwe, Zyl and Zengele (2013) indicate that decentralisation in education takes place at macro and micro level. At macro- level, decentralisation involves a shift in responsibilities, resource allocations, competencies and decision making powers from the higher (central) level to lower (local) level. This means that

local levels are empowered to handle certain tasks that were being handled at the central levels. On the other hand, decentralisation at the micro-level entails spreading evenly within the organisation decision-making powers, resources, responsibilities and competencies and it is mainly concerned with the distributions of powers, resources, leadership and management responsibilities among members of the organisation (Botha, 2013).

In relation to the observation above Botha (2013) adds that leadership is one of the areas of concern because improvement of an organisation such as a school lies in shared leadership among teachers instead of concentration in a single formal authority. This is strengthened by the belief held by leaders in many progressive organisations today that ‘together we can make a difference’, thus making leadership everybody’s business.

On the other hand Botha, et al (2013) identify different forms and option levels of decentralisation in education as illustrated in figure 1 below.

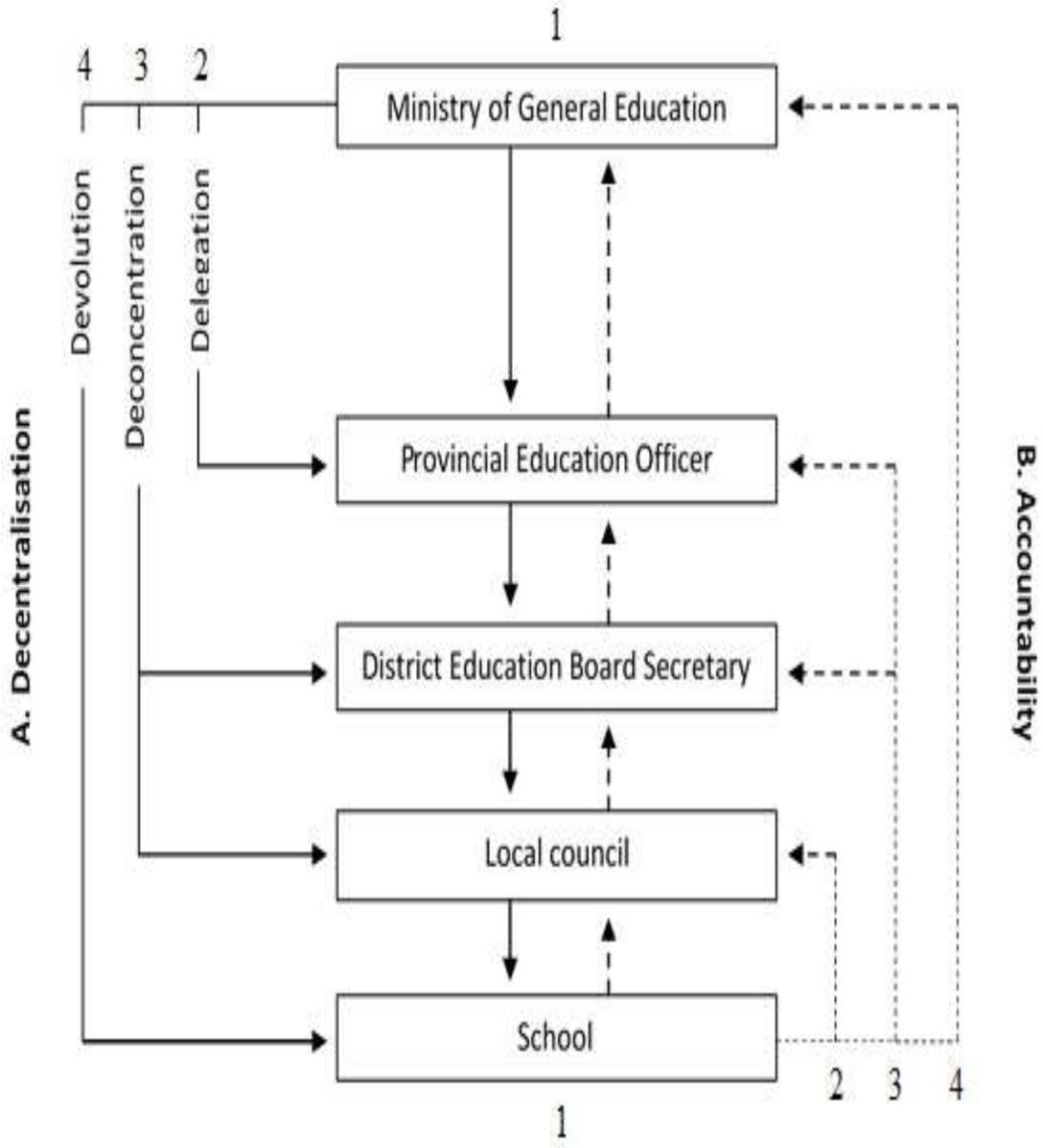


Figure 1: Different forms and option levels of decentralisation in education (Adapted from Botha, et al 2013).

In the first illustration (1), a school can be managed centrally by the Ministry of General Education in case of Zambia or federal department of education for other countries. All decision-making in terms of resource allocation and management lies with the Ministry and such decisions reach the school through the bureaucratic channel

of Ministry of Education / federal office, the state / provincial office, the district / regional office, and the local government / municipality office (in countries where education has been fully decentralised). In the second illustration (2), the school is managed by the provincial department of education (Republic of South Africa, 1996). The latter had delegated decision-making authority derived from the (Ministry of General Education in Zambia) national or federal office and allocates resources to schools through regional / district offices and local government / municipal offices. In the third illustration (3), resources from national department are channeled to the district office like in Chicago in the USA or the municipal office in Brazil, which in turn distributes these resources to schools under its authority. The last illustration of decentralisation (4) happens when the (Ministry of General Education in Zambia) national or federal department distributes both resources and decision-making powers over their use directly to schools, as is the case in the Netherlands. This is an example of an extreme form of decentralisation (Marishane, 2003) in (Botha, et al 2013).

In all these perspectives, the way followed by resources to the school is reversed when accountability on the part of school management for decisions taken and resources used flows back through the same conduit on the way up to the central / national department. A balance is created between empowerment (by upper levels) and accountability (from the lower levels) (Marishane, 2003) in (Botha, et al 2013).

In relation to the discussion above, Abu-Duhou, (1999) and Welsh, (1999) in (Botha, 2013) affirm that decentralisation in education is delivered for three main reasons: political, social and economic motives.

1. Political motives, which lead to the “democratisation of decision-making” by enhancing active participation of previously, excluded local school community members (stakeholders) in the decision-making processes.
2. Social motives, which ensure decisions taken at school level, are tailor-made to the wishes of the local community.

3. Economic motives, which are anchored in the belief that giving local people decision making authority over resource allocation will bring about the efficient and effective use of resources and thus reduce costs.

3.3 Decentralisation and Quality Education

Literature shows that the concept of quality education is based on the character of education content provision. Harvey and Green(1993) came up with five categories in order to explain in their perspective of quality education.

1. Exception: unique, exemplified in excellence, passing lowest standards.
2. Perfection: no faults, getting things right the first time.
3. Fitness for the occasion: relates to quality for purpose, defined by the supplier.
4. Value for money: a focus for efficiency and effectiveness, measuring outputs against inputs.
5. Transformation: a qualitative change; education is about doing something for students as opposed to something for the consumer.

This goes to suggest that quality in education is associated with excellence, absence of errors, meeting the purpose, efficiency and positive change.

Furthermore, Gavin (1988) cited in Journal of Education and Social Research (2014) classified various definitions of quality into five groups as:

- a) Transcendent definitions – the definitions are subjective and personal
- b) Product-based definitions – quality is seen as a measurable variation.
- c) User-based definitions – quality is a means for customer satisfaction.
- d) Manufacturing-based definition – quality is seen as conformance to requirements and specifications.
- e) Value-based definitions – quality is defined in relation to costs.

Out of the groups' definitions that have been provided on quality, the central ideas define quality as absolute, quality as a relative concept, quality as a process and quality as culture. These ideas are explained as follows:

Quality education is absolute, that is, it is given and considered as the highest possible standard. The work of high standard and can be seen in the painting of Mona Lisa painted by Leonardo Da Vinci. For Da Vinci to arrive at such a painting of Mona Lisa meant that he had to put in a lot of effort and resources. Quality is not easy to achieve unless one follows the laid down processes and conforms to bureaucratic requirements. For quality education to be achieved in any institution of learning, the management should follow the minimum standards required to attain quality. Educational institutions such as Oxford, Harvard and Cambridge to mention just a few have absolute quality. Quality is considered a measure of excellence. In other words, it is a condition of freedom from defects, flaws, deficiencies and significant disparities. This is achievable through strict and consistent commitment to certain standards that promote uniformity of a product in order to satisfy specific customers, in this case, the pupils or learners in the classroom. To enhance quality education in community schools the Ministry of General Education should provide necessary support to them.

In complementing the above argument ISO (International Organisation for Standardisation) 8402-1986 standard defines quality as:

"the totality of features and characteristics of a product or service that bears its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs." If an automobile company finds a defect in one of their cars and makes a product recall, customer reliability and therefore production will decrease because trust will be lost in the car's quality.

Quality should also mirror out the cumulative characteristics of the environment that supports the production of goods and services that directly speak to the voice of the customer or client (Cover 2007).

In his book Ethic and Education as cited in Mastering PTE Education, Professor Richard Stanely Peters describes it as a concept. He emphasises that education is never

a finished process and that it is worthwhile because it produces something of value (Tungu et al, 2012). Education is a universal practice engaged in by societies at all points of development. It describes the total process of human learning by which knowledge is transmitted, faculties trained and skills developed (Farrant, 1980).

According to MESVTEE (2015) there is no one decided definition of quality education. Nevertheless, from the available literature the following definitions are appropriate: Combs (1985) defines quality education as relevance of what is taught and learned – to how it fits the present and the future needs of the particular learners in question, given the particular circumstances and prospects. Morgatroyd and Morgan (1994) looks at quality education as determination of standards, suitable methods and quality requirements by expert body, accompanied by a process of inspection or evaluation that examines the extent to which practice meets these standards; and the World Bank (1995) perceives quality education as education which must embrace student outcomes and learning environment that helps to produce these outcomes. Also the European Trade Union Committee for education (2002) defines quality education as education which best fits the present and the future needs of the specific learners in question and community, given the particular situations and prospects. UNESCO Education for all Global Monitoring Report of 2005 presents a large framework for understanding education quality (see appendix H). Quality Education is that education which changes and molds a person to be able to fit into a society and not only to fit into a society but to be able to contribute to the development of the society.

The quality of education involves the use of appropriate curriculum, a suitable source of trained and qualified teachers, suitable teaching/learning materials, including the use of computer technologies, Continuing Professional Development (CPD) of teachers, consistent monitoring and evaluation of schools by Education Standards Officers (ESOs), and a suitable learning environment and proper sanitation (Daily Mail, 2018); (Mwanza and Nkosha, 2009); (MoE, 2003). Schools to have quality education entails an environment to be created for quality education to blossom, without that kind of environment, to achieve quality would be slow or difficult. Nowadays there are effective methods of designing lesson plans for successful teaching in the classroom

situation. Teachers come together and do lesson planning as a group in a collaborating way. The preparation of these lesson plans is done during CPD meetings. Knowledge is shared among 4 or 6 teachers as they plan one lesson. Gone are the days when teachers prepared lesson plans on their own without any assistance of other teachers. Nowadays lesson studies have been strengthened because working in groups in a collaborative way is important. This collaboration, as seen in car manufacturing companies, leads to production of quality vehicles. Therefore, decentralisation always yields quality products.

3.4 Decentralisation of education and community schools

According to Bartle (2007), a social unit of any size that shares common values is known as a community. In other words, a community is a sociological model; it is a set of interactions (human behavior) that have meaning and expectations among its members. It is centred on shared expectations, values, beliefs and meanings between individuals (Bartle, 2007). A community may not even have physical setting, but be defined by being a group of people with common interest. The community, which is under discussion in this study, is the one with physical geographical location (Bartle, 2007). The word community is attained from the Old French *comunete*, which is also attained from the Latin. Since the beginning of the internet, the perception of community has less geographical restriction as people can now be virtually in an online community and share common interests regardless of physical locality. A school is a social institution which is characterised by structure and by norms. In this study, structure refers to the relative rankings, both formal and informal, of positions and individuals within the institution, and norms refer to standards for behavior within the system structure (Willower and Carr 1965). It is an institution of learning designed for teaching of pupils (learners) under the direction of teachers. The word school comes from the Greek word *schole*, which simply means leisure. The notion of grouping the learners together in the central locality for learning came about during the traditional ancient times. Formal schools first existed in the ancient Greece, Rome, India and China.

The Sumerians, who lived in the Tigris-Euphrates valley, created a method of writing approximately 3500 B.C. World Book (97:2001) notes that:

The Egyptians developed a writing system about 3000 B.C. Both systems included a method of writing numbers as well as language. The invention of writing was a milestone in the history of education. It made possible the beginning of schools, as we know them. Before people developed writing, teachers had to repeat orally what was to be learned until the young had memorised it. A child could thus learn only what the teacher had memorised.

However, by teaching children how to read, teachers could make available the knowledge of many people, not only their own. Yet reading and writing could not be learned while the child served as apprentice, imitated the behavior of the elders, or took part in rituals. In addition, the first writing systems, which were a kind of picture writing, were awkward and not easy to master. As such, special schools were created in which teachers taught reading, writing and mathematics. Approximately 3000B.C, both the Sumerians and the Egyptians came up with schools to teach reading and writing. Priests taught in many of the schools and quite a good number of pupils came from the upper-class families. Only a small number of boys and a few girls were taught (World Book, 2001). All communities have rules and regulation in order to have order and quality life in the society. This is a replica of what is happening in most of African countries. The disadvantaged or underprivileged communities who cannot afford to send their children to private or public schools have opted to create and set up their own schools with the blessings of the government through the Ministry of Education. These communities have realised, like he Sumerians, that the only true key which can open doors to a better life is education. These schools, which have been set, are decentralised for many African countries have now focused on alternative system of governance and management built on responsible participatory and accountability systems in education (Naidoo, 2003).

3.5 Education in Zambia as it relates to the community

Primary education provides an atmosphere that supports desirable attitudes, morals and behavioral change among learners. In this regard, the Ministry of General Education has for the past decades put stress at this kind of education. This is also the premise that primary education lays a firm foundation upon which all other stages of education are built. From 1996 to 2011, Primary Education Sub-sector has been operational as Basic Education Sub-sector offering Grades 1-9 for learners aged between 7 and 15 years. With the ushering in of the new government by the people of Zambia in 2011, the Basic Education Sub-sector has reverted to the Primary Education Sub-sector to offer Grades 1-7 to learners aged between 7 and 13 years. As it is in the new education structure, Grades 8 and 9 have been incorporated with the High School Sub-sector to come up with the Secondary School Sub-sector. The Zambian government is very committed to achieving the MDG's and EFA goals, and as a result, it has even a millennium class which, in partnership with all key players, is being used as a model to monitor progression towards the achievement of goals.

There are four groups, which are involved in providing education at primary school level. These four groups are Government, Private Sector, Grant aided Schools and Communities. In 2009, 896 schools offered Grades 1 to 4; 4,137 schools offered Grades 1 to 7; 2, 871 offered Grades 1 to 9; and 5 schools offered Grades 8 to 9 only. In 2009 the total number of schools came to 8, 437. Out of these, 5,026 were government schools, signifying 59.56 percent, 2,661 (or 31.54 percent) were community, 384 were private and 347 were grant-aided. With respect to access considerations, the approved age for entry into Grade One is 7 years. Nevertheless, the system has an excess of over-age children who are not able to enter into Grade 1 owing to various reasons. However, admissions to Grade 1 increased from 286,557 in 2002 to about 472,238 in 2010.

The last year of the FNDP implementation in 2010, there were 3,045,277 pupils enrolled in Grades 1 to 7, which was a substantial increase from about 2,000,000 in 2005. Of the total enrollment, 1,525,668 were girls while 1,519,609 were boys. The

increase in number was because of the free education policy that the government of Zambia had put in place as well as the expansion of physical space through infrastructure development. Even with the substantial increase with pupils' enrollment, it was noted that about 10 percent of schoolchildren did not attend school. MESVTEE (2015:36) notes that:

For example, the schoolchildren, as reported by the 2011 UNICEF survey, stood at 435,430, showing that there exists a challenge of access. The main reasons for low access include inadequate classroom space and absence of schools within walking distance. Cultural practices that inhibited children, particularly the girls, from attending school, also contributed to the backlog of children that have not been enrolled into Grade One. The problem was more severe in the low cost areas and among small-scale agricultural and fishing communities.

In terms of quality, test and examination results reveal that the education quality in Zambia has remained low. The large increase in enrolment levels has been greeted by higher pupil/teacher ratio and a higher pupil/classroom ratio; a state of affairs that has tended to compromise quality. National assessments of pupil performance in numeracy and literacy, for example, have shown that the average scores rose from 34 to 38 percent between 1999 and 2003 and thereafter remained stagnant. The average scores for Grades 7 and 9 examination revealed a similar trend. According to the National Assessment Survey Report of (2008:10):

the mean performance was 35.3 percent in English, 39.4 percent in Mathematics, 40.2 percent in Life Skills and 39.4 percent in Zambian Languages. This finding revealed that there was stagnation in pupil performance as compared to the 2006 survey where the mean performance in English, Mathematics and Zambian Languages were 34.5 percent, 38.45 and 37.79percent, respectively. This poor performance is further corroborated by SACMEQ III (2007) results published in 2011. The average scores for English and Mathematics were 511.8 and 500, while Zambia's scores were 486.2 and 434.4 respectively.

National Examinations are conducted in Grades 7, 9 and 12. For Grade 7, the number of places in Grade 8 determines the cut off points. These are not means tested; therefore, they cannot be used to establish trends of learning achievement over time, for boys and girls but more prominently for girls. A number of reasons can be attributed to this,

among them, low morale among teachers, inadequate teaching and learning materials, as well as unsatisfactory supervision at school level. MOGE (2015:36) observes that:

One noteworthy aspect that has a bearing on the quality of educational service delivery relates to teacher supply. Until 2004, the Ministry had been unable to recruit teachers because of the employment freeze that the government implemented. Equally important, the supply of textbooks brought some challenges to the Ministry as the policy of liberalising and decentralising the procurement of textbooks was problematic.

According to the 2006 National Assessment Survey report, the majority of pupils (59.9% in English and 58.4% in Mathematics) shared a textbook between 3 and 4 pupils. This meant that the targeted book/pupil ratio of two pupils per textbook was not achieved. The overall system performance in terms of enhancing quality has also been compromised by the following:

- (a) Inadequate number of qualified and motivated teachers and head teachers especially in rural areas leading to increased PTRs,
- (b) Poorly motivated teachers and head teachers leading to high teacher and pupil absenteeism;
- (c) Inadequate leadership and management capacity at the school and district levels;
- (d) Mismatch between increased enrolments and quality considerations that include teacher supply, and learning materials and classroom space; and
- (e) Funding at primary sub-sector level in decline.

As part of quality improvement, the Ministry decided, over the 1998-2002 period, to reform the Zambia Basic School Curriculum for Grades 1-7. However, a host of challenges compromised the realisation of the intended results. These included the slow pace of curriculum reform itself and weak supply of text books; mismatch between the curriculum in the Colleges of Education and what was reformed at the school level; inadequately qualified and motivated teachers that were needed to apply the new curricula; ineffective management capacity at the school and district levels; and poorly motivated teachers and head teachers.

Several other quality-related indicators contributed towards the poor performance during the FNDP implementation period. They included high teacher attrition, high pupil/teacher ratio and pupil/book ratio as well as high pupil/classroom ratio. In 2010 alone, over 3,000 teachers were reported to have left the system due to various reasons. In some schools, the pupil/teacher ratio was as high as 65:1, which was far more than the Ministry's desirable level of 45:1. For the Ministry to have achieved the desirable pupil/teacher ratio, over 20,000 additional teachers were required in 2010.

Inadequate supply of teachers, particularly in rural areas, has resulted in some schools resorting to the multi-grade teaching and learning approaches for which teachers have not received specialised training. It also led to double shifting thereby reducing the pupil-teacher contact time to as low as three and half hours per day instead of the recommended five hours. This has resulted in limited focus on the learner. As for community schools, teacher qualifications are quite low, with over 80 percent of the teaching staff being under qualified, thus compromising the quality of educational service delivery.

Community Schools have significantly assisted especially OVCs and children from poor households, to access education. In 2010, the 2,851 community schools had 546,899 learners, representing about 18 percent of total primary school enrolment. Between 2008 and 2009, the Ministry improved infrastructure at 236 community schools and converted them into government schools. The Ministry has also seconded government teachers to community schools and provided teaching and learning materials. Notwithstanding these efforts, community schools continue to face several challenges that include inadequate teaching skills; insufficient teaching and learning materials/equipment; sub-standard infrastructure; and inadequate qualified human resource.

With respect to efficiency, it has been observed that internal efficiency remained a major concern in the Basic Education Subsector during FNDP implementation. The sub-sector continued to experience high repetition rate as high as 14 percent in examination classes at Grade 7 and 9, implying that additional resources were required not only to

cater for regular cohort but also for those who repeated and stayed longer in primary schools. There has been a reduction in dropout rates over the years although it remains significant at an average of 2.5 percent at primary education level with the girl dropout rates exceeding 5 percent in the last three years of primary education. This is attributed largely to early marriages and pregnancies. MESVTEE (2015: 37) notes that:

System inefficiencies also exist in deployment and utilisation of resources such as teachers. There is a mismatch between the supply projected demands for teachers. There are particular problems in the supply of mathematics and science teachers although the two subjects are compulsory at upper primary level, as well as teachers trained in phonics for effective early Grade reading acquisition. Uneven distribution of teachers also exists, with critical shortages occurring more in rural than in urban areas.

The teacher deployment system put in place has given teachers the opportunity to choose districts in which they wish to work. Some districts do not receive sufficient applicants and often have to recruit teachers that apply to other districts. Many teachers refuse to take up rural posts. This is in spite of the 20 percent incentive payment (rural hardship allowance) for teachers serving in rural areas. Rural areas now have much fewer teachers than urban areas have.

3.6 Quality education main policies, objectives and strategies of education in Zambia.

The key policies of the Ministry of General Education, under the primary sub-sector, defined below will be introduced in the National Implementation Framework (NIF) III period but will not be fully executed within the course of NIF III because they include some longer term goals. The main purpose is to embrace quantitative and qualitative improvements in the delivery of services at this level through the following policy aspirations:

- I. Acquiring quantitative and qualitative improvement in Primary Education services delivery through improvements in access, quality, equity, and efficiency of education system;

- II. Acquiring quantitative and qualitative improvement in Primary Education services;
- III. Making Primary Education (Grade 1-7) not only free but also compulsory;
- IV. Developing a comprehensive, diversified and integrated curriculum, which secures the human, practical and vocational relevance of primary Education and complemented by integrated national assessment framework that will equip Zambian children with necessary literacy, numeracy and survival skills;
- V. Upgrading all Primary Schools to Full Primary Schools (to offer Grade 1 to Grade 7);
- VI. Upgrading community schools to fully fledged Primary Schools;
- VII. Re-orienting the curriculum for primary schools to put emphasis on life skills subjects to enable learners cope with demands of self-employment and the labour market; and
- VIII. Improving learning outcomes.

Given the policy aspirations stated above, the government will in a phased approach provide adequate budgetary allocation to the sector to make free and compulsory education a reality and better cater for the expansion and up-grading of infrastructure and teaching resources. To this effect, the objectives during the NIF III period will be as follows:

- 1. To provide access to primary education to all children;
- 2. To improve the quality of education;
- 3. To avail the efficiency of the education system; and
- 4. To avail equity in the provision of education.

The following strategies will be used at this level:

- a) Increase enrolment;
- b) Employ and deploy qualified teacher, particularly for rural areas;
- c) Embark on a complete review of the Curriculum used in the Primary School Education;
- d) Enhance the accessibility of teaching and learning materials including for the underprivileged and LSEN;
- e) Incorporate the use of ICTs in the system of education including for LSEN with private sector participation;
- f) Incorporate the use of ICTs in management and administration of the education sector;
- g) Encourage partnership among providers of educational services and relevant stakeholders;
- h) Improve the school leadership and management;
- i) Augment provision of education services to underprivileged children or OVCs and LSEN;
- j) Increase the availability of educational access to underprivileged children through the provision of targeted bursary scheme; and
- k) Strengthen data management and dissemination as well as teacher training for early grade literacy numeracy.

3.7 Community schools in Zambia

According to Carmody (2004) the idea of Community schools in Zambia came into existence in 1992 because of the need for additional school places and because they were appropriate for out of school children and youths. In other words, the needs of orphans, the poor and girl children formed the main reason for the establishment of such kinds of schools. These schools were mainly intended to offer free education to children

between nine and sixteen years of age. Currently the local communities support and run these community schools through donations from well-wishers and through contributions from the pupils in form of money or payments in kind. These community schools, it seems, play a larger role in the life of the local communities than the public schools do. According to Cushen et al. (2001) cited in Yoder (2002: 4-A);

Community schools emerged in the colonial era and were organised and managed by European Missionaries. Just after independence, these schools were taken over by the government, which did not allow non-governmental education. Community schools in the recent years have arisen again in the wake of economic slump and the incapability of public education to meet the needs for a low-cost or free education

In 2007, more than 3000 community schools in Zambia enroll at least 75,000 pupils, and these are considered an alternative basic education system (ZCSS n.d.1; MoE, 2007). In 1999 there were 4,290 public primary schools in Zambia and of this number 14 percent comprised community schools (Brunette 2001). In 1997 the Zambia Community School Secretariat (ZCSS) was set up as an umbrella body to cater for Non-Governmental Organizations, churches, local authorities, and communities who offer community centered education to vulnerable children who cannot gain admission to other learning institutions (Yoder, 2004:A3). De Stefano (2006:11) and Miller-Grandvaux (2002:3.) note that:

By 1998, ZCSS had successfully gained official recognition of as a coordinating agency for community schools. The MoE was also committed to provide community schools with access to funding, learning materials, teacher training programs and government teachers.

The main objective of the Secretariat was to facilitate local communities to set up, own and participate in the management of community schools for disadvantaged children, providing appropriate quality education that empowered children and upheld their rights (ZCSS n.d.,1). The objectives of were realised through forming policy, advocacy, coordinated activities of member organisations, resource mobilisation and setting and monitoring educational standards. In other words, the Secretariat was not working in a vacuum as it was working hand in hand with all stakeholders who were involved in the

provision of education to the vulnerable children. Grandvaux, Yoder (2002:4) observes that:

ZCSS signed a Memorandum of Understanding with the Ministry of Education in 1998 outlining of clear roles and responsibilities for each party. Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early education has recognised community schools as a complementary system to the existing ones in Zambia and pledged to assist community schools to access funds, learning materials, and teacher training programs, and seconded some personnel, and provided offices for ZCSS in the provinces.

The signed memorandum of understanding was considered a progressive step in the provision of education through partnership with communities and other stakeholders through the secretariat. The Secretariat was a conduit between the Ministry of Education and stakeholders for the smooth running of community schools. For effective coordination between community schools and the Ministry of Education, focal point persons were appointed in all the nine provinces (at that time). As mentioned, at that time the focal persons appointed included the chief inspector of schools in the Ministry of Education. MoE (2007:8) states that:

Originally, Focal Point Persons (FPP) were appointed from different ranks and sections within the Ministry of Education to positions at national, provincial, and district levels. They were only individuals expected to ensure that community schools received due attention in terms of resource allocation, pedagogical support and standards monitoring.

The Focal Point Persons had already too much in terms of responsibilities on their shoulders apart from the responsibility given to them of coordinating between the Ministry of Education and community schools. In addition, many challenges faced by FPPs like restructuring, transfers and promotions negatively impacted the continuity of support of community schools. These appointments also affected their performance in their original portfolios in the Ministry of Education. According to Yoder (2002), the roles proposed for the PCSC, the ZCSS, and the Ministry of Education were tabulated out as follows: The PCSC was given authority to hire and monitor teachers and a head teacher, work with the focal point persons so as to acquire learning and teaching aids,

maintain school assets and property, support teachers financially or pay them in kind and mobilise community and raise funds.

Activities of Community Schools are now fully coordinated by the Zambia Open Community Schools Secretariat. ZOCS is an organisation of schools, which was founded in Zambia in 1992. It filled the vacuum, which was left by ZCSS. It is on the forefront encouraging communities to provide quality basic education to over 125,000 demonstration Community Schools across 51 districts in all the 10 provinces of the country, based on the principle that every child has a right to education <https://educateachild.org/our-partners-projects/partner/zambia-open-community-schools>. Nkosha and Mwanza (2009:19) observe that:

Community schools had been operating under Zambia Community Schools Secretariat (ZCSS) before dissolution. Currently, there are community schools, which fall directly under the ZOCS, which was established in 1992. These schools are found in 14 districts of Zambia in Central, Eastern, Lusaka and Southern provinces. The majority of community schools do not have any Umbrella organisation. However, communities themselves run community schools in both categories (i.e. those that fall directly under ZOCS and those that do not).

Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS) is a Non-Governmental and non-profit making organisation legalised to complement the Ministry of General Education in the provision of quality education to orphans and vulnerable children (OVC) particularly the girl child and children with Special Education Needs (SEN). ZOCS was registered as a Non-Governmental Organisation in 1996 under the registrar of societies in Zambia.

According <http://www.zambiaopencommunityschools.org>

ZOCS supports 524 community schools in 38 districts with an estimated population of 117, 000 learners (46, 800 boys and 70,200 girls). The learners are taught by over 2,340 volunteer teachers (936 male and 1, 404 female) who have dedicated their time to ensuring access to education for all children in their communities. The organisation in its work is directed by an Annual Work Plan derived from the ZOCS 2011-2015 Strategic Plan and from communities through Annual General Meetings.

The strategic plan discloses the three pillars on which ZOCS approach is built namely, Advocacy, Capacity building and Service delivery. ZOCS, for all practical drives, has been advocating for all-encompassing access to quality education for the OVC particularly the girl child and children with Special Education Needs (SEN). ZOCS has been proactive in capacity building of the community schools continuing professional development, providing learning and teaching material and empowering some community schools with entrepreneurship skills so that the schools and the community are self-sustaining.

Though Zambia has made strides through the provision of free primary education and abolishing compulsory school uniform and fees, access to education is not yet universal.

