THE ROLE OF PARTICIPATORY COMMUNICATION IN PROMOTING COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN SCHOOL-BASED HEALTH AND NUTRITION: A CASE-STUDY MINISTRY OF EDUCATION/PROJECT CONCERN INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME IN MONGU

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A research report submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the award of the degree of Master of Communication for Development (MCD) at the University of Zambia.

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Dedication

To my mother Theresa Kawewa Sililo, my brothers Siisii, Sishekanu, Likando,Lishomwa and my sister Chuma for always supporting me throughout my education and for always making me believe that I can make it. Thanks for your love and care.

To my wife Annie, our daughter Namwaka for always loving and believing in me throughout the hard times and for the patience during absence from home.

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Certificate of Approval

This report has been approved as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Communication for Development (MCD) by the University of Zambia, Lusaka

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Abstract

This report is based on an attachment at Mongu District Education Board Secretary's Office assess the role of Participatory Communication in enhancing School Health and Feeding Programme, using a case study of Ministry of education/Project Concern International School Feeding Programme for community basics in Mongu

The study uses both quantitative methods o data collection. Specifically, a quantitative survey, in-depth interviews and Participant observation during a practical attachment at Mongu District Education Board Secretary's Office from 15th March to 20th May 2005 as basis of coming up with these findings

In this study it was revealed that there is no comprehensive use of participatory Communication as the basis for identifying, formulating, implementing and coordinating the programme at the school level. It is clearly the formulation of the school Feeding Programme did not involve the local people in identifying possible solutions to the problem of child hunger and food shortage in the community. Interpersonal form of communication largely exists in the community which the Ministry of education and Project Concern International can make full use of in order to promote nutrition and health activities at school level. Furthermore, programme makes no use of mass communication to share information and increase community participation. According to the majority of the respondents surveyed, face-to-face discussions are used for sharing information development information both in the community and in the school.

In this study, it is recommended that in order to improve School Feeding Programme delivery, Participatory communication research methods should be used as the basis for problem identification so that factors underlying food insecurity can be understood better. Hence, participatory communication Appraisal techniques should be used when consulting with the community.

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For the, shortcomings, view and opinions expressed in this study let them be blamed on no other person but entirely on me.

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Chapter 1

Background to the Study

1.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the setting of the area of the study and then outlines the statement of the problem.

1.1 Location of Zambia

Zambia is located in Southern Africa. It is a landlocked country surrounded by eight (8) countries namely: Congo, Tanzania, Malawi, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and Angola.

Geographically Zambia covers an area of 750,000 square kilometres. She has a tropical temperate climate. This is because she lies within the tropical latitudes 10^{o} to 18^{o} south of the Equator and longitude 22^{o} to 33^{o} (ZIS 1979). Zambia's altitude averages 1300 meters above the sea level in the Nyika plateau while the lowest point is at 329 meters on the Zambezi River. High elevation areas, especially central plateaus, have a cool temperature. Extremely hot temperatures usually characterize low-lying valleys of Luangwa and Zambezi.

Of the total 750,000 square kilometres of land, only 12 percent is suitable for arable use. However, "only 14 percent is presently under cultivation" (GRZ 2002: 54). This means that Zambia has 430,000 hectare of irrigable land.

1.2 Climate

Generally, Zambia's climate is moderately humid below 40^{o}centigrades (African Rainbow 2005). Zambia experiences three (3) seasons: cool and dry, from May to August; hot and dry from September to November and the warm and wet season from December to April. Zambia generally experiences summer temperature 20 ^{o}centigrades to 30^{o}centigrades, and winter temperature is from 10^{o}ccentigrades to 26^{o}centigrades ranges.

1.3 **Rainfall and Water Resources**

Zambia has plenty of water resources estimated at 1,740,380 million cubic meters of underground water. Of this, only an estimated 160,000 million cubic meters is used annually for agricultural purposes mainly by commercial farmers. Rainfall in Zambia averages 950mm per year. Generally, Zambia has stable weather conditions though some periodic droughts are a common occurrence. Some areas are prone to moderate topical storms especially in the months of November to April (www.bized.ac.uk/virtial).

1.4 **Political History of Zambia**

Zambia was formerly called Northern Rhodesia. She got her independence on 24th October 1964 from Britain (www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook). At independence, Zambia was a multiparty state. However, in 1972, she became a one party state. It was in 1991 that multiparty political system was reintroduced in Zambia. In a landmark election, the Movement for multiparty Democracy (MMD) led by Fredrick Chiluba dislodged Kenneth Kaunda's United Independence Party (UNIP) which had ruled the country for twenty-seven (27) years.

Administratively, Zambia is divided into nine provinces namely: central, Copperbelt, Eastern, Luapula, Lusaka Northern, North Western and Western.

1.5 **Mongu District**

1.5.1 **Location**

Western Province covers an area of 126,386 kilometres, representing 17 percent of Zambia. The province is divided into seven administrative districts. Mongu district, the Provincial headquarters of Western Province, lies between latitude 15° South and longitude 23° East. To the East, it shares boundaries with Kaoma, Kalabo in the West, and Senanga in the South and Lukulu in the North. Mongu lies 1, 5533 meters above the sea level (CSO 2004).

1.5.2 **Population of Mongu District**

The population of Mongu District is comparatively small. The population comprises 32,054 household. The total population of Mongu according to the 2000 Census of Population and Housing was "162,002; males 79,300 (48.95 percent) and 82,702 (51.05 percent) females" (CSO 2003:40).

Table 1 Population of Mongu District

Constituency	***Households***	***Males***	***Females***
Mongu Central	16005	41,317	**41,939**
Luena	8,806	20,370	**22,078**
Nalikwanda	**7,243**	**17,560**	**18,685**

Source: Central Statistical Office. *Summary Report 2000 Census of Population and Housing*

1.5.3 **General Physical characteristics of Mongu District**

1.5.3.1 **Typography**

The typography of Mongu district varies. To the West lies the Bulozi flood plains bisected by the mighty Zambezi River which seasonally floods forcing the people to move from the lower lands to the higher plains East and Westwards. The flood plains are more susceptible to mosquito breeding which leads to high malaria morbidity and mortality (Mbikusita-Lewanika 2004).

The livelihoods of the people of Western Province revolve around the Bulozi flood plain. The most common livelihood activities include rice growing and other crops, fishing and raising cattle and other livestock. However, " the Bulozi plains is one of the most disaster prone regions in Zambia as it suffers from chronic drought, regular flooding, and more recently devastating cattle diseases, which seriously disrupted the livelihood systems of the inhabitants of the plains," observes Ndiyoi (2005:1).

1.5.3.2 **Physical Characteristics**

Mongu district's main physical features are plateau upland and wetland plains. The main drainage system is the Zambezi River basin and its many tributaries such as Lui and Luanginga. Soils are sandy with generally poor structured, water logging (along the plain ridge) with poor moisture.

1.5.3.3 **Agro-climate Zones**

Mongu district is under agro climatic zone II with some parts mostly under zone 13, others under sub zone 8 and in the north under zone 21. Prevailing climatic conditions are moderate to dry. The district experiences four seasons: the moderate flooding period from January to April, the cold and dry winter period from May to August. The period from September to October is extremely hot while November to January comes with heavy rains and moderate temperatures (Kusiyo Mbikusita-Lewanika 2004).

Mongu district mainly experiences warm to hot weather with midday average temperatures of 32 centigrade in August. In the rainy season when there is cloud cover midday temperatures are lower than 32 centigrade. Generally, days are hot while nights are cool with relative humidity. The mean monthly temperature is 26 centigrade. The hot season is characterized by hot days with maximum temperatures of about 36 centigrade and milder nights of about 15 centigrade. Relative humidity is relatively high. The yearly rainfall amounts to about 39 inches (50 years average). The highest monthly rainfall of 8.73 inches occurs in December during the period of heavy rains (ibid).

Relative humidity varies during the year reaching the higher points during the flooding period. The mean annual relative humidity varies from 55 to 60 percent. The prevailing direction of wind is NW-SE direction in January and E-W direction in July (ibid).

1.5.4 **Agriculture Potential in Mongu**

The flood plains of the upper Zambezi River, also known as the Bulozi or Barotse Flood Plains, constituents the major agriculture production areas of the Western Province. There are a number of obstacles to farming in these plains. Ndiyoi (2005:14) enumerates the following among the problems farming faces: "chronic droughts, regular floods and more recently devastating cattle diseases which have seriously disrupted the livelihood systems of the agro-pastoralist inhabitants of the plain." In addition, the HIV/AIDS scourge is another factor militating against farming in Mongu.

1.5.4.1 **Droughts and floods**

In years of high floods such as was in the 2003/ 2004 agriculture farming season, Mongu was one of the worst affected records OXFAM (2004). Droughts and floods prevalence have a disadvantage on crop production and disrupts the livelihood systems of the people living on the plains because of the character of the floods tends to vary from flood to inundation. When the floods come, the wetlands farming as locally known as 'sishanjo' and 'sitapa' are affected. In normal years, the floods come in about January and reach their peak in March. Hence, by January the people are forced to move to the upland and to abandon farming fields until the water recedes in April. Again by June households embark on the journey back to the plains from the upland.

Furthermore, it is not easy to plan agricultural activities on the Zambezi Flood Plains because of the unpredictability in the maximum flood levels that vary considerably. It is held that "for 68 percent of the floods, the difference between high and low is between1.13m while for 95 percent of the floods, the difference between the high and low a flood is 2.22m near Mongu (Matongo)," notes Ndiyoi (2005:8). Some people attribute food shortages to this large variation in annual flood levels that households living on the flood plains find themselves food insecure. Again floods usually reach their maximum levels late in the season on average by the 5th April near Mongu. However, floods unpredictable as they are can either arrive late or early and in 80 percent of the times they reach their maximum between 15th March and 26th April at Matongo near Mongu.

According to a land and water technical assessment of flooding and cropping on the flood plain edge in 1991 from Limulunga to Senanga, it was established that 43 percent of the plain edge will be flooded (LWMP 1991). It was further noted that in a wet year (one in ten years), 64 percent will be flooded and in a dry year (one in ten years) only 11percent will be flooded. It is for this reason that low-lying fields locally known as 'sitapa' are 80 percent likely to experience early flooding while the raised fields locally known as 'mazulu' especially those on the plain edge. Again, depending on the micro typography of the plains flood levels can be further modified. Thus, on the plain edge low-lying fields and raised fields are likely to be affected differently by the floods.

1.5.4.2 **Rice growing**

Rice growing is a major agriculture production activity on the Zambezi Flood Plains in the Western Province. Rice is mainly grown on the plain edge ('sishanjo') and on dambos ('milapo') such as those of Nalwamba; the upland for the Zambezi flood Plains that are generally surrounded by shallow waters (LWMP 1991). In years of average flood level, 70 percent of the rice will be flooded to an average depth of 0.68m. However, the percentage of flooded rice fields increases to 80 percent in wet years to an average depth of 1.43m. In dry years, only 14 percent of planted rice will become flooded to an average depth of 0.16m. Therefore, in drought years most of rice planted in 'sishanjo' needs to depend on rains or on perennial seepage from uplands.

1.5.4.3 Cattle Diseases

Cattle rearing has traditionally been a key livelihood activity among many people in the Western Province. However, the cattle stock has massively been reduced due to insurgence of various cattle diseases especially the Chronic Bovine Pleura Pneumonia (CBPP) that has plagued cattle in recent years. According to Maimbo (1996), the rise in CBPP cases is because of a decline in measures of controlling CBPP by the central Government which was based on the assumption that the disease is no longer a threat. The continued precipitation of CBPP has been exacerbated by the fact that already infected cattle share the same grazing grounds with healthy ones. In addition, the management of cattle in terms of veterinary care and support has largely continued to be traditional and not been modernized. Hence, the cattle stock has remained stagnant.

The people Western Province have always depended on cattle for various livelihood activities. First, cattle are a source of draft power for cultivation of fields. Despite more people using ox-drawn ploughs, the number of those who own both cattle and ploughs is very small, observed Beerlingers (1999). The ratio of user to owner is 4. 31 to 1. This means that three quarters of those who plough depend on other people to provide both oxen and ploughs. It is for this reason that the loss of cattle does not only affect the immediate owner but also those who depend on him/her as well. Second, cattle provide transport and manure for the fields cultivated. Third, in times of disasters such as droughts and floods, the people of Western Province have always relied on cattle for security of their livelihoods. This is because at such times cattle has always been sold in order for the people to be able to buy staple food items and also to meet their other needs such as fees for school children.

1.5.4.4 Fish Farming

The Zambezi flood plains of the Western Province are one of the high producers of fish in Zambia. Large amounts of fish are produced in the rivers, lakes and ponds. The annual floods have a positive impact on fishing in the sense that they allow the fish to spread out in the plain. The longer the time it takes the water to recede the better for the fish to grow thereby increasing the catch. However, the population of fish is threatened to extinction by a growing trend of using small aperture nets mainly by immigrant and resident fishermen (OXFAM 2004).

1.5.5 **The land Tenure System**

The land tenure system has been cited by some development workers and some politicians as negatively contributing to agriculture production in Western Province (Kusiyo Mbikusita-Lewanika 2000). The system has been blamed for creating artificial land shortages for various field types. Land shortage is said to be artificially caused in some cases because it is held by individuals who may not be using it at the time. So, it cannot be made available to households in need of it without the consent of the absent landowner. This situation leads to small yields among some households who despite their desire to increase their acreage cannot do so. In cases where households may desire to increase their acreage, land owners may be either absent or simply not willing to release it for prestige. Therefore, some households may record small yields from their small cultivated piece of land

The land in Western Province is held under two categories: customary and state land. There are two land tenure system in Zambia; freehold which is of unlimited duration and leasehold which is for 99 years. In Western Province most of the land is customary and is held under freehold tenure system. In the leasehold tenure system the land is owned by the state and entrusted to the President of the Republic of Zambia on behalf of all Zambians. On the other hand, in the freehold tenure system, individuals own the land and their heirs can inherit it though they cannot sale, transfer or assign any land without the consent of the 'kuta' which is the supreme authority and law making body of the Lozi people. In fact, in Western Province the Litunga holds the land on behalf of the people in trust.

According to Kusiyo Mbikusita-Lewanika (2000), there are five (5) land ownership types in Western Province:

(I). **Mubu –wa- Ngweshi**- this land that belongs to the Litunga and is inherited by each Litunga who accedes to the throne. This type of land is found all over Western Province. This land is entrusted to the Litunga and or his representatives for the people of Western Province. The Litunga can give or allocate this type of land to people who ask for it for various purposes such as farming or for settlement. The land is administered on behalf of the Litunga by Indunas in charge of specific natural resources, district chiefs in consultation with the area or 'silalo' Indunas.

(II). **Mubu-wa-Luu** –this land to which the District chiefs and certain Indunas and some members of the royal family have access. This land is attached to their positions in the Barotse Royal Establishment (BRE). An individual or member of their families cannot inherit this land.

(III). **Mubu-wa-bana-ba malena** – members of the royal family hold this land in trust. The land is hereditary and can be passed from one generation to another. Members of the royal family and their Indunas administer this land.

(IV). **Mubu-wa-lusika** – This is the land that belongs to the ordinary citizens of the Barotseland. It can be passed from one generation to another. Family members administer this land and its natural resources.

(V). **Mulambuwa** - This is land that is far from human settlement. There is no village or person who has claim over his land. Any person can acquire this land providing they follow laid up procedures through the silalo Indunas.

1.6 **Zambia Demography and Basic Statistics**

Zambia has a relatively small population compared to her land coverage. By 1963, Zambia's population was about 3.4 million. In 1990 Zambia's population was recorded as 7,759,169 (CSO 1980). In 2001 Zambia's population reached 10,028, 631(5070, 891males, and 5,214,780 females) according to the 2000 Census.

In 2002, Zambia's population was estimated at 11, 262, 793 (CIA World Fact book 2005) The age structure of Zambia's population is as follows: 0–14 years, 46.5 percent (males 2,626,911, females 2,609,857), 15 – 64 years, 51 percent (males 2,848,402, females 2,904,376), 65 years and above, 24 percent (males 118, 0433, females 154,206). Zambia's population growth rate is estimated at 2.12 percent while life expectancy at birth is as follows: total population: 39.7 years (males 39 – 43 years, females 39 –98 years). The total fertility rate in Zambia is 5.47 percent children born per woman (www.cia.gov/publications/factbook).

However, HIV/AIDS prevalence estimated rate at 16.5 percent is a threat to Zambia's population. By 2003, an estimated 920,000 people were said to be living with HV/AIDS while an estimated about 89,000 people have died of the epidemic since it was first detected in the early 1980s (ibid).

1.7 **Communication Network**

Zambia has got two lines of rail. The main line runs from the Victoria falls bridge in Livingstone at the border with Zimbabwe, in the south and extends to Lusaka (474 Kilometres) up to Kapiri Mposhi junction with the Zambia Tanzania Railway (TAZARA) (658Kilometre) and then to the Copperbelt (Ndola 782Km) through Kitwe to Chingola-Chilalabombwe. The second line branching from Kapiri Mposhi to Nakonde joins Zambia to Tanzania and the Indian Ocean. TAZARA is 871 kilometres long. The total rail rack is 1273 kilometres of which 856 Kilometres is the main line while the rest are branch lines (ZPA 2000).

Zambia's road network is fairly good. All the nine provinces are linked to Lusaka, the national capital. Internationally, Zambia is linked by road to Congo DR, Botswana, Namibia and Malawi. The railway line from Livingstone connects Zambia to South Africa Port of Durban. Bengwela railway, though not operational now, was meant to link Zambia to the Atlantic Ocean through the Congo DR and Angola.

Zambia has several air links with the rest of the world through a nexus of air routes operated by various airlines.

1.8 **Minerals in Zambia**

Mining, especially of copper, has been the mainstay of the economy since the 1930s. Zambia is the world's seventh largest producer of copper representing 3.3 percent of world production (African Rainbow 2005). She is also ranked second largest world producer of cobalt accounting for 19.7 percent of world production (www.zambianmining.co.zm). Other mineral reserves include selenium (about 16.7 tonnes) and silver (about tonnes) and some gold, zinc, lead and platinum group element produced as by- products of copper. By the late 1950's Zambia's copper production was in the range of 40,000 tonnes per annum, reaching its highest of 70,000 tonnes per annum in 1969 – 1976. However, by 1993, Zambia's copper production reached its lowest level of 307,000 tones per annum.

1.9 **Economy**

Copper accounts for almost 50 percent of Zambia's export earnings. For a long time copper has contributed significantly to Zambia's Gross Domestic Products (GDP).

From independence, Zambia has depended on copper as its major foreign exchange earner. However, the 1973 slump in the price of copper on world market coupled with a high rise in the price of crude oil imports due to the Arab oil embargo in 1974 resulted in the severe economic problems for Zambia (www.cia.gov/publications/factbook).

Between 1973 and 1984, Zambia's GDP in real terms fell by an average of 1.5 percent and 35 percent Gross National Product (GNP) per capita. By 1990, the GDP had declined to nearly zero (NCDP 1991). This resulted in a corresponding decline in the share of resources going to various sectors of development such as health and education.

In order to resuscitate the economy, the government embarked on a number of measures. Some of these measures included heavy borrowing of money from the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and also from other bilateral sources between 1970s and 1980s. As a result, Zambia contracted a huge external debt of about Seven billion US dollars (CIA World Fact book 2005). Zambia's inflation rate was estimated at 18.6 percent per anum.
In the year 2001, the second Movement for Multi-party Democracy (MMD) government under Levy P. Mwanawasa introduced far reaching economic and political reforms with a view to halting the continued poor performance of the economy and the grinding poverty. The measures the Government of the Republic of Zambia took include embarking on continued privatization of the mining and industrial sectors and diversification into new productive areas of the economy such as agriculture and tourism and strict fiscal management. These measures gave Zambia's economy a new lease of life.

However, these measures as can be seen from the following overview of Zambia's economy have not been sufficient to engender drastic development of the economy:

> *Zambia's economy growth remains below 5-7 percent needed to reduce poverty significantly. Privatization of Government-owned copper mines relieved government from covering mammoth losses generated by the industry and greatly improved the chances for copper mining to return to profitability and spur economic growth. Copper output increased in 2004and is expected to increase again in 2005 due to higher copper prices and the opening of new mines. Maize harvest was good in 2004 helping boost GDP and agricultural exports. Cooperation with international bodies on programs to reduce poverty, including a new lending arrangement with the IMF in the second quarter of 2004 .A tighter monetary policy will help cut inflation, but Zambia still has a serious problem with fiscal discipline* (CIA world Fact Book 2005: 6).

In 2004, Zambia's Real Gross Domestic Products (GDP) was estimated at 4 percent per annum. The GDP by sector is as follows: agriculture 44 percent, industry 28 percent and services 56.1 percent (CIA World Fact book 2005).

In December 2004, Zambia reached the completion point for the Highly Indebted Poor Countries Initiative (HIPC) of the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF). This resulted in the forgiving of most of Zambia's huge external debt. As a result, pressure was eased on the country's debt-servicing obligations, thereby increasing the strength of the kwacha against major convertible world currencies. This coupled with high cost of copper prices has resulted in reduction in inflation rates to less than 10 percent in the first quarter of 2006 (CSO 2006).

However, poor rainfall and drought conditions seriously reversed the gains that were recorded in the 2003/2004 agricultural production season in the 2004/2005 season. This significantly "reduced both cereal and non-cereal production in two–thirds of the country", reported the Zambia Vulnerability Assessment Committee (ZVAC) Report (2005:2). In particular Central, Eastern, Southern and some parts of Copperbelt and North Western provinces were the hardest hit by the dry spell. Food insecurity has further been worsened by other underlying factors such as high incidences of poverty and HIV/AIDS, malnutrition, the expected ever-sharp increases in food retail prices due to inflation and continued macro-economic decline.

The prolonged dry spells coupled with high temperatures resulted in partial and in some cases complete crop failure. Of the 17 assessed "food economy zones" crop failure was in the range of 40 to 90 percent. In an assessment by a consortium of International Non-Governmental Organizations of 20 districts including Mongu, 93 percent of households were reported to be in a severe food shortage (ZVAC 2005). In a Rapid Food Assessment in Mongu District by Concern Worldwide in July 2005 on the effects of drought on food security among 455 households in 6 agricultural blocks, the respondents' perception of availability of food revealed as follows:

> *The own production deficit gap as perceived by respondent in Ushaa, followed by Kaama then Imalyo blocks. The deficit periods (little or no food) ranged from 4-5 months (from September to January for those with wetland crops in all the blocks; with a period of 2-3(critical months being October to December) when households cannot depend on their own production in terms of staple food and hence have to depend on other food sources.*

Generally, this meant that many households affected by the drought in Mongu were in a dire need of food shortage to sustain them from September 2005 to about April 2006 when they would have harvested. This situation means that households are unable to meet their daily nutritional requirements. The most hit groups of people are female-headed households looking after the chronically ill, breastfeeding mothers, school-going children and the aged. So, to avert hunger, the Government and other Non-Governmental Organizations responded by giving out relief food

Government and other non-governmental organizations' response has tended to be conditioned by their initial entry to the area as a disaster inflicted zone instead of finding ways of improving food security. In fact, in other instances, some development agencies have responded by directly having a disaster component in their programming to deal with the disaster. Ndiyoi (2005:1) observed that the "analysis that has led to responses hitherto has been weak and responses have largely been focussed on relief or food first view of household food security." It is for this reason that there is a need to gain an in-depth understanding of the underlying structural and social relationship between the disaster and the social protection responses to the food shortage and hunger in Western Province and Mongu in particular.

1.10 **Statement of the Problem**

The main concern of this study is that Participatory Communication is not used as the basis for involving communities in promoting school health and nutrition and in addressing issues of food self-sustainability in the community in the School Feeding Programme. In fact, efforts aimed at addressing these issues take an adhoc approach at the expense of addressing the underlying causes of the problem.

Historically, at independence the Government of Zambia embarked on a very ambitious quantitative expansion of school system by building more schools and classrooms in both primary and secondary sectors. In addition, efforts were made to improve the quality of children in some day schools in Lusaka and other urban areas by providing them with milk supplements. However, most efforts aimed at meeting feeding requirements of children in schools were concentrated on supplying foodstuffs to boarding Secondary schools.

By the 1990s, poor economic performance coupled with high prevalence of HIV/AIDS in droughts prone areas in most SADC countries including Zambia, resulted in less emphasis being placed on matters of school children's health and nutrition. Thus, UNICEF (2004:1) observed a "slow national trend of improvement in nutrition across the sub-region in the 1990s ceased and after some worsening starting in the 90s, deteriorated sharply with drought in high HIV/AIDS prevalence areas."

Food shortages are becoming widespread among households in Zambia. According to the 2000-2002 Zambia Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS), 19 percent of households in Zambia seldom have enough to eat and are chronically food insecure. As a result, Zambia has one of the highest stunting rates of under five children of 47 percent. Furthermore, 45 percent of households in Zambia experience transitory food insecurity and only sometimes do they have something to eat.

Food insecurity coupled with a high incidence of poverty in Zambia has exacerbated malnutrition among children and affects their classroom performance. According to Ministry of Education (2002) serious problems related to health and nutrition factors account for some children's inability to learn and perform complex tasks in school. In addition, poor health and nutrition increase disease prevalence and results in low school attendance rates, less motivation to learn, delayed low enrolment, same grade repetition and dropout.

In the 2004/2005 agriculture farming season, Zambia experienced prolonged dry spell resulting 45,291 people in 20 districts being under an eminent threat of severe hunger (ZINGO 2005). Hence, school attendance especially in rural areas started declining and in some cases children abandoned school and accompanied their parents in search of food. In fishing areas, school children left school to engage in fishing and fish trading. Against this background, Project Concern International (Zambia) in collaboration with the Ministry of Education designed and implemented a School Feeding Programme in community schools in Mongu district to cater for about 7000 children in 32 community schools. The aim of the programme is to help mitigate the effects of hunger and food shortages among households, improve quality of education, increase school attendance and generally create a good environment for children in community schools.

1.11 **Rationale of the Study**

The study is significant for various reasons. Firstly, food insecurity in the households and the community affects the health and nutrition status of school-going children. The health and nutrition of school going children is of great importance to the quality of learning, retention and progression. Thus, if children come to school from homes that are prone to hunger and food shortage, chances of them to attend school regularly and to effectively learn are minimal.

Food shortage affects the health and nutrition of a large section of the Zambian population. Children of school-going children (0-14 years) make up 46.5 percent of Zambia's population (CIA Fact book 2005). Hence, unless the health and nutritional needs of this large section of the population are met, they will not be able to benefit from the resources Government is providing to meet their physical, intellectual and social potential. It is for this reason that The Government of Zambia through the Ministry of Education in collaboration with non-governmental development organizations and the local community are also interested in addressing the underlying structural causes of chronic food insecurity.

At the time of writing, trends indicate that there is a shift from seasonal to chronic food insecurity in some communities in Zambian such as Mongu. Therefore, there is need to find ways in which the various interventions development agencies responding either directly to disasters by providing handouts or by having a disaster component in their programming could help address the underlying structural and social causes of food insecurity (Ndiyoi 2005). Hence, this study will attempt to give an in-depth understanding of the underlying relationship between disaster and social protection responses to the food shortage and hunger in Western Province and Mongu in particular.

This study is important in that it attempts to identify ways in which participatory communication can enhance community participation in implementing school and nutrition programmes. Schools and communities are dependent on each other. Hence, hunger and food shortages affect both the school and the community. This is because "the school cannot become an island in the midst of the community ... the school must enrich the community and the community must support the school," observed Kochhar (2003:370). So, school-community

partnerships are important to solve problems that affect the health and nutrition of school children by finding ways teachers, community groups and pupils can share information.

The importance of this study is that it focuses on the need to involve the local community in problems that affect the school. This is because schools cannot claim the monopoly of being able to solve all their problems on their own. In some cases where the school may lack certain expertise, skills and knowledge, the local community could be better placed to understand problems, needs and their underlying causes and also identify potentials available in their communities to solve them. UNESCO (2000:15) argued that "whatever may be technical expertise and skill that will be required in order to generate and implement, such a plan will be more effective if it is grounded on broad-based partnership, the participation of the stake holders, transparent and democratic process." Community members should be involved in project identification and implementation for sustainable development and also involvement of parents in school programmes can bring about everlasting impact, support and to enhance sense of ownership. Hence, this study tries to identify ways participatory communication can bring this about.

To achieve any purpose, communication is very important. Development workers can benefit from both group and mass communication networks that exist in rural communities especially which people use for mobilization, education, entertainment and cultural social activities that are open to development agents (James 1994:329-340). It is through the use of such networks that communities can be rallied to participate in the resolution of their own problems. If these communication networks are fully exploited, it can lead to resources being channelled to the and right targets and the inclusion of all groups in the community.

The use of participatory communication can help address the underlying structural causes of chronic food insecurity large sections of the Zambian population face in meeting their daily nutritional requirements needed for a healthy life to be able to reach their fill physical, intellectual or health potential. Ensuring good health of school going children can help boost school attendance and educational attainment. This in turn brings about creation of high quality human resources for Zambia's social and economic development

1.12 **Aim / Goal**

To assess the extent to which the community is involved in the design and implementation of School Health and Nutrition Programmes using participatory communication development tools.

1.13 **Objectives**

The research objectives are to:

(i). Establish if the local community and the School are involved in the planning, formulating and the implementing School Feeding Programme activities.

(ii). Identify communication strategies used in the coordination and implementation of School Health and Nutrition.

(iii). Suggest solutions to the communication difficulties in the implementation and coordination of School Feeding Programme.

1.14 Research Questions

The following are the questions that this study seeks to answer:

1. To what extent is Participatory Communication used as the basis for identifying, formulating, implementing and coordinating School Feeding Programme at school level?

2. What kind of communication exists between Ministry of Education (PCI/ MoE) and the local community in promoting nutrition/health activities at the school level?

Chapter 2

Methodology

2.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methods and sampling procedures the researcher used in collecting data, and also explains how the data was analysed. In this study both qualitative and quantitative methods have been used to provide an in–depth understanding of the views of stakeholders on the community's participation in solving issues of school-going children's health and nutrition .

A multiple of methods and sources of information or triangulation has been used in the collection of data. The purpose of triangulation is "to increase the reliability of the observation," noted White (2005:90). Hence, when multiple methods and sources of information are used it helps evaluate and support the researcher's conclusion fully.

2.1 Research methods

The following are the research methods that have been used in this study to collect data: Quantitative Survey, In-depth interview and Participant Observation.

2.1.1 Quantitative Survey

A quantitative survey was conducted for the purpose of collecting information on how the School Feeding Programme involves the stakeholders in the planning and implementation of school-based programme. 100 questionnaires were administered in ten community schools by the researcher. Questionnaires were chosen for their ability to collect large amounts of information.

2.1.2 **In-depth Interviews**

The researcher conducted in-depth interviews with the planners and implementers of School Feeding Programme at Ministry of Education in Mongu District and Project Concern International officials involved in the implementation of the programme in the district. The purpose of using in-depth interviews was to allow for follow-up and detailed clarification on various issues that emerged in the process of data collection and to accord the researcher a well rounded understanding of the programme.

2.1.3 **Participant Observation**

The researcher was privileged to have practical attachment experience at the Ministry of Education, Mongu District Education Board Secretary's Office for three (3) months from 15th March to 20th May 2006. The purpose of this attachment was for the researcher to acquire deep understanding of how the programme activities are implemented.

2.2 **Sampling Procedures.**

In this study, non probabilistic purposeful sampling procedures were used because the programme is implemented in 32 community schools in Mongu District. Of the 32 community schools in Mongu, 10 were conveniently chosen by the researcher for their location and social demographics.

The population sample used in this study include Ministry of Education officials involved in the in the planning and implementation of school based programmes at Mongu District Education Board Secretary's Office at the district level. At the school level, school heads, teachers, school-going children, parents and community leaders were sampled in this study.

Two sets of 100 questionnaires were administered by the researcher. The first set was administered to head teachers, teachers, parents, community leaders and another set was specifically for school-going children. Out of the 32 community schools in Mongu, questionnaires were administered in 10 of them. These were distributed as follows: in each of the 10 community schools, a minimum of 2 and maximum of 3 head teachers/School teachers were interviewed by the researcher. Similarly, 2 to 3 parents/community leaders involved in the programmes by way of preparing food for the children were also interviewed separately and individually. In all, 50 respondents in this category were able to provide data for this study. These respondents were chosen by the interviewer because they were not only available and willing to participate in the study, but also that they are practically involved in the activities of the programme in the school.

Another 50 respondents comprising school-children registered and present pupils on the day of each visit in each of the 10 community schools were interviewed using a questionnaire that was specifically designed for this category of respondents. In each of the schools, the respondents were both boys and girls were conveniently chosen by the researcher on the basis of their willing to respond to the interview study.

In-depth interviews were conducted with officials from Project Concern International and Ministry of Education involved in the planning and implementation of School Feeding Programme. The above sample has been chosen in view of time and cost factors involved in the collecting of data and the compilation of the report of at least five months.

2.3 **Data Analysis**

In this study both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were used. Hence, data analysis was equally multidimensional.

The questionnaires used for the quantitative survey were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software. The in-depth interviews were analysed qualitatively depending on the responses from the respondents. Later, the researcher was able to make inferences and conclusions of the views. Direct observations and visitations of various sampled community schools enabled the researcher to have access to information directly and then make analysis possible.

2.4 **Limitations of the Study**

The School Feeding Programme is not the core responsibility of the Ministry of Education and so it is run as one of its minor activities. Hence, the researcher did not have enough time to observe and collect data on all the activities of the programme. It is only when matters relating to the programme arise or in the course of implementing other activities of teaching and learning that the Ministry of Education attends to matters of the School Feeding Programme. Therefore, the researcher had to collect data through the other above mentioned methods for triangulation. The researcher would have gained more information if he was involved on working on the programme as a full time member of staff than was the case.

This study was conduct over a period of five months. For this reason, the researcher had to divide time between collecting data and compiling the report. Hence, the duration of data collection and compilation is a limiting factor on the results of the study.

Chapter 3

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

3.0. Introduction

This chapter outlines conceptual and operational definitions used in the study. It also discusses communication and the theories of Participatory Communication, Diffusion of Innovation Social Marketing which are related to this study.

3.1 *Conceptual and Operational Definitions*

For the purpose of this study, the following concepts are defined and operationalised:

School-going children - children enrolled in a school as pupils in the lower or upper primary stages from 6 years to 14 years of age. Operationally, these are determined by being enrolled for regular school attendance in formal classroom settings

School-Based Programme - Supplementary feeding, de-worming and parasitic infection treatment activities carried out in a basic school. Operationally, these are determined by being enrolled for regular school attendance in formal classroom settings.

School Feeding Programme - feeding, de-worming and parasitic intervention initiated by the Project Concern International (PCI) in collaboration with the Ministry of Education.

Planning and implementing officials- refers to staff from Project Concern International and the Ministry of Education, at district levels directly involved in the implementation of the School Feeding Programme activities.

School based implementers - officials in charge of carrying out School Feeding Programme activities at school level.

Stakeholders- are parents -Non-Governmental organizations, community and traditional leaders working with school based implementers to carry out School Feeding Programme activities in a school. Stakeholders are known through their stated objectives and attendance to issues to do with the school Feeding Programmes issues through meetings and other contributions

Communication – A process by which schools, community and Project Concern international and the Ministry of Education staff share and exchange information, ideas and opinions through speech, pictures, and other symbols. It is also the process by which school going children, and stakeholders are able to get information to fulfil their needs from School Feeding Programme implementers, school implementers, and other individuals in the community and from the mass media.

Mass media - refers to communication media such as radio, television, newspapers, pamphlets, magazines, posters and brochures.

Participations - involving people in the activities of personal as well as community well -being. Participation is determined by involvement of the beneficiaries in the genesis, research, planning, implementing and evaluation of development agendas.

Participatory communication – a social process in which the programme designers and the target beneficiaries dialogue to resolve a situation negatively affecting the community. Operationally, participatory communication involves the programme designers engaging beneficiaries at problem identification, designing/formulation, implementation and evaluation.

3.2 Participatory Communication

In order to understand the concept of participatory communication it is important to first understand the two words, communication and participation.

3.2.1 What is Communication?

Communication is a concept that has been defined variously by many scholars in different disciplines and contexts. Whatever the field or the context, communication denotes sharing of meanings, ideas, and information. Communication is a human phenomenon used to facilitate achievement of particular goals.

By origin, the words 'communication' and 'community' come from the same root. Bella Mody (1991: 240) explained that

> *communication comes from the Latin word 'communis' which means common. The word 'community' comes from the same Latin word. The aim of 'communication' as an outcome is to 'make common', to share. Communication is achieved then when the sender and the receiver hold meaning in common, that is, when the meaning the sender wanted to share is identical ('isomorphic' with) to the meaning the audience receives.*

From this definition, communication implies reprocity of meaning between the sender and source of information, idea or feelings and the receiver or the destination of the message. For communication to take place, it is important to understand the meaning the sender intends to achieve.

Communication is transaction process of ideas and information between the sender and the receiver. The sender does not simply put ideas into words and send the words to the receiver who receives the ideas or information in a passive way. Communication is a two-way process which can only be said to be successful if the receiver is able to discern meaning out of the words (Geoff Barton 1997). In this way communication is said to be a transaction of meaning between the sender and the receiver.

The communication process is about both transaction of meaning between participants and being modified in a way that is acceptable to both the receiver and the sender's disposition. James Nehiley (1997:2) wrote: "in addition to adopting the message to the attitude of the receiver, the sender has to send the message where it will be successful with the reader and the receiver". This means that the development agent needs to plan his communication in such a way that it is both culturally acceptable to the target audience and that the communicator and the medium are matched.

Riaño Pillar (1991: 240) saw 'communication' and 'community' as being closely interwoven. This is because communication is a "social system of shared symbols and meaning, communication binds people together into a group, a community or a culture." Communication builds communities if they are able to share the message and identify with it as representing the fears, hopes and culture.

When communication effectively brings about shared meaning and understanding in a community, it can help promote diffusion of new ideas, or innovations (Rogers 1995:5). Communication can help in the effective diffusion of ideas in societies where people find themselves in Homophilous or similar circumstances; and not where they belong to hetrophilous to different conditions and contexts.

There are various levels of communication depending on the individuals involved in the process. Ludlow and Panton (2000) cited the following types and levels of communication:

(a). Interpersonal communication - is the sharing of ideas between two or more persons. In this type of communication, there is almost immediate feedback because communication is usually on face-to-face basis;

(b). Intrapersonal communication – is the kind of communication that takes place with/within oneself;

(c). Group communication – this is the type of communication in which different groups of people communicate with one another according to the set rules;

(d). Mass Communication – is communication disseminated to a large and anonymous audience at the same time from a mass medium at the same time; and,

(e). Intercultural Communication - The sharing of the environment between people of different cultures.

3.2.2 **Participation**

The word "Participation' comes from a Latin root, 'participare' which means 'to share in'. The word 'participation' literally means 'to take part in'. Participation means to take an active role in an activity, or share in an activity or event.

According to Servaes (1996:110) participation:

> *...is not simply 'communicating', neither is participation mere 'doing.' It is not the behavioural response to a persuasive, at times coercive stimulus. Participation is not t simply bodily presence at community meetings, nor can it be construed as a chance to tick a voting a ballot every few years. Participation is not simply access to mass media controlled by the urban elite and bureaucratic vested interests.*

From the above, participation is not a mere cosmetic concept. Participation is a contextually defined according to the situation. Participation involves equality in both action and in one's attitude.

Participation is recognition of the knowledge, abilities and experiences of the intended development beneficiaries. Central to participation is mutual interactive, collective and negotiated approach to problem identification and solving leading to sustainable human development. According to Stan Burky (2002: 35), sustainable development "takes place through working with others, acquiring new skills and knowledge and active participation in economic, social and political development of their community". Thus, participation can only lead to sustainable development if beneficiaries of Programmes themselves are able to identify their own problems and work towards activities and strategies leading to their resolution.

There are several types of participation. Peruzzo in Servaes (1996: 169 – 170) has identified the following:

(i). Non-participation _this is seen when there is delegating of power to others so that they can legislate, decide and administer in every one's name;

(ii). Controlled participation - happens within certain limits. It is limited and can be manipulated, i.e. when the target adopters are pressurized to participate; and,

(iii). Power participation – promotes democratic, authentic, autonomous participation that best facilitates people's growth as individuals. Here exercise of power is shared. It is neither passive nor manipulated.

Furthermore, Unreferenced Town Planning Journal (1996:1) said that there are eight (8) types of participation broken down into three main categories:

(i) Manipulation and Therapy - constitutes the first type known as non-participation. In this type of participation, the people participate only as they have been directed to.

(ii) Informing, consultation and placation - is the second type of participation called token participation. This is the type of participation where a development agent just informs a community on what to do and the people follow. In fact, in placation, for example people taking part in a demonstration march carrying placards, type of participation, people are involved in an activity without understanding the cause they are marching for.

(iii) Partnership, delegated power and citizen control - is the third type of participation. This is also known as real participation. An example of delegated power is that given to parliamentarians. Citizen control is where the people initiate and discuss a project. The role of a development agent in this case is only to listen and facilitate the development process.

3.3 **Participatory Communication**

From the two words, 'participation' and 'communication' participatory communication implies taking part in an event or an activity and sharing in it. Participatory communication, according Bella Mody (1990: 30), is "the social process in which groups with common interests jointly construct a message oriented to the improvement of their existential situation and to the change of unjust social structure". This definition comes from a realization of governments' failure to meet the needs of people. As resulted, people live in perpetual crumpled and inhuman conditions such as poverty, hunger and disease. Hence, Bella Mody (1990)'s definition of participatory communication points to people taking actions on their own to improve their living conditions.

According to a UNESCO Report of 1977 meeting held in Belgrade, Yugoslavia, participatory communication was defined in Servaes (1996: 18) as:

1. Access - refers to the use of the media for public service opportunities available to the public;
2. Participation - refers to a higher level of public involvement in communication system, i.e. in the production process, management and planning of communication; and,
3. Consultation - looks at the representation and consultation of the public in decision-making.

The UNESCO report looks at the public as an important concern of institutions. In other words, institutions and organization should always be mindful of the fact that people are in fact the reason they exist for.

According to Bella Mody (1990) government machinery such as the military, judiciary, police and mass media have always been used as instruments of dominance. Hence, she calls for solidarity with the poor in order to promote justice for the poor. In order to transform the oppressive system to start working better for the poor, participatory decision-making process need to be created. So, in order to build individual and national consensus, participatory communication or dialogue according to Bella Mody (1990) can be at three levels: -

(a) With groups of people with homogenous needs;

(b) Between groups of people that deal with different needs; and,

(c) Between the public and planners (government agencies, private voluntary organizations) claiming to meet the needs of the poor.

Therefore, in programmes or activities that involve the school, it is important that the community is involved in the formulation, implementation and evaluation. This view is ably amplified in the following statement of the United Nations Education and Scientific Organization (UNESCO) *Dakar Declaration on Education for All*:

> *Whatever may be technical expertise and skills that may be required in order to generate and implement a national educational plan, the message from Dakar is clear: such a plan will be more effective if it is grounded upon broad-based partnerships, the participation of stakeholders, transparent and democratic process, and mechanisms and democratic processes and mechanisms that grantee greater accountability* (UNESCO 2000:15).

It is important for development Programmes such as the school Feeding programme to have mechanism of enhancing community participation.

However, most frequently, programmes and activities initiated by outside development organizations and government agencies tend to be ill equipped with participatory tools. Cernia (1994:15) observed that "participatory approaches within the sector programmes are hampered by lack of methods and processes for organizing such participation." This inadequacy in most cases is a result of lack of adequately trained personnel and sometimes the mere sheer perception that professionals have the necessary skills and knowledge to undertake such projects effectively without delays.

At a higher level, participatory communication advocates for grassroots participation. According to Riaño Pillar (1994: xvii) grassroots participation is education for liberation that "help the poor and under privileged acquire a critical understanding of the social reality." In this way decision made are such that they involve those who face the consequences of the decisions. The role of government and non-governmental organizations is to initiate dialogue with the target group and let the target groups jointly agree on the course of action with their help.

Paulo Freire (1992) a prominent scholar and a strongly committed advocate for the cause of participatory communication stated, "Subjugated people must be treated as full human subjects." Respect for all human being is central to Freire's advocacy. Freire looks at participatory communications or dialogue as liberation or emancipation of all the people and not simply a preserve of a few privileged ones. Furthermore, Freire (1992) strongly feels that participation can lead to empowerment of people's lives socially, economically, politically or even culturally.

Paulo Freire (1992: 76) wrote: "no one can say a true word alone, nor can we say it for another in a prescriptive act which robs others of their words". Participatory communication is one in which groups are encouraged to share information, knowledge, trust or commitment in order to develop. This can only be achieved with a right attitude and a critical understanding of people's real needs. No right solution will be given to address people's situation if they are not involved in identification, formulation and implementation of development projects.

According to the above approaches to participatory communication it is clear that participation is an important ingredient in fostering meaningful development. It brings about empowerment of the people; helps bring about self-esteem and self-reliance. For development to occur there is need for people's active involvement in the process. Communication also plays an important role in resolving problems. In order to get people involved in resolving their problems, participatory communication is important. According to Bella Mody (1990), it is only when people with common interests and problems come together in a social process and work together that these can be solved. To achieve this people can only participate actively when they have the right and correct information.

In cases where the beneficiaries of development are not willingly taken on board, especially where authorities from outside use their positions and material advantage, chances of sustainable and meaningful development arising is very limited. This is ably articulated in Cornea's (1994:3) words:

> *It is clear that no administration decree can automatically induce farmers to participate in the execution of investment programme if they do not recognize their own interest in such programmes. No participatory approaches can evolve in a sanitized executive office away from the communities for which it is destined, and then imposed from on high*

From the above, it can be said that development programmes need to be conceived and formulated by the local people themselves if they are going to lead to meaningful and sustainable development.

Pillar Riaño (1994: iv) saw participatory communication as "active involvement in a community or group using media or group communication to produce their own message and to engage audiences in critical reception." Thus, participatory communication involves use both mass media of other non-traditional media such as folk stories, proverb, drama or local symbols providing they help effectively involve people in the development process. Participatory communication occurs in real social contexts and situations. These social processes and contexts include health, educational, agricultural or political actions, for example. It is only in levels of participation in these processes that participatory communication differs.

For social change to occur effectively using participatory communication, mass media needs interpersonal support. Jan Servaes (1996), for instance pointed out that in a family planning communication campaign use of posters, pamphlets, radio and television is not enough to persuade people to accept birth control methods. Interpersonal communication sources of information such as peer education, drama and personal presentation and contacts are necessary to bring about social behaviour and attitude change and sustain it.

3.4 **The Theory of Diffusion of Innovations**

There are various reasons why new ideas spread effectively in one situation but not in another. Diffusion of innovations is the process by which new ideas or innovations such as technologies, values or practices are spread. Everett Rogers (1986) is the main proponent of this theory of social change in a given society as a result of the introduction (diffusion) of innovation from another society.

Diffusionism as an anthropological school of thought, "was an attempt to understand the nature of culture in terms of culture traits and their spread from one society to another," explained Winthrop (1991:83). There are three versions of Diffusionism that have been very influential over the years. One version, heliocentric, posits that all cultures originated from one culture centre. A second version, culture centres, on the other hand postitulates that cultures have their origin from a limited number of cultures. The third one is a view that each society is influenced by others but that the process of diffusion is both contingent and arbitrary.

Diffusionism, according to Rogers (1995:41), "was a point of view in anthropology that explained social change in a given society as a result of the introduction (diffusion) of innovation from another society." In other words, diffusion of innovations or diffusionism is a theory that analyses as well as explains the adoption of new innovations. This theory helps explain the process of social change.

Various scholars have attempted to define diffusion in more or less the same way. Titiev (1959) defined diffusion of innovation as simply the spread of a cultural item from its place of origin to another place. Winthrop (1991) said diffusion is a process by which discrete cultural traits are transferred from one society to another through migration, trade, war or other contact. Rogers (1995) added that diffusion is the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among members of a social system. In all these definitions, it is evident that diffusion has the spreading of an innovation from one society to another at its core.

A social system is a "set of interrelated units engaged in joint problem to accomplish a common goal" (Rogers and Scott1997:8). Members of a social system include individuals, informal groups and organisations. The social system makes up boundaries within which an innovation is spread.

Rogers (1962 :) saw diffusion process as "the spread of new ideas from its source of innovation to its ultimate users or adopters." Diffusion first occurs at individual level then at societal level. The adoption process as it pertains to an individual happens as a mental process through which an individual passes from hearing about an innovation to its final adoption. Then at society level, the diffusion process can be seen when occurring within a society as a group process.

An innovation, according to Rogers (1995), can be said to be an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or a group of individuals. Further, the perceived newness of the innovation by the individual determines his/her reaction to it. There are four (4) main factors/ elements of diffusion of innovation: innovation, communication channel, time and the social system. Diffusion is a special type of communication concerned with the spread of messages that are perceived as new.

The first element of diffusion of innovations is innovation. As already alluded to; an innovation is an idea, practice or object that is perceived as being new by an individual or other unit of adoption (Rogers and Scott 1997). The following are the characteristics that determine the rate of its adoption: relative advantage, comparability, complexity, triability and observability (ibid).

By relative advantage, we refer to the degree to which an innovation is seen as being better than one before it. Comparability is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being consistent with the existing values, past experiences and the needs of the potential adopters. Complexity is the degree to which an innovation is seen as difficult to understand or to use. Triability refers to the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis. Last, observability is the degree to which the results of the innovation can be visible to others. Thus, innovations that are perceived by individuals as being of greater relative

advantage, comparability, triability and observability will be adopted more rapidly than those seen otherwise.

The second element of diffusionism is communication channel. This refers to the "means by which messages get from one individual to another," explained Rogers and Scott (1997:7). Mass media channels such as radio and television are more effective in creating awareness of the innovation. Interpersonal channels of communication are more effective in forming and changing attitudes towards an idea or practice or value, and in the process of influencing the decision to adopt or reject it.

The third element in the diffusion of innovation is time. There are three time factors namely: innovation decision-process, relative time with which an innovation is adopted by an individual or group and innovation rate of adoption (www.ciadvertising.org/studies). Innovation decision process is the mental process through which an individual or group passes from first knowledge of the innovation to forming an attitude whether to adopt or reject, to implement the new idea and to the confirmation of the decision. Second, innovativeness refers to an individual or group's degree to which they are relatively earlier in adoption new ideas or than other members of the social system. Third the way in which time is involved in diffusion is in the rate of adoption, which is the relative speed with by members of the social system adopt an invocation.

The theory of Diffusionism recognizes five (5) types of participants: Innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards, observed Carr (2005). Innovators are those who tend to be experimentalists and are interested in new inventions. Early adopters are classified as those who may be technically sophisticated and interested in new innovations for solving academic and professional problems. The Early majority group are those who are pragmatists and constitute the first part of the main stream of society. The Late majority group tends to be less comfortable with innovations and the sceptical second half of the main stream. The laggards are those who may not adopt the innovation and may be antagonistic and critical of its use or adoption. The distribution of these groups within an adopter population typically follows the familiar bell-shaped curve.

3.5 **Social Marketing Theory**

Communication is a critical tool that can be used to bring about social change. In this connection, in order to achieve the dissemination and eventual adoption of development innovations, development workers use the social marketing theory. Social marketing draws from commercial marketing techniques to convey information by listening to the needs and the desires of the target audience themselves and then develop and build a development programme from there. Social marketing implies the use of communication techniques, principles and the media to raise people's awareness of their own situation and the options they have at their disposal for activities involving change.

Social marketing as a field emerged in the 1970s and is a brain child of Philip Kotler and Gerald Zaltman (Weinreich 1996). It was these scholars who realized that principles of commercial marketing could be used to sell ideas, attitudes and behaviours. However, unlike commercial marketing whose core aim is to bring benefits to the marketer and his business concern, social marketing aims at influencing social behaviours to the benefit of the target audience and society in general. For example, in the school health and nutrition programmes, social marketing is important in order to draw people's awareness to health problems related to nutritional deficiencies that hinder children's performance in school.

Social Marketing, also sometimes known as Communication for Development, aims at helping communities to resolve social conflicts and working together to reach a consensus. According to Bella Mody (1990: 30), this is "a social process in which communities with common interests and problems jointly design messages oriented to the improvement of their social existential situation and to change unjust social system." Thus, it is only when communities sit together and be able to discuss their situation that they can solve problems that they face.

Participatory Communication for Development is multi-media in nature because it is open to use of any media for as long as it is orderly accessed and allows for broad community participation. In communication for development, people are assisted in planning activities and sustainable development so that they are aware of the knowledge needed to improve their living conditions as well as the effectiveness of their government. Social marketing should be seen as "a process in which all the intended beneficiaries organise themselves in groups to solve problems they have in common, gaining access to information and resources they need, and learning to manage them effectively" (Makonbe 1996: 12). This helps enhance sense of ownership of the project and perceiving it as a necessary vehicle in improving their well-being.

According to Farag Elkamel (1986), social marketing implies professionalism, skill and effectiveness of marketing used to make available, advocate and promote products beneficial to society. These products can be family planning, immunization programmes, child health and survival, just to enumerate a few.

Social marketing involves designing and implementing four basic elements known as the "four Ps" namely product, price, promotion and place. These elements are also known as the "marketing mix". Products can be material items, ideas, beliefs or patterns of thinking (Farag Elkamel 1986). However, there is a subtle, difference between social marketing and commercial marketing. Basically, commercial marketing aims at persuading the target audience that a particular product is better than the other. On the other hand, social marketing aims at motivating and educating the target audience of ways to identify and solve their problems.

Farag Elkamel (1986) lists the following differences between commercial marketing and social marketing:

1. **PRODUCT**

In commercial marketing, the product is usually a material object to be sold.

Social marketing product may be material such as condoms, but often it is non material such services such medical examination, practices like breastfeeding or even intangible ideas such as environmental protection.

2. **PRICE**

Price is basically monetary. Commercial marketing's aim is to convince the target audience to buy their product and not a competing product.

Social marketing, price may be monetary such as price of Oral Rehydration Salt (ORS). However, it may be very low and affordable by almost everyone; it can also be non-monetary such as effort of taking a child for immunization, or even the boldness to go Voluntary Counselling and testing (VCT) in the case of HIV/AIDS.

3. **PROFIT**

Commercial marketers sell product in order to make profits.

In social marketing, profit in terms of monetary revenue is usually either non-existent or marginal. However, some programmes may be obliged to achieve a certain level of cost recovery. Specific profits are for the individuals and society. Some, which may be actually monetary, but can also be non-monetary outputs such as improve health for the individual and the community.

4. **PLACE**

Place refers to the way the product reaches the target audience. In case of a material object, this the distribution system including warehouse, trucks, sales force or retail outlets the product is sold or given out from. If it is an intangible product it refers to decisions about the channels through which the information or training to reach the consumer.

5. **PROMOTION**

Promotion consists of the integrated use of advertising, public relations, promotions, media advocacy personal selling and entertainment vehicles. Commercial marketing dedicates a big part of its budget to promotion as they have abundant resources at their disposal.

Social marketing usually does not have huge resources to spend on promotion but may rely on donated air or advertising spaces from corporate entities.

6. **COMPETITION**

Commercial marketers and manufacturers compete against each other for shares of the same market.

Social marketing views similar products as complementary and not competitive.

7. **CREATING DEMAND**

Targeted consumers for most typical commercial marketing are middle or upper class people who have money to spend.

In Social marketing, all socio-economic groups may be targeted for development communication programs; quite often the poor, rural and illiterate are the primary target audience

8. **EQUAL DISTRIBUTION OF KNOWLEDGE**

Commercial marketing does not concern itself with issues of 'information effect gap.'

Social marketing is concerned with equal distribution of information and services.

9. **IMPORTANCE OF CORRECT INFORMATION**

In commercial marketing, emotional appeals and sometimes twisting of facts are used to persuade consumers to buy a particular brand over the other.

Social marketing products differ very much from competitive ones, one is basically good and the other is bad (e.g. vaccination vs. none). Emphasis is correct information.

10. **IS MORE INFORMATION BETTER?**

In commercial marketing, if many consumers knew that most competitive products do not fundamentally differ from one another, they would not have strong preferences for particular ones.

In Social marketing, if consumers knew exactly how the advocated social products differ from competitor products, and if the advantages are made known to them, they would prefer the social marketing products.

11. MAGNITUDE OF CHANGE

Commercial marketing is about behavioural 'modifications' and tries to convince consumers already using a particular brand to replace it with a seeming better one.

Social marketing is about behavioural 'change'

12. WHOSE INTEREST ARE PRIMARY

Commercial marketers serve the interests of manufacturers rather than the consumers.

Social marketers truly serve the public interest, and not of a manufacturers.

13. RESOURCES

Commercial marketing efforts enjoy huge financial support for advertising activities.

Social marketing programs have limited resources for their activities. Several are available for a relatively short period of time. Advertising spaces and airtime is usually donated or for reduced rates.

Chapter 4

Literature Review

4.0 Introduction

In this chapter, several various studies and works on school health and nutrition and participatory communication will be reviewed.

4.1 History of School Health and Nutrition in Zambia

There are a number of studies that have been carried out on health and nutrition of school-going children in Zambia. However, none of such studies have focused on the role of participatory communication in promoting community involvement in health and nutrition well being of children at school- based level.

The Government of the Republic of Zambia has over the years been concerned with efforts to make children active partners in the learning process through a number of interventions. There are a number of factors that influence a child's active learning. Levinger (1992) in Kelly (1999:318) wrote: "these include nutrition status, health status, social economic status, degree of parental stimulation and the overall quality of home and school environment." Efforts to improve child quality are largely done through micronutrient supplementation, discovery programmes, early childhood interventions and provision of school meals or snacks.

The trend of improving of education reforms can be traced to three distinctive phases (Kelly 1999). Phase one occurred in 1950s and 1960s; it was characterized by construction of schools across the country. In fact, this period was referred to as the wave of education development. The second wave of development came in the 1960s. It was characterised by teacher training and curriculum reform. During this period, radio and television were identified as important in solving the many problems the education sector was facing. The 1970s and 1980s ushered in broad educational reforms in Zambia aimed at using education as a channel for national development. Large numbers of children entered the school system during this period. However, many of these, especially from the poor families, continued to dropout of the school

system because of a number of reasons. One of the reasons was that the national economy started shrinking but the demand for school places kept on rising due to the population increase.

The third wave of education development emphasised improving child quality under what was referred to as Active Learning Child (ALC). It was in the 1990s that ALC became part of the drive to improve education. According to Levinger (1992:4), these "effort to improve child quality and ALC... addresses some of the underlying causes of unsatisfactory school achievement and curriculum reform." It was at this time that the issues of school-going children's health and nutrition came to be considered as an important factor in the development of the school system.

Levinger(1992:4) explained that a child's health or nutrition status "refers to current and prior bouts of Protein Energy Malnutrition (PEM), micronutrients deficiency disorders, sensory impairment(particularly vision and hearing), helminthe, and other psychically and mentally handicapping conditions to interacting with and taking optimal advantage of learning resources and opportunities." Deficiencies in nutrients, infections, and handicaps related to the above have been found to result in most children in Zambia failing to become active learners.

Child mortality rates of children admitted to hospital as a result of malnutrition had been increasing in Zambia since 1975. According to a UNICEF (1986) *Structural Analysis of Children and Mothers in Zambia*, malnutrition of up to one-third (1/3) of children under the age of five was more prevalent especially in some rural areas. The highest incidences were recorded in Luapula, Northern and North Western province. By the 1980 – 85, Western, Southern and Central Provinces had recorded increase in malnutrition rates. This was largely due to effects of droughts.

In the 1980s, deterioration in the nutrition situation in Zambia was attributed to "a complex of factors including a continuing decline in economic conditions, rapid inflation, deteriorating city rural-urban terms of trade, population increase, urbanization, and drought conditions affecting areas of the country" (UNICEF 1986:58). As a result, there is high mortality rates due malnutrition as an underlying factor of death. So, malnutrition started becoming a serious health problem in Zambia.

Studies in the 1990s showed that Protein – Energy Malnutrition (PEM) as a result of lacking protein and calorific foods was very high especially among children. According to Zambia Demographic and Health Survey (ZDHS 1992), about 40 percent of children under the age of five years were said to be below height for their age as result of chronic malnutrition, while 25 percent were under weight for their age. Most extreme levels of malnutrition were found in the remote parts of Northern and Luapula provinces, where more than half of the under fives were stunted. It was recorded that on average, 46 percent of rural children below the age of five were said to be stunted compared to 33 percent in urban areas.

According to ZDHS (1992), micronutrient deficiencies continued to be a big problem among children in Zambia. Many children had suffered from health problems attributed to inadequate absorption of important nutrients. Thus, between 30–50 percent of children aged up to four (4) years suffered from vitamin A Deficiency (VAD). This made them more prone to measles, diarrhoea and respiratory infections. In addition, between 50 and 80 percent of school children had iodine deficiency related problems. These deficiencies can result in impaired physical and mental development.

In the same study, one third of women were said to be anaemic resulting in increased rates of maternal mortality rates which also increase chances of giving birth to low- weight babies. This in turn increases infant mortality rate. As if that were not enough, an estimated 50 percent of young children and 25 – 50 percent of adults in Zambia were said to have haemoglobin deficiency (ZDHS 1992).

There are many reasons that are said to account for high levels of child malnutrition. Kelly (2000:323) gives some of the following as the underlying reasons: "lack of food security and poor home environment." These underlying reasons are in turn related to adequacy of education, people's access to and control over resources and, above all, to the present and past political and economic climate in Zambia.

Kelly (2000) observed that, generally, causes of Protein-Energy Malnutrition (PEM), vitamins A, and iron deficiencies anaemia tend to be closely related in Zambia. Furthermore, the immediate causes of malnutrition are attributed to inadequate dietary intake, inadequate absorption of available nutrients and frequent illness.

In a 1993, a nationwide survey on micronutrient deficiency and parasitic infections, of 2,505 randomly sampled school aged children from 25 schools in Zambia; iodine deficiency showed national goitre prevalence rate of nearly 32 percent within the country. The prevalence varied considerably from 53 percent in Southern Province to 12 percent in Luapula. In Livingstone (in Southern province), 82 percent of school-aged children had goitre. The Central and Lusaka provinces recorded high prevalence of 40.5 percent and 46.5 percent respectively (Wang 1996).

In terms of Iron Deficiency Anaemia (IDA), Wang (1993) estimated that almost all young children and up to half of all adults were affected while the prevalence among school children was not known. In a study of 1911 pregnant women in 1985 - 1986 in Ndola, 34 percent were found to be anaemic. At the University Teaching Hospital (UTH), about 75 percent of paediatric admissions were due to anaemia. In other study at Lake Kapolombo, in Northern Province, among 22 children examined, 14 were found to be anaemic.

In the same study above, Wang (1996) reported that in a 1980 study, night blindness problems in North Western, Western and Luapula Provinces were attributed to Vitamin A deficiency (VAD). A 1985 survey in the Luapula Valley found that of every four-(4) children, three (3) had low Vitamin A. Almost 2 percent of children had clinical signs of Vitamin A deficiency, which is almost twice World Health Organization (WHO) cut off point. This signifies a widespread public health problem. A 1988 survey sample of 1,164 children in five urban and rural primary schools showed that 1.84- percent of children had night blindness.

Furthermore, Wang (1996) recorded that parasitic infections such as helminthe worms, malaria and bilharzias were very prevalent among children. However, no definite accurate figures were available. In Malawi, which has similar living and eating styles to Zambia, 59.6 percent of boys and 57.6 percent of girls had hookworm eggs in their faecal matter (ibid).

4.2 School Health Situational Analysis in Eastern Province in Zambia

In May–August 2000, the Ministry of Education undertook a situational analysis of pupil's health and nutrition status in the Eastern Province. The Eastern Province was chosen because of it's "comparatively low socio-economic and health and nutritional indicators that have contributed to relatively low educational attainment." The data for his study was collected through interviews with district health and education officials, parents and pupils. A sample of 305 pupils was examined and school water and sanitations resources were evaluated.

In the Ministry of Education (2000) study, it was revealed that there is a current absenteeism rate of 22 percent, low progression rates and high grade repetition rates. Only two of every three pupils are enrolled in grades corresponding to their age and in many cases school facilities were inadequate. On-site observations of school water showed that most of the schools lacked safe water and toilet facilities.

There are a number of diseases affecting school children that were identified in this study in the Eastern Province. These include: bilharzias, malaria, cough, worm infection, eye diseases, anaemia, and malnutrition, sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS and teenage pregnancy cases were reported among older children. The measurement of pupils in this study revealed that "44 percent suffer from stunting, 38 percent were underweight and 35 percent wasted" MoE (2000:1). Furthermore, girls were required to work before going to school.

4.3 School Feeding Programmes in Canada

In Canada, school-based nutrition and feeding Programmes are used to help poor families to meet their food needs. David Hay (2000) conducted study on this programme. The objective of this study was to assess if school based feeding programmes could be used to as sound response to food insecurity. This study looked at school feeding programmes from a social policy perspective. The study was based on interviews conducted with key informants and a review of relevant literature.

The study had two (2) research questions. First one was ,whether school-feeding programmes were a sound social policy response for children. Hay (2000: ii)'s finding was that "evidence available at this time does not demonstrate that school-based programmes are a sound social policy for children." This is because they do not address the core problems of hunger and nutrition. Instead, it was learnt that they tended to have unintended problems of dependency and stigmatization.

The second research question in the Canadian school-based feeding Programme was the role of government in supporting these programmes. In Hay (2000)' study, the key informants felt that government should stop supporting such programmes and instead be involved in sharing information and research on the school based feeding programmes with provincial and local administrations in order to find everlasting solutions to food insecurity and to reduce hunger among children.

Another important factor in Hay (2000)'s study is that school feeding programmes were seen primarily as a response to perceived hunger and inadequate nutrition among children coming from low-income background. It was observed that school feeding programmes tended to shift in their focus to address multiple goals such as nutritional inadequacy for all children, nutrition education, positive socialization, school attendance, family time stress, community mobilization, partnership and support.

There are a number of weaknesses that were identified in the Canadian school-feeding Programmes. The first one was that "there [was] is only modest involvement of non-governmental–organisations, social policy community in their development," reported Hay (2000: 9). The other weakness was that in their action statement of goals, there was no mechanism for implementation, monitoring and accountability. He also alluded to importance of food security, hunger alleviation and nutrition improvement. There was no suggestion of how to achieve the issue through food provision of the programme.

Hay (2000) found out that there was an emerging nutrition and health problem among children due to a complex of reasons. These include: poverty, low education, lack of appropriate food choices, food insecurity, and lack of time and gender issues. Lack of time and inadequate food choices were perpetuated by the fast food industry which necessarily do not provide a balanced diet.

Chapter 5

Presentation of Key Findings of the Study

5.0 Introduction

This section outlines the key findings of the study from the quantitative survey, in-depth interviews participant observation in detail.

5.1 Quantitative survey

5.1.1 Respondents of the Quantitative Survey

In this quantitative survey, there were two sets of respondents. The first set of respondents comprised teachers, and parents and community leaders while the second set was made up of school going children in community school. Among the first set, 58 percent of the respondents were community school teachers and 44 percent were either parents or community leaders. The breakdown of the population interviewed by occupation is as follows:

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Teachers	28	56.0	56.0	56.0
	Parents and community leaders	22	44.0	44.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Table 2 Respondents by occupation

Of the total number of respondents comprising the teacher and parents/community leaders 40 percent were male while 60 percent were female.

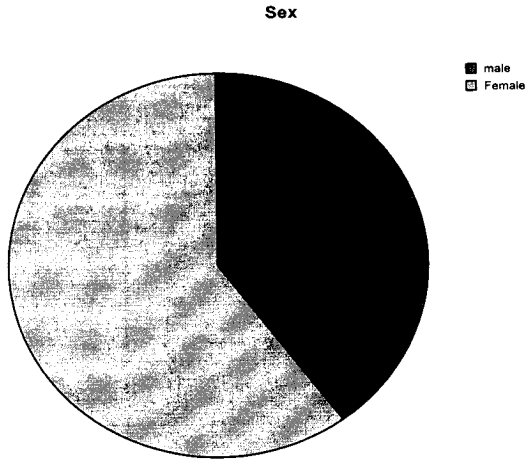

Diagram 1 Distribution of respondents by sex

Of the surveyed teachers and parents/community leaders, 48 percent said that they have their own children/dependent enrolled in community schools while 2 percent said they do not have. The age distribution of the teachers and parents/community leaders' children is as in table 3:

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	5-7 years	11	22.0	22.0	22.0
	7-12 year	20	40.0	40.0	62.0
	Above 12 years	19	38.0	38.0	**100.0**
	Total	50	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Table 3 Age distribution of children

The second set of respondents comprised school going children enrolled in the community schools in Mongu. Of these, 46 percent were boys and 55 percent were girls. The respondents' age distribution is as follows: 22 percent of the respondents are of the age 5-7, 40 percent are 7-12 years and 38 percent are above 12 years (Diagram 2).

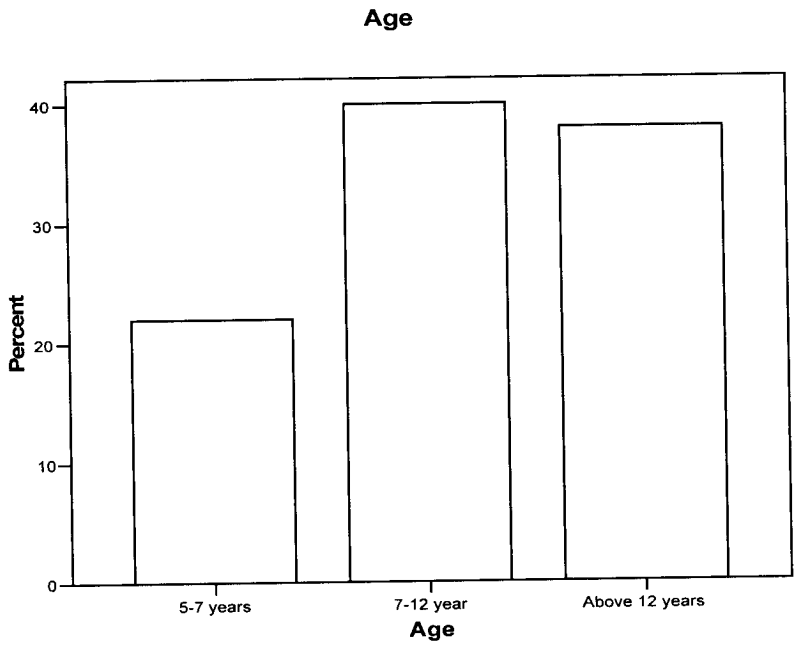

Diagram 2 Age distribution of children according to grades

In terms of grades, 44 percent of the school children enrolled are in grades 1-4 while 56 percent are in grades 5-7.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Grade 1-4	22	44.0	44.0	44.0
	grade 5-7	28	56.0	56.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	100.0	

Table 4 Grades of school children enrolled in community schools.

5.1.2 Basic information on the School Feeding Programme Management

All the teachers, the parents and community leaders, and the school children unanimously confirmed that they are aware of the existence of a school feeding programme in the school in their community/area. According to these respondents, the children are fed on High Energy Protein Supplements (HEPS) porridge with cooking oil once a day at break time and that only the registered and present pupils are fed.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Once	49	98.0	98.0	98.0
	No Idea	1	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	50	100.0	**100.0**	

Table 5 Awareness of number of times children are fed at school

The School Feeding Programme is run, according to 76 percent the respondents, by school teachers, 20 percent said the programme is run by an elected committee comprising teachers and parents, while another 4 percent of respondents said they had no idea.

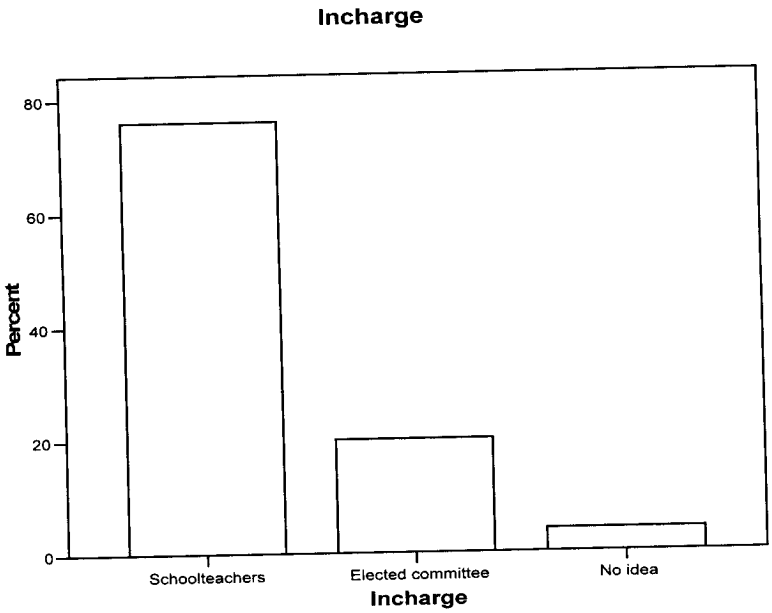

Diagram 3 Knowledge of who manages the School Feeding Programme

According to teachers and /parents/community leaders surveyed, the role of the parents/community leaders is preparation and collection of firewood. The majority of teachers and parents/community leaders confirmed that the role of teachers is different from that of the parents/community leaders (Table 6).

Roles * Occupation Cross tabulation

Count

		Occupation		Total
		Teachers	parents/ community leaders	
Roles	Supervising preparation of food	26	0	26
	Firewood collection	2	22	24
Total		**28**	**22**	**50**

Table 6 The roles of teachers and parents

However, all the respondents unanimously reported that the role of parents/community leaders is preparation and collection of firewood and that of teachers purely being of supervising preparation of food.

5.1.3 Source of knowledge of existence of the School Feeding Programme

Most of the parents and teachers interviewed said that they came to know of the existence of the School Feeding Programme through the school administration. In fact, 82 percent of teachers, parents and community leaders reported that they learnt of the programme through the school administration, 14 percent said through their school children, 2 percent said through being told by neighbours and another 2 percent learnt of the programme through Ministry of Education/Project Concern International officials.

According to both teachers and parent/community leaders, the majority were told by the school administration of the introduction of the School Feeding Programme.

Source * Occupation Cross tabulation

Count

		Occupation		Total
		Teachers	parents/ community leaders	
Source	PCI officials	1	0	1
	School Administration	23	18	41
	Told by schoolchild	3	4	7
	Told by neighbour	0	1	1
Total		28	22	50

Table 7 First Knowledge of introduction School Feeding Programme

5.1.4 **Knowledge of initiator of School Feeding Programme**

According to 60 percent of the respondents the programme was initiated by Ministry of Education/Project Concern International(MOE/PCI), 36 percent said that it was initiated by the community, while 4 percent said that they no ideas.

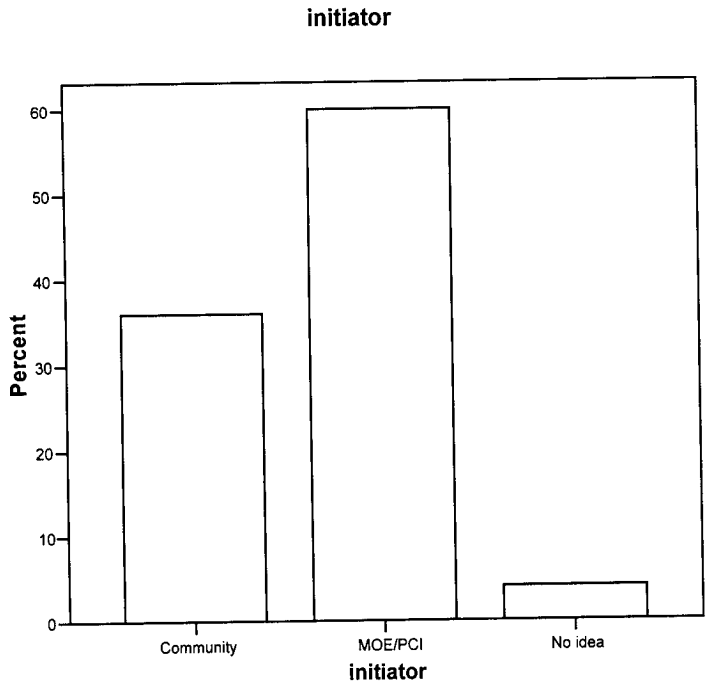

Diagram 4 Respondents' answer on initiator the School Feeding Programme

All the teachers said that the initiator is MOE/PCI while a large number of the parents /community leaders reported that it was initiated by the community.

Initiator * Occupation Cross tabulation

Count

		Occupation		Total
		Teachers	parents/ community leaders	
Initiator	Community	0	18	18
	MOE/PCI	28	2	30
	No idea	0	2	2
Total		28	22	50

Table 8 Respondent's knowledge of programme initiator by occupation

5.1.5 **Respondents' Perception of Existence of Food Shortage**

The presence of shortage of food in community was perceived by both teachers and parents and school children as being high. In this study, 96 percent of the respondents said there is food while only 2 percent said there is no food shortage or hunger in their community/area.

Both teacher and parent/community leaders confirm that there is food shortage/hunger in their community/area.

Shortages * Occupation Cross tabulation

Count

		Occupation		Total
		Teachers	parents/ community leaders	
Are there any shortages in the community?	YES	27	21	48
	NO	1	1	2
Total		**28**	**22**	**50**

Table 9 Perception of food shortage in the community according to occupation

By sex distribution more female respondent than males said that there is hunger in there community/area. None of the male respondents said that there is no hunger in the community where as there are some female respondents who say that there is no food shortage in the community.

56 percent of the school children surveyed reported that they do not have food before coming and only 44 percent said that they at least have some food to eat before coming to school. Of those who have food before coming to school, the majority said that they eat at least twice a week (Diagram 6).

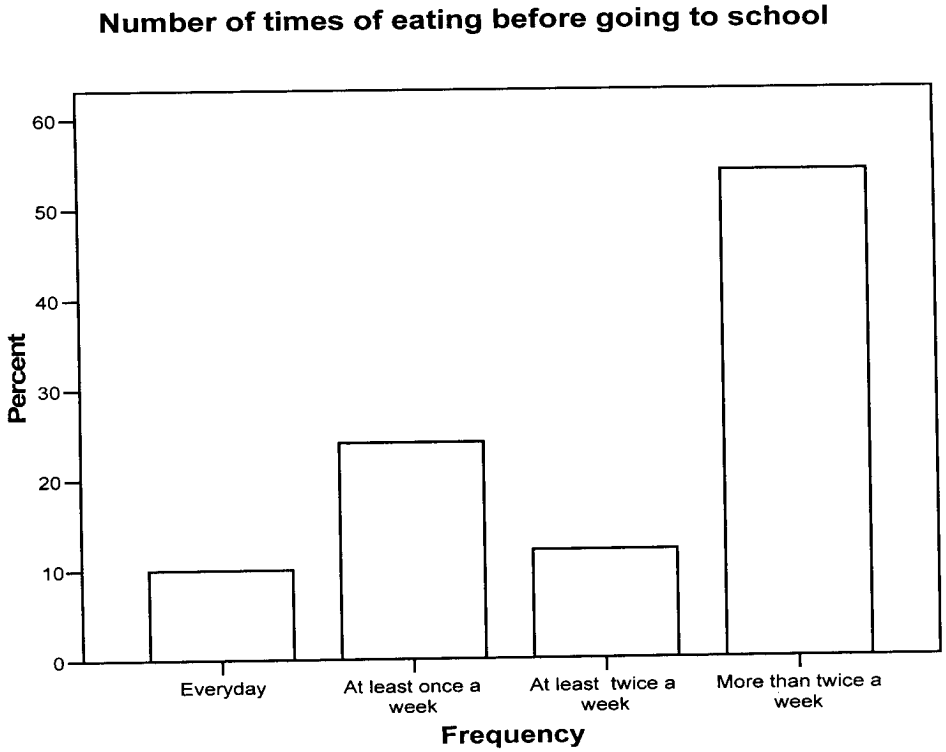

Diagram 5 Number of times children eat in a week before coming to school

5.1.6. The Most Vulnerable Groups to Food Shortages.

In this study it was reported that the most vulnerable groups of people affected by lack of food are the orphaned and vulnerable children (OVCs) 44 percent, 32 percent of the respondents said that the elderly people were most affected, 16 percent felt that the chronically ill were the most affected and 8 percent said that women were the most affected.

According to the teacher respondents, the most affected group by the food shortages are the orphaned and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) followed the elderly people. However, parents/ community leaders felt that the most affected groups are the elderly people followed by the OVCs.

Affected * Occupation Cross tabulation

Count

		Occupation		Total
		Teachers	Parents/ community leaders	
Affected	Orphaned &Vulnerable children	15	7	22
	Chronically ill people	4	4	8
	Elderly people	6	10	16
	Women	3	1	4
Total		28	22	50

Table 10 Respondents' perception of food shortage according to occupation

Similarly, looking at the affected groups by the lack of food, it was found that most teachers reported that the **Orphaned and Vulnerable children** (OVCs) and secondly the elderly people are the most affected while the parents/ community said that the most affected are the elderly and secondly the **Orphaned and Vulnerable children.**

In addition, hunger is perceived by both male and female respondents as being present in the community/area (Diagram 8).

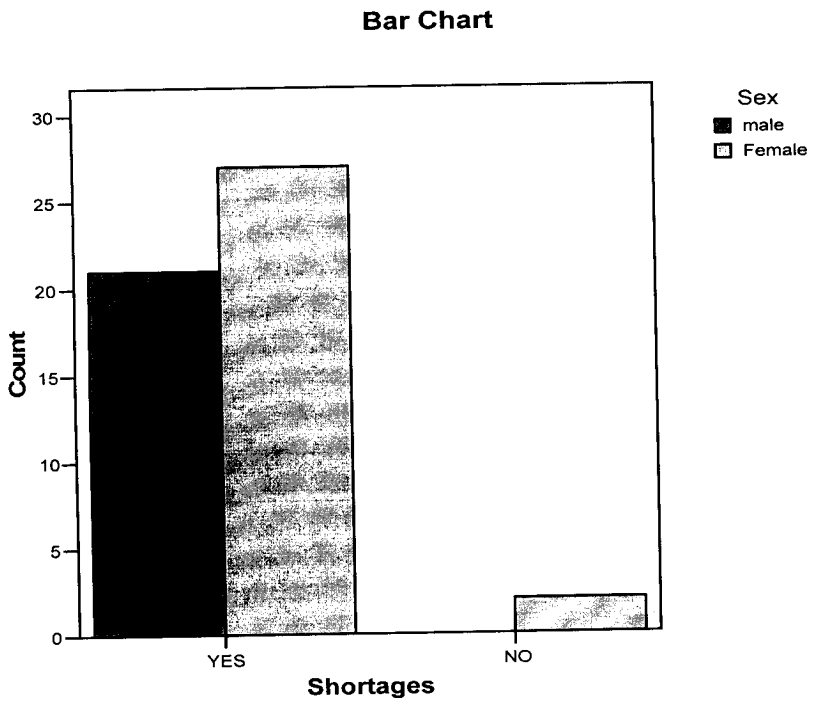

Diagram 6 Respondents' perception of food shortage according to sex

5.1.7. **Response on factor that lead to food shortage in the community**

The teachers and parent/community leaders surveyed attributed food shortage in the community/area to a number of factors. 76 percent said that lack of agro inputs was responsible; lack of employment was rated at 12 percent and 10 percent of respondents attributed shortage to floods while only 2 percent said laziness was responsible.

5.1.8 **Effects of Food Shortage on School-Going Children**

There are a number of effects on school going children that were identified by teachers /and parents/ community leaders. 68 percent of the respondents attributed absenteeism to food shortage, 20 percent said that it contributed lack of concentration on class work lack of concentration in class 2 percent.

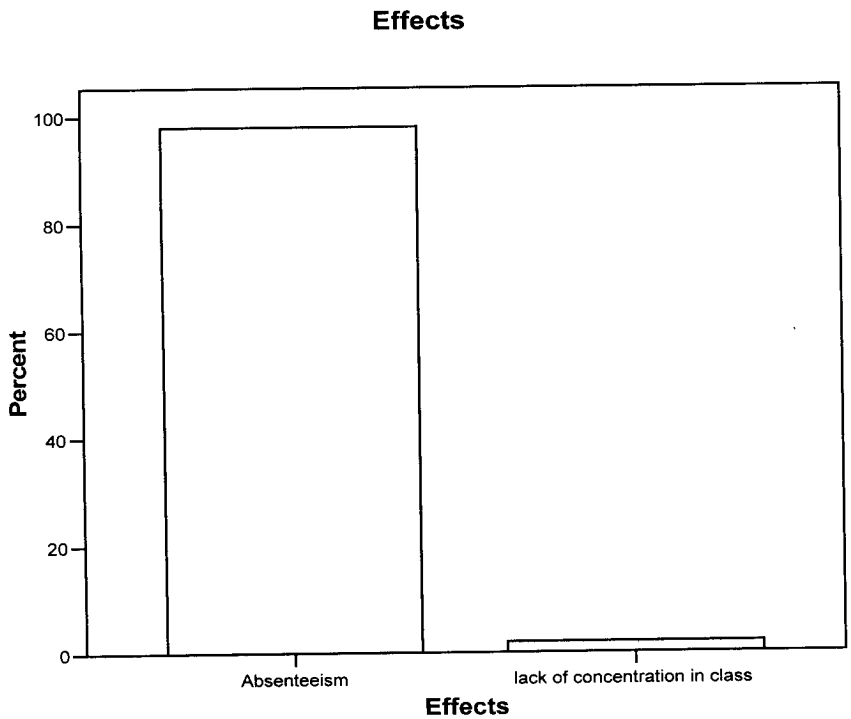

Diagram 7 Responses on effects of food shortage on children

In this study, more female than male respondents said that food shortage in the community/area results in children being absenteeism from school.

Effects * Sex Cross tabulation

Count

		Sex		Total
		Male	Female	
Effects	lack of concentration in class	0	1	1
	Absenteeism	20	29	49
Total		**20**	**30**	**50**

Table 11 responses on effects of hunger on schoolchildren according to sex.

Absenteeism was reported by most of the teachers to be affecting school going children. Parents/community leaders said absenteeism and lack of concentration on class work from school was seen as effect of food shortage. However, none of the teachers reported lack of concentration as an effect of food shortage.

5.1.9 **Most common diseases among school children**

The most common diseases that were observed among school children as being prevalent by teachers and parents/community leaders are malaria 87 percent, bilharzia 6.1 percent, diarrhoea 2 percent, Skin diseases 2 percent and 2 percent ringworms.

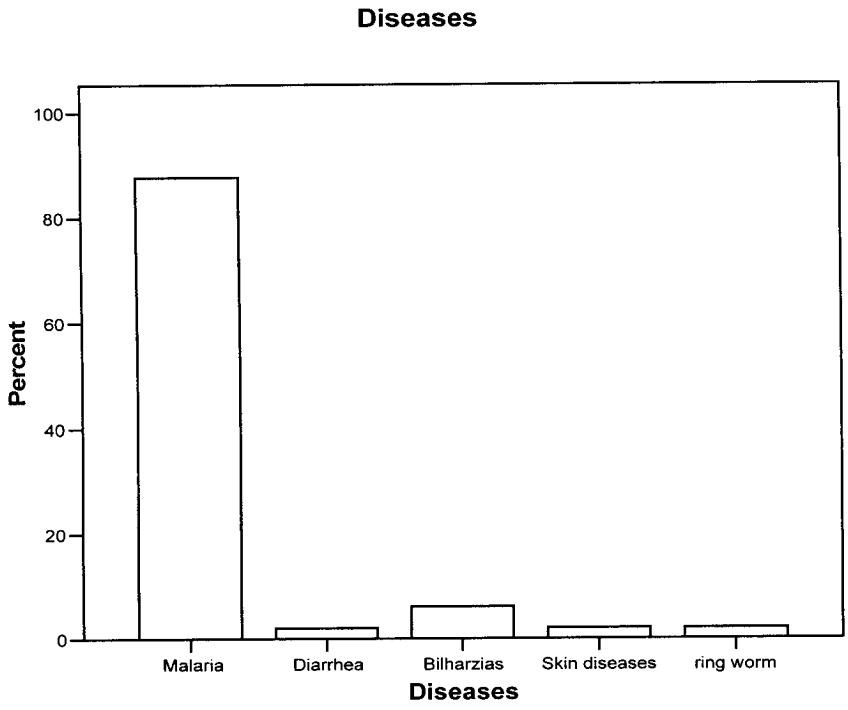

Diagram 8 Most common diseases among school children as seen by teachers and parents

According to children, the most common diseases that were most common and a result of their absenteeism were as follows 92 percent said malaria, 4 percent reported ring worms, 2 percent said diarrhoea, and 2 percent said it is skin diseases.

Both boys and girls surveyed in this study reported that malaria was the major diseases they mostly suffer from.

Diseases * Sex Cross tabulation

Count

		Sex		Total
		Boy	Girl	
Diseases	Malaria	21	25	46
	Diarrhoea	1	0	1
	Ring worm	1	1	2
	Rash/scabies	0	1	1
Total		**23**	**27**	**50**

Table 12 Most common diseases among school children according to sex

There were more cases of high incidences of malaria cases reported by school children of 7-12 years and those above 12 while children between 5-7 years in addition to malaria reported other diseases such as ringworms and skin diseases. Children of 7-12 years also reported cases of diarrhoeal diseases.

5.1.9 Causes of Diseases among School–Children

There are a number of factors that were said to be the causes of diseases among school children according to teachers and parent/community leaders interviewed in the study. 94 percent attributed diseases to mosquito bites, 4 percent to lack of good nutrition and 2 percent attributed diseases to dirty drinking water.

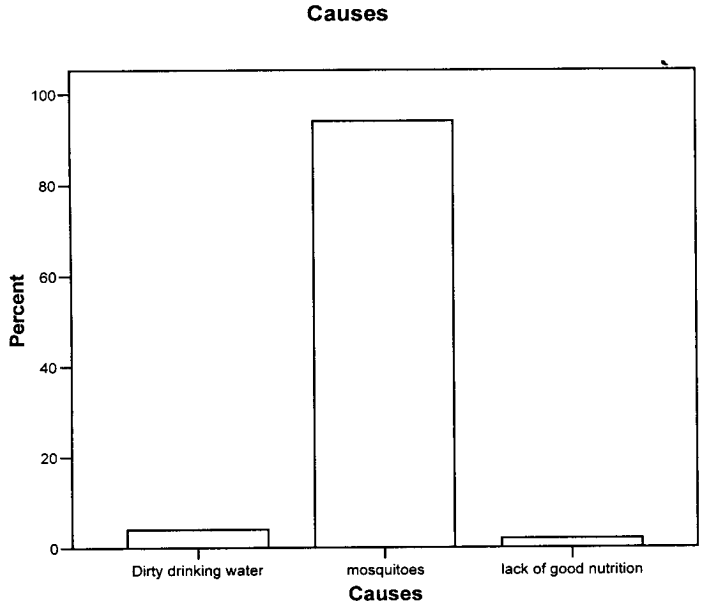

Diagram 9 Likely causes of most common diseases among school children

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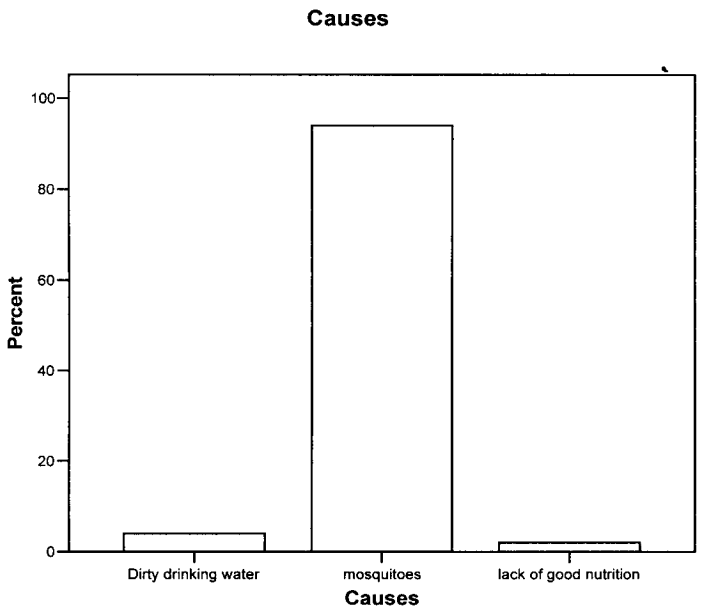

Diagram 9 Likely causes of most common diseases among school children

5.1.10 **Respondent's Ranking of Problems the Community/Area Faces**

According to 74 percent of the respondents, lack of food is the most serous problem facing the community, l0 percent reported lack of water, 4 percent said drought, and 4 percent said that poverty is a problem, 2 percent said presence of diseases and another 2 percent said the community lacks proper infra-structure.

Both male and female respondents ranked lack of food as a serious problem found in the community/area (Table 13). Similarly, both teachers and parents/community leaders ranked lacked as the most serious problem in the community /area.

Problems * Sex Cross tabulation

Count

		Sex		**Total**
		Male	Female	
Problems	Lack of food	12	25	37
	Lack of water	3	2	5
	Drought	1	1	2
	Poverty	1	1	2
	Diseases	1	0	1
	Lack of infrastructure	1	0	1
	Lack of farming land	0	1	1
	Lack of Employment	1	0	1
Total		**20**	**30**	**50**

Table 13 Perception of problems in the community according to sex

5.1.11 **Major problems school-children in the community**

According to the school-going children, 82 percent said the most serious problem they is poverty, 14 percent said it is lack of food at home and 4 percent said it is lack of water.

School children in grades 5-7 surveyed, said that lack of food at home is the most serious problem they face while lack of water was seen as a serious problem by children in grades 1-4 but not by those in grades 5-7. However, the most serious problem that they both face e is poverty (Table 14).

Hardships * Grade Cross tabulation

Count

		Grade		Total
		Grade 1-4	grade 5-7	
Hardships	Lack of food at home	0	7	7
	Lack of water	2	0	2
	poverty	20	21	41
Total		22	28	50

Table 14 Perception of problems in the community according to school children

Both boys and girls rated poverty as the most serious problem they face in the community. However, according to 80 percent of the teachers and parents/community leaders, lack of water is the most serious problem affecting school children, 20 percent felt that it is the high prevalence of diseases, 12 percent said that it is hunger while 4 percent said it is long distance to school.

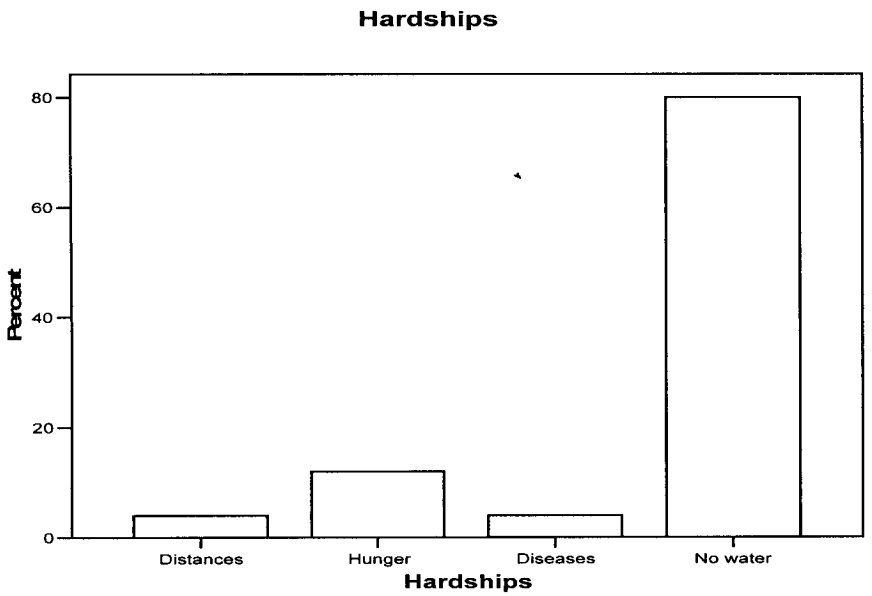

Diagram 1 Perception of problem affecting children as seen by teachers and parents

5.1.12 **Initiatives Taken by the Community to Solve Problems**

It was found in this study that 80 percent of the respondents said that they did nothing to solve the problem, 18 percent approached some NGOs and 2 percent said that they called a meeting.

In this study the number of male and females who are unable to solve problems the face is almost the same.

Initiative * Sex Cross tabulation

Count

		Sex		Total
		Male	Female	
Initiative	called meeting	0	1	1
	Approached NGOs	3	6	9
	Did nothing	17	23	40
Total		20	30	50

Table 15 Ability by the community to take initiative according to sex

5.1.13 Reasons for Community's Failures to Take Initiative

Of the sampled respondents, 80 percent said there have no reason for taking action, while 6 percent attributed their failure to lack of leadership in the communities and 2 percent said that they have no means to solve the problems faced by their communities.

Failure * Occupation Cross tabulation

Count

		Occupation		Total
		Teachers	parents/ community leaders	
Reason for failure	Lack of leadership	3	0	3
	No reason	21	19	40
	No means	1	0	1
	N/A	3	3	6
Total		28	22	50

Table 16 Reasons for inability by the community to take initiative according occupation

More female than male respondents said that they did nothing about the problems. Similarly more teachers than parents/ community leaders said that they did nothing about the community problems .

5.1.14 **Discussion of Development Issues in the Community**

According to the respondents, some meetings to discuss development issues are called by schools and communities. Of the respondent surveyed 92 percent said those meetings are held while 8 percent said no meetings are held in their community (Diagram 11).

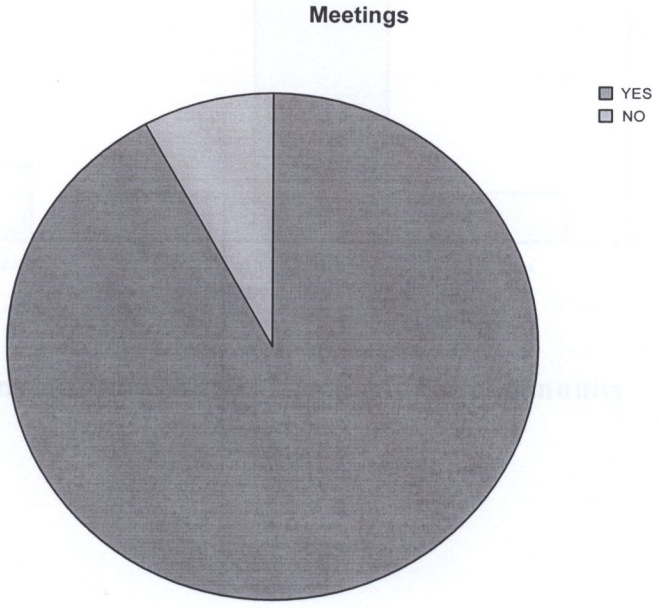

Diagram 11 Responses on meeting held in the community

Most of the meetings are called by the school teacher, 82 percent, 12 percent by Headmen/chiefs, 8 percent by politician and 8 percent said they had no idea.

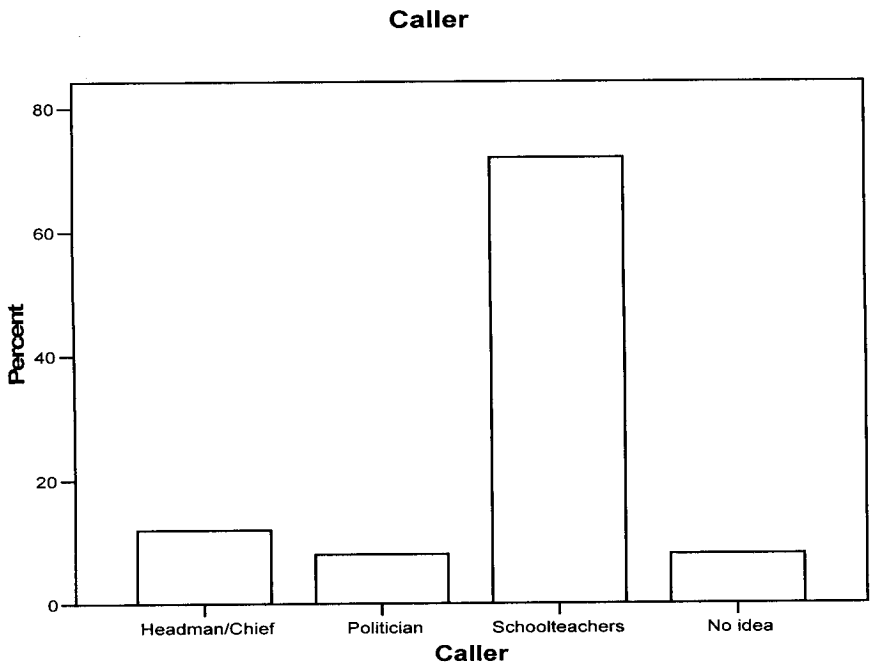

Diagram 12 Responses as to who calls meeting in the community

5.1.15 **Medium used for Sharing Development Information**

According to this survey 86 percent, of the respondents said that face–to-face discussions are used for used for sharing development information in the community / school especially, 6 percent said Radio is used and 8 percent of the respondents said they had no idea.

In this study both male and female respondents reported that face-to-face form of communication was the most widely used (Table 17) in the community.

Sharing * Sex Cross tabulation

Count

		Sex		Total
		Male	Female	
Sharing	Face to face Discussions	18	25	43
	Radio	1	2	3
	No idea	1	3	4
Total		20	30	0

Table 17 Medium used for sharing development information according occupation

5.1.16 Provision of Health/Nutrition Information to School Children

According to 60 percent of teachers and parents/ community leaders surveyed, learners in community schools receive health/ nutrition information. However, 40 percent had no idea whether school children received health or nutrition information.

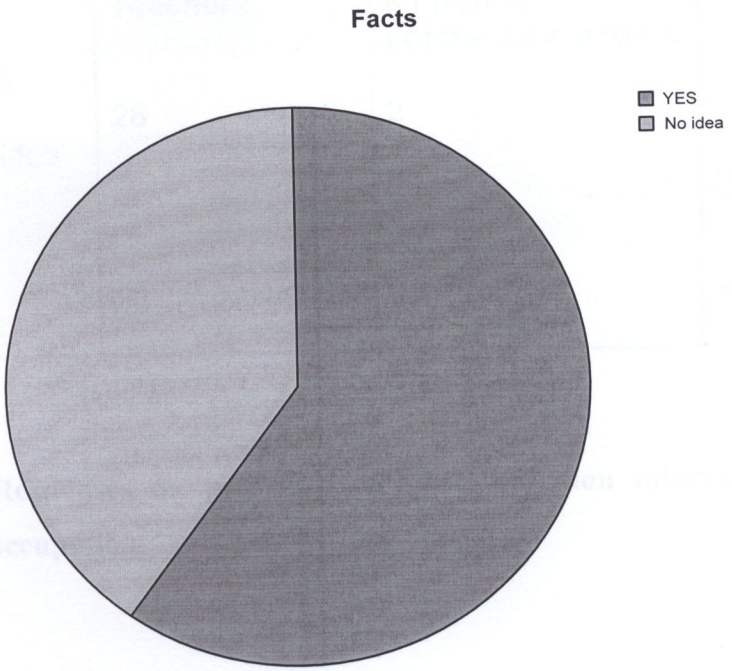

Diagram 13 Responses on provision of health/nutrition information to school children

Of the 60 percent of the teachers and parents/community leaders interviewed, the majority said pupils are provided with health/nutrition are teachers while most of those who had no idea are parents/community leaders.

Facts * Occupation Cross tabulation

Count

		Occupation		Total
		Teachers	P1arents/ community leaders	
Facts	YES	28	2	30
	No idea	0	20	20
Total		28	22	50

Table 18 Responses on provision of health/nutrition information to school children according occupation

However, of the school going-children surveyed, 64 percent reported that that they do not receive health a/ nutrition information and only 36 percent confirmed that they did.

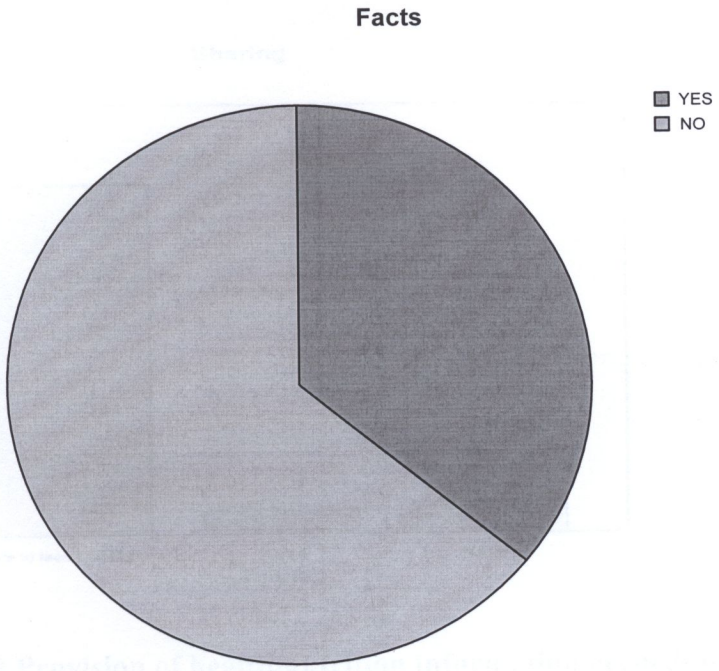

Diagram 21 Provision of health/nutrition information according to school children

5.1.17. **The Medium used for Provision of Health/Nutrition of Information**

It was reported by some teachers and parents/community form: oral class discussion 60 percent, said radio Programmes 4 percent while 36 percent said they have no idea.

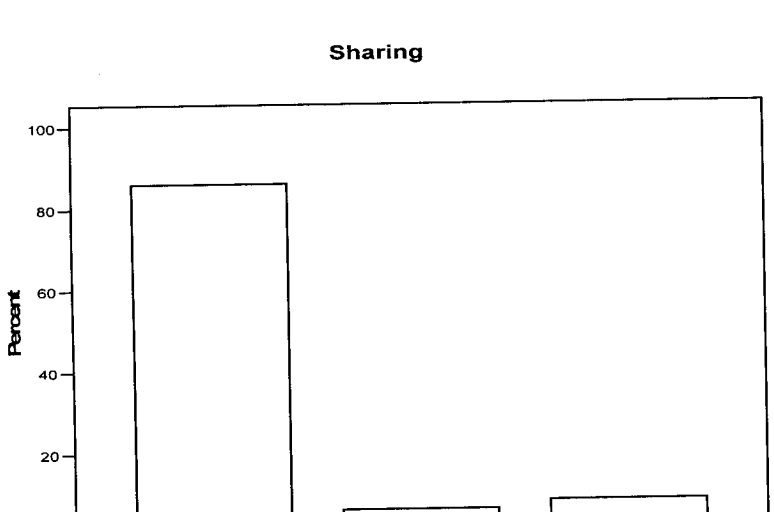

Diagram 22 Provision of health/nutrition information according to school children

Of the school children who reported that they receive health/nutrition information, 34 percent said that they receive it in class lessons as discussions.

5.1.18 School Feeding Programmes as Option for Solving Food Hunger among Children

According to the majority of the parent/community leaders interviewed, 92 percent of the respondents said that it is not a good option to solve food shortage/hunger among school children and only 8 percent said it is a good option. Though the idea of feeding children at school in it is not a bad idea, the respondents said that it is not a good option.

Of the respondents who said that it was not a good option to solve the problem of food shortage /hunger among school children, both teachers agree.

Option * Occupation Cross tabulation

		Occupation		Total
		Teachers	parents/ community leaders	
Option	YES	3	1	4
	NO	25	21	46
Total		28	22	50

Table 19 Responses on School Feeding Programme as an Option to end hunger among school children according to occupation

Both male and female respondents were unanimously of the view that School Feeding Programme is not a better option to end food shortages or even child hunger among school children. Most of the respondents unanimously felt that School Feeding Programme should continue only as a measure to fill the void in cases of disaster in community. The respondents suggested that there is need to empower house with agro inputs so that they can grow their own food.

5.2 In-depth Interviews with School Feeding Programme officials

In order to have a detailed understanding of how the school Feeding Programme, more information and clarification was collected through in-depth interviews with the officials responsible for the School Feeding Programme at Ministry of Education in Mongu District Education Board Secretary's office and at Project Concern International.

5.2.1 The Role of the Ministry of Education in the School Feeding Programme (Mr Mukela Mukela, Education Standards Officer-Distance and Open Learning)

Mr Mukela Mukela, then Education Standards Officer-Distance and Open Learning, was also responsible for the School Feeding Programme in Mongu district. He was interviewed on 22nd May 2006.

5.2.1.1 Implementing Partners

The Ministry of Education implements the School Feeding Programme in partnership with the United Nation-World Food Programme and Project Concern International (PCI), and thirty-two (32) Community schools in the district.

5.2.1.2 The role of the Ministry of Education

The roles of the of the Ministry of Education includes transporting and delivering food materials, monitoring and supervising preparation of food in the schools and solving operational problems experienced in the implementation of the programme. Others are monitoring and evaluating the impact of the programme on the schools and the children.

5.2.1.3 Involvement in Programme formulation

However, Mr Mukela said that the Ministry of Education at the district level is more involved at the stage of implementing, monitoring and evaluation and not the programme formulation which is done by the funding partners, the United Nation-World Food Programme and Project International (PCI) who initiated the programme as an emergency response to the floods and drought conditions experienced in previous farming seasons. He said that the programme was being scaled up to cover twenty-five government schools.

5.2.1.4 The role of Parents

Mr. Mukela also outlined the role of parents and the community parents in the School Feeding Programme as follows: erecting kitchen and storage facilities for the food materials, preparing food for the learners, participating in the elections of implementing committees at the school level, and participating in the implementation of the programme at the school level through the elected implementing committee.

The aims of the School Feeding Programme are to improve school attendance in general, increase enrolment in schools and to enhance classroom performance improvement of school children.

5.2.2 **The Role of Project Concern International in School Feeding Programme (Mr Vincent Munene, Project Concern International Programmes Manager)**

On the 20th September 2006, the researcher had an interview with Mr. Vincent Munene, who is the Project Concern International Programmes Manager for Western Province for follow-up and clarification on various issues that emerged in the process of data collection and to accord the researcher a well-rounded understanding of the programme.

5.2.2.1 Background on Project Concern International (PCI)

Mr Munene said that Project Concern International (PCI) is an American development organisation whose Headquarters are in San Diego, California, USA. Project Concern International has been involved in Zambia mainly in combating the HIV/AIDS crises since 1996.

Project Concern International (PCI) programmes mainly works to benefit the poorest people, those who are most vulnerable to HIV/AIDS, and those without adequate opportunities or support. In Zambia, Project Concern International (PCI) targets the hard-to-reach and highly marginalised groups such as Orphaned and Vulnerable Children (OVCs), street and working children, Defence force personnel, People Living with HIV/AIDS (PLWA), and women, infants and young children.

However, Project Concern International does not implement its own programmes directly. This organisation works with partners in order to equip them and uses innovative tools and innovative methods to effectively build the partners' capacity so that they can design, implement, evaluate, fund and grow their own programmes.

5.2.2.2 Key strategies used by Project Concern International (PCI)

Mr Munene said that Project Concern International uses a number of key strategies in working with partners in Zambia. These include: improving technical services, bridging sectors by joining individuals and institutions such as community organisations, private companies and government agencies across traditionally isolated sectors such as education, health food security. Others are building Networks such as helping in building and strengthening community, district and national level networks to foster peer learning, increase service coverage, reducing duplication of efforts and creating a unified voice for advocacy.

5.2.2.3 Some of the Project Concern International programmes in Zambia

From 1996, the organisation has been working in the following areas of development Zambia:

(i). Bwafwano Home Based Care in Lusaka since 1996.

(ii) Maternal and Child Health and HIV in Nchelenge which is in partnership with USAID.

(ii). Africa Kid SAFE established in 2000 works with street children in partnership with Fountain of Hope an alliance of faith and community based organisations working with the Ministries if Community Development and Social Services and the Ministry of Sports, Youth and Child Development.

(iv). HIV/AIDS in the Zambian Defence Force was launched in 20003 to build capacity and to implement, manage, and evaluate HIV/AIDS programmes in the three wings of the defence forces using information, education and communication campaign using Theatre for development and targeted communication materials.

(iv). Antiretroviral Therapy Adherence, works with home-based organisations to provide antiretroviral adherence support to HIV patients in Lusaka and Mongu in partnership with Lusaka Urban and Mongu District Health Management boards and the Centre for Infectious Diseases Research in Zambia(CIDRAZ), a project of the University of Alabama, Birmingham.

(vi). Community School Feeding- this a feeding programme for orphans and Vulnerable children.

5.2.3 **The Project Concern International Community School Feeding Programme in Zambia**

5.2.3.1 History

Mr Munene said that the Community School Feeding Programme was initially an emergency response to Zambia's food crises in 2002 and 2003. The program has, however , evolved into a long term approach for meeting a range of the most critical needs of over 70,000 orphans and Vulnerable children in more than 200 community schools and drop-in-centres.

The community School Feeding Programme is implemented in partnership with the UN World Food Programme, UNICEF, the Zambia Community schools Secretariat and The Ministry of Education.

5.2.3.2 Aims of the programme

Mr Munene outlined the aims of the School Feeding Programme as follows: To improve the quality of the schools through teacher training, curriculum development, and stronger teacher-parent Association, promote income-generating activities that involve the entire community such as school gardens, strengthen the capacity of schools to eventually replace food aid and provide a flexible exist strategy.

5.2.4 **The Community School Feeding Programme in Mongu**

5.2.4.1 When the programme began

In September 2006, Project Concern International (Zambia) in partnership with the Ministry of Education (MoE) designed and launched a pilot School Feeding Programme in seven community schools in Mongu district. The programme has since rolled-out to cater for about 7,000 children in 32 community schools. The aim of the programme is the same as those outlined for the other programmes in Zambia above.

5.2.4.2 Food given to children

Mr Munene said that the programme provides High Energy Protein Supplement (HEPS) wet porridge to school children. The rations delivered to community schools are for 22 working days each month. At the end of this period, the schools retire the returns and then a new consignment is delivered.

5.2.4.3 Coordination of School Feeding Programme

Project Concern International holds monthly Implementing Forum/Meetings. These meetings are attended by stores officers and teachers in-charge of the programme and officials from Project Concern International (Zambia) and from the Ministry of Education. At these meetings various issues related to the implementation and delivery of the programme are discussed and problems resolved.

5.2.4.4 Other Support to Community Schools

Apart from food, Project Concern International (PCI) offers infrastructure support to community schools in the form of teacher's chairs and tables and also provides school children with books and pencils. Schools are also being encouraged to implement de-worming of the school children. Project Concern International is encouraging schools to establish income-generating activities in the form of rice-growing and school gardens as an exist strategy for replacing food- aid. However, as of now none of these strategies had been implemented.

5.3. **Practical Attachment/Participant Observation**

5.3.1 **Period of Attachment**

The researcher was privileged to have practical attachment experience at the Ministry of Education, Mongu District Education Board Secretary's Office for three (3) months from 15th March to 20th May 2006. The purpose of this attachment was for the researcher to acquire deep understanding of how the programme activities are implemented.

5.3.2 **Arrangement and Organisation of Attachment**

During the Practical attachment the researcher was allocated office working space in Buildings and Infra-structure Section office of the Ministry of Education. The office accommodation was shared with two (2) other officers; the Assistant Buildings Officer, Mr. Mubita Mubita and the Guidance and Counselling Coordinator Mr Njamba Makomani. In terms of community schools, The Assistant Buildings Officer's role is to ensure that basic infrastructure exists before community schools are registered and start operating. The Guidance and Counselling Officer is also attached to the Community Schools in the district and facilitates their registration.

5.3.3 Structure of Mongu District Education Board

Basically, the District Education Board comprises two departments: administration and standards. The District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) is the overall head of the Ministry of Education at the district level and is the in charge of administration. The Education Standards Department is headed by the District Education Standards Officer (DESO). The administration department is responsible for administration and management matters such as human resources, finance, accounting and procurement management and the planning and infrastructure development of the district.

On the other hand, the education standards department is responsible for matters of quality assurance of education provision, professional development of teachers and curriculum development. The DESO works with a team of three Education Standards Officers (ESOs); one responsible for general inspection, another for distance and open learning and another for special education and special education needs. In general the department is in charge of classroom inspections and supervision of teachers.

During the Practical attachment, the researcher was not assigned specific duties at the distinct office but was allowed a free reign to take part in various tasks where help was needed. This was mainly due to the fact that the School Feeding Programme is integrated within the daily work activities of the Ministry of Education.

5.3.4 **Management of School Feeding Programme**

The Ministry of Education works in partnership with Project Concern International (PCI) in implementing School Feeding Programme activities. This is mainly done through supervision and monitoring of these activities within its own sector-wide programmes. Although sometimes specific activities relating to school feeding programmes arise from time to time such as delivery of food materials to community schools, the School Feeding Programme largely remains just as one the daily routine activities within the Ministry of Education programmes.

Apart from the fact that the School Feeding Programme for community schools is already running, the Ministry of Education, Mongu District Education Board in partnership with Project Concern International (PCI) and the United Nations World Food Programme (UN-WFP) are in the process of increasing this service coverage to twenty-five other Government basic schools. This other Government Basic Schools Feeding Programme is expected to run for one year pilot and then later be scaled up. However, what is common to both of these programmes is that the entry point is food aid with the view to eventually replace it with own-self food sustaining activities such as school gardens.

Basically, it appears that the role of the Ministry of Education is monitoring and supervision of the programme activities. On the other hand, Project Concern International seems to have the overriding key-stake in the programme. The Ministry of Education has been enlisted as a partner because they are charged with the overall responsibility of education provision in the country. On the hand, the United Nations World Food Programme (UN-WFP) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) through Project Concern International (PCI) provide food and curriculum support in the form of books and furniture.

Chapter 6

Interpretation, Analysis and Discussion of Key Findings

6.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed interpretation, analysis and discussion of the key findings of the study from the quantity survey, in-depth interviews and participant observation.

This study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent is Participatory Communication used as the basis for identifying, formulating, implementing and coordinating School Feeding Programme at school level?

2. What kind of communication exists between PCI/ MoE and the local community in promoting nutrition/health activities at the school level?

6.1 Quantitative Survey

6.1.1 Use of Participatory Communication

Participatory Communication is a social process in which the local community and the development planners come together in a dialogue and agree on the course of action to improve a situation negatively affecting the community(Bella Mody 1990). Therefore, in this context, the use of participatory communication in the School Feeding Programme will be looked at from problem identification, formulation and implementation stages.

6.1.1.1 Involvement of local community/school in problem identification

The majority of respondents constituting 91 percent as opposed to only 2 percent who said there is no food shortage in the community, unanimously perceived food shortage as a serious problem. Other problems that were identified include lack of water, poverty, drought, diseases and lack of infrastructure in the community /area (Diagram 5 and Table 9).

However, according to most of the school children, poverty and food shortages are among the other problems the community faces (Table 13). Lack of water is another serious problem that was reported by school children. In addition, there are many diseases that were reported as prevalent among children. Unlike in the Eastern Province where cases of bilharzia, eye diseases and anaemia were reported, the most common disease reported in Mongu was malaria (Diagram 9).

Most teachers and parents/community leaders perceive the Orphaned and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) and the elderly as the groups of people worst hit by the food shortage in the community (Diagram 6). For the teachers, Orphaned and vulnerable Children (OVCs) are the worst hit, while according to the parents; the elderly people are the worst affected (Table 7).

The respondents are able to identify the various problems that they face in their communities/area and can be therefore be expected to come up with solutions to their own problems as a way of participating and contributing to the development of their community. However, the study found that they were merely informed of the School Feeding Programme by the school administration. The respondents were able to identify the initiator of the programme as the Ministry of Education and Project Concern International (Table 8). There seem to be no reason why the planner should not have involved them in problem identification

6.1.1.2 **Involvement community /School Feeding Programme formulation**

From the responses given by both the teachers and parents, and the school children, the formulation of the school feeding Programme, did not involve dialogue between the community/school and the Ministry of education /Project Concern International. The majority of the respondents (82 percent) said that they only learnt of the introduction of the programme from the school administration who were also merely informed by the Ministry of Education/Project Concern international. The reason for this failure was because it was implemented in response to a perception of hunger as result of food shortages Zambia experienced in the 2003/2004 farming season. The respondents, for example, the school children, said that they were not asked for their views on the type of food given. However, most of them expressed happiness with the food.

The fact that members of the community able identify the factors that lead to food shortages in the community, and then there is a higher chance that given an opportunity to formulate a course of action to solve the problem, they can contribute significantly to their own process of development. In the study, the respondents were able to rank food shortage as the biggest problem facing their community. However, 80 percent reported that they did not take the initiative to solve the problem.

The school Feeding Programme, according to this study, was not initiated by the community (Diagram 4). It was unanimously revealed in this study that the programme was initiated by Ministry of Education/Project Concern international (MoE/PCI). In the study 60 percent reported that the community, who in fact are supposed to be the owners of the community schools, say that they did not formulate the programme.

There are many reasons that could account for the community/school's failure to take initiative (Diagram 24). According to most of the respondents (80 percent) said that they simply have no reason for taking the initiative. A smaller section of the respondents attributed their failure to either lack of leadership in their communities (6 percent) or to that they have no means or capacity to deal with the problems (2 percent) the community face on their own.

However, failure by the community to participate in the formulation of the School Feeding Programme could also be a result of the approach taken by the programme planners or due to nature of the programme design lacking or being ill equipped with tools and mechanisms to involve the community in the formulation of its activities. It appears that the programme planners assumed that as professionals know better what the people want. It might be said that this limitations is a result of lack of skills and knowledge on the part of the officials. It was clearly revealed in this study (Diagram 18) 92 that meetings (92 percent) are usually held in the community.

Therefore, it can be said that the planners of the School Feeding Programme in Mongu lack skills of participatory communication to take advantage of this resource at their disposal. In addition, it was revealed in this study (Diagram 11) that most of the meetings in the community are called by the school administration (82 percent) for the purpose of discussing matters related to the development of the school. However, it seems that meetings called to discuss issues of school development are most frequent and better attended in the community compared to those by other development stakeholders such as s chiefs, headmen and politicians called to discuss other development issues.

6.1.1.3 **Involvement of the community/school in implementation of School Feeding Programme**

There is effort put in involving the community in participating in the implementation of the School Feeding Programme. The parents participate in the activities of the programme through collection of firewood and preparation of the food for school children.

However, it is a matter of concern that the role of parent/community leaders is reduced to provision of labour and very little participation in the decision making process. The role of the community, especially parents /community leaders as compared to teachers (Table 6) in the implementing of School Feeding Programme activities is a limited one. The roles of the parents/community leaders, as earlier stated above, are preparation of the food (52 percent) and collecting fire wood (42 percent). Essentially, this means that the community's capacity to become self reliant and acquire skills for solving their own development problems is reduced if not completely undermined. On the other hand, community participation, as will be seen in the qualitative analysis is, provided for through elected committees. In most cases these committees appear to be less active. However, since teachers in these community schools are volunteers, they are also part of and represent the same the community.

According to the majority of the teachers and parent/community leaders and school children surveyed (Diagram 3), the programme activities are run by the teachers (76 percent). Very few said that there is an elected committee (20 percent) that runs the School Feeding Programme in their school. The exercise of power is not shared accordingly between teachers and parents. Teachers, on the other hand, play a major role in the School Feeding. School teachers, as earlier stated in the in-depth interviews and practical attachment, are involved at the level of implementation and coordination through monthly Community Forum meetings where they attend meetings. Teachers also ensure that wet HEPS porridge is hygienically prepared and that every child present is fed.

Thus, the participation of parents of collecting firewood and preparing the porridge is a mere passive. As Serveas (1996) warned mere 'doing' or 'bodily presence' is not participation. Participation is a mutual interactive, collective and negotiated approach to problem solving. This kind of controlled participation does not recognise the abilities, knowledge and experience of parents. It appears parents are only pressurised to take part simply because they have no alternative.

6.1.2 **Kind of Communication used in the School Feeding Programme**

In this study, it was found that interpersonal communication (86 percent) is the predominate form of communication used. Face- to-face discussion is used to share information in the community. On the other hand, mass media (6 percent) is less used (Diagram 15 and Table 17). In terms of sex, both males and female reported that interpersonal communication is the most used form of communication. Face-to-face communication is particularly used at meetings. It is a matter of concern that the programme is not able to reach out to as many people as possible.

Mass media channels such as radio and leaflets and posters are not used for effective creating awareness of the innovation of feeding children at school and for diffusion of basic nutrition /health information both to the school children and to the community in general. Also, the School Feeding Programme does not use mass media for community mobilisation and education.

Radio, leaflets and other mass media if used could help spread information on health and nutrition and other development issues. In this way, communities would be empowered to participate in their own development process. In this Study, as earlier pointed out, there is no evidence use of radio discussion and printed forms such as leaflets, brochures and posters to carry messages on health and nutrition. Reference to use of radio relates only to passing of announcements of dates for Monthly Community Forum/meetings. This is despite the fact that there are two local community radio stations in the district. Equally, there are no specific messages targeting children with messages on health and nutrition. According to the school children surveyed (Table 17), 64 percent reported that they do not receive nutrition/health information at school. The few who reported that they received nutrition /health information that they do (Diagram 14) said that they receive it only as class discussions (60 percent).

6.1.2 **Use of Available local/Traditional Channels**

According to this study, the School Feeding Programme makes little use of other available local /traditional media. 64 percent of the School children surveyed (Diagram 15), reported that they do not receive nutrition/health information (64 percent) at school. In communicating Health/nutrition information to the school children, the school Feeding Programme mainly uses class discussions in the class lessons.

There is little or no evidence of active community or group using media or group communication to either produce their own health/nutrition messages or for the learners to become a critical audience (Pillar Riaño 1994). While the teacher and parents/community leaders said that school children health/nutrition information is provided, non-traditional media such as folk stories, proverbs, drama and local symbolisms are not used for community mobilization, education or even entertainment.

In this study, the school seem to be perceived as the centre and the means of reaching out to the community. The local networks comprising chiefs, headmen, and politicians call meetings, but the most recognized and frequently attended are those called by school authorities (Diagram 15). According to 82 percent of the respondents, teachers are frequently used as contacts for meetings. There is less and limited exploitation of local networks in the social system of the community. This can be attributed to the likelihood of School administration and teachers are the early adopters as they are technically sophisticated and interested in new innovations for solving academic and professional problems.

In this study, 82 percent of the respondents said that the school administration is the communication channel used by Ministry of Education and Project Concern International (MoE/PCI) officials to diffuse the information on the idea of feeding children at school. School children (12 percent) are another channel through which the community received information about the school Feeding Programme. There is very little contact between teachers, parents/community and the school children as beneficiaries of the programme on one hand, and Ministry of Education/Project Concern International (MoE/PCI) officials on the other as implementers.

6.1.4 **Lack of agro inputs as the underlying Cause of food Shortage in the community.**

The Ministry of Education and Project Concern International (MoE/PCI) perceive the problem of food shortage in the community/area as a result of drought and flood conditions in the 2004/2005 agricultural season. However, according to this study, the underlying cause of food shortage is mainly lack of agro inputs (76 percent). This has been worsened by other factors such as lack of employment, and other natural disasters such as droughts and floods and also sheer laziness among some people.

Food insecurity in the community is caused by a number of underlying factors mentioned above. Hence, food shortages and hunger among children is to be addressed effectively, several factors such as agro inputs; creation of income security and poverty must be looked at holistically. It appears that the School Feeding Programme as an initiative is an ad hoc measure to address deeply rooted social conditions children face elsewhere in the community such as lack of income security in the home due to lack of employment opportunities.

6.2 **Emerging Issues from In-depth Interviews and Observations**

The findings from both the interviews and participatory observation show that in terms of participation in programme identification and formulation, there was no participation of the community. However, there is limited participation in the implementation and coordination of the school Feeding Programme.

Whereas it is said that the programme initially started as an emergence response to the previous floods and droughts, the programme continues to evolve into a large scale adhoc response to hunger without addressing the very root of the problem. In the schools sampled, no school gardens were food to be working during the study. The programme has, in fact, taken on issues of HIV/AIDS.

The use of elected committees appears to be a good way of involving the community in its own development activities. In most of the schools sampled, the school committees are not actively involved in decision-making process. Mostly, women were the ones involved in collecting firewood and preparing food for the children. Hence, these committees should be enhanced to involve the community in decision-making so that they can develop capacity to solve their own development challenges.

The elected committees are not very functional in most of the school sampled. While members of the elected committees are supposed to be responsible for the overall running of community schools, in most cases, the non-teaching members of these committees do not attend all the monthly coordinating meetings. The wider community need to be sensitised more to take part in their own development programmes. For now though community school teachers are volunteers, they are seen to be dominating the activities of the programme to such an extent that the community voices are excluded.

The voice and views of school children miss from the planning of the activities of the School Feeding Programme. This is undesirable if we are to achieve sustainability in the fight against hunger. The children need to be involved more in the creating messages on health and nutrition using various media such as poems, plays and sketches, and in creating their own printed messages through such competitions as poster creation.

Chapter 7

Conclusion and Recommendations

7.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines conclusions and recommendations of the study on how Participatory Communication and other communication strategies can be used to make the School Feeding Programme more effective in the mobilization and education of the community so that they can participate meaningfully and effectively in the implementation and coordination of the activities.

Before making recommendations, is a brief summary of findings and conclusions.

7.1 Conclusions

From the findings of this study, it is evident that there is no comprehensive use of Participatory Communication as the basis for identifying, formulating, implementing and coordinating School Feeding Programme at school level. Evidence available shows that the School Feeding Programme in Mongu though initially started as an emergency response to Zambia's food crises in 2002 and 2003 and has evolved into a long term approach for meeting a range of the most critical needs of Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVCs) in community schools and drop-in-centres. The programme still continues to operate as such and has taken on another of HIV/AIDS, for example. Hence, there is need to reposition the programme so it can address the underlying causes of food shortages and hunger in the community.

Participatory Communication is a social process in which the local community and the development planners come together in dialogue and agree on the course of action to improve a situation negatively affecting the community. The formulation of the School Feeding Programme did not involve the local community in identifying possible solutions to the problem of food shortages in the community.

Available evidence, as stated earlier, suggests that members of the local community, namely parents and teachers were merely informed either through the school administration or school children. Officials from either the Ministry of Education or Project Concern international did not use dialogue with the beneficiaries in the formulation of the programme. Equally, the voices of children as beneficiaries of the programme were not taken into consideration in programme. This is despite evidence the majority of the respondents being able to identify the major problems their community faces.

In terms of implementation, the School Feeding Programme allows for a limited participatory communication' and dialogue with the local community. In theory, the school/centre committees comprising teachers and parents that run the overall affairs of the schools are also responsible for the affairs of the School Feeding Programme. However, according to the majority of the respondents and to observations, the school teachers are the ones who dominate in the implementing the programmes at the expense of parents and community leaders. The teachers supervise, keep records and submit monthly return and also attend monthly coordination meetings. On the other hand, the role of the parents/community leaders is preparation and collection of firewood. Hence, the majority of the respondents perceived that the School Feeding Programme as having been initiated by the Ministry of Education and Project Concern International. It was only in very few instances that the programme was seen as having been initiated by the community.

The problem of food shortage in the community is a multifaceted one. All the respondents agree that there is food shortage in the community. The surveyed respondents attributed food shortage in the community/area to a number of factors. However, as stated earlier, the majority of the respondents attributed the food shortage to lack of agro inputs and lack of employment. Very few of respondents attributed food shortages to floods and laziness among people. For this reason, there is need for the Ministry of Education and Project Concern International to join forces with the Ministry of Agriculture and other experts in this field and in health to find an everlasting solution to the problem of food shortage and hunger among households in the community.

Interpersonal form of communication largely exists in the community and the school which the Ministry of Education and Project Concern International can make full use of in order to promote nutrition and health activities at the school level. The majority of the respondents said that most meetings that are called to discuss development issues are by school administrations. These meetings mainly revolve around discussion of the school activities and not necessarily development issues of school health and nutrition. However, very few meeting to discuss development issues are called by headmen, chiefs and politicians. So, it can be said that the school is seen as important in disseminating messages of development. However, the School Feeding Programme does not make full use of this opportunity.

Again as stated earlier, the School Feeding Programme appears to make very little use of mass communication forms of communication. There is very little use of radio and other mass media for sharing development information in the community. In fact, where respondents surveyed said that learners in community schools receive health/ nutrition information; very few said that they take the form of mass communication.

Parent/community leaders interviewed unanimously said that School Feeding Programme it is not a good option to solve food shortage/hunger among school children and very few endorsed it as s a way forward. However, the idea the idea of feeding children at school was not considered as bad in itself. Most of the respondents felt that School Feeding Programme should continue only as a measure to fill the void in cases of disaster in community. The respondents suggested that there was need to empower households with agro inputs so that they can grow their own food.

7 .2 **Recommendations**

The following are the recommendations to improve Participatory Communication in the implementation of the School Feeding Programme in community schools in Mongu district:

7.2.1 **Use Participatory Communication Research to analyse and address underlying factors.**

In order to improve School Feeding Programme delivery, the first and foremost key consideration is that there is need to best understand the underlying factors responsible for food insecurity in the community in Mongu. Therefore, in this connection, it is advisable for the programme to use Participatory Communication Appraisal techniques for consultation with the community.

Participatory Communication Appraisal must be used to analyse the situation holistically. Among some of the participatory communication tools that can enhance dialogue among and between communities and programme planners are Focus Group Discussions, in-depth interviews, mass media communication such as radio programmes, leaflets and posters. This will enable development agents to better understand the underlying factors of food insecurity before giving prescriptive solutions to community problems as seen from the planner's perspective.

7.2.2 **Creation of community participation mechanisms in the School Feeding Programme formulation**

As the Ministry of Education, Mongu District Education Board in partnership with Project Concern International (PCI) and United Nations World Food Programme (UN-WFP) engages in the process of increasing the School Feeding Programme service coverage to twenty-five other Government basic schools in Mongu, mechanisms should be forged and put in places to provide for greater community participation in the formulation of the programme especially by parents and other community leaders. This is more so in view of the fact that as in the case of community school programme already running, the entry point is food aid with the view to eventually replacing it with own food self- sustaining activities such as school gardens which

involve the entire community. Admittedly, this is a huge and ambitious programme and the members of the community who face the consequences of the decisions made must be involved.

Unlike in the community school programme, in the new programme, dialogue should be encouraged between the community/school. The formulation of the programme should encourage dialogue between the community and the school, and the programme designers and the community. The members of the community should be involved in formulating strategies. As evidence from the study shows that meetings held are usually in the community, it can be quite easy for the programme designers to involve the community. The planners of the School Feeding Programme in Mongu could use skills and tools of participatory communication to take advantage of such meetings.

The Ministry of Education and Project Concern International must initiate dialogue with the target group and let the groups jointly agree on the course of action with their help. Thu, Participatory Communication as consultation can lead to active acquisition of knowledge and information. Hence, both the programme planners and beneficiaries can have the correct information to base their actions on.

7.2.3 **Need for Multimedia Approach in the Diffusion of nutrition/health Information**

In this study it was found that interpersonal communication in form of face-to-face discussion is mostly used to communicate nutrition/health information to school children and the community at the expense of mass media such as radio, posters, and leaflets.

There is need for the School Feeding Programme in Mongu does to provide for a balanced use of mass media channels such as radio and leaflets and posters for effective awareness creation of the innovation of feeding children at school and for diffusing basic nutrition /health information both to the school children and to the community in general. Community mobilisation and education in this programme is not done through the use of mass media. Like scholars of communication have advocated, multimedia approach leads to successful persuasion and dialogue. For example, communication campaigns using posters, pamphlets, and the local radio stations such as Oblate radio Liseli and Radio Lyambai can help bring awareness on the

issue of health and nutrition and self- reliance and to persuade people to take up roles in the programme. Interpersonal communication sources of information such as peer education, drama, and group communication and contacts are necessary to make clarification about the programme.

7.2.3 **Use of other local /Traditional Group media channels.**

In this study, evidence shows clearly that the School Feeding Programme does not make use of other available local or traditional means of communication such as drama and role-play, poetry and other non-tradition such as folk stories, proverbs, drama and local symbolisms. The Lozi people of Western Zambia have a very rich repertoire of sayings and proverbs which could be easily adopted to enrich communication about school Feeding programme and food sustainability.

These available or tradition means of communication forms of local and group media networks could be effectively used to diffuse nutrition and health information both for the school children and the community. There are many advantages of using these media. Firstly, they provide both an entertaining and enjoyable active involvement of the group in gaining a critical understanding of their own problems and situation and how to resolve them. Secondly, they are readily available, cheap and provide community with a self understanding. Hence, they can be an important vehicle for both communication of nutrition and health information in the classroom and the community, and for community mobilisation, education and entertainment. Thirdly, people easily identify with these available local or traditional forms of communication if they are used in the School Feeding Programme.

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED TO PARENTS/TEACHERS/COMMUNITY LEADERS IN THE MOE/PCI SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME IN MONGU

Personal Detail

Name:----------Occupation:----------Teachers(I)Parents/other leaders (1)

School :---------- Area :----------

District: ---------- Sex :----------male (1) Female (2)

Questions

1. Do you know if there is a school Feeding Programme in your area/school?

   YES (1) NO (2)

2. How many children do you have?

   1 None(1) One(2) two(3) Four(4) Five(5) Six(6) Seven or more(7).

3. Do you have any child/dependant(s) on this programme? YES (1) NO (2)

4. What is the age of your children /dependant(s) are on the programme?

   (1)------- Below 5 years (2) ---------- 5-7 years

   (3) ----------8 -12 years (4) ---------- Above 12 years

5 Who initiated the school feeding programme in your school/area?

   Community (1) School (2) MOE/PCI (3). No Idea(4)

6. What type of food do the children on the programme receive?

   Plain porridge (1) Porridge with HEPS (2).

   Milk (3) others {specify ----------} (4). No idea (5)

7. How many times are children on the programme fed at school daily?

   One (1) Two (2) No idea (3)

8. How did you know of the existence of the School Feeding Programme? Radio (1) Newspaper (2) Leaflets (3) told by neighbour (4). Told by my school child (5). School administration (6).

9. Do you think there is food shortage in your area?

YES (1) No (2) (If No go to Q12)

10. If YES in question 10, who are the most affected by food shortages?

Children (1) Women (2) Elderly (3) Chronically ill (4) OVCs (5)

11. What do you think is the most serious problems affecting people in this area/community you? Lack of food (1) Lack of water (2) drought (3) poverty (4) Disease (5) Lack of 9.infra-structure (6)

12. What initiative did the community/school take/is taking to solve these problems above?

Called a meeting (1) Reported to government/local leaders (2) Approached NGOs (3) No action (4)

13. If you did nothing about the problem, what prevented you from taking own initiative? No leadership (1) Lack of knowledge of what to do (2) No reason (3)

14. Do you hold meetings to discuss development issues in you area?

YES (1) NO (2).

15. If YES in question 14, who calls these development meetings? Headman /Chief (1) Politicians (2) Schoolteachers (3)

16. What are the factors/causes of food shortages in your area? Lack of inputs (1) Floods (2) Droughts (3) Laziness (4) drunkenness (5) others {specify} ----------(6)

17. What mode of communication do people in your community / school use to share information on development or problems? Meetings (1) Radio (2) Newspapers/magazines (3).

18. In your school/community who is responsible for running the School feeding Programme?

Tradition leaders (1) Local councillors (2). School teachers (3) Elected committee (4) No Idea (5)

19. Are you happy with the school Feeding Programme? YES (1) NO (2)

20. Give the most common disease children often suffer from in your school/community.

malaria(1) diarrhoea (2)Bilharzias(3) Eye Diseases(4) Ring worms(5) Other{ specify ---------}(6)

21. What do you think are some of the effects of lack of food/diseases on children /school children?

Absenteeism (1) Lack of concentration in class (2) Poor school results (3) Stunted growth (4)

22. What other materials/service do children receive from MoE/PCI provide you with? Seeds (1) Maize (2). Pencils/Books (3) None (4)

23. Do you pay for these materials? YES (1) NO (2)

24. Does the MoE/PCI provide the school children with information on nutrition/health? YES (1) NO (2)

25. If YES in question 23, in what form is the information? Discussions (1) Printed materials (2) radio programmes (3) Drama /play (4)

26. Who benefits from School Feeding Programme? All the school-children (1). Some of the school children (2). Only present registered pupils (3). Upon registration and attendance

27. Who chooses the children to benefit from the school Feeding Programme? Teachers (1) Councillors (2) MoE/PCI (3) School (3)

28. What are the problems do school going children face in your community/area?

Distance (1) Absenteeism (2) hunger (3) Diseases (4) Lack of water (5)

29. What do you think is/are the cause(s) of sicknesses among school children in your area? Dirty drinking water (1) mosquitoes (2) Lack of good nutrition (3) No idea (4)

30. What role do you play as a parent/teacher in the programme in the school?

Supervising preparation of food (1) Preparing food (2) None (3) Firewood collection (4).

31. Do you think/feel that a school feeding programme like this one is the best way to address food /hunger problems among school children? YES (1) NO (2)

32. If NO in question 31, suggest the best way forward explain

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APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED TO SCHOOL-GOING CHILDREN IN THE MOE/PCI SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME IN MONGU DISTRICT

Personal Details

Name: ---------- School: ----------

District: ---------- Area: ---------- Sex---- Girl (1) Boy (2)

Age: Below 5years (1) 5-7 years (2) 7-12 years (3) Above12 years (4)

Questions

1. What grade are you? 0-1(1) Grade 1-4 (2) Grade 5-7(3) Above Grade 7(4)
2. How many are you in your family? One- Four members (1) Five to Seven members (2) Above seven members (3)
3. Is there a School-Feeding Programme in your school? Yes (1 No (2)
4. Are you on the School-Feeding Yes (1) No (2)
6. What type of food do you receive at school? Plain porridge (1) HEPS porridge with oil (2)

HEPS only (3) others (4) {specify ----------} (5)

7. If YES in question 5, were you asked to choose the type of food
8. Do you always eat HEPS porridge at home as a meal? YES (1) NO (2)
9. Are you happy with the food you are given? Yes (1) No (2)

Give reasons for your answer

10. Give the biggest problems pupils face in your school/area in order of importance hunger (1) Distance (2) Diseases (3) Hunger (4)
11. Do you usually eat any food at home before you going to school? Yes (1) No (2)
12. If YES, how often? Everyday (1) At least twice a week (2) More than twice a week (3)
13. Does the MoE/PCI provide you with education about health and/ or nutrition? Yes (1) No (2).
14. If YES, what type of materials do they use? Posters (1) Leaflets (2) Magazines (3)

15. Give the most common disease you/your friends often suffer from in your school/community. malaria(1) diarrhoea(2)Bilharzia(3) Eye Diseases(4) ring worms(5)Other{ specify ---------}(6)

16. What are some of the materials/service does MoE/PCI provide you with? Seeds (1) maize (2) Pencils/Books (3)

17. Do you pay for these materials? ? (1).YES (2).NO

18. Do you any contact with MOE/PCI involved in School Feeding Programme? (1).YES (2).NO

19. What means do you use to share information with MoE/PCI officials? Face to face discussion (1) Letters (2) No contact (3)