Stakeholders' experiences of the implementation of public private partnership in universal secondary education in Uganda

By

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A thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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Supervisor: Professor Chaya Herman

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DECLARATION

I, Ivan Kiiza Twinomuhwezi (student 13234472), declare that the thesis, "Stakeholders' experiences of the implementation of public-private partnership in universal secondary education in Uganda", which I hereby submit for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria, is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me at this or any other tertiary institution. It is my original work and the sources that I used have been acknowledged.

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ETHICS STATEMENT

The author, whose name appears on the tittle page of this thesis, has obtained, for the research described in this work, the applicable research ethics approval. The author declares that he has observed the ethical standards required in terms of the University of Pretoria's code of ethics for researchers and the policy guidelines for responsible research.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife, Dr. Peace Musiimenta, my children Allan Ampurire Twino and Petrina Arinda Twino for being resilient and tolerant to some drastic shift in the attention I used to give them, largely due to its associated demanding work. I also dedicate this thesis to my late parents, Ernest Bamwanga and Feredasi Bamwanga, for the initial investment they made for my education in which the zeal to do this doctoral study had its roots. You will always be remembered for your irreplaceable inputs towards this thesis.

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ABSTRACT

This is an exploratory qualitative case study designed to gain insights into stakeholders' experiences and understanding of the implementation of public-private partnership (PPP) policy in universal secondary education (USE) in Uganda. Though extensive literature on PPPs in education exists, it largely focuses on PPP roles, challenges and impacts in education service delivery. It hardly explores the insights into how and why stakeholders experience, understand and influence the implementation of PPPs in education in the way they do, and what they perceive as critical success factors (CSFs) for their implementation in the context of developing countries.

The stakeholders for the study, who were purposively selected, included officials from the Ministry of Education, district local governments, members of Parliament, school proprietors, head teachers and teachers, parents, local leaders, NGO-based educators and academics with experience and knowledge of PPP policy in USE. The study was informed by Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory and conceptualised within the phenomenological interpretive paradigm and qualitative case study approaches. Wakiso district, in Uganda's central region, was considered as a case study area owing to its dominance in having more partnership schools in rural-urban settings than other districts. In-depth interviews, document analysis and field notes were the main methods of data collection. Data was analysed through content and thematic qualitative approaches.

The findings indicate varying stakeholders' understandings of the policy. Most stakeholders perceived the policy to have emerged from the government's need to increase access to USE amidst budgetary constraints, excess demand for USE, inadequate capacity of public schools to provide USE, and partly from political influences and interests. It was evident that most government-based stakeholders and academics had a more technical and clear understanding of the policy than school-based stakeholders. This revealed that some stakeholders were implementing the policy they did not clearly understand. The varying stakeholders' understandings of the same policy largely derived from the different contextual factors they experienced in the policy implementation hierarchy. While most government stakeholders perceived the policy as successful due to its impacts of increasing access to USE, the majority of other stakeholders perceived it as unsuccessful owing to the low and compromised quality of USE outcomes and cynicism about its equity impacts. Most school-based stakeholders of this policy focused more on monetary incentives and profit-making than its goals. While most non-state stakeholders' motivations and influences in this policy were monetary driven, their experiences were largely context-specific challenges in its implementation hierarchy.

The policy and its success were perceived with mixed opinions by stakeholders, who suggested regular policy reviews; commitment to partnership roles; sufficient funding; selection of partners with adequate capacity; effective policy communication strategy; regular monitoring and supervision; and strong enforcement mechanisms as CSFs for its successful implementation. The thesis concludes that unless appropriate policy reforms informed by these findings are made, the success and sustainability of the implementation of PPP policy in USE would remain uncertain in context of Uganda and other similar countries.

Keywords: Public private partnership, universal secondary education, stakeholder, experiences, understanding, influences, critical success factors, policy implementation

LANGUAGE EDITOR'S DECLARATION

The letter from the Language Editor to indicate that language editing has been done.



27 January 2018

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ADB Asian Development Bank

BOG Board of Governors

CG Central government

CSFs Critical success factors

EFA Education for All

El Education International

ISPS Institute of Social and Policy Sciences

LG Local government

MFPED Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development

MOES Ministry of Education and Sports

MOU Memorandum of Understanding

NDP National Development Plan

NSGE National Strategy for Girls' Education

PEAS Promoting Equality in African Schools

PPPs Public-private partnerships

SAPs Structural Adjustment Programmes

SAFED South Asian Forum for Education Development

SDGs Sustainable Development Goals

UNCST National Council of Science and Technology

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

USE Universal Secondary Education

UNGEI United Nations Girls' Education Initiative

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CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The world over, it is argued that investing in people through education enhances their active participation in the dynamics of the global society and market economy for increased social mobility, equity and better livelihood (Patrinos, Barrera-Osorio & Guaqueta, 2009; Gasperini & Acker, 2009; Rose, 2010; UNESCO, 2011; World Bank, 2011). Moreover, Brady and Galisson (2008) claim that the best investment with more sustainable long-term returns a country can make for its society is education. Outstandingly, sustainable provision of quality education for all is seen as the best equaliser in society through capacity-building (Amuche & Kukwi, 2013). Education is thus believed to be a key indispensable precondition for socioeconomic, technological and political transformations of any nation, because investing in the human mind makes all other development objectives possible (World Bank, 2011; Mgaiwa & Poncian, 2016). Besides, education is seen as a dynamic tool that enhances national capacitybuilding and people's resilience to live as they strive towards sustainable development (World Bank, 2011; Amuche & Kukwi, 2013). This backdrop provides a justification for most governments not only to put much emphasis on 'Education for All' initiatives but also to take up the constitutional responsibility of financing and providing it at all levels (World Bank, 2009; Rose, 2010).

Nevertheless, with the large and increasing population sizes in most developing nations, school enrolments and demand for education as a basic need, human right and public good have rapidly risen beyond public sector capacity to manage and provide it sufficiently, hence making this responsibility a challenge for any government to adequately fulfil it alone (LaRoque, 2008; Rose, 2010; World Bank, 2011). Besides, making the delivery of high-quality public education services universally accessible and equitable amidst public sector budget constraints remained a concern that called for the adoption of public-private partnership (PPP) innovative programmes and interventions with a reduced role of the state (Srivastava, 2010). As a policy response, most governments, including Uganda, adopted some private sector-led management models based on the 1980s and 1990s neo-liberalism policies to encourage greater involvement of private sector actors in public service delivery through PPPs (Robertson, 2011). The education sector was not an exception in this endeavour owing to its vital role and distributive effects in human life and economy (Ben-Shahar, 2015).

The aforementioned provides a justification for some governments, particularly those in resource-constrained developing economies, to adopt PPPs as innovative education management reforms and service delivery mechanisms. In this way, governments hope to efficiently and effectively achieve EFA goals through increased education coverage and equitable access (LaRoque, 2008; Robertson, 2011).

Conceptually, PPP refers to an arrangement between the public and private sectors for the delivery of a defined quantity and quality of specified public goods and services in which the private sector is contracted to provide them on behalf of the government (Taylor, 2003; LaRocque & Patrinos, 2006; LaRocque, 2008; Babatunde et al., 2012). The central philosophy behind PPPs is that all organisations have strengths, but no organisation has all the strengths required to do everything alone (Rotter et al., 2010). This supports Reim's (2009, p.14) opinion that "the primary objective of PPP is to deliver a better service than either the public or the private sector could do alone". Basically, PPPs are cooperative contractual arrangements between the government and non-state actors, which are built on the expertise of each partner that best meets clearly defined public needs through sharing of resources and risks in public services delivery (UNGEI & SAFED, 2011; Babatunde et al., 2012). It is for such reasons that PPPs have become a popular management policy tool for the delivery of public services where government financing constraints exist (Alfen et al., 2009). Besides, PPPs also emerged from serious questions and debates on the appropriate role of government put forward by institutional economists, public choice theorists and those who believed in the market ideology of neo-liberalism, which advocates a reduced role of the state in public service delivery (Rose, 2010; Srivastava, 2010). In this vein, PPPs in service delivery are believed to have emerged from the neo-liberal supremacy of the private sector and market forces amidst government inadequacies (Miraftab, 2004). This echoes Verger and Moschetti's (2016) perception that PPPs are innovative market-oriented policy approaches to ensuring equitable provision of quality public goods or services in a cost-effective way through risk- and responsibility-sharing between the public and private sectors.

However, Patrinos et al. (2009) and the World Bank (2014) point out that, owing to market failures/imperfections and equity concerns in developing countries, the government, through the public sector, needs to remain a key player and source of resources and leadership in providing certain public services despite its shortcomings. On the other hand, LaRocque (2008) and Nyirenda (2012) argue that PPPs aim at promoting improvements in the financing and provision of services from both the public and private sectors but not at increasing the

role of one over the other. PPPs are not only geared towards improving the existing services provided by both sectors, but also towards ensuring system efficiency, effectiveness, quality, equity and accountability in public service delivery (Verger & Moschetti, 2016).

In the context of education, PPPs are said to have originated from persistent budgetary constraints and inefficiencies by governments in its provision and financing (LaRocque, 2008; Patrinos et al., 2009). The PPP in education is defined as "the process whereby government procures education or education-related services of a defined quantity and quality at an agreed price from specific providers" (Patrinos et al., 2009, p.9). This corroborates Srivastava's (2011) description of contracting in education as an agreement between a government agency (like the Ministry of Education [MOES]) and a private provider to deliver a service in exchange for its regular payments. It is perceived as an education policy reform for minimising inefficiencies in the delivery and management of public education services while improving both their access and quality in resourceconstrained countries (Mgaiwa & Poncian, 2016). Its objectives are to increase the enrolment rates and improve the quality of education outcomes (such as standardised test scores and dropout rates), particularly for students from low-income families (Patrinos et al., 2009; Fennell, 2010). Owing to the centrality of education in people's lives and its distributive effects on an economy (Ben-Shahar, 2015), PPPs in education have won much popularity and growing support as a mechanism for ensuring sustainable access to quality EFA (Fennell, 2010; UNESCO, 2011, 2015, 2016). In developing countries, PPPs in education gained momentum in the 1980s as one of the strategic options to address the budgetary constraints and other challenges confronting their education service delivery systems (Malik, 2007; World Bank, 2009). Owing to such reasons and concerns, most sub-Saharan African governments (Uganda included) have adopted and incorporated PPPs into the EFA and universal secondary education (USE) programmes to meet the increasing demand for public secondary school education in their economies (World Bank, 2013).

The above backdrop provides a global historical perspective that informed the idea of how and why the PPP in USE became part of the education policy agenda of Uganda in 2007. This was also influenced by the adoption of universal primary education (UPE) to accommodate ever-increasing enrolments at primary level. This increase was greater than at all post-primary stages owing to the nature of Uganda's population structure, characterised by a bigger percentage of youth. The structure of education in Uganda, which has existed since the early 1960s, includes seven years of primary education, six years of secondary education

(divided into four years of lower secondary and two years of upper secondary school) and three to five years of post-secondary education. Before the adoption of a fee-free UPE policy, most of the resource burden for the provision of basic education of children was mainly borne by parents (Uganda Education Sector Policy Overview, 2006). The next section gives a brief background of how PPP emerged in the USE agenda and why it matters in the education policy context of Uganda.

1.1 The Origin of the PPP Policy in USE in Uganda

Historically, the Ugandan government, through its public sector, has been a major provider of education services at all levels. However, from the early 1950s, the government began to register and give licences to some private schools to operate alongside government-owned/aided schools in the provision of education services (MOES Report on USE in Uganda, 2014). Under this mixed education sector system, students may access education services either from private schools or government-owned schools at any level. The school choice is mainly influenced by the ability of the parent to pay the tuition fees and the perceived quality of education offered by the school, among other factors. However, owing to the relatively fixed number and inadequate capacity of existing public/government-aided secondary schools to provide subsidised public education services, the country has been experiencing challenges of excess demand for such services from an increasing poor population. As a policy response, there was need for the involvement of private sector actors in the delivery of secondary school education through PPPs.

PPPs in public service delivery emerged as part of neo-liberal policies, which were advanced through the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB) in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Robertson & Verger, 2012). Besides, as a result of such neo-liberal policies and programmes, the level of public expenditures on education declined, rather than increasing (Robertson, 2007). It is presumed that under neo-liberalism, PPPs allow the government to pass operational roles over to efficient private sector operators while retaining and improving its focus on core public sector responsibilities such as regulation and supervision (Olssen & Peters, 2007; Asian Development Bank, n.d.). In view of this, PPPs are seen as a viable alternative policy reform tool for reducing government expenditure and fiscal deficits in public service delivery through increased private sector involvement. Based on this ideology, PPPs became the IMF's and the WB's conditionality for providing aid for education service delivery to some

member countries in order to build knowledge-based economies (Robertson & Verger, 2012). Being a recipient of IMF/WB donor support, Uganda conditionally liberalized its education sector as a way of promoting private sector participation in the delivery of quality education not only to ensure its accessibility for all but also as a strategy for building a knowledge-based economy. As Verger and Moschetti (2016) put it, PPPs in education emerged as a market-oriented solution to issues of education access and quality.

Subsequently, Uganda introduced UPE in 1997 to increase equitable access to basic quality EFA. Ultimately, the number of students completing free UPE increased. However, a large number of them were not able to transit to secondary education owing to the poor economic base of their parents and guardians (MOES Policy Guidelines for PPP Schools, 2013). This predicament, which limited many qualifying UPE students from accessing affordable secondary education, motivated the Ugandan government to adopt another policy, i.e. of feefree USE in 2007, ten years after the adoption of UPE. Its objective was to increase and sustain equitable access to secondary education by all through government-aided schools (MOES Report on USE in Uganda, 2014).

The USE policy resulted in heightened demand and increasing enrolment for fee-free USE services in government-owned/aided secondary schools that exceeded their available limited supply capacity (Uganda National Development Plan, 2010). In order to achieve the objective of USE, the government realised the necessity to partner with some private secondary schools through the PPP policy to increase and sustain the delivery of USE. It was owing to this education service delivery gap that the PPP in USE emerged in 2007 as a policy response. This policy was seen as a management and delivery mechanism for enhancing government capacity to provide USE and skill development (Chapman, 2009; MOES Report, 2007; MOES Report on USE in Uganda, 2014). Moreover, PPP policy intervention in USE delivery was perceived as a more economical and faster move since the government would use the existing structures and human resource of private schools to catch up with the fast-growing rate of secondary school enrolments (ibid.). In the light of this, government partnership with the private secondary schools in the implementation of USE was seen as an inevitable as well as the simplest way for the government to provide subsidised USE to most of the eligible and disadvantaged children (MOES Policy Guidelines for PPP Schools, 2013).

The type of PPP in USE adopted in 2007 in Uganda involved the contracting out (outsourcing) of education service delivery to private secondary schools as partners. This

comprises government purchase of educational service from private sector actors that deliver it on behalf of the government under certain contractual arrangements. This contracting-out PPP model is in line with what Taylor (2003) and the World Bank (2009) described, in which the government contracts a private sector provider to deliver a defined quantity and quality of a specified service at an agreed price for a specified period.

In this PPP model, the government signed a memorandum of understanding (MOU) with some selected private secondary schools to deliver USE services on its behalf to sponsored students for a specific time period (MOES Policy Guidelines for PPP Schools, 2013). Under these PPP contracts, private schools would enroll some state-sponsored USE students, particularly those from poor communities with insufficient and/or complete lack of government-aided (public) secondary schools. Such contractual arrangements between the government and selected partnership private schools were based on clear terms and conditions of payment for each USE student enrolled. For instance, since 2007, the Ugandan government, through the MOES, has been paying Uganda shillings 47,000 (US\$12) as subsidy fee per child per term to the partnership schools for USE services offered through the PPP policy (MOES Report on USE National Headcount, 2014). In this policy, the Ugandan government guides policy and provides finance to procure USE services while the contracted partnership private schools deliver USE services to a specific number of enrolled USE students on behalf of the government (LaRoque, 2008; MOES, 2012). Besides, the contracted private schools ought to be registered with the MOES, fulfill other minimum education standards relating to the quality of teachers and school infrastructure, and also be held accountable for students' performance. It is within this education PPP policy context in Uganda that the implementation of PPP in USE delivery is located. As the Asian Development Bank (2010) puts it, the PPP policy in service delivery requires a range of stakeholders to take on the existing roles for its successful implementation. In this regard, the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda involves a number of stakeholders, including government-based stakeholders (mainly from the MOES and district local governments), proprietors of partnership schools, parents of the USE-sponsored children, teachers and head teachers (principals) of partnership schools, parliamentarians on the Education Committee (policy-makers), district education officials and school inspectors, local community leaders, the NGO world and academics, among others. In performing their roles and responsibilities, each of these stakeholder groups seems to have different interests and motives in the implementation of this policy (Brady & Galisson, 2008). Given such a

policy environment, in which a diverse range of stakeholders participate, there was need to gain an understanding of how they experience, understand and influence this policy and its implementation realties in the context of Uganda.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

PPPs in education have gained much popularity and growing support as a mechanism for ensuring sustainable access to quality education, particularly in resource-constrained developing countries (World Bank, 2009; Malik, 2007). In this respect, Uganda, like other developing countries, adopted a similar policy of PPP in USE delivery in 2007 in anticipation of expanding easy access to subsidised educational services for its disadvantaged population. While the PPP policy in USE increased the number of PPP schools in Uganda from 289 to 880 and student enrolments for USE from 600,162 in 2007 to 873,476 in 2013 (MOES Report on USE & National Headcount, 2014), its prospects in transforming and improving access to as well as the efficiency and quality of USE delivery and outcomes remain debatable among its stakeholders. In spite of this, there has been little information on how the stakeholders in this policy understand, influence and experience its implementation realities since its inception in Uganda. In this respect, understanding questions regarding how this policy is understood, influenced and experienced by its stakeholders in the way they implement it, what motivates them to do so and what critical factors are perceived to contribute to its successful implementation (and why) have not been given much attention in the context of Uganda. Yet such understandings are critical in PPP policies that are not only context/country-specific but are also still new and controversial with regard to their implementation realities.

Moreover, the existing local and international scholarship on the implementation of PPPs in education (LaRocque, 2008; Patrinos et al., 2009; Kasenene, 2009; Rose, 2010; Srivastava, 2010; UNESCO, 2011; Robertson, 2011; Brans, 2011; Mathonsi, 2012; Barungi et al., 2014; MOES Report on National Headcount on USE, 2014) principally focuses on PPP impacts and effectiveness, roles and challenges. It hardly provides deeper insights into how stakeholders experience, understand and influence the implementation of PPPs in education from an interpretive phenomenological perspective. This policy information remains silent and limited in the available literature on education PPPs, yet it would inform the necessary policy reforms and explanations. On PPP policy success, the information regarding the critical success factors for its effective implementation in USE delivery (from stakeholders'

perspectives) also remains scanty in this field of inquiry. Such critical factors that are believed to be country and context/project-specific (Ismail & Ajija, 2013) are not only vital for shaping the success of PPPs, mainly in developing countries that are still new in their implementation, but also where the quality of public services offered through them (PPPs) remains a concern among its critics (Jamali, 2004; Cheung et al., 2012). In this respect, this study, therefore, enters into the debate of exploring stakeholders' experiences, influences and understandings of the PPP policy and its CSFs as they negotiate its implementation in USE delivery in the context of Uganda in order to extend the existing knowledge in the area of PPPs in education.

1.3 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore and gain a deeper understanding of how and why stakeholders understand, influence and experience the implementation of the PPP policy in USE and its realities in the way they do it, what motivated them to adopt this policy and what they perceived as critical success factors for its effective implementation in the context of Uganda.

1.4 Research Question

1.4.1 Main research question

How and why do stakeholders understand, influence and experience the implementation of the PPP policy USE in Uganda in the way they do?

1.4.2 Sub-research questions

The study was guided by the following sub-research questions which it sought to answer:

- i. How do stakeholders understand the origin, purpose and implementation guidelines of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda?
- ii. How and why do stakeholders understand the impacts and success of the PPP policy implementation in USE delivery in Uganda in the way they do?
- iii. How do stakeholders experience the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda in the way they do and why?
- iv. What are the stakeholders' motivations and influences in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda?
- v. What critical factors do stakeholders perceive for the successful implementation of PPPs in USE delivery in Uganda?

In order to answer the main question, the sub-questions and achieve the study purpose, exploratory qualitative case study approaches were employed through an interpretive lens (Crotty, 1998; Yin, 2009). The qualitative interpretive approaches employed were informed by the nature of the study purpose, its research questions and my worldview of the interpretive paradigm with its philosophical underpinnings of phenomenology. In order to explore this phenomenon and gain a rich and better understanding of it, semi-structured interviews and document analysis, together with diary field notes, were employed in this study as appropriate data collection methods and sources. Wakiso district, located in the central region of Uganda, was purposively selected as a case study area owing to its dominance in having relatively more private partnership secondary schools offering USE with a higher enrolment of students than other districts in the country (MOES, 2012; MOES Statistical Abstract, 2014).

Since the introduction of PPP in USE was a national education policy reform (MOES, 2012), whose implementation activities were believed to affect and be affected by many stakeholders in Uganda, stakeholder theory was adopted as a theoretical lens to inform this study. The theory was first introduced by Freeman (1984) in strategic management and then later expanded into other fields of project and policy studies (Yang et al., 2009; Bourne, 2009; Freeman et al., 2010; Mathonsi, 2012; Siering & Svensson, 2012). A stakeholder refers to any individual, group of individuals or organisation that has an interest or stake in a particular (policy) issue or system, and whose interests are believed to affect and/or be affected by a change in that system (Freeman, 1984; Studd, 2002) and how it is experienced.

The stakeholder theory distinguishes between internal and external key stakeholders in a project or policy through stakeholder analysis criteria. It maintains that analysis of stakeholders and their participation in a project/policy are shaped and determined by the power-interest influences (which stakeholders have in the policy or project in terms of their involvement, decisions and control over its implementation, and over other's actions), legitimacy and importance (how closely their interests/stakes coincide with the objectives of the policy) in its implementation. The notion of stakeholders' power-importance-influence over PPP policy implementation in USE seems to form the basis of their different partnership responsibilities and roles (as stated in the MOU signed in 2007) through which they socially interact, influence and are influenced by its implementation. Based on the interpretive qualitative perspectives, this study aimed at gaining a deeper understanding of stakeholders' lived experiences and understandings of the PPP policy implementation realities in USE

delivery from their subjective viewpoints (Crotty, 1998; Cohen et al., 2011; Kura, 2012). Thus, gaining insights into how and why stakeholders understand, experience, and are motivated to adopt and influence the implementation of the PPP policy in USE were presumed to be explored from the interpretive and subjective perspectives on how they lived and perceived it (Crotty, 1998; Wendt, 2008). This backdrop indicates that this study employed theory-driven research questions through appropriate approaches to obtain the required data from a suitable combination of sources (Schurink, 2010; Bitektine & Miller, 2014).

1.4 Rationale of the Study

My main motivation to conduct this study was triggered by the urge to gain insights into the less known phenomenon of how and why stakeholders understand and experience the implementation of a policy (PPP policy in USE delivery) whose realities continued to attract some controversies from a spectrum of its stakeholders (MOES Report on USE National Headcount Exercise, 2014; Uganda End Decade EFA Assessment Report, 2015). Despite such controversies and misunderstandings, the government continued to maintain its policy stance and support towards its implementation. Yet some stakeholders' mixed reactions pointed not only to the possibilities of policy failure but also to their lack of a clear understanding of its implementation realities. Moreover, being a popular education policy reform that had gained prominence driven by its perceived ability to enhance human capacity development and equity benefits through increased access to USE delivery in the context of Uganda (NDP, 2010), this motivated me to attempt to understand how stakeholders experienced and made sense of its implementation realities from varying contexts and perspectives.

Besides, the ways in which its implementation guidelines (as contained in the MOU) could have affected both the internal and external stakeholders through policy implementation remained uncertain. Yet, it is presumed that individuals' lived experiences of a (policy) phenomenon need to be understood and interpreted from how they perceive it (Crotty, 1998; Cohen et al., 2007; Wendt; 2008). Such aforesaid knowledge gaps not only remained silent in the existing literature on education PPPs in the context of USE delivery in Uganda, but also from stakeholders' subjective viewpoints on how they experience and understand them.

While some international and local scholarships explore the implementation of PPPs in education (Tooley, 2005; Akyeampong, 2009; Kasenene, 2009; Rose, 2010; Srivastava,

2010; Mathonsi, 2012; Barungi et al., 2014), little is mentioned regarding how stakeholders understand, experience and influence it in the way they do and why. In view of this, local empirical studies on stakeholders' experiences of PPP policy implementation in USE and its CSFs in Uganda have not only been scarce but also methodologically limited, with hardly any use of phenomenological qualitative interpretive approaches to provide an in-depth understanding of this policy phenomenon. For example, Brans (2011) in his study in Uganda, used discourse analysis of policy documents and only looked at the perceptions of a few policy-makers, but did not visit the PPP schools to interview what he called "real or primary stakeholders" (head teachers, teachers, parents and community leaders as important stakeholders) to gain a deeper understanding of their lived experiences and understanding of PPP policy implementation in USE from an interpretive perspective. Similarly, Barungi et al. (2014), in their study on the performance of PPP in USE, whose scope was more evaluative than exploratory, hardly explored the stakeholders' experiences, influences and understanding of this policy.

From the international perspectives, Patrinos et al. (2009), in their study on the role and impacts of PPP in education, observed less evidence of PPP impact on education outcomes and suggested more research on the linkages between PPPs and education outcomes in different country-specific settings to provide enough evidence for drawing definite conclusions to inform education policy. Their study also did not go into exploring stakeholders' understanding and experiences of PPP implementation in education. Moreover, Pakistan Institute of Social and Policy Sciences (2010) argues that there is a lack of rigorous research on the PPPs because most of the existing evaluation data /information, which is little, is generated by the PPP programme owners themselves, who influence and stress the need for cautious interpretation of findings to suit their interests. The institute also emphasises that it is important that PPP evaluations are not just quantitative but should also include qualitative information. In view of such information gaps on the education PPP policy, which has nevertheless gained popularity and a significant reality in developing countries, deeper analysis through informed debate on its implications for the education sector was called for in order to elicit an immediate response necessary for creating a strong knowledge base which could help the policy-makers to take informed decisions (ibid).

In addition, for the PPP policy to achieve its objectives, identification of its CSFs is crucial. Some empirical evidence from non-education PPP studies (Jamali, 2004; Cheung et al., 2012) indicates that some CSFs for the implementation of PPP policies tend to be project/sector-

specific and that they differ across countries due their unique characteristics (Mannan,2014). However, hardly any documented scholarly evidence provides in-depth information on stakeholders' understanding and perceptions of CSFs for the implementation of PPP in USE, especially in the context of Uganda, from an interpretive perspective.

Therefore, such existing contextual, methodological and knowledge deficiencies as are highlighted in the policy environment and literature in the context of PPP implementation in education justified conducting this study. It was also timely and justified to explore the realities of what stakeholders experience and understand about its implementation realities from their viewpoints and perceptions in relation to its impacts on the quality of USE outcomes, its challenges and how they negotiate them, and what they perceive as critical factors for its successful implementation. What justified this exploratory qualitative study was the need to seek this knowledge and fill in such gaps so as to deepen understanding of how stakeholders experience and make sense of the PPP policy implementation in USE in the Ugandan context.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study is expected to make a significant contribution by deepening understanding of how and why stakeholders experience and make sense of the PPP policy in USE and its implementation realties from subjective viewpoints in the way they do in the context of Uganda. This study was designed to contribute through providing answers to the question on how and why some stakeholders in the PPP policy environment in USE delivery in Uganda perceive and implement it in the way they do. The anticipated theoretical and practical knowledge contributions from these policy debates in education PPPs was expected to provide useful information for making evidence-based decisions by education managers and policy-makers to inform and influence appropriate policy reforms or changes to achieve the desired policy goals through it successful implementation.

Furthermore, it was anticipated that the knowledge which stakeholders gain from the study findings on how and why they experience and make sense of PPP implementation realities like the impacts, the challenges experienced, the nature of value for money created, the quality of policy impacts on USE outcomes would contribute to their innovativeness in designing and identifying more efficient and equitable ways of making PPP implementation more successful. In this regard, the study also expected to contribute to the body of knowledge on CSFs for public-private partnerships implementation in education (USE).

The identification of CSFs for implementing PPPs in USE will also contribute towards the formulation of a best practice framework and appropriate strategies for the effective management and implementation of collaborative arrangements/contracts in the education sectors of developing countries, especially Uganda. Understanding of PPPs in education and how best they can be implemented to deliver quality education based on CSFs will widen the scope of innovative approaches for successful education management and policy implementation in developing countries. This study will also draw on lessons for managers and other stakeholders in resource-constrained education institutions regarding how to successfully manage them through collaborative arrangements based on PPP principles and the CSF framework.

Likewise, this study will fill in the existing knowledge gaps in the literature on the implementation of education PPP policies and how they are experienced, perceived and understood by stakeholders in the way they do. This contributes to new insights and better understanding of PPP policy realities and what practical meanings they have from stakeholders' perspectives informed by their lived experiences and challenges encountered in its implementation. Perhaps this will be important in shedding some light on questions relating to the success or failure factors for effective implementation of similar education PPP projects in developing countries. Finally, the findings of this study will be used not only for further academic research but also to inform and expand the ongoing education PPP policy debates globally.

1.6 Study Scope and Boundary

This exploratory qualitative case study is bound in terms of focus, phenomena, context, time, participants, place or geographical area of study and coverage (Stake, 2005; Cohen et al., 2007; Yin, 2009; Rule & John, 2011). The study focused on the period from 2007, when the policy was adopted, until 2016, the time of data collection. In order to obtain this information, some internal and external stakeholders in this policy, who were directly and indirectly involved in its implementation and were assumed to be information-rich regarding this policy, were purposively selected as study participants with their informed consent. The study participants, institutions and area of study were selected from among some government ministries and departments, partnership private secondary schools offering USE through the PPP policy in the urban, peri-urban and rural settings of Wakiso district local government. Their purposive selection was based on their involvement/participation, assumed

understanding, influences and experiences in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery in Uganda.

In this study, the concept of **policy implementation realities** denotes the policy *origin, purpose, implementation guidelines, its impacts and success*. The study sought to explore such policy realities from stakeholders' experiences, influences, perspectives and understandings. The content scope was mainly to gain an insightful understanding of how stakeholders comprehend and perceive such policy realities as well as its CSFs from their lived experiences as they negotiated its implementation.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis comprises the following chapters that are linked together in the construction of the story line for the creation of new knowledge, as explained in this section.

Chapter One introduces the context of the study. It begins by providing the relevant chronological background information from the global to local contexts drawn from key related prior PPP studies and relevant documents that helped in locating the research gap to which the study focuses. It goes on to provide the research problem, the study purpose, the research questions, the justification and the significance of the study. After that it points out what the study was about and why it was undertaken, i.e. the context and evolution of PPP in education in Uganda.

Chapter Two provides a review of the related literature that forms the basis of this study. It begins with a description of the concept of PPP in general terms, after which it narrows down, with specific reference to education PPPs. It is brings out the details of education PPPs and their rationale in education service delivery. It also gives a detailed discussion of different forms of PPPs in education, their impacts and challenges/barriers in their implementation from the international experiences. The chapter also explains the notion of CSFs, while pointing out clearly their context-specific key characteristics with regard to nature of projects, policy and country. It concludes with a summary analysis of the commonly mentioned empirical and theoretical issues, consistencies and contradictions, and unanswered questions in the literature on PPPs in both non-education and education sectors, from which some theoretical, knowledge and methodological gaps were identified and established – the focus of which this study sought to fill.

Chapter Three presents the theoretical framework that describes how the constructs and variables used in the study are conceptually linked to and conceived from Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory through an interpretive lens. It begins with a description of the stakeholder concept and goes on to show the hypothetical connections between the implementation of the PPP policy in USE and stakeholders' experiences, understanding, power, motives/interests and how they are believed to influence or be influenced in policy implementation. The chapter explains how stakeholders' understanding of the policy implementation realties of its impacts, challenges and critical success factors are theoretically related and influenced in this policy context. It further gives a description of Freeman's stakeholder theory together with its underlying assumptions and principles, on which this study is anchored. This chapter points out how this theoretical framework provides a lens for the categorisation of stakeholders as internal and external through stakeholder analysis criteria and how their actions are shaped, affect each other's and are affected by policy contexts through their power-importance-interest-influences as they negotiate its implementation.

Chapter Four presents the research methodology, stipulating how the study was implemented regarding how, what and where it was done. It comprises the research design, philosophical underpinnings, and methods of data collection and analysis used in this study. It begins with a description of the nature of the study (exploratory qualitative) and the research design (case study) under which it was conducted. This is followed by a discussion of the case study design employed in this study and the justification for it, the case study area, target population and study participants selected for this research, and explanations and justifications for their selection for this study. The chapter provides a description of the data collection methods and tools used, how data was analysed, the trustworthiness of the study findings and ascertained reflexivity as validity checks with regard to my position in this study. It concludes with research ethical issues and how I adhered to them in this current study.

Chapter Five presents analyses and interprets the study findings on how stakeholders understand and experience the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda. It focuses on stakeholders' understanding and perceptions of the policy origin, goals, impacts on access, quality, equity and its success, policy implementation guidelines and their experiences in its implementation, while focusing on similarities and differences in the ways they understand them and why. The chapter presents the study findings on stakeholders' understanding of the policy and its implementation realities according to the categories or

themes that emerged from convergences or similar ideas in their understanding and experiences of PPP policy implementation and its realities in USE delivery.

Chapter Six examines an understanding of what motivated and influenced stakeholders in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery in Uganda. It gives insights into the factors that influenced the stakeholders in the partnership and describes how such motives and influences shaped their actions and policy realities as they negotiated its implementation. It concludes with the theoretical and policy implications for such stakeholders' motivations and influences with regard to policy success.

Chapter Seven provides an understanding of stakeholders' perceptions of the CSFs necessary conditions or key factors for successful implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery from their lived experiences and understandings. It compares various stakeholders' understandings and perceptions of CSFs for this policy in relation to the empirical literature, theory and its contexts, impacts, success and/or failure for its effective implementation. It also points out some implications for each of the perceived factors in policy implementation based on stakeholders' viewpoints and experiences.

Chapter Eight presents the summary and discussion of key findings of the study in relation to the research questions, literature and theory that guided this study and their implications. It also provides major contributions to the study, the area for further research, the limitations, the conclusions and the recommendations. It begins with the presentation of key insights that emerge from the study, followed by a detailed discussion of each of them in relation to some existing literature and theoretical framework that informed it. It highlights each of the major findings, its implications for policy and the contributions made to the study as new knowledge in the field of education PPPs. Besides, it provides the limitations, lessons learned and policy recommendations made based on the study findings. It finally proposes areas for further research based on some study limitations and methodological gaps identified during the research process but are beyond the scope of the current study. It ends with the researcher's reflections on the entire study.

The next chapter is the literature review that draws on various aspects of PPPs to provide an understanding of what is known and unknown in order to establish the niche on which this current study focused itself within the confines of the existing and relevant scholarship on education PPPs.

CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

The literature review first presents the general explanation and understanding of the concept of PPP and its nature from various perspectives. It is followed by a section on PPPs in the context of education and the role of the state in PPP contractual arrangements. The third section critically reviews related literature on forms of PPPs in education, their impacts on education and the challenges from the global perspective. This is followed by a section that provides a general analysis of the critical success factors (CSFs) for the implementation of PPPs in the provision of public services and infrastructure. It finally concludes with a summary on key pertinent issues that appear to be pronounced in PPPs and identifies the information gaps in the literature on the experiences of stakeholders in the implementation of PPPs in education, at which the present study aims.

2.1 Understanding of the General Concept of PPP

Conceptually, PPPs refer to an arrangement between the public and private sectors for the procurement of goods and services, in which the private sector is contracted to provide public goods and services on behalf of the government. These are contractual arrangements which the government makes with private sector service providers to secure a defined quantity and quality of a specified service at an agreed price for a given period (LaRocque & Patrinos, 2006; LaRocque, 2008; Babatunde et al., 2012). Basically, PPPs are institutional arrangements in which the public and private sectors amalgamate resources with the sole aim of improving and increasing the provision of public services, as opposed to the case where the private and public sectors work independently of each other (Cheung, Chan & Kajewski, 2009).

It is one of the New Public Management (NPM) reforms of financing and delivering public services by governments with budgetary deficits (Murdock, 2004). Thus, PPPs are institutionalised forms of cooperation between the public and private actors resulting from continued budgetary constraints faced by governments in public service delivery and project implementation; and they are geared towards the improvement of existing services provided in partnership by both sectors where each sector/partner is allowed to do what it does best

(LaRocque, 2008; Babatunde et al., 2012). The concept of PPPs is more related to the ideology of giving increasing space to the private sector actors in the delivery of public services through well-designed and funded partnership initiatives or collaborations between government agencies/ministries and private sector companies. Such collaborative arrangements enhance the opportunities for increasing the role and involvement of the private sector in the provision of public services while reducing both the financial and administrative burdens to the government (Cheung et al., 2009; Chaudhry & Uboweja, 2014). PPPs are perceived as a market-oriented model that provides cost-effective solutions to the problems faced in accessing quality public services (Verger & Moschetti, 2016).

The central philosophy behind PPPs is that all organisations have strengths, but no organisation has all the strengths required to do everything (Rotter et al., 2010). In line with this argument, Luthra and Mahajan (2014, 803) maintain that "the primary purpose of PPPs is to seek a collaborative engagement that builds on the strength of different players and creates a whole greater than the sum of the parts". Therefore, where a government experiences fiscal deficits, improved public service delivery can effectively be achieved through PPPs by combining and sharing their strengths, expertise, resources and other benefits together with those of the private sector.

In this context, Education International (2009, 172) describes PPPs in education as partnerships/contractual arrangements through which the private sector participates in the provision and operations of public education service delivery. PPPs in education are aimed at promoting improvements in the financing and provision of accessible quality education services from both the public and private sectors but not to increase the role of one over the other. Globally, studies on PPPs in education (LaRocque, 2008; Oketch, 2009; Patrinos et al., 2009; UNESCO, 2010; Sehba, 2013) indicate that PPPs, as mechanisms for introducing the private sector into its delivery, can make a positive difference in reorienting education towards improved access, efficiency, competition and quality in its systems, delivery and outcomes. While the debate on PPPs in education in emerging economies is driven by the inability of governments to provide enough and acceptable levels of education owing to budgetary constraints, their promotion in developed nations is instead highly linked with issues of choice, efficiency and competition (LaRocque, 2009). This implies that the adoption and attractiveness of PPPs in different countries may differ based on the existing circumstances and the objectives of each country (Teshome, 2014).

Relatedly, Malik (2010) observes that in developing countries, the provision of equitable and quality education with the aim to achieve MDGs (now SDGs) and EFA goals is still largely a constitutional responsibility of the state, yet some of these economies are too resource-constrained to adequately fulfil it solely through their public sector. To achieve success in this endeavour with lower risks and costs, the governments of some of the emerging economies have adopted PPPs in education as strategic reforms. This was also aimed at encouraging and supporting the involvement of private schools and other non-state actors in providing and improving access and equity as well as the quality of their education systems amidst resource-constraint challenges.

According to Latham (2009), PPPs share a number of common characteristics as part of their nature. They are formal in nature, involve the development of a long-term relationship between the partners, are outcome-focused with an element of risk-sharing among its partners, and can involve both the voluntary and commercial private sector partners. Similarly, Hogan Lovells (2011) states that, PPPs are a model of public procurement based on long-term relationships between central government or public sector agencies and the private sector actors for the provision of services. However, PPPs' emphasis on service provision, value for money and length of relationships makes them different from a more traditional procurement arrangement. Based on the aforementioned argument, Latham (2009) and Hogan Lovells (2011) demonstrate the key principles underlying PPP arrangements as: 1) the allocation of risks to the most appropriate party (public or the private sector participant) that is most able to manage those risks; 2) payment for services when and only when delivered; and 3) ensuring that value for money in terms of both the overall cost to government and the level and quality of services delivered is achieved through structures and the contractual arrangements made. Therefore, for developing countries with public sector budget constraints, PPPs in education seem to offer opportunities to attract and explore the private sector resource potential to meet a wide range of emerging educational needs for promoting increased access to and quality of education.

2.2 Rationale of PPPs in Education

While education is viewed as a necessary service in every country for enhancing the development of socio-economic capabilities for its citizens and society, the resource potential for financing and providing it adequately remains limited and a key challenge, particularly in developing countries (Amuche & Kukwi, 2013; Luthra & Mahajan, 2013). In response to this

phenomenon, some budget-constrained countries have adopted PPPs as viable policy options for providing and financing quality education by promoting private sector involvement and participation in its delivery. Luthra and Mahajan (2013, 803) argue that "poor performance of public schools combined with non-affordability of private sector schools by [the] majority of parents is another underpinning for why public-private partnership is needed". In line with this, Draxler (2008) sees PPPs as complementary mechanisms that can provide enhanced expertise, synergies, resources and responses to societal needs in times of tight and constrained public sector budgets. Similarly, the World Bank contends that in developing countries, the rationale for partnerships is driven by the demand for access to schooling, and the need to tap private resources where the state cannot afford EFA. Indeed, the literature promoting education PPPs puts a strong emphasis on the achievement of access to EFA – which is one of the SDGs. This corroborates Malik's (2010) assertion PPP is a means of increasing access to affordable quality education on a sustainable basis.

In a recent study on PPPs in school education in India, Chaundary and Uboweja (2014) point out the rationale for education PPPs as the need to increase access to quality schooling in underserved and resource-constrained communities, because they serve as innovative centres for improving access to education, besides improving equity and the quality of education for the marginalised groups in such societies. Basing their analysis on evidence and lessons from countries with well-designed and implemented PPPs in education, they confirmed that PPPs are appropriate ways and means of exploring and improving educational opportunities for children in low-income communities. Relatedly, Patrinos et al. (2009, p.33) note that "the final objectives of PPPs in education are to increase the enrolment rates and improve the quality of education outcomes (such as standardised test scores and dropout rates), particularly for students from low-income families".

According to Forrer et al. (2010), the rationale for PPPs has both ideological and pragmatic perspectives:

Ideologically, proponents of PPPs argue that [the] private sector is superior to [the] public sector in producing and delivering more goods and services; and pragmatically, PPPs are viewed by government as ways of attracting special technical expertise, funding, and innovations from [the] private sector to address complex public policy problems.

This supports Akyeampong's (2009) argument that the rise and attractiveness of PPPs in education are influenced by the success stories of some non-state providers who seem to have

demonstrated success in the delivery of quality education to meet their educational outcomes compared to the state agency providers.

Likewise, Fennell (2010) confirms that PPPs in education are driven by the greater efficiency, superiority in ability and corporate financing benefits of the private sector, from which the public sector can acquire more synergies in enhancing access to and the delivery of quality education. In view of this, some developing countries (such as Nigeria and Ghana, among others) have pursued collaborations with the successful private sector actors to explore such hidden non-state sector potential in financing and providing quality education. In line with this, Chaudhry and Uboweja (2014) point out that, PPPs in the education sphere serve to improve the quality of education service delivery by bringing the existing capacity of the government system together with the innovation of the private sector to improve the quality of the system as a whole. This is also in line with what Luthra and Mahakam (2014) point out, i.e. that PPPs create a whole greater than the sum of the parts.

Though the private sector has been greatly criticised for its exploitative tendencies in the delivery of school education in developing countries (Shikha Mahajan et al., 2013), some international experiences and lessons from education PPP-practising countries (like India, Pakistan, Ghana and Nigeria, among others) demonstrate that, by working together with the public sector through formal PPPs in education, the private sector plays a vital role in improving access to schooling while improving the quality of educational outcomes. Similarly, Lewis and Patrinos (2011) affirm that PPP in education not only improves the quality of education through the competition created between private and public schools in the education market, but also promotes flexibility and efficiency in its delivery with an increased level of risk-sharing among partners.

These positive educational outcomes are said to be associated with the innovative pedagogical and school management techniques that are ushered in by potential private sector operators through education partnerships (Patrinos et al., 2009; Malik, 2010; Mahmoud, 2013; Chaundary & Uboweja, 2014). Moreover, Education International (2007) considers PPPs in education as a strategy for attracting private sector participation and resources for the expansion of educational opportunities in situations of public budget and tax revenue constraints.

In a study on success stories and lessons learnt from different countries, sectors and projects, the World Bank (2014) confirms that the rise in PPPs has been noted in developing countries

to be a mechanism for attracting and crowding in private investments and expertise for economic growth and development amidst budgetary challenges and resource constraints from traditional domestic public sources. The World Bank also points out that the rapid move of PPPs to key social service delivery areas of education and health by most economies, unlike in the past where they were restricted to physical investments in non-social sectors, has been due to market failures and the need to minimise public sector shortcomings and the associated risks in their delivery. Economically, the arguments of scarcity of public sector resources and market failures in public service delivery are key justifications for the adoption of PPPs in most developing countries (Patrinos et al., 2009; World Bank, 2014).

According to Sehba (2013), PPPs in education, through harnessing the potential of affordable and well managed private schools, are a ray of hope for children missing schooling and those encountering a low quality of education in declining public schools. For instance, in some education PPP initiatives (like the 'Adopt-a-School programme' in Pakistan), private sector actors adopt declining public schools to provide time, management skills and expertise and to pursue positive school reforms in order to improve students' achievements and learning. In this model, the public sector provides school premises, basic funding and teacher training to create an enabling policy environment in education service delivery.

2.2.1 Role of the state in PPPs

In the pursuit of educational goals of increased access to equitable quality education through PPPs, the state remains responsible for the delivery of education as it is considered a right and public good for its citizens (UNGEI & SAFED, 2011; Capuno, 2014). The role of the state in PPP contracts is essentially to define the scope of business; to specify priorities, targets and outputs; to protect the public interest and to conduct effective monitoring of the non-state actors; and to finance (in some cases), regulate and set the performance regime by which the management of the PPP is given incentives to deliver. On the other hand, the essential role and responsibility of the private sector in all PPPs is to deliver the service with a view to achieving the objectives of the PPPs on terms that offer value for money (VfM) to the public sector (LaRocque, 2008; Srivastava, 2010). This has created a new paradigm shift in the role of the state through PPPs (Rose, 2010). The state's role calls for the creation and provision of an enabling environment and financing options for promoting the participation of non-state actors in public service delivery. The new paradigm shift suggests changing the states' traditional roles from being the *prime actor*, *provider and manager* to being *the*

financier, enabler and regulator, unless it is extremely necessary for it to provide and manage public service delivery (Rose, 2010; Srivastava, 2010; UNGEI & SAFED, 2011).

The shift in the role of the state in education service delivery through PPPs has attracted some reactions and questions from its critics. These relate to whether the government is not withdrawing from its core functions of providing free education as a public good and its management, or if the state is having the capacity to fulfil regulatory functions in a transparent manner and in the best interest of the marginalised without being exploited by the private sector providers (UNGEI & SAFED, 2011). However, Mamun et al. (2013) argue that PPPs do not imply less government involvement but a shift to a different role for improved public service delivery based on equity and quality-focused targets. In support of this, Srivastava (2010, p.544) states that "regardless of the type of private sector intervention in [the] delivery of merit goods, government intervention is desirable, as without it there will be inequities of access eventually leading to negative social consequences".

In conclusion, it has been noted that the key factor for the marked increase in PPPs globally in a wide range of activities and service delivery has been mainly driven by limitations in public funds for investment requirements and the need for the efficient delivery of quality public services. While there are controversies in public debates on PPPs and while PPPs are not a panacea in the education sector, they provide resource-constrained countries with viable innovative mechanisms and synergies for not only expanding access to affordable quality education to the underprivileged in urban, peri-urban and rural areas, but also for improving the quality of education and efficiency in its delivery at all levels whilst encouraging gender equity (Malik, 2010; Srivastava, 2010; Mahmoud, 2013). Sieving from the above arguments, the principal reason for using PPPs is that, where the project is suitable and government financing constraints exist, PPPs can deliver better value for money in terms of the quality and quantity of the public service than other alternatives. Once the partnership is formed, the success of the partnership project relies on the strength of the alliance and the competencies that each partner brings into the project (Minnie, 2011).

In the delivery of public education service, it is important to distinguish between two different policy instruments that governments may use – that of financier of education and that of provider of education. Governments may use either or both to achieve their policy objectives. While schools may be privately owned, governments can ensure access to privately offered education for the poor by providing public funding to students to offset fees.

Alternatively, resource-constrained public sector economies may collaborate with financially stable private firms or organisations to finance the provision of education services offered in public schools. In this case, the government is the provider but not the financier of education. Such different policy approaches form the basis for many and different forms of the PPPs in education (LaRocque, 2010).

2.3 Forms of PPPs in Education

To understand the operations of PPPs in education, one needs to know the various forms of PPPs and how they differ depending on the types of the contractual arrangements made, their historical evolution and the socio-economic motivation of the actors involved in them (Fennell, 2010). According to Education International (2008), PPP models are categorised based on how and what kind of education service is procured from the private sector by the state. The private sector providers of education services with which the state can work through PPP include: the commercially-driven private schools; NGOs; philanthropic associations and foundations; faith-based organisations; and community-based organisations (CBOs), among others. Education International (2009) and the World Bank (2009) highlight the common forms of PPPs in education delivery. They include: private management of public schools; education vouchers/subsidies and scholarships; contracting the delivery of education services (purchase of educational services from private schools); school infrastructure initiatives; capacity-building initiatives; education philanthropic initiatives; and private sector quality assurance, among others. In this regard, most PPPs in education are of the contracting model, as explained below.

2.3.1 Private management of public schools

In this form of education PPP, private firms or organisations are contracted by a public agency/government to operate and manage some selected public schools in which the agency's/government's management and performance are said to have been weak over time. The contracted management operations may involve financial management, staff/human resource management, planning and leadership of a selected government school(s). However, such schools remain publicly owned and publicly funded, but the contracted private partner is paid a fixed amount per student or a management fee for services offered (Education International, 2009; Patrinos et al., 2009).

This PPP model is based on empirical evidence from international experiences which indicate that better students' performance and school management are more associated with privately operated schools that are publicly funded than publicly operated schools or institutions. In relation to this, the World Bank has observed that many governments have found it appropriate to separate the financing of education from its provision through such PPP arrangements. Therefore, partnerships in which the private sector is an operator and the public sector is the financier, have the potential to provide increased access to quality education within the reach of the available public sector education budget (Patrinos et al., 2009, 5-6).

2.3.2 Contracting of educational service delivery

The PPP model of education service delivery contracting is where the government or public sector agency, such as the MOES, purchases/procures places for students (at a fixed cost per student) in selected eligible private sector schools. In this PPP model, the government contracts private schools to enroll students, particularly in underserved areas or poor communities of the country where there is insufficient or complete lack of spaces for enrolling more students in local public schools. The objective of this form of education PPP is to increase access to and improve the quality of education services mainly in the poor regions of the country that are underserved or not served at all by the existing school system (Patrinos et al., 2009; LaRocque, 2011).

Such forms of PPP arrangement are characterised by formal contracts between the government and selected schools with clear terms and conditions of payment for each student enrolled. These private schools must meet certain criteria in order to qualify for this PPP programme (e.g. they must be registered and meet other minimum standards relating to the quality of teachers and infrastructure) and, also, are held accountable for students' performance. According to LaRocque (2011), some budget-constrained governments find contracting private sector schools that are eligible to deliver the required education services a cheaper option than expanding some existing schools or building new ones in the same locality.

It is within this form of education PPP policy context that the implementation of PPP in USE in Uganda is located. The Government of Uganda, through the MOES, in partnership with eligible private secondary schools, adopted this PPP model to increase access to equitable quality USE in the country. The *contracting out of education service delivery* model as part

of PPP arrangements in education is one in which the state purchases educational services from private schools. In the USE-PPP model, the Ugandan government guides policy and provides finances to procure USE services while the contracted private sector schools (PPP schools) deliver USE to a specific number of enrolled students on behalf of the government (LaRoque, 2008; MOES, 2012). This contracting form of the PPP model is in line with what Taylor (2003) and the World Bank (2009) have described, in which the government contracts a private sector provider to deliver a defined quantity and quality of a specified service at an agreed price for a specified period. Similarly, some countries, such as the Philippines, Pakistan, Côte d'Ivoire, Argentina and Canada, have adopted a similar education PPP model not only to increase access but also to improve the quality of education at various levels (Patrinos et al., 2009).

2.3.3 Outsourcing of professional education and support services

In situations where there are limitations to the public sector capacity to deliver education-related professional services like teacher training, curriculum design and/or delivery of specialist curricula, quality assurance, examinations assessment, school evaluation or inspection, school improvement programmes, supply of textbooks and other learning materials to the public schools, the government will contract out their provision with private sector providers (World Bank, 2009; LaRocque, 2010). This mode of education service delivery is not only beneficial in terms of saving costs and tapping into a wide range of private sector professional skills for skill enrichment and quality improvement in public schools, but it also adds more value to the expertise and core competencies of private sector providers for their professional competitiveness (Patrinos et al., 2009).

Equally, in cases of inefficient and costly deliveries of non-educational support services like canteens, school meals/catering, transport, health care, cleaning services or building maintenance and operating students' hostels in public education institutions, the government can contract them out for cost-effectiveness, to free up school staff and education resources so that they can concentrate on school management issues, learning and research processes (LaRocque, 2011; Mathonsi, 2012).

2.3.4 Education vouchers and subsidies

In the context of education, vouchers are a popular financing mechanism under PPPs through which the state may provide funding for accessing free educational services. This may be done through giving vouchers directly to families for demand-side financing, or to private schools directly as supply-side financing (UNGEI & SAFED, 2011). This form of public-private interaction of financing and providing education through vouchers enables more children to access or attend private schooling. School vouchers are a certificate or entitlement that parents can use to pay for the education of their children at a public or private school of their choice, rather than the public school to which they have been assigned. The decision to attend a particular school is made by the parents, rather than the government. Vouchers are paid directly from a public entity to parents or to schools directly on parents' behalf. In case fixed payments per student are made to the government, then the schools that participate in voucher schemes are required to meet certain preconditions in order to remain in the voucher programme/contract with the government (LaRocque, 2011).

Similarly, by way of subsidies, some selected private sector schools enter into partnership with the government to provide schooling to specific groups of enrolled students and, in return, they receive state funds based on the cost per student. The overall aim of using subsidies and vouchers as forms of education PPP by governments is to increase access and improve the quality of education through the existing private schools, mainly for low-income households, rather than building and equipping new public schools amidst public budget limitations (Patrinos et al., 2009; LaRocque, 2011). In this way, the state is seen to be moving away from its direct role of education provision while focusing on funding through vouchers and subsidies (Robertson et al., 2012).

2.3.5 Infrastructure PPPs

According to Education International (2009), infrastructure PPPs in the context of education is a form of partnership in which a private sector operator is granted a concession (franchise) to finance and build a given public school facility/infrastructure (such as classroom block, library or students' hostel) and operate it for an agreed period, after which it is transferred to the government or relevant public sector authorities. Infrastructure PPPs differ from other forms discussed above in that the private sector provides the capital required to finance the contracted school project facility. Following the contract specifications on the services to deliver and the standards to be met, the private sector takes on the agreed functions such as design, building, operation and maintenance, upon which payments are made by the government during or after project completion. The private sector may operate the facility until the end of the contract period, or the government may lease the facility from the private sector for a specified period, after which it is transferred to the government (World Bank, 2006; LaRocque, 2011).

One popular model of PPP in education infrastructure projects is referred to as "build - operate-transfer (BOT)". *BOT* is the type of PPP that involves large infrastructure projects in the education sector, where a private sector operator is granted a franchise (concession) to finance, build and operate an educational facility such as a public school, university building or hostel. The government, in effect, leases the facility from the private sector for a specified period, after which it is transferred to the government.

2.3.6 Educational philanthropy

Educational philanthropy is another common form of partnership through which private sector actors are encouraged to partner with the government to address public schools' problems and challenges like shortages of classrooms, desks and textbooks in order to improve quality and broaden educational access. It is through such philanthropic initiatives that a number of individuals, research institutions, NGOs, charity organisations, private sector firms and organisations, corporate associations and foundations (e.g. the Aga Khan Foundation) generously donate goods, services or cash to schools as part of organised corporate social responsibility (CSR) or collaborative initiatives to improve education quality and broaden its access (LaRocque, 2011). It involves a broader range of educational provision programmes, such as private financing of scholarships/vouchers for students, staff or faculty development for training and further education, construction and upgrading of education facilities, provision of books and other instructional materials, and modernisation of instructional technologies (LaRocque, 2011). Educational philanthropy, unlike other forms of partnership, involves resource/finance transfers from the private sector to public sector education facilities whenever the resources are available from philanthropy.

In the final analysis, LaRocque (2011) asserts that the implementation of PPPs in education is one of the pragmatic approaches to fulfilling the right to education by the state amidst the persistent budgetary and institutional constraints that it experiences. Furthermore, in the context of *value for money*, PPP can provide a broad umbrella, which can shelter and protect the public interest while bringing investment potential and added value from the private sector. As argued by Tony Blair (1998), *the days of the all-purpose authority that plans and delivers everything are gone*. Therefore, the future of governments lies in public partnership with other potential private companies, community groups and voluntary organisations in capacity-building for effective education service delivery.

2.4 PPPs and Their Impacts in Education

Historically, partnerships between the public authorities and private sector entities in the provision of education services in some countries existed long before the PPP global debates became widespread. They emerged as a viable alternative to improving access to quality school education while ensuring equity and social justice (World Bank, 2011). In developing countries, PPPs in education gained momentum in the 1980s as one of the strategic options to address the budgetary constraints and other challenges confronting their education service delivery systems (Malik, 2007; World Bank, 2009).

According to Patrinos et al. (2009), owing to persistent failures and equity concerns in the education markets of most developing countries where the public sector is a key player in the financing and provision of education services, PPPs in education are seen as appropriate supportive ways of improving the delivery of public education. This corresponds with Akyeampong's (2009) study findings about three non-state education providers in Ghana. He found that PPPs in education work well in serving the needs of the disadvantaged and hard-to-reach children if resources are made available to support the educational programme. In this regard, PPPs in education with better in-built institutional mechanisms of transparency and accountability can provide quality education, especially for the underserved sections of society and for achieving MDGs (Malik, 2013).

Likewise, Mathonsi (2012), using stakeholder theory, conducted a study to explore the suitability of the PPP model in improving the quality of education in South African rural communities. He used in-depth interviews to collect data from education experts and headmasters as key stakeholders in PPP in education. He categorised the stakeholders based on their power, legitimacy and the urgency with which they influenced decision-making and the regulation of PPP in education. The study findings reveal that PPP in education is a suitable model to improve the quality of education in South African rural community schools. This study partly supports Fennell's (2007) argument that PPPs in education have been driven by the need to finance and improve on the provision of quality education in ailing school systems. However, his study hardly mentions the stakeholders' understanding and experiences in implementing PPP as a model of education service delivery in South Africa from their own viewpoints.

Furthermore, the World Bank (2013) and Cook (2013) argue that PPPs in education expand equitable access and improve learning outcomes, mostly in low-income countries which experience demand for education that outstrips the state/public sector's capacity to provide it. Likewise, OECD (2007) notes that the introduction of PPPs in education addresses issues such as new financing arrangements to enable governments to bring forward their works programmes. Besides that it meets the demand for new projects; it brings additional new skills and tighter discipline which focuses on the planning and delivery of building projects and their associated services; and it provides innovation in the planning and delivery of services and in financing arrangements. Therefore, PPPs enable governments which have fiscal deficits to utilise alternative private sector sources of finance as well as their unique expertise and management skills to deliver quality education.

Related work by Patrinos, Osorio and Guaqueta (2009) on the role and impact of PPPs in education indicates that increasing the private sector's participation in education through PPPs can lead to greater efficiency, increased education choice and wider access to government educational services, particularly for people who are poorly served by the traditional/public schools. Furthermore, the authors argue that increased involvement in education through contracting not only increases the expertise and capacity of the education sector but also increases enrolment, improves the quality of educational outcomes and broadens access to education for low-income families. However, based on their study, evaluating the impact of PPPs in education has been cited as the main challenge and on which information is still scanty. Though international evidence suggests that some PPPs positively impact on education (Patrinos et al., 2009), it remains a context-policy issue of interest for comparative purposes to which this study of PPP policy in USE in Uganda aims to contribute from stakeholders' understandings and perceptions.

2.5 Challenges Experienced in the Implementation of PPPs

This section looks at the challenges experienced in the implementation of PPPs from the international and local perspectives. The debate on this continues to examine and establish the possible challenges which stakeholders subjectively experience in the implementation of PPPs, particularly in education.

2.5.1 International challenges experienced in implementation of PPPs

Globally, PPP implementation is not without challenges. For instance, experiences from Indonesia identify key PPP implementation challenges as follows: lack of capacity among public sector and local government actors who are unfamiliar with the PPP mechanisms; poor governance and coordination of PPP activities between government agencies and other stakeholders; overlapping regulations in the implementation of the PPPs; financing problems which attract very poorly qualified people or firms that result directly in poor quality of services offered; and lack of socialisation from stakeholders (Strategic Asia, 2012). Besides, the World Economic Forum Report (2005) identifies difficulties in negotiating and implementing PPP agreements as: failure to gain political will and public support for the participation of the private sector; disagreements on key performance targets; lack of transparency and accountability.

Similarly, experiences from Viet Nam indicate that limited success in PPP implementation is associated with the existing legal, regulatory, institutional and financial constraints (Asian Development Bank, 2012). Moreover, the World Bank (2014) confirms a number of key concerns and challenges that limit the successful implementation of PPPs and the effective participation of the private sector in public service delivery. These include regulatory failure; lack of institutional integrity and the capacity to monitor or enforce PPP contractual obligations effectively; delays and inappropriate handling of PPP project issues; high business and political risks associated with PPPs; and lack of transparent, competent and corrupt-free PPP authorities in developing countries

In the context of education PPPs, SAFED and UNGEI (2011), in their study on perspectives and challenges of partnerships for equity in education in South Asia, identify the following as the challenges experienced: the absence of PPP implementation guidelines and regulatory frameworks for promoting PPPs; limited institutional presence and capacity to manage PPPs; inadequate government funding for PPPs; lack of coordination and communication among governments and non-state partners; and inadequate application of standards for private educational institutions for quality assurance. With regard to education PPPs in Pakistan, Sehba (2013) identifies the following as the implementation challenges: the private sector motive of profit-making rather than philanthropy; mutual mistrust among partners; insufficient monitoring of the PPP programme; lack of transparency in making PPP contracts due to political influence or connections; lack of continuity attributed to changes in government; and the withdrawal of private sector partners.

Relatedly, experiences from Ghana on PPPs in the provision of basic education by Akyeampong (2009) indicate the following as the key challenges to PPP implementation: uncertainty about the future of some non-state providers; limited public resources for PPP activities; differences in the aims of private providers (profit motive) and the public sector (value for money) in the partnership; reliance on state funding by private sector providers to survive yet financing from the public sector is less secure and unreliable (absence of financial commitment from the state); the co-existence of different organisational cultures with regard to accountability issues; and lighter regulation of the public system than the private sector providers. Put simply, evidence from the literature indicates that most countries commonly experience the challenges of weak regulatory frameworks; inadequate capacity and resources for the management of PPPs; and differences in partners' motives for PPPs. However, most empirical studies highlighted above hardly provide in-depth information on how stakeholders in PPP projects experience and understand them in the way they do from their subjective viewpoints.

2.5.2 Stakeholders' experiences in implementation of PPPs

This section provides stakeholders' experiences in the implementation of PPPs in various aspects and contexts from their viewpoints. It is premised on the fact that stakeholders involved in the implementation of PPPs do not operate in a vacuum (Yuen, 2005). As such, they ought to experience some challenges in the implementation of PPPs. For instance, Hodge and Greve (2011) argue that most PPPs have inherent political, institutional and state influences on PPP implementation and objectives, which stakeholders experience in performing their partnership roles. Thus, for any PPP contractual arrangements, the state (public sector) and the private sector actors, as internal PPP stakeholders in the provision of some public infrastructure or services, usually experience such political and institutional challenges. In his study on PPP in the procurement of public infrastructure in Uganda, Ndandiko (2006) confirms that political interference, lack of appropriate legal and regulatory frameworks, delays in effecting payments, incompetent service providers, poor quality services and corruption are key shortcomings experienced by stakeholders. The above international and local evidence suggests that political and institutional challenges are commonly experienced in the implementation of PPPs.

However, the Tanzania case study shows that a number of constraints and weaknesses in the regulatory framework, poor coordination, inadequate financial support, lack of stakeholders'

trust, commitment and accountability, inadequate human resource capacity and utilisation, poor access to essential drugs and non-adherence to professionalism were the key challenges faced by stakeholders in the implementation of PPPs in the health sector (Itika, Mashindano & Kessy, 2013). Similarly, while employing both transactional theory and stakeholders' theory, Basheka, Nsasira and Oluka (2013) note the following as the major stakeholders' experiences in the implementation of PPPs in energy generation in Uganda: the lack of capacity to implement successful PPPs in electricity generation; corruption in procurement processes; and lack of government capacity to plan, negotiate, implement and successfully monitor the PPP projects. In view of this, Jomo, Chowdhury, Sharma and Platz (2016, p.22) suggest that countries experiencing such challenges should put in place the relevant institutional capacity to create, manage and evaluate PPPs as a necessary condition for their effectiveness. This supports Grimsey and Lewis's (2004) argument that governments, as partners, must manage and coordinate PPP contractual relationships with a planned network of functions (roles and responsibilities) for their effectiveness.

Though the above indicates that there is an abundance of extant literature on both the international and local challenges experienced in PPP implementation, most studies mainly focus on non-education PPP case studies. Besides, there is limited scholarship on how individual stakeholders subjectively experience and understand their implementation realities in education, particularly in the context of PPP in USE delivery. Yet understanding of stakeholders' experiences (within and across their dichotomies/groups) and how they make sense of PPP implementation realities has vital policy and practical implications for its success. Moreover, Grimsey and Lewis (2006) affirm that, because the PPP process is a relatively new concept and relatively complex, it requires all parties (stakeholders) to understand the realities shaping it. This depicts the knowledge gap to which the current study aims to contribute using experiences from the context of PPPs in USE delivery in Uganda.

The lessons learnt from the aforementioned global experiences and challenges indicate that not all PPPs have been successful in terms of performance outcomes. However, some success stories have been registered in a few country-specific cases where strong public sector institutions existed with PPP-enabling policies, guidelines, regulations, strong government political support, and adequate technical and financial capacity (Malik, 2010; ADB, 2012; Capuno, 2014). Besides, the World Economic Forum Report (2005) recommends engagement of a senior champion for the PPP arrangement; agreeing on shared clear

objectives from the beginning of the partnership; and that public agencies, philanthropic companies or development assistance agencies should provide specific support services to schools that wish to generate their own income as strategies for success in PPPs.

Likewise, Patrinos et al. (2009) advocate the provision of a sound basis for the establishment of the private school sector, with a framework for evaluating the outcomes of PPP contracts, the involvement of international organisations in encouraging the growth of PPPs while ensuring that the PPP contracting agency has adequate capacity, and the establishment of appropriate performance measures as well as the provision of performance incentives for better results and sanctions for inadequate performance in PPP contracts. They also suggest the development of an effective communications strategy to inform parents and the public about the benefits and objectives of PPPs in education. Furthermore, they suggest establishing quality assurance processes, clear objectives and streamlined criteria and processes for selecting, establishing and registering private schools to participate in PPPs, as well as the use of transparent and competitive strategies for the successful implementation of PPPs in education.

In a related study on PPP challenges in the UK, Reim (2009) considers the management of PPPs to be conflicting with non-alignment of public and private interests; accountability due to non-compliance with the principles of transparency, responsibility and responsiveness; risk management; and high transaction costs of establishing and managing PPPs (which indicate inefficiency). While he argues that that the success of PPPs has no single formula, he sees the choice of the right private partner by the public party/state, political legitimacy, a comprehensive PPP policy implementation plan, clear governance structures, effective incentives and commitment as critical factors for its effectiveness.

Some of the aforementioned international and local challenges experienced in the implementation of PPPs and the recommendations made to overcome them form the basis of what makes them successful as hybrid service delivery mechanisms. Such mechanisms can be leveraged to overcome government shortcomings and market failures encountered in the provision and financing of public services in the emerging resource-constrained economies. However, the success of PPPs in public service delivery depends on some contextualised critical success factors for their effective implementation. These factors seem to be specific and different across countries, projects and contexts, as elaborated in the next section.

2.6 The Critical Success Factors for PPPs

The concept of critical success factors (CSFs) was first introduced by Rockart (1982) and the Sloan School of Management (Jefferies et al., 2002; Hardcastle et al., 2005). They define CSFs as "those few key areas of activity in which favourable results are absolutely necessary for a particular manager to reach his or her own goals". According to Basheka et al. (2011), a CSF is what is necessary for an organisation or project to achieve its mission. CSFs are significantly important for organisations to identify essential elements on which they should focus for project success. Thus, the CSF approach can be used as a means to identify key factors for organisational or project success (Li et al., 2005; Chan et al., 2010).

In the CSF literature, some studies have pointed out trust, openness, fairness and mutual respect (Pongsiri, 2002; Jamali, 2004) as critical factors for the successful implementation of various PPPs. Similarly, Cheung et al. (2012) conducted a study that compared Hong Kong with Australia and the UK relating to PPP projects to identify their CSFs. They used a questionnaire survey with a five-point likert scale to collect data which they assessed using factor analysis, among other quantitative methods, to identify the comparative CSFs for the PPP projects in those countries. Their findings reveal that out of the total of 18 success factors that were rated/ranked by the respondents as CSFs for a successful PPP, the top five success factors that were ranked highly in Hong Kong had similar ranking positions in Australia and the UK. They included: a favourable legal framework; commitment and responsibility on the part of the public and private sectors; a strong and good private consortium; stable macro-economic conditions; and appropriate risk allocation and risk-sharing.

Recent work on PPPs in infrastructural service delivery in Nigeria by Babatunde et al. (2012) identifies nine CSFs, namely: a competitive procurement process; a thorough and realistic assessment of the cost and benefits; a favourable framework; appropriate risk allocation and risk-sharing; government involvement by providing a guarantee; political support; stable macroeconomic conditions; a sound economic policy; and the availability of a suitable financial market. Out of the identified CSFs, the ones found to be most important to the public clients include: transparency in the procurement process; shared authority between the public and the private sectors; a thorough and realistic assessment of the costs and benefits; commitment and responsibility of the public and the private sectors; and a strong and good private consortium. On the other hand, the CSFs that are most important to the private sector

providers include: a well organised and committed public agency; social support; project technical feasibility; and multi-benefits objectives. Likewise, Ismail and Ajija (2013), in their study on CSFs for PPP implementation in Malaysia, identify good governance, commitment on the part of public and private sectors, a favourable legal system, a sound economic policy and the availability of financial markets as the top five CSFs for PPP implementation. Unlike Abdul Aziz (2010), who focused on ten PPP housing projects, Ismail and Ajija's (ibid.) study centred on CSFs for overall PPP implementation in the entire Malaysian economy.

Furthermore, Siering and Svensson (2012), using stakeholder theory in investigating the management of external stakeholder relationships in multidimensional PPP projects, argue that project managers require heterogeneous skills to handle diverse project stakeholders for their success and sustainability. Thus, addressing all project stakeholders' interests and working towards its success makes PPPs a potential solution in satisfying their needs (Rotter et al., 2010).

In a related study on CSFs for implementing an enterprise resource planning (ERP) project in higher education in Saudi Arabia, Abeer et al. (2011) used two types of questionnaires that were designed on a five-point Likert scale to measure CSFs by the degree of importance and from a user satisfaction perspective. In order to identify more effective CSFs with a significant effect on project implementation, the SPSS software was used to analyse data. Ten CSFs were identified, with *project management* and *project selection* having more significant effects on project implementation than other factors.

Likewise, Downess (2006), basing on the Caribbean experience, adds a number of factors to the list of CSFs for PPP in education, including: having a goal-oriented mission and institutional plans; flexibility to cater for the changing needs of the economic environment and the partners; reduced bureaucratic controls to accommodate the interests of the partners; stakeholders' commitment to the partnership; and the provision of adequate funding to ensure the financial sustainability of P

Ultimately, a critical observation arising from the different PPP studies is that some CSFs seem to be country- and project-specific while others appear to be universally applicable to PPP projects irrespective of their jurisdiction. For example, evidence obtained from the two studies on the CSFs for PPPs in Hong Kong, Australia, the UK and Nigeria, relating to a diversity of (non-educational) projects, indicates that appropriate risk-sharing, stable macroeconomic conditions, commitment of the public and private sectors, and a favourable

legal framework are CSFs that are common to all countries for PPP implementation. Besides, it has been revealed that the extant literature on empirical studies on CSFs for PPPs is largely on non-education service delivery and infrastructural projects (Rockart, 1982; Pongsiri, 2002; Jamali, 2004; Zhang, 2005; Abeer et al., 2011; Cheung et al., 2012; Basheka et al., 2011; Babatunde et al., 2012). Thus, the foregoing literature on CSFs indicates that scholarship on CSFs for PPPs in education, particularly in the context of USE delivery from an African perspective and stakeholders' lived experiences and understandings, is missing in this debate.

2.7 Summary

In summary, the preceding literature offers evidence of the understanding that PPPs in education mainly originate from budgetary the constraints experienced by most countries in financing public schooling. It also indicates that the PPP policy as a response to imbalances between the demand for education and its supply led to greater private sector involvement in the education sector through various forms of education PPPs. Most literature recognises education service provision as a citizens' right for which the state is constitutionally responsible. On the other hand, the literature also brings out the circumstances under which some of the state's traditional roles in public service delivery shift solely towards the private sector operators through the formation of partnerships. Such situations mostly occur when the government faces budgetary constraints that limit its capacity to finance and provide the services (such as education) adequately. Thus, PPPs as policy reflect a paradigm shift in the responsibilities of states concerned with the delivery of public services.

The literature also indicates the commonly cited rationale for PPP initiatives as the need to increase access to and improve quality in service delivery, cost- and risk-sharing among PPP partners, as well as cost-saving or minimisation of public spending in the delivery of education. As reflected and used in some few related PPP studies on education and other areas, stakeholder theory has come up as a relevant theoretical lens for this present study. The theory further highlights the forms of educational PPPs, their impacts, international challenges and experiences, CSFs and the principles for their effective implementation.

However, this backdrop provides evidence that the extant and foregoing literature on PPPs in education reveals that knowledge about the subjective stakeholders' experiences, influences and understanding of PPP policy and implementation realties in USE remains less widely known and explored. Besides, though the extant literature on CSFs is abundant, there is limited scholarship on CSFs for PPPs in education, particularly on USE delivery in the

African context from the perspective of stakeholders' experiences and understandings. Yet such CSFs are of great relevance in two respects. First, as prerequisites for the effective implementation and management of PPPs in the context of resource-constrained developing countries that are still new and performing relatively poorly in employing them in public service delivery; and second, for effecting reforms as policy contexts evolve with time.

The next chapter describes and discusses the theoretical framework in which this study is anchored.

CHAPTER THREE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical framework employed in this study as a descriptive model to explain how stakeholders' perceptions, interests, experiences and understandings of the PPP policy in USE and its implementation realities are connected and how and why they contextually affect or influence each other in the way they do in the context of Uganda. It goes on to state and describe Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory with its assumptions and principles, which formed the analytical basis and interpretive lens for the identification and categorisation of stakeholders. It also provides some theory-driven descriptions of how stakeholders' understandings and experiences of policy implementation would affect or be affected by its realities (policy guidelines, its terms or conditions, goals, impacts and outcomes) and their actions.

In view of the above, Bhattacherjee (2012, p.14) states that "a theory is a set of systematically interrelated constructs and prepositions intended to explain and predict a phenomenon or behaviour of interest, within certain conditions and assumptions". Based on this statement, it was presumed that Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory, with its assumptions and principles on contracts, would provide suitable theoretical framework for explaining and describing how stakeholders' actions, perceptions and experiences of the PPP policy in USE delivery would influence and be influenced in its implementation. Though it has been mainly used in project and organisational management, Murdock (2004) suggests that stakeholder theory should further be developed and adapted into the increasingly complex world situation in which people (stakeholders) live to provide an understanding of how they negotiate it to meet their needs. Moreover, Rule and John (2011, p.27) assert that "a researcher who has encountered a theory in one context might wonder how it applies to another context". In this regard, these assertions informed and provided a justification for the adoption of stakeholder theory in this study to gain an understanding of how it relates and could be extended to another context of the PPP policy in USE delivery in Uganda. Besides, since the introduction of PPP in USE was a national education policy reform (MOES, 2012), whose implementation activities were believed to affect and be affected by many stakeholders in Uganda, stakeholder theory was adopted as a suitable theoretical lens to inform this study.

It is evident that stakeholder theory has been applied in some other studies (Yang et al., 2009; Bourne, 2009; Freeman et al., 2010; Jepsen & Eskerod, 2009; Gomes et al., 2010; Mathonsi, 2012;) on stakeholder analysis in management, stakeholder participation and influence in service delivery, and decision-making in organisations and project implementation. However, its application in the current study focuses mainly on how its theoretical assumptions, principles and beliefs seem to guide exploring and gaining insights into an understanding of how stakeholders affect or are affected by the PPP policy realties as they negotiate its implementation in USE delivery in Uganda. In the implementation of this policy in Uganda, there were multiple stakeholders with seemingly varying perceptions and influences that were thought to be contextually driven by their motives, interests, legitimacy and power in its implementation. Moreover, stakeholders' experiences, respective roles, positions and stake in the policy were assumed to influence their perceptions about its impacts on USE outcomes and CSFs for its implementation in Uganda. It was against this backdrop that the researcher thought it necessary to situate the research process within this theoretical framework to help in the identification and categorisation of PPP stakeholders. The aim was to gain insights into their involvement, influence and understanding and lived experiences in the implementation of this policy and their effects on its impacts and success.

3.2 Overview of Stakeholder Theory

Traditionally, stakeholder theory has been widely used in various aspects of organisational management (Jepsen & Eskerod, 2009; Freeman et al., 2010). It was first formulated in the 1980s by Freeman (1984), who suggested that in order to succeed and be sustainable in business over time, managers must keep the interests of customers, suppliers, employees, communities and stakeholders aligned and going in the same direction. In his handbook, *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*, that was published in 1984 and reprinted in 2010, Edward Freeman set the agenda for what is now known as stakeholder theory. Freeman (2010, p.25) defines a stakeholder as "any group of people who can affect or be affected by the achievement of the organisation or firm's objective". A stakeholder refers to any individual, group of individuals or organisation that has an interest or stake in a particular (policy) issue or system, and whose interests are believed to affect and/or be affected by a change in that system (Freeman, 1984; Studd, 2002) and how it is experienced. Stakeholders are vital for the survival of the organisation/project (or policy) through their power-interest influences on it.

The stakeholder approach to project management categorises stakeholders as internal or external to the project. Internal stakeholders are described as those primary or key entities (individuals, groups or institutions) with legal contracts to the project while external stakeholders (secondary stakeholders) as entities with an interest in the project but without a contract (Leung, 2010). In this regard, internal stakeholders are also considered primary, in that their interests (or powers) can directly affect and/or be affected by the policy or organisation. Put simply, internal stakeholders are seen as primary in that their interests and powers/influences are directly linked to policy implementation, while external stakeholders are considered as secondary in that their interests and influences are indirect or less directly affected by policy implementation/or organisational activities (Svendsen, 1999, cited in Murdock, 2004). Furthermore, in examining the essential premises of stakeholder theory from Freeman's (1984) seminal work, it was postulated that multi-stakeholder corporations (or partnerships like PPP in USE) have many stakeholders that affect and are affected by its decisions (Murdock, 2004). In view of this, some guidelines and decisions that could have been made for the implementation of PPP in USE (as contained in the MOU) seem to have affected the policy outcomes and its implementers /stakeholders in the way it happened. However, how the internal and external stakeholders affect and are affected by the implementation of this policy remains uncertain in the context of Uganda.

Categorisation of stakeholders in my study was drawn and contextualised based on Leung's (2010) conceptual description and perspectives of stakeholder categories. Relating this to the PPP policy in USE in Uganda, the government or the MOES and private secondary schools (PPP schools) which signed an MOU for this partnership are considered as internal stakeholders owing to the formal/legal PPP contractual arrangements binding them in the delivery of USE services (MOES, 2012). Below is Table 3 on my concetualisation and categorisation of stakeholders as internal and external to the implementation of the policy.

Table 1: Analysis of key stakeholders in the implementation of PPP in USE in Uganda

Category of stakeholder	Sector	Stakeholder specifics	Stakeholder power- interests influence in this policy
Internal	Central government (MOES)	Ministry of Education and Sports (MOES), department of private secondary schools and institutions in MOES	Legal powers in the regulation of the policy, selection of PPP schools and disbursement of PPP grant. Interest in the delivery of USE and its goals
	Private secondary schools (PPP schools)	Owners/proprietors and head teachers of PPP schools	Legal powers in MOU to influence teaching-learning. Interests in money and profitmaking as partners in USE delivery through PPP policy
	Local government (LG)	Specific departments and district local government (DLG) administration officials	Selection of PPP schools, inspection and monitoring of policy implementation in partnership schools
External	Parliament of Uganda	Selected Members of Parliament (MPs) on Education Service Committee	Policy-making, monitoring and evaluation
	Donor agencies	Selected donors for PPP in USE delivery in Uganda	Power in funding USE delivery and interest in its goals of equitable access to quality education for all
	NGOs	Education-based NGOs voluntarily involved in USE delivery	Voluntary participation in the delivery of USE for improved access to quality education for all, literacy and skills development
		Specific employees from the MOES, DLGs and teachers, school boards of governors (BOGs), local community leaders in PPP schools	benefits from implementing
	Key beneficiaries Others	Parents and USE sponsored students Academics or professional	Interest in accessing fee-free or subsidised USE Interest in the provision of
		policy analysts	policy advice and opinions for its implementation

Source: Developed by the researcher using existing policy documents and literature

In view of the stakeholder analysis of this policy in Table 3 above, the central government (MOES), DLG (district local government administration) officials and partnership school proprietors and managers who participated in signing the MOU are considered as internal

stakeholders to the policy owing to *the legal powers they have over its implementation*. However, other than the commonly agreed upon intended PPP policy goals, these stakeholders seem to have some other varying interests that drove them into policy implementation, which this study explored. On the other hand, some stakeholders who seem to have varying interests and power influences in the policy but *without legal powers* over its implementation are categorised as external stakeholders.

To Freeman (1984, 2004), understanding and analysis of stakeholders' characteristics provide a lens though which to know, categorise or coordinate and relate their interest, power and impacts on the project or policy by asking and answering the following questions: Who are our current and potential stakeholders? What are their interests? How does each stakeholder affect our project (policy in this case)? What are the environmental variables (contexts) that affect us and our stakeholders? And how do we keep up with our stakeholders? Similarly, dichotomising stakeholders through stakeholder analysis is vital in getting an understanding of their common and/or multiple diverging experiences, perceptions and interpretations of the policy realities; and how their understandings and sense-making influence its implementation in a particular direction based on the policy contexts in which they are involved in its implementation (Wendt, 2008; Walshaw & Anthony, 2011).

Freeman (1984) also advances the following stakeholder theory principles or ground rule for the fair conduct of contracts and coordination of stakeholder interests within organisational functions: (1) *The principle of entry and exit*: the contract has to define the process that clarifies entry, exit and renegotiation conditions for stakeholders to decide when an agreement can be fulfilled; (2) *The principle of corporate legitimacy*: The organisation should be managed for the benefit of its stakeholders, who must also participate in decisions that affect their welfare; (3) *The stakeholder fiduciary principle*: The manager must act in the interests of stakeholders as their *agent* for the benefit of the organisation to ensure its survival; (4) *The agency principle*: Any party must serve the interests of all stakeholders; (5) *The principle of contracting costs*: Each partner/stakeholder must have a share in the cost of the contract, which is the key rationale for PPPs in most of its literature. This relates closely to the contractual contents in the MOU that was signed between the MOES and the proprietors of partnership schools in Uganda for the implementation of PPP in USE delivery.

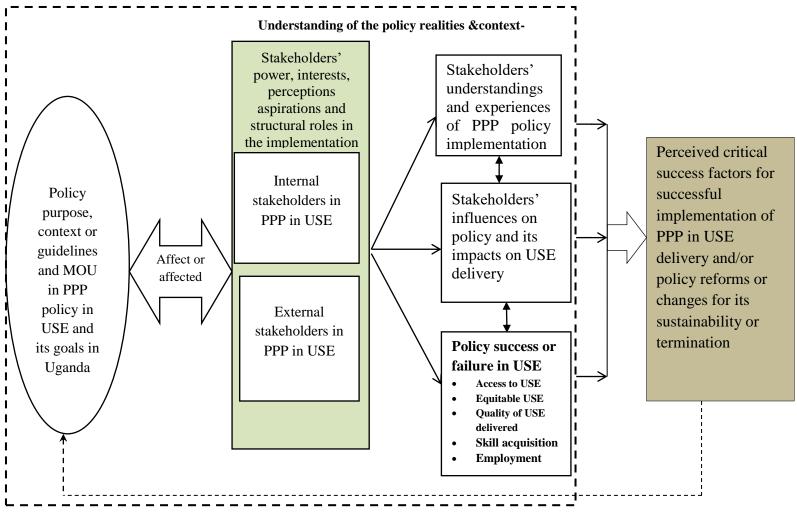
The aforementioned theoretical and practical description, assumptions, questions and principles advanced by Freeman provide a theoretical lens and basis for identifying and

categorising the stakeholders involved in the implementation of PPP in USE in Uganda. It is based on their different interests, responsibilities and power relations, how they influence and are influenced by the policy environment and what should be done to coordinate it following some of the principles stated in this theory. The fundamental idea in stakeholder theory in this context is that the success or failure of policy/project implementation will depend on the policy environment in which the stakeholders work; and this presumably influences their interests and power relationships which, in turn, affect and/or can be affected by the project and its outcomes (Freeman et al., 2010).

In view of the above, the original stakeholder theory has been modified and expanded not only to include corporate issues (Freeman et al., 2010) but also employed as a tool of analysis for project/policy implementation and its environment based on stakeholder analysis and management ideologies (Yang et al., 2009; Bourne, 2009; Freeman et al., 2010; Mathonsi, 2012; Siering & Svensson, 2012). The modification of stakeholder theory makes it relevant to the PPP policy in USE delivery in Uganda not only for analysing and categorising stakeholders but also for gaining an understanding of how and why their experiences and understandings of the policy affect or are affected by it in its implementation in that way.

Conceptually, Figure 1 below illustrates the theoretical connections among the study constructs of stakeholders' experiences and understanding of the PPP policy implementation in USE in Uganda. The PPP policy in USE and the contexts in which it was implemented in Uganda were thought to influence or be influenced by its stakeholders' experiences, perceptions and understandings of its realities. These would in turn inform and influencing policy reforms for its successful implementation. Using stakeholder theory, it was believed that the policy contexts and stakeholders' perceptions, interests, power and roles, and how they affect each other in its implementation would provide a basis for the theoretical and practical description of how and why stakeholders experience, influence and understand its realities in the way they do.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework



Source: Researcher's formulation based on stakeholder theory by Freeman (1984)

The preceding explanatory conceptual model in Figure 1 shows the theoretical connections between PPP in USE policy implementation contexts and stakeholders' experiences and understandings of its realities (challenges experienced, impacts on USE outcomes and success or failure). It also depicts how all stakeholders and the policy implementation realities, in turn, affect/influence each other and, subsequently, inform stakeholders' perceived CSFs for influencing policy changes or reforms. The fundamental premise of this theoretical framework is that stakeholders in this policy do not operate in a vacuum. They implement this policy through systems and structures within particular contexts. This connotes that stakeholders' understanding, experiences and interests seem to be influenced by some policy contexts (conditions in guidelines and MOU, institutional objectives, positions and roles), which trigger the ways in which they act as they negotiate its implementation. Based on stakeholder theory, this, in turn, affects policy implementation and the nature of its outcomes accordingly. Thus, the construction of the above framework was conceptualized from the key concepts and assumptions of the stakeholder theory that include powerinfluence, affect /affected, interest/stake legitimacy and stakeholder mapping/categorization; and how such constructs shape stakeholders understanding and perceptions of the policy realities.

The interpretive perspectives are employed or incorporated in stakeholder theory to provide a suitable framework for gaining an understanding of how various government-based and school-based stakeholders would subjectively make sense of their experiences and understanding of policy implementation realities from their viewpoints. The underlying idea of using stakeholder theory through an interpretive perspective was to gain deeper understanding of how policy implementation would affect and be affected by its stakeholders' lived experiences and subjective understandings of its realities contextually (Crotty, 1998; Wendt, 2008; Grix, 2010).

In the above conceptual framework, the initial *double-barred arrow* indicates interrelationships on how the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda may affect or be affected by stakeholders' experiences and understanding through the policy guidelines and its goals, their interests and roles, perceptions and understanding of the whole policy environment. How and why stakeholders affect and are affected in the implementation of this policy in the way they do are guided by contexts created by the MOU and PPP policy guidelines, policy goals and stakeholders' roles. It was also assumed that how stakeholders affect and are affected by policy implementation could be due to their interests and needs, policy conditions and how they experience and understand them. Other arrows (*small and big*) in this conceptual framework indicate the direction of influence (effects) of stakeholders'

experiences and understanding of PPP policy implementation on some constructs/variables in USE delivery.

Drawing from the assumptions of the stakeholder theory, the way in which stakeholders perceive or understand the implementation realities of this policy with regard to its impacts on the quality of USE outcomes, success or failure and how they experienced them, might have some direct or indirect influence on the perceived CSFs for the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda, as depicted (by the big arrow) in the above framework of analysis. This indicates that understanding of policy realities by stakeholders would influence and inform policy decisions or advice for making appropriate policy reforms or change in its implementation (indicated by the thin dotted arrow). Ultimately, this would perhaps ensure effective PPP implementation of the delivery of quality USE that is equitably accessed by all in Uganda. Thus, the thin dotted arrow (depicted in Figure 1) is premised on my concetualisation that stakeholders' understanding of PPP policy implementation and how they make sense of their experiences and perceptions in its implementation realities inform and influence the extent of its success or failure with regard to its implementation impacts, challenges, goals and outcomes. All these seem to influence the opinions or perceptions of stakeholders on the critical factors that should be considered to make the policy work better or be terminated. Thus, stakeholders' understanding of and viewpoints of the policy realities and how they are linked to their lived experiences would influence how they implement it and inform policy reforms or adoption of better ways (CSFs) of making its implementation successful.

The next chapter describes the research methodology with a suitable research design and philosophies through which data was collected and analysed. The methodology was guided by the nature of the research problem with related policy- and theory-driven research questions to gain deeper insights into stakeholders' experience, influences and understanding in the implementation of PPPs in USE from their viewpoints.

CHAPTER FOUR RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction

This chapter describes the entire research process, stipulating how the study was conducted with regard to how, what and where it was done to obtain the required information for answering the research questions of the study. It includes an introduction, the research design with research paradigms and approaches employed with justification of their choice, the study area and population and sample, the data collection methods, the data analysis techniques, the trustworthiness measures (validity and reliability) and the ethical considerations.

4.1 Research Design

According to Harwell (2011), the choice of the research design for a study is mainly influenced by the nature of its guiding research questions and philosophical foundations/underpinnings, which, in turn, inform the methodology and/or techniques used in data collection. Grix (2010, p.67) specifies that "the methods chosen for a research project are inextricably linked to the research questions posed and to the sources of data collected." He also argues that the choice of the most appropriate research approach to the study is influenced by its ontological and epistemological perspectives (Grix, 2010). In the case of interpretivism, which emphasises understanding of individuals' subjective experiences of social reality, its ontological assumption of the nature of the reality of the phenomenon (that reality is subjective) informs its epistemology (nature of knowledge to be collected is subjective with multiple understandings); and this, in turn, informs the research methodology of acquiring it (inductive reasoning focusing on understandings), the related techniques (qualitative methods) of data collection and the sources of gaining that knowledge about understanding the phenomenon (Grix, 2010; Bunniss & Kelly, 2010).

Based on the above philosophical research perspectives, exploratory qualitative case study approaches, underpinned by a phenomenological interpretive paradigm, were adopted for this study. This was deemed to be a suitable research design for understanding stakeholders' experiences in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery and what meanings the stakeholders attribute to them in this policy context (Creswell et al., 2007; Yin, 2009; Maree, 2012; Starman, 2013; Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2015). Such approaches were employed on the premise that qualitative approaches are often used when little is known about the phenomenon that needs to be explored, understood and interpreted from the

subjective viewpoints and meanings of those who lived it (Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Rule & John, 2011).

In view of this, the study was guided by the following theory-driven research sub-questions, which it sought to answer:

- i. How do stakeholders understand the origin, purpose and implementation guidelines of PPP in USE in Uganda?
- ii. How and why do stakeholders understand the impacts and success of PPP policy implementation on USE delivery in Uganda in the way they do?
- iii. How do stakeholders experience the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda in the way they do and why?
- iv. What are the stakeholders' motivations and influences in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda?
- v. What critical factors do stakeholders perceive for the successful implementation of PPPs in USE delivery in Uganda?

4.1.1 Why use case study approach?

Simons (2009, p.21) defines a case study as "an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular project, **policy**, institution, programme or system in 'real life.'" Likewise, Yin (2009, p.18) posits:

a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident...and relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in triangulating fashion.

In view of this, Yin and Simon seem to suggest that case studies are designed to gain a deeper understanding and description of a less known phenomenon from people's multiple viewpoints or sources of evidence in certain contexts. This is supported by Rule and John (2011, p.4), who see the case study as "a systematic and in-depth investigation of a particular instance in its context in order to generate knowledge." Besides, they argue that case studies are used for understanding a particular phenomenon mainly owing to their flexibility in the collection and analysis of data intensively to explore a problem within a limited setting for transferability to other similar cases (ibid., p.7). Moreover, other proponents of the qualitative case study approach to research (Baxter, 2008; Yin, 2009; Maree, 2012; Creswell, 2013) argue that a case study should be considered a priority when the focus of the study is to gain a deeper understanding of how, what and why people experience, perceive and make sense of a phenomenon in certain contexts in the way they do.

Based on the above definitions and standpoints, the case study was employed as a suitable approach for this study due to its flexibility that enabled me to get enough time to conduct indepth interviews with different stakeholders (in their free natural environment/context). I was, therefore, able to collect rich information as evidence of gaining a deeper understanding of how stakeholders experience and understand the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery, why they experience and make sense of its realities in the way they do from their subjective multiple viewpoints, and what they perceive as critical factors for its successful implementation in the context of Uganda. Besides, the intention of using the exploratory qualitative case study approach was that its findings would be transferable or applicable to other similar cases or contexts for practical purposes and theoretical or analytical generalisability (Rule & John, 2011; Maree, 2012; Starman, 2013).

4.1.2 Philosophical underpinnings of the study

Research in any field of inquiry is based on some philosophy (Creswell, 2013; Eusafzai, 2014) because "all philosophy has its origin in wonder" (Plato). To Plato and Aristotle, it is through wonder or curiosity that researchers begin to philosophise on 'how' and 'why' they view the world or phenomena the way they do. The sort of wonder about the nature of reality or phenomena, from which philosophy begins, is one that evokes inquisitive feelings and the desire to know them. Subsequently, these gives rise to philosophy and philosophical activities in the pursuit of knowledge about its reality (Kompridis, 2006). Importantly, Creswell (2013, p.16) offers the meaning of philosophy as "the use of abstract ideas and beliefs that inform our research". Grix (2010, p.59) affirms that, in the research process of constructing knowledge, "ontology [which is the researcher's perception and position of what constitutes reality] is the starting point of research, after which one's epistemological and methodological positions logically follow." Thus, in the search for knowledge about the reality of a given phenomenon, such philosophical (ontological and epistemological) assumptions provide initial ideologies and theoretical underpinnings about the nature of being and/or reality of knowledge, what to know and how to go about acquiring knowledge and knowing it (Grix, 2010).

Drawing on the above philosophical standpoints, it was the sense of wonder and the motivation to gain insights into the realities of the phenomenon of how and why stakeholders understand experience and influence the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda in the way they do that inspired me to undertake this exploratory qualitative inquiry. In view of the above, phenomenology was chosen for this study mainly owing to its appropriateness for studies that focus on exploring and understanding people's experiences and perceptions of the lived phenomenon, which is policy implementation in this case (Crotty, 1998; Yin, 2009;

Maree, 2012). The next section explains why phenomenology was used as a philosophy underpinning this study.

4.1.2.1 Phenomenology

Phenomenology that is viewed as both a philosophy and research methodology provides the theoretical foundation for exploring and understanding people's lived experiences of a phenomenon and how they make sense of them (Merriam, 2009; Maree, 2012). It is a human scientific approach to research, the intent of which is to uncover, understand and interpret the meaning of the world of lived subjective experiences from those who live it (Crotty, 1998; Pringle et al., 2010). It is a philosophical qualitative research approach which involves a deeper understanding and description of an individual's experiences of a given phenomenon for its interpretation or sense-making (Crotty, 1998; Creswell et al., 2007; Wendt, 2008; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014; Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2015).

The philosophy one adopts for the study contains some assumptions or perspectives about the way the world is viewed, and these, in turn, underpin its research methodology and methods (Grix, 2010). Phenomenology as a methodology has both descriptive and interpretive orientations for in-depth understanding of a phenomenon. In this view, Starman (2013, p.30) posits that "qualitative research is more characterised by an interpretative paradigm, which emphasises subjective experiences and meanings they have for an individual". In view of this, the interpretive paradigm was employed to provide philosophical underpinnings for this exploratory qualitative case study to gain insights into stakeholders' lived experiences and understandings of this policy phenomenon as constructed and interpreted from their subjective multiple viewpoints and the meanings they attach to them. Thus, the next section describes interpretivism and why it was used as a suitable philosophical paradigm that informed this study.

4.1.2.2 Interpretivism paradigm

All research takes place within a given paradigm, which ontologically and epistemologically informs its methodological research approaches and process (Grix, 2004; Kura, 2012; Eusafzai, 2014). A paradigm in the context of research is a system or set of ideas, beliefs and/or worldview used by a school of thought or community of researchers to generate knowledge with which reality is perceived and interpreted (Crotty, 1998; Fossey et al., 2002; Grix, 2010). A paradigm emerges from a philosophy to which the researcher subscribes and follows as his or her worldview in the study. Thus, proponents of interpretive phenomenology argue that human experiences can only be understood and interpreted from their subjective viewpoints (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Maree, 2012). In view of this, interpretivism is considered as the main philosophical orientation that mostly underpins

phenomenological qualitative research studies (Merriam, 2009; Maree, 2012) within which this current research is confined.