Obstacles in accessing education include long distances covered to reach schools, the negative impact of HIV and AIDS, high poverty levels in communities, lack of infrastructure and limited schools especially in rural areas. Challenges faced by learners with special education needs include inaccessible infrastructure, lack of relevant teaching and learning tools and stigma within communities (ZOC, n.d.).

As earlier mentioned above ZOCS believes in complementing government's efforts by providing quality, free and compulsory access to education particularly, the Orphans Vulnerable Children with special education needs. Quality is assured when ZOCS provides basic training to volunteer teachers, provision of teaching and learning materials to their schools as well as of Parent Community Schools (PCSCs) in school management and resource mobilisation skills and infrastructure development, water and sanitation facilities. The vision of ZOCS is to provide quality education to every OVC in Zambia particularly the girl child. This education enables the OVCs to build themselves a sustainable livelihood.

ZOCS exists to enable Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC) in Zambia especially the girl child and disadvantaged children, access quality education. ZOCS hopes to realise this through advocacy, capacity building, and support to community schools

through service delivery, mainstreaming cross cutting issues Gender, HIV and AIDS and Disability, as well as monitoring and evaluation of its interventions. ZOCS as a non-governmental organisation upholds integrity in all its work, by striving for high quality, sustainability and accountability. It is committed to the cause of helping the OVCs to have access to quality education, for education is a key that can open any door to a successful life. All members of staff of ZOCS are highly qualified professionals who provide quality services at the same time accountable to stakeholders. The Zambian government has embarked on upgrading of community schools, despite the lack of official plan and clear understanding of upgrading by all stakeholders. In the course of the upgrading process, the community school is to receive infrastructure development, government teachers, grants and school requisites (Macwan'gi et al. 2016). However, ambiguity exists regarding to how much support a school in the process of being upgraded should receive, at what point the process is formally completed, and how upgrading might shift roles of the PCSC and volunteer teachers. Currently, upgrading is almost entirely a top-down process from MOGE with limited involvement by or inputs from community schools or their partners, even though this is in direct conflict with the 2014 Operational Guidelines for Community Schools. With no appropriate care, community school advocates are concerned that community schools' aim and vision to provide education to poor and vulnerable children, and their community-driven nature will be lost (Frischkorn and Falconer-Stout 2016).

3.8 Curriculum in community schools

When Community Schools were established the main purpose was to provide free quality education to children between 9 to 16 years old, pupils who could not be enrolled in the formal schools system. Some community schools that were set up in the rural areas often used a multi-grade way of teaching. The curriculum which was used was School, Participation, Access and Relevant Knowledge (SPARK). Kelly (1999:232) observes that SPARK refers to a comprehensive system of education in community schools, which includes minimum guidelines, a syllabus, teacher training, supervision and inspection. According to Mulenga (2010:10), the abridged curriculum had four

levels that equal 7 years of basic education and include academic subjects, pre-vocational skills and life skills. Thus, the SPARK curriculum incorporated four subjects namely, English, a Zambian Language and Culture, Mathematics and Social Science. This curriculum was developed under the facilitation of United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). Those who were tutored under it graduated without examination because that was what the curriculum demanded. DeStefano (2006) indicates that the curriculum was planned in such a way that students were not expected to continue their education after completing the four year curriculum, rather students were expected to progress to a skills class focused on practical training (e.g., woodworking, metalworking, tailoring). The Zambia Basic Education Curriculum was also used because community schools also started enrolling young pupils as those found in the government primary schools. SPARK curriculum was designed for older children who were not likely continue school after primary education (DeStefano, 2006).

3.8.1 Resources in community schools

According to various studies conducted resource mobilisation showed that community schools depended on a variety of sources, namely, the local communities, the government, that is, through the Ministry of General Education, the Church, non-government organisation, local and international and individuals within and out-side the country. Chakufyali (2008) indicates that the local community in Zambia has been helpful in the sponsoring of community schools from their initial stage. When the community members set up a community school, it was also their responsibility to sustain it in terms of support. Communities had been fundraising through communal work, for example, through molding of bricks and through other communal works like farm work. Resources have were also raised from Donor Agencies like VVOB, ZOCS, USAID, Business Houses and UNICEF and from other well-wishers. According to the evaluation that was carried out by Time to Learn in 2014, the head teachers of community schools reported that they had received more types of support from the Ministry of General Education through zonal and district offices in 2014 they did in 2012 (TTL Midline Evaluation, 2015). The support was in form monitoring,s which

increased to 61%, teaching learning materials, which increased to 58%, other basic materials also increased to 47%, training of volunteer teachers increased to 23%, and teacher deployed by government to community schools increased to 11%. With all these efforts to the education sector as well as increased support by the Ministry of Education 90% of community school teachers were untrained.

3.8.2 Performance of learners in community schools

Many studies have been carried out indicating how community schools have performed as compared to government schools. Chakufyali (2008) indicated that in spite of the difficulty circumstances in which they operate such as poor learning environments; insufficient teaching and learning materials; use of untrained teachers;...community schools have effective teaching and learning activities that go on, which have contributed to a better performance of pupils than those in public schools. According to Mulenga (2010) Action Aid in Tanzania had students in their ACCESS centres sitting for the same end-of year examinations as students in primary government schools. The Action Aid students performed better, taking the ten highest scores. Similarly according Frischkorn and Falconer-Stout (2016), the practical consequence of this school-level diversity is that community schools cover a broad range where quality is concerned while some are among the top performers in the country, others are at the lowest level and one would wonder , if any, learning of quality takes place.

Also the Examination Council of Zambia did an all-embracing sample-based assessment of pupils in primary schools. Pupils in Grade Five from government schools were scientifically sampled from urban and rural areas in the nine provinces at that time. Five thousand pupils from two hundred fifty public schools were included in the sample. The 2003 assessment contained a sample of hundred community schools, which were selected from the nine province at that time. Community schools that participated were moderately stable and had manageable schools acceptable enrollments (Kanyika, 2003). The pupils in these schools performed well when compared with the national norm for minimum and desirable levels of proficiency. The community schools performed well in English and Mathematics. National Assessment Survey Report (2003) shows that 29

percent of community school students reached minimum proficiency in English, compared to 18 percent of government school students. Additionally, community school students out-performed students in public schools in English in every province. Also in the study done by Falconer-Stout, Kalimaposo and Simuyaba (2014) showed that despite the challenges PCSCs had in paying of teachers' salaries and improving the infrastructure the schools performed relatively well in the 2012 Early Grade Reading Assessment. Falconer-Stout, Kalimaposo and Simmuyaba (2014) also observed that community schools in Zambia are locally funded and managed through a parent community school committee (PCSC). Despite the stigma and paucity of resources associated with community schools, evidence suggests that many produce better learning outcomes than government schools do.

3.8.3 Challenges in community schools

Community Schools since their inception have seen a lot challenges, and according to Chakufyali (2008), the challenges are as follows: 1. insufficient support from the government to community schools; 2. Tension between donor Agencies and the Ministry of General Education. 3. Lack of sponsorship to untrained volunteer teachers and to trained teachers for further training; 4. Lack of proper infrastructure; 5. Lack of monitoring of community schools by government officials; and 6. Lack of orientation for school managers, teachers and parents to the policy or operational guidelines. These challenges have affected the smooth delivery of education to the vulnerable children in terms of quality. The study was in agreement with Nkoshu and Mwanza (2009) who also indicated that in most community schools that were visited the school buildings were insufficient, dilapidated and poor or non-existent at all. The researchers, in most cases found pupils learning in church buildings, uncompleted buildings, or under trees. From the findings of Nkoshu and Mwanza (2009) one could see that community schools really needed intervention in terms of assistance from the government and other stake holders-holders for quality and good performance of pupils.

3.8.4 Monitoring and evaluation

School monitoring is important for it helps the school to determine whether it is on the right path to achieving its objectives or not. In other words, the purpose of monitoring is to see to it that the progress of an institution is going on as per laid down procedures according to the institutions' objectives. According to the National Policy on Education (1996) the main purpose of evaluation is to determine how successful school and teachers are in working towards the set educational objectives. Good performance and quality education in community schools partly depended on the monitoring of the schools by Standards Officers, PCSCs and other stakeholders. According to the National Policy on Education Educating Our Future (1996:155)...

their principal concern is with improving teacher effectiveness and school organisation. As disseminators of good practice, they stimulate teachers to examine their lesson preparation and follow, through their teaching strategies, the way they are developing or using curriculum materials, how they evaluate pupils, and how they organise the teaching session. They also advise school heads on such issues as timetabling, the effective use of teachers, and providing good leadership to all in the schools.

The Standards Officers and other stakeholders responsibilities was to make sure that quality education is enhanced in community schools. When children are exposed to quality education, their performance in class work and examinations is enhanced.

3.9 Community schools in Africa

In almost all African countries, community schools provide education to the underprivileged (Glassman, 2007). In the last 15 years community schools have become an important part of education landscape in sub-Sahara Africa (Yoder, 2002). To mention just a few countries, in Togo, Community schools came into being in the colonial era, and were called underground schools by government until 1995. Community schools in 1997 were officially recognised by the government of Togo as schools which came into being because of the initiative of the locals (Local Initiative Schools). As community schools were accepted, inspectors of schools were requested to take stock of the schools as exhaustively as possible, to recommend teachers for

formal training sessions, and to give them material support where possible. Community schools came into being in many African countries to supplement government's effort in the provision of education. For example, in Zambia community came into being because the government was unable to build schools in all areas because of lack of resources. In Togo community schools, which had been in existence for many years and had many pupils, were given teachers by the government as per recommendation of the inspectors of schools. Community schools before being given legal status to operate as normal schools, just depended on government schools for curricula, textbooks, and teaching methods. It was necessary for schools to register themselves with the Ministry of Education through the education inspection services so as to be recognised

Management and structures of teaching in community schools varied from one school to another according to the way they were established. Community schools in Togo were divided into three categories; community schools which were started and supported by religious groups and NGOs; and those which were started and managed by the local communities themselves without outside support; and community schools where the government appointed and paid the director of the school. Yoder (2002) observes that; "... a government-appointed director brought about enhanced institutional monitoring to the school as well as better-quality organised teaching, consistent inspection visits, and access to textbooks, teaching materials, and training".

Many of these community schools did not receive government support or funding from the central government; they lacked teachers and follow-ups, and needed help with teaching materials, and were barely visited by the Standard Officers and rarely received textbooks from the suppliers, the Institute for Education and Professional Development (IEPD). With anticipation of the books that they do receive, these community schools were supported financially through school fees paid by pupils' parents. The Committee of Parents or management team of parents was entirely responsible for creating, supporting, and managing of the schools. According Yoder (2002), many schools received help from external sources like NGOs and from other well-wishers albeit salaries were the responsibility of communities. The teachers who were employed were not well educated, the majority of them had only primary or had only attained Grade

Nine level education. Paying of the teachers was a challenge for the local communities. Village communities were unable to pay for their children to complete Grade-Six education unless assisted.

In Mali community schools came into being because of lack of places and because parents were unable to finance the education of their children in the government run schools. The idea of community schools had blessings of the government. The 1994 law of Mali describes community schools as private schools formed and administered by communities or associations. Community schools accommodate many pupils as compared to government run schools. According to Yoder (2002), community schools were seen to have “public utility” (simply institutions providing services to the community) and a certificate was given to a school by authorities once the school had more than 20 students. Glassman et al (2007) observes that... Mali Village Schools have become renowned. Community schools are constructed or established with community labour, controlled by a community management committee, staffed by local volunteers and supported by communities’ own contributions and efforts, in cash or in kind. This kind of set-up is what is happening in almost all African countries where community schools are found. The example is Zambia where community schools are set-up, managed and funded by the communities through the PCSCs

According to Cisse et al. (2000) Community schools were encouraged to use the official curriculum or one recognised by the education authorities. In Mali’s Sokiso region the curriculum was used in collaboration between save the children and CNE (Centre National d’ Education).

Glassman, Naidoo, and Wood (2007) showed that the community school yearly calendar was aligned to the agricultural seasons. Schools were opened in October, after harvesting maize, and schools closed at the end of May before the start of the rainy season, so that children could help their parents to plant and harvest. Pupils only leant for three hours, so the three-hour school day enabled children to do their responsibilities and therefore did not disrupt daily routine.

The contents of the curriculum were reduced to basic lessons that could be covered in three-hour sessions, which gave the school a better chance of surviving because the interruption of village life was minimal. Glassman, Naidoo, and Wood, (2000:18) notes that;

On the other hand, a school year of six days per week, 28 weeks per year, with no holidays and no student or teacher strikes made it possible to cover the curriculum effectively, and even to add grades 4-6 in 1996.

The entrance age has been reduced to 6 – 8 and the school cycle has extended from 3-6 years with French being introduced in the third year. The curriculum has also moved closer to traditional primary curriculum.

In Mali the decentralisation of education was also encouraged through Education Sector Investment Program (PISE) as the Government of Mali was agreeable to offload some of its responsibilities and resources to local communities and administrations over the next four years (Ramin, 2000a).

Community schools in Chad are called Ecoles spontanees, created and supported by communities to make up for the absence of government schools. Yoder (2002:13A) observes that; These community schools were mostly found in the countryside and were established because of the political and military disturbances which took place 20 to 30 years ago, that disturbed the effectiveness of government intervention in education.

Many of these community schools only offered the first few years of primary school. These community schools in terms of performance did not do well for they had a higher dropout rate in every year than all other types of schools had, and this was attributed to unqualified teachers. Yoder (2002:) showed that their results remained mediocre as teachers were not qualified (62 percent had not completed 9th Grade and only 14 out of 929 had had pre-service training), the infrastructure was not good, and very few textbooks, a ratio of one book for every seven pupils in 1991-1992). Parents paid most teachers, though in a few cases, government seconded teachers were availed. Community schools received moderately little support or supervision from Ministry of Education inspectors.

Communities who sponsored these schools were expecting that the government would take them over and supply trained teachers. The communities also needed help with infrastructure, teaching and learning materials, and textbooks. The government was not in a position to provide all the requirements to the schools and Ministry of Education officials do not encourage their increase because of their poor quality teaching. Community school parents, however, are just as satisfied as other parents are because they appreciate having a school in their community even though the schools are poorly furnished and lack resources and quality.

Among all different private schools, ecoles spontanees had the strongest potential for spreading out but lacked good organisation in terms of having trained teachers and support where finances were concerned. Esquieu and Peano (1994).

In Ethiopia, in 1999, 45.8% of children were enrolled in primary school, with lower enrollment rate for girls and rural children according to the office of government Spokesperson (USAID: 1999). USAID (2001) cited in Yoder (2000) notes that; with such a weak basic education system donors such as USAID and the World Bank were working with the Ethiopian government to reform the education system and these endeavors included community management and financing of education. The USAID's Basic Education System Overhaul (BESO) project was having communities increasingly take over the management of their schools as part of the process of decentralisation and educational reform.

The World Bank financed a five-year Education Sector Development in Ethiopia which began in 1998. This Education Sector Development mainly stressed primary education in rural areas. The focus of the Education Sector Development was as follows:

1. Enrollment rising from 3.1 million to 7 million and primary enrollment being increased by the ratio of 30 to 50%;
2. Upholding the equity by improving enrollment ratios for underprivileged groups: increasing girls' enrollment from 38 to 45% and increasing rural relative to enrollment in the urban area;

3. Upholding efficiency of education structure by reducing failure and repetition rates;
4. Upholding quality and relevancy by providing books and curriculum improvements and teacher training; and
5. Funding for education improved by increasing community spending on education from 3.8 to 4.6% of GDP and enabling private sector and community financing of education (World Bank: 1998).

There are over 1,600 community schools in Ethiopia (Wolf 2000; Rowley 2001; Sime: 2001; Save the Children (n.d.b); Leu: 2002). USAID was supporting community management of over 1,250 schools in two regions, with World Learning and Tigray Development Association (Rowley 2001; Leu: 2002).

A local Ethiopian organisation known as Action Aid supports over 220 ACCESS centres, which work as feeder schools for public schools, and Save the Children based in Ethiopia supports 48 schools (Sime 2001). Generally, the government has been distant from local schools. Community school programs have seen an increase in support from local government officials at both the Woreda and Zone (the next administrative level) levels, though on an individual basis it seemed rather than through a central policy directive. Woreda officials chose which public schools would participate in the BESO Community School (or school grants) program and often provided materials for school improvement. The growth of ACCESS center community schools was accepted as a regular part of education work of the Zone and Woreda officials in one zone (Yoder, 2002).

They outlined and prepared the project proposals, implemented the project, coordinated, supervised, monitored and evaluated it. Institutes of Teacher training and high school teachers were accountable for training ACCESS center facilitators and assisting in developing course materials (North Showa Zone Education Department 2000). From the literature reviewed, one notices that community schools operational procedure in a

decentralised context has not been fully explored in terms of curriculum, resource mobilisation, monitoring and challenges.

3.10 Summary

This chapter has presented a review of literature on decentralization and quality education in community schools. It has been argued that decentralisation and quality education go hand in hand. Decentralisation in education has been embraced by almost all African countries because it encourages everyone to be part of education delivery. Donors, including USAID, invigorated the decentralisation of education delivery and governments enlisted policies to support the new phenomenon (Glassman, 2007). Many studies concerning community schools focused on other areas of study. This study was worth conducting for various reasons. First, the study focused on the decentralisation and quality education in community schools which was identified as a gap in the reviewed literature. Secondly, the study sort to examine the decentralised nature of community schools, for community schools are decentralised by default. Thirdly, the study through the literature focused on the nature of the curricular that were used in community schools.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Overview

This chapter discusses the methodology that was used in this study. It comprises the research design, the target population, sampling techniques, the sample size, instruments for data collection, data collection techniques, analysis and summary.

4.2 Research paradigm

4.3 Post-positivism

Positivism believes that the existence of a true and objective reality that can be studied through applying the methods and principles of natural sciences and scientific enquiry (Morse, 2009). According to Bettany (<https://slideplayer.com/slide/4193465/> accessed on 27th December 2016), positivism is a scientific research paradigm which thrives to investigate confirm and predict law like patterns of behaviour and it is commonly used in the graduate research to test theories or hypothesis. This is particularly useful in natural science, physical science and to some extent in social sciences, especially where very large sample sizes are involved. Generally, its focus is on the objectivity of the research process (Creswell, 2008). The positivist paradigm mostly involves quantitative methodology, utilising experimental methods involving experimental (or treatment) and control groups and administration of pre and post-test to measure gain scores. Here, the researcher is external to the research site and is the controller of the research process. According to the paradigm, the note of the researcher is to provide materials for the development of laws by testing theories (Bryman, 2008).

Post-positivism, according to Willis (2007), has been described as a milder form of positivism that follows the same principles but allows more interaction between the researcher and his/her research participants. It uses addition methods such as survey research and qualitative methods such as interviewing and participant observation (Creswell, 2008). This paradigm is the modified scientific method for social sciences.

Post-positivism is considered a contemporary paradigm that was developed as a result of the criticism of positivism (Morse *et al*, 2009). It is very similar to the positivist approach of comparing mean scores but depends on non-equivalent that differ from others in many ways other than the presence of the treatment of whole effect being tested (Depoy and Gitlin, 1998). Post positivism recognises that the way scientists think and work and the way we think in our everyday life are not distinctly different. In this study, post-positivism encouraged the researcher to interact freely with the participants during data collection.

4.4 Ontology

Ontology is a branch of philosophy that studies the nature of human beings' existence as individuals in society and in the universe. It is concerned about what kinds of things exist, what entities are there in the universe. Ormston et al (2014) believe that ontology is mainly concerned with the question "whether or not there is a social reality that exists independently from human conceptions and interpretations, and closely related to this, whether there is a shared social reality or only multiple, context-specific ones." Ontology is a system of belief that reflects an interpretation by an individual about what constitutes a fact. It is associated with the central question of whether social entities should be considered as objective or subjective.

Appreciation of ontology at the start of the research/study process is very important as it determines the choice of the research design. The ontological position adopted in this study is that of constructivists. Constructivists believe that there is no single reality or truth and therefore reality needs to be interpreted and therefore reality needs to be interpreted and as a result, they are more likely to use qualitative methods to get multiple results. This study embraced the way of constructivists who believe reality should be interpreted in qualitative methods based on prior knowledge or experience. Ontology helped the researcher to interpret data in a qualitative or in a constructivist way.

4.5 Epistemology

Epistemology is a study of nature and validity of knowledge. Epistemologists examine the degrees of certainty and probability and the differences between knowing with certainty and believing without certainty (New Encyclopedia Britannica, 1990). According to Grotty (1998) as cited in Al-Saadi (2014), epistemology is a way of looking at the world and making sense of it. Epistemology is concerned of how one would get knowledge or how one would discover new things. Ontological beliefs dictate epistemological beliefs about what the researcher believes about the nature of reality. Kalimaposo (2010: 114) notes that:

Some researchers have a particular interest in the nature of inquiry and knowledge in the natural science or social sciences. The other question asked is: Is inquiry/research in the social science fundamentally different from research in the natural sciences? As researchers have investigated the nature of scientific inquiry over the years, they developed different schools of thought. There are two schools of thought that define social reality: positivism and post positivism.

As a result, if knowledge, on one hand, is viewed as hard, objective and tangible, this demands of the researcher an observer role together with an allegiance to the methods of natural science such a testing, measuring, and so on, if knowledge, on the other hand, is viewed as personal, subjective and unique, then this imposes on the researcher a rejection of the methods used by natural science and a greater involvement with their subjects (Al-Saadi, 2014). The epistemological position embraced in this study is constructivism. Constructivism recognizes knowledge creation as a human, social invention-a construction (Colliver, 2002). Ontology and Epistemology form a holistic understanding of how knowledge is observed and how one is able to perceive oneself in relation to this knowledge and methodological strategies one uses to come up with the truth (Patel, nd). In this study, a descriptive survey design was used to acquire knowledge on decentralisation and quality education in community schools in selected districts on the copper-belt province. The study brought about the reality or knowledge

of what community schools have done in the provision of primary education to the underprivileged children. Epistemology helped the researcher to have insight into how to get knowledge about community schools. As earlier said the epistemological position embraced in this study was constructivism which perceives knowledge creation a human, social invention (Colliver, 2000)

4.6 Research design

In this study, a descriptive survey design (or normative) was used to carry out the study. A descriptive design was considered appropriate for obtaining information from participants. A research design is a work plan or an outline of how an investigation will take place. David de Vaus (2001:9) states that;

The function of the research design is to ensure that the evidence obtained enables us to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible. Obtaining relevant evidence entails specifying the type of evidence needed to answer the research question, to test the theory, to evaluate a programme or to describe the phenomenon accurately.

This design attempts to describe and interpret what exists at present in the form of conditions of infrastructure, practices of teaching methods, processes of monitoring and evaluation, effects, trends of performance, attitudes and beliefs (Sidhu. 2013). Sidhu (2013:107) observes that descriptive survey design:

...is concerned with phenomena that are typical of normal conditions. It investigates into the conditions or relationships that exist, practices that prevail, beliefs, points of view or attitudes that are held, processes that are going on, influences that are being felt and trends that are developing. It deals with a cross-section of the present time, not the present moment. It seeks to answer the question. *What are the real facts with regard to the existing conditions?*

Descriptive survey design helps to secure evidence on prevailing situations and conditions and to come up with standards with which to compare the present, and as a result plan for the future (Anyona, 2009).

The study engaged both qualitative and quantitative procedures in order to collect detailed information about decentralisation and quality of education in community schools on the Copper-belt province.

4.7 Target population

A target population is a gathering of components or cases. It might be people, things or happenings that conform to particular criteria, and to which we intend to generalise the results of a research (McMillan and Schumacher, 2001). The target population for this study was 304 community schools in Mufulira and Kitwe districts on the Copper-belt province consisting of volunteer teachers and Parents Community School Committees (PCSCs), the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS), and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS): VVOB: and USAID-Time To Learn. In other words, it is a set of elements (people or things) that has some characteristics defined by the sampling criteria established by the researcher. The research was conducted in Kitwe: Chimwemwe, Racecourse, Kamatima, Garneton and Itimpi townships, In Mufulira: Kalindini, Mokambo, Zimba and Murundu rural areas.

4.8 Sample

The sample consisted of 195 respondents; 100 volunteer teachers; 45 head teachers/deputy head teachers, that is 32 head teachers from Kitwe and 13 from Mufulira, 45 members Parents Community School Committees. The intention was to sample all schools from Kitwe and Mufulira districts. However, only 13 and 32 schools respectively were selected in Mufulira and Kitwe districts for the study using simple random sampling. Multistage sampling was used to sample 2 districts out of 6 mining towns. The sample also included 3 officials from the umbrella organisations such as ZOCS, USAID (Time to Learn) and VVOB. At the district level, the District Education Board Secretaries of Mufulira and Kitwe were part of the sample. In research terms, a sample is a small fraction of a population chosen for observation and analysis. It is a collection consisting of a part or subset of objects or individuals of population, which is

chosen for the express purpose of representing the population Sidhu (2013). By observing the characteristics of the sample, one is bound to make certain interpretations about the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn Sidhu (2013). Sampling is very important in research because studying the whole population would be very costly at the same time consuming (Kalimapos, 2010). What is cardinal is to ensure that the results of the sample should be similar to those that would be arrived at if the entire population were involved in the research.

4.9 Sampling procedures

This study employed purposive sampling technique and a simple random sampling procedure. Purposive sampling technique is also known as judgmental, selective or subjective sampling for it depends on the judgement of the researcher when it comes to choosing of units (people, cases, institutions, events) that are to be included in the study (Sidhu, 2007). The participants who were purposely selected were the DEBS, Head teachers, DRCCs and representatives from the NGOs. Purposive sampling is a non-random procedure as earlier stated; it is dependent on the researcher's discretion. Described in basic terms, the researcher chooses what needs to be known and sets out to find respondents who can and are willing to offer the information by virtue of their knowledge or experience (Bernard, 2000; Lewis and Shepard, 2006). The purposive sampling technique was suitable for this research because the selected participants were in the position to discuss issues concerning decentralisation and quality education in community schools on the copper-belt province. Sidhu (2006:265) observes that:

Purposive sampling can be considered a form of stratified sampling in that the selection of the cases is governed by some criterion acting as a secondary control. Here the investigator selects a particular group or category from the population to constitute the sample because this category is considered to mirror the whole with reference to the characteristic in question. He purposely selects and purposely leaves some members. He selects units in such a way that the selected sample yields as quickly as possible the same averages and proportions as the totality has with respect to characteristics to be studied

In schools that had more than ten teachers, the simple random sampling technique was used. Simple random sampling was used when it came to selecting of teachers and schools. In this technique, each member of the population has equal chance of being chosen as a participant. The whole procedure of sampling is executed in a single step with each respondent chosen independently of other members of the population (Nsabila and Nalaila 2013). In a simple random sample, persons are selected at random and not more than once to avoid unfairness that would negatively affect the validity of the research results.

4.10 Data collection techniques.

The data collection as a part of research is common to all fields of study including physical and social sciences, humanities and business. Despite the fact that methods differ by discipline, the emphasis on ensuring accurate and honest collection remains the same.

In this study, data was collected through questionnaires, interview guides, focused group discussions, observation and documents analysis, and questionnaires were used to collect information from the class teachers and Head teachers. In-depth interviews were used to solicit information from community school administrators, parents, District Education Board Secretary and non-governmental organization such as Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS), the Flemish Association for development Cooperation and Technical Assistance (VVOB). Document analysis was used to review documents both printed and electronic computer-based and internet-communicated material (Bowen, G., 2009). According to Bowen (2009) document analysis is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning to the topic which has been assessed. That's why the study took the authors position on analysing of data. Focus Group discussions were used also to get in-depth data concerning community schools. Data collection is a systematic technique to gathering of information from a diversity of sources to get a complete and accurate

picture of an area of interest. The objective for all data collection is to produce quality evidence that then gives birth to rich data analysis and allows the building of a convincing and reliable answer to questions that have been asked. Primary data was collected through administering of questionnaires, interviews, and focus group discussion. Secondary data was collected through analysis of documents and history inquiries (Msabila and Nalaila, 2013:41).

4.11 In-depth interview

Interviews have been used in research as a way of obtaining detailed information about a topic or subject. Wilkerson and Birmingham (2003:44) observe that:

Often interviews are used where other research instruments seem inappropriate. In many situations the use of a research interview rather than a questionnaire can be an indicator of the greater importance attached to the research topic. Questionnaires are relatively inexpensive to produce, circulate and analyse. The research interview is far more resource-intensive. It requires the researcher to elicit information from respondents on a one-to-one basis.

Interviews can last for longer than an hour and can produce vast amounts of data. It has been said that while other instruments focus on the surface elements of what is happening, interviews give the researcher more of an insight into the meaning and significance of what is happening.

In depth interview was used to get comprehensive information and explanations that emerged from the survey, which was conducted. The key participants were officers from community schools, the head teachers and their deputies and parents, officials from ZOCS, VVOB, Time to Learn, Personnel from district resource Centres and from the District Education Board Secretaries.

4.12 Semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interview was one of the methods used in this study to collect data. The interviewer asked oral questions and respondents responded orally. There is a reduced amount of flexibility with the semi-structured interview. The researcher or

investigator directs the interview more closely. Many of the questions are pre-determined as compared to the unstructured interview, though there is sufficient flexibility to allow the one being interviewed an opportunity to shape the flow of information.

Interviews are generally far more personal way of collecting data as compared to questionnaires. In the personal interviews, the interviewer works directly with the respondents. In this approach, the interviewer has an opportunity to probe or ask questions. In most cases the interviews are easier for the respondents, especially if what is wanted are opinions or expressions. Interviews are not an easy option as some people might think. Usually interviews can be equated to a discussion between two people

For a long time interviews have long been used in research as a way of obtaining detailed data about a topic or subject. Repeatedly interviews are employed where other research instruments seem inappropriate (Wilkerson and Birmingham, 2003). Kvale (1996) came up with two alternative points regarding in-depth interviewing. The first, which he summarises as a 'miner metaphor', is embraced generally within a contemporary social science research model which sees knowledge as buried metal and interviewer is a miner who unearths the valuable metal...the knowledge is waiting in the subjects' interior to be uncovered, uncontaminated by the miner. The interviewer digs nuggets of data or meanings out of a subject's pure experiences, unpolluted by any leading questions.

Kvale (1996) calls the second, the 'traveler metaphor', which is incorporated within the constructivist research model in which information is not given but is formed and negotiated. The interviewer is considered as a traveler who travels with the interviewee. The meanings of the interviewee's stories are developed as the traveler interprets them. Through discussions, the interviewer guides the respondents to new insights: there is a transformative element to the journey (Kvale, 1996). In in this vein, the researcher is considered as an active player in the development of data and of meaning. The researcher is not simply a channel through which knowledge is communicated. Holstein

and Gubrium (1997) further indicate that researchers, too, appreciate knowledge as constructed in the interview, through teamwork between the researcher and interviewee.

However, for the interview to be successful, it depends, largely, on the personal and professional qualities of the individual interviewer.

4.13 Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used to collect information on decentralisation and quality of education offered by community schools on the copper-belt province. The survey questionnaire is a type of data gathering method that is utilised to collect, analyse and interpret the different views of a group of people from a particular population. This instrument was used to gather information in relation to how quality education could be enhanced, how resources were raised, how often standard officers monitored the schools, partnerships with the school community and parents and how decentralisation affected community schools.

Questionnaires are generally not expensive to manage and need very little training to develop them and they can easily be analysed once filled in. Wilkerson and Birmingham (2003:10) reveal:

An effective questionnaire is one that enables the transmission of useful and accurate information or data from respondents to the researcher. This is a complex process, which involves presenting questions in a clear and unambiguous way so that the respondent may interpret them, articulate his or her response and transmit it effectively to the researcher. Once transmitted, the answers must be recorded, coded and analysed fairly so that they accurately reflect the respondents' views.

A survey questionnaire is very important to the researcher if the researcher wants to get an overall idea of public opinion (Kalimapos, 2010).

4.14 Focus group discussions

Focus Group Discussion availed another important source of information on decentralisation and quality education in community schools. Focus group discussion was utilised as a follow up to information provided through questionnaires and interviews the researcher had with the DEBS, DRCCs, NGOs and head teachers. The issues discussed concerned the community schools: decentralisation, management of the school, resource mobilisation and education of the children. The researcher used guiding questions to direct the discussions. However, other questions came up in the course of discussion. The focus groups were four, two in Mufulira and two in Kitwe. Three groups had 12 members each and one group had 9 members. Focus-group research is a form of qualitative technique used to collect rich, descriptive data in a small-group format from respondents who have agreed to ‘focus’ on a topic of mutual interest. The emphasis is on understanding respondents’ experience interests, attitudes, viewpoint and assumptions. For example, the setup of things and happenings in community schools were well understood by the researcher by interacting with some of the parents through the FGD’s. Anderson (1996: 200) state that:

A focus group is a carefully planned and moderated informal discussion where ones person’s ideas bounce off another’s, creating a chain reaction of informative dialogue. Its purpose is to address a specific topic, in depth, in a comfortable environment to elicit a wide range of opinions, attitudes, feelings or perceptions from a group of individuals who share some common experience relative to the dimension under study. The product of a focus group is a unique form of qualitative information, which brings understanding about how people react to an experience or product.

Focus-group interviews have enjoyed unswerving popularity over many years as an effective and economical tool of gathering data (Wilkerson and Birmingham, 2003). If one has an interest in market research, one will no doubt come to realise the dominance of the focus group within that field, having used it for many years to evaluate consumers’ opinions of products and services ranging from new cars to washing

detergents, television and radio programmes to customer help lines (Greenbaum 1998). Wilkerson and Birmingham (2003:91) state that:

During the 1980s, market researchers were joined in the use of focus groups by social sciences researchers. They realised that ways in which focus group interviews were organised—particularly, the relaxed and convivial setting, the unrestricted nature of discussion, and the neutrality of the moderator meant they particularly suited for collecting data on sensitive, delicate and otherwise complex or difficult social issues.

Research concerned with domestic violence, mental health and sexual behaviour, mostly in relation to HIV/AIDS and family planning, as an example, has increasingly employed focus groups in the data collection stage (Richter *et al*, 1991; Lupton and Tulloch, 1996). From a practical standpoint, focus-group interviews are relatively inexpensive, data –rich and versatile. One should be able to utilise them in a variety of ways and for a wide range of purposes, depending on one’s particular interests (Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003).

4.15 Documents analysis

The researcher requested for and obtained institutional documents from the MoE headquarters Documentation Center and from ZOCS headquarters. With the information the researcher was availed with, it was possible to crosscheck the information collected from primary data. The researcher sourced information from UNESCO, and from other credible sources through the Web. One of the benefits of using document analysis as a method of collecting data is that the researcher is able to get information that might otherwise not come out through questionnaire or interview. The documents in question provided very useful information on community schools, on how ZOCS is working with the community schools in Zambia.

4.16 Data analysis.

At the end of data collection period, there was considerable amount of data that were collected. These data were generated from surveys, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion, in-depth observation and document analysis.

The statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was engaged to analyse quantitative information from interview schedules to generate frequencies that were used in describing distributions of variables, which were presented in form of tables or figures. Qualitative data which was acquired through interviews was analysed thematically by way of coding emerging themes from the study findings.

4.17 Reliability of instruments.

Reliability is internal consistency of measurement instruments, in giving the same results after repeated trials. The instruments which were used in this study were scrutinised by researchers at the University of Zambia to determine their suitability and their content validity. The instruments were piloted in November 2014. The ambiguity of questions and unclear statements were clarified after pretesting the instruments.

4.18 Delimitation

This study investigated the decentralisation and quality education in community schools on the copper-belt. The study was restricted to Mufulira and Kitwe Districts.

4.19 Limitation of the study

In the study, questionnaires were used which might have included concepts that might not have been familiar to the respondents. Some respondents did not return the questionnaires and as a result, they were not included in the final analysis. It was not easy for the researcher to organise the parents to attend focus group discussions. During the interview with the parents, parents seemed uneasy with the researcher at the beginning of the discussions. However, as the discussions progressed they became freer with the researcher. The results of the study should not be generalised as what is happening in all community schools in the country.

4.20 Piloting of data collection instruments

The phrase pilot-study can be defined as a small or mini version of a main study (Hasan, Z. et al, 2006). As a mini study, it helps to identify some shortcomings one is likely to experience during the main study (Changala, 2015). According to Hasan, Z. et al (2006), a pilot study is one of the important steps in research project and is conducted to identify potential problem areas and deficiencies in the research instruments and protocol prior to implementation during the full study. A pilot study should be considered before carrying out a major study because without it the researcher may face unforeseen problems, which could be avoided. In this study, questionnaires and interview guides were subjected to authentication. The questionnaires and interview guides were given to two University of Zambia lecturers and to a colleague a lecturer, at Mufulira College of Education who peer reviewed them. Secondly, the instruments were tested at a community school which was not in the study areas but had similar characteristics as those found in the schools for the main study. Corrections were made after the questionnaires and interview guides were peer reviewed.

4.21 Ethical issues

Ethical issues in research are concerned with getting consent and upholding the privacy of the participant before conducting research. The researcher sought clearance from the University of Zambia Ethics Committee to conduct this research and consent was also sought from participants who participated in the study. Human and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee cleared the researcher. Ethical considerations were observed before and throughout data collection. Confidentiality was guaranteed to the participants that their privacy would be protected. Participants in the study were informed of the purpose of the study before their participation.

In order to ensure their privacy, participants in the study were not identified by name. They were advised not to write their names on the questionnaires. Information provided was treated with utmost confidentiality. The purpose and benefits of the study were

explained to the participants in order to receive maximum cooperation. According to Chakraborty (2012) ethical standards prescribe that researchers do not put participants in a condition where they might be at risk of harm as a result of their participation. The participants were required to sign the respondents consent form (see appendix H)

When one conducts a study of this nature, it is advisable to observe, without fail, ethics when one is dealing with human subjects. Scientific/Education research work, as all human activities, is governed by individual, community and social values. Research ethics involve requirements on daily work, the protection of dignity of subjects and the publication of the information in the research (Fouka and Mantzorou 2011).

4.22 Summary

The chapter highlighted several procedures that were used by the researcher when conducting this study. The methods that were used in the collection of data were semi-structured interviews or in-depth interviews, focused group discussions and analysis of documents. Questionnaires were used to collect information from class teachers, and head teachers. Interview guides were used to solicit information from community school administrators, parents, District Education Board Secretaries and from non-governmental organisations. Ethical issues were followed before and throughout the data collection and confidentiality was assured to the participants. The statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse quantitative information from interview schedules to generate frequencies that were used in describing distribution of variables which were presented in form of tables or figures. Qualitative data, which was acquired through interviews, was analysed using thematically by way of coding emerging themes from study findings.

CHAPTER FIVE: PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Overview

This chapter presents the findings of the study on decentralization and quality Education in community schools in Mufulira and Kitwe Districts on the Copper-belt Province, in Zambia. Data were collected through administering of questionnaires to the community school teachers and head teachers. In-depth interviews, semi structured interviews and focus group discussions were held with Parent Community School Committees (PCSCs).

The findings of the study based on the objectives are presented in the following order: the nature of the curricula used in the community schools; the performance of community school pupils in the national examinations; resource mobilisation and utilisation by community schools; the monitoring system used in community schools and administrative challenges and opportunities faced by community schools

5.1.1 Biographical data of respondents.

There were 195 participants who participated in the study, 108 males and 87 females.

Table 5.1 Distribution of sample by Gender.

Category of sample	Male	Female	Total
DEBS	02	-	02
Head teachers	28	17	45
Teachers	45	55	100
NGOs	03	-	03

Parents	30	15	45
	108	87	195

Source field data (2015)

5.2 The nature of curricula used in community schools

The study revealed that there were three types of curriculum used in the community schools, namely, the government of the Republic of Zambia unrevised curriculum which dates back to 2000, the SPARK (Skills, Participation, Access to Relevant Knowledge) curriculum of 1996 and the Revised Curriculum of 2013 (see Figure 5.1 on page 86). SPARK curriculum was specifically prepared to be used in the community schools. A manual or handbook by the same name as the curriculum was prepared for use by teachers in community schools; this curriculum was mainly designed for learners between 9 and 16 years old for whom community schools were initially intended. With the SPARK curriculum, Grades 1 to 7 completed school in four years as opposed to the government curriculum which demanded that learners stayed in school for seven years. The main purposes of the SPARK curriculum involved the provision of practical pre-vocational skills to the learners and the acquisition of competencies in literacy, numeracy and ability to speak the English Language. The SPARK curriculum was also revised and published in 2002. The GRZ unrevised curriculum was very theoretical in nature; it did not promote hands-on experiences for the learners. In the revised curriculum, two new options, Sign language and Braille were introduced in literacy and languages to serve learners of Special Educational Needs, and that included entrepreneurship skills and cross cutting issues (MOGE, 2013:8).

The findings of the study showed that the majority of the respondents 89 percent (89) indicated that most of the community schools used the revised curriculum as shown in figure 5.1 below.

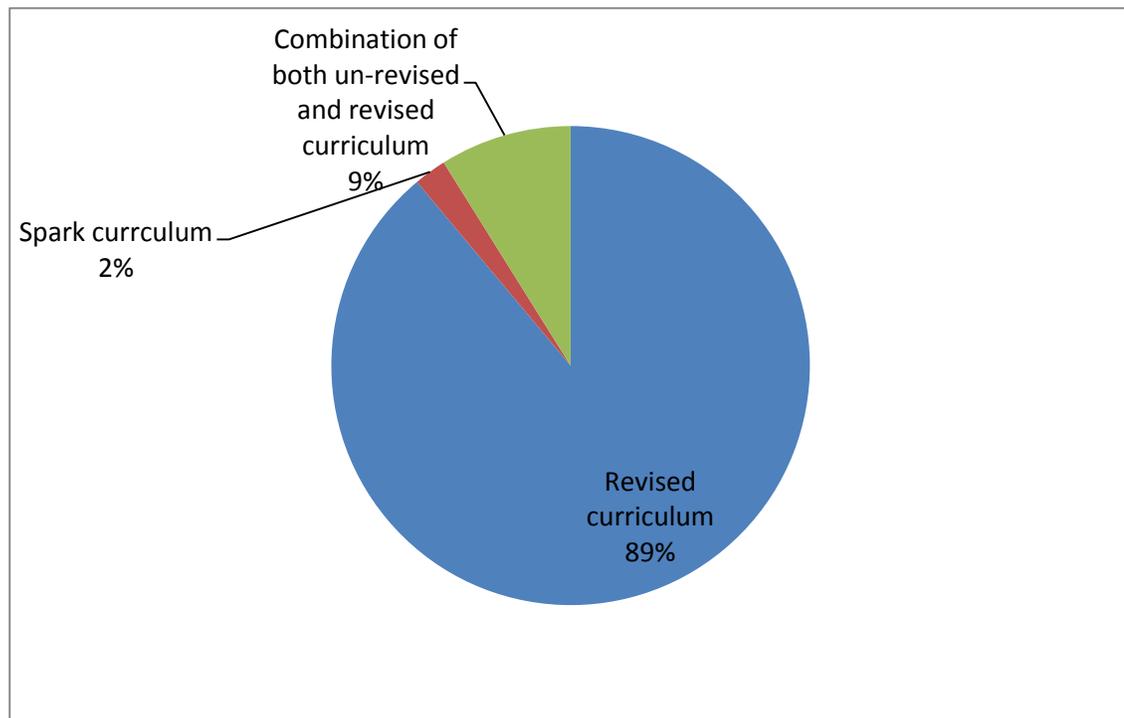


Figure 5.1 Responses on curriculum by the teachers.

5.2.1 Formulation of the revised curriculum

When asked if community schools participated in formulating of the new curriculum 20 (20%) of the teachers never responded to the question, 22 (22.2%) of the teachers indicated they had participated, 55 (55.6%) of the teachers indicated that they were not involved in the formulation of the curriculum while 2 (2.2%) were not sure. Some respondents argued that they just attended meetings where they were sensitised about the new curriculum by the MOGE through the resource Centre by DRCCs or Standards Officers.

“Community school teacher were not consulted when the revised curriculum was being formulated,” (DRCCs)

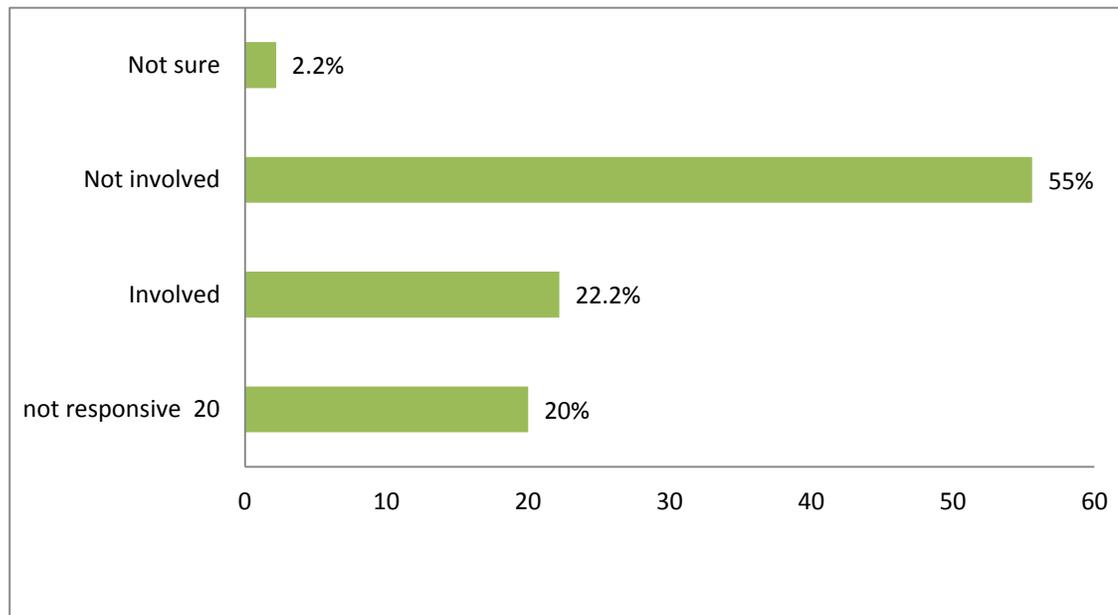


Figure 5.2 Teachers’ responses to formulation of the Revised Curriculum (n=100)

5.2.2 The Revised Curriculum

The purpose of the review was to link the school curriculum to teacher education, to re-define the desired learner, the teacher-educator/instructor and teaching outcomes in order to make education relevant and responsive to the individual and society.

5.2.3 Prominent changes in the Revised Curriculum of 2013

Below are some of the significant changes in the curriculum for Grades 1 to 7:

1. Language of instruction from grades 1-4 in all the learning areas will be in familiar language, while English will be used as an official language of instruction from Grade 5 upwards.
2. There is a change in the approach of teaching of literacy in the early Grades as there is clear evidence from studies conducted by the Ministry and monitoring report by education standards officers that there is little learning taking place in government and community schools. The incapability by the learners to learn content subject is because many of them are unable to read and write. The programme, the New Breakthrough to literacy (NBTL) which has been followed since late 1990s has not achieved much in imparting reading skills in the learners. As a result, the Ministry of General Education has reviewed the approach to come up with a new approach called Early Grade Literacy Programme (EGLP). The approach has been developed in association with local and internationally accepted methods of teaching literacy founded on initial sounds, phonics, word building, sentence building, comprehension, writing, punctuation and fluency.
3. Learners will take competence tests in literacy and Numeracy at Grades 1 and 4 to establish appropriate interventions. The Grades 1 and 4 syllabuses will prescribe the key competence, which learners should acquire for them to be assessed. These will be selected from the many specific outcomes, which are offered at Grade 1 and 4. Initially, the competence tests will be centrally set but administered by districts.
4. At the Primary School level, learners will have an opportunity to discover their abilities, interests and talents. This implies that all primary school learners shall be exposed to two Career Pathways: academic and technical.
5. The lower primary school will offer five learning areas while upper primary will offer seven areas. Creative and Technology Studies will comprise Key content for Technology studies, Home Economics and Expressive Arts at Grade 1 to 2.

6. In literacy and languages, two new options have been introduced to cater for learners with Special Educational Needs and these are Sign Language and Braille.

The curriculum has two pathways even at secondary school level- academic and vocational. In the revised curriculum pupils will be expected to be more practical, for practical courses have been included (MoGE, 2013:31). The old curriculum was not progressive for it was very theoretical as practical subjects were not encouraged, and other areas of study were missing. It is the opposite of the revised curriculum. The foregoing data from the document review process.

5.2.4 The focus of the Revised Curriculum.

5.2.4.1 Core Learning areas at the lower primary level and upper primary level and learning areas of intellectually impaired learners.

These core-learning areas are subject areas offered at these levels. The lower section of the learning areas are segmented in five parts, the upper primary in seven parts, and in five areas for the intellectually impaired learners.

Table 5.2 Core Learning areas are subjects that every child who attends school should learn.

Core Learning Areas	Lower Primary	Upper Primary	Intellectually Impaired Learners
1	Literacy and languages, Sign Language or Braille	Literacy and Languages, or Sign Language or Braille	Mathematics
2	Integrated Science	Integrated Science	Literacy and Languages or Sign Languages or Braille
3	Social Studies	Social Studies	Technology Studies
4	Mathematics	Mathematics	Activities for Daily Living
5	Creative and Technology Studies (CTS)	Expressive Arts	Expressive Arts
6		Technology Studies	
7		Home Economics	

5.2.5 Main Focus Areas

- (a) Incorporate current areas of social, economic and technological developments the curriculum, (b). Open two (2) career pathways in curriculum at primary (academic and technical) and secondary (academic and vocational);
- (c) Link school vocational curriculum to technical and vocational training curriculum;
- (d) Create meaningful curriculum linkages between the different levels of education;
- (e) Review the language of instruction in the early education and lower Grades;
- (f) Review the literacy teaching approaches and methodologies;
- (g) Standardise the early and adult literacy education (MoGE 2013);
- (h) Spell out clear key competence to be achieved by learners at every level of education;
- (i) Integrate some subject with interrelated and similar competences and content into learning areas in a bid to avoid curriculum overload and fragmentation;
- (j) Review the teacher-learner contact time;
- (k) Review the teaching content in all the subject and learning areas; and
- (l) Incorporate major national concerns (Cross Cutting Issues) in the curriculum

The revision of the old curriculum was necessary because of political, economic, technological, ecological and legal factors.

5.2.6 Strengths and weaknesses of revised curriculum

The study sought to establish the strengths and weaknesses of revised curriculum. The following are strengths of the revised curriculum:

- 1) Learners have the language already, so they learn from known to unknown, building a bridge between home and school.
- 2) Using a familiar language provides learners an opportunity for them to understand, participate, and be encouraged to learn, since they can easily communicate in local language freely. The language used at home is the language the learners meet at school as a language of instruction from Grade 1 to Grade 4.
- 3) Lower costs since more learners will be able to remain in schools and progress pleasantly to other Grades without dropping out or repeating the Grade.
- 4) Learning to read becomes easier when one starts it in L1 since each letter sound in local language has one common sound.

NGOs Representative observed that:

“the curriculum used in the majority of community schools was the same as that one used in government schools. He went on to mention some exceptions where a community school might not be following the general curriculum of the MoGE. Therefore, the strengths and weaknesses of the general curriculum also apply to community schools. These strengths and weaknesses were mainly found in the curriculum on the lower primary grades where local language was the language of instruction.”

Table 5.3 Views of Head teachers on the Strengths and weaknesses of the revised of curriculum

	Frequency	Percentage
There is improved learner performance	18	40.0
Learners are better able to understand and are more interested in lessons	15	33.3
Promotes equality among boys and		

girls	12	26.6
Total	45	100.0
Views of Head teachers on the Strength of the revised curriculum		
	Frequency	Percentage
Inadequate books and computers	14	31.1
Teachers struggle to teach in unfamiliar languages	13	28.8
Some learners are unable to cope with the change	18	40
Total	45	100

5.2.7 Weaknesses of the revised curriculum

5.2.7.1 Weaknesses from the Head teachers

- 1) Negative attitudes about use of local languages, which often links to teacher's lack of confidence in teaching literacy in local languages.
- 2) Lack of reading materials since not many writers invest in writing books in local languages.
- 3) Very costly when it comes to training teachers and material development in local language.
- 4) Lack of community participation or involvement when it comes to choosing the language of instruction in the classroom.
- 5) The phonetic approach has a lot of challenges even to trained teachers, worse for teachers who never attended college such as those in community schools.

6) Most schools were missed during the distribution of the developed course materials.

7) The playground language, which is supposed to be emphasised in Grade One is in some cases overlooked, and instead the teachers start to teach the correct language to the learners.

On the weaknesses of the revised curriculum, 31.1 (14%) of the head teachers indicated that there were no adequate books and computers as prescribed by the new curriculum, 28.8 (13%) indicated that teachers were struggling to teach in unfamiliar languages, and 18 (40%) of the head teachers indicated that some learners were unable to cope with the change brought about by the revised curriculum.

5.2.8 Curriculum in use and its source. Respondents were required to state the curriculum in use and its sources. Their responses were as shown in Table 5.4

Table 5.4 Head teachers' response on curriculum in use

Curriculum in use	Frequency	Percentage
Revised curriculum	35	77.7
Combination of old and revised curriculum	10	22.2
Total	45	100.0
Source of the curriculum in use		
Vocational and educational (SPARK)	25	55.5
Not sure	20	44.4
Total	45	100.0

On the source of the curriculum, 25 (55.5%) of the head teachers indicated that the curriculum was derived from spark curriculum and 20 (44.4%) were not sure.

5.2.8 Summary on the nature of curricula

The study has shown that three types of curriculum were used in the community school, namely, the unrevised curriculum which dates back to 2000, the SPARK curriculum (Skills, Participation, Access to Relevant Knowledge) and the revised curriculum. The study also showed that when formulating the new curriculum the teachers in the community schools were not consulted. The purpose of the revised curriculum was to link the school curriculum to teacher education. The review was meant to re-define the desired learner, the teacher, and educator/instructor and teaching outcomes in order to make education relevant and responsive to the individual.

5.3 Performance of community school pupils in national examination

The study showed the performance of pupils in community schools was similar to that of pupils in government schools. An examination of the Grade 7 results from community school examination centres for the period 2014 to 2017 showed that there was no marked difference in the performance of pupils between those in the studied school and the government schools.

The findings of the study showed that in Mufulira and Kitwe districts the performance of pupils in community schools was almost at par with those in the GRZ schools (see appendix P and Q).

Table 5.5 Kawama West Community School shows Grade 7 Community School Examination Results for 2015 and 2017.

Year	Boys Registered	Girls Registered	Boys Sat	Girls Sat	Boys absent	Girls absent	Pass %
2015	22	22	22	22	0	0	100
2017	19	22	16	18	03	04	100

The table above indicates that in 2015 22 boys and 22 girls registered and sat for Grade 7 E.C.Z examinations. Kawama West Community School registered a 100% pass rate. In 2017, 16 boys and 18 girls sat for examinations, 3 boys and 4 girls did not sit for examinations for they were absent. In 2017, Kawama West Community School registered a 100% pass rate. The study also looked at the Grade 7 results of Luansobe Community School. Table 5.6 shows presents the results.

Table 5.6 Luansobe West Community School Grade 7 Community School Examination Results for 2015, 2016 and 2017.

Year		2015	2016	2017
Boys registered		37	63	25
Girls registered		29	33	17
Boys sat		36	57	24
Girls sat		29	29	17
Boys absent		1	6	1
Girls absent		0	4	0
Pupils who passed	Boys	29	57	24
	Girls	24	29	17
Pupils who failed	Boys	8	0	0
	Girls	5	0	0
Total		80%	100%	100%

The table above indicates that in 2015, Luansobe West Community School had 36 boys and 29 girls sit for examinations whereas 1 boy was absent. Eight boys and five girls failed the examinations. The school recorded 80% pass rate. In 2016, 57 boys and 29

girls sat while 6 boys and 4 girls were absent. The school recorded a 100% pass rate. In 2017 24 boys and 17 girls sat for examinations while 1 boy was absent. That year the school recorded 100% pass rate. From Luansobe the study looked at the results at Murundu Community School. Common among the schools is that the number of candidates of the pupils who sat for the examinations was ranging between 60 and 20.

Table 5.7: Murundu West Community School Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016 and 2017

Schools	Year	Boys Registered	Girls Registered	Boys Sat	Girls Sat	Pass %
Murundu Community School	2015	52	61	50	52	100%
	2016	32	24	24	21	100%
	2017	30	27	27	23	100%

The table above shows that in 2012, 50 boys and 54 girls sat for examinations whereas 2 boys and 7 girls were absent. That year, Murundu West Community School recorded 100% pass rate. In 2016, 24 boys and 21 girls sat for ECZ examinations, 8 boys and 3 girls sat for ECZ examinations while 8 boys and 3 girls were absent. The school recorded 100% pass rate. In 2017, 27 boys and 23 girls sat for examinations whereas 3 boys and 4 girls were absent. The school recorded 100% pass rate. Finally, the study looked at Gasto Community School.

Table 5.8: Gasto Community School Grade 7 Community School Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017

School	Year	Boys Registered	Girls Registered	Boys Sat	Girls Sat	Pass %
Gasto Community School	2015	12	12	12	12	100 %
	2016	15	25	15	25	100 %
	2017	22	23	22	23	100 %

Gasto Community School registered 12 boys and 12 girls for examination in 2015, and all of the pupils sat the examinations. The school recorded 100% pass rate. In 2016 boys and 25 girls sat for examinations and the school recorded 100% pass rate. The school also recorded 100% in 2017

All the above mentioned schools were ECZ examinations Centres and the rest of community schools in Kitwe and Mufulira which were not ECZ Examination Centres had their candidates write their Grade seven examinations using GRZ school Centres. Generally, community schools on the Copper-belt particularly in Mufulira and Kitwe districts performed well (see appendices K, L, M, N and O).

In Zambia, schools are categorised into private, grant aided, community and Government of the republic of Zambia (GRZ) schools. In 2014 when grade 7 examinations were written, ranking of performance indicated that private schools were the best performing schools followed by grand aided schools, then community schools. The least performing were the GRZ schools. The mean scores of private schools were 708.99, grant-aided schools were 623.53, community schools were 613.08 and GRZ were 603.00. The figure below shows result statistics, which were recorded in 2014,

which indicated that community schools performed had better than the government run schools.

Performance of Private, Grant Aided, Community and GRZ schools.

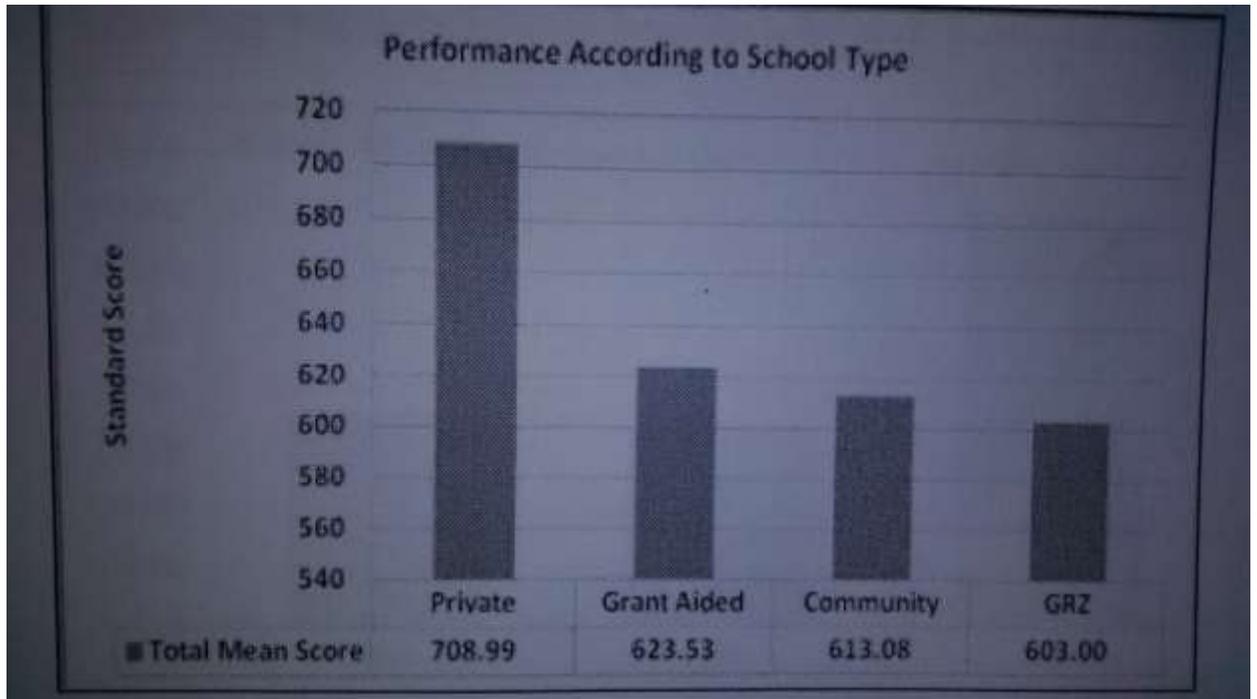


Figure 5.3. 2014 Grade 7 Performance of Private, Grant Aided, Community and GRZ schools.

Source: 2014 Examination Performance Report, Examination Council of Zambia.

Community schools were first included in the assessment of performance in 2003 while private and grant-aided were first included in 2006.

DEBS and DRCC noted that the academic performance of learners in some community schools were almost at par with learners in government schools. DEBS and DRCC, observed that on general terms, pupils in GRZ schools tended to perform slightly better than community school pupils despite the fact that community schools operated with substantially fewer resources. **NGOs ZOCs, Time to Learn observed,**

“that some people have argued for a long time that community schools were outperforming the government schools and others argue the opposite. The reality is that overall community schools are not performing worse or better than government schools. In fact, they perform about the same. However, there are always examples of some schools that outperform others. The real question then is why do community schools perform almost the same as government schools if they have less qualified teachers and fewer resource overall.”

Parents, PCSC, observed that at times some community schools performed better than public schools despite having more challenges than the GRZ schools have. On performance of pupils in the national examinations at Grade 7 the parents also observed that the pass pattern in community schools and public schools was almost the same. DRCC, PCCS, noted that, *“community schools which had seconded teachers from the government schools performed just as well as some government schools.”*

Below are the responses of the head teachers on the performance of pupils in community schools at Grade Seven level.

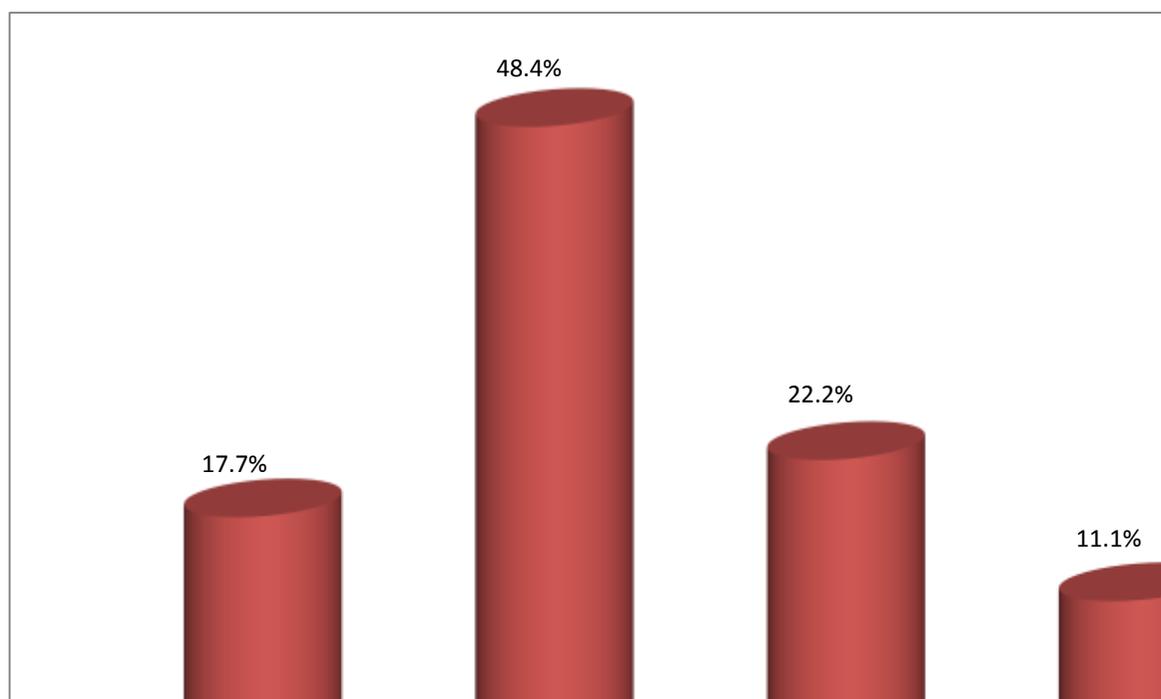


Figure 5.4 Head teachers’ responses on the performance of community schools at grade 7 in the last four years.

8 (17.7%) of head teachers indicated that pupils’ performance in the last four years had been very good, 22 (48.4%) of head teachers indicated that the performance was good, 10 (22.2%) of the head teachers indicated the performance was average and 5 (11.1%) indicated the performance was poor.

On performance of schools in community vis-à-vis the expectations of General Education, the DEBS indicated that community schools like all other establishments that render alternative education thus supplementing governments’ efforts in making education accessible to all are expected by the Ministry of General Education to do the following:

1. To ensure all community schools operate within the policy framework as enshrined in the operational guideline.
2. To ensure all community schools adhere to the implementation of the curriculum as approved for all schools under its umbrella.
3. To ensure equitable quality education provision to all learners in the community schools and equal access to material and facilities as obtaining in the conventional schools to enhance good performance.
4. To ensure education at that level is made accessible, highly affordable and learner friendly without discrimination.

Table 5.9 Head teachers’ response on the performance of pupils

Was your expectation met? Reasons	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes , the teachers and pupils really put in their best	26	57.7
No , most of our teachers left for greener pastures	12	26.6

None	7	15.5
Total	45	100

The head teacher’s response above indicates the expectations of the head teachers if they were met through the performance of the pupils and the teachers. 26 (57.7%) of the head teachers indicated that the expectations were met in that teachers and pupils had put in the best. 12 (26.6%) of the head teachers indicated that there was high attrition rate of teachers for greener pastures and as a result support to pupils was lacking and 7 (15.5 %) of the head teachers did not indicate anything.

5.3.1 Performance due to commitment to by community school teachers

The DEBS, Head teacher observed that public schools could learn a lot from community schools even though many people seemed to associate community schools with underprivileged learners and think that nothing good could come out from these schools. These schools offer a service to the communities and assist the government voluntarily in the provision of primary education. They are selfless in the provision of education for they consider a child as the reason of their existence. Community schools have flexible teaching-learning conditions in that learners who do not have shoes, and uniforms are allowed to learn, and multi-grade teaching approach is allowed.

“Some teachers in community schools were committed to their work despite the challenges they pass through for example erratic payment of salaries or allowances. Some volunteer teachers worked without pay for more than 3 months or so.” **Head teachers.** *“The volunteer teachers, despite not being paid on time continued rendering their services to the community”* **DRCC**

When asked about the quality education offered in the community schools, some parents responded that a lot needed to be done for one to claim that there was quality education in community schools. Others argued that there was some quality education

taking place in some community schools especially schools with trained teachers who were seconded from the government schools. Parents observed that at times some community schools performed better than public schools despite having more challenges than the public schools had. On performance of pupils in the national examinations at grade 7 the PCSC also observed that the pass pattern in community schools and public schools was almost the same.

Parents observed, “community schools which had seconded teachers from the government schools performed just as well as some government schools.”

Table 5.10: Teachers’ responses on pupils’ performance

How is the academic performance of pupils at grade 7	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Very good	20	20
Good	28	28
Average	40	40
Poor	12	12
Total	100	100

When asked on academic performance of pupils at Grade 7, the majority, 40 (40%) of the teachers showed that the performance of pupils was average. 20 (20%) of the teachers showed that the performance of pupils was very good. 28 (28%) of the teachers showed that the performance was good, and 12 (12%) of the teachers showed that the performance was poor.

Generally the performance of the pupils in the community is slightly lower than pupils in the government schools though they performed better at Grade 7 level as shown in the 2014 Examination Council Report (DEBS). This was the same observation by the NGOs Time to Learn and ZOCs

5.3.2 Summary on performance of pupils in community schools.

Community schools' performance varied from school to school. Some performed better than pupils in the government did, and others similar, and yet others lower than government schools. The performance varied from year to year. In the 2014 Grade 7 examination pupils in community schools performed better than their counterparts in the government schools. Even though pupils in community schools outperformed pupils in Grade 7 national examinations, generally they performed slightly lower than did pupils in government schools.

5.3.4 Resource mobilisation

The findings of the study showed that mobilisation of resources was a big challenge considering that community schools were not profit-making organisations. Community schools depend, for their resources, mainly on the communities themselves, who generally are in the lower income brackets of the Zambian society. The resources are also mobilised from well-wishers, civil society, the government and cooperating partners such as the Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance (VVOB), United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and Zambia Open Community School Secretariat (ZOCS).

NGOS Time to Learn representative responded, *“Time to Learn as a unique institution funded under USAID, is restricted to support the work in community schools as per their mandate and the agreement between USAID and the government of Zambia. However, the Time to Learn Project had previously worked in Community Schools before and were content to continue working in Zambia.”*

The finding showed that the support that community schools receive from NGOs varied widely. That is why, as a project, Time to Learn has articulated in a recent study that the support to community schools varied widely. Some were supported in terms of materials and payment to volunteer teachers while others were not altogether. NGOs Time to Learn representative indicated that:

“NGOs may not cover all schools but sometimes worked in a specific catchment area or even just a few schools within a district or perhaps even in selected provinces, districts, and zones. While the amount of support also varies, the types of supports do as well. Some focused on infrastructure while others focused on trainings and others focused on material support.”

Two well-known NGOs support community schools in Zambia. These include ZOCs and DAPP. Others like VVOB and Time To Learn have also provided support to community schools in the form of training and materials (DEBS).

On how a community school can qualify for support from NGOs the NGOs representative said, “first and foremost, given that many community schools were semi-autonomous causes some confusion. One of the ways in which community schools have come into existence is by their own efforts, outreach, and ability to garner support in order to establish their schools. In theory then, community schools do not necessarily have to qualify for support.”

However, all community schools were encouraged to follow the OGCS (Operational Guidelines for Community Schools) of 2016. The OGCS highlights policies to which community schools needed to adhere. In particular, chapter/section 9 of the OGCS is entitled “Access and Utilisation of Resources”. In this chapter, accessing grants is discussed.

On how far should NGOs and well-wishers continue assisting community schools the participant responded that that depended on coordination of assistance rather than assistance itself. The participant further narrated that he thought that the most important thing was for the NGOs and well-wishers to understand the education policy for community schools according to MoGE, thereafter sensitise the community within where the school(s) was/were to avoid conflicts. NGOs Time to Learn representative observed *that most of these schools were the initiative made by the community having seen the need to have a school for their children in their community.*

The study also revealed donor that support was not well distributed across community schools. Some community schools had a very good flow of resources from donors and were considered overly resourced while others were severely under-resourced.

5.3.5 Policy on resource mobilisation

On Donor support, the Ministry of General Education would institute whatever measures were necessary to ensure that all government, donor and community funds for education were effectively and properly utilised and accounted for. The Ministry of General Education will coordinate all donor-aided activities through the Aid-Donor Coordinating Committee, under the auspices of the planning unit at the ministry headquarters. The Ministry of General education recognises that enabling every qualified individual to have access to relevant education of good quality necessitates adequate public financing for recurrent and capital needs of education sector. The guiding principles of the Ministry of General Education in financing of education is efficiency, equity, cost sharing and accountability.

5.3.6 Forms of Resources

According to findings of the study, Parents, PCSCs DRCC, ZOCS, indicated that they received support from the NGOs in form of teaching and learning aids and workshops organised for the volunteer teachers to improve their pedagogical skills. Some workshops were organised by the DEBS office through the resource centres while others were organised by the NGOs in collaboration with the Ministry of General Education. Money and resources come from many sources such the local communities, the NGOs, from the Government through the Ministry of General Education, the well-wishers and individuals from the community.

5.3.7 Class teachers' responses on resource mobilisation

The majority Teachers (58%) of the indicated that resources were raised mainly through school fees paid by parents and other resources were raised through donors and well-

wishers. Other resources were raised through fundraising ventures and community contributions.

5.3.8 Sources of resources

The findings of the study show that sources of the resources are cooperating partners such as Time To Learn, VVOB, ZOCS and the Church, the Community, individuals in communities and the government. A significant number of donors now provide aid for primary education, while support for other levels has been somewhat reduced. According to policy, without the donor assistance, schools would be more bereft than they are of books and learning materials, infrastructure would be more decayed, ministry officials would be less mobile, teachers would receive less professional development, information on the system would be scarcer, and hopes for substantial improvement would be remote.

When it came to involvement in the resource mobilisation and running of community schools, parents indicated that they were encouraged by the PCSCs to participate in the rehabilitation of infrastructure by using their skills of building and labour. The study showed that parents contributed their personal material/resources, expertise and time to the demands of their community schools, that is, contributing to the enhancement of learning achievement of their children. Some parents with special skills (for example entrepreneurship skills) volunteered to offer their skills at no cost. Parents also contributed some money to the up-keep of the teachers. PCSC do their utmost to render all their strengths and effort to better the education of their children by endeavoring to uplift the standards in their community schools

DRRCS also indicated *that the PCSC even called for planning meetings at least once per term to plan for the running of the schools.*

ZOCS has promoted income-generating activities at its school and as a result, parents are encouraged to start up small businesses to supplement household income. Parents are motivated to get involved in the running of the school in their area.

According to the the DRRCs, “*Parents mobilise resources also through projects like making of mats, simple furniture and through farming.*”

5.3.9 Government support

It was also revealed that the government, through the Ministry of General Education, rendered support to community schools. Though the government has increased support to community schools it was not enough and inadequate. The support is as follows:

1. **Material support:** through the Ministry of General Education the government provides teaching and learning materials (e.g. books, chalk...)
2. **Financial support:** community schools are assisted with funding (if available) from the government to ease operations. The Ministry of General of Education funds the DEBS offices who in turn disburse these funds to the public schools then to some community schools. According to the Operational Guidelines for Community Schools, the disbursement of funds to government and community schools further depended on the number of government schools compared to the number of community schools. The District Education Board Secretary then disbursed funds among schools taking into consideration the ratio of government schools to that of community schools. The ratio of government schools and community schools determined the proportions for allocating resources. This resource support allocation is largely driven on the goodwill of the DEBS than the relative needs of the community school or the Ministry of General Education. The Ministry of General Education will come up with a resource criterion that takes into account foundation operating amounts for community schools, various costs drivers using one list for government schools and community schools
3. **Mentorship support:** the government deploys qualified teaching staff to community schools to blend them with untrained/volunteer community teachers for the purpose of mentorship (**DEBS**).

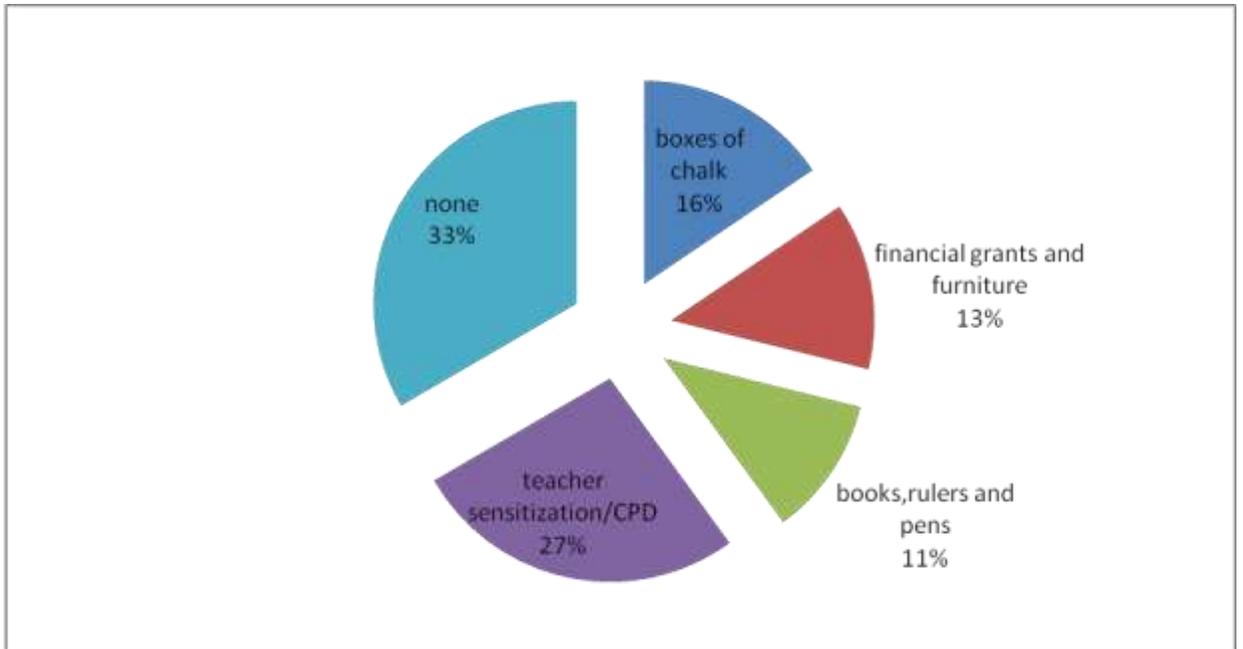


Figure 5.5 Head teachers responses: Support received from the government (n = 45).

7.2 (16%) showed that their schools received support from the government in form of boxes of chalk. 6 (13%) of the head teachers indicated that their schools received grants and furniture. 5 (11%) of head teachers indicated that their schools received books, rulers and pens. 12 head teachers (27%) received teacher sensitisation on CPD and 15 (33%) of head teachers indicated that their schools did not receive anything from the government.

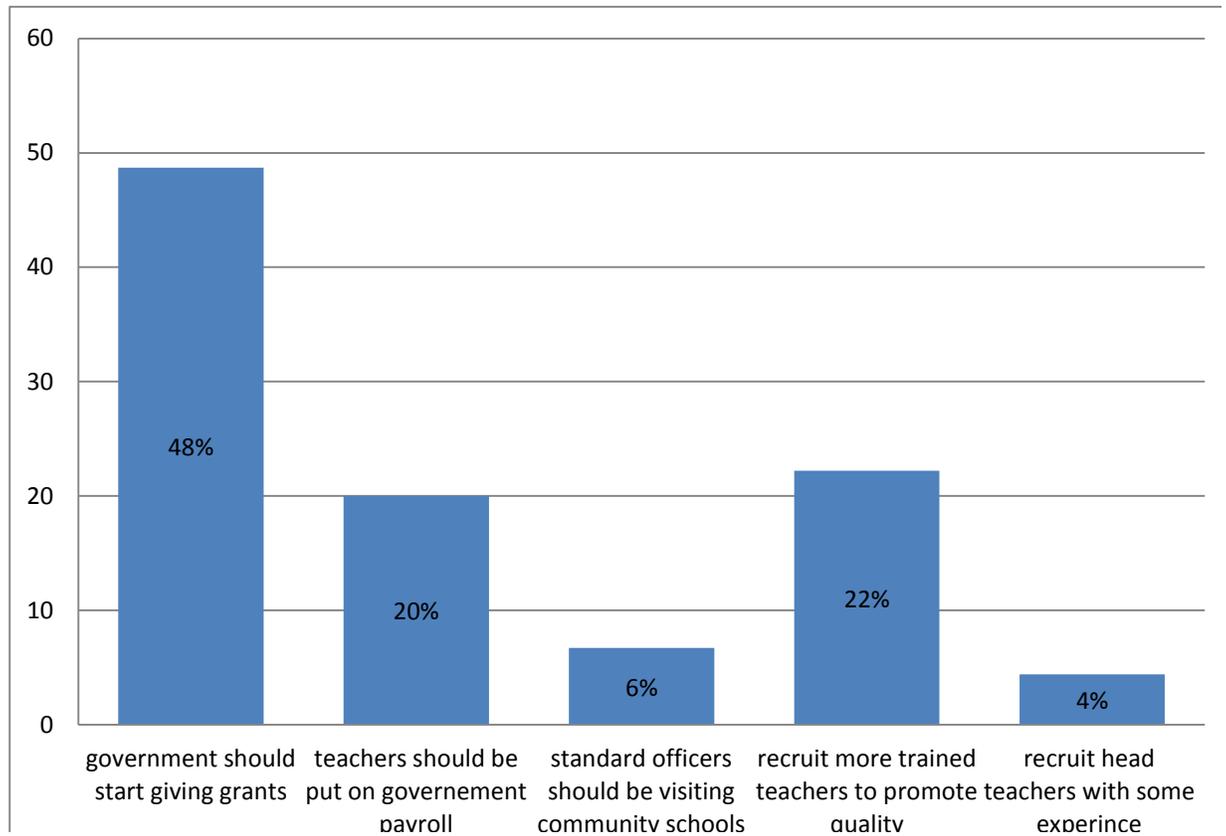


Figure 5.6 Suggestion for resolving resource deficit in schools (n=100)

Some of the suggestions for resolving resource deficit in schools as indicated in figure 5.7 48 (48%) of the teachers indicated that the government should start giving direct grants to community schools. 20 (20%) of the teachers suggested that teachers should be put on government pay roll to enhance quality education in community schools. 6 (6%) of the teachers indicated that standard officers should visit community schools more often. 22 (22%) of the teachers suggested that more teachers be recruited to enhance quality of education, and 4 (4%) of the teachers indicated that head teachers with experience should be recruited.

5.3.10 Summary on resource mobilisation

The study showed that resource mobilisation was a big challenge for community schools considering that community schools were not profit-making organisations. Resources are mobilised from the community itself, non-governmental organisations, well-wishers, civil society and the government. Support received include learning and teaching aids in form of technical support (training of volunteer of teachers, Parents Community School Committees), money in form of school fees and infrastructure development.

5.4.1 Monitoring of community schools

Community schools were monitored and evaluated by resource coordinators and senior teachers of nearby schools. Out of 45 schools, only two schools were monitored by the district standards officers. The findings of the study showed that the government through the MoGE came up with the community schools' monitoring instrument, which has been included in the Standards and Evaluation Guidelines of 2015. Before coming up with this monitoring instrument specifically for community schools, a general monitoring tool for institution was used. The Community School Monitoring Instrument centers on general information, staffing, enrolment, type of curriculum, infrastructure, teaching and learning resources, education programmes, school grants (free education policy), examinations, sporting facilities, records, comments, advice given and recommendations (see appendix J).

5.4.1.1 Monitoring

The monitoring was sectioned into three parts or sections namely, Institutional, Teacher and Examination monitoring. (See appendix K). Lastly, examination monitoring was centered on school details, storage of examinations papers, accommodation, and state of examination materials, general examination supervision, observations, advice given and way forward.

5.4.3 Centralised monitoring by Ministry of General Education

According to the National Policy on Education, Educating Our Future (1996: 155), “the inspectorate is an important Directorate within the Ministry of Education for ensuring the quality of education in primary and secondary schools. Inspectors have a variety of professional responsibilities that relate quite clearly to the quality and effectiveness of school education.” The District Education Standards Officer (DESO) helped by the Education Standards Officers (ESOs) heads the inspectorate at the DEBS office. Standards officers have an advisory, supervisor and evaluation function in relation to the provision of education. This monitoring conducted by the District Education Standards Officer and his team from the District Education Board Secretary is known as Centralised Monitoring. At the time of the study, this was the formal system of ensuring education standards in the entire country.

In order to ensure quality education delivery to learners in the community schools in the districts, the Department of Standards and Assessment made numerous strides in conducting periodical monitoring of the schools in the last three years according to the DEBS report. So far, going by statistics as obtaining from the periodical quarterly reports for the last three years-2013, 2014 and 2015 a total of 300 standards monitoring visits which included institutional, teacher and examinations monitoring were conducted in the 13 registered community schools presently in existence in the district as follows:

5.4.4 Frequency of Monitoring in the Selected Schools

Table: 5.11 Frequency of visits by Standard Officers from the DEBS

Y e a r	Type of Monitoring	T i m e s	Number of Schools	Number of visits
2013	Institution	3	13	39
	Teacher	3	13	3
	Examination	3	13	39
Total number of Visits				81
2014	Institutional	2	13	26
	Teacher	0	13	00
	Examination	3	13	39
Total number of visits				65
2015	Institutional	1	13	13
	Teacher	0	13	00

	Examination	3	13	39
Total number of visits				52

The DEBS observed that the districts could have done better but owing to some challenges, especially lack of funding and resources, monitoring in the year 2015 was affected. The DEBS acknowledged that community schools were monitored whenever they were monitoring public schools.

Community schools were given almost the same attention given to public schools as far as monitoring was concerned (DEBS).

The findings of the study revealed that standard officers never monitored the community schools as they were supposed to. PCSCs, observed that *most of the Standard officers did not monitor community schools as they were supposed to because of lack of funding and transport. The people, who were in contact with community schools frequently, were the resource personnel from the Resource Centres the DRCCs and the PRCCs.*

It has been has observed that there are challenges in the mobility of the Standard Officers to monitor public and community schools because of lack of resources and transport. DEBS acknowledged that *as a temporal measure the Ministry of General Education has encouraged the head teachers through the DEBS and its personnel in the field namely, the Zonal Education Support Team (ZEST) leaders to monitor their teachers and volunteer teachers in community schools (see appendix G) (MOGE).*

The District Resource Centre Coordinators monitor these community schools to check on how PSCCs were managing these schools and to see if they were implementing what they had been taught at the Resource Centres and in the workshops. The Coordinators work on behalf of the DEBS to ensure that teaching takes place and that laid down procedures governing community schools are followed. PCSCs / Community Members shall:

- I. Participate in establishing priorities and setting up goals and strategies for school improvement planning.
- II. Regularly encourage parents and other community members to participate in the school.
- III. Improve planning and implementation.
- IV. Participate in the review of the school's progress in implementing the plan.
- V. Work in consultation with the school to build partnerships with other stakeholders.

Table 5.12 Head teacher's response on Standard Officer monitoring

Supervision from the standard officers in the past three years	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1 -3	14	31.1
4 – 7	11	24.4
8 – above	5	11.1
None	15	33.3
Total	45	100
How often do you observe teachers as they teach	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Weekly	18	40
Monthly	8	17.7
Per term	12	26.6
As often as possible	7	15.5
Total	45	100

5.4.5 Monitoring team (Standards Officers)

The monitoring team from DEBS comprises the District Education Standards officer (DESO) and Education Standards officers (ESOs) (Ministry of General Education).

When monitoring, standards officers look for the following: General information (e.g. Name of the school, District in which the school is...), staffing, and enrolment, type of curriculum being offered by the school, infrastructure (e.g. number of offices, toilets...), teaching and learning resources (e.g. main text books), education programmes (e.g. New Breakthrough to Literacy (NBTL), School Health and Nutrition, General and Equity (Bursaries) No. of boys and No. of girls, School Grants (Free Education Policy), Examinations, Sporting Facilities, Records (e.g. Syllabus, Schemes/weekly forecast and lesson preparation. When monitoring teachers in class, one method used to monitor is called clinical supervision. Clinical supervision is a process by which a teacher receives individualised support to enhance instruction in order to improve education for all students. Teaching is a complex profession that requires continuous support and ongoing deep analysis in order to see substantial change in a student's learning.

5.4.6 Instrument used in monitoring

At the time of the study, the monitoring instrument used was a general one, for there was no formal monitoring instrument specifically designed for community schools. The monitoring instrument for community schools was recently included in the Standards and Evaluation Guidelines of 2015.

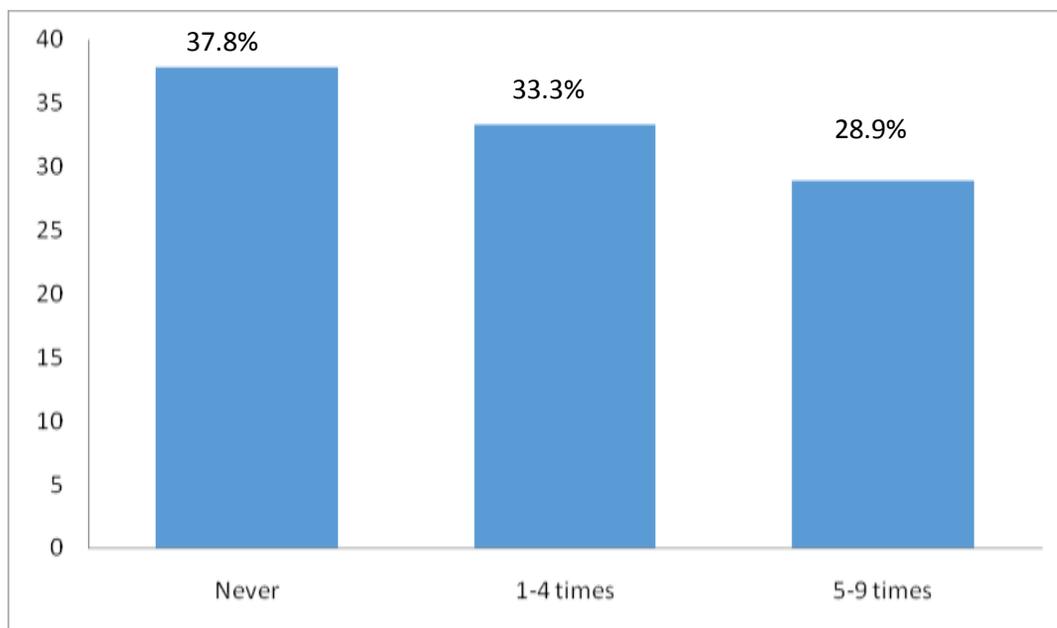


Figure 5.7: Class teachers' responses on visitation of Standards Officers

33 (33.3%) of the teachers indicated that standards officers visited the schools from 1-4 times in the previous three years. 29 (28.9%) of the teachers indicated that standard officers visited the schools from 5-9 times in the previous three years and 38 (37.8%) indicated that the Standard Officers in the same period had never visited the schools.

5.4.6 Teachers not satisfied with the frequency of visits of Standards Officers

The teachers were not happy with the frequency at which the standards officers monitored the schools. The visits were not adequate as reported by the respondents in figure 5.9. The teachers and the head teachers were of the view that it would be much better if Standards Officers visited frequently according to the Standards and Evaluation Guidelines.

5.4.7 Decentralised monitoring

Decentralised monitoring is monitoring which is done within the institution by the supervisors, the head teachers/ teacher in charge, deputy head teacher, tenior teacher, class teacher, Peer (learner to learner/teacher in charge), Parent Community School Committee (PCSC), Parents and community members, School Inset Coordinator, DRCC and Zonal Coordinators

The study showed that local supervision in community schools on the Copper-belt was taking place as indicated in table 5.7. The Head teachers, Zonal Coordinators were not waiting for Standard Officers to visit the schools for monitoring (DRCCs, PCSCs, Head teachers). The head teachers, DRCCs, PRCCs Zonal coordinators NGOs, ZOCS monitored teachers and head teachers in community schools. Continuing Professional Development meetings and Zonal meeting are encouraged. When monitoring the DESOs, ESO, DRCCs, PRCCs, Zonal Coordinators and NGOs followed the laid down procedures in the 2015 Standards and Evaluation Guidelines. The people who were in contact with community schools frequently were the personnel from the Resource Centres the DRCCs and the PRCCs. The MoGE has observed that there were challenges in the mobility of the standards officers to monitor public and community schools because of lack of resources and transport.

The marjority of the teachers 60 (60%) indicated that supervisors observed the lessons once per week. 16 (15.6%) of the teachers indicated that supervisors observed lessons once per month.11 (11.1%) indicated that lessons were observed once per term.11 (11.1%) indicated that lessons were observed and 2 (2.2%) of the teachers indicated that supervisors never observed lessons.

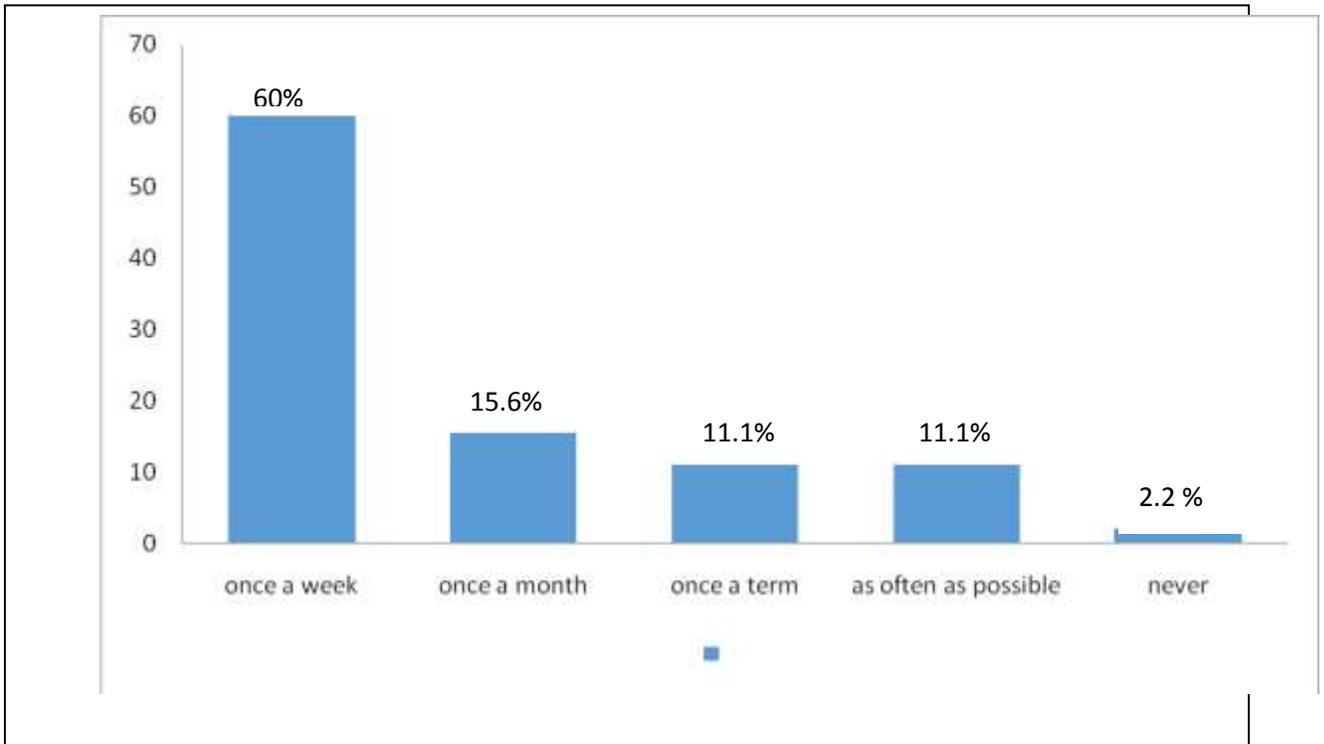


Figure 5.8 Class teachers' responses on the number of times the supervisor observed the teachers.

Table 5.13 Indicates the frequency of comments from the supervisor helpful or not.

Are the comments helpful	Frequency	Percentage (%)
No	18	18
Yes	70	70
Partially	12	12
Total	100	100

18 (18%) of the teachers whose lessons were observed indicated that the comments from the supervisors were not helpful. 70 (70%) of the teachers who were observed indicated that the comments by the supervisors were very helpful and 12 (12%) of the teachers whose lessons were observed indicated that the comments were partially helpful.

Head teachers' response on C.P.D

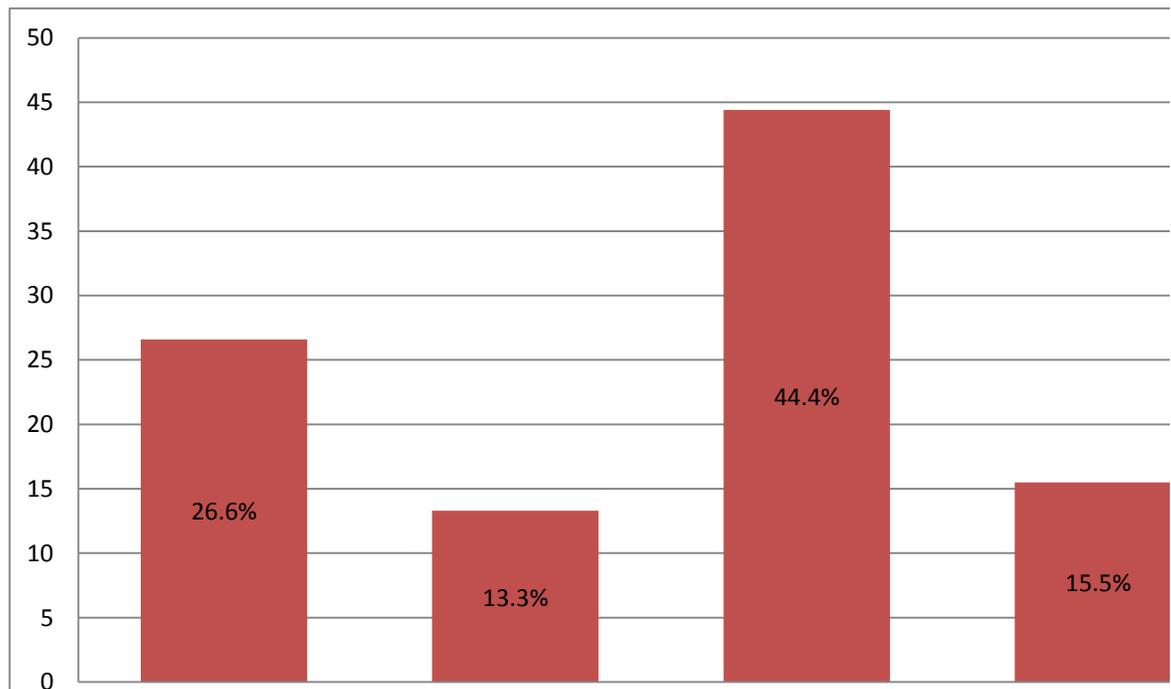


Figure 5.9 Indicates the times when Continuous Professional Development meetings are held.

The graph above shows that 12 (26.6%) of the head teachers indicated CPD was carried out weekly at their schools. 6 (13.3%) of head teachers indicated that CPD was carried out monthly. 20 (44.4%) of head teachers indicated that CPD was carried out termly and 7 (15.5%) of head teachers indicated that they had no CPD activities at their schools.

Continuous Professional Development meetings is one of the activities the District Education Standards Officers expect to find taking place at a community school.

5.4.8 Summary on monitoring

The study showed that monitoring by Standards Officers was not done as regularly as expected. Monitoring of community schools by standard officers had been very erratic. Monitoring of schools was done mainly by the head teachers/deputy head teachers, teacher in charge, senior teachers, Parent Community School Committees, School Inset

Coordinators, District Resource Centre Coordinators and Zonal Coordinators. As for or monitoring instrument, there was a new monitoring instrument created especially for community schools.

5.5.1 Administrative challenges

The study showed that community schools faced a lot of challenges. Administrative challenges the school faced were inadequate finances, inadequate infrastructure, lack of trained teachers and incapacity of retaining of qualified staff, inadequate teaching and learning aids, inconsistency in the opening and dates of schools, lack of uniformity (standardisation), and Parents Community School Committees (PCSCs) at times abused their authority as community schools are organised and managed by Parents Community School Committees.

5.5.2 Opportunities experienced by Community Schools

The study also revealed that apart from encountering a lot of challenges, community schools experienced a good share of opportunities such as active participation of parents in the pupils' education (career talks during open and homework policy), in infrastructure development. Communities participated in planning, budgeting and mobilising resources for projects. Teachers were availed opportunities to be taught pedagogical skills, management skills to PCSCs and opportunities to work with non-governmental organisations. The challenges and opportunities are discussed below.

5.5.3 Challenges

Language limitations: The new curriculum encourages one to teach in the local language from Grade 1 to Grade 4. Language of instruction from grades 1-4 in all learning areas will be in familiar language, while English will be an official language of instruction from Grade 5 upwards. As a result, teachers who are not indigenous or not conversant with the language are compelled to learn the local language for them to teach effectively.

“The community schools do not have the monopoly to choose their language of instruction but follow what the Ministry of General Education has identified as a regional language for that area”, (NGOs Time to Learn Representative).

Financial Resources: The participants revealed that there was a high level of attrition because many of the teachers in community schools did not last long because of poor conditions of service. For example, they worked for a long time without any salary or allowances because the communities on whom the teachers depended upon could not afford to support them (NGOs Representative).

Table 5.14: Teachers responses on some of the challenges community schools encounter

What are some of the administrative challenges that you face	Frequency	Percentage
Inadequate finances	30	30.0
Inadequate infrastructure	25	25.0
Inconsistence in paying fees	7	7.0
All the above	20	20.0
No teachers to teach children with Special Educational Needs.	18	18.0
Total	100	100

On the challenges community schools encountered, the majority of teachers (30%) showed that community schools had inadequate finances; 25 percent indicated that community schools had inadequate infrastructure; 7 percent indicated that there was inconsistence in paying fees by parents and 20 percent teachers showed there was inadequate infrastructure, inconsistence in paying fees, and inadequate finances.

Other than that, the infrastructure was in a poor state that did not provide a conducive learning environment. That aside limited financial resources led to inadequate teaching and learning materials that made teaching and learning extremely difficult, (Head teachers).

Inconsistence in the reopening and closing dates: Some community schools were also not consistent in the reopening and closing dates and as a result, they were referred to as seasonal schools. In other parts of the country where there are no caterpillars but fish, children leave school and go onto the lake to help their parents catch fish, can only return when the government institutes a fish ban or some measures are put in place by the school authorities.

“They can open and close at any time of the year, for example some schools close during caterpillar season because parents want their children to help in harvesting caterpillars,” (NGOs Time to Learn, Representative).

“Some economic activities that happen in a certain area distract the learner’s attention from education,” (Head teachers).

Lack of qualified staff and the incapacity to retain of qualified staff. Community schools usually operated without qualified staff as most of them worked as volunteers to assist with some kind of knowledge transmission.

“At the same time even if there were some teachers who had the qualification, the poor working conditions did not allow those teachers to work for a long time as they sought greener pasture whenever opportunities arose”, (The DEBS).

Lack of Uniformity: The findings of the study showed PCSCs would also like to manage the schools on their terms instead of following the laid down procedures in the operation guidelines for community schools booklet of 2007. The DRCCs indicted that according to operational guidelines for community schools functions of all stakeholders namely, learner, parents/community members, traditional leaders and community school head teachers and teachers are well presented.

“Other challenges were that of frictions between the teachers seconded to community schools by the government and the volunteer teachers, at times even with the PCSCs for fear of being displaced”, (DRCCs). PCSCs abuse of authority in community schools was sometimes seen through how they mistreated and terminated teacher’s services without proper reasons.

Lack of proper teacher qualifications negatively affected the quality of education because it did not motivate teachers, and in turn, both teaching and learning suffered.

There was lack of expertise in the leadership of community schools, which negatively affects teaching and learning (The DRCCs).

5.5.4 Class teachers’ responses on books found in the libraries

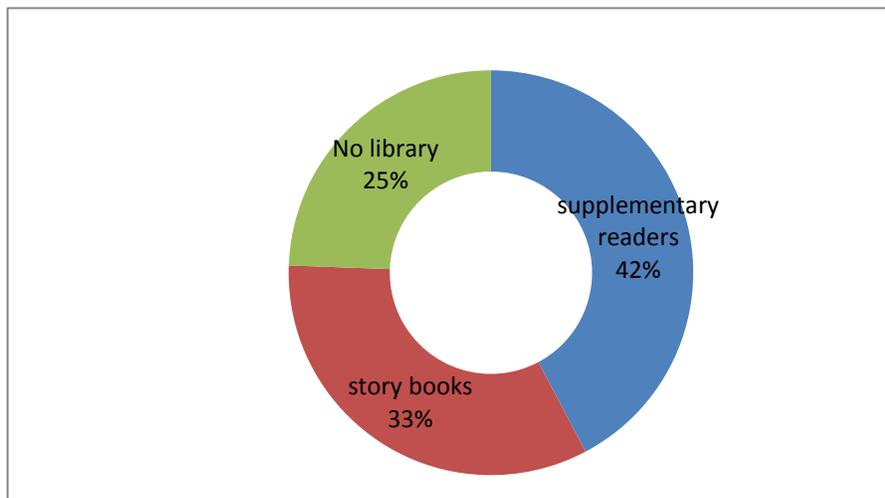


Figure 5.10 indicates kind of books found in the libraries

On books found in the library; 25 (25%) of the teachers indicated that there were no books found in their libraries. 42 (42%) indicated that the books found their libraries were supplementary readers and 33 (33%) indicated that only storybooks were found in their libraries. Some libraries, which were found in the some community school, were

makeshift; books were just placed in the corner of the classroom and the end of the class the books were moved into a secure room.

5.5.5 Opportunities enjoyed by community schools

The study revealed that among the opportunities surrounding community schools were that parents were given chance to participate in the education of their children by participating in building infrastructure and participating in resource mobilisation. Some parents participated in career talk during open days and at home encouraged their children to write homework.

This is possible because community schools believe in home, community and school partnership. The PCSC also have an opportunity to monitor the progress of the learners at the same time monitor teachers' teaching. Decentralisation encourages all stakeholders PCSC, NGOs and the teachers to work together to build a firm or strong foundation for the progress of the children in the community. The Epstein's framework of parental involvement believes that Schools, which function most satisfactorily, are those where there is a good partnership between the home, community and the school.

Parents through the PCSC get involved in the education of their children by putting in place support such as infrastructure, building new classroom blocks as well as providing teaching and learning materials.

Through decentralisation, community Schools, in order to survive, have opted to an open door policy, in that they are ready to work with anyone in the government, non-governmental Organisations and well-wishers to the benefit of the underprivileged learner. They are also involved in carrying the vision of what they would like to see done in their schools when working in partnership with the non-governmental organisations such as Time to Learn the USAID Project, Zambia Open Community School Secretariat and the Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance (VVOB) and other stakeholders and well-wishers. According to DEBS and DRCCs, NGOs provide technical support or capacity building to improve quality of teaching and learning. Parents have been availed opportunities to share their skills and experiences with their children through open days and on others days as per

arrangement by the Parent Community School Committees and the school. According to Epstein's theory of School, Family and Community Partnerships community schools encourage Parents to participate in the education of the child through a partnership, teachers, administrators and the community that create more family-like schools. A family-like school identifies the individuality of every child and makes the child special and part of the education system (Epstein, 2002). Some of the opportunities community schools enjoy apart from the ones mentioned above are having workshops and Continuing Professional Development for teachers to improve their pedagogical skills. They also hold workshops for the PCSCs to improve their managerial skills in the running of the schools. At the same time, they meet high profile people such as government officials from the MoGE, NGOs and from other stakeholders. The community schools are organised and managed by PCSCs. These committees are composed of parents, a community school volunteer head teacher, teachers and a prominent member of the community

5.5.6 Decentralisation

The study showed that community schools were decentralised by default because they are mainly organised and managed by the Parent Community School Committees. The DEBS, NGOs observed that decentralisation has many benefits, for it improved efficiency, promoted transparency, accountability and responsiveness of service. The DEBS indicated, *“decentralisation encouraged stakeholders to follow priorities, participation, improved quality and coverage of access to services, in this case, education”*.

It also helped the government to offload some of its fiscal burden of education service provision. Community schools, since are started, organised and managed by the local communities for their resources, they depend on themselves. For the schools to stay afloat they need to set their priorities right; they are accountable to each other and encourage participation of everyone in the community in the provision of education. They contribute their personal resources and time for betterment of their schools.

Community schools have survived up to this time because of team effort among members of the communities. Some community schools have not done well because of lack of proper communication among members of the community; there is no collaboration among them. Decentralisation promotes proper communication so that all members of the community have the same vision about their school. The DEBS observed that community schools had many challenges as compared to their counterparts in the public schools. Some of the challenges faced by community schools were poor infrastructure, inadequate teaching and learning materials; they also faced limited financial resources, and challenges of working with the local community, lack of qualified staff and the incapacity to retain qualified staff. On opportunities, the DEBS observed, *“communities had opportunities of planning, budgeting and mobilising resources for school projects. They were also involved in carrying the vision of what they wanted to see done in their schools when working in partnership with the Non-Governmental organisations such as Time to Learn the USAID Project, Zambia Open Community School Secretariat and the Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance (VVOB) and other stake-holders and well-wishers”*.

The study revealed that NGOs, provided technical support or capacity building to improve quality of teaching and learning and that they worked in collaboration with each other. (DEBS, DRCCs)

The DEBS observed that decentralisation required a strong commitment of administrative leadership for it to succeed. Challenges are inevitable if the leadership is not committed, focused and transparent to the community. It also depends on interaction of various coalitions within the sector. The other challenge of decentralisation was that there is no uniformity among community schools of how a school should be run in terms of decentralisation. To what degree should the school be allowed to practice decentralisation? That is one challenge, which should be addressed by the government before decentralising the public primary schools.

Decentralisation encourages ingenuity and improves the quality of management, particularly at local level. In a system, that is highly centralised, key figures such as head teachers are denied decision making opportunities and frequently have little, if any, management training. Their quality of management is, therefore, not surprisingly, often poor. A well-tailored system of decentralised management promotes accountability. Understanding the particular roles of central government, local government, school management and other agencies makes it possible to set suitable targets for each. If decentralisation of schools is to work, like in community schools, many things should be put in place because greater autonomy implies greater variety. There should be a mechanism or system put in place to check in considerable detail the expected standards of decentralisation in the public schools. A well-defined policy framework is thus an indispensable element of a decentralised system. A community school is an example of an autonomous successful decentralised school. Public schools can learn a lot from community schools in terms of improvisation, commitment of teachers to work and management of schools with less or no support from the government. Decentralisation promotes critical thinking and releases human potential among the players. People respond to increased opportunities to use their talents and energies productively.

5.5.7 Summary on the last objective

The study showed that community schools in Zambia encounter a number of challenges, which include language limitations, financial resources, inconsistency in the reopening and closing of schools, lack of qualified staff and incapability to retain qualified staff.

The study also pointed out many opportunities community schools experienced. These include active participation of parents in the education of their children (career talk during open and homework policy), infrastructure building, community participation in planning, budgeting, mobilising resources for projects, pedagogical skills for teachers, management skills for PCSCs and working with non-governmental organisations.

5.6.8 Summary

The chapter presented the findings of the study on the decentralisation and quality education in community schools on the Copper-belt Province. Data were collected by administering of questionnaires to the head teachers, teachers. The findings of the study were that the curriculum used in the majority of Community Schools was the same as that used in the government schools. On performance, Community School pupils performed almost the same as those in the government schools. Resource mobilisation was a big challenge, considering that Community Schools were not profit-making organisations. The resources were mobilised by the PCSCs from well-wishers, civil society, the government and cooperating partners. Resources were also realised through projects like making of mats, simple furniture and through farming.

Monitoring of the community schools was done by the DEBS through Standards Officers, DRCCs and the PRCCs. Community schools faced a number of challenges which included language limitations, limited financial resources, inconsistency in reopening and closing of schools, lack of qualified staff and incapacity to retain qualified staff, lack of uniformity (standardisation), parents community school committees (PCSCs) abuse of authority and lack of specialised teachers to teach children with Special Educational Needs. Apart from encountering these numerous challenges, community schools have also experienced a good share of opportunities such as active participation of parents in the pupil's education (career talk during open days and homework policy), in infrastructure building, communities participated in planning, budgeting and mobilising resources for projects, and volunteer teachers were availed opportunities to be taught pedagogical skills, PCSCs were taught management skills, and they had opportunities to work with non-governmental organisations.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.1 Overview

This chapter discusses the findings that have been presented in chapter 5 derived from the five research questions. The discussion focuses on decentralisation and quality education in community schools in Mufulira and Kitwe districts on the Copper-belt province.

The findings of the study are discussed in five subsections. The first subsection discusses the nature of the curricula used in community school schools. The second discusses the performance of community school pupils in the national examinations. The third is a discussion on resource mobilisation and utilisation for community schools. The fourth subsection discusses monitoring system used to monitor community schools, and finally the fifth one discusses administrative challenges and opportunities faced by community schools.

6.2 The Curricula in community schools

There was a variety of curricular used in the community schools at the time the study was conducted namely, SPARK, unrevised and the revised curriculum. A study carried out by Cashen *et al.* (2002:9) had shown that there were two main curricula in use at that time Chondoka (2004). The SPARK curriculum was developed under the guidance of UNESCO. The SPARK is unique in that it promotes the development of life skills, such as problem solving, creative thinking, interpersonal, relationship skills and coping with stress. The second curriculum is the government curriculum (ZBEC) which is centred on seven subjects for seven years (Cusheni, 2001). Many teachers used a mixture of SPARK and the government curriculum while some teachers taught simply according to their previous knowledge and education. As mentioned in the literature review community schools came into existence in the 1992 (Carmody 2004). The schools were mainly intended to offer free education to children between the ages of 9 to 16 years. According to USAID EQUIP2, community schools are flexible in their

enrollment and structure (DeStefano, 2006). No age limit was imposed on prospective students, and schools initially tended to enroll older students. In fact, preference was often either given to older students who had not had a chance to enroll in school previously or had dropped out. Often in rural areas, schools employed multi-grade teaching. Little (1995:1) observed that multi-grade teaching refers to the teaching of different ages, Grades and abilities in the same group. It is referred to variously in the literature as multilevel, multiple class, composite class, vertical group, family classes and in the case of one-teacher schools, it is called unitary school.

Many community schools were using the curriculum, SPARK, which was developed by UNICEF. As mentioned in the literature review, it was an alternative curriculum for accelerated learning, designed for the students who were over-age for the regular normal school. The curriculum's intention was to help the illiterate or semi-illiterate child to acquire practical skills to become productive citizen in the community (DeStefano, 2006). According to EQUIP2 the curriculum was not designed to be examinable; those tutored under the SPARK curriculum were not expected to continue schooling. For after completing the four year curriculum the students were expected to proceed to a skills class which was centred on practical training (gardening, metalworking, tailoring). However, very few community schools were offering these skills courses and many students did not continue with this kind of arrangement. Some learners preferred to continue with their education as reported by Chondoka (2004) that a total number who entered Grade 8 in 2003 was a meager 116 (48.3%) and others though few progressed to colleges pursuing higher education. The study showed that community schools were using the SPARK in combination with the unrevised, the unrevised in combination with the revised curriculum. This was the time when the country had revised and implemented the curriculum. When it was implemented most of the prescribed materials to be used in the schools were not readily available and the end-users had to improvise teaching and learning aids. Trained teachers complained that they had difficulties in using the new curriculum because the learning and teaching aids were not available. It also seemed that the teachers were not very conversant with how to go about the many changes which were done in the revised curriculum. The

community school teachers who were just volunteer teachers had the worst experience for they had difficulties in migrating immediately towards the revised curriculum since they do not possess qualifications in the teaching methodologies. For that reason some teachers were used the combination of the revised and unrevised curriculum. The participants indicated that they used more of the revised than the unrevised curriculum. The SPARK curriculum was just used as a reference for there were good elements as mentioned in findings of the study. ZOCS and other NGOs have been conducting training workshops for community schools volunteer teachers so that they are equipped with teaching skills. In some community schools, there were different manuals, which were used by community schools' teachers in class. As highlighted in his study, Swazi (2012) indicated that ZOCS and other organisations have been supporting unqualified community school teachers who meet entry requirements for college of education, to train to certificate level who upon graduation most of them were deployed to government schools. After they were posted, a serious shortage of human resource was created in community schools. As a result, it compromised the delivery of education to the affected schools. Various NGOs and stakeholders have tried to orient their teachers by developing training manuals to help them go to class with confidence. Most of the manuals they had been using to train their teachers were not well written and needed to be harmonised to have one common standard for all organisations (Swazi 2012). It is against this background that ZOCS with support from UNICEF and in collaboration with other Civic Society organizations and MESVTEE, planned to spearhead the harmonisation of all the existing training manuals into one standard document. When the volunteer teachers are trained using one standardised manual they have confidence of using only the prescribed curriculum, in this case, the revised curriculum (Bowasi, 2010).

6.2.1 Decentralisation of community schools

The study found out that community schools were established in the places, which were not designated for schools according to government mapping. The PCSCs exercised their rights through the partnership policy of the government to set up community

schools. In reference to the literature review, community schools are decentralised by default and not by design. When community schools came into existence in 1992, their main objective was to offer education to the underprivileged (Carmody, 2004). The government, when it allowed community schools to come into being, it seems it did not know that these schools would be operating in a decentralised way. Information in the public domain show that the first real steps in the decentralisation of the system began in 1995 with the establishment of educational boards on the Copper belt Province (Bariera-Osoria et al 2009). Carmody (2004) reports that there were four classes: teachers' colleges, secondary schools, district primary schools, and each basic primary school of such a size that merit its own board. The boards have full power for education including recruitment, discipline of staff, administration of funds, obligation of fees and upholding of the institutions. Each board consisted of fifteen members, only one of whom is an educational official (Carmody, 2004). Community schools have been operating in a decentralised way similar to educational boards. They were even operational under a curriculum specifically designed for them. As mentioned in the literature review these schools are managed by PCSCs. The committees have full authority to employ, discipline staff, administer funds and maintain the schools. Community schools have proved that decentralisation of schools in Zambia is workable for they have been able to stay afloat amidst all the challenges without regular support from donors/well-wishers and from the government. It is as if the government has successfully piloted through community schools if decentralisation of schools in Zambia can work successfully.

The curriculum, which has been prescribed to be used in all community schools, is the revised curriculum. The SPARK curriculum is no longer officially used, for in the Evaluation of SPARK curriculum in community schools by Chondoka (2004) it was recommended that it be phased out in 2005. It became irrelevant for the age group of pupils being enrolled in community schools is the same as those in government schools.

The centralised curriculum provides standardised skills and competencies; this is in harmony with the Right Based Approach to Education. UNICEF (2007) stresses that the curriculum must empower every child to attain essential academic curriculum and

elementary cognitive skill, together with critical life skills that equip children to face life challenges, make well-informed decisions and develop a healthy lifestyle, good social relationships, embrace critical-thinking, and the capacity for non-violent conflict. It must develop respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, and promote respect for different cultures and values and for a natural environment. The committee on rights of the child stipulates that curriculum, both in early childhood provision and in school, “must be of direct relevance to the child’s social, cultural, environmental and economic context, and to his or her present and future needs and full account of child’s evolving capacities.” The centralised curricular is the only way to go, for that is government policy. If the learners in the community school use the different curriculum they will be disadvantaged in the sense that a different curriculum ideally implies a different examination, which is not the case in Zambia. In Zambia, government, grant-aided, private and community schools all write the same examinations, which are set by the Examinations of Zambia.

6.3 Performance of Community School Pupils in national examinations.

The study indicated that learners in community schools showed low performance compared to government schools, grant aided and private schools owing to many challenges community schools encountered. Pupils in community schools have generally not performed worse or better than government schools. Surprisingly, government school learners tend to perform only slightly better than community school learners despite the challenges the community school faced. This is the same view shared by Frischkorn (2016) who indicated that primary-level community school learners, on average, perform similarly to (or only slightly lower than government schools according to the Zambia Grade National Assessment Surveys. According to research, the world over has shown that learners’ socioeconomic status and parents’ educational achievement affect academic performance and levels of attendance and absenteeism. These effects have also been noticed in Zambia (Frischkorn et al 2016).

Pupils or learners who come from households where parents cannot provide basic needs usually tend not to perform well at school. A child from such a home will always be absent minded and will not participate actively in the class activities. As the study has indicated, community schools are decentralised by default and not by design. This entails that the management of these schools is done in a decentralised way. Each community school is managed and organised by the PCSC, composed of parents, community school head teacher and teachers, and prominent community members (MOGE 2016); (Frischkorn et al 2016). The success of the schools, in terms of good performance of the learners depended mainly upon the administration of the PCSC. The study agrees with Kochhar (2002) who acknowledges the notion of Epstein (2002) who indicated that parents are important in the education of children. A long time ago, parents detached themselves from the education of their children, for that duty was given to the schools. Significant academic research regionally and globally has demonstrated the ability of parental involvement in school management to influence school quality (Barrera-Osoria et al. 2009). Falconer-Stout et al. (2014b) emphasised the significant potential of PCSCs to hold a range of school actors accountable, for example, by ensuring teacher and learner attendance and lobbying local government for resources. However, even active PCSCs on their own cannot overcome the limitations of poor teacher instruction and limited educational material (Falconer-Stout et al. 2014; Falconer-Stout and Kalimaposo 2014).

The performance of the learners in the community schools also partly depended directly on the PCSCs who have been given authority of running these schools by the MOGE. All the players in the community schools play their part in the decentralised way to achieve the objectives of the schools. Our education in Zambia has been managed through highly centralised bureaucracies. Most of functions are carried out directly by the MoGE or by ministry officials stationed at regional or district level acting on detailed instructions from the ministry officials at the Headquarters (Glassman et al. 2007)

Some of the challenges faced by community schools, which affect pupils performance are insufficient number of teachers both trained and untrained (at times some community schools have only one teacher managing all the classes using mult-grade strategy of teaching), inadequate remunerations and other incentives, high teacher attrition rate, inadequate teaching and learning resources coupled with poor leadership and management (Hungu et al 2010). In addition, community schools often suffered from instability in terms of unprecedented closures and seasonal operations. Community leaders should sensitise the parents and pupils on the importance of education and uninterrupted school programmes. Education should be seen as the key to a successful life.

Generally, community schools on the Copper-belt particularly in Mufulira and Kitwe district performed well (see appendices K, L, M, N and O). In attempt to enhance performance and quality education in these community schools, the Ministry of General Education has seconded teachers to these schools; some have been seconded as teachers in charge and others just as class teachers. As a condition, a community school with seconded teachers from the government also qualified for full government support as any public school. Other Community schools, which have been upgraded to full-fledged public/government schools, are Chiwele and Twabuluka community schools. However, it is not a guarantee that when a school is up-graded, it will automatically start performing well. For a school to start performing there are a number of steps to be put in place as already discussed in the study. Some Community Schools have received a facelift in terms of infrastructure development, for example, at Kalindini, Kawama Community Schools in Mufulira, new classroom blocks were constructed. The schools were upgraded and some given a face lift as per promise by the ruling party the Patriotic Front. To enhance good performance and quality education in community schools, some measures need to be put in place .for example, teaching and learning aids should be made available, the MoGE should increase the number of teachers being seconded or posted to community schools, encourage continuing professional development, improve infrastructure development, sanitation and water reticulation, fund community schools in terms of grants directly given to the schools. In Zambia, schools are categorised into

private, grant-aided, community and GRZ schools. Nevertheless, the Zambian government has embarked on upgrading community schools, despite the lack of official strategy and clear understanding of upgrading by all stakeholders.

During the upgrading process, community schools receive funding for infrastructure development, at the same time teachers, grants, and school requisites (Macwan'gi et al. 2016). Those are the benefits the schools and community receive but the drawback is that once the school has been upgraded, automatically its status changes, it adopts the standards of a government school in terms of the way it is managed. The standards create new challenges for pupils coming from community schools. For example, all the fees paid in public schools by pupils are expected to be paid; all pupils are supposed to be in proper uniform and all pupils are expected to abide by the new rules and regulations, which are different from those found in community schools. In essence, in public schools there is no flexibility that is found in community schools. As a result, some children will drop out of school or will have to find another community school which is not upgraded. The government should consider formulating a framework to guide the implementation process of upgrading community schools. The lack of a framework has made it difficult to interpret and implement the upgrading of community schools.

6.4 Resource mobilisation and utilisation for community schools

The findings showed that resource mobilization in community school was a big challenge because community schools were non-profit making organisations. For any institution or organisation to succeed, it should have a strong resource or financial base. Resources were mobilised mainly from the following: school fees; donations from cooperating partners especially the United States Agency for International Development and The Flemish Association for Development Cooperation and Technical Assistance; community contributions; school fundraising ventures and the government. The structure for resource mobilisation and utilisation was the Parents Community School

Committee. Resource mobilisation is important to any organisation for the following reasons: It warrants the organizations' extension of the provision of services to its customers, in this case the pupils (ZOCS, 2013); supports structural sustainability and allows a build-up of products and services the organisation currently provides (education). Parent Community School Committees plan, budget and mobilise resources for projects they would want to undertake in their community schools. In the mobilisation of resources the traditional leaders, political and civic leaders, members of parliament, councillors, and resident development committee members who work hand in hand to make sure resources are raised. It is not only done by the PCSCs, it is everyone's concern in the community. Once these resources are mobilised, the PCSCs account for them and distribute them to the end users. For example, if books and chalk have been donated to the institution, the head teacher of the school must be given the items because he or she is the one in charge of the school (MOGE, 2016). The schools depended for their resources mainly on communities themselves who generally are in the lower income brackets. At times, the donors and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) come in to assist community schools in resources and resource mobilisation (MoGE, 2007).

6.4.1 Non-Governmental Organisational Support

The study found out that resources are also mobilised from well-wishers, civil societies, and from the government as well as from the cooperating partners such as VVOB, USAID (Time To Learn).

Similar to the time of the construction of University of Zambia, the government requested citizens to contribute financial and material resources. The cooperating partners contributed resources in form of finances, material support (learning and teaching material), sports kits, facilitating of training and workshops for volunteer teachers. The non-governmental organisations through the support they give to community schools have contributed to the improvement of education delivery in

community schools. The Ministry of General Education and VVOB have collaborated to address the gaps in the provision of education. Teachers have been equipped with pedagogical skills in ECE, and ongoing capacity building. USAID Time To Learn project, VVOB, ZOCS and other non-governmental organisations have played a pivotal role in community schools' development and support. Since community schools are often perceived as having a higher need (because they are community-owned and not guaranteed direct government support), they are more likely than government schools to receive charitable aid (ZOCS, 2013). For example, ECE was mainly offered in government institutions but is also offered in community schools with the support of VVOB.

VVOB has been supporting Early Childhood Education (ECE); infrastructure improvements and annexing of Early Childhood Centres to existing community school ([vvoob](#). nd). Zambia recognises those early years are crucial to child development and that Early Childhood Education (ECE) has a strong impact on education achievement in later levels of education. Henceforth, a strong ECE sector is important to a quality education system.

According to the National Policy Document of Education, Educating our Future (1996:7), early childhood education is an organised form of educational delivery for children between the ages of 3 and 6. However, age range that outlines the critical period of early childhood is 0 to 6 years. This is the period when the brain develops rapidly; when walking, talking, self-esteem, vision of the world and moral basis are developed (MESVTEE, 2015). The Ministry of General Education recognises that early childhood education is very important for the development of a child and useful as a foundation stage for entry into primary education (MOE, 1996). The study concurs with Matafwali (2014) who indicates that the delivery of quality early childhood education (ECE) has been acknowledged the world over as one of the most effective ways of meeting the Education for All (EFA) goal and Millennium Development Goal (MDG) on education (UNESCO, 2000). For this reason, Zambia has been making efforts to improve this key foundational education sector as outlined in the Sixth National

Development Plan (SNDP) and the National Implementation Framework (NIF III 2011-2015).

Resource mobilisation was done through pupils user fees at a very minimum fee, fund raising venture and donations from well-wishers. The study is in agreement with Chakufyali (2008) who observed that the funds and resources required for community schools to run in Zambia come from a variety of sources such as the local communities, the government through the Ministry General of Education, the Church, International NGOs or Bilateral donors as well as individuals either within or outside the country. Some NGOs aim is to build capacity in the locals so that even if they left, a vacuum would not be created. Glassman et al. (2007) observes that large, mainly international NGOs take upon themselves direct responsibility for capacity building in these local organisations to distribute services. If these ideas are to last, to be more than a stopgap set of measures, to continue spark innovation and therefore guarantee quality service, it will be through local action by such local entities. Cushen et al. (2002) indicates that any assistance from UNICEF and other donors increases the risk of donor dependence. In the end, the danger of donor dependence is that it shifts the responsibility of financing these schools to outside players. Donor support, particularly from international NGOs, cannot be relied upon. Ultimately, sustainability of community based education is the goal, then communities and governments need to work together towards creating a system they can support without reliance on external actors. As a result, targeted assistance to the community school sector should be undertaken as part of a broader plan to strengthen primary education in Zambia (Cushen 2002; Kuchita, 2010).

The PCSCs also raised their funds by selling locally made items like doormats, stools and chairs. The schools were able to attract wellwishers because of their being decentralised in nature. Some NGOs and well-wishers feel comfortable to work with schools or entities that are transparent and democratic in their operations. The NGOs wish is make sure that what they donate reach the intended people; they do not want

intermediaries between them and the recipients; their wish is to reach the recipients directly. According to Frischkorn et al (2016:10), USAID through its bilateral TTL project (2012-2016) has funded standardised support to all community schools in six provinces regardless of resources individual schools receive from other donors. Most schools fall in the under resourced category. The NGOs work closely with community schools. It is the duty of the PCSCs to mobilise resources in order for them to pay their teachers, and not wait for the government and well-wishers to do that. Resource mobilisation is very important to community schools in that the schools' existence is guaranteed. For without resources, it is very difficult for any organisation to survive. Resources are required by every kind of organisation to fulfill its objectives let alone a community school.

The study showed that these resources mobilised by the community school through the PCSCs are put into good use, they were well utilised. In general, resources are understood as materials, goods or services that help to realise the organisations' needs. Money, materials, human labour, and time are resources used by institutions, organisations and individuals to fulfill their objectives. For community schools to flourish, they need money and human resources. People or personnel in form of teachers are needed to ensure that community schools' objectives are fulfilled, and when the objectives are fulfilled it means that quality education will be enhanced. (Kalemba, 2013)

The other resources the community schools need are physical resources namely, tools, furniture, training tools, books and infrastructure. The researcher visited some community schools and found that some infrastructure looked as if they were only for temporary use, for they were not completely constructed. The schools, especially those supported fully by the local communities or community based, did not have proper furniture, books and volunteer teachers. For even though those community schools under NGOs, and faith-based organisations struggled a bit in resource mobilisation they were at least well-resourced in terms of furniture, and had volunteer teachers, books, furniture.

6.4.2 The Ministry of Education

The MoGE in its policy indicates that it provides grants to community schools using approved resource allocation criteria; community schools shall have equal access to education materials, and that community schools have equitable access to funds given to the District Education Board Secretary. However, resource allocation continues to be largely driven by the good will of the District Education Board Secretary's office rather than the relative needs of community schools (ZOCS, 2013). Community schools are well considered when there are government-supported teachers at community schools for they bring substantial benefits. The presence of a government teacher enables schools to access the grants provided by the District Education Board Secretary's offices as a direct funding rather than a grant in kind (Chakufyali et al 2008:B2).

6.5 Monitoring in community schools

The study found out that Community Schools were monitored and evaluated by Resource Coordinators and senior teachers of nearby schools. Out of 45 schools, District Standards officers monitored only twelve. The standard office in the Ministry of General Education is an important section for ensuring the quality of education in primary and secondary schools. Standard officers have a diversity of professional responsibilities that relate clearly to the quality and effectiveness of school education. Standard officers, because of the nature of their responsibilities, are expected to have intimate knowledge of the working, problems and successes of schools, of the education system as a whole, and of its workers (MOGE, 1996). They should have detailed knowledge because of careful study or a lot of experience. The study is in agreement with Ololubei and Majorii (2014) who observes that school inspection and educational supervision (SIES) is widely regarded as a critical source of competitive advantage in the ever changing environment of the education sector (Wanzare, 2002). Also according to educational management scholars (e.g. Ehren & Visscher, 2008; Ololube, 2013; Onasanya, 2008; West-Burnham, 1994), school inspection and supervision capability is

the most important determinant of teachers' productivities and teacher education performance.

The study showed that the Standard Officers from the MoGE used Standards and Evaluation Guidelines of 2015 for their assessment and monitoring. They followed the minimum standards to improve the quality education in the country. The minimum standards referred to the basic benchmarks of what is to be achieved if teaching and learning and several other attendant factors are to be adequate, and of acceptable quality. Schools and education boards use standards and Evaluation guidelines. The study showed that the standard officers are supposed to visit the school or learning institution at least three times in a term, the week of reopening, mid of the month and at the closing of the term. If there are frequent visits to a learning institution, the head teacher and his staff will always be working, they will be on top of things and quality of education enhanced. According to Chakufyali (2008), the quality of education in these community schools has also been dependent on regular monitoring and assessment of schools. In Zambia, education standard officers do this. Their concern is improving leader effectiveness and organisation of schools. They also advice the head teachers (administrators) on issues such as timetabling, effective use of teachers and providing good leadership. The present findings of the study suggest that the standards officer do not regularly monitor the community schools. The study is in agreement with Kambunga and Cheyeka (2014) in their findings that indicated that very little, if any, is being done in the area monitoring by District Education Standards Officers.

When monitoring the school, the Standards Officers' main concern were infrastructure, the surroundings, the toilets, water reticulation system and the library facilities. When these things are in good condition then the environment will be considered stimulating for learning. The government through the MOGE has now come up with the community school monitoring instrument and it has been included in the Standards and Evaluation Guidelines of 2015. The community school monitoring instrument centers on general information, staffing, enrolment, type of curriculum, infrastructure, teaching and learning resources, education programmes, school grants (free education policy),

examinations, sporting facilities, records, comments, advice given and recommendations (see appendix J.)

Before the formulation of the community school monitoring instrument, the MoGE just modified the instrument used to monitor the government primary schools (that is a general monitoring instrument was used to monitor community schools). During the study, it was observed that the standards officers' monitoring of community schools was inconsistent. Some schools were monitored while others were not. Those especially located on the outskirts of the towns were disregarded.

The findings highlight that some community schools were not monitored because of time constraints to monitor both government and community schools at the same time. It is imperative that time and enough resources should be found to monitor these schools separately. The monitoring was sectioned into three parts or sections namely, institutional, teacher and examination. Institutional monitoring is centred mainly on the particulars of the school, particulars of the administrators, staffing and establishment, enrolment, records, assessment and examinations, infrastructure, developmental projects, teaching and learning resources, school environment and sporting resources, observations, advice given and certification.

The standard officers as disseminators of good practice stimulate teachers to examine their lesson preparation and follow up follow-through their teaching strategies; the way they develop or use curriculum materials, how they evaluate their pupils and how they organise the teaching (MoGE, 1996)

Teacher monitoring was centred on general information of the teacher, lesson particulars, organisation, structure and lesson presentation and observation (see appendix).

Lastly, examination monitoring was centred on school details, storage of examinations papers, accommodation, state of examination materials, general examination of supervision, observations, advice given and way forward. To enhance quality education in community schools the Standards Officers should be well funded and well equipped

with transport. If close supervision of the schools was enforced or maintained, quality education will be enhanced in community schools.

The MoGE has encouraged the DEBS to strengthen local monitoring of community schools, which this study calls *Decentralised Monitoring*. In the decentralised monitoring head teacher/deputy head, teacher in charge, senior teacher, PCSC, Zonal Coordinator, DRCC are encouraged to monitor closely the community schools. In fact, the local monitoring has been going on. DRCCs, PCSCs, Zonal coordinators, have been monitoring community schools. These monitoring have contributed to the survival of community schools. Monitoring is very important even in our lives, at a personal level for one to progress in life should monitor oneself at the same time be monitored. One should monitor how one's family is fairing or making progress against other families.

The challenge has been with the centralised monitoring. *Centralised Monitoring* by the MoGE sometimes is very erratic because of challenges of funds and transport. A district may have only three standard officers to monitor all primary and secondary schools, which translates into a large number of teachers. With such large numbers, it is not possible for standard officers to visit schools frequently in order to monitor the quality of teaching and learning. The Ministry of General Education asserts that the key role of the standard officers lies in its maintaining contact with schools and supporting heads teachers and teachers. A survey has shown that on average more than three years may elapse between visits of standard officers to primary schools (1996).

6.5.1 Teacher competency

The study showed that MoGE in collaboration with stakeholders such as USAID-Time to Learn Project and VVOB came up with the Teacher Competency Framework for community schools. The facilitators for the project came from the University of Zambia, Chalimbana University, Mufulira College of Education, Directorates of Standards and Curriculum, Planning and Information and Open and Distance Education. The researcher was part of the team, which was tasked to develop the Teacher Competency Framework for community schools. The Directorate of Teacher Education and

Specialised Services spearheaded the development process of this document. The MoGE designed a Competency Framework for community school teachers to enhance quality in community schools. The Teacher Competency Framework for community schools is similar to that of Australia Department of Education and Training (2004) which provides explicit standards that guide teachers in their work to improve students' levels of educational achievement; the Framework is a valuable tool for increasing public confidence in the school education system. It emphasises that the teaching profession requires teachers to be life-long learners who engage in ongoing professional learning during the course of their careers. In Zambia, we do not have a framework for the serving teachers. The USAID funded Time to Learn Project financed the project and as a result saw it to its end. This policy document presents and explains the competencies that community school teachers should have. The competencies have been branded into four segments namely, knowledge, teaching skills, assessment skills and attributes. The document has been designed to improve quality education in the country particularly in community schools by furnishing community school teachers with competencies that will enable them to successfully prepare and deliver learning experiences in the schools. The teacher competency framework for community schools has also been espoused as a monitoring and evaluation tool for the MoGE and other stakeholders in the community schools' education (MoGE n.d.). It is hoped that the document will help in the following ways:

1. To endorse quality control mechanisms and procedures;
2. To help teacher education trainers, pre and in-service to prepare and support teachers attain the suggested competencies; and
3. To bring to teachers' attention of the standards required of them that is consent for their growth throughout their working lives.

The MoGE drafted the Teacher Competence Framework in line with the already existing educational policies, procedures and documents in Zambia; and a review of what it means to be a good or competent teacher in the Zambian context (MoGE, 1916). The document is structured into three chapters. Chapter 1 deliberates the background to

the development of the Teacher Competency Framework for community school teachers in Zambia. Chapter 2 deliberates the teacher competency framework, and is divided into the four key parts, which are knowledge, Teaching Skills, Assessment Skills, and Attributes. Lastly, Chapter 3 also deliberates the way forward and execution of the Teacher Competency Framework (MoGE, 1916).

The Teacher Competence Framework has also encompassed recommendations on how it should be functional in the community schools. Since it is the first of its kind since the attainment of independence in 1964, it is expected that the document will be used as an official Ministry of General Education Policy on teacher competencies in the country. Additionally, it is expected that individual officers and MoGE structures responsible for its implementation and operationalisation will live to the challenge so that quality education in community schools and beyond can be improved (MOGE, 2016).

6.6 Administrative challenges faced in community schools.

Community schools in Zambia face a number of challenges which included language limitations, limited financial resources, inconsistency in the reopening and closing dates of schools, lack of qualified staff and incapacity to retain qualified staff, lack of uniformity (standardisation) and parents community school committees' (PCSCs) abuse of authority. The challenges are discussed below.

6.6.1. Language limitations

The new curriculum mandates one to teach in the local language from Grade 1 to Grade 4. Language of instruction from Grade 1 to 4 in all learning areas will be in familiar language, while English will be an official language of instruction from Grade 5 upwards (MESVTEE 2013:30). As a result, teachers who are not indigenous or not conversant with the language are compelled to learn the local language for them to teach effectively. "The community schools do not have the monopoly to choose their language of instruction but follow what the Ministry of General Education has identified as a regional language for that area", (NGO representative). This change, which has been introduced in the revised curriculum, has advantages and disadvantages to the

learners. The advantage to the learners is that learners will be highly motivated to learn in the familiar language that they even use at home. The learners will be very at ease, comfortable and will fully participate in the school activities. Mostly community schools employ indigenous volunteer teachers who might not have problems with familiar languages. Nevertheless, as it is now in Zambia, it is not possible that all teachers employed would be indigenous; might be immigrants from other parts of the country, and might not be conversant with the language. For example a teacher seconded by the government to community schools might not be conversant with the familiar language. Therefore, such a one would spend a year or more to learn the language for him or her to teach effectively. As such, the pupil would be disadvantaged for he/she would not be taught very well for a year because of language limitations.

6.6.2 Limited Financial Resources

Management of community schools was unable to achieve many things because of limited financial resources. For example, they were unable to improve infrastructure and pay the teachers well because of limited resources. Resources available to community schools vary widely and significantly affect the learner performance (Gardsbane, 2013). The limited resources have distinct impacts on the learning environment. While some community schools especially those financed externally are well resourced with solid construction, and maintain permanent structures, the majority are missing key facilities, infrastructure, and teaching materials (Frischkorn et al, 2016).

The participants revealed that there was a high attrition rate because many of the teachers in community schools did not last long because of poor conditions of service. The study agrees with Swazi et al (2012) who indicated that attrition rate for community school teachers was at 35% in 2010. This means that 2, 522 teachers left community schools in 2010. For example, they worked for a long time without any salary or allowances because the communities on whom the teachers depended upon could not afford to support them (NGOs representative). To arrest this kind of situation the MoGE should assist community schools by way of giving grants in form of social cash

transfers as it is doing to marketers. Other than that, the infrastructure was in a poor state and that did not provide a conducive learning environment. That aside, head teachers lamented that limited financial resources led to inadequate teaching and learning materials that made teaching and learning extremely difficult.

6.6.3 Inconsistence in the reopening and closing dates

Some community schools were also not consistent in the reopening and closing dates and as a result, they were referred to as seasonal schools. In other parts of the country where there are no caterpillars but fish, children leave school and go onto the lake to help their parents catch fish, and only return when the government institutes a fish ban or some measures are put in place by the school authorities. The study is in accord with Kalemba (2013) who indicated that active PCSCs should sensitise parents and the community on the value of education so that they would in turn encourage their children to attend school regularly. In addition, it is the duty of the learner to attend classes regularly and claim right to education by showing interest in learning.

The inconsistency of reopening and closing would be eradicated completely if parents encouraged their children to attend school regularly, participate actively in learning and in co-curricular activities such as sports and clubs such as Anti-AIDS among others. Parents should provide guidance and counselling services to children and offer psychosocial support to them. The traditional leaders should also sensitise community members on the importance of education, and encourage parents to keep on overseeing their children so that they attend school without fail.

6.6.4 Lack of qualified staff.

Lack of qualified staff and the incapacity to retain qualified staff in community schools usually made these schools operate without qualified staff as most of them worked as volunteers to assist with some kind of knowledge transmission. Community schools did not have the capacity to retain qualified teachers. As mentioned in the literature review, these schools were started because of the learners who could not afford to attend government schools because they were vulnerable. These schools are funded and maintained by vulnerable poor people who are unable to pay a teacher well. These

findings agree with Gardsbane et al. (2013: 87) who indicates that in many cases, the PCSC hires the head teacher, manages finances and is responsible for allowances. However, where financial contributions from the community are not enough, teachers can resign and replacements may prove difficult to find. Currently there were about 44 000 teachers who are not working; they are waiting for the government postings. Some of them elect to teach in the community schools rather than to stay idle. However, these teachers do not teach for a long time because of the poor working conditions in the community schools compared in government ones.

“At the same time even if there were some teachers who had the qualification, the poor working conditions did not allow those teachers to work for a long time as they sought greener pasture whenever opportunities arose”, (The DEBS and Head teachers).

Some teachers who were qualified and waiting for postings by government at times helped the community schools in terms of staffing. However, these teachers quitted the without notice after being employed or posted by Ministry of General Education or employed by private schools. The common solution to this challenge was to deploy government paid teachers or to encourage local NGOs to support the community schools. Support from foreign NGOs has proved to be unsustainable once they leave. According Falconer-Stout et al (2015) TTL’s midline evaluation, volunteer teachers constitute almost 60 percent of teaching workforce in community schools. These teachers are considered volunteer teachers because they are promised to be paid small allowances or in-kind contributions. Volunteer teachers who are locally engaged have high levels of dedication often, as well as high levels of understanding of the local language and local needs (Benyani n.d.; Casheni et al. 2001; Frischkorn et. Al., 2016; Kalemba, 2013)

6.6.5 Lack of Uniformity

The study found out there was no uniformity in the way the schools were managed by the PCSCs. Some PCSCs managed the schools in a dictatorial manner, in the sense that they never consulted other stakeholders when making decision. They had no regard for

the Operational Guidelines for Community Schools. All community schools are supposed to follow Operational Guidelines for Community Schools so that they recognise their boundaries as community schools. The PCSCs/parents are encouraged to manage the schools as stipulated in the Operational Guidelines, not on their terms. The Operational Guidelines for community schools are firmly enshrined on the fundamental principles outlined in the policy document, *Educating Our Future* (1996). For any organisation to succeed or meet its objectives it needs Operational Guidelines or a policy document on which it is anchored to avoid trial and error kind of working. According to Operational Guidelines for community schools, functions for all stakeholders namely, learners, parents/community members, traditional leaders and head teachers and teachers are well defined. Uniformity among community schools is very important in the sense that when a learner is transferred from one community school to another, the learner will be able to assimilate without problems. The DRCCs reiterated that according to operational guidelines for community schools, functions of all stakeholders namely, learner, parents/community members, traditional leaders and community school head teachers and teachers are well presented.

6.6.6 Insecurity

The study found that there was a challenge of insecurity among the PCSCs and the volunteer teachers felt that their positions and authority were threatened or taken away by the seconded teachers from the MoGE. Once a community school received seconded teachers from the MoGE, automatically one of the teachers would be appointed by the ministry as a teacher in charge or head teacher to run the institution. Some PCSCs wanted maintain their positions as long as they were alive because of the benefits they derived by virtue of their positions. They did not even welcome the idea of receiving seconded teachers from the Ministry of General Education. The PCSCs had the authority to hire and fire the teachers they employed. Not all PCSCs felt their authority threatened. Others have welcomed seconded teachers to their community schools for they acknowledged that with seconded teachers in community schools quality education was assured. As mentioned earlier, one of the duties of the PCSC was to support volunteer teachers either in kind or financially. However, one would find that some

PCSCs were not proactive towards supporting their members of staff in terms of paying their salaries/allowances or in kind. Some PCSCs were active in the sense that they worked closely with the Ministry of General Education Board Secretaries to improve implementation of the education Act advocating for more resources and teachers. This was in agreement with Glassman et al. (2007) who indicated that school management committees were demanding even more for their children: not an abbreviated curriculum but the full measure; not a local paraprofessional teacher but full-fledged qualified or certified teacher; not a locally contrived test of learning accomplishment but the full national standard for completion of primary school.

“Other challenges were that of frictions between the teachers seconded to community schools by the government and the volunteer teachers, at times even with the PCSCs for fear of being displaced”, (DRCCs).

6.6.7 Opportunities

The presence of NGOs, namely, VVOB, Time to Learn, USAID project and ZOCs brought many benefits as mentioned in the findings. Community schools in Zambia enjoyed a number of opportunities, which included participating in school activities, enhancing pedagogical activities, and partnerships with cooperating partners and other stakeholders, and Continuing Professional Development. The opportunities are discussed below.

6.6.8 Participating in School Activities

Some opportunities enjoyed by the Community schools were that parents were given chance to participate in the building of infrastructure and mobilising of resources. Instead of hiring bricklayers to build the infrastructure the PCSCs through the parents identified the local brick layers amongst themselves who could build. By doing this, they served much needed resources, which were reserved for other purposes. When communities financed and built their own school buildings, these structures might not meet minimum standards with regard to location, design, and materials (MOGE, 2016).

The study is agreement with Nkosha and Mwanza (2016) who indicated that some community schools have only partially completed structures, walls without iron sheets or asbestos roofs or shelters constructed of local, temporary materials such as grass thatch or woven mats. The PCSCs give direction to the parents in mobilising of resources, budgeting, infrastructure development and management of the schools. Before parents are involved in the resource mobilisation the PCSCs would normally a organise sensitisation on how to go about resource mobilisation. The PCSC, head teacher, traditional leaders and political and civic leaders, parents and community generally are involved in the resource mobilisation. The PCSCs worked closely with the NGOs who provided technical support of the capacity to improve the quality of teaching and learning. They also received teaching and learning materials and other donations such as furniture, sports kit and food stuffs.

6.6.9 Pedagogical

Community schools also enjoyed pedagogical skills they received through the workshops and seminars organised by the MoGE in collaboration with non-governmental organisation like Time To Learn, ECSITE, VVOB and ZOC. These skills are very important for one to be an effective teacher. The pedagogy agreed by teachers shape their actions, judgments, and other teaching strategies by taking into consideration theories of learning understandings of students and their needs, and the backgrounds and interests of individual students. The teachers' skills were also sharpened through continuing professional development meetings at district resource centres and through the Zonal Education Support Team (ZEST). The Zonal Education Support Team comprises the zonal head, zonal Insert coordinator and the school coordinators. Community schools are also included into the zones and are attached to the government schools. The government schools, the community schools attached, are also used as examination centres by community school candidates, for most of the community schools are not used as examination centres. During sports and ball games among government schools, community schools are also invited to be part of the sports and ball games competitions.

Well-managed schools ensure that new teachers receive training in classroom management, use of teaching and learning materials and lesson planning (DeStefano, 2006). Nevertheless, high teaching loads and management functions often keep the head teachers from providing adequate and ongoing support to new teachers (Frischkorn et al., 2016)

6.6.10 Partnership

Management skills are a collection of abilities that include things such as business planning, decision-making, problem solving, communication, delegation, and time management. These abilities or skills were taught to the PCSCs through workshops and seminars organised by the NGOs like VVOB, Time to Learn through the MOGE. Local and international NGOs have conducted training to improve PCSC skills in management, record keeping, development plans, financial administration and education policy (Chondoka 2006; Falconer Stout et al. 2015; Nsapato and Chikopela, 2012)

Some opportunities enjoyed by the school were that parents were given chance to participate in the education of their children by participating in building of infrastructure and participating in resource mobilisation. Parents also participated in career talk during open days, and at home, they encourage their children to complete homework. This is possible because community schools believe in home, community and school partnership. Decentralisation encourages all stakeholders PCSCs, NGOs, and teachers to work together for the benefit of the child. Parents have opportunity to come on board and help their children to be educated. Parents with specialised skills can be invited by the school administration to give career motivational talks about their specialised skills. Parent's participation in education will be directed towards meeting three objectives:

1. Educational provision;
2. School improvement; and
3. Strengthening school community linkages.

Educational provision involves increasing school places by expanding the educational system through community resources. Parents have opportunities to participate in education through construction of school buildings, management of schools, and maintenance of classrooms and provision of school furniture (Kelly1999:222). They also participate in improving the school infrastructure and raise the learning achievement of pupils. The main objective for school-community linkages should be to narrow the gap between the school and its community (Kelly 1999).

According to Epsteins' theory of School, Family and Community Partnerships, parents are encouraged to participate in the education of the child. In a partnership, teachers, administrators and the community create more family-like schools. A family-like school identifies the individuality of every child and makes the child special and part of the education system (Epstein, 2002). In the community schools, identification of the individuality of every child is also a reality like in the Epstein model. The PCSC work hand in hand with the school, family and the community in up lifting the children's right to education. A school is the second place of socialising for a child. If a child is not exposed to school, mind development will retard, and it will be difficult to fit into a wider society.

6.6.11 Continuing Professional Development

Some of the opportunities community schools enjoy apart from the ones mentioned above are having workshops and Continuing Professional Development for teachers to improve their pedagogical skills. They also hold workshops for the PCSCs to improve their managerial skills in the running of the schools. At the same time, meeting high profile people like government officials from the MOGE, NGOs and from other stakeholders is an incentive.

Schools, which function most satisfactorily, are those where there is a good partnership between the home, community and the school. Community schools by nature are decentralised and since their inception have stood the test of time. Community schools have proved to be an effective alternative model of government schools despite all the challenges they face. These schools on the other hand act as small rivers supplying

water into big rivers, that is, the learner graduate from community schools to government secondary schools to continue their education. Community schools through their being decentralised, to survive have opted to an open door policy, in that they are ready to work with anyone, the government, the non-governmental organisations and well-wishers to the benefit the underprivileged learner. The schools have opportunities of working with groups like non-governmental organisations, the Ministry of General Education, well-wishers and other stakeholders. The benefits of working with these groups include facilitation of training of volunteer teachers acquire pedagogical skills and training of the PCSCs in management of community schools. Some NGOs even donate teaching and learning aids and infrastructure to community schools.

Despite the challenges community schools face, they have been successful in the provision of education. Parents and the school administration have been able to get around the challenges and other hurdles because of the partnership between them. Parents have been availed opportunities to share their skills and experiences with their children through open days and on other days as per arrangement by the Parent Community School Committees and the school.

The study indicated that PCSCs are responsible for what happens at the schools and as earlier discussed, they are also responsible in giving direction to parents in mobilising of resources, budgeting, infrastructure maintenance, development and management of schools. The PCSC are like the PTA in the government and grant-aided schools. They are a catalyst of development to a learning institution.

6.6.12 Decentralisation and Right-Based Approach

Right-Based approach to education supports the principles of decentralisation in the education of children. As mentioned in the literature review, decentralisation involves decision-making powers, resources, competencies spread evenly within the organisation. The right to development is an inalienable human right by virtue of which every human person and all peoples are entitled to participate in, contribute to, and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development, in which all human rights and fundamental freedoms can be fully realised.

All that is valuable in human society depends upon the opportunity for development accorded the individual.' (Albert Einstein). Right based to education works hand in hand with decentralisation. When a child is given access to quality education that is the beginning of development in that child for education is the foundation of all development.

A human rights-based approach offers a coherent framework for development assistance provides a framework for situation analysis and criteria for responding at all levels of the system-from micro to macro, local through international (Leonard, 2003). According to Simposya (1984), decentralisation is also encouraged for planning purposes. One needs to consider briefly, what is meant by development planning in general and regional planning to be precise. Conyers and Hills (1981) observe that term development planning is usually used to refer to a resolute effort by the government, usually at national level, to influence the rate and direction of change in the country.

The rigorous effort by the government is directed not only towards economic growth as the case of what was happening in the past. Development planning is also concerned with non-economic factors such as provision of health services, education and employment, the reduction of inequalities between groups or regions, freedom of speech and democracy. In this study decentralised planning promoted education and reduced inequalities within the provision of education. Decentralisation enabled the local people to be involved either directly or through representations. It is said that local plans are more likely to be implemented. This is because they will not only be realistic, but will also have the support and approval of the local people Simposya (1974). Simposya (1974:19) notes that:

Participation in the planning process will also enable the local people to acquire some basic planning and managerial skills, which would help them to plan and manage some of the local projects without depending on the centre for advice.

As mentioned above community schools operate in a decentralised way. Local people (PCSCs) are less dependent on the central government, and through decentralisation inequalities in terms of access to education has been reduced for community schools have been supplementing government's efforts in the provision of education.

6.6.13 Quality Education and Right-Based Approach

For Quality education to be enhanced in the community schools, Parents Community School Committees should be empowered with basic skills in planning and Managerial skills, which will help them to plan and manage the schools well. For any institution or organisation to succeed, there should be good leadership in management (Symposia, 1974). According to the views of decentralisation, all stakeholders in the management of community schools should uphold roles and responsibilities. To enhance quality education in the community schools as already mentioned, the Ministry of General Education would come up with a Competency Framework for community schools. This is a policy document that presents and explains the competencies that community school and other teachers in Zambia should have and aspire to have. The study is in agreement with Nkossa and Mwanza (2009); Chakufyali (2008) and Mwansa (2007) who observed that quality education depended on a good and right curriculum, qualified teachers, continuing professional development (or in-service workshops), availability of teaching and learning aids, and frequent monitoring of schools by the Standards Officers and acceptable infrastructure (toilets and availability of water).

Right based approach to education demands that the education that is given to the child is of quality. The above mentioned if are put in place will enhance quality in community schools. It is worth noting that is some community schools quality education is taking place and just needs to be improved.

6.6.14 Theoretical Implications.

The study was guided by the Right Based Approach to education and Joyce Epstein's School-Family-Community Partnership Model.

6.6.15 Right Based Approach

The study agrees with the Right Based Approach which takes on board stakeholders such as parents, PCSCs teachers, NGOs and Cooperating Partners for it realises that without them, little would be realised in terms of child's right to quality education. At the 2000 World Education Forum hosted in Dakar (Senegal) the International community reaffirmed its commitment to achieving Education for all, a movement introduced 10 years earlier at the World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien (Thailand). Participants also embraced the Dakar framework for Action and came up with the following six specific goals:

1. Expand early childhood care and education;
2. Provide free and compulsory primary education for all;
3. Promote learning and life skills for young people and adults;
4. Increase adult literacy by 50 percent, especially for women;
5. Achieve gender parity by 2005 and gender equality by 2015; and
6. Improve the quality of education.

Underlying each of these goals is recognition of and respect for the right to quality education. Full realisation of the right to education is not simply a question of access. The Zambian government has adopted all the six specific objectives. A right-based approach to education for all is an all-inclusive one, encompassing access to education, educational quality (based on human rights values and principles) and the environment in which education is provided (UNICEF, 2007). The government of Zambia through the MoGE is trying to provide access to quality education to learners in community schools. The Ministry of General Education currently has sent seconded teachers to some community schools in Kitwe and Mufulira to enhance quality education delivery (in the schools). Community schools came into existence because of vulnerable children who did not have access to education offered by public, private and grant aided schools. The provision of education through community schools is anchored on the rights-based approach to education. The right based approach to education encourages that education programmes respond to the basic needs of the children and other people with

a focus on vulnerable or disadvantaged people. Local ownership is important and developmental support from outside should always build homegrown initiatives. Poverty eradication and disparity reduction should be long-term goals in all education efforts.

The Zambian government knows the importance of an educated population and that is why it supports the PCSCs in the running and management of community schools. Increased community engagement through PCSC translates into good quality education in the community schools. The PCSCs have a lot of influence on many community schools and stakeholders accountable to them from teachers to NGOs let alone the MoGE.

6.6.16 Joyce Epstein's School-Family-Community Partnership Model

Joyce Epstein's School-Family-Community Partnership model of school localises the student at the centre. The undebatable fact is that learners are the main players in their education, development and success in school. The model argues that school, family, and community partnerships cannot simply produce successful students. Rather, partnership activities may be intended to engage, guide, invigorate and provoke students to produce their own successes. The supposition that if children feel cared for and are encouraged to work hard as expected of a student, they are more likely to do their best to learn to read, write, calculate and learn other skills and talents and to remain in schools seems valid. In partnership, teachers and administrators create more family-like schools. A family-like school identifies each child's uniqueness and makes each child feel special and a sense of belonging. All families are welcome at family-like schools, such as the community schools. According to Epstein et al (2002), community involvement activities are part of a school's comprehensive partnership program. It includes six major types of involvement: (1) parenting (2) communicating (3) volunteering (4) learning at home (5) decision making (6) collaborating with the community.

The PCSC can initiate community activities to support or strengthen the other types of involvement. For example, the PCSC can meet the parents to sensitise them on how to

be good parents (type 1), in the general meeting at school (type 2), untrained teachers pedagogical meetings (type 3), information on what kinds of books parents can use at home (type 4), send call outs to parents homes to increase attendance of meeting (type 5), community collaborations to enhance resource mobilisation (type 6). In the community schools, some teachers are very committed and dedicated to their work despite poor conditions of work.

6.6.17 Summary

The findings which were presented in chapter 5 were discussed in this chapter based on the five objectives of the study: the nature of curricula used in the community schools within the decentralised context; the performance of community school pupils in the national examinations; resource mobilisation and utilisation for community schools; the monitoring system used to ensure delivery of quality education in community schools; and structural and administrative challenges faced by community schools. The curricular, SPARK, which was used in the community schools, was specifically for community schools because learners were old in the ranges of 9 to 16 years. This curriculum was considered special for it was meant to cater for children who were 9 to 16 years old. These learners had a right to education and for them to fit well in the society they needed education suitably tailored for them. According to Right based Approach to education, every child has a right to education. Education has been formally recognised as a human right since the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948.

Unrevised curriculum was used in the regular government primary schools. The Ministry of General Education revised the unrevised curriculum so that it is in step with the trends that are happening in the world. The unrevised curriculum was criticised as being overloaded, not flexible and that it did not consider emerging changes in terms of technology and social development. It was also more theoretical and less practical hence it being revised. The chapter also discussed the performance of pupils in community schools. Pupils in community schools performed lowly compared to their counterparts

in government schools. In other words, government school learners tended to perform only slightly better than community schools despite the fact that community schools operated with very limited resources. The study has discussed that community schools, which performed well, had a seconded teacher or teachers from the government and well resourced with donor support.

The monitoring system used in community schools was based on the Ministry of General Education Standards and Evaluation Guidelines. Before the MOGE came up with a monitoring instrument specifically for community schools, standard officers were using a monitoring instrument they used to monitor regular primary schools. But it was modified to suit the monitoring criterion level of community schools. There are two types of monitoring, centralised and decentralised monitoring. Centralised monitoring is done by the Ministry of General Education through the DESO and his team, the standard officers. Decentralised monitoring is done locally by the head teachers, deputy head, teacher in charge, DRCCs, PCSCs, zonal leaders. Lastly, the chapter discussed the administrative challenges and opportunities faced by community schools. The challenges discussed were, limited financial resources, language limitations, lack of qualified staff, inconsistency in the reopening and closing of schools, incapacity to retain qualified staff and parent community school committees' (PCSCs) abuse of authority. Opportunities enjoyed by community schools were, parents participation in the education of their children, and according to Epsteins' theory of school, family, community partnerships and parents are encouraged to participate in the education of a child. Other benefits and opportunities included infrastructure building, community participation in planning, budgeting and resource mobilisation for projects, opportunities for teacher to be taught pedagogical skills, PCSCs management skills and opportunities to work with non-governmental organisations.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Overview

This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of the study. The objectives of the study were: to examine the nature of the curricula used in community schools in a decentralised context, to examine the performance of community school pupils in national examinations; to determine resource mobilisation and utilisation for community schools; to assess the monitoring system that is used to ensure delivery of quality education in community schools and to examine decentralisation challenges, opportunities enjoyed by community schools.

7.2. Summary of study

Chapter one

Chapter one presented how Zambian education was organised before and after the country attained independence from Britain. The study further discussed how the Zambian government took control of all the schools which were in private hands so that education could be availed to all Zambians freely. Owing to financial constraints the Zambian government was experiencing in running education, it decided to decentralise education. It invited partnerships to supplement its efforts in the provision of education. The chapter further discussed that community schools have been in existence for over 20 years.

Chapter two

Chapter two discussed the theoretical framework. The study used the right-based approach to education and Epstein's school-family-community partnership model. The right-based approach to education in this study focused on the child's right to quality education. The model by Epstein encouraged the school, family and community partnership. The focus of the model is the education of the child. In other words, the family, the school and the community have a role or an input in the education of the child.

Chapter three

In this chapter decentralisation and quality education were discussed. Almost all countries in Africa have embraced decentralisation as a way to improve the delivery of education. The study discussed decentralisation and quality education in community schools. It also discussed that to enhance quality education in community schools, the Ministry of General Education should provide necessary support to community schools

Chapter four

The chapter discussed various procedures in conducting this study. Data was collected through questionnaires, interview guides, and focus group discussion. Ethical consideration was observed before and throughout data collection.

Chapter five

The chapter presented the findings of the study. The findings of the study were that the curriculum used in many community schools was the same as in the government schools. The chapter also presented the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum. It further presented findings on performance and resource mobilisation. Lastly, it presented monitoring system for community schools by the DEBS through standards officers, DRCCs and the PRCCs.

Chapter six

The chapter discussed the finding of the study. These were discussed according to the five objectives, and themes that evolve from the study. These are, nature of the curricula used in the community schools within the decentralised context, the performance of community school pupils in the national examinations, resource mobilisation system that is used to ensure delivery quality education in community school and structural and administrative challenges faced by community schools.

7.2 Conclusions

Community schools operate under a form of decentralisation in the sense that they operate autonomously. Community schools were decentralised by default not by design. These schools provide a picture of what government schools could be like under decentralisation. Under decentralisation with proper preparations, government primary schools can perform better than they seem to be doing. Community schools have existed up to this time because of the way schools have been structured in terms of management (by the PCSCs). The schools have existed for more than 20 years.

The study concluded that a variety of curricula were used in the community schools. The SPARK in combination with the unrevised, the unrevised in combination with the revised curriculum were used. The SPARK was just used as a reference for some good elements it had.

The study concluded that pupils community schools with seconded teachers from the Ministry of General Education tended to perform just as well as pupils in government schools. In 2014 pupils in community schools out-performed pupils in government schools in the Grade 7 national examinations conducted by Examination Council of Zambia. On resource mobilisation, parents' school committees are in the forefront. The committees work hand in hand with the traditional, political, civic leaders and the community in general in mobilising resources. The schools mainly depended for their resources on the communities. As one can see the communities work as a team in a decentralised manner for them to achieve their objective of mobilising resources. Other players in resource mobilization are non-governmental organizations such as VVOB, USAID (Time to Learn project) and ZOCS.

The study concluded that the standard officers should increase the frequency of monitoring visits to community schools to enhance the quality of education. Standard officers do not regularly monitor community schools. The study concluded that there was decentralised monitoring conducted by the teacher/deputy, teacher in-charge, senior teacher, Parents Community School Committee and Zonal Coordinator. Centralised

monitoring conducted by the Ministry of General Education was sometimes erratic because of challenges of funds and transport which the Ministry encountered.

The study concluded that community schools have endured many challenges at the same time enjoyed a number of opportunities. Some of the challenges suffered by the schools were inadequate classrooms, lack of trained teachers, PCSCs interference with the teachers' work, inadequacy of teaching and learning aids including ICT, challenges in the use of the new curriculum and volunteers' difficulties in teaching phonetics. According to the new curriculum, a teacher is mandated to teach in a local language from Grade 1 to Grade 4. The challenge with the local language as a language of instruction is that a teacher who is not indigenous or not conversant with the language is compelled to learn the local language in order to teach effectively. The other challenge is attrition of teachers because of poor condition of teachers.

About opportunities, the schools were working with groups like non-government organisations, well-wishers, individuals, the Ministry of General Education and other stakeholders. The benefits of working with these groups included facilitation of training for volunteer teachers to enable them acquire pedagogical skills and also training of the PCSCs in management of community schools. The non-governmental organisations even donated learning and teaching aids. Parents were availed opportunities to share experiences with their children during school open days and on other days as per arrangement by the school administration.

Community schools have really been an alternative to the government schools in the provision of education. Community schools enabled young people to access education and acquire new status as educated youths, and that in itself added value to the places where they lived.

These schools were established in locations, which were not designated for schools. Community schools should be allowed to continue existing because they are accommodating, flexible and meet the needs of vulnerable communities. When it comes to upgrading the community schools, the government should also consider what I would call the uplifting of the status of the community school. The government should just

improve the infrastructure, human resource and give grants directly to the schools. When a community school is upgraded, a good number of vulnerable children are disadvantaged in terms of flexibility, which exists in community school. In community schools, there is flexibility in paying of fees, in wearing of uniforms and in timetabling. In community schools, vulnerable children pay as little as K50 kwacha and wearing of uniforms is not mandatory.

7.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the government through the Ministry of General Education should ensure that the recommendations made below are addressed:

- (a) Since it was found that three different types of curricular were used by community schools, the study recommends that all community schools be encouraged to use the approved centralised curricular since government, grant-aided, private and community schools write examinations set by examination of Zambia are based on the centralized curricular.
- (b) To enhance good performance of community school in the national examinations, the study recommends that standards officers should visit the community schools frequently, and that trained teachers should be attached to all community schools.
- (c) Community schools with seconded teachers from the Ministry of General Education received more resources from the Ministry than community schools without attached teachers. The study recommends that teachers be attached to all community schools and that community schools be allocated resources directly by the Ministry of General Education.
- (d) Since monitoring of community schools by standards officers had been erratic, the study recommends that monitoring be segmented into parts, that is, monitoring for government, grant aided schools and community schools. For effective monitoring, community schools should be monitored separately from the monitoring schedule of government and grant-aided schools.

- (e) Community schools are decentralised by default and have been supplementing government's effort in providing primary education for more than fifteen years. The study recommends that the government continues to train the PCSCs and volunteer teachers. The study also recommends that stakeholders learn how community schools have managed to stay afloat to date in their decentralised way since decentralisation has now been embraced in the education delivery.

7.4 Suggestions for future research

The following are some of the suggestions for future research:

1. A study should be conducted on the effectiveness of the Parent Community School Committees (PCSC) in Community Schools.
2. There is need for a study to find out what lessons public, grant-aided schools and private schools can learn from community schools in terms of decentralisation, challenges and successes of community schools.

References:

- Anyonna, J. K. (2009). *The status and challenges of open and distance learning in Kenyas' public Universities*. Phd Thesis, Kenyatta University.
- Astiz, F. M, Wiseman, A.W. Baker, D. P. (2002), "Slouching towards decentralization: consequences of globalization for curricular control in national education systems" *Comparative Education Review* 46 66 88
- Bandula. A. (1977). *Social Learning Theory*. Eaglewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall
- Barrera-Osoria, F., Fasih,T and Patrinos H.A.. (2009). *Decentralized Decision-making in Schools: The Theory and Evidence on School-Based Management*. Washington, D.C., the World Bank.
- Bartle. (www.scn.cmp/whatcom.htm).
- Benyani, C. (n.d.). *A Situational Analysis of Community Schools in Zambia*. Lusaka, Zambia: Zambian National Education Commission.
- Bowasi, D. (2010). *Report on Assessment of Community School Teachers Training Needs*. Lusaka. Zambia: ZOCS.
- Botha, R. J., Marishane. R.N., (Ed). (2013). *The effective management of a school: Towards quality outcomes*. Pretoria. Van Schaik publishers.
- Bruno, B. and Perotti, E., (2002). "Machiavellian Privatization." *American Economic review* 92: 240-258 Ensuring quality education through quality teachers.
- Brosio, G. (2000). *Decentralization in Africa: A Paper Prepared for African Department of IMF*
- Carmody, B. (2009). *The Evolution of Education in Zambia*. Lusaka: Mission Press.
- Chakufyali, P. N (2008). *Performance of Community Schools in Zambia, Research Report*: University of Zambia.

- Chediell, R.W., Sekwao, N., Kirumba, P.L. (2000). *Private and Community Schools in Tanzania (Mainland)*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Chiyongo, V. (2010). 'Management of Distance Education in Zambia.' PhD Thesis. University of South Africa.
- Chifwepa, V. (2006). 'Development of a Model Plan for application of information communication Technologies in Distance Educational.' University of Zambia, PhD Thesis. University of Zambia. Lusaka.
- Chilobe, C. C. (2011). 'The Factors that affect the running of rural Community Schools in Gwembe District.' Masters' Dissertation, University of Zambia, Lusaka.
- Coombs, P. H. (1985). *The World Crises in Education: the View from Eighties*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Chondoka, Y. and Subulwa, C. (2004). *Evaluation of SPARK Curriculum in Community Schools in Zambia, 2000 – 2004*. UNICEF: Lusaka.
- Cashen, L., Elacqua, G., Gometz, E Karume, S. Nadirova, K. Naito, E and Schmeil N. (2001). *Educating Children Out of the System; The Community School Movement in Zambia*. UNICEF: Lusaka, Zambia.
- Duston, S. (1999). *Increasing Education for all community schools in Zambia*. Lusaka: UNICEF
- Das, J., Dercon, S, Habyarimana, J and Krishna, P (2004). Public and Private Funding of Basic Education in Zambia: *Implications of Budgetary Allocations for Service Delivery*. Washington D. C.: The World Bank.
- De Kamp, A. and. Ndaka, C. (2011). *Unfinished Business: Making a Difference in Basic Education, Evaluation of the Impact of Education Policies in Zambia and the Role of Budget Support*. IOB Evaluation No. 352. The Hague: the Netherlands Ministry of foreign Affairs.

- De Stefano, J. (2006). *Meeting EFA: Zambia Community Schools (EQUIP2 Case Study)*. Washington, D. C.:Academy for Education Development
- De Grauwe, A. (2004). Improving Quality by Reforming School Management in Asia. *IEP Newsletter*, Vol. xxii, No. 4, October-November, 2004.
- Ehren, M. C. M, & Visscher, A. J. (2008). The relationship between school inspections, school characteristics and school improvement. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 56 (2). 205-227
- Ezewu, E. (1983). *Sociology of Education*. London: Longman.
- Examination Council of Zambia. (2014). Study on the extent and causes of learner absenteeism from public examinations. Lusaka: Examination of Zambia.
- Farant, J.S. (2004). *Principles and Practice of Education*. Essex: Longman.
- Falconer-Stout, Z., Jones J and Messner L. (2013). USAID Time to Learn Project: Two Performance Evaluation. Lusaka, Zambia: Time to Learn Project.
- Falconer-Stout, Z., Eunifidah, E, and Mayapi. (2014a). *Government Teachers in Community Schools: Two Zambian Success Stories*. Lusaka, Zambia: Time to Learn Project.
- Falconer-Stout, Z. and Kalimaposo, K. (2014). Active Parent Parents, Active Learners? Lessons from Community Schools in Zambia. Lusaka, Zambia: Time to Learn Project.
- Falconer-Stout, Z., Kalimaposo, K. and Simuyaba, E. 2014b. The Role of Active Parent Community School Committees in Achieving Strong Relative School Performance in Zambian Community Schools. *South African Review of Education*. 20 (2):59-79
- Frischkorn, R., Falconer-Stout, Z. and Messner, L. (2016). Time to Learn Project: Year 4 Performance Evaluation Report. Lusaka, Zambia: Time to Learn Project.
- Gardsbane, D., Pollard, R. and Gutmann, M. (2013). The Time to Learn Project: *Baseline Study*. Lusaka. Zambia: EnCompass LLc and Education Development Centre,

Ginsburg, M., Klauss, R., Nankhuni, F., Nyirongo, J., Ommowoyela, S., Richardson, E., Terwindt, R. and Willimann, C. 2014. *Engaging Community Members in Enhancing Educational Quality: Studies of the Implementation of Primary School Improvement Programme in Malawi*. Southern African Review of Education 20(1): 30-57

Hannagan, T. (2008). *Management Concepts and Practices*. Harlow: Ashford colour press ltd.

Hassan Abu, Z., Schatter, P., and Mazz, D. (2006). Doing a Pilot Study: Why is it Essential? *Malaysian Family Physician*. Vol. 1 No. 2 &3
<http://www.ejournal.afpm.org.my/>

Hill, C. (2006). 'Primary Socialization Theory and Bullying: The effects of primary sources of socialization on bullying behaviour among adolescents'. PhD thesis. The University of North Carolina. Chapel Hill.

Pomuti, H. and Weber, E. (2012). Decentralization and School Management in Namibia: the ideologies of Education Bureaucrats in Implementing Government Policies Volume 2012, Article ID 731072, <http://doi.org/10.5402/2012/731072/>

<http://www.simplypsychology.org/vygotsky.html>

<http://www.zaambiaopencommunityschools.org>

Johnson, D. (1994). *Research Methods in Educational Management*. London: Pearson Education.

Kalembe, B. (2013). 'Community participation in educational delivery: A study of How Community Schools Target OVCs in Chipulukusu, Zambia'. Trondheim, Norway: Norwegian University of Science and Technology.

Kucita, P., Yuko, O., Sianjibu-Miyato, H. and Chilufya, A. (2010). Discussion Paper on Community Schools for Expanded Cooperating Partners Coordination Committee (CPCC) Meeting. 4 February 2010, Lusaka.

- Kufaine, N. and Mtapuri, O. (2014). Educational Decentralization in Malawi: Legitimate but incomplete masked in Dilemmas of Leadership Roles and Responsibilities. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*. Vol. 5. 23. Doi: 10-5901.pp. 764.
- Kalimaposo, K. K. (2010). 'The Impact of Curriculum Innovations on Pre-Service Primary Teacher Education in Zambia.' University of Zambia, PhD Thesis. University of Zambia. Lusaka.
- Kelly M. J. (1996). *The Origins and Development of Education*. Lusaka: Image Publishers Limited.
- Keriga, L., Bujra, A. (2009). An Evaluation and Profile of Education in Kenya. Nairobi Development Policy Management Forum.
- Kuppuswamy, B. (2013). *Advanced Education Psychology*. New Delhi: Sterling.
- Kvale, S. and Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing*. California: SAGE Publication.
- Kochhar, S.K. (2011). *School Administration and Management*. New Delhi: Sterling publishers Pvt.
- Kochhar, S.K. (2014). *Method and Techniques of Teaching*. New Delhi. Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd.
- Kristin, H. (2007). *Community Schools in Africa: Reaching the unreached*. Glassman: Springer.
- Lawson, L. and Garrod, J. (2009). *Sociology*. London: Macmillan.
- Maambo, O. and Chama, C. (2014). *A Research Paper on Teacher Shortages in Community School*. Lusaka. Zambia: ZOCS.
- Macwan'gi, M., Milapo, N. and. Kalima, K. (2016). 'Upgrading of Community Schools in Zambia: Baseline Report' .Lusaka. Zambia: ZOCS.

Maliwatu, J. (2011). In-Service Training for Head Teacher and its effects on their leadership practices: 'A case of head teachers in basic schools of Copper-belt province trained at the National in-Service Teachers' College.' PhD Thesis. University of Zambia. Lusaka.

Maslowski, R., Scheerens, J. Luyten, H. (2007). "*The effect of school autonomy and school internal decentralization on students 'reading literacy.'*" School Effectiveness and School Improvement 18 303-334

Matafwali, B. (2014). 'Evaluation of the Interactive Radio Instruction (IRI) Pilot Programme in Early Childhood Education in the Eastern Province of Zambia.' Lusaka UNICEF.

Matete, R. (2016). Challenges Facing Primary Education under Decentralization of Primary School Management in Tanzania: International Journal of Humanities and Social Science Vol.6.1 pp. 175-184.

Ministry of General Education. (2017). In Focus Bulletin. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education. (2005). Principles of Education Boards Governance and Management Manual. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education. (1996). Educating Our Future. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education Science, (1977). Education Reforms. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education. (2008). Operational Guidelines for Community schools. Lusaka. Zambia. Ministry of Education.

MOGE. (2016). Operational Guidelines of Community Schools- 2014. Lusaka. Zambia: MOGE.

Ministry of Education Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (2010). Educational Statistical Bulletin. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (2011). Educational Statistical Bulletin. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (2013). Educational Sector Project Coordinating Committee: Projects working in partnership with Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training & Early Education. Lusaka: Government Printers.

Ministry of Education Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) (2000). Basic Education Curriculum Framework. Lusaka: Curriculum Development Centre.

MOGE. (2015b). Zambia National Assessment Survey Report 2014. Learning Achievement at Primary School Level. Lusaka, Zambia: MOGE.

Morgatroyd, S. and Morgan, C. (1994). Total Quality Management and School. Buckingham/Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Mulenga, M. (2010). 'The Perception and attitudes of stakeholders towards Community Schools' A Case of Kasempa District, Masters Dissertation. University of Zambia. Lusaka.

Mulwa, D. M., Kimiti, R.P., Kituka M.T., and Muema, N.E. (2011). Decentralization of Education: The Experience of Kenya Secondary Schools. *Problems of Education*, vol. 30, 2011.

Murray, R. (2008). *How to write a Thesis*. Glasgow. McGraw – hill Education.

Mwanakatwe, J. M. (2013). *The growth of education in Zambia since independence*. Lusaka: Oxford University Press.

Mwansa, A. (2006). 'An Assessment of the quality and Relevance of Educational Provision in Community Schools of M'kushi District'. Masters Dissertation, University of Zambia, Lusaka.

- Nielson, H. D. (2007). *Empowering Communities for Improved Educational Outcomes: Some Evaluation Findings from the World Bank*. Prospects 37(!): 81-93
- Nyamoita, O.E., Mujidi, J., Nyiroge, .J.,O, D., and Sankale, J. (2004). *Community Schools in Kenya Case study on community participation in funding and managing schools*. Paris: UNESCO. Agency for International Development Bureau for Africa.
- OECD, (2008) *Education at a Glance*.OECD, Paris.
- Ololube, N. P., & Major, N. B. (2014). *School Inspection and Educational Supervision: Impact on Teachers' Productivity and Effective Teacher Education Programs in Nigeria*. International Journal of Scientific Research in Education, 7(1), 91-104. Retrieved on 16th June 2019 from <http://www.ij sre.com>
- Ololube, N. P. (2013). *Educational management, planning and supervision: model for effective implementation*. Owerri, Nigeria: Springfield Publishers.
- Onasanya, S. A. (2008). *The Concept and Practices of Supervision/inspection in kwara state public primary schools*. In D. O. Durosaro, & S. A. Onasanya (Eds.). Continuous Assessment Dossier, School Diary, Supervision and Records Keeping in Public Primary Schools in Kwara State. Illorin, Nigeria: Integrity Publications. Ornstein.
- Rondinelli, D. A. and John, R. N. (1986). *Assessing Decentralization Policies in Developing Countries: A Case for Cautions Optimum Development Policy Review* (:3-23).
- Shabbier, S., Ahmed, I., Imran, M. (2017). *Decentralization Education System and Its Effects on Teacher Performance*. Rev 6(3): 75-78.
- Sidhu, S. K. (2007). *Methodology of Research in Education*. New Delhi. Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd.
- Snelson, P. (1974). *Educational Development in Northern Rhodesia 1883-1945*. Lusaka: Zambia Educational Publishing House.

Swazi,H., Kukano, C. (2012). Zambia Open Community Schools. Harmonization of Training manuals for orientation of untrained Community School Teachers in Zambia. A study report. Chalimbana. Lusaka.

Thungu, J. Alumande,G., Gachie, L., Wandela, K., and (2012). Mastering of PTE Education. Nairobi: Oxford University Press.

Vale Do, H. F. (2016). *Explaining Education Reforms and Decentralization in Brazil, South Africa, South Korea and Spain: A Journal of Local Self-Government* vol.14, No. 3, pp. 593-614, July 2016

Shadreck el at, (2010) *Learning Achievement at the Middle Basic School Level: Zambia's National Assessment Survey Report- 2008*. Lusaka: Printech (Z) Ltd.

Shankar Rao, C. N. (2014). *Sociology: Principals of Sociology with an introduction to social thought*: Nirja publishers and printers Pvt.

Sayed, Y. and Soudien, C. (2005). *Decentralization and the Construction of Inclusion Education Policy in South Africa: A Journal of Comparative and International Educational Education*, 35(2), pp. 115-125 doi: 10.108010307920500129916.

Yolande, M.G. (2002). *A Literature Review of Community Schools in Africa*. USAID. Bureau for Africa, Office of Sustainable Development.

Wadsworth, B.J. (1989). *Piaget's Theory of Cognitive and Affective Development*. London: Longman Group Ltd.

www.the-guardian.com/.../primary.school..)

www.socialresearchmethods.net downloaded on 24th November 2015

Westhuizen, P.C. (2015). *School as organizations*. Pretoria: Van Schaika.

World Bank. (2003). *World Development Report 2004: Making Services Work for the Poor*. Washington D.C. World Bank.

World Bank. (1995). *Priorities and Strategies for Education*. Washington D.C: World Bank.

Vale DO., H.F (2016). Explaining Education Reforms and Decentralization in Brazil, South Africa, South Korea and Spain. *Journal of Local Self-Government* Vol. 14 No. 3 pp. 593-614.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1962). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview Guide for Parents.

The University of Zambia

School of Education

Interview Guide for parents.

How many of your children go to this community school?

How much money do you pay as school fees to this community school?

How much are you involved in activities at this school?

Who pays teachers' salaries?

How involved are the parents in resource mobilisation of the community school?

What are the challenges this school goes through?

What kind of opportunities does the school have?

What kind of recreational facilities does the school have?

What kind of sports grounds does the school have?

What proposal do you have towards the improvement of this school?

Appendix B: Interview Guide for District Education Board Secretary.
The University of Zambia

School of Education

Interview Guide for District Education Board Secretary.

1. Describe the performance of community schools
2. What are qualifications of community school teachers?
3. What are some of the challenges faced by community schools?
4. What are some of the opportunities faced by the community schools?
5. What is the academic performance of community schools at Grade 7 national examinations?
6. In your view, how should resource mobilisation and utilisation for community schools be undertaken?
7. What kind of support do community schools receive from the MgGE?
8. Are parents doing enough in terms of support to enhance learning achievements in community schools?
9. What is your opinion on decentralisation of government schools?
10. What are the strengths and weaknesses of decentralisation?
11. In the last three years how many times have standards officers visited community schools?
12. Have community schools performed to the expectations of the Ministry of General Education?
13. What kind of lessons can government (public) schools learn from community schools?

**Appendix C: Interview Guide: Non-Governmental Organization.
The University of Zambia**

School of Education

Interview Guide: Non-Governmental Organization.

1. What prompted you as a Non-Governmental Organisation to support community schools in the provision of education to underprivileged children?
2. What are the strengths and weaknesses of the curricula that used in the community schools?
3. What kind of help do community schools receive from NGOs?
4. How can a community school qualify for support from NGOs?
5. How far should NGOs and well-wishers go in assisting a community schools?
6. In your opinion, how is the performance of community pupils at Grade 7 national examinations?
7. How involved are NGOs and well-wishers in monitoring the schools they support?
8. What are the decentralised related administrative challenges and opportunities faced by community schools?

Appendix D: Interview guide for Head teachers or Deputy Head teachers.

1. What curricula do community schools follow?
2. Do the community schools utilise the services of the District Resource Centres?
3. Do the standards officers from the District Education Board Secretary's office monitor the community schools?
4. How do you rate the quality of education provided by community schools?
5. What are the qualifications of community school teachers?
6. What is the performance of community school pupils in Grade 7 national examinations?
7. How do community schools qualify for support from cooperating partners like VVOB, USAID and ZOCS?
8. What are some of the challenges faced by community schools because of their being decentralised by default?
9. Have Community schools in their decentralisation form performed to the expectations of the Ministry of General Education?
10. What kind of lessons can government schools learn from community schools?
11. How far should Non-Governmental Organizations go on in assisting community schools for them to run successively?
12. Do you think parents are doing enough in terms of support to enhance learning achievements in community schools?
13. What are some of the opportunities faced by community schools because of their being decentralised by default?
14. What is the structure of community schools in terms of management?
15. What is the rationale behind community schools in Zambia?
16. In what ways do community schools mobilise resources?

17. What kind of help do community schools receive from the government?
18. How far should the government go in assisting community schools for them to run successively?
19. Who are the major cooperating partners of community schools in Mufulira?
20. Should all community schools be taken over by the government? If so, why?
21. How do teachers and parents understand the educational policy on community schools?
22. What kind of lessons can government (public) schools learn from Community Schools?
23. What proposals can you make on the improvement of community schools?

Appendix E: Questionnaire: Class Teacher

Dear Sir/Madam,

You are one of the officers who have been selected to participate in this research. You are cordially selected to participate in this research. Your confidentiality is assured and whatever information you will provide will be confidential and shall be used for the intended purpose only.

Thanking you for your assistance.

Dominic Yumba

Mufulira College of Education

P.O. Box. 40400

MUFULIRA.

E-mail: doymba@yahoo.co.uk

INSTRUCTIONS.

You are required to tick (✓) the responses that are in agreement with your opinion in the brackets given. In some cases, you have to write your responses in the spaces provided.

1. What is your gender?
 M F
2. What are your professional qualifications?
 Certificate Diploma Degree None
3. How many pupils are at your school?

4. How many classes do you have at your school?

5. For how long have you been teaching at this school?

6. How is resource mobilisation done by the school? _____

7. What is the curriculum used by the school? _____

8. How do you ensure that quality in education is upheld at the school?

9. How do you rate the quality of education provided by community schools?

10. How is the academic performance of pupils at Grade 7 national examinations?

11. Poor Good Very Good Excellent

12. Do standards officers from the District Education Board Secretary's office monitor your school?

M F

13. Do you have cooperating partners in the development of education at your school?

Yes No

14. If the answer to question 11 is yes. In what area of educational development is that cooperating _____ partner _____ involved in? _____

15. What are some of the administrative challenges faced by the school because of its being decentralised by default?

16. Do you have a library?

Yes No

17. If the answer to question 14 is No, explain why you do not have a library?

18. Does the library stock the resources pupils need for them to succeed in their studies?

Yes No

19. What suggestions do you have for the improvement of community schools?

20. How often does your supervisor observe you teach?

Once Twice Many times

21. Do you find the supervisors' comments relevant?

Yes No

22. Are the comments or advice you get from the head teacher improve your teaching?
How?

Appendix F: Questionnaire: Head Teachers or Deputy Head Teachers.

Dear Sir/Madam,

You are one of the officers cordially selected to participate in this research. Whatever information you will provide us with shall be confidential and it shall only be used for the intended purpose.

Thanking you for your assistance.

Dominic Yumba

Mufulira College of Education

P.O. Box. 40400

MUFULIRA.

e-mail: doyumba@yahoo.co.uk

INSTRUCTIONS.

You are required to tick (√) the responses that are in agreement with your opinion in the brackets given. In some cases you have to write your responses in the spaces provided.

1. Gender

M F

2. How many qualified teachers do you have? _____

3. Do you have science laboratories at your school?

Yes No

4. How many classrooms do you have at your school? _____

5. How many pupils do you have at this school? _____

6. Do you have Continuous Professional Development (CPD) meetings at your school?

Yes No

7. What type of syllabi do you use at this school? _____
8. Do you have enough desks to cater for all pupils at the community school?
 Yes No
9. Does the Ministry of General Education conduct training courses for teachers at your school?
 Yes No
10. Do the standards officers from the District Education Secretary's Office monitor the school?
 Yes No
11. Does the school provide accommodation for its teachers? _____
12. Do you have a sports ground at your school?
 Yes No
13. Do you have a library at your school?
 Yes No
14. Do you have specialised rooms at your school?
 Yes No
15. What is the nature of the curriculum do you use at your school?

16. Does the school receive any support in form of grants or in kind from well-wishers?
 Yes No
17. If the answer is yes to question 11 name the well-wishers and the non-governmental organisations _____ that _____ support _____ the school? _____
18. Community schools are decentralised by default. To what extent have you embraced decentralisation in management of your school? Comment

19. Do you have recreation facilities at your school?

Yes No

Comment _____

20. In what ways does the Parent Teachers Association support the management of the school in the resource mobilisations? Comment.

21. How often do you observe teachers as they teach?

Once Twice More than two times Many times

22. Are there any lessons government schools can learn from the way community schools have managed to survive up to this time without or with little help from the central government? Comment.

23. Have Community schools in their decentralisation form performed to the expectations of the Ministry of General Education and stakeholders? Comment.

24. How is the academic performance of pupils in public examinations at Grade 7 level in the community school? Comment.

25. What kind of incentives do you give teachers as a motivation factor?

26. In what ways does the school raise its resources for it to operate successively?

27. Do you have enough suitable pupils' textbooks?

Yes No

28. What suggestions do you have, if any, for the improvement of community schools? comment.

29. In what ways does the Parents Community school Committees (PCSCs) support the management of the school in resource mobilisation of the school? Comment

30. Do you think parents are doing enough in terms of support to enhance learning achievements of pupils in community schools? Comment.

Appendix G: Community School Monitoring Instrument

1. General Information:.....

Name of School:.....

District:.....

Province:.....

Proprietor:.....

Location of School:.....

P.O. Box:..... Tell/Cell.....

Date of Current Monitoring:.....

Date of Previous Monitoring:..... of

Objective of Monitoring:.....

2. Staffing:

Name of Teacher / Coordinator:.....

Qualification:.....

Employer:

Number of teachers:..... Male:.....Female:.....

Qualifications:

i) Not qualified..... MaleFemale.....

ii) ZATEC qualification..... Male.....Female.....

iii) Undergoing studies:..... Yes... No.....

Comments:.....

.....
.....

3. Enrolment

G r a d e	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8 9	9	T o t a l
N o . o f C l a s s e s										
B o y s										
G i r l s										
T o t a										

1										
---	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Comments:.....
.....

4. Type of curriculum offered:.....

5.

Infrastructure:.....

Number of classrooms:.....

Number of offices:.....

Number of desks:.....

Number of toilets:..... Type of toilets

Staff:..... Ladies:..... Gentlemen:.....

Pupils:..... Females:..... Male:.....

Teachers' accommodation:.....

Water:.....

Electricity:.....

6. Teaching and Learning Resources:

Main text books:.....Pupil/Book Ratio:.....

- English Language:.....
- Zambian Language:.....
- Social Studies:.....
- Integrated Science:.....
- Creative Science:.....

➤ Mathematics:.....

Supplementary Readers:.....

Other materials/equipment:.....

Literacy:.....

7. Education Programmes:

New Breakthrough to Literacy (NBTL):.....

Step into English (SITE):.....

Read on Course (ROC):.....

School Health and Nutrition:.....

Gender and Equity (bursaries) no. of boys:..... No. of Girls:.....

Special Educational Needs:.....

Inclusive School Programme (INSPRO):.....

8. School Grants (Free Education Policy)

Amount received:.....

Free Education Materials:.....

Use of Funds:.....

Financial records:.....

9 Examinations:

Enter ed		S at	Pass ed	Select ed	Fail ed	% Pa ss
---------------------	--	-----------------	--------------------	----------------------	--------------------	------------------------

Boys					
Girls					
Total					

10. Sporting Facilities:

Grounds:

Football ground:.....

Netball ground:.....

Other ground:.....

Materials:

Balls:.....

Jerseys:.....

Other:.....

11. Records:

Syllabus:.....

Schemes/weekly forecast:.....

Lesson preparation:

Records of work:.....

Correspondence:.....

Stock books:.....

12. Comments:.....

13. Advice Given:.....

14. Recommendations:.....

Certification:

Name.....

Title.....

Signature.....

Appendix H: The Respondents Consent to Participate in the Study.

I....., consent to participate in the study Decentralisation and Quality Education in Community Schools in selected districts of the Copper-belt Province conducted by Dominic Yumba. I have understood what this study is trying to accomplish. I append my signature to indicate my consent.

Signature.....Date.....

Appendix I: Child Protection Checklist

This checklist was developed jointly by MoGE, Camfed and other stake-holders. It is to be used for measuring compliance by schools of zero tolerance to child abuse.

- **Definitions**

Child protection: Protection of children from any form of abuse and providing a safe environment free from all forms of abuse, neglect, exploitation and violence through the creation of a safe environment.

Abuse: Deliberate act of ill treatment that can harm or is likely to cause harm to a child's safety, well-being, dignity and development. This includes sexual, physical, psychological and or emotional ill treatment. Physical abuse includes corporal punishment through caning, pinching, slapping, hitting fingers with duster, punishing children through physical actions as flogging.

Among the effects of physical abuse on a child are:

- Excessive nervousness around his or her teacher/parent/caregiver
- Lack of trust and confidence
- Aggressive behaviour
- Poor relationships with other peers and physical injury
- Absenteeism
- Under performance in class
- Death

Emotional and or psychological Abuse: any behavior that interferes with a child's mental health or social development. Emotional abuse includes humiliating and degrading treatment, such as bad name-calling, consistent criticism, belittling, persistent shaming, solitary confinement and isolation.

Among the effects of emotional abuse on a child are:

- Apathy and depression
- Poor relationship and social skills
- Hostility and insecurity
- Lack of concentration and poor performance at school
- Bed wetting or thumb sucking
- Lack of self confidence
- Absenteeism

Sexual abuse: any sexual act between an adult and a child, even if the child agrees to the act. It can take different forms such as rape, incest and forced marriage but could also include kissing, fondling or exposure to pornography, and seductive language.

Among the effects of sexual abuse on a child are:

- Self-hatred and shame
- Learning difficulties and inability to concentrate
- Guilt and fear regarding God and Church
- Contracting sexually transmitted infections
- Failure to trust and build relationships seductiveness
- Fear of a particular person or family member
- Withdraw, secretiveness or depression
- Avoidance of issues related to sexuality
- Self-injury
- Death

Neglect: deliberately, or through carelessness or negligence, falling to provide security for a child and his/her rights to physical safety and development.

Among the effects of sexual abuse on a child are:

- Poor health and health and hygiene, e.g. being unbathed and dirty
- Learning difficulties.
- Low self-esteem

- Being depressed and withdrawn
- Deviant behaviour .e.g. crime and sex work

Exploitation: this refers to the use of children for someone else's advantage, gratification or profit, often resulting in unjust, cruel and harmful treatment of the child. These activities are to the detriment of the child's physical or mental health, education, and moral or social-emotional development. It covers situations of manipulation, misuse, abuse, victimization, oppression or ill treatment. There are two types of child exploitation that are recognised:

(a) Sexual exploitation: the abuse of exploitation of vulnerability, differential power, or trust for sexual purposes; this includes profiting monetarily, socially or politically from the exploitation of another as well as personal sexual gratification.

Examples are: child prostitution, trafficking of children for sexual abuse and exploitation, and child pornography.

(b) Economic exploitation of a child: the use of children in work or other activities for the benefit of others. This include, but is not limited to child labour.

Examples are: child domestic work, use of children for criminal activities, including sale and distribution of narcotics, and involvement of children in any harmful or hazardous work.

2. Issues to be addressed in promoting child protection.

- School rules should be reviewed to generate localised forms of punitive measures (these should seek to buy in from stakeholders, including children).
- Guidance and counselling issues should be included in the standard officers' checklist, which include cases of misbehavior by pupils and punishment meted out
- Each school should have a localised child protection policy developed by all stakeholders, including children

- Each school should provide guidance and counselling services to respond to sexual abuse.
- Each school should establish a data base on sexually abused children managed by the guidance and counselling teacher.
- There should be awareness raising on child protection and child abused at school and community levels, using popular theatre.
- Children should be equipped with life skills
- There should be capacity building of school-based committees in life skills and gender issues.
- Capacity building for child protection should be incorporated in training programmes in colleges of education.
- There should be advocacy for conducive and harmonized legal framework on sexual abuse.
- Community support groups for all forms of child protection should be established and/or strengthened.
- Psychological support should be provided for children.
- Child to child approaches through peer support groups in schools should be established / strengthened
- Communication boxes should be introduced / strengthened
- School-based responses that respond to and support children with special needs should be developed.
- Spaces that are child-friendly and gender responsive should be created.
- Ministry of General Education systems for responding to emergencies should be strengthened.

3. Checklist and Response Indicators for Schools and Incentives for Compliance

Issue	Response	Checklist
Abuse	Locally generated forms of punitive measures (<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existence of school

	these should seek buy in from all stakeholders including children)	<p>councils for pupil</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • List of agreed upon code of conduct and consequences for non-compliance
	Disciplinary cases of teachers and community members concerning child abuse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Availability of data base on disciplinary case
	Guidance and counselling on child abuse issues should be included in the Standard Officers' checklist	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Include issues of sensitization on child abuse in the SIR book.
	Localized child protection policy developed by all stakeholders, including children	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existence of child policy
	Psychosocial care and support services to respond to abuse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Operational psychosocial care and support programme
	Raising awareness at school and in the community using popular theatre	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developed programmes on child abuse in the print media and on radio. • Existence of popular theatre group
	Equipping children with skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacity building programme for life skills training for children
	Capacity building of school-based committees in life skills and gender issues	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Number of teachers trained in life skills and gender

	Incorporate capacity building for child protection in colleges of education.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The teacher training syllabi containing child protection issues
	Advocating for conducive and harmonized legal framework on child abuse	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advocacy plan • Progress Reports
	Establish and / or strengthen community support groups for all forms of child protection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • List of operational community support groups
	Child to child approaches through establishing peer support groups in schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • List of operational peer-to-peer support groups
	Introduce / strengthen communication boxes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presence of communication boxes • Availability of database on disciplinary cases
	Development of school-based responses that respond to and support learners with special needs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusive school community environment
	Establishment of children's councils	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existence of school-based children's councils
	Creation of child friendly spaces that are gender responsive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existence of gender responsive friendly spaces
Emergencies	Strengthening MoGE systems for responding to emergencies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Established operational emergency response mechanisms
Relevant Policies and	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ National Education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presence and operationalization

<p>Guidelines</p>	<p>Policy</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ National Child Policy ▪ Child Protection ▪ Re-entry ▪ Corporal Punishment ▪ Free Education (Uniforms) ▪ National Youth Policy ▪ Guidelines for the Management of Abuse in the Schools 	<p>mechanisms of the relevant policies and guidelines</p>
--------------------------	---	---

Appendix J: Monitoring Instrument for Implementation of HIV and AIDS, Life Skills and Sexuality Activities in Institutions
General Information

Name of institution:.....

District:.....Zone.....

Province:.....

Enrolment: male.....Female..... Total.....

Respondents:.....Position.....Sex:.....

...

Date of Monitoring.....

Section A: HIV and AIDS Policy Issues

	Questions	Y	N	Means of Verification	Comments
1	Has the institution got the MoGE HIV and AIDS work policy?			Request for copies of the policy	
2	Has the policy been accessed by members of staff.			Check stock book	
3	Based on the			Request to view an	

	<p>MoGE HIV and AIDS Work place Policy, have you formulat ed an HIV and AIDS policy, i.e preventi on, treatmen t, care and support</p>			<p>implementat ion plan, work programmes or reports</p>	
4	<p>Does the workplac e program me contain the essential elements of the policy, i.e. preventi on, treatmen t, care and support?</p>				

Section B. MESVTEE Minimum Standards on HIV and AIDS

1	<p>Do you carry out HIV and AIDS activities in the institution? If “yes” how are these carried out?</p> <p>(TICK YES/NO ONLY WHEN THEY MENTION ONE OF THE FOLLOWING)</p>				
	Minimum Standards	Y	N	Means of Verification	Comments
	Dissemination of HIV and AIDS messages in class, during assembly and other gatherings to educators and learners			Interview educators and learners	
	Availability of counselling services including behavioural change communication (BCC) materials			Request for the availability of counselling materials	
	HIV and AIDS clubs			Check club membership composition, HIV/AIDS activities, reports, work plans and minutes of club meetings	
	Workplace HIV and AIDS committee			Check composition of HIV/AIDS work place	

				committee, work plan, minutes, reports	
	HIV and AIDS awareness raising events			Participant list event report, photos, posters flyers	
				Means of Verification	Comments
	Care Treatment and Support What Care and Support services exist within the institution for infected and affected educators and learners, e.g. prevention, care and support			Records, stock book, treatment, health talks	
	Do you have trained Guidance and Counselling educators in your institution?			Comments	

Section C: MESVTEE Life Skills

	Questions	Y	N	Means of Verification	Comments
1	Does the institution have the MESVTEE Life Skills Framework			Request to view the Life Skills Framework	
2	Has the Life Skills Framework been circulated to all educators ? Do your teachers have access to the Life Skills Framework			Interview educators Interview staff and check stock book	
3	Does the institution have Life Skills materials for educators and			request to see materials	

	learn?				
4	Are educators in your institution integrating Life Skills in their lessons?			Request to see lesson plan, scheme of work	

Section D: Sexuality and Protection

	Question	Y	N	Means of Verification	Comments
1	Do the educators integrate sexuality education in their lesson plans?			Check scheme of work, work plans, and record of activities.	
2	Do you have teachers that have been trained in the implementation of SRH and Life Skills			Records of teachers attending trainings	
3	Has the institution experienced			Complete records of	

	girls dropping out due to early pregnancies ?			maternity leave and guidance records	
4	Have you had any re-admission of girls into your institution after delivery in the last 12 months			Records of re-entry cases	
5	Has the institution collaborated with communities on issues of SRH, early marriages, defilement and teenage pregnancy etc./in the last 12months			Minutes of meetings with the community	
6	Have there been any reported cases of child sexual abuse			Record of reported cases to the institution	

Observation(s)
Recommendations

STAMP

Respondent's name..... Signature..... TS Number:.....Sex:..... Signature..... Monitoring Officer's name:.....
--

Appendix K: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017

Ministry Of Education

Kawama West Community School

Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015 and 2017.

Year	Boys regist	Girls regist	Boys sat	Girls sat	Boys Abt	Girls abst	Pass %
2015	22	22	22	22	-	-	100
2017	19	22	16	18	-	04	100

Appendix L: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.

Ministry of General Education

Luansobe West Community School

Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.

Year		2015	2016	2017
Boys registered		37	63	25
Girls registered		29	33	17
Boys sat		36	57	24
Girls sat		29	29	17
Boys absent		1	6	1
Girls absent		-	4	-
Pupils who passed	boys	29	57	24
	girls	24	29	17
Pupils who Failed	boys	8	-	-
	girls	5	-	-
Pass %		80	100	100

Appendix. M: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.

Ministry of Education

Murundu West Community School

Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016 and 2017

School	Year	Boys Regist	Girls Regist	Boys Sat	Girls sat	Pass %
MURUNDU COMMUNITY	2015	52	61	50	54	100
	2016	32	24	24	21	100
	2017	30	27	27	23	100

Appendix N: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.

Ministry of General Education

Gasto Community School

Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.

School	Year	Boys Regist	Girls Regist	Boys Sat	Girls sat	Pass %
Gasto Community	2015	12	12	12	12	100
	2016	15	25	15	25	100
	2017	22	23	22	23	100

Appendix O: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.

Ministry of General Education

Emma's Community School

Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016, and 2017.

School	Year	Boys Regist	Girls Regist	Boys Sat	Girls sat	Pass %
Emmas' Kids Sch	2015	16	12	15	11	100
	2016	14	08	14	05	100
	2017	13	14	17	13	100

Appendix P: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016 and 2017

Ministry of General Education

Twalubuka Government School

District		Mufulira	Mufulira	Mufulira
School		Twalubuka	Twalubuka	Twalubuka
Year		2016	2017	2018
Total # who sat	Girls	05	17	15
	Boys	12	13	06
Total # passed	Girls	05	16	14
	Boys	11	12	06
Total # failed	Girls	0	0	0
	Boys	0	0	0
Total # absent	Girls	0	01	01
	Boys	01	01	0
Percentage passed	Girls	100	100	100
	Boys	100	100	100

Appendix Q: Grade 7 Examination Results for 2015, 2016 and 2017

Ministry of General Education

Twalubuka Government School

School	Year	Boys Regist	Girls Regist	Boys Sat	Girls sat	Pass %
Twalubuka Govt school	2016		40	37	40	100
	2017	32	36	32	36	100
	2018	31	49	31	49	100

Appendix R: Bio data of Respondents and Responses

Gender	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Male	30	66.6
Female	15	33.3
Total	45	100
Number of qualified teachers	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1 -5	12	26.6
6 – 10	12	26.6
11 – 20	9	20
21 – above	3	6.6
None	9	20
Total	45	100
Number of pupils	Frequency	Percentage (%)
50 – 250	19	42.2
251 – 450	10	22.2
451 – 650	4	8.88
651 – 850	4	8.88
850 – above	8	17.7
Total	45	100
Recreational facilities available in school.	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Play ground	10	22.2
Football ground and netball court	10	22.2
None	25	55.5
Total	45	100
Number of specialized rooms	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Science lab and computer lab	5	11.1
Mobile labs	5	11.1
None	35	77.7
Total	45	100
Number of desks	Frequency	Percentage (%)
10 – 50	20	44.4

100 – 150	10	22.2
None	15	33.3
Total	45	100
Number of books	Frequency	Percentage (%)
50 – 150	14	31.1
151 – 250	4	8.88
251 – 350	4	8.88
Above 351	3	6.66
None	20	44.4
Total	45	100
Description of the nature of library and books	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Mobile library with supplementary readers	5	11.1
Static library with old syllabus books	5	11.1
Library in each class with supplementary readers	15	33.3
None	20	44.4
Total	45	100

Table 5.2 Indicates the gender of the respondents who participated in the study, 30 male head teachers and 15 female head teachers of which the total was 45 head teachers. The table also indicates the number of qualified teachers. 26.6 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were 1 – 2 qualified teachers. 26.6 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were 6 – 12 qualified teachers. 20 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were 11 – 20 qualified teachers. 6.6 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were 21 and above qualified teachers and 20 percent of the head teachers indicated that they did not have any qualified teacher at their schools

Number of Pupils

On the number of pupils, 42.2 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were between 50 – 250 pupils. 22.2 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were between 251 – 450 pupils. 8.88 percent of the head teachers indicated that the number of pupils at their schools was 251 – 450. 8.88 percent of the head teachers indicated that the number of pupils at their schools was between 651 – 850 and 17.7 percent of the head teachers had 850 and above pupils.

Recreation facilities available in the schools

On specialized rooms, 11.1 percent of the head teachers indicated that they had specialized rooms. 11.1 percent of the head teachers indicated that their schools have mobile laboratories and 77.7 percent of the head teachers indicated that their schools did not have specialized rooms (e.g. Science, art and design and computer labs).

Number of desks

44.4 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were between 10 – 50 desks. 22.2 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools were between 100 – 150 desks and 33.3 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools do not have any desks.

Number of books

On number of books, 31.1 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were 50 – 150 books. 8.88 percent of the head teachers indicated that at their schools there were 151 – 250 books. 6.66 percent of the head teachers indicated that there were 351 and above books at their schools and 44.4 percent of the head teachers indicated that their schools did not have any book.

Description of the nature of library books.

11.1 percent of the head teachers indicated that they had mobile libraries stocked with supplementary readers. 11.1 percent of the head teachers indicated that their schools had

static libraries with old books and 33.3 percent of the head teachers indicated that their classes had simple libraries in the classrooms stocked with supplementary readers. 44.4 percent of the teachers indicated that their schools did not have libraries.

Appendix S. Revised Curriculum Early Education

Contact Time

Table 2: Time Allocation at Early Education

No.	Learning Areas	Time Allocation per Week
1	Social Studies	2 hours
2	Environmental Science	2½ hours
3	Pre-Literacy and Language	3½ hours
4	Pre-Mathematics	3 ½ hours
5	Expressive Arts	3½ hours
	Total	15 hours

CHILD DEVELOPMENT ASSESSMENT

Assessment at this level focuses on assessing the developmental milestones of children aged 0 to 6 years. It can be done continuously through the various activities that children are engaged in. The assessment results should not be used for judging individual children or comparing them with others. Early identification of developmental challenges (screening) is the key purpose for assessing children at this level. It should facilitate the child's development in all the domains.

Assessment tools such as Child Development Assessment Tool for Zambia (CDAZ) should be used when you want to find out how the child is growing from one age level to another, or when you see that the child is not growing well. This can be used on a day to day basis. The tool offers multiple opportunities for one to develop an understanding of children's developmental challenges and respond to their needs.

CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARY EDUCATION

Education offered at Grade 1 is meant to provide the first competence level necessary for the learner to assimilate the learning in Grade 2. As such the teaching and learning at Grade 1 will start with imparting pre-learning skills in all learning areas. At Grade 2 the emphasis is to develop and consolidate the levels of literacy and basic mathematical skills achieved earlier. Primary curriculum should form the foundation for the Junior Secondary School education.

Appendix T: Revised Curriculum (ECCDE)

years. ECCDE focuses on the holistic development of the child in the following developmental areas:

- i. Physical development – Fine and Gross Motor Skills Development;
- ii. Social, Emotional, Spiritual and Moral Development;
- iii. Language Development (receptive and expressive language);
- iv. Aesthetic Development or Appreciation of Beauty; and
- v. Cognitive and Intellectual Development.

ECCDE LEVELS

ECCDE caters for two (2) broad levels and these are:

i. Day-Care/Cretche

This level caters for children aged 0 to 2 years. Day-Care is a service provided to parents who work or have other commitments, which makes it difficult for them to look after their young children at home. The children are dropped at the Day-Care Centre in the morning and picked later in the day when parents are through with their work schedules. The centre stands in for the parents as it provides care, affection and love to the young children.

ii. Early Childhood Education

The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education will offer early education for age ranges of 3-4 and 5 - 6 years. These are nursery and reception.

Nursery

The nursery level will cater for learners aged 3 to 4 years to develop socially, physically, mentally and emotionally by providing them with playmates and play resources. The focus of nursery centres is promotion of social interaction of young children from different social backgrounds through play.

Reception

The Reception level will cater for learners aged 5 to 6 years. This is a preparatory stage for entry into Grade 1. Therefore, the teaching and learning at this level is largely informal through guided and unguided play with formal teaching (pre-academic) taking about 40 percent of the programme. The academic component prepares them for smooth transition to formal education at Grade 1.

Key Competences for Learners at Early Education

At this level the child should demonstrate: