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**Sport for Development: Addressing HIV/AIDS in Zambian Under-served Community Schools through Sport and Physical Education Programmes:**

**An analysis of the contextual realities of programme participants**



Master thesis

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree  
Master of International Education and Development (NOMA)

## DEDICATION

*To †Kanjira Chikanzura Phiri (Mongu Teacher's College) and †Francis Liamba Belemu Snr (Mongu and Nkrumah Teacher's Colleges). Gentlemen, from deep down my heart, I know that, had you lived a little longer to see this work, you would have been the most proud, for you believed and planted in me, a culture of passion and responsibility. Above all, you gave me courage and inspiration, for this, you shall forever remain the beacons of all my current and future endeavours.*

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*Kabanda Mwansa, September 2009, Oslo, Norway*

## **ABSTRACT**

This study addresses the implications of sport for development. It focuses on how sport and Physical Education (PE) programmes are being used in addressing HIV/AIDS in Zambian under-served community schools. It, however, takes into consideration, the contextual de facto of the target groups where these programmes are implemented. The study argues that local contexts have a direct influence on these programmes. Thus, different stake-holders in the programmes ought not to overlook this school of thought. Among the contextualised realities in community schools is that, there are no desirable facilities that may fully support such programmes. The learning environment is not as conducive as one may expect, and naturally these schools are somehow neglected by the country's political powers. The schools do not have enough qualified teaching staff, a problem, which stake-holders appreciate. On the other hand, poverty and unemployment levels in the wider communities hosting these schools highly influence the outcome of the programmes in question.

The study reveals that awareness and knowledge of HIV/AIDS among participants is present. The use of sport and PE in disseminating HIV/AIDS awareness information is working. But other factors as indicated above bring to the table, different dynamics that stand as challenges to a much significant result. The study also revealed that the "Kicking Aids Out" (KAO) activities, particularly the actual sessions with the target groups are even more effective. They form a good platform for sustainable behaviour formation and change among participants. However, leaders of the programmes at all levels must be well informed of both the global and the contextual HIV/AIDS issues. The desire to claim a bigger share in the implementation of HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE activities has seen the introduction of many leaders in advance of capacity to understand fully, their responsibilities.

The study concludes that by seeking economic prowess, under-served communities may result into well developed community capacity that could cushion local challenges. The study shows poverty, economic and gender inequality, unemployment and other negative socio-cultural beliefs to have highly contributed to the spreading of HIV/AIDS. The subsequent pressure to survive a day seems to have made the HIV/AIDS situation worse. Programmes whose outcomes do not reflect immediate survival are not taken as serious. As such, more attention should be given to under-served communities by supporting them with monetary and material resources, if the high prevalence rates of HIV/AIDS transmission are to be intervened.

## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

|          |   |
|----------|---|
| CDC      | Curriculum Development Centre   |
| CSO      | Central Statistical Office, Zambia  |
| EduSport | Education through Sport   |
| EFA      | Education for All   |
| GRZ      | Government of the Republic of Zambia                                      |
| HIV/AIDS | Human Immunodeficiency Virus or/and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome   |
| IMF      | International Monetary Fund   |
| KAO      | Kicking Aids Out  |
| MYSA     | Matare Youth Sports Association   |
| MDGs     | Millennium Development Goals  |
| MOE      | Ministry of Education in Zambia   |
| NGOs     | Non- Governmental Organizations'  |
| NESP     | National Education Strategic Plan   |
| NOWSPAR  | National Organisation of Women in Sport, Physical Activity and Recreation |
| OGCS     | Operational Guidelines for Community Schools                              |
| PCI      | Public Concern International  |
| PE       | Physical Education  |
| PTA      | Parents and Teachers Association  |
| SCORE    | Sports Coaches OutReach   |
| SESO     | Senior Education Standards Officer  |
| SIA      | Sport in Action   |
| SFA      | Sport for All   |
| SFCS     | Strategic Framework for Community Schools                                 |
| UN       | United Nations  |
| UNICEF   | United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund                    |
| UNESCO   | United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation           |
| ZOCS     | Zambia Open Community Schools   |

\*Photo ( front page) is with courtesy of the International "Kicking Aids Out" Secretariat taken at a community school in Lusaka, Zambia (2006 )

## MAP OF ZAMBIA



(Source: [www.mapsofworld.com](http://www.mapsofworld.com) 21/03/09)

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# **1. INTRODUCTION**

HIV/AIDS is a global concern. Young people account for nearly half of all new HIV/AIDS infections worldwide. In sub-Saharan Africa, there are 3.2 million young people living with HIV/AIDS (WHO 2008). The economically poor citizens are the worst affected (Avert, 2009). Against this background, governments and non-governmental groups alike have been overwhelmed to mount, massive campaigns to educate their citizens about the deadly disease. Different means of mitigating it are being tried in different parts of the world, especially among the economically challenged populations. In Zambia, sport, Physical Education (PE), play and other fun physical activities are being used in the poor communities and community schools catering for the under-served children, as a metaphor to intervene in the HIV/AIDS problem. This initiative falls within the contemporary methods of sport for development, hence triggering the current study.

This chapter explains the reason why this particular study that explores how sport and PE is being used in trying to reduce the rate at which HIV/AIDS is spreading was initiated. Succeeding this introduction, the chapter presents the statement of the problem and followed by the objective of the study. Further, the chapter canvases the study by putting in view, the main task of the study. This is coupled with sub questions that make it easier for the task to be realized.

## **1.1 Statement of the Problem**

I have come across a few studies in development through sport initiatives, particularly HIV/AIDS through sport and other physical activities. However, to the best of my knowledge, most of these studies have either been done completely outside the school or entirely within the school setting. But in the case of this study, I have considered both the school setting and the wider communities in which a target school is hosted. In other words, I have approached this study with a conviction that the learning environment is not limited to the confines of the school but even beyond, into the wider community. Against this background, I have taken Darnell and Hoem (1996) as my frame of reference when they argue that the character of a school is to a larger extent shaped by its wider environment beyond the formal systems. In essence, the study explores the physical and social conditions located within the formal school setting in relation to the contextual realities in the wider community in which members of the

school live. The idea is to explore whether the above two perspectives (school and wider community) contradict or engage each other.

However, many difficult questions arise when this issue specifically concerns under-served community schools. Due to the foregoing, this study focuses on the under-served community schools located right in under-served communities and catering for under-served children. Under-served communities in this regard are the poor neighborhoods or slums with limited basic social structures and resources which could improve its capacity to fulfill its aspirations. In addition, under-served communities equally have schools with similar characteristics as the wider communities hosting them. That is why the issue in contention is that: what could such schools (considering their internal and external environments) characterize that could either promote or hinder HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE programmes? On the other hand, a few studies as indicated in the literature review chapter show that with the right conditions, sport is able to make a good medium through which important information can be delivered to the intended target. In turn, the targeted persons should be able to positively utilize the new knowledge for a better living. But what are these right conditions and how are they determined?

In order to meet the objective of the study which is fully explored in the next sub-topic, a main question was first of all formulated. This was subsequently followed up by redefining the main question into more specific sub-questions. It is with the aid of these more specific sub-questions that a journey by a way of an inquiry into the problem of study began. Below is the objective of the study that gives more light on this academic project.

## **1.2 Objective of the Study**

Considering the foregoing, the objective of this study seeks to gain a deeper and comprehensive understanding of some socio-dynamics at play. That is to say, how contextual realities (i.e. social and economic challenges) obtaining in the poor under-served community schools and the surrounding communities hosting them affect the outcome of HIV/AIDS education. This is specifically the HIV/AIDS education taught through the use of sport and PE programmes. Part of the objective is to also explore how this education package is eventually applied to the wider community with the contextual challenges therein. However, in pursuit of meeting my study objective, I formulated the research question as follows:

### **1.3 Main Research Question**

What are some of the factors that might affect HIV/AIDS education delivered through sport and PE programmes in selected under-served community schools located in under-served communities? (This takes into consideration, the internal school learning environment and social systems in relation to the wider communities hosting the respective schools).

Nonetheless, to make the study more practical to undertake, the main research question was narrowed down to the following sub-questions:

### **1.4 Sub Questions**

- What are the most significant contextual realities in the selected communities and how do they impact the lives of the local people in relation to the programmes in question?
- How are programmes of HIV/AIDS through Sport and PE implemented in the selected schools?
- How do the NGO's that use sport and other physical activities to educate people on HIV/AIDS improve the quality of HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE?
- What are the challenges and opportunities for HIV/AIDS information flowing from the school into the wider community?

However, to find answers to the above questions, a clearly set rationale that provides experiential and academic motivation for undertaking such a study may be vital to consider. Below is the rationale to the study.

### **1.5 Rationale of the Study**

Both the natural and the social sciences have generally reported on issues associated to HIV/AIDS, but this has mostly been seen through the lenses of the medical personnel (Baxen and Breidlid 2009). This could be the more reason why such studies rarely take up other underlying factors. These are factors such as perceptions, contextual experiences, knowledge and the realities of affected individuals and communities. This study is an attempt to present contextual realities and experiences of affected people from a rather sociological perspective

rather than a medical one. In this regard, the study looks at HIV/AIDS to be a disease that is undermining both human and social development (Campbell 2003, Baxen and Breidlid 2009). As such urgency of mitigating it ought to override the talk about the difference between HIV on one hand and AIDS on the other. Contextual realities especially in the poor and under-served communities indicate that this talk has no valuable meaning as HIV/AIDS is experienced differently. Baxen and Breidlid (2009:4) write that “this brings with it, new challenges of how the disease is perceived, experienced, understood, responded to and researched among different groups within and across communities”.

Against this background, this study addresses both HIV and AIDS as one. Hence it addresses HIV/AIDS as the target communities experience it, perceiving it as a disease. I chose to focus on under-served communities because research (as explored in Chapter 4) shows that this group is more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS as compared to other groups. Actually, this is what should motivate a very strong focus on interventions that address prevention in such communities. However, my specific attention on the use of sport and PE programmes is a way of bringing to the table, other relevant and feasible ways of addressing HIV/AIDS, especially when it concerns under-served communities. A quote below from UNICEF (2004:16) gives some food for thought before the actual exploration into the subject is done:

*He was once a professional football player. Now, in Chainda, one of Lusaka’s poorest compounds, coach Benson Lwenge wants children to know that AIDS kills. Four days a week, the children of Yasheni Community School, aged 8 to 14 years, flock to a makeshift sports ground in a field of overgrown grass, about half a kilometre from their school. Most of them have no sneakers or sportswear (UNICEF 2004:16).*

In addition to the foregoing, I have a versatile personal motivation for writing this thesis. I have for a long time been working with children and youths in disadvantaged communities. As a teacher of sport and PE at St Patricks Girl’s Primary School in Lusaka, Zambia, I taught children of different economic backgrounds. I taught children who lived in the sprawling slum areas of the city. The school attracted such children because it was partly run by the Catholic Church and partly by the government. The church once in a while gave alms to disadvantaged children, hence the overwhelming number of disadvantaged children in this school. I had also an opportunity to volunteer at a neighbouring community school to teach sport and PE in my free time. This community school was entirely run by the Catholic Church and had 100% children from the slum areas of Lusaka. This gave me an insight of how a community school operates.

Later on as teacher of sport, I volunteered to work for the EduSport Foundation in my free time by offering my expertise in working with children from under-served communities. In the process, EduSport engaged me as Programme Director on full time basis. This initiated my interest in the EduSport's way of working with under-served communities. Hearing the voices of under-served children right on the ground where it is all happening gave me the courage to embark on this study. Actually, choosing qualitative methodology in this study was influenced by a thought that it would help me focus on the perspectives of the affected people and it could give some value to their voices.

In recent years, there has been an increase in the focus on the devastating effects of HIV/AIDS especially on poor communities. Thus, I consider HIV/AIDS prevention programmes targeted on the poor to be of great importance to development work. At another level, sport and other fun physical activities are being highly recommended to be integrated into the development agenda. The United Nations (2003) for example, has in recent years considered the incorporation of sport as a useful tool in programmes involving development and peace such as the Millennium Development Goals. Due to the forgoing, I feel it is worthwhile to contribute to developing tools for new ways of developing and sustaining awareness, attitudes and positive behaviour in the affected communities. However, this should be done in a courteous appropriate manner and according to the locally accessed needs of the affected people.

I also did a study module titled `HIV/AIDS and Social Identities` at the University of Cape Town as part of this academic programme. This module emphasised on the contextual realities of different social groups affected by HIV/AIDS. This indeed helped me to choose the focus for my field work. Before I present the overview of the whole thesis in the next sub topic, I wish to state here that my hope is to contribute to the already existing literature on the role of sport and PE in HIV/AIDS prevention. This is specifically among the poor under-served communities whose contextual factors make them vulnerable to HIV/AIDS.

## **1.6 Overview of the Thesis**

The aforementioned introductory chapter is succeeded by a contextual background chapter within which HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE programmes is situated. The chapter

further outlines the HIV/AIDS situation in Zambia, particularly Lusaka. It also elaborates the insights of the under-served communities and the community schools. In addition, it highlights on the different stakeholders in the fight against the disease and the baseline situation of affected communities and institutions. Lastly the chapter shades light on the actual research sites where the primary data was collected.

Chapter 3 presents the methods through which the data for this study was accessed. It mentions some beforehand information the researcher had, about the field of research before embarking on the actual study. It further highlights on the research paradigm and design before explaining the case study and the qualitative research means of collecting data. Primarily, interviews, document analysis or reviews and observations have been explained. In conclusion, the reflexivity and the research ethics have also been discussed.

Chapter 4 is all about literature and the theoretical perspectives bordering this study. Relevant theories and concepts contributing to the understanding of this study have been discussed and explained before being used in the analysis of the findings. The influence of sport and the impact it may give to different social contexts has also been presented.

Chapter 5 deals more on the analysis of the research findings and is an extension of the work that began in the field. This chapter brings into the study, the voices of the participants, that is to say, pupils, teachers, and parents alike. The voices of the participants as they experience their contextual realities are combined with theories and other concepts. In the beginning, I shade more light on the relationship existing between community schools and the Zambian government authorities. I discuss the challenges affecting both parties as it concerns HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE. Secondly, I discuss contextual realities as experienced by other participants in the study as regard to HIV/AIDS and the local context in which it is situated.

Chapter 6 is the conclusion of the study and strives to answer the research questions. It tries to pull the whole study together by establishing the extent to which the theories and concepts used have been relevant to the progression of the study. It also brings into limelight, recommendations related to the study that could be vital to future developments and follow-ups.



## **1.7 Chapter Sum- Up**

This chapter introduced the tenets of the current study by presenting its brief background. After that, a statement of the problem to the study was explored before the main objective of undertaking this study was fully explained. Part of the objective was to gain a deeper and comprehensive understanding of how contextual realities could have an effect on the HIV/AIDS programmes. These are HIV/AIDS programmes presented through the use of sport and PE in under-served community schools and their respective poor communities. Later on, the chapter highlighted the main and the sub questions to the study before presenting the rationale behind. Lastly the chapter presented the general overview of the thesis. That is, how the entire written work has been formulated on paper.

In the next chapter, the contextual background of the study forms a basis from which the whole study springs. The chapter moves from the general to specific narrative information.

## **2. CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND**

This chapter presents some background information about Zambia in general and about the research sites in particular. Although the chapter highlights on the geographical aspects of Zambia such as population size, geographical position and the distribution of settlements, it specifically explores the social and economic status of the country. It explores how the foregoing is linked to the education sector and the HIV/AIDS problem. The chapter also presents some challenges brought about by gender inequality and how this is related to HIV/AIDS. The sports structures in Zambia are also explained, this is coupled with how PE and other sports related programmes are implemented in schools. In the end, the chapter focuses on Lusaka province as the general site for the research and the challenges there in. It also gives details of the actual research sites and the people involved. The challenges and other important information related to the study are also highlighted. Succeeding this brief introduction is the general picture of Zambia in a nutshell.

### **2.1 Zambia in a Nutshell**

Zambia constitutes a large part of Central and Southern Africa with a total area of 753,000 (Table 1) square kilometers. It is one of the countries in Africa that is completely landlocked with 8 different neighboring countries. The last official national census in 2000 estimated the population to be at 9.9 million. However, the population is estimated to have increased significantly 7 years later, based on a 2.9 annual population growth since 2000. The population was by December 2007 estimated to be at 12.525 million (Bank of Zambia Country Profile 2009, Table 1). About 62% of the population lives in the rural areas and only 48% lives in the urban (Table 1). However, the largest urban settlements are concentrated in Lusaka and Copperbelt (CSO 2003). Women make up 50% of the total population. The population is unevenly skewed with children in the age range 0 – 14 making up 46.5% of the total population (MOE 2008). This has an effect on the social and economic status of the country as reported below.

### **2.2 Social and Economic Status**

Poverty levels have increased in the last years with the government's official figure of 69.2% in 1996 to 72.9% in 2006 (CSO 2008). The International Monetary Fund [IMF] (2007) on the other hand, estimated that in 2006, 64% of Zambians lived below the poverty line of one US \$

dollar per day and 51% were considered to be living in extreme poverty. By 2007 the estimated figure of people that lived below the poverty line rose to 80% (CSO 2008, UNDP 2007) as Table 1 below shows. In addition, unemployment levels continue to go higher. In 2007, 16% of the 4.9 million persons available to engage in the labour market had no access to employment, hence were unemployed (CSO 2008).

The poverty levels in the country have been attributed to failing copper prices on the world market in recent years. Copper has been Zambia’s main economy stabiliser in both the pre and post independence times (Table 1). BBC (2009.1) indicates that “in the late 1960s, Zambia was the third largest copper miner after the United States of America and the Soviet Union.....but the world copper prices collapsed in 1975 leaving devastating effects on the economy of Zambia that largely depended on it”. The world economic clamp of 2008/2009 has worsened the already struggling Zambian economy. For example, thousands of miners on the Copperbelt have lost jobs due to the global recession that has forced at least two mines in Luanshya and Kitwe on the Copperbelt to close down. Hundreds of the redundant employees of the two affected mines are now heading to Lusaka with a hope of finding an alternative income in the formal or informal sector (Times of Zambia 2009). This situation has culminated into increased populations in the unplanned and under-served slum areas of Lusaka and the Copperbelt. The gross national income (GNI) and the gross domestic product (GDP) stand at US \$800 and US\$ 410 per capita respectively, refer to table 1 below.

**Table 1: Basic Statistics, Zambia**

| <b>Zambia</b>                                 | <b>In 2007</b>              |
|---|-----------------------------|
| Area  | 753,000 sq. km              |
| Population                                    | 12.2 million (approx.)      |
| Urban population                              | 4.8 million (approx) (38 %) |
| Rural population                              | 6.4 million (approx) (62 %) |
| Population living in poverty (<US\$1 per day) | 80 %                        |
| GDP per capita                                | US\$ 410                    |
| GNI per capita                                | US \$800                    |
| Main exports                                  | Copper, Minerals            |

(Source UNDP, 2007)

This table (Table 1) presents some statistics that are related to the study. Note the population living in poverty as at 2007. It indicates that 80% of the population is living on less than one US\$ dollar per day. Below is the link between the country's economy and education.

### **2.3 The link Between Zambia's Economy and Education**

In the education sector in Zambia, poverty manifests itself in several ways, the most significant ones include: low enrolments, low progression rates, high dropout rates and poor performance of the learners (MOE 2007). Other factors quite evident in education include ill health among the teachers, the pupils and other non-teaching players in the educational system. There is also lack of motivation and limited resources for parents to send their children to school. On the other hand, there is a wide gender gap because of choices parents have to make in the context of poverty and cultural principles on who should be sent to school between the girl and the boy child. In similar circumstances, Post Newspaper (2009:15) reports on a girl whose cultural background is a hindrance to her progression in school, she narrates that "I am a Zezulu by tribe and our culture does not allow us to complete school, we are only allowed to reach the tenth grade, and there after get married or start a business".

The foregoing could be attributed to the economic welfare of the family, some families may look at school as a hindrance to family productivity hence prioritizing informal income generating activities or simply marriage (for girls) in place of school. Ansell (2008) in a related perspective writes of a rural Bolivian tribe where all children above five years are expected to contribute to household survival, and their work that includes food preparation, child care, weeding, planting, harvesting and any other work that can be crucial to the family income. In such a situation, school becomes secondary, while survival remains primary. This could be attributed to the principles of Maslow (cited in Maslow and Lowery 1998) when he talked about the human hierarchical needs. Food, warmth and shelter for example must first be met before one starts to contemplate on self esteem where schooling may be situated. This actually brings in the issue of HIV/AIDS and other challenges in Zambia as explored below.

### **2.4 HIV/AIDS and other Challenges in Zambia**

Zambia has one of the world's most devastating HIV/AIDS epidemics and it is one of the countries of the sub Saharan Africa worst affected by the epidemic (National HIV/AIDS Council 2006). Estimates put the prevalence rate close to 16% among the 15-49 years age

group and about 1.1 million Zambians are infected with HIV/AIDS (National HIV/AIDS Council 2006, UNAIDS 2009), refer to table 2 below. More than one in every seven adults in Zambia is living with HIV and life expectancy at birth has fallen to just 42 years (CSO 2008). This could be attributed to the rate at which HIV/AIDS has continued to engulf the country. Against this background, different steps to curb the disease have been made and in 2001 Zambia was one of the 189 members of United Nations General Assembly Special Session (UNGASS) that signed a declaration of the commitment to take action on HIV/AIDS (NAC 2008) in the areas of leadership, prevention, treatment care and support, reducing vulnerability and upholding human rights (NAC 2009). In 2004, President Levy Mwanawasa<sup>1</sup> declared HIV/AIDS, a national emergency and promised to provide free antiretroviral drugs to 10,000 people by the end of 2004 (Avert 2008). Later in 2006, the unprecedented impact of the epidemic on Zambia continued and made the then minister of health to regret that:

*The HIV epidemic has been with us for almost two and half decades, during which period we have continued to experience its unprecedented impact on all aspects of our lives. Since mid 1980s, AIDS epidemic has claimed hundreds of thousands of lives; it has caused many youth and children to be orphaned and in many cases homeless; it has eroded and weakened our socio-economic systems and changed our way of life. The reality of HIV and AIDS is no longer an issue of debate, but a painful challenge that has been felt, and continues to be felt by all in Zambia.*  
(Angela Cifire Minister of Health: NAC 2006:5).

However, the scenario in Zambia is that HIV/AIDS is more prevalent in the two urban centres of Lusaka and the Copperbelt as compared to rural populations (Avert 2009). But a point worth noting is that, the most vulnerable people to the epidemic are the poor in the rural areas and in the urban slums who are least able to protect themselves from HIV/AIDS or to cope with the impact of it. The National HIV/ AIDS Strategic Framework 2006 – 2010 (2006:2) hints on this concern in the following quote: “As much as poverty makes people vulnerable to risky behaviors for HIV, the loss of the main income earner or earners in the prime of their lives due to HIV/ AIDS is pushing many families into poverty and the cycle repeats itself”. This framework (2006) goes further to state that the HIV/AIDS epidemic is as much a development concern as it is a health concern because it is making the poor poorer hence becoming even more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS. Although the HIV/AIDS epidemic has spread throughout Zambia and to all parts of its society, some groups are especially vulnerable,

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<sup>1</sup> Levy Mwanawasa died in office as President of Zambia during the course of my data collection on the 19<sup>th</sup> of August 2008

observes Avert (2009). Avert (2009) notes that young women and girls in economically poor situations are most affected by HIV/AIDS. Currently about 560 000 women aged 15 years and upwards are living with HIV/AIDS according to UNAIDS (2009), see Table 2 below.

**Table 2: Basic HIV/AIDS Statistics, Zambia**

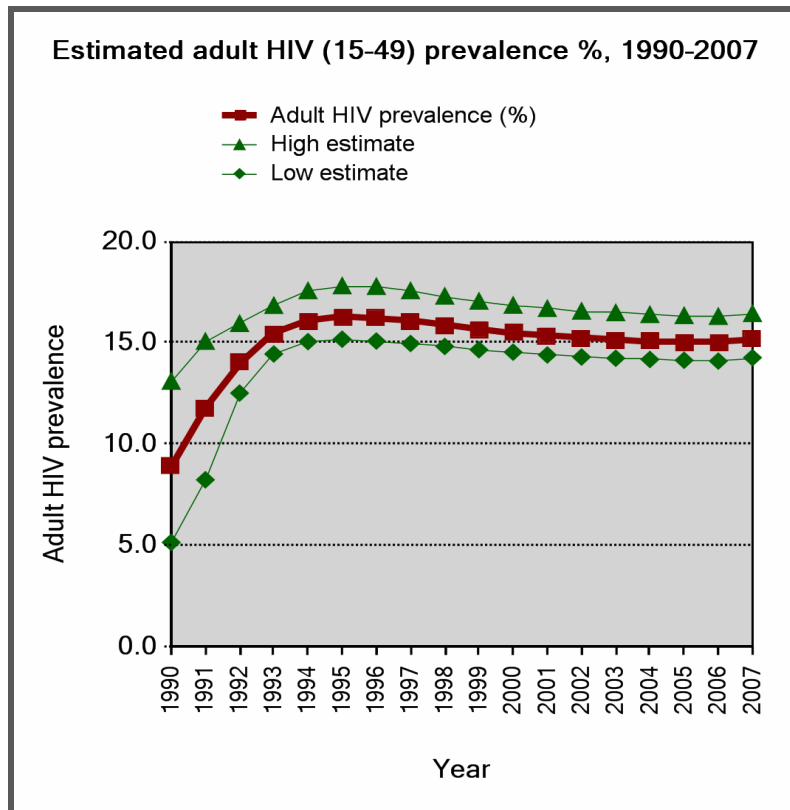
|  |           |
|--|-----------|
| Number of people living with HIV/AIDS      | 1 100 000 |
| Adults aged 15 to 49 prevalence rate       | 15.2%     |
| Adults aged 15 and up living with HIV/AIDS | 980 000   |
| Women aged 15 and up living with HIV/AIDS  | 560 000   |
| Children aged 0 to 14 living with HIV/AIDS | 95 000    |
| Orphans due to HIV/AIDS aged 0 to 17       | 600 000   |
| Deaths due to HIV/AIDS                     | 56 000    |

(Source UNAIDS 2009)

The table shows some HIV/AIDS statistics in Zambia. Note that the number of children and youths infected and affected by HIV/AIDS is quite alarming and needs an immediate intervention. On the other hand, children and youths losing their parents due to the disease is so high, as shown by the table above (Table 2).

Apart from the above statistics, the HIV/AIDS prevalence is also of great concern especially among persons between 15-49 years. The graph below (figure 3) indicates HIV/AIDS prevalence in Zambia from 1990 to 2007 among this age group. UNAIDS (2008) categorizes this age group as the most productive citizens in Zambia, especially in terms of income generating activities such as employment and other family income activities.

**Figure 1: HIV/AIDS Prevalence 1990-2007, Zambia**



Source: UNAIDS/WHO, 2008

The graph shows stability in HIV/AIDS prevalence from about 1994 to 2007. This has been attributed to behavioural changes (UNICEF 2009). However, Michelo, Sandøy and Fylkesnes (2006) write that efforts to sustain the process of behaviour change in some segments of the population in Zambia remains a challenge. For example some behaviour change identified among the most deprived groups comes with challenges of sustenance. Due to their economic and social situation, deprived groups end up engaging in risky behaviours that do not promote behaviour change as the following subtopic explores.

## 2.5 Sex as a Means for a Living

Young women in Zambia typically become sexually active earlier than men, in some situations at 17 years they already have a partner, on average five years senior (Zaccagnini 2009). In under-served and neglected slum areas of Lusaka and Copperbelt, 17 years may even be on a higher side, girls in the slum areas that are also poverty stricken start indulging in sex for survival as early as 14 years, even 13 in some situations ( Post Newspaper Zambia

2009). Zaccagnini (2009:1) in her article writes that desperate people will inevitably turn to risky occupations such as migrant labour or sex work, she notes of a common saying among under-served poor women and girls in Zambia that goes like: "AIDS may kill me in months or years, but hunger will kill me and my family tomorrow". Women and girls are more affected by the hunger situation in the country. This may be attributed to certain contextual cultural norms and customs found in Zambia (the following sub chapter will highlight more on this). On the other hand, survival options for women who are not in formal employment are so limited as compared to their men counterparts who can once in a while find some classified daily employment in the heavy industries. Some of these challenges by girls and women could be connected to local gender and cultural perspectives as explored below.

## **2.6 Gender and Cultural Perspectives**

Even if both men and women work hard for basic survival of the family, women have a bigger role of caring for the household. However, in Zambia today, especially in cities, women work untraditional roles like working in offices, working in heavy industries such as the mines, and holding numerous other influential positions, including positions in government and the military. But there is a significant gap between these women in influential positions and the women languishing in the poor slums of the cities and in the rural villages. In the rural villages and the urban slums, patriarchy is more visible and remains the dominant socio-cultural norm although it cuts across ethnic groups, livelihoods, rural and urban communities, and literate and non literate (Kelly 1994, UNICEF 2009, MOE 2008). Patriarchy influences personal relationships, intra-household interactions, and it guides responses to poverty, including informing national strategies and policies (World Bank 2004). The pervasiveness of patriarchy determines daily interactions between male and female with males (with more resources) taking advantage of females that have become victims of the system. For example some males could have a chain of girl friends that offer sex in exchange for care and support because women have limited options. This is the more reason why Simwapenga-Hamusonde (2003) singles out the problem of early pregnancies in Zambia to be promoted by multiple factors such as poverty and peer pressure. Other factors include pressure from elderly men who usually force girls into unprotected sex in exchange for material things or money, or simply lack of supervision and knowledge Simwapenga-Hamusonde (2003).



In the village, a woman's day starts with sweeping and cleaning, followed by the collection of water, often from long distances .In the slums of the cities, a woman's day starts by wondering about how her children will survive the day in terms of food because the home's food basket is a responsibility of a woman. Many women in the slums of Lusaka and the Copperbelt buy and re-sell different merchandise at the local market places or at home. The merchandise varies from vegetables to second hand clothes, depending on the available market and source. The washing of clothes (using bare hands) and the preparation of meals are also done by women. The primary responsibility for children too falls to women, although older siblings are expected to help out with these chores while males are socializing with friends and family, usually over a beer. Women tend to socialize when they are doing chores. In the slums of the city, both men and women tend to have an equal responsibility of organizing family income although men tend to have most of the power over the income (if any). Due to extreme poverty levels, it is common for some men to desert their families leaving women to care for the siblings. The HIV/AIDS and other social problems have also claimed lots of men's lives in the slums, leaving women as sole providers for the families. Owen (1996) claims that in Sub-Saharan Africa, the effects of the epidemic on the families of victims (mostly men) have been catastrophic. And this has left women as sole supporters of their families, including the sick and dying children and other dependants.

There has been a great attempt to gain greater influence for women's rights, but it proves difficult to incorporate programs that change traditional beliefs. For example, a man who wants to marry has to pay Lobola <sup>2</sup> in form of money or livestock to the family of the girl or woman he wants to marry (Scott 2006). The Lobola is considered compensation to the family for the lost services of the girl or woman. However, on the hand, some community based women's groups with the help of local and international NGO's work together in collective programmes that could benefit them economically i.e. the micro-finance system. This is hoped to give women some financial gain and a voice in the family's money matters that is characterised by pervasive gender-based inequality and discrimination against women (World Bank 2008). The socio-cultural norms in Zambia generally favour men in terms of decision-making, sharing responsibility and general economic valuation for the family (Eckman 2007). This also affects the ability of women to influence and participate fully in matters that affect their direct living. It has actually contributed to women having a very low cultural and socio-

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<sup>2</sup> This is a traditional Southern African custom whereby the man pays dowry to the family of his fiancée for her hand in marriage (Scott 2006)

economic status compounded by gender-based disparities (Eckman 2007). These disparities are more significant in property rights, limited access and control over productive resources, polygamy and education (Eckman 2007). This position of women has also made children mostly dependant on women as their sole bread winners to have limited opportunities for formal schooling. Hence, the mushrooming of under-served community schools as explored below.