The interpretivism paradigm, which informs this study, is anchored in the belief that "to understand this world of meaning one must interpret it" (Schwandt, 1994, p.118). This philosophical view is supported by Wendt's (2008, p.147) assertion that "the world of lived experiences needs to be understood from the point of view of those who live it". To the interpretivists, the mandate of research is to explore and gain knowledge for the description and better understanding of a given phenomenon from those who lived it (Mack, 2010; Kura, 2012). Thus, the aim of interpretive qualitative research is to understand and interpret the meanings people (stakeholders) attach to their subjective experiences of the lived phenomenon (policy implementation) from their viewpoints (Maree, 2012). This seems to be philosophically relevant to the research question of this study.

Ontologically, interpretivism as a paradigm assumes subjectivism in order to better understand and interpret the nature of reality within the context of the subjective or individual's viewpoint. Subjectivism holds the view that the social phenomenon is created and constructed from multiple subjective perceptions and consequent actions of individual social actors. In view of this, interpretivism is premised on the belief that reality is subjective and socially constructed; that there is no one ultimate (single) truth about reality; and that the goal of the interpretive researcher is to understand what meanings people give to that reality from their subjective viewpoints. They reject the positivistic beliefs that reality is external to the researcher and that knowledge is generated deductively and objectively. Their antipositivistic reactions are premised on their ontological claims that there is no objective knowledge independent of individual thinking, and that reality can never be objectively observed from the outside, but instead that knowledge about the nature of reality is generated directly from the inside (internal) through the subjective experiences of those involved (Mack, 2010). Epistemologically, interpretivism assumes that knowledge is subjective and that there are multiple or diverse interpretations and meanings of reality (Bunniss & Kelly, 2010; Grix, 2010). Interpretivism assumes that subjective knowledge is acquired through qualitative methodologies, which focus on understanding through inductive reasoning and interpreting the meaning of reality from the data collected using qualitative methods such as interviews and observations (Crotty, 1998; Grix, 2010; Mack, 2010; Bunniss & Kelly, 2010). While positivists often seek to construct meanings from data by quantifying what they study, interpretivists look for the specifics and details to build a deeper understanding of what they study based on those subjectively explored specifics (Rubin & Rubin, 2005).

Based on the preceding philosophical and methodological perspectives, I considered the stakeholders' subjective viewpoints as the key sources of the specific information required for a deeper understanding, description and interpretation of stakeholders' experiences and perceptions of this policy and its implementation realities in the context of Uganda. This informed and shaped the qualitative approaches used in this study through in-depth interviews (corroborated with document analysis). They mainly focused on an understanding and interpretation of stakeholders' subjective experiences and perceptions of the policy realities with regard to how and why they experience and understand in the way they do, and how these influence the implementation of the policy impacts and its success.

In conclusion, this study is located within phenomenology as its philosophical stance, and it employs exploratory qualitative case study approaches through an interpretive lens and theory-driven relevant research questions to collect, analyse, interpret and discuss the data on stakeholders' experiences and understanding of this policy from their subjective viewpoints.

4.2 The Scope and Study Area

This exploratory qualitative case study was bound in terms of focus, content of the study phenomenon, time, place and coverage (Stake, 2005; Cohen, Manion & Marrison, 2007; Yin, 2009). It focused on exploring stakeholders' experiences and understanding of PPP policy implementation in USE and their perceptions of critical success factors for its effective implementation in Uganda. The main area of study was Wakiso district, which is located in the central region of Uganda. It was purposively selected as a case study area for two reasons: first, for its dominance in having relatively more private partnership secondary schools offering USE on behalf of the government through PPP policy arrangements; second, because of its higher percentage values of students' enrolment rates in private schools than other districts in Uganda (MOES Statistical Abstract, 2014). Besides, its geographical area (Wakiso district) has a relatively larger number (35) and diversity of partnership private secondary schools (best and worst cases) offering USE in its urban, semi-urban and rural settings than other regions of the country (MOES National Headcount Report on USE, 2012; MOES Statistical Abstract, 2014). These were some of the key justifications for selecting Wakiso district as an appropriate case study area for this education PPP policy research in Uganda, whose findings might be transferable to other districts and partnership schools with similar contexts for policy reform and management purposes.

Wakiso district as a *geographical case study area* was mainly restricted to the selection of PPP schools, school-based stakeholders (proprietors of PPP schools, head teachers [principals], teachers, BOGs, parents, local community leaders) and district local government

officials as stakeholders in the implementation of this policy in Uganda. However, only those stakeholders who were directly and indirectly involved in its implementation between 2007 (time of policy adoption) and at the time of doing this study were purposively selected as study participants. Besides, the selection of PPP schools from Wakiso district for this study was based on *maximum variation sampling* (Christensen et al., 2015) with regard to school performance, concentration in the area (urban/rural) of the targeted PPP schools, their location in urban, semi-urban and rural school settings and documentary data evidence of the size and distribution of USE government-sponsored students in each of the PPP schools. In this study, four partnership private secondary schools were purposively selected in such a way that one was urban, one semi-urban, two rural. Table 2 shows the details of the purposively selected partnership schools in Wakiso district from which some school-based stakeholders were identified to participate in this study.

Table 2: Partnership (PPP) schools purposively selected for the study in Wakiso district

School code	School setting	Туре	Student enrolme nt (2015)	Remarks
В	Urban	Mixed school	621	Relatively low performance due to high student-teacher ratio, but easy to access part- time teachers
С	Semi-Urban	Mixed school	360	Average performance due to school proprietor's possession of alternative income sources for teacher payments
S	Rural	Mixed school	21	Poor performance due to lack of quality teachers in hard-to- reach extreme rural area
K	Rural	Mixed school	601	Low performance due to high student-teacher ratio and poor pay

Source: Researcher's field notes and Wakiso District Education Department

In each of the above selected PPP schools, some head teachers, teachers, the PTA/BOG representatives, school proprietors and the local community leaders were purposively selected as study participants. The selection of such school-based stakeholders as suitable sources of data on this policy through interview discussion was based on their anticipated relevant background knowledge of the policy and longevity in their participation in policy implementation through their respective institutional roles in USE delivery in Uganda.

4.3.1 The study population

The study target population consisted of mainly internal and external key stakeholders in this policy, who were directly and indirectly involved in its implementation. They were mainly government and school-based stakeholders, with some few participants drawn from academia and the Parliament of Uganda. They were identified from central government departments of the MOES, Wakiso DLG administration as a case study geographical area, PPP schools in Wakiso, education-based NGOs and a public policy think-tank from which some of the academics as policy experts were drawn. The stakeholder groups from which the study sample was selected for interviews included:

- MOES officials from selected education departments of Education Planning and Policy Analysis, Directorate of Education Standards (DES) and the Department of Private Schools and Institutions in the MOES.
- Wakiso DLG officials and inspectors of schools.
- Head teachers (principals), teachers and proprietors of PPP schools in Wakiso district.
- Parents/guardians, BOGs and local community leaders (LCs) from selected PPP schools.
- Academics as PPP policy experts and policy-makers (members of the Parliament of Uganda on the Education Committee) and NGO representatives from PEAS (Promoting Equality in African Schools), which is an NGO partner implementing USE through partnership schools under its management.

The justification for the purposive selection of the sample from this target population groups was due to their presumed and perceived information richness in relation to the policy phenomenon which they either experienced in its implementation or which they were knowledgeable about as stakeholders. Thus, the non-probability selection procedures of stratified purposive sampling and snowball sampling employed in this study enabled me to obtain an appropriate and information-rich number (sample) of stakeholders from this target population with reliable data in the form of multiple ideas and viewpoints for in-depth understanding of their experiences of the policy phenomenon.

4.3.2 Sampling procedures for this study

In exploratory interpretive qualitative case study research, non-probability sampling techniques are commonly applied. In this study, owing to the diversity of the composition of the target population, *stratified purposive sampling* was employed to ensure that an adequate sample of information-rich participants were selected from at least each specific stakeholder sub-group that implemented this policy (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Purposive sampling

is where some people are deliberately/purposively selected to participate in the study based on their suitability with regard to their relevant background knowledge and information richness, their participation, interest and lived experiences in relation to the case phenomenon (Rule & John, 2011). In view of this, the selection of stakeholders for this study was based on the presumed prior knowledge or information richness of the participants' involvement and their familiarity with PPP policy implementation in USE (at least one should have participated and experienced or lived it), their positions, responsibilities and roles in the implementation of this policy, their willingness to participate in the study, and their ability to appropriately communicate and articulate some policy issues to best address the research questions and describe the policy implementation phenomenon being studied (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). The above considerations are also based on Rubin and Rubin's (2005, p.64) assertion that "the interviewees should be experienced and knowledgeable in the area you are interviewing about."

Furthermore, *snowball sampling* was also seen to be practiced in some instances, where I would be referred by some interviewees to other probable information-rich cases of stakeholders in this policy. For instance, in one interview with one commissioner of education, he referred me to other ministry officials, who provided me with in-depth information on their experiences in the implementation of PPP policy. Similarly, some PPP school head teachers also referred me to parents' representatives and local community leaders, though in some cases, I found that some lacked the needed policy information details. Voluntary participation by stakeholders in this study through interviews led me to explore their experiences and understanding of this policy. Thus, snowball sampling emerged naturally into this study owing to the contexts and instances in which some participants were purposively identified and referred by others who expected them to have direct knowledge, expertise and experience in relation to this policy phenomenon.

The selection of interviewees continued for almost one year till data saturation began to emerge during the preliminary data analysis (Rubin & Rubin, 2005). This helped me to get the appropriate people I needed for completeness of information gathering and the credibility of the interpretations generated (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2008). Moreover, qualitative studies are presumed to focus more on a relatively small number of quality participants to gather a large and rich amount of data whose limit is influenced by data saturation or information redundancy (Onweuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). Data saturation is a point/situation in the research process that emerges when the researcher begins to receive the same responses, thoughts and perceptions from most study participants, so that no additional participants are required on the research issue at hand (Gay et al., 2006).

After in-depth interviews, the number of stakeholders who were selected and participated in this qualitative case study were found to be 28, as indicated in Table 3. Qualitative researchers argue that there is no fixed minimum number of participants or interviews necessary for conducting a qualitative research study (Fossey et al., 2002). However, Gay et al. (2011, p.143) reveal that "qualitative studies with more than 20 or more participants are rare, and many studies will have fewer". Still, they argue that, in qualitative research, how large the sample should be is not an issue; what is critical and necessary is how best the sample of participants selected adequately provides quality and in-depth information for better understanding of the study phenomenon. In view of this, information richness of interview participants and sufficient depth of interviews which are needed to adequately describe the phenomenon under study are said to be more critical for the quality of information and credibility of research outcomes than the number of interview participants (Patton, 2002). In this regard, sample size determination was not fully pre-determined before data collection as earlier anticipated. This was due to the nature of this exploratory qualitative case study whose purpose was the search for in-depth information from some purposefully selected stakeholders, some of whom were identified through snowball/referral sampling during interview. Table 3 below presents the selected stakeholders in this policy who were interviewed in the study.

Table 3: Sample size and selection of stakeholders who were all interviewed

Information source	Stakehold	Organisation/ institution	Number of	Sampling
	er type		participants	procedure
4 PPP school teachers	External	4 PPP schools – Wakiso	6	Stratified purposive
and 2 local leaders				
PPP school head	Internal	4 PPP schools – Wakiso	4	Purposive
teachers				
Parents' representative	External	2 PPP schools – Wakiso	2	Snowball
Staff of Directorate of	Internal	Directorate of Education	2	Purposive
Education Standards		Standards		
Commissioner for	Internal	MOES – Secondary	1	Purposive
Secondary Education		Education		
Commissioner	Internal	MOES – Department of	1	Purposive
Education Planning		Planning		
DEO – Wakiso district	Internal	Wakiso District – Education	1	Purposive
		Department		
Inspectors of schools	External	Wakiso District – Education	2	Purposive
		Department		
Chief Administrative	Internal	Wakiso district	1	Purposive
Officer (CAO)		administration		
Academia	External		2	Snowball
MPs on Education	External	Parliament of Uganda	2	Purposive
Committee				•
NGO in education	External	PEAS	2	Snowball
School proprietors	Internal	2PPP schools – Wakiso	2	Purposive
TOTAL			28	

4.3.3 Piloting study

Shortly after getting my research ethical clearance approval in February 2015 from the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria, I had to seek permission to conduct research in Uganda from the National Council of Science and Technology (UNCST), MOES in Uganda, and Wakiso district administration. Later, I was allowed to pilot my study in some few selected PPP schools and education departments in Kampala district by Kampala City Capital Authority (KCCA) in Uganda. During my pilot study, I interviewed the director of education in KCCA, who also introduced and referred me to the head teacher (principal) of one of the PPP schools in Kampala district, with whom I had an interview discussion on this policy. However, she did not consent to my request of having an audio-recorded interview with her, though she give me enough time to complete all our discussion while writing down most issues arising from her responses. Her refusal to consent to audio-recording during our interview discussion was a positive experience that made me always be prepared for similar occurrences whenever I went out for any interview discussion with any participants during this study.

The three pilot study interviews helped me to acquire advanced knowledge and understanding of central government, district local governments and PPP school-based experiences of implementing this policy. They also guided me in rephrasing and rearranging some interview protocol questions as well as estimating the average length of time for each interview discussion to be conducted. The transcribed interview data, together with some diary field notes from the pilot study with three participants, were discussed with my peers and supervisor in July 2015 at the University of Pretoria. Our discussion focused on the appropriateness of interview protocol questions, the interviewing and probing skills, and evaluation of the trustworthiness of the preliminary data that I had generated from the pilot study. The outcomes of this discussion helped me to reorganise my interview protocol questions chronologically and to improve my interviewing skills and how to encourage interviewees' participation in the discussion to obtain in-depth information by using probes and prompts on any new emerging issues during actual data collection, which I started in August 2015.

4.4 Data Collection Methods and Sources

In exploratory qualitative social research, the use of interviewing corroborated methodologically with some other suitable techniques, such as document analysis, observation and focus group discussions (FGDs) have become popular approaches of qualitative data collection for understanding the social world lived experiences and its reality

(Merriam, 1988; Yuen, 2005; Davies, 2008). In the current policy study, in-depth interviewing and document analysis were employed as suitable data collection methods.

4.4.1 Interviews

Interviews are a commonly employed method that is recommended for collecting qualitative data on people's experiences or perceptions to gain a better understanding of the meanings attached on them (Yuen, 2005; Yin, 2009; Joubish et al., 2011, Maree, 2012). This ties in with Hessr-Biber's (2007) recommendation of in-depth interviews for seeking an understanding of individuals' lived experiences. Besides, in-depth interviews are a commonly used data collection method in qualitative research not only owing to the power of language to illuminate and reveal meanings, but also owing to their flexibility and suitability in creating and constructing new knowledge through probes and interactions between the interviewee and the interviewer (Westbrook, 1994; Ritchie &Lewis, 2003; Rule & John, 2011; Maree, 2012; Owen, 2014) because knowledge is not given but created and negotiated (Kvale, 1996).

Based on such views, I employed in-depth interviews with semi-structured open-ended questions as a method and the main source of data. The interviews conducted with purposefully selected internal and external stakeholders in this policy were audio-recorded (audiotaped) with prior participants' consent, and transcribed for further analysis, interpretation and making sense of them (Bhattacherjee, 2012; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014). The in-depth interviews focused on understanding stakeholders' lived experiences of policy implementation realities and the meanings subjectively or socially attached to them (Crotty, 1998; Creswell, 2014).

I interviewed 28 stakeholders in the PPP policy in USE in Uganda, who voluntarily participated with their prior informed consent. The interviews were conducted in venues/places and during times and days of the week that were earlier agreed upon and considered convenient and appropriate for the study participants. All interview arrangements and appointments were made prior to the scheduled interview date, after which reminders were given for confirmation. The average time period for each interview discussion ranged from 45 minutes to one hour, though some few interview discussions took more than an hour. In all interview discussion meetings, self-introduction with a brief communiqué on my study purpose was made.

In all interview discussions, the interview protocol with open-ended exploratory and descriptive questions was systematically employed for consistency in the search for data. However, some probes and prompts on certain issues that emerged from participants' responses were used to have a focused discussion and clarification, and to elicit in-depth and

rich information on their understanding and the meanings attached to certain policy issues and experiences in its implementation. The interview discussions mainly focused on participants' understanding of policy and its origin, purpose and goals, their roles, views and feelings about their personal and institutional lived experiences and challenges, and their understanding of policy implementation impacts on its key goals (access, equity and quality of USE) and their perceptions of critical success factors as necessary conditions for improving upon PPP policy implementation in USE delivery in the context of Uganda (see Appendix A). The interview transcripts from different groups of stakeholders were systematically analysed alongside document analysis and field notes as a form of information source triangulation for rich description, corroboration and better interpretations of findings.

4.4.2 Document analysis

Document analysis involves a review of relevant documents which contain already existing information/data that is related to the area of study. This view is supported by Yanow's (2007, p.411) assertion that "documents can provide background information prior to designing a research project and conducting interviews." In this study, document analysis as a data collection method and source was used to corroborate other evidence or data that were gathered from in-depth interviews and field notes. In line with this, Tellis (1997, p.9) affirms that "one of the most important uses of documents is to corroborate evidence gathered from other sources". This methodological triangulation through documentary data collection and analysis increases the reliability (dependability) of both data and research findings of the study (Bowen, 2009; Tufue-Dolgoy, 2010). However, owing to a number of policy documents on the PPP policy process and its implementation in USE in Uganda, I used documentary review to easily identify and access the relevant policy information to extend my understanding of PPP policy implementation in USE and other related issues on PPPs in general.

In view of this, the main documents that were accessed and reviewed included:

- Journal articles and publications on PPPs in education as listed in references.
- The Role and Impact of Public-private Partnerships in Education (World Bank, 2009).
- The National Constitution of the Republic Uganda (1995) that provides the legal, policy and institutional framework for the PPP Act and the Education Act, among others.
- The Republic of Uganda Public-Private Partnerships Act, 2015.
- Examination performance records for USE and PPP schools in Uganda.
- Policy briefs on PPPs in Uganda.
- Memoranda of understanding (MOUs) between the government (MOES) and PPP schools.

- MOES Report on USE Headcount (2012).
- MOES Policy Guidelines on PPP implementation in USE for PPP schools (2013).
- MOES Sector Annual Performance Report Financial Year 2015/2016.
- MOES Monitoring and Evaluation Reports on schools in Uganda (various years)
- UNESCO Global Reports on Education for All (various years).
- School Inspection Reports by the Directorate of Education Standards (DES).
- Statistical Abstract by the Department of Education Planning and Policy Analysis of the MOES (2014).
- Education policy reform trends for Uganda
- Education Policy Review Commission Education for National Integration and Development (1989)
- National Development Plan for Uganda (2010).

With informed consent, most of the above relevant documents were accessed and obtained from the MOES, the Education Planning and Policy Analysis Department of the MOES, Wakiso district local government head offices, the DES, Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development (MoFPED), PPP websites and PPP schools in Uganda. Document review informed most chapters of this study.

The main contents and information that I looked for through document review were: the conceptual and contextual background information on the PPP policy in USE in Uganda; its origin, purpose and goals; the performance trends of this policy; who the stakeholders were and what were their respective roles; the enrolment of USE-sponsored students in PPP schools; PPP policy guidelines to partnership schools; terms and conditions in MOUs between partners; the roles and responsibilities of PPP partners and stakeholders in Uganda; the PPP policy framework for Uganda; literature on PPPs from global perspectives; types and forms of PPPs in education; stakeholders' experiences in PPP policy implementation; and critical factors for PPP implementation for a comparative analysis and in order to locate the position of the current study in this field of inquiry.

In view of this, documentary analysis was continuously done throughout the research process to provide more data and related literature from a wide range of institutional, national and international documents (as data sources) to supplement and close the information gaps in the already collected and transcribed interview data for a rich description and interpretation of findings (Bourke, 2014; Owen, 2014).

4.5 Data Analysis Method

Data collected in any form (qualitative or quantitative) has no meaning unless it is changed into information or evidence through data analysis (Hofstee, 2006, p.117). In this study, qualitative data was collected and analysed through qualitative techniques based on an interpretive perspective for understanding and interpreting meanings revealed from in-depth interview (Maree, 2012). Qualitative data analysis (QDA) is an iterative process that involves organising, reducing and categorising large amounts of qualitative data collected into manageable forms, which are then displayed and interrogated for ideas and meanings as findings (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Merriam, 1998; Kawlick, 2004). It is a systematic search for making valid inferences and meanings from the diverse and complex qualitative data (Westbrook, 1994), which are gathered from multiple sources through in-depth interviews and document reviews. In this study, QDA began at the data gathering research stage and continued through to the last stages of the entire research process. It involved an iterative process of coding, categorisation and comparison of data content and narratives using some idea words and short phrases to form categories and themes under which the presentation and interpretation of data for meaning were made with appropriately selected quotations (Thomas, 2006). Thus, the QDA process was guided by the research themes, study purpose and the research and protocol questions through interpretive qualitative analytical techniques.

During qualitative data collection and interview transcription, some preliminary data analyses were done. In this process, I read through each of the interview transcripts produced to check for word accuracy, quality and richness of data content while at the same time studying each of them to gain some overall picture of the preliminary emerging findings. The cleaning of each interview transcript and preliminary data analysis guided me regarding which study issues to focus more on in the proceeding interview process in order to collect adequate quality and rich data for in-depth understanding of the policy phenomenon. After cleaning and organising the interview transcripts, I began intensive QDA by reading through the interview transcripts one by one. In each of the interview transcripts, I created a large margin on the right-hand side in which all emerging information codes (idea units or words) could be placed next to the closely related data content/interview responses to which they were assigned. This column was also used to make certain significant and additional remarks and references to other interview transcripts and documents with similar idea units. The use of codes helped me to quickly locate and collate similar excerpts/quotes within interview transcripts with comparable ideas during data presentation analysis and interpretation (Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Saldana, 2009). Qualitative data analysis was intensively done using inductive and comparative content and thematic approaches through open coding of interview

transcripts to summarise/reduce the voluminous qualitative interview data into some clusters with similar ideas from which certain categories and themes emerged.

Qualitative content data analysis began with coding of data within the interview transcripts to generate data content codes that helped in the determination of information groups or categories and themes that guided data presentation and interpretation. In this study, codes were in the form of words and/or short phrases with evocative ideas that symbolically assigned some descriptive meanings to some portions of data in the interview transcripts or excerpts and documents (Saldana, 2009). Codes helped to generate general ideas from the data content to form categories and themes through content analysis. Thus, open coding of data as part of qualitative data analysis is a method of data reduction management that is manually done to enable the researcher to systematically organise and group similarly coded data into **categories** (grouped data content that share similar meanings and connotations) with common content characteristics, ideas and patterns (Westbrook, 1994; Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Bernard, 2006; Saldana, 2009). The emerging categories were then grouped into themes. According to Westbrook (1994, p.246), "themes refer to clusters of categories that share some commonality, such as reference to a single issue". It was from the use of the constant comparative method in search of common ideas and related patterns of responses or data content for each research question that the relevant information categories and themes emerged. The categories and themes facilitated the identification of stakeholders' common experiences and understandings of certain policy implementation realities/issues within the interview data content.

Themes are concepts and constructs that emerge from the data content categories and are important for describing and interpreting data so as to understand the study phenomena under consideration (Fereday et al., 2006). Likewise, in this study, thematic analysis was used to identify and generate themes and sub-themes under which similar data content/clusters in the form of significant participants' responses were summarised, presented, compared and interpreted for meanings and understanding of the subjective experiences of individual stakeholders in similar or different policy implementation contexts (Crowe et al., 2015). During data presentation, the relevant coded data content with closely related ideas in the participants' interview transcripts were copied and pasted on the QDA sheet under relevant data categories for cross-case comparative content and thematic analyses. Through open coding as a method of data reduction management, similar ideas from different participants' interview responses to specific research questions were clustered to form some category phrases (such as few government-aided secondary schools, high tuition fee in private schools) from which some major themes (such as inadequacy of affordable government

secondary schools) emerged to guide the process of interpreting the findings and generating answers to the research questions on stakeholders' understanding of the policy phenomenon (Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Saldana, 2009). However, during the coding process, some unique and interesting data content was highlighted in the same colour in the interview transcripts for them to be quickly located and put together for further discussion under their respective themes. This process reduced data into manageable forms or summary responses through coding, content and thematic analyses, as illustrated in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Illustration of analysis of text information derived from interview transcripts

Protocol question	Interviewee pseudonym in the form of numbers	Grouping interviewee's responses	Open codes or categories	Emerging themes
Why was the PPP policy in USE adopted in Uganda?	SH1	the policy came in place due to or because of the few government-aided secondary schools which could accommodate students from Primary Seven who could not afford the high pay for education from institutions like private institutions	-Few government- aided secondary schools -Affordable tuition fee	Inadequate number of government-aided schools with affordable tuition fee
	SH4	the policy was brought in as a stop gap, especially to address the issues of inadequacy of secondary schoolsalthough the policy is that every sub-county in Uganda should have a government-aided schoolSo when USE was put in place or announced, we realised that we could not accommodate all these children in government-aided schools. So it was agreed to bring on board the private sector and have partnership agreement with them to enable us [to] have children access secondary education.	-Reason for policy adoption was inadequacy in the number of government secondary schools - Ensure equity in the distribution of USE -The need to accommodate all children for USE	-Inadequacy in number of government-aided schools to accommodate USE learners To accommodate and ensure equitable access to USE for all

The above table illustrates the content and thematic analytical procedure I followed to organise and categorise data from almost all interview transcripts into suitable **themes** for all responses to the key research questions of the study. This inductive process of condensing raw textual data into summary format was mainly informed by the key research questions and interview protocol questions that guided this study (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Thomas, 2006). Using thematic and content analyses, the participants' interview transcripts were then iteratively analysed and contrasted under each theme in search of converging or common characteristics and divergences/variations in their responses to particular questions. Later, they were logically put under each of the relevant thematic areas for further interpretation and discussion (Lindqvist & Nilholm, 2013). The categories formed from coded and summarised data content on the PPP policy implementation and their corresponding content and sub-

categories helped me to develop some broader themes based on the research questions, new and unusual emerging conceptual issues from participants' responses. This echoes with what Creswell (2007) recommends, i.e. what to consider or gets coded in the data should include something that surprises you, or what appears to be unusual or new and conceptually interesting in your data.

In the presentation of findings, further cross-case comparative analyses under each theme were done using some significant and relevant participants' quotes, which provide valuable support in the interpretation of such findings to make sense of the researcher's arguments on a particular issue or proposition. In this study, participants' quotations or excerpts were used for data analysis and interpretation both to preserve their voices, reflections and subjective viewpoints as evidence to substantiate the emerging similarities and differences in their responses to specific questions; and as a way of confirming and demonstrating interpretive rigour and the credibility of such emerging research findings and the conclusions made (Fereday et al., 2006; Creswell, 2013). This view is supported by Hofstee (2006), who argues that quotes/excerpts in the form of participants' voices not only provide supporting evidence to confirm the emerging findings but also enhance the interpretative rigour and credibility of the propositions and conclusions made from the findings and interpretations.

Furthermore, comparisons and contrasts of findings under each theme were made to identify some commonalities and differences in stakeholders' understandings and experiences of policy implementation. Convergence and comparisons of ideas from participants' experiences and understanding helped me in making some appropriate assertions from the emerging findings as knowledge contributions to PPPs in education and their implications for policy. Subsequently, the key findings of the study were discussed in relation to the existing literature to identify the contributions made from the study to the body of knowledge in relation to stakeholders' understandings, experiences, influences and perceptions of PPP policy implementation in USE delivery. Conclusions from the study findings and recommendations were finally made while indicating the area for further research.

4.6 Trustworthiness of Findings

The strength of a research study to produce accurate and trustworthy results is influenced by the nature of the study, its philosophical underpinnings and the appropriate methodological approaches employed (Connell, 2003). This supports Anney's (2014, p.272) assertion that "each research approach employs different evaluation criteria to ensure the rigour of the inquiry because of different philosophical and methodology assumptions that guide each approach". In view of this, positivists, in their quantitative approaches, adhere to the

traditional assessment tests of validity, reliability and objectivity to evaluative the quality of their research findings, as opposed to interpretivists, who determine and/or evaluate the quality, validity and rigour of their qualitative research findings in terms of trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Connell, 2003; Yuen, 2005; Schwandt, Lincoln & Guba, 2007; Anney, 2014). Thus, a qualitative study is *trustworthy* if its research findings can be *trusted* by the reader to the extent that they are *confident* in them based on their quality, validity and truth (credibility) with regard to understanding the case phenomenon being investigated (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Tufue-Dolgoy, 2010).

Trustworthiness in a qualitative study is ensured and determined by the *credibility*, *transferability*, *dependability and confirmability* of its research process and findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Miles & Huberman 1994; Yuen, 2005; Schwandt, Lincoln & Guba, 2007; Maree, 2012; Creswell, 2014; Anney, 2014). Owing to the fact that my study was conceptualised within the qualitative interpretivism paradigm, I adhered to the trustworthiness criteria to ensure quality, validity and rigour in the research process and the research findings. In this regard, just as a quantitative study cannot be valid unless it is reliable, likewise, a qualitative study cannot be transferable or be generalised to other similar contexts unless it is credible; and it cannot be credible unless it is dependable (Denzin & Lincoln, 1985; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). To ensure and satisfy the above set criteria of trustworthiness as validity and reliability checks for this current interpretive qualitative study, I employed a number of strategies, which included a prolonged data collection period till its saturation, member checking, triangulation, peer debriefing, thick description, audit trail and reflexivity (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Cohen & Crabtree; Anney, 2014).

Credibility is one of the criteria for demonstrating and/or evaluating the rigour and truthfulness of qualitative research data and its findings. It is all about the integrity and confidence in the truth of qualitative data and research findings with regard to whether they are adequate representations and worthy interpretations of participants' responses or the meanings they attach to their experiences (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Connell, 2003; Bowen, 2005; Maree, 2012). I ensured the credibility of both data and research findings. I did this, first, through purposive selection of information-rich participants (stakeholders). This was followed by prolonged engagement with participants through in-depth interviews (based on piloted interview protocols) till data saturation. Triangulation of findings from multiple data sources (participants) and data collection methods (interviews) with findings from other interviewees and a diversity of policy documents (document review) was done while formal

and informal **member checks** on key selected interview transcripts and their summaries were periodically conducted with some stakeholders/participants for clarity, verification and feedback on the meanings and interpretations of certain findings. This was done alongside establishing referential adequacy in terms of data source evidence such as recorded interviews as validity checks through the entire study (Bryman, 2004; Tufue-Dolgoy, 2010; Maree, 2012).

In this study, I spent a period of almost two years undertaking data collection through indepth interviews with a diversity of stakeholders until data saturation was achieved. This **prolonged time of engagement** with 28 stakeholders through in-depth interviews in the quest for knowledge helped me to gain access to credible/truthful information about their subjective multiple viewpoints on their experiences and understanding of this policy. Thus, conducting such multiple in-depth interviews with a range of different stakeholders (participants) to the saturation point generated reliable and diverse viewpoints for constructions of reality regarding PPP in USE based on their varying perceptions, understandings and lived experiences of the policy environments. Besides, during data collection and analysis, I carried out some peer review consultations (**peer debriefing**) to obtain second opinions for deeper understanding and interpretation of some findings that were emerging from data. Besides, I employed triangulation by using multiple data sources (different stakeholders) from a diversity of purposely selected institutions.

Additionally, member checking was carried out with some interviewees to get feedback and check the accuracy of the data acquired and the interpretations made as well as to obtain additional information to enhance the validity or trustworthiness of the findings (Thomas, 2006). During this process, I sent mails to some participants whom I could not access physically for member checks. On the other hand, I made phone calls to those who could not respond to my emails promptly with requests for clarification on certain issues identified within their interview transcripts. Key among the validity checks I used was triangulation of multiple data sources and collection methods, which included multiple stakeholders who were interviewed, field notes and analysis of various relevant policy documents. The findings from the study participants as key multiple sources of most data were corroborated with other information gathered from a range of policy documents and the literature survey. Moreover, the audiotaped and verbatim interview transcripts were regularly referred to for validity checks on quality, truthfulness, accuracy and richness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Yuen, 2005; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Tufue-Dolgoy, 2010). Thus, conducting audiotaped interviews by using a digital recorder of reliable quality with purposefully selected information-rich participants together with document analysis enabled me to ensure the credibility of my data and research findings for their validity, rigour, truthfulness and reliability in understanding the stakeholders' experiences of this policy.

Secondly, the criterion of transferability, which is seen as the extent to which the research findings of a particular qualitative case study might be generalised (theoretically and analytically) or transferred to other similar cases or contexts outside the study (Schwandt, 1997; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006; Rule & John, 2011; Maree, 2012), was satisfied in this research. Though the transferability criterion has been subject to criticisms by positivists because of its inability to generalise to large populations from case study findings, the context in which it is used or applied in qualitative research by interpretivists differs from how it is statistically applied in quantitative studies. In support of this, Yin (2003a) argues that the findings of qualitative case studies are generalisable to theoretical propositions and not statistically to populations or universes. Relatedly, Bryman (2004) and Miles and Huberman (1994) affirm that qualitative inquiry or analysis often aims at exploring or understanding a complex phenomenon experienced by participants themselves to generate new ideas, meanings, interpretations, hypotheses and theories that can be applied to other contexts for analytical purposes. Thus, the transferability often sought from qualitative case study contexts is the generalisation of ideas or theoretical knowledge generated so that they can be applied in many other contexts, unlike statistical generalisation to large populations that applies to positivistic quantitative inquiries. In view of this, new ideas or theoretical information and stimulating propositions as well as significant quotes generated from a single person or case study area/policy phenomenon (such as stakeholders' experience of PPP policy implementation in USE in Uganda) may be broadly applied across other similar cases or contexts or be theoretically inferred for judgement in other related studies. Thus, transferability, which is synonymous with external validity in quantitative studies, denotes the degree to which qualitative data and research findings or ideas are applied to other similar contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Tufue-Dolgoy, 2010).

In this study, I ensured transferability checks by providing thick and detailed descriptions of the study context and appropriate approaches in which it was conceptualised, and through which qualitative data was collected and systematically analysed to generate new insights, ideas, interpretations and propositions. This provides the opportunity for other scholars to theoretically and analytically judge whether it is possible whether such descriptions and approaches may be adopted in other related cases of PPPs in the context of education.

In this study, I used independent multiple sources of data through in-depth interviews with different groups of purposively selected information-rich cases (sample) of internal and external stakeholders in the PPP policy from different institutions (PPP schools, MOES, Wakiso district head offices). In this way, I gathered subjective detailed interview data which was later corroborated with document review data and field notes to triangulate a great amount of evidence to generate dependable ideas with regard to understanding stakeholders' experiences and understanding of PPP policy implementation realties in USE in Uganda. Member/stakeholder checks on some findings were also undertaken soon after completing some preliminary data analysis with two teachers, one school proprietor and one official from the MOES. Furthermore, I spent prolonged periods of time with some participants who had a lot to tell about their personal lived experiences after they had built trust and confidence in me. I also conducted follow-up interviews and more interview discussions for further probing to obtain more rich, valid data for thick and detailed descriptions of their experiences and for understanding of the phenomenon as key research findings to which others may refer for making theory-driven meanings and judgements, analytical interpretations and conclusions in similar studies (Bryman, 2005; Yuen, 2005; Tufue-Dolgoy, 2010).

Dependability as a criterion for trustworthiness in qualitative research revolves around the reliability of qualitative data and its findings, which is associated with the consistency and stability of data or the convergence of findings or responses (ideas) over time on given constructs. Literally, **dependability** is the extent to which the source of the data, the methods of data collection, the data itself and its results can be relied on in research (Lincoln & Guba, 1981; Pierce, 2007; Maree, 2012). It is all about the rigour associated with the research process together with related activities. The key determinant is whether they were dependable or reliable to justify the quality and truthfulness of the findings derived from them. In this qualitative study, I ensured dependability using the same methods employed for enhancing credibility, because there cannot be dependability of data and findings without their credibility (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). Owing to this, I satisfied the requirement for dependability as a reliability check through the triangulation of multiple data sources (purposively selected stakeholders in PPP policy), data collection methods and triangulation of evidence from a multiplicity of participant interviews on their experiences, understandings, perspectives and interpretations of some of the policy issues studied in order to explore consistency and convergences or overlaps in ideas and findings. Besides my research supervisor, I also gave my work to some other independent readers to carry out confirmatory audits or to evaluate/examine the appropriateness of the theoretical and philosophical assumptions under which the study was conceptualised, their alignment with the entire research process, and correspondence between data and the study findings and interpretations made. Findings are believed to more dependable when they are evaluated through triangulation from several independent sources and methods (O'Connor & Gibson, n.d.) and by another eye to evaluate the appropriateness of the research procedure and process.

In this qualitative research, *confirmability* was also ensured. Confirmability is the extent to which study findings and interpretations are in line with the study purpose and are strongly supported by data collected but not the researcher's biases (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). It is established by ensuring integrity and accuracy in data collection and soundness of the judgements or decisions made as well as the conclusions from data analysis and sense-making (Connell, 2003). In this qualitative case study, I used document analysis for methodological and data source triangulation so as not only to reduce information gaps and biases but also to provide corroborating evidence for the conformability of findings as trustworthiness measures (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007; Anney, 2014). Besides, I ensured confirmability by complying with ethical considerations and accuracy in gathering data through audiotaped interviews with the use of a reliable, good-quality recorder. I also piloted the interview protocol, which captured all participants' responses or narratives verbatim, and I checked their correctness and accuracy for quality and richness before making an analysis. The interview recordings were then transcribed and studied through an iterative process of comparing and cross-checking of the interview data in each transcript in search of stakeholders' common or similar responses. The back-and-forth data reduction process aimed at generating research codes, categories and themes for consistent analysis and integration with other gathered data bases for further analysis. This was aimed at ensuring that the evidence provided, analytical descriptions, inferences and interpretations made as findings and conclusions were adequately grounded in data to confirm their trustworthiness (Melanie & Russell, 1989; Yuen, 2005; Creswell, 2014). This was reinforced by avoiding my personal biases through reflexivity/self-awareness as a validity check in the study. This is explained in the next section on how I located myself in this study.

4.7 Locating My Position in the Study

Reflexivity is another validity check in the qualitative research process that I ensured for quality and rigour of research findings. Reflexivity is the ability of the researcher to review and reflect upon his/her actions and beliefs during the entire research process; and it enhances the researcher's integrity, self—awareness and critical self-reflection to guard against biases that would affect the quality and validity the research process and its findings (Arber, 2005; Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2014). In this study, I was both an insider and an outsider. Self-understanding and reflection helped to locate myself mainly as a researcher (outsider) on this education policy and partly as an insider owing to my career and professional position as an educator. As a professional teacher studying a policy implemented by the MOES I,

therefore, partly perceive myself as an insider with some attachment. Nevertheless, my insider position helped me to purposively identify some information-rich cases of stakeholders, some of whom referred (snowball sampling) me to other reliable sources of data. Through self-awareness and reflection, I was able to know and stick to the scope of my roles in this study and how to conduct the interviews without influencing interviewees with my insider self-opinions since I was also viewed as a source of data in this policy study. This supports Ryan's (n.d.) argument in his write-up on reflection and reflexivity that "being reflexive when you are close to the data, in fact you are the data in many cases".

However, the neo-liberal policy of PPP in USE as a new policy, which I explore with regard to how it was experienced and understood, put me in the position of an outsider. Moreover, how I studied it using interpretive approaches located me as an outsider (researcher) with hardly any influences since data was constructed by interviewees whose analysis was methodologically driven. I focused on my key roles and the objectives of generating trustworthy information so as to gain unprejudiced knowledge and to understand how stakeholders in this policy experienced and perceived its implementation. To sustain and achieve the validity checks of reflexivity in the entire study process, I also ensured that data collection, analysis, interpretation and the research findings were informed purely by the research questions of the study and its purpose. Besides, based on the nature of my work in Uganda as an educator and public policy advocate, some study participants in the MOES and PPP schools identified me with them as their fellow educator/teacher, while other public organisations knew me as a public policy advocate. This professional identity and association attributed to me by most study participants not only gave them confidence but also enabled me to access the available relevant information and policy documents. Thus, the purposively selected participants' confidence and willingness to freely share with me their personal lived experiences in the implementation of this policy through in-depth interviews based on research questions of the study but not on my personal biases. This enabled me to generate detailed data with hardly any undue influences of my personal biases on the trustworthiness of the study findings, interpretations and conclusions.

Finally, in all my data collection activities through in-depth interviews and organisational visits, I adhered to ethical considerations. I employed interpretive research approaches while remaining reflexive in the entire study. I always focused on the study purpose of gaining an understanding of the stakeholders' perspectives and lived experiences of the policy through methodologically relevant and theory-driven research questions but not from what I knew about them as an insider. In this research process, I therefore located myself as an interpretivist, who consciously, ethically and methodologically interacted with study

participants through interview discussions. This was intended not only to mitigate the possible dangers of self-inflicted undue influences on data collection but also to ensure the trustworthiness of my study findings.

4.9 Ethical Considerations

Ethically, researchers are duty-bound to observe ethical rules and standards during the entire research process. To comply with and ensure that such ethical rules and standards are upheld, I first secured permission and a research clearance letter from the Uganda National Council of Science and Technology (UNSCT) to conduct research of this nature in Uganda (Appendix 2). Thereafter, I obtained an introductory letter and research ethical clearance approval from the University of Pretoria to start data collection (Appendix 5). These letters ethically enabled me to visit the research study sites and certain institutions to seek policy documents related to my study and to identify contact persons and key informants (KIs) as appropriate stakeholders to participate in the study. These introductory letters and ethical research approval letters were presented to the MOES, Wakiso district, PPP schools and other participants from these respective institutions that voluntarily gave me permission to start collecting data from them, their specific departments, district and schools. However, key among the institutions I visited after securing an authorisation letter from UNSCT in my search for policy documents were various departments in the MOES, Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA), relevant departments of education and the local government at Wakiso district headquarters, the Parliament of Uganda and purposively selected PPP schools.

Prior to their participation in the study, informed consent was sought and obtained from the purposively selected stakeholders and institutions. Thus, participation in the study was voluntary with informed consent. Thus, the ethical requirement to ensure voluntary participation with informed consent by participants was adhered to prior to and during the selection and identification of stakeholders to participate in this study as well as during data collection and analysis. Therefore, at all levels, the persons and institutions I visited and consulted for participation in the study voluntarily accepted on the basis of prior informed consent (Sekaran, 2003; Mabry, 2008; Leedy & Ormrod, 2014).

The information offered by institutions and study participants through documents and interviews have also been treated with utmost confidentiality. Furthermore, anonymity of participants' has been guaranteed by the use of pseudonyms throughout the research process. Also, audio-recording of participants' voices during interview discussions was done with their consent. In transcribing the participants' audio-format interviews, I considered their

confidentiality and anonymity, particularly during data analysis and the presentation of some of their voices verbatim as supporting evidence.

To enhance the participants' understanding of the study, I provided detailed information and the reasons for being chosen to participate in the study as well as its purpose. Of great support was my introductory letters that granted me permission to access the study sites, together with the invitation letters to participate and a copy of the consent forms to be signed by any participant after his/her voluntary acceptance to participate in this study. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity of the study participants, I used pseudonyms and anonymous positions of the study participants to represent their responses/voices and any related information material about their identity or personality in data presentation, analysis and interpretation of findings throughout the entire research process. The use of pseudonyms builds trust, and preserves participants' confidentiality relating to information about their personal experiences and identities throughout the research process. Likewise, all materials, such as audio recorders used to capture the participants' information, were safeguarded and kept with confidentiality between me, the hired transcriber and my research supervisor. In addition, I kept them in safe custody after completing my research project. When introducing each of the stakeholders' quotations in the presentation of findings, I used pseudonyms in order to comply with the confidentiality promise made during interviews as contained in the ethical clause of this study.

The next chapter presents the findings of the study on stakeholders' experiences and understanding of this policy and its implementation from their viewpoints.

CHAPTER FIVE

STAKEHOLDERS' UNDERSTANDINGS AND EXPERIENCES OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PPP POLICY IN UNVERSAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings on stakeholders' understandings and experiences of the PPP policy and its implementation in USE in Uganda. It identifies the similarities and differences in the ways stakeholders understand and experience this policy and why. Stakeholders were mainly categorised into government-based stakeholders (MOES and district local government officials) and partnership school-based (school proprietors, head teachers, teachers, local community leaders and parents) stakeholders for ease of reference and comparisons in their understandings, experiences and perceptions of the policy. This helped in gaining an in-depth understanding of stakeholders' multiple viewpoints on policy realities through cross-case comparative analyses.

Moreover, the construct of understanding is emphasised in the literature of policy implementation (Walshaw & Anthony, 2007; Singh et al., 2014) without which its success is suppressed. In view of this, stakeholders' understanding of this policy and its implementation realities (policy origin, purpose and guidelines, impacts, success and challenges experienced) were sought and explored while focusing on how and why they made sense of them in the way they did, and how their understandings affected and were affected by policy implementation. Besides, Martinez, Hall, Wall and Mosebar (2013) advocate educating and sensitising all stakeholders regarding what PPPs are, why they are needed and what they can and cannot do in order to mitigate the increasing cases of their misunderstanding, misperception and the inherent biases, which in most cases cause information asymmetry and barriers in the implementation of PPPs. This backdrop provides a justification for exploring stakeholders' understanding as an inevitable tool for doing policy in a successful way (Ball et al., 2012). Moreover, Yuen (2005) argues from the interpretive perspective that understanding is a precondition for correct interpretation and sense-making of the phenomenon experienced.

The findings in this section are guided by the first research question: *How do stakeholders understand the purpose of and guidelines for the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda?* This question sought to gain a rich and in-depth detailed understanding of how stakeholders make sense of the policy with regard to its implementation purpose/goals, impacts and success among others. The various ways in which stakeholders expressed their understandings and experiences of this policy and its implementation realities are presented

and examined under the following themes and categories that emerged from the data: understanding of the policy goals/purpose; understanding of the policy from its economic and political perspectives; understanding of the policy impacts and success; and understanding of the policy implementation challenges experienced.

5.1 Understanding of the Policy Purpose

This theme seeks to explore and gain in-depth understanding of the policy from stakeholders' viewpoints on its purpose or why it was adopted in USE. The study reveals the existence of varying understandings of this policy across stakeholder groups and individuals. While most stakeholders were not aware of the exact year when the policy came into effect, they had a common understanding of the policy purpose or goal of increasing access to USE for all children in the country, particularly communities without an adequate number of government-aided secondary schools. Though understanding of the policy differed within and across some stakeholder groups regarding certain policy realities, one of the interesting findings indicates that most school-based stakeholders lacked a clear understanding of it. They had little knowledge about why and how the policy of PPP in USE emerged. Their lack of a clear understanding of the policy realities was mainly attributed to their lack of adequate sensitisation to it and limited access to relevant policy documents. Whereas almost all government-based stakeholders (from the district local government to the MOES) have a clear and technical understanding of this policy, their counterparts in the lower echelons of the policy implementation hierarchy, especially from PPP schools and local communities, lacked a clear understanding of the policy details. It seems that the variations in stakeholders' understanding of the policy realities were partly influenced by differences in their positions and roles in its implementation hierarchy, exposure and experiences in education policy issues, the degree of engagement and involvement in making policy contracts and decisions, the degree of access to policy information sources and the level of sensitisation regarding its implementation.

The next sections will elaborate on the different understandings of the policy purpose. These include the goals of *increasing access to USE*, *supporting the influx of UPE learners in need of USE*; the provision of affordable secondary school education; overcoming the inadequacy in the number of government secondary schools.

5.1.1 Increasing access to USE

In this sub-theme, the findings indicate that most stakeholders expressed their understanding of the implementation of PPP policy in USE as having emerged from the government's need to achieve the goal of increasing access to USE for all children, particularly those in

underserved regions of the country by public-owned/government-aided schools. In this regard, one district administrator explained:

Yeah! I am aware [of the policy]. ... Because government has few secondary schools, it decided to partner with private institutions ... to provide education to these students within their sub-counties or localities. (Interviewee SH1)

One of the national inspectors of schools from the MOES also perceived the PPP policy in USE as an alternative way through which the government decided to achieve the goal of increasing access to education for all. According to her:

... The major goal[of this policy] is really ensuring access for all; and since access for all [children] could not be achieved in the government aided schools, then the private schools were a second window through which this access could be achieved. (Interviewee SH11)

Relatedly, a teacher in partnership school B, who concurred with the above understandings of the policy aim and reasons for its adoption, elaborated his viewpoint thus:

This policy, it is an agreement signed between the private [school] owners with the government to implement the universal secondary education. And this was so because few government schools were built in different areas, meaning that other areas did not have access to schools; so the government had to partner with the private owners so that education reaches even to the low class of people who had no potentials to access it. ...It started in 2008...as one of the Millennium Development Goals [MDGs]...So the government decided to introduce the policy to give access to education to all Ugandans irrespective of their backgrounds. (Interviewee SH6)

This teacher had an understanding of the policy origin and reasons for its adoption. Though he could not state the exact year (2007) of its commencement, he demonstrated the genesis of the policy from the local and international (the former MDGs) perspectives of increasing access to education for all. The above excerpts reveal that both government and school-based stakeholders have some common understanding of the policy origin as its goal of increasing access to USE for all. Though most stakeholders commonly cited the need to increase access to USE as the driving force behind the PPP policy in USE, they were also in agreement with other stakeholders who considered the influx of learners from universal primary education (UPE) in search of USE services in public schools as part of the motive force behind its genesis. This is discussed in the next sub-theme.

5.1.2 Supporting the influx of UPE learners seeking USE

The study findings also indicate that some stakeholders expressed their understanding of the policy origin and purpose in terms of the government's urge to support the influx of UPE learners seeking to join USE amidst the inadequate number of government secondary schools offering it. With the increasing demand for USE in areas having few public secondary schools offering it, the government found it inevitable to adopt PPP in USE as an immediate and viable alternative policy response to this challenge. In this regard, a senior policy-maker

and regulator who participated in its design expressed her understanding of its origin and purpose. She attributed these to the influx of learners from UPE, whose subsequent rising demand for USE exceeded what the available government secondary schools could provide. She remarked:

...the government schools which were available could not handle the influx of the children who were joining secondary schools at that level. So, it was considered pertinent to involve other stakeholders who would be willing to work with government. So, it's against that background that the PPP aspect came in. ...And those [private schools] who were willing, came on board and partnered with government in ensuring that all those [students] who completed Primary Seven and qualified for secondary [education] can find places at secondary level. So, that's how the policy started. (Interviewee SH11)

This was supported with similar viewpoints by one commissioner of education who said:

... When government took on USE, at that time [2007] we didn't have enough capacity to cater for all the students that were qualifying for this [USE] programme. So, it was fit to call upon the private sector [secondary] schools to come and render a hand, which they did willingly... (Interviewee SH7)

Most of the stakeholders view the increasing need for USE by the influx of learners who had completed UPE amidst few public secondary schools as the reason for the origin and purpose of adopting this policy. However, the findings from the above extracts indicate that most government stakeholders seem to have a similar and clear understanding of the policy, and they tend to use a common language in describing the contextual realities regarding its emergence. This suggests that this high level of understating of the policy could be attributed to the stakeholders' high positions, technical roles and degree of engagement in its implementation, which ensured better access to relevant policy information than among the school-based stakeholders. However, one school-based stakeholder, who served as a parents' representative in a parent-teacher association (PTA), revealed that most parents had limited knowledge of the policy because some school administrators concealed detailed information about it from them. He pleaded:

...but there is some hidden information about it [policy], [and] most of the parents are not aware of it... [Because] **some school administrators try to hide the policy** from the parents as they don't want the parents to know exactly whether the school is under the government sponsorship. (Interviewee SH21)

This extract provides evidence-based insights into why some school-based stakeholders, mainly parents and local community leaders, experience lack of policy awareness. This accounts for the existing variations in understanding of the same policy by different stakeholder groups. This implies that some parents are implementing a policy which they do not clearly understand. The lack of parents' understanding of the policy was partly created through concealment of information by some school administrators who did not want parents

to know that their schools were in PPP in order to charge them more money. In this context, poor communication, inadequate sensitisation regarding policy and limited access to relevant policy documents are seen as key reasons as to why some of these school-based stakeholders lack clear knowledge of this policy.

5.1.3 Providing affordable secondary school education to all for equity purposes

Another dimension with regard to which stakeholders perceived and demonstrated understanding of how the PPP policy in USE emerged was the government's need to provide affordable or subsidised secondary education services to children of low-income earners in some locales. In their view, the policy was adopted to enable many of the children who could not afford the high tuition fees charged for secondary education to gain access to it at the available and nearby private schools. In this regard, some stakeholders see this policy as a tool for promoting equity through enabling access to affordable USE by all. Regarding this, one district education official commented that:

It [policy] was to provide education to the low-income earners and to enable as many as many students who were coming from the primary schools; because, as you know, UPE started earlier, so, they were quite a number of [UPE] candidates sitting Primary Leaving Exams (PLE). So, how would they end up if there was no [free] USE? (Interviewee SH1)

Another stakeholder, a local community leader, maintained that the PPP schools are helping many students who could not afford to attain the needed secondary school education owing to school fees challenges. He explained:

I am not particularly sure of the [policy], but I think it started around [the year] 2008. But it's good that this policy started because there were very many students who could not afford [to] attain secondary education due to fees issues. (Interviewee SH9)

Relatedly, speaking on behalf of the parents of partnership school B, a representative of a PTA noted that this policy was to promote equity by enabling the children of most low-income parents to attain secondary education. He stressed:

About that policy, my understanding is that, it was purposely meant to give equal opportunity to all the children, both the rich and the poor, and to say eliminate illiteracy and ignorance among the communities... So with the introduction of this policy, we are seeing many of the children from poor families also able to attend education. ...It has helped most of us the parents who are low-income earners to at least raise up our students to attain secondary education... (Interviewee SH21)

Accordingly, both the government and school-based stakeholders seem to have some common understanding that the policy emerged from the inability of many children from low-income groups to access secondary education. This motivated the government to promote their equitable access to USE by subsidising it through the PPP policy.

5.1.4 To overcome the inadequacy of government secondary schools in USE delivery

The adoption of the PPP policy in USE was also perceived by most stakeholders to have emerged as a policy response to the inadequacy of government-aided secondary schools in USE delivery due to their capacity limitations. In view of this, one policy regulator explained that this policy was adopted as a government intervention to address the capacity gaps in the provision of USE due to insufficiency in the number of government-aided secondary schools:

...the policy was brought in as a stop gap especially to address the issues of inadequacy of secondary schools. In secondary [education sector], the private sector has more schools compared to government schools, although the policy is that every sub-county in Uganda should have a government-aided school...So when USE was put in place or announced, we realised that we could not accommodate all these children in government-aided schools. So it was agreed that we needed to bring on board the private sector and have partnership agreement with them to enable us [to] have children access secondary education. (Interviewee SH4).

This understanding was echoed by one commissioner in the same ministry who said:

...PPP policy was introduced in 2007...when government took on USE. At that time we didn't have enough capacity to cater for all the students that were qualifying for this [USE] programme. So, it was fit to call upon the private sector [secondary] schools to come and render a hand which they did willingly...(Interviewee SH7)

This was substantiated by a district inspector of schools who, regarding how he understood the policy, said:

...government engaged some private secondary schools to implement the Universal Secondary Education programme, and this was due to inadequacy of government schools to undertake such a programme (Interviewee SH14)

While the preceding government stakeholders indicate that the policy arose from the shortfall in the capacity of government schools to accommodate all students and deliver USE to them, some stakeholders see this inadequacy, which hastened the introduction of PPPs in USE, from different (political pledges and interrelated policy) perspectives. For instance, one professional educationist related the genesis of the PPP policy in USE to the need to **sustain the interrelated policy of UPE**, because USE creates an opening for UPE products (learners):

...the genesis of this [policy] was a realisation that government did not have enough government secondary schools to absorb all the children who are leaving the primary level ... So in a way they [UPE learners] were becoming a danger to the UPE programme as well; because when you are having children accessing free universal education at primary [UPE] and they don't have anywhere to go after, then, that becomes a policy issue at primary level; so that was it genesis. (Interviewee SH19)

He added:

The challenge is that there wasn't enough space to accommodate all the children who would like to benefit from the USE in public schools. Therefore government

partnered with the private schools. So the origin was inadequate space to accommodate students. (Interviewee SH19)

The above extracts indicate that some stakeholders saw the inadequacy of government-aided schools to provide USE as a reason for the adoption of PPP in USE. However, other stakeholders perceived it through another lens. While government stakeholders viewed the public school inadequacy within an accommodative and delivery context, some educationalists perceive it as part of a political agenda to ensure the sustainability of the policy of UPE or as part of the government's previous pledge to have USE in every subcounty of Uganda. Hence, different stakeholders looked at the same reason for policy adoption but differed in making sense of the contexts of how and why it emerged in USE delivery.

5.2 Understanding the Policy from Its Economic and Political Perspectives

Rather than understanding the policy based on its goals as aforementioned, some stakeholders understood its origin from the economic and political perspectives. Most stakeholders pointed out budgetary constraints and political influences to account for how and why the PPP policy emerged in USE delivery. From the economic paradigm, some stakeholders perceived the PPP policy in USE to have risen from *public sector resource shortages or gaps* that made it difficult to invest in education (USE) and deliver it to all. One academic believed that since Uganda was pursuing neo-liberal policies, then PPP in USE was seen as a viable strategic policy tool for stimulating private sector investment in education and for achieving its goals of employment creation for the masses. He argues that:

... Uganda is largely pursuing a private sector-led economy....So, in order to stimulate investment into the education sector, this PPP comes in as a vehicle to help government achieve its goal of having a private sector-led economy; which in turn would also lead into solving partially unemployment because we have a number of unemployed people; and schools are known to absorb and as one of the mass recruitment areas. So from that perspective you find that the need for PPP in USE is increasing. (Interviewee SH22)

This relates to the viewpoint of one district administrator, who believed that government cannot do its planned activities alone if public resources are not enough. In such a case of public **budgetary resources constraints**, private sector actors are always engaged to assist in public service delivery. He thus argued that the adoption of the PPP policy in USE emerged as a way of bridging the resource gaps or shortages that the government experiences in its delivery. He elaborated:

... Resources across the globe have never been enough, and the government cannot do what it's supposed to do singlehandedly [alone], it would have loved to do that, but because of the public resource constraints, so some other private organisations come in to bridge the gap. So, just like any other area of service delivery, also government

sought help from the private practitioners [PPP schools] in bridging this gap in education... (Interviewee SH12)

The above extracts seem to suggest that without enough public education investments and resources, the public sector cannot alone adequately provide public/universal education services without partnering with potential private sector schools through the PPP policy in education. The above stakeholders' understandings seem to suggest that public resource constraints in USE delivery are seen as a driving force behind PPPs in USE delivery. This is an interesting finding because in such a PPP model for the delivery of USE in Uganda, the government procures/pays for services of PPP schools in executing this policy, an indication that it needs enough public resources, which is contrary to what some stakeholders say.

Yet another way in which some stakeholders expressed their understanding of the policy and its origin was from the **political perspective**. Some stakeholders maintain that this policy gained strength and its way into USE through the presidential pronouncements of establishing at least one government-aided secondary school in every sub-county of Uganda to increase access to secondary education for all children. In this regard, one academic conceived the genesis of this policy as having emerged from the government's failure to fulfil its earlier **political pledges** of having at least one government secondary school in every sub-county of Uganda. He elaborated:

Government pledged that it will have a secondary school in every sub-county; and over the years it has failed to fulfil that pledge. So, in order to reach the unreached or underserved or not served areas, it was felt that a public-private partnership would help to cover that gap and create incentives for the private sector [schools] to go into those undeserved areas. ...So in order to minimise the deficiency in provision of that service, then there has been need to ensure that that gap is covered by the PPPs. (Interviewee SH22)

However, this politically initiated strategy to have at least one government-owned/aided secondary school in each sub-county became difficult for the MOES to implement as new sub-counties continued to be created. In support of this, a government stakeholder revealed that:

...though the policy was [that], every sub-county in Uganda should have a government-aided school, but it has not been tenable; because it's a moving target. Each time new sub counties are being created, so it becomes difficult for us as a sector [Ministry of Education] to fulfil this government obligation. (Interviewee SH4)

The above extract seems to indicate that, though the MOES considered this pronouncement as part of the EFA initiative and policy directive, some stakeholders perceived it negatively as a political gimmick. And this attitude stalled the effective implementation of the policy. However, failure to have a government-aided secondary school in each sub-county galvanised the involvement of the President of Uganda, who came up with another strategic

view based on which he subsequently pronounced PPPs in USE as an alternative approach to ensuring access to USE by all children in the sub-counties created. This pronouncement was then enacted and translated into a PPP policy in USE by the MOES to enable the president to fulfil his promise and original idea of increasing access to USE for all in every sub-county through partnerships with some already existing private secondary schools. Most stakeholders perceived the presidential pronouncements to have had a greater impact in influencing the genesis and adoption of this policy. In his thoughts from a political outlook, one official from Wakiso district commented:

I think this [policy] started when the government through His Excellency [the President of the Republic of Uganda] decided to engage or take on all the students in secondary [education]... and of course it is known that government is supporting the programme of [having] one secondary school in every sub-county without any government secondary school ... that's how it came up. (Interviewee SH1).

The above views were corroborated by the head teacher of partnership school R, who said:

The policy started... through [political] campaigns of 2006...where His Excellency [the president] promised the nation that he was about to start a programme of free secondary education to all children of the country... (Interviewee SH20)

The above extracts indicate that most government and school-based stakeholders concurred in their understanding of how and why the political perspectives shaped and influenced the genesis and implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery in Uganda. Though the presidential pronouncement was partly seen as the precursor of the adoption of the PPP policy in USE, it has elicited mixed reactions from stakeholders in the multiparty political context of Uganda. For instance, while some stakeholders, particularly the low-income parents whose children benefited from the free USE services, view this policy positively, others perceive it negatively through the political lens irrespective of the quality of its outcomes and its impacts on society. In this regard, one stakeholder from academia noted that understanding of the policy has been influenced by some politicians to serve their personal interests. This political influence has adversely influenced some stakeholders' perceptions and understandings of the policy to an extent that most parents, as beneficiaries, do not even understand it clearly. Others, on the other hand, refer to it as the president's programme of gaining political capital and they do not have any interest in it. He stressed:

...a big number of parents don't understand the partnership properly. That is an understanding that was promoted initially by politicians who used these policies to gain political capital. Because, right now people are saying, haa! that is [President] Museveni's programme, and is none of our business. (Interviewee SH10)

The above extract suggests that some stakeholders perceived this policy to have been politically influenced by those who had certain personal interests in its implementation. This indicates that some stakeholders' understandings of this policy have been partly shaped by

some political orientations and preconceptions or biases. Lessons from the above extracts seem to suggest that, though presidential political pronouncements are considered as an alternative approach to policy-making, they often create varied stakeholders' perceptions of policies, which, in turn, might cause some unintended detrimental effects in their implementation. Besides, some stakeholders demonstrated varied understanding of the PPP policy guidelines. This is discussed in the next section.

5.3 Stakeholders' Understanding of PPP Policy Guidelines for Its Implementation

The aim of this section is to explore how stakeholders understand the guidelines for PPP policy implementation in USE delivery. According to the PPP policy guidelines to partnership schools (MOES, 2013), this policy was a result of the MOU between the government and selected private secondary schools. However, stakeholders' understanding of how it was done varied within and across their groups. The findings indicate that most government-based stakeholders and academics expressed a clear and more technical understanding of the partnership process/procedures than most of the PPP school-based stakeholders. When asked about how he understood the PPP policy procedures, one government stakeholder, who demonstrated a relatively clear understanding of it, elaborated:

...they [government] applied basic requirements of which the school must be licensed, must be registered...[And] the [school] inspectors had to go in and look at these [private] schools and then recommended them for partnering with government. (Interviewee SH1)

His understanding of the procedure for selecting PPP schools included the need for the school to be licensed and registered by the MOES, after which it would be inspected and recommended for partnership with the government in USE delivery if it qualified. Another government stakeholder from the district local government had more in-depth insights into the process:

...these [PPP schools] were selected basing on application... the criterion was a competitive one basing on a number of issues; say infrastructure development: Do you have the classrooms at your school? Do you have qualified teachers? How spacious is your school? Do you follow the curriculum of education? Are you teaching what's supposed to be taught and what is your resource base as well? Because you know government cannot be having money all the time. (Interviewee SH12)

He added:

... people were [then] inducted and oriented about the goals of the policy... the head teachers, and other stakeholders like board of governors [BOGs] of these various schools were educated about the aims of this policy; and they entered into the memorandum of understanding [MOU] well knowing what tasks were ahead of them and what were expected out of them. (Interviewee SH12)

Relatedly, another government stakeholder explained:

...Of course there were certain considerations that were made and one of them was that the school should be registered by the Ministry of Education and Sports; should have reputable people in charge of these institutions... who can take forward this agenda. And we also considered schools that were charging forty thousand Uganda shillings [\$11USD] and below, and that...there was no any other government [aided] secondary school...in that area. So, thereafter, a partnership agreement was written out with guideline, and of course we have the basic requirements and minimum standards which these schools must conform to. So briefly that's how the policy of partnership is. (Interviewee SH4)

The above extract indicates that for a school to qualify for this policy it should be located where there are no other government-aided schools, it should comply with the minimum basic requirements and standards of the MOES, have reputable school owners and managers, and should have a low cost tuition fee structure with maximum of forty thousand Uganda shillings (\$11USD) and below. The above findings indicate that, despite their similarities and variations, **most government stakeholders** demonstrated clear and high levels of understanding of the policy guidelines and their implementation procedure. These variations were linked to their different roles, work experience and specific positions in the implementation of the policy.

On the contrary, the findings indicate that **most school-based stakeholders** had relatively lower levels of understanding of the policy guidelines. When interviewed on this, one proprietor and director of partnership school C said:

I don't know what the hidden criterion was, but I assume they would select the best school [with] the best results. We think we are selected because our results have always been good. (Interviewee SH5)

The above extract indicates that some school-based stakeholders have an understanding that the selection of schools for PPP was based on their performance. Such an understanding indicated that some stakeholders lacked knowledge of the policy guidelines and considerations that were made for any private secondary school to qualify and participate in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery. Yet some of them (such as school proprietors and head teachers) ought to have had some induction training in this policy before signing the MOU. This finding suggests that some stakeholders were implementing the policy about which they had little knowledge unless they were effectively communicated to them through regular sensitisation.

Similarly, one teacher from partnership school C also expressed lack of aware of the policy she implemented. Yet as a teacher, she would be expected to be well informed about its implementation. In an interview discussion with her, she attributed her lack of awareness and clear understanding of the policy to not being informed about it. She remarked:

...I am not aware of those policies...I really don't want to deceive you, I really don't know. To be sincere...I cannot tell you as we are not informed about the policy. ... I don't think [that] all the people are informed about it, ...a few who are within the Ministry of Education maybe, but others do not, because we have not had groups of people coming around at least to sensitise us about partnership [PPP policy in USE] that the government is having with these other stakeholders. (Interviewee SH2)

The above response reveal that some teachers lacked awareness and a clear understanding of the policy because they were not informed and sensitised regarding it unlike those who worked in in the MOES and the district head offices, from which policy details could be easily accessed. Relatedly, one local community leader attributed their lower involvement in the implementation of the policy to their lack of awareness and clear understanding of the policy. He commented:

...people who are informed about this policy are very few.the reason I argue [is] that they should always publicly inform us like on radios or public address system so that all people in the community are informed of such [government] opportunities. ...We would be greatly involved in the implementation of USE in PPP but they don't inform us. (Interviewee SH9)

The implication from the above extract is that some school-based stakeholders have low awareness and understanding of the policy because they were neither not well informed about it. Most of the stakeholders who seemed to lack a clear understanding of this policy partly attributed it to their low involvement/engagement in its formulation, inadequate sensitisation regarding the policy and poor access to relevant information on its implementation.

However, one district official admitted that communication of the policy to other stakeholders was not enough. She attributed this situation to the existing manpower and resources constraints, which limited their capacity to do so. Regarding this, she said: "We are more often reluctant to provide adequate sensitisation due to the limited personnel and resources ..."

On the other hand, another district-based stakeholder argued that some school proprietors, head teachers and teachers did not clearly understand the policy because they hardly attended meetings on policy issues whenever they were invited to the district headquarters. He attributed teachers' and head teachers' inability to attend policy sensitisation meetings to the unfavourable working conditions in PPP schools created by some school proprietors, instability, dismissals and job insecurity experienced by teachers:

...they [school-based stakeholders] don't want to understand [the policy] because they don't come to meetings [on sensitisation]... because you can only educate them after if you invite them for a meeting, [but] they [head teachers/owners of schools] don't attend the meetings; and every day there is a new head teacher...the proprietors just chase [them] and recruit new ones after one [teacher/head teacher] is sent away, another one comes in. (Interviewee SH1)

The above comment supports the view of one education commissioner who also seemed to blame school-based stakeholders' lack of knowledge of the policy on the difficulty to mobilise them:

...the key challenges I will start with is that...bringing all these PPP schools together to take a decision; mobilising the schools so that they can take decisions for the proper implementation of the programme is a key challenge. Because we have had meetings or called meetings, you'll have some schools coming, others not coming and that kind of thing. So, they have a challenge of mobilising the schools towards the same level [of understanding the policy]. I think that's the basic challenge. (Interviewee SH7)

The above extracts indicate that difficulty in mobilising school-based stakeholders for dialogue and policy sensitisation meetings were due to the unfavourable working environment in most PPP schools. This took the form of job insecurity, attrition and instability of staff (head teachers and teachers) and their regular dismissal by PPP school proprietors. These are blamed for their lack of clear knowledge of the policy of which they are key implementers in most PPP schools as they negotiate their teaching and leadership roles, among other activities.

However, some voices from academia indicate that variations in understanding of the policy emerged from stakeholders' misconceptions, which arose from distortions in policy messages communicated to them by some politicians. One academic commented:

The politicians are very key in this policy...You have a president somewhere and a minister of education, then you have a head teacher leading the school [who] is confronted with a local area councillor [local community leader] who is telling the parents that you don't have to pay anything because the government has already paid money; which probably even doesn't exist because sometimes it's not remitted for several months; so what does the school leader do? (Interviewee SH10)

This finding suggests that if a policy is communicated differently and/or wrongly by a series of interlinked politicians, the intended and actual policy message in it might be distorted and ill-conceived by other stakeholders. Examples are the low-income/poor parents who embrace and misconceive it based on the way it is communicated to them by politicians.

However, the head teacher of partnership school K in Wakiso noted that most parents did not understand the policy owing to the fact that the policy is written and mainly communicated to most stakeholders at all levels in English. He remarked that:

...to be honest, I would say a larger percentage [of parents] may not know [it]. The reasons would be [that], whereas we try to teach them in the best possible [way] we can, but sometimes interpreting something that is read in English into the local language creates its own problems. So, we can only manage to explain to them to the level that we can also interpret. And remember this programme has some legal

attachments to it, legal issues that we even ourselves may not be able to understand... (Interviewee SH18)

The above viewpoints indicate that both the parents and other stakeholders on the lower rungs of the policy implementation hierarchy seemed to have difficulty in interpreting, explaining and understanding some of the policy information in English. This has created some miscommunication and misconception of the policy. This suggests that most parents and other PPP school-based stakeholders seemed to experience lack of a clear understanding of the policy owing to lack of effective communication or messaging of policy information. This implies that some stakeholders seemed to be implementing a policy which they did not clearly understand with regard to its goals and implementation guidelines.

Interestingly, one stakeholder from academia concluded the debate on understanding of the policy by presenting the view that high awareness and understanding of the policy by stakeholders could also have both a positive and a negative impact on its effectiveness based on their motives in its implementation. He asserted:

I can hypothesise that the more awareness, the more effective implementation of the policy, especially by those who want to serve the nation. But for those who want to steal from the nation, the more the awareness about the policy, the more they know the loopholes and the more they do things that will end up undermining the policy. (Interviewee SH22)

The above extract suggests that high awareness and understanding of the policy by its stakeholders might have both positive and negative implications for its effectiveness. This extract seems to suggest that if stakeholders who clearly understand the policy are not transparent, not ethically good and committed to both the policy guidelines and Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory's, the principles of agency and legitimacy, its implementation and intentions might not be achieved effectively.

Conclusion

The findings discussed in the preceding sections indicate that stakeholders' awareness and understanding of the PPP policy in USE and its implementation realities are context-specific. This implies that there are varied and subjective understandings of this policy by stakeholders owing to the different contexts in which they implemented it. The findings indicate that stakeholders understand the policy origin based on its purpose/goals with varying perspectives, which include: the need to increase access to USE; the need to meet the high demand for USE by the large influx of UPE learners; the need to provide affordable secondary education for equity and to overcome the inadequacy of government-aided secondary schools for USE delivery. However, some other stakeholders perceived the policy genesis/origin from the perspectives of budgetary /resource constraints, political influences and their understanding of policy guidelines. The need to increase access to USE and the

inadequacy of government-aided schools emerged as the commonly stated reasons for the adoption of this policy by most stakeholders. However, most government stakeholders and academics demonstrated a clearer understanding of how and why the policy was adopted than most school-based stakeholders, whose understanding of the policy was characterised by doubts and lack of clarity. This indicates varied understandings of the policy across the stakeholder groups from various perspectives. The findings indicate that the variation in understanding and perception of this policy and its realities among such stakeholders are associated and influenced by differences in the contexts in which they operated, their prior experiences of policy issues, the nature of their roles and positions in policy implementation, the stakeholders' levels of education, the degree of access to policy information, the level of communication, the sensitisation of stakeholders regarding the policy and their degree of engagement and involvement in its implementation.

5.4 Understanding of the Policy Impacts and Its Success

This section provides an account of stakeholders' understanding of the policy impacts with regard to access, equity and the quality of USE outcomes as well as its success. It also considers value for money, attitude change, skill development, student dropout rates and absenteeism as other emerging perceived indicators of policy impacts and success. The inquiry into this part of the study was guided by the protocol questions, which sought stakeholders' opinions and understanding of whether the PPP policy implementation had made any impacts on USE delivery and/or if it had been a success story in Uganda.

5.4.1 Understanding of PPP policy impacts on USE access, quality and equity

This section provides insights into stakeholders' understanding and perceptions of the policy impacts on access, equity and the quality of USE delivered from their viewpoints. The findings indicate that most government and school-based stakeholders perceived the policy to have had a positive impact of increasing access to USE. However, they expressed mixed opinions, including skepticism, in their perceptions of the policy impact on USE equity and quality. One district official, who acknowledged some improvement in both equity and access, conceded that the quality of USE delivery was low. He argued:

This [policy] has made an impact on access and equity. ...because where there is access, then there is equity. People have been able to access education much as they drop out at some level. Therefore education has been distributed equitably in all areas... which are diverse in Wakiso [district], we would not have that possible, but now, you find that in each and every corner there is this [partnership] school [and] these students attend in big numbers... On quality, we say the levels of attainment are still low. (Interviewee SH1)

Relatedly, another government stakeholder conceded that, though access to USE had improved in certain localities, the quality of USE outcomes had not improved; instead it had been compromised through teaching and learning. He explained:

...while access has increased, quality of education has not really improved that much. ... So it is an indication that quality is somehow compromised. ...there is access in improvement, especially in sub-counties that had no government schools. ...But in terms of quality of teaching and learning, quality of education being offered in the programme has not improved... (Interviewee SH7)

He added:

...the [policy] goals were first of all equitable access to quality education...but we are saying that while access has been achieved largely, equity is not clearly achieved because quality is not across the board. Quality is an issue that we are grappling with as a Ministry...

Regarding this, the quality impacts of this policy in PPP schools have been viewed negatively by most stakeholders with regard to USE examination results. As one government stakeholder puts it:

...if you look at the results, when they are released...the worst performing schools are always the USE partnership schools that are lagging behind. So, we still have a challenge in that area of quality...

The above findings indicate that most government stakeholders have a common understanding of the policy impacts of increased access to USE and equity improvement. On the other hand, the quality of its outcomes has been perceived to be low and compromised in most PPP schools.

Regarding the voices of other stakeholder groups on policy impacts, one school-based stakeholder revealed the positive impacts of increased students' enrolment for the USE programme. This included greater access to science equipment provided by the government and the creation of employment for many teachers who implement the PPP policy in USE delivery. However, she noted that the quality of USE remains compromised partly owing to limited funding. She commented:

It [policy] has improved enrolment because one of the major aim of introducing USE was to ensure that it is accessed by all those who couldn't afford to pay. ... [And] it created employment... If a school had four teachers or seven, with this [policy] the number increased. ... They [also] gave them many books... and lots of science equipment. I have already mentioned that quality is compromised... due to little money. (Interviewee SH16)

An academic reaffirmed the above viewpoint. He expressed the view that the equity and quality impacts of the policy had not been achieved because most PPP schools are not located in hard-to-reach areas where most underprivileged children live. He commented:

...but we know that equity has not been achieved; we know that access is still limited. Because most of the PPP schools are not in hard-to-reach areas...So, there are no incentives for the proprietors to go to the hard-to-reach areas, to go to underserved and far places. That is one challenge. You must create incentives for them to go there... (Interviewee SH 22)

Stakeholders' perception of USE quality in PPP schools

With regard to the quality of USE, most stakeholders have a common perception that the quality of USE offered through PPP schools is poor and declining in comparison with public schools and non-PPP schools. In support of this, one government-based stakeholder argued:

Many people have a negative opinion/feeling that PPP schools, like government USE schools, are low performers compared to the government schools that didn't join USE, or purely private schools that didn't join [this programme] especially those in urban areas.

Similarly, one inspector of schools from Wakiso district noted that some stakeholders from the public domain, mainly parents and local community members, associated USE provision through the PPP policy with low and declining quality education outcomes. They associated the low quality of education outcomes with free and universality of USE under the PPP policy. He elaborates:

...the public, most of these people think that when it becomes universal [education], there is nothing serious there on quality. That's what the public thinks, and you find parents taking their children, they leave this school which is near them and they take their children to another school which is a little bit far from a nearby one... Because of that universal perception of [low quality]...they think that whenever it is universal education, there is nothing to do with quality. (Interviewee SH8)

Likewise, a deputy headmaster at partnership school K in Wakiso district revealed that the public perceives and associates partnership schools with a low and declining quality of USE. He said:

...we are still having some problems like there are some people who think we don't provide quality education because we are USE, disregarding every other effort. For them what they see on top is USE and because the picture that has been planted across the nation is that all USE schools don't provide quality education. So we are being subdued by the negative picture that is reflected in other schools... (Interviewee SH18)

The above perceptions corroborate the views of another teacher in PPP school B in Wakiso district that the public views the policy and its outcomes from the perspective of poor quality of students' performance and the conditions of PPP schools. He commented:

There is a negative perception that students under that programme/under PP programme, their performance is always not good; that is what they say. So they end up taking them[children] to those other so called "big schools" because they pay enough money, the feeding automatically has to be good. They have to get good teachers because the money is there. (Interviewee SH3)

The above perspective seems to relate to that of another school-based stakeholder, who revealed that some parents associate the quality of education with its costs. The result is that the more expensive the school is in terms of tuition fee, the greater the perceived quality of education it is perceived to provide:

...parents [mostly] think that the more expensive the school is, the better the quality of education; but that might not be the case. And so they think that USE schools provide education to people who would not otherwise have got education...they think that the education [in PPP schools] is not as good as in schools that are very expensive...So parents often think that if a school is a PPP USE school, it's likely not to perform well. Yet, even with PPP in USE, they can still get quality education as long as there is teacher commitment and strong leadership in the schools. (Interviewee SH27)

The above findings indicate that there is a strongly held belief and misconception within the public domain that the quality of USE delivered through PPP schools is low. They seem to have an understanding that the quality of education is directly correlated with its cost or the amount of tuition fee charged by schools. However, such an understanding and intriguing proposition would remain debatable and/or paradoxical for the advocates of free quality education in low-income communities unless the quality goal is put at the top of the implementation agenda for the policy.

On the other hand, one academic maintained that some PPP schools aim at improving the quality of teaching and learning in the country so as to attract and retain more students. This has made some PPP schools maximise the use of time and labour (teachers) through quality teaching, strict school supervision and management, the acquisition of science equipment and building ample school structures to ensure access to equitable quality USE:

... this policy has helped to increase the number of students going to [secondary] school, and then access in terms of the distance and the availability of secondary schools in areas where secondary schools have either not existed or are far too few.... but the gap is still there. Equity is coming in as [an] unintended consequence but not as a target because there are no targets. ...and then on quality, my thoughts are that PPP schools have made some contribution to the quality in teaching, performance of the pupils and also of [school] structures and equipment because they want to attract pupils...Private school with more emphasis on results, utilisation of time and maximisation of labour has in a way had a positive impact on the quality but I think we are not yet there. (Interviewee SH22)

This ties in with what one government stakeholder commented:

In terms of quality, some PPP schools seem to be performing better, especially those schools which are under the foundations of the religious bodies like the Church. The quality there, is even better than some of the government schools due [to] improvement in supervision at school level; [and] because these people are looking at this as [a] business, they want to perform; so they become more strict to the teachers and the performance ends up good. ...the PPP schools have [also] brought competition between the schools and they put pressures on the managers to ensure

that there is high enrolment so that they can get better overhead per capita costs from the programme. (Interviewee SH7)

The above two preceding extracts indicate that, through better school administration and optimal allocation of school resources by way of quality teaching-learning centred on competition, some PPP schools have not only been successful in achieving all the PPP policy objectives (access, equity and quality) but also managed to improve teaching-learning to attract quality students for quality outcomes. Despite the increased access, together with the few positive policy impacts aforementioned, the findings indicate that most stakeholders seemed to have a common perception of quality of USE in PPP schools as low and declining. They still had a misconception that the quality of USE provided through the PPP policy is low compared to what is provided in public schools and/or other non-PPP private sector schools.

The next section provides an understanding of how and why the quality of the USE outcomes of this policy is perceived by stakeholders as low and declining.

5.4.2 Why the quality of USE outcomes of the PPP policy is low and declining

Despite the centrality of quality in education outcomes, the findings from the previous section indicate that most stakeholders perceive the quality of USE outcomes as low and declining in some partnership schools. But why is it declining? This section, therefore, provides empirical evidence from stakeholders' understanding of why they perceived the quality of USE outcomes of the policy as low and declining in some PPP schools. The commonly perceived reasons, to which stakeholders attributed the declining quality of USE, were categorised into: quality of teachers, learners and other inputs; poor school management and non-compliance with policy guidelines; staff turnover in PPP schools; inadequate funding; massive student enrolments for USE; stakeholders' conflicting motives in policy implementation; and poor quality partners with the government.

5.4.2.1 Quality of teachers, learners and other inputs used in PPP schools

Teacher quality is a critical factor in influencing the quality of education outcomes. Regarding this, some government stakeholders pointed out that low curriculum coverage due to the inadequacy of quality trained and permanent teachers in most PPP schools with their poor working conditions contributed to the declining quality of USE. One government stakeholder remarked:

I think the issue of quality...still remains a big challenge because...we have inadequate teachers and the PPP schools are even more constrained. ... They still have untrained teachers. And if they have trained teachers, those are science teachers [who] are part timers because they [PPP schools] cannot attract permanent teachers because of [low] pay. ...So you find if there is a nearby government-aided secondary

school, it is that [one] teacher running around in all schools ...So, that already provides a quality issue. And then the curriculum coverage, is very minimal because these teachers, the majority are all part-timers, and because they [PPP schools] are not paying them good enough...it is difficult to push them to do what they are supposed to do. (Interviewee SH4)

Likewise, another government stakeholder partly attributed the declining quality of USE in partnership schools to poor school infrastructure and untrained teachers that that some PPP schools found more affordable and less costly to maintain:

There are so many variables affecting quality... some of these private schools have not only very poor quality infrastructures [and] even teachers. They employ untrained teachers to handle children because they are cheap to maintain. (Interviewee SH14)

However, some school-based stakeholders reveal that the declining quality is partly due to the poor quality of both learners registered/enrolled for USE and teachers employed in partnership schools to teach them. In this regard, one deputy head teacher said:

... Declining quality has been basically due to the poor quality of those [learners] whom we have been entrusted... Their performance has been really correlating with what they got [in PLE]...the quality of the primary school [results]...and the quality of the teachers who are teaching the students. The quality of [those]who are teaching the students is determined by the...their level of training, where they were trained, ...the level of motivation, because trust me, [if] you have a miserable teacher in class, that misery is going to be reflected in the work he is going to teach. (Interviewee SH18)

The above extract indicates that the quality of inputs (learners, teachers, basic teaching and learning materials) used in the teaching-learning process has a direct adverse influence on the quality of USE outcomes. The district official echoed:

I would say that certainly quality depends on a number of factors; the input in the process; the quality of staff, the amount of the instructional materials, the finances and also the supervision in the inspection and Inspectorate; so all those. And there are others, and also the quality of students [admitted], all those determine quality. So you find that many of these people who actually say that the quality has deteriorated, they also don't know that they have their role to play in [the] provision of quality. (Interviewee SH24)

Similarly, one academic perceived that the equity and quality impacts of PPP policy are declining despite its positive contribution of increased access to USE achieved through this policy. He noted that the quality of performance of USE learners in PPP is lower than in non-PPP schools that offer USE, because they are not getting the same quality of education or teaching:

This [policy] promoted access which is a good thing but exacerbated inequity and quality; it made them worse. Equity is giving people what is due to them... but when you compare what is happening in [partnership] private schools to other better USE schools, they are not getting the same quality education...So, [PPP in] USE is exacerbating the situation between rich and poor, between urban and rural... (Interviewee SH10)

The above findings partly concur with the view of one of member of the Parliament of Uganda, who attributed the quality of USE to the quality of teachers and how teaching takes place, the credibility of the education system through which the teachers are trained and how the policy has been funded by the government. He perceived the quality of USE as the collective responsibility of all the different stakeholders. He observed that inadequate community engagement, a weak education system, and untrained and poor quality teachers contributed to the declining quality of USE outcomes in PPP schools. He explained:

...that issue of quality can be solved by all different stakeholders. What are the district local governments doing? What are the sub-county local governments doing? What are the parents themselves doing? And what are individuals in communities doing? And what kind of teachers do we have and particularly in these village schools? And you are talking about teachers who have studied through a weak system; so they are the ones who are now coming back and teaching has not become something of a conviction. ... So, teaching is contributing to the issues of quality. (Interviewee SH17)

The above extract suggests that the ability of PPP schools to deliver quality education depends on the quality of teachers, how they are trained and how the teaching takes place. This supports the views of one academic, who noted that the capacity and ability of partnership schools to provide quality education should have been considered instead of putting more emphasis on only the monetary variable of school fees:

Great idea [but] poorly delivered. Yes, but in my view that's because focus was put on their monetary side alone. I think selection of the schools should have looked more at their ability to deliver quality education than the school fees charges. (Interviewee SH10)

However, one school-based stakeholder associated the declining quality with lack of consistent school supervision as an input by the district inspectorate:

Quality in a way has been compromised by supervision, lack of constant and regular supervision mainly by government because every district has an inspector of schools. So if at district level there is less supervision, then the schools leadership would relax. (Interviewee SH 27)

The preceding extracts indicate that policy success in terms of quality would be realised to a great extent if supervision and the capacity of PPP schools were considered as crucial inputs in the implementation of this policy alongside the different contexts in which they operate, how they are administered, school commitment to partnership responsibilities, attachment to school, quality of learners and teachers, and adequacy of teaching materials and how they are managed collectively by all stakeholders. Thus, policy success in different schools in terms of quality is context-specific. This implies that the policy impacts in PPP schools on USE delivery should not be uniformly evaluated on a 'one-size-fits-all' basis because the schools operate in varying contexts.

5.4.2.2 Inadequate funding for PPP policy implementation in USE

Most school-based stakeholders attributed the declining quality of USE to inadequate funding to pay qualified teachers and to purchase scholastic materials. One teacher from partnership school K explained:

To me I think inadequate funds provided to the institutions...is not enough to the extent that it cannot cater for the teachers and at the same time buy the necessary inputs for quality [teaching]. Another thing as I told you is that inadequate funding...means that the supply of education requirements or facilities is also limited. (Interviewee SH25)

One parent from partnership school **S** added that low and delayed pay for teachers affected their morale and willingness to teach:

...quality is affected by the people who are supposed to give the service, especially teachers... who get very small pay...and have no morale to go and teach willingly. ...[Also] [t]hat money received is not enough and it delays... and affects quality but if that money is prompt, quality is going to be improved. And if that money is increased to a reasonable amount and is followed to do the right work for its purpose, quality is going to be improved. (Interviewee SH 28)

Since stakeholders perceive that funding improves quality, it is suggested that there should be additional revenue sources to achieve this. However, under PPP in USE, the government does not allow PPP schools to demand extra charges/funding from parents as additional income sources. One government stakeholder provides evidence on this by stating that "they [schools] are inadequately funded; that is a fact. The money we send is very little, yet we [government] are not allowing them to charge extra funds". This indicates that the declining quality of USE is explained by inadequate funding. In this regard, one teacher commented:

With access...it has been achieved to a very large extent because this school is almost on the border of Wakiso district ... [that] was isolated and neglected. ...equity has scored so much because in our [school] population here, it is the girls [who] are more than the boys in this school. ...On quality, it is fifty-fifty because quality comes with funding. So, you cannot have good quality without funding. (Interviewee SH23)

Another school-based stakeholder pointed out that what the PPP schools need are better planning, budgeting and setting their priorities right with the available inadequate funding. He succinctly observed:

...the [PPP grant] of forty seven thousand Uganda shillings [US\$13] per child per term which government gives is not enough to put in place the kind of infrastructure, recruit the staff [teachers] in terms of numbers and quality that are necessary to provide quality education. ... [But for] most of these schools, when you look at their budgets, they don't get their priorities right. ...Instead of budgeting for recruitment of teachers... somebody [school owner] is thinking of how to get money for a [school] bus ...So if they were getting their priorities right at [the] planning stage, ...some quality education could still be provided. (Interviewee SH19)

The above excerpts indicate that the inadequate grant/funding received and failure by partnership schools to effectively budget and allocate it to priority policy areas of teaching-learning contributed to the declining quality of USE outcomes. This finding seems to suggest that the quality of USE delivery through PPP policy is believed to be a monetary issue because it appears to improve with more funding. This suggests that with increased funding, the quality of USE delivered and accessed through the PPP policy is more likely to improve. This implies that if more funding is provided in a timely manner to the committed and better managed PPP schools and is channeled mainly to priority expenditure centres of teaching, learning materials and recruitment of quality teachers, then the quality of USE outcomes is more likely to improve.

5.4.2.3 Staff turnover and poor working conditions in PPP schools

The declining and low quality of USE outcomes was also attributed to teachers' instability or turnover in most PPP schools due to poor working conditions, including low pay and delayed payment of salary. This observation was made by a member of the Parliament of Uganda who was on the Education Committee:

...quality is compromised...due to little money... and delay in its payment. Teachers shift [to other schools] and cannot teach...if you do not pay them this term... they will shift [their] service elsewhere. ... [And] you cannot maintain the quality standards... [if] teachers are *not stable*. Teachers are here today, and the following day they are not there because they are not well paid. (Interviewee SH16)

The above extract indicates that low salary and its delayed payment to teachers attribute to teacher's attrition and absenteeism in partnership schools. This adversely impacts on the quality of teaching as well as USE delivered and its outcomes. In support of this, one government stakeholder maintains that this also impacts on head teachers, teachers and USE students:

On quality, we say the levels of attainment are still low, because ... in private partnership schools...there is lack of stability of the teaching staff including the head teachers... [Because], they are not paid well and they keep on going away. ... So, the students who are being taught find it a very big problem because they get new faces every now and then. (Interviewee SH1)

One parents' representative added that teachers do not teach effectively because of the heavy teaching workload, the increased number of students and low pay. He commented:

In [PPP] USE schools.... the teachers still say...the workload is big but the payment is low. ...when the teachers' payment is low and the workload is high, that means they cannot deliver [teach], they just teach and whoever passes that's his [chance], [and] whoever fails it remains theirs. ...they always demand for high salaries when they see the number of students increasing. (Interviewee SH 21)

Some teachers also pointed out uncertainty about the payment of such low salaries and job insecurity as their main experiences in the implementation of the policy in PPP schools. This

created instability and low retention of quality staff, which in turn compromised the quality of teaching and learning processes in PPP schools. This challenge was summarised by one government stakeholder thus:

... Lack of *stability of the teaching* staff, including the head teachers; every day you find a new head teacher and new teachers, so the students who are being taught find it a very big problem because they get new faces every now and then. ...Of course the level of *attrition* [teacher turnover] is high; the teachers go in and come out, others are chased, others are not paid and so on. So they always keep in and out... [because] they are *not paid* well and they keep on going away. (Interviewee SH1)

Similarly, one commissioner of education pointed out that in order to save money, some PPP school owners do not use permanent quality staff:

And another challenge is that in these [PPP] schools, like I have mentioned earlier, the number of permanent quality staff is small. So they are not using permanent staff and the reason behind this is because they [schools] cannot pay [them] well. (Interviewee SH7)

The above school-based experience of attrition of the quality and quantity of teachers due to unfavourable work conditions characterised by low pay not only affect the ability of schools to retain quality staff but also compromises the quality of the teaching-learning process. The above extracts indicate that the declining quality of USE outcomes in PPP schools is attributed to staff turnover or the lack of stability of the teaching staff and head teachers due to low and delayed payments amidst heavy workloads and other poor working conditions.

5.4.2.4 Conflicting stakeholders' motives in PPP policy implementation in USE

While the key motive of the government in this policy context is to deliver and increase access to USE services, the main motive of some PPP schools is to make profit. In view of this, some stakeholders associated the notion of the declining quality of USE outcomes with PPP school owners' business motives, which they believed were in conflict with government intentions of increasing equitable access to quality education. Besides, some PPP school owners see any PPP fund disbursed to them by the government as a source of capital for the expansion of other, non-school businesses. In this regard, one senior official from the MOES elaborated on how quality is compromised owing to the desire for profit by some PPP school owners:

...some school owners look at schools as an enterprise, as a business, so whichever little money comes in, it is looked at as either profit or something you can use to expand another enterprise. And that now deprives the school itself of what it would need to plough back to improve the quality of the education being provided. ...Some of them because they still want to minimise the costs on expenditure on the workers [teachers], and that highly impacts on the quality of USE provision and definitely the outcomes of the learners. (Interviewee SH11)

Another government stakeholder attributed the declining quality of USE in PPP schools mainly to the poor management and the act of pursuing profits, which result in PPP schools hardly complying with the set education standards of recruiting trained teachers to ensure quality:

...Many schools are not properly managed and ...majority [of which] are individually owned as business entities. So they are looking at them as schools where they are going to make profits ..., so they don't normally follow the standards that are set by the ministry...[on] issue of quality [and] they don't have teachers... [Yet] the guidelines require that they have to recruit at least seven trained teachers for the seven core subjects. (Interviewee SH7)

One school-based stakeholder also pointed out that the business motive of making money and profit by most PPP schools, which was outside the bigger picture of the policy of increasing access to equitable and quality USE, seemed to be the reason for its declining quality. He said:

...most of the private schools seem not to understand what the bigger picture in this policy is. For them they think it's about them getting money; and normally their concern is: Is the money coming, how much is it? Even the numbers of children by the way...they are tracking these numbers based on how many children are there now so that it reflects on their amount of money they receive. Some of them go to the extremes of doctoring [inflating] the numbers so that it appears they have enrolled more children in the programme so that they get more money. (Interviewee SH19)

In another scenario, because the government introduced the condition that students' promotion in USE should be automatic, some parents and other stakeholders perceive the low and declining quality of USE students in PPP schools as stemming from the policy directive of automatic promotion:

The challenge is that when parents get to know that the school is under USE, parents have a perception that USE schools are not good because there is a policy of *automatic promotion*. So they think that quality in the USE PPP school is not as good as the quality of the government school that is under or offers USE. (Interviewee SH27)

The above extracts indicate that both government stakeholders and school-based stakeholders attribute the declining quality of USE outcomes to the conflicting stakeholders' perceptions and ill motives that compromise the quality of USE delivery and its outcomes.

5.4.2.5 Poor quality operators in partnership with government to deliver USE

Closely linked to the preceding argument is the perception that the low and declining quality of the USE policy relates to the poor quality of the operators in partnership with government in USE delivery. One NGO-based stakeholder who oversees some PPP schools noted that there was no accountability for the poor quality of USE outcomes in relation to the PPP grant received owing to weak government regulatory and supervisory systems for the PPP schools. She elaborated:

...there have been poor quality operators partnering with the government who have been unaccountable for the poor quality learning outcomes or finances [used]. So I mean I am sure there are some schools that have just received funding from government but haven't improved the quality, haven't lowered the school fees, and there's been limited accountability. ... because there's been such a weak regulatory environment around the USE PPP, I believe that the success of the PPP has been where there are good operators, and the failures where there have been weak operators or profit-driven operators, because there is little supervision from the government. (Interviewee SH26)

Based on the above, it is clear that where there are both weak regulatory/supervisory systems and inefficient PPP schools that are illegitimately serving their profit-driven interests at the expense of quality, a low and declining quality of USE that is not fit for public consumption will be provided.

One teacher looked at the policy as unsuccessful owing to the inability of the government to increase the PPP grant per child and to provide adequate necessities, to monitor and supervise the policy and PPP schools, and its failure to gain support from the public. He elaborated:

... Governments as well as the schools have failed to provide adequate necessities... The other failure in USE is on monitoring and supervision...and failure by government to increase the grant per child...it has [also] failed to win necessary support from the public majorly from the parents. (Interviewee SH18)

5.4.2.6 Massive student enrolments and quality of USE

Most school-based stakeholders, especially teachers, attributed the declining quality of USE in PPP schools to the massive number of poor-quality learners who enrolled for USE owing to the PPP policy. In this regard, one teacher from partnership school C revealed that the quality of USE in terms of students' academic performance declines owing to pressure from big student enrolments amidst inadequate numbers of teaching staff and facilities in some partnership schools. She explained:

...quality of USE ... [or] performance has dropped in some schools... [Because of] big number that you cannot manage... the numbers are overwhelming but at the end of the day those children are not able to perform very well because we need an [appropriate] number that a teacher can manage within a classroom. (Interviewee SH3)

Another teacher alluded to this thus:

The performance of some schools is not good... you find that the number is too big and at the end of the day people [students] who get first grade or second grade[in exams] are very few. In our own school ...people always tell me that they used to perform so well but again there is a drop...because of the USE that was introduced with big numbers... (Interviewee SH2)

It seems that most teachers perceived big increases in enrolment for USE in PPP schools to be the cause of the declining quality of teaching owing to student congestion in classrooms with inadequate numbers of teachers and learning facilities. In this regard, one teacher explained:

It [policy] has encouraged a big number of the children to join [secondary] schools in their locality. ...On equity, the enrolment of boys and girls has also improved greatly. For quality of USE according to the schools, the performance has dropped in some schools... [due to] big number that you cannot manage, you find the numbers are overwhelming and at the end of the day those children are not able to perform very well because we need a [appropriate] number that a teacher can manage within a classroom. (Interviewee SH2)

Similar views on big enrolments for USE and their impact on quality were also heard from some parents. They associated the poor quality of USE outcomes in terms of students' poor examination grades with massive enrolments, high student-teacher ratios and classroom congestion in some PPP schools. One parent representative commented:

One of the major challenges that these people always talk of is higher numbers. There are so many students and the teacher-student ratio is also high. So you find even there is always shortage of furniture in USE schools. ... (Interviewee SH 21)

Another school-based stakeholder noted that the misconception by some school stakeholders that where there is mass access to USE there is no quality seems to have negatively impacted on their commitment to achieve quality in USE. He expressed his concerns thus:

... I think there is a misconception that, where there is mass access [to USE] there is no quality. Whereas the policy is talking about access, some people imagine that it goes without a saying that quality should be compromised. But I believe strongly that this policy was conceived from the understanding that the two [access and quality] should be running hand in hand. There should be children accessing but accessing education of some reasonable quality. So, it's that misconception that has created a scenario where most of the private schools are not as particular about adhering to the component of ensuring quality which was supposed to be their part of the bargain. (Interviewee SH19)

The above perceptions are in agreement with the view of one government stakeholder who observed that with big numbers of USE learners, universal access to USE and its quality cannot simultaneously be improved in the short run with limited facilities and inadequate numbers of teachers. He argued:

...the two [massive student numbers and USE quality] don't mix. Universal access and quality take a little bit of time to start mixing; because as you cause the other one to be coming, the other one gives way unfortunately. And the reason with that was [that] it brings a shock with it psychologically to the teachers, students and to the [school-based] stakeholders when facilities and teachers are limited. ...So the big numbers in the short run are much of a disadvantage in terms of quality. (Interviewee SH13)

This understanding implies that, with high student enrolments for USE amidst inadequate resources and school facilities and a shortage of teachers, increasing access to USE and improving its quality cannot be simultaneously achieved and sustained in the short run.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings have indicated that stakeholders' perceptions of the declining quality of USE are mainly attributed to the inadequate quality of teachers and other inputs. management challenges, inadequate funding and poor working conditions, massive student enrolments amidst the capacity limitations of PPP schools, stakeholders' conflicting motives in relation to the policy aims, poor quality operators/partners, and weak regulation and supervision of schools. One interesting finding emerged from one teacher's perception that "as funding improves the quality is definitely going to improve, because quality comes with funding." The implication for this policy is that funding to PPP schools needs to be increased for quality improvement in the delivery of USE through PPP schools. In this study, the quality of USE was viewed from the monetary perspective by most stakeholders. The justification for this was that quality improvement was perceived to be dependent upon the amount of funding provided for teaching-learning purposes. This implies that it would not be possible to improve the quality of USE without adequate funding and quality teachinglearning inputs. Despite some few differences in their opinions and understanding of the declining quality of USE, most stakeholders held the view that inadequate funding, shortage of quality teachers and massive student numbers were the key reasons for the declining quality in USE in PPP schools. This section has thus provided stakeholders' understanding of how and why the quality of USE outcomes was affected in the way it was in the implementation of the PPP policy.

5.4.3 Understanding value for money as an indicator of policy impacts and success

The findings reveal that policy impacts other than USE access, equity and quality were considered as indicators of value for money. In this regard, some stakeholders perceived value for money of the policy based on its other unintended impacts of literacy and skill improvement in the learner, decline in student dropout rates and absenteeism, employment of school teachers/staff, students' ability to access teaching and learning materials (textbooks and science equipment) and the development of school infrastructure while considering the small grant received by PPP schools. Such indicators of value for money in this policy are viewed as outcomes of policy success.

In this regard, some stakeholders expressed mixed opinions on whether there was value for money in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery. One government official affirmed the existence of value for money by looking at the entire policy implementation process in terms of the examination grades attained, the school infrastructure development

that was undertaken, the reduced frequency of strikes over non-payment of staff salaries in PPP schools, and accountability queries in audited books of accounts:

On value for money, I look at it at the end point of examination. If you produced a number of good grades in that school, you know you have accounted well for money. You know I have given you the infrastructure development. If there are no running strikes over non-payment of the salary [by] employees and non-teaching staff at your school, if there are no strikes in that school of any nature, if my auditors come and they audit and they don't find any audit queries to be answered over and over again; so I think there is a good value for money. (Interviewee SH 12)

Relatedly, one academic noted that there was value for money in the policy by considering the volume of work done by PPP schools in comparison with the little money (PPP grant) they received to do the work. In this regard he commented:

...on value of money I think the schools give more than the money it gets....The macro picture is that government sinks a lot of money in this USE but because it is too little in relative terms, it does not produce the kind of outcome that one would desire to have. Although if you look at the side of the school it is receiving the little amount of money they are given, but they are doing a good job. (Interviewee SH10)

Another Member of Parliament on the Education Committee maintained that the government received more money than it paid out. Most importantly, however, the PPP schools produce the future workforce of the country:

...by looking at [considering] the amount of money which government has put in, there is value for money because the amount of money determines the quality. So the little money government has given them [PPP schools], there is value for money. There is value for money because these children are coming out, they are saying they have become who they are, some of them have become policemen, some of them have gone back to being teachers and they are employed, so somehow there is value for money. (Interviewee SH 17)

This was supported by one government stakeholder, who perceived PPP schools to have achieved value for money by producing civilised citizens:

...since the beginning of PPP in USE ... there has been a great success and these children having the four years at school, even if they don't excel but they definitely have grown physically, they have grown mentally, and they've been exposed more. So they are more civilised citizens than those who didn't have that education. (Interviewee SH11)

The above extracts affirm that there was value for money because the policy has impacted positively in terms of improving the literacy levels of learners. In this regard, one school-based stakeholder had this to say: "When you look at the rate at which enrolment increased when USE was introduced, I think in a way it has improved on the literacy levels."

Some stakeholders observed that PPP schools have got value for money from this policy owing to its impacts on student enrolment and to the contribution of the policy to improved school incomes. In this regard, one inspector of schools noted:

There is value for money, because some of those PPP schools you find that before the introduction of this programme, they had a very low enrolment but because of this government intervention, the enrolment has increased, which means now they can get more money from the government which comes at the same time and be used to support their [school] budget. (Interviewee SH14)

However, some other stakeholders perceived the policy to have not created any value for money for the government. This perception was attributed to the lack of a clear monitoring and evaluation framework that measures value for money, little funding and awareness. In view of this, one academic insisted:

...No value for money for government; ...but the biggest question is: Is there a clear monitoring and evaluation framework that measures value for money? Is the value for money begot given the realities? My view is that it is. Why? The funding is still small; two, the awareness is limited; three, all the actors are not working in sync. (Interviewee, SH22)

The above comments seem to suggest that hardly any value for money was realised from the PPP policy implementation. This was attributed to limited funding and difficulty in estimating it in the absence of any monitoring and evaluation framework against which to measure value for money. Likewise, one government official stated:

Government has not benefited, it [money] has been a loss. There is no value for money, that money is lost *kabisa* [completely]. That one is lost, nothing to show, there is no value [said it with seriousness and emphasis]! There is no value because if you are giving 47,000 [shillings] when the man [school proprietor] is charging 100,000 [shillings], it is as if government is jazzing [playing around] with something little to keep them going on, so you can't even notice it. (Interviewee SH1)

The above excerpts indicate that the concept of value for money as another indicator of policy impact has been perceived by various stakeholders differently. Some stakeholders affirmed the existence of value for money in a comparative way while other looked at it basing on a summative approach. Some findings reveal that most stakeholders perceived PPP schools to have got value for the money from the grant received while others viewed the government as having not got value for money from the PPP grant disbursed to schools. However, based on the number of positive impacts of increased access in terms enrolments, which almost all stakeholders unanimously affirmed, there is clear evidence from this study that both PPP schools and the government as partners got relative value for money from the implementation of this policy.

Conclusion

Overall, understanding the policy impact from stakeholders' viewpoints seems to show that almost all stakeholders agreed that the policy positively contributed to increased access to

USE that was fairly distributed among learners in terms of gender and localities. Nevertheless, most stakeholders revealed that, despite such positive policy impacts, the quality of the outcomes of USE remained low/declining and compromised. The declining quality of USE was mainly attributed to the shortage of quality teachers and inadequacy of other inputs; management challenges; classroom congestion; school management challenges; inadequate funding and poor working conditions; massive student enrolments amidst the capacity limitations of PPP schools; the conflicting motives of PPP schools; poor quality operators/partners; and stakeholders' negative perceptions. Besides, the declining quality of PPP policy outcomes in USE was associated with weak regulatory systems and poor quality partners who obtained funding but provided poor quality policy outcomes and did not account for their undesirable acts. Quality is viewed from the monetary perspective by most stakeholders as it is dependent upon the amount of funding needed for teaching-learning purposes. This view supports an interesting perception by one teacher who asserted that "as funding improves, the quality is definitely going to improve, because quality comes with funding." The implication for this policy is that funding to PPP schools needs to be increased for improved quality of USE delivery through PPP schools. This implies that improved quality of USE would not be possible without adequate funding and quality teaching-learning inputs. However, some findings also indicate that some few committed PPP schools with better school administrations, which optimally allocate school resources to priority areas in order to ensure quality teaching-learning, contribute to sustained and equitable access to quality USE outcomes of the PPP policy. Besides, the policy is perceived to have achieved value for money owing to positive contributions it made in terms of creating employment in PPP schools for more teachers, acquisition of teaching-learning materials (textbooks and science equipment) and ensuring access to them, the development of students' life skills, reduced teenage pregnancies and development of school infrastructure. The implication of such findings seems to be that, with improved funding to committed and better managed PPP schools, the PPP policy goals and value for money are more likely to be achieved. Thus, this section presents the stakeholders' understanding that, despite the low and declining quality of USE outcomes, the PPP policy registered some positive impacts as indicators of value for money from its implementation.

5.4.4 Stakeholders' perceptions of PPP policy success in USE delivery

This section provides an understanding of whether stakeholders perceived the PPP policy as a success or failure in USE delivery and why. There were varying opinions among stakeholders on the success of the policy. While most government stakeholders answered in the affirmative basing on the policy impact of increased access to USE, most other stakeholder

groups, particularly the parents and academics, were skeptical about its success owing to the low and compromised quality of USE delivered and accessed through this policy. They interpret the success of a policy based on the extent to which all its objectives have been achieved, not only access. However, there is no agreement on the level of policy success even within each stakeholder group.

5.4.4.1 Government-based stakeholders' perception of policy success

Most government stakeholders perceived the PPP policy in USE delivery as successful mainly from the viewpoint of increased student enrolments or access to USE, with relatively less regard for or emphasis on its quality dimension. The reason/justification for putting less emphasis on quality as an indicator of policy success by some government stakeholders was their belief that the quality of USE was not an immediate PPP policy goal (access first, quality later). With regard to this, one government stakeholder earlier argued: "...but the issues of quality were not emphasised in the beginning...quality was to come in later."

However, this government stakeholder admitted that he could not say that it had been fully a failure, because there was some achievement, though it had not been the best. He believes that despite some failure, there was some *policy success* in terms of increased student enrolments in many PPP schools in certain sub-counties. This resulted in the attainment of equity, an issue regarding which he stressed that "because where there is access, then there is equity." In this vein, another district government official showed the same skepticism: "I could say yes or Yes, because access is there; and no, because on quality, there is something that needs to be done as far as quality enhancement is concerned."

Contrary to the above viewpoints, the view of another government official in MOES provides evidence that "while access has been achieved largely, *equity is not clearly achieved* because the quality is not [the same] across the board. Quality is an issue that we are grappling with as a ministry." However, he viewed the overall policy as a success story in Uganda because it increased access to USE by many students from UPE, and it trained and created employment for many teachers in PPP schools. He argued:

Indeed it [policy] has [been a success]. ...it has been a successful story on two grounds. One, it has enabled many Ugandans to access secondary education and it has even supplemented government effort on this policy. The other key issue as a success is to do with the UPE programme. After the 1997-2007 period there was a volume of graduates of UPE and there was nowhere you could place them without the PPP arrangement at secondary school level. ... So, the success of UPE in a way is premised on the success of [PPP in USE] at secondary school level. ... And with this policy... we have also trained many teachers... So in terms of unemployment, it has created jobs ... for many of these teachers. (Interviewee SH7)

In support of the above, one government stakeholder said that the policy closed the capacity gap in the secondary education sector by allowing more eligible children to access USE:

It has been a success story because at least we've been able to bring more children on board to access secondary education. They've been able to fill up gaps where government was not able to do, so that has been a success story. (Interviewee SH4)

Another government stakeholder pointed out that despite failure in terms of the poor quality of USE, the policy partly succeeded in that it contributed to exposure, civilisation or attitude change, physical and mental growth among USE students' through ensuring increased access. She elaborated:

There is some degree of success...in terms of access, there is a big achievement. ...the number of children who have accessed secondary education since the beginning of USE...in the community has been a great success. ...these children having the four years at school, even if they don't excel but they definitely have grown physically, they have grown mentally, and they've been exposed more. So they are more civilised citizens than those who didn't have that. But in terms of the quality of results, we still have a big gap. (Interview SH11)

Another government stakeholder added that the schools had a positive impact on the workforce and also reduced the incidence of teenage pregnancy:

No and yes. ...It has been a *success story* because at least we've been able to bring more children on board to access secondary education...and training skills... I think you have heard about 'Skilling Uganda'. So, we have people going to BTVET [vocational] institutions for certificates for skills. ...So, it has been quite a great positive impact on USE; ...it has also reduced on teenage pregnancies because now the girls can go to school, there is no longer an issue of saying that we cannot afford. (Interviewee SH4)

However, she had some reservations about the impact of the policy on USE quality:

...Now on the [policy] failure, some of the schools are not providing quality education as we would really want them to. So, at the end of it all children are not achieving. If you looked at the competence levels of children of some of these schools especially at the end of the cycle, you find that it is wanting, there is a gap. So that is where the failure has been especially in terms of the delivery [teaching] process ... (Interviewee SH4)

The forgoing extracts reveal that most government stakeholders perceived the policy as a success based on its great impact on increased access to USE through the PPP schools. Its success was also perceived based on its other unanticipated positive impacts of reduced teenage pregnancies, attitude change, improved civilisation and exposure, skill development and acquisition, mental growth achieved by learners, and training and employment creation for teachers. These were viewed as alternative policy indicators of its success.

5.4.4.2 School-based stakeholders' perceptions of policy success

School-based stakeholders also expressed mixed feelings with regard to the success of the PPP policy in USE delivery through these schools. One school-based stakeholder who

concurred with most government stakeholders regarded the policy as partially successful. He attributed its partial success not only to the larger numbers of students, mainly from low-income groups, who enrolled for the affordable USE but also on its contribution to the reduction of illiteracy:

...it is partly successful and somewhere it has failed. Successful [because] the number of enrolments of the students has gone high putting in consideration the previous years before it was initiated, and I think it was one of its goals... the intake of students countrywide increased in schools because USE ...became affordable. Then it has enabled the students from low-income earners to have access to education and in turn illiteracy levels have been partly reduced from our communities.... But that does not mean that some important milestones of equity and quality have been achieved... (Interviewee SH18)

However, one academic commented that "numbers tell a lot but numbers hide much more". He argued that from the global perspective, Uganda had not been moving well in terms of its quality objective of this education policy. He elaborated:

We are not moving [well on quality]...unless we review the policy guidelines, unless government remembers its role, which is to provide quality education; and start focusing on indicators of quality and not quantity.... As a citizen I am fed up of numbers [of enrolment], I am more interested in the quality, the success and the ability of a Senior Four leaver to go out there and look after him/herself... (Interviewee SH22)

Relatedly, one school-based stakeholder pointed out that the policy was not successful as it did not achieve what it had promised to achieve. She emphatically said:

No; and a strong NO! It has not created any great impact as we expected. We would expect a private [partnership] school to have improved in everything: its academic standards, its infrastructural development, its retention of staff and even students but it's not the case. (Interviewee 16)

In a similar vein, another academic perceived the policy as unsuccessful. His negative thoughts on the policy were shaped by the undesirable nature of its impacts, which he believed were not perceived positively by the masses [the public] mainly owing to the poor performance in Uganda Certificate of Education (UCE) examinations and low retention rate for learners in PPP schools. He said:

It [USE] is even on a very small scale; what they call universal secondary education is actually not universal because if it goes only to a handful of schools, its impact is not felt in the masses...So if you say USE is there but with very few schools, it means many do not benefit, ...if you have so many such people who are not partaking [of] the USE programme, then you cannot call it a success. ...Also the performance of the learners from USE schools is lower than the average of the other schools. ...The retention rates in PPP schools are also lower, [and] the dropout rate is higher. (Interviewee SH10)

The above insights indicate that most school-based stakeholders and academics, unlike government-based stakeholders, perceive the policy as unsuccessful despite the increased student's enrolment for USE from many low-income families. They perceived the success of

the policy basing on the extent to which its purposes of access, quality and equity were achieved. In this regard, most school-based stakeholders and academics judged the policy as unsuccessful mainly owing to the low quality of USE delivered and accessed in most PPP schools, despite the few cases of its positive impacts which other stakeholders pointed out.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the key findings indicate that almost all groups of stakeholders have a common understanding and perception that the policy contributed to improved access to USE services through increased student enrolments in PPP schools. However, evidence shows that some stakeholders subjectively differed in their perceptions and understanding of the policy impacts on the equity and quality of USE outcomes. Some stakeholders, especially the teachers, parents, local community leaders and academics, perceived equity and the quality of USE delivery as low and declining. However, some government stakeholders maintained that quality was not an immediate policy goal because USE access could not immediately translate into improved quality. On whether the policy was successful, opinion was divided among stakeholders. While most government stakeholders answered in the affirmative basing on the policy impact of increased access to USE, most school-based stakeholders, particularly teachers, parents and academics, perceived its success with skepticism owing to the low and compromised quality of USE delivered and accessed through the implementation of this policy. They perceived policy success based on the extent to which its purposes of access, quality and equity were achieved. This indicates that, unlike school-based stakeholders, most government stakeholders perceived the success of the policy based on its impact of increased access to USE while giving little regard to its quality. Nevertheless, some other government stakeholders also pointed out other positive policy impacts of reduced pregnancies, attitude change, improved civilisation and exposure, skill development and acquisition, mental growth achieved by learners, improvement in literacy and employment creation for teachers. These were also perceived as indicators of value for money. This explains that success of the policy was not judged only against its goals but also on the basis of other, non-obvious policy outcomes. One interesting finding indicates that the quality of USE outcomes is a monetary issue because it was perceived to improve with increased funding, ceteris paribus. This section concludes with what one academic stated:

Government stakeholders understand the policy clearly compared to other stakeholder groups, but that does not mean they implement it properly because the way they implement it could be foiled by other constraints or challenges.

The next section opens a window on another debate related to the exploration of stakeholders' experiences in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE.

5.5 Experiencing Policy Implementation

This section provides stakeholders' voices and viewpoints on their experiences in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery. It presents what they experienced in the implementation of this policy, as well as how and why they experienced it in that way. Though the findings indicate some similar or common experiences among and across certain stakeholder groups, others differed greatly owing to variations in contexts where they negotiated the implementation of the policy. However, most stakeholders' experiences were perceived negatively as barriers to the implementation of this policy despite some few positive ones, as elaborated in the next section.

5.5.1 Positive experiences in the implementation of the PPP policy

Some stakeholders revealed their positive experiences in the implementation of this policy as good working relationships with some committed partnership schools, helping government to increase access to fee-free affordable education by underprivileged children, increased school enrolments and incomes in PPP schools and improvement in the management of some PPP schools.

5.5.1.1 Government relationships with committed private schools

In this study, some government stakeholders pointed out that they had established and experienced better working relationships with certain committed religious-founded and non-profit PPP schools through this policy than before. These schools had adequate facilities and sufficiently good management for quality teaching and learning through PPPs. This helped the government to increase access to affordable education for USE children. In this regard, one government-based stakeholder stated:

...the good experience is especially when you go to organised schools and mainly religious-founded or non-profit institutions, they provide good education for the children, [because] the facilities are in place, there is good management and children are learning. And you see that some of them have really benefited, they've tried to use that money to attract teachers because they are allowed to pay, part of the money is used to improve the infrastructure and also textbooks. (Interviewee SH4)

Another education official from the MOES commented that there existed a good working partnership between government and private schools that had not existed before:

In the beginning... the private schools didn't have something binding them to government so much; and secondly there was no very close linkages....but when they started implementing [PPP in USE], now they became closer to us. And the good thing out of this is that now we have these schools under our control...and guide these schools, which wasn't the case before. ...[and] that has made working relationship a little bit healthier, because we are now close to them, we can reach them and advise them. ...We can now reach many more schools than we used to before. By doing that, we are able to even monitor the quality aspect ... (Interviewee SH7)

The above excerpts illustrate how government established and experienced better working relationships with private schools through the PPP policy than before. This experience seems to have strengthened the linkages between the government and school-based stakeholders, which contributed to improved monitoring and control of the PPP schools in USE delivery. Such findings seem to suggest that better working relationships through partnerships enhance stakeholders' compliance and commitment in the implementation of the policy for quality outcomes.

5.5.1.2 Increasing access to affordable USE by underprivileged children

Some low-income parents revealed their experiences regarding how the implementation of the PPP policy in USE enabled their children to access affordable secondary education. One parent representative commented:

It has helped most of us the parents who are low-income earners to access the provision of affordable education. We really welcome the idea from the government to implement this universal secondary education. It has helped most of us the parents who are low-income earners to at least raise up our children to attain secondary education. (Interviewee SH 21)

The above excerpts reveal that most children of low-income parents were able to access feefree secondary education, an achievement that was also seen as a positive experience by government stakeholders.

5.5.1.3 Improvement in school management, student enrolment and income

Interestingly, the findings reveal that, owing to the challenges of inadequate government supervision and monitoring of schools, some PPP schools adopted the management practices of self-regulation and commitment in order to achieve policy goals. This is viewed as a positive experience that arose from policy implementation challenges. One school-based stakeholder elaborated:

...Because there is little supervision from the government, so, it's really the operator [PPP school] who has to *self-regulate* and so for us as PEAS [NGO], we self-regulate effectively because that's our organisational mission, that's what we set up to do in our schools... (Interviewee SH26)

The above extract indicates that, where government has failed in policy regulation, some committed school-based stakeholders with enough capacity pursued self-regulation to deliver quality USE and continue receiving the PPP grant. This finding seems to suggest that PPP policy in education promotes self-regulation, where some partnership schools remain committed to the policy goals and their personal objectives. Besides, the findings indicate that the PPP grant component of this policy helped some private schools to improve student enrolment and school income. One official from the MOES commented:

...because of funding from government... schools found in very rural poor environments where even the private owners themselves were struggling...now at least [have] income coming that has enabled [and attracted] them. And, there is a lot of competition now; there is a lot of competition, [because] if your school performs well, you're able to attract children, if you don't do well children will go to another school. And as I told you its unit cost [grant per child from government], so schools are trying very hard to ensure that they are delivering so that children perform well and be able to retain and attract [get more] money... (Interviewee SH4)

The above positive experiences suggest that the participation of private secondary schools in PPP activities comes with more student enrolment, funding or income sources and management skills/innovations. This could be a more likely reason as to why some stakeholders in this policy, especially the government (MOES), low-income parents and school proprietors, continued to fully participate in its implementation.

5.5.2 Challenges experienced in the implementation of the policy

This section presents the challenges which most stakeholders experienced as barriers to the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery. These included, among others: lack of accountability for the PPP grant by PPP schools; corruption in policy implementation; lack of commitment to partnership roles by stakeholders; non-compliance with policy guidelines by partners; non-flexible policy terms and conditions; management challenges in PPP schools; political interference; delayed disbursement of PPP grant to partnership schools; lack of a clear understanding of the policy; negative public perception of the policy; inadequate planning, supervision and monitoring of the policy.

5.5.2.1 Lack of accountability for PPP funds

In performing the supervisory and regulatory roles in the implementation of this policy, most government and district-based stakeholders mentioned having experienced challenges in ensuring accountability and proper use of the capitation grant by PPP schools. Yet it was a policy requirement for each school to give an accountability report on how the grant was allocated to the specified expenditure centres (MOES Policy Guidelines for PPP Schools, 2013). In this regard, the findings indicate that most government stakeholders whose role was to ensure that schools account for the funds received revealed that all efforts towards this were hindered by school proprietors' interference. They misappropriated and diverted the money from its intended policy purposes. They attributed all this to lack of autonomy by head teachers (principals) in controlling school accounts. In view of this, one government stakeholder testified that while they mentored head teachers to ensure accountability for PPP grants, their efforts were always hindered by school proprietors who put this money into their

personal bank accounts and used it without accounting for it, an act that ran counter to the policy guidelines. She expressed her concern thus:

... there is a lot of interference by the proprietors of the PPP schools. And they are not following the regulations. So you find that instead of the money going to the school accounts, they are going to personal accounts. Where they are going to the school accounts, it's still the proprietors managing the money and so it's not utilised for what it's expected. And then the head teachers [accounting officers] do not have that freedom to exercise their professionalism. (Interviewee SH4)

Additionally, infighting amongst the school proprietors and managers due to lack of functional school governing boards was mentioned by other stakeholders as the reason for the accountability challenges experienced in most PPP schools. In this regard, one district official commented:

... The issues of accountability are a very big problem. This money is not used for the purposes it is supposed to be used. There is a lot of diversion and misappropriation of funds within those private partnership schools...because of lack of proper structures of administration and infighting amongst the proprietors...I told all of them to put in place Boards of Governors which is not coming out ably. So, that is the main challenge... (Interviewee SH1).

The above viewpoint indicates that lack of accountability in PPP schools was attributed to school proprietors' interference in the management of school accounts and infighting between the proprietors and non-functional school boards. Yet the PPP Policy Guidelines for the PPP Schools (2013, p.14) stipulates:

...the head teacher (school principal) is an accounting officer who should prepare budgets and work plans for the PPP grants that are approved by BOGs; while the proprietor of the school ensures that the school has a fully constituted or functional BOG ... to ensure that grants received are used for the teaching-learning purposes and are accounted for as required.

Besides, one concerned teacher from partnership school B commented that "...these school proprietors do not put this money[received] back in school, and they end up eating [spending] it like a donation [gift] to them." These comments suggest that most school-based stakeholders experience *lack of trust, blame and suspicion* in using the money acquired for the implementation of this policy. However, some head teachers (principals) of PPP schools, in their responses, attributed the accountability challenges they experienced to the delayed release of PPP grants to their schools by the same government stakeholders that demand accountability. One head teacher said that "...they [government stakeholders] take long to releases the grant yet they are the first to ask for its accountability..." Another head teacher echoed this view:

...the challenge is releasing the grants beyond the stipulated time within which the grants are supposed to work and accounted for. ... [But] if the money has come late, what money are you going to account for that you never received? So, I think the issue is that when government delays in releasing funds, partnership schools also

delay in submitting accountability reports and some of them [head teachers] may even relax because of that. (Interviewee SH18)

However, some parents maintained that school-based stakeholders, especially PPP school owners and head teachers, were neither cooperative nor willing to show accountability for the school money received from the government on the grounds that they were not accountable to parents on PPP funds. One parent explained:

In most cases I have been hearing complaints that the money is not properly utilised. ...that the head teacher or some one person takes that money and uses it for activities which were not meant for it. ...and whenever we ask for accountability, they say we are not the right persons to ask for accountability; that's another challenge we meet. They claim we are not the people who claim this money; and they normally say they are not accountable to us parents. They tell us that they are only accountable to us for the money we pay for feeding the children... (Interviewee SH 28)

The above comments indicate how both government and school-based stakeholders acknowledged having experienced accountability challenges in the implementation of this policy and why they experienced it that way. Though stakeholders from both the government and PPP schools blamed each other for the causes of lack of accountability, the findings indicate that the accountability challenges experienced in partnership schools were primarily due to lack of functional BOGs, school owners' interference in the management of school accounts, infighting among school-based stakeholders over school funds, delayed disbursement of such funds, lack of authority and autonomy by head teachers to manage school accounts and lack of cooperation. In view of this, PPP schools seemed to be silently experiencing accountability challenges mainly owing the supremacy of school proprietors' undue influence on managing and controlling school accounts. The above discussions seem to suggest that lack of accountability experienced by both government and school-based stakeholders in the implementation of this policy are mainly due to lack of trust, blame and suspicion among stakeholders.

5.5.2.2 Corruption in policy implementation

Most stakeholders who were interviewed pointed out corruption and lack of transparency as the major challenges they experienced in the implementation of this policy. Some school proprietors and head teachers engaged in corruption by exaggerating/inflating student enrolments in a bid to obtain more funding. They submitted funding requests to the MOES that contained more registered USE students than the actual enrolments in their schools. The basis for this malpractice was that in this policy, the bigger the student enrolments a school submits to the ministry for funding, the more money it receives as total PPP fund per term. One government stakeholder commented:

Sometimes [PPP] schools inflate the number of children, especially in the USE partnership schools because it's a unique cost grant; [and] the more children you have,

the more money you get. So that's one of the biggest challenge the sector [ministry] was now facing. So you find some schools would have an inflated number of children over 50 per cent, so they would end up getting more money than they required. (Interviewee SH4)

The above excerpt indicates that some corrupt school proprietors would report inflated registered student numbers to the government in order to obtain more money through this policy. Another government stakeholder was involved in running battles with some PPP school proprietors due to lack of transparency on how they used the money received from the government to implement this policy. He elaborated:

Each and every quarter, they [PPP schools] are supposed to submit enrolment to the district here, then we submit them to Finance for eventual disbursement of funds. [But] I want to assure you [that] we are going through running battles to get enrolment reports from the [PPP] schools. With time some of them are losing the students and they don't want to tell you the truth. If somebody [school owner] had, let's say 500 students under USE, and then the school is collapsing and has only remained with 200 or 100 [students], he will continue telling [requesting money for] 500 students; and when you go there to prove, there are sorts of stories ...and what is very disappointing, they have refused up to now to have [updated] class registers. It's another big, big battle. (Interviewee SH1)

Interestingly, some school-based stakeholders, particularly head teachers, also revealed that they had interacted with some government stakeholders who would request for facilitation (a bribe) during school inspection and submission of reports to the ministry. For instance, one former head teacher revealed that some school inspectors would always give the excuse of shortage or lack of logistics to perform their inspection role in anticipation of getting facilitation (a bribe) from the PPP schools they inspected. She stressed:

... Whenever school inspectors [would] come, they [would] say they were not facilitated. And they expected us [head teachers] to facilitate them; you have to give them fuel [codename for a bribe], which some head teachers were not willing to give. (Interviewee SH16)

The above revelations seem to suggest that both school-based and government stakeholders are silently experiencing and practising corruption in the implementation of this policy. Such experiences and practices could have compromised the quality of the policy outcomes and its success.

5.3.2.3 Delayed disbursement of funds for policy implementation

While parents and government stakeholders believe that the schools are corrupt and not considerate in allocating the funding received, school proprietors and administrators look at it from the other side of the coin. They perceive funding challenges based on its inadequacy and delayed disbursement by the government to the recipient PPP schools. In this regard, the findings indicate that *less funding and its delayed release* were the commonly mentioned challenges experienced by most stakeholders, particularly PPP school owners and head

teachers in the implementation of this policy. Almost all school-based stakeholders who were interviewed acknowledged having experienced the challenge of receiving inadequate PPP capitation grant that was always disbursed *late* and *in smaller* amounts than what they requested from the government for expenditures on their planned school activities. Such negative funding experiences hindered school-based stakeholders in executing their policy expenditure plans in a timely manner in the delivery of USE through PPP. In this regard, the proprietor of partnership school R in Wakiso district not only affirmed having experienced delayed disbursement of little funding for this policy but also revealed that because of such negative funding experiences, he had to obtain soft bank loans to offset their effects on the school's business operations. He commented:

... the amount paid by the government, sincerely speaking, it is very little. In my personal view it is too little to cater for payments of [teacher] salaries, to cater for scholastic materials like chalk, like textbooks, and so many other teaching aids. You find that the amount is very little... that we always go in for bank loans, we get some soft loans such that we keep paying it for some years to come, but again, you find the whole thing is still very hard to go through. (Interviewee, SH20)

The preceding extract indicates that school-based stakeholders who experience funding inadequacies and delays are influenced to seek alternative funding sources such as soft bank loans not only to sustain their school business operations but also to ensure their contractual obligation of delivering USE through PPP policy implementation. This indicates that schools lack financial sustainability from other alternative income sources to implement this policy efficiently.

The findings further reveal that most school-based stakeholders see parents' contributions towards schools as more challenging owing to the misconception that government contributes on their behalf towards this policy. One school proprietor commented:

...it also becomes very hard for the parent to contribute; by the way, many of them even don't know how much the government contributes. For them their interest is that the government contributes for them; [and] on how much [we receive], they don't want to know. However, for small things like meals, some schools can team up with parents and provide lunch for the children but again those are negligible things. (Interviewee, SH20)

The above comments indicate that school owners experience difficulty in getting parents' contribution for more funding towards USE delivery through P One of the reasons why most parents contribute little towards the implementation of this policy seemed to have emerged from the misconception on the parents' part that the government contributes everything on their behalf towards the implementation of this policy. Secondly, they appeared to lack any clear knowledge of how much government paid per USE-sponsored child per term to PPP schools, which indicates the lack of clear knowledge of the policy terms.

Elaborating on stakeholders' experiences of funding inadequacies and the delays by the government to disburse the funds, one school proprietor commented:

...Sometimes we cannot do [our part] because of the money, the money for laboratory materials...does not come; therefore the teaching staff who should be employed on [part] time cannot be employed because they would demand immediate payment; and that distort[s] the policy [implementation]... (Interviewee SH5)

Relatedly, the deputy head teacher (principal) of partnership school K noted that if disbursement of the fixed-amount grant to schools was delayed beyond the time within which it was stipulated to be used, it would disrupt all the planned school operations. He elaborated:

...Whereas it is true that money is little, the main challenge is that releasing the grants [money] beyond the stipulated time within which the grants are supposed to work [be used] makes it not enough as that the figure [amount] does not *correlate* with the rate of inflation in the market; that's the biggest challenge that we have. [Yet] the price of food is increasing, the price of construction materials is increasing... (Interviewee SH18)

However, one government stakeholder who acknowledged the delayed disbursement of capitation grant to PPP schools attributed it to the government's quarterly releases of funds to schools based on the financial year framework, yet PPP schools operated on terms based on the MOES calendar year. He elaborated:

No, there was a problem during these past years because the terms and the quarters did not rhyme, because government money is normally released quarterly and schools are operating in terms following a calendar year. But Ministry of Education or government follows the financial year. So, the two would not rhyme and we would find money delaying to reach the schools and that would cause really a very serious challenge not only in private schools but even in government. (Interviewee SH7)

As the above voices show, the overall findings indicate that both government and school-based stakeholders experienced the challenges of inadequate funding and the delayed release of funds for policy implementation. This was mainly due to institutional weaknesses and mismatched financial frameworks for the PPP schools and for the government. The negative experiences of school-based stakeholders of funding inadequacies, delayed disbursements and inability to access alternative funding sources owing to parents' misconception regarding school fund contribution not only affected their ability to hire and retain quality teaching staff and in sufficient numbers but also compromised the quality of policy outcomes.

5.5.2.4 Non-flexible policy terms and conditions

School-based stakeholders experienced the challenge of accommodating and teaching massive numbers of USE students in the face of limited school capacity and non-flexible policy terms and conditions on funding (subsidy per child) and policy activities to which the grant expenditures are restricted. Because of the need for more money and profit, some PPP school owners enrolled big numbers of students, outstripping the accommodative capacities

of their schools. Yet the policy conditions under which they implemented the policy were so strict that they could not be allowed to use or divert the PPP grant for school infrastructure development and expansion to cater for such massive enrolments. One school proprietor explained:

...the main challenge comes with big numbers or big enrolments ... [which] the facilities may not handle [accommodate]. And the government conditioned to us that its work is not to build buildings [classrooms], not to buy desks; [that] those ones are entirely for school owners. Actually the government just caters for the day-to-day running of the school. So, enrolling big numbers [of students] and sometimes you feel you are hurt to chase away parents who have brought children. ...And considering the little grant that the government gives, it remains a big challenge. (Interviewee SH20)

This challenge of lack of flexibility in the policy, which some PPP schools experienced in its implementation, was echoed by one commissioner of education. He noted that the policy seemed to have remained relatively static on certain issues yet circumstances in which PPP schools implemented it were changing over time:

Another issue related to this challenge is that because the guidelines restricted these schools' expenditure points or centres, and it says you shouldn't spend money on infrastructure; and that has become a real challenge. Many [schools], especially in the rural areas, lack infrastructure, especially on sanitation and hygiene; [it] is completely neglected because money is spent on the current issues like teachers' salaries and scholastic materials...[yet] sanitation in many PP schools in rural areas is very poor... This is a policy issue ...the policy needed to be fluid and continually be revised, which has not happened. So, it has remained static and yet the circumstances have kind of evolved. (Interviewee SH7)

This corresponds to the views of the head teacher of partnership school K who argued that the policy is **restrictive on funding and expenditure centres** yet it is not on enrolment of USE students that is ever rising. In this regard, he commented:

Sometimes we are constrained because of the increase in numbers. Sometimes you find the space is not enough; why is the space not enough? Because we are restricted [on extra charges] and that we cannot use their money [PPP fund] for constructing newer classes, yet we are not limited in terms of admission for USE students. (Interviewee SH18)

The above viewpoints seem to indicate that most school-based stakeholders experienced non-flexible policy conditions, which not only affected their operations and commitment to roles but also adversely impacted on the quality of the outcomes and success of the policy.

5.4.2. Non-compliance with policy guidelines and weak enforcement mechanisms

The findings further revealed that some stakeholders experienced challenges and the effects of non-compliance with the policy implementation guidelines principally owing to weak institutional enforcement mechanisms. It was revealed that some school managers and proprietors interfered in the management of schools without complying with existing policy

regulations. For instance, some PPP schools operated without instituting proper and functional BOGs as required by the MOES. In this regard, one government stakeholder from the district local government administration revealed his personal negative experiences in working with school owners who abused the policy by charging tuition and examination registration fee to USE-sponsored students. Yet under this policy initiative, the students are supposed to access USE free of charge as most of them are covered by the government policy. He explained:

... The experience is not the best, because... there is failure to follow the set guidelines of the policy. For example, overcharging [fees] is still continuing in some of the schools, [and] then sending students home because of some demands here and there, [yet] under USE, government pays for these candidates for UNEB [Uganda National Examinations Board] registration, but they still charge some students in the name of registration. So there are quite a number of abuses and we try to control but we fail at some level [because] they are many, scattered, and very stubborn. In fact, they are giving us a lot of headache... (Interviewee SHI)

The above extract indicates that government lacks a sufficiently strong regulatory capacity to enforce the existing policy guidelines. He also added that: "...they [stakeholders] entered in something I think which was not well prepared...and the owners of the schools do what they feel or what they want."

The above comments suggest that non-compliance is attributed to lack of prior preparedness to have a strong enforcement mechanism or implementation unit for the whole policy process. This corresponds with the views of another government stakeholder who attributed non-compliance to such policy guidelines to the weakness in the enforcement regulations. She elaborated:

...sometimes enforcement is a biggest challenge. *Our laws are a little weak on enforcement of some of these standards*, and all those are really compliance issues. Because if we say there must be a head teacher, the head teacher must execute but the proprietor now is working/doing the work of the head teacher, that's already [non-compliance]. They don't have boards of governors which are functional, so you find that it is the man and his wife and his children who are the manager even [if they have the board], so the board is just there for the purpose of regulations but not for purposes of real functionality as the board doesn't do the work. (Interviewee SH4)

She also added that non-compliance was attributed to vague and unclear policy guidelines:

...the guidelines are not clear and they are broad; the schools are exploiting them. ... [and] if schools are not compliant, how do we disengage them? So, some schools when even Ministry has written to terminate partnership with them, [they] have the audacity even to go to sue...because it [policy] is vague. So people use that as a loophole to exploit it. (Interviewee SH4)

In another perspective, an interesting revelation indicated that some school-based stakeholders would take advantage of institutional weaknesses and failures in the

implementation of this policy to work against the set rules and standards in the MOU and policy guidelines. In this regard, one parent, who attributed non-compliance to the policy by schools to delayed disbursements of capitation grant, revealed that some PPP school owners and head teachers took advantage of this to send away the government-sponsored USE students in order to obtain extra money from their parents to pay teachers:

...I have been getting information that PPP money does not come promptly and actually that's why sometimes the children are sent home, because the excuse they [school owners] give is that the money which the government is supposed to give has not yet come. Now we don't have money to pay these teachers. ...we are not going to keep you here; go home and get that money which is meant for feeding you, and money for parent development and ...if that money for USE comes, we shall be able to reimburse it to the parents' school development programme. (Interviewee SH28).

Besides, some inevitable contextual dilemmas experienced by policy regulators would put them at the crossroads between service delivery and what is supposed to be done for compliance. Negotiating such contexts would subsequently put both the regulator and regulated into experiencing and committing non-compliance. In this regard, one government stakeholder explained:

...sometimes you are at crossroads because as a quality assurance officer. You find that this school is really operating below the standards and ultimately it should have been closed, but this is also a school with partnership with you. So what do you do? I mean you cannot come up and say I am closing it, so you find that you are at crossroads. And then you are also considering the children, where are they going to go if there is no any other school around that place? What about the teachers who are also delivering livelihood from that school? So, we really get into a lot of problems... and real dilemma... I mean you feel that you really want to close a school but also you have to be considerate; so, you are at crossroads between service delivery and what is supposed to be done. (Interview SH4).

In view of the above, most cases of the non-compliance committed and experienced in the implementation of this policy arose from unclear policy guidelines, regulatory failure due to loopholes and weaknesses in the enforcement mechanisms and the regulatory capacity, and the inevitable policy contexts or dilemmas (that were not consistent with the realities of the current policy environment) in which some stakeholders implemented it under duress.

5.5.2.6 Political interference in policy implementation

Political interference emerged as one of the key challenges experienced by stakeholders in the implementation of this policy. In this regard, some government stakeholders revealed that they had experienced political influences during the selection of partnership schools as well as their monitoring and inspection to ensure compliance with quality standards. With concern and emphasis, she elaborated:

...Some of these PPP schools really have come on board because of politics. Some people want to influence it [policy]...So, even when one shouldn't have had PPP,

sometimes there is so much pressure that you are forced to have it. Then you can find some religious bodies also coming on board and say but why did you give the Catholic school PPP and then we also have a Muslim school there? So, you now have to see how to balance so that you are not accused for being biased. So these are experiences.... where they want to have a PPP school [that] does not even have enough facilities but because...there is [political] pressure, I mean you have to go ahead and say okay. (Interviewee SH4]

This above extract indicates that some government stakeholders in positions of policy implementation inevitably experienced political pressure while making certain policy decisions. Evidence from the above extract suggests that stakeholders who were responsible for vetting and selecting schools for partnership seemed to have granted them partnership status as a result of political influence without them fully qualifying based on the set rules and standards.

Another district-based government stakeholder revealed that in the vetting of partnership schools, the process was initially transparent. Subsequently, political pressure started being exerted as an informal means to get some private schools to gain entry to such partnerships with the aim of obtaining PPP money irrespective of the schools' inadequate capability to deliver USE. With concern, the government stakeholder succinctly affirmed:

...In the beginning, its [selection procedure] was okay...but as time went on, they [PPP schools] kept on joining through other informal means... some used politics and the [PPP] school just starts without going through formal ways of assessment; and vetting wasn't done as it was in the beginning... (Interviewee SH1)

The above two extracts suggest that some of the stakeholders responsible for the selection of partnership schools to benefit from the policy experienced undue political and religious influences. The effects of such policy actions could have adversely impacted on the success of the policy and the quality of its outcomes.

Similarly, some school-based stakeholders, particularly school owners, experienced policy implementation challenges arising from politically influenced misconceptions that negatively impacted on the attitudes of some other stakeholders towards the policy. For instance, one academic revealed that the involvement, contribution and commitment of some parents in performing their roles in PPP schools seemed to have declined owing to the politically influenced message that the government paid money for all their children's basic school needs. Because of such politically distorted policy information, some parents have neglected their role of contributing certain items for their children in USE.

The politicians are very keen in this policy, ...you have a head teacher leading the school and is confronted with a local area councilor [local political leader] who is telling parents [that] you don't have to pay anything because the government has already paid money, which probably even doesn't exist because sometimes it's not

remitted for several months. So what does the school leader do? ... Parents usually relinquish their responsibility because of the way they are mobilised by the politicians. They are misled to believe that government is the one in charge and it has paid enough, that nobody should be charged with anything, when in fact government pays the tinier proportion of what it really costs to keep the child in school. (Interviewee SH10)

The above extract reflects how political interests and influences in the policy adversely affect the attitudes of other stakeholders at the expense of the policy and its quality outcomes. This indicates that the lower involvement and commitment of some stakeholders, especially parents, was partly blamed on politically influenced and distorted messages that misinformed them about their roles. In such a context, political interference is seen as having adversely influenced stakeholders' commitment to their roles and contributions to policy implementation. Besides, the politicians appear to have taken advantage of low-calibre and illiterate parents with limited understanding of this policy for their political gain. This finding seems to suggest that the level of stakeholders' commitment to their responsibilities and roles in policy implementation is shaped by political influences through policy messaging, unless it is effectively communicated to all stakeholders.

5.5.2.7 Management and communication challenges

In the implementation of PPP in USE, school management with non-functional school boards emerged as a big school governance challenge which stakeholders experienced while implementing the policy through the PPP schools. Most government stakeholders observed the management of partnership schools as a big challenge experienced in the implementation of this policy. The findings indicate that this was attributed to the great amount of school proprietors' interference, authority and powers over other stakeholders such as head teachers, school governing boards, teachers and community members in school governance and management. The school proprietors also view PPP schools as their personal profit-making projects regarding which they would not need any external interference or instructions. In this regard, one government stakeholder revealed his experience in the implementation of this policy:

... Management is a very big challenge. Many schools are not properly managed and, by the way, the majority of many schools are individually owned by those who are starting these schools as business entities. So, they are looking at them as schools from where they are going to make profits [and] get money, so they don't normally follow the standards that are set by the ministry. (Interviewee SH7)

The above extract indicates that most PPP schools that are individually owned seemed to be implementing this policy with the profit-making motive, which conflicts with the MOES objective of increasing access to quality education. This implies that some stakeholders did not plough the PPP grant received back into school operations.

Other government stakeholders participated in the supervision and monitoring of secondary schools attested to their experiences and concerns about the poor management of partnership schools due to school owners' interference in their management without following certain regulations. They noted that some head teachers lacked the freedom to exercise their powers and professional authority in the management of school accounts, yet they were entrusted by the MOES as accounting officers for the PPP money disbursed to partnership schools. In this regard, one government stakeholder in the MOES commented:

.... it is a big management issue in [PPP] schools; there is a lot of interference by the proprietors of the schools, they are not following the regulations. So you find that instead of the money going to the school accounts, they are going to personal accounts. Where they are going to the school accounts, it's still the proprietors managing the money and so it's not utilised for what's it's expected. And then the head teachers [accounting officers] do not have that freedom to exercise their professionalism. (Interviewee SH4)

This view was consistent with a similar view by another government stakeholder who said:

...the head teachers do not have the authority which the head teachers should have according to our understanding. A lot of authority remains in the hands of the director [school proprietor] as they call themselves. So that's a big management challenge.

The above extracts indicate that partnership schools experienced big management challenges as a result of school owners' interference in the governance and management of PPP schools owing to lack of substantive head teachers. However, another government stakeholder attributed the above management challenges to non-functional school BOGs and the lack of inadequate involvement of parents in school governance:

...there is inadequate involvement of the parents and the school boards in the running of these PPP schools ... And that brings the loophole because the government has entrusted the board of governors [in PPP schools] with certain rules to perform, to guide the process, so, when it's not functional, then it means that the school is running without a proper eye on the actual school-based policies and programmes. So, that seems to be a weakness. (Interviewee SH11)

In view of the above abstracts, the school management challenges commonly experienced in PPP schools were attributed to school proprietors' interference in the management of school accounts and their perception of schools as profit-making business entities; non-functional school BOGs; inadequate involvement of parents in school management and the provision of care for the basic needs of their children in USE.

Inadequate communication and poor coordination of policy implementation issues also emerged as a challenge. The findings indicate that policy communication and coordination structures in the MOES and local governments were limited. Yet policy communication and coordination among its stakeholders are crucial for its management and enforcement. One government stakeholder recounted the experiences and challenges he encountered in the

supervision and monitoring of PPP schools in the district. He attributed such experiences and challenges to poor communication and coordination among stakeholders in the policy. He revealed how lack of communication and coordination between the MOES and district local government administration officials over control and supervision in the district affected implementation of the policy. In view of this, he draws on his personal experiences and institutional concerns to show why the implementation of this policy seemed to be in a mess:

The challenge is that these memoranda [MOU] were signed at the [central government] headquarters or in the Ministry [of Education]; that's where the problem is. They were signed at the headquarters, yet somebody running after them is at the district without any documentation...No communication and coordination and integration with the ministry. So for us ...we say the government should pull out as fast as they can because it [policy] is in a mess... (Interviewee SH1)

Besides, the findings indicate that inadequate coordination, communication and cooperation among the district and the MOES officials resulted in challenges of management, monitoring and control of PPP schools under partial decentralisation. It resulted in a supervisory role conflict between the district local government and central government officials with regard to who should do what in PPP schools and whom should they be accountable to and give more allegiance and respect than the other. This divided allegiance by PPP schools created problems of non-compliance with the policy. In this regard, one government official commented:

Our biggest challenge is decentralisation ...the secondary schools are decentralised but partially [managed from the centre]. You have inspectors from the district and you also have other inspectors from the ministry headquarters [MOES]. Now, their allegiance is divided between two authorities; and to them [schools], they say where should we be? Are we at the district or are we at the centre? ...I mean who they should listen to, should they listen to the district or should they listen to the centre [MOES]; so that one makes it a very big management problem when we go out there to supervise them...So, under such circumstances... they fail to attend to any. So, compliance becomes a very big challenge, submission of information becomes a very big challenge, and follow-ups become a problem. (Interviewee SHI)

There seem to be two contradictory processes of decentralisation with central control, which demotivated district local governments from monitoring and regulating PPP schools. This finding indicates that partial decentralisation in the supervision and control of PPP schools created some supervisory conflict between the district local government and the central government. This management experience provides evidence of lack of clarity and understanding of the policy implementation framework with regard to some stakeholders' functions and roles. This challenge that emerged from limited communication and coordination among government stakeholders in the policy created more problems in monitoring and non-compliance with policy.

5.5.2.8 Human resource inadequacies for policy implementation

In this study, some stakeholders, basing on their experiences in the implementation of this policy, observed that understaffing or human resource capacity inadequacies were key institutional operational weaknesses. When asked, one of the academics revealed that most PPP-implementing institutions were weak and remiss at both local and national levels in performing their inspectorate roles. He attributed this to institutional weaknesses in the form of understaffing and resource capacity inadequacies. He remarked:

....given the weakness and absence of a strong inspectorate in the Ministry of Education and Sports, much as it claims that it is the one responsible to making sure that these policy guidelines are implemented, we know that it is weak on the ground. For example, staffing, every district has one inspector of schools. ... This inspector of schools is in the Education Department and in local government Education Department that has the least budget allocation. At the national [level], the National Inspectorate and the Education Standards Agency are rarely seen at the local level. So, there are a number of indicators that suggest that our inspection of schools is a function in a Benz. (Interviewee SH22)

The above extract reveals the inadequacy of school inspectors and that the budgetary allocations render the inspectorate body in the MOES functionless in the implementation of this policy. The institutional experiences of understaffing and inadequate money were echoed as the main reasons why the MOES inspectorate and other relevant institutions continued to implement this policy in the way they do. This was supported by the views of one of the government stakeholders in the MOES who revealed that their staff was too small to inspect all schools in the country and to implement all the policy recommendations made:

And then...for us on our side [as a ministry] the schools are too many for the staff. You look at our staff, we are only 54 people [required to inspect all schools], and that is in addition to the other government work..., so sometimes we can't reach them to give support as we should be giving a support or even if we reach there, we cannot follow up, so that becomes a very big challenge. And the other biggest one is implementation of recommendations; no enforcement of implementation of [our] recommendations. (Interviewee SH4)

The above extracts suggest that the inadequacy of human resources experienced by the MOES-based stakeholders in this policy seems to have created loopholes in the inspection and monitoring of the PPP schools and the enforcement of recommendations made for improvement. Besides, shortages of teaching staff were frequently experienced by most PPP schools. This was due to shortage of trained and qualified teachers, as revealed by the principal inspector of schools from ESA in the MOES:

...We have inadequate teachers and the PPP schools have even more constraints, they still have untrained teachers in those schools. And if they have trained teachers, those are science teachers, and then they are part-timers. They cannot attract permanent teachers because of low pay and also there are scarcities, especially for science teachers... (Interviewee SH4)

Evidence from the above extracts indicate that both government and PPP schools as key partners [internal stakeholders] in the policy continue to experience human resource challenges in the areas of school inspection and supervision, monitoring, evaluation and teaching, yet these are key roles in the implementation of the policy. Despite all such negative experiences, school inspection and supervision, monitoring and regulation of PPP policy implementation remain the mandated roles of the MOES as stipulated in the MOU document that was signed between the government and the partnership schools.

5.5.2.9 Inadequate planning, monitoring and supervision of the policy

Among the key challenges stakeholders experienced was the implementation of this policy without adequate planning, monitoring and supervision of all its activities. Inadequate planning and monitoring was mainly attributed to lack of adequate resources, supervision and *clear policy targets* in the MOU. In view of this, one government stakeholder, who acknowledged having participated in the formulation of this policy, observed that the main challenge they experienced as a government was the implementation of this policy alongside many other education policies without adequate planning and preparation for them in relation to the available resources or capacity:

I think the challenge with this policy is a similar challenge of our policies, especially like the massification of policies...yet we don't have adequate planning and preparation for them...So that's really to me, the mother [main cause] of the challenges that we sometimes implement big policies without adequate plan and preparation for that policy in terms of its all resources like the teachers, the infrastructure and the teaching-learner materials; so, learners are there and then you start running around. (Interviewee SH11)

It is evident from this quote that most government and school-based stakeholders experienced the challenges of implementing the PPP policy in USE due to proper planning and preparation for the required adequate resources and capacity. The findings indicate that this was attributed to the amount of pressure put on the government (MOES) and the resultant urgency that forced it to depend on the perceived goodwill of the private sector schools without fully assessing their capacity and appropriateness to deliver USE. One government stakeholder explained why this happened:

...there was a lot of pressure and we put the advert [on partnership]. So, when people came up, we didn't even have that opportunity to go down to access their capacities. So, we were relying on goodwill that if you have come up with your documentation, with your CVs and if the [private] school has been registered and operating, it means that you already have the capacity because you had already enrolled the children. We were not partnering with people who were starting from zero but these who were already operating schools. (Interviewee SH4)

Furthermore, the findings reveal inadequacy of the necessary transport logistics due to some institutional restrictions and unfavourable physical conditions in the field of work as challenges which some government stakeholders experienced in their school monitoring and supervisory roles. In support of this, one district official explained:

Sometimes it becomes very difficult. Especially when it rains we cannot travel on boda- boda [local name for motorcycles] to go to monitor and supervise schools. And if someone has his own vehicle, the [district] policy does not allow you to use that vehicle because if you use it and it gets damaged...the district will not help you to repair it. So in most cases...when it rains it becomes very difficult. When it is dusty, you see the officer coming to the school for inspection when he is full of dust. (Interviewee SH8)

Another government stakeholder pointed out that government weaknesses, policy gaps and failure to make follow-ups (monitoring and evaluation) on what was agreed upon in the MOU emerged as key challenges experienced in the implementation of the policy:

...I think there we have failed as government. We have not systematically followed up to see people are implementing the memorandum of understanding [MOU] they signed. Because the memorandum of understanding is an agreement, each party has its area to do and there should be conditions. If you fail, what do we do? Which I don't think we've done because that is our roles as government. So, there we are to blame, we should have done our part. ...So, there is that [weakness in] MOU follow-up. (Interviewee SH 11)

The above sentiments indicate the challenge of government failure to monitor, supervise and evaluate the implementation of this policy as agreed upon in the MOUs. It also reveals the government's limited success in achieving its intended policy goals. This supports the view that the signed MOUs between partners remained on paper with hardly any follow-up being done on how each partner complied with the agreed-upon policy terms and conditions. This ties in with what one school-based stakeholder from the NGO world experienced. As she put it: "They [government stakeholders] don't inspect our schools frequently. They do headcount but that's not inspection or monitoring, that's the headcount."

However, one government stakeholder attributed the monitoring and evaluation challenges experienced by stakeholders in the implementation of this policy to lack of clear policy targets against which the stakeholders' performances would be measured and evaluated. She commented:

Because the guidelines are just broad areas; they are looking at mainly inputs but we are not tagging this partnership to the outcomes. So, we are not achieving there...because the guidelines should have also come up with *clear targets*, there are no targets. So how do you hold these schools accountable against which targets? So, I think that is where another gap is; it is vague. So people use that as a loophole to exploit the policy... (Interviewee SH4)

Owing to the inadequate supervision and monitoring by the government, some school-based stakeholders have begun practising self-regulation, which was viewed as a positive experience that arose out of this problem. One school-based stakeholder elaborated:

Because there is little supervision from the government, so, it's really the operator [PPP school] who has to self-regulate and so for us PEAS [NGO], we self-regulate effectively because that's our organisational mission, that's what we set up to do. But there are lots of individuals and individual schools out there that probably who don't have the ability or the incentive to do that... And I think that they [ministry] should be clearer about regulation and supervision so that there is stronger accountability. (Interviewee SH26)

The above extract indicates that, where the government has failed in regulation and supervision, some school-based stakeholders with enough capacity have done self-regulation to achieve their policy objectives. This finding seems to suggest that better partnerships in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE is sustainable with better planning based on clear policy targets and stronger government regulation and supervision. Otherwise self-regulation might be practised by a few committed partners to achieve the set USE goals and their personal objectives in the case of government regulatory failure.

5.5.2.10 Lack of commitment to partnership roles

In the implementation of this policy, lack of commitment by some stakeholders to their respective partnership roles was revealed as a key barrier to the implementation of this policy. The study findings indicate that some school-based stakeholders had not effectively lived up to their commitments as agreed upon in the MOU. One government stakeholder commented on this thus:

...the programme [policy] was a very good but the way it's being implemented is wanting... [because] as time goes on, most of the schools have not really lived to some of their commitments. (Interviewee SH11)

However, in reaction to the above comment, some school-based-stakeholders attributed their ineffectiveness in committing to their policy implementation obligations to the government's laxity and low commitment to fulfil its role of providing funds and other necessary inputs to the PPP schools in a timely manner. In this regard, one school-based stakeholder revealed that the government had also not been committed to its roles of releasing funding and the provision of other basic inputs in the right amount and at the right time. He said:

... Government as well like schools has still failed to provide the adequate resources or necessities in time, failed ... USE on monitoring and supervision, failure by government to increase the grant per child and release it in time in consideration of the inflation rate in the country. (Interviewee SH18)

The above extract seems to suggest that the government's low commitment to release funding and other inputs negatively impacted on school-based stakeholders' commitment to their policy implementation roles. Besides, the findings also reveal that some government

stakeholders were not committed to their inspection and monitoring roles. In view of this, one school-based stakeholder revealed her experience in working with some less-committed district inspectors who never visited some PPP schools. She said that "...for me I told you I am and have been a head teacher in that school where I worked for 13 years but I did not see even on a single day an inspector from the district coming to inspect my school." This suggests low commitment of the school inspectorate units of both the district and the MOES to the performance of their roles.

However, some school inspectors attributed their low commitment to their monitoring and supervisory role to inadequate facilitation, especially transport, which they experienced as a barrier in their work. Regarding this, one inspector of schools from Wakiso district clarified:

One of the problems is that, in Wakiso district, we don't have vehicles. The Inspectorate Department doesn't even have a single vehicle, the two we had are grounded [not functional], so, that one also affects our work. So, our challenge mainly is transport facilitation that is inadequate; I think those are the ones we face most. (Interviewee SH14)

Besides, some school-based stakeholders pointed out *parents' neglect of their roles due to the misconception* that the government provides everything for their children and the lack of understanding of their roles of providing lunch, school uniform, scholastic and sanitary materials to their children. The deputy headmaster of PPP school K observed, basing on his experience in implementing this policy, that parents abandoned their role to care for their children and ceded this role to the government once communities came to wrongly conclude that the government was expected to provide everything under the PPP policy in USE. Yet some of the children's items fell outside the expenditure vote of the government in the MOU and PPP policy guidelines. He commented:

... whenever the communities hear the word 'PPP in USE', the first experience is that they think that they have been taken off [relieved of] all the burden of parental care towards their children so much so that they even think that the government would have to provide simple notebooks and other materials that these kids are supposed to use. You can't teach children that are on an empty stomach, you need them to be healthy and very strong. Unfortunately when you look at the allocation of the [PPP] grant, it is not anywhere [near] enough. (Interviewee SH18)

In a similar vein, some parents seem to have less commitment to their roles owing to a negative attitude to and perception of the policy. One inspector of schools in Wakiso district attributed parents' lower commitment to the misconception that the government provides everything for them that is required for policy implementation. He remarked:

...some attitude of some parents towards the programme; so, when they tell them of universal secondary education, some will totally relax and they think that the responsibility of providing all the necessary amenities to their children is that of the government. (Interviewee SH14).

Most comments in the above extracts on the concept of commitment to roles suggest that, while some stakeholders neglected their roles owing to misconception and a negative attitude towards the policy, others attributed it to inadequacy of the necessary resources and their untimely release by less committed government institutions. The findings seem to suggest that when a policy message is misconceived due to stakeholders' wrong perception and negative attitude towards it, they are more likely to be less committed to their roles and responsibilities in its implementation. In this regard, one member of the Parliament of Uganda who was on the Education Committee confirmed that most stakeholders in this policy, mainly parents and other community members, were of a too low calibre to clearly understand their role in the implementation of this policy:

I think their [understanding of their roles] is still low. It's still low particularly when we talk about the parents. ...Such parents do not even worry much about quality, for them, whatever happens they don't care...this [is] to show the kind of perceptions they have. Right from the parent even to local council leaders ... [they] are low quality people... who don't put too much emphasis/commitment in this policy. (Interviewee SH17)

The findings also revealed that stakeholders who do not have any interest in understanding their respective roles engage in maneuvers in the implementation of this policy, and most times conflict with one another regarding the same role owing to lack of clarity on who should do what roles as stated in the MOU. One academic noted that the partnerships in USE delivery in Uganda were give-and-take arrangements based entirely on money. It does not comply with the partnership principle of working together. He argued:

In real terms, this public-private partnership seems to have been reduced to the idea of money, just government putting money and the [PPP] school receives money and runs as an otherwise private school. It is more like government paying school fees. Partnership should mean much more than that. ...partnership should be indeed working together...but now for the case of PPP in USE, that's not the case...to think of the partnership in terms of merely providing money and the other people [school proprietors] think of merely receiving money is to put the partnership on a wrong footing. No! In partnership...partners develop the school together, they work together, they consult on a regular basis, they identify problems together, consider problems together but in this case, it would seem that the partnership has been reduced to merely one paying and another providing the service; that's buying and not partnering... (Interviewee SH10)

The above viewpoints are opposed to partnership practices in which the government just provides money and the school receives money and runs as any other private school without any collective responsibility and commitment. The findings suggest that collective responsibility is a key principle by which partners play their roles, but not the buying and selling principle on which this PPP policy appears to operate. He concurs with the head teacher of partnership school K on the view that for partnerships to be successful,

stakeholders should understand their responsibilities and roles and be committed to them. He commented:

I think like in any other partnership, whether it's a business or not, each party involved must have some clear responsibilities to fulfil to ensure that the partnership gains success. (Interviewee SH18)

The above extract suggests that better implementation of partnership policy roles requires stakeholders to be committed to their roles and responsibilities through consultation and collaboration with each other as they collectively perform their duty of caring for USE children so that they can equitably access quality USE services.

In conclusion, the above extracts and stakeholders' viewpoints lead us to believe that stakeholders' limited commitment to the roles in this policy is influenced by some stakeholders' misconception that the government is responsible; the inadequacy of the required resources and facilitation; institutional restrictions and inadequacies; unfavourable contexts; and lack of a clear understating of their roles in the implementation of this policy.

Summary of Chapter Findings

This chapter aimed at gaining an understanding of how and why stakeholders understand and experience the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in the way they did. The findings indicate varied and multiple understandings of the policy and implementation realities by stakeholders. While most government-based stakeholders and academics had a clear and technical understanding of the policy, the school-based stakeholders lacked a clear understanding of it. This makes us conclude that some stakeholders, especially from the school-based groups, implemented a policy about which they lacked a clear understanding; yet they were at the centre of its implementation through the PPP schools. The variation in stakeholders' understanding of this policy was largely attributed to differences in their positions and the level of their involvement in policy implementation, the degree of sensitisation and access to information or being informed about the policy.

Despite the variants in understanding of the policy, stakeholders unanimously demonstrated their understanding of the policy goal of increasing access to USE as the main reason for its adoption. The findings indicate that stakeholders understand the policy to have emerged from the government's desire to support the influx of UPE learners seeking USE, the need to provide affordable secondary education for equity purposes and to overcome the inadequacy of government-aided schools. However, some academics and a few government stakeholders perceived the policy origin from its economic/budgetary constraints and political perspectives based on presidential pronouncements. They strongly believed that budgetary constraints and political influences greatly shaped the genesis and adoption this policy through the MOES.

Regarding the policy and its impacts, the findings indicate that almost all stakeholder groups had a common understanding of the policy as having improved access to USE through increased student enrolment in PPP schools. However, it is evident that most stakeholders subjectively differed in their perceptions and understanding of it impacts on equity and the quality of USE outcomes. Most school-based stakeholders perceived the quality and equity outcomes of this policy with skepticism owing to the low and compromised quality of USE delivered and accessed through its implementation. However, some government stakeholders maintained that quality was not an immediate policy goal, because USE access could not translate into improved quality in the short run. On policy success, there was divided opinion among stakeholders. Some stakeholders interpreted and perceived policy success based on the extent to which its purpose of USE access, quality and equity were achieved. While most government stakeholders answered in the affirmative regarding policy success basing on the policy impact of increased access to USE, others, especially the school-based stakeholders, maintained that increased access to low-quality USE cannot be evidence of policy success. This indicates that most government stakeholders perceived the success of the policy basing on increased access to USE while paying less attention to the quality of USE delivered. Nevertheless, some government stakeholders pointed out other unintended policy impacts, such as reduced teenager pregnancies, attitude change, improved civilisation and exposure, skill development and acquisition, mental growth achieved by learners, training and employment creation, mainly for teachers. This implies that the success of the policy was not only judged against its goals but also on its other unintended positive consequences. The findings suggest that the success of the policy was perceived with divided opinion and that it should, therefore, be universally evaluated. Moreover, the policy lacked clear documented policy targets against which to evaluate its impacts/outcomes.

The chapter concludes with stakeholders' experiences of policy implementation. It indicates that stakeholders subjectively experienced both negative challenges and positive experiences that were **context-specific**. The negative challenges included the lack of accountability; noncompliance with policy guidelines; management challenges in PPP schools; political interference; delayed disbursement of funds to PPP schools; inadequate quality of human resources; non-flexible policy terms and conditions; inadequate planning and supervision; and low stakeholders' commitment to roles. Nevertheless, good working relationships among committed partnership schools; increased school student enrolment and incomes; and improvement in management of PPP schools emerged as stakeholders' positive experiences in the implementation of this policy. Thus, this chapter has provided sufficient evidence to show and conclude that stakeholders in PPP policy in USE experience more negative challenges than positive outcomes in its implementation.

CHAPTER SIX

STAKEHOLDERS' MOTIVATIONS AND INFLUENCES INTO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PPP POLICY IN USE

6.0 Introduction

This chapter sought answers to the research question: What motivated and influenced stakeholders in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda? It explores the factors that motivated stakeholders to enter into this partnership, and explains how such factors shaped their actions and policy as they negotiated its implementation. In order to gain insight into this from the stakeholders' viewpoints, the study employed Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory, which defines stakeholders as "any groups or individuals who can affect or are affected by the achievements of the organisation objectives". He argues that the phrase "affect or is affected" was inclusive enough to cater for both stakeholders within and outside the organisation or policy implementation (Fontaine, Haarman & Schmid, 2006; Freeman, 2006). Moreover, extant literature on stakeholder analysis (Freeman, 1984, 2006; Murdock, 2004; Svensson & Siering, 2012) shows that the identification and categorisation of the affected stakeholder groups of any given phenomenon helps to provide knowledge for understanding their power-interest influences, motivations and reactions to policy implementation realities. Moreover, McFadden and Priest (2011) argue that understanding stakeholders' motivations or incentives for engagement in policy implementation is important as each of them has his/her own objectives and perceived means for achieving them. In view of the above, this chapter aims to gain deeper insights into stakeholders' motives and interests for engaging in the implementation of this policy, as well as how and why they affected and were affected by its implementation in the way they did. It concludes by examining how policy implementation and stakeholders influence/affect each other, and what implications they have for policy success with regard to its impacts on the intended goals.

6.1 Stakeholders' Motivations to Enter into Public-Private Partnership in USE

Based on stakeholders' subjective and context-specific viewpoints, the findings indicate that stakeholders' motives to engage in the policy differed according to the stakeholders' type (internal or external), their expectations, power and interest influences in the policy. Thus, other than their commonly agreed upon policy goals to which all internal stakeholders as key partners were beholden as stated in the PPP policy guidelines and MOU, their motivations differed. In this case, the internal stakeholders, which included government-based stakeholders and PPP school proprietors, were found to have varied and conflicting motives, interests and power influences, which not only affected their actions but also other policy actors' reactions and motives to engage in policy implementation. While government

motivations related to this policy were mainly policy goal-driven, those of the PPP school proprietors were seen to be monetary and profit-driven owing to their inherent need for money and to profit-making being common characteristics of private sector actors in policy processes.

Evidence shows that while the government's motivation to implement this policy was mainly influenced by its constitutional responsibility and desire to ensure the delivery of quality USE as a public good or service, the PPP schools' intentions were mainly related to making money and profits. However, the proprietors of some not-for-profit and NGO-based PPP schools pointed out the need to help the government to achieve its educational objectives, among other reasons, as what propelled to get involved in implementing this policy. This indicates that both categories of internal stakeholders (government and PPP school owners) had different motives despite their mutually agreed upon goals of USE access, equity and quality in the PPP policy guidelines and MOU which they signed in order them achieve the goals as an EFA initiative (MOES, 2013). In this perspective, both government and PPP schools purportedly engaged in this policy to achieve its objectives, but practically differed with regard to its implementation process. This suggests that the desire to achieve the PPP policy objectives in USE motivated the government while the monetary incentive (PPP grant) and profit-driven motives of most school proprietors influenced their engagement in this policy. What about the motivations of the external stakeholders?

The findings indicate that most external stakeholders' motivations to implement this policy were indirectly driven and contextually influenced. In this study, it is presumed that the external environment of the policy in which some external stakeholders lived in relation to its internal factors, such as PPP capitation grant to partnership schools to cater for fee-free USE for the sponsored children, teachers' payments and scholastic materials, attracted them [most external stakeholders] to the policy. In this policy, external stakeholders mainly included teachers, BOGs, parents and local community leaders. They were indirectly motivated to implement this policy by the anticipated monetary benefits of its intent and stakeholder role-based incentives. For instance, secondary school fees-burden reduction [due to fee-free USE], the need for employment and income, welfare needs-driven interests and community role-based incentives for local leaders (Miraftab, 2004) motivated most external stakeholders to take up this PPP policy.

In view of this, the different factors that motivated and influenced the internal and external stakeholders to take up this policy were largely policy purpose-driven, money-making and profit-driven interests, the need for employment and salary income, and community role -

driven allowances/incentives for local leaders' participation in school governance. Based on stakeholders' perceptions, these motives were further categorised and discussed under the following thematic areas: Lack of adequate capacity to deliver USE independently; constitutional responsibility to deliver affordable USE services; the need by the state to fulfil its constitutional responsibility to deliver USE; the need for money and profit by school proprietors; the need to support the government in USE delivery by not-for-profit schools; the mission of the stakeholder organisations; the need to improve student enrolments and associated income inflows; resource security; and community role-bases welfare incentives (expectation of financial benefits, fees burden reduction, need for employment and salary). The next section discusses each category of these motives with respect to how each particular stakeholder group was influenced to get involved in implementing this policy and why.

6.1.1 Internal stakeholders' motivation to take up the policy

The key factors that motivated the government as an internal stakeholder to enter into PPPs in USE were mainly found to be the governments' capacity limitations and constitutional responsibility as elaborated below.

6.1.1.1 Lack of adequate capacity to deliver USE independently

The findings indicate that what mainly motivated the government to enter into partnership with the private secondary schools was lack of sufficient government capacity in terms of USE public schools, time (urgency) and resources to build other schools and hire teachers to deliver USE for all. The government deemed it as more cost-effective to support the existing private schools in those USE school-deficient areas rather than build new schools within the limited timelines to meet the heightened demand for USE. Regarding this, one school-based stakeholder, who acted as a director of education for NGO partnership schools, commented:

...Government does not have *enough capacity* to provide education across the country *independently*. The costs of building new schools and ultimately sustaining its operation would not match the *timeline* and would not match the demand. So to reach out to the different communities, government saw it as a very cost-effective to use existing private secondary schools to reach out. And so since these private schools are already in place and where there is no [government] secondary school. So rather than government building a new school, there is an existing private school, so government says we will give you public-private partnership status. (Interviewee SH27)

The above extract echoes the views of one academic, who pointed to the inadequacy of capacity in terms of government secondary schools to absorb a large number of the qualifying UPE children into USE as a key factor in the government's involvement in this policy:

UPE had expanded primary education beyond the ability of subsequent levels of secondary education to absorb its products ... Now government decided that there was need to extend that concept of universality into the post-primary educational institutions but then public schools [secondary] had not expanded at the same rate as

the enrolment in primary institutions; ... the excessive demand at public secondary schools could not be absorbed that way. ...So those were the policy motivations that government had children who required [a] place to go and study in secondary school but did not have [enough] public schools because typically government has very few schools. So government had a constraint which it felt it could solve while working with the private sector school in the area of secondary education. (Interviewee SH10)

In a similar vein, government stakeholders revealed that the government was motivated to implement PPPs in USE by the local needs to accommodate all USE-eligible children in government-aided secondary schools offering free USE, yet the available capacity of USE schools was inadequate to serve this purpose. Thus the need to accommodate children in secondary education influenced the government to partner with private secondary schools as a policy response to this need:

... when universal secondary education was put in place or announced, we could not *accommodate* all these children into government-aided secondary schools. So it was agreed that we needed to bring on board the private schools and have partnership with them to enable us [to] have children access to secondary education... (Interviewee SH4)

In consonance with this view, another stakeholder argued that the motivation to implement this policy by the government was to:

...ensure USE access for all, and since access for all could not be achieved in the government schools, then the private schools were a second window through which this access could be achieved by the government. (Interviewee SH 11)

Relatedly, a school-based stakeholder perceived the need to eliminate congestion in government-aided USE schools as what influenced the government to implement PPP in USE delivery:

You know the way I understand, one of the reason is always to eliminate overcrowding in schools because most of the government schools could *not accommodate* all that number of students going to those schools. So at least some of the [student] population would be taken up by these private schools under the government sponsorship. (Interviewee SH21)

Another school-based stakeholder argued that the motivation to implement this policy was lack of space in government-aided schools to accommodate all children in USE. He elaborated:

...there wasn't enough space to *accommodate* all the children who would want to benefit from the [fee-free] USE in public schools. Therefore government partnered with the private schools. (Interviewee SH19).

Contrary to the above views, one academic commented that what motivated and influenced the government to implement the PPP policy in USE was to fulfil its earlier pledge of having a secondary school in every sub-county in the country in order to increase access to USE for the influx of UPE learners amidst its inadequate capacity:

Government pledged that it will have a secondary school in every sub-county. And over the years it has failed to fulfil that *pledge*. So... it was felt that a public-private partnership would help to cover that gap and it would create *incentives* for the private sector schools to go into those undeserved areas, ... [where] the number of pupils finishing primary education ready for secondary education are on the increase, yet USE schools that are government owned are not capable to absorb those numbers. (Interviewee SH22)

The above extracts indicate that the government (through the MOES) was mainly influenced to implement this policy by capacity limitations in accommodating huge USE-eligible student numbers in already congested government USE schools and the need to fulfil its earlier politically-driven pledges of having a secondary school in every sub-county for increasing access to USE. In support of this, another school-based stakeholder argued that the motivation into this policy was lack of space in government-aided schools to accommodate all children into USE. He elaborated:

...there wasn't enough space to *accommodate* all the children who would want to benefit from the USE in public schools. Therefore government partnered with the private schools. (Interviewee SH19).

The above extracts indicate stakeholders' understanding of one key factor that motivated the government to implement PPPs in USE as the need to accommodate all the eligible children in USE despite the incapacity of public schools to enrol massive students for the programme in Uganda. This motive has also positively affected some external and internal stakeholders, such as poor parents whose children have been accommodated and are able to access USE, as well as PPP school owners and teachers who benefited from this policy by earning incomes from PPP schools. Based on the government's experiences, the policy itself has been effectively implemented despite fraudulent acts of the proprietors of some PPP schools who were involved in inflating school enrolments and skimping on expenditure on policy activities in order to make more money and profits. Yet, as internal stakeholders in the policy, PPP schools were expected to effectively comply with the partnership *principle of corporate legitimacy* by sticking to the MOU rules and the *agency principle of* serving the interests of all stakeholders in the partnership. The emerging observation seems to suggest that some stakeholders have abused the partnership principles of agency and corporate legitimacy in the context of Uganda to the detriment of other stakeholders.

6.1.1.2 Constitutional responsibility to deliver affordable USE services

Some stakeholders revealed that the government, as a partner, was motivated to implement this policy by its constitutional responsibility to provide affordable USE for all, particularly in low-income rural communities that have an inadequate number of government secondary schools to accommodate the influx of UPE learners in dire need of USE. The need to fulfil its constitutional responsibility was perceived as a key factor that influenced the MOES as an

agent of government to take up this policy. In this regard, one academic and educationist said that it was the government's awareness that it was its responsibility to provide USE amidst resource constraints that influenced it to implement this policy:

...government should be a more responsible partner...So, the whole idea is that government has the obligation to promote attainment of education for all, but faced with constraints, it [thus] partnered with the private sector. (Interviewee SH10)

Similarly, an external stakeholder from academia argued that it was the government's motive and obligation to deliver USE that influenced it to implement the PPP policy as an alternative way of providing public education services in partnership with the private sector schools. He remarked:

Government is supposed to deliver education services. ...So in an attempt to deliver universal secondary education, government said, how do we deliver this [USE] service? Should we do it alone as we used to do... or let us bring on board the private sector [schools]? But if we are to bring the private sector on board, how do we interact? Yet the two have different motives, in which the motive of the government is to deliver services, and the motive of the private sector is to get money. So that's why they said let us enter into a partnership... (Interviewee SH 24).

The above stakeholders' views indicate that the responsibility of the government to deliver USE as a public service amidst budgetary constraints motivated it to enter into partnership with private sector secondary schools to fulfil the obligation. Nevertheless, he observed that, while the motive of the government to deliver USE services influenced it to implement this policy, motives of the private partnership schools to get money from the government mainly influenced them to enter into this partnership, as explained in the next sub-theme. Thus, the government motives to implement this policy were to offset the inadequate capacity of government-aided schools to meet the excess demand for USE services and the need to fulfil its constitutional responsibility of providing and increasing equitable access to quality USE for all eligible children. This is in agreement with Patrinos et al.'s (2009) opinion that where the demand for education services exceeds its supply in developing countries with limited capacity and public funds, the delivery of education services through PPP becomes a suitable and cheaper policy intervention.

6.1.2 PPP schools' motivations to implement the PPP policy

6.1.2.1 Money and profit making motives by school proprietors

Most stakeholders' understandings and perceptions revealed that the need for money from the government to make profits and for business expansion was the key factor that motivated most PPP school proprietors to implement this policy. Moreover, they viewed their schools as business projects. In this regard, one of the government stakeholders commented:

Unfortunately, some school owners look at schools as an enterprise or business; so whichever little money comes in, it is looked at as either profit or something you can use to expand another enterprise. And that now deprives the school itself of what it would need to plough back to improve the quality of the education being provided. Some of them because they still want to minimise the costs on expenditure on the workers [teachers]; and that highly impacts on the quality of teaching/learning provided and definitely the outcomes of the learners. (Interviewee SH11)

The above extract reveals that partnership school proprietors were motivated to implement this policy by the prospect of making more money through getting the PPP capitation grant. They also aimed to increase their profits through cutting the costs on teaching-learning inputs and activities, a practice which other stakeholders perceived to have compromised or negatively affected the quality of teaching and learning. Though it is clear that some private schools are traditionally profit-oriented, they, however, failed to prioritise the allocation of this grant to key expenditure centres of teaching and learning as documented in the MOU and the PPP policy guidelines. In view of this, some stakeholders not only acted in a noncompliant and illegitimate manner but also showed lack of trust in what they agreed upon. The above findings indicate that the money- and profit-making motives by some PPP schools compromise both access to USE and the quality of teaching-learning. Such stakeholders' actions and behaviours not only negatively affected the policy implementation outcomes but also violated the agency principles and the principle of corporate legitimacy of conducting contracts as stated in Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory, in which this study is anchored. In view of this, the thesis suggests that if PPP schools, as agents of the implementation of this policy, acted legitimately and in the interests of other stakeholders by investing the PPP grant in improving the quality of teaching, which is the main purpose of the policy, it would have had positive impacts on the policy outcomes for the benefit of all. This finding suggests that some principles and assumptions of stakeholder theory do not practically apply in the contexts of certain PPP schools where the private interests of school owners are maximised at the expense of the public interests of providing and increasing access to quality education (USE) for all.

Likewise, one commissioner of education affirmed that the majority of the private partnership schools got involved in the implementation of this policy owing to the business motive of making money and profits. He elaborated:

...by the way the *majority* of many schools are individually owned; those who are starting these schools are like business entities. So they are looking at them as schools where they are going to make profits and get money. So, they don't normally follow the standards that are set by the ministry. But now that there is public money and they

need it, they feel they need to comply so that they can continue to get the money. (Interviewee SH7)

The above extract indicates that the dominant factors that influenced school proprietors' involvement in this policy were mainly the need for money and profit-making. This negatively shaped/influenced their partnership behaviour and mode of operation in managing the schools with them hardly taking into consideration the benefits and interests of other stakeholders as reflected in the PPP policy objectives. Yet they were signatories to the MOU to work towards the goals of this policy while respecting the interests of each partner. This implies non-respect for the corporate legitimacy and agency principles assumed in Freeman's (1984) theory since the requirement for effective partnership was ignored by some PPP schools as internal stakeholders. Such practices compromised the quality of the teachinglearning process and their subsequent outcomes. However, the motive to ensure continuous access to the PPP grant by a few particular PPP schools (rural-based) not only influenced them to be compliant and adhere to the quality standards set by the ministry, but also to become competitive in the teaching-learning process for quality outcomes, which had the positive effects of attracting and retaining many students, resulting in increased income inflows to their schools. This finding seems to suggest that the need to sustain the inflow of capitation grant by some PPP schools positively influenced them to comply with the PPP policy guidelines, and this positively influenced policy implementation.

Similar views were expressed by one academic, who noted that while the motive of the government to deliver USE services influenced it to undertake the PPP policy, the PPP schools' motives of making money and profitability seemed to have influenced them to get involved in its implementation. He explained:

...while the motive of the government is to deliver services, the motive of the private sector is to get money [profits]. ...Because if you have started a private school, your interest is money or to make profits. ...Generally the private sector schools are interested in profitability. So, even when they are implementing this USE policy, their concern is how much money are we getting from government, when are we getting it, and what [profits] do we make, does it make *economic* sense to remain in this partnership? If it does not enable them to get money, then they will pull out and they have been arguing to that effect, especially given the delay in the release of the money. [Interviewee SH24]

The above extract indicates that the business and economic motives of profit maximisation and cost minimisation majorly influenced some of the private school proprietors in this, with little consideration of the key policy intentions of ensuring equitable access to quality education. In a similar vein, another stakeholder, who is a member of the Education Service

Committee in the Parliament of Uganda, concurred with the preceding observations. He remarked:

I have talked to two proprietors [of PPP schools] and I can tell you, for them it is even worse. Worse in a sense that for them they just need the money from government; that is their [goal], they need money. And even with the little money from government, the amount of service they are giving to the children is even less than the amount of money from the government. (Interviewee SH17).

The above extract indicates that some partnership school proprietors were influenced to take up this policy mainly by their need for PPP money from the government while spending less on teaching-learning activities for which the money was intended. This reveals that where PPP schools make profits from government money by compromising the teaching-learning process through paying low salaries to teachers, low quality of education services will be provided owing to the teachers' limited commitment. This finding suggests that where stakeholders are influenced to get into policy implementation by the motive of getting only the grant/money without investing it into quality teaching-learning of children, the quality of USE outcomes will be grossly compromised. Thus, the implementation of the PPP policy in USE is less likely to be successful if the government contracts PPP school proprietors with the hidden motive of getting PPP money with hardly any commitment to their roles in achieving the intended policy goals and purpose unless the implementation regulations are enhanced by the government. This is reflected by the comment that one school-based stakeholder from the NGO world made:

If the government increased funding now, I don't think it would improve quality. [Because] there would be many operators [PPP schools] that just take the extra funding for profit, because there is no accountability. But if the government was able to have done more rigorous selection of partners and then better school inspection, I think you can assume that more funding will improve quality and access. (Interviewee SH26)

The implication of this is that policy implementation with no accountability and regulations compromises its success in terms of access and the quality of teaching-learning even when funding is improved. Besides, delayed disbursement and provision of inadequate money to most PPP schools with profit motives would result in some unintended policy consequences to the detriment of the learners and the government, especially where some PPP schools which lacked financial sustainability collapsed or abandoned the partnership.

In the view of the interviewee above, stakeholders seem to suggest that private sector schools are influenced to implement this partnership policy by money-making and profitability interests so that they can sustain and expand their school businesses. This implies that most partnership schools were influenced to take up PPP policy implementation by the money and profitability motives rather than by its equity and quality concerns. Besides, in case of any

risk of prolonged inadequacy and delayed release of this money, their ability to meet such business expectations would diminish to the extent that some less committed and poorly managed PPP schools without financial sustainability or those which entirely depended on this grant would either pull out of this partnership or collapse.

However, it has also been observed that some business-minded PPP schools, though not compliant with policy regulations and competitive, seemed to have taken advantage of this partnership as a source of capital for their private ventures while giving value to the children that is not commensurate with the money they received. One commissioner of education in charge of private schools revealed the possibility that the government might pull out of partnering with purely business and profit-minded partnership schools. He explained:

...currently we are kind of withdrawing the partnership or thinking of doing away with purely business-minded private partnership [schools], so that we bring in community ownership. And then we also have another category of NGO network schools; we have like an NGO like Promoting Equality in Africa Schools (PEAS). So, we are proposing as a department [ministry] to instruct the government that we need to move away from purely private schools that are run on business profit model to those that are established to support communities; ... and are much better managed and where quality is much better than those that are purely individual and profitminded. (Interviewee SH7)

The above comments and observation seem to suggest that, whereas the government entered into partnership with school proprietors to increase access and improve quality and equity in USE delivery, some private schools acted contrary to the agreed terms owing to the profit-making motive. Because of this, the government has proposed a strategy of withdrawing gradually from partnering with PPP schools that operate on a business-profit making model.

The above findings indicate that the money- and profit-making motives of some PPP schools compromise both access to USE and the quality of teaching-learning. This implies that unless the government embarked on the timely provision of adequate money coupled with strict regulation of quality assurance standards, the quality of USE delivered through this policy would continue be low. In view of this, the government is contemplating partnering with only committed community-based, NGO and church-founded PPP schools, which are perceived to have not only better school management but also to provide quality education. This debate leads us to another related factor, which is the *mission of committed PPP schools* that motivated some to enter into partnership with the government, as elaborated in the next subtheme.

6.1.2.2 Mission of the stakeholder organisation

The findings from the NGO world stakeholders and implementing partners of PPP in USE reveal that their motivation to implement this policy was not only to ensure improved access

to quality education that is sustainably delivered to the disadvantaged communities but also to promote equality by expanding its access through reducing the school fees burden to zero. In this regard, a technical officer from PEAS elaborated on what motivated them to take part in PPPs in USE:

Well, one of the reasons was that our organisational mission was to try and reduce school fees down to zero so that we can really provide education to the poorest families in Uganda. The mission of PEAS is to provide education in disadvantaged communities for children who otherwise wouldn't be able to access education and to make sure that the education is high quality and sustainably delivered...So with the government financial contribution to our schools, we knew that we would be able to reduce the school fees while still improving quality, which means that we would be able to reach poorer students. So that was a biggest motivation for us. (Interviewee SH26)

The above extract suggests that the mission and motives of some PPP schools, especially the not-for-profit community-based and NGO-based schools, were welfare improvement-driven as they focused most on lessening children's fees-burden for low-income parents from disadvantaged communities. This indicates that some schools' mission-driven motives informed or influenced philanthropic practices geared towards community improvement through PPPs in USE, a characteristic of most NGO-based partners in PPP policy implementation. Such motivations always lead to the achievement of the overall policy goals of increased access to equitable quality education.

The above findings lead us to believe that the motivations of government and PPP schools to implement the policy varied, though some of the PPP schools also indirectly focused on quality so as to have a good public reputation as well as to compete and benefit the community.

6.1.2.3 The need to improve student enrolments and resource security

The study findings also reveal that motivation to embrace the policy was not only driven by the need to improve the school resource base and financial security but also to increase student enrolments to ensure stable income inflows into private schools with previous income challenges. Besides, the findings reveal that, other than the motive to attract large student numbers to improve school incomes, the schools were also influenced by the need to get some science materials and laboratory equipment that were freely provided by the MOES to PPP schools. In this regard, one school-based stakeholder commented:

...PPP schools that were finding a problem to do infrastructure [development], and could not buy scholastic materials, textbooks, and could not buy science equipment, the chemicals for their science laboratories, were forced to go and have that opportunity, and to some it helped them, especially those who were deep in the village... (Interviewee SH16)

She added that the need to enroll more students from whom to generate additional revenue to supplement their income to enable them to pay their teachers influenced partnership schools, especially those in rural and poor communities, to implement this policy. She elaborated:

Those [PPP schools] who were finding it very difficult in paying teachers, who were very deep in the rural villages, and suffered a [student] population enrolment. They had little [student numbers]. This system [policy] improved enrolment in those schools in the villages, because many students couldn't go to school because they couldn't manage [tuition fees]. So this helped them; those who couldn't go to school. Therefore they were suffering enrolment deficits, because with little student numbers, you cannot pay staff. (Interviewee SH16)

In support of the above view, another official from the MOES added:

...because of funding from government... schools found in very rural poor environments where even the private owners themselves were struggling...now at least [have] income coming that has enabled [and attracted] them. And, I there is a lot of competition now; there is a lot of competition, [because] if your school performs well, you're able to attract children, if you don't do well children will go to another school. And I as I told you its unit cost [grant per child from the government], so schools are trying very hard to ensure that they are delivering so that children perform well and be able to retain and attract [get more] money... (Interviewee SH4)

Another government-based internal stakeholder interpreted the PPP schools' motivation to embrace this policy as the need to ensure financial stability to finance their school budgets. This motivation was influenced by the painful financial experiences they went through owing to uncertain, unstable and limited sources of school income for school operations. He explained:

What I would say is that probably [school] conditions were worse before. Because some of these private schools that we partnered with were also staggering [or unstable], because their [students] enrolment was low, the financing was uncertain but when the government comes in [through this policy], financing is now consistent, predictable and reliable. You are sure my budget will be funded; so at least that's a big improvement. (Interviewee SH19)

In a similar vein, a school-based internal stakeholder argued that private schools' motivation and interest in PPP policy in USE delivery was to ensure their financial security:

...there is a way that private schools feel a sense of financial security when they know that a portion of their students are under government sponsorship because we know that schools rarely get 100 per cent fees collection [from parents]. So if a school has been operating at 60 per cent fees collection that means 40 per cent of it would might be lost to parents who have not paid... So engaging in government creates a sense of security that the money will come even when it comes in late... compared to when a parent promises to pay and doesn't pay. So I think that sense of security is what lures the school to come in partnership. (Interviewee SH27)

The above extracts seem to suggest that the motivation for PPP schools to take up the PPP policy in USE was not only resource security-driven in terms of the need to obtain finances

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and scholastic materials but also student enrolment-influenced in terms of the need to secure stable income sources. Having access to the PPP grant per child from the government under this policy implies that the larger the USE student enrolment a PPP school attracts, the more income inflows it receives. This ideology greatly influenced some income-deficient private schools to implement the policy, particularly those that were previously experiencing difficulty in attracting more students and securing a steady income for their school operations. However, financial dependence of this nature has implications for the sustainability of PPP schools. As one stakeholder (interviewee SH27) stated: "If government scrapped off USE, there would be a very high decline or lack of resources in the PPP schools."

6.1.2.4 The need to support the government in USE delivery

Some school-based stakeholders revealed that the need to help and support the government in achieving and fulfilling its objectives through their own private schools influenced them to implement this policy. Thus, some PPP school proprietors claimed that involvement in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE was influenced by the need for their support by the MOES to fulfill its obligation of delivering USE. In connection with this, the proprietor of PPP school C in Wakiso district said:

...In our case... we are only *helping* them [government]. All the 500 children in the secondary schools we have, they are government's [USE] children; they are not our children. Government should come to us to thank us that we are helping them to educate their people ...because of *our support* for the Ministry of Education, they know, Ministry of Education cannot do it on their own. Yes, they also need us and our relationship with the Ministry of Education is based on that. They see that they need us and we need them. But they need us more because we are *helping* them. (Interviewee SH5)

Another school-based stakeholder, from her previous experiences as a teacher and head teacher, argued:

... I think the government had also known that we [private school owners] are now doing a service; education is a service despite the fact that some people get some profits, but it's a service. Private sector is helping the government to fulfil its obligation. Yet it is the government that is supposed to educate its people or her citizens... (Interviewee SH15)

The above interview extracts indicate that what influenced some PPP schools to implement this policy was the desire to help the government in fulfilling its constitutional obligation. This finding indicates that PPP schools are rendering a service to the government in helping it fulfill its obligation of delivering USE to the public. However, the previous motives lead us to suggest that, without the PPP capitation grant component, most of such schools would not have participated in this policy. This argument is premised on the fact that despite the seeming voluntarism inherent in their involvement in PPP policy implementation, partnership

school owners have kept on complaining about the inadequacy of the grant and its delayed release. It is evident from this study that, other than some not-for-profit religious and community-based schools, the involvement of other stakeholders in this policy seem not be voluntary because most of them are tagged on payment of the PPP grant by the government. If their involvement were voluntary, some partnership schools would not have participated in the implementation of this policy.

6.1.3 External stakeholders' motivations to implement the PPP policy

6.1.3.1 Community responsibility incentives for external stakeholders

While the preceding sections highlighted the motivations of internal stakeholders to implement the PPP policy in USE, this section presents those of some external stakeholders. In this section, external stakeholders' involvement was perceived as external to the policy as they were not directly legally bound by the partnership agreement signed through the MOU signed between the PPP schools and the government. However, based on stakeholder's theory, they affected and were affected by the policy environment realities through external linkages. This provides a theoretical account for their inclusion to this policy implementation framework as external stakeholders. They included parents, community leaders and teachers, among others. Based on their views from the interviews, which were supported by some relevant policy documents, most stakeholders' motivations and interests were deemed to be driven by a financial incentive and associated benefits. For instance, teachers sought and expected employment and improved salaries, parents needed to be relieved from the feesburden, while some community leaders aspired to participate on school governing boards (BOGs and PTA) to serve the interests of the community in school governance with an anticipation of monetary benefit in the form of board meeting allowances.

In line with these perspectives, some external stakeholders, namely head teachers, teachers, parents and community leaders, were indirectly influenced to get involved in policy implementation by the anticipated monetary-driven motives, which included *fees-burden* reduction for parents whose children benefited from fee-free USE, the need for employment and income from salary payments by teachers and community role-based financial incentives associated with policy implementation activities. Therefore, external stakeholders' involvement to this policy was motivated more by their circumstantial or contextual needs, anticipated role-based monetary gain and employment income than the expected policy goals.

Concerning **parents' motivations** to enter into PPP in USE, one school-based stakeholder revealed that some low-income parents, especially those from rural communities, were motivated by school fees affordability. The relatively fee-free and/or affordable USE services

provided by the government through the PPP policy enabled the children of such parents to access them. In this regard, one school-based stakeholder commented:

...They [parents] bring their students [children] here because they know that those other [non-USE] schools charge a lot of money for registration, ...something on top of school fees but for us...they [parents] know that the government pays for registration for a candidate in Senior Four and Senior Six...They come back here due to affordability of the fees amount, ...affordability because it is *free of charge*, which they do afford in all aspects, that is it. (Interviewee SH3)

Regarding *BOGs* as external stakeholders from the local school community, one school-based stakeholder revealed that the PPP policy guidelines require PPP schools to have BOGs in their governing structure before they are given licences to operate. He narrates:

...every school before it is licensed, it is supposed to have [a] Board of Governors in place and members should be validated...However, they seem to be weak or nonfunctional because either they are not given a certain level of autonomy by school owners or their *expectations* do not match what is on the ground. Some BOGs expect to be paid exorbitantly. Every time they are called for a school meeting, they expect very high amounts of *allowances*, and when schools don't meet they boycott. So could be some of the key reasons. (Interviewee SH27)

The above extract seems to suggest that, other than as a school requirement, BOGs are motivated to implement the PPP policy in USE by the prospect of the associated financial benefits resulting from their participation in school governance activities, such as school board meetings. Such payments would not be possible if some PPP schools were not receiving the PPP capitation grant from which they are made. Initially, the PPP policy did not cater for such payments, including *teachers' salaries*, which were not specified in its stipulated expenditure centres. The payments only became possible when PPP schools were allowed to incorporate them into their recurrent expenditures. In this regard, one commissioner of education clarified that the policy now allows the payment of teachers' salaries to be partly made from the PPP capitation grant.

Initially, the payment of teachers was not factored into the grant, it was just for operational costs like buying chalk, buying instructional material but with time... the programme was adjusted somehow, and that factor of teacher salary was factored into it. (Interviewee SH7)

However, in his reaction to the above view, the PTA chairperson of PPP school B said:

I think one, government should add up [increase] the funding. ... Because teachers in these private schools are paid by the PPP schools any amount that they want ... most of these teachers are *not motivated* because of that low pay. (Interviewee SH 21)

The preceding two extracts reveal how teachers' motivation to embrace this policy was influenced and affected by the amounts of salary paid by PPP schools. It is clear from the above findings that teachers are demotivated by low salaries. This suggests that some stakeholders with low power but high interest in the policy, such as teachers, are negatively

influenced and affected by the actions of those school proprietors with high power and interest in influencing policy implementation and its impacts.

The lesson learnt from such negative influences and effects inflicted on teachers (external stakeholders) in terms of low and delayed pay, which are illegitimate actions by school proprietors (internal stakeholders), is that Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory principles of corporate legitimacy and agency are less applicable in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in certain contexts of PPP schools in Uganda. These linkages seem to suggest that practice, theory and policy inform and learn from each other based on the contexts in which they are conceptualised.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an understanding of what motivated each of the stakeholder groups to implement the policy and how they comparatively differed from each other and why. It further provided an explanation of how the stakeholders' motivations impacted on each other and the policy implementation realities. Based on the above findings, the factors that motivated most stakeholders to embrace this policy were mainly monetary (financial incentive-driven) in nature. It ends with an assessment of the context and the extent to which Freeman's stakeholder theory can practically work in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery. Against this backdrop, the key findings in this chapter indicate that internal and external stakeholders in the have varying motives, power and multiple interests, which influence/drive them to implement this policy. Besides, findings indicated that the internal stakeholders were found to have stronger power-interest influences and effects on policy than external stakeholders.

Comparatively, while the key motivations of the government as an internal stakeholder were found to be mainly social-equality and policy goal-driven (the need/motive to fulfill its constitutional social responsibility) and capacity limitations in the provision of USE amidst heightened demand for it, those of PPP school proprietors were mainly resource-base-oriented, financial security, the need for increased student enrolment as a source of school income and profit-making through cost-saving or cutting. However, the key motivations for external stakeholders to implement this policy were the anticipated monetary incentives and benefits associated with their participation in the implementation of the policy. These included teachers' employment and salaries, fees-burden reduction for parents based on their children's access to fee-free education and financial benefits/allowances for BOGs and community leaders stemming from their participation in school governance. This shows that, other than the government (MOES), all other stakeholders' motivations were seen to be

money-driven and self-interest-influenced, with *little attachment and attention to the PPP policy purpose of achieving the USE goals*. The reason was that their motivations were all characterised by some element of money or income. This commonality in most non-state stakeholders' motives seems to suggest that the successful implementation of the PPP policy in USE in the context of Uganda is more likely to be achieved through provision of more financial incentives/funding to motivate stakeholders' involvement in and commitment to their roles. This view is in agreement with Freeman' (1984) theoretical assumptions that stakeholders' actions can affect or be affected by the policy terms and conditions.

Besides, the findings reveal *conflicts in stakeholders' power-interest and relations* and their associated motive-driven actions to achieve them. These adversely affected the aspirations and efforts of other actors in the implementation of the policy. For instance, the profit-driven motives of the school proprietors, which adversely influenced their non-compliance and illegitimate actions of cost cutting on teaching-learning expenditure centers of the policy, resulted in the payment of low salaries to teachers. The findings show that such actions not only demotivated teachers' commitment to their teaching roles but also compromised the quality of teaching and the USE outcomes of the PPP policy.

In view of this, most school proprietors not only acted in a non-compliant and illegitimate manner with regard to the PPP policy guidelines but also demonstrated a lack of trust and commitment to satisfy the interests and to work for the benefit of all other stakeholders. This runs counter to Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory principles of corporate legitimacy and the agency of conducting good contracts. Findings seem to indicate that in contexts where some stakeholders' vested power-interest motives are achieved through non-compliance and illegitimate actions and reactions at the expense of the perceived interests and benefits of other actors, the principle of corporate legitimacy and agency might not hold in implementation of this policy. In this respect, the thesis concludes that the stakeholder theory principle of corporate legitimacy and agency principle are less practically applicable in some PPP schools' contexts where non-compliance with PPP policy guidelines and illegitimate stakeholder actions/influences exist in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda.

The next chapter (seven), which is anchored on the preceding study findings, revolves around the debate on the critical success factors (CSFs) for the successful implementation of the PPP policy in USE and their implications in the context of Uganda.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS FOR PPP POLICY IMPLEMENTATION IN USE

7.0 Introduction

This chapter provides what stakeholders understood and perceived as the necessary conditions or critical factors for the successful implementation of PPP in USE in the context of Uganda. It sought answers to the research question: What critical factors do stakeholders perceive for successful implementation of PPP policy in USE delivery in Uganda? In this regard, the critical success factors (CSFs) for implementation of this policy are said to have emerged from stakeholders' understanding and perceptions of their lived experiences of PPP policy implementation challenges, its impacts, success and/or failures within certain contexts.

The key insights into CSFs from stakeholders were categorised and discussed under the following emerging sub-themes or categories that included: stakeholders' commitment to partnership roles; sufficient funding; strengthening regulatory enforcement mechanisms for accountability; consistently reviewing the policy with clear targets; selecting suitable partners with adequate capacity; enhancing regular monitoring and supervision of the policy; ensuring effective policy communication and sensitisation strategy. The findings are presented and compared within the empirical literature reviewed on CSFs and Freeman's (1984) theoretical assumptions underpinning this study for definite conclusive recommendations as key success factors for the effective implementation of this policy.

7.1 Stakeholders Should Be Committed to Partnership Roles

In this study, the findings reveal that without commitment to partnership roles by its stakeholders, who proposed them as one of the CSFs, successful implementation of PPP policy in USE will remain challenged. In this regard, one government stakeholder pointed out the need for stakeholders' commitment to their respective roles as a critical factor for successful policy implementation. He stressed:

We should get to know that this education is a collective responsibility... each and every stakeholder should do his or her roles. [For instance], government must increase funding, parents must provide scholastic materials for their children, and a politician should tell the truth about the roles and responsibilities of each player as far as the policy is concerned. And timely release of funds, of course by the central government; and even the schools must account [for the money] on time and they must stop wasteful expenditures. ...each and every stakeholder should walk the talk, and do what is expected... [And] we *get rid of politics out of this policy* and we try to behave as professionals ... [as] we stick to the standards of the game... (Interviewee SH12)

Another school-based stakeholder, the head teacher of one PPP school, emphasised stakeholders' commitment and devotion to their roles, but with clear knowledge of the policy purpose, as the most important factor for policy success. He noted:

Commitment summarises everything else. If the government is committed to release money in time and if we [teachers] who are on the lower level are committed and we all do what we are supposed to do as clarified. The issue is commitment, dedication and knowing that we are doing this as a service to the country not to ourselves not to anybody else... (Interviewee SH18)

The two preceding extracts suggest that all stakeholders in this policy should be committed to their respective roles with professional integrity in the provision of the required services and resources. This is consistent with the work of Ismail and Ajija (2013) in which commitment and responsibility of all partners are perceived as fundamental principles in PPPs that should be adhered to ethically by stakeholders in the interests of all without any political influences. This policy recommendation was also in line with Freeman's (1984) stakeholder principles of corporate legitimacy and agency principle, which stress that each party must fulfil its roles to serve the interest of all stakeholders for the benefit of all. Moreover, it is in agreement with Higham and Yeomans (2009), who argue that long-lasting collaborations or partnerships are sustainable where there is commitment, trust and credibility of partners in performing their roles. However, the existing conflicts among stakeholders in PPP in USE in Uganda due to mistrust and misunderstandings make this finding a contradiction.

Another school-based stakeholder suggested the need for collective responsibility and engagement of all stakeholders from the local level to the ministry level as a strategy for committing:

I think government needs to start engaging the proprietors of these schools [to commit them]...But even then, that engagement should not only be left between the government and school proprietors... it should also involve the local authorities as well at district and sub-county levels; people and those leaders. Actually government needs to challenge them into engaging them in those schools so that they get involved in what is happening [in policy implementation]. (Interviewee SH17)

The preceding stakeholders' viewpoints are in conformity with prior scholarship (Rotter & Ozbek, 2010; Forrer et al., 2010; Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff, 2011; Babatunde et al., 2012; Cheung et al., 2012; Ismail, 2013) on PPPs in which *commitment, trust and the responsibility* of both public and private actors commonly emerged as CSFs for their successful and sustainable implementation. These findings also relate with what Noddings (2005) describes as the *duty to care* for underprivileged students' expressed educational needs by school-based stakeholders through commitment to their roles in order to provide the best quality education that society and parents would wish for their children to get. To ensure commitment to roles in the education context, Noddings (2005) advocates holding both government and schools-based stakeholders accountable for the desired educational outcomes that she described as the *best quality education for the best in the society*.

However, to ensure stakeholders' commitment to roles, one school-based stakeholder suggested:

...performance should be tagged to the capitation grant... there should be payment by results approach... So, that schools that seem to have poor performance should either receive less or have those learners transferred to other schools that are seemingly performing better.

This evidence relates to the proposition by Patrinos et al. (2009) that quality improvement and innovations made in education by committed private school partners should be rewarded to prevent them from reverting to the adverse practices of imposing extra funding on poor parents of the government-sponsored children. The payment by results approach, as suggested, is premised on the fact that PPP schools participate in this policy in the quest for alternative cheap sources of school incomes such that the more they receive the better their financial ability to finance their teaching-learning operations for quality output and competition.

On the other hand, a government stakeholder suggested a more planned and structured way to consistently follow up on what stakeholders are committed to do and how they are accomplishing this through their roles as a key CSF for PPP policy implementation in USE. She suggested:

...but I think there needs for a more structured way of handling the partnership to ensure that at any one point [in time] both parties in the partnership are seeing their objectives being achieved... [And] consistently follow up on the partnership with clear road maps on what are we committing ourselves to do on both sides and how are we doing in fulfilling our commitments in that partnership. (Interviewee SH11)

This finding corroborates Brady and Galisson's (2008) advocacy for creating a partnership structure with clearly defined roles, procedures and evaluation framework against which partners can be evaluated and held accountable with regard to commitment to and performance of their roles for successful implementation of PPPs in education partnership. Based on the preceding findings from stakeholders' understanding and perceptions, this thesis suggests that commitment of all stakeholders to their respective policy implementation roles, which should be clearly specified and communicated to them through more structured ways, is critical for the successful implementation of this policy.

7.2 Selecting Suitable Partners with Adequate Capacity for Policy Implementation

In this study, the findings reveal that most selected PPP schools experienced capacity limitations in terms of understaffing and resource inadequacies. Yet, such human resources are vital for the effective implementation of this policy to ensure its success and quality outcomes. In view of such experiences, most stakeholders suggested the selection of suitable partners (PPP schools) with adequate capacity in terms of quality facilities, human capital and

monetary resources. Thus, correct identification of PPP schools as suitable partners with adequate quality teachers and financial capacity to enable them to provide quality school management and teaching were viewed as a CSF for this policy. In view of this, one government stakeholder commented:

A good human resource, including both support teachers and management...even when they operated under challenges for some time; but if there is good management and there is quality of well qualified and supported teachers, this [policy] will be sustained. We need to provide with them the right numbers and the right quality of teachers...and on top of that quality management...the [policy] environment should be conducive [with] the equipment and facilities especially for science subjects, the labs should be okay, they should have the libraries...(Interviewee SH13)

The above extract indicates that PPP schools with adequate capacity in terms of quality school staff in a well facilitated school environment and quality management are perceived as being in a position to effectively implement this policy. This finding is in agreement with Mgaiwa and Poncian (2016), who in their study on education PPPs in higher education in Tanzania argue that the quantity and quality of teaching staff are key determinants of quality of education and its outcomes. In their study, they noted that the quality of education output was compromised by the *inadequacy* (small number) of quality academic staff partly through the teaching-learning process. They attributed the low quality of education output to private institutions' profit-driven motive that limits the capacity to hire quality academic staff (Mgaiwa & Poncian, 2016). While their Tanzania study was on PPPs in higher education, the current PPP study was on secondary education. These similar findings within different contexts seem to suggest that the capacity of private partners to hire adequate quality teaching staff for quality teaching and education outcomes could be seen as a universal CSF cutting across varying contexts in the education sphere. Though Patrinos et al. (2009) argue that the capacity of a contracting agency/partner is paramount for the successful implementation of PPP in USE, the findings of the current study reveal that the Government of Uganda did not effectively and legitimately consider the capacity adequacy of most PPP schools as a key aspect of quality teaching-learning from the initial selection stage owing to political pressure. Despite this, the literature and stakeholders affirm that the *capacity of schools* is a key factor in the delivery of quality education outcomes.

Similarly, some school-based stakeholders suggested that the government should identify and work with non-profit-oriented and committed partners with good track records in school management and accountability for resources. In this regard, one school manager noted:

I think they should review whom they partner with and should only choose partners that are not for profit, and...who have confidence and are able to manage schools, that are educationists...and have the capacity to manage schools. ...So, if you have good

partners with good accountability structures... you will make the policy more successful in USE delivery... (Interviewee SH26)

These findings are partly consistent with the literature (Grimsey & Lewis, 2004; Brent & Hentschke, 2006; Heald & Georgiou, 2009; Forrer et al., 2010; Amuche & Kukwi, 2013) on PPP implementation in which most proponents emphasise the selection of PPP partners with adequate capacity in terms of teaching facilities, financial and quality human resources as key factors for the successful implementation of PPPs. However, they hardly mention the new finding of this study that emphasises the selection of only PPP schools owned by educationists with seemingly good professional backgrounds and knowledge of school management.

Some stakeholders revealed that, owing to some inherent political influences in the implementation of this policy process, there were fewer practical considerations and rigorous evaluations of some PPP schools' capacity as eligibility requirements. In this regard, one stakeholder revealed that "some of these PPP schools really have come on board because of politics...So, even when one shouldn't have had PPP, sometimes there is so much pressure that you are forced to have it..." This shows that, in reality, the selection of some PPP schools in Uganda was politically influenced by some stakeholders (for their political motives) without much regard for their suitability and capacity to deliver quality USE services through the PPP policy. Moreover, Srivastava (2010, p.543) argues that "political expedience may be the main reason behind the push towards PPPs in the social sectors" irrespective of the quality of their outcomes. This thought corresponds with Patrinos et al.'s (2009), who perceive political problems to have weakened the public sector capacity to provide adequate quality education services with flexibility. The preceding insights explain the low quality of USE delivered through compromised teaching and learning.

This finding tells us that the selection of some PPP schools in Uganda seems to be politically influenced with less focus on their suitability and capacity to deliver quality USE services through partnership. Some stakeholders suggested that, in order to overcome this shortcoming, strong structures should be established through which better and more eligible PPP schools should be selected and regulated. One school-based stakeholder elaborated thus:

...if you have good partners with good accountability structures, and then you increase or improve funding, you will generally increase quality. But if the government was able to do more rigorous selection of better partners and then do better school inspection, I think you can assume that more funding will improve quality and access... (Interviewee SH26)

This finding supports Bradly and Galisson's (2008) advocacy for creating a partnership structure with clearly defined roles, procedures and evaluation framework against which

partners can be assessed and held accountable with regard to their roles for the successful implementation of PPPs in education.

7.3 Consistently Reviewing the Policy Guidelines with Clear Targets

In this study, it became evident that while the environments or contexts in which stakeholders implemented the policy continued to evolve over time, the eligibility requirements and conditions as stipulated in the MOU and PPP policy guidelines for compliance and quality assurance remained relatively fixed and restrictive. Moreover, some terms in the policy guidelines forbade PPP schools from charging any extra fee or cost to children over and above what the government paid as a PPP subsidy per child per term, yet this fund has been found not only to be inadequate but also fixed since 2007 when the policy was adopted in Uganda. In view of the existing mismatch between the policy terms (policy guidelines and MOU) and the evolving socio-economic conditions on the implementation terrain, most stakeholders unanimously suggested consistent policy review with favourable and flexible terms tagged on clear set objectives and targets against which their performance on policy impacts and success should be evaluated. Besides, most stakeholders proposed regular policy reviews of the terms and conditions of the PPPs to make them flexible, clear, simple and consistent with the evolving policy contexts and trends to enable all the stakeholders to comply with them for successful implementation. These observations and suggestions that are based on stakeholders' lived experiences and perceptions of the policy agree with Jeremy and David's (2010) assertion that PPP contexts evolve with time. This also is in line with Latham's (2009) argument that a flexible PPP contract creates a better fit or match between the supply and demand for education.

In this regard, one government based-stakeholder, who supported this view, advocated regular reviewing of the policy guidelines with clearly set objectives and targets against which stakeholders should be evaluated and held accountable. She said:

We need to review the policy guidelines and make them much more binding and comprehensive ...by introducing aspects of quality. Because the guidelines are just broad areas, they are looking at mainly inputs but we are not tagging this partnership to the outcomes. So, we are not achieving that... guidelines should have also come up with clear targets. [If] there are no targets; so how do you [we] hold these schools accountable, against which targets? (Interviewee SH4)

She added:

I am emphasising on reviewing the policy guidelines because the guidelines are not clear, they are broad and the schools are exploiting them; because if you are looking at quality, then we must tag partnership with quality targets. Otherwise, if you do not do that, then we are not going to achieve what we want to achieve...

These policy recommendations are in conformity with Forrer et al.'s (2010) perception that regular policy reviews are a necessary condition for successful policy implementation due its ability to make the policy and its guidelines clearer, simpler, flexible and more binding for compliance in its evolving environment. Otherwise, non-flexible policy conditions would continue to push private actors in the partnership to illegitimately operate outside the policy guidelines (Latham, 2009).

It was evident in this study that some other school-based stakeholders supported the recommendation for reviews of policy guidelines to make its implementation more flexible in different contexts and match current trends/changes. They pointed out that the policy terms and conditions had been relatively fixed ever since it was adopted while its implementation contexts had evolved over time. The deputy head teacher of partnership school K stressed:

I believe and suggest that we need to amend the policy to match with the current trends. The policy was adopted ...in 2000s, but over that period of time things are changing. ...For me the most critical important aspect is that we need to amend the programme [policy] to incorporate more of the views of the stakeholders at a school level so that the programme becomes publicly acceptable to the real people who are implementing it... People have to embrace [own] it completely. (Interviewee SH18)

The view of one commissioner for education tallies with the above stakeholder's viewpoint. The commissioner remarked that "...the policy has remained static and yet the circumstances have kind of evolved; so, the policy needs to be fluid [flexible] and continually be revised, which has not happened."

In this regard, one academic proposed that unless the government remembers its role and ensures that the policy guidelines are reviewed by focusing more on quality rather than quantity, it would be difficult for Uganda to achieve successful policy implementation with quality outcomes. The justification for policy review with emphasis on quality was premised on the belief that usually government uses students' enrolment numbers in PPP schools as a measure of policy success, yet numbers [quantities] seem to hide much more information than quality, which gives more details on issues regarding the nature of the policy impacts and its success. He elaborated:

...unless we review the policy guidelines, and government remembers its role, that is its duty to provide quality education and start focusing on indicators of quality and not quantity...we are not moving. As a citizen I am fed up of numbers [enrolment size], I am more interested in the quality outcomes... Numbers tell a lot but they hide much more. (Interviewee SH22)

The above emerging findings on CSFs for PPP implementation also tie in with the results of Mgaiwa and Poncian's (2016) study on PPPs in higher education in Tanzania. The study proposed education policy reviews as a corrective measure against compromising quality

resulting from increasing student enrolments for education through PPPs amidst fixed institutional resources and inadequate capacity. Based on stakeholders' viewpoints and empirical literature, this thesis suggests the need for regular *policy reviews* through changing and reforming the policy with clear terms, guidelines and measurable targets to make it more *flexible* and relevant to the evolving situations in which it is implemented and negotiated by its stakeholders. Besides, the views and innovative recommendations of all stakeholders should be integrated into policy reviews for purposes of stakeholder-inclusiveness and ownership of the policy for its success.

7.4 Sufficient Funding and Responsible Financial Management in PPP Schools

Having experienced the challenges of inadequacy and delayed payments of PPP funding as well as its mismanagement, most stakeholders unanimously pointed out the provision of sufficient funding and its proper use/management as CSFs for the successful implementation of the PPP policy. Moreover, Verger (2011) argues that education systems with high funding levels have better performance outcomes. The study findings also show that the quality of USE outcomes and the success of the policy are dependent on funding and how it is spent on quality teaching-learning activities. Yet, most governments in developing countries, which are constitutionally held responsible for the provision of quality education, continue to experience fiscal constraints (Patrinos et al., 2009; Rose, 2010; Luthra & Mahajan, 2013). As a result of their experience of funding inadequacies in the provision of public education, most stakeholders in this policy suggested that adequate funding be provided as well as improved pay for teachers and adequate teaching facilities in PPP schools. The stakeholders considered improvement in funding for PPP schools and its effective use as critical factors for policy success and the delivery of quality outcomes. In this regard, one teacher stated:

In fact if you look at the inadequate funds, it is the very major core of the aspect because even when we talk of monitoring and supervision of the programme, if there are no enough funds they will not come and supervise students when they do not have basic requirements. So in short, one factor that is necessary should be *adequate funding*, it is the major issue for *quality outcomes*. (Interview SH25)

On the other hand, one school-based stakeholder proposed that the government should not only increase funding for the subsidy per child but also consider taking up the payment of teachers' salaries in partnership schools. He presumed that this would help in attracting and retaining quality teachers (particularly for science subjects) and thus lighten the financial burden on PPP schools. He commented:

I think government should increase funding to these schools. And then, apart from the funding they give per child, government should look at the tradeoff in terms of teacher's recruitment; they could probably not give the money directly to the school but they could be paying teachers [in PPP schools]. And here I am looking more at

science teachers, because these private schools, particularly in the villages, they find it difficult to recruit science teachers ... (Interviewee SH17)

These findings agree with Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff's (2011) argument that for effective public service delivery through PPPs, the governments of poor countries should retain the responsibility of financing the services provided by the private partner on its behalf. However, the diminishing roles and capacity of the state for financing the delivery of education services through PPPs have been questioned in some countries (Rose, 2010; Srivastava, 2011). As pointed out in the literature (Srivastava, 2011), this has been due to stakeholders' dissatisfaction with the delayed and inadequate payments for education services through PPPs by the state. In this respect, some school-based stakeholders in this study proposed that the government should increase funding to PPP schools and also take up the responsibility to pay some teachers' salaries in order to ensure quality teaching in PPP schools. In this regard, one parent representative stated:

I think government should increase the funding... that money which schools receive is little. Then...if the government could as a partnership take up some teachers' [payments] and be incorporated in the government salary scheme, I think that would help these PPP schools in deliver of quality USE. (Interviewee SH 21)

Some government stakeholders echoed this view:

...the government should come in and help these schools also to pay some of the teachers because when these funds delay, the major problem they [PPP schools] have is to pay the teachers; and there is no money in the school. So if the government can handle that element of paying maybe just part of the salary for the teachers so that these teachers are not running away from time to time, they will stabilise and teach the students...because that high [teacher] turnover also affects the students' performance. (Interviewee, SH8)

The above view is consistent with that of LaRocque (2008) and Patrinos et al. (2009), who suggest ways of increasing the capacity of private partnership schools with subsidised teaching-learning inputs through the financing of teacher salaries and the provision of textbooks. In conformity with this viewpoint, Ismail and Aijia (2013) consider the provision of financing to private sector projects (like PPP schools) as an attractive way to ensure the successful implementation of PPPs. These viewpoints are in agreement with Srivastava (2011), who argues basing on India's experience that, in circumstances where there is an influx of learners from poorer communities in education (USE) with corresponding increases in enrolments beyond the existing schools' capacities, additional funding would be necessary to improve the quality of schooling. Srivastava's argument bears out one stakeholder's view that "...you cannot have good quality without funding." However, their thoughts on increasing both the quality and quantity of education outcomes with funding seem to be contradicted by other stakeholders' views in Chapter Five of this study. These stakeholders

largely argued that the quality of education and massive enrolments of students cannot mix or occur simultaneously. This remains a debatable issue owing to the country-specific differences in the environments in which public education is provided via PPPs.

In view of the preceding findings on education quality discourse and funding, this thesis considers the provision of additional and sufficient funding to better managed PPP schools with functional accountability structures as a key success factor for effective implementation of PPP policy in USE. Moreover, additional funding by the state as the financier, manager and regulator (Srivastava, 2011) is said to expand and strengthen the capacity of PPP schools for ensuring better pay for teachers and the acquisition of quality teaching-learning inputs for the delivery of quality USE outcomes. However, this depends on the extent to which the policy actors account for and spend the funds disbursed for teaching-learning as they adhere to quality assurance standards enforced through regular monitoring and supervision.

7.5 Enhancing Regular Monitoring and Supervision of Policy Implementation

In this study, most stakeholders suggested that there is need to enhance regular monitoring and supervision of policy implementation activities by PPP schools as a key strategy for it success. Having experienced the challenge of lack of follow-up on policy implementation by the government as its regulator (Rose 2010; Srivastava, 2011), one school-based stakeholder in partnership school B stressed the need for the government to carry out its role of making regular follow-up on this policy in order establish its impacts. He proposed:

I think the government should always have a follow-up of the policy. You know the challenge we have; government releases money but does not follow up to see what is in place. They base on paperwork that is handed to them, so they need to do [physical] follow-up. Then if they cannot follow up, at least they have to categorically specify how that money could have been used. (Interviewee SH21)

Likewise, some government stakeholders also suggested the need for strengthening the monitoring and supervision capacity by involving the existing local-level structures:

There is need for strengthening the supervisory function because we are talking of schools that are now growing into big number....currently, the department responsible for that doesn't have the whole capacity to go to these schools regularly as possible but also at the same time... So, the supervisory function should be improved from the local level structures. (Interviewee SH7)

The available literature on the implementation of PPPs (Latham, 2009; Hodge & Greve, 2011) acknowledges the need for strengthening the monitoring and regulatory capacity of government mechanisms to ensure compliance with the policy guidelines and quality assurance standards. Moreover, Sehba (2013), in his study on PPPs in education as a source of hope for Pakistan, suggested consistent monitoring through improved governance

structures as a necessary strategy for overcoming the challenges of deficiencies in PPP policy implementation.

Similarly, the preceding findings and literature (Latham, 2009; Hodge & Greve, 2011; Sehba 2013) affirm what the deputy head teacher of partnership school K in Wakiso district perceived as the CSF for this policy. In his view, there is need to establish a mechanism for regular monitoring and evaluation of the policy to ensure adherence to policy terms. He asserts:

... The government should provide a mechanism for monitoring and supervising the policy to ensure that the [PPP] schools adhere to contents of the partnership agreement between them and the government...The other issue that government needs to ensure is routine monitoring of the programme in all schools wherever they are implemented so that there is no diversion of resources, so that we can stick to the main goal to which it was intended... (Interviewee SH18)

Some other government stakeholders also suggested intensive monitoring and evaluation of the policy and its implementation while focusing on its successes and failures. They argued that such monitoring and evaluation would enable the government stakeholders to identify best practices and what could be done better to improve policy implementation or decide to phase it out. In this regard, an official from the MOES elaborated:

...I think what we also need to do as a sector is to go back and document the success stories, the best practices and the challenges, because what comes through, people think that partnership schools are not working, some of them think so because of the challenges which are there; but I think we have not come out to say but there has been a success story in such and such a place so that it enables us now to come up with an informed decision on how we need to move forward. Do we need to continue partnership, do we need to phase out from it or how do we improve it? (Interviewee SH4)

This finding seems to suggest that monitoring helps in identifying best practices basing on both the success and failures of this policy. This corroborates Hodge and Greve's (2011) admission that little work has been undertaken to understand and measure how PPPs could be considered as successful or as having failed and that little information exists about this. However, as Hodge and Greve (ibid) affirm, there are different understandings of PPPs and their success, depending on whether or not there are universal indicators and standards against which success is evaluated. This is affirmed by the findings of this study in Chapter Five. This argument calls for setting *clearly defined common targets and standards* against which the implementation of PPP in USE in different schools should be monitored and evaluated to determine its success or failure in order to inform its *best practices*.

The foregoing views seem to suggest the need for enhanced and regular monitoring of the PPP policy through a monitoring framework with clear targets and standards against which to comprehensively evaluate the policy successes, best practices, failures and how consistently

the stakeholders adhere to the policy requirements in its implementation. As Jamali (2004) puts it, the government should continue to set clearly defined standards and build the capacity to regularly enforce them through a transparent monitoring and regulatory framework. Thus, regular monitoring and supervision of the policy actors (particularly private providers) are viewed as critical factors for its successful implementation as they inform policy decisions. We can conclude that the enforcement of effective monitoring and supervision for the successful implementation of the education PPP policy of this nature (USE) requires the government to have a stronger monitoring, regulatory and management capacity (Verge & Moschetti, 2016). This is described in the next section.

7.6 Strengthening Regulatory and Accountability Enforcement Mechanisms

It was evident from this study that the PPP funds was misappropriated and abused by some stakeholders owing to lack of functional and transparent accountability structures. The findings reveal that, owing to the weak and non-functional school governing boards, the capitation grant received was unaccounted for in the implementation of this policy by most PPP schools. Yet, they continued receiving it despite such accountability shortcomings. Based on such adverse lived experiences, most concerned stakeholders in this policy proposed the need for an enhanced and transparent accountability framework to ensure timely disbursement and effective use and accountability for PPP funds for the successful implementation of the PPP policy in USE. This proposal ties in with the views of Patrinos et al. (2009), UNICEF (2011) and UNESCO (2017) that if all stakeholders (government and school-based) were held accountable for their roles and actions, PPPs in education would improve the efficiency and quality of education service delivery. In this respect, one school-based stakeholder suggested that the MOES, school owners and head teachers of PPP schools should be transparent and accountable for the PPP grant they receive:

...My advice to all those recipients of whether its government money or donor money they should account for it promptly... We should make it more transparent because ...people [parents] think that the headmaster gets a lot of money. Transparency should be taught to people in the Ministry and to us the recipients and the parent to know exactly what is happening [on money received]. (Interviewee SH5)

The above finding agrees with Patrinos et al.'s (2009) proposal that the criteria for receiving and spending the grant by partners should be transparent, publicly available and easily understood by all stakeholders. This finding and supporting views are consistent with what UNESCO (2017), Verger and Moschetti (2016) considered as democratic school governance, which involved promoting participatory or social accountability in supportive environment. This is consistent with what another stakeholder noted:

...to ensure that there is more accountability; the government has to be strict on accountability of the funds as they are being released and used. In that way we can be

able to achieve value for money. Accountability is very critical ... so, government needs to ensure *routine monitoring* of the programme in all schools so that there is no diversion of resources/funds... (Interviewee SH18)

A school-based NGO stakeholder added:

...the government should have a stronger focus on accountability and school inspection because that would help improve school standards. ...the only thing that we need them to do I think in the contract is do the government headcount ... We do lots of internal audits of our schools every year for each school, but they are also externally audited as well. So we have our own internal mechanisms for accountability because we want to do over and above the government requirements because we think that it's important for financial efficiency. (Interview SH26)

The above findings and views are consistent with the opinions of other PPP proponents (Miraftab, 2004; Tooley, 2005; Latham, 2009; Forrer et al., 2010; Srivastava, 2010) that proper functioning of PPPs requires stronger regulatory frameworks with adequate enforcement capacity to ensure transparency and accountability as key conditions for the successful implementation of the PPP policy in service delivery. Mosha (2006) argues that a strong monitoring and auditing system should be incorporated to supplement the existing internal control measures for ensuring accountability. In conformity with this view, one school-based stakeholder suggested that the government should work with partners who have better accountability structures with whom regular and rigorous inspections and student headcounts in PPP schools can be conducted for the accountability for the PPP grant used in USE delivery. She elaborated:

... if government has good partners with good accountability structures... and the government was able to do more rigorous selection of partners and better school inspection, then I think it can assume that *more funding will improve quality and access.* ...I also think that they should be clearer about regulation and supervision so that there is stronger accountability. So, if the partners are good they should be receiving more funding; but if then they are failing to deliver on student learning outcomes, and then it should be able to be taken away from them... (Interviewee, SH26).

The above excerpt suggests the need for government to enhance the enforcement of accountability measures in PPP schools. In a similar vein, another school-based stakeholder suggested that accountability for money released should be ensured by tagging it on the value for money element realized, such as performance, which should be incorporated into the accountability mechanism in place. He suggested that "...to improve the quality of learning or quality of learners from those who are business-oriented, school performance should be tagged to the capitation grant." These findings on ensuring accountability by tagging funding to compliance and performance of the school are consistent with Sheba Mohamood's (2013) finding that in Pakistan's experience, in case of non-compliance and failure by private partnership schools to perform to the required standard, government support would be

withdrawn. These findings also support Reim's (2009) and Malik's (2012) assertion that to achieve sustainable accountability in a PPP project, there is need for a consistent, transparent and accountable management system against which PPP policy actors involved in its implementation should be held accountable for their actions.

In view of the above findings and the literature that affirms them, the establishment of transparent and strong accountability structures, school headcounts, tagging funding to compliance by schools and their performance levels, and routine school monitoring and inspection for the functionality of accountability structures were identified as a set of CSF components for strengthening a regulatory enforcement framework for ensuring accountability for the successful implementation of the PPP policy in USE delivery. As Verger and Moschetti (2016) and Forrer et al. (2010) put it, careful scrutiny and regular monitoring of the performance of private providers against regulatory standards/safeguards will help to evaluate and hold them accountable for their actions and performance. Further, Heald and Georgiou (2009) and Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2011) argue that ensuring accountability as a necessary condition for successful PPP policy implementation may not be realised as anticipated unless there are adequate enforcement capacity, legitimacy, authority and a transparent regulatory mechanism through which PPPs are implemented with shared commitment. In practice, most of these conditions were lacking in PPP policy implementation in USE in some contexts in Uganda.

7.7 Regularly Sensitising and Adequately Communicating Policy to All Stakeholders

In this study, it was revealed that while some stakeholders clearly understood the PPP policy they implemented, others did not. Yet it was the same policy irrespective of the different contexts in which the stakeholders perceived and negotiated it. Some stakeholders attributed the misconceptions, miscommunications and variations in understanding of the policy to lack of effective and adequate communication and coordination, limited access to policy information and language barriers in policy communication. These findings bear out those of Hodge and Greve (2011) and Reim (2009) and Reeves (2013), who point out that asymmetric information due to lack of effective coordination and information-sharing among PPP partners is not only a policy implementation governance challenge but also a critical barrier to its success. In view of this, most stakeholders suggested the need to be regularly informed, sensitised, coordinated and adequately communicated to about the policy details through appropriate channels and forums for enhanced awareness and common understanding of the policy for its successful implementation. In this regard, one concerned teacher in partnership school C said:

Sensitise the public [stakeholders] about this programme [policy]... they just hear about it but they are not having any clue about its terms and conditions; even some of us [teachers]; let everyone else [stakeholders] be *informed* about this policy... (Interviewee SH2)

Another school-based stakeholder suggested the sensitisation of all stakeholders regarding the policy using different but appropriate strategies to make them understand its contents and their respective roles in policy implementation:

I think we need to put some extra effort in terms of sensitising the masses but specifically in making them understand their role in the whole programme, because every stakeholder has to play his part...to make the programme successful. It is the collaborative effort which is going to make it successful...I think government needs to play a critical role on educating the masses to understand the contents of the policy. All of them seem to *have different background levels*... some of them come from the [rural] community and other stakeholders cannot contest for quality over something they do not understand...(Interviewee SH18)

Likewise, a government stakeholder who supported the above views suggested more sensitisation and communication, especially for BOGs and parents, to scale up their engagement in the implementation of this policy. He remarked:

Increase sensitisation for the board of governors and parents because there is a laxity by the board of governors appointed but they don't fulfil their roles; so the board of governors should be empowered, should be taught to monitor activities in their respective schools. (Interviewee SH14)

Most of the above stakeholders seem to agree on the need to enhance awareness about the policy through mass education or sensitisation and regular communication. The above findings agree with the empirical literature on PPP policy challenges and CSFs (Baroque, 2008; Reim, 2009; Hodge & Greve, 2011; Reeves, 2013), which emphasises consistent and clear communication to stakeholders through appropriate/effective communication strategies and channels on relevant policy information as critical factors for PPP policy success.

Furthermore, since it was clear from this study that stakeholders in this policy had different cognitive levels and roles, some stakeholders suggested the need to have diverse but appropriate communication strategies to disseminate information on the details of this policy and the stakeholders' roles in its implementation. In this regard, one school-based stakeholder suggested that there was need to hold dialogue through which stakeholders' problems and opinions could be harmoniously shared and negotiated with the government to improve the implementation of this policy based on a common understanding. He suggested:

...to increase the morale of PPP schools, government should dialogue with the school owners, try to identify what could be the problems they are facing and then address them to add the motivation on them...Yeah, the government needs to sit with school owners and kind of draw a compromise, listens to their needs or their views and come up with a compromise on how to improve on the programme. If the government

decides as government and then leaves the school owners also to do what they can, it may not come up well; we need to work in harmony (Interviewee SH 20)

Another stakeholder added:

But I think we need to have a *platform* in which government can always constantly have these ideas from the schools. What I mean, there is need for both [partners] to understand the interests on both sides. So, the schools should not only understand the interests of government but government must also understand the interests and challenges of the schools. (Interviewee SH18)

The above two excerpts suggest the need for *dialogue* to enable stakeholders to understand the interests, motives and challenges of each partner. They deemed it necessary to have policy negotiation platforms/dialogue through which the implementation issues related to it would be regularly communicated and discussed among stakeholders as an effective communication strategy for stakeholder sensitisation about this policy and a necessary condition for its success. Yet another stakeholder asserted that the way the policy is packaged for communication is crucial for its success. He elaborated:

...packaging of the policy message clearly is what matters first. The communications passing from the ministry needs to really be clear and brief and concise to show out what government expectations are for the community and also what documentation they expect from the government. That really has to be clear so that the community knows what government is going to do and not going to do... (Interviewee SH22)

The above stakeholder's emphasises the principles of simplicity and clarity for effective policy communication, which are among the key OECD regulatory best practices in policy implementation. In view of the above findings, this thesis concludes that the stakeholders should effectively communicate to each other through clear and appropriate channels, such as meetings and dialogues, for the successful implementation of PPPs. This bears out Reim's (2009) and Rotter and Ozbek's (2010) view that clear communication among stakeholders through appropriate and effective communication strategies and channels (such as dialogue or meetings) are critical for PPP policy success. The findings of this study, partly affirmed by the literature, seem to suggest that regularity and effectiveness in communication is critical for successful PPP implementation. This is because communication and feedback through dialogue not only provides clarity in understanding partnership roles, policy objectives and targets but also builds mutual trust, commitment and transparency among stakeholders as they negotiate its implementation towards success.

Conclusions

In conclusion, it was evident from the views of stakeholders that for the PPP policy in USE to be successfully implemented, stakeholders should be committed to their partnership roles as a way of serving the interests of all, as affirmed by the agency principle and the principle of corporate legitimacy in Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory. For this to be attainable, most

stakeholders suggested that sufficient funding and effective financial management should be ensured through the government's commitment to the provision of sufficient funding that should be disbursed in a timely manner to well managed and committed PPP schools. To ensure policy success, the government should select suitable PPP schools with adequate capacity in terms of the right number of quality staff and other inputs for quality teachinglearning in USE delivery. However, this should be successfully done through regular monitoring and supervision of its implementation activities collectively by engaging locallevel stakeholders through the existing local structures. Its enforcement should be sustained through enhanced functional and transparent regulatory mechanisms against which all stakeholders would be evaluated and held accountable for their performance, actions in disbursement and use of the PPP grants in carrying out this policy. Nevertheless, stakeholders suggested consistent policy review of its terms and guidelines in order to make them more flexible and relevant to the evolving contexts in which they operate and negotiate its implementation. Most stakeholders asserted that poor communication was a key barrier to doing this policy, and consequently perceived that effective policy communication, coordination and awareness strategies through appropriate channels, mainly dialogue among all stakeholders, were key success factors that should be explored to make this policy more successful and sustainable in achieving its intended purposes.

In short, the thesis concludes that the commonly perceived key success factors for the effective implementation of PPP in USE in the context of Ugandan included: the provision of adequate funding; the selection of suitable PPP schools with adequate capacity; stakeholders' commitment to partnership roles; strengthening of regulatory enforcement mechanisms for accountability; regular policy review; regular monitoring and supervision of policy; and regularly sensitising and adequately communicating to stakeholders.

The next chapter (eight) is the final one. It presents and discusses the key findings of the entire study and their policy implications, its contributions, recommendations, the area for further research, and the limitations of the study, the conclusion and the researcher's reflection on the entire research journey.

CHAPTER EIGHT

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the key findings of the study in the context of the relevant literature. It also provides the implications of the key findings, key contributions to the study, the limitations, recommendations and suggestions for further research and the researcher's reflections on the entire research journey. It was guided by the research questions and the emerging themes from the data. Its primary focus is to gain detailed understanding of how stakeholders experienced, influenced and made sense of the PPP policy in USE and its implementation realities (origin, purpose, guidelines, its impacts and success) as they did. It also provides stakeholders' motivations in implementing this policy, how they affected and were affected by its implementation, and what they perceived as the CSFs for its implementation in the context of Uganda.

8.1 Understanding the Policy Origin, Purpose and Its Guidelines

The study revealed that stakeholders' understandings of the PPP policy in USE regarding its origin, purpose and implementation guidelines subjectively varied within and across different stakeholder groups and contexts. This finding partly bears out Blignaut's (2008) assertion that the contextual factors in which educators (stakeholders) work influence how they understand and conform to education policy prescriptions. In the light of this, it was evident that most government-based stakeholders and academics demonstrated a better and clearer technical understanding of the policy than the majority of school-based stakeholders. It was, therefore, evident that some stakeholders were implementing a policy which they did not clearly understand. Apart from the government-based stakeholders, the majority of stakeholders had little knowledge of the documented time period (the year 2007) when the policy was adopted in the USE agenda in Uganda. Regarding the policy origin and purpose, most stakeholders' understandings and perceptions of the PPP in USE policy emerged from: the need to increase access to USE for equity and quality purposes; the need to meet the excess demand for USE from an influx of UPE learners; the need to provide affordable secondary education for equity; and the inadequacy of government-aided secondary schools for USE delivery. However, some few policy actors (especially MOES officials, academics and MPs) perceived this policy to have originated from budgetary constraints and through political influences. What follows is the debate on different stakeholders' understandings of the policy origin and its purpose in relation to the literature.

8.1.1 The need to increase access to USE for equity purpose

Most stakeholders perceived the PPP policy in USE to have emerged from the government's need to increase learners' access to USE amidst the inadequacy of government-aided schools to provide it. This understanding ties in with the extant literature on PPPs in education (Latham, 2009; LaRocque, 2009; Patrinos et al., 2009; Verger, 2011; Sehba, 2013; Mgaiwa & Poncian, 2016). This corroborates UNESCO's (2012) observation that the rationale for education PPPs was to stimulate and improve access to improved education and learning outcomes through private providers where the state cannot afford schooling for all, particularly in low-income countries that are experiencing excess demand for it. Some other stakeholders linked the government's need to increase access through affordable secondary education to the *equity purpose*. These findings bear out most literature on education PPPs (Patrinos et al., 2009; LaRocque, 2008; Rose, 2010; Srivastava, 2010), which points out that the adoption of PPPs in education arose from the need to expand access to quality public education for the growing numbers of children, particularly from poor and underserved households, by traditional delivery methods. These understandings of the policy origin and purpose seem to vindicate Okoroma's (2006, p. 248) belief that "the objective [purpose] of any policy is to satisfy individual needs, community pressures and...demands".

8.1.2 The excess demand for USE amidst inadequate capacity of public schools

This study points out that the purpose and genesis of the PPP policy in USE were informed by the need by the government to meet excess demand for USE by an influx of UPE learners amidst the inadequate capacity of public secondary schools to sufficiently provide it alone. This evidence is consistent with the literature (EI, 2009; LaRocque, 2009; Sehba, 2013), which affirms that PPPs in education emerged as a result of the increasing number of children enrolling and seeking affordable public secondary schools beyond the available capacity, and yet neither the public nor the private sector could achieve this end as a single entity. This relates to Patrinos et al.'s (2009) opinion that where the demand for education exceeds its supply, particularly in developing countries with limited capacity and public funds, PPP becomes a suitable and cheaper policy intervention for education services delivery.

PPPs in education in developing countries therefore emerged from the excess demand for accessing fee-free USE for all, yet most governments, with their constitutional responsibilities as financiers and regulators, could not adequately provide it alone (Rose, 2010). This argument corroborates the central philosophy of PPPs that all organisations have strengths, but no organisation has all the strengths required to do everything alone (Reim, 2009; Rotter et al., 2010). However, in the context of Uganda where the government

(MOES) could not provide USE alone owing to capacity (fiscal and space) constraints, most of the schools it partnered with also lacked the requisite capacity (facilities, quality staff, financial resources and commitment). This renders this philosophical claim (the central philosophy of PPPs) practically ineffective in mobilising the required strengths/capacity for the delivery of quality USE through the PPP policy. Therefore, the MOES in Uganda seemed to have risked more in contracting the delivery of USE to PPP schools with inadequate capacity rather than doing it alone.

8.1.3 Budgetary constraints as the driver of PPP in USE delivery

Some stakeholders perceived the purpose of the PPP policy in USE and its genesis to have emerged from government *budgetary or fiscal constraints* in USE service delivery. This finding is consistent with that of Reeves (2013), who identifies fiscal pressures as the major trigger for the emergence of PPPs in infrastructure and the country's engagement in their implementation. Similar supportive arguments in the extant literature (Fennell, 2007; Amuche & Kukwi, 2013; Luthra & Mahajan, 2013) demonstrate that PPPs in education emerged as a policy response to the challenges of budgetary constraints experienced in many developing countries. Such countries have limited education financing amidst the non-affordability of private sector schools by the majority of poor parents.

The stakeholders' understandings and perceptions of economic and fiscal constraints as drivers of the PPP policy in USE are consistent with Patrinos et al.'s (2009) and the World Bank's (2014) arguments that the scarcity of public sector resources and market failures in public service delivery are key justifications for the adoption of PPPs in most developing countries. Other proponents of PPPs in education (Draxler, 2008; Patrinos et al., 2009; LaRocque, 2009) similarly perceive them as complementary mechanisms through which expertise, synergies and resources are mobilised to effectively respond to education needs amidst constrained public sector budgets, particularly in developing countries. Nevertheless, Reeves (2013) doubts the ability of PPPs to provide better quality and cheap public services on time and within the available proposed budgets of the partners. His reservations hold true Uganda, where the quality of USE provided through PPP policy is low and compromised.

8.1.4 Political influences in the PPP policy in USE delivery

From the *political outlook*, some stakeholders maintain that the PPP policy gained strength and its way into the USE agenda from and through political influences. It was evident that the policy emerged through presidential pronouncements, which some stakeholders perceived as a strategy for *fulfilling the president's earlier political pledges* of having at least a secondary school in every sub-county. However, other stakeholders considered the policy as

a means of sustaining another *interrelated fee-free universal primary education (UPE) policy*. This partly echoes Moniroith (2012), who identifies political influence in education policy implementation as a common practice by the government-based politicians to achieve and shield their business interests from any perceived policy threats. Moreover, Moniroith (ibid.) argues that any policy that adversely affects or threatens the interests of government officials is less likely to be implemented, while one in which government has interests is quickly supported and initiated at any cost. This corroborates Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff's (2011) opinion that PPPs that are higher in perceived public benefits or interests attract greater government and political support, and are always accorded more legitimacy by the citizens, than private ones. The aforesaid assertions seem to hold true for PPPs in USE policy only when it had just started.

The study also shows that understandings and perceptions of some stakeholders (particularly academics, parents and local community leaders) of the origin and purpose of this policy were partly shaped and coloured by political prejudices and biases. For instance, one stakeholder noted that "a big number of parents don't understand the partnership [policy] properly [because] their understanding was promoted by politicians who used this policy to gain political capital".

This relates to Brady and Galisson's (2008, p.7) assertion that "in more politically polarised countries, the political affiliation of both parties [public and private sector partners] and the relationship between them could influence the decision of whether or not to pursue a partnership policy". This is consistent with the related literature (Reim, 2009; Hodge & Greve, 2011; Forrer, Kee, Newcomer & Boyer, 2010; Narayan, 2013), which affirms that political will and commitment are perceived to have a greater political influence not only on the adoption and purpose of PPPs but also on their effectiveness in public service delivery. Moreover, Narayan (2013), who evaluated PPPs in India from a diversity of perspectives, considers political commitment and the primacy of the public interest as critical for their sustainability and successful implementation. However, the relevance of Narayan' assertion seems to be doubted in the political context of Uganda in which the implementation of PPPs in USE has not been successful. The findings of the current study and empirical literature seem to suggest that political influences might not necessarily be bad if they are legitimately incorporated into doing PPP policy with greater political commitment and the willingness to deliver public services in the perceived interests of the citizens.

8.1.5 Comparing stakeholders' understanding of PPP policy guidelines for USE

The current study findings indicate that the understanding of the PPP policy implementation guidelines for USE delivery varied among stakeholders. Unlike the education ministry and district officials, it was evident that most school-based stakeholders, particularly teachers, parents and local community members, seemed to have *lower awareness and understanding levels* of the PPP policy implementation guidelines for USE delivery. This is because they were neither effectively communicated to and sensitised nor informed about them. The study shows that some teachers, parents (on PTAs or BOGs) and local community leaders who had been *newly appointed* into the school system were rarely communicated to and informed about the policy and its implementation guidelines. Interestingly, it was evident from this study that lack of understanding of the policy guidelines by most parents was partly due to the *concealment of policy information* by some school administrators. Such administrators wanted to take advantage of parents' ignorance of the policy to charge them extra tuition fee, yet it was already catered for in the USE subsidy per child from the state.

However, when asked to explain why most school-based stakeholders lacked a clear understanding of the policy and its guidelines, some government-based stakeholders attributed it to their lack of participation in policy formulation; limited access to relevant policy information due to institutional weaknesses; inadequate communication and sensitisation regarding its implementation; school-based stakeholders' inability to attend policy dialogue and sensitisation meetings; and inadequate resources to conduct massive sensitisation by the government-based stakeholders. As one stakeholder pointed out: "We are more often reluctant to provide adequate sensitisation due to the limited personnel and resources ..." This revelation confirms that some stakeholders lacked a clear understanding of the policy and its implementation guidelines owing to limited government capacity to conduct massive stakeholder sensitisation regarding its purpose and guidelines. In a similar vein, one local community leader revealed: "We would be able to know it [clearly] if we were greatly involved in the implementation of USE in PPP schools, but they didn't inform us..." This confirms that some school-based stakeholders (mainly parents and community leaders) lacked a clear understanding of the policy guidelines and the purpose for which they implemented it, because they were neither informed/communicated to about the policy nor greatly involved in its implementation.

The above findings imply that some public policies (PPPs in education) can be implemented by stakeholders without them having adequate access to policy information and/or clear understanding of its details. This finding contradicts Lane and Hamann's (2003) and Ball et

al.'s (2012) assertion that the critical factor in policy enactment and its implementation is sense-making (understanding) by policy actors through effective communication. However, this finding partly bears out those of Martinez et al. (2013), who explored similar cases of misunderstandings and misperceptions of PPPs in infrastructure among stakeholders who were assumed to be familiar with its implementation in the USA. These findings also corroborate Higham and Yeoman's (2009) affirmation that the differences in the degree of inclusivity, the scale of involvement and the depth of engagement in the partnerships seem to be key factors that influence the extent to which partners understand and collaborate in the education partnership policy in the way they do.

The current study findings seem to suggest that variations in stakeholders' understandings and awareness of the policy and its implementation realities were mainly informed and influenced by the differences in the contexts in which they implemented it (Blignaut, 2008; Palmer & Rangel, 2011). Theoretically, this corroborates Onwuegbuzie and Leech's (2007) assertion that context affects the meaning and understanding of the phenomenon from the way it is experienced. Philosophically, this finding has its roots in Grix's (2010) and Schurink's (2010) philosophical interpretive approaches to understanding reality. They assert that the reality of any phenomenon can be understood from the meanings which people subjectively attach to it and how they perceive it from their lived experiences.

Nevertheless, one key shortcoming identified and affirmed from this study is that most extant literature on PPPs in education (Fennell, 2007; LaRocque, 2008; Draxler, 2008; Patrinos et al., 2009; Rose, 2010; Srivastava, 2010; Amuche & Kukwi, 2013; Luthra & Mahajan, 2013) does not provide a succinct and deep explanatory understanding of how and why stakeholders subjectively understand and perceive the *education PPP policy, its purpose and implementation guidelines* in the way they do from an interpretive paradigm. This is a knowledge gap which the current study has explored. This study clearly addresses this gap by showing that: some stakeholders of the PPP in USE are implementing a policy which they did not clearly understand; and concealment of policy information details by some administrators and owners of partnership schools from other school-based stakeholders (some teachers, parents and local community leaders) in their own personal interests. Lastly, variations in stakeholders' subjective understanding and perception of the PPP policy in USE were largely attributed to contextual factors which they experienced as they negotiated its implementation.

8.2 Understanding PPP Policy Success and Impacts in USE Delivery

In this study, stakeholders perceived policy success mainly from the extent to which its implementation contributed to its objectives of access, quality and equity in USE delivery. Most stakeholders had a common understanding that PPP policy partly succeed in increasing access to USE through improved student enrollments, However, they differed in their understandings of overall policy success on issues of *equity and quality*.

8.2.1 Stakeholders' understanding of the PPP policy success in USE delivery

In this study, stakeholders' understandings and perceptions of the PPP policy success were subjectively, purposely and context-driven. Most stakeholders mainly perceived policy success based on the extent to which its purpose/goals of access, equity and quality of USE were achieved. On one hand, most government-based stakeholders perceived the policy as successful based on its impact of increased access to USE (increased students' enrolment in PPP schools) and its unintended positive consequences. The unintended positive consequences included reduced teenage pregnancies, a decline in students' dropout rates and absenteeism, attitude change, improved civilisation and exposure, skill development and acquisition, the mental growth achieved by learners, and training and employment creation for staff/teachers. These findings seem to be consistent with similar results in literature (Gibson & Davies, 2008) from a UK-based study in which education PPPs were found to have positive impacts on delivery, class attendance, attitude and behavioral change among students, and not necessarily on access and quality only. However, the findings differed in their perceptions of the quality impacts of PPP on education. In the UK study, the perceptions were positive but in the current case study the quality impacts were perceived as low and declining. However, in Uganda, the stakeholders gave less consideration to the quality of USE delivered and its outcomes. In response to this view, Kaboru (2012, p.247) advises that "increased coverage [access] is highly desirable but insufficient unless it is accompanied by an improvement in the quality of public services."

On the other hand, the vast majority of school-based stakeholders, political leaders and academics perceived the policy as **unsuccessful** in Uganda owing to the low and compromised quality of USE outcomes as well as the cynicism about its equity impacts in most PPP schools. They understood and perceived policy success based on the extent to which its purpose / goals of increasing access, equity and quality of USE outcomes were achieved. This understanding of policy success is consistent with Hodge and Greve (2011, p.11), who assert that PPP policy is said to be successful "if its objectives are met and desired outputs are achieved". The school-based stakeholders and academics attributed **policy failure** to achieve the desired quality and equity outcomes of USE to a compromised teaching-

learning process in most PPP schools owing to inadequate financial and manpower capacity as well as other scholastic quality inputs.

The different approaches that the stakeholders applied in their understanding of policy success were all in agreement with the outcome-based approaches to evaluating PPP success (Huxham & Hubert, 2009; Hodge & Greve, 2011).

8.2.2 Understandings of equity impacts of PPP policy in USE

The study findings also indicate stakeholders' mixed perceptions of the equity impacts of the PPP policy in USE delivery. Most government-based stakeholders perceived the equity impacts of the policy to have been achieved mainly through increased access by both boys and girls (gender equity) to USE regardless of the quality of USE accessed. Conversely, the academics and most school-based stakeholders perceived it mainly from increased access to quality USE by boys and girls in all PPP schools and both rural and urban settings. The two views notwithstanding, according to the World Bank (2009), the equity impact of PPP is a major consideration for the success of education PPPs (Patrinos et al., 2009). The varying perceptions of stakeholders seem to suggest that the equity objective of PPP in education should not only consider gender equity in access to USE but also how the *quality* of USE they access is equally distributed across the board. The aforesaid is in conformity with Mosha's (2006, p.66) assertion that "the main objectives of equity-driven [education] policies is to correct imbalances in the system so that everyone receives a high quality education".

8.2.3 Stakeholders' understanding of the quality impacts of the PPP policy in USE

This study revealed that most stakeholders differed in their understanding and perceptions of the quality of USE outcomes of this policy. While most non-state actors perceived quality of USE as low and declining, the government-based stakeholders had mixed opinions on it. Most government stakeholders considered policy success basing on increased access to USE but with less regard for the quality of USE on the grounds that quality was not the government's immediate policy goal. In support of this viewpoint, one government stakeholder maintains that: "...massive student numbers and USE quality don't mix ...big numbers in the short run are much of a disadvantage in terms of quality." However, unlike the government-based stakeholders, most non-state actors did not believe in policy success without consideration of its USE quality. This is consistent with Patrinos et al. (2009), who assert that the objective of PPP in education is to increase enrolment rates and deliver high quality education at low cost. Moreover, quality of education is commonly stated as a key national goal in the education strategic policy documents of Uganda (MOES Statistical Abstract, 2014; MOES Sector Annual Performance Report Financial Year 2015/2016). The

existing literature on education PPPs (USAID, n.d.; Chauldry & Uboweja, 2014) also indicates that many countries have shifted their focus from the objective of *access* to *quality* in education service delivery. This suggests a paradigm shift in the governments' PPP policy focus mainly to quality of USE rather than access only. This relates to what Kaboru (2012, p.247) opines that "increased coverage is highly desirable but insufficient unless it is accompanied by an improvement in the quality of public services".

In light of the stakeholders' perceptions, quality of the USE accessed through PPP policy was mainly low. Based on how some scholars (Harvey & Green, 1993; Brown, 2010; Nabaho et al., 2017) perceive and define the concept of quality as 'fitness for purpose', then the low quality of USE outcomes of this PPP policy reveals failure in its *fitness for purpose* of ensuring its objective of increasing equitable access to **quality USE**. The *key perceived reasons* for the low quality of USE delivered through PPP policy were the undesirable contextual factors, which included mainly insufficient funding, and its delayed release, conflicting stakeholders' motives, inadequate monitoring and school supervision, compromised teaching-learning, inadequacy of quality of teachers, massive student numbers, high teacher turnover rates, and PPP schools with inadequate capacity.

8.3 Experiences in the implementation of PPP in USE

This section provides an understanding of stakeholders' experiences in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in relation to existing literature and the theoretical framework underpinning this study. It provides a debate on the key insights into what stakeholders experienced in the implementation of this policy. It was guided by the research question: How do stakeholders experience the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda in the way they do and why?

The findings of this study indicate that stakeholders subjectively experienced the implementation of this policy positively and negatively as they negotiated their respective partnership roles within certain contexts. This suggests that stakeholders' lived experiences of this policy were context-specific and role-based in nature. It was also evident that some experiences were commonly shared by the vast majority of stakeholders while others differed across the board owing to variations in the contexts in which they implemented this policy. This suggests that stakeholders' experiences of this policy were associated with contextual factors in which they negotiated its implementation (Blignaut, 2008).

The interpretive philosophical perspective put forth by Wendt (2008, p.147) affirms that "the world of lived experiences needs to be understood from the point of view of those who lived

it". Basing on this perspective, it was evident that most stakeholders' voices and views drew on their experiences of this policy. This is discussed below.

Corruption and accountability challenges in undertaking the PPP policy

In this study, corruption and lack of functional accountability frameworks were the most frequently mentioned challenges which the stakeholders experienced as key barriers to implementation. It was evident that most PPP school proprietors and managers misappropriated and diverted the PPP grant from its intended policy activities of teaching-learning partly owing to weak accountability frameworks and enforcement mechanisms, such as non-functional BOGs and head teachers' lack of autonomy in management of school accounts in the policy implementation system. This relates to what Forrer et al. (2010) pointed out, i.e. if PPPs are poorly designed without integrating proper accountability dimensions, some stakeholders would corrupt the system for their private benefit at the expense of policy purposes. Such illegitimate actions contravene the principle of corporate legitimacy of Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory.

Some other stakeholders pointed to *mistrust, suspicion, blame and lack of transparency* as the key contextual drivers of corruption and accountability they experienced, which limited the effective allocation of PPP capitation grant to the key priority expenditure centers (teaching and learning) as stipulated in the MOU and PPP policy implementation guidelines. These findings are in conformity with scholars (Latham, 2009; Forrer et al., 2010; Reeves; 2013) who pointed out that, lack of accountability and transparency by stakeholders are key shortcomings and challenges experienced in the governance and PPP implementation in public service delivery.

School mismanagement and non-compliance with policy guidelines

The study indicates that the school proprietors' power and monetary-driven influences over other school-based stakeholders in managing and controlling school accounts were unchallengeable. This led to non-compliance with policy implementation guidelines and other regulatory requirements. The findings indicate that some PPP school proprietors would make expenditure decisions without consulting and obtaining the consent of BOGs and head teachers. These findings are consistent with the work of Sehab (2013) on PPPs in education in Pakistan, in which mutual mistrust and fear among the policy actors emerged as key school management challenges experienced in the implementation of education PPPs.

The study revealed cases of multiple sources of authority and power conflict between the MOES and local governments regarding who should have full authority and control over PPP schools and to whom they should pay **allegiance**. It was evident that some PPP school

proprietors who felt that they owed allegiance to the MOES could not respect district local government inspectors' terms and conditions of quality assurance and compliance with policy. This experience is in conformity with Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2011), who assert that PPP implementation is identified with multiple sources of authority and influences by stakeholders over each other in power relations and decision-making on (who gets to decide what) PPP issues. This experience arose from the conflicting interests and lack of clarity on stakeholders' roles in PPP implementation (Brady & Galisson, 2008; Srivastava, 2011).

Political interference in PPP in USE

The findings of this study indicate that this policy was politically influenced right from its formulation through some PPP schools by some stakeholders for some specific interests. Though some influences were positive (Forrer et al., 2010; Narayan, 2013), evidence from the stakeholders' lived experiences show that some political pressure (McFadden & Priest, 2011) became more adversely pronounced during the selection, monitoring and inspection of partnership schools. In this regard, some stakeholders raised the concern that the selection of some PPP schools illegitimately through political influence would leads to non-compliance with quality assurance standards in carrying out the PPP policy, which would compromise the quality of USE delivered. This bears out the view put forth by Gibson and Davies (2008) who, in their study on barriers to the success of PPP in education, indicate that some political influences (in the form of local political opposition to PPP) are perceived as success limiters to PPP policy implementation. The preceding findings relate with those of other scholars (Ndandiko, 2006; Srivastava 2010; Hodge & Greve, 2011; Martinez et al., 2013) who affirm that most PPPs have inherent political influences that limit the flexibility of PPP implementation.

Inadequate planning, monitoring and supervision in doing PPP policy

The findings of this study indicate that the vast majority of stakeholders experienced the effects of inadequate planning, monitoring and supervision of policy implementation activities in and outside PPP schools. This finding is consistent with Sehba's (2013) research findings on education PPPs in Pakistan, most of which were found inefficient owing to insufficient monitoring. Findings show that insufficient monitoring of this policy arose from overwhelming numbers of PPP schools which outstripped the available monitoring and supervisory capacity of the MOES inspectorate and district local governments, which were also characterised by inadequate resources and requisite logistical support. These findings resonate with Forrer et al. (2010), who point out that inability to establish adequate monitoring and evaluation capacity to conduct physical checks on PPP activities for compliance breeds corruption and policy failure. Moreover, a number of reviewed policy

documents (MOES Report on USE, 2012; Uganda End Decade EFA Assessment Report, 2014; and MOES Sector Annual Performance Report Financial Year 2015/2016) also indicate similar challenges of inadequate monitoring, supervision and inspection of both schools and policy implementation.

Inadequate policy communication and awareness

The results of this study indicate the existence of inadequate policy communication and awareness among PPP school-based stakeholders and government stakeholders in the policy implementation process. Yet policy communication, awareness and feedback are vital ingredients in policy-making and implementation processes (Lane & Hamann, 2003; Mosha, 2006). Owing to inadequate communication, cases of role conflict between district local government and central government officials regarding whom PPP schools should be accountable to and whom to pay more allegiance to on PPP policy issues emerged as challenges to both groups. The findings also indicate that some stakeholders were never informed or communicated to about the policy, yet communication is a critical element in policy enactment and its implementation for stakeholders' clear understanding of its realities (Ball, Maguire & Braun, 2012). Besides, evidence from this study shows that language barrier in policy communication was a key challenge experienced by mostly parents and local community leaders who participated in its implementation. English was the only language in which this policy was mainly packaged and communicated through in the policy documents and other forms of media, yet it was difficult even for some government stakeholders to translate and communicate its contents into local languages for the consumption of most local community leaders, parents and its critics in rural communities.

Inadequate funding and its disbursement

In this study, most stakeholders pointed to inadequate funding and its delayed disbursement as key challenges experienced by the vast majority of PPP schools and school-based stakeholders in the implementation of this policy. The resultant challenges included high attrition rates of trained quality teachers and head teachers in PPP schools owing to unfavourable working conditions in terms of low pay for heavy teaching workloads amidst meager funding and delays. The above study findings and empirical arguments on PPP funding experiences bear out those of Benell and Akyeampong (2007), who, in their study on teachers' motivation in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, note that low levels of teachers' motivation due to poor remuneration and working conditions (heavy workloads with low and late payments) adversely affect their job satisfaction and the quality of teaching outcomes. This concurs with Mgaiwa and Poncian's (2016) assertion that the quality of education output is compromised by inadequacy of funding to hire adequate quality academic staff to provide a

quality teaching-learning. This fits in Yuen's (2005, p.142) argument that "teachers do not teach in a vacuum, how they work and what materials and activities they offer in class depend on the conditions [contexts] under which they teach".

Inadequate capacity and non-flexible PPP policy terms and conditions

The findings reveal that the inadequate capacity of some PPP schools and MOES were key challenges experienced in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE. It was evident that most PPP schools lacked the right quantity and quality of human resources (like quality and permanent teachers and qualified school administrators) and basic scholastic infrastructure amidst massive student enrolments. This was mainly due to budgetary constraints and logistical support from the government. This is contrary to Forrer et al.'s (2010) assertion that for private partners to be engaged by governments in PPPs, they should have adequate capacity in terms of expertise, managerial skills and other resources that are required to take on government's responsibilities of public service delivery on its behalf. Besides, owing to non-flexible policy terms and conditions on expenditures centers to which PPP money was restricted most school-based stakeholders experienced challenges of accommodating and teaching massive numbers. The fixed policy terms could not allow them to use part of the PPP grant received to expand school infrastructure (classrooms) to cater for the massive student enrolments for USE. This finding contradicts Lane and Hamann's (2003) assertion that for a policy to be coherent, legitimate and easily be integrated/adapted into the local context, its design must be flexible.

Low commitment to partnership roles

In this study, the lack of stakeholders' commitment to their respective partnership roles emerged as a key barrier to the implementation of this policy. The findings from the stakeholders' voices indicate that while the government had failed to effectively commit to its role of providing adequate funding and resources to PPP schools in a timely manner, the school proprietors had also become reluctant and less committed to their roles of paying teachers' salaries promptly and to the provision of quality teaching-learning inputs to the USE children. This was in contradiction to what had been agreed upon in the MOU. Other contextual factors which seem to have constrained stakeholders' commitment to their partnership roles were inadequacy of the necessary resources and facilities; institutional restrictions and inadequacies; local politics; the unfavourable policy contexts in which the stakeholders operated; lack of clear understanding of their respective roles; and stakeholders' misconception that the government was responsible for everything. These findings relate to the results of Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff's (2011) study on the good governance of PPPs in which they argue that commitment might be low among stakeholders when the context in

which they operate is discouraging owing to lack of good governance and the inability of the partnership to achieve the expected and desired policy outcomes. They are also consistent with the literature (Brent & Davies, 2008; Martinez et al., 2013) in which stakeholders' misperceptions, negative attitude; inherent biases and misunderstanding of the policy were seen as barriers/limitations to their commitment and trust in PPP policy implementation.

8.4 Stakeholders' Motivations for Engaging in PPP Policy Implementation

This section provides an understanding on how and why stakeholders were motivated to implement this policy, and how such motives affected and/or were affected by its implementation realities in the context of Uganda. Moreover, McFadden and Priest (2011) argue that understanding stakeholders' motivations or incentives for engagement in policy implementation is important as each of them has his/her own objectives and perceived means for achieving them. The discussion is anchored on Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory and guided by the research question: What are the stakeholders' motivations and influences in the implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda?

8.4.1 Government's key motivations to implement the PPP policy in USE

The key motivations of the government (MOES) to implement PPP in USE as an internal stakeholder stemmed from the need to offset the excess demand for USE through complementing the inadequate capacity of government-aided schools in its provision. The government's motivations to embrace PPPs in USE also arose from the need to fulfil its mandate of increasing equitable access to quality USE for all eligible children amidst fiscal constraints. This is in agreement with Patrinos et al.'s (2009) opinion that where demand for education services exceeds its supply in developing countries with limited capacity and public funds, the delivery of education services through PPPs becomes a suitable and cheaper policy intervention. This consistent with Education International (2009), in which it was observed that developing countries are usually motivated to embrace PPPs owing to their limited resources and unfavorable public budgets.

8.4.2 School-based stakeholders' motivations to implement the PPP policy

On the other hand, evidence from this study indicates that *PPP school proprietors* were motivated to this policy by the desire to make money and profit. The need for increased student enrolment as a source of school income and the need for cost-free scholastic resources from the government also emerged as a key driver of PPP school owners in this policy. This corroborates Patrinos et al.'s (2009) assertion that the need for school income

amidst fears of the risk that their schools might close owing to their inability to attract enough students motives some private schools to embrace PPP. Because of the PPP school proprietors' self-interest and profit-driven motives, they failed to effectively allocate the PPP grant they received to the key expenditure centres for the interests others as stipulated in the MOU and PPP policy guidelines (MOES, 2013). The study shows that, in order to deal with this challenge, the MOES had begun to work with not-for-profit PPP schools, whose motives were perceived as more philanthropic (Patrinos et al., 2009; Sehba, 2013).

Regarding external stakeholders' motives, the head teachers and teachers were mainly motivated by employment, job security and better salaries, while the parents of USE-sponsored children, mainly those from poor communities, hoped to benefit from a reduced fees-burden. On the other hand, the BOGs and local community leaders hoped to benefit financially through participation in school governance and meetings. As one stakeholder revealed: "Some [school] board of governors expect to be paid exorbitantly every time they are called for a school meeting; they expect high amounts of allowances..." These findings tell us that, other than the government, most stakeholders' motivations to embrace this policy were mainly monetary or financial, which conflicted with the USE goals of increasing equitable access to quality USE. This finding partly relates to those of Brady and Galisson (2008) and Sehba (2010), who opine that some PPP motives are more supply-driven than personal, while others are influenced by resource inadequacies (money and learning materials) and certain personal interests.

8.4.3 Comparative Analysis of stakeholders' influences and Freeman's theory

This section provides an understanding of stakeholders' power-interest influences over other actors in the implementation of PPP in USE through Freeman's (1984) theoretical lens. Overall, other than the budgetary and capacity constraints, the government's motives were driven by the urge to increase access to USE and overcome the excess demand for it by an influx of learners. Most other stakeholders' motives and interests were primarily influenced by the anticipated monetary gain and profit-making. However, they had little regard for the PPP policy goals in USE delivery. This indicates that almost all stakeholders' motives to implement this policy mainly had some monetary elements embedded in them (in *fiscal* constraints and *monetary-driven incentives*). This finding is affirmed by Brent and Hentschke's (2006) assertion that most of the motives of PPP partners are aligned with their expectation of financial gain.

On power-interest influences, the findings show that the internal stakeholders (government and PPP school proprietors) had more power-interest influences over the external

stakeholders. Government has more power in influencing amounts and payments of PPP grants than other stakeholders. On the other hand, most school proprietors who see PPP schools as their private business projects have both higher power and profit-driven vested interest influences over the other school-based stakeholders (BOGs, parents, teachers, head teachers and local community leaders) in the policy implementation. The school proprietors have supremacy (though illegitimate) in controlling and managing school resources, accounts and PPP grants from government to satisfy selfish interests (through non-compliance means) at the expense of the public interest and benefits. For instance, the school proprietors' action of cutting costs/expenditures on teaching-learning activities by offering low salaries to teachers to make profits adversely affect the anticipated interests of teachers and learners. Such actions not only eroded teachers' commitment to their teaching roles but also compromised the quality of teaching and USE outcomes of the PPP policy. Though teachers were perceived to have high power over other stakeholders in shaping the quality of USE offered through teaching, they still have limited power in influencing their salary payments in PPP schools. These findings are in conformity with LaRocque's (2008) and Srivastava's (2011) assertion that when the vested interests of the private partner supersede the public sector (government) benefits in the PPP policy, its implementation will not effective.

Besides, owing to the varying power-interest influences, some stakeholders not only acted in a non-compliant and illegitimate manner but also lacked trust in what they agreed upon in the MOU. In some PPP school contexts, the policy terms and conditions influenced some stakeholders to illegitimately maximize their private interests at the expense of other actors' benefits. These illegitimate stakeholders' practices influenced by their motives and power not only affect other actors' interests and quality policy outcomes adversely but also violated the working of the *agency principle and that of corporate legitimacy* in Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory. Such behaviours affected the policy implementation outcomes (low quality teaching and learning outcomes). They thus also contradicted and disputed the working of the *agency principle and the principle of corporate legitimacy* in certain contexts of PPP policy in USE. These principles (see Chapter Three) are among the presumed rules of good conduct of contracting, as advanced in Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory.

8.5 Critical Success Factors Recommended for the Implementation of PPP in USE

The study suggested the following factors as *necessary conditions and recommendations* that are critical for the successful implementation of the PPP policy in USE in Uganda.

Transparent regulatory and accountability enforcement mechanisms

It was evident that the PPP funds for USE delivery were misappropriated and remained unaccounted for owing to corruption amidst weak regulations in most PPP school recipients. In view of this, there is need for adequate enforcement capacity to strengthen the regulatory and accountability mechanisms against which all stakeholders are held accountable for transparency.

Commitment to partnership roles

Owing to lack of commitment by most stakeholders to their partnership roles, this study suggests the need for commitment by all stakeholders to their respective roles as a critical factor for successful policy implementation.

Selection of suitable partners with adequate capacity

The study found that most partnership schools experienced understaffing and resource inadequacies in the implementation of this policy. In view of this, most stakeholders perceived and suggested that the government should strictly adhere to the selection of suitable partners (PPP schools) with adequate capacity in terms of adequate quality scholastic facilities, quality teachers and financial resources.

Effective policy communication and sensitisation strategy

Stakeholders subjectively varied in their understanding and awareness of the PPP policy in USE with regard to its origin, purpose/goals and implementation guidelines. This was due to the varying levels of their sensitisation and access to policy information. Most stakeholders suggested the need for an effective policy communication and sensitisation strategy to ensure enhanced policy awareness by all as CSFs for its implementation.

Regular policy review

The contexts in which the stakeholders implemented this policy had evolved over time yet its terms and conditions, as stipulated in the MOU and PPP policy guidelines, seemed fixed. In this regard, the majority of the stakeholders recommended regular *policy review of its* conditions with clear terms, guidelines and measurable targets to make them more *flexible* and relevant.

Timely provision of sufficient funding

Inadequate funding and its delayed disbursement, causing uncertainty about the amount to be released to PPP schools, emerged among the commonly mentioned challenges experienced by most school-based stakeholders in the implementation of the PPP policy. Owing to their lived experiences of the adverse effects of this on the quality of teaching and USE outcomes, the stakeholders unanimously recommended timely provision of sufficient funding.

Consistent monitoring and supervision of policy implementation

The PPP stakeholders' experiences in Uganda indicated that the monitoring and supervision of the PPP policy in USE and the inspection of PPP schools were hampered by inadequate capacity. The stakeholders therefore suggested that the existing capacity should be properly planned and strengthened so as to make it possible to conduct regular monitoring and supervision of policy activities.

8.6 Contribution of the Study to Knowledge

This study has contributed to an understanding that stakeholders subjectively vary in their understandings, perceptions, motivations, influences and experiences of the implementation of PPP policy in USE. This is due to context-specific differences in which they negotiate its implementation across the board. This contribution has filled the knowledge gap relating to stakeholders' experiences and understandings of the implementation realities of PPP in USE in the literature of education PPPs in contexts of developing countries. For instance, it has contributed to an understanding that some stakeholders implement the PPP policy in USE which they do not clearly understand in context of Uganda.

Analytically, it has added to the understanding that the contexts in which stakeholders experience and influence PPP policy implementation and make sense of its realities (purpose, guidelines and their roles) seem to predict how and why they implement it, understand or perceive its impacts and success in the way they do. In this regard, the thesis challenges this seemingly 'one-size-fits-all policy' characterised by the same and fixed policy terms and conditions that are imposed on PPP schools operating in different contexts. Practically, this situation denotes a policy paradox of 'equal treatment of differentials', which is a contradiction in the realm of best practices and the principles for PPP policy implementation.

This study has identified that some assumptions and principles of Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory can hold and others cannot in certain contexts of the PPP policy implementation in USE delivery. Specifically, it has demonstrated that the *principle of corporate legitimacy and the agency principle* do not hold in PPP policy implementation contexts where stakeholders' non-compliance and illegitimate practices exist. Owing to the revealed centrality of stakeholders' understanding and experiences of PPP implementation in varied contexts, this study advocates that *Freeman's* (1984) stakeholder theory should be expanded to include *the stakeholders' understandings, perceptions and experiences of the policy* as a supplementary theoretical assumption to broaden the scope of stakeholder analysis. The study has also contributed to the development of a framework (in Chapter

Three) that can provide an understanding of how stakeholders and the implementation of PPP in USE seem to affect each other owing to the context specifics in which they are connected.

Another key contribution relates to the perceived CSFs for the successful implementation of PPP in USE. This is an area that has been little explored in the extant literature on PPPs in USE delivery, especially in the context of Uganda. Moreover, most studies on CSFs in PPPs in Uganda have been done in non-educational projects with a dearth of empirical studies using interpretive phenomenological qualitative approaches to gain a deeper understanding of how and why some stakeholders perceive and conceptualise such CSFs from their lived experiences and understandings of the policy in the way they do.

Lastly, this study, because of its phenomenological interpretive approach, has made a *methodological contribution* to narrative policy analysis research in the field of PPP policy in USE, especially in Uganda where existing studies (Brans, 2011; Barungi et al., 2014; Barrera-Osorio et al, 2015) did not provide sufficient in-depth understanding of how stakeholders experience, influence and make sense of its realities in the way they do.

8.7 Limitations of the Study

Much as the study focused on understanding stakeholders' experiences in the implementation of a controversial PPP policy in which they had varying stakes, a number of them were not forthcoming with their experiences and some information on certain policy issues.

During the data collection process, poor time management and failure to fulfil interview appointments as agreed upon by some interviewees were also major limitations. This involved, among others, the sudden postponement and even cancellation of the interview appointments a few hours to the agreed time. Besides, some interviewees would receive phone calls during our interview discussions, thus disrupting and prolonging the discussions.

Furthermore, because of their political allegiances, some stakeholders gave seemingly biased responses about certain policy issues. Also, owing to language barriers and unawareness of the policy terms (such as USE, MOU, and PPP), some stakeholders were not willing to explicitly respond to some questions on related policy issues, while others spent a great amount of time providing unwanted information. This made transcribing difficult, with many repeated responses appearing in interview transcripts. Poor documentation of particular records on PPP policy data, both in soft and hard copy, some of which could not be traced with ease, was also a major limitation during the literature review and document analysis.

Furthermore, since this case study was limited to one geographical area or region of the country, its findings have limited statistical generalisability to the entire population of PPP

schools and stakeholders in the policy in the country. Besides, the long distances to the rural based hard-to-reach PPP schools both made it difficult for me to access the interviewees in a timely manner and involved costly transport for some stakeholders. Because of this, also, some interviewees would prefer brief interview discussions to free up enough time for them to travel back to their homes. Finally, the difficulty to find ample time amidst my job demands and the costs associated with resource constraints were key barriers that I encountered during the entire research process.

Key lessons learnt from implementation of PPP policy in USE in the case of Uganda

- Some stakeholders are implementing a policy (PPP in USE) which they do not clearly understand technically and/or as its advocates (policy-makers) would expect.
- The contexts in which stakeholders experience and make sense of PPP policy implementation realities (purpose, guidelines and their roles) seem to be a precursor to both how and why they implement it in the way they do and to their understanding and/or perception of its impacts and success.
- PPP in USE largely arose from excessive demand for access to fee-free USE amidst the greatly constrained capacity of the public education sector to fulfil it alone.
- The PPP policy in USE has fallen short of its purpose of providing quality USE to its targeted beneficiaries, who asymmetrically access and consume it through compromised teaching-learning process.
- The quality of USE delivered through the PPP policy is seen as a direct function of money/funding, ceteris paribus.
- Stakeholders' understandings and experiences of the policy are subjective, multiple and context-specific.
- Motivations among stakeholders differ across partnership dichotomies owing to their varying needs, interests and aspirations.
- Some stakeholders' practices and behaviours seem to affect and be affected by the implementation of PPP policy in USE.
- Success or failure of PPP policy in USE is perceived differently by internal and external stakeholders.
- A successful PPP policy in education service delivery is one in which there are mutually trusted partners who are committed to their well-defined partnership roles, clear targets and standards.
- Understanding of PPP policy success should not only be conceptualised basing on its intended purpose-driven impacts but also on its unintended consequences.

- The experience of language (English) barrier in the context of policy communication among most stakeholders suggests the need for a written translation of the policy in the indigenous languages.
- Different PPP schools which implemented the PPP policy with fixed terms but in varied contexts experienced the policy paradox of *equal treatment of differentials*.

8.8 Policy Recommendations

In the light of the findings on perceived CSFs for the successful implementation of this policy and the lessons learnt from this study, the following key recommendations were made:

- a. The government should establish an *effective policy communication structure* to promote awareness and understanding of its purpose, implementation guidelines and partnership roles for all stakeholders.
- b. The government should provide *sufficient funding* and scholastic resource inputs for teaching-learning in predictable amounts and at predictable times to well managed and committed partnership schools through transparent processes.
- c. The government should establish *functional regulatory and accountability mechanisms* against which all stakeholders should be transparently evaluated and held accountable.
- d. The PPP unit of the MOES must be supported with *adequate enforcement capacity* to ensure the functionality of its regulatory frameworks and policy communication structure.
- e. *Performance and quality assurance frameworks* with specific standards and measurable targets must be incorporated into this policy and be disseminated to all policy actors.
- f. The PPP policy in USE should be *regularly reviewed* with clear targets, terms and conditions to enable stakeholders to negotiate its implementation with flexibility amidst evolving and challenging contexts.
- g. Partnership schools should be categorised and supported based on the contexts in which they implement the policy for fairness and enhancement of their commitment.
- h. The government should legitimately select mostly the *committed partnership schools with adequate capacity* in terms of the right quality of staff, a functional governance structure and facilities to ensure the delivery of quality USE services.
- Consistent monitoring, evaluation and supervision of the PPP policy and partnership schools must be conducted and all relevant structures and stakeholders should be brought on board.
- j. Stakeholders must be regularly sensitised, informed and communicated to not only to create policy awareness but also for positive attitude change towards the negatively perceived USE delivered through the PPP schools.

8.9 Areas for Future Research

This section suggests areas for further research on some unexplored issues, which emerged as a result of the current study but exist beyond its scope. The following are the key future research areas:

- i. The study on experiences and perspectives of USE students, particularly those who completed secondary school education under PPP policy in USE delivery should be done to provide insights on how students' lived experiences, understanding and perceptions of the policy, its impacts on their lives and how best it should be implemented.
- ii. An exploratory investigative study focusing specifically on school-based stakeholders' skills and their understanding of their PPP roles.
- iii. Using Freeman's stakeholder theory, more research on stakeholders' experiences in the implementation of PPP in USE in other developing countries (contexts) needs to be done for external validity and generalizability of its theoretical principles.

8.10 My Reflections on the Entire Study Process

The genesis of this study was my interest in studying the PPP policy in Uganda from positivistic quantitative perspectives. This was largely due to my previous academic and biased research background in quantitative methods and econometrics studies. I wanted to gain insights into the reasons for the controversies relating to this policy. My preliminary research proposal was, thus, basically quantitative. While developing my proposal, however, my topic and line of research argument were adjusted to include some qualitative research questions, which necessitated the proposal to use of mixed methods. Later, I was advised to focus the study mainly on stakeholders' experiences and understanding of this policy. Ultimately, all these research modifications shaped my study into a qualitative one.

The research journey has not been easy because it took me almost one and a half years to learn how to manage, reduce and organise the voluminous qualitative data I had gathered.

Finally, the one important lesson I have learnt from this research journey is that studying a complex policy phenomenon from those who lived it through suitable and flexible exploratory qualitative approaches within an interpretive perspective, seems to provide deeper insights based on their context-specific subjective experiences, perceptions and understandings of its implementation realities in the way they do than using positivist quantitative approaches.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

STAKEHOLDERS' EXPERIENCES OF PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS (PPP) IMPLEMENTATION IN UNIVERSAL SECONDARY EDUCATION (USE) IN UGANDA

Email: Tel:

Dear Participant;

My names are Twinomuhwezi Ivan Kiiza, a PhD student of Education Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria. Your participation in this interview is to assist in generating information for my study on "Stakeholders' Experiences of Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) Implementation in Universal Secondary Education (USE) in Uganda", which Uganda government through ministry of education entered into with some selected PPP-schools (private secondary schools under USE programme). The purpose of this study is to explore experiences of stakeholders in implementation of this policy, their understanding of its impacts and implementation challenges, and what they perceive as critical success factors for its implementation in Uganda. This study will help in identifying more efficient and equitable ways of making PPPs provide quality USE with better outcomes in Uganda. Information you provide that is mainly for academic purposes will be treated with utmost confidentiality, and your anonymity will be guaranteed with Pseudonym throughout the research process. The interview will be conducted in a venue appropriate to you, and for a period not exceeding 45 minutes. It will be guided by the interview schedule, but some follow-up questions (prompts/probing questions) will be used for clarity and information richness on key emerging issues that may arise from the interview discussion. Your cooperation and participation in this study will be highly appreciated.

Sectional B: Interview Questions for Stakeholders in PPP Policy in USE Part One: Stakeholders' understanding of PPP policy in USE in Uganda

- 1. Are you aware of public private partnership (PPP) policy guideline and its implementation in Universal Secondary Education (USE) in Uganda?
- 2. If so, what is your understanding of PPP policy implementation in USE in Uganda?
- 3. Can you tell me how this policy started? And why was it adopted in USE? [Probe for origin, reasons/ purpose and goals for its implementation]? How is this policy implemented in Uganda?
- 4. As a stakeholder, what is your role in implementation of **PPP in USE** in Uganda?

- 5. What are your experiences in implementing PPP policy in USE in Uganda?[What have you/stakeholders gone through in implementation of this policy?]
- 6. Are you aware of other stakeholders in implementation of this PPP policy? If yes, who are they? [What is your experience with them? And what is the nature of their collaboration?]
- 7. What is your view on: value for money in USE delivery via PPP; timeliness of grant payments for USE delivery; and selection of private secondary schools as appropriate partners in USE delivery?

Part Two: Understanding of the impacts and challenges of PPP in USE

- 8. From your **experience**, do you think implementation of PPP in USE has made any impact on USE goals or delivery? If **YES**, what impact has it created? And if **NO**, why?
- 9. Specifically, what is your view on the impacts of PPP policy implementation on *access, equity* and *quality* of USE delivery in Uganda? And how does the general public perceive its impacts on access, quality and equity outcomes of USE delivery?
- 10. What **main challenges** do stakeholders experience in implementation of PPP policy in USE? And **how** are they managing such challenges in implementation of this policy?

Part Three: Perceptions on success/failure of PPP policy in USE

- 11. In your **opinion**, would you say that PPP implementation in USE has been a success story in Uganda? If **YES** /(**NO**), what successes (**failures**) have been made?
- 12. What factors have contributed to the **success story** (or **failure**) of this Policy in Uganda?
- 13. In your opinion, what do you think are the necessary conditions for successful implementation of PPP policy in USE in Uganda? [What do you think should be done to improve upon PPP implementation in USE in Uganda?]
- 14. Which **one factor** out of the necessary conditions you have mentioned would you consider to be **critical for successful implementation** of PPP policy in USE in Uganda? And why do you attach great importance on it? [**probe for critical success factors**]

Is there any other comment you would like to make on the current trend of PPP policy in USE in Uganda?

Thank you for your contribution, time and cooperation

APPENDIX 2: RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER FROM UNCST



Uganda National Council for Science and Technology

(Established by Act of Parliament of the Republic of Uganda)

Our Ref: SS 3683

22nd January 2015

Mr. Twinomuhwezi Ivan Kiiza Uganda Management Institute Kampala

Re: Research Approval:

Stakeholders' experiences in public private partnerships (PPP) Implementation in Universal Secondary Education in Uganda

I am pleased to inform you that on 19/01/2015 the Uganda National Council for Science and Technology (UNCST) approved the above referenced research project. The Approval of the research project is for the period of 19/01/2015 to 19/01/2018.

Your research registration number with the UNCST is SS 3683. Please, cite this number in all your future correspondences with UNCST in respect of the above research project.

As Principal Investigator of the research project, you are responsible for fulfilling the following requirements of approval:

1. All co-investigators must be kept informed of the status of the research.

- Changes, amendments, and addenda to the research protocol or the consent form (where applicable) must be submitted to the designated local Institutional Review Committee (IRC) or Lead Agency for re-review and approval prior to the activation of the changes. UNCST must be notified of the approved changes within five working days.
- For clinical trials, all serious adverse events must be reported promptly to the designated local IRC for review with copies to the National Drug Authority.
- Unanticipated problems involving risks to research subjects/participants or other must be reported promptly to the UNCST. New information that becomes available which could change the risk/benefit ratio must be submitted promptly for UNCST review.
- Only approved study procedures are to be implemented. The UNCST may conduct impromptu audits of all study records.
- A progress report must be submitted electronically to UNCST within four weeks after every 12 months. Failure to do so may result in termination of the research project.

Below is a list of documents approved with this application:

DCIO	Below is a flot of decome the approved that the approved the same					
	Document Title	Language-	Version	Version Date		
1	Research proposal	English	N/A	October 2014		
2	Consent form	English	N/A	N/A		
3	Questionnaire	English	N/A	N/A		

Yours sincerely,

Leah N Omongo

for: Executive Secretary

UGANDA NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

LOCATION/CORRESPONDENCE

COMMUNICATION

Plot 6 Kimera Road, Ntinda P. O. Box 6884 KAMPALA, UGANDA TEL: (256) 414 705500 FAX: (256) 414-234579 EMAIL: info@uncst.go.ug WEBSITE: http://www.uncst.go.ug

APPENDIX 3: INTRODUCTION LETTER FROM WAKISO LG



WAKISO DISTRICT LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Office of the Chief Administrative Officer P.O. Box 7218,Kampala Uganda ,Tel: +256 392 723334 Email: wakisodlc@yahoo.co.uk/ Website: www.wakiso.go.ug



Date: 5th May 2015

All Directors/Headteachers,
Private secondary schools under USE Programme
Wakiso District.

RE: INTRODUCTION LETTER FOR IVAN TWINOMUHWEZI:

This is to introduce to you Mr. Ivan Twinomuhwezi who is a PhD student at the University of Pretoria in Faculty of Education. He is undertaking an academic research project titled "stakeholders" experiences of Public Private Partnership implementation in Universal Secondary Education (USE) in Uganda, Wakiso District in particular.

The main objective of this study is to explore experiences of stakeholders in implementation of this policy, their understanding of its impacts and implementation challenges, and what they perceive as critical success factors for its implementation.

The District Education Department highly values your cooperation and assistance in this academic endeavour.

DISTRICT EDUCATION AND FREER

DUCATION

In any correspondence on this subject please unote the reference number above.

APPENDIX 4: INVITATION LETTER TO PATICIPATE IN RESEARCH



Faculty of Education

LETTER OF INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE

To	Date

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE IN AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH

My names are Ivan Kiiza Twinomuhwezi, a PhD research student of Education Policy Studies in Faculty of Education at the University of Pretoria. I am undertaking an academic research project titled "Stakeholders' Experiences of Public Private (PPPs) Implementation in Universal Secondary Education (USE) in Uganda". As you are one of the stakeholders of this policy, I'm seeking and requesting for your personal participation in this study to generate relevant information for its completion. The purpose of this study is to explore experiences of stakeholders in implementation of this education PPP policy, their understanding of its impact and implementation challenges, and what they perceive as critical factors for its successful implementation in Uganda.

The information that you provide for this academic study will be treated with utmost confidentiality, and your anonymity will be guaranteed throughout the research process. Your participation is voluntary and the interview will be scheduled on a day and venue appropriate to you, and within a timeframe not exceeding 45 minutes. With your permission, I may record the interview, but you can stop the recording or the interview at any time.

Should you have any query or contribution regarding this research project, please do not hesitate to contact me on my email: twino_ivan@yahoo.com or phone number 0712961186. You can also contact my supervisor: chaya.herman@up.ac.za.

Your cooperation, assistance and participation in this academic endeavor will be highly appreciated. I look forward for your favorable response.

Yours Sincerely,

Twinomuhwezi Ivan Kiiza PhD Student

University Of Pretoria

Supervisor of PhD Research Project

Prof. Chaya Herman

Education Management, Law and Policy Studies

Faculty of Education, University Of Pretoria Chaya.herman@up.ac.za

0124205665

Building and office no Groenkloof Campus, University of Pretoria PRETORIA 0002 Republic of South Africa

Tel number:

E-mail address: www.up.ac.za/education

APPENDIX 5: INTRODUCTION LETTER FROM UNIVERSITY



Faculty of Education Department of Education Management and Policy Studies

11 November 2014

To					
Dear Sir/Madam					
RE: INTRODUCTION LETTER FOR IVAN TWINOMUHWEZI					
This is to introduce to you Mr. Ivan Twinomuhwezi who is a PhD student at the University of Pretoria in Faculty of Education. He is undertaking an academic research project titled "stakeholders' Experiences of Public Private Partnerships Implementation in Universal Secondary Education (USE) in Uganda" under my supervision.					
The main objective of this study is to explore experiences of stakeholders in implementation of this policy, their understanding of its impacts and implementation challenges, and what they perceive as critical success factors for its implementation.					
The University of Pretoria highly values your cooperation and assistance in this academic endeavor.					
Yours Sincerely					
chap, fle					
Prof. Chayá Herman					
Education Management, Law and Policy Studies					
Education Faculty, University Of Pretoria					
<u>Chaya.herman@up.ac.za</u> 012 4205665					

Building and office no G201

Tel number:012 420 2902

Fax number:012 420 3581

E-mail address: marthic.barnard@up.ac.za www.up.ac.za/education

Faculty of Education University of Pretoria

Consent Letter to Participant

Dear Participant;

You are invited to participate in a study on "stakeholders' experiences of Public Private Partnerships (PPP) policy implementation in Universal Secondary Education (USE), which government of Uganda (MOES) entered into with some selected partnership [PPP] schools. The purpose of this study is thus to explore stakeholders' experiences in the implementation of this policy and how they understand its impacts on USE goals, challenges and the critical success factors (CSFs) for its implementation in Uganda. The information from the interview conversation will be used by Mr. Twinomuhwezi Ivan, a student of the University of Pretoria for his research study leading to the award of a PhD in Education Policy Studies. Information from interview with you will be kept with utmost confidentiality and is strictly for academic purposes. Pseudonyms will be used throughout the research process and during dissemination of research findings for anonymity. Your willingness and cooperation to participate in this study will be highly appreciated. If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign this letter as a **declaration of your consent**.

I		agre	e to	participate	in	this	study	titled
"Stakeholders"	Experiences	of Public	Priva	te Partners	hips	impl	ementai	tion in
Universal Secon	ndary Educat	ion in Uga	nda", `	by Twinomul	ıwezi	Ivan	Kiiza, w	ho is a
PhD student at t	he University	of Pretoria	in Facu	lty of Educati	on.			
I do understand	that:			-				

- **1**. The information I give will be used as part of the data needed for the student's research study for his Doctoral thesis.
- 2. The Information provided will be kept with utmost confidentiality, and anonymity is guaranteed in the course of writing and reporting the findings of the study.
- 3. My participation in the study is voluntary and I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time of my choice.
- 4. I am entitled to question anything that is not clear to me in the course of the interview, discussion or any other form of participation.
- 5. I should be fully informed about the research process and purposes.
- 6. I will be given time to understand and where necessary consult other people about certain points expressed in this document.
- 7. I will be provided with feedback from this research, should I request such; and
- 8. In the event of wanting more clarification concerning my participation in this study, I can refer to student/researcher on email:twino_ivan@yahoo.com or the supervisor of the student's research project, Prof. Chaya Herman of the University of Pretoria on email address: chaya.herman@up.ac.za.

On the basis of the above points, I hereby give my informed consent to take part in this study.

SignedDateDate	
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