## **2.7 Under-served Community Schools**

Due to lack of government's provision for essential basic services to the slum and other low cost areas as these areas are never on their priority list, local people have resorted to finding their own alternatives for such basic needs as schools, health centres etc. The slum dwellers are doing this in a desperate effort to try and improve their lives and creating better conditions that could support a meaningful living. Fukuyama (1996) writes that people are capable of both perceiving and judging the condition of their lives, that people have the will and capacity to plan together following these judgments to change that condition for the better. In Zambia, poorly served communities, just like the high cost communities have realized that school for their children is important. As a result, these under-served communities have come together to build schools of their own on self-help basis, at times with support from different stakeholders such as the Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's) working in the area. This is similar to the Kenyan situation as Onsomu, Mungai, Oulai, Sankale and Mujidik (2004) reports that in Kenya, community schools are built and maintained by communities who are also responsible for paying teachers / volunteer allowances and sourcing teaching / learning materials and other running costs. The community school phenomenon is well pronounced in urban informal settlements such as slums because of demand from those that cannot afford formal education in public / government schools. Orphans and other vulnerable children make the populations of community schools as explained below.

## **2.8 Orphans and other Vulnerable Children in Community Schools**

Community schools tend to have a natural enrolment of Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC`s). This is amplified in the following quotation that defines a community school:

*A school which is established in and run by a community which indicated the need for a school to cater for the less privileged children.... Many of these children are girls*

*and many are orphans, who for socio and economic reasons have never been to school or have dropped out school at an early age. (Mumba 2002:8)*

Community school in Zambia is currently being used as a term for initiatives in basic education that are initiated by local communities rather than by the central government to cater for the underprivileged children (MOE 2007). In line with Mumba (2002), USAID (2005) reports that the impact of the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Zambia is one reason cited for the growth of community schools. The population of orphaned children grows as more and more adults succumb to the disease. More than 600,000 children (see Table 2) have lost one or both parents. Schools have to address the needs of these alarming numbers of orphaned children, and community schools have helped provide viable options in ways that government schools have not (USAID 2005). However, according to a CARE Zambia study (2005), approximately 500,000 orphans were enrolled in basic schools in 2005. In 2007 orphans accounted for 13 percent of the government school student population and almost a third of community school enrolment (MOE 2007). USAID (2005) also notes that the HIV/AIDS epidemic and the fiscal crisis confronting the country over the past 15 years represent two notable factors contributing to the accelerated growth of community schools in Zambia since the early 1990`s. In addition, community schools can also refer to community participation in issues of especially school for children whose support from the government is either limited or non-existent at all (Mumba 2002). Mumba (2002) goes further to report that mostly in urban areas, community schools can be seen as interventions by agencies whose constituencies are the poor, children of HIV/AIDS affected families, orphans and disadvantaged girls. The next subtopic highlights generally on the sporting infrastructure in Zambia and how the situation connects to the current study.

## **2.9 Sport Infrastructure in Zambia**

Apart from the Church and political rallies, sport in Zambia is a powerful crowd puller. However, the majority especially the old, only enjoy participating in sport as mere spectators rather than active participants. Children and the youth on the other hand get actively involved when an opportunity presents itself. For this reason, the government of the Republic of Zambia has attached great value to sport as a tool for social, economic and political development (Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development [MSYCD] 2005). Some of the popular sports activities include football, basketball, volleyball, boxing, judo, karate and

rugby among the medium income group. Among the high income group, golf, badminton, swimming, tennis, motor rally, polo and squash are more popular. However, the low income group mostly engages in football and netball for boys and girls respectively.

Zambian indigenous traditional games like Isolo<sup>3</sup> and Ichiyenga<sup>4</sup> are also popular among the low income group especially in the slums and the rural areas (Kakuwa 2005). Past time swimming is equally popular among the youth in areas that have rivers and lakes although most of these areas are too remote, too under developed for these youths to graduate into mainstream professional swimming (Post Zambia 2010). But the sports enthusiasm generally is across all ages, social class and gender. However, it is football that tops the list of favourite and most popular sport, especially after the 1993 Gabon air disaster<sup>5</sup> (Scott 2006). Scott (2006) observes that in the slum areas children are seen improvising footballs with home made balls made of plastics and strings usually picked from uncollected rubbish heaps. These children play football on any available open space including on less busy motor vehicle roads in their communities. The Zambia national football team is the official soccer team of the country and it is the most popular of all national teams of various disciplines (Scott 2006). This team is regulated by the Football Association of Zambia (FAZ) and has received significant support from the central government as compared to other national teams in other sporting disciplines as at 2009. However, the National Sports Council of Zambia (NSCZ) is the controller of all sports activities in the country and above it, is the ministry in charge of sport, youth affairs and child development (MSYCD 2008).

The country generally has very few conventional sports facilities with most of them in Lusaka and the Copperbelt (MSYCD 2008). This means that all the big national and international sports events are held either in Lusaka or Copperbelt, making other areas completely sidelined where important games are concerned (NOWSPAR 2009). However, even if the available sports infrastructure is found in Lusaka and the Copperbelt, most of it is found in the high class low density areas that are usually quite far from the masses that live in the low class high density areas (Walubita 1990). The under-served slum communities are the most

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<sup>3</sup> Isolo is a tradition past time game originating from the northern part of Zambia. It is played by both men and women using special seeds or stones which opponents try to capture. It is played on a metal or wooden board partitioned into several chambers, 6 to 10 participants can play the game at the same time (Gray 2007)

<sup>4</sup> Ichiyenga is equally originates the northern part of Zambia and is played by both men and women. Seeds or small stones are used played in small circles that are drawn on hard surfaces, 5 to 10 participants can play the game at a time. (Kakuwa 2005)

<sup>5</sup> A tragedy befell the Zambian national football team when the military plane carrying the team to Senegal for a 1994 World Cup qualification match crashed in the late evening of 27 April 1993 off Libreville, Gabon, killing all on board. (Scott 2006)

neglected in terms of sports facilities. In the slum areas of Lusaka urban for example, there is barely any space for a sports facility, thus, small back yard spaces at churches, community schools and some houses play a pivotal role in providing playing arenas for the ever play thirsty and enthusiastic children ( EduSport 2006). Additionally, PE in schools equally has its own challenges as the following subtopic highlights.

## **2.10 Physical Education in Schools**

PE has been a neglected subject in schools in recent years due to lack of both facilities and specialized subject teachers (MOE 2007). However, in the recent past, different stakeholders have advocated for PE to practically be re-implemented in schools in line with MOE's approved national curriculum that recognizes PE to be a full time taught subject in all schools ( MSYCD 2007). In 2006 President Levy Mwanawasa announced the re-implementation of PE as a compulsory subject in all schools and teachers colleges that are using MOE curriculum whether, private, government, public or community (MOE 2007). On the other hand, the government ministry in charge of children, youths and sport, in their National Sport Policy (2005) states that, they shall endeavor to advocate for the teaching of PE, sport and recreation in all learning institutions. This (they indicate) will be done in consultation with MOE, as PE is a natural basis for having worthwhile and disciplined sports men and women in the country (MSYCD 2007). On the other hand, MOE (2007) also indicates that lately, schools are trying to make PE a priority subject despite meager resources for staff, equipment and other conversional facilities that could aid the smooth teaching of the subject. However, unlike other subjects, PE still remains unexaminable in schools under the official MOE curriculum both physically and theoretically (MOE 2007). The gender aspect as the following subtopic highlights is another factor that has affected PE in schools.

## **2.11 Gender and Sport**

Customary gender roles in Zambia are based upon deeply held socially constructed attitudes, beliefs and practices that govern all aspects of life (Scott 2007). With respect to sport and physical activity, gender roles reflect both generally unwritten and customary laws and traditions, which determine how males and females participate in sport, and worse still, how they will dress both on and off the playing field (NOWSPAR 2009). Women and girls that are directly involved in sport, especially community or club sport as opposed to school sport are most of the times stereotyped (NOWSPAR 2009). Traditionally in Zambia, women are

supposed to do most of the home chores (Scott 2007), hence, they have time constraints where participating in sport is concerned.

In most sports associations in the country, male categories are more pronounced as compared to female disciplines (NOWSPAR 2009). Where women have tried to establish equity between them and their male counterparts on the sports stage, it has never worked effectively, mostly due to cultural constraints (Scott 2007). Organized sports facilities favour males than females. Facilities are more male friendly than female friendly, in some instances; even the physical environment is never safe and appropriate to accommodate women (NOWSPAR 2009). Due to such and other constraints, there have been more men than women that have succeeded in professional sports, both as athletes and as leaders.

The following subtopic highlights on Lusaka as the capital city of Zambia and the central business hub of the country. It is important to highlight on Lusaka because that is where I have my sites for my field work that provided primary data for the study.

## **2.12 Lusaka in the Context**

Lusaka as earlier indicated is the national capital and largest city of Zambia. It is located in the southern part of the central plateau of the country, at an elevation of 1300 m (4256 ft). It has a population of 1,084,703 according to the 2000 national census, but with a 2.9 annual population growth rate, the population of Lusaka was estimated to be at 1,684,910 in 2007 (Table 3 ). However, unofficial records indicates that the population of Lusaka could be way beyond 3 000 000 in 2008 due to people relocating to Lusaka with the hope for a better livelihood due to unprecedented squalor conditions, abject poverty and lack of employment opportunities in other parts of the country (Situmbeko 2008). The borders of Lusaka with an area of 21,896 sq. km (Table 3) go beyond the city boundaries and extend to the surrounding areas several kilometers away from the urbanized central business district. The distant districts of Chongwe, Luangwa and Kafue together with Lusaka city (district) make the Lusaka province. This is however, divided into the urban area with 360 sq. km (table 3) and the rural area with 21,536 sq. km (table 3). Among the 4 districts that make Lusaka province, only Lusaka district is urbanized with only 360 sq .km. Chongwe, Luangwa and Kafue are all rural districts with minimum infrastructure but with a total surface of area of 21,536 sq. km, refer to Table 3 below.

**Table 3: General information about Lusaka**

| <b>Lusaka</b>                               | <b>In 2007</b>        |
|---|-----------------------|
| Area  | 21,896 sq. km         |
| Rural area                                  | 21,536 sq. km         |
| Urban area                                  | 360 sq. km            |
| Population                                  | 1.7 million (approx.) |
| Population without safe water               | 12 %                  |
| Population without adequate toilet facility | 30 %                  |
| Number of households in the slums           | 267,000               |
| Number of informal settlements              | 37                    |
| Population in informal settlements          | 800,000               |

Source: Central Statistical Office, Zambia (2008)

This table shows the population of Lusaka and the surface area in both urban and rural parts. However, basic services and facilities such as adequate toilets and safe drinking water is in short supply, 30% of Lusaka population for example has no adequate toilet facility. The population as compared to available conventional housing is limited resulting in 37 informal settlements with about 800 000 people living in slums or semi slums. The next subtopic highlights more on the informal settlements (Slums) of both Lusaka urban and Lusaka rural.

### **2.12.1 The Under-served Urban Settlements in Lusaka**

Lusaka is considered one of the fastest growing (in terms of population) cities in Africa (Lusaka City Council 2009). It is a commercial centre as well as the centre of government. The country's four main highways to the north, south, east and west radiate from Lusaka. This makes it easily accessible by road which is the cheapest and most reliable mode of transport in the country. 70% of the people reside in well over 37 unplanned slum or semi slum settlements with roughly 267 000 households (Table 3) clustered on the fringes of the city and occupying a mere 20% of the area (Situmbeko 2008, CSO 2008), the official estimated population in these settlements is over 800 000 (Table 3). Because of the overwhelming influx of people trying to settle in Lusaka, the adequate delivery of social services is strained and compromised i.e. 12% of the Lusaka population has no safe drinking water and 30% have no adequate toilet facilities (Table 3). The Lusaka influx has also made many residents in these slum settlements either completely unemployed or working in the informal sector as Banik (2006:160) reports that "In Zambia, about 46% urban employment is in the informal sector".

However, on the other hand, Mulenga (2003) reports that the slums of Lusaka owe their origins to the neglect of providing low-cost public housing and to short-sighted urban and housing policies, both during the colonial and the post-independence times. Mulenga (2003) further states that, in the absence of sufficient public low-cost housing, and with non-insistence on statutory building standards, the urban growth resulted in a series of housing crises and the growth of unauthorized settlements at the urban periphery. The bulk of the residents of the low-income housing areas are predominantly unskilled and semi-skilled and work mainly in the informal sector (piecework and small-scale trading activities). Common features in these slum settlements are overcrowding, inadequate water supply, deteriorated environmental conditions characterized by poor sanitation, poor drainage, uncollected solid waste and above all unsecured tenure for most of the population. Young men and women engage in criminal and anti-social activities as a means of surviving the hush conditions in the slums (UN-Habitat 2003) as the Overseas Security and Advisory Council (2006:1) reports that "Gangs of armed criminals from Lusaka's poorer neighbourhoods roam the streets at night, perpetrating robberies and home invasions with impunity". However, this scenario is a bit different in the rural settings where the settlements are more homogenous and culturally connected unlike in urban areas where settlements are a mixture of people of different backgrounds. However, unplanned settlements are not only found in urban centers but also in rural areas as the next subtopic shows.

### **2.12.2 The Under-served Rural Settlements in Lusaka**

The under-served rural settlements of Lusaka are not as overcrowded as the settlements in Lusaka urban. The settlements are far apart with larger settlements established within or near farms owned by commercial farmers that are usually not indigenous from the area or from Zambia (CSO 2008). These commercial farmers offer employment to the settlers usually in an informal manner probably taking advantage of the desperation. The majority of the Lusaka rural populations are engaged in agriculture that is devoted to maize, a staple food and cash crop in the area. The other crops grown are groundnuts and finger millet while the commercial farmers apart from maize also grow sunflower, soya beans, tobacco and seed cotton (Chidumayo 2001). However, the situation has not been the same in the 2007 farming season, the rural settlements that to a greater extent depend on farming for their living, experienced a drought in rainfall and this has negatively affected them.



These settlements have factored into the problem of HIV/AIDS. Highlighted below, is the position taken by MOE in the fight against this problem.

### **2.13 MOE's Position on HIV/AIDS**

As part of MOE's direct response to the HIV/AIDS problem, HIV/AIDS education has been developed and implemented at full scale. A policy that puts in place a wide range of communication campaigns, training programmes and direct teaching to raise awareness about HIV/AIDS for both pupils and teachers has been done at different levels of the education sector (MOE 2008). In a nutshell, MOE has put in place a strategic undertaking to try and mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS within its confines. For example, it has declared HIV/AIDS a cross cutting issue in the national school curriculum while top ranking officials in MOE have equally pledged to provide leadership in an effort to try and curb the HIV/AIDS pandemic, in 2003 the then permanent secretary in MOE had this to say:

*Educators in Zambia today face many challenges in front of children ... They are asked to teach topics they often don't feel fully equipped or comfortable to talk about....The HIV/AIDS crisis has a potential to undermine the effective and efficient delivery of education services... key priorities are to ensure that quality ... education is provided to all....and that HIV/AIDS does not negate our efforts altogether. The approach that the ministry is taking is pronged: to ensure that the window of hope<sup>6</sup> is protected; to help those that are infected to lead a more protected life; and to make the teaching of HIV/AIDS and life skills an integral component of the curriculum at all levels. (Barbara Chilangwa 2003: II)*

This confirms MOE's deliberate effort of having HIV/AIDS education taught across the curriculum. This curriculum calls for all schools in Zambia that are using it to have HIV/AIDS education in all taught subjects. This is more because HIV/AIDS has become a factor in education delivery in Zambia. However, MOE's Educational Policy Document commits to eliminate any factor that would hinder the achievement of smooth education delivery (MOE 1996). Thus, strategies to cope with HIV/AIDS have been put in place as the next subtopic explores.

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<sup>6</sup> Although the Window of Hope generally includes all school going children and youths, it mostly refers to early adolescence between 10 – 14 when young people are just beginning to engage in risky behaviours, but before they are distracted by other damaging social patterns, it provides a critical window of opportunity to deliver prevention messages and prepare young people for the challenges posed by HIV/AIDS (UNICEF 2006).

### **2.13.1 Other Important Strategic Frameworks**

Apart from having HIV/AIDS as a cross cutting issue in the national curriculum, other policy strategies include establishing an elaborate programme of material development, training and education, sensitization and advocacy for teachers and educators at all levels which combine access to accurate information on HIV/AIDS, prevention and risk reduction, stress management and counseling services, access to contraception, and empowerment in personal decision making (MOE 2005). In schools this will be enhanced by appropriate life-skills training and empowering young people to commit themselves to sexually active relationships only when they are ready and not when peer or media pressure dictates (MOE 2005). MOE will also encourage collaborative partnerships with religious, other faith-based bodies and NGO's that prepare sex and HIV/AIDS education resources (MOE 2001). In its strategic plan, MOE (2005) has also pledged to create a learning environment conducive enough for learners to actively participate in acquiring relevant information, knowledge and skills. These should form positive behaviors and attitudes that protect them from contracting HIV/AIDS and to meet other everyday challenges. The policy also stresses the need to promote the use of peer approach at all levels of the education system to encourage safer life styles. This is mostly because school going children have equally been affected by HIV/AIDS as highlighted above.

### **2.13.2 The HIV/AIDS Impact on School going Children**

School going children especially below the age of 15 are falling within the high risk groups. The Zambia National HIV/AIDS Communications Strategy (2005) reports that more than 50% of Zambia's population is less than 20 years of age and constitutes the most vulnerable group to HIV/AIDS infection. On the other hand, UNAIDS (2009) estimated that in 2008 there were about 66 000 deaths as a result of HIV/AIDS related diseases (Table 2 above), if such rates persist, more than half of today's 15 year olds will die from HIV/AIDS and other related diseases. Already about 980 000 adults of 15 years or older are living with HIV/AIDS (Table 2 above). Considering the above statements and statistics, most schools have taken up the responsibility of looking after orphans that are being left behind as a result of deaths due to HIV/AIDS. UNAIDS (2009) reports that in 2008 there were about 660 000 orphans between 0 and 17 years as a result of HIV/AIDS (Table 2 above). However, mitigating this pandemic is met with a lot of challenges starting from lack of resources, to coordination. The latter is explored in detail below.

### **2.13.3 HIV/AIDS Coordinated Efforts within and outside MOE**

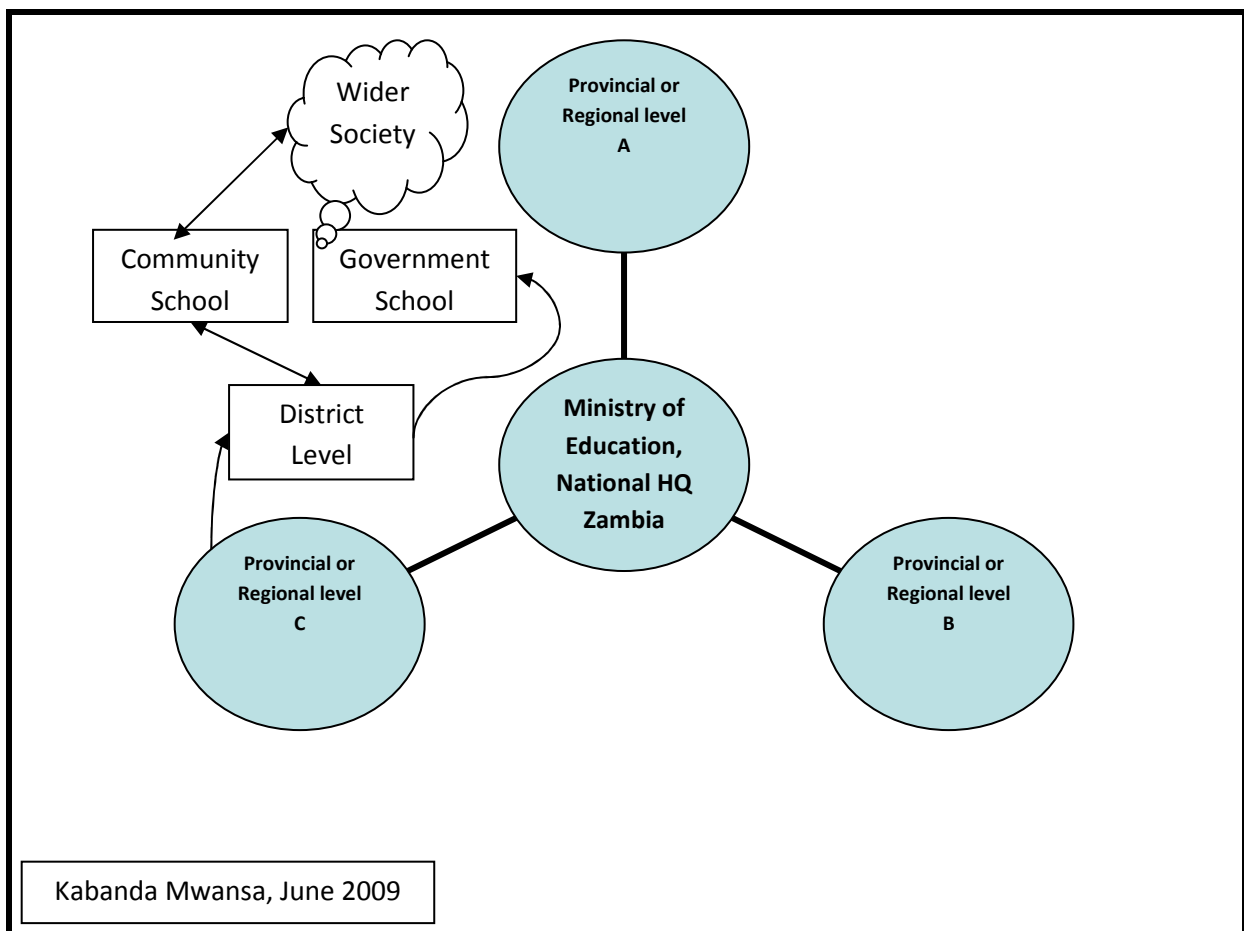
Weighing the reality on the ground, different efforts to mitigate this escalating HIV/AIDS problem are being tried from within and outside the Zambian education sector. Different collective initiatives in form of partnerships are being encouraged so as to form a formidable front to collectively tackle the seemingly ever growing problem (MOE 2005). In this regard, MOE has partnered with different government departments and NGO's whose constituencies is HIV/AIDS. This is explained in MOE's HIV/AIDS Strategic Plan 2001- 2005 (2001) that states that partnerships with non-governmental and community-based organizations, ministries, donors, communities, faith groups, and others that are based on mutual respect and shared commitment to the future of a healthy and well educated nation that is free of HIV/AIDS are most welcome. However, this has not been the first time MOE has come up with such a deliberate move in trying to safeguard positive health for school going children and other players in the ministry (MOE 2006). Since independence in 1964 MOE has strived to provide personal health skills to learners who pass through the formal schooling process and many children have benefited, For example, during the 1970s and 1980s it was observed that the schooling system had shortfalls in health education and teacher exposition skills. In most cases, teachers were ill equipped with knowledge and equipment to provide effective health education. Thus, MOE collaborated with the ministry of health to initiate a programme called Child-to-Child (MOE 2006). This programme had instituted the integration of health education and health promotion into the school curriculum as well as into the teacher-training curriculum. Efforts were made to develop teacher skills for health education. Teacher training lecturers were trained and sensitised to provide health education to trainee teachers (MOE 2006).

As at 2008 MOE enjoyed partnerships with NGO`s and community schools in mitigating HIV/AIDS. Against this background, EduSport Foundation has offered HIV/AIDS education in under-served community schools through the use of sport and PE (EduSport 2006, MOE 2008). Other local NGO`s in similar partnerships include Sport in Action, Grassroot Soccer, Right to Play and the Breakthrough Sports Academy (BSA). These NGO`s operate at different levels of the MOE system. Some operates at policy level, while others work directly with schools. The MOE hierarchical system of responsibilities is highlighted in the next sub topic.

### 2.13.4 MOE's Distribution of Responsibilities

MOE's National Headquarters (HQ) is the hub of all decisions related to education. The decisions are then channeled to the nine provincial offices (indicated as A, B, C in figure 1 below). Provincial offices are then decentralized to districts and then to schools in the wider community. However, at school level, there is another split with government schools on one hand and the community schools on the other. Worth noting here, is the community schools' interaction with respective communities where they are based. After all, it is the community initiative to have them in place (ZOCS 2008). In other words, local ownership of schools as institutions that ought to belong to local communities is biased towards community schools than government schools. Thus, decisions in community schools start from the community itself and then move up wards through the MOE system. Below is a figure that shows how MOE's decisions flow out.

**Figure 2: Hierarchy of the Education System in Zambia**



The figure indicates how community school decisions move from the community to the authorities using an opposite channel as compared to government schools. In this case, the channel through which decisions from the community schools pass, before reaching the rightful office maybe tedious. On the other hand, decisions from MOE HQ to schools move faster to government schools than to community schools because there is only one channel, i.e. from the top to the end users at the bottom. Meanwhile local and international NGO`s play a part in decision making at different levels as indicated earlier. International agencies tend to be influential thus, setting global trends as explored below.

### **2.13.5 MOE`s Local Response to Global Trends**

However, in order to archive the goal of having a well educated nation and in response to global trends that have collectively been agreed upon on the international front. MOE introduced a policy of free universal primary education in February 2002, in line with the global Education for All (EFA) declaration in 1990. This has actually transcended in a situation where MOE has engulfed all community schools that have been established by communities themselves for their children who could not access conventional schools for various reasons ranging from fees to distance. MOE has “taken over” these schools in terms of the education content the schools should follow (ZOCS 2008). According to MOE (2007) it is reported that MOE has partnered with local communities and wants to play a leading role in providing quality education. MOE aims at remaining an active participant in the running of community schools (MOE 2007). Initially community schools had a strategic curriculum that focused on Skills, Participation, and Access to Relevant Knowledge (SPARK) and was recommended and promoted by UNICEF (USAID 2009). This took into consideration, relevant contextual knowledge that could uplift local standards in line with local wishes (ZCSS 2005, USAID 2009). However, this is not all gone as the new curriculum has opened up enough room for local initiatives as highlighted in the following subtopic.

### **2.13.6 The Localized Curriculum**

In reference to the preceding discussion above, there is still a way of promoting relevant knowledge in a more contextualized manner. In 2002, Zambia reformed its curriculum for basic education (Grades 1-9) as recommended by the revised Zambian policy on education called ‘Educating Our Future’ (1996). The reformation reorganized the original 14 teaching

subjects in primary schools into just 5 learning areas but added a sixth learning area called localized curriculum or community studies. The localized curriculum constitutes 20% of the National Curriculum that focuses primarily on indigenous knowledge, environmental education and survival skills (Irish Aid 2009). In principle each school should allow the local community to contribute ideas and suggestions to the local curriculum that are of particular relevance. So far HIV/AIDS has dominated the survival skills component in this 20% which is locally approved initiatives for the curriculum (CARE International 2009). The teaching approaches and materials used are also linked to the local context and the available resources (MOE 2008).

To this effect MOE has pledged to provide frameworks at all levels that aim at facilitating the smooth participation of local communities and the civil society in the day to day management and organization of community schools (MOE 2007). MOE has also indicated that it shall monitor and supervise educational standards and the delivery of educational services in all community schools. In addition all community schools shall follow the Zambia Basic Education Curriculum<sup>7</sup> (ZBEC) (MOE 2007). It is interesting to note that in ZBEC, PE is considered to run through as a taught subject from the first grade to the last (ninth) grade in all Zambian schools. This means that PE is an integral part of the national curriculum just like any other subjects like Mathematics, Natural Science and English Language. In addition, HIV/AIDS is blended in all taught school subjects. Equally, PE is one of the subjects through which HIV/AIDS education is taught.

As such some schools like School B (to be defined later in sub chapter 2.15.3) are implementing the 20% localised curriculum in partnership with EduSport. Below is an excerpt (Table 4) of a school teaching / learning plan that is based on the government sanctioned localised curriculum

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<sup>7</sup> ZBEC is the official national school curriculum put in place by the Zambian government through MOE that should start from the first grade to the ninth grade which is Zambia's basic education level (MOE 2006)

**Table 4: Excerpt of a Localised Curriculum from School B**

**General Outcomes:** Learners should acquire skills, knowledge and positive attitudes in times of HIV/AIDS.

| <b>Theme</b>               | <b>Topic</b>      | <b>Specific learning outcomes</b>   | <b>Suggested Teaching/Learning methodologies</b>   | <b>Expected outcomes</b>  | <b>Target group</b>                        |
|----------------------------|-------------------|---|--|---|--|
| <b>HIV/AIDS Prevention</b> | <b>Abstinence</b> | <p>Identify the common ways of abstaining in the community</p> <p>Identify some activities and facilities in the community that can help promote abstinence</p> <p>Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of abstinence</p> <p>Discuss some challenges in the school and community that can impede abstinence</p> <p>Discuss some opportunities that can motivate abstinence amongst youths in the community and how this could be shared</p> | <p>Group work</p> <p>Pair work</p> <p>Use of sport and play</p> <p>Role play</p> <p>Peer education</p> | <p>Common ways of abstaining are identified</p> <p>Alternative activities to sex are identified</p> <p>Advantages and disadvantages of abstinence are discussed</p> <p>Challenges in the school and community are discussed and kind of solutions found</p> | In school and out of school boys and girls |

It could be noted from the teaching / learning plan that many themes were located mostly within HIV/AIDS, Civic Education and Environmental Conservation. However, for the sake of the current study, I singled out the HIV/AIDS Prevention theme. This theme is based on HIV/AIDS as a local problem, and as such the school has put in place some measures to confront it more locally with a local context in mind. This teaching / learning plan is for a grade seven (7<sup>th</sup> grade) class with ages between 13 and 16. The school authorities indicated that this 20% localised curriculum has been initiated with the help and support of EduSport. The next sub chapter highlights more on the EduSport Foundation.

## 2.14 The EduSport Foundation in Context

All the information about EduSport in this chapter was taken from three official organizational documents and a couple of interviews from some members of the EduSport secretariat. These documents are EduSport Strategies and Frameworks (2001), EduSport Road Map 2005-2010 (2004) and the EduSport Foundation Framework Paper (2006)

EduSport Foundation is a Zambian community driven non- governmental organization (NGO) with the main office in Lusaka. EduSport started in 1996 as a minor programme under the National Sports Council of Zambia's (NSCZ) Sport for All (SFA) project funded by Norwegian Agency for Development (NORAD). However, EduSport developed further and broke away from SFA and was registered as an NGO in 1999. The founder and architect of the EduSport concept who is as well the initiator of the Kicking Aids Out<sup>8</sup> concept is Oscar Mwaanga (EduSport 2006).

EduSport`s aim is to empower under-served communities. It strives to archive this through the use of sport and other physical activities that may work towards the empowerment of underprivileged youth groups. Through sport and other physical activities, EduSport aims at equipping identified poor communities with resources and knowledge that may be needed to develop local developmental initiatives. EduSport also aims at developing local and indigenous leadership in the poor neighborhoods it works with as one document report that:

*..Solutions to the problems in the broken down communities are with local people... and sport is one of the most effective ways to not only reach the under-served....but also a way to genuinely involve them in the reconstruction of their communities.*  
EduSport (2005:2)

The objectives of the organisation are:

- To integrate the EduSport approach into the already existing educational, social and sports structures and systems.
- To strive in providing better opportunities for physical activity and sport for the socio-economically under-served young people and enhance their quality of life.

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<sup>8</sup> Kicking Aids Out is a method through which HIV/AIDS education is delivered through the use of sport, games, play and other fun movement activities (Mwaanga 2003)



- To build and support partnerships and networking, locally, regionally and internationally that will enhance and sustain the program.
- To use sport as a means to foster programs that build bridges across people of different socio economic back grounds and to break down prejudices against race, tribe and gender, thus bringing about transformation at individual and societal level.

However, in the fight against HIV/AIDS, EduSport uses a concept called Kicking Aids Out! (KAO). The following subtopic explores this concept in more detail.

#### **2.14.1 EduSport's "Kicking Aids Out!" Programme**

Kicking Aids Out! (KAO) is the official name for all HIV/AIDS programmes in EduSport. However, other local and international organizations are also implementing this programme that uses sport as a medium through which HIV/AIDS education is disseminated. In Zambia, the programme is found in under-served communities and particularly in the community schools that have close ties with the EduSport Foundation (EduSport 2007). On the international front, the United Caribbean Trust (2008:3) describes KAO which has also become a network of organizations that use sport to tackle HIV/AIDS as “an African initiative brought about by people directly affected by the disease”, It goes further to write that African sport organizations are mobilizing their communities and are developing new innovative approaches to address HIV/AIDS and other related social issues. On the other hand, Mwaanga (2003) describes KAO as a method, an aid, an idea and an experience of confronting HIV/AIDS through the use of sport and other movement games. Simplified common games usually very familiar locally are blended with selected HIV/AIDS information. Participants engage both with the HIV/AIDS information part, referred to as the life skill on one hand, and the sports skill on the other (Kakuwa 2005). Programme supporters like Commonwealth Games Canada (2009) commends KAO to be an effective way in raising the awareness that, sport and physical activity programs can be adapted to promote dialogue and education about HIV/AIDS, and to facilitate life skills training. The highlighted objectives for the KAO programme according to UK Sport (2008:1) are:

- To help to prevent future HIV/AIDS infections by providing a fun, innovative approach that offers accurate HIV/AIDS and health lifestyle information and a forum for discussion for youth and others at risk.
- To reach those most at risk of contracting the HIV/AIDS and providing them with the knowledge to protect themselves.
- To provide inclusive sporting and life skills programmes that integrates the infected and the affected in order to reduce the stigma associated to HIV/AIDS.
- To train local leaders within the community to increase local capacity, enhancing skills within the local sporting systems and to provide a framework that can be adapted to local needs.

However, as earlier mentioned, EduSport uses this programme mostly in under-served communities and schools. The next section highlights on how the programme is implemented in community schools.

#### **2.14.2 Implementing KAO Programmes in Community Schools**

EduSport implements KAO at two levels that are connected. The first one is institutional based, and is done in schools, churches and other institutions with which EduSport has collaboration with. However, EduSport in this regard collaborates more with community schools. It has thus initiated the KAO programme into the main stream formal business of some community schools. In these schools, all sport and PE programmes have a component of KAO in full or as part of a lesson. Some teachers and other volunteers are trained by EduSport to take the responsibility of conducting these lessons. International volunteers from especially Europe periodically are also part of EduSport leaders in community schools.

However, apart from local teachers and international volunteers, some selected pupils are also trained to be leaders or coaches (Peer educators) of their peers. These peer coaches receive training through workshops, clinics and other specialized programmes. After qualifying to be peer coaches, the EduSport secretariat deploys them for assignments at their own community school or at another, near their homes. This kind of sport and PE lessons are becoming common in community schools in Zambia. Below is an example of a KAO activity in a PE lesson at a community school in Zambia:

*People who are physically fit and eat a balanced diet cannot get HIV. Lindiwe thinks for a moment puts the card down and answers “false” and taps her classmate on the shoulder, so she can dribble the ball through the cones and get the next “true or false” card. This “true or false” relay is an example of the Kicking AIDS Out movement game where sports skills and life skills are integrated. Such games are becoming common in Physical Education lessons. The games form part of an innovative new approach towards the young and HIV prevention. (Swiss Academy for Development 2003:1).*

However, in order to get the best result, a strategy to connect HIV/AIDS school programmes to wider communities has been formulated by EduSport. The following subtopic highlights a method EduSport uses to implement the KAO programme beyond the confines of the school.

### **2.14.3 Implementing KAO Programmes beyond School**

The second level of the EduSport KAO implementation happens at community level when the trained peer coaches are deployed to conduct the KAO programme among friends and non-school going peers away from the formal school programme. In addition, peer coaches may sometimes have teams and groups within a particular school that they meet outside formal school hours. Using fellow youths to reach out to other youths and children is the most important strategy for delivering the KAO programs (EduSport 2004). Each peer coach has a team of people usually slightly younger than him or her in the community school or the wider community that he or she is responsible over. Peer coaches plan and implement their own programs with the help of community based EduSport co-ordinators and school teachers that have received EduSport training. Since most of the youths are poor, peer coaches receive some stipend through EduSport that cover their school fees in appreciation for the work they do on behalf of EduSport for their communities (EduSport 2006).

Having earlier talked about how KAO is implemented in community schools let me shade some light on the two schools that are involved in this study.

## **2.15 The Schools Involved in the Study**

I collected my primary data from two community schools both situated in the Lusaka province of Zambia. I selected one school from one of the urban slums of the city. Then I selected the other school from the rural part of the city. Of course, the two schools come with a lot of similarities and differences as the explorations below shows.

### **2.15.1 The Rural School (School A)**

The rural school is situated roughly 65 km south of the capital city Lusaka, located in an area called Chimbokaila in the rural outskirts of Lusaka province. Based on my observations, the surrounding community that built the school with local efforts and some outside help is mostly composed of villagers who depend on peasant farming for a living. Some villagers work in some bigger farms usually owned by non-indigenous Zambians. The school was officially established in 2002 and runs from pre-school to the seventh grade. The school official register has 238 pupils of which 52 have lost one parent and 93 are full orphans with both parents dead. It is a single building school with a total of 4 classrooms built with the help of an international NGO and some locally generated resources. In addition, there is a big tree within the school yard from which the name of the school comes providing the fifth classroom in dry seasons. The nearest water articulation point (borehole) is three hundred meters away from the school and does not belong to the school but the surrounding community. Thus, there are no water borne toilets or showers, but some tiny pit latrines that also operate as change rooms in case of sporting events. A football pitch with some fairly green grass and a netball court are the two sporting facilities the school owns. However, these facilities are shared by the community because it is the community members that put them up for use by the entire community.

The school has a total of five teachers including the head (two female and three male) and none of them has undergone formal teacher training programme. The head teacher has been teaching at this school since its inception in 2002 and has a lot of experience. Three out of the five teachers are paid periodical allowances by the community. That is once in a while when members sacrifice to either donate some merchandise for sell or fundraise for the teachers

rather than for their families. The School Head Teacher and another teacher's allowances are catered for by MOE through a periodical allocation the school receives from MOE. Although the school runs entirely on donations from well wishers MOE gives the school a fixed allocation every three months.

### **2.15.2 Pupils at School A**

A very huge percentage of pupils at this school, comes from very impoverished homes, this was seen from the analysis of the pupils. The pupil's social-economic backgrounds are very poor, typical of pupils in community schools in Zambia. The clothing of the pupils clearly showed that their economic backgrounds were poor. For example, during, before or after PE lesson(s), there was no sign of change of clothes or a quick wash. The latter was to some extent due to the non-availability of water for such a "luxurious" purpose. Meanwhile, the school has a feeding programme where pupils are served with porridge (with courtesy of an international NGO) when they report for school and immediately before they leave school, an indication that pupils are coming from homes that cannot provide enough food for their children.

### **2.15.3 The Urban School (School B)**

This school is situated in an area called Shachacha, an under-served slum community almost in the middle of the central business district of Lusaka City. The school was established in 2005 to cater for the many children in this community who had dropped out of government schools due to various reasons ranging from long distances to fees for uniforms and other utility charges. The school official register has 163 pupils of which 27 have lost one parent and 59 are full orphans with both parents dead. The school comprises of a single building that was originally a Beer Hall. It has been demarcated into two sections (classrooms) by a wooden wall made of plywood that still permeates noise exchanged between the two sections. Despite using plywood for the demarcation of the two sections which might be vulnerable to fire, there is not any fire extinguishing gadget in the school. The water articulation point (a single tap) is within the school premises, but it is not entirely used and owned by the school, but the nearby community. Thus, the tap is always crowded with outsiders when water is available. However, the water articulation is not constant; the tap runs dry for some good hours and sometimes for days.

Since the school premises were not originally designed for school purposes, there is very limited area for expansion or upgrading of sporting facilities. There is a small 30 by 50 meters dusty pitch that is used as a school play ground. The school tried to put up goal posts for football and netball on the same pitch but were stolen barely three days later. The pitch is bare with no turf but a hard gravel surface. However, my observation during my studies revealed that pupils did not care much about having a better facility. Seemingly, the pupils were happy and content with the “facility” and made good use of it. The school had 6 teachers in total (5 male and 1 female).

#### **2.15.4 Pupils at School B**

Like school “A” pupils at this school have very difficult social-economic backgrounds despite living almost in the middle of the city. Their dress though better than their rural counterparts was enough to show the kind of economic background they had come from. Most of them were either full or half orphans whose bread winners have passed on and were being kept by well wishers.

#### **2.16 Chapter Sum-Up**

This chapter has set ground on which the study rests. It has put a number of things into context, such as the social and economic status of Zambia in general and the study site in particular. Poverty and unemployment was singled out as one critical issue in the study site and has a connection to the dynamics of HIV/AIDS and other related issues. It also brought into the lime light, how education has been affected by poverty and HIV/AIDS with emphasis on children and the youth. A picture of gender and other cultural perspectives in the study sites was also presented. Having established this, the chapter went further to highlight on some practices that different players have initiated to confront the spread of HIV/AIDS among the poor. EduSport Foundation and its KAO programme were also presented, outlining the organisations aims and objectives in relation to this study. However, this study would not be genuine without presenting the methods used in drawing up conclusions. Hence, the following chapter discusses issues related to the methodology used in the study.

### **3. METHODOLOGY**

This chapter looks at the methods that were used in an attempt to find answers to the research questions I have indicated in chapter one. In the first place I have given attention to the way I comprehended my field of study before hand. Further more, I have presented the entire framework of the study as I practically implemented it. This framework has been presented in relation to the way I experienced the field of study particularly from June to August 2008.

In the process of trying to find the way to conduct this study, I explored different methods of collecting raw data. One of the tasks I encountered was to mark a significant difference between quantitative and qualitative research methods. I got more inclined to the latter than the former, and the reasons for doing so have been stated later in the chapter. I have also presented the sample of the participants that were chosen for my interviews. The relationship between the participants, the study interests and the documents that were analysed has also been explained before outlining the choice of the ways of analysing data. The liability and validity of my data has equally been taken into consideration. The chapter ends with a discussion on the ethics and reflexivity as dealt with in the process of putting up the entire research. To begin with, how did I conceptualise my field of study before hand? The following subchapter highlights on this in detail.

#### **3.1 Understanding the Field before the Study**

With my initial training in primary school teaching, I have a natural liking for working with community schools, having worked with semi under-served public primary schools in Zambia. In addition to that, my voluntary and actual work with the EduSport Foundation from 1999 to 2003 made me have first hand experience with under-served communities and the community schools found there in. My work with EduSport involved coordinating and interacting with different partners that worked with EduSport and under-served community schools where part of these partners.

The EduSport Foundation being more concerned with the plight of under-served communities put the HIV/AIDS problem on top of the agenda. EduSport initiated programmes aiming at halting or reducing the impact of this particular problem. At the centre of all these happenings, my role at EduSport made me to be directly involved in these interventions, thus getting more exposed to the KAO concept and its implementation strategies. In addition, I

worked with different under-served communities that spoke different languages, hence, got exposed to different local languages and contextual problems in different communities. My status as a Zambian accorded me familiarity to the languages and the contextual problems found in some of the communities.

My in-service training as a secondary school teacher also gave me the exposure of understanding some of the ways in which PE contributes to the well being of humanity, that is to say physically, mentally and socially. This is because during my in-service training, PE was my major area of study and was to be the core subject that I was to teach after graduation. However, my post diploma studies later, at bachelor degree level equally gives me the general understanding of how sport and PE contribute to human and social development.

Considering such experiences in related fields, I felt a need to explore more about how sport and physical education is being used in the fight against HIV/AIDS and how contextual realities in under-served community schools could play a part in this process. I wanted to explore more about the realities, experiences, impressions and perceptions of the people directly affected by HIV/AIDS and poverty. Against this background, I ventured into gaining a deeper and comprehensive understanding of how contextual realities in poor under-served community schools on one hand and the surrounding communities on the other prevail. However, this may not be realised through the count of numbers or quantitative methods, but through a method determined to be closer to people's realities. To me, qualitative methodology borders on giving a more realistic picture of the participants. It provides a holistic and deeper depiction of social phenomenon or human realities and contexts (Denzin and Lincoln 1998, Patton 2002). The beginning, however, was to design and set a paradigm of research as explored below.

### **3.2 The Research Paradigm and Design**

Any research would begin with a selection of a paradigm to try and make sense of the complexities of the world in reality (Patton 2002). However, it should be noted that the choice of a paradigm to a larger extent should be based on the main research focus of the study. The framework in my case was entirely guided by an interpretive paradigm that emphasises on multiple realities of the phenomenon at hand, as Bryman (2004) puts it that it describes existence in the real situation. This may also mean that this kind of a paradigm approach



(interpretive paradigm) gives knowledge to the researcher to interpret social reality according to their referential and experiential stand point.

In the case of this study this process gave the researcher room to pro-actively examine and explore the implementation of the HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE in the selected community schools. This was not done in isolation but in relation to the contextual realities in the wider communities hosting the schools in question. This helped me as a researcher to have a practical understanding of the selected research area as a case study. In the context of a case study, Bryman (2004) puts it that a case study is usually associated with a location such as a community or organisation and the emphasis is upon an intensive examination of the setting . The idea that two particular communities or organisations (School A and School B) were selected as the cases to study qualifies it in the realm of a case study research design. However, it should be noted that even if two different cases were selected, this is not a comparative study, although certain aspects are used as reference points for the other. It is against this background that the chosen paradigm and design is within a qualitative research approach and forms the frame in which the entire study manifests. Below are some of the elements of a case study perspective that made me choose it as one of my tools.

### **3.2.1 The Case Study**

A case study as a research tool concerns it self on a detailed and intensive case of particular interest. This is with an intention of presenting an in-depth phenomenon, that is to say, the relationships and the experiences that are happening in a particular way (Descombe 2007). Bryman (2004:49) writes that the most common use of the term associates the case study with a location, such as a community or an organisation. He further states that the emphasis tends to be upon an intensive examination of the setting in question.

Qualitative methods such as participant observation and unstructured interviews often favour case studies. Thus, this is mostly associated with qualitative methodology (Bryman 2004). A qualitative case study was used in this study in order to help me thoroughly understand the happenings on the ground and to recognise the how and why it is happening in a particular way. The selection of School A and School B as my case studies agrees quite well with my main research focus, for it brings into the study, multi-contextual evidences and experiences. Descombe (2007) recommends that case study approaches work well when the researcher

aims at investigating an issue in-depth to provide an explanation that can cope with the complexity and subtlety of real life situations. In this regard, the study was undertaken as a way to look for a deeper and comprehensive understanding of how sport and PE could contribute to HIV/AIDS education in under-served communities (with a community school as a starting point). What this means is that, the main focus of the study was considered to be a community school, but in relation to the wider community in which such a school is situated and in which members of such a school live. And this particular case study's effectiveness lies in the application of qualitative research methodology as explored below.

### **3.2.2 Qualitative Research**

It is usually problematic to come up with the best method of collecting data. Some researchers prefer qualitative methods while others prefer quantitative. However, it is also possible to combine the two as some researchers today have concluded that actually both methods are needed to draw a clearer picture of what one intends to study. According to Tschudi's (1989) study that owes that positivism on its own is no longer a worthy philosophical doctrine as neither qualitative nor quantitative approaches could provide all that is needed to know about the process of understanding a particular phenomenon. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches could provide parts as opposed to wholes that can build a common piece of knowledge. Both approaches are usually used in complementing each other as the former leads to an understanding of the reality as experienced by individuals, communities and institutions. This is what aids our understanding of other people's contextual realities of their real life situations. Hence, as indicated earlier, this study takes upon a qualitative approach. This is more because it takes the position and points of view of the different stake holders within the field of HIV/AIDS, Sport and PE, Under-served community schools and poverty issues in general. The analysis and interpretation of how the participants experience and view their everyday world from their points of view is important to this study.

Another way of looking at a qualitative approach is that it allows the researcher to collect information from the participant's natural setting. This means that the researcher gets an opportunity to interpret the phenomenon from actual realities. In other words, the researcher interprets the phenomenon in terms of meanings people give to them (Patton 2002). It is equally important to follow Kvale's (1996) observation that it is important to describe reality as the participants experience it and by doing so, the assumption is that reality is what people

perceive. The different viewpoints of the participants in my study made me realise that it is those small pieces of information that at the end of the day take me closer to my answer and that I never can get the whole answer from a single participant or source. This is also echoed by Giddens (2002) who specified that no specific person can have detailed knowledge of more than a particular sector in which one participates. He goes further to say lay actors themselves possess a partially acquired body of knowledge that still have to be explicitly and comprehensively explored. However, to explore this comprehensive body of knowledge, apart from interviews, I have done observations, document analysis and focus group discussions as some of my methods of collecting data as the next sub topic shows.

### **3.3 Methods**

This thesis took into consideration different methods of collecting data. The main methods as reported earlier are interviews (including focus group interviews), document analysis and observations. I also had a field diary in which I recorded (in written) events that I observed that could not otherwise be recorded as voice. However, it may be worthwhile to note that these methods were engulfed within the realm of a case study paradigm as earlier reported. In other words, I have basically used data source triangulation which has been explained as a method of:

*Using more than one method or source of data in the study of social phenomena....the term has been employed somewhat more broadly to refer to an approach that uses multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, sources of data, and methodologies....but the emphasis has tended to be on methods of investigation and sources of data (Bryman 2004: 275).*

If a more valid picture of the outcome of the study is to be realised, then different methods of sourcing data and carried out in different ways must be thoroughly considered (Hamersley and Atkinson 1995, Bryman 2004)

Having considered the methods of sourcing data, ways of selecting the sample of participants should also be considered. The following is the sample selection criteria that were used in this study.

### **3.3.1 Sample Selection**

It is often the researcher's challenge to select the sample of study from a large population of similar characteristics. However, the correct sample to a larger extent depends on the goal of the study on one hand and the nature of the population under scrutiny on the other (Cohen, Manion and Morrison 2000, Bryman 2004). This study engaged purposive sampling strategy to select participants. In this strategy the researcher goes out to look for groups, settings and individuals that could possess the very characteristics for whom the process of being studied are most likely to occur. As a researcher I also engaged in constant comparison of groups, concepts and observations in order to realistically and inclusively understand important instances of what I needed to study (Denzin and Lincoln 2000).

For this reason, I decided that I should talk to the parties that are interesting to my study. In this case, I took MOE as my starting point by interviewing a senior education standards officer who represented the permanent secretary. In Zambia a permanent secretary is the senior most professional person in any government ministry. I then proceeded to two NGO's that are working with: a) community schools b) the poor and under-served communities and c) the HIV/AIDS problem. The NGO's are the EduSport Foundation and the Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS). However, even if EduSport was already in my plans because of my background with them, MOE actually recommended them as their partners in programmes involving community schools and HIV/AIDS through sport and PE. Thus, it was just prudent for me to make a follow up with EduSport. This is similar to what Bryman (2004) writes that in social sciences, it is possible that one source of information could lead to another and the chain goes on. Other samples are explained under `interviews` in the next sub topic.

### **3.3.2 Interviews**

Kvale (1996) discusses interviews as conversations between people where the outcome is an influenced product of the interviewer and the interviewee. However, it is worth noting that interviews may be easier to set if the theme at hand is of common interest between the interviewer and the interviewee. This takes into consideration the way questions from the interviewer are set, the relationship between the two, the methods the interviewer will use to condense the final production of the conversation etc. With an interview, a researcher is likely to enter into the other person's perspective as Patton (2002) writes that a qualitative interview begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful. The other assumption

is that the perspective is knowable with a potential of making it explicit. This puts the interview as a more powerful tool in trying to understand humanity and social phenomenon as it is highly utilised in qualitative research (Denzin and Lincoln 1998, Bryman 2004). With this in mind, I concluded that interviews are a necessary way to understanding the two sides of the individuals involved in an interview. For as long as knowledge remains a social construct, so will interviews continue paving way to meaning (subjective). I connect this to the reflections of my interviews with participants to the idea that those reflections just meant what the participants chose to say on the days that I interviewed them. In other words, interviews are rather subjective than objective because a participant is likely to answer differently to the same question on a different day, different situation or in a different environment.

Unstructured and semi- structured individual and focus group interviews were used in the study. This was done by employing different means in an attempt to get relatively complete and comprehensive data from the participants. According to Descombe (2007), the weakness of one method maybe compensated for by the strength of another. I particularly found focus group interviews to have brought about more deeper and inner feelings from individuals that could otherwise not be brought out in individual interviews. This is in total opposition to Cohen and Manion (1989) who reported that group interviews do not allow personal matters to emerge.

At institutional level, individual interviews were conducted with representatives of these institutions. A total of five institutions (see Table 5 below) participated in the study of which two of them contributed one participant (interviewee) each. However, the main institutions in the study were the two selected schools that had their authorities (teachers, pupils and parents) interviewed. One teacher in charge of sport and PE and the head of the school in each of the two selected schools were interviewed using semi-structured individual interviews. For the pupils, focus group interviews where conducted as well as one on one individual interview on selected pupils. School A had a total of 15 pupil participants (6 girls and 6 boys) in two sets of focus group interviews of 6 participants each set. 3 participants (2 girls and one boy) were selected for individual interviews in School A. School B had a similar set up as that of School A except that 2 boys and 1 girl participated in the individual interviews. The organisation and conduct of the interviews for both the focus group interviews and the individual interviews were also similar to that of School A. Apart from the pupils, both school A and School B had

a parent that was interviewed one on one with the researcher. The age range for the pupils was between 13 and 15 years. Table 5 below shows the number of participants that were interviewed.

**Table 5: Interview List**

| <b>Institution</b>                   | <b>Number interviewed</b> | <b>Type of Interview</b>  | <b>Relationship with the Institution</b>   |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|
| MOE Headquarters                     | 1                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Individual</li> </ul>                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Policy maker</li> </ul>   |
| EduSport Foundation                  | 2                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Individual</li> </ul>                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Policy maker</li> <li>• Officer</li> </ul>                                      |
| Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS) | 1                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Individual</li> </ul>                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Policy maker</li> </ul>   |
| School A                             | 18                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus group</li> <li>• Individual</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Administration</li> <li>• Teacher</li> <li>• Pupil</li> <li>• Parent</li> </ul> |
| School B                             | 18                        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus group</li> <li>• Individual</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Administration</li> <li>• Teacher</li> <li>• Pupil</li> <li>• Parent</li> </ul> |

However, despite the interviews being unstructured and semi-structured, interview guides played a significant role. I prepared interview guides before hand and used them so as to make sure that I used my time more effectively, and to be more systematic in the questioning techniques. Patton (2002) recommends that an interview guide delimits the issues to be explored way in advance in a more systematic and comprehensive manner. However, the weakness with interview guides and semi-structured open ended interviews is the fact that, by its nature (open ended interview) not all the questions on the guide are asked in a planned interview. The other weakness is that the interviewer can easily influence the outcome of the interview through choice of questions, perceptions and just the attitude towards the interviewee (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009). But to me, this was the best way I could have

conducted the interviews for I tried to always create a non-influencing environment for the interviewees as well as presenting their points of view as original as possible. I did not create any room for the provision of clues to the participants for desirable answers. I used a very portable state of the art voice recorder that was too small to obstruct (in my opinion) the attention of the interviewee as Merriam (1998) states that the use of mechanical devices is recommended but the cost of obstructiveness often challenges their use. In this regard I had to also depend on already written documents to support information from the voice interviews. Below is how I proceeded with reviewing some documents that I found relevant to the study.

### **3.3.3 Document Analysis or Review**

“People who write documents on behalf of organisations are likely to have a particular point of view that they want to get across” (Bryman 2004:387). Hence, documentary analysis on the part of the researcher is considered as a very useful tool in social research, claims Sarantakos (1998). A researcher should not take any document by face value without a deeper and thorough review, however, official it may look. Bryman (2004) observes that documents derived from private sources like companies are likely to be authentic and meaningful. At least in the sense of being clear and comprehensible to the researcher but that should not make the researcher complacent. My interviews and observations in the study were highly consolidated by the documents that I reviewed, as Yin (1994) puts it that, documents are used to corroborate and confirm evidence from other sources, providing more detail in many cases. However, it is worth noting that document review is a systematic endeavour that involves identification, collection, analysis and interpretation of relevant knowledge found there in (Sarantakos 1998, Bryman 2004). In my study, I particularly collected policy documents from MOE that relates to community schools and HIV/AIDS education. I also collected and photocopied some syllabi and timetables from the two selected schools and some KAO documents from EduSport. One of the materials from EduSport is used by teachers and peer coaches as a guide in conducting KAO activities in schools and the wider communities.

I thoroughly went through each of these documents highlighting important areas that were more relevant to my study before getting an insight of the issues at play. This process helped me understand the documents, hence, playing an analyst role and acquiring new knowledge from the documents. However, this was not an all smooth road into the analytical world; it came along with challenges and limitations. Accessing some of the documents was a

challenge even if most of them qualify to be in the public domain. For example getting a copy of the school syllabus at School A was not easy, the head teacher was a bit reluctant to release it to me for fear of being implicated by the powers that be. Some documents although quite relevant to my study were not as clear and comprehensive for my thorough understanding and analysis, hence some documents proved not to be that reliable. Sarantakos (1998) claim that reliability of the documents most of the times raises questions as documents may not be complete, updated or be with an acceptable word selection of what ever the language. The fact that I was aware of these challenges before hand, made me very cautious in selecting the documents that were really relevant for my study. I also exhibited a lot of patience and thorough planning in order to get hold of the important documents, especially the policy documents from MOE. This is because accessing documents from government wings may demand a great deal of time and patience on the part of the researcher. As Van Maanen and Kolb (1985), cited by Bryman (2004:296) observe, "Gaining access to most organisations is not a matter to be taken lightly but one that involves some combination of strategic planning, hard work and dumb luck". Actually accessibility of documents goes with getting consent to start observing institutional activities, that does not also come by easily. Having said that let me shade light on how I did my field observations.

### **3.3.4 Observations**

With my prior knowledge in both teaching PE and having been exposed to HIV/AIDS education through sport as earlier reported, it was tempting of me to decide on observing school activities that involved HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE. However, this was not done from a policing point of view of interrogating the sessions in order to find the wrongs. But by a way of trying to understand what goes on during the sessions from a researcher's perspective. This is similar to Patton's (2002) ideas that, to fully understand the complexities of situational contexts of the researched, direct participation in and observation of the phenomenon of interest maybe the best research method. I spent hours on the dusty play grounds of both schools observing these activities on different days and different times being performed by different individuals. I took the participant observer approach as propounded by Hammersley and Atkinson (1998). In this kind of observation, I took a low profile where by, I tried to situate myself such that my presence should not have any direct influence over the situation being observed. However, this could not completely be ruled out.



Since I was a stranger in the school and during the sessions, I surely could not help not to influence the situation, at least indirectly. The following quote supports the foregoing:

*When the observer first arrives, the students (and perhaps the teacher) are curious about the observer's presence....consequently, they may behave differently than they would if the observer was not there.... The teacher may also act differently, possibly by perceiving the observer as a threat or being aware of the purpose of the observations (Thomas, Nelson and Silverman 2005:335).*

I used structured observation where I organised and planned how to go about my observations before hand. I had a set of categories to directly go for in the observations as recommended by Sarantakos (1998). I took into consideration things like, what particular things do I observe in the contextual situation? How do I do it? Will I need some aids like cameras?

I physically observed activities during PE sessions. I also observed the participants dress in order to get some ideas of their economic backgrounds. I equally observed both the physical environment and the social infrastructure in the two schools. I observed the people in these two institutions with a keen interest of establishing their way of life and occasionally asked some informal questions to add value to what I observed. I observed both School A and School B on different days. I always arrived at the schools in ample time. I made sure I arrived at least 20 minutes before the sessions started so that I could mingle with teachers and other lead persons, and be able to be seen by the participants. In this way the curiosity on the part of lead persons and participants was eased and I was not that strange when time for actual observation came. However, I never made any observations on the initial visits to the schools apart from acquainting my self to the situation and making appointments with various target sources within the schools. This also helped in allowing the participants to become gradually accustomed to my presence as recommended by Thomas et al (2005).

Nevertheless, behind all the preceding ways of collecting data, there was the issue of making some personal and academic sense out of it. By the end of it all, I had to analyse data as the following subtopic highlights.

### **3.4 Analysing the Data**

To start with, I should be quick to say here that the process of data analysis actually started earlier before the field work. This is because working on the project proposal and later on

interview guides, gave me a feeling for analysing issues even before hand. As reported earlier, I did not restrict my self to interview guides during field work but made it a bit more open. This redefined my categories after the transcriptions. The categories looked a bit more different than initially expected. The categories that emerged from the data were slightly different from what I had anticipated. This could have probably been due to the way the participants gave out their responses. However, I did all I could within my capacity to retain the content of what the participants had put across while trying to see patterns and meaning within.

The actual analysis and interpretation was done by looking at what had been offered and then comparing the same with other studies that have been done before on similar themes, environments and settings. This was done with a backdrop of selected theories such as the social learning theory, the social capital theory, the social identity theory, the gender theory etc. Concepts such as the HIV/AIDS in the social perspective, poverty, sport for development, fatalism and others also helped in the analysis of the data collected. However, this process was rather challenging because the sample had different characteristics within it. This brought about some unanticipated dynamics to the study. Due to the foregoing, I chose to take on my data from several perspectives with different theories and concepts in mind as mentioned earlier. This is so because the different stakeholders involved, use different lenses through which they saw my field of study. Hence, the study considered multiple documents and ideas from different stakeholders. This undertaking also brought along with it, a different perspective to the study altogether.

While analysing and discussing, I put some direct quotes from some participants. However, this has been written in a more simple and readable form. As Kvale (1996) notes that, writing a conversation word for word does not do it justice and is often boring to read. It is for this reason that I tried to respect the reader by making the quotes into readable material while trying to retain the content of the original conversations. However, by writing it in my own words as I understood the conversations, I summarised the views of the participants. This is in one way or another connecting to the validity and reliability of the study so as to establish the quality and integrity of the work. The next section focuses on this.

### **3.5 Validity and Reliability**

Validity and reliability is very important to consider in a qualitative research such as this one, because it is so significant an issue to consider when one chooses to do a qualitative research. However, different interpretations of the use of validity and reliability emerge among researchers in qualitative research. This is mostly due to the nature of methods and epistemological assumptions of the research. At another level, some researchers claim that validity and reliability must be used to judge the quality and integrity of any study (Bryman 2004). But the traditional assumption of reliability is replicability that comes along with consistency. In other words, the best way to judge the quality and integrity of a study is to ensure and maintain that the research process is first of all logical, traceable and organised. The idea that I used triangulation as reported earlier, must be taken as another way in which I engaged validation. My choice to involve different ways of collecting data (Triangulation) was not as a way of spicing up the study, but a way of validating and giving integrity to it. This is in line with what Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) observes that validity is always associated to data or its interpretation. In this case an inappropriate application of methods could pose as a big threat to accessing valid data.

However, in the case of a case study within which this study falls, Yin (1994) recommends that there must be a data base that contains notes, documentary materials and above all narratives that are kept in written form. In my study, as reported earlier I collected documents such as reports and policies from the various institutions connected to the study. I equally compiled interview transcriptions, and that were married with compatible interview guides, although these could not exactly fit into each other due to the openness of the interviews. I feel by establishing this kind of a data base, I could however, claim to have increased the reliability of the study. But looking at it from a different angle, if the interviews were conducted by a different researcher other than me and adding or subtracting some participants, then definitely the results would be different and one can then conclude that the results are not reliable. In such a case, the data base mentioned earlier could be the reference point to offer some reliability (Yin 1994). If reliability is to mean that, suppose the research is replicated the results must be the same despite the different hands that handle the new research. Such a stance may be common in quantitative research rather than in the qualitative field where mostly the bottom line is finding out about something rather than proving the study right or wrong. Cohen et al (2007) writes that in qualitative research, reliability considers fidelity to real life, contextual to a specific situation and depth of response and

meaning to specific informants. The foregoing could be more practical to undertake if the researcher knows his or her responsibilities in the field as explored below.

### **3.6 Responsibilities of the Researcher**

The law in Zambia is such that one has to get permission in order to conduct some research within the borders of the country. In researches related to HIV/AIDS and other related diseases, the Zambian government has engaged the University of Zambia (UNZA) to be in charge of this. Thus, UNZA has formed a committee that issues permits to people that would like to conduct some studies related to HIV/AIDS on behalf of the Zambian government. This wing is called the University of Zambia Ethics Committee (UNZAMED 2008). However, other government wings that may be directly related to the study could as well sanction the research permit. That is why I felt it easier for me to go through MOE as I have been a teacher under this umbrella. But this came with other challenges, for I first got a verbal permit to launch my data collection process before getting an actual written consent. Nevertheless, it was through this channel that I was able to get into the system and eventually even securing an interview with MOE that later led me to other relevant sources of data.

Qualitative research calls for the researcher to be pro-active because the direction of the research entirely depends on the researcher. The researcher should be able to fit into the shoes of the participant and try to make sense out of the encounter with the participant. However, this is easier said than done. There will always be some dynamics that may prevent the researcher to fully play the ideal role. This is because the researcher is not coming on the scene with an empty mind, but with the whole lot of experiences and pre-conceived ideas. Thus, one cannot rule out the influence of such a background on the participants and the study in general. Other dynamics that may influence the research are the happenings on the material day of the interview. How sensitive is the researcher to different aspects of life or things like the ways in which the researcher reacts to emerging unforeseen situations etc (Kvale and Brinkmann 2009).

Having lived overseas for close to six years, may have changed the way I perceive certain situations in Zambia. Although I am Zambian, I might have picked certain characteristics from my host country such that I may be perceived as a stranger in my own country. It is possible that some participants may have looked at me as being different from them. This

could have influenced the interviews and other aspects of the study. It is also possible that when I asked questions about the poverty levels in the communities, some participants could not relate me about it because they looked at me differently. However, I tried my best to fit into the local situation as a Zambian and spoke the local language in most cases, especially when I dealt with pupils and parents. This is in line with Bryman (2008:493) who writes that “knowing how words are used and the meaning of specific terms in the local vernacular is frequently viewed as crucial to an appreciation of how the social world being studied is viewed by its members”. Being looked at differently could have also contributed positively to the study because while the participants regarded me as a different person, they were intrigued to share with me their inner lives through conversations. This could have been partly because I was not really part of their daily lives like any other person they encountered everyday. My other assumption was that probably through me as a researcher, they saw some hope for a better future, although it was not my intention to give such a false hope. I should report here that all the participants were totally new to me and I never met them before the study. This may have given them confidence because they saw somebody who had taken time and interest to be concerned about their situation. However, my being Zambian also gave the participants some confidence in confiding in me, because I was able to be situated within their culture. I was not a total stranger per se, but somebody who could easily fit into their present living and cultural context. Against this background, the researcher has a responsibility of working within certain ethics as explored below.

### **3.6.1 Research Ethics**

*What is crucial is to be aware of the ethical principles involved and of the nature of concerns about the ethics in social research....it is only if researchers are aware of the issues involved that they can make informed decisions about the implications of certain choices (Bryman 2004:507).*

There are a lot of ethical issues that a researcher should be aware of as Bryman (2004) puts it above. The most crucial ones, however, are the ethical issues that arise between the researcher and the participant in the course of a study. One of the ethical issues is to fully make a participant aware of the objective of the study and how the findings will be exposed. In my research I informed the authorities to which the participants were connected. For example in the schools, the school head teacher and other teachers were very much aware of the full details of my research. But it was virtually difficult to give full details to pupil participants

because of time and the low intellectual capacity to fully understand what I was looking for. However, some basic information was availed to them and the task was fully explained in detail to the pupils. The same was given to the teachers that also participated in the study. I also explained that the information they would give me was strictly for my studies and would be kept in confidence and that their names would not be attached to the findings because pseudonyms would be used as opposed to real names. The use of anonyms was also extended to the schools and the communities involved, because of the upholding of confidentiality of records in the study.

It was, however, practically impossible to get an informed consent from the parents of the participants that were under age. Some of the reasons being that some parents could not read or let alone understand a written consent document. The other reason was that some participants stayed with guardians that were less concerned about them. Thus, participants made their own decisions. It is for such reasons that a formal informed consent was done with the school authorities. In addition, another informed consent was done with the participants themselves as I made myself clear that I was doing a research on them as participants (Subjects). This followed Bryman's (2004:511) recommendation that "inquiries involving human subjects should be based on as far as practicable on a freely given informed of subjects". This means that if there is a practical possibility of obtaining an informed consent from the participants, then it has to be in place.

The last discussion under methodology is reflexivity that calls for a researcher to be conscious about how his or her background would influence the research process. This is the focus in the next subtopic.

### **3.7 Reflexivity**

*Reflexivity requires an awareness of the researcher's contribution to the construction of meanings throughout the research process, and an acknowledgment of the impossibility of remaining 'outside of' one's subject matter while conducting research. Reflexivity then, urges us to explore the ways in which a researcher's involvement with a particular study influences, acts upon and informs such research. (Nightingale and Cromby 1999: 228).*

As noted above, reflexivity requires that the researcher is conscious about how his/her background would influence the research process. However, there are two types of reflexivity.

the first is personal reflexivity that involves reflecting upon the ways in which our own values, experiences, interests, beliefs, political commitments, wider aims in life and social identities would influence the research (Bryman 2008). On the other hand, it also involves gauging how the research itself may have affected the researcher personally and professionally. The second one is epistemological reflexivity that requires researchers to engage with questions such as: How has the research question been defined and limited what can be 'found?' How have the design of the study and the method of analysis 'constructed' the data and the findings? How could the research question have been investigated differently? To what extent would this have given rise to a different understanding of the phenomenon under investigation? (Nightingale and Cromby 1999). Thus, epistemological reflexivity encourages us to reflect upon the assumptions (about the world, about knowledge) that the researcher has made in the course of the research. At the same time, it helps the researcher to think about the implications of such assumptions for the research and its findings.

I always made myself conscious of both my personal and epistemological reflexivity all the time, so that my own pre-conceived ideas would not directly influence the questions I asked. However, I tried to engage my background in forming objectivity when I was questioning some participants, because one can not completely rule out the researchers experience's influence on the study.

### **3.8 Chapter Sum-up**

In a nutshell, I researched using the best ways possible to undertake this study. This was in an effort to try and create a realistic picture of the situation in the under-served community schools and their respective wider communities. To create this realistic picture, I selected qualitative methodology, with a conviction that it situates itself closer to people's realities. It is also broader in giving a realistic picture of the participants in the final analysis. I employed triangulation in order to observe the phenomenon of HIV/AIDS education through sport in under-served community schools from different perspectives. This was as a way of increasing the reliability and validity of my study. However, my experience in the field was without practical and theoretical challenges. With appropriate research literature and theoretical perspectives, I tried to make sense out of it. Hence, the following chapter focuses on the literature reviews and the theoretical perspectives used in the study.

## **4. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES**

This chapter focuses on some already established knowledge on HIV/AIDS education and how it can be achieved through sport and physical activities. The intention is to look at the social learning theory, the social capital theory and their related concepts in relation to this particular study. To a greater extent the literature review has also looked at poverty as it relates to development in the context of HIV/AIDS. It has also focused on other conceptual perspectives such as fatalism, peer education, identity etc. However, the general view of HIV/AIDS education in schools is my starting point.

### **4.1 HIV/AIDS (Awareness and Prevention) Education**

HIV/AIDS Education refers to promoting health and preventing one from engaging in activities that may expose him/her to acquiring HIV/AIDS by providing the knowledge, the skills and the means to foster and sustain behaviours that reduce risks, improves care and lessens the impact of illness (UNICEF 2007, Vaughan, Rogers, Singhal and Swalehe 2000). Because of this, most prevention efforts to curtail the spread of the HIV/AIDS epidemic have been premised on links between education and behaviour change (Maro 2008, Malambo 2002, Nesbakken 2003, Vaughan et al 2000). The underlying assumption has been that teaching people how to protect themselves from HIV/AIDS can lead to reduction in risk behaviours that may render one become vulnerable to HIV/AIDS and hence a reduction in HIV/AIDS incidence (UNAIDS 1999). However, today this is no longer an assumption, as more recent research show evidence that young people in many parts of the world are now waiting longer to become sexually active, having fewer sexual partners, or using more condoms as a result of the HIV/AIDS education they have received (UNAIDS 2009, Maro 2008). In this line, most of these HIV/AIDS education programmes are done in institutions of learning such as schools, as the following subtopic presents.

### **4.2 Schools as Good Sites for HIV/AIDS Intervention Programmes**

Schools are believed to offer good venues where HIV/AIDS education is presented in a more effective way, at least when it concerns information delivery. To this, there is an argument by researchers that school-based HIV/AIDS prevention programmes are the most effective (Finger and Lapetina 2002, Kelly 2000). On the other hand, Action Aid (2003) reported on a research in Kenya and India that showed that teachers and schools play a pivotal role in



teaching young people about HIV/AIDS. In the research, the schools had overwhelming support from the parents partly because this seems to relieve their own responsibilities for discussing HIV/AIDS with their children, a challenge not easily tackled. This is more due to the social context of the local culture where such responsibilities are given to special individuals (Cohen 2004, Rugalema and Khanye 2004). Thus, some communities see schools as the best venues to communicate issues of HIV/AIDS professionally and more effectively. This is the more reason why a good number of communities in times of HIV/AIDS give a lot of support to school based programmes that aim at mitigating the HIV/AIDS problem. After all, schools provide an already established venue for intervention because their location and influence is well established. This is both physically and in the minds of the locals because of being sustained within the community, their hours and mode of operation are known (Barnett, de Koning and Francis 1995, Kelly 2000). Barnett et al (1995) goes further to say that schools have established mechanisms for introduction of new programmes, students can be easily accessed and the size of the target population is known.

In addition, schools are linked to communities through families, and other community organizations, extending their reach and enhancing local ownership of interventions (Barnett et al 1995, Rugalema and Khanye 2004). On the other hand, Bunnell, Hyde and Swainson (2002) cite several reasons that are commonly advanced as to why schools are particularly appropriate sites for HIV/AIDS education. The first is that students are a captive audience, for virtually all the countries, a majority of children enroll in school before they are 10 and spend several years in school. Secondly, the inclusion of HIV/AIDS education in the curricula would seem therefore to be an efficient and effective use of their time, ensuring that the necessary knowledge, skills, and attitudes are inculcated. This leads to safe sexual behavior and calls for a range of learning objectives and related instructional strategies over the entire school cycle (MOE 2007). Malambo (2002) also adds that it is important to teach children HIV/AIDS age appropriate information while they are young, they shall live to remember that for the rest of their lives. There is a conviction that Knowledge needs to be shared in an age-appropriate manner in the classic curriculum spiral. The other reason Bunnell et al (2002) gives as to why schools are particularly appropriate sites for HIV/AIDS interventions, is similar to that of Malambo (2002) which states that school-based programmes also provide the opportunity to start educating children at an early age. Malambo (2002) claims that research shows that sexual and reproductive health education is likely to be more effective if it is started before children become sexually active. This must be done before children or

youths have already acquired attitudes and practices that are often counter-productive to positive sexual behaviors and attitudes (WHO 2002).

On the other hand, Kalipeni et al (2006) also report on their findings in Kenya that through HIV/AIDS education in schools, teachers are cited as dependable sources of HIV/AIDS information. Students later use this information to discuss issues of HIV/AIDS among themselves in their peer groups. However, Kalipeni et al (2006) quickly indicates that HIV/AIDS education in schools has some limitations when it concerns discussing issues of HIV/AIDS and sex. Their study in Kenya indicated that many teachers that taught HIV/AIDS education expressed discomfort in teaching students about HIV/AIDS and sex. Kalipeni et al (2006) traced this to African traditional practices which bar elders from talking to youths about sex except under certain conditions which a classroom situation does not guarantee. In this regard, other avenues of delivering HIV/AIDS education ought to be explored. Sport being one of such avenues. Sport is recently being recognized as a community developmental tool as the succeeding subtopic explores.

### **4.3 Sport for Development**

The United Nations has in recent years identified sport to be a good avenue through which HIV/AIDS and other social and health problems can be combated. Hence it recognizes sport in the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals<sup>9</sup> (MDGs) when it states that:

*Sport directly contributes to the pursuit of the MDG`s. Sport is an innovative and effective tool to assist efforts to achieve specific targets such as those concerning education, gender equality, HIV/AIDS and the reduction of major diseases....well designed sports programmes are also a cost effective way to contribute significantly to health, education, development and peace and a powerful medium through which to mobilize societies as well as communicate key messages. As one of the richest and most developed aspects of civil society.... sport opens new avenues for creative partnerships through which to achieve the United Nations development goals. (United Nations 2003:1)*

The UN (2003) further states that sport and physical activity are essential for improving health and well being, an integral part to the achievement of MDGs. This is enough evidence to show how the world through the eyes of the UN is realizing the power of sport on the

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<sup>9</sup> MDG`s are eight international goals that 189 United Nations member states and at least 23 international organizations have agreed to achieve by the year 2015. These include among others reducing extreme poverty and fighting disease epidemics such as HIV/AIDS. (UN 2003)

agenda of development (UN 2003, Sport for Development and Peace [Sportanddev] 2005) .To this effect; there has been a few studies conducted on the effects of community sports programmes on social change. The studies include that of Mwaanga (2003) who researched and reported on how differently advantaged girls involved in football peer coaching developed empathy for the more socially disadvantaged children they worked with. Another study is that of Maro (2008) who researched on using sport to promote HIV/AIDS education for at risk youths playing football in Tanzania and how peer education contributes to this.

In addition, there are more organizations in different parts of the world that are also using sport to tackle the HIV/AIDS problem under the earlier defined KAO concept. The Sports Coaches Outreach (SCORE), a South African sport NGO is implementing KAO activities into their existing sports programmes; they aim to involve everyone already participating in their sports activities with an intention of achieving social transformation and personal empowerment in different communities. They feel that children and youth participation in community sports can make a difference by changing their behavior and adopting healthy lifestyle alternatives and an open-mindedness towards people living with HIV/AIDS. SCORE (2008) further reports that sport and PE is one of the best platforms from which to create awareness and accelerate this change.

EMIMA<sup>10</sup> in Tanzania is another sports organization which is trying to implement the KAO programmes in some slums of Dar es Salaam. KAO is one of the projects being conducted in the organization and it aims at integrating sports skills and HIV/AIDS education. The project is being conducted in different centers by way of using peer leaders. The main activity is disseminating HIV/AIDS information through the use of sport, movement games, play and traditional dances (EMIMA Tanzania, 2008).

However, apart from being used in HIV/AIDS work, sport and physical activity has been used in other social development initiatives in different parts of the world. The Matare<sup>11</sup> Youth Sports Association (MYSA) in Kenya is using sport and physical activity, especially football to attract young people to its programme and in turn, the young people are taught how to care about their physical environment. Under the MYSA project, young people and their teams

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<sup>10</sup> EMIMA stands for Elimu, Michezo na Masoezi in Kiswahili ,interpreted into English language, would mean Education, Sport and Physical Activity (EMIMA 2008)

<sup>11</sup> Matare is one of the largest slums in East Africa located in Nairobi Kenya; it has an estimated population of 500 000 ( Wikipedia 2009)

(mainly football teams) are encouraged to voluntarily clean up their community. They remove solid waste from their community and unblock open sewers to reduce disease. The teams that complete their clean-up activities in a stipulated time are awarded 6 points in the league standings. On the other hand, individual players get 2 points with every completed clean-up, hence, increasing their individual chances of winning a leadership award (MYSA 2008). And in Lebanon, sport and play is being used as a means to rescue children from anxiety and depression as a result of a civil war, as it is reported that:

*Recent studies have shown that children and young people who experienced....the Lebanese civil war in the 1980s still suffer from anxiety and depression today...As a result, there is a great need for interventions that alleviate stress and trauma, not to mention an enormous risk of disorientation and substance abuse....a meaningful and comprehensive programme that uses sport and games to support psychosocial rehabilitation among children and young people has been developed. (Swiss Academy for Development 2008:1)*

In view of the above, Donnelly, Darnell, Wells and Coakley (2007) indicate that there is significant evidence to support the utility of sport in facilitating the development of children and youths. They further state that participating in sport and other sport-based initiatives targeted at children and youth have been shown to decrease social exclusion and contribute to community-building and inclusion in a host of social contexts, such as areas of post-conflict and areas of poverty in low-economic countries. Donnelly et al (2007) suggests that sport offers an important resource for reducing delinquency and crime among youth and promoting community safety. They also associate sport to contribute to facilitating educational commitment and attainment among children and youth, and as a vehicle for promoting character-building and moral development.

Similarly, world icons like Nelson Mandela have also appreciated the positive effects sport can have on humanity as reported below:

*Sport is very important for building character because when you're involved in sport your individual character comes out, your determination, your ability to be part of the team and the acceptance of the collective effort is extremely important in developing your community, your country as well as patriotism. (BBC Press Office 2002:1).*

The BBC Press Office (2002) further reports on a Secondary School in Cape Town, South Africa that is using Sport to rehabilitate young gangsters and re-socialize them back into

society. However, it may be important here to understand the various mechanisms at play that may make sport achieve or facilitate the desired outcomes beyond sport itself because there maybe some spinoff outcomes that may not be desirable and totally in contrast with the main objectives. This is in line with Coulter (2007) when he observes that there are statements such as the ones above that portray sport and participating in it to directly influence desirable outcomes. He writes that such statements have been derived from wide-spread traditional ideologies of sport mainly from ancient Greece. These ideologies are based on the development of discipline, confidence, tolerance and respect. Evidence for such outcomes tends to be limited both at impacting on individuals and at achieving the desired behavioral outcomes (Coulter 2007).

At another level, Donnelly et al (2007) note that sport may be full of discrimination, racism, divisive and can aid intolerance and misunderstanding in place of the much desired positive behavior, tolerance and common understanding. That is why it may be important for researchers in this field, policy makers, teachers of sport and other practitioners alike not to ignore this but to carefully evaluate it and provide leadership in realizing intended outcomes. However, it is worth noting that the anticipated positive results of child and youth sport participation and child and youth-based initiatives that use sport for positive social change are not automatic or linear (Donnelly et al 2007, Mwaanga 2003, Kruse 2006, Coulter 2006). Research indicates that sport programs should be part of a multi-agency approach to child and youth development, and that committed facilitators (coaches, administrators, volunteers) should be in place to ensure that appropriate values (fair play and tolerance as opposed to winning) are encouraged (Donnelly et al 2007). A research reviewed by Coakley (2002) also concluded that in well designed sports programmes, participants should feel physically safe, personally valued, socially connected, morally and economically supported, personally and politically empowered and most importantly, hopeful about the future .Coakley (2002) further stresses that in the absence of the above, negative or undesirable outcomes are likely to set in. However, what research seems to recommend so highly when it concerns the use of sport for social change, is having specifically educated or knowledgeable and sincere leadership to help implement the programme in line with the objectives of the programme (Donnelly and Coakley 2002). This is a very important aspect to take into serious consideration especially when sport is used to deliver health related programmes as the next subtopic highlights.

#### 4.4 Sport and Health Programmes

Sport has been used as a social mobilization tool as well as an end in itself that could influence the achievement of some health objectives. Firstly, the natural ability of sport to bring people together has been taken advantage of to create effective platforms for health related programmes (Maro 2008, Zakus, Njelesani and Darnell 2007). For example, the Ministry of Health in Zambia (2005) organized sports tournaments of various sporting disciplines ranging from football to Zambian indigenous traditional games as a platform for a national Polio<sup>12</sup> immunization campaign in 2004. Famous and celebrated Zambian athletes were also used in this immunization campaign; Kalusha Bwalya<sup>13</sup> and Samuel Matete<sup>14</sup> were among the local athletes that were used in the programme as role models who could influence people to take their children for polio immunization. Research in psychology shows that young children tend to model their behavior and attitudes on those of adults, particularly adults they admire, athletes (also parents watching or playing sports) as their role models (Canadian Center for Teaching Peace 2009).

As earlier reported sport and physical activity has been used as a means to an end in achieving the objectives of some health programmes. But Rankinen and Bouchard (2002) disagrees to this by writing that health outcomes do not correspond directly as physical activity increases and that health outcomes are not necessarily a product of participation in physical activity. This is similar to Kruse`s (2006) perspective when he reports on the limitations of the use of sport in mitigating HIV/AIDS, he writes that, while the use of sport and other organized physical activities could be useful tools or arenas for transferring a message and influencing young people`s knowledge about HIV/AIDS, attitudes and behavior, there is no direct or linear correlation between sport and HIV/AIDS. This is in a way in contradiction to Delva and Tammerman (2006) who claims that sport could have a direct correlation to the significant reduction of the incidence of HIV/AIDS among youths as long as the programmes are

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<sup>12</sup> Poliomyelitis, often called polio or infantile paralysis, is an acute viral infectious disease spread from person to person, primarily via the fecal-oral route (Wikipedia 2009)

<sup>13</sup> Winner of the famous African footballer of year award in 1998 and a very famous football icon in Africa, currently he is the president of the Zambian Football Association (CAF, 2009)

<sup>14</sup> A Zambian athlete who competed mainly in 400 m hurdles, he was one of the world's leading hurdlers in the early 1990s, and became the first Zambian track and field world champion in 1991. His 47.10 seconds, achieved during the Weltklasse Zürich in 1991, is the current African record (Wikipedia 2009)

transparent, feasible, accessible and affordable to the participants and that the programmes are effective in promoting safe sexual behavior in a recognized epidemiological manner.

Secondly, apart from being used as a tool for social mobilization in programmes with health agendas, sport and physical activities is said to contribute to population health and disease prevention as an end in itself reports Zakus et al (2007). Zakus et al (2007) also claim that such activities as mere walking, use of stairs, jogging, leisure and professional sports etc, have beneficial effects to the health of individuals, communities and nations. Zakus et al (2007) further claim that sport and physical activity may contribute to moving individuals and populations closer to states of complete physical, mental and social well-being while preventing disease and its effects in the process. This is also similar when physical activity is associated with HIV/AIDS positive individuals; a direct correlation is then appreciated to a greater degree. Mustafa, Sy, Macera, Thompson, Jackson, Selassie and Dean (1999) write that the possibility of HIV/AIDS progression in infected people is limited if these individuals are engaged in physical activities more than three times per week. However, this study dwells more on the use of sport as a means to an end especially when it concerns HIV/AIDS prevention among children and youths. Apart from its direct use in health programmes, sport is responsible for behavior change under certain circumstances, as the following subtopic explores.

#### **4.5 Sport and Behavior Change**

As earlier mentioned, sport is said to be a powerful tool in securing positive behavior especially for children and youths. To this effect, Kruse (2006) gives an example that, it is more likely that sport is a necessary, but not a sufficient cause to explain a change in sexual behavior. He further writes that there are also other factors at work which make a contribution, for example he recommends a deliberate educational component to be added so that it plays as a synergy of sport and change. Zakus et al (2007) also adds that deliberate innovative sport-based programming especially among youths in low income countries contributes to risk avoidance. Coulter (2005) further reports on a deliberate girl's sports programme that has a component of empowerment in it, he writes that the programme serves as a challenge to some local gender norms that may increase the vulnerability of young girls becoming victims of other negative social challenges such as risky sexual behavior. It is then possible to argue that sport contribute to reduced risky sexual behavior among young people,

but only under certain circumstances (Kruse 2006) such as correct and intended messages on one hand and informed and trained coaches where the interaction with young people is based on trust and agency on the other. Kruse (2006) further states that the critical variable in behavior change among youths involved in sport for change programmes is quality in programme materials and how the whole programme is implemented. In other words, sport alone cannot really explain a change in sexual behavior among youths, report Delva and Tammerman (2006), they also argue that the determinants of the effectiveness of any sport for change programme should be considered at three levels, that is the intervention, sexual behavior and then the behavioral change in itself. This may mean that sport itself can contribute negatively to youth sexual behavior as Kruse (2006) points out that, sport can lead to increased sexual behavior or negative outcomes, as sports bring young people (girls and boys) closer together, it increases the risk of sexual abuse and unintentional sexual encounters. However, at the back of this behavior change, there is a lot of peer influence embedded within sports circles as the following highlights.

#### **4.6 Peer Education (Peer Coaching)**

Peer education has been used in many areas of public health, including nutrition education, family planning, substance use and violence prevention (UNAIDS 1999). However, the use of peer education in the realm of HIV/AIDS stands out because of the number of examples of its use in the recent international public health literature (UNICEF 2009). Due to this general acceptance of the power of peer education, global efforts to further understand and improve the process and impact of this strategy in the area of HIV/AIDS prevention, care and support have also increased (Mwaanga 2003, UNICEF 2009, Maro 2007). Peer education typically involves using the members of a given group to effect change among other members of the same group (Mwaanga 2003, Agbeko 2007). Peer education is often used to effect change at the individual level by attempting to modify a person's knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors'. However, peer education may also effect change at group or societal level, by modifying norms and stimulating collective action that leads to changes in programmes and policies while using familiar and valued activities that may affect the behaviors of peers (Maro 2007). But when peer influence is generally considered as a catalyst to peer education, Nesbakken (2003) points out that the wider society also shapes the peer influence in as much as it also influences society. This is based on the assumption that young people engage in



behaviors including early sexual activities partly because of the general societal behavior especially among their peers (Agbeko 2007, Nesbakken 2003).

The Theory of Participatory Education has also been important in the development of peer education (Freire 1970, Nesbakken 2003). Participatory models of education highlights that powerlessness at the community or group level coupled with the economic and social conditions inherent in the lack of power are the major risk factors for poor health (Amaro 1995). On the other hand, Freire (1970) comments that empowerment<sup>15</sup> results from the full participation of the people affected by a given problem or health condition. Through dialogue, the affected community collectively plans and implements a response to the problem or health condition in question. Maro (2007) insists that through peer coaching (peer education) there is likely to be a horizontal process of peers of a common status and background, talking among themselves and determining a course of action for their common problems and influencing behavioral change especially in times of HIV/AIDS. However, the way peer education has been used in sport, particularly in sport for social change; it inter-relates to a cluster of theories such as the social learning, the social capital and the social identity theories. The following three sub chapters shade light on this.

#### **4.7 The Social Learning and other Related Theories**

There are a number of theories that have been associated with peer education. One of them is the Social Learning Theory that asserts that people serve as models of human behaviour, and some people (significant others) are capable of eliciting behavioural change in certain individuals, based on the individual's value and interpretation system (Bandura 1986). Social learning theory also called observational learning emphasizes the importance of observing and modelling the behaviours, attitudes and emotional reaction of others while focusing on the processes of attention, retention, reproduction and motivation (Giddens 2001). The other theory associated to peer education referred to in this study as peer coaching, is the Theory of Reasoned Action, this theory states that one of the influential elements for behavioral change is an individual's perception of social norms or beliefs about what people, who are important to the individual, do or think about a particular behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). The third theory related to peer education is the Theory of Diffusion of Innovation. It posits that

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<sup>15</sup> Empowerment in the Freirian sense requires full participation of those affected by the problem and through dialogue identify problems, establish solutions and implement them both as an individual as well as a collective response (Nesbakken 2003).

certain individuals (opinion leaders) from a given population act as agents of behavior change by disseminating information and influencing group norms in their community (Rogers 1983, Nesbakken 2003, UNICEF 2009).

#### **4.8 Social Capital theory**

One of the key social theories related to this study is the Social Capital Theory due to the nature of the study and the available data. This has important theoretical implications as the study rests on social cohesion and common resources of the identified communities in trying to understand how collective problems and responses may lead to change. Vygotsky (cited in Nesbakken 2003) writes that the social context that includes local social-economic conditions, ways of life, common cultural patterns and common shared resources have a profound influence on how children develop. Social capital is the fabric of a community as well as the available pool of human resources calculated in terms of personal connections, social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them (Putnam 2000). It also refers to the individual and communal time and energy that is available for such things as community improvement, civic engagement and responsibility, personal recreation, and other activities that create social bonds and cooperation between individuals and groups for individual and group outputs (Putnam 2000, Coleman 1990, Banik 2006). This is very similar to what Moletsane, Morrell, Unterhalter and Epstein (2004) write about social capital as the resource that social actors have, because of their affiliation to various groups and is seen as key to enabling a full participation in society. Children's educational achievement is associated to the level of social capital they draw on while in school, meaning the extent to which their learning is supported by the collective participation of the networks of parents, teachers and significant others (Moletsane et al 2004, Kelly 2004). This study considers the roles of the school, pupils and the wider community through parents in mediating the common social problems in the selected communities. Hence the social capital theory will be a good basis on which to set the study.

#### **4.9 Social Identity Theory**

Another theory worth connecting to this study is the Social Identity Theory due to the different categories of groups revealed by the data at hand, that is the poverty stricken, the rich people, the rural people, the HIV/AIDS infected and the affected, the unemployed, the

orphans et cetera. However, social identity theory connects to personal identity and proposes that the membership of social groups and categories forms an important part of individual self concept, individuals understand themselves better as they relate to social networks (Giddens 1991). The connection between social and self identity is considered as part of the self because it refers to cognitions ensuring from social ecological positions of individuals (Deschamps and Devos 1998, Zoller and Fairhurst 2007). It is also noted that individuals who have similar positions and common backgrounds have similar social identities and therefore, refer to the same similarities in individual characteristics in relation to collective living or working (Huddy 2001).

There are three fundamental psychological mechanisms underlying social identity theory. The first one is categorization which refers to the process whereby objects, events and people are classified into categories. And by doing so we tend to exaggerate the similarities of those in the same group and exaggerate the differences between those in different groups (Jarymowicz 1998, Zoller and Fairhurst 2007).

The second psychological process is social comparison. Social comparison refers to the process of comparing one's own social group with others. Some social groups have more power, prestige or status than others and therefore members of a group will compare their own groups with others and determine the relative status of their own group (Giddens 1991, Nesbakken 2003) that is the dichotomy between the residents of the under-served slum communities and the economically affluent suburbs of Lusaka city. This results in the tendency for members of one group to distance themselves from membership of a group which does not share the same passion and status of their group and take more account of the beliefs and ideas of their social group (Layder, 2004)

The third psychological process relates to the tendency for people to use group membership as a source of self esteem. Therefore, if a group does not compare favorably with other groups that are seemingly higher, one may seek to leave such a group or distance oneself from it (Jenkins 2004). However if leaving the group is impossible then one may adopt strategies such as comparing own group to another group of a lower status (Woodward, 2002). To a certain extent social identity relates to gender and power relations because there are also boundaries among groups as the following subtopic explains.

#### **4.10 Theories of Gender and Power Relations**

It may be important as well to consider some theories of gender and power relations in this study because of the way poverty levels in the two communities have been gendered to some extent. However, general research shows that women and girls are more vulnerable to poverty and HIV/AIDS as compared to men and boys (Cohen 2006, Kelly 2000, Kalipeni et al 2006). Hence considering theories of gender and power relations may just be as important to the study. The other reason is because patriarchy is a very dominant phenomenon in the cultural system of the research setting and Zambia as a whole, as reported earlier. Nevertheless, gender relations to a greater extent can be associated to power relations, it can claim that power imbalances in gender relations in most social classes are the root causes of women's and girl's vulnerability to HIV/AIDS (Agbeko 2006). This can however, be resolved with a thorough understanding of contextual culture in relation to gender and power relations especially when it concerns HIV/AIDS education. Mugarura (2004) emphasize that cultural beliefs and practices influence each other, that is why HIV/AIDS prevention strategies should identify positive aspects of local culture that may promote well being and address or de-emphasize aspects of local culture which may lead to increased risk of HIV/AIDS. On women and girls, cultural beliefs and practices actually play a significant role in increasing their vulnerability to HIV/AIDS because in many societies, women from their early ages are socialised to be subordinate and above all submissive to the ever 'powerful' men (Kelly 2000).

Gender, as opposed to sex that refers to the biological differences between males and females, refers to the socially designated roles played by males and females in different societies (Rivers and Aggleton 1988, Giddens 2001). In some societies, the birth of a child signifies the beginning of a gender role that the new child will acquire in her or his early childhood. The culture in which the child is born will to a larger degree define the gender roles which the child ought to play. The different roles for females and males are already set by society and, all the child does is to acquire them both consciously and unconsciously (Giddens 2001). But on the other hand, Giddens (2006) cautions that gender is not a purely social creation that lacks a fixed essence but is part of a human body that may just be subjected to social forces that alter and shape it in various ways. Another scholar defined gender as the widely shared expectations and norms within a society about appropriate male and female behaviour, characteristics, and roles. She goes further to say that it is a social and cultural construct that

differentiates women from men and defines the ways in which women and men interact with each other (Gupta 2000).

Looking at Bourdieu's ideas, Silva (2005) emphasizes on the body as the site (problematic) from which the processes of masculine domination proceed. She points out how the sexed body becomes the reference point in gender and that it stands outside culture and history while being used to frame cultural distinctions between masculinity and femininity. This also creates a dichotomy in the male and female contemporary relations of domination and submission, meaning that certain dominant roles are directly associated to masculinity while certain roles of submissive nature are associated to femininity with the body as the reference point (Giddens 2001). Bourdieu (2001) himself equally stresses that the male or female (biological sex) position of the body actually provides site for the construction of gender in all societies. Gender would almost be non-existent without nature and the biologically sexed body that influences social order (Butler 1997). However, the different positions and different circumstances in which gender puts women and men brings about a lot of imbalances, dichotomies and inequalities among them and stands as a big challenge when it comes to issues of HIV/AIDS because it puts them at risk in different ways as a result of their sex which contextually also shape their gender (Baxen 2005). When such imbalances are not checked, they may transcend into poverty motivated by HIV/AIDS and vice versa as explained in the next subchapter.

#### **4.11 Theories of HIV/AIDS and Poverty**

Research has shown that the majority of infections of HIV/AIDS in the world occur in the low-income nations of the sub-Saharan Africa and in Asia (Parker and Wilson 2000). Allen and Thomas (2000) note that just as HIV/AIDS exacerbate poverty and inequality, so poverty and inequality facilitate the transmission of HIV/AIDS, they give an example of how absolute poverty increases the susceptibility of the poor to infection from HIV/AIDS due to lack of disposable income to purchase condoms and poor access to better health facilities and HIV/AIDS programmes. Individuals, families and communities are impoverished by their experience of HIV/AIDS in ways that are typical for terminal illnesses, it is a feature of HIV/AIDS infection that it clusters in families with often the bread winner taken on by HIV/AIDS, thus enormous strain on the capacity of families to cope with psycho-social and economic consequences of illness is limited such that many families experience great distress

and often disintegrate as social and economic units (Cohen 2006). At another level, in situations where a disparity between the rich and the poor has been created, data shows that the poor and the socially most disadvantaged are more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS as cited below.

*It has been noted that in a number of African and Indian cities, lower social economic status of many women has reduced their ability to negotiate safer sex and, in some situations has led women to provide unprotected sex for money, lodging, food, employment or other necessities. (Parker and Wilson 2000:93)*

The above could be associated to people reaching a state of fatalism due to poverty and severe under-development in their immediate societies. Scott and Marshall (2005:216) defined fatalism as “a system of beliefs that holds that everything has its appointed outcome and cannot be avoided by effort or foreknowledge and must merely be accepted as an unavoidable fact of life”. To a greater extent, this phenomenon has been associated to extreme poverty, unemployment and the chronically ill people. Groups and individuals in this situation come to believe that all events are predetermined and therefore inevitable. Hence people would rather plan to survive for the material day than the future for death is inevitable in their situation (Allen and Thomas 2000, Scott and Marshall 2005). This may be what motivates people in such situations to engage in risky behaviours as the alternative `survival means`, Kalipeni et al (2006) writes that for many people in absolute poverty, ignorance of HIV/AIDS transmission through unprotected sex is not the issue, but the pressing immediate needs, whether in form of food, shelter, clothing, school supplies, employment supersedes the more abstracted and variable risk of contracting HIV/AIDS. Kalipeni et al (2006:324) goes further to give an example of a Ghanaian sex worker who indicated that “I pray to God daily to protect me, and hope that my client does not have the disease (HIV/AIDS)”. In the same vein, Bourne (2005:244) also reports that: “women who feel overwhelmed by their financial situation and structural violence<sup>16</sup> who lack family support and future perspective and who think that they can not improve their living situations tend to be less concerned about getting HIV/AIDS”.

Unless the poverty that produces these risky behaviours is challenged and completely removed, short term survival will continue to be more important than the longer term risk of HIV/AIDS in the priorities of everyday life for the poor and the under-served. Consequently, fatalistic thoughts shall dominate their daily thinking (Bourne 2005, Kalipeni et al 2006). In

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<sup>16</sup> Denotes a form of violence which corresponds with the systematic ways in which a given social structure or social institution forsakes people by preventing them from meeting their basic needs or are economically exploited (Wikipedia 2009)

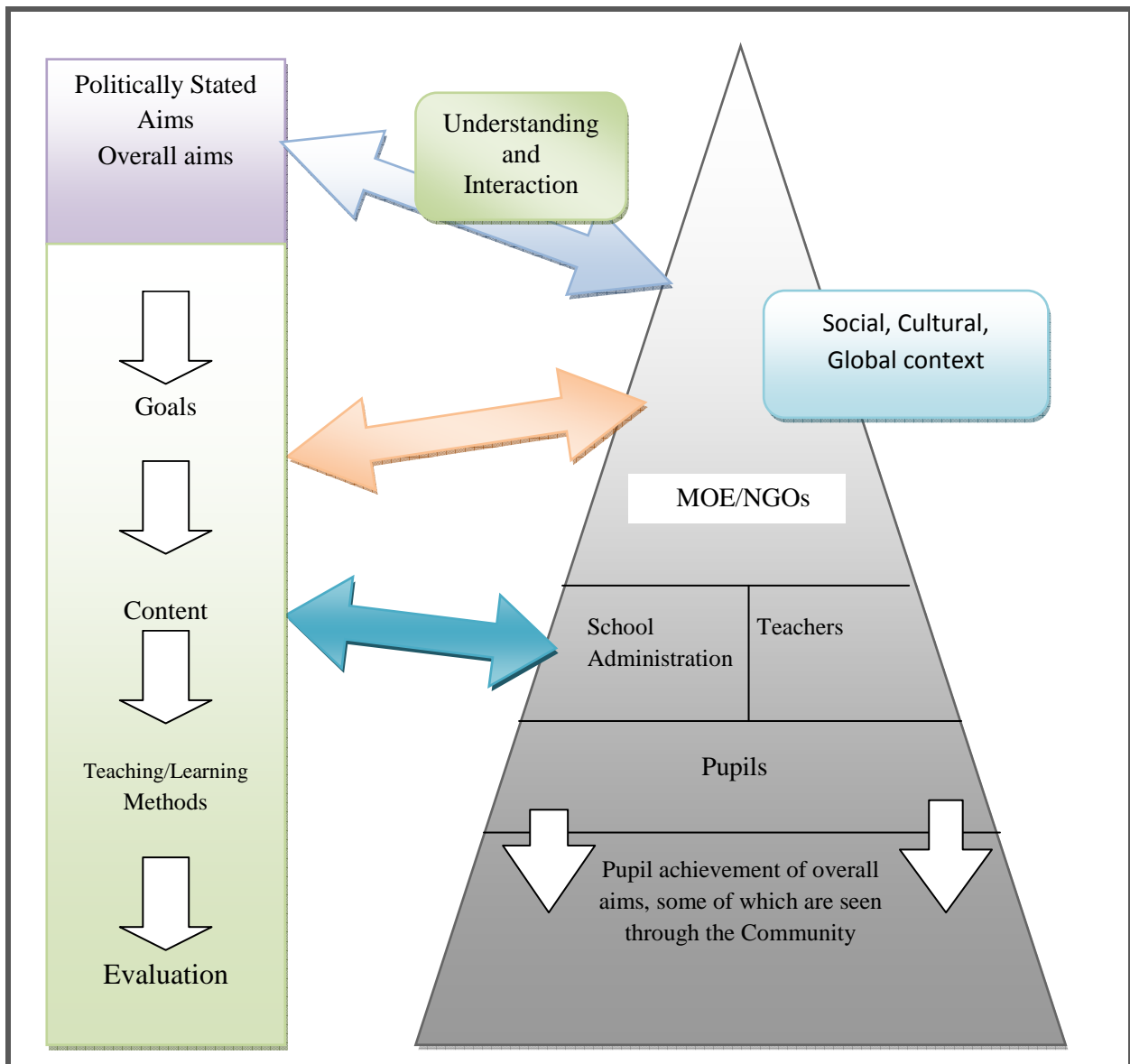
addition, Scott and Marshall (2005) further argues that, in many cases, the behaviour of some vulnerable groups such as the poor and the downtrodden women in society is informed by a `fatalistic approach to life`, fostered by gender, socialization and the economic class of the poor. This is reinforced particularly by inequalities and social exclusion in most societies. On the other hand, Lockwood (1992) suggests that fatalism is a matter of degree and can result from either physical or moral being, that is from the force of prevailing circumstances such as the conditions of survival or the constraints imposed by an unfair system. However, what is especially conducive to a fatalistic attitude is not so much the degree of oppressive discipline involved, but rather the fact that social constraint is experienced as an external, inevitable and impersonal condition (Lockwood, 1992, Scott and Marshall 2005).

The discussions about HIV/AIDS education in schools and wider communities, is coupled with the associated contextual dynamics. It is time to focus on the relationship among policy makers, implementers and the intended benefactors by relating this to Tjeldvoll (1994) model of educational rationality. Below are some details about this model

#### **4.12 Tjeldvoll (1994) Model of Educational Rationality**

Tjeldvoll's (1994) model of educational rationality is also significant to the study at hand, in that the field rationale (established data and other field experiences) from the field of research corresponds to it. In this model, the country's educational aims and objectives are politically stated above all priorities and are meant to flow down through a process to the end users at the bottom. In this manner, politicians plan to fulfill their set objectives.

**Figure 3: Modified Tjeldvoll (1994) Model of Educational Rationality**



This model (figure 2) is adopted from Tjeldvoll (1994) and modified in line with the evidence from the experienced material from the field. However, the original model is constituted by the coherence of the following four concepts: a) educational rationale, b) Educational organization, c) System conditions, and d) Cultural conditions. The four concepts emphasize the logical relationship between the legitimate authority's intended purpose or aim of the educational package involved, that is to say the content, the methods and the assessments. It also considers formal, physical, social structures, decision making and communication among the leadership, teachers and the pupils in relation to the outside community.



### **4.13 Chapter Sum-Up**

The chapter has highlighted on the main concepts in this study by linking them to contextual realities of the participants. From the literature review, it is clear that sport and PE alone as a means to deliver HIV/AIDS programmes is not enough, but the use of informed and trained leaders of such programme. Moreover, these concepts provide a view and understanding for the reader on the situation analysis of sport for development in general, and as it relates to HIV/AIDS and poverty in particular. To focus on addressing HIV/AIDS in under-served communities through sport and PE seemed to me to be a useful contribution to the seemingly new area of sport for development. To facilitate this enquiry, a conceptual framework was developed on the basis of Tjeldvoll's (1994) model of educational rationality and Kruse's (2006) understanding of sport for development among others. More appropriate to the study though, is Kruse's (2006) observation of sport for development because his rigorous evaluation specifically addressed the KAO programme in developing countries (Zambia inclusive).

The next chapter highlights on the findings and analysis of the study. The findings are discussed in line with the above mentioned theoretical and conceptual frameworks. It surely analyses matches and mismatches between conceptual frameworks and findings from the field.

## **5. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS**

This chapter focuses on the analysis, discussions and presentation of the findings gathered from the two community schools and other institutions that participated in the data collection process as reported in chapter 3. One school is from the slums of the inner city while the other school is from the rural part. In this manner the findings present some similar and different characteristics to the study. However, the analysis and discussions are basically located within the framework of the background knowledge, theories and concepts explored earlier in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4 respectively. However, it is worth noting that at the centre of this analytical discussion, is the cultural and social context in which the study is situated. Most of the theories and concepts attached to this study are developed by western scholars with a western frame of reference in mind. Anyhow, with this understanding at hand, I have accounted for a more contextualized approach. This is by applying the selected theories in a more local context with all thoughts located within the social conditions that shape and constrain individual and communal life alternatives in the study sites.

It is also important to note that the current discussion follows a sequence guided by the sub-questions presented in Chapter 1 and reflects on: I) The contextual situation of the target group, II) HIV/AIDS and sport programmes in schools in relation to government policy, III) Added value from the NGO's using sport to implement HIV/AIDS programmes in the selected schools and IV) Challenges of HIV/AIDS through sport and PE extending into the wider community.

Some segment of the study describes some aspects that are seemingly external to the selected schools' programmes such as sexual behaviour, survival habits, poverty levels, knowledge of HIV/AIDS in the wider community etc. However, these schools do not exist in isolation, but as part of a wider society. Hence, the schools' external aspects have some influence on the participants in the study that are part of it. Additionally, the programmes under study like KAO, strategically extend beyond the boundaries of the school and into the wider community. As such, in order to understand the participant's involvement in the HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programmes, it is important to explore their backgrounds beyond school and the experiences found in their wider society. In this regard, contextual realities found in the study sites are discussed below.

## **5.1 The Impact of Contextual Realities in the Wider Community on the Lives of Local People in Relation to the Programmes under Study**

This subchapter discusses the three main factors found in the wider communities hosting the selected schools as revealed by the findings. These three factors include, high levels of unemployment, poverty levels and risky behaviours prevailing among and around the target group. Scott and Marshall (2005) defines unemployment and poverty as the state of being unable to sell ones labour power in the labour market despite being willing to do so and a state in which resources, usually material but sometimes cultural are lacking, respectively. The Cambridge Advanced Learners Dictionary (2008) defines risky behaviours as acting in a particular way with a possibility of something bad happening. However, as I analyse and discuss these three aspects, they will be overlapping into each other. This is because in this context, the three are in a way intertwined and capable of reproducing each other. For example, when one community has the majority of its members without a constant source of income, poverty is likely to manifest therein. Scott and Marshall (2005) write that unemployment is a major factor in poverty, especially where the unemployed experience long spells of joblessness. Similarly, my findings show a thin line between unemployment and poverty levels and this is explored below.

### **5.1.1 Unemployment and Poverty Levels**

*Today Thursday July 16<sup>th</sup> 2008, I have practically seen with my own eyes how women with babies on their backs use their hard earned energy to break rocks with hammers in their hands in order to contribute to the ever dry food baskets in their homes. They make sure that their children at least get something to eat than die from hunger by physically breaking rocks and selling them. When the going gets tougher, the women`s school going children are forced to take a break from school, in order to help out in this survival of the fittest business. It takes 4 to 5 weeks for one woman to break 1 tone of stones that she could sell at 450 000 Zambian Kwacha (about a 100 US Dollars) . However, buyers are not readily available and it may take another 3 to 4 weeks for a buyer to come by. This is an illegal mine that the residents have invaded in order to make a living out of that, that is why it has not been easy interviewing anybody for fear that I may report them to the authorities. I had to pretend to be a potential customer for me to gather the little information I am writing here. (Kabanda Mwansa, field diary 16<sup>th</sup> July 2008)*

The above statement from my field diary gives a picture of some of the contextual realities that prevail in the wider communities targeted by the study. These include hard physical work

on the part of women and school children, hunger, exploitation, illegal business for survival and general suffering of residents of this community.

Taking this statement as my departure point, it is clear to see the root cause of perpetual poverty because the majorities in this community have no alternative sources of income for a better living. The situation is like this because in slum areas that is where the unemployed mostly find cheaper alternative accommodation because landlords do not pay any rates to the local authorities (Situmbeko 2008). One participant in the study mentioned that “When my husband got retrenched from where he was working, we had to relocate to this place (slum) where we could in some way afford to pay for accommodation” (Mai Agness, parent School B). When so many unemployed people live together in one common under-served community, then such a community is likely to lead to abject poverty and risky behaviors (Kalipeni et al 2006, Maro 2008). The explanation for this is that, because of poverty, local people are forced to engage in all sorts of risky behaviours such as selling sex in order to survive the harsh conditions they have found themselves in (Campbell 2003). On the other hand, the risky behaviors may lead them to contracting HIV/AIDS, and HIV/AIDS may reproduce absolute abject poverty (Kalipeni et al 2006). This is because it may kill the most productive in the family, that is between 15 and 49 years, leaving other members with no source of income for family’s survival (UNAIDS 2008). UNAIDS (2008) indicate a stability in HIV/AIDS prevalence among the most productive (15-49 age group) from 1995 to 2007 as figure 1 in Chapter 2 shows. But many households in slum areas are still experiencing deaths of their only bread winners. This is also seen from the number of orphans that both School A and School B have enrolled. As reported in Chapter 2, there are 93 and 59 orphans at School A and School B respectively. However, there is no evidence attributing all these deaths to HIV/AIDS.

On unemployment levels, information gathered from the teacher in charge at School B revealed that among the parents at this school, very few are in formal employment. And among the 15 pupil respondents in the study from this school, only 1 had a parent who is in formal employment. The occupations for the parents to the rest of the respondents ranged from small home grown businesses like shoe mending and vegetable selling to manual breaking of rocks into small stones for sale. One respondent explained how her mother tries to make ends meet for the family by breaking rocks in an illegal mine near the community (The statement above from the field diary on the 16<sup>th</sup> July 2008 came from a follow up to this

particular case). Another participant during a group discussion narrated how critical the food situation in some homes is, by saying:

*Hunger is a common feature in our community and most people are in that state, I am just lucky that my parents afford at least one meal a day even if they are not in formal employment. When things get worse like in a situation where my mother does not sell anything at the market, at least we drink “Zigolo”<sup>17</sup> before going to bed. (Dakayame, boy 13)*

This participant generalizes the hunger situation in the community basing it on his personal experience, a sign that the situation could be much more acute than meet the eye. It could also mean that some families go hungry for some days before finding a meal. This participant cites unemployment as the number one cause of the hunger situation in this community. Despite the unemployment problems, some families are relatively large, with children finding their own alternatives to support themselves because support from the parents seems to be limited and cannot cope up with every day demands of life. One participant narrated how his family manages life on daily basis:

*My mother sells charcoal at the market and my father is a shoe mender at the same market, so they are both not in formal employment and we are 7 siblings in the family and most of us want to go to school...I get financial support from well wishers (an NGO). Some of my siblings go to government schools while some have opted to stop school so that they could help with family income (Percy, boy 14)*

However, in School A, due to the hunger situation and extreme poverty, pupils depend on the food provided by an NGO to the school. Parents are also direct beneficiaries of the food provided by the NGO and distributed by the school. In fact according to one participant, School A would have been closed had it not provided food to the pupils and parents, because pupils would have opted to go and search for food than coming to school. He says that some pupils come to school because that is the only place they can find ready food, he narrates that:

*It is because we are provided with food at this school that some are managing to come, otherwise many would have stopped school because of hunger at home, after the drought many homes are very hungry and are surviving through attending school (Mukela, boy 12)*

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<sup>17</sup> This is a homemade non-alcoholic mixture of just sugar and water with no flavour at all. Normally, it is better when taken with something like boiled sweet potatoes, bread, buns or scones (personal experience)

My practical observation in School A also revealed that, the pangs of hunger at the school were quite visible and in a way extreme. This is what I wrote in my field diary on the last day of my visitation to School A.

*In all my 3 visits to this school, pupils were busy lining up for porridge while parents who had volunteered (with an interest) to be preparing the food are busy dishing out to the pupils. It is basically two meals that are prepared per day, but pupils that get their share in the morning will not get another in the afternoon and vice versa (Field Diary 21st August 2008*

In terms of enhancing the learning environment and making it meaningful to all pupils, School A has just done that. It provides meals to pupils that would otherwise not come to school in the absence of this food programme. This also adds value to HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programmes in School A because by nature, a participant needs enough energy to participate in sport and PE activities. If the learning environment is enhanced, as the case in School A, pupils who participate in HIV/AIDS through sport and PE activities may feel loved, appreciated and hopeful. This is in line with Coakley (2002) who writes that, in well designed sports programmes, participants should feel physically safe, personally valued, socially connected, morally and economically supported, personally and politically empowered and most importantly, hopeful about the future.

In School B, the situation is different. The school has no capacity to provide food to the pupils. Some participants narrated that eating breakfast when coming to school in the morning is not part of their daily life. One participant in the discussion group narrated that:

*My mother works very hard at least to give us the evening meal. The rest of the meals are dependent on whether the food is available at home or not, otherwise we usually do not have breakfast and lunch and am like used to the routine. I don't really regret because I know with a single meal per day, we are better off. Others go to bed without eating anything at all, but manage to go to school and life goes on, we are used to such a situation and we do not see it as unusual (Nakazwe, girl 13).*

However, it is interesting to note that some children like Nakazwe above are able to understand the situation in which their parents and their neighbors are, hence, adapting to the situation.

To summarize this, School A's hunger situation is cushioned by the food that an NGO provides while School B has a chain of NGO's that financially and materially support some

pupils regarding their school needs. However, a general picture, I got from the two schools shows that hunger and starvation plays a big role in the daily business of the two schools. For this reason, some children find the urgency to stop school and abandon home in search of a “better life” or simply in order to “survive” the poverty at home by looking for other alternatives. Unfortunately most of the alternatives turn out to be risky. Kalipeni et al (2006), Maro (2008) observes that there is a high chance of people that are wallowing in poverty to engage in risky behaviors as a means for survival. The next sub chapter explores this in detail.

### 5.1.2 Risky Behaviors among the Youth

To a greater extent, due to the desperation caused by the social dynamics involved in trying to come out of poverty and surviving hunger, some youths in the study sites engage in risky behaviors. These risky behaviors include prostitution for mostly girls and streetism<sup>18</sup> for mostly boys. For example in the discussion group in School B, it was enormously cited by the participants that in their community, some girls prefer to stop school, abandon their parents or guardians homes and go to live in a shared home with other girls. According to the discussion, the core business in such a home is nothing but prostitution. The discussion further revealed that in the community, homes being run by groups of girls are on the increase and they seem to be unstoppable. One discussant said that:

*There are many homes in our communities where only girls live, with a boss (pimp) among them who gives orders for herself and the other girls to go out and look for money for `home` by indulging in sexual activities, at least I know of a former class mate who stopped school preferring to join a home for girls...The boss could be of 20 years of age, the ages range from about 13 to about 20 but sometimes even a 12 year old can enter the girls' `home` due to certain circumstances and peer pressure. The boss encourages the younger girls to go and look for money in the bars and night clubs then at the end of the day the girls handover the money to the boss for `home` consumption ( Machilika, Girl 15)*

For the boys, the situation is a bit different but similar in a way. Like the girls, boys also form networks among themselves. Boys turn to the street in an effort to lead a different life other than the life they are leading in their parents or guardians homes. A participant in the study talks of boys of his age in the community, as he narrates that:

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<sup>18</sup> This is the living of homeless or unmonitored children on the street, especially when related to drugs, disease, crime, or delinquency. However, this term appears to be specific to Anglophone Africa. (Double Tongued Dictionary [DTD] 2009)

*For boys in a situation where they have no support and probably no parents, they turn to the street to beg for alms on a daily basis hence discontinuing with school....these boys start sleeping on the street, eat on the street and `learn` from the street (Roberto, boy 14).*

Another participant added that: “unfortunately it is not just food the boys look for on the street, they do all sorts of immoral things like substance abuse, window breaking, street fighting, attacking innocent people and stealing from them” (Moses, boy 15)

This situation could be easier to understand when one considers what Allen and Thomas (2000) meant by writing that, just as HIV/AIDS exacerbate poverty (and inequality), poverty (and inequality) facilitates the transmission of HIV/AIDS. This is a chain reaction that could only be stopped if the individuals and communities involved are adequately catered for in terms of material and financial resources. In the absence of such resources, community members will be tempted to engage in anything whether negative or positive that they think might give them a way to come out of their immediate situation. For example, messages about HIV/AIDS may not be as priority as the need for food to survive a day. This is amplified by Kalipeni et al (2006) who writes that for many people in absolute poverty, ignorance of HIV/AIDS transmission through unprotected sex is not the issue, but pressing immediate needs, whether in form of food, shelter, clothing, school supplies, employment etc supersedes the more abstracted and variable risk of contracting HIV/AIDS. After all contracting HIV/AIDS is just a risk, as such it can be taken, but wallowing in starvation and lack of basic needs is more than a risk, it may kill someone immediately. In relation to this, a participant in a group discussion at School B narrated that:

*The biggest problem is actually poverty in terms of lack of food at home.... these girls would like to survive for a day hence they trade sex for money in order for them to have something for theirs, their children and their siblings hungry stomachs. Some come from homes that depend on the same activities.... so if they don't trade in sex, others at home will suffer (Namukeya, Girl 14).*

Analyzing the above statement critically, it would be misleading to describe trading sex for money as voluntary, but certain forces beyond the victim`s control often drive their choices. An important factor at play here is their economic situation (Banik 2006).

Another way of looking at it is that people in these communities could have gotten too used to people dying every day due to different ailments caused by hunger and incidents such as crime and traffic accidents. Funerals have become an everyday occurrence due to the high



death rate associated with HIV/AIDS (as reported in Chapter 2) and other associated illnesses as one participant in School B narrated that:

*In this community, it is almost easier to find a funeral than finding food on the plate.... in fact some people are surviving because of funerals. Because, at funerals, people that can afford, contribute some food for people at the funeral to eat, so the people that can not afford to organise food for themselves wander from one funeral to another in search of food (and shelter)...it is not easy to notice them, but they survive that way (Mai Agness, Parent School B.)*

Taking the above narration into perspective, it is likely the local people may feel that the government has turned a blind eye to their local problems that could be solved with its (government) minimal intervention. As such, these people may feel that even if they do not die from HIV/AIDS, something else they are vulnerable to may easily kill them anyway. A participant (Peer Coach) reported on some answers she gets from some of her targets in the community. She narrated that sometimes some people she targets say... “So what can really stop people from dying? People are dying from many other causes anyway, so your message is not important to me at all” (Boyd boy 15). For as long as they continue living in a slum area that is not on the government’s priority list for development as compared to other areas, then they are living in perpetual vulnerability to so many risks including HIV/AIDS itself. Their vulnerability to death may not necessarily come from their engagement in risk behaviors, but by virtue of just living in a poor and under-served community. This is supported by Parker and Wilson (2000) who says, in situations where a disparity between the rich and the poor has been created, there is data that show that the poor and the most socially disadvantaged are more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS infection. In other words, some residents of poor communities may be aware of such knowledge. Hence, rejecting certain HIV/AIDS intervention programme, saying they will not make much difference, unless the general livelihood is improved.

Similarly, Cohen (2000) observes that poor households have typically few options (if any) of financial or other basic needs and are often politically and socially marginalized. These conditions of social exclusion may in a way increase the challenge of reaching these populations through HIV/AIDS programmes (like KAO) that aim at changing sexual behaviours as explained earlier in Chapter 2. These problems often come with dynamics that may be difficult to understand at face value and later on solve. That is why it is not at all surprising that in such circumstances, the rural people and the slum dwellers adopt behaviours that put them at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS.

But the bone of contention is that, risky behaviours seem to be higher when it concerns girls and women. I attribute this to the cultural context in which females have found themselves in as explored in Chapter 2.6. Females have limited options of accessing centers of production as earlier reported, leaving them to find available options that are not normative to the wider society but maybe circumstantially normal to individuals and networks practicing them. Like one discussant in the discussion group in School A observed:

*In this community there are many girls that get married at 13, it is almost normal here because of poverty, and the government does not seem to care about it. I personally know somebody who is married and has a child at 13 years. (Musenge, Girl 15)*

In such a situation it may be important to then consider the circumstances that may be forcing the young girls to get into early marriages and early sexual encounters leading to early pregnancies. Simwapenga-Hamusonde (2003) singles out the problem of early pregnancies in Zambia to be promoted by many factors. These factors include among others, poverty, pressure from elderly men who usually force girls into unprotected sex in exchange for money and material things, or simply lack of supervision. It is very likely that some families look at marriage as the surest way to come out of poverty as long as males are seen as leaders in resource accessibility and definers of the way to a “descent” living. This could be connected to School A, when one participant noted with conviction that:

*In our community here, shop owners, farm workers and those that go to town to bring things for re-sale do have many girl friends here and we all look forward to have a relationship with them and eventually marry them so that they give us what we need. If you get married to one of these men, just know that your economic problems are gone (Dailless, Girl 14).*

However, even women themselves become perpetrators of the scourge in certain circumstances. At times older women encourage young women to get into early marriages as an alternative to wallowing in poverty. This could be because even the same women who encourage early marriages have been socialized to believe that men are the women providers and that the cultural and economic power houses “belong” to males. The cultural context as explored earlier in Chapter 2 may be playing a very influential role, that is; older women informing younger women on how certain situations ought to be sorted out. This is usually in favour of men. By doing so, there is a lot of cultural reproduction at play that may still favour the position males have taken in this society. As already pointed out, to a certain extent, cultural reproduction is promoted by women themselves who seem to have been made to be

firm believers in contextual culture by the situation they have found themselves in. During a group discussion this is what was revealed by one participant in School B:

*Sometimes it's also people like Aunts that forces you to get married instead of being a burden to them, you find that these aunts even bring men to ask for marriage with you; they say "just get married to him so that you find a living instead of depending on me". So there is a lot of pressure especially that the same aunt does not give you any money. In the end you succumb to such pressure and get married (Mupenge, Girl 15)*

In this case, males have taken advantage of the females' position in these communities under study as one participant observed:

*There are these so called `Sugar Daddies'<sup>19</sup> that use money to woo young girls into sexual acts. They tell us "young girl, I like you and I will be giving you all that you need and I will be paying for you all that is needed at school", they tell us that we should just be coming to get all that we want, but in turn these sugar daddies demand for sex and usually its unprotected sex. There was one pupil here who was in such acts but she has since stopped (Mavis, Girl 15)*

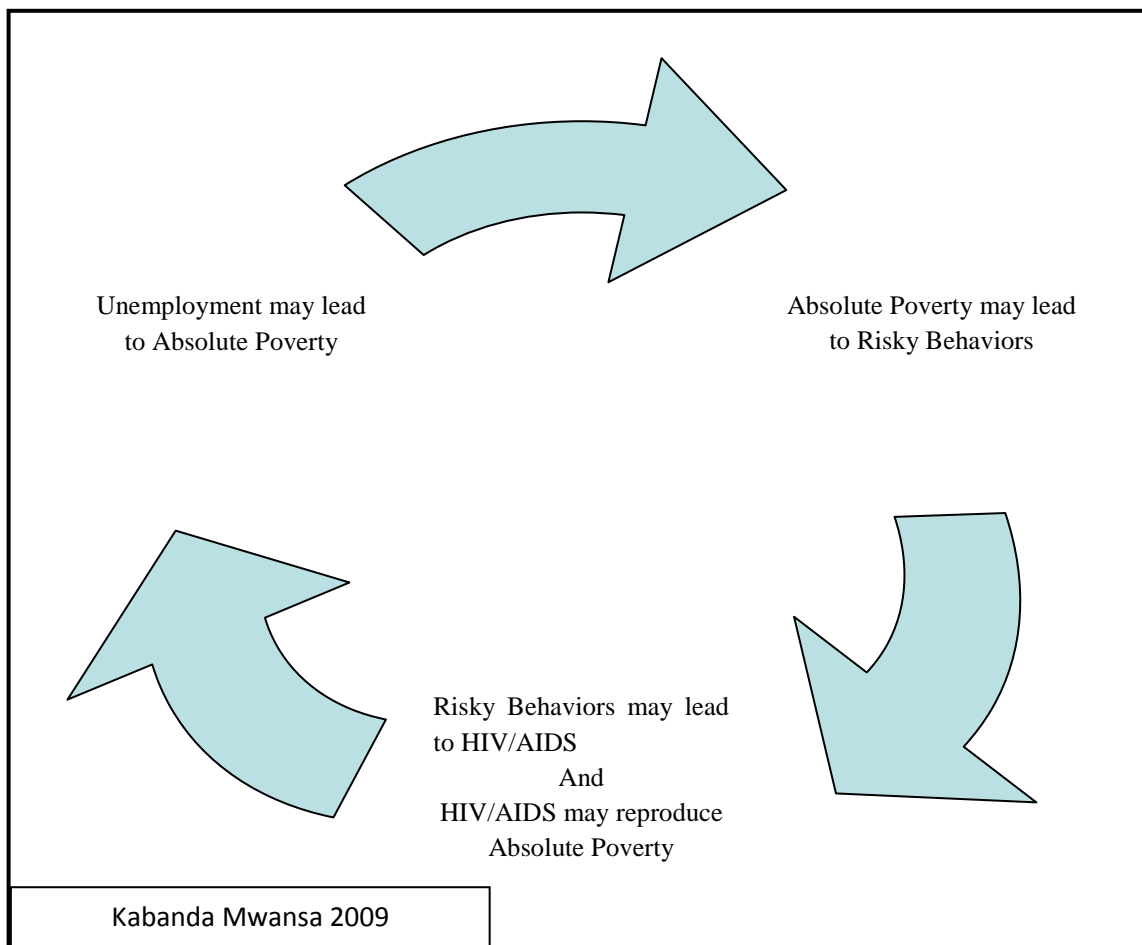
Such cases at the one above are promoted also by the general economic setup of Zambia. As explored earlier, the economic setup favors males to have more resources and economic power over women. Additionally, local cultural traditions also put men in the driving seat. But this is no reason why the economically powerful men should abuse women and girls as explained by Mavis above. In my view, the risky behaviours surrounding School A are a bit more relaxed as compared to School B. In School A, girls are lured into early marriages while in School B, girls turn to prostitution. The boys in School A stop school and get employment in the surrounding commercial farms while in School B boys find themselves on the streets of the city to beg for alms.

In a nutshell, having analyzed the three main themes that emerged from the findings, that is to say poverty, unemployment and risky behaviors in the wider communities, one can deduce that there is a tendency for the three to support and reproduce each other. Figure 5 below tries to simplify this thought. Unemployment may produce poverty and poverty in turn may force victims to engage in risky behaviors like selling sex. Such behaviors could also in turn expose the doers to HIV/AIDS, and HIV/AIDS reproduces poverty.

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<sup>19</sup> Sugar daddy is a slang term for a rich man who offers money or gifts to a less rich younger person, usually female, in return for companionship or sexual favours (Wikipedia 2009)

**Figure 4: The Chain Reaction of HIV/AIDS and Poverty**



This figure could directly be attributed to Allen and Thomas (2000) who writes that, just as HIV/AIDS exacerbate poverty, so poverty also facilitates the transmission of HIV/AIDS. As such, HIV/AIDS prevention programmes targeting the poor and has a local context in perspective should be encouraged. HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE is one. Below is the analysis of how this programme is implemented in the selected schools.

## **5.2 Implementation of HIV/AIDS through Sport and PE Programmes in the Selected Community Schools**

This subtopic discusses the role MOE plays in coordinating community schools and how in turn it expects these community schools to deliver its set mandate. It further discusses the weight MOE throws behind the use of sport and PE in mitigating HIV/AIDS in the selected schools if at all it recognizes that.

### **5.2.1 MOE's Coordination of Community Schools**

I want to make the national curriculum as the starting point of this discussion and analysis. This is what guides the delivery of all formal educational programmes in Zambia. Considering the foregoing, I rate the delivery system to be a top down one. This is because most important decisions within the national curriculum and organisational framework are made by the authorities at the top. Needless to say that, these top made decisions are expected to flow smoothly and consistently to the end users at the bottom (Serpell 1993, MOE 1996). One practical example is the introduction of life skills training in schools. The National Education Strategic Plan confirms that: "Education curriculum framework has already introduced a number of life skills as an integral part of each subject and cross-curricular theme in basic education" (MOE National Education Strategic Plan 2003-2007[MOE NESP 2003-2007] 2003: 15). It has not however, indicated the role community schools and their wider communities played at planning level.

Theoretically, this could be likened to Tjeldvoll's (1994) model of educational rationality that calls for a logical relation between the authority (at the top) on one hand and the end users (at the bottom) whose outcomes should reflect the initial aims and objectives of the authority on the other. In this case the relevant learning content, the methods and the assessments are determined by the authority through an organised and consistent logical system. However, this system is not a practical system in Zambia, especially when it concerns the community schools under study that in essence are not on the government's priority list as Banda (2008:9) explains that in Zambia "Community schools in the rural areas are began by a community which has either found its own old building or began to construct multipurpose building.... more often than not, MOE provides teachers for such schools but not to all". This may also mean that MOE has the zeal to put community schools on the priority list as Banda (2008) observes above, but the capacity to fulfil this may not be readily available. In this regard, I consider community schools not to be on the government priority list. Taking a more practical example, when I accessed the physical structures of School B that was initially designed and built as a beer hall, the government has done nothing much on its part to make it more conducive for learning. The pieces of dry plywood that the community used to demarcate the classrooms are a fire hazard and MOE is unconcerned (maybe unaware?) of what is going on in these schools.

Considering the MOE strategy of developing schools from national level (on top) to actual communities (at the bottom), one of the conflicting factors in it is that community schools themselves have developed from a bottom up scenario. This is in an effort to provide education for the poor children who are unable to access conventional school in government established and prioritised schools (Mumba 2003, Banda 2008). The MOE's Operational Guidelines for Community Schools [OGCS] (2007) accepts this fact by confirming that, community schools have been founded, owned and operated at the community level. However, encouraging the establishment of community schools from the bottom, on the part of MOE may be due to pressure from stronger outside forces. The following statement from an interview with the Senior Education Standards Officer (SESO) in MOE confirms this by saying:

*In trying to archive the Education for All (EFA) goals, we found that government schools alone would not wipe up all the school aged children in the country because of various reasons. One of the reasons was distance to nearest government schools. So communities were allowed to form community schools within their locality so that they could cater for these children who could not walk to distant government schools. (SESO, MOE Headquarters, July 2008).*

However, in terms of the two community schools under study, this situation seems to have created a gap and some kind of uncoordinated guidance from MOE. It is not only the gap, but also some conflict, because the two systems involved have different directions of development. This is in contradiction to Tjeldvoll's (1994) model of educational rationality because of the two opposing ways in the developmental strategies for the two parties involved. The above argument also gives meaning when one considers the OGCS (MOE 2007:8) that insists that, this situation has brought more confusion than good over who ultimately is responsible for coordinating and guiding community schools. The OGCS (2007:8) further establishes that, in the past there has been no mention of community schools in the job descriptions of MOE officers, this means that community schools have not been clearly factored into work plans or budgets. For this reason MOE officers remain unaccountable for such schools because their role in the community school system has not been clearly defined. However, the earlier established Strategic Framework on Community Schools [SFCS] (2006) mentions that MOE staff at all levels shall have roles and responsibilities incorporated into their daily job descriptions and MOE standard officers shall monitor standards in community schools (MOE 2007). Similarly, during the interview, the SESO confirmed the "take over" of community schools by government by saying:

*As the ministry responsible for education provision in the country, we have embraced community schools, but what it is, is that the community itself should come up with an initiative of establishing a school and at the same time a local committee that will run the affairs of that school should be in place, so we embrace community schools as part of our schools. (SESO, MOE Headquarters, July 2008).*

From the above statement, one can deduce that MOE is not really capacitated to completely take over the running of community schools by providing the necessary tools to deliver their national educational mandate. This may mean that MOE despite the pledge to contribute to the development of community schools still has to depend on encouraging communities in charge to source for resources elsewhere other than from MOE. This is actually enshrined in the national policy on education in Zambia (MOE 1996). It highlights that the surest way for MOE to embrace community schools is through formulating beneficial relationships with local communities and some national and international NGO`s. Similar sentiments are also amplified by the MOE-NESP 2003-2007 (2003) which states that that:

*The Ministry has already been working with civil society and specific non-governmental organisations in developing...implementing activities in HIV/AIDS, Gender and Equity ...These partnerships will continue to be formalized through contracts and memoranda of understanding, such as in the case of community schools. (NESP 2003-2007 [2003:16])*

This brings to the table that MOE strategically depends on NGO`s that are concerned with the plight of the poor rather than on their direct resources when it comes to channeling resources to the poor community schools. When asked about the direct role MOE plays towards contributing to community schools, the SESO mentioned that:

*A community School receives government trained teachers and also our cooperating partners (NGO`s) are helping in training the community school teachers that have been engaged by the community...the government comes in to train them in methodology pedagogy....they are trained in the Teacher Resource Centers (TRCs) which are throughout the country...this is the area where the cooperating partners (NGO`s) interested in poor communities and in improving quality in under-served schools are supporting. (SESO, MOE Headquarters, July 2008).*

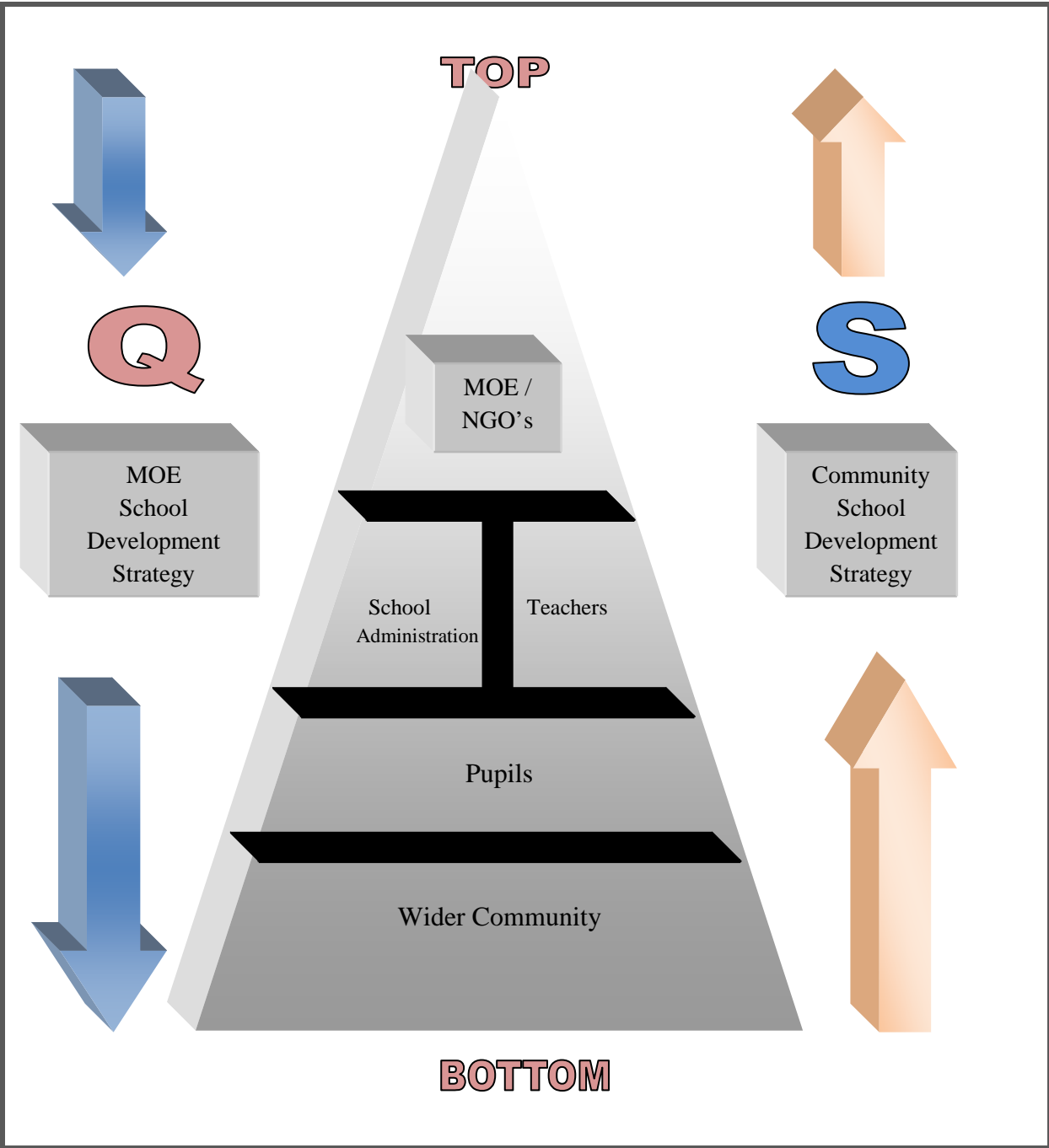
However, this does not fully fit into what I observed and what I gathered from the interviews in the two schools. The findings revealed that apart from the input from the NGO`s, there are no workable and coordinated structures in place between MOE and the two community schools that is worth mentioning. Here, I mean structures that may aid the smooth delivery of the general aims and objectives of the authorities as propounded by Tjeldvoll`s (1994). He

advocates for an organised and consistent logical system. But this is far from reality between MOE and particularly School B. For example, no school standards inspector from MOE has been to school B ever since it was established in 2005 despite the school being located a stone throw from the main central business district of Lusaka. However, on the part of School A, the MOE officials that have been there were in the company of an NGO that helped the host community to build a two class roomed conventional block. When it was time to officially hand over the finished block to the community by the NGO, that was when MOE officials visited School A. Otherwise no other MOE official has been to this school to look at the standards of the school.

The fact that no actual follow-up has been made to both schools undermines the political mandate that MOE and other partner international NGO`s have put in place. The mandate is proving to be difficult to easily flow through the system to reach the target in the two community schools. This is against the MOE NESP 2003-2007 (2003) that states that: “Agreements and memoranda of understanding will be developed with community schools ... to provide specific access for children....These agreements will increase MOE support through grants and materials while still preserving strong community ownership” (MOE 2003: 12). Nevertheless, this could be attributed to the conflict in the way the community school and the MOE developmental strategies operate. I see it to be a bit antagonistic of each other rather than complementary. The figure below tries to show the conflicting mandates of the community on one hand and MOE on the other.



**Figure 5: Modified from Tjeldvoll`s (1994) Model of Educational Rationality**



This figure adapted (and modified) from Tjeldvoll`s (1994) model of educational rationality shows MOE`s developmental direction at Q in complete opposition of the community school direction at S. In this regard direction Q has a direct link from the top to government schools in terms of national educational mandate delivery. However, the direction at S is connected to

the top from the bottom in terms of curriculum, examinations and some financial support like the case with School A. The next subchapter shades more light on this situation.

### **5.2.2 Delivering MOE's Set Educational Mandate**

As already mentioned, no MOE standards officer or any other official has been to School B. This may be a factor in the delivery of the intended educational purpose set by MOE itself, that is to say, the mandate of uplifting the living standards of the local people as well as contributing to the reduction in their poverty levels through education as stipulated in MOE NESP 2003-2007 (MOE 2003). Comparing this to Tjeldvoll's (1994) model, there is no coherence of the four concepts he advocated for. These are educational rationale, educational organization, system conditions and the cultural conditions. This is also what the model recommends, for it to be effective. But in this case, there is lack of this coherence. Tjeldvoll (1995:73) stipulates that "the logical flow of the authority's intended educational purpose for a specific target group, the relevant learning knowledge, learning methods and forms of assessment" must be coherent. In addition, these aspects also emphasize on the school's organization that consists of formal, physical and social (informal) structures and the processes of decision making to be in place and the system coherent (Tjeldvoll 1995). That way, it may help in the uplifting of the living standards of the local people as strategically planned by MOE.

However, according to my findings, MOE has not convincingly fulfilled its responsibility of giving the much needed support to the two schools under study. Thus, the declaration of HIV/AIDS as a cross cutting issue in the school curriculum may be posing a big challenge for schools that do not receive direct support from MOE. For example, the Head Teacher at School B narrated that:

*For the past two years we have been making applications to the ministry of education for consideration to be receiving a government grant, but we have never gotten any positive feedback despite our following the formal GRZ national school curriculum and other government sanctioned programmes....We have just depended on the good will of the parents and NGO's that see us as effective contributors to the development of this community.... The inspectors from the ministry of education have never been here to assess us on what we are doing and the kind of infrastructure we have.*  
(Head Teacher, School B)

Another interview with an officer from Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS), a local but internationally supported NGO that in turn supports a chain of community schools in

Zambia doubted whether the government has a practical rather than a political capacity to embrace community schools when he said:

*We are yet to see government taking over community schools and be able to sustain them, because to tell you the truth, right now they are unable to meet even the challenges of sustaining the government schools and so civil society came up because there was need for it to move in and supplement government efforts in providing such services, and so when the ministry of education says they want to take over the running of some of these schools, it is not that practical and we will wait and see when that will happen because it will be so interesting to observe.*

(Programme officer, ZOCS)

Taking the above statements as a basis, the school authorities in community schools such as School B may feel neglected and forsaken by the MOE authorities. Hence, it may be in order for them to pay more allegiance to the NGO's whose benefits they are directly seeing. Nevertheless, School A receives some financial support from MOE for administrative purposes every quarter. This is a gesture that indicates MOE's commitment towards some community schools, and School A is among such schools. But the Head Teacher at School A during the interview did not seem to be satisfied of MOE's efforts, claiming that the amount is not enough to run the institution. Although he could not reveal the actual amount the school receives, he insisted that it is not enough as he said:

*The quarterly allocation we get from MOE is far below our expectations and cannot suffice our costs here.... we need salaries for some teachers and we need learning materials for the school to continue its daily business, but the quarterly amount we get from MOE is far too short to satisfy our demand.* (Head Teacher, School A)

A deeper analysis of this reveals that, what may be lacking on the part of MOE is actually the organization part in line with Tjeldvoll's (1994) model. The model calls for coherency and structured processes between the authority and the school. MOE may be making efforts as the case is with School A, but lack of follow ups to see to it that things are working according to strategy may be lacking. Although progress reports are sent to MOE according to the Head Teacher at School A, physical follow ups to make the strategy more effective have not been done. MOE NESP 2003-2007 (2003:12) states that "Due to the large expansion of community schools, it is important to establish quality control measures through standards officers, leading to formal registration with MOE before these institutions are provided with government support". However, MOE has not given a time limit on how long community schools should wait for the quality control team from MOE to check on them. Thus, School B

has operated for 3 years and a couple of months without receiving any significant recognition from MOE. In this case provision of human and material resources by MOE in the absence proper coordination is compromised, as explored below.

### **5.2.3 Provision of Human and Material Resources Regarding HIV/AIDS**

School B has never received any significant HIV/AIDS education teaching materials from MOE despite the school's heeding of the directive from MOE that all community schools should follow the official national curriculum. This situation undermines the national policy on education (MOE 1996:19) that states that "since development of basic education depends largely on participation by the community, MOE will provide technical advice.... and once the physical facilities are in place (in community schools), MOE will provide teachers, equipment and teaching materials for approved development". On the other hand, MOE has categorically stated that HIV/AIDS shall be a cross cutting issue in the national curriculum, therefore, the provision of materials to realize this endeavor should be the responsibility of MOE or other authorities in charge. Schools are believed to offer good venues where HIV/AIDS education is presented in a more effective way and where HIV/AIDS preventions programmes can find a fertile ground (Finger and Lapetina 2002, Kelly 2004). However, the effectiveness may not happen automatically without any deliberate undertaking or visible commitment on the part of the authorities whose objectives must be met (Kruse 2006, Coulter 2005). According to the findings, MOE in this case has challenges in directly supporting the two schools in the study. This is at least where fulfilling what is deemed as making HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE effective is concerned such as basic sports infrastructure. Taking the forgoing into perspective, my findings reveal that direct support from MOE to the two schools under study is limited. For example there is an urgent need for MOE to help School B with a conversional sports pitch that could aid the teaching of HIV/AIDS through sport and PE as one teacher mentioned:

*We urgently need support in terms of sporting equipment and facilities....if the government can only help us to make a reasonable sports pitch at this school, then HIV/AIDS programmes that we are doing through sport here can be more meaningful (Mr. Kondowe, School B).*

However, the situation at School A is different. The community has managed to put up a sports pitch and my observation of the pitch revealed that the pitch is good enough to support

various sporting activities. But there is a critical shortage of sporting equipment such balls, nets and uniforms for team identification. The number of balls and the state of the nets that I physically saw leaves much to be desired.

Needless to say here that, HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE in the two schools could only operate in a particular context. Part of this context is where provision of materials and other key resources such as teacher training and sensitization in HIV/AIDS become a key mechanism in implementing it. Particularly that, it is strategically a cross cutting issue in the national curriculum (MOE 2007) that School A and School B also follow. Otherwise, strategy of putting HIV/AIDS as a cross cutting issue but lack action is ineffective. Here, action may mean securing teachers that are conversant with the subject and providing contextual HIV/AIDS education materials on the part of MOE or its direct partners. However, one significant HIV/AIDS education resource that School A has received from MOE is the “Creative and Technology Teachers Guide Book” which supposedly should have HIV/AIDS components in different subjects that fall under this theme. Sport and PE falls under Creative and Technology according to the School Head at School A. However, my analysis of this book revealed that there is not much on sport and PE as regards HIV/AIDS. A teacher in charge of sport and periodically teaches PE at School A and who technically is supposed to teach HIV/AIDS education in his subject since it is a cross cutting issue said:

*I have not undergone any formal training in HIV/AIDS education, neither am I a formally trained teacher. I have just been engaged as a community trustee to help with the teaching here, but normally on HIV/AIDS education, I use the creative and technology teachers guide book that has plays, songs and other messages for the teaching of HIV/AIDS (Mr. Mutinabu, Teacher School A).*

From the above, one may deduce that MOE has not done much work in making sure that they prioritize certain elements according to their policy and strategy. Elements such as having competent teachers in HIV/AIDS education, providing user friendly materials specially meant for the context in which the two schools are set, are limited. For example the teacher`s guide book being used by the above mentioned teacher in teaching HIV/AIDS education must be tailor made for such a `teacher` who has never undergone formal teacher training. This should also be user friendly to a teacher who has not done any recognized HIV/AIDS education training. The situation in School A may not explicitly orient the learning environment towards creating a basis on which HIV/AIDS knowledge and life skills can be built (UNICEF 2009,

Vaughan et al 2000, Maro 2008). However, orienting the learning environment towards creating a basis on which HIV/AIDS knowledge and life skills through sport and PE calls for provisions of basic sporting and PE infrastructure. This is what succeeds in the next subtopic.

#### **5.2.4 Sport and PE in Community Schools**

As explored already, my observation in both School A and School B revealed some challenges of teaching PE and sport. This indicates community school's capacity and infrastructure in terms of PE and sport to be critical. For example both schools have no showers, and worse still, a constant water articulation system as reported in Chapter 2. Naturally and hygienically, pupils should take a shower after a PE or sports session or at least clean themselves with some clean water soaked sponge. But alas, water in the two schools is reserved for drinking and at least for cooking in the case of School A. This situation makes it abundantly clear that both schools, like many other community school's physical infrastructure, cannot fully support the teaching of PE and sport. Lack of government support to establish physical structures like sports grounds, shower or change rooms and other movable sports equipment in community schools shows that PE is not taken as an important subject. This is when it comes to being considered to be at equal footing with other subjects like Mathematics, English Language and Natural Science despite the policy statements to reintroduce it in schools. An observation in the school's main office at School A revealed few teachers and pupils books for the above mentioned three subjects. The School Head Teacher confirmed that these books came from MOE two years earlier. However, these same books are in somewhat bad shape; they are worn out and need replacement. At another level, since, the curriculum does not consider PE to be part of assessment in terms of examinations. It could be attributed to why it was absent from the school time table in School A, as priority could be biased towards examinable subjects.

PE not timetabled in School A as mentioned above could be attributed to the clustering of subjects in blocks. In this case subjects like PE will be disadvantaged in preference for other subjects that are examinable. As part of the strategy on the part of MOE, the current curriculum only mentions six areas of learning and teaching and this is called "the block system" (MOE 2007). The six areas include Literacy and Languages, Integrated Science, Creative and Technology Studies, Mathematics, Social and Development Studies and lastly some guidelines for schools on Community Studies. In School A, the Head Teacher claimed

that PE is considered under Creative and Technology study area, while sport comes under Social and Development study block. In this case, sport and PE is not considered as an independent subject that should be indicated as such on the school time table. The school Head Teacher when asked about this said:

*We have a syllabus from the ministry of education, even though because of the new changes to the curriculum. At the moment we only have 5 teaching areas whereby PE is just integrated in Creative and Technology studies (Head Teacher, School A).*

School B has a different approach to PE altogether. EduSport has contributed to the inclusion of PE on the school timetable. Thus, PE in School B is timetabled. The PE periods are synonymous with EduSport activities, and that only those teachers, pupils and volunteers that are trained by EduSport conducts PE activities, revealed the Head Teacher. This kind of PE and sport found in School B is always blended with HIV/AIDS education as EduSport's main interest. Below is the exploration about how HIV/AIDS education is presented through sport and PE.

### **5.2.5 Integrating HIV/AIDS Education in Sport and PE**

Although PE and sport is not officially or independently on the school time table at School A, one teacher however, reported to have attended a course under PCI and has learnt how to integrate HIV/AIDS education and sport. As such, he claimed to have been creating time during (as reported earlier) and after school hours to disseminate the HIV/AIDS information to pupils by engaging them in different physical activities and play. But his superior had a different observation when he says: "We would like to have different sporting and PE activities quite often, but the challenge is that we have limited sporting equipment and facilities, we need more equipment for the growing number of pupils in the school and the surrounding community" (Head Teacher, School A). However, the teacher who is trained in integrating HIV/AIDS and sport insisted that: "Despite PE not formally on the school time table, there is a general liking for the subject among pupils because of the way I present my lessons when chance avails itself" (Mr Fumbelo, Teacher, School A). This was confirmed by one pupil at the same school who is a constant participant in these activities who said:

*I personally enjoy PE and I think it is a good subject, but we tend to repeat the same things each time we have a lesson....we don't have the equipment and other facilities*

*like other schools in the city have, that can help us have different types of activities* (Inonge, Girl 13).

In spite of having insignificant equipment and facilities at School A, there is likelihood that participants in these less organised activities may develop an approach of commitment to the contents of the lessons rather than the aids through which the lessons are presented (Coakley 2003). This may be located within the overall structure of the PE or sports lessons and HIV/AIDS programmes available over a period of time. Coakley (2003) argues that in this case, participants may in the process of interaction begin to focus on helping each other and developing close connections among themselves. Thus, participants becoming a formidable community with own dynamics and internal organisation, sharing failure and success. The internal organisation being referred to may just turn out to be a good recipe for HIV/AIDS education in the school and beyond. Thus, within the context of this constructed community, participants may learn other issues quite detached from just PE and sport that may be vital to their behaviour change, that is, cooperation and ability to separate the acceptable (normative) from the unacceptable (non normative) Coakley (2003). For example, one participant in School B appreciated the wider social network she has cultivated through participation in the HIV/AIDS through sport programmes by saying: “I have widened my network because we meet through different activities that EduSport organizes; also we share quite a lot of ideas as peer leaders from different regions and different communities” (Misozi, Girl 13).

A deliberate and organised sports programme achieves intended behaviours among participants as Zakus et al (2007) writes that (analysis of) research supports the findings that, deliberate innovative sport-based programming especially among youths in low income countries contributes to risk avoidance. In this regard, considering the observations in both School A and School B, the presence of EduSport’s KAO programme in School B showed a greater impact on the intended behaviour change compared to School A, as one participant said.

*Whether at school or in the community KAO opens up discussions for the best ways we have to live as youths in difficult times and situations. I feel if the HIV/AIDS education is presented in other subjects rather than through play and sport, it’s not that `strong`..... It tends to be passive and we forget about it easily, but through play we remember.* (Mavis, Girl 15).



However, in School A the output is not as visible as it is in School B. This could be attributed to lack of organisation, consistence and sustenance. For example, in the event that the only enthusiastic teacher in HIV/AIDS through sport and PE at School A goes away, this may mean the end of the activities. As long as other teachers and volunteers in School A are not trained in integrating HIV/AIDS education into sport and PE as per MOE policy, the programmes will have no viable future and the impact on the part of the participants will be low. The low impact could be attributed to the limited source of copied intended behaviours in line with the social learning theory. As long as there is only one trained teacher and PE is not time tabled independently, then the platform on which to observe intentional behaviour is limited.

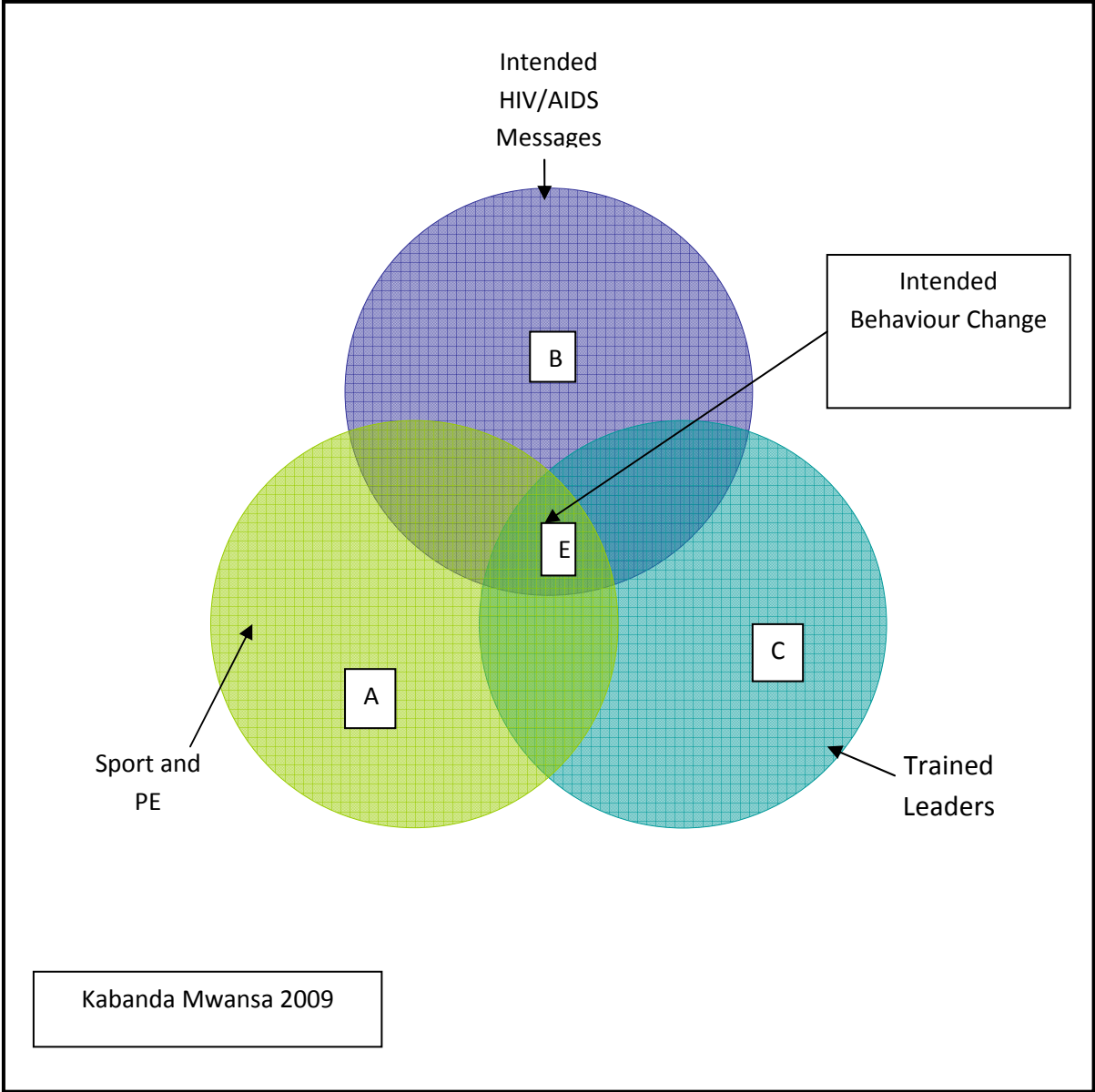
The preceding observation in School A does not conform to Bandura's (1996) social learning theory. However, the case with School B does fall in line with this theory. That is to say, a constructed community such as School B could serve as a model for behavioural change to different members. This theory that is also known as observational learning emphasises the importance of modelling the behaviours, attitudes and emotional reaction of others. One participant at School B said:

*My son says they are being taught how to behave themselves in different situations of HIV/AIDS and he tries to live by these words I think. He is also speaking to his friends at home about the best ways to behave oneself...also how important it is to disseminate the HIV/AIDS information from school to others in the community.*  
(Mai Agness, parent School B)

The challenge is however, on the attention, retention and reproduction of the copied behaviours. In this case the desired behaviour that is been emphasised in HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE programmes may find a timely diffusion to other members of this constructed community. So the kind of behaviour being emphasised must be normative and playing a significant role. This is connected to what Kruse (2006) states, he states that under certain circumstances such as correct and intended messages on one hand and informed and trained leaders on the other, sport and PE activities may influence behavioural change among participants of HIV/AIDS education through sport. The figure below (figure 6) tries to simplify this school of thought. Like Kruse (2006), the figure indicates the intended HIV/AIDS message to be carried by an informed or trained practitioner while PE and sport

comes in as a catalyst or as a motivator to intended behaviour change. The intended behaviour change then, is a product of a systematic interaction of A, B and C in the figure below.

**Figure 6: Situating Intended Behaviour Change**



This figure indicates intended behaviour change at (E) as an output in the systemic and deliberate interaction of the three elements at play. That is to say sport and PE including

material and physical infrastructure at (A), trained leaders at (C) and positively intended HIV/AIDS information at (B).

Taking a more practical view of the situation, unlike School A, School B has a wider ground on which intentional behaviours could be cultivated. For example, it has teachers and pupils that are trained in HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE. The pupils have a responsibility to teach others using the peer education approach. It also has EduSport volunteers that have a fixed programme with the school. Considering the theory of diffusion of innovation that posits that certain individuals (opinion leaders) from a given population act as agents of behavioral change by disseminating information and influencing group norms in their community (Rogers, 1983, Nesbakken 2003). Then School B could be considered to have an internalized learning programme. However, this could not be the case with School A due to lack of consistency and organization in the programme.

However, what needs to be questioned is the retention capacity of the newly acquired knowledge or behaviour on the part of the participants over a period of time. That is if internalisation did not take place. One participant when interviewed after the lesson at School B confidently said:

*In that game I have learnt quite a lot like we are taught not to copy negative habits from our friends but we need to do what we think is right for ourselves. So when we learn something I always make sure that I take the information to my colleagues at home that do not go to school and those that go to different schools where they do not have HIV/AIDS lessons in PE. (Dokowe, boy 14)*

Having discussed this, could it just be a question of sharing information from the acquired knowledge, or is it a question of utilizing the information for normative future of the participants and other indirect players in the wider community? However, the scope of this study may not necessarily find a suitable answer to this question or establish sustained changes. But, a general idea could be drawn by basing it on the SCORE (2008) concept that says that children and youths participating in sports activities that have been blended with deliberate social and health messages such as the KAO programme can make a difference. According to SCORE (2008), KAO programme participants tend to change behaviour and adopt a healthy lifestyle alternative. Above all, KAO participants generally acquire an open-mind towards people living with HIV/AIDS (SCORE 2008). This is also amplified by a participant in School B who said: “Here at school, at least we are learning HIV/AIDS issues

in class and outside during sporting activities with EduSport volunteers in such a way that it is difficult to choose negative behaviours”( Madaliso, boy 15). Against this background, the other way of determining behavior change in the participants may then be associated to how consistent and organized the programme at hand is. As Madaliso elaborates on the consistency of the KAO programme in his school, he has no much room to acquire perceived unintended behaviours. This brings on the table, how NGO`s factors into HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programmes as explored in the next subchapter.

### **5.3 NGO`s Added Value to HIV/AIDS Education through Sport and PE**

As explored in chapter 2, there are several NGO's in Zambia working to enhance HIV/AIDS education in schools using sport and PE. However, for the sake of this discussion the, focus will be more on the contributions of EduSport to School B and to some degree the contributions of PCI to School A.

#### **5.3.1 EduSport`s Contribution to School B as Regards HIV/AIDS Education through Sport and PE**

Although in both schools pupils were given leadership responsibilities during sessions, my observation was that School B had a greater involvement of pupils during activities. Teachers were not executing activities without the involvement and engagement of other pupils and session leaders. Some pupils were given responsibilities by the teacher to coordinate some tasks within the activities. These were the KAO activities that I observed and were entirely being conducted by the pupils themselves using the peer education approach during formal school hours. Having interviewed, the Programme Director in EduSport, he revealed that their involvement with School B is guided by the organizations` objectives. The Programme Director particularly cited among others, two objectives. The first one is that of integrating their approach into the already existing educational, social and sports structures. The other one is that of striving to provide better opportunities for physical activities and sport for the socio-economically undeserved young people and enhance their quality of life as already explored in Chapter 2.

Thus, the fact that School B is an already established institution with a system, then it fits well into EduSport's objectives. However, this is also likely to be influenced by a premise that links educational institutions and behaviour change (Maro 2008, Malambo 2002, Nesbakken 2003, Vaughan et al 2000). The second aspect is that School B is among the socio-economically under-served schools as explored in Chapter 2. In this case, EduSport finds it beneficial to collaborate with by developing a contextualized PE programme with HIV/AIDS as a central focus. In effect, this situation is compatible with one MOE policy statement that aims at soliciting for active participation from the broadest spectrum of stakeholders in HIV/AIDS education (MOE 2007). In this regard, EduSport has enhanced and added value to sport, PE and HIV/AIDS education structures in School B. The EduSport programme officer in charge of activities in their partnered community schools pointed out that:

*Most community schools do not have the capacity to cater for subjects like sport and PE; hence there is need for NGOs that have the capacity to help out, to do just that, this is especially when sport and PE is integrated with HIV/AIDS education..... through EduSport, youths especially girls are trained in various movement games under the name Kicking Aids Out!... And in turn these youths target their own peers in community schools close to where they live for possible `teaching` assignments. (Programme Officer, EduSport Foundation, July 2008)*

This target of youths by EduSport is connected to latest research on youth empowerment suggesting that young people in many parts of the world are now waiting longer to become sexually active. They are having fewer sexual partners, or using more condoms as a result of the HIV/AIDS education they have received (UNAIDS 2009, Maro 2008). In the same vein, a pupil that participates in EduSport programmes in School B expressed her sentiments as: "My knowledge in HIV/AIDS is very much higher than my peers that just stay at home... they don't take HIV/AIDS to be a real problem though they talk about it that it is killing a lot of people" (Nalumangi, girl 14). It is beyond the scope of this study to taste how high or low the participants HIV/AIDS knowledge is. But by taking Nalumangi's statement above as a departure point, one can deduce that School B has an important role to play on her knowledge of HIV/AIDS in comparison to her non-school going counterparts she talked about.

School B seemingly has no capacity to have specialised PE teachers in place due to its meagre resources and the gap between the school and MOE structures as discussed earlier. As such, this situation puts School B in an inevitable position to receive support at the time it needs it most. This is actually what adds value to its HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programmes.

The context in which School B is, calls for support from different players so as to add value to its HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programmes, thus, the presence of EduSport. The other aspect worth discussing is the premise that all teaching subjects should have a component of HIV/AIDS. As this is per MOE recommendation, it then puts the EduSport's HIV/AIDS intervention programme in School B as an added value to this undertaking. On the other hand, the National Policy on Education (1996) establishes that it "respects the legitimate interests of various partners in education and supports the distinctive character of individual organisations" (MOE 1996:2). Of importance however, is the respect and support of the principles which form the basis for education in Zambia on the part of the various partners (MOE 1996, 2003).

Considering the foregoing, EduSport has been accommodated by School B in line with MOE's 20% localized curriculum policy. This is because, from the observation, it was clear that EduSport has put its influence on the school time table. For example, instead of writing PE time on the school time table, it is written EduSport time. This was for both the official and the after school hours. An observation on a copy of a localized school curriculum document (see Table 4 in chapter 2) showed the input from EduSport in HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE. The sports coordinator at School B, as a way of confirming the support the school gets from EduSport said:

*All the sporting and PE programmes are organized by EduSport and all we do is to provide them with human resources and physical space that they need.....they have trained some teachers and some pupils in this school to conduct HIV/AIDS education through sport, hence the pupils themselves always try to organize and conduct these activities with close monitoring by the EduSport team (Madam Sekeleti, Sports Coordinator, School B)*

This is a key and dependable programme in School B because it is meeting MOE's objectives of teaching HIV/AIDS education across the curriculum. Just like some teachers at School B, some pupils that have undergone the EduSport training, equally have a responsibility of implementing the KAO programme by creating an environment that is conducive for the activities (Maro 2008). According to Madam Sekeleti, all peer coaches in School B have undergone a deliberate HIV/AIDS education programme that they use as their reference point when conducting the KAO programme at this school. This actually corresponds to what Kruse (2006) asserts, he observes that in trying to change behavior for children and youths through KAO, there should also be other factors at play that make a contribution to behavior change. He gives an example that there should also be a deliberate educational component added to

the programme that acts as a synergy of sport and change. In this regard then, the peer coaching arrangement in School B might be viewed as a strong way to sustain behaviour change in such an environment of deprivation. Similarly, Zakus et al (2007) observes that analysis of research supports the findings that deliberate and innovative sport based programming especially among youths in low income countries (like Zambia) contribute to risk avoidance and behavior change. A participant in the KAO programme in School B who is also a peer coach said:

*Through KAO lessons, we get issues that we discuss later when we meet as peers both at school and at home. I have so far attended 2 big workshops under EduSport and I have done some training on how to use sport as a tool in HIV/AIDS work.*

(Likando, girl 14)

Looking at the peer coaching programme at School B, coupled with the above statement, one could deduce that pupils under the KAO programme become quite free to each other. This is so because the programme opens up discussions based on different issues that directly or indirectly affect them as i.e. teens, poor children, school children, girls, orphans, boys etc. That is to say the participants get affected by both formal and informal issues, as one participant when asked about other issues coming out of the KAO programme said: “as peer coaches at this school, we have arranged that we fundraise money to help some other girls in the communities that have no means of survival but can only survive through prostitution” (Mandalena, Girl 13). It is such issues, coupled with the KAO programme itself that bring and give participants, space to mingle and collaborate. It actually makes the participant`s social interaction and homogeneity become progressively stronger. This is because they identify themselves as “birds of the same feather”. This means that the peer coaches in School B see themselves as one common group with similar traits and probably similar backgrounds. This actually brings in the issue of the social identity theory that propounds that, individuals who have similar positions and backgrounds have similar social identities and therefore refer to the same similarities in individual characteristics in relation to collective predicament, living or working (Huddy 2001).

The above observation of identity, however, brings along to the KAO programme at School B, a different perspective of social dynamics. Some of the social dynamics could be that, the closeness in the social interactions of the peer groups may yield unintended behaviours like casual sex, which is totally against the objectives of the KAO programme. Related to this, are

Delva and Tammerman (2006) who argued that the determinants of the effectiveness of any sport for change programme should consider the intervention process, the participants' sexual behaviour and the direction of the behavioural change itself, that is, whether negative or positive. What Delva and Tammerman (2006) meant was that, the social space and interaction that sport and other fun physical activities produce could contribute quite negatively to the participants' sexual behaviour, especially among youths. They pointed out that sport can lead to increased sexual behaviour or undesired outcomes because sport brings young people (girls and boys) together such that it increases the risk of abuse and unintentional sexual encounters. It is with this in mind that it is quite prudent for much older and experienced persons to guide the unfolding process of youth programmes that involve constant social interaction. However, EduSport seems to be very much aware of these concerns, hence putting up a programme that continuously remind the peer coaches of their responsibilities and how they ought to behave. The EduSport programme officer in charge of community school programmes when asked about this concern said:

*Through EduSport's KAO programme, volunteers (peer coaches) especially girls are constantly trained and re-trained in various activities and prevailing HIV/AIDS issues i.e. gender and cultural roles. In turn these youths, target their peers in theirs or other community schools close to where they live*  
(Programme Officer, EduSport Foundation, July 2008)

Looking at the statement above, EduSport has realised that girls are more vulnerable to succumb to pressure of falling off the programme than boys. Hence, the consistence in the re-training of girl peer coaches as general research shows that women and girls are more vulnerable to poverty and HIV/AIDS as compared to men and boys (Cohen 2006, Kelly 2000, Kalipeni et al 2006). The cultural and socio-economic context of girls and women in Zambia as explored in chapter 2 aids their vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. In this case, the re-training of girls in the KAO programme with a focus on gender and cultural impediments is a good tool. It will strive to make the girls aware of the contextual challenges in their daily living and the best way to rise above them. However, this highly depends on the content and the objective of the re-training package. What Coulter (2005) suggests may be a good way to make the peer coaches rise above some challenges that may make them fail to perform as peer coaches as well as role models for other children. Coulter (2005) suggests empowerment on the part of the girl participants. He suggests that empowerment of girls is a good way to challenge some local gender norms that may increase the vulnerability of girls becoming victims of other



negative social practices such as risky social behaviour (Coulter 2005). On the other hand, Mugarura (2004) emphasize that cultural beliefs and practices influence each other, that is why HIV/AIDS prevention strategies should identify positive aspects of local culture that may promote well being and address or de-emphasize aspects of local culture which may lead to increased risk of HIV/AIDS. Talking of local cultures, School B also utilises international volunteers that are not familiar with some contextual traditions that might be crucial in HIV/AIDS work. The next sub topic highlights on this.

### 5.3.2 EduSport International Volunteers

Despite one of the objectives of the EduSport Foundation of training local leaders within the community so as to increase the local capacity by providing a framework that can be adapted to local needs. At School B, there is always a flow of international volunteers from Europe that help in conducting the KAO activities according to the school sports coordinator. The coordinator revealed that EduSport attaches volunteers mostly from Europe to her school. She says that the minimum period volunteers have stayed in her school is 6 weeks while the maximum has been 5 months. This is a gesture she appreciates as she says:

*European volunteers attract a lot of children to the activities and this is very good for our school because word goes out to the community that we have teachers from Europe that are playing with children in the dusty open areas of the school, hence children come in numbers with enthusiasm to come and attend school and participate in the EduSport activities..... Like at the moment when we don't have a white (European) volunteer, the numbers are lower than when one comes..... We expect two volunteers from England next month (August 2008) who will be here for 6 weeks (Madam Sekeleti, Sports Coordinator, School B)*

Due to the social-economic situation of the school and the wider community, it is possible that other groups that are associated with wealth for example, will draw a lot of attention i.e. the Europeans. In slum areas such as in the research site at hand, a European (especially a white person) may be seen as a problem solver, one who has come to help the locals come out of their poor situation. A participant in the study lamented in local language: “Ngati taona bazungu timaziba ati vinthu vizankala bwino”<sup>20</sup> [When we see white people, then we know that things will get better] (Mai Agness, Parent, School B). This is also true from the school administration`s point of view. Madam Sekeleti`s statement above is a clear testimony that the

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<sup>20</sup> This is Chinyanja a typical language found only in Lusaka, especially in the slum areas. It is a blend of so many local languages especially from the eastern part of Zambia. In it, is also some English and Asian words spoken with local intonation. In the slum areas those that speak English are likely to be more influential and powerful than the Chinyanja speakers (personal experience).

presence of Europeans in School B and in the KAO program makes a lot of impact, at least in terms of attracting participants to the program. However, in this case, it may then be difficult to establish whether the participants really come to learn KAO skills for their own use or they simply come with the hope that the European volunteers may give them some monetary and material resources (i.e. money, clothes, food etc) for personal gains. Nevertheless, UK Sport (2008) has recognized the impact Volunteer Service Overseas (VSO) volunteers have factored at local community level, in effecting change as well as their cost effectiveness in Zambia. In defending the presence of international volunteers at School B on the expense of local capacity building, the EduSport programme director put it that:

*Of course international volunteers cannot offer the driving force for change, that is what local capacities have, but they can ideally offer technical knowledge and tools which can aid local programmes to achieving their goals. (Programme Director, EduSport Foundation August 2008).*

This means that international volunteers are appreciated as alternative facilitators of local development in School B. However, is important that international volunteers cultivate and promote appropriate and contextual values as opposed to their foreign frames of reference (Donnelly et al 2007).

At another level, when social identity theory (Giddens 1991) is related to the issue of international volunteers and School B, there is a clear categorization of groups. For example the group of European volunteers has been categorized as a group with resources, and the local participants categorized as a group with limited resources. This aspect coupled with cultural differences between European volunteers and local participants could create a dichotomy between the “haves” and the “have-nots”. This is also likely to tilt towards power and privilege between the “haves” and the “have-nots” because of the difference in the social class (and the economic gap) between the two groups. This is associated to Coakley`s (2003: 334) observation that “To say that sport unite the social classes is to ignore the social dynamics that often separate people from different social class backgrounds”. But, this could be reduced if the KAO program has consideration for such dynamics and that the international volunteers are willing to learn from the locals more than what they can offer in terms of understanding the local cultural and the economic landscape. In this way, there could be some kind of power balance between the two groups, probably in line with the theory of participatory education.

Participatory education highlights that powerlessness at group level is catalyzed by contextual economic and social conditions. This could be challenged by full participation of locals through dialogue and cooperation (Amaro 1995). Local people that are directly affected by the problem should act together and in dialogue with other players that want to help in challenging the condition at hand (Nesbakken 2003, Amaro 1995). This could be the case in School B because peer coaches are working with the international volunteers as they try to orient them to the local situation. To support this, one of the peer coaches interviewed said:

*Volunteers from Europe come with their skills, but we also teach them some skills of how best they can do their work, we also teach them what we know and they teach us what they know. For example we teach them some traditional games and they fuse in what they know could make a more meaningful lesson and it goes like that, sometimes they fuse our games with their games from their countries and this makes a good brand that we do not easily forget (Nkwashi, Girl 15)*

### **5.3.3 PCI's Contribution to School A, as regards to HIV/AIDS Education through Sport and PE**

While both pupils and teachers at School A appreciated that sport and PE make good avenues for HIV/AIDS education, their official HIV/AIDS education package does not necessarily include the use of sport and PE. Thus, sport and PE programme at School A are not as organised as that of School B. However, in School A, PCI has trained at least one teacher on how to integrate HIV/AIDS programmes and sport. But a follow up with this teacher revealed that he has not yet shared the acquired skills with other teachers. He claimed to be having periodical sessions with pupils and other interested community members. As a matter of fact, my observation revealed that this teacher does his best to organise such activities when chance allow. He does this out of his own effort without much support from the School authorities (as I observed it). He managed to organise sessions during all my visits to School A, and seemingly the sessions have been going on for some time because the pupils were too familiar with some activities. For example, in one HIV/AIDS and PE activity (tagging game) that was demonstrated in my presence using role play and model learning. Participants that were tagged with a ball (the ball was assumed as the HIV virus and one is assumed to have been infected with a virus when tagged with a ball) willingly went to the “psycho social counsellor”. This counsellor is a fellow participant (pupil) and role model who was tasked to deliver some life skills tips to those that were tagged by the ball (HIV virus) who sat on the

side of the playing area. Here is what I recorded in my field diary during this particular field observation.

*(Day 2 of practical observations during a PE/Sport lesson at School A) There is great fun, interactive involvement and engagement on the part of the pupils that are participating in the lesson (PE/HIV/AIDS). The HIV/AIDS message is about “playing safe and avoiding having multiple partners”, while the physical skill part is jumping, dodging, running, ball throwing and catching, ooh yes even singing!. This seems to interest the pupils, and the teacher is quite confident of the lesson being conducted in the local language....no language restriction.... talking to participants that seem to have grasped the HIV/AIDS part in detail is indicating that the lesson has been successful i.e. one participant is saying: “I know that by having multiple sexual partners I am maximising the chances of contracting HIV/AIDS hence not having a sexual partner at all or sticking to one is the best for me”. (Kabanda Mwansa, Field diary 31<sup>st</sup> July 2008)*

In this activity, the teacher was smart by using the peer education and modeling concepts (to be discussed in later subchapters), a skill he learnt from PCI to be effective in delivering HIV/AIDS information to children and youths. This peer education idea used by the teacher in School A is in line with Maro (2008) who argue that peer education is often used to effect change at individual level, by attempting to modify a person's knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors'. But as earlier explored, peer education may also effect change at group or societal level, by modifying norms and stimulating collective action that leads to change while using familiar and valued activities that may affect the behaviors of participants (UNICEF 2009). The role play exhibited in the activity above is also connected to the earlier explored Bandura's Social Learning Theory that asserts that people serve as models of human behavior, and some people are capable of eliciting behavioral change in certain individuals. However, this is based on the individual's value and interpretation system (Bandura, 1986). In which case, the leaders (the teacher and other pupils leading the session) played the model's role, effecting change both at individual and group level.

My deduction to this therefore is that, KAO or not, sport and other fun related physical activities are being appreciated as part of the ways to counter HIV/AIDS and its` related challenges. For PCI to have trained the teacher at School A in using sport and PE to disseminate HIV/AIDS information, then they are convinced that the teacher will surely add value to the school's HIV/AIDS work. Zakus et al (2007) write that sport has been used as a social mobilization tool as well as an end in itself that could influence the achievement of some health objectives. Zakus et al (2007) further suggest that the natural ability of sport to

bring people together has to be taken advantage of, to creating effective platforms for health related programmes. So, even if School A lacked a structured HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programme, the commitment and sense of urgency on the part of the teacher empowered by PCI with these ideas was overwhelming. Pupils on the other hand, put in effort by making sure that they participated in the said activities as one of them claimed that: “I would rather have PE at school because I learn skills such as football that can help me in future than mathematics whose applications I do not really relate to my future” (Peter School A, boy 13). It is also likely that, due to the popularity of sport and other fun physical activities to especially children and youths in Zambia, the pupils in School A would naturally be attracted to any activity related sport and PE. Also the idea that professional employment opportunities in Zambia are limited as explored in chapter 2. There is a chance that young people would view themselves as future sports stars with fame otherwise not gained through academics but early participation in sport and PE at school, like in the testimony by Peter above.

Considering the PE methodology that calls for physical and mental participation by pupils (Coakley 2003), it makes it a natural attraction for young people as explored earlier. In this regard, I asked the teacher implementing these activities in School A whether class attendance is affected by the improvised PE sessions, he said:

*Yes, there are differences in class attendance. Like in my class where there are 27 pupils with an average of 15 attending class each day. Each time I announce a particular day when I will have this `Modified PE`<sup>21</sup>, the class suddenly get full on the material day as compared to other days. (Class /“PE”Teacher, School A)*

Some pupils on the other hand compare and contrast how HIV/AIDS education is presented in other subjects in their school since it is a cross cutting issue. Some prefer the one presented in sport and PE to be more effective although it is done spontaneously. One pupil in School A said: “ It is like I feel I learn more and remember more when I get HIV/AIDS information through play and physical activities rather than through other subjects that have limited physical activities and fun” (Kadansa boy 13). The knowledge retention being higher when HIV/AIDS education comes with play and sport as claimed by Kadansa above may be attributed to the idea that HIV/AIDS education is being associated with something children and youths already enjoy and approach with a positive mind, in this case sport and play. Or maybe, this idea breaks the monotony of always learning about HIV/AIDS theoretically

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<sup>21</sup> By Modified PE, the interviewee meant PE that is combined with HIV/AIDS education and not just the common PE lessons (Participant July 2008). This is similar to the KAO activities done in School B.

without physical engagement. Thus, since in School A HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE is done occasionally then it is likely to draw large numbers and interest among participants. As earlier explored, the implementation of this approach also involves child to child or peer education methods. This is what is explored in the next sub-chapter.

#### **5.3.4 Peer Coaching as a Strategy in HIV/AIDS Information Delivery in School**

It is likely that where HIV/AIDS information sharing and dissemination is concerned among pupils especially in School B, the peer coaching system is proving to be more effective than pupils getting the same information from the teachers (the authority). This understanding surely contradicts Malambo's (2002) emphasis that teaching children HIV/AIDS age appropriate information while they are young will make them to remember the information for the rest of their lives. What could have been in Malambo's (2002) thinking may have been 'teaching' in its strict sense, which is teacher to pupil and not including pupil to pupil or child to child. However, Nesbakken (2003) explored it in line with how School B is implementing the KAO programme. That is to involve pupils to disseminate HIV/AIDS information to fellow pupils, taking advantage of a significant trait of peer group influence during the youth stage.

It is also worth noting that teachers usually are part of the wider community that have certain universal traditional norms that may limit them to discussing HIV/AIDS issues freely with pupils (Baxen 2005 , Bennell, Hyde and Swainson 2002) . Because HIV/AIDS discussions usually lead to discussions about sex and reproductive health, the Zambian norms limit the elders such as teachers from discussing it openly and with a free will. Only the traditionally and specially assigned people in a special place rather than a school could freely do this kind of an assignment. An example related to this is Kalipeni et al (2004) findings in Kenya that indicated that many teachers that taught HIV/AIDS education expressed discomfort in teaching students about HIV/AIDS and sex. Kalipeni et al (2004) connected this to some African traditional practices which bar elders from talking to youths about sex except under certain conditions which a classroom situation does not guarantee. Asking a participant about the freedom of teachers when they teach HIV/AIDS education in School B, a pupil narrated her personal experience as:

*Sometimes it happens that during a lesson on abstinence as a means to HIV/AIDS prevention, when we ask the teacher on how condoms are practically used (for curiosity`s sake), sometimes he may just brush it aside and say we are too young to know about that, we just have to abstain from sex.....but the same things about condom use are being taught to us by our colleagues at home who have been exposed to that (Maimbolwa, Girl 15)*

This is a clear indication that in School B, peer influence has more power in terms of consolidating certain ideas. As already mentioned School B`s HIV/AIDS programme strategically extends into the wider community. However, this programme is met with some challenges, as much as it has opportunities in the wider community as the next sub topic highlights.

#### **5.4 Challenges and Opportunities for HIV/AIDS Information Flowing from School into the Wider Community**

This sub-chapter analyse and discuss more, the challenges and opportunities of HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programmes in the selected community schools in relation to the wider communities. It focuses on how the HIV/AIDS information flows into the wider community by trying to establish the mutual benefits of both the school and the wider community.

Considering the contextual realities happening in the wider communities in the study sites, the process of extending HIV/AIDS education through sport to there may not be as easy as it is put on the plan. According to the findings from the field, the programme is met with an overwhelming number of challenges and opportunities. However, even if chapter 5.1 has elaborated on some factors posing as challenges for the programmes in question, this particular sub chapter will have a deeper focus on more direct challenges and opportunities.

##### **5.4.1 Peer Coaching Extension into the Wider Community**

Talking to some peer coaches in School B, it was confirmed as reported in Chapter 2 that the EduSport programme goes beyond the confines of School B and into the wider community where peer coaches try to conduct the same activities with non School B members. It makes School B to be a fountain, out of which contextual HIV/AIDS information sprouts and spreads to the wider community through an informal but organized system spearheaded by EduSport. The peer coaches in this case are the conduits through which this information is

defused into the wider community through an extracurricular activity as numbers of out of school youths are higher in slum areas (Situmbeko 2008). Maro (2008) similarly writes that children in slum communities are more likely to be orphans or have one parent who is deceased and are least likely to be attending school. This means that some families may not manage to send all the children to school due to different challenges in the slums, thus, those that manage to go to school will act as dependable sources of information to the out of school children and youths . One of the peer leaders and a participant in the KAO activities in School B when interviewed put it this way:

*I usually take the HIV/AIDS information to my friends who have no opportunity to have it..... those who go to different schools where they do not have this system.....this helps me to understand things better and when I am telling my friends, they understand and they also come up with different ideas and we continue discussing.....whether at school or in the community, I feel KAO opens up discussions for the best ways we have to live as youths in difficult times and situations (Esnala, Girl 15)*

It is in the light of the above that I embrace the two emerging mutually inclusive levels of peer coach influence in the KAO and other HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programmes. These levels being: (a) school level and (b) wider community level. In more ways than one, these two perspectives are an affirmation of Darnell and Hoem`s (1996) observation that schooling and wider communities influence each other, and that to a certain extent, what comes out of schooling is attributed to a set of complex societal, cultural, economical and geographical circumstances. Natural surroundings and social relationships of the wider community both contribute to the outcome of the school. However, at the end of the day this outcome is directly related to the wider society that hosts the school (Darnell and Hoem 1996). In this regard dominant cultural and economic circumstances of the community where School B is situated such as physical and psychological demands of the local community (home) is likely to affect the outcome of the KAO programme.

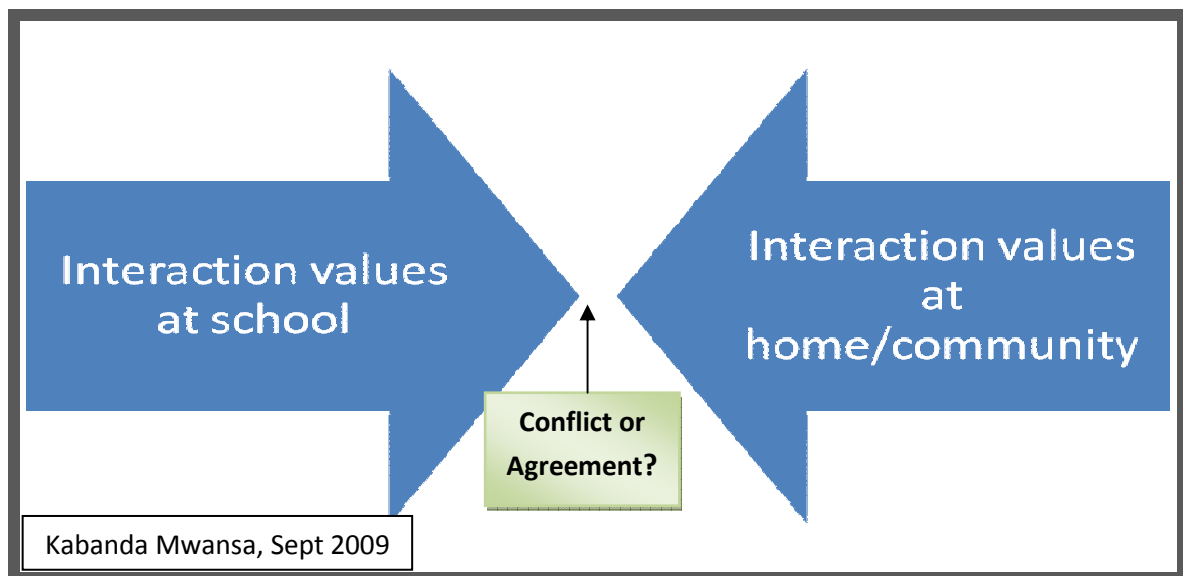
Since School B is not a boarding school, thus, it is inevitable for outside generated information to influence the social system of the school on daily basis. The fact that School B does not exist in isolation but part of a wider community, finds itself in the receiving end of outside information with pupils as agents to and from. Against this background, the dominant realities in the wider community are likely to play a significant role in informing School B pupils. One peer coach that commented on one girl that the school authorities expelled after efforts to control her behaviour failed said:



*What happened to that girl is that, she was too mature, so it was quite difficult for the administration to control her.....it is always difficult to control older boys and girls who have already experienced a lot from the community before coming to this school (Changala boy 15),*

This relates to the theory of reasoned action. This theory states that the influential elements for behaviour change, is an individual's perception of social norms or beliefs about what people, who are important to that individual, do or think about a particular phenomenon (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). In this regard it is worth noting that pupils at School B have the formal and the informal systems at school influencing them on one part, and also have other people in the wider community whose perceptions of life may be influencing them differently. More often than not, such influences are usually in the opposite of that of the schools`. The diagram below elaborates more on this, which is to say, whether or not, the peer coaching programme in School B corresponds with the social interactions and dynamics in the wider community.

**Figure 7: Interaction of School and Home Values**



This figure shows how values learnt at school may be compromised by values upheld by the wider community and vice versa. This is because the learning environment informally extends beyond the confines of the school. Nesbakken (2003) agrees with this when she writes about peer influence at school and in the wider communities. She points out that the wider society also shapes the peer influence in as much as it also influences society. However, what is of

utmost importance is whether the school and the community values are in agreement or otherwise in conflict. Darnell and Hoem (1996:271) observes that “where there is cultural homogeneity or a complementary relationship between the home and the school, each will reinforce the other, furthermore, formal schooling will reinforce normal processes of socialization that typically take place in any society”. Needless to say here that community schools have a cultural homogeneity or complementary relationship with their wider communities, considering the nature of their development. Thus, School B and its wider community are likely to reinforce each other as Darnell and Hoem (1996) have observed, creating conflict in some areas and agreement others. After all, there could be some non-school going children and youths in the wider community that should indirectly benefit from the community school. The next sub topic shades light on this.

#### **5.4.2 OVC’s as an Opportunity for the KAO Programme**

Avert (2009) also reports that in Zambia, HIV/AIDS cases are more prevalent in the two urban centres of Lusaka and the Copperbelt. The concern is that 70% of the residents of Lusaka which is on top of the list of HIV/AIDS cases live in slum areas. One can then conclude that HIV/AIDS is prevalent in the slums of Lusaka where poverty and unemployment is the order of the day. This is connected to Kalipeni et al (2004) who notes that lower wages, higher prices for food and housing, fewer employment options and diminished access to education and medical care generate varying degrees of heightened vulnerability to HIV/AIDS in affected communities where individuals face fewer choices for generating enough money to feed themselves and their families.

Against this background, one can conclude that the School B KAO programme will find the target population in the wider community beyond the school boundaries. This is because the community in question is among the 37 unplanned slums and semi-slums of Lusaka urban as explored in Chapter 2. Thus, this particular community qualifies as a strategic area and a good opportunity to the KAO programme, in line with both the objectives of EduSport and that of KAO. There is also a chance that orphans left behind mainly by HIV/AIDS victims have not entered or have stopped school. Thus, the rightful place to find and involve them in the programme is in the wider community because slum areas in Zambia are known to give home to OVC’s. This as well relates to Maro’s (2008) findings that posit that disadvantaged

children living in poorer communities of large metropolitan cities in Sub-Saharan Africa are more likely to be orphans, or have one parent deceased and are less likely to be attending any school at all. One participant in the study who has seen this in his community narrated that:

*Sometimes when parents die, you find that things just become too tough and poverty continues controlling your life, money for home use is not there, in such a situation school becomes a luxury because it can't put food on the table immediately.....One has to find food first before thinking of attending school....You try to go to some relatives for support; they also reject you saying they have enough problems too. (Mumbi boy 13)*

This is one of the reasons that put this particular group of children at risk of becoming infected with HIV/AIDS if no proper contextual interventions are put into place. The KAO programme then may be a key avenue through which HIV/AIDS information can reach this group that may not have ready access to it. Maro (2008) cites access to information and other resources, educational levels of parents and orphan status as some factors that may put children and youths in the slum areas at a risk of becoming infected with HIV/AIDS. This is because these children have limited knowledge about HIV/AIDS and the dynamics of its infections (Kalipeni et al 2004, Maro 2008). However, this is only likely to be the case if no alternative programmes that can give information about HIV/AIDS to the affected children are available. That is where the KAO programme may get strength and opportunity to manifest itself as the alternative programme in the study community. According to Mwaanga (2003), the KAO programme is able to equip young people with knowledge and life skills that are necessary for successfully coping up with contextual and complex realities in their situation. Similarly, a peer coach when interviewed in regard to this said:

*Kicking Aids Out helps me to understand things better and when I am telling my friends, they understand and they also come up with different ideas and we continue discussing. So whether at school or in the community KAO opens up discussions for the best ways we have to live as youths in difficult times and situations (Kasonso boy 14)*

Considering Kasonso`s statement, it is likely that those that have been given the responsibility to do peer coaching in the wider community are targeting first of all, closer colleagues at home that are not attending School B or not attending any school at all. In its own sense, this looks like a good strategy on the part of the peer coaches because it may help to build some confidence in them before going for the `unknown` targets. This means that the social

networks existing in the target community are the conveyer belts on which the KAO programme is being delivered. Moreover, this is social capital at work because according to Nesbakken (2003), the social context, that includes local social-economic conditions, ways of life, common cultural patterns and common shared resources has a profound influence on how young people want to get involved in collective development in their midst. In line with this, Putnam (2000) defines social capital as the fabric of a community as well as the available pool of human resources. That is actually calculated in terms of personal connections, social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them. Similarly, it would be an oversight if the KAO programme in School B is not associated with the power of social capital as propounded by Bourdieu (1983) that it is particularly concerned with the cultivation of good will, fellowship, sympathy and social intercourse among those that make up a social unit. At another level, social capital refers to the individual and communal time and energy that is available for such things as community improvement, civic engagement and responsibility, personal recreation, and other activities that create social bonds and cooperation between individuals and groups for individual and group outputs (Putnam 2000). The participant below seems to be putting a lot of her time and energy into the programme when she says:

*It is better for one to humble oneself when doing the KAO programme in the community.....so that one sells the good information one wants to put across to other peers.....I don't easily get discouraged, I say to my friends, maybe today you are not in a good mood, can I please come and see you tomorrow? Maybe then you will have some time to listen to me. (Petuho girl 14)*

If we take a closer look at how the KAO programme is being implemented in School B and its wider community, then we begin to see how peer coaches are using their individual time and energy in trying to improve their community. Also how they are taking the responsibility to create social bonds and cooperation in the fight against HIV/AIDS in their community. All these may be attributed to social capital as amplified by Putnam (2000) above.

### **5.4.3 Popularity of Sport as an Opportunity for HIV/AIDS Education**

Since sport and play in Zambia is a popular activity among children and youths who are the target group for the KAO programme, then it is likely to be another automatic opportunity for the success of the KAO programme. As reported earlier, KAO uses sport and play as the main catalyst in the dissemination of the HIV/AIDS information to its target groups. As earlier

reported in Chapter 2, football tops the list of favourite and popular sports. In the slum areas, however, children improvise footballs with home hand made balls made of disposed off plastic bags and strings usually picked from uncollected rubbish heaps that are a common sight in the slums of Lusaka. These children play on any available open space including on less busy motor vehicle roads in the inner community.

Nevertheless, despite the non-existence of sporting infrastructure in the slum areas, sport and play seems to be an effective group convenor and a highly valued activity among children and youths. It is because of its popularity (as in the slums of Lusaka) that the UN has identified sport to be a good avenue through which HIV/AIDS and other social and health problems can be combated. In other words, the UN has put sport on the agenda of development, such that the power that lies in sport and play can add value to different processes of development, with HIV/AIDS among them. It is in this regard that the KAO programme in School B extended into the wider community gets advantage and opportunity to meet its objectives because of the always ready enthusiastic audience available. Having looked at the opportunities in the wider community, the next sub chapter focuses on the challenges the programme encounters.

#### **5.4.4 Challenges of HIV/AIDS through Sport and PE Extending into the Wider Community**

Not only is the KAO programme likely to be received with mixed feelings, but the messages that it carries maybe irrelevant and inappropriate given the contextual reality of the lives in the under-served communities. Even in situations where the locals understand what they are being urged to do, it may be difficult for them to draw some motivation to adopt the recommended behaviour without contextual incentives and resources (Kalipeni et al 2002, Cohen 2000). For the poor, it is the here and now that matters, and policies and programmes that recommend deferral of gratification will, and do, fall on deaf ears (Cohen 2000). Related to this, a peer coach tasked to make rounds in the community said:

*Many like saying that where and how do you think we will be getting money for our living in these hush economic times? This is my living and my survival....so even if one had that big hope of advising someone, the motivation just fades away because of such answers...so at the end of the day, you just go away leaving such people to go ahead with their usual business...She will just ask you that: "Are you going to give me what I need for my living if you discourage me from doing my business (prostitution)?" (Tamara, girl 15)*

The social identification of the people in the communities involved, especially that of stating that they are poor and quite remote from the rich and influential in society may make them fall into a state of fatalism (Scott and Marshall 2005). The idea of them identifying themselves as the poor and under-served may put them in a situation where they tend to accept things the way they are and whatever they could do would never make any difference. Socialization and the economic class of the poor that is reinforced particularly by inequalities and social exclusion in most societies form a basis on which fatalism could easily ensue. Considering Scott and Marshall's (2005) exploration of fatalism, it is likely that the people in the wider communities of the study areas are in a state of fatalism. Hence, interventions such as the KAO programme may not yield much recognition and appreciation. As Scott and Marshall (2005) define fatalism as a system of beliefs that holds that everything has its appointed outcome. They further argue that the outcome cannot be avoided by effort or foreknowledge and must merely be accepted as unavoidable facts of life. In relation to this, it is then likely that the people in the slums and the poor rural areas are predisposed to accept things the way they turn out to be. The analysis would be biased if the above is not attributed to extreme poverty, unemployment and general lack of political will, both morally and materially in the study communities. As long as evidence (Allen and Thomas 2000) shows that similar groups and individuals in the same situation come to believe that all events are predetermined and therefore inevitable, it is then likely that the areas in the study cannot be any exceptional. The peer coaches, who are foot soldiers on the ground, get all sorts of feedbacks from the wider community in line with what local people think about their own lives. A participant reported on the kind of feedback she sometimes receives from the field as she says:

*There are others that understand that it is true that certain activities are bad and must not be encouraged, but there are also others that say, no what you are saying is not important to us, what about all these others that are dying, didn't they do what you are telling us? (Namwila girl 15)*

From the above statement from Namwila, one can deduce that there is an element of fatalism in it because the person she referred to has accepted it that way. That person feels she will have to die eventually, as long as others in similar situations are dying, and that there is nothing much she can do. She feels she has found herself in a pre-determined destiny because of the situation (poverty) she has found herself in. Meanwhile, she has to strive to live a

`normal` life with food and shelter. However, she has to fight for this using any possible means.

On a different note, cultural reproductions in the target communities as earlier explored is likely to be a stumbling block to HIV/AIDS information coming from School B. This is in the sense that women who are more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS and are good targets to the KAO programme have become victims (and even perpetrators) of cultural reproductions that disadvantage them. Women and girls are not given enough room for them to change some cultural values towards their benefit. That is, values that could put them in a better position to negotiate among other things HIV/AIDS protection. Rather, women and girls have been affected differently as compared to their male counterparts, all due to the cultural, social and economic disparities between the two. This is in line with Gupta (2000) who writes that women's economic dependency increases their vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. She further claims that:

*Research has shown that the economic vulnerability of women makes it more likely that they will exchange sex for money or favors, less likely that they will succeed in negotiating protection, and less likely that they will leave a relationship that they perceive to be risky (Gupta 2000:3).*

## **5.5 Chapter Sum-Up**

Up until now, I deduce that the issues discussed above have provided an analytical view of how HIV/AIDS programmes through sport and PE take shape. This is of course, at the back of contextual factors and other social dynamics. The factors include poverty levels in the wider communities, risky behaviors among the youths, the learning environment that is not so conducive in the under-served community schools etc. These factors interact and influence the outcome of HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE. Thus, the study will be able to conclude with some remarks about the different roles the different players in the implementation of the programme ought to play. The next chapter will provide the remarks and conclusions of the study.

## **6. CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY**

The study has focused on the use of sport and PE as an intervention in addressing HIV/AIDS in under-served schools in relation to the wider communities in which the selected schools are situated. However, the main focus was on the contextual realities of the participants that the study targeted. This was by way of problematizing HIV/AIDS education delivered through sport and PE and particularly how the EduSport's Kicking Aids Out! Programme is implemented in the poor community schools and beyond. In the contextual chapter, I tried to set the stage by presenting some fundamental aspects for understanding the complexity of the study and the particular setting in which HIV/AIDS through sport and PE is practiced.

The methodology chapter discussed the qualitative techniques of gathering and analyzing data and how these two methodological avenues have influenced this study. Firstly, a case study as a research method was defined, later on, the ethics and roles of a social science researcher were also highlighted upon in the same chapter. On the other hand, the literature review and the theoretical perspectives chapter highlighted on the available knowledge concerning the relationship between sport and PE on one hand, and HIV/AIDS education on the other. Generally, it highlighted on how sport and PE contributes to human and social development. The chapter discussed some theories and concepts bordering on knowledge acquisition, character building, attitudes, contextual norms, physical environment and other contextual social structures. However, the theories of HIV/AIDS and poverty came out quite significant in light of the empirical analyses of the findings.

The preceding chapter focused on the analysis of the study. However, the analysis was intertwined with the analytical findings from the field of research to provide evidence and give the analysis more meaning. The hierarchy of the research questions as tabulated in the introduction chapter guided the findings and the analysis chapter. Knowledge related to the contextual challenges of the target areas were applied and appropriate theories linked to it. This reflected upon the actual implementation of HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE. The urban setting on one hand and the rural one on the other were equally analyzed based on that background. However, this was not a comparative study; thus, the two sites just provided reference points for each other and not a deeper comparison. My hypothesis that sport has a positive influence on programmes that target children and youths seemed quite relevant to the study. The analysis also reflected upon the link between the participants' school interactions



and their home /community values and how the two influence each other. This of course took into consideration the different players and stakeholders in the process. Generally, in all the stages of the thesis, the contribution of sport to development was highlighted in line with the findings from the study. The findings reflected the actual explanations of social and psychological challenges of participants in their own words. This gives me the impression that my analysis in various ways contributed to understanding more about the use of sport and PE in HIV/AIDS education with the local context and dynamics in mind.

In the case of research questions, analyzed data seem to support at least one view. The view that addressing HIV/AIDS through sport and PE in under-served community schools and their respective wider communities need to take into consideration contextual realities. These are the realities as experienced by the participants. This way, such programmes as KAO and others that use sport and PE as delivery tools could be effective. Thus, what constitutes an effective programme will surely have variations in accordance to different contexts. Evidence also presents and supports a view that direct involvement of the affected participants gives them hope and courage to fight on despite the contextual challenges there in. This is actually one of the major outcomes from the use of sport and PE in addressing HIV/AIDS especially through the use of the peer coaching approach. The study underlines the possible catchment of HIV/AIDS preventive efforts through sensitization education located within the formal education system on one hand and the informal system (wider community) on the other.

However, due to the limitation of the time frame of the study and the limited size attached to the written outcome, I cannot have a detailed and actual outcome of the programme. The focus was on the participant's perceptions of the implications around their experiences and how they believe the programme has influenced them. This also concerns about how participants have influenced the programme in their individual capacity or/ and as representatives of an institution targeted by the study. The aspect worth recoding is that the study has just reflected on the happenings of participants connected to the selected schools and not the participants that are just in the wider community.

### **6.1 Significance of the Study to HIV/AIDS Education**

Knowledge from this study reflects on multiple possibilities therein HIV/AIDS education. The fact that it points out to contextual issues and possible limitations makes it significant to

the wider area of HIV/AIDS prevention education. The study calls for actual participation of all stakeholders involved and the fulfillment of responsibilities. Factors that stand as stumbling blocks to HIV/AIDS education in poor under-served communities must be checked while contextual dynamics also need to be recognized as observed in the analysis chapter. Some of the issues like material poverty are deeply rooted and have a direct effect to HIV/AIDS education programmes. Such issues need to be addressed even within HIV/AIDS focused programmes, in order to influence a desired outcome of the programme.

School specific programmes may not be as successful as programmes that involve wider communities as well, because schools do not exist in isolation, but part of a wider community. In this regard, the study is an affirmation about the multiple challenges that the participants endeavour upon as the HIV/AIDS programmes and knowledge from school tries to diffuse into wider communities. It is thus, important that such approaches address important contextual issues as already alluded to. The KAO programme as per my observation greatly harnesses School B and its` wider community. This is important because issues emerging from the formal and informal school interactions may be fully addressed in the wider community. Needless to mention here that the importance of this study is the involvement of parents and the community in the HIV/AIDS education programmes. This, as supported by some theories may be key in motivating change and cultivating supportive structures to sustain desired outcomes from such programmes.

## **6.2 Reflections and Recommendations**

In terms of using sport and PE specifically as means to an end, a number of issues need to be considered. Theories and personal experience has it that what influences the effectiveness of a programme that uses sport and PE as a means to an end, can never go beyond quality and urgency on the part of the practical implementers on the ground. The coaches, teachers and other leaders that directly deal with the end consumers of the programme must be well versed with the ethics and norms of HIV/AIDS education on one hand, and sport or/and PE on the other. Deliberate programmes to empower these groups with latest information and knowledge must be an ongoing process. Sport by nature forms peer groups and pairs that comes with peer pressure often attracting negative behaviour. In fact sport is known to contribute to negative peer influence, unless special programmes and responses are designed to counter these behaviours, sport could be a weapon of destruction. However, the strong peer

group relationship should be viewed as an advantage and must be used as a resource in children and youth programmes. The mechanism involved could be used in a positive way by always developing positive peer pressure from within or from outside the group. Leaders in this case play a significant role in making sure desired positive outcomes are cultivated.

When it concerns the KAO programme, motivation, function, content and the organization of the programme must be of great essence to the peer coaches. Like the saying goes “a blunt tool is more dangerous than a sharp tool in a workshop” and so should be the peer coaches in the KAO programme. Peer coaches must be equipped with full knowledge of HIV/AIDS education in addition to their sports skills and how to integrate the two. Apart from that, peer coaches must also be innovative enough to influence specific KAO programmes to be embedded in the needs of the wider communities. They must also consider the relationship that the school and other supporting organisations have with the community. The recognition of their work as peer coaches with knowledge from school and the community must be well assessed and considered. Since the peer coaching approach is a cost effective one that tries to use people that knows the context as a lived reality and that activities are conducted in a language known to the target group so must it be upheld. This is also because it has a multiplier effect through training only a few but reaching a wider base.

The individual peer coaches are highly influenced by the KAO programme and their direct involvement influences their approach to life. They apply different life skills to different situations that they face in their everyday living using their experience from peer coaching and from living in the slum communities. Of course this assumption is drawn from their statements as they talk about their experiences with the programme and HIV/AIDS in general. To a greater extent, the peer coaches show a great deal of self esteem and positive support for /from leaders, friends and family members. Another assumption from their statement is that peer coaching opens up discussions that could otherwise not be discussed fully in the presence of teachers and other elderly leaders as they express increased assertiveness. This surely increases the peer coaches` sense of responsibility that is highly needed in this age of HIV/AIDS. The more young people become responsible for their lives and the lives of others, the better the future of any nation.

While appreciating the cooperation among the under-served community schools, the NGO`s and MOE, the system needs to be more coherent and formal so as to increase the

developmental chances of both participants and the HIV/AIDS programmes in question. In School B, despite EduSport having its name on the school time table, there is no written document to indicate a formal relationship between the two institutions. Project Concern International (PCI) has never made any follow up in School A to evaluate how the teacher they trained in using sport and PE in addressing HIV/AIDS is doing. MOE confirmed that it has the capacity through the Curriculum Development Center (CDC) to evaluate the HIV/AIDS “GAMES” being used in schools as HIV/AIDS interventions. However, the two selected schools have seen no officer from CDC visiting them for the purposes of monitoring and evaluating the teaching of HIV/AIDS through sport and PE. This is the more reason why there is need for the players involved to cooperate better around setting achievable boundaries to sustain the positive progression of the programmes. On the other hand, EduSport`s way of constantly being present at School B makes the KAO programme more visible and more sustainable for it to make an impact and as such this practice must be shared with other NGO`s like PCI in School A.

From a gender perspective, a deliberate approach enshrined in school programmes including HIV/AIDS through sport and PE focusing on gender issues must be in place. In the selected schools and communities, there are significant differences in what males and females can and cannot. There is a distinct difference between women`s and men`s roles and their approach to life. Access to productive resources and decision making authority is limited to males. They are seen as being responsible for the productive activities outside the home while females are restricted to be responsible for reproductive and productive activities within the home. This imbalance between males and females poses as a big challenge to programmes such as KAO because the contextual rules imposed by society, as defined by one`s gender, age, economic status, and other factors, influence an individual`s sexuality and approach to life.

In the HIV/AIDS through sport and PE programmes, the most important thing should be to prevent children and youths to engage in risky behaviors that may put them at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS. Close to all participants in both schools claimed that their colleagues choose to engage in risky behaviors not by choice but circumstantial. More often than not, most victims get engaged in such behaviors in response to economic difficulties or personal insecurity. The majority also choose to leave school because it cannot offer immediate solutions to their economic hardships and insecurity. If proper opportunities for economic emancipation are not readily available and the participants find themselves constantly in poor

situations, they might as well easily maintain or get back their old habits. The factors that directly or indirectly motivate the young to engage in risky behaviors need to be addressed fully if the HIV/AIDS education through sport and PE has to make a greater impact. Poverty is the most notorious one and eradicating it calls for the coordination of policies and programmes that focus on different dimensions of the life of the people living in it. The value of life lies in the aspect that, by contributing to creating the conditions in which people can build sustainable livelihoods for themselves, programmes such as the ones studied will surely make a real difference. However, this is more practical if the political commitment symbolized by the adoption of the Millennium Declaration is to connect to the poor local communities. This could be done by nurturing and supporting feasible measures to counter the barriers that confine people into cycles of poverty and HIV/AIDS.

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## **APPENDICES**

### **Appendix I: Sample Interview Guide: Focus Group Discussion (Pupils)**

Explain briefly my business of the day and ask for consent.

#### **Section A- Personal Information**

1. Individually tell me your names, your age and your grade.
2. What are your family members and how many are you at home?
3. What kind of breakfast did you have when coming to school?

#### **Section B – school**

1. How long have you been attending this school?
2. What do you want to achieve out of school?
3. What are your favorite subjects in School?
4. Would you like to get a transfer to go to a government school?
5. How is your relationship to the teachers and other volunteers that work in your school?

#### **Section C- HIV/AIDS**

1. How do you learn HIV/AIDS education in school?
2. Is it in all the subjects you have at school?
3. Do you like HIV/AIDS information being present in all the subjects?
4. How do you share the HIV/AIDS education you learn at school to others?
5. Have you ever heard of a programme called `Kicking Aids Out`?

#### **Section D – Sport and PE**

1. Do you have PE classes at school?
2. If you do, is it one subject you like?
3. How are sports programmes organized at school?
4. Are you content with the equipment and facilities at your school?
5. Do you have any HIV/AIDS information in sport or/ and PE?

## **Appendix II: Sample Interview Guide: Individual Pupils**

Explain briefly my business of the day and ask for consent.

### **Section A- Personal Information**

1. Tell me your name, your age and your grade.
2. What are your family members and how many are you at home?
3. What do your parents do for their living?
3. How many meals do have per day at home?
4. What are the most challenging things for you at home at the moment?
5. Do you get any other material or financial support from other individuals or organisations?

### **Section B – school**

1. Why did you choose this school?
2. What do you want to achieve out of school?
3. Do you have friends from home that also attends this school?
4. Are your friends from home encourage you to attend school?
5. How is your relationship to the teachers and other volunteers that work in your school?

### **Section C- HIV/AIDS**

1. How have you been affected by HIV/AIDS?
2. What role do you play as an individual to fight HIV/AIDS?
3. Do you know some individuals and organisations at school that are helping fight HIV/AIDS?
4. How do you share the HIV/AIDS education you learn at school to others?
5. Have you ever heard of a programme called `Kicking Aids Out`?
6. What are the biggest challenges at school and at home do you encounter in line with HIV/AIDS?

### **Section D – Sport and PE**

1. Do you have PE classes at school?
2. Do you have any HIV/AIDS information in sport or/ and PE?
3. How are sports programmes organized at school?
4. Are you content with the equipment and facilities at your school?

## **Appendix III: Sample Interview Guide: Ministry of Education.**

Explain briefly my business of the day and ask for consent.

### **Section A- Personal Information**

1. Tell me your name and your position in MOE

### **Section B – Community Schools**

1. What is the main difference between a community school and a government school?
- 2 How do you define a community school as MOE?
3. How many community schools are in Lusaka province?
4. What criteria do you have in identifying community schools for support?
5. What role is MOE playing in coordinating NGO`s and community schools?
6. What deliberate programmes and materials has MOE put in place for community schools?

### **Section C- HIV/AIDS**

1. Are the MOE policies on HIV/AIDS taken into consideration the community schools?
2. What are the current programmes of HIV/AIDS that are catering for community schools?
3. What role are the local and international NGO`s playing in the fight against HIV/AIDS in MOE?
4. What are the challenges of MOE in working with community schools in relation to HIV/AIDS?
5. Have you ever heard of a programme called `Kicking Aids Out`?
6. Have you recognized it as an official HIV/AIDS programme in schools, also in community schools?

### **Section D – Sport and PE**

1. How is PE implemented in community schools?
2. Are you working with other partners in implementing PE in community schools?
3. Have you as MOE noticed the standard or absence of sport facilities in community school?
4. What measures are you taking about it this situation?

## Appendix IV: Sample Table of Data Categorization


|   | Urban   |   | Rural   |  | Other sources   |
|---|---|---|---|--|---|
|   | Girl  | Boy   | Girl  | Boy  |   |
| <b>Contextual and environmental factors</b> | <p>: Some of the challenges that we face here at school sometimes include lack of teachers because some teachers work in another school then come here when they are free there, so sometimes learning becomes a big challenge.</p> <p>: Before she was caught red handed, there were a lot of rumors about what she did out of school and each time we tried to talk to her as friends, she was so sulky thinking that we were simply investigating her and not trying to help her. She thought we and the teachers were just jealous of her because she wore expensive clothes.</p> | <p>: What happened to that girl is that, she was old enough, so it was quite difficult for the administration to control her, its always difficult to control older boys and girls who have already experienced a lot from the community before coming to this school.</p> <p>: One of the challenges is that here, we don't have many qualified teachers and I know that those schools in the residential areas have very qualified teachers. The other is that most of our colleagues that go to those schools come from well to do families, hence they get a lot of support and resources from their parents.</p> <p>: Here we come from homes that sometimes can't even provide food when coming to school and when you get back home again you find nothing to eat, so this may affect your performance at school</p> | <p>: The advantage in a mixed school maybe is that we easily get used to deal with boys hence when we are faced with making a decision when a boy approaches you, you even know how to handle that because you are used to them at school and you discuss even personal issues together. But if you are not used to being with boys, you end up making a wrong decision, because you are inexperienced with them.</p> <p>: It's because we are provided with food at this school that some are managing to come, otherwise many would have stopped school because of hunger at home, after the drought many homes are very hungry and are surviving through attending school.</p> | <p>: The disadvantage is that in single sex schools the temptations for having a girl/boy friend are very much lower than here in a mixed school. Here you find that when we come to school, we cannot just get back home without wishing or even touching a girl, it's like every day, we get renewed temptations to hold girls closer to our bodies.</p> <p>: Many of us here walk long distances to come to school and get very tired but those in residential school mostly are dropped at school by their parents or are given transport money to and from school, giving them good motivation to continue in school.</p> | <p>: The most critical challenge is that we are lacking balls; we don't have netballs, volleyballs, footballs etc although we have nets (tattered nets) that were provided by the ministry of education. (<b>Teacher Rural</b>)</p> <p>: Poverty and underdevelopment are the reasons why we have decided to come up with an initiative of making this community school to cater for the under privileged due to challenges like HIV/AIDS. Some of the children here are actually orphans and some are vulnerable because their parents are weak because of the sickness to HIV/AIDS. Therefore they are unable to send their children to government schools. So this is a big challenge for this area (<b>School Head Rural</b>)</p> |

## Appendix V: Consent Letter from Ministry of Education

All communications should be addressed to  
the Permanent Secretary to the Ministry of Education  
not to any individual by name.

Telephone: 250655/251315/251283  
251298/251318/251291  
251306/251319

In reply please quote  
No .....



REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

# MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

P.O. BOX 50091  
LUSAKA

MOE/101/9/4

28<sup>th</sup> July, 2008

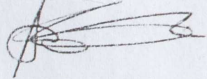
The Provincial Education Officer  
Lusaka Province  
LUSAKA

**RE: ASSISTANCE IN THE CONDUCTING OF FIELD WORK**

This serves to confirm that Kabanda Teddy Mwansa aged 35 years, is a student at the Norad Financed Master's Programme in International Education and Development (NOMA). This programme is a joint collaboration between Oslo University College (Norway), Ahfad University for Women (Khartoum, Sudan), University of Zambia and University of Cape Town (South Africa).

Mr. Mwansa is required to write a thesis of approximately 100 pages. The field-work may incorporate interviews with educational practitioners and decision makers, classroom observation and documentary analysis. The type of data should be discussed with the relevant authorities.

Any assistance rendered to Mr. Mwansa during his field work in Zambia will be highly appreciated.



A. Mulenga  
A/Director – Standards and Curriculum  
For/Permanent Secretary  
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION