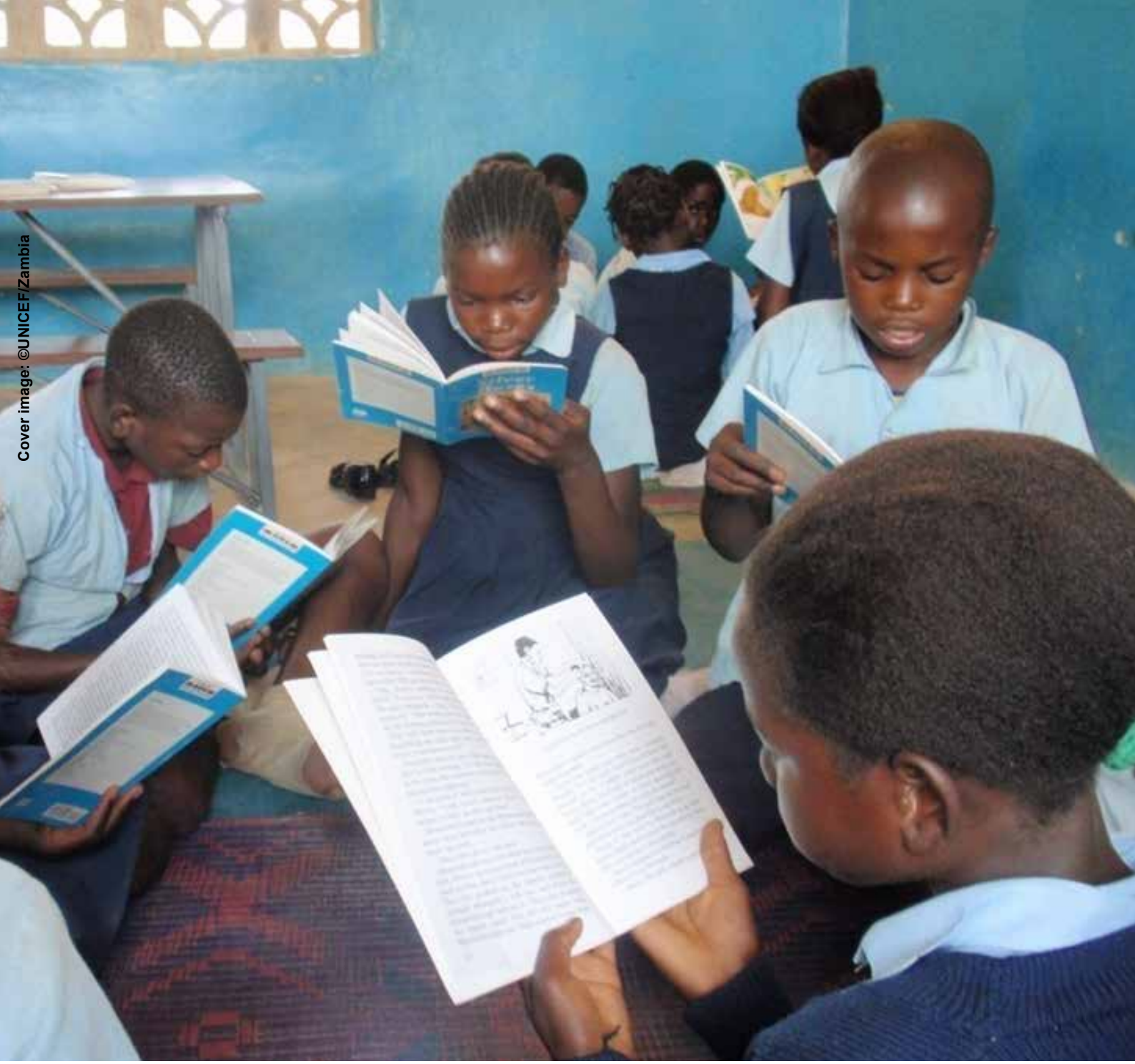

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Global Initiative on
OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN

ZAMBIA

November 2014

Disclaimer

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Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Preface

The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education is proud to have collaborated with the United Nations Children's Fund in undertaking the study on the Out of School Children in Zambia. This study came at an important time as Zambia was beginning implementation of its Sixth National Development Plan aimed at improving the delivery of education to all Zambian children and equipping them with skills to enable Zambia strengthen its economic fortunes beyond the current lower middle income status. The concern for the country has been to ensure that all children of school age going are in school as the push for the achievement of Millennium Development Goal enters its final years.

In order for the Ministry to adequately plan for all Children, availability of data on Children in school and out of school children is essential. However, some challenges have been encountered in capturing this data. MESVTEE, through its EMIS has been able to show the number of out of school children, but has not gone far to show the profiles of these children.

The study on Out of School children has thus provided an opportunity to not only triangulate the EMIS data on OOSC but more importantly provide profiles of these children, where they are and the bottlenecks that inhibit them from accessing schools and staying in schools.

It is our commitment as MESVTEE and UNICEF that, the findings of this study will help us strategize in an evidence based manner on how to address the bottlenecks we face that result in the out -of -school children.

This report is timely as its findings will further inform the MESVTEE policy on post primary education, which among other interventions involves introducing a two tier secondary education program, vocational skills and academic.

We would like to thank all those who have been involved in this study for their contributing in providing evidence on the Out-of-School children in Zambia and informing the current policy discourse on pre-primary, primary and post primary education.

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Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education, Zambia

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Country Representative,
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Acronyms

ACC	Area Coordinating Committee
ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
ADC	Area Development Committee
ANAR	Apparent Net Attendance Rate
ANER	Apparent Net Enrolment Ration
APU	Academic Production Unit
BESSIP	Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Programme
CMF	Conceptual and Methodological Framework
CSO	Civil Society Organisation
CSO	Central Statistical office
CAMFED	Campaign for Female Education
CSEN	Children with Special Educational Needs
CPH	Census of Population and Housing
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSPR	Civil Society for Poverty Reduction
CWAC	Community Welfare Assistance Committee
DDCC	District Development Coordinating Committee
DMMU	Disaster Management and Mitigation Unit
DWAC	District Welfare Assistance Committee
ECCDE	Early Childhood Care Development Education
ECZ	Examinations Council of Zambia
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ESB	Education Statistical Bulletin
FAWEZA	Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia
FBE	Free Basic Education
FBO	Faith - Based Organisation
FSP	Food Security Pack
FNDP	Fifth National Development Plan
HGSF	Home - Grown School Feeding
HRC	Human Rights Commission
IGA	Income Generating Activity
JCTR	Jesuit Centre for Theological Reflection
MCDMCH	Ministry of Community Development and Mother and Child Health
MFI	Micro - Finance Institution
MESVTEE	Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education
MoH	Ministry of Health
MSYCD	Ministry of Sport Youth and Child Development
NFNC	National Food and Nutrition Commission
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NSC-OVC	National Steering Committee on Orphans and Vulnerable Children
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OOSC	Out –of- School Children
OVC	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PAM	Programme Against Malnutrition
PDCC	Provincial Development Coordinating Committee
PTA	Parents Teachers Association
PSAf	Panos Institute Southern Africa
PWAS	Public Welfare Assistance Scheme
RDC	Rural Development Committee
SAG	Sector Advisory Group on Social Protection
SCT	Social Cash Transfer
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SNDP	Sixth National Development Plan
SP	Social Protection
SPS	Social Protection Strategy
TEVETA	Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority
TWG	Technical Working Group
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNPD	United Nations Population Division
VSU	Victim Support Unit
WDC	Ward Development Committee
WFP	World Food Programme
ZANEC	Zambia National Education Coalition
ZOCS	Zambia Open Community Schools

Acknowledgements

This study was made possible by contributions from a large number of individuals and institutions. Special thanks go to the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training, and Early Education for collaborating with UNICEF on this study. The Ministry provided access to EMIS data and also appointed a focal person, Dr Charles Ndakala to provide technical support to the consultancy team.

Additionally gratitude is expressed to Panos Southern African who were the consultancy firm that conducted this study. They continued to provide services in finalising the report even beyond the contractual period.

We would also like to thank the UNICEF Education teams at the Regional Office (ESARO) and Headquarters for the technical support and guidance during the study and the finalisation of the report.

Lastly, we would like to thanks the UIS team for their technical guidance, particularly on the quantitative data, which helped triangulate the data in the report.

Executive Summary

Country Context

Zambia, a member of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) regional grouping, lies across the interior plateau of Southern Africa and covers 752,614 square kilometers. It had an estimated population of 13,046,508 persons, with sixty-one per cent (7,978,274 persons) in rural areas, while 39 per cent (5,068,234 persons) in urban areas (CSO, 2010). The population density of Zambia increased from 13.1 in 2000 to 17.3 persons per square kilometers in 2010, with Lusaka Province being the most densely populated at 100.4 persons, followed by the Copperbelt Province at 62.5 persons.

Currently, Zambia has a Presidential system of governance, with the Head of State also being the Head of government, under a multiparty framework. The country has three arms of government, namely the Executive, the Judicial and the Legislative. Parliamentary elections are held every five years. The country is divided into 10 administrative centers called provinces. The government of Zambia is also actively pursuing a decentralization program aimed at devolving power to the lower levels.

Copper has been the mainstay of the Zambia's economy since independent in 1964. The Government of Zambia is promoting an economic diversification program to reduce the economy's reliance on the copper industry. The shift is aimed at exploiting other sectors such as agriculture, tourism, gemstone mining, and hydro-power. The Zambia economy has grown in the last five years, with an average real growth rate of 6 to 7 per cent of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This growth rate resulted in Zambia attaining lower middle income status in 2011.

The Education Sector in Zambia

The sector in Zambia is governed by the Education Act of 2011, and the main policy document is the 1996, Educating our Future. As of 2011, the structure of the education system comprised four (4) main levels of learning namely: - a) Pre-school, b) Basic Education, itself divided into lower basic (Grade 1-4), middle basic (Grade 5-7) and upper basic (Grade 8-9), c) high school (Grade 10-12) and d) Higher/university education offering various training programmes including vocational courses, and degrees (Trades certificates, Diploma, Bachelors, Masters and Doctorate). This structure is however, under review with the aim of reverting to the a) Pre-primary (2 years), b) Primary (grades 1 to 7), c) Secondary (Grades 8 to 12) and d) tertiary- University, colleges and trades institutes. The New Patriotic front Government took over power in 2011, the nomenclature of the Education system changed to Early Education (pre-primary), Primary Education (1 to 7), Secondary (8 to 12). The other tertiary levels remained the same.

The Purpose of the OOSC Study

The Out-of-school Children (OOSC) study flows from a 2010 joint global initiative by UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and is intended to help investigate and understand the complex dimensions and challenges relating to out-of-school children and school dropouts.

The study focused on developing profiles of children who are excluded from education in relation to the five dimensions of exclusion (5 DES) defined as follows: Dimension 1: children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school; Dimension 2: children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school; Dimension 3: children of lower-secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school; Dimension 4: children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out; and Dimension 5: children who are in lower-secondary school but at risk of dropping out.

Methodology

The study method used was mainly desk review of quantitative and qualitative data from administrative sources at the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) as well as the Zambia Demographic Household Survey (ZDHS) data from the Central Statistical Office (CSO). These two main data capture systems were complemented with others from Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) such as FAWEZA, ZOCS and CAMFED.

These data sources provide the premise for analysing the barriers and bottlenecks which keep children from enrolling in school, and/or make it difficult for them to continue with schooling. Further, an analysis of policies and strategies (programs) which aim to address barriers and bottlenecks was conducted. An assessment of the extent to which social protection strategies contribute to keeping children in school was also conducted. These analyses constitute the basis on which the

recommendations of the study are drawn from and targeted for the government and other stakeholders in order to ensure that all children attain universal primary education by the year 2015.

Summary of Key findings

Dimension 1 represents pre-primary school aged children (age 6) who are not in pre-primary or primary school. It is worth noting that only a small proportion of pre-primary school aged children are actually in pre-primary school (4.7 per cent) and the majority of children in this age group are out-of-school (68.9 per cent) while a sizeable proportion are already in primary school (26.4 per cent). There is a marked difference between rural and urban areas with nearly 80 per cent of pre-primary age children out of school in rural areas compared to about 44 per cent in urban areas. Among the poorest households, 81 per cent of these children are out of school, while from the richest families approximately 27 per cent of the children are out of school. In terms of geographical differences, children on Copperbelt and Lusaka are almost twice as likely to attend school compared with pre-primary age children in the other 7 provinces. Gender wise, there is only a small gender gap with girls only slightly more likely to attend pre-primary or primary school.

Dimension 2 represents primary school aged children (7-13) who are not in primary or secondary school and are categorised either as:

- Those who have once attended school but have dropped out;
- Those who will never enter school; and
- Those who will enter school late.

There are approximately 500,000 children of primary and secondary school age that are out of school in Zambia. There are slightly more males of primary school age than females who are out-of-school; 217,388 males versus 212,525 females. However, the situation is reversed among lower secondary school age children where the number of girls out- of- school is double that of boys i.e. 44,451 compared to 22,590. Rural children are again much more likely to be out-of-school with almost a quarter (23 per cent) of primary age children not in school compared to only 9 per cent in urban areas. Differences are even more marked among socio-economic groups with out-of school rates of 26.9 per cent among primary school age children from the poorest families compared to only 4.3 per cent among children from the richest families. Children in Eastern, Luapula, and Western provinces are particularly disadvantaged, especially the girls in Luapula and the boys in Western with out-of-school levels of 28.7 per cent and 31.4 per cent respectively. The national average for the entire age group is 18.3 per cent but this masks the fact that nearly a half of all 7 year olds and a quarter of all 8 year olds are out-of-school, suggesting a large and widespread problem with late entry.

Dimension 3 represents children of lower secondary school age (14-15) who are not in primary or secondary school. The overall percentage of OOSC in this dimension is 12 per cent. Gender was found to be a significant variable among this age cohort with the proportion of females who are out-of-school is almost twice that of males, 14.8 per cent compared to 8.9 per cent. This could be attributed to the high drop outs of girls from grade 5 onwards resulting in few girls transitioning to grade 8 compared to boys. Again rural students are disadvantaged in comparison with their urban counterparts with an out-of-school level of 14.6 per cent in rural areas and of 8.1 per cent in urban areas. This difference, though significant, is not as large as the difference between children from the poorest families, 19.2 per cent out of school, and the children from the richest families, 5 per cent out of school. The same three provinces with highest levels of OOSC in DE2, Eastern, Luapula, and Western are again amongst the highest in DE3 and are joined by Northern Province which has an overall out-of-school level of approximately 16 per cent. The majority of the children involved in economic activity in this age cohort do not attend school (74.5 per cent) and there are with higher rates of economic involvement among male children.

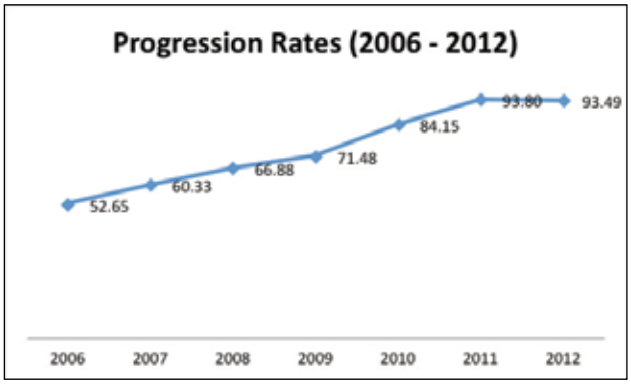
Although many similarities were found among the OOSC of DE2 and DE3 especially in terms of geographical disparities, links with wealth quintiles and the gaps between rural and urban communities, the two subgroups are extremely different in terms of exposure to school. In DE2 the majority (71 per cent) of OOSC are expected to enter school at some point before the age of 17 but 16 per cent are expected to never enter. The remaining 13 per cent of out-of-school primary age children have already been in school and dropped out of education. This is further evidence of the problem of delayed entry in Zambia as well suggesting that a significant proportion of primary age

children are still not accessing and are unlikely to access basic education. In DE3 however the majority of OOSC (70 per cent) have dropped out of education, suggesting a problem with retention. While a further 27 per cent are expected to never enter school, again suggesting that access to education remains a key issue for a significant proportion of OOSC. The remaining 3 per cent are those that are still expected to enter school before the age of 17.

Dimension 4 represents students who are in primary school but are at risk of dropping out. Evidence in this report reveals that a child's risk of dropping or of repeating a grade varies considerably depending on where the child stays. For example the average dropout rate across primary school grades is just 1 per cent among boys in Lusaka and 3.5 per cent among girls in Luapula. Applying these rates to a cohort of 100 in each scenario would lead to 6 boys dropping out by the end of the seven grades of primary compared to 20 girls. Overall girls were found to be more likely to drop out and boys more likely to repeat a grade. Copperbelt and Lusaka provinces had significantly lower dropout and repetition rates than all the other provinces in addition to having the highest percentages of primary school entrants with pre-school experience.

In terms of survival rate up to the last grade of primary school, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) suggests that in the lower grades (1 to 4), there are no significant differences in the risk of both male and female children dropping out-of-school. GPI of survival rate to grade 4 is 0.98. However the gender gap widens as the grade level increases with GPI of only 0.9 for the survival rate to the final grade 7 of primary. This means that for every 10 boys who survive to grade 7 only 9 girls do.

Dimension 5 focused on those students attending lower secondary school who may be at risk of dropping out. Although it technically lies in between the Dimensions 4 and 5 the transition rate between primary and lower secondary is an important consideration when analysing children at risk of dropping out of education. Overall only 54.5 per cent of students in Zambia make the transition between grade 7 and grade 8. This represents a huge inefficiency within the system. Of particular concern are male students in Northern Province of whom only 38.8 per cent make the transition, and the students in Eastern province which has the lowest overall transition rate of 41.9 per cent. Of those students who do make it into lower secondary school, girls appear to be particularly at risk of dropping out, especially in North-western, Northern, and Western provinces. As in Dimension 4, Copperbelt and Lusaka Provinces report the lowest levels of dropout and repetition.



Source: Examinations Council of Zambia

In order to get an in-depth understanding of why there are so many children out-of-school, the study analysed barriers and bottlenecks to education. These were analyzed in two main categories:

a. **Demand side factors**: this category analysed all the factors that affect demand for education. This category was further sub-divided into two: socio-cultural factors and economic factors.
b. **Supply side** factors: these were analysed as factors that affect access to education due to limited or poor quality supply of educational services and facilities. This further analysed the political governance capacity, and financing of education services in Zambia. A summary of the key findings is as presented below:

Category	Sub-category	Factors
Demand Side	**Socio-cultural factors**	Gender Issues: i. Early sexual debut and intergenerational sex ii. Teenage Pregnancies iii. Sexual abuse iv. Early marriages v. Opportunity Cost Associated With Girls' School Attendance vi. Girl – Unfriendly School Structures vii. Gendered Roles and Responsibilities viii. Child labour- More boys involved than girls
		Violence in home, community and school
		Parent/guardian level of education
		Substance Abuse
		Disability and special education needs
		Overage
	Demand side economic	Household poverty
		Poor health and lack of adequate nutrition
		Direct and indirect cost of schooling
		Rural /Urban Residence
		Child Labour
Supply side	**Education facilities and services**	Insufficient School Places and Overcrowding in Schools
		Insufficient Supply of Trained Teachers and Poor Conditions of Service
		Inadequate Supply of Teaching/Learning Materials
		Inappropriate Infrastructure
	School Health and Nutritional Interventions	Inadequate School Health and Nutritional Interventions
	Capacities of education institutions (schools)	Poor School Management
		Inadequate financing
		Inadequate teacher motivation for retention

While the barriers above are crosscutting, it needs to be noted that the disparities between urban and rural areas with regard to equitable distribution of educational facilities and services such as teacher deployment, classrooms and others are very significant. A fundamental fact is that both teachers and children are demotivated by lack of access to educational materials; many children eventually gravitate toward the easiest solution which is dropping out (IOB Report 2008).

The policy environment in Zambia supports increased access to education; this is evidenced by the commitments made by the government, notably the EFA and the MDGs. The Zambian education system has since the Education Reforms of 1977 been guided by a number of policies which were developed and implemented in order to support the achievement of its education priorities and targets. Key among the guiding policy documents have been the 1992, policy document Focus on Learning, which was replaced by the 1996, Educating our Future. In 2002, the Free Primary Education Policy was introduced, which abolished user fees resulting in increased demand for

education and pressure to increase funding to education, as well as to ensure that resources reached the poor and vulnerable children especially in rural areas.

However, there are still some significant policy related barriers. For instance, access to ECCDE was, until 2011, governed by the 1957 Nurseries Act, which largely placed the responsibility for education delivery at that level in the hands of the family. This meant that the state did not make ECCDE available to the majority of Zambian children directly but indirectly allowed those who could afford to access it through private institutions. The authority to include ECCDE and make it as part of the formal education system was only granted in 2004 and formalized in the new 2011 Education Act. Even then, it continued to be shunted from one ministry to another.

This study analysed some of the key policies that have a bearing on improving demand for and supply of education services and facilities in order to address the challenges of OOSC in Zambia and highlighted a number of policy responses that have contributed positively, but also some policy gaps that need to be addressed. For example, with regard to ECCDE, the MESVTEE has been operating without an early childhood education policy. In addition, the observed practice on the ground shows that more and more children are entering primary school before the recommended age of seven years. This calls for a policy discussion on whether to change from the primary school entry-age in grade 1 of seven years to six years. After all, there is no evidence, so far, to suggest that six year olds attending grade 1 class are in any way disadvantaged when compared to the seven year olds. This change would still be consistent with the ISCED standards where the most common entry age for primary education (ISCED 1) in the world is 6 years old.

The Educating our Future policy has recognized gender equality as a critical factor in Education and aims at providing equal access to education to all. In line with this, the MESVTEE has implemented policies such as the Re-Entry Policy which is part of a wider strategy aimed at improving access and retention of girls in schools. This policy, launched in 1997, provides for girls who drop out of school due to pregnancy to be readmitted after giving birth. Below is a table that presents data on how the re-entry policy has effectively managed to bring girls back to school:

Number of pregnancies and re-admission in Basic Schools from 2002-2009

Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Pregnancies of Girls enrolled in schools	3,663	4,405	6,528	9,111	12,370	11,391	12,370	13,634	13,760
Re-Admission	1,322	1,836	2,626	3,899	4,470	3,870	4,629	5,517	5,034
%age Re-Admission	36.1	42	40	43	36	34	38	40	36.5

Source: MESVTEE- Review of the Re-entry Policy Report (2010), ESB (2010)

The data in the table above reveals that while the policy provides a chance for girls to come back to school, the uptake of this opportunity is minimal. This calls for additional measures to ensure that more girls who drop out due to pregnancy to return to school, and are well supported by parents at home, the community and teachers at school. There is a clear policy gap on access to education for children with special education needs. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education policy document “Educating Our Future” has a chapter on special education which illustrates the concept of *inclusive education.* This chapter emphasizes access, management, collaboration and quality. However, lack of a comprehensive policy and implementation strategy on special needs/inclusive education has led to marginalization and exclusion of CSENs both on the demand side and supply side.

The abolition of the grade 9 cut-off point (restrictions imposed by the MESVTEE to regulate the number of learners that can progress to grade 10 due to limited places at grade 10) was a policy aimed at ensuring that

a lot of pupils could proceed to grade 10 who previously would not have had the opportunity, thereby drastically reducing the number of drop-outs after grade 9. For example, in 2007, before the removal of the grade-9 cut-off point, the national pass percentage was 37.15 per cent. However, after the removal of the cut-off point in 2008, the national pass percentage rose to 48.57 per cent giving a national progression rate of 11.42 per cent. It was envisaged that with the increased number of grade 10 places, numbers of drop-outs at grade 9 would significantly reduce, and this was proved right (Zambian Parliament, 2009).

With regard to child labour, Zambia has ratified international conventions such as Convention on the Rights of the Child and ILO Convention. Additionally, the country has the Employment of young persons' Act, which regulates employment of young persons and the National Child policy of 2006 (which has section on child labour). This signifies commitment to combating child labour. However, the study revealed that economic activity amongst children was found to be widespread and may be one of the key barriers to education. The Understanding Children's Work report on Zambia (2012) confirmed that child involvement in employment in Zambia is high, with one out of every three children in the 7 to 14 age range being involved in some economic activity. There are more rural-based children of primary school age who are engaged in economic activity compared to urban-based ones. Proportionally, most of these are males. Most of the child labour is unpaid or very lowly paid and involves mainly household chores and agriculture. This would suggest that rural based households are more pre-occupied and concerned about food security than education. The poorest families account for the highest number of children involved in economic activity compared to the richest families.

In order to address the economic factors that affect access to education in Zambia, the MESVTEE put in place a number of policies and measures. One major one was the Free Basic Education Policy (FBE) of 2002 which aimed at increasing participation in primary education by children who would otherwise be out-of-school because their families would not afford school fees. This policy saw an increase in the total number of pupils in grades 1-7 from 1.6 million in 2000 to 2.6 million by 2006. The effect of the increase in enrolment during this period also resulted in a growing number of children taking the grade 7 examination; by 2006 this number had increased by 62 per cent compared to the 2000 figures (IOB 2008, p.120), thereby necessitating an expansion of the lower secondary sub-sector.

While acknowledging that it is necessary to raise participation for education in order to address the OOSC situation in Zambia, it is important to note that availability of education facilities is also quite central to improving access to education and increasing literacy levels. In view of this, the study examined policies and strategies that were put in place to ensure the effective and adequate supply of education facilities and services and assessed the extent to which these policies and strategies had contributed to improving access to education by addressing the supply side bottlenecks and barriers.

The Infrastructure Operation Plans (IOP) of 2008 aimed at increasing and improving school facilities; these included new constructions, renovations and improvement of facilities, such as water and sanitation. Some reported results of the IOP, have indicated that the number of out-of-school children in DEs 2 and 3 has since been decreasing. For example, partly due to the expansion in the number of community schools, there was an increase of 44.9per cent in the number of orphans enrolled in 2004 compared to that in 2003. However, the rate at which the IOP was being implemented was not fast enough to match the demand created by the Free Basic Education (FBE) policy. As a result, pupil classroom ratios appear to have been generally increasing rather than decreasing (from 71:1 in 2002 to 80:1 in 2005) (IOB: 2008), despite the MESVTEE's recommended policy of 40:1. It will not be until the pupil classroom and pupil teacher ratios begin to drop below 50:1 and increased pupil teacher contact time that the impact of the IOP will be seen as effectively making a real difference in access and participation.

Conclusion and recommendations

The findings of the study reveal that the number of out of school children is higher than is normally reported in the Education reports. The 5DEs also reveal interplay of factors that contribute to children dropping out of school. This calls for a more strategic approach to addressing the bottlenecks that keep children out of school or make them drop out.

Based on the findings of the study, the following are some recommendations aimed at addressing the challenges of out of school children, not only by the MESVTEE but also stakeholders in the sector;

- The study recommends that the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education coordinates and harmonises various data sources to ensure more consistent and in-depth ways of capturing data on out-of-school children and to ensure that programming for OOSC is well informed and is addressing the whole complexity of out-of-school children as per the identified profiles in chapter one of this report. This will include compelling CSO to revise the 2000 census and housing population projections

- The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should work with various stakeholders to address gender disparities that exist both on the demand and supply side.

- The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should take seriously the need for favourable sanitation, girls and CSEN facilities in schools.

- The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education needs to create and strengthen communication channels and linkages between schools and communities to ensure that stakeholders and community members are not only aware of the OOSC problem but that they are mobilised to take action to make a difference. Raising awareness and mobilising communities to value education for CSENs should be promoted.

- The MESVTEE should simplify and popularise some policies and strategies so that MESVTEE stakeholders (parents or guardians and partners) have clear understanding and appreciation of the same. This is because for effective implementation of most policies, parents and/or guardians need to play a role to either take up services or support implementation. For instance, some communities still have questions on the FBE policy of 2002 where beneficiaries still incur direct costs administered by the schools, such as user fees, PTA charges or project fees and indirect costs which include school uniforms and shoes, books and supplies, transportation, private tuition, packed lunches, etc. Another example is the re-entry policy, unless parents, guardians and pupils step up to take up the service offered, it will remain on paper.

- There are a number of policy gaps that need to be addressed. In some cases, lack of clear operational strategies or lack of a supporting legal framework affect implementation of good existing policies. These gaps need to be addressed. Special attention should be put to policies addressing gender issues such as the re-entry policy as well as policies guarding needs of CSENs.

- There is need to strengthen the social protection programmes especially those that are directly linked to education. Where a clear link is made, it is easy to see impact, but where it is not clear as to whether the programmes are meant to improve access to education, no impact can be demonstrated. It is also necessary to include psychosocial support for abused and traumatised children.

- The MESVTEE needs to invest in teacher training and motivation programmes to encourage more people to join the profession, but also to ensure that there is equitable distribution and retention of teachers especially in the rural areas. Motivated teachers have potential to enhance children's interest in school as already established in this study

- There is need to enhance and/or re-introduce management training for school managers to improve the management skills at school level.

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This section provides the country context, a general introduction to the 5 Dimensions of Exclusion (5Des) and the methodology used in the study.

1.1 Context and Background

a) **Geographical**
Zambia, a member of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) regional grouping, lies across the interior plateau of Southern Africa and covers 752,614 square kilometers. The country's population density is 2.8 persons per square kilometers. This low population density especially in the rural remote areas presents a challenge of access to school facilities because homes are isolated from each other, causing children to walk more than 5 km to school. While the national set benchmark is for children to go to school within a radius of 5km, by 2006, about 10% of Zambia children still travelled long distances (above 5 km) to school (Examinations Council of Zambia 2007). National Assessment results show that the longer the distance pupils travelled to school, the lower the learning achievement.

Zambia's climate is warm but not humid with summers that are characterised by heavy rains. This also poses a challenge to accessing educational facilities especially in rural areas in the rainy season when infrastructure like bridges, roads and even classrooms are damaged by rains. Zambia is rich in mineral wealth, forests, rivers, flora and fauna, among other things.

b) **Socio-political**
Zambia is a Sovereign Republic, since its independence in 1964. It has been politically stable for the last 47 years; having peacefully moved from a multi-party democracy to a one party state in 1973 and to a multi-party democracy since 1991 which it has remained to date.
According to the 2010 census of population and housing preliminary report (Central Statistical Office 2010), the population of Zambia stood at 13.3 million inhabitants in 201--. This is an increase from 10.3 million in 2000 (CSO), and from 3 million inhabitants at independence in 1964 (CSO). According to CSO, Zambia's population profile in 2000 showed that children in the age range 0-14 years made up 45per cent and women constituted 50.7 per cent of the total population, and that the majority of the population (60%) lived in the rural areas, while the rest (40%) lived in urban areas: making Zambia one of the most urbanised countries on the African continent (Mukuka et al. (1995) and Vaughan (ed.) Zambia, undated p.18).

c) **Economy**
Zambia is dependent on copper, its chief export commodity. According to a World Bank and the International Finance Corporation (IFC 2004) study, poverty in Zambia had been increasing 'until the late 1990s when economic reforms, including fiscal discipline and better governance, created better conditions for macro-economic growth'.

The study observed that as a result of the reforms, the economy responded favourably and achieved significant growth for four consecutive years with real GDP rising by 3.7 per cent per year between 1999-2002 (WB/IFC: An assessment of the Investment Climate in Zambia, 2004 p.5). The strategies for the Structural Adjustment Programme included sector reform programmes, cost sharing (which introduced user fees for social services), and reduction on the consumer subsidy programme. The PRSP report of 2005 also acknowledges that Zambia started experiencing a macro level change in the economic trends from the year 2003-2004. Gross Domestic Product started growing by about 5-7 per cent per annum. Inflation rate went down from 21 per cent to about 9 per cent.

However, at micro-level, there was not much improvement in the poverty situation. Unemployment levels increased and the price of essential services sky-rocketed as government's expenditure on such social services progressively declined, (Interim Zambia PRSP 2000). Percentage of the populations living on under 1 USD per day increased from 64.8in 1998 to 75.8in 2003, (UN Statistics Division 2007). This had an impact on access to education as well, as will be discussed in chapter 1 and 2 below on the impact of micro-level poverty on education. In order for the country to empower its people economically and do away with abject poverty, there is need to diversify the economy, accelerate private sector growth (from small scale to large scale), achieve higher productivity and add value to local investments in order to compete internationally. The role of education in achieving this economic growth cannot be overemphasized. Education will be key in developing the human capital and ensuring that people's potential is unlocked to reach their maximum. A 2004 UNICEF Report on Girl Child

Education Interventions reports the value of education to development

"...educating girls is one of the most effective and least expensive ways to reduce poverty, and to spur growth. National support for Girls' Education is money well spent leading to poverty reduction, longer life expectancy and lower child mortality rates," (UNICEF 2004).

The current emphasis on exploitation of new resources, diversification of the economy and development of sound and sustainable economic policies in such areas as agriculture, tourism, mining and manufacturing is likely lead to a much brighter future if Zambia has a well-educated workforce.

d) **Structure of Education System**
As of 2010, the structure of the education system comprises four (4) main levels of learning namely: - a) Pre-school, b) Basic Education, itself divided into lower basic (Grade 1-4), middle basic (Grade 5-7) and upper basic (Grade 8-9), c) high school (Grade 10-12) and d) Higher/university education offering various training programmes including vocational courses, and degrees (Bachelors, Masters and Doctorate). From 2011 when the Patriotic Front Government took over power, the education structure and nomenclature was changed

Before 1977, Zambia's education system operated as a 7-5-4 system with seven years of primary, five of secondary and four of university. The Education Reform of 1977 modelled Zambia's formal educational system on 9-3-4 (nine years of basic schooling, three years of high school and four years of university). The change was necessitated by the understanding that by the time the children exited primary school at 14 or 15 years of age (as opposed to between 12 and 13 years of age) they were old enough to have acquired some basic survival skills. Thus the primary leaving examinations were moved up from Grade 7 to Grade 9, with the former being retained as promotional examinations.

In terms of years of learning as they relate to the learners' age, pre-primary starts and lasts for four years (from age 3 to 6) and formal Basic Education for nine years, composed of: Lower Basic, grades one to four and lasting for four years (from age 7-10), Middle Basic covers grades five to seven and lasts for three years (ages 11-13) and Upper Basic (grades eight and nine) lasts for two years (ages 14-15). There is an exact match between Lower Basic and Middle Basic (referred to as primary in this report) and ISCED level 1[1]. Similarly Upper Basic (referred to as lower secondary in this report) corresponds directly to ISCED 2. Primary therefore refers to grades one to seven, and lower secondary refers to grades eight to nine. The Government has since reverted to the previous education system of 7-5-4 though still in transition.

e) **Educational Development: Key Players and Stakeholders**
At independence in 1964, the main players in education provision were the government, the civil society, religious bodies and individuals. After the country was declared a one-party state in 1973, the government took over the sole responsibility of providing education to Zambian children, reducing the role of religious bodies and private individuals to provide education.

As part of the nationalist approach to development (under the Mulungushi Declaration of 1968) in order to increase access to social services, the State assumed for itself, increasing responsibility for the running of schools, the management of education at all levels and financing of the system. Thus, local and international NGOs, and FBOs were from then on obliged to surrender control of their schools, while the functions of the local authorities were taken over by central government (MESVTEE: NPE, 1996). The system became highly centralised, such that all matters regarding planning and management were decided upon at the MESVTEE Headquarters, in liaison with provincial authorities. The district level (colleges and school included) progressively lost the power and authority that they once exercised in the management of their institutions. The positive effect of the new system was increased access to education as evidenced by increased enrolment rates. On the negative side, the new system resulted in inefficiency, marginalised community involvement in school affairs and erosion of their sense of ownership (MESVTEE: Establishment of Education Boards, 2001 p. iii). Due to the country's declining economic performance during the 1970s and 80s, school capacities and facilities could not match the rate of increase in the school going population (MESVTEE: Out-of School Youth, 1995). The lack of sufficient school facilities,

1. http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/ISCEDMappings/Documents/Sub-Saharan%20Africa/Zambia_ISCED_mapping.xls

adequately trained and motivated teachers, desks, textbooks, etc., became real barriers and bottlenecks to equitable and quality education provision in Zambia. In the meantime, school enrolment and retention in the system continued to favour boys over girls and female drop-out rates were worse throughout, compared to those of boys (MESVTEE:1995).

In order to address some of these challenges, the education system was liberalised and democratised in 1991. The thrust of the new reforms was to restore partnerships in education provision and to enhance community participation. A drastic reduction in government spending on education transferred a major part of the direct costs to parents and guardians. The financial involvement of parents, the community and the wider non-governmental sector was seen as central to concerted improvement and expansion of education within the framework of liberalisation and constrained government resources for the sector (MESVTEE: ibid p.135).

The liberalisation/democratisation of education coincided with the global resolve to provide Education for All (Jomtien, Thailand) in 1990. And following the World Summit for Children and Zambia's endorsement of the September 1990 Summit Declaration for Child Survival, Protection and Development and the September 2000 Millennium Declaration by the UN Millennium Summit on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Zambia's broader goals on the child came to be viewed as a multi-sectoral responsibility (MSYCD: National Child Policy, 2006 p.24). Thus, the MESVTEE began to work closely together with the other education sector ministries (i.e. Science and Technology and Vocational Training for higher level skills training, Sport, Youth and Child Development, for lower level skills and the Ministry of Community Development and Social Services, in charge of basic skills training and functional literacy at community level), the donor community (directly or through their support to NGOs), the private sector and community schools. This was in an effort to meet the following EFA Goals by 2015:

i. Provide comprehensive early childhood care and education;
ii. Provide free and compulsory primary education of good quality;
iii. Address the learning needs of all young people and adults through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes;
iv. Offer adult literacy, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education to all adults;
v. Eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education, and achieve gender equality in education; and
vi. Improve all aspects of the quality of education so that measurable outcomes are achieved by all.

The implementation of the Sector Wide Approaches (SWAPs) in educational programming and the mainstreaming of cross-cutting issues of vulnerability across key sector ministries and other stakeholders (e.g. HIV and AIDS, gender, poverty, child protection, etc.) in the 1990s is indicative of the collaborative effort achieved. Despite the goodwill, the Zambian education system has continued to face some challenges especially in relation to educational access and participation (of children out of school and those at risk of exclusion from school) at pre-school, primary and lower secondary levels.

The question of access has also partly been addressed by the existence of community schools which mostly cater for poor and vulnerable children, (Centre for Collaboration and Future of Schooling for Equip 2. 2006). Community school also consistently serve over age children more than public schools, where more than half of community schools students are over 14 years, while only 28 per cent of public school students are over 14. Data on community schools is managed by ZCSS and through the annual school census by the MESVTEE. However, failure of all community schools to retain their annual school statistics returns has hampered the compilation of data by the ministry. For this reason, the ministry's report is drastically different from that of ZCSS. For example, in 2004, the ministry reported 1,338 community schools with 230,000 students, while ZCSS reported 3,009 schools with the enrolment of approximately 500,000 (Centre for Collaboration and Future of Schooling for Equip 2. 2006).

This OOSC study flows from a 2010 joint global initiative of UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and is intended to help investigate and understand the complex dimensions and challenges of out of school children and school dropouts.

Therefore, although the present study is essentially concerned with access and participation, it also aims at

investigating and achieving a more sophisticated analysis of learning, progression and completion in education

1.2 Goal of the OOSC Study

This study, utilises the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) and the guidelines provided by UNICEF and UIS (March 2011). It is driven by the EFA target of: 'All children in school by 2015' and the Mission: 'Reaching all the unreached children by 2015'. It is aimed at engaging all stakeholders to enhance their efforts in attaining the EFA goal by 2015. The overall objective of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children is to improve statistical information and analysis on the OOSC, to scrutinize factors that drive exclusion from schooling, and review the extent to which existing educational policies and strategies as well as social protection strategies relate to enhanced participation.

1.3 Scope of Work

The scope of work for this study is as follows:

1. Profiling of excluded children and provision of insight on the 5 Dimensions of Exclusion (5DEs); D1-Children of pre-primary age who are neither in pre-primary nor primary; D2-Children of primary school age who are not in primary or lower secondary; D3-Children of lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary; D4-Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out and D5-Children who are in lower secondary but at risk of dropping out;
2. Identification and provision of insights on barriers and bottlenecks in relation to the 5DEs;
3. Critical analysis of policies and strategies regarding the problem of OOSC in relation to the 5 DEs;
4. Mapping and characterization of the social protection systems of relevance to the problem of OOSC;
5. Making recommendations and suggesting the way forward for the country.

1.4 Introduction to the Five Dimensions of Exclusion

The Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DEs) identified in the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF), are in essence a classification of categories of children, including both those who are already out of school and those who are in school but at risk of dropping out. In this regard, there are two broad dimensions of exclusion for the children in Zambia, as is the case in many other countries of the world.

Following below is a definition of the 5DEs according to the CMF:

i. Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school;
ii. Dimension 2: Children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school;
iii. Dimension 3: Children of lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school;
iv. Dimension 4: Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out; and
v. Dimension 5: Children who are in lower secondary school but at risk of dropping out.

1.5 Methodology

The study on out-of-school children in Zambia focused on development of profiles of the children who are excluded from education in relation to the 5 DEs. In this connection, the main approach used by the study was desk review of quantitative and qualitative data, and information from administrative sources at the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) as well as household survey data from the Central Statistical Office (CSO). These two main data capture systems were complemented with others from civil society organizations (CSOs) such as FAWEZA, ZOCS and CAMFED (see Annex 1).

Using the data from MESVTEE and CSO, profiles of children in the 5DEs were prepared. These constituted the premise for analysis of barriers which keep children out of school, and even when they are in school, bottlenecks which become risks (constraints) that make it difficult for children to continue with schooling.

Following analysis of barriers and bottlenecks, an analysis of policies and strategies (programs) which have been put in place by the government and other stakeholders to address barriers and bottlenecks was conducted. An assessment of social protection strategies in view of the extent to which they contribute to keeping children in school was also conducted. These analyses constitute the basis on which the recommendations on what should be done by the government and other stakeholders in order to ensure that all children attain universal primary

education by the year 2015 were drawn. The methodology used was as follows:

1. **Review of existing data**: In understanding profiles of excluded children in the 5Des, an analysis of administrative data sources from the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education and household survey data from Central Statistics was conducted. These two data sources were complemented by additional data from CSOs (FAWEZA, ZCCS and CAMFED).
2. **Review of existing documents and reports**: Having established profiles of excluded children, a number of documents and reports that analyse the barriers and bottlenecks of exclusion were also reviewed to gain deeper insights into the causes of exclusion. This was also used to review and understand the impact of social protection strategies on access to education.
3. **Review of educational policies and strategies**: Identification and review of existing educational polices and a strategy was conducted to understand the provisions, strengths and weaknesses of these policies and strategies.
4. **Interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)**: In order to complement the data gathered from review of data, reports and policies, interviews and focus group discussions were conducted in selected communities. The interviews and FGDs were mostly specific to in-depth understanding of the barriers and bottlenecks where data was limited or not available.

CHAPTER 1
PROFILES OF EXCLUDED CHILDREN IN RELATION TO THE 5DEs

CHAPTER 1: PROFILES OF EXCLUDED CHILDREN IN RELATION TO THE 5DEs

This chapter presents an overview and analysis of the profiles of children excluded from school in Zambia according to the available data sets that were identified and analysed.

2.1 Overview and Analysis of Data Sources

The study identified and used two principal sources of capturing data on out-of-school children in Zambia: administrative records and household surveys. A summation of all data sources of OOSC in Zambia was captured using the data inventory templates provided by UIS and UNICEF. This provided a basis for identifying the specific information sources of both administrative and household data that was analysed in this study. Interviews with key education stakeholders and case studies were used to establish and clarify individual level variables and patterns of participation on OOSC.

2.1.1 Administrative Records

The administrative records are the following: annual school census, examination statistics and vulnerability assessments. According to the OOSC CMF of March 2011, administrative data are records routinely collected by national governments on their education systems for the purpose of monitoring and managing schools, staff and programmes in the education sector. These records are stored in the educational management information system, which is an information platform that hosts most key educational management data, including the annual school census. These sources provide information on all children in school and those that have dropped out-of-school by age, grade and sex. All but the annual school census and examination statistics (compiled by EMIS and ECZ) are at the level of school zones and other specific and smaller geographic areas such as district. The administrative data by national authorities are normally collected annually at national level enabling governments to track and consistently assess the capacity and performance of the education system in relation to agreed national milestones. This helps to link the data on students to information about teachers, facilities and expenditures with indicators such as expenditure per pupil and teacher to pupil ratio that call for close matching between pupil data and that of financial and human resources.

The main gap with these data is that they exclude children who have never been in school. This presents a setback for OOSC data because children who have never been in school are left out of the statistics. Whereas the EMIS data captures data on enrolments at school level, it does not track regular attendance rates of children at the end of the reporting period from the data generated through the annual school census. Additionally, data is transactional and collected on a single day in a year across the country without fine shading annual trends and variations across time.

The other gap is that administrative data collected by international organizations and Non-Governmental Organizations such as CAMFED, ILO and others are in most cases limited in geographical coverage and mainly covers children in school. The data is usually collected for smaller geographical locations which in most cases represent programme implementation areas. In addition administrative data does not thoroughly capture individual or household characteristics of pupils such as socio-economic status.

2.1.2 Household Surveys

Household surveys comprise nine potential data sources for studying out-of-school children in Zambia. These include the five household surveys conducted by CSO: the living conditions survey, the labour force survey, the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), the household expenditure survey and the Census of Population and Housing (CPH). Other surveys include the basket needs survey, quality of education survey, bursary scheme beneficiary assessment and satellite homes survey conducted by JCTR and FAWEZA. These surveys cover specific regions and smaller samples that capture both children in school and those out of school by age and sex but are prone to sampling bias and errors. Household surveys provide estimates on out-of-school children at district, provincial and national level. Labour force surveys fall under the household data sources as they capture both

child labour status as well as children's schooling status.

The relative margin of error for national surveys such as the DHS, labour force survey and CPH ranges between 4 and 7 per cent making them statistically acceptable for planning purposes. However, they are also prone to low response rates, misreporting and wrong values. For example, the labour force survey asks some sensitive questions on certain social economic parameters such as income leading to low response rates. It also does not have inbuilt controls to take care of zero filling functions when income is used as a variable and may therefore lead to wrong values when not thoroughly edited. Comparatively and as far as OOSC are concerned, the DHS seems to be more informative than the annual school census because it also provides data on children who have never been to school.

This study used both the household and the administrative records because a comprehensive analysis of both data sources provided information on different OOSC issues measured at different points in time. This strengthened and provided a more in-depth and comprehensive analysis of the findings of the study. The two sets of data complimented each other. For example, when DHS data is analysed together with the school Census data, it becomes possible to estimate the number of school age children, who should be in school at pre-primary, primary or lower secondary school but are not in school by getting the difference between the number of school going age children in the population (derived from the CPH) and the number of children who are in school, at a given point in time. The combination of both data sources produced information disaggregated by gender, age, residence and other socio-economic characteristics such as wealth quintile and child labour status. It is worth noting that further disaggregation of socio-economic variables that may help explain some of the dynamics affecting OOSC such as key labour market indicators, parents'/guardians' language and religion are not captured by the relevant data sources such as the DHS. Child labour variables are also captured using a different data source (labour force survey) that uses a different weighted sample size than the DHS data. This presented challenges in consistent analysis of data.

2.2 Profiles of Excluded Children

This section presents the profiles of OOSC following the 5 dimensions of exclusion.

2.2.1 Dimension 1: Children of Pre-Primary Age Who Are Not In Pre-Primary or Primary School

Pre-primary age refers exclusively to the year immediately before the official age of primary school entry, therefore for this study in Zambia, children aged 6 are considered pre-primary age. From the analysis presented in Table 1 below it is clear that only a minority of pre-primary age children (31.1 per cent) are attending school with most of those attending primary school rather than pre-primary school. There is only a slight gender difference in favour of girls in terms of both pre-primary and primary school attendance. There is a much larger difference between rural and urban children with urban children more likely to attend pre-primary school (9 per cent versus 3 per cent) and attend primary school (47 per cent versus 18 per cent).

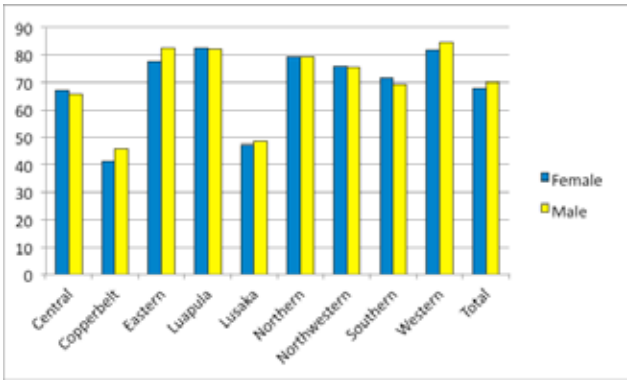
Table 1. Percentage of pre-primary age children in school, by school type, sex and location

	Pre-Primary	Primary	Total
Female	5.0	27.2	32.2
Male	4.4	25.5	29.9
Urban	9.0	47.0	56.0
Rural	3.0	17.9	20.9
Total	**4.7**	**26.4**	**31.1**

Source: ZDHS, 2007

According to the CMF if a pre-primary aged child is not attending primary nor pre-primary school then they are considered out-of-school, Figure 1 presents levels of OOSC in DE1 across the provinces of Zambia.

Figure 1: Percentage of pre-primary age children not in school (Dimension 1), by sex and province

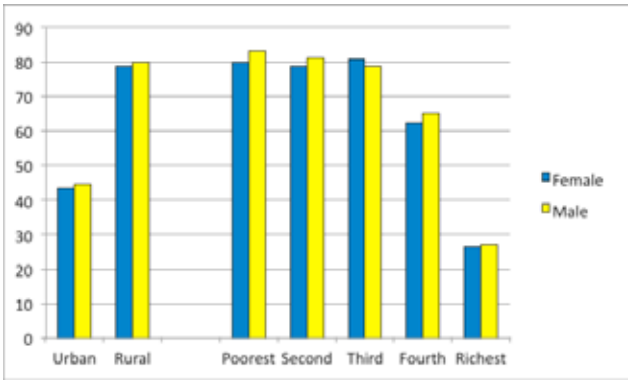


Source: ZDHS, 2007

There appear to be two rough groupings of provinces in terms of OOSC, Copperbelt and Lusaka have by far the lowest levels, with both less than 50 per cent, while the other seven provinces range from a 66 per cent (Central) to a high of 83 per cent (Western). The largest gender differences, all in favour of girls, occur in Copperbelt (4.5 percentage points), Eastern (4.7 percentage points) and Western (2.7 percentage points).The identified groupings of provinces have a rural and urban dimension as Copperbelt and Lusaka provinces are highly urbanised while Western and Eastern are categorised as generally rural. According to the Situation Analysis of Children by UNICEF (2008), the distribution of resources, access to and availability of essential public services is skewed towards urban areas and is worse in rural and remote parts of Zambia. The disparities are also manifested throughout the educational cycle, with disadvantaged children more likely to enrol late, show worse rates of attendance and progression, and drop out of school earlier, the report concludes.

In terms of wealth and levels of OOSC there appears to be a clear link, though only at the higher wealth quintiles. From Figure 2 and Table 2 below it can be clearly seen that the levels of OOSC are very similar among the first three wealth quintiles but there is then a significant decrease (16 percentage points) between the 3rd and 4th quintiles followed by an even more dramatic decrease (37 percentage points) between the 4th and richest quintile. This suggests that 6 year old children from poor and even middle income families in Zambia are very unlikely to attend either pre-primary or primary school. As mentioned above there is also a stark divide between children in rural locations and those in urban areas with almost 80 per cent of all pre-primary age rural children not attending school compared to approximately 40 per cent in urban areas. Gender does not appear to be a significant factor in out-of-school levels among pre-primary age children in Zambia and this is fairly consistent across all wealth quintiles and locations.

Figure 2: Percentage of pre-primary-age children not in school (DE1) by location, wealth quintile and sex



Source: ZDHS, 2007

Table 2: Percentage of pre-primary-age children not in school (DE1) by sex, province, and wealth

	Female (%)	Number of Children[1]	Male (%)	Number of Children	Total (%)	Number of Children
Location						
Urban	43.5	233	44.6	192	44.0	425
Rural	78.6	450	79.9	417	79.2	867
Wealth Quintile						
Poorest	79.9	143	83.1	124	81.3	267
Second	78.8	146	81.2	136	80.0	282
Third	80.8	156	78.7	147	79.8	303
Fourth	62.5	133	65.2	122	63.8	255
Richest	26.4	105	27.1	80	26.7	185
Total	**67.8**	**683**	**70.1**	**609**	**68.9**	**1292**

Source: ZDHS, 2007

2.2.2 Profiles of OOSC in Dimensions 2 and 3

The profiles of children in Dimension 2 (primary school age and not in school) have been based on the 2007 ZDHS. As outlined above, by using household data, it is possible to examine the children who do not attend school. In the following sections, who (gender, age), where (province, urban/rural) and cautiously why (child labour, socio-economic group) of OOSC in Zambia will be examined.

Table 3 below presents an overview of the levels of OOSC in Dimension 2 (DE2) in Zambia. Approximately 18 per cent of primary school age children in Zambia do not attend primary or secondary school, however this national average masks significant disparities across age, sex, wealth, location, and province. For example at age 7 approximately half (46.8 per cent) of all children are still out-of-school despite this being the first year of primary education. This figure reduces steadily over the next three years so that by age 10 only 11 per cent of children are not attending school. The lowest overall level of OOSC is reached at age 12 when only 8 per cent are not attending. In terms of gender disparities girls are less likely to be out-of-school between the ages of 7 to 11 however there is a noticeable gender gap in favour of boys at ages 12 and 13.

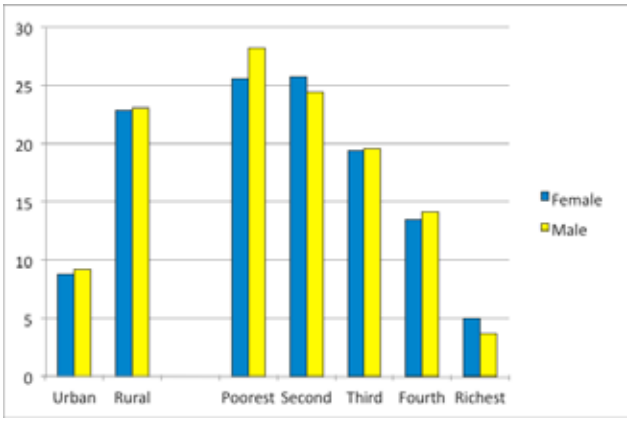
Table 3: Percentage of primary-age children not in school (DE2) by age, location, wealth quintile and sex.

	Female (%)	Number of Children	Male (%)	Number of Children	Total (%)	Number of Children
Age						
7	45.5	631	48.3	568	46.8	1199
8	23.2	564	27.0	500	25.0	1064
9	14.7	581	16.2	511	15.4	1092
10	10.3	554	11.6	578	10.9	1132
11	7.2	455	9.8	507	8.6	962
12	8.6	524	7.5	568	8.0	1092
13	10.5	546	8.7	532	9.6	1078
Location						
Urban	8.8	1436	9.2	1336	9.0	2772
Rural	22.9	2419	23.1	2428	23.0	4847
Wealth Quintile						
Poorest	25.6	735	28.3	735	26.9	1470
Second	25.8	735	24.4	788	25.1	1523
Third	19.4	868	19.6	833	19.5	1701
Fourth	13.5	796	14.1	771	13.8	1567
Richest	5.0	721	3.7	637	4.3	1358
Total	**18.1**	**3855**	**18.5**	**3764**	**18.3**	**7619**

Source: ZDHS, 2007

Gender gaps, when examined across student locations do not appear to be significant (Figure 3), however just as in DE1, there is a significant difference in the OOSC levels of urban and rural areas, at 23 per cent the rural figure is more than double the urban one. This could be attributed to rural urban disparities in access to resources and services as discussed in the foregoing. Schools in urban and wealthier districts tend to receive a higher share of the education investment than those in remote rural and poorer districts. For example Pupil-teacher ratios are higher in remote rural areas and poorer districts than in urban and richer districts, with Lusaka and Copperbelt having the lowest Pupil teacher ratio (UNICEF, 2008). As in DE1, there appears to be a strong link between wealth and OOSC. The poorest have the highest proportion of OOSC, 27 per cent, and the richest have by far the lowest, 4 per cent. However unlike in DE1, which had similar levels of OOSC in the first three quintiles, there appears to be a gradual decline across the first four quintiles in DE2. In terms of gender, poorest boys are the most likely to be out-of-school at 28 per cent, compared to 26 per cent of girls. However the situation is reversed in the second and fifth quintiles, suggesting that the interaction of wealth and gender and school attendance is a complex one.

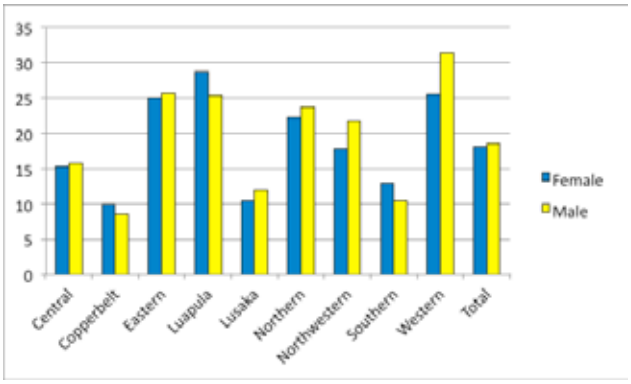
Figure 3: Percentage of primary-age children not in school (DE2) by location, wealth and sex



Source: ZDHS 2007

As in DE1 the provinces with the lowest levels of OOSC are Copperbelt (9.3 %) and Lusaka (11.2 %), however Southern province also has a very low level at 12 per cent and is now closer to the lowest two than any of the other provinces (Figure 4). A similar level of consistency is displayed among the provinces at the other end of the spectrum; as in DE1 Eastern, Luapula and Western have the three highest levels of out-of-school primary age children at 25.4 per cent, 27 per cent and 28.4 per cent respectively. In addition Luapula and Western also record the largest gender gaps, Luapula with 3.3 percentage points in favour of boys and Western with 5.9 percentage points in favour of girls, suggesting that gender inequality is not linked to overall levels of OOSC. This is re-enforced by the fact that the lowest provinces Copperbelt and Lusaka have slight gender gaps in different directions.

Figure 4: Percentage of primary-age children not in school (DE2) by province and sex



Source: ZDHS, 2007

Dimension 3

Dimension 3 (DE3) refers to lower secondary school age children who are not attending primary or secondary school. Lower secondary school age in Zambia refers to those children aged 14 and 15. Table 4 below presents an overview of levels of OOSC in DE3 in Zambia. The overall percentage of OOSC in DE3 is 12 per cent but significant differences are found across provinces, wealth quintiles, province, location, and sex. Although there is little difference in overall OOSC between the age of 14 and 15, 11.5 per cent and 12.9 per cent respectively, a significant difference is revealed when gender is considered. At age 14 the level for girls is similar to that of boys, 12.6 per cent versus 10.7 per cent, however this increases dramatically by age 15 when it is 17.9 per cent for girls and only 6.2 per cent for boys. This gender gap will be explored in greater detail later in this section.

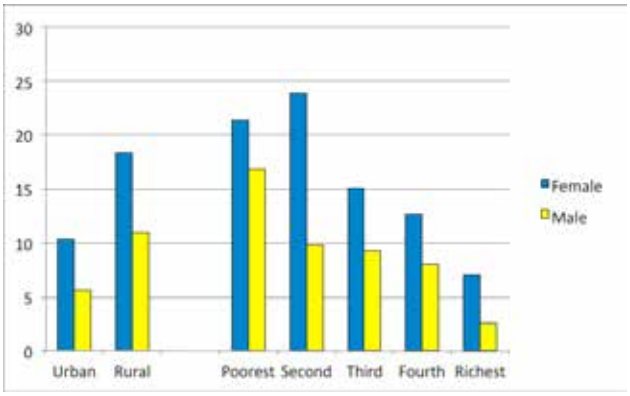
Table 4: OOSC of lower secondary age (DE3) by age, location, wealth quintile and sex

	Female (%)	Number of Children	Male (%)	Number of Children	Total (%)	Number of Children
Age						
14	12.6	535	10.7	521	11.5	1056
15	17.9	396	6.2	334	12.9	730
Location						
Urban	10.4	428	5.6	350	8.1	778
Rural	18.4	503	10.9	505	14.6	1008
Wealth Quintile						
Poorest	21.4	148	16.8	147	19.2	295
Second	23.9	131	9.8	149	16.3	280
Third	15.1	188	9.3	186	12.2	374
Fourth	12.7	235	8.0	172	10.7	407
Richest	7.1	229	2.5	201	5.0	430
Total	**14.8**	**931**	**8.9**	**855**	**12.0**	**1786**

Source: ZDHS, 2007

In DE3 the gender gap does not vary considerably across urban and rural areas, at 4.8 percentage points in urban areas and 7.5 percentage points in rural areas. Again as in DE1 and DE2 children in rural areas are much more likely to be out-of-school than their counterparts in urban areas 1.6 per cent as compared to 9.1 per cent in rural areas. Another similarity with the patterns observed in DE1 and DE2 is the clear relationship between wealth and levels of OOSC in DE3 from a high of 19.2 per cent in the poorest quintile to a low of 5 per cent in the richest. Curiously female students from the second wealth quintile appear to be an outlier as their out-of-school level is actually higher than the one found in the first quintile. This contributes to the extremely large gender gap (14.1 percentage points) found in favour of boys in this wealth quintile however a significant gender gap is found across all wealth quintiles. For male students there are dramatic reductions between the first and second and then again between the fourth and fifth wealth quintiles suggesting that it is at the extremes of wealth and poverty that the greatest influence on school attendance occurs (Figure 5).

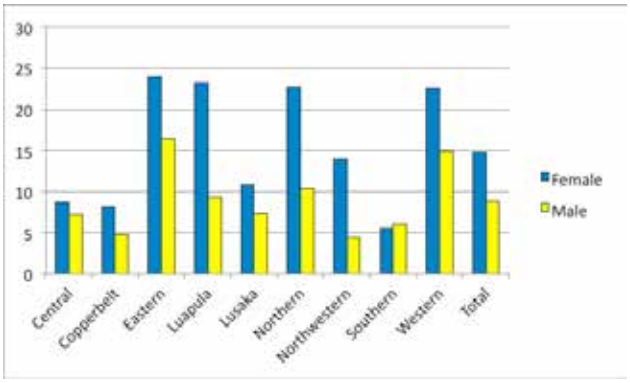
Figure 5 Percentage of lower-secondary-school-age children not in school (DE3) by location, wealth and sex



Source: ZDHS, 2007

In terms of OOSC levels across the provinces of Zambia Copperbelt and Lusaka are once again among the lowest however they are joined by Central, North-western and Southern in having overall levels of OOSC of less than 10 per cent (Figure 6). In DE3 Southern has the lowest percentage of OOSC children at approximately 6 per cent. Southern is also noticeable for having the smallest gender gap at only 0.5 percentage points, this compares very favourably to Luapula and Northern who both have gender gaps, in favour of boys, of 12.4 percentage points. In addition Southern is the only province that has even a marginal gender gap in favour of girls.

Figure 6: Percentage of lower-secondary-school-age children not in school (DE3) by sex and province

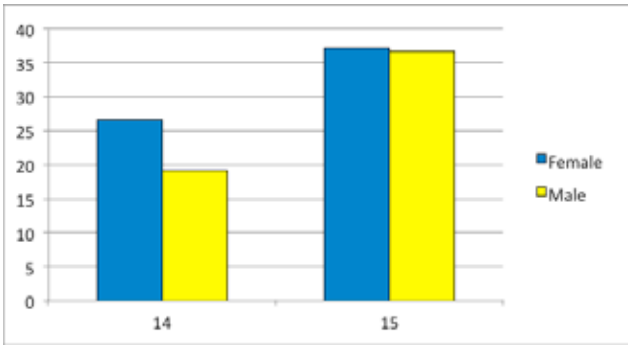


Source: ZDHS, 2007

Perhaps the most striking feature of OOSC in DE3 is the large and persistent gender gap in favour of boys. The switch in the direction of the gender gap in out-of-school levels observed at ages 12 and 13 is continued into children aged 14 and 15 with the gap increasing to 13.7 percentage points in favour of boys by age 15. This dramatic increase in the gender gap at lower secondary age does not mean, however, that boys are much more likely to attend lower secondary school. In fact by examining lower secondary school adjusted net attendance rates[2] it can be seen that girls are actually more likely to attend secondary school at the ages of 14 and 15 (see Figure 7 below) with a significant gender gap (10.5 percentage points) in favour of girls at age 14.

2. Lower secondary school adjusted net attendance rate measures the percentage of lower secondary age children who attend lower secondary school or higher.

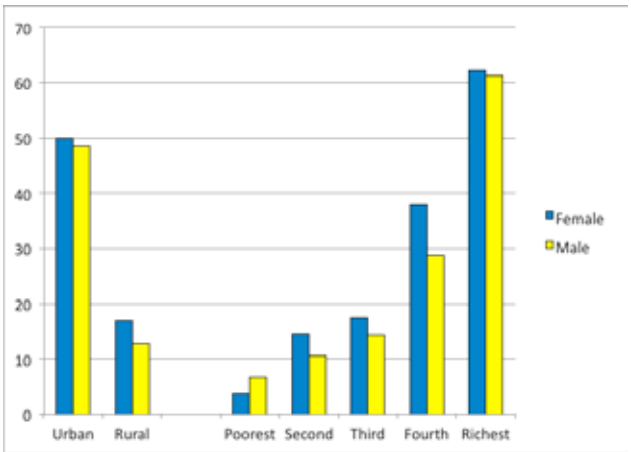
Figure 7: Lower secondary adjusted net attendance rates (%) by sex and age.



Source: ZDHS, 2007

This gender gap in favour of girls is also observed when student location is considered (Figure 8) with slight gender gaps existing in both rural and urban areas. The poorest girls however are the least likely to attend secondary school on time (3.7 per cent) but in the middle three wealth quintiles it is the boys who are noticeably disadvantaged. These findings in combination with the earlier ones on OOSC suggest that yes there are fewer lower secondary age school boys out-of-school but that is largely due to the fact that boys are staying in primary school longer than girls and not progressing to lower secondary school or dropping out. The re-analysis in combination with the earlier levels of OOSC also suggests that the poorest lower secondary school age children are likely to be in primary school if they are in school at all, whereas children from the richest quintile are likely to be in secondary school.

Figure 8: Lower secondary adjusted net attendance rate (%), for ages 14 and 15, by location, wealth and sex.



Source: ZDHS, 2007

Table 5: Numbers of OOSC

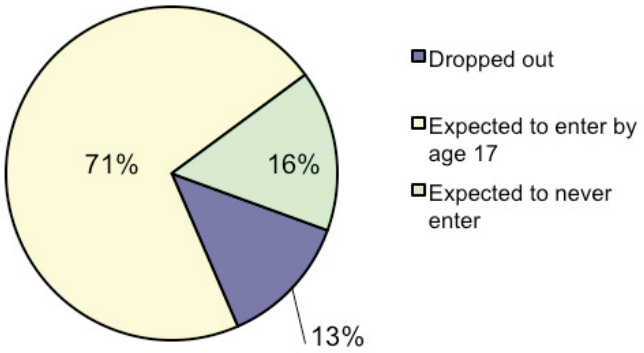
	DE2	DE3	Total
Female	212,525	44,451	256,976
Male	217,388	22,590	239,978
Total	429,807	67,667	497,474

Source: ZDHS, 2007 and UNPD Population for 2007 (2010 revision)

In total there were approximately 500,000 school age (primary and lower secondary) children who were not attending school in Zambia in 2007. The vast majority (430,000) of these were primary school age which is understandable as it spans seven years compared to the two of lower secondary school age. In DE2 the number of boys and girls out of school is approximately equal but in DE3 the number of girls out of school is nearly twice that of boys.

Although many similarities have been identified in the two population groups of OOSC in DE2 and DE3, in terms of gender gaps, provincial disparities, gaps between rural and urban pupils, and in terms of the relationship between wealth and levels of OOSC it would be unwise to treat them as homogenous. Significant differences between the two dimensions can be observed by examining their different levels of exposure to education.

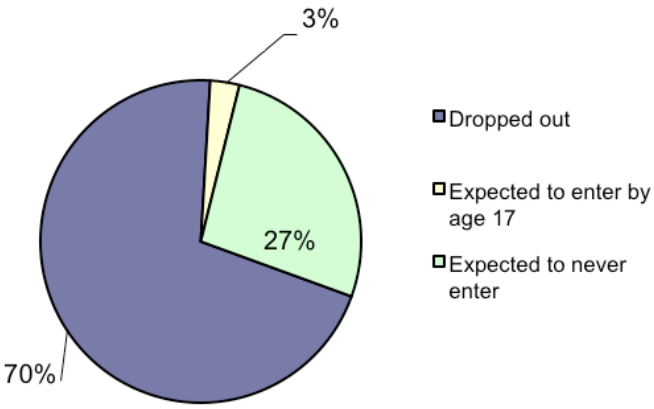
Figure 9: Levels of School Exposure of OOSC in DE2



Source: ZDHS, 2007

From Figure 9 it can be seen that the vast majority (approximately 7 out of every 10) OOSC of primary school age are expected to enter school at some point by the age of 17. This re-enforces earlier findings suggesting that overage pupils was a significant issue in Zambian primary schools. However 13 per cent of all primary age OOSC have already been and dropped out of -school, suggesting that retention may also be a problem. In addition the 16 per cent expected never to enter school suggests that access to primary school remains a problem for sizable proportion of primary school age children in Zambia.

Figure 10: Levels of School Exposure of OOSC in DE3



Source: ZDHS, 2007

In contrast to DE2 the vast majority (70 per cent) of OOSC in DE3 have been to school and dropped out, and only a very small minority (3 per cent) are expected to enter school by the age of 17. The remaining 27 per cent are expected to never enter school. This would suggest that the easiest way to reduce the numbers of lower secondary school age OOSC is to target those already in school and ensure that they stay there until the end of basic education. It may be that the problems with retention, as evidenced by Figure 10, are linked to the large number of overage and delayed entries into school as evidenced by Figure 9.

2.2.3 Disaggregated Data and Children at Risk

Child labour is recognised as one of the key factors that put children at risk of dropping out of school. In Zambia, the Employment of Young Persons and Children Act No. 10 of 2004 regulates the employment of children and

young persons and provides a framework that spells out restrictions on the employment of young persons in any type of employment or work that constitutes the worst form of child labour.[3] However, children are still involved in labour. The profiles of OOSC's involvement in child labour have all been compiled from the 2008 Zambia Labour Force Survey data. It must be noted that while the CMF recommends that indicators of child labour be produced on population estimates, these tables were produced using sample estimates.

The analysis presented in this report is based on information synthesised from the 2008 labour force data set by UCW (Understanding Children's Work) and does not include all the data defined by the CMF tables. For example, information pertaining to OOSC suffering work related illnesses or those with access to formal social protection or credit is not included in this analysis because it is not captured by the labour force survey.

2.2.3.1 Percentage of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in economic activities and household chores

Table 6 depicts the percentage of children aged 7-13 that are involved in economic activities and household chores for at least one hour per day. More male children in this age cohort (33.4 per cent) engage in child labour compared to females (31.2 per cent). Out of those male children engaged in child labour, 29.4 per cent engage in unpaid activities and only 1.4 per cent and 0.8 per cent are in paying and self-economic activities and household chores respectively. The trend for females is also almost the same as that of males.

The table also shows that the proportion of children that engage in economic activity for at least one hour is nearly three times as high in rural areas (41.1 per cent) compared to urban areas (14.3 per cent). Within this sub-category the majority of the rural children engage in non-paying activities (36.6 per cent). Interestingly, there is a slightly higher proportion of children engaged in economic activity among those who attend school (33.8 per cent) than those who are not in school (27.4 per cent). However this does not mean that economic activity and schooling are compatible, as no information is available of the intensity of the work, or any possible effects it may have on school attendance or learning achievement.

Table 6: Percentage of children age 7 – 13 by involvement in economic activity and household chores

	Percentage of children age 7-13 involved in child labour					
	Economic activity				Economic activity for at least one hour[1]	Sample size children age 7-13 in economic activity (n)
	Wage	Self	Unpaid	Other		
Sex						
Male	1.4	0.8	29.4	0.0	33.4	5599
Female	1.0	0.9	27.4	0.0	31.2	5255
Area						
Urban	0.7	0.6	11.5	0.0	14.3	1271
Rural	1.4	1.0	36.6	0.0	41.1	9583
School attendance						
No	2.1	1.0	23.4	0.0	27.4	1945
Yes	0.9	0.8	29.9	0.0	33.8	8886
Household income quintile						
Poorest	1.9	0.6	34.9	0.0	39.8	2691
Second	1.0	0.7	33.0	0.0	36.5	2707
Middle	1.1	1.2	28.1	0.0	32.1	2238
Fourth	0.9	1.1	25.1	0.0	29.1	1879
Richest	1.1	0.5	19.9	0.0	22.9	1333
Total	**1.2**	**0.8**	**28.4**	**0.0**	**32.3**	**10854**

Source: 2008 Labour force Survey

3. The National Employment and Labour Market Policy, 2004 provides two definitions of child labour as: work performed by children under the age of 16 that leads to detriment and endangerment of the child's psychological, physical, social, spiritual and mental development; and light occasional work within the legal framework, for instance at home, that respects the rights of the children, their health and basic education. .

Disaggregated by household income quintiles, the poorest households have the highest proportion of children that are engaged in economic activity (39.8 per cent) while the richest account for the lowest (22.9 per cent). Across all categories, the majority of the children are not paid for their engagement in economic activities.

Table 7 depicts the percentage of children aged 14-15 in and out of school who are involved in economic activity and household chores. Similar to the age cohort 7-13, there are more male children aged 14-15 that are engaged in economic activity in comparison to female children (50.6 per cent vs. 48.8 per cent). The percentage of children engaged in economic activity in rural areas is more than twice that involved in urban areas (63.6 per cent compared to 24.5 per cent).

Table 7: Percentage of children age 14 – 15 by involvement in economic activity and household chores

	Percentage of children age 14-15 involved in Economic activity					
	Wage	Self	Unpaid	Other	Economic activity for at least one hour[3]	Sample size children age 14-15 in economic activity (n)
Sex						
Male	3.4	2.3	43.0	0.1	50.6	2381
Female	3.1	2.2	41.9	0.1	48.8	2158
Area						
Urban	1.9	1.7	19.2	0.1	24.5	658
Rural	4.0	2.6	55.2	0.1	63.6	3881
School attendance						
No	8.7	5.9	58.4	0.3	74.5	1068
Yes	2.2	1.6	39.4	0.1	44.9	3462
Household income quintile						
Poorest	4.4	1.6	51.1	0.0	58.8	1072
Second	3.4	2.2	51.7	0.0	58.7	1157
Middle	2.8	2.1	40.1	0.3	47.5	895
Fourth	2.3	3.3	35.6	0.1	42.7	773
Richest	3.3	2.0	33.3	0.0	40.3	639
Total	**3.2**	**2.3**	**42.4**	**0.1**	**49.7**	**4539**

Table 7 shows that 74.5 per cent of children out-of-school are engaged in economic activity and that 44.9 per cent of children in school are engaged in economic activity. There is a bigger proportion of children engaged in economic activity that do not attend school in this age cohort compared to the 7-13 year age cohort which may suggest that school and engagement in economic activity may become less compatible with age. In terms of the household income quintile, the children from the poorest families rank the highest in their involvement in economic activity (58.8 per cent), with the lowest being children from the richest families (40.3). The difference in the proportions of children engaged in child labour spread across household incomes is not significantly different suggesting that children involved in economic activity affect all categories of families at almost the same magnitude.

Table 8 below depicts the percentage of children aged 7-15 years involved in economic activity who are out-of-school. There is a minimal difference in the proportion of male and female children involved in economic activity (20.2 per cent vs.20 per cent) who are out of school. However, there is a significant variance in the proportion of rural based children involved in economic activity who are out of school (21.3 per cent) compared to urban children (13.4 per cent) this would suggest that children in rural areas are less able to combine involvement in economic activity with attending school.

The table also reveals that a higher proportion of children aged 14-15 involved in economic activity (24.3 per cent) compared to children aged 7-13 (18.4 per cent) are out-of-school. This may be in part due to the fact that older children tend to work more hours in more adult environments which are less compatible with attending school. Disaggregated by household income quintiles, the highest proportion of children involved in economic activity who are out-of-school

are those from the poorest families (23.6 per cent) with very little difference in the proportions of children involved in economic activity who are out-of-school from the middle, fourth and richest household quintile (18.3 per cent, 18.1 per cent and 18.2 per cent).

Table 8: Percentage of children aged 7-15 years involved in economic activity who are out-of-school by individual and household characteristics.

Economic activity			Children in economic activity who are out-of-school	
	Percentage	Sample size (n)	Percentage	Sample size (n)
Sex				
Male	37.1	7980	20.2	1571
Female	34.9	7413	20.0	1442
Area				
Urban	16.6	1929	13.4	262
Rural	45.7	13464	21.3	2751
Age				
7-13	32.3	10854	18.4	1945
14-15	49.7	4539	24.3	1068
Household income quintile				
Poorest	43.8	3763	23.6	815
Second	41.1	3864	20.6	758
Middle	35.3	3133	18.3	597
Fourth	32.0	2652	18.1	472
Richest	26.8	1972	18.2	364
Total	36.0	15393	20.1	3013

Source: 2008 Labour Force Survey

Table 9: Percentage of out-of-school children aged 7-15 involved in economic activity by type of work and average hours

Economic Activity									Out-of-school children involved in economic activity for at least 1 hour		
	Wage		Self		Unpaid		Other		Economic Activity		Sample Size
	%	Avg. hours	%	Avg. hours	%	Avg. hours	%	Avg. hours	%	Avg. hours	
Sex											
Male	11.9	42.6	4.7	32.1	83.2	29.1	0.2	40.3	36.0	30.9	1571
Female	6.7	35.5	6.1	34.6	87.0	27.5	0.1	31.7	34.7	28.5	1442
Area											
Urban	15.3	45.8	16.3	41.4	67.8	27.1	0.7	39.3	17.4	32.5	262
Rural	8.8	39.1	4.2	30.2	86.9	28.4	0.1	34.0	40.1	29.4	2751
Age											
7-13	8.1	39.3	3.9	32.8	88.0	27.2	0.0	44.4	27.4	28.4	1945
14-15	11.9	41.3	8.1	34.1	79.7	30.6	0.4	35.3	74.5	32.1	1068
Household income quintile											
Poorest	13.7	38.1	2.2	39.0	84.1	29.9	0.0	0.0	43.4	31.2	815
Second	6.1	41.7	3.5	31.3	90.4	27.3	0.0	0.0	35.7	28.3	758
Middle	7.1	42.9	6.9	33.9	85.2	28.1	0.8	36.2	32.2	29.6	597
Fourth	7.9	36.7	9.8	36.6	82.2	27.8	0.1	42.0	32.9	29.4	472
Richest	12.4	44.8	7.1	27.4	80.5	28.1	0.0	0.0	29.4	30.1	364
Total	9.4	40.2	5.4	33.5	85.0	28.3	0.2	36.6	35.4	29.7	3013

Source: 2008 Labour Force Survey

Table 9 shows the percentage of OOSC aged 7-15 involved in economic activity by type of work and average hours of work. Overall, there are slightly more male children (36 per cent) who are out-of-school and involved in economic activity than females (34.7 per cent). On average, male OOSC spend slightly more time per week engaged in economic activity activities (30.9 hours) than females (28.5 hours).

Analysed by location, there are more than twice the proportion of OOSC that are engaged in economic activity and based in rural areas (40.1 per cent) than those in urban areas (17.4 per cent). This raises the question of what the other 83 per cent of OOSC, not involved in economic activities, in urban areas do with their time? Interestingly, the children in rural areas spend, on average, slightly less time engaged in economic activity per week (29.4 hours) compared to those from urban areas (32.5 hours).

The table shows that OOSC aged 14-15 are almost three times more likely to be involved in economic activity than those in the age cohort 7-13 years (74.5 per cent compared to 27.4 per cent) which is not surprising as most OOSC in DE2 do attend school at some point. In terms of socio economic status, there is a significant difference in the proportion of OOSC involved in economic activity from the poorest families (43.4 per cent) in comparison with those from the richest families (29.4 per cent).

Table 10 below depicts the percentage of OOSC aged 7-15 that are involved in economic activity by sector of employment. The vast majority of OOSC involved in economic activity, both male and female, work in the agricultural sector (93.5 per cent and 87.6 per cent), followed by the services sector at a distant 2.7 per cent and 6.1 per cent for male and female children. As depicted in previous explanations, a greater proportion of male OOSC compared to females are involved in economic activity.

The table also reveals that by location the majority of rural OOSC involved in economic activity are in the agricultural sector (94.6 per cent). The urban areas show that, in comparison to the rural areas, a significant proportion of OOSC involved in economic activity work in the commerce and services sectors (27.1 per cent vs.1.4 per cent and 16.7 per cent vs. 3 per cent). Interestingly, there is a higher percentage of 7-13 year old economically active OOSC that are engaged in agriculture (92.1 per cent) than the 14-15 year old children (87.3 per cent). This suggests that the children are used mostly for household agriculture to boost food security of households. This finding on the young children presents an area of particular policy concern.

Disaggregated by socio-economic status, 92.1 per cent of economically active OOSC from the poorest families work in agriculture in contrast to 84.2 per cent of economically active OOSC from the richest families.

Table 10: Percentage of out-of-school children aged 7-15 in economic activity, by sector of employment and household characteristics.

Sector of Employment						
	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Commerce	Services	Other	Sample size (n)
Sex						
Male	93.0	1.2	2.7	2.7	0.4	1,571
Female	87.6	0.8	5.2	6.1	0.4	1,442
Area						
Urban	52.2	2.3	27.1	16.7	1.7	262
Rural	94.6	0.8	1.4	3.0	0.3	2,751
Age						
7-13	92.1	0.7	2.5	4.5	0.2	1,945
14-15	87.3	1.4	6.5	4.1	0.8	1,068
Household income quintile						
Poorest	92.1	0.8	2.7	4.5	0.0	815
Second	93.0	0.9	1.8	4.2	0.0	758
Middle	90.5	1.6	3.6	3.5	0.9	597
Fourth	87.6	0.9	7.0	4.0	0.5	472
Richest	84.2	0.8	7.8	6.0	1.2	364
Total	90.4	1.0	3.9	4.3	0.4	3,013

Source: 2008 Labour Force Survey

2.3 Children at risk of exclusion (Dimensions 4 and 5)

Dimensions of Exclusion 4 (DE4) and 5 (DE5) refer to children currently attending primary and lower secondary school respectively who may be at risk of becoming the OOSC of tomorrow. One way to examine these future populations is to use the experience of the past to identify and understand the profiles of children whose risk of dropping out was realized. The data presented in this section comes from two main sources: the Ministry of Education's 2007 Educational Statistical Bulletin and from the UIS online data archive accessed from http://stats.uis.unesco.org/, where possible data from 2007 has been chosen to ensure consistency with the ZDHS and the Ministry of Education's data.

Dimension 4: Students currently in primary school who may be at risk of dropping out

Table 11: Average dropout rates across Grades 1-7 by sex and province (%)

	Male	Female	Total
Central	1.9	2.5	2.2
Copperbelt	1.3	1.8	1.5
Eastern	2.4	3.2	2.8
Luapula	2.6	3.5	3.1
Lusaka	1.0	1.5	1.2
Northwestern	2.2	3.3	2.7
Northern	2.4	3.3	2.9
Southern	1.6	2.3	1.9
Western	2.8	3.4	3.1
Total	**1.9**	**2.6**	**2.3**

Source: Ministry of Education, 2007

It is interesting to note that two of the provinces, Copperbelt and Southern, with the lowest levels of OOSC in DE2 are also among the provinces with the lowest dropout rates across primary school grades. A notable exception is Luapula which had one of the lowest levels of OOSC and has the highest dropout rate. The differences between provinces are quite marked with the rates found in Luapula and Western more than twice those found in Copperbelt and Lusaka (3.1 per cent versus 1.5 and 1.2 per cent respectively). However, as dropouts only make up a small percentage of OOSC in DE2 (Figure 9) the difference in dropout rates does not explain all the difference in OOSC levels. Higher dropout rates may be due to lower levels of educational quality, which may in turn affect demand and therefore attendance rates, or may be a sign of greater external demands on students and their families. In terms of gender there is a consistent gap in favour of boys with girls having higher dropout rates in all 9 provinces. This gap ranges from a high of 1.1 percentage points in Northwestern to a low of 0.5 percentage points in Copperbelt and Lusaka.

Table 12: Average repetition rates across Grades 1-7 by sex and province (%)

	Male	Female	Total
Central	8.1	7.0	7.6
Copperbelt	3.8	3.5	3.6
Eastern	7.9	6.7	7.3
Luapula	6.9	7.1	7.0
Lusaka	4.1	3.5	3.8
Northwestern	7.9	7.8	7.8
Northern	8.5	8.1	8.3
Southern	10.5	8.5	9.5
Western	7.4	6.9	7.2
Total	**7.2**	**6.4**	**6.8**

Source: Ministry of Education, 2007

The repetition rates across the primary grades are significantly higher than those for dropout, with an overall rate of 6.8 per cent compared to 2.3 per cent for dropout. As for dropout Copperbelt and Lusaka have the lowest rates which suggest that the quality of education received in these two states is better than the rest of the country. Interestingly Southern province, which had one of the lowest dropout rates has the highest rate of repetition. Again the difference between the provinces is quite marked with repetition rates in Southern almost three times those found in Copperbelt. In contrast to dropout rates boys are more likely to repeat than girls, with higher repetition rates for boys present in all nine provinces. When combined with the earlier results on dropouts it can be seen that on average approximately 9 per cent of both boys and girls either repeat or dropout at each primary grade with boys more likely to repeat than girls.

Table 13: Primary school entrants with pre-school experience by sex and province

	% of male entrants	% of female entrants	% of total entrants
Central	22.9	19.5	21.2
Copperbelt	28.7	29.8	29.3
Eastern	9.0	9.2	9.1
Luapula	8.1	9.2	8.7
Lusaka	33.7	46.4	39.2
Northwestern	6.7	6.6	6.6
Northern	6.0	6.3	6.2
Southern	18.0	19.4	18.7
Western	5.0	5.1	5.0
Total	16.6	17.6	**17.1**

Source: Ministry of Education, 2007

Early childhood development and school preparedness are often seen as crucial factors in a child's future academic success and are thus a key reason behind the expansion of pre-primary education. Table 13 above presents the proportions of primary school entrants with pre-school experience. Although approximately equal between gender, with girls slightly advantaged especially in Lusaka, the level of pre-school experience varies greatly across the provinces of Zambia. The national average of 17 per cent ranges from a low of 5.0 in Western to a high of 39 per cent in Lusaka. It is interesting to note that the provinces with the two highest levels of pre-school experience, Copperbelt (29.3 %) and Lusaka (39.2 %) are also the provinces with the lowest rates of repetition and dropout. Though far from being conclusive evidence it does suggest a relationship between pre-school exposure and likelihood of grade promotion.

Table 14: Survival rates at primary level, 2007, by sex (%)

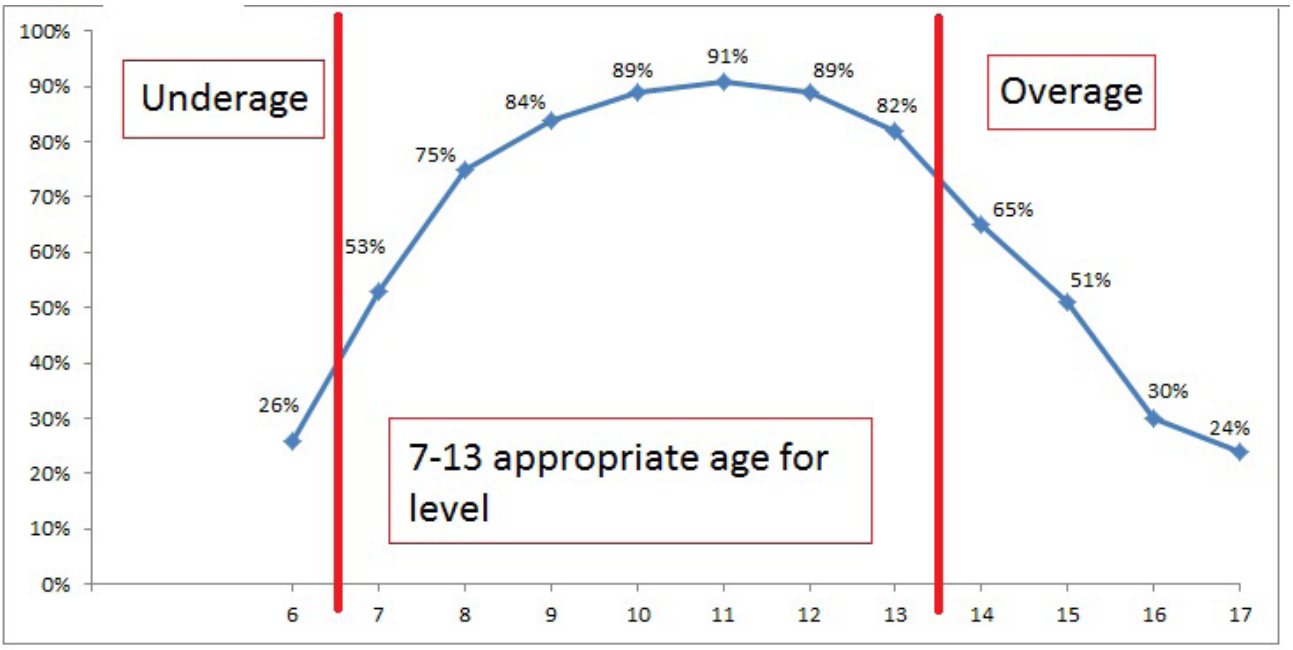
	Male	Female	Total
To Grade 4	93	91	92
To Grade 5	91	87	89
To final grade	82	74	78

Source: UIS Data Centre, accessed (November 2012)

The survival rates in Table 14 support those findings in Table 3 (OOSC of primary school age) where a gender gap in favour of boys becomes apparent as children get older. Here it can be seen that boys and girls have approximately the same chance of reaching grade 4 with only a two percentage point gap in survival rates. However this widens to a four percentage point gap by grade 5 and an eight percentage point gap by the final grade of primary school. Progression is a widespread problem in Zambian primary schools as evidenced by these survival rates and the large proportion of dropouts in Figures 9 and 10.

Overage students attending primary school

Figure 11: Primary attendance rate by age (%)



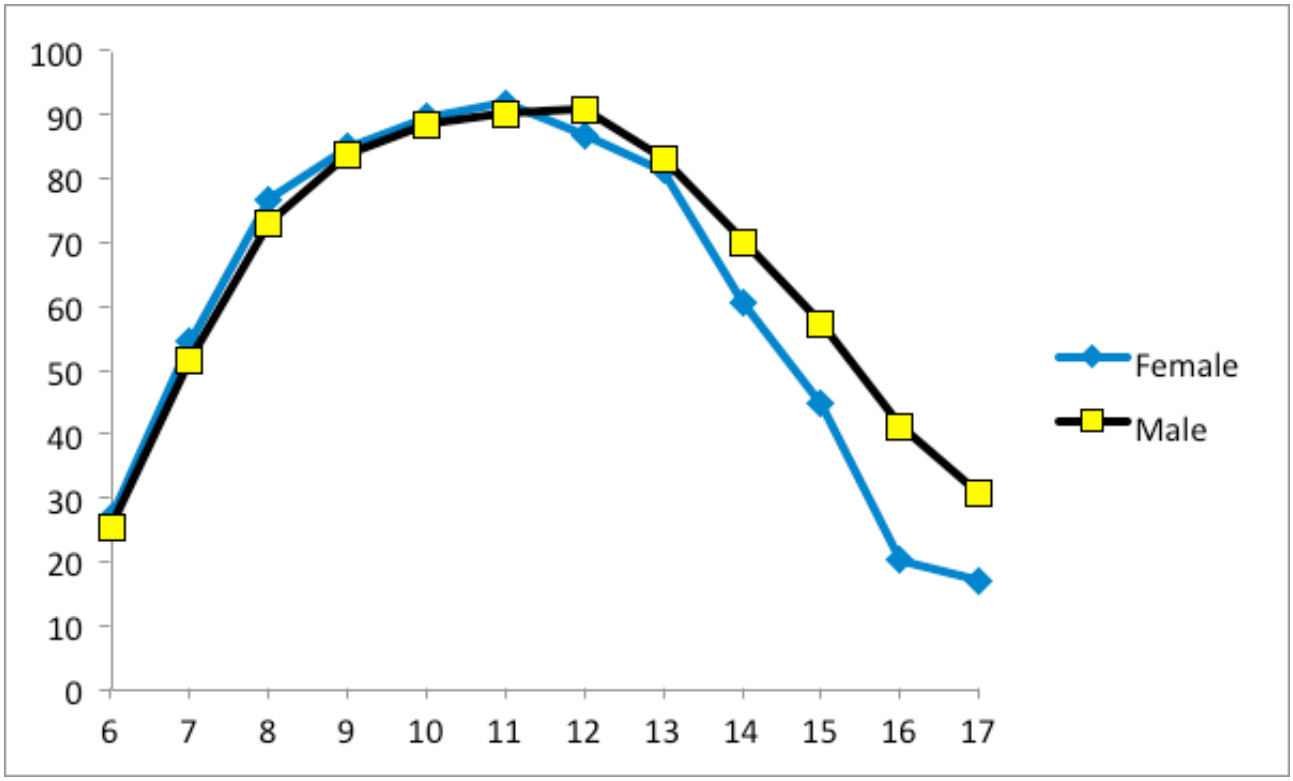
Source: ZDHS, 2007

From Figure 11 above it is clear that in Zambia there is serious problem with delayed entry into primary school. In an ideal situation there would be 100 per cent attendance from age 7, however at this age only one in every two children are attending primary school. Although the situation does improve year after year, it is not until the age of 11 that more than 90 per cent are attending primary school. However, when analysed on age specific and grade level, the figures are far much lower and very alarming.This delayed entry in conjunction with high repetition rates (Table 12) lead to significant numbers of overage children in primary schools in Zambia. From Figure 11 it can be seen that a majority of 14 and 15 year olds, who should be attending lower secondary school, are actually still in primary school and there are

also significant proportions of 16 and 17 year olds attending primary school (30 and 24 per cent respectively). Overage children are often more likely to drop out and not complete full basic education. They can also have negative effects on the learning of their younger classmates, through bullying or simply by sharing the same learning environment. For example in some cases it might not be appropriate for 17 year old boys to be in the same class as 10 and 11 year old girls.

The issue of overage students does not concern both sexes equally, as discussed in the analysis of DE3 boys are much more likely to stay in primary school than girls. In Figure 12 below it can be seen that the primary school attendance rates for both sexes are approximately the same up until the age of 13. However by the age of 16 the gender gap has widened to more than 20 percentage points, with 41.2 per cent of 16 year old boys attending primary school compared to 20.4 per cent of 16 year old girls.

Figure 12: Primary school attendance rate by age and sex (%)



Source: ZDHS, 2007

Dimension 5: Students currently in Lower Secondary school who may be at risk of dropping out.

One of the key moments in a student's school life is the transition from primary to lower secondary education. Table 15 presents these transition rates for both male and female students in the provinces of Zambia. It is interesting to note, in contrast to dropout and survival rates, there is a gender gap in favour of girls. In fact in only one of the nine provinces are boys more likely to make the transition from primary to lower secondary. This may be in part due to the fact that more girls don't actually make it to the end of primary and therefore those that do are the more academically gifted or receiving the most support. Moreover, girls have a much lower cut-off point than boys. Overall only 55 per cent of students who make it to the end of primary school continue into lower secondary school. This presents a major challenge in providing complete basic education to the children of Zambia. This figure however masks some significant differences among the provinces, Copperbelt again records the most positive results with 67.1 per cent making the transition. Eastern

Province has the lowest overall at 41.9 per cent but there is approximate gender balance with boys at 40.3 per cent and girls at 43.9 per cent. This contrasts with Northern Province which has an overall percentage of 47.1 but has a very large gender gap of over 20 percentage points in favour of girls. This is in part due to the very low transition rate of 38.8 per cent amongst boys. The imbalance in the transition rate between boys and girls in Northern Province can be attributed to various social empowerment programmes by NGOs such as FAWEZA and CAMFED that target the girl child in comparison to other typically rural provinces.

Table 15: Transition rates between grades 7 and 8 (%)

	Male	Female	Total
Central	51.6	57.8	54.4
Copperbelt	67.1	67.1	67.1
Eastern	40.3	43.9	41.9
Luapula	57.6	56.1	56.9
Lusaka	50.7	53.1	51.9
Northwestern	61.6	62.0	61.8
Northern	38.8	59.6	47.1
Southern	50.3	51.5	50.9
Western	56.6	65.9	60.8
Total	**52.2**	**57.4**	**54.5**

Source: Ministry of Education, 2007

In the Ministry of Education's Statistical Bulletin dropout rates and repetition rates are not given separately for grades, but rather they are grouped together for grades 1-7, grades 1-9, and grades 10-12. However from these it is possible to calculate the average dropout and repetition rates for grades 8-9. In Table 16 the dropout rates for grades 8-9 are presented, it is interesting that male dropout rates only marginally increase from grades 1-7 however female dropout rates increase from 2.6 per cent to 3.8 per cent, thus increasing the overall gender gap to 1.6 percentage points. Copperbelt and Lusaka remain the two lowest provinces with only very slight increases compared to other provinces. Girls are particularly at risk of dropping out in Northwestern, Northern and Western.

Table 16: Dropout rates for Grades 8-9 by sex and province (%)

Province	Male	Female	Total
Central	2.2	3.9	3.1
Copperbelt	1.3	2.1	1.7
Eastern	2.7	4.3	3.5
Luapula	2.8	4.6	3.6
Lusaka	0.9	2.0	1.5
Northwestern	2.6	5.6	4.1
Northern	3.6	5.1	4.3
Southern	2.0	4.3	3.1
Western	2.8	5.4	4.0
Total	2.2	3.8	3.0

Source: Ministry of Education, 2007

Similarly to the dropout rates, repetition rates for grades 8 and 9 are slightly higher than those from the first seven grades. Boys remain more likely to repeat (8.2 per cent) than girls (7.7 per cent) but the gender gap is narrower than that found for grades 1-7. Once again the repetition rates of Copperbelt and Lusaka are significantly lower than the other provinces at 4.8 per cent and 4.3 per cent respectively. Northwestern and Southern have particularly high overall repetition rates of 10.2 per cent and 10.5 per cent respectively and the national average is 8.0 per cent. This suggests that even when students do reach lower secondary school, and the vast majority do not, they have significant struggles in progressing through the grades as expected. In order to successfully tackle levels of OOSC, students currently attending school must be supported at both the primary and lower secondary school levels.

Table 17: Repetition rates for Grades 8-9 by sex and province (%)

Province	Male	Female	Total
	8.1	7.4	7.8
Copperbelt	4.9	4.8	4.8
Eastern	9.9	9.2	9.6
Luapula	8.5	8.9	8.7
Lusaka	4.3	4.3	4.3
Northwestern	10.1	10.2	10.2
Northern	9.9	9.6	9.8
Southern	11.0	9.8	10.5
Western	9.6	8.7	9.1
Total	8.2	7.7	8.0

Source: Ministry of Education, 2007

2.4 Analytical Summary

Dimension 1 represents pre-primary school aged children (age 6) who are not in pre-primary or primary school. It is worth noting that only a small proportion of pre-primary school aged children are actually in pre-primary school (4.7 per cent) and the majority of children in this age cohort are out-of-school (68.9 per cent) while a sizeable proportion are already in primary school (26.4 per cent). There is a marked difference between rural and urban areas with nearly 80 per cent of pre-primary age children out-of-school in rural areas compared to only 44 per cent in urban areas. Among the poorest households, 81.3 per cent of these children are out-of-school, while from the richest families approximately 27 per cent of the children are out-of-school. In terms of provincial differences, children in Copperbelt and Lusaka are almost twice as likely to attend school compared with pre-primary age children in the other 7 provinces. Gender wise, there is only a small gender gap with girls only slightly more likely to attend pre-primary or primary school.

There are only slightly more male children of primary school age who are out of school than there are female children in this age group who are out of school, 217,388 versus 212,525. However this gender balance is not mirrored in other determinants. Rural children are again much more likely to be out of school with almost a quarter (23 per cent) not attending primary or secondary school compared to only 9 per cent in urban areas. Differences are even more marked among socio-economic groups with out-of school rates of 26.9 per cent among children from the poorest families compared to 4.3 per cent among children from the richest families. Children in Eastern, Luapula, and Western provinces are particularly disadvantaged, especially the girls in Luapula and the boys in Western with out-of-school levels of 28.7 per cent and 31.4 per cent respectively. The national average for the entire age group is 18.3 per cent but this masks the fact that nearly a half of all 7 year olds and a quarter of all 8 year olds are out of school, suggesting a large and widespread problem with late entry.

Economic activity amongst children was found to be widespread and may be one of the key barriers to education. There are more rural-based children of primary school age who are engaged in economic activity compared to urban-based ones. Proportionally, most of these are males. Most of the child labour is unpaid and involves household chores and agriculture. This would suggest that rural based households are more pre-occupied and concerned about food security than education. The poorest families account for the highest number of children involved in economic activity compared to the richest families.

Dimension 3 represents children of lower secondary school age (14-15) who are out of school. Gender was found to be a significant variable among this age cohort with the proportion of females in the age group 14-15 who are out of school is almost twice that of males, 8.9 per cent compared to 14.8 per cent. However this difference is due to large proportions of overage boys remaining in primary school, and not due to a gender difference among secondary school attendees. Again rural students are disadvantaged in comparison with their urban counterparts with an out-of-school level of 14.6 per cent in rural areas and of 8.1 per cent in urban areas. This difference, though significant, is not as large as the difference between children from the poorest families, 19.2 per cent out of school, and the children from the richest families, 5 per cent out of school. The same three provinces with high levels of OOSC in DE2, Eastern, Luapula, and Western are again amongst the highest in DE3 but are joined by Northern Province which has an overall out-of-school level of approximately 16 per cent. The majority of the children

involved in economic activity in this age cohort do not attend school (74.5%).

Although many similarities were found among the OOSC of DE2 and DE3 especially in terms of provincial inequalities, links with wealth quintiles and the gaps between rural and urban communities, the two subgroups are extremely different in terms of exposure to school. In DE2 the majority (71 per cent) of OOSC are expected to enter school at some point by the age of 17 but 16 per cent are expected to never enter. The remaining 13 per cent of out-of-school primary age children have already been and dropped out of education. This is further evidence of the problem of delayed entry in Zambia as well suggesting that a significant proportion of primary age children are still not accessing and are unlikely to access basic education. In DE3 however the majority of OOSC (70 per cent) have dropped out of education, suggesting a problem with retention. While a further 27 per cent are expected to never enter school, again suggesting that access to education remains a key issue for a significant proportion of OOSC. The remaining 3 per cent are those that are still expected to enter school by the age of 17.

Dimension 4 represents students who are in primary school but are at risk of dropping out. Evidence in this report reveals that a child's risk of dropping out or of repeating a grade varies considerably depending on where the child stays. For example the average dropout rate across primary school grades is just 1 per cent among boys in Lusaka and 3.5 per cent among girls in Luapula. Applying these rates to a cohort of 100 in each scenario would lead to 6 boys dropping out by the end of the seven grades of primary compared to 20 girls. Overall girls were found to be more likely to drop out with boys more likely to repeat a grade. Copperbelt and Lusaka provinces had significantly lower dropout and repetition rates than all the other provinces in addition to having the highest percentages of primary school entrants with pre-school experience.

In terms of the survival rate up to the last grade of primary school, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) suggests that in the lower grades, there are no significant differences in the risk of both male and female children dropping out-of-school. The GPI of survival rate to grade 4 is 0.98. However the gender gap widens as the grade level increase with a GPI of only 0.9 for the survival rate to the final grade of primary.

Dimension 5 focused on those students attending lower secondary school who may be at risk of dropping out. Although it technically lies in between the Dimensions 4 and 5 the transition rate between primary and lower secondary is an important consideration when analysing children at risk of dropping out of education. Overall only 54.5 per cent of students in Zambia make transition between grade 7 and grade 8. This represents a huge inefficiency within the system. Of particular concern are male students in Northern Province of whom only 38.8 per cent make the transition, and the students in Eastern Province which has the lowest overall transition rate of 41.9 per cent. Of those students who do make it into lower secondary school, girls appear to be particularly at risk of dropping out, especially in North-western, Northern, and Western provinces. As in Dimension 4 Copperbelt and Lusaka Province report the lowest levels of dropout and repetition.

CHAPTER 2
BARRIERS AND BOTTLENECKS

CHAPTER TWO: BARRIERS AND BOTTLENECKS

This chapter aims to interrogate the barriers and bottlenecks to access, participation in and completion of primary and lower secondary education. The specific barriers and bottlenecks are analysed in the following categories: Socio-cultural demand side; Economic demand side; Supply side; Political governance capacity, and financing. The analysis also conscientiously interrogates these barriers and bottlenecks in line with what has emerged as the profiles of excluded children in relation to the 5DEs in order to identify specific barriers for specific groups.

3.1 Socio-Cultural Demand Side

In Zambia, there are a number of socio-cultural factors that affect access to and retention in school. This study identified a number of factors and analysed them as below.

3.1.1 Gender

Gender remains a very significant factor in understanding barriers to access and participation in education. Although sometimes hidden behind the façade of positive indicators such as the Apparent Net Enrolment Ration (ANER) and GPI, singled out in the preceding paragraph, it is still a relevant factor that interact with and exacerbates all other barriers and bottlenecks.

Generally, gender imbalances in other areas of participation along the ladder of education remain serious. A recent "Review of Science, Mathematics and Technology Education Provision for Girls in Technical Schools in Zambia" by the Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia (FAWEZA 2010) notes that the gender parity index drops from 1 in grade 1 to 0.83 in grades 10 – 12 (roughly 4 girls to 5 boys). The reason for the drop, it is further noted is that the older the girls get, the more they are exposed to the gendered nature of society reflected in deeply embedded socio-cultural practices and choices, such as who is responsible for the household work and the resulting opportunity costs of school. It is also significant to note that enrolment rates for girls vary substantially from region to region with girls' enrolment lagging behind boys in certain parts of the country, especially the rural areas where the value placed on a girl's education is relatively less in comparison to urban areas. The same research report for FAWEZA by Beyani (2010) for instance states that "the enrolment rate in Eastern province is 30 per cent lower than in Copperbelt or Central Province."

According to the 2004 World Bank Report on Zambia Strategic Gender Assessment (ZSGA) data indicate that there were gender disparities in favour of males at nearly all levels of education in Zambia. This was the case at basic, secondary and tertiary levels of education. The statistics and tables compiled from the ZDHS 2007 data set in chapter 1 of this report provide more evidence on the subject matter as can be noted in a comparative analysis of Table 1, 4, and 18. In Zambia, as elsewhere in the world, evidence abounds that gender often acts as an "intensifier" of other barriers and means that girls are "doubly disadvantaged" (Lewis and Lockheed, 2006). This is because gender interacts with other barriers such as poverty, division of labour at household level and other social factors. In this study, three gender dynamics of society and the education system are briefly explored below to help explain gender as a barrier in accessing education in Zambia.

3.1.2 Early sexual debut and intergenerational sex

In Zambia, young people start having sex at a very young age. According to the 2010 Population Reference bureau, young people start having sex as early as before 15 years, citing that 12 per cent of teenage Zambia girls and 16 percent of teenage Zambian boys start having sex before they reach 15 years, and that age 17 is the media age for sexual debut among girls in Zambia. Focus group discussions with teenage boys and girls confirmed this by highlighting that young people, especially girls start having sex at an as early as 12 years of age, mostly with partners who are much older than themselves. This creates a disparity between boys and girls as boys would start having sex at a much later stage: *"I was 13 years old when I first had sex but my friends had already been having sex. My boyfriend was 21 years old at that time. I felt like I was missing out on something before I started having sex*" Female FGD respondent, Matero Compound.

The complication that comes with this is that at this age, girls are considered too young to be given comprehensive sexual and reproductive health education as it is assumed that they are not having sex yet.

"it is usually difficult for parents to accept that their children are having sex at such a young age. When a young girl gets pregnant, it comes as a shock to the parents, but the girl would have been having sex for many months or even years," Reaching the Unreached Project Officer for Africa Directions, a Youth NGO said in an interview.

The adverse effects of early sexual activity, whether occurring within or outside of an early marriage, have a direct bearing on access to and participation in education especially for girls. Early marriage and childbearing almost ensure that young women will not advance in their education. This slows progress on the MDG 3 target to achieve gender equity in all levels of schooling and places girls and their offspring at a great disadvantage in life. In addition, early sexual debut increases the risk of unplanned pregnancy, unsafe abortion, HIV/AIDS, and sexually transmitted infection (2010 Population Reference Bureau). These factors lead to high school drop especially for girls as discussed below:

3.1.3 Teenage Pregnancies

Girls' education is further affected by gender-specific factors such as pregnancy, which seems to be a major factor responsible for the high attrition rates among girls. The rates of drop-out due to pregnancy have been steadily increasing. Between 1997 and 2000, 5829 girls left school because of pregnancy and in 2000 alone, 2925 girls dropped out of school due to pregnancy (World Bank ZSGA 2004). Administrative data from MESVTEE, EMIS (2010) show that the number of pregnancies (and thus girl drop outs from school) risen to over 10, 000 from 2006 to 2010. The number rose from 10,403 in 2006 to 15,520 in 2009 and then dropped to 13,769 in 2010. Although the Re-entry Policy is in place, re-admissions during the period, averaged below 40 per cent which translates into less than 4, 000 going back to school after pregnancy. It is also significant to note that while some girls go back to school after a pregnancy, the disruption of withdrawing and then going back, and the stigma attached to having a bay make it difficult for most girl to continue schooling to completion levels. In addition, some girls have failed to come back due to the unclear guidelines for the implementation of the policy but also due to stigma attached to their having gotten pregnant earlier.

According to CAMFED and FAWEZA (2010) the predictors of teenage pregnancies which lead to drop out include the following: poor performing girls, low economic status and girls who have previously been temporarily withdrawn from school for one reason or another.

3.1.4 Sexual abuse

Girls suffer sexual abuse from partners who are older than them. This leads to low self-esteem, poor concentration in school, and eventual drop out:

"i was abused when I was young, and this affected my self-confidence, I never felt like there was anything good about me, I hated going to school because I thought everyone knew that I was raped, and eventually I dropped out', 16 year old mother from Matero Compound in Lusaka shared with the interview team in an interview.

3.1.5 Early marriages

Due to early sexual debut, some girls find themselves getting married early and dropping out of school. The international standard for the legal age of marriage for girls is 18. According to the OECD Social institutional gender index, the minimum legal age for marriage in Zambia is 16 years for both men and women, and parental consent is required if either party is below 21 years of age. The incidence of early marriage is high, primarily because customary marriages usually take place soon after a girl reaches puberty. A 2004 United Nations report estimated that 24 per cent of girls between 15 and 19 years of age were married, divorced or widowed. According to the education system, children of this age should have still been in school. Interviews with the programme officer of Africa Directions highlighted that once girls start having sex, they concentrate more on their sexuality than education. Lack of positive role models also contributes to this as girls lack motivation to development higher aspirations for themselves.

3.1.6 Opportunity Cost Associated With Girls' School Attendance

When families make decisions about sending children to school, they tend to place less value on school attendance of girls (Lewis & Lockheed, 2006). The Zambia Labour Force Survey data (2008) shows that of the total number of OOSC aged 14 – 15 years (Dimension 3), 70 per cent are girls while only 30 per cent are boys. The disparity is less but still significant for children in Dimension 2 with girls making up 51.4 per cent while boys 48.6 per cent.

Statistics such as these point to the fact that a significant number of households in Zambia still find it more rational to hold on to girls for socio-economic and other gains.

Further to this, the 2010 MDGs Report highlights that educating girls is widely seen as being of less value than educating boys and girls from poor families are 3.5 times more likely to be out of school, (MDG Report 2010). The 2004 World Bank Report on Zambia Strategic Gender Assessment (ZSGA) also indicates that that some parents prefer to send the boy child to school because education for the girl child is perceived as preparation for marriage. Such attitudes, however, are more prevalent among rural parents and those with limited education as well as those households in which girls perform such economic roles as selling at the market and/or along the streets. In such households, the traditional view that investing in the boy child is more profitable than investing in the girl child remains quite profound, (World Bank 2004). This was seen during the structural adjustment programme, economic reforms when as privatization of para-statals accelerated, with more people taken out of formal employment and less money (through salaries) going to households, a number of households opted to withdraw their girl children from schools because this was considered less valuable, (World Bank 2004).

"*it is almost acceptable even today for any family to consider investing more in their son's education than their daughter's because, it is generally believed that girls will get married and be taken care of by their husband, but the boy, will get married and will need to provide for his family."* A school teacher at Namulonga Basic School in Mazabuka indicated in an interview.
"In addition to this, boys are generally expected to be sharper and to do better in school than girls. Unconsciously, this works on the mind of the girls and affects their motivation. Parents too feel like boys are worth investing in than girls, so when girls lose motivation and drop out as they approach higher levels, it is considered acceptable," the teacher indicated.

In agreeing with this Bayisenge (2010) writes
"For a number of poorer families, the potential rewards of educating daughters are too far off and therefore their education is not recognized as an investment. Families perceive that a girl's education will only benefit her husband's household, and not her parents. Additionally, some parents believe that girls do not need an education for their roles as wives and mothers, that education undermines cultural practices, and it teaches the girl to reject tradition".

This view is held because the system of sexual/gender division of labour (or gender ideology) still emphasizes a man's 'instrumental or breadwinning role' and a woman's 'expressive or care-giving role'. It is felt that boys should be prepared for their instrumental role, while women will be provided for by their husbands or fathers. This negatively affects girls/women in terms of access to and control over productive resources at household level, and access to education is viewed as preparation for a productive role, (World Bank 2004).

3.1.7 Girl – Unfriendly School Structures

Reports from CAMFED and FAWEZA (2010) indicate that the construction of toilets at schools, including toilets specifically for girls, has shown to have a major impact on girls' attendance in Zambia. Wilson (2004) also agreed with this finding as quoted by the International Save the Children Alliance (2010) put it, "While lack of proper toilet and sanitation facilities can inconvenience boys, it can be a disaster for girls especially during menstruation".

A study of the Girl Child Network (GCN) is further found that girls were often absent for four (4) days of the 28 days of a month due to menstruation, losing "288 lessons in a calendar year – that is 192 hours of missed learning" (in Hart, 2009, p.16). Despite this evident barrier to girls' education, many schools in Zambia still do not have adequate water and sanitation facilities. According to administrative data from MESVTEE (EMIS) for example, 25.8 per cent (2,354) of the schools in the country have no access to running water. Of those that have running water, a majority of them are broken or not working properly.

According to the 2009 Republic of Zambia Ministry of Local Government and Housing National Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Programme (2006-2015) Sanitation and Hygiene Component Report, by 2008 data only 9 per cent of schools had sufficient number of school toilets for girls, while 29 per cent had sufficient toilets for boys. Even when there is running water in a school, lack of adequate sanitation make it rather difficult for girls.
"I prefer to stay home until I finish my period because it can be very embarrassing if you mess yourself up," indicated a 14 years old girl of Namulonga Basic School

in Mazabuka. A result of this is habitual absenteeism that seems acceptable by the society, which cause girls to lag behind in performance, get demotivated and eventually drop out, or remain in lower grades when they should be advancing.

3.1.8 Gendered Roles and Responsibilities

Socio-cultural variables such as gender roles tend to have a greater impact on the participation and performance of girls than of boys in school. The 2004 World Bank Report on Zambia Strategic Gender Assessment (ZSGA) highlights that the roles and duties allocated to the girl child in the family tend to be routine, over burdening and time consuming compared to those of the boy child who infrequently performs one or two functions in the home. This is in line with the findings of Ngándu and others, who demonstrate statistically that more girls arrive late at, or are absent from, school because of household chores. Household chores constitute the major reason for lateness to school, while they are only second to illness as a factor causing absenteeism. Further evidence indicates that some parents prefer to send the boy child to school because education for the girl child is perceived as preparation for marriage.

Girls share a bulk of domestic chores including taking care of their families. For example, in families affected by HIV/AIDS, girls suffer the burden of care which ends up pulling them out of school:

"*When my father became sick, my mother spent most of the time in hospital caring for my father, and I stayed home to assist with household work. When my father died, I had been out of school for two terms, I feel like I wouldn't catch up, so I just stayed home,"* a 16 year old out of school girl of Mutendere compound shared with the research team.

HIV and AIDS affected households have been found to be income levels that are 20–30 per cent lower than in non-HIV and AIDS affected households. For example, where a family member has AIDS, average income falls by as much as 60 per cent, expenditure on health care quadruples, savings are depleted and families often go into debt to care for sick individuals. In addition, food consumption drops by as much as 41 per cent in orphan households. The common impacts of HIV and AIDS include deepening poverty, such as pressure to drop out of school, food insecurity (Foster & J Williamson, 2000).

The impact of low income on access to education are discussed in details under the economic demand side section below

3.1.9 Violence in the Home, Community and School.

Some level of violence against children is considered acceptable in Zambia whether at school or at home. A 2005 large scale survey conducted by Save the Children Sweden involving 2,321 children aged between 6 and 18 years similarly shows that children in Zambia still suffer corporal punishment, hard physical labour, humiliating punishment and verbal abuse despite a prohibition on corporal punishment in schools. The survey in question found that 24per cent of the children were discovered to have suffered corporal punishment in the home, 38per cent in schools and 43per cent had experienced humiliating punishment in the home and 37per cent in school (Save the Children, 2008).According to the 2008 Report of the Human Rights Commission, Office of the Commissioner for Children, this is because culturally in Zambia, both parents at home and teachers at school are not aware of alternative positive ways of discipline, thus the wide practice of corporal punishment. It was further established that in some rural schools, children are used as manual labour in the construction of classroom blocks (Human Rights Commission, Office of the Commissioner for Children, 2008).

A report by Save the Children Sweden (2005) recorded Zambian children's experience of corporal and humiliating punishment. An eight year old girl from the Copperbelt province said: *"I was beaten with a bamboo stick in the hands. I was borrowing a razor blade from my friend then the teacher thought I was playing in class."*

While this kind of violence is considered normal and effective way of ensuring discipline in children, the results of such are low esteem among children, rebellious attitudes, poor participation and motivation for school and eventual dropout. "I knew that my maths teacher hated me, because she was always picking on me all the time, beating me even when I didn't think I did anything wrong, so I dropped out of my maths class, and eventually just left school," a 17 year old out of school boy of Mutendere compound indicated during a focus groups discussion.

This finding is a confirmation of a qualitative study in developing countries found that bullying and attempted

rape were factors in low female enrolment rates in, and high dropout rates from, secondary schools (Terefe and Mengistu 1997).

3.1.10 Parent/Guardian Education Level

The lack of education or the low level of parents' or guardians' education also acts as a significant barrier to education A ZANEC Report "Quality of Basic Education In Zambia" by Kanyika and Musakanya (2010) notes that "for all the years that, National Assessments have been conducted, there has been a very strong correlation between the pupil learning achievement level and parental education. There has also been a very high correlation between parental education index and socio-economic index. The National Assessment Reports referred to are those of 2001, 2003 and 2006.

Although the data analysed in this study did not provide for variables that could explicitly show the level of a parent/ guardian's level of education and the educational status of their children, several studies, including the report by the Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (2011) on 'Overcoming Exclusion Through Quality Schooling' have shown the strong correlation between a parent's level of education and school attendance of their children. More often than not, parent with higher level of education have demonstrated much more ability and interest to support their children's learning and value of education.

With a national literacy rate is estimated at 63 per cent for males and 50per cent for females, while 68 percent of the population live below the US$1/day poverty datum line (CSO, 2008), the parents level of education in Zambia are very low. It is not clear as to how far this factor contributes to keeping children out of school, but the fact remains that the value of education is not as highly recognised by parents of low education levels. Interviews with out of school youth in Mutendere compound also indicated that parental negligence (which is compounded by parent's level of education) contributes to high school drop-out among youths.

3.1.11 Drug and Substance Abuse

Increasing drug and substance use among youths in Sub-Saharan Africa was highlighted by the world report on drugs (UNDCP, 1997). The report highlights evidence of the invasion of a drug-taking culture, a decrease in the age of the first drug use. In Zambia, alcohol and cannabis are the most popular substances used by youth, especially among males. Drug and substance abuse results in, among other things, missed learning opportunities through absenteeism, failure to concentrate, self-motivated premature school drop-out and much else. "Evidence also points to a close relationship between drug abuse and violence, as well as reckless sexual behaviour whose consequences include the spread of STIs, HIV and AIDS, unplanned pregnancies and sexual violence" (MOH, 2008).

Interviews with out of school youth of Mutendere Compound in Lusaka revealed that there is very easy access to alcohol in the area such that children as young as 12 years easily buy cheap alcohol that is packed in sachets. Places for selling alcohol open around 09.00h. Most children especially young boys get used to taking alcohol at a young age and eventually drop out of school.

"Although there are regulations that should guide the selling and buying of alcohol in this area, they are not enforced, young children buy alcohol in sachets and stay away from school." said one of the youth peer educators at Africa Directions, in an interview.

The UNDCP (1997) reports some of the direct consequences of the increase in drug use in Africa as recruitment of dealers, gang involvement, corruption, crime, and the criminalization of young people living in the poorest and most marginalized areas. Currently, there is no data in Zambia that directly links drugs and substance abuse to school drop-out, but it can be implied that gang involvement, involvement in crime and violence would get children out of school.

3.1.12 Disability and Special Education Needs

The Zambian policy document Educating Our Future defines pupils with special educational needs as differing from others in mental, physical or social characteristics to such extend that, for the full development of inherent potential, modification of school provision or practice or special educational services are needed (MESVTEE 1996). While the Zambian policy framework takes into account the needs of children with special need (Educational Reform GRZ 1977: 23, Focus on Learning MESVTEE 1992, and the 1996 Educating Our Future from 1996), disability still remains a barrier to education access.

One of the main reasons why this is the case in Zambia, as elsewhere in the world, is that persons with disabilities are "invisible". Birbeck et al (2006) present the situation in Zambia as follows: "Disabled children are invisible vis-à-vis education due to a number of factors including socio-cultural attitudes such as stigma and fear. Parents of children with disability suffer shame and the children suffer stigmatisation and fear. Child Fund New Zealand (www.childfund.nz 2012) highlights an example in the rural Luangwa District of Zambia where 345 children have been identified with special education needs caused by disability. Currently there are no schools in the area for children with disabilities.

A 2004 study by Paula Onja found that 23 per cent of out of school children in Lusaka were not in school due to disability reasons. In the same year, the Parents Partnership Association for Children with Special Needs conducted a survey in nine wards in Lusaka and they identified 1334 children with disabilities in those wards. Out of the identified children 69.1 per cent were out of school. These wards encompass however only a small amount of the total population of Lusaka. This gives a picture of the magnitude of the problem in Zambia.

Due to the fact that children with special needs are invisible, policies and programming usually overlook them, as Hope Fundafunda of Christian Information Network indicated in an interview: "I work closely with children with hearing impairment; it is frustrating to note all the time how there is no adequate programmes or facilities, or even resources for children with hearing impairment. It's like all the time, when children's programmes are being developed, the deaf are forgotten."

This level of social exclusion leads to exclusion at an operational level-lack of facilities for CSEN; mobility aids; and of coordination across relevant government ministries; perceptions that the education of disabled children will not be productive or cost effective; concerns from parents or teachers that appropriate schooling cannot be provided, and focus on other policy priorities. "Addressing this invisibility requires overcoming barriers that are attitudinal, environmental, legal, institutional and related to a lack of resources" (Bines, 2007, p.13).

According to a report submitted by the YWCA to the Public Hearing on Violence Against Children in Zambia, the YWCA had, by June 2008, received 777 cases of child neglect alone. The panel at the Hearing heard that although most children were vulnerable to being neglected, children with special needs were more at risk of being neglected. This, according to organizations working with such children, has been attributed to the fact that the family and society in general never accept such children. The panel further heard that children with special needs/ disabilities are denied the enjoyment of certain rights such as the right to education.

3.1.13 Over-age

The link between the barrier of age and participation in education has been duly established. Kanyika and Musakanya (2010) in their report for ZANEC on Quality of Basic Education in Zambia state as follows: "Pupils who are relatively of the appropriate age have consistently performed better than any other sub-group in all National Assessment Surveys. This age performance factor is relatively similar at grade 7 where children of the appropriate age appear to perform best of all subgroups." Children who are overage often struggle to enrol in schools due to stigma. If they do manage to enrol, over-age children are more likely to drop out than children who are of the correct age for the grade level (Levin, 2009 as cited by International Save the Children Alliance, 2010). However, parents in Zambia especially in rural areas send children to school at a later age for a number of reasons, ranging from distance to school, weather, (sometimes heavy rains, sometimes very cold weather). Parents feel that children are not safe to be let out to school at a younger age.

Going by the results of the ZDHS of 2007 (see Table 6 and Figure 5) the ANAR for children aged 7 is 46.4. This rises to 68.9 for children aged 8 and 96.4 for those at age 13, the appropriate age for the final primary school grade. These figures imply that as many as 53.6 per cent of children aged 7 and 31.1 per cent of 8 year olds were not able to attend school and those who would attend later would do so as over-age pupils. The Apparent Net Attendance Rate (ANAR) gets high at age 10 (89.8%) meaning that it is only then that a good portion of children of this age are able to attend grades 1 or 2 for which the right age is 7 and 8 respectively. At age 13, when pupils are supposed to complete grade 7, the ANAR is 96.4 per cent, but once again, because of the low attendance rate at age 7, this only implies that there should have

been a considerable number of 13 year olds who were attending class below grade 7 as over-age participants. The problem of over-age in Zambia mostly affects children in Dimensions 4 and 5 and statistics indicate that there are many children in these dimensions who are in wrong grades because of being overage, which by implication means that the barriers of age in Zambia are real and significant. Table 7b shows that on average more than three quarters of lower secondary age pupils (76.9%) were in primary school according to the ZDHS (2007).

3.2 Economic Demand Side

This section analyses the major economic barriers to demand for education services. The study has identified five (5) broad categories of these barriers. These barriers have been explored below in relation to the 5DEs (and key disparities within them) showing available evidence on them as well as their relative weight/impact in relation to other barriers. They include household poverty, direct and indirect costs of schooling, rural/urban residence, and child labour.

3.2.1 Household Poverty

Given the increases in enrolment for primary school following elimination of fees in 2002 (see section 3.2), it is evident that cost was a significant barrier to access for many poor and vulnerable children in Zambia (see Chapter 3 on cost sharing in education provision). The barrier of cost, on the other hand, and not surprisingly, has a disproportionate effect on children coming from poor households, making household poverty itself, together with subsequent pressures on available resources and time, a root determinant of exclusion from education. Statistics and Tables compiled from ZDHS/UNPD (2007) data for the profiles of excluded children in relation to the 5DEs, in Chapter one of this report, demonstrate the extent of disparities between the poorest quintile households and richest quintile households, and the fact that children in all the 5DEs are affected by the barriers of poverty, as follows below:

Dimension 1

The statistics in Table 1 reveal that while 9 per cent of the pre-primary age children attended pre-primary school from the urban households, only 3 per cent did so from the rural areas. It is common knowledge that the majority of the rural population in Zambia is poor. In absolute numbers, almost three times as many children from the urban households were in school compared to those from the rural households. Similarly, the percentage of OOSC from both the urban and rural households is alarmingly high, ranging from a low level of just less than 50 per cent to a high of 83 per cent.

Table 2 further presents the levels of OOSC which are similar among the first three wealth quintiles but drastically different between the 3rd and 4th (almost 18 percentage points) and then even much lower between the 4th and the richest wealth quintile (37 percentage points).These results depict that children of pre-primary school age from poor and middle income families are less likely to attend either pre-primary or primary school. Gender appears consistent and not a significant factor across all wealth quintiles.

Dimensions 2 and 3

Table 3 reveals that there is a significant difference in the OOSC levels of urban and rural areas and between the richest wealth quintile and the rest of the wealth quintiles. For example, the rural areas account for 18.2 per cent of the OOSC while the urban areas only account for 9 per cent which is over twice the proportion represented in the urban areas. Just like in DE1, the pattern of levels of OOSC and wealth is similar among the first two wealth quintiles but drastically different between the 4th and the richest wealth quintile (more than three times in percentage points). In Table 3, the data shows that the percentage of primary school age OOSC (DE2) from the richest quintile is 4.3 per cent while the figure for those from the poorest quintile is 26.9 per cent In table 4(Dimension 3),the percentage of secondary school age OOSC from the richest quintile is 5 per cent while that from the poorest is 19.2 per cent.In absolute terms, there are far more poorest children out of school as there are children from the richest households. The data reveals that it is at the extremes of wealth and poverty that the greatest influence on school attendance occurs, rather than between what maybe generally the lower to middle income and the poorest wealth quintiles.

Dimensions 4 and 5

These two dimensions represent future populations that may be out of school due to current risks that they face. Table 11 shows that the two most urbanized provinces, Lusaka and Copperbelt have the least dropout rates at primary school level (1.2% and 1.5 per cent respectively).

Luapula and Western provinces have the highest dropout rates at 3.1 per cent each. Typically, the rural areas are at most risk of having more children drop out of school in future because they have higher figures comprising the poorest wealth quintiles in comparison to urban areas or urbanized provinces. Similarly, at lower secondary level, Lusaka and Copperbelt have the least dropout rates of 1.5 per cent and 1.7 per cent respectively. Girls are also particularly at risk of dropping out in Northwestern, Northern and Western Provinces.

Repetition rates are also lower for the two urbanized provinces (4.3 and 4.8%) and marginally higher for the rest of the provinces, particularly the rural regions of Southern, Northwestern, Northern, Eastern and Western provinces where the repetition rates are at least twice more than Lusaka and Copperbelt provinces. Southern Province has the highest repetition rate in Zambia at 10.5 per cent, followed by Northwestern and Northern at 10.2 per cent and 9.8 per cent respectively. In terms of transition rates (Table 15), the lowest rates are recorded in Eastern (41.9%) and Northern Province at 47.1 per cent.

3.2.2 Poor Health (Lack of adequate food and nutrition)

As a complication of household poverty, families in Zambia suffer poor nutrition and food insecurity. Child ill-health and the ill-health of family members are significant determinants of absenteeism and withdrawal from school, both of which factors can be precursors to dropping out. As a result of absenteeism and temporal withdrawals due to poor health, children can fall behind at school and find it difficult to readjust on returning. Ill-health can also make it impossible for children to enter school altogether.

Food and nutrition are critical for the wellbeing of the child. Hunger and malnutrition can grossly affect learning achievement. In the case of malnutrition which results in children being stunted, it can also lead to failure to enrol at the right age and make it even more complicated for a child to do well in school and complete the prescribed cycle of education. Despite this acknowledgement "the nutrition situation in Zambia has remained poor and may continue to deteriorate if corrective actions are not urgently taken", (MOH, 2008). According to the National Health Policy of 2008, 28 per cent of children under five years old are underweight (MOH, 2008). From the results of the National Food and Nutrition Commission 2003 National Vitamin A Impact Study, 54 per cent of children between 6 – 59 months have Vitamin A deficiency and 53 per cent have iron deficiency anemia. On the evidence of these statistics, the problem of nutrition is a major health barrier to child education in Zambia. And since the problem mainly affects very young children and particularly infants, its impacts are likely to be highest in Dimensions 1, 2 and 4 in that order. Although the study did not capture data that shows how many children dropped out because of malnutrition related health problems, the fact that it is such a significant problem in Zambia indicates that some children may have dropped out or never enrolled due to that fact.

3.2.3 Direct and Indirect Cost of Schooling

As previously stated, the results of the abolition of school fees and examination fees, and the decision to make wearing of school uniforms optional following the introduction of the Free Basic Education Policy (FBE) catering for grade 1 -7, do demonstrate the reality and greatness of cost as a barrier to children accessing education in Zambia. After the FBE Policy came into effect, enrolment for grades 1 – 7 rose by 1,091,795 from 1,908,205 in 2002 to 3, 000, 000 in 2008. Over the same period, the completion rate increased by 30.41 percentage points from 64.3 per cent to 94.71 (MESVTEE, ESB, 2009). The MESVTEE Annual Progress Report 2009 further notes that the enrolment for grades 1 – 7 remained over 10 percentage points higher for the period 2005 – 2009 when compared to the 1990s records.

In addition to the direct cost of school, there are indirect costs that equally impinge negatively on children getting into school or remaining there. These indirect costs include uniforms, stationery, other learning materials and transportation (the latter is particularly a daily constraint for many children in urban and peri-urban areas). The Jesuit Centre for Theological Reflection and other stakeholders questioned how free "free education" is in Zambia. In the independent analysis that these stakeholders made, they identified factors such as inadequate clothing and lack of money to buy school supplies as specific reasons for non-enrolment and dropout. The study "How Free is Free Education: The Cost of Education in Lusaka" by Petrauski's and Nkunika (2006) found that indirect costs of education at primary level were more than four (4) times the direct costs. The meaning of this finding is that although the Government of the Republic of Zambia

has, through the FBE Policy, removed school fees (direct costs), significant cost barriers and bottlenecks to both access and retention remains in the form of indirect costs. It can be concluded that the children in DEs 3 and 5 are the most impacted by the barrier of cost in view of the fact that the direct costs have been removed in their case.

3.2.4 Rural/Urban Residence

The barrier to access that living in a rural area erects is pronounced across all the 5DEs, with the most impacted group being children in Dimension 1 followed by those in Dimension 2, in terms of the percentage of children within a given age or grade boundary who are negatively affected as opposed to those who are not. The statistics and Tables which this study has come up with using the ZDHS/UNDP (2007) data set, reveal the extent to which the barrier of rural urban residence affects access and retention of children in school across the 5DEs as follows below. The disparity between rural and urban comes to play because most of the barriers and bottlenecks are stronger in the rural than in the urban such as distance to school, insufficient trained teachers, domestic work, household poverty, food insecurity and many others.

Dimension 1

The statistics in figure 2 and Table 2 show that almost 44 per cent of pre-primary age children living in urban areas were out of school, while the rural areas had 80 percent. The absolute figures of OOSC that the per centile figures represent betray an even more revealing picture of the disparity. They show that there were more than twice as many rural children out of school as those residing in urban areas.

Dimension 2 and 3

In Table 3, the statistics show that there is a stark difference between the levels of OOSC children in rural and urban regions (9% and 23% respectively).This is more than double the proportion of OOSC in urban areas and can be attributed to rural urban disparities such as access to resources and services. Additionally, schools in urban settings receive a slighter bigger share of the education investment budget compared to schools in rural settings. Gender gaps across regions do not appear to be significant up to the age of 13.In DE3, the gender gap varies considerably across urban and rural areas, with differences of 4.8 and 7.5 percentage points respectively. As figure 6 reveals gender gaps at the level of OOSC in DE3 is in favour of boys and is more pronounced in Northern, Luapula and Northwestern provinces. The gender gap and the differences of OOSC between male and female rises considerably with age beyond the 13 year mark in favour of boys.

Dimension 4 and 5

From the figures in Tables 11-17, Lusaka and Copperbelt provinces have the lowest dropout rates at 1.2 per cent and 15 per cent respectively. Similarly, Copperbelt and Lusaka also have the least repetition rates at 3.6 per cent and 3.8 per cent.The dropout rates for most of the rural regions ranges from 2.2 per cent to 3.1per cent, more than three times the proportion of the two most urbanized provinces. Similarly, repetition rates in the rural regions also range from 7.2 per cent to 9.5 per cent, three times more than the two most urbanized provinces. The results also reveal that boys are more likely to repeat than girls, with higher repetition rates for boys in all nine provinces. The pattern for early childhood development and preparedness are also much more visible in urban regions than rural ones. For example, Lusaka and Copperbelt which also have the lowest rates of repetitions and dropouts have the highest proportions of primary school entrants with pre-school experience (39.2% and 29.3%). This is in contrast with for example the two rural regions of Western and Northern that have 5 per cent and 6.2 per cent respectively, more than 6 times in the percentage proportion.

3.2.5 Child Labour

Poverty influences the demand for schooling, not only because it affects the inability of households to pay school fees and other costs associated with education, but also because it is associated with a high opportunity cost of schooling for children. As children grow older, the opportunity cost of education is even larger, hence increasing the pressure for children to work and earn income for the household as opposed to spending time in education.

In Zambia, like elsewhere, involvement in work appears to interfere both with children's ability to attend school and to perform effectively underscoring the importance of child labour as a barrier to achieving Education For All (UCW, 2009 and 2012). According to UCW calculations based on the Zambia Labour Force survey, 2005, school attendance of working children lags behind that of their non-working

counterparts at every age, by more than 10 percentage points for lower secondary age children. Factors such as location (urban/rural); gender, type of work; opportunity cost; household context and income; length of work engagements and age influence whether children dropout of school to work (Consortium for Research on Education, Access, Transitions & Equity, Policy Brief Number 8, 2009).

Working children have challenges with concentrating in class and performing well, because they always have divided attention and are most of the times exhausted. Children also miss classes if they need to work on a school day as a teacher at Namulonga basic school in Mazabuka indicated in an interview:

"in low income families, children especially boys are encouraged to pick up casual jobs such as sugarcane cutting to enhance their families' income. Working children like this are usually exhausted and have divided attention both in school and at home."

The other challenge in context of working children is that their parents are more interested in the job they are doing to bring money home, than in their education. This is mostly the case for boys in female headed households, so children lose motivation and encouragement and eventually drop out (UCW, 2009).

3.3. Supply Side

As already intimated, there are many factors associated with drop out, while some are at the individual or family level affecting demand for education services, some factors are to so with the education delivery system. Some challenges or issues within the delivery system have potential to keep children away from school as will be discussed below. The most prevalent supply side barriers and bottlenecks identified in Zambia's education system are as follows:- insufficient school places, overcrowding in schools, insufficient number of trained teachers and poor conditions of service for them, inadequate supply of teaching/learning materials, limited educational facilities, overcrowded curriculum, inadequate school health programmes, insufficient school grants and poor school management (MLSS: NAP, 2011, p.18, ZCSD; 2010:13). In relation to access and equity and to OOSC (main focus of this study), the foregoing factors represent some of the most critical supply side challenges that need to be addressed through policy reform and budgetary interventions (see Chapter 3).

3.3.1 Insufficient School Places and Overcrowding in Schools

Insufficient school places and overcrowding in schools is one of the key factors on the supply side that negatively affects access to education in Zambia. Many children who are old enough to enter Grade 1 do not have the opportunity to enrol because there are insufficient places' (ibid, p.13), the latter was highlighting the challenge caused mainly by over-crowded classrooms and the double, triple and quadruple sessions that have reduced class learning time below acceptable limits (opcit, p.26). In their 2008 District Profiles, the MESVTEE showed that in a sample of 50 schools in rural remote districts, teacher-pupil ratios were extremely high (above the 1:40 norm) and about which the following conclusions were made:

a) In a school with a PTR of 60 or less, learning is possible;
b) In a school with a PTR of more than 60, learning is difficult; and,
c) In a school with a PTR of 120 or more, learning is nearly impossible.

Majority of the identified schools were found to lie within the range of b) and c) above i.e. entertaining ratios of between 1:61 and 1:120 on the average. According to the World Bank report released in 2011, the Pupil-teacher ratio; primary in Zambia was last reported at 58.00 in 2010, against the MESVTEE standard of 1:40. Insufficient school places and over-crowding in schools are serious barriers and bottlenecks to provision of education (see Chapter 3 for more statistics) as evidenced by a qualitative study by Terefe and Mengstu in 1997 which confirms that school crowding and teacher apathy further contributed to violent behaviors in schools which resulted in school high levels of dropout (Terefe and Mengistu 1997). According to the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring and Educational Quality (SACMEQ) 2011 policy brief, in relation to class size, lower values are desirable for better quality education. It is thought that, to a certain limit, lower values on this indicator are associated with more interaction between teachers and pupils, resulting in better quality education. Class size is also a key indicator for checking if expansion in participation rates is accompanied by adequate provision of classrooms. The recommended

class size for primary schools in Zambia is 40 pupils per class.

In addition, insufficient school place lead to high school drop out at the level of progress from primary school to secondary. This is because there is not enough places to take all the primary school leavers to secondary school. As a result, all of the pupils who do not progress from primary to secondary school either drop out of school completely or they repeat. If they repeat for more than twice, they get frustrated and drop out.

Progression to secondary school (%) in Zambia was 66.61 as of 2008. Its highest value over the past 10 years was 69.88 in 2007, while its lowest value was 31.20 in 1998.

3.3.2 Insufficient Supply of Trained Teachers and Poor Conditions of Service

The role of teachers, in relation to provision of education to vulnerable children, is critical. This is so because, as the IOB report (2008) puts it, meaningful access to school, school quality and learning achievement (among others) relate directly to the role played by teachers, educational materials, infrastructure and management. Availability of well-trained motivated teachers also motivates children to participate and enjoy education. In circumstances where teachers are not adequately available and/ or not adequately trained and skilled to teach, with limited learning materials and under-qualified teachers, children do not enjoy schooling and end up dropping out, (Alexander 2008). In Zambia, this situation is real and has resulted in substantial rates of drop out and non-completion of primary school many children are leaving schooling without acquiring the most basic skills. (Little, 2008). As a result, many children are registered in schools but fail to attend, participate but fail to learn, are enrolled for several years but fail to progress and drop out from school.

As at 2009, primary school teacher learner ratio was at 1: 55 on the average, well above the national norm of 1: 40 (MESVTEE data). And as already indicated at the beginning of this Section, the same could even climb to 1:200 in some rural schools. A more recent case (reported in the *Post Newspapers* dated 29/10/2011, in Eastern Province, showed a school headed by one teacher and having to teach more than 300 children. But to actually afford 'enough' teachers at any one time could even be more complex for as the IOB Study observed, Zambia would need about 80,000 teachers (60,865 registered as at 2009) to teach the 3.2 million children enrolled in basic schools. This is not taking into account the fact that community schools still rely on volunteer teachers and that this is in spite of the fact that teacher training institutions are churning out between 4000 to 5000 teachers every year (MESVTEE, ESBs). Also, one would conclude that there would be no further increase in enrolment. But as was the case in 2005, teachers increased by 37 per cent well behind the increase in enrolment of 58 per cent during the same period (IOB, 2008). The same report notes further that Zambia had (by 2005) 7 per cent of all teachers as untrained while the vast majority of them (68 per cent) possessed a primary teachers' certificate.

As regards evidence on teacher deployment and distribution, the number of female teachers in the most urbanised provinces of Lusaka and the Copperbelt is reported to be nearly twice that of male teachers. The latter are in the majority in the remaining seven provinces (MESVTEE: ESBs). This has led to concentration of teachers in the urban areas, depriving the rural areas of the most needed teachers, thereby increasing the PTR. Females, according to the MESVTEE, are especially desired in rural areas so that they can inspire and serve as counsellors and role-models to the girls.

3.3.3. Limited Educational Facilities in School

The IOB Impact Evaluation: Primary Education in Zambia (No. 312, April 2008) indicated that the country has a backlog (gap) of 56,000 primary school classrooms to meet the standard set for pupil classroom ratio of 40:1. Numerous reports have over the years, suggested that inadequacy of such critical facilities in school as running water (and sanitation), electricity, desks, libraries, workshops and laboratories, etc., seriously compromise the quality of education and negatively affect learners' comfort and welfare in Zambia (ZANEC, FAWEZA, CAMFED, ZNUT) while at the same time making the learning process gravitate towards academicism rather than towards inquiry, experimentation and practicality. In this regard, the 2004 High School Review Team, in their preliminary report, observed:

"When there is almost total absence of high quality, relevant teaching and learning materials and equipment in sufficient numbers to enable teachers to improve their classroom teaching performance, that situation:- a)

influences teaching styles towards the dominance of teacher input/chalk and talk/giving and taking of notes with limited meaningful retention by pupils; and b) lead to extremely limited learning of any significant kind" (HSRT report 2004, p. 8).

The disparities between urban and rural areas with regard to non-existence of critical educational facilities (see details in Chapter 3) are very significant. What is fundamental to note is the fact that limited educational materials gets both teachers and children de-motivated, and children eventually gravitate towards the easier solution which is dropping out, (IOB Report 2008).

3.3.4 Inadequate Supply of Teaching/Learning Materials

According to the IOB Impact Evaluation report (2008), teaching and learning materials, together with the building of schools and classrooms, contribute significantly to the improvement of access, equity and learning achievement. The MESVTEE on its part has recognised that "…the lack of insufficient educational materials has also [among other things] contributed to the low quality of education" (MESVTEE: NIF 2008-2010, p. 16).

In their study involving a sample of between 350-400 basic schools, the Zambia National Assessment Survey report (NAS) 2008), found that less than 3 per cent of the teachers reported having a book for each pupil in English, Maths and a Zambian language. Their report adds:- "The evidence provided in this assessment…suggests that not having even a core textbook to share works against pupils' performance…There is need for massive investments in educational materials that support core learning" p.85). In actual fact, both the IOB and the NAS reports observed that, on average, book-learner ratios were much better in private schools than in government and community schools, and that learner achievement was equally better there than among the latter.

In relation to DEs 4 and 5, the most vulnerable children i.e. those in community schools are more likely to depend on teachers' lecture notes than their counterparts in private and public funded schools. The situation is even worse when it comes to other teaching requisites such as equipment, industrial charts, chalkboards, etc.

3.3.5 Inadequate School Health and Nutritional Interventions

Research indicates that school-aged children who suffer from protein-energy malnutrition, hunger, or who lack certain micronutrients in their diet do not have the same potential for learning as healthy and well-nourished children (Pridmore, 2007). Studies suggest that these children attend school less frequently, are more likely to repeat grades, drop out early and fail to learn adequately due to poor levels of attention, low motivation and poor cognitive function (Pollitt, 1990; Grantham- McGregor & Walker, 1998; Rosso & Marek, 1996 cited in Pridmore, 2007). Irregular attendance is often the result of children's health problems (Batbaatar et al, 2006; Boyle et al, 2002; Colclough et al, 2000; Fentiman et al, 1999; Porteus et al, 2000). Whilst many students are often able to return to school, there are issues associated with long absences and reintegration, such as catching up with the other students. The PROBE report (1999: 33) highlights the link between illness-related absence and drop out, as 'resuming studies after a prolonged absence can be difficult'. Indeed, health problems were given as the reason for drop out by around a quarter of respondents (Batbaatar, et al, 2006) in areas of high-out-migration (usually poor and rural).

The FNDP further states that many children go to school hungry and are unable to concentrate; thus their performance drops. In the worst affected parts of the country, school or community feeding programmes seem to have increased attendance. The School Health and Nutrition (SHN) pilots in Eastern province have proved effective, and are now being scaled out to other provinces. (Ministry of Finance and National Planning, 2006)

Robinson 2004 reports that the SHN pilot component has demonstrably improved the health of Zambian school children. It has decreased instances of bilharzia infections and increased iron and vitamin A intake to strengthen children's immune systems and combat anaemia. These health improvements have led to increased enrolment, attendance, and performance of students receiving the interventions in school. Other evaluations and surveys also demonstrated that pupils in the participating schools (schools undertaking the SHN intervention) had lower absenteeism rates due to illness from bilharzia, which probably contributed to improved cognitive test scores. The component's implementation in Eastern Province

shows how a careful mix of health interventions at the primary school level can significantly improve pupils' health status and learning ability at the same time, (Robison, 2004). While this is the case, the pilot programme was faced with a number of challenges such as lack of cohesive structures for coordinating activities, and lack of a robust monitoring and evaluation system, resulting in the fragmented implementation of the various components" (MESVTEE: 2007). This challenges need to be addressed as the programme scales up to the other provinces. Below is a case study highlighting the impact of SHN in Zambia;

Africa Education Initiative (AEI) Success Story – School Health and Nutrition in Zambia

Precious Banda is a grade six pupil in a Chipata District Basic School who was viewed by her teachers as a quiet girl who participated little in school and often fell asleep at her desk. She was also frequently absent. When she was in school she was usually found on the sidelines in school sports activities. When the school began participating in the pilot School Health and Nutrition (SHN) interventions, a sample of pupils were tested for worms and bilharzia. Precious was among those tested and was found positive for bilharzia and roundworms.

The bilharzia rate in the district was found to be very high with some schools having a 70 per cent positive rate. Precious received treatment for bilharzia and worms and was also given Vitamin A and started on a ten-week course of iron supplementation. Several weeks after the treatment program, SHN program staff interviewed the headmaster and class teachers as part of the monitoring process. The headmaster immediately recalled how Precious, in particular, was like a new person. She was now active in class, frequently raising her hand to answer questions instead of sleeping or staying away from school; her participation in sports had also improved. The class teachers were also enthusiastic about the effect of the SHN program, noting the general level of performance after the mass treatment of the entire school was undertaken. Precious is just one example of how immediate and dramatic the impact of the SHN program has been.

Teachers, parents, and the whole community have observed the positive effects. The impact is equally important for the MESVTEE Provincial and district staff who see the results and are responsible for supporting and sustaining the program over time. Word of the change in Precious and other pupils has spread rapidly throughout communities, and now there is a demand for treatment by others, even among children not attending school. The success achieved so far should have a very positive effect on parents encouraging school attendance. Other districts have also heard of the success of the SHN pilot activities and are now asking when their districts will be included in the program. (USAID and Monitoring and Evaluation for the African Bureau Education Division, 2005).

3.3.6 Poor School Management

The last management training programme that the MESVTEE implemented was in the 2010. The Education Management Training programme (EMT) as it is called, was targeted at heads of schools to enable them collect data and keep proper school records. They were also expected to inspire and motivate staff to perform efficiently, institute professional discipline by reducing cases of abuse and violence in schools, as well as absenteeism and late-coming among learners and teachers, and improve learning achievement. Otherwise, the position of school headship in Zambia is promotional and based on teacher seniority rather than training or managerial competence. Indeed, the current situation acts as a barrier in the Zambian context for as the MESVTEE/EQUIP 2 preliminary report put it:

- Administrative and managerial skills are lacking in the majority of teachers sampled on record keeping and supervising teachers to ensure the provision of opportunities to learn on a daily basis.
- Record keeping was found to be one factor that does not only affect opportunities to learn but also delayed the collection of data for this study as head teachers, deputy heads and even senior teachers were mobilized in some schools to help locate attendance registers for pupils and teachers' log-in registers. In the absence of such records, it was impossible to find out which teachers were late, away from school with or without permission for the two weeks as required in the head teacher questionnaire. The finding is in agreement with other findings from research conducted by MESVTEE that many head teachers do not have educational leadership and management skills (Simui et al, 2011).
- Monitoring and assessing the delivery of education by standards officers is absent and this may have adverse

consequences on opportunities to learn as there is no quality assurance. Over 150 schools visited had not been visited by any standards officer during this current year and the trend was the same in the past three years.

The real losers, in as far as quality learning is concerned are the children in all the 5 Dimensions of Exclusion because as already established above, de-motivated teachers lead to unexciting lessons and frustrated children, eventually, high absenteeism and high school drop-out.

3.4 Political, Governance, Capacity and Financial Bottlenecks

3.4.1 Political

The Political environment in Zambia supports increased access to education as evidenced by the commitments made by the Government, notably the EFA and the MDGs. However, there are still some political barriers that are significant. For instance, in relation to children in D1 of Exclusion access to ECCE has, for a long time, been governed by the 1957 Nurseries Act which largely placed the responsibility for education delivery at that level in the hands of the family rather than of the public domain. This means that the state has not made ECCE available to the majority of Zambian children or only indirectly allowed those who can afford it to access the same in private institutions. This changed in 2011 after the enactment of the new Act.

According to the Ministry of Education's 2010 report on the evaluation of the re-entry policy, on the pregnancy and re-admission to school trends between 2002 and 2009 in Basic Schools, of the total 3,663 girls who fell pregnant in 2002, only 1,322 were re-admitted against 13,634 who fell pregnant in 2009 in comparison with 5, 517 re-admissions in the same year. The study also revealed glaring regional variations in the school re-entry rates, with Luapula Province having the highest and Copperbelt Province recording the lowest. It documented age differences in re-entry, with older girls being more likely to re-enter school after giving birth than younger ones.

An evaluation of the best practices of the re-entry programme by FAWEZA (2004) states that The re-entry programme in Zambia, though embedded in a strongly supportive environment with policies such as Free Primary Education, Education for All programmes, policy on gender sensitive school environment, gender training for teachers, HIV/AIDS and life skills education, etc., still has many gaps particularly in its implementation strategies which include the following:

- Girls are given only one chance. The girl who becomes pregnant a second time is not accepted back into the formal education system, although it is possible for her to continue her education through night school. Boys, on the other hand, are free to father as many children as they like. The same limit should be imposed on them.
- A bursary scheme has not been put in place to support teen mothers.

- There is inadequate psycho-social counselling is important. Each school should have a teacher who is able to counsel the girls. It is important to get close to the girls so that teachers know when a girl's attention is wandering because her child is sick, or she has no one to leave her child with. At the moment, only girls are counselled. The boys who are responsible are not counselled. It is important to counsel the boys as well.

- Guideline for collecting data on pregnant schoolgirls and on re-entrants should be developed, as well as an instrument for monitoring re-entry. The Ministry should stress the need for schools to supply data to the Ministry. Moreover, the School Guidance Department should help find school places for girls who wish to transfer to other schools as this can help them avoid stigmatization from other pupils when the return to the same schools they were at before they fail pregnant which leads to drop out. Information on cases of re-entrants are never kept up-to-date and are never submitted to the Ministry of Education.

- There is no tracer system in place so that the girls who do not return after their leave are followed up. Girls who drop out a second time who should be investigated are never investigated so as to find out what led to their dropping out.

3.4.2 Governance

The Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP) in Zambia was launched in October 1994. In 2008, Public Service Management was assessed in order to determine its contribution to improvements in service delivery. The following conclusion was drawn from the assessment: *"In 2008, a review of the PSRP, indicated that there was little overall impact on the quality of service delivery to the people of Zambia in terms of timeliness, accessibility, coverage, accountability and scope" (PSMD Report, July 2011).*

In the Education Sector, an independent review (2006) of the MESVTEE Sector Plan (2008-2010) observed that "the MESVTEE is currently centralised in its functions at Headquarters which is not in line with the decentralisation and liberalisation policy". The report further observed, among other things, that:- decision-making and responsibility had not yet been devolved to the district level; structures for coordination and monitoring of intra and inter sectoral system(s) performance were weak, and that the lines of reporting and answerability still reflected authority of the permanent secretary rather than the participatory mechanisms at lower levels.

In a highly centralised system like the one described above, it is unlikely that the involvement of parents/ guardians (at community level) in the education of their children can be facilitated. In their quest to identify and document good and innovative educational practices for OOSC in Luapula Province (2008), a Local Community Labour Committee (working in conjunction with ILO) discovered that children were failing to access school or dropped out because parents in the area had negative attitudes towards schooling. In order to make the latter see the importance and benefits of education, a role model (among them) who had experienced similar socio-economic hardships in life was identified. He/she then told the others about the 'school road that they had travelled' to get to where they were. This was done in order to motivate them to send their children to school. Further, a day was selected (for parents whose children had dropped out or were at risk of dropping out of school) for them to get into a local school and actually work with teachers in typical classroom activities.

It is reported that by 2010, enrolments had increased and school attendance improved in the pilot areas while a reduction in child labour and early marriages was recorded and their understanding improved (ILO: Identification and Documentation of Good Practices in Zambia, 2010 p. 48). This community level approach to dealing with issues of access and participation in education by vulnerable children, would most likely be more effective than the use of directives through administrative circulars from the headquarters. This would be true for all the 5 Dimensions of Exclusion.

3.4.3 Capacity and Minimum Standards

The study identified inadequate capacity as a barrier to education. Specific capacity gaps identified were the following: Inadequate human capital (human resource other than teachers, with requisite technical skills and competencies) for the effective running of the school system; inadequate state of the art physical infrastructure (buildings, transport, ICTs, etc.); weak management information systems; and lack of organisational capacity between key players and stakeholders to address the problem of OOSC. The IFC survey on private schools in Zambia (2008) for example, notes that a lot of private schools leave much to be desired in the area of provision of quality education partly because of lack of oversight from the MESVTEE. This is due to lack of capacity to inspect the schools. The report identifies lack of inspectors, transport, ICTs and other resources as obstacles to effective provision, as well as delivery of education in the public schools. Chapter 4 of this report indicates that mechanisms for inter-sectoral coordination between the education Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education and other ministries and stakeholder institutions are weak. This means that there is inadequate organisational capacity in the country to sustainably deal with the challenge of OOSC, including those children who are in school but at risk of dropping out.

3.4.4. Financing

Critical to budgeting and resource allocation are the mechanisms for actual releases or disbursement of funds and their management and monitoring to ensure that they reach the intended beneficiaries (CSPR: 2010 report, p. 20). In highly centralised situations like the one already alluded to above, accountability could be much more challenging than in one where the beneficiaries are involved and are aware of what is due for them.

Besides, centralised systems are more likely to favour 'generic' allocations than the equity-based approaches which target specific groups of beneficiaries. The latter would make accountability and monitoring easier as well as reduce 'leakages' of resources meant for the vulnerable groups in society. This is especially so in the case of children in the 5 Dimensions of Exclusion (see Chapter 3 for details).

Table 18: Key education expenditure indicators

Education spending, general	2010	2009	2008	2007	2006
Total Public Expenditure on education as percentage of GDP	4.37	3.67	4.36	4.05	3.61
Total expenditure on education as percentage of total government expenditure	20.17	17.12	19.37	19.11	18.3
Primary (and pre-primary) education expenditure as percentage of total government expenditure	9.95	9.33	8.84	6.98	8.33
Total Public expenditure per student					
Spending per student as percentage of GDP per capita-pre-primary, primary, lower secondary(1-9)	8.0	7.7	7.6	5.7	6.6
Spending per student as percentage of GDP per capita-Secondary (10-12)	24.0	23.3	21.5	17.7	24.3
Spending per student (PPP US$) – pre-Primary, primary and lower secondary	341	257	332	240	240
Spending per student (PPP US$) Secondary (10-12)	1,020	778	940	746	884
Nature of education expenditure					
Expenditure on salaries (all staff) primary	-	-	-	-	-
Expenditure on total current – Pre-primary, primary and lower secondary (Zambian Kwacha)	1,674,261.70 (EST)	1,293,938.70	1,091,224	683,138.00	664,195.44
Expenditure on salaries, all staff-Secondary	-	-	-	-	-
Expenditure on total current-Secondary (Grades 10-12)- (Zambian Kwacha)	1,116,459.9 (EST)	591,714.90	930,704	897,430	516,922.40

As can be seen in the tablet above, there has been sustained increase in public expenditure on education at this level (grades 1-9). And with the implementation of the Free Basic Education Policy and abolition of user fees in 2002, government experienced real pressure to increase funding to education, as well as ensure that resources reached the poor and vulnerable children especially in rural areas.

The foregoing suggests that in order for political, managerial and budgetary decisions to benefit the school children and keep them in school, capacity for policy implementation and involvement of stakeholders in decision-making needs to be enhanced; not only at district or school levels but also at community level, through 'decentralised' partnerships. This is so because the category of barriers and bottlenecks dealt with under the present Section are, by their nature, fundamental and could, therefore, have a greater impact on vulnerability than the demand side socio-cultural and the economic demand and supply sides barriers and bottlenecks.

3.5 Analytical Summary

This chapter has discussed the barriers and bottlenecks to access, participation in and completion of primary and lower secondary education. The specific barriers and bottlenecks have been analysed in five sub-sections as follows: Socio-cultural demand side; Economic demand side; Supply side; Political governance capacity, and financing.

On the socio-cultural side, it has been found that gender is a very significant factor in understanding barriers to access and participation in education. Although sometimes hidden behind the façade of positive indicators such as the ANER and GPI, singled out in the preceding paragraph, it is still a relevant factor that interact with and exacerbates all other barriers and bottlenecks. Gender

interacts with other barriers such as poverty, division of labour at household level and other social factors. In this study, three gender dynamics of society and the education system are briefly explored below to help explain gender as a barrier in accessing education in Zambia. Some of the factors that are exacerbated by gender are:

i. Early sexual debut and intergenerational sex
ii. Teenage Pregnancies
iii. Sexual abuse
iv. Early marriages
v. Opportunity Cost Associated With Girls' School Attendance
vi. Girl – Unfriendly School Structures
vii. Gendered Roles and Responsibilities

The study has also found that violence against children whether domestic or at school is one of the socio-cultural factors that cause drop out. Other socio-cultural factors affecting demand for education as alcohol abuse among youths, disability owing to the fact that there is stigma that children with special needs suffer as well as lack of adequate services and facilities for CSEN in Zambia. The study also established the link between over-age and participation in education, highlighting that children who are overage drop out due to stigma.

The economic factors that affect demand for education and are discussed in this report include household poverty which leads to inability to afford the direct and indirect costs of schooling, poor health (lack of adequate food and nutrition), rural/urban residence and child labour.

As already intimated, there are many factors associated with drop out, while some are at the individual or family level affecting demand for education services, some factors are to so with the education delivery system. Some challenges or issues within the delivery system have potential to keep children away from school as found in this study include the following: insufficient school places and overcrowding in schools; insufficient supply of trained teachers and poor Conditions of Service; limited educational facilities in schools; inadequate supply of teaching/learning materials ;inadequate school health and nutritional interventions; poor school management; capacity and minimum standards; and inadequate financing and poor management of finances for educational resource.

CHAPTER 3
EDUCATIONAL POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

CHAPTER THREE: EDUCATIONAL POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

This chapter presents and analyses education policies and strategies in Zambia and interrogates the extent to which these policies and interventions address the barriers and bottlenecks to access to education in Zambia. The chapter further assesses the extent to which these policies and strategies mitigate the risks of some children who are at risk of dropping out of school.

The Zambian education system has over the years been guided by a number of policies which were developed and implemented in order to support the achievement of its education priorities and targets. *The analysis of* these policies will respond to the subcategories of the barriers and bottlenecks identified in chapter 2 as follows:

a. Socio-cultural demand side: These are policies and strategies that address socio-cultural factors that affect demand for access to and participation in education activities

b. Economic Demand side: These are policies and strategies that address economic factors that affect the demand for access to and participation in education activities

c. Supply side: These are policies and strategies that affect supply of education services and facilities eventually leading to low access to and participation in education activities.

d. Management and governance

e. Budgeting and finance

4.1 Detailed policy analysis

4.1.1 Policies and Strategies Addressing Socio-Cultural Demand-Side.

These are policies that aim at improving access to and participation in education by socio-cultural barriers to demand for education.

4.1.1.1 Early Child Hood Policy

The authority to include ECCDE and make it as part of the formal education system was only granted in 2004, formalised in the new 2011 Education ACT and made a responsibility of local government in 2011. Until 2011, their participation in learning was regulated by the Nurseries ACT of 1957. According to the latter, education for the children of this age was the responsibility of families, local communities, councils and private individuals, not the public service (MESVTEE: Educational Reform, 1977). And since socialisation and the inculcation of diverse traditional values start early in life, it would be assumed that by not formalising this level of learning, the majority of children in the country were denied access to systematic intellectual stimulation and growth, emotional maturity and skills development at an early age.

However, as earlier alluded to, no new policy direction has yet been given, to the extent that the curriculum has remained fragmented, with no system for standards monitoring and supervision in place, while 'pre-schooling' or preparation of children for entry to grade 1 (for those who manage to access this level of education), has continued to take precedence over and above the more comprehensive early learning experience (MESVTEE: NIF 2008 – 10). The findings of this study, as shown below are therefore a reflection mainly of the current ECCDE policy gap.

a) **Strategies/analysis**

Early Childhood Care and Development Education (DE1)

According to Table 1, the proportion of pre-primary aged children attending pre-primary level of education (as expected) is less (at 4.4% for male and 5% for female) than that of those attending primary school (at 25.5% for male and 27.2% for female respectively).The Table further indicates that among the urban households, the percentage of boys and girls of pre-primary age attending primary school exceeds by far the percentage of boys and girls of pre-primary age attending pre-primary in the rural areas(47% and 17.9% respectively).The national average of children of the right age attending pre-primary school is only 4.7 per cent while 26.4 per cent of the children of pre-primary age are attending primary school, almost 6 times of the proportion of children of pre-primary age are a year ahead in their education progression.

This may imply that grade 1 entry age of seven years is perceived by many to be late. Thus, the observed practice

on the ground calls for a policy change from the primary school entry-age in grade 1 of seven years to six years. So far, there isn't sufficient evidence to suggest that six year olds attending grade 1 class are in any way disadvantaged when compared to the seven year olds. This change would still be consistent with the ISCED standards where level one entry point ranges from no younger than five to not older than seven. Accordingly, pre-primary level schooling would be for children aged five and below.

4.1.1.2 Gender in Education Policy

This is a policy that aims at providing equal access to education to all the people of Zambia including all children and adults while encompassing issues of gender, education equality, as well as the quality of education.

a) **Objectives**

i) To achieve gender balance in educational institutions and within the educational system
ii) To ensure that female students are integrated with males as equal beneficiaries and participants at all levels of education.
iii) To encourage the participation of girls in science and technology

b) **Strategies /analysis**

Community mobilisation and awareness raising on education and gender, and piloting interventions that improve access, retention, completion and achievement, became real concerns for the MESVTEE in the 1990s. For instance, by 1996, selection of entrants to Grades 8 and 10 had to be on a 1:1 girl-boy ratio (MESVTEE: 1997). This gender sensitive entry strategy was aimed at benefiting the girl child aged between seven and ten years, and officially attending Grades 1 to 4.

When the current situation, as regards gender parity is compared to the period before and after this strategy, we see that the enrolment of boys in primary education in 1996 was 9 per cent higher than the enrolment of girls. In 2002 this figure had been reduced to 7 per cent and to 4 per cent in 2005 (IOB Study; 2008). The impact of this strategy is seen by the fact that the most recent DHS data, as shown in Table 1, indicates that when it comes to making a decision to send children to school, parents/ guardians do not discriminate against the girl child. For instance, even among children from the poorest families of pre-primary age, the percentage of girls attending pre-primary and primary is higher (5% and 27.2%) than it is for the boys (4.4% and 25.5%).In actual fact, gender parity is also reflected in both primary and lower secondary i.e. when enrolment is used as a proxy for measuring gender participation in education (see figure 12).

Evidently, the gender-sensitive entry strategy has proved to be a success and should be sustained to focus on prevention of pregnancies and early marriage and improvement of girls' retention and learning achievement.

4.1.1.3 Abolition of the Grade 9 Cut-off Point (Dimensions of Exclusion 4 and 5)

The abolition of the cut-off point was aimed at ensuring that a lot of pupils proceed to Grade 10, thereby drastically reducing the number of drop outs at Grade 9. For example, in 2007 before the removal of the cut-off point, the national pass percentage was 37.15 per cent. However, after the removal of the cut-off point in 2008, the national pass percentage rose to 48.57 per cent giving a national progression rate of 11.42 per cent. It was envisaged that with the increased number of Grade 10 places, numbers of drop outs at grade 9 would significantly reduce, and this was proved right, (Zambian Parliament, 2009).

The number of children passing the grade 7 examination during the BESSIP period up to 2000 and admitted to grade 8, increased by 21 per cent while pass rates increased from 37 per cent to 50 per cent. The effect of the increase in enrolment during transition period from BESSIP to FBE policy in 2002, also resulted in a 'growing number of children taking grade 7 examination; to an extent that by 2006 this number had increased by 62 per cent (IOB 2008, p.120), thereby necessitating expansion of the lower secondary sub-sector.

Whereas the strategy under BESSIP (for ensuring that children completing primary school accessed lower secondary was to expand the former to include two years of the latter to have 9 years of basic education), the strategy for increasing access to senior secondary (grade 10) was to abolish the Grade 9 cut-off point system. Before 2009, admission of learners to lower and senior secondary levels was based on available number of places (and hence the 'cut-off point system') and not on the grade 7 and 9 examination scores; thereby creating a real barrier for children transiting from primary to lower secondary and to high school respectively.

However, success of the new policy would largely depend on the extent to which senior secondary school would expand to absorb the increased number of children, necessitated by the FBE and, for high school, the abolition of the Grade 9 cut-off point system. After all, evidence seems to suggest that the total transition rate from primary to lower secondary education has started to improve; nearly 58 per cent in 2010 (see Table 24a) from 55.6 per cent (2008) and 56.0% (2009) (MESVTEE: ESB, 2008/9). The argument for expansion of senior secondary school is further strengthened by the existing disparities in the completion rates of primary education (90.9%) and lower secondary education (53.2%) as shown in Table 24b.

3.0.0.4 **Re-entry Policy**

The Re-Entry Policy is part of a wider strategy that tries to improve education for girls. This policy, launched in 1997, advocates that girls who drop out of school due to pregnancy should be readmitted after giving birth. The policy is meant to accord girls who drop out of school owing to early pregnancy an opportunity to be re-admitted six months to one year after delivery. In the event of a girl being forced out of school due to pregnancy, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education has provided policy guidelines to assist schools and other stakeholders such as parents and guardians to ensure that the girl is enabled to complete her education. This policy is designed for girls aged between eleven and thirteen (of lower primary) and fourteen and fifteen (of lower secondary) who drop out of school, became pregnant or, socio-culturally forced to get married. In order to fight against the stigma, shame and discrimination associated with 'school girl' pregnancy in Zambia.

a) **Objectives**

i) To implement measures that will help prevent the exclusion of young mothers from furthering their education.
ii) To address gender inequalities that disadvantage girls from accessing education
iii) To deal with gender inequalities in national development and the need to narrow the gender gap in education.

b) **Strategies/analysis**

The re-entry programme in Zambia, though embedded in a strongly supportive environment with policies such as free primary education, 'Education For All' programmes, policy on gender sensitive school environment, gender training for teachers, HIV and AIDS and life skills education, etc.; still has a great deal of limitations (MESVTEE;1996).

For example, in relation to the re-entry policy (see Chapter 2 for details), the main findings of Mutombo and Mwenda Study (2010) showed that a) there are fewer re-admissions compared to the number of pregnancies b) higher pregnancy rates are recorded in rural areas than in urban areas. Among the Grades 1-9 girls for instance, there were 10,661 pregnancies (rural) as against 1,709 (urban) in 2008 and yet c) there were proportionately more re-admissions in urban areas than in rural areas (i.e. 42.5% versus 35.1% (2008); although more pregnancies (89%) occurred in the former (MESVTEE; ESB: 2009).

According to the Ministry of Education's 2010 report on the evaluation of the re-entry policy, on the pregnancy and re-admission to school trends between 2002 and 2009 in Basic Schools, of the total 3,663 girls who fell pregnant in 2002, only 1,322 were re-admitted against 13,634 who fell pregnant in 2009 in comparison with 5, 517 re-admissions in the same year. The study also revealed glaring regional variations in the school re-entry rates, with Luapula Province having the highest and Copperbelt Province recording the lowest. It documented age differences in re-entry, with older girls being more likely to re-enter school after giving birth than younger ones.
Trend data for years 2002-2009 is presented in Table below. The Table shows that pregnancies are between three to seven times more than the re-admissions or, in percentage terms, the latter fall well below 50 per cent of the former.

Table 19: Number of pregnancies and re-admission in Basic Schools from 2002-2009

Year	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Pregnancies	3,663	4,405	6,528	9,111	12,370	11,391	12,370	13,634	13,760
Re-Admission	1,322	1,836	2,626	3,899	4,470	3,870	4,629	5,517	5,034
%age Re-Admission/pregnancy	36.1	42	40	43	36	34	38	40	36.5

Source: MESVTEE- Review of the Re-entry Policy Report (2010), ESB (2010)

The discrepancy, as shown above, between the number of pregnancies and re-admissions, shows that the impact of the re-entry policy is limited not so much by parents'/ guardians' economic circumstances but by stigma and lack of knowledge associated with the advantages of the policy on one hand (see Chapter 2) and lack of clarity at the level of policy implementation on the other hand. For as the Mutombo and Mwenda study (ibid) put it in the review of the policy, there is little else to go by in its implementation other than administrative circulars without clear guidelines.

4.1.1.5 Pupils with Special Educational Needs Policy

The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education Policy document "Educating Our Future" has a Chapter on Special Education which has a concept of Inclusive Education. The chapter emphasizes on access, management, collaboration and quality. However, the Ministry is currently developing a comprehensive policy, on Special Needs/Inclusive Education. The following are the objectives that guide Special Education;

a) Objectives

i) To ensure equality of educational opportunity for children with special educational needs
ii) To provide education of particularly good quality to pupils with special educational needs
iii) To improve and strengthen the supervision and management of special education across the country

b) Strategies/Analysis

i) Inclusive Learning Strategy; Dealing with Special Educational Needs Children

There are many persons with disabilities in all parts of Zambia and at all levels of society. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), there are 10 to 20 per cent persons with disabilities in every given population. This means that there could be about 1 million to 2 million persons with disabilities in Zambia (SNDP, 2011-2015). Since 50 per cent of the Zambian population is between 0-18years of age (CSO 2010), it can be deduced that 50 per cent of the persons with disabilities could be CSENs (500,000 to 1 million). While Zambia is a signatory to the United Nations Convention on Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), this has not been domesticated in Zambia. The UNCRPD Article 24 states that:

States Parties recognize the right of persons with disabilities to education. With a view to realizing this right without discrimination and on the basis of equal opportunity, States Parties shall ensure an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning directed to:

a. The full development of human potential and sense of dignity and self-worth, and the strengthening of respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms and human diversity;
b. The development by persons with disabilities of their personality, talents and creativity, as well as their mental and physical abilities, to their fullest potential;
c. Enabling persons with disabilities to participate effectively in a free society (UN).

Analysis of the socio-cultural situation in Zambia indicates that Children with Special Educational needs (CSEN) are, as a matter of 'traditional practice', stigmatised, discriminated and generally kept out of school. This is to the extent that the 1996 education policy on inclusiveness could observe:

"From a false sense of shame or embarrassment, many parents do not divulge information on their exceptional children with the result that their children's problems remain unknown and untreated" (MESVTEE: National Policy on Education, p.67).

The Inclusive Learning Strategy; Dealing with Special Educational Needs Children aims at a) sensitising parents to see the need for taking CSEN to school as they do

for other children b) integrating CSEN into programmes offered in ordinary (not specialised) classrooms, together with other learners. Regarding the recorded socio-cultural attitudes towards CSEN (shame, stigma and discrimination), there is little evidence to suggest that these may have somewhat evolved for the better over time. This is mainly due to lack of researched information in this area (Nongola N. 2010). At school level, however, the inclusive learning strategy has recorded some notable success in terms of enrolment, mainly because no head of school can deny a school place to a child with special educational needs. Thus, the MESVTEE indicates, for instance, that enrolment of CSEN in basic schools rose from 10,116 (female) and 13,093(male) in 2002 to 80,446 (female) and 88,420 (male) in 2008. However, there is hardly information to suggest that this is more due to improved parental response than to the increase of CSEN in the population.

There are still a number of challenges in integration of CSEN into regular school faces, the most cited ones (Nongola (ibid)) being:-

a) Teachers of regular children are not oriented in CSEN teaching approaches and in the use of specialised language (e.g. sign language or braille), materials and equipment;
b) Emphasis, including the allocation of funds, is on procurement of learning materials rather than their development and production;
c) The educational materials used by ordinary learners are not adapted for CSEN and hence, the latter find it difficult to learn such subjects as science or mathematics; and,
d) Having done away with specialised units (through integration of CSEN in ordinary classrooms), data on the latter's profiles and disparities were also lost.

In view of the above, two observations need to be made at this point. The first one is that unless the kind of high profile campaigns targeting the girl child's educational needs and HIV/AIDS can be replicated for CSEN, awareness could either remain low or simply unrecorded, especially at community level. Secondly, the inclusiveness strategy for CSEN would need to give priority to supply side decisions on providing quality education, in order to convince parents/guardians and care givers about the good intentions and practice of the strategy.

3.0.0.6 **Language of Instruction Policy for Early Literacy**

This policy stipulates that each child (pupil) will be required to take a local language from Grade 1 onwards and will be given an opportunity to learn initial basic skills of reading and writing in local language; whereas English will remain as the official medium of instruction.

a) **Objectives**

i) To foster better initial pupil learning,
ii) To enhance the status of Zambian languages, and
iii) To integrate the school more meaningfully into the life of local communities
iv) To ensure children's learning of essential reading and writing skills
v) To facilitate children's preparation for the use of the English language in school and subsequent life, while the implementation problems of changing over to other languages will be avoided.

b) **Strategies/analysis**

Soon after independence in 1964, Zambia adopted English (1965) as the medium of instruction from Grade 1 onwards (MESVTEE: NPE 'Educating Our Future', p.39). That means that the other local languages and dialects could only be used at pre-school level, for which responsibility was not of government but principally of children's parents and guardians.

The implications of the policy are that a Zambian child would not only start learning English from Grade 1 but would also have to use English as the medium of learning all the other subjects. Additionally, he/she was not even required to take and study a local language.

According to Duncan (1995), learning in a familiar language (especially for children in DE 1 and 2 in the context of this study) prevents cognitive over-load in the learners. So because "they are concerned with only one thing at a time, that of learning to read and write in a familiar language instead of having to negotiate both the reading skill and the new language" (Cited in PRP report, p.3). In terms of curriculum quality and implementation of learning achievement, learners in rural areas (where reading materials in English are, most likely, scarce or unavailable, it is the language of first learning experience that would benefit learners most.

In relation to use of English as an unfamiliar language, the first study to assess the impact of early literacy (in the language) in Zambia was conducted in 1995 by the Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ). The study reported that only 25 per cent of Grade 6 learners could read at minimum levels, and only 3 per cent could read at desirable levels (MESVTEE/DFID: Primary Reading Programme (PRP) 1999, p.2). Earlier on, other studies had shown that 'reading and writing are better developed first in a language with which children are familiar'. It is, therefore, not surprising that by the late 1990s, the Zambian National Reading Committee could conclude:
"What was for a long time seen as a reading problem in Zambian schools, was in fact, a language problem. Reading was being introduced in a language which was, for most pupils, a foreign and alien language" (PRP 1999, p.3).

In relation to use of a local language to teach literacy as espoused in the NPE, 1996, a new Breakthrough to Literacy (BTL) in Icibemba was developed in 1997, which was implemented in 1998 and evaluated in 1999. The unique feature about this pilot initiative was that it provided an integrated approach to the teaching of initial literacy and thus related classroom experience to real life experience; through use of the Language Experience Approach. In the end, it was reported that "after only one year in primary school (Grade one), children were already reading and writing at a level equivalent to Grade 4 and 5 with the traditional course" (MESVTEE/DFID: PRP Report Annex 5, p. 7). It is hoped that through efforts to localise the curriculum, especially in relation to early literacy, the findings of the BTL will be implemented across all languages and dialects in the country.

3.0.0.7 **Child Labour and Schooling**
Zambia has ratified international conventions such as Convention on the Rights of the Child and ILO Convention. Additionally, the country has the Employment of young persons' Act, which regulates employment of young persons and the National Child policy of 2006 (which has section on child labour). This signifies commitment to combating child labour. However, the study revealed that economic activity amongst children was found to be widespread and may be one of the key barriers to education.

According to the Zambia Labour Force Survey of 2008, some children of primary (5-11 years) and lower secondary (12-14 years) are involved in child labour. This implies that when these children are at school (DE 4 and 5), they are at risk of dropping out due to their involvement in child labour; occasioned by the lack of concentration on learning activities. Thus, their chances of dropping out of school would most likely be higher than those not involved in child labour.

4.1.2. Policies and Strategies Addressing Economic Demand Side
In order to address the economic factors that affect access to education in Zambia (see details in Chapter 2), a number of policies and measures were introduced, strengthened and/or embarked upon to ensure that parents/guardians who were not able to take their children to or keep them in school due to economic deprivation were enabled. This has, over the years, been done with the participation of such key stakeholders as the government, civil society and the aid donor community. The two most notable interventions so far implemented successfully are presented and analysed below:

i) **Free Basic Education Policy and its Impact on OOSC in Dimension 2 of Exclusion**
In 2002, the MESVTEE introduced the Free Basic Education Policy (FBE) with the aim of increasing demand to education by children who would otherwise be out of school because their family could not afford school fees. The measure was intended to increase enrolment of new entrants to Grade one of children aged seven (7) years as well as ensure progression and completion of primary education. According to the 2000 Census of Population and Housing (CPO), poverty levels then stood at 68 per cent in rural areas and 37 per cent in urban areas.

The Policy and Operations Evaluation department (IOB) impact Evaluation of April 2008 (primary Education in Zambia), No. 312, notes that the total number of pupils in grades 1-7 during the FBE period (2000-2006) increased from 1.6 to 2.6 million children; with the BESSIP Programme having been responsible for significant growth in enrolments between 2000 and 2002. The same study further observes that the increase in total enrolment after 2002 was also due to return to school of those children whose parents had failed to meet the cost of schooling

before implementation of FBE in 2002; adding that roughly 79 per cent of children in Zambia are forced to leave school due to economic reasons.

According to Table 5, there were 497,474 out of school primary-aged children in 2007 (239,978 male and 256,976 female). The same had reduced to 259,390 by 2009 (MESVTEE: ESB). When the benefits of the campaign in favour of girl child education, since the 1990s, are seen together with those of the FBE, it is easier to see why the number of female entrants is increasingly reported to be getting higher than that of boys (IOB, 2008). However, as FAWEZA (2010) observes, more girls have continued to drop out of the system (than boys) as they get to higher grades. The reasons for this have been adequately discussed in chapter three above.

ii) **Grade 9 Cut-off Point Policy (Dimensions of Exclusion 4 and 5)**

The number of children passing the grade 7 examination during the BESSIP period up to 2000 and admitted to grade 8, increased by 21 per cent while pass rates increased from 37 per cent to 50 per cent. The effect of the increase in enrolment during transition period from BESSIP to FBE policy in 2002, also resulted in a 'growing number of children taking grade 7 examination; to an extent that by 2006 this number had increased by 62 per cent (IOB 2008, p.120), thereby necessitating expansion of the lower secondary sub-sector.

Whereas the strategy under BESSIP (for ensuring that children completing primary school accessed lower secondary was to expand the former to include two years of the latter to have 9 years of basic education), the strategy for increasing access to senior secondary (grade 10) was to abolish the Grade 9 cut-off point system. Before 2009, admission of learners to lower and senior secondary levels was based on available number of places (and hence the 'cut-off point system') and not on the grade 7 and 9 examination scores; thereby creating a real barrier for children transiting from primary to lower secondary and to high school respectively. The abolition of the system in 2009 was therefore aimed at ensuring that all grade 9 certificate holders proceeded to grade 10. However, success of the new policy would largely depend on the extent to which senior secondary school would expand to absorb the increased number of children, necessitated by the FBE and, for high school, the abolition of the Grade 9 cut-off point system. After all, evidence seems to suggest that the total transition rate from primary to lower secondary education has started to improve; nearly 58 per cent in 2010 from 55.6 per cent (2008) and 56.0 per cent (2009) (MESVTEE: ESB, 2008/9). The argument for expansion of senior secondary school is further strengthened by the existing disparities in the dropout rates of primary education and lower secondary education as shown in Table 17.

iii) **School Feeding Programme**

The school feeding programme (SFP), implemented in the 1990s through the School Health and Nutrition initiative, focused on improving school attendance and retention of vulnerable children; known to suffer the effects of hunger and ill-health, and hence at risk of exclusion from school (see Chapter 4 for details). From an educational policy view point, SFP can if scaled up, make a significant contribution to children's retention in school. So because by 2009, the programme was already providing 70,000 OVCs with school feeding and other supportive services (UNICEF, 2009). And by the end of 2011, the WFP supported initiative known as the Home Grown School Feeding programme (launched in 2003) is projected to benefit at least 1 million learners in 31 districts (MESVTEE:2010).

In the districts where the programme was successfully implemented since 2003 (notably in the flood and/or drought stricken areas), absenteeism and late coming to school (among the vulnerable children) were reported to have reduced while attendance and learning achievement improved (JCTR, 2010). However, the sustainability of the programme is unclear, mainly because the critical in-puts into the programme, such as micro nutrients and deworming tablets, are externally sourced through donor aid.

For the purpose of sustainability therefore, Zambia could put in place a school feeding programme that is buttressed on the yearly surplus stock achieved when the harvest is good. The reserves so mobilised would be accounted for together with produce from schools' own efforts as seen in their agricultural production units and income generating activities.

iv) **Bursary Scheme (Dimensions of Exclusion 4 and 5)**

The MESVTEE bursary scheme, launched during the

BESSIP period (1999-2002) is intended to support orphans and vulnerable children especially girls who, mainly due to poverty, are not in a position to afford the cost of education. It is targeted at children of lower secondary (Grades 8-9) in DEs 4 and 5, high school and tertiary.

The bursary scheme is concerned with improving attendance, retention and completion of school by vulnerable children at risk of being excluded from school due to poverty. According to the MESVTEE, its bursary support scheme was, by 2009 benefiting a total of 101,106 vulnerable children of whom 53,365 were girls and 47,741 were boys at the basic (Grades 1-9) level. The MESVTEE, FAWEZA, CAMFED and other Faith and Community Based Organisations are the other key stakeholders offering bursaries to the vulnerable children especially girls (MESVTEE: ESB 2009). However, when compared to the total number of orphans in school in 2009 (110,418 according to MESVTEE) the number of those accessing the bursary facility is but a mere fraction. Accordingly, the majority of them could still be at risk of exclusion from school due to either the lack of school and examination fees (still charged at lower secondary school level) or to the high indirect costs of education such as books, uniform, transport etc. But despite these limitations, however, and considering the high poverty levels in the country, children who manage to access a bursary would have to see themselves as most fortunate. This is notwithstanding the observation, worth noting at this point, namely that data on bursaries does not indicate whether the children benefiting from the scheme remain in school, compared to those who do not. Future tracer studies will need to fill this data gap.

It can however be assumed that if and when the contribution (to reduce the number of OOSC) of the Re-entry Policy (socio-cultural context), of the demand side FBE and the Bursary Scheme is considered together, the impact on the educational welfare of OOSC and those at risk of exclusion is considerable. For example, extending bursary support to more children in Dimension 4 and 5 who, after falling pregnant and for the rigidity of socio-cultural reasons, may be denied further resources by their parents and guardians (to continue with their education), would be a significant step forward. Besides, not only would this facilitate access to primary but also progression to and completion of lower secondary. In this regard, the observed marginal improvement in transition rates, from primary to lower secondary, from 53.5 per cent in 2004 to 54.4 per cent in 2010 (see Table 15) should be seen as a result of combined policy measures.

The findings of this study indicate that the major barriers (see Chapter 2 for details) that are responsible for placing children at a risk of exclusion are poverty and parents'/ guardians' deliberate decisions to send or not send a child to school. As highlighted earlier under Gender-Sensitive Strategy, parents are increasingly ensuring that gender parity in enrolment is achieved. However, they still prefer to send a boy (and not the girl) to school if confronted with inability to pay for both (FAWEZA: 2010). This means that poverty affects the education of the girl child more than that of the boy. And when a girl child comes from a rural area and from the poorest household she would get even more disadvantaged. To this effect, Table 17 shows that the dropout rate for the girls of lower secondary rural area is almost double that for the boys. Thus, the practice of awarding more girls bursaries than boys and lobbying parents/guardians to continue taking their children to school until they complete should be seen as necessary and timely.

4.1.3 Policies and Strategies Addressing the Supply Side

While acknowledging that it is necessary for local citizens to appreciate the value of education, and thereby creating demand for the same, it is important to note that availability of education facilities is also quite central to improving access to education and literacy levels in Zambia. In view of this, the study examined the strategies (owing to evident policy gaps) on the supply side of the education system to assess to what extent they had contributed to improving access to education and/or addressing the supply side bottlenecks and barriers as presented in Chapter 2.

4.1.3.1 School Infrastructure Development

As already highlighted above (see Demand Side Strategies Section), Zambia experienced rapid expansion of enrolments for grades 1-7 due to implementation of the FBE Policy in 2002. This necessitated an increase in schools and classrooms. Building more schools would ensure that distance from home to school, notably in rural areas, would be reduced; thereby allowing more children to enrol. On the other hand, increasing the

number of classrooms would ensure that fewer pupils are denied access to school due to lack of classroom space. Accordingly, by 2003 there were 3,396 new classrooms built, increasing the total to 29,009 (in 6,796 schools) in 2004 from 23, 823 (in 5, 773 schools) in 2003 country wide (MESVTEE data). And between 2003 and 2005, over 4000 new classrooms were constructed and renovated (MESVTEE: 2007).

In 2008, the MESVTEE launched the Infrastructure Operation Plans (IOP). The programme included new constructions, renovations and improvement of facilities, water and sanitation. By 2009 (national level), MESVTEE reported a total number of 51,777 classrooms but of which 12,285 were either temporary or incomplete. As a result of the IOP, the number of out of school children in DEs 2 and 3 has since been decreasing. For example, there was an increase of 44.9 per cent in the number of orphans enrolled between 2003 and 2004 (also due to expansion in the number of community schools) while by 2008, the number of new entrants to grade 1 had gone up from 458, 491 in 2007 to 471, 366 (representing a 2.8 percentage increase). It is expected that the IOP strategy will continue to address the infrastructure in rural-remote areas and for CSEN.

Yet, according to the IOB Study there still was, as at 2008 (and despite the accelerated building programme) a backlog in classroom construction to an extent that approximately 56,000 of these would have to be completed to satisfy the demand. Indeed, pupil classroom ratios (given the norm of 40:1) appear to have been generally increasing rather than decreasing (from 71:1 in 2002 to 80:1 in 2005) (IOB:2008). And as evidenced in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.3.1 and 2.3.2), it will not be until the pupil classroom and pupil teacher ratios begin to drop say to below 50:1 that the impact of the IOP will be seen as effectively making a real difference in access and participation.

4.1.3.2 Teacher Supply (Deployment and Retention)

Due mainly to inadequate amenities (coupled with poor conditions of service) in the remotest parts of the country such as running water, electricity, transport, etc., teacher deployment and retention in these areas has continued to pose a real challenge (see Chapter 2 for details). Having recorded a sustained increase in learner-teacher ratios between 2001 and 2004 from 4:1 to 52.7:1 (the prescribed/acceptable ratio in the delivery of quality education is pegged at 40:1), the MESVTEE opted for the following measures:

i) Stopped deploying new teachers to urban areas but instead started sending all newly qualified teachers to basic schools in rural areas;
ii) Re-introduced the employment of untrained teachers in remote schools which had had only a single teacher for a long time;
iii) Increased teacher output from the existing 14 teacher training colleges from 4, 000 to 5, 000 per year;
iv) Acted to reduce the attrition rate of trained teachers by providing additional incentives e.g. rural hardship and retention allowances and provision of health support systems such as ARTs at work places;
v) Strengthened teacher monitoring and supervision through creation of Zone Education Support Teams; and,
vi) Increased opportunities for in-service training for teachers through introduction of Continuing Professional Development (CPD) in all the 802 Zone Teacher Resource Centres and at school level.

There is no doubt that the above measures constitute a good practice. However, in order for these to be effective the highly centralised system currently in place (where teachers' accountability is to Lusaka rather that to local community) would require to be decentralised. Also, interventions targeted at teacher's welfare in rural areas, such as housing and electricity, could meaningfully contribute to more and better qualified and female teachers going to and remaining in rural areas.

In supporting the equitable teacher distribution across the country, the Teachers' Union leaders indicated that the 2011 budget should not have failed to address this aspect of teacher interest and motivation (reactions to the 2011 budget as reported in the daily newspapers). Ultimately, there is need to formulate more comprehensive policies to address teacher's conditions of service if professionalism is to be enhanced and service delivery improved. Better incentives for teachers dealing with vulnerable groups (and therefore requiring more attention) such as CSEN and those in DE 1 and/or serving in the remotest parts of the country could thus be sustainably assured by 2005.

4.1.3.3 Supply of Teaching/Learning Materials

The role of textbooks in the delivery of quality education can be said to be as important as that played by teachers. Whereas the standard teacher-pupil ratio is 1: 40 in the case of Zambia, the ideal book-pupil ratio is 1:1 as set by the MESVTEE. However, the IOB study noted that in 1998, basic schools had a book-pupil ratio of 1:5 in core subjects. Real improvements have since been recorded but clearly, only in English and Mathematics where the MESVTEE (ESB 2005) indicates that the high 1998 ratio had improved to 1:2 for English and 1:3 for Mathematics.

It can be said, in view of the foregoing, that whereas infrastructure represents the educational 'hard ware', textbooks, teachers and other learning resources constitute the teaching/learning 'software'. The ideal learning situation requires that each learner uses his/her own book in each of the subjects studied. However, it is still common to learn of situations in the country where pupils only depend on teachers' notes or having one book shared among many individuals in some subjects (NAS: 2008). And although MESVTEE indicates that much has been done to enhance the delivery of quality education through effective provision of learning and teaching materials, the supply of such materials remained erratic

The current situation, regarding curriculum quality, shows a policy gap. And in the absence of clear curriculum and book development policies and guidelines, achievement of the aims of education as espoused in the National Policy on Education (1996) becomes diffuse (HRT: 2004). Accordingly, review of curriculum for inclusive teaching and learning, inclusion of local content in curriculum and production of didactic materials that stimulate learning, appear to have been downgraded to dealing with the need to procure and provide books. While this may be excusable, the review of the curriculum needs not be forgotten as it is essential for improving education quality, motivating teachers as well as pupils.

4.1.3.4 Training/Retraining of Teachers, Heads of School and Standards Officers

Initial teacher training (also referred to as pre-service training) is important but due to unavoidable changes, from time to time, in curriculum, methodology, technology, etc., there is need for in-service training (MESVTEE: ESB, 2004). Thus, by 2004 the MESVTEE had put in place an in-service training system or Continuing Professional Development (CPD) which, to-date, is operational in district resource centres and at school level.

However, heads of schools and standards officers were last exposed to Educational Management Training in the mid1990s (Programme for the Advancement of Girls Education (PAGE) report) MESVTEE/UNICEF: 1999), and then in 2009/2010 under USAID funding (MESVTEE: 2011). Otherwise, there has not been any systematic follow-up training in educational management since the 1990s. Neither, has there been any similar training since. By implication (over time) the positions of head of school or standards officer are bound to become 'promotional' i.e. a given teacher qualifies on account of seniority rather than on the basis of a qualification, effective management or standards monitoring. The situation poses a serious challenge in the context of this study. Teachers, heads of school and standards officers need to be regularly up-graded in order, for instance, to work together to ensure that they implement policies and strategies which promote increased primary and lower secondary school enrolment, retention, progression, completion and learning achievement.

Just as learning outcomes do not automatically improve by having enough books procured (IOB Study, 2008), so also will OOSC not receive adequate attention just by increasing teacher output from teacher education colleges. In other words, the issue (especially when dealing with vulnerable learners in the 5DE) is not about numbers and statistics but about being formed (not just trained) to deal with learner vulnerability. But also, the effectiveness of a trained teacher, serving in an environment that is not managed transparently and accountably and hardly monitored or evaluated professionally, could be seriously doubted. For instance, a conducive environment would need to be created in school that supports and protects children from harmful influences such as drug and substance abuse, violence, sexual exploitation, etc., and also one which helps them manage their emotional and relational experiences. Teachers, standards officers and communities would have to be part of the said environment.

4.1.3.5 Provision of School Facilities

In relation to the findings of this study notably as they concern children in school (and at risk of exclusion) in DE 4 and 5, and to the rural-urban disparities, one observes

that children attending school in rural areas are in dire need of the most basic learning facilities when compared to their peers in urban areas (see Table 26). As already shown under barriers and bottlenecks in Chapter 2, lack of basic facilities e.g. running water and sanitation, reading rooms, lighting system, etc., makes learning uninteresting or difficult. In this area, as is the case with almost all the supply side aspects of educational facilitation, one observes that there are definite policy gaps. For example, there is no indication of a plan showing how many primary schools in rural areas have or should have a library, running water, electricity, etc. (and by when). This is not withstanding the budgetary implications involved.

4.1.3.6 Language of Instruction Policy for Early Literacy

Soon after independence in 1964, Zambia adopted English as the Official language and further adopted 7 local languages as national languages, namely Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga, Lozi, Kaonde, Luvale and Lunda. English was adopted as the medium of instruction from Grade 1 onwards (MESVTEE: NPE 'Educating Our Future', p.39), while the national languages were to be taught in schools as subjects in their respective geographical areas. That means that the other local languages and dialects could only be used at the pre-school level, for which principal responsibility lay not with government but parents and guardians (see details in Chapter 3). The implications of the language policy are that a Zambia would not only start learning English from Grade 1 but would also have to use English as the medium of learning all the other subjects.

After the liberalisation/decentralisation of education provision in 1991, the government resolved that children would, start initial literacy in a Zambian language' at least in the first early grade(s)in order to nurture in them a 'true' culture of reading and writing, In order to enhance the status of local languages, as well as integrate the school more meaningfully into the life of the local communities, "each child would be required to take a local language [and be examined in it] from grade 1 onwards" (MESVTEE: NPE 1996, p. 40).

The change of language policy, among other things, was driven by unsatisfactory reading levels among Zambian children at the primary level. According to Duncan (1995), learning in a familiar language (especially for children in DE 1 and 2 in the context of the present study) prevents cognitive over-load in the learners. So because "they are concerned with only one thing at a time, that of learning to read and write in a familiar language instead of having to negotiate both the reading skill and the new language" (Cited in PRP report, p.3). In terms of curriculum quality and implementation of learning achievement, learners in rural areas (where reading materials in English are, most likely, scarce or unavailable), would benefit more through learning how to read and write in their first language of experience than through use of English for the purpose

One of the best practices involving the implementation of the new local language instruction policy was the development of the Breakthrough to Literacy (BTL) in Icibemba in 1997, which was implemented in 1998 and evaluated in 1999. The unique feature about this pilot initiative was that it provided an integrated approach to the teaching of initial literacy and thus related classroom experience to real life experience; through use of the Language Experience Approach. In the end, it was reported that "after only one year in primary school (Grade one), children were already reading and writing at a level equivalent to Grade 4 and 5 with the traditional course" (MESVTEE/DFID: PRP Report Annex 5, p. 7). Thus BTL formed the basis for the development of the Primary Reading programme; the concepts and practice of which are extended to improving the teaching of reading and writing in local languages in grades one and two as espoused in the NPE (1996).

4.1.4 Management and Governance Related Policies and Strategies

One of the most far-reaching political decisions to affect provision of education in Zambia was the declaration of the country as a one-party –socialist state in 1973. For that came to mean that the major stakeholder and 'sole' provider of education would be the State. For example, in 1967, government schools numbered 1,563 against 914 agency schools. By 1979, Government primary schools totalled 3,431 and only 62 voluntary agency schools remained (MESVTEE: Educating Our Future p. 133). At the advent of the Third Republic in 1991, it was recognised that educational service delivery for all cannot be the responsibility of any single agency but should involve a plurality of providers. Thus, the Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP) which was launched in 1993 provided for implementation of the following policy directives:-
(i) Educational democratisation and liberalisation; (ii)

Educational restructuring and decentralisation; and (iii) Capacity building (for a restructured and decentralised system).

4.1.5 Educational Democratisation and Liberalisation

After 1991, there was a resurgence of education providers. Four main school types emerged as follows:- a) public schools(government run) b) private schools (private providers' run, also fee paying c) community schools (run by civil society organisations and communities and admitting vulnerable children including those who are over-age) and d) grant-aided schools (run by faith-based organisations). The distribution of basic schools (grades 1-9) by school type by 2006 was:- GRZ (56%), Community (34%), Grant- aided (5%) and Private (5%) while the distribution of learners in these schools was:- GRZ (77%), Community (16%), Grant-aided (4%) and private (3%) (IOB: Primary Education in Zambia, 2008 p.55).

According to the MESVTEE (2008), the number of community schools grew from 55 in 1996 to 2,457 by 2008. Some of the key distinguishing characteristics of community schools are that:

- They are set up in locations with large concentration of children;
- Distance to the nearest GRZ school (if too far) determines their location;
- They are set up in locations where fees charged in the existing schools are too high for parents to afford. Community schools were by 2006 known to have catered for a comparatively high number of orphans (31%), whereas only 19 per cent were catered for in public schools (MESVTEE: EMIS, 2005).

4.1.6 Educational Restructuring and Decentralisation

It has been understood, including by the MESVTEE itself, that one of the most critical policy bottlenecks to providing equitable and quality education is over-centralisation of functions at headquarters; and hence the tacit recognition of the importance of decentralisation by the MESVTEE itself as in accepting that it is an important way of enlisting the interest and participation of other stakeholders' (MESVTEE: NIF, 2008-10, p. 73). Indeed, targeted equitable interventions of quality education at school/community level would be most likely less attainable in a centralised system. For instance, we have seen, throughout the present Chapter that almost all the explicit and actively implemented educational policies in the country have to do with equity, access, retention and welfare of children and teachers. These would have been best implemented in a restructured and decentralised system. Besides, there is little evidence (within the current highly centralised system) to suggest that policies exist that have to do with designing a well-balanced curriculum, achieving:- minimum teacher-learner contact time, better teaching methods and effective administration and the development and supply of teaching/learning materials. In the same vein, existing indicators of internal efficiency (as measured by retention, transition, completion as well as by dropout and repetition rates) are backed more by some 'standard of good practice' than by policy measures that can improve the current situation for the better. In this regard, the IOB Study (2008) observes:

"…Over the last decade, Zambia has achieved major results in expanding primary education in quantitative terms. There is no doubt that further increase in the number of teachers, schools and learning materials is necessary to keep up with the growing number of pupils. However, a relative shift of focus towards increasing the quality of education seems warranted. The results show that investments in teachers, classrooms and books are more effective when the management structure at the school and district level is stable."

And in an apparent reference to the need for decentralisation of the education system in Zambia, the same report notes that many formally better-qualified head teachers are currently not managing their schools effectively; adding that:- "strengthening management does not only mean investing in the management of the school, but also investing in the district management and inspectorate". Indeed, standards monitoring in quality teaching and learning and taking into account the needs and aspirations of vulnerable children at local level, cannot be supervised and monitored from Headquarters in Lusaka. From a policy view point, therefore, the findings of this study (see Tables 18-21, 23-24a and 24b) show that there is need for putting in place adequate policy guidelines to target the challenges of systemic inefficiencies and lack of quality.

i) **Capacity Building**

According to the MESVTEE (NIF II 2008-2010), "...the mission of the education system is being redesigned to

go beyond academic learning to integrate counselling and care…" (p.78). Indeed, the current standards officer (trained to service an over-centralised system), can be said to have been trained as a 'traditional school-subject inspector' and not as someone who should monitor and ensure that data (on vulnerable children) is obtained, records kept and measures put in place for them to access education on time, as well as progress through learning until completion. As already alluded to above, the capacity building policy measures required today, would be, among others, those that target a decentralised and coordinated system of education delivery, not a highly centralised and 'stand-alone' one; a situation that does not seem to apply only to the MESVTEE. It is actually a national challenge. For as the Ministry of Finance and National Planning (MFNP) put it:

"Efforts to improve coordination around children's development have been generally ineffective: a national orphans and vulnerable children's steering committee has been nationally in place for some years but rarely meets, while commitment and consensus around the role of a proposed Children's Council is limited" (MFNP/UNICEF: Zambia Situation Analysis of Children and Women 2008 p.45).

In the absence of local governance structures, regulatory frameworks, programme coordination mechanisms, etc., volunteerism, especially at community level, could be easily abused. This could contribute to weakening institutional capacities to plan, manage and deliver services as the duty bearers may surrender their responsibilities and authority to the adhoc nature of task forces, "sitting" committees and focal point persons.

4.1.7 HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy: Intersectoral Response to the Needs of Teachers and Vulnerable Children

According to the MESVTEE, 'the HIV and AIDS Workplace policy for the Education Sector applies to all learners, employees, heads of school and providers of education and training in all public and private, formal and non-formal as well as within traditional learning systems in the Republic of Zambia (MESVTEE :2006). The three main strategic areas identified by the policy are:-

- HIV prevention and Wellness Programme (providing information to teachers and learners so that they are knowledgeable and capable of preventing further HIV infections).
- Care and Support (providing counselling services and treatment for the affected and/or infected learners and teachers).
- HIV/AIDS and the Workplace (eliminating discriminatory and stigmatising behaviours and practices in the school environment).

The policy was necessitated by the fact that by 2006, the HIV/AIDS pandemic was threatening to undermine the delivery and quality of education in the country notably through diminished supply of teachers, reduced school enrolment and attendance, an increase in the number of learners dropping out of school, an increase in absenteeism and early retirement among teachers (MESVTEE;2006). Indeed, the IOB Study (in reference to the critical educational role that community schools play in the life of vulnerable children in the country), observed that almost one in three children in these schools had lost his/her mother, father or both parents and that these children lacked parental support; with many orphans not being able to attend school regularly, while many of them were too hungry to concentrate in class.

The MESVTEE indicates that from the time of the HIV/AIDS policy launch in 2006, the programme had, by 2007 reached 174,433 teachers and provided ARVs for an estimated number of 2000 teachers, while VCT was rolled out to schools and benefited 5,300 teachers in 3 years (MESVTEE: NIF p.79). This was a significant achievement especially when one considers that 1,331 teachers were reported to have died of HIV and AIDS related illnesses by 1998. However, the gains made in this area to-date are most likely due to the fact that the multi-sectoral AIDS programme work plans have since the 1990s, continued to benefit from massive external funding.

Addressing HIV/AIDS among teachers will go a long way to reducing morbidity and mortality rates of the already limited resources-teachers.

4.1.8 Effective and Equitable Regulatory Framework for provision of Education

Before April 2011, education delivery in Zambia was guided by the 1996 Education Act (Cap 234). This Act can be said to have been out of date for a long time as it neither provided for:- compulsory attendance of school, prohibition of marriage of school-going age children nor

freedom to choose own language for early literacy and numeracy, as does the new Education Act, 2011. In this regard, the new Act is more progressive in that it takes into account the needs of vulnerable children.

However, it also provides for government bursaries and scholarships for learners attending aided and community educational institutions while not allowing the latter to charge any basic level admission or tuition fees. All these regulatory measures are aimed at reducing the cost of education to the learner while enabling more and more Zambian children to access school (DE 1, 2 and 3) and be retained until completion (DE 4 and 5).

4.1.9 Budgeting and Finance Policies and Strategies

Since independence in 1964, Zambia has had the experience of implementing at least three major policy perspectives on funding education. As the country moved to a multi-party democratic system in 1991 (The Third Republic), government could no longer continue to meet the cost of education single handedly. Thus, the principle of cost-sharing was introduced. During the early 1990s, real expenditure on education had declined mainly due to heavy debt repayments to IMF and World Bank and to the effects of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). It is reported that in 1993, private expenditure by parents and beneficiaries accounted for 44 per cent of gross national expenditure on education while government funding accounted for 50 per cent and donor aid for 6 per cent (MESVTEE: National Education Policy Review-NEPR- 2009 p. 141). However, the country's high poverty levels meant that parents/guardians could not continue to meet the cost of education e.g. paying teachers' wages in community schools, contributing funds towards construction of public schools and meeting indirect costs of education. Consequently, government would have to increase the public resources envelop to education.

By 2000, more and more parents/guardians were finding it difficult to afford education for their children such that dropout rates began to rise, especially among orphans and the rural poor households. For instance, after the introduction of the 'pro-poor' cash grants and FBE in 2002, nearly 12,000 learners who had dropped out (in a sample of 352 schools) because they could not afford fees went back to school. During the same period, dropout rates went from 4.4 per cent in 2000 to 2.3 per cent in 2005 and male dropout rates from 4.2 per cent to 1.9 per cent during the same period (IOB:2008 p.96).

i) Budgetary Allocations to Education

In 2000, Zambia spent 2.1 per cent of its GDP on education. This was against the recommended levels of 4.5 per cent and 6 per cent by the Public Expenditure Review of Zambia and the international community respectively (MESVTEE: NEPR, 2009 p. 144). Since implementation of the Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Plan in 1999, expansion (in terms of access) was accorded priority funding. However, as the NEPR report (ibid) indicates:- ' whilst the Zambia national budget allocated 20 per cent to education, other countries in the SADC region had reached 30 per cent' (see Chapter 3 Table 27, for details). And with the implementation of the Free Basic Education Policy and abolition of user fees in 2002, government experienced real pressure to increase funding to education, as well as ensure that resources reached the poor and vulnerable children especially in rural areas. Therefore, in the context of this study and if the government has to continue to implement policies and strategies which promote increases primary/lower secondary enrolment, retention, progression, completion and learning achievement, then sustained increase in expenditure at this level (grades 1-9) needs to be upheld and even enhanced, as shown in Table 18 (2006-2010).

ii) Effective Use of Resources for Reaching the Poor

Efficient and effective use of resources for reaching the poor has continued to pose serious policy and strategic challenges. This is especially so in relation to transparency and accountability than to anything else. Evidence from the 10 districts where Civil Society for Poverty Reduction (CSPR) implemented a budget tracking and service delivery monitoring initiative in 2009 – 2010 shows that there is no information flow to citizens at the district, constituency and ward level on the budget and utilisation of funds (CSPR 2010 report, p. 15). The Same report further observes that the situation is made worse by the fact that there is 'no fiscal law to publicise financial disbursements which makes it difficult for anyone to monitor the use of public funds'. Also, not only are there no adequate mechanisms to 'ring- fence pro-poor resources' but the latter's involvement in consultations on budget formulation is reported to be hardly existent, largely due to lack of systematic decentralisation. This is also the case in education.

iii) Redistributive Policies to the Benefit of Local Communities and the Poor

In order for local communities and the poor households to fully benefit from their human development policies, strategies and interventions, there is need for national and local governance structures to build capacity for provision of such basic services as health and nutrition, education, water and sanitation, social protection, and infrastructure (CSPR: ibid p.20). Among the key findings of the CSPR initiative (out of which arose the above conclusions) are that:-

- The increase in budget allocations has not necessarily translated to improved quality for service delivery especially among the poor;
- There are no enabling structures and institutional capacities at local governance level for community involvement in decision–making and effective allocation and execution of resources to various local development initiatives;
- Rural poverty is not diminishing as rural areas continue to experience poor management due to dwindling resources and to reduced fiscal transfer from national government; and,
- There is no clear evidence, not only of sharing responsibilities for service delivery, but also of the development frameworks to enhance effectiveness and efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery linked to collaborative efforts.

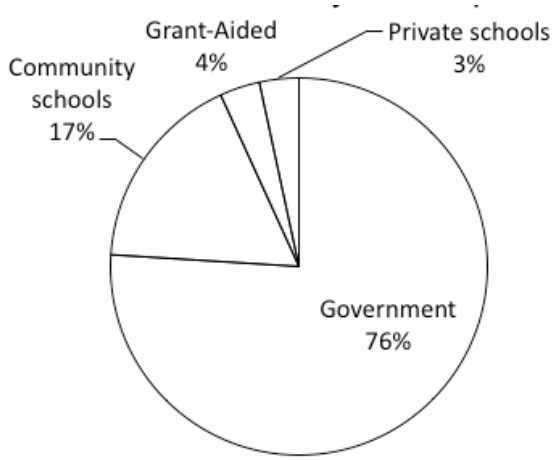
The above findings are strongly collaborated by those of the Zambia Social Protection, Expenditure and Performance Review namely that: 'existing social assistance programmes reach under 4 per cent of the population' due to lack of proper coordination and to the inefficient use of the scarce resources (see Chapter 4).

4.2 Analytical Summary

The present Chapter identified and examined some key educational policies that drive strategies and programmatic interventions that are mainly targeted at improving access to schooling of OOSC, and reducing the risk of exclusion (from participating in learning) of children already in school.

Going by the number of children enrolled in basic schools by Managing Agency as at 2004 (GRZ (64.9%), Community schools (20.5%), Church-run and Grant-aided schools (4.7%), Private schools (3.7%), unknown (6.4%) (MESVTEE: ESB: 2004, p.11), it is quite clear that the educational liberalisation/decentralisation policy has succeeded i.e. in so far as creating more space at basic school level especially for the vulnerable children is concerned. It should be remembered that up to and until advent of the policy in question here in 1991, government was the sole and official provider of education to children at basic school level. By 2008 however, the key stakeholder providers of education were contributing to enrolment in Grades 1-9 as shown in the figure below:

Figure 13: Contribution to enrolment by education providers



Source: MESVTEE

On the other hand, education restructuring/ decentralisation and hence capacity building for servicing that system has, to date, not been (fully) realised.

Generally, speaking, the policies dealt with here (see introduction to this Chapter) are focused on quantitative deliverables of education that relate to equity, access and participation. There is little evidence of any policies in place that have to do with the need for quality, especially curriculum quality. This could partly be explained by the fact that Zambia has, over the years, attained appreciable levels of quality education; with relatively fewer dropouts and repeaters when compared to other sub-Saharan countries (IOB Impact Evaluation, 2008). However, as the same study puts it, the explanation could also be that over the last decade, the country placed emphasis on quantitative indicators of educational delivery, rather than on quality, efficiency and effectiveness. In the long

term, this approach would have the following implications, among others:-

a) Conformity to some good practice or standard that would hardly evolve (in terms of improvements to be made) over time; thus fossilising qualitative developments in the system;
b) Resource allocation to qualitative deliverables e.g. reform of curriculum, preparation of teaching/learning materials, re-orientation of teachers training, etc.; would not be systematic but ad hoc and dependent on governance whims of the day; and,
c) Parents (for whom one of the deciding factors for sending their children to school is quality or relevance of education to their needs and aspirations), would increasingly lose confidence in the system if quality imperatives continue to be marginalised.

In as far as the specific policies discussed in this chapter are concerned; their effectiveness is more in their 'working together' rather than in their fragmented approach. Whereas, for instance, FBE is targeted at children in DE 2 and 3, it had to be linked to the Re-entry Policy so that the more mature girl children do not lose out if they fall pregnant (DE 4 and 5). But also, other vulnerable children could be excluded from school on account of poor health, inadequate nutrition, or inability to meet the costs of education, and hence the necessity of programs such as the School feeding, the Bursary Scheme and the HIV/AIDS Workplace policy. We see, in the same vein, that other child protection measures (e.g. curbing violence against children in school, sexual abuse, mockery, corporal punishment, etc.), are all meant to complement one another in order to provide (through governance, management and budgetary decisions) a safe and secure learning environment for all the children in school.

CHAPTER 4
SOCIAL PROTECTION

CHAPTER FOUR: SOCIAL PROTECTION

Social protection programmes are seen as relevant to tackling the problem of out of school children directly and indirectly as they are supposed to address some of the barriers and bottlenecks as identified in chapter 2. This Chapter presents the social protection regime in Zambia in terms of institutional frameworks, strategic interventions and government policies and how these link to education as far as addressing the out of school children challenges. It describes and analyses the *major social protection programmes* implemented in the country. The findings of the study, the discussion and analyses on this aspect will be presented as follows: Mapping, Impact, Cross – sectorial, Financing and Analytical Summary as guided by the research questions of the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) which guided this study. The Chapter ultimately attempts to highlight the relevance and linkage between social protection and the problem of out-of-school children. While the social protection programme for Zambia may be very broad, this chapter streamlines to focus on those that are supposed to have an influence on education.

5.1. Mapping of Social Protection Systems and Programmes

From the documents reviewed, and consultations conducted in the course of the study, the social protection system in Zambia can be broadly categorised as follows:

Formal	Informal
1. *Social Insurance* - Old age Pensions - Work-related compensation schemes	- Extended family - Urban social networks - The church - Chilimba (informal cash transfer between a group of friends)
2. *Social Assistance* (Targeting the people with disabilities and other vulnerable groups) - PWAS (Public Welfare Assistance) - Cash Transfers - School health and nutrition	
3. *Social Safety Nets* (Targeting Low capacity households and individuals) - Labour markets (e.g. PUSH-public works) - Micro credit - Food Security Pack - Women Empowerment - Bursary Education Scheme	

Social insurance tends to address *chronic vulnerability* (e.g. through support in the form of non-contributory old age pension) whereas social assistance programmes are more geared towards dealing with *transitory vulnerability* (whereby beneficiaries are expected to be helped to pull through a temporary state of vulnerability by using e.g. cash transfers). Some social safety nets, on the other hand, can be seen to target *structural vulnerability* arising from deep-rooted inequalities in society and thus transformatory in nature (the bursary scheme is one such example). Further categorisation can be made at the level of programmes and interventions as follows:

5.2. Social Protection Programmes

At a conceptual level, social protection programmes can broadly be situated in the following categories (according to the World Bank: 2011):

a) *Prevention*: Against income and expenditure shocks resulting in drop in well-being.
(Income shocks can result in vulnerable households withdrawing children from school as part of coping).

b) *Protection*: from destitution and human capital loss (accounting for the bulk of social assistance programmes).
(Deprivation can cause failure to meet the direct and indirect cost of education. On the other hand, creating a home and school environment that is free of abuse, neglect, discrimination and fear, is critical for children to effectively participate in school and complete successfully).

c) *Promotion*: of improved livelihoods and opportunities (e.g. through micro credit and labour market interventions).
(Economic empowerment provides households with long-term capacity to meet the cost of education and reduces chances of engaging children in child labour that negatively affects their access to and participation in school).

Most of the programmes discussed in this section are summarised in Table 20 below in accordance with the above framework:

Table 20: Framework for mapping SP programmes

Promotion (of low capacity households)	Prevention (of those who may, due to economic and other shocks resulting in drop in income, fall to into destitution and vulnerability)	Protection (from destitution by, particularly those who are incapacitated such as the aged and disabled)
- Micro Credit - Programme Urban Self Help (PUSH) - Street Children Rehabilitation and Re-integration Programme - Food Security Pack - Farmer Input Support Programme - Women Empowerment Programme	- Non-contributory Old Age Pension - Contributory National Pensions Scheme - Worker's Compensation Fund - Local Authorities Superannuation Fund - Mukuba Pensions Scheme	- Social Cash Transfers - Public Welfare Assistance Scheme - School Feeding Programme - Enhancement of Justice System for the Vulnerable - Bursary Scheme

The mapping exercise revealed some key government and non-government driven **social protection programmes**. Key government led programmes include the Public Welfare Assistance Scheme (PWAS); Social Cash Transfers (SCT); Bursaries Support; School Feeding Programme; Community Self-Help Initiatives; Food Security Pack (FSP); Women Empowerment and Micro Finance (although largely NGO driven).
There are numerous other social protection programmes implemented by NGOs and FBOs with varying degrees of geographical coverage and numbers of beneficiaries. Several sources were used for mapping, including recent case studies (conducted in the last five years) and thematic studies on social assistance programmes. Other sources were administrative data, official government reports, situation analyses, policies and strategies and semi structured interviews with representatives of government and other agencies using the CMF research questions on mapping. The following are the major programmes identified as relevant to this study (see also summary in annex 6):

5.2.1. Social Cash Transfers (SCT) and Child Grants
Implemented under the broader Public Welfare Assistance Scheme, Social Cash Transfers (SCTs) are a more recent intervention in Zambia, involving regular and predictable payments to vulnerable households and individuals. Some cash transfers are conditional in nature. This refers to an arrangement where the transfer is linked to human development aspects such as child allowances being tied to regular school attendance (DfID, 2005). Broadly speaking, there are three types of cash transfer programmes being implemented, namely: i) the Inclusive Model (for the 10% most incapacitated households) implemented in Chipata, Monze, Kalomo and Kazungula Districts ii) Old Age Pension Scheme in Katete (Eastern Province) and the recently introduced Child Grant in Kalabo, Shang'ombo and Kaputa districts. An expansion plan is already under way to scale up to other parts of the country, based on the lessons learnt and availability of resources.

Child Grant: *Introduced in 2010*, the Child Grant builds on the gains and confidence obtained from the demonstrated impacts of the other inclusive models and the old age pension pilot. The programme is designed to provide a *transfer of K55, 000* (about US$11) per month per household for a child who is under the age of five years in any given targeted area. The *rationale for the intervention* rests on the understanding that the most crucial stage for a child's physiological and intellectual development is during the early years of life.

Thus the Child Grant scheme aims to improve the psychological and physical development of children (the latter particularly working to curb malnutrition and infant mortality). The *targeting* of the programme is determined by poverty levels, whereby districts with the highest poverty levels (according to the Living Conditions Monitoring Survey) are selected.

Because of its direct relevance to children in all the Dimensions of exclusion, the child grant is further highlighted below:

The most significant research that was done by GTZ

revealed improved education enrolments and retention in the education system in Zambia during the first phase of the Social Cash Transfer. The report stresses that education is key in granting children access to more opportunities and a better sensitization on health matters such as HIV/AIDS. Enrolment rates rose by 3 per cent points to 79.2 per cent, and 50 per cent of all youth who were not in school at baseline had enrolled by the time evaluation took place. Qualitative research revealed a positive change in school attendance of beneficiary children after the inception of the scheme especially in urban areas. Most children who had initially dropped out of school were seen getting back in the school system again. However when it comes to school enrolment, beneficiary households were actually worse off than if they had not benefitted from the scheme. The only exception is Kalomo, where boys in beneficiary households were 6-8 per cent more likely to be enrolled than they would have been had they not belonged to beneficiary households.
School attendance rates for children who were already enrolled in school improved only in the urban scheme, which also had a benefit related to school attendance. However, there are a number of issues that limit the effectiveness of SCTs in improving education access as, Schüring and Tembo (2010:7) observes:

"The leverage for effecting great changes in education and health appears too small, the implementation capacity too weak and the exclusion effects too high to be compensated by the positive impact that conditionalities produce"

A closer look at SCTs reveals that there are *varying degrees of impact on enrolment and attendance.* A study on SCTs in three Districts (Chipata, Kalomo and Kazungula) found that:
"…despite the positive effects on educational expenditures in all the three districts, there were no significant effects on enrolment rates except among male children in Kalomo district. The effect of the scheme on education was more conspicuous with respect to attendance rates. The attendance effects were most consistent and largest in Chipata, where the SCT programme had explicit educational premiums" (RHVP, 2009: 3).

It can therefore be said that SCTs address the financial constraints that can draw children away from school as seen from the evidence of consistency in staying in school. However, there is no evidence that SCTs improve enrolment rates. This could be because while the economic barrier may be partly addressed by the SCTs, people still have to grapple with other significant challenges especially supply side challenges like distance to school and inadequate learning spaces.

5.2.2. School Feeding Programme (SFP)
School feeding programmes of varying sizes have been in existence in Zambia *since the 1970s* with the main ones being government sponsored. One of the most recent and significant was started in 2003 in response to a food crisis during the preceding two years in Southern and Western Provinces and parts of Eastern Province by the WFP. MESVTEE, at the time, was also implementing a school feeding programme.

The School Feeding component is designed to encourage enrolment and attendance among all children but with particular emphasis on girls. School feeding will be strongly linked to the learning process for the achievement of educational objectives. All children will receive a nutritious wet meal upon arrival at school to be consumed there under the supervision of schoolteachers and regular monitoring by members of the PTA/PCSC and SFMC.

Studies of school feeding programmes around the world have shown that children who receive a mid-morning snack or meal perform more effectively than those who are hungry. Moreover, school feeding programmes have significantly increased enrolment and school attendance and reduced dropout rates.
Andrew Phiri, a teacher at the Chikumboso School, says the centre feeds over 300 pupils daily in grades from one to five. Most of these children come from poor families and many suffer from malnutrition related diseases.

"This school meal may be the only one for some of them," Phiri told IPS. "The feeding program is designed to improve access to education for poor and vulnerable children in the country mostly from homes that are hit by HIV/AIDS and other deadly diseases like cancers. And most of the pupils here are orphans."

"In a case of phasing-out the school feeding program," says ZCE programme officer Miriam Mwale, "community-based schools will be the first to go under as pupil

attendance is based on the food available at the institution."(Inter Press Service News Urgency, http://ipsnews.net/africa/nota.asp?idnews=44026)

5.2.3. Bursaries Support

Initiated in 2002, the bursary scheme is *a national programme implemented by the Government* to support eligible primary and secondary school going children from poor households in Zambia. Tertiary level education bursaries are also provided. It is worth noting that there has been a significant contribution from non-state actors (NGOs and FBOs*)* in the provision of bursaries, particularly for the advancement of education of girl children. According to the MESVTEE 2009 School Census, the highest number of bursaries offered to pupils between grade 8 and 12 in a province by NGOs was 8,508 (for Copperbelt) as compared to 4,222 by Government. Another aspect worth highlighting is that most of the bursary support has been concentrated on children that are in examination classes (i.e. Grades 9 and 12). It can be concluded therefore that this category of beneficiaries not only includes children that would have consistently attended school but also those who are out of school and only register to sit for examinations with the intent to increase their chances of formal employment or possible further training.

5.2.4 Food Security Pack (FSP)

The FSP was *established in 2000* and is a country-wide public programme that provides agricultural inputs and extension services to vulnerable but viable farmers. The programme further works to encourage establishment of commercial credit banks (i.e. cereal banks) and alternative livelihoods.

FSP is implemented under the Community Development Department of the MCDMCH. According to the Ministry, the *target groups* are agricultural households faced with food insecurity due to high levels of poverty or poor seasonal rainfall. Approximately 200,000 (representing 20% of households in this category) are targeted in a year. In terms of benefits, the pack consists of basic agricultural inputs (seeds), fertiliser and training in disciplines such as conservation farming. Other components include technology transfer and marketing assistance.

A notable trend in the FSP programme is the reduction in the number of beneficiaries over the years, with a commensurate reduction and stagnation in funding levels. A key factor in explaining the situation is the deficiency in resources required for scaling up the programme. This has in turn led to non-achievement of targets.

Progress in increasing financing, scope and thus coverage of social protection programmes as a whole is largely slow and therefore has a bearing on impact. For example, in 2010, the PWAS only received 7 per cent of the budget allocated to the MCDSS (whose ceiling was fixed at 0.5% of total government revenue (Shuring and McDowall, 2011: 6).

The overall effect of social protection programmes has been limited, judged against the magnitude of the poverty problem at both national and community levels. First, the programmes do not adequately cover people within the groups identified above due to, among other factors, narrow targeting and low and inconsistent benefits. For example, taking the estimate of the poorest 10 per cent of the population who are most in need of social assistance, around 900,000 highly vulnerable individuals miss out on PWAS assistance each year, while a similar number of vulnerable farmers miss out on the FSP (ILO, 2008). In terms of social security, neither social insurance nor non-contributory social security being provided at present are adequate with regard to coverage, number of beneficiaries and adequacy of the payments/benefits received (ibid).

Overall, key factors hindering greater impact include inadequate and sometimes erratic funding of most national programmes (as will be further highlighted under the financing section), inadequate implementation capacity, insufficient arrangements for M&E (to clearly capture the impact of systematic social protection and specifically child protection initiatives on out-of-school children) and inadequate coordination within and outside the sector.

5.2.5 Street Children Rehabilitation and Re-integration Programme

Established in 2004, the MSYCD has been working to develop skills among street children in designated Zambia National Service camps with a view to develop life skills and thereafter re-integrate the children into society (whenever possible, with their families). *Children and youth from the age of 15 are targeted* to undergo the 18 months programme. According to the Ministry, *over 3,000 children and youth have since been trained*. Upon

acquisition of skills, one of the measures the Ministry has in place is to link the youth with opportunities for capital for those who look forward to self-employment (e.g. the Youth Development Fund). This is a national programme. Several programmes targeting OVCs have been implemented over the years. Examples of other street children programmes include the "Street Life" Training launched by Project Concern International (PCI) focusing on life skills development and the Better Education and Life Opportunities for Vulnerable Children through Networking and Organizational Growth Project.

5.2.6 Social Security Schemes

Contributory social security schemes have been in place for decades. At present, they comprise both public and private schemes. National social security institutions include the National Pensions Scheme Authority (NAPSA) and the Local Authorities Superannuation Fund (LASF). Other notable schemes are the occupational pensions schemes (e.g. the Workers' Compensation Fund), survivor pension and others driven by the private sector such as the Mukuba Pensions Scheme. It is also worth indicating that the government abolished fees to access health services for children under the age of five and adults over 65 years of age. This was aimed at alleviating the negative impacts of cost sharing on poor households. Despite the potential for much-needed social security, the significance of social security schemes in Zambia is, at present, minimal because majority of the population is engaged in the non-formal employment sector and not covered by formal social security. Therefore, many people depend on informal social security schemes for educational and other basic needs required. Below are the main informal social protection schemes available:

Table 21: Profile of non-formal social security schemes in Zambia

Schemes	Contingencies covered
Traditional Schemes	
Extended Family	Births, initiation, marriage, famine, sickness, old age, death
Semi-formal schemes	
Urban reciprocal networks	Accommodation, sickness, lack of money and foodstuffs, death
Church	Famine, sickness, old age, death
Chilimba	Sickness, education, accommodation, death
Market associations	Sickness, education, accommodation. business, death

Source: Mukuka, et al (2002:88)

These non-formal social security systems provide for as much as 95 per cent of the total population (ibid). It is worth noting that one way social security can contribute to minimising the problem of out-of school children is through beneficiary remittances for education from insurance, pension schemes or indeed inheritance (the latter is backed by the Intestate Succession Act, Chapter 59 of the Laws of Zambia). This aspect of social protection is important to this study, particularly with regard to alleviating the impact of HIV/AIDS on orphans (see also Rose, 2006).

The social security programmes mainly address the economic barriers to demand for education by creating a better economic situation at household level. However, the extent to which they then improve enrolment and retention in school still remains unclear.

5.3 Cross-Sectoral

For social protection strategies to be effective there is need for the approaches to be cross sectoral. The *importance of cross-sectoral approach* in providing social protection is underscored by the understanding that integrated early childhood development is based on the principle that providing children with the best start to life requires interventions in many areas, including health, nutrition, water, sanitation, psychosocial care and protection (MoH, 2008:21).

Several Government Ministries implement social protection programmes and have policies that have a direct impact on child protection and children's well-being and access to and participation in education in particular. For example, MESVTEE provides bursaries (in collaboration with the MCDMCH), including the policy of Free Basic Education, while actively undertaking school health and nutrition. The HGSF established a good partnership arrangement across sectors and involves mainly the WFP, MESVTEE, the Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives (now Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock) and the DMMU at programming level. Whereas DMMU generates data used for targeting and shaping the focus of programming, the MESVTEE and MACO meet the cereal needs of the programme. WFP, on the other hand is largely responsible to the operational aspects of the programme, including resource mobilisation, provision of pulses, meeting transportation costs and logistics. By

programme design, the communities take centre stage in implementation through their involvement in preparation of meals. School authorities have the role of ensuring that records are kept. The HGSF programme is designed to be an integrated programme that embraces other critical aspects such as environmental protection and health. This has widened scope for cross broad-based stakeholder involvement in promoting the well-being of vulnerable children.

The MSYCD (now Ministry of Labour, Sports, Youth and Gender), on the other hand, implements several child protection programmes including the street children rehabilitation and re-integration programme and currently supporting (in form of grants) 22 child care institutions in the country. The institutions are run by a wide range of stakeholders, particularly NGOs and FBOs. The Ministry is also working closely with the Ministry of Home Affairs in promoting birth registration through, among other initiatives, awareness raising among communities.

5.4 Synergies in Child Protection

The child protection sub-sector has numerous players undertaking various activities at various levels, some of which have been indicated above. These efforts have a direct bearing on enabling children stay in school and successfully complete the prescribed levels of education. However, a general concern regarding inadequate coordination of efforts has been indicated by many (both through interviews and the desk review). The Human Rights Commission, for example, observed that despite existence of networking initiatives among NGOs, the efforts of government and statutory bodies are largely disjointed – among e.g. the MCDMCH, MESVTEE and the Victims Support Unit of the Police. The report on the Review of Implementation of the CRC also affirmed the finding that "Coordination of the child sector has remained problematic. There is no coordinating body for the implementation of the CRC" (HRC, 2009), thus the call by some stakeholders for establishment of a National Child Council to provide a strategic framework, coordinate and oversee activities of all concerned with the welfare of the child. This was recently affirmed by the civil society monitoring report on the ACRWC documented by Mutegaya and Kabeka (2011) under the auspices of the Children In Need Network. The former report indicates that the various programmes under implementation by various government departments are not effectively coordinated and cannot be accounted for thoroughly in reporting. The current scenario also poses the challenge of effective M&E.

To highlight issues pertaining to the right of children to education, a children's conference was organised by the Office of the Commissioner for Children (of the HRC) in 2009 in Southern Province. According to the 68 participating pupils, the right to education was being enjoyed in all the 11 districts represented. Other efforts by Government to streamline child protection include a recent presidential directive to transfer the Department for Development in the MSYCD and all related legislation to the MCDSS, now renamed Ministry of Community Development and Mother and Child Health (MCDMCH). UNICEF has also been instrumental in supporting government efforts aimed at promoting the well-being of children on various fronts.

5.5. Coordination and Institutional Arrangements/Mechanisms

At *national level*, social protection is coordinated through the Social Protection Sector Advisory Group (SP - SAG), consisting of various stakeholders from some Government Ministries, civil society, NGOs and cooperating partners. The SP-SAG is comprised of Technical Working Groups (TWGs), established to spearhead specific areas of focus for social protection as articulated in the National Development Plan. However, in its present form, the SP-SAG faces several challenges such as the lack of visible private sector involvement. At another level, despite the increased collaboration in recent years between government (particularly the MCDMCH) and the donor community through programme support as exhibited in the establishment of the JFA, synergies among the many civil society organisations remain weak. Linkages between the SP-SAG and other SAGs, especially the Education and Skills Development SAG, also require strengthening in order to actualise cross-sectoral synergy.

MCDMCH should strengthen its lead as the over-arching Ministry in social protection, particularly by ensuring that a policy is in place to guide interventions. This is because it is fundamentally the responsibility of Government to ensure the well - being of citizens (MCDMCH, 2008). In this regard, MCDMCH- recently established a department

for registration of NGOs in order to better coordinate the activities of NGOs in the social development sector. This was in line with the NGO Act No. 16 of 2009 which was passed by Parliament.

5.6 Private Sector Participation in Social Protection

The contribution of the private sector to social protection is minimal at present and mainly constitutes acts of corporate social responsibility by a few companies. These have included some financial institutions such as Barclays Bank, Standard Chartered Bank (e.g. through bursaries support to under-privileged girl children and community centres for children) and Professional Insurance (through material support such as desks). Some mining companies support some community initiatives such as home-based care, orphanages and health facilities. In the recent past, there has also been support from the private sector in the school feeding programme (e.g. provision of milk to school going children). However, the support is largely unpredictable, intermittent and not institutionalised. A case can be made to bring the private sector on board through the establishment of policy frameworks and incentives that encourage social investment, public-private-partnerships and respect for human rights (particularly in as far as child labour is concerned). Moreover, one of the greatest contributions to social protection by the private sector can be through the provision of decent and gainful employment.

5.7 Cross-Sectoral Social Protection Policies/ Frameworks

At present, Zambia does not have a specific social protection policy. However, there is the draft National Social Welfare Policy which is currently under review. The Social Protection Strategy of 2005 (2006 – 2010), nevertheless, guided most interventions in the sector in recent years. It also informed the social protection chapters of the FNDP and SNDP respectively. Broadly speaking, a wide range of policy and legal instruments exist that have direct bearing on the welfare of children in relation to education and social protection in general, among them are: National Child Policy; National Child Health Policy; National Education Policy; National Child Labour Policy; National Employment and Labour Market Policy; National Youth Policy; National Food and Nutrition Policy; National Gender Policy; Free Basic Education Policy; National HIV/AIDS/STI/TB Policy and the National Cultural Policy. Other instruments (including international conventions) include: Education ACT; National Health Services ACT; Employment ACT; Persons with Disabilities ACT; Births and Deaths Registration Act, Chapter 51; Juveniles ACT; National Food and Nutrition ACT; Probation of Offenders ACT; Child Adoption ACT; African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC); International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR) and the International Convention on the Right of the Child (ICRC).

Lastly, several policies have social protection and specific child protection components which should form the basis for justifying strong cross-sectoral linkages. For example, the National Child Policy of 2006 states, among other objectives: Building the capacities of families and communities in order for them to prepare adequately for their children.

5.8 Linkages between National and Local Level Coordinating Structures

At present, both national and local level structures necessary for cross-sectoral planning and implementation are in place. However, an analysis of social protection shows that whereas top level mechanisms such as the SP-SAG exhibit significant activity, linkages with sub-national and grassroot development structures are not visible. On the other hand, there have been recommendations to establish new structures, such as the Office of the Ombudsman, the Zambia Council for the Child (also echoed in the National Child Policy) and the National Development Coordinating Council. This is in keeping with the recognition of social protection as a right by the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights of 1948 (Assembly Resolution 217A (III) of 10th December 1948); promoting social protection from a rights-based standpoint. However, it must be cautioned that too numerous committees may only result in duplication of efforts, particularly in the absence of clear policy direction and frameworks for implementation.

At the core of inadequate coordination between national and local level structures is the *piecemeal nature of decentralisation*. Social protection is highly dependent on the existence of strong and well linked national, regional,

district and local structures. It is widely recognised that such structures and mechanisms exist and present immense potential. They include the PDCCs, DDCCs, ADCs, WDCs, RDCs including the DWACs, CWACs, ACCs, District Child Protection Committees, among others. However, the extent to which these are financed, capacitated and provided with decision making authority is debatable. As affirmed in several reports (including Tembo and Freeland, 2008, RuralNet Associates, 2005, UNICEF, 2009), issues of inadequate local level capacity and resources coupled with inadequate effective local leadership present key challenges to the delivery of social protection interventions.

5.9 MESVTEE Involvement in Social Protection

At present, the most visible programmes under the MESVTEE which have a direct bearing on addressing the challenge of OOSC are the bursaries support and school feeding.

" Poor health and malnutrition have been shown to be important underlying factors for poor school performance, early dropout from school, low enrolment, and absenteeism, and are constraints on both "Education for All" and the second and third Millennium Goals of achieving universal primary education and gender equality in education access (Freund P. et al, 2005: 3)."

Clearly, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education has been at the centre of implementing some important social protection programmes targeting poor and vulnerable children and this was also reflected in the SPS under objective 4. Sub objective states: "*To increase participation in education and training for all children/youth from incapacitated and low capacity households".* Another area of SP in education has been on provision of *bursaries* (see also Chapter 3) for most vulnerable and poor children.

5.10 Monitoring and Evaluation

It is only recently that more effort is being invested in M&E. Such efforts have included regular monitoring visits and creation of management information systems. A systematic evaluation of cash transfers is also underway. Nevertheless, the absence of effective and tested systematic monitoring (including data collection tools) continues to pose a major challenge. This is compounded by the fact that the capacities of district and community level personnel to carry out M&E is still inadequate. Wietler and Schubert (2004) observed that monitoring largely consists of monthly visits by community members to the beneficiaries, involving open group discussions and resulting reports. Furthermore, limited follow up and action on findings from monitoring visits by other agencies such as the HRC on conditions in various prisons, detention and other facilities and orphanages remain a challenge.

Developing a monitoring framework that captures the totality of programmes and interventions that seek to uplift the well-being of the child is missing. At provincial and national levels, the ability to design systems and tools to capture, process and utilise data on various social protection programmes is needed. At district level, capacity building and provision of facilities, e.g. transport, to effectively capture data is paramount, particularly in ascertaining actual demand for the services and measure impact over time. It will also require taking advantage of other existing information systems. Examples include: Vulnerability Assessment Survey (VAS), Community Household Survey (CHS), Education Management Information System (EMIS), Famine and Early Warning System Network (FEWSNET) Food Security, Health, Agriculture and Nutrition Information Systems (FHANIS), Health Management Information System (HMIS) and the Basic Needs Basket (BNB) Survey, among others.

5.11 Budgeting and Finance

Both the FNDP and SNDP have had specific budget lines for social protection and subsequently reflected in the recent national annual budgets (although chiefly in the form of allocations to cash transfers and payment of outstanding contributory pension schemes).

At another level, social protection programmes are financed through specific Ministerial annual budgets (funding of programmes such as school health and nutrition, bursaries and education support under PWAS). However, some key issues can be noted regarding: Inadequate budgetary allocation to social protection as a percentage of GDP (given the high poverty levels and vulnerability); limited contribution to social protection financing from other sectors and the absence of clear signs of commitment to meeting and sustaining

commitments to increasing funding to social protection. The bulk of programme funding for social protection currently originates from the donor community, both through direct support to programmes such as cash transfers and through NGOs and FBOs.

Limited financing of social protection programmes has resulted in some calls for government to exercise caution in spreading resources too thinly with minimal or no impact (Rural Net Associates, 2005) or even doing away with some programmes altogether (PSP, 2010).

However, in a bid to reduce dependence on donor funds, an understanding was reached with cooperating partners that Government funding will be increasing every year proportionate to donor contributions. CSPR's Budget Execution and Service Delivery Barometer Covering January to June 2010 showed minimal funding to social protection interventions. For example 0.7 per cent of the social protection budget went to the street children's programme whereas the Children's Homes Programme also got 0.7 per cent respectively (CSPR, 2010). Nevertheless, significant improvement can be noted in some areas. For instance, whereas the funding for the women empowerment programme in 2010 was K5 billion, the amount had increased to K15 billion in 2011.

There has also been a notable increase in funds allocated to the MCDMCH as illustrated in the table 22 below:

Table 22:Allocations of funds to MCDMCH

Year	Total Funds Allocated (ZMK)
2008	50,445,745,409
2009	73,325,147,602
2010	89.690,404,186
2011	133,460,366,536

Source: MCDMCH (Department of Planning)

At sector level, some funding concerns continue to be expressed. For example, there is currently no specific Government budgetary allocation that goes to address the needs of CSEN, thereby compromising the effectiveness of the Inclusive Education Policy from the supply side. The Zambian Government ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and has been working on processes for its domestication, including review of necessary legislation.

The inadequacy in financing to the social protection sector is further confirmed in the dwindling number of beneficiaries in programmes such as the FSP and the PWAS. In aggregate terms (analysed over a five year period), the number of beneficiaries has reduced from 166,559 in 2006 to 42,228 in 2010 (124,331 less beneficiaries from PWAS in 2010 than there were in 2006). In terms of assistance for primary education, the total number of beneficiaries in 2006 was 4,137 as compared to 3,324 in 2010 (MCDMCH: 2011). However, the reduction in numbers may also be due to some beneficiaries' movement to SCT scheme. Furthermore, table 23 below shows a trend of deficits in the Ministry of Education's *funding* (in Zambian Kwacha) *to the bursary scheme*, which ultimately affects the number of children who can benefit from the facility:

Table 23: Trends of Deficits in MESVTEE Funding

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total budgeted amount of public expenditure on education bursary	4,056,622,523	4,769,900,000	5,119,900,878	6,400,000,000	6,400,000,000
Total actual amount of public expenditure on education bursary	2,584,812,111	4,769,900,000	4,421,732,573	3,718,750,000	3,892,747,900
Variance	**1,471,810,412**		**698,168,305**	**2,681,250,000**	**2,507,252,100**

Source: MESVTEE-EMIS, 2011

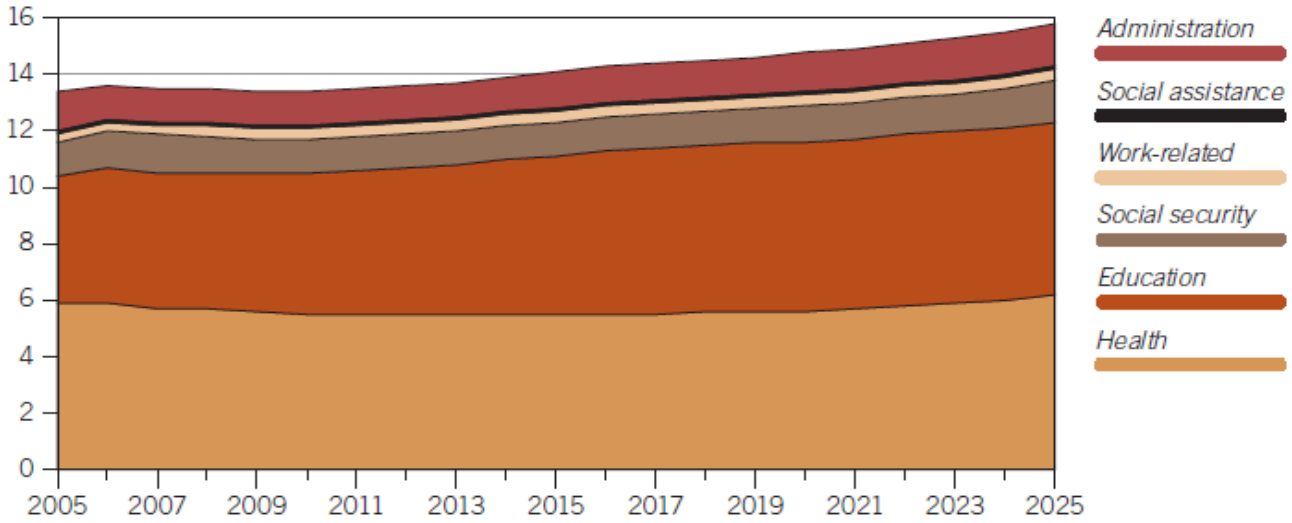
This is despite the rising demand for bursaries as reflected in the increased number of vulnerable children. The Ministry's expenditure on school health and nutrition is tabulated below:

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total budgeted amount of public expenditure on School Health	3,477,105,020	5,469,900,000	5,119,900,878	5,119,900,878	5,119,900,878
Total actual amount of public expenditure on School Health	2,452,425,186	5,469,900,000	4,421,732,573	2,549,907,074	2,559,950,400
Variance	**1,024,679,834**		**698,168,305**	**2,569,993,804**	**2,559,950,478**

Source: MESVTEE-EMIS, 2011

The poor SP resourcing is particularly worrying in the face of a slow increase in the future expenditure projections in social protection made by the ILO as shown in the figure below:

Figure 14: Level and composition of total social protection expenditure, 2005-2025 (percentage of GDP)



Source: ILO, 2008

Nevertheless, overall **social budget expenditure** is expected to increase (particularly in the area of education and health). However, several factors will continue to affect this scenario, including the general level of government revenue (see Wood, 2008) and the ability of the economy to generate sufficient employment and livelihood opportunities and thus go beyond mere social assistance to achieve a system that promotes productive and sustainable livelihoods and prevents citizens from unexpected drops in income and well-being-thereby increasing chances of investing in the education of children in all 5DEs. It can be further argued that financing mechanism around interventions such as bursaries support, school feeding and cash transfers hold significant promise given the direct nature of their impact on OOSC, save for the resource availability and sustainability issues. However, the highly centralised nature of social protection financing and resource mobilisation continues to render most financing mechanisms inefficient and ineffective. Also important is the extent of prioritisation of social protection in relation to other government expenditure areas.

In conclusion, the following observations can be made regarding social protection financing: The MCDMCH continues to bear the burden of financing the bulk of public social protection interventions; Budgetary allocation as a percentage of GDP is insignificant in relation to the magnitude of social protection challenges and poverty;

There has been a reduction in real public spending to social protection (with just a few years after incorporating the sector into national development planning); There is significant contribution to social protection financing from the donor community and NGOs through programme support; The bulk of social protection is financed through informal social protection systems as discussed earlier.

5.12 Analytical Summary

Social protection, poverty reduction and children in the 5DEs

The relationship between education and poverty (within broader context of social protection) tends to show at two levels:

i) Improvements in education act as an investment in human capital development and this increases productivity among the poor; and
ii) poverty on the other hand acts as a hindrance to educational achievement as exhibited in the low access to education and participation in school by children from poor households (see Tables 2 – 9) in Chapter One.

Notwithstanding other factors, poverty emerged dominant among variables hindering access to education, attendance, achievement and completion. A clear trend emerging from the profiles of excluded children (e.g. Tables 2-9) in Chapter One is that children from poor households and regions tend to have the least access to education, have the most irregular school attendance, perform poorly and therefore have a higher chance of dropping out. This is compounded by the findings on child labour that show persistent involvement of children in various forms of labour which not only pose potential health problems (see Tables 6 - 10) on them but also further reduce their chances of either accessing school or if in school, the ability to get back in school once they drop out. It follows, therefore, that social protection measures aimed at tackling the significant barrier of poverty, play a crucial role in minimising the problem of out of school children. It is clear that reducing or completely foregoing investment in human capital (e.g. education and health) can be seen as a natural response by the poor in the face of chronic poverty. However, some of the critical factors of exclusion stem from negative socio-cultural practices in communities and households where children come from.

Thus, social protection programmes aimed at improving the living conditions at home and addressing economic and socio-cultural barriers need to be complemented by measures against early marriages, domestic violence, child abuse and discrimination, among other areas of child protection which are critical to effectively deal with the problem of out of school children. As a result, social protection interventions cannot be treated and implemented as stand-alone measures but rather as a combination of strategically linked tools for addressing poverty, vulnerability, inequality and injustice. Ultimately, such a view is grounded in the understanding that the factors of exclusion from education are complex and multi-dimensional.

Therefore, there is need to establish and enhance *social demand for social protection* in order to advance the concept as part of economic and social rights for every citizen as outlined in Articles 22, 25 and 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), human dignity and reflective of societal values. However, "…the extent that citizens can voice their interests and place active demands on government is highly limited" (Schuring and McDowall, 2011: 12). Deliberate and planned communication and advocacy efforts are important in this regard. This will ultimately imply reflecting on the extent to which campaigns on Education for All are packaged and highlight these dimensions.

Despite notable improvements in **data gathering**, with most government ministries establishing automated management information systems. M&E needs to be done systematically, more frequently and with appropriate tools. Related to the foregoing and despite several studies and reports confirming the **potential and visible contribution of social protection programmes to the education** of children, there is a risk of relying on the assumption that all social protection programmes directly and positively impact on the education of children. At present, most sectors, although implementing some form of social protection, do not see the link between what they are doing and social protection. Thus, *the connection between social protection and education may, in some cases, be based on assumptions and not empirical evidence*. In the area of **public financing of social protection programmes**, a clear trend is noticeable regarding the mismatch between budgetary allocations and actual disbursements. It is important to underscore the point that

as long as the economy does not grow enough to facilitate increased government revenue and stimulate the labour market (which in turn contributes to broadening the tax base), funding will continue to be both unpredictable and unsustainable (at least for some “less politically attractive” programmes). This will ultimately do little to reduce and subsequently remove dependency on donor financial support. Nevertheless, this is contingent on government prioritising the social and human development agenda, sustained by social demand for the same. With regard to the former, Wood (2008: 25) observes that there have been times when implementation of education reforms was subordinated to the commitment to macro-economic stability.

It is worth noting, in the final analysis, that social protection programmes that benefit children the most can be identified as those that target: i) Out of school children in their households (e.g. cash transfers, micro-credit and education support); ii) Out of school children who have no homes (e.g. OVCs, street children programmes and orphanages); and iii) Children at risk of exclusion who are in school (e.g. bursaries and school feeding programmes).

CHAPTER 5
CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND WAY FORWARD

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND WAY FORWARD

In situating Zambia's current response towards achieving Education for All by 2015, this study examined the profiles of out-of-school children following the five dimensions of exclusion, analysed the barriers and bottlenecks to accessing education (socio-cultural, economic demand side, supply side, governance and financing decisions) and the policies that aim at addressing these barriers and bottlenecks. The study has further interrogated some of the current social protection and child protection strategies that relate to education to establish the extent to which they have contributed or can contribute to addressing the OOSC problem. From the findings presented in the four chapters, the following conclusions and recommendations can be made:

6.1 Understanding the profiles of out of school children

Profiles of excluded Children

In understanding the profiles of excluded children, the study found that age is a significant factor especially in the first dimension, where quite a significant per cent of pre-primary aged children (six years) were in primary school. Another significant factor in the profiles was gender. It was found that starting from lower secondary level, gender begins to make a significant difference in terms of attendance and participation patterns, to the disadvantage of girls. Poverty was also found to be a significant factor, where higher percentages of children from poor families were out of school compared to those in richer families. The same applies to risk of repeating classes, where children from poor families five times more at risk of repeating than those from richer families. Child labour was also found to be quite significant in profiling OOSC. In rural areas, 94.6 per cent of OOSC are involved in agricultural sector child labour.

The issue of children at risk of dropping is not adequately addressed because most of the responses to OOSC are reactive rather than preventive. This creates a challenge as it is better to prevent children from dropping out than to bring them back.

Recommendations

In view of the foregoing a number of recommendations have been made as follows:

Sources of data

1. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education needs to coordinate and harmonise various data sources to ensure more consistent and in-depth ways of capturing data on out-of-school children and to ensure that programming for OOSC is well informed and is addressing the whole complexity of out-of-school children as per the identified profiles in chapter one of this report.
2. Whereas the major data sources such as EMIS, household surveys and research reports are available for use as needed, inspection reports by standards officers are hardly available. Given that it is these which are better placed to examining participation, learning difficulties encountered, improvements to be made (e.g. remedial teaching), etc., it is recommended that educational management, supervision and monitoring be strengthened at district and school levels as a matter of priority.

Profiles of Excluded Children

1. The policy on grade 1 entry point at age 7 needs to be reviewed. An assessment of whether it may be effective to bring the entry point lower to age six needs to be conducted to inform the policy decision.
2. The study recommends that gender awareness be enhanced at community level to bring to appreciation the importance of girl child education.
3. It is also recommended that responses or strategies for addressing other factors that reduce girls' participation in education such as early pregnancies and early marriages should be enhanced both at policy level and strategy level.

6.2 Barriers and Bottlenecks

The study has confirmed that there are significant barriers and bottlenecks to education access both on the demand side and the supply side. On the demand side, there are both socio-cultural and economic barriers. These interact

with each other and cannot be addressed in isolation. For example, demand for education can not only be address by improving economic status of a household, but also by achieving a total change of mind-set towards importance of education (especially for girls), as well as addressing all the gender issues and reproductive health challenges**.** The study has also highlighted the challenges of substance abuse, violence and disability and key barriers to participation in education.

Other key barriers that have been identified are issues of disability and CSEN where both the demand for education by CSENs as well as supply of appropriate education services by CSEN is very low.

On the supply side, it can be concluded that limited school places, inadequate trained teachers, low teacher motivation and inadequate learning materials and facilities significantly affect access to education because children find it frustrating to learn in such environments. So even is situation where the demand has been created, poor supply of education services may significantly increase levels of OOSC**.**

Recommendation

General

Addressing barriers and bottlenecks needs to take a balance approach in addressing demand and supply side issues. On the demand side, the socio-cultural side requires strategies that target change of attitudes towards education especially for girls, increased parental interest in education as well improved access to SRH for children. There is need to do sensitisation on gender balance in education access, because as the study indicates, there is an improvement in enrolment of girls, but when it comes to retention, there is more girls dropping out.

Specific

1. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should work with various stakeholders to address gender disparities that exist both on the demand and supply side.
2. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should take seriously the need for favourable sanitation, girls and CSEN facilities in schools.
3. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education needs to create and strengthen communication channels and linkages between schools and communities to ensure that stakeholders and community members are not only aware of the OOSC problem but that they are mobilised to take action to make a difference.
4. Raising awareness and mobilising communities to value education for CSENs should be promoted.
5. The ministry needs to strengthen and enhance training of teachers in CSEN teaching skills to reduce the marginalisation and exclusion of children with special needs.
6. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should enhance the prevention of reliance on punitive measures of discipline at school level that promote rather than reduce violence and sour school-community relationships;
7. The MESVTEE should design data capture tools for obtaining information, by schools, from communities on OOSC and their vulnerability characteristics and storage of the same at school level for usage and not just for onward transmission to Lusaka. This will enhance appreciate of the problem at local level to mobilise communities to own the problem and start addressing it at local level especially with issues of social cultural barriers.
8. The MESVTEE needs invest in teacher training and motivation programmes to encourage more people to join the profession, but also to ensure that there is equitable distribution of teachers especially in the rural areas. There is need to enhance and/or re-introduce management training for school managers to improve the management skills at school level. Motivated teachers have potential to enhance children's interest in school as already established in this study.
9. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should invest more in educational materials that support core learning such as text books, and these should be equitably distributed across provinces.
10. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should collaborate with the Ministry of Youth and Ministry of Home Affairs to address the issue of alcohol and substance abuse among young people. The ministry may also need to do further investigation on this subject to statistically determine the extent to which alcohol and substance contributes to keeping children out of school.

6.3 Policy Responses

There is several education policies that are meant to address the barriers and bottlenecks discussed above. Some of the policies have been effective in reducing the OOSC challenges while some have not been effective. Some of the gaps identified at policy level relate to time lapses between policy formulation and implementation. One key challenge is that some policies are not backed by a favourable legal or operational framework so they appear to be there just as a tokenistic response. For example, the decision to make ECCE part of the formal education system (see Chapter 3) was taken in 1996. Yet, it was not until 2004 that it was formally operationalized through a statutory instrument, and backed by a legal framework in the new Education Act of 2011. Similarly, specifications of higher educational values, ideals and principles that will drive early learning standards in Zambia were not in place by 2011; signifying delayed curriculum elaboration and development of learning materials for this level of education. Also, the Re-Entry Policy (1997) was neither supported by a legal framework nor an implementation strategy and was therefore not effectively implemented.

Recommendation

There is need to address the gaps identified as follows: time lapses between policy formulation and policy implementation, and/or lack of clear operational strategies or lack of a supporting legal framework that affect implementation of good existing policies. Special attention should be put to policies addressing gender issues such as the re-entry policy as well as policies guarding needs of CSENs.

Specifically

1. In order to narrow the gulf between the time when policies are developed and the time of implementation of the policies, it is recommended that educational decentralisation be completed in order to fast track adoption and implementation of more relevant and context specific policies and strategies as well as more effective targeting of OOSC initiatives at local level.
2. The ministry needs to develop clear policy guidelines on training and motivation of teachers in CSENs teaching skills.
3. The Ministry should develop policies and guidelines specific to improving the quality of education delivery so as to enhance effectiveness and efficiency of the system to prevent school dropout. Currently, in terms of distribution of policies, there seems to be a policy bias in favour of access, equity and retention (as related to 'quantity of learners' in school). This study has established that poor quality of education delivery encourages drop out.
4. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education must develop implementation strategies or guidelines as well as legal frameworks to facilitate the implementation of existing policies such as the Re-entry policy of 1997. The MESVTEE should collaborate with the ministry of gender to develop clear strategies for the implementation of this policy.
5. MESVTEE should formulate EMIS policy that will guide schools on how to capture and store data at school level. This data should be for usage and storage at school level not just for onward transmission to Lusaka. This will enhance appreciation at school level that accurate data and information (and their effective use of it) are effective weapons in fighting against inequality;
6. The MESVTEE should simplify and popularise of some policies and strategies so that MESVTEE stakeholders (parents or guardians and partners) have clear understanding and appreciation of the same. This is because for effective implementation of most policies, parents and/or guardians need to play a role to either take up services or support implementation. For instance, some communities still have questions on the FBE policy of 2002 where beneficiaries still incur direct costs administered by the schools, such as user fees, PTA charges or project fees and indirect costs which include school uniforms and shoes, books and supplies, transportation, private tuition, packed lunches, etc. Another example is the re-entry policy, unless parents, guardians and pupils step up to take up the service offered, it will remain on paper.
7. Stakeholders should advocate for the domestication of some international covenants or conventions supporting MESVTEE policies and strategies that Zambia is signatory to; this will ease operations for policy implementers as they will have a localized view or focus such as the UNCRPD for a localised response to CSENs.
8. The ministry should develop measures to ensure sustainability of programmes or interventions aimed at

attracting OOSC and retaining them in school such as scaling up of the school feeding programme.

9. The ministry needs to operationalize the National Policy on Education of 1996 by developing clear curriculum and book development policies and guidelines to enhance curriculum quality thereby guaranteeing quality education delivery for all, both disabled and able bodied. This will contribute to keeping children interested and motivated to remain in school.

6.4 Social protection

Zambia's current Social protection (SP) system does not have established a significant relationship between the welfare of school aged children on one hand and programming for the generic range of poor and vulnerable groups and OVCs on the other hand. The only obvious link so far established with regard to social protection and the welfare of school aged children can be seen in the school health and nutrition, educations support (where vulnerable children are provided with such school requisites as uniforms) and the bursaries support (see Chapters 3 and 4 for details). This narrow perspective for SPs entry into education could partly be explained by the unfinished business in the restructuring, decentralization and capacity building for the decentralized system as alluded to in Chapter 3. But even more importantly, the country's pre-occupation with increasing access, coupled with lack of systematic research in matters of child protection and the impact of such factors as violence and neglect on OOSC and CRDOS would lead to perceiving the latter as a non-priority; contrary to the current global thinking.

The foregoing suggests that children's welfare requires social protection and child protection policies regulatory frameworks and administrative systems that go beyond cash transfers and social safety nets. But effective targeting of vulnerable children at that level, would, as Ornstein and Levine (2000) observed, require supportive home-school partnerships. This partnership would then empower the PTAs and other school community committees to ensure that obligations such as birth registration, caring for the learning needs of CSEN and fairness in the allocation of resources to orphans and other vulnerable children are efficiently and accountably implemented.

Recommendations

There is need to strengthen the social protection programmes and directly link them to education. Where a clear link is made, it is easy to see impact. Where it is not clear as to whether the programmes are meant to improve access to education, no impact can be demonstrated. It is also necessary to include psychosocial support for abused and traumatised children.

Specifically:

1. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education in collaboration with the Ministry of health need to scale up school feeding programmes across the provinces.
2. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should ensure that bursaries are targeting at the most vulnerable such as girls who return to school after pregnancy (in situations where support from the family may have been withdrawn).
3. There is need for good M&E of social protection programmes to trace impact.
4. The private sector should also play a significant role in social protection in form of corporate social responsibility. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education in collaboration with Social Welfare should facilitate the engagement of the private sector

6.5 Way Forward

As a way forward, the MESVTEE in Zambia needs to carefully consider all the findings of this study and respond to the gaps identified. There is need to assess how best to respond and develop a plan for response.

In order to ensure that the findings of this report achieve some impact, the following activities can be suggested as way forward:

1. Dissemination workshop: UNICEF in partnership with the MESVTEE should host a dissemination workshop where various stakeholders will be brought together to be appraised of the findings of the report. The stakeholders should also reflect and discuss how best they can respond to the situation. An action plan that highlights specific activities for specific stakeholders would be the main outcome of this session.
2. Media briefing: For issues that require mass sensitisation and/or advocacy, a media briefing session

should be organised to ensure that media coverage of OOSC is enhanced in order to stimulate public and policy discussion around the key outcomes.

3. Community based public dialogue forums: A series of community based public dialogue forum could be conducted especially to address the social cultural issues
4. Policy advocacy: key findings that speak to policy issues can be teased out and developed into a policy brief that can be used to policy dialogues with members of Parliament and other policy stakeholders.

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ANNEX 1 OVERVIEW OF DATA SOURCES

Annex 1
OVERVIEW OF DATA SOURCES

Data Source (Name, Type, Agency and Date of Collection)	**Frequency**	**Sampling and Coverage of Data Collection**	**Definition of out-of-school children**	**Smallest administrative area for which statistics on the out-of-school population are statistically accurate**	**Characteristics available for disaggregation**	**Access and availability**	**Limitations**
Name: Monitoring and Evaluation of Quality of Education Survey; **Type**: Administrative data; **Agency**: FAWEZA (Monitoring and Evaluation(M&E) Unit	Weekly	Specific geographic region	Not enrolled and "in-and-out" of sc hool	Provincial	Age, Sex, Area, etc	Processed and unprocessed data available. Procedure for accessing data is by writing to the Executive Director.	Incomplete (low response rate)
Name: Bursary Scheme Beneficiary Performance Assessment Survey; **Type**: Administrative data; **Agency**: FAWEZA (Monitoring and Evaluation(M&E) Unit; **Date**: April & May	Annual (Termly)	Specific geographic regions; in schools supported by FAWEZA	Not enrolled and "in-and-out" of sc hool	School	Age, sex, area, type of school supported (government schools only)	Processed and unprocessed data available. Procedure for accessing data is by writing to the Executive Director.	Incomplete. About 90 per cent of the data is received because teachers ensure that they collect it so that they secure bursaries for children to be in school.
Name: National Assessment Survey of Learning Achievement; **Type**: Administrative data; **Agency**: Examinations Council of Zambia (ECZ); **Date**: September, 2008	Bi-annually	Stratified sampling, national coverage	Not enrolled	District	Age, sex, area, parent/guardian, socio-economic group, type of school, wealth quintile	Processed data available. Procedure for accessing data is by writing to the Permanent Secretary	Limited Accuracy
Name: Examination Statistics; **Agency**: Examinations Council of Zambia (ECZ); **Type**: Administrative data; **Date**: Jan. to March and October to December.	Annually	National coverage; all in-school children population	Not enrolled	School	Age, sex	Processed data available, Procedure for accessing data is by writing to the Permanent Secretary	None. Data is accurate because it is collected by teachers on all candidates who enter and sit for examinations or absent from the examinations in all the basic schools in the country
Name: Annual School Census (ASC); **Agency:** Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE); **Type**: Administrative data;	Annually	National coverage; Annual School Census (ASC) for all in-school child population	Not enrolled	School	Age, sex, area (ward and constituency), distance from home to school, etc.	Data is available in publications such as the Educational Statistical Bulletin (ESB), and is stored on a computer software programme called EDASSIST. Specific requests can be made to access data not provided in the ESB, such as disaggregation of data to meet the needs of the user. Procedure for accessing data is by writing to the Permanent Secretary	Very minimal. Response rate for the Annual School Census (ASC) is over 99 per cent.
Name: Vulnerability Assessment; **Agency**: Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS); **Type**: Administrative data	Annual	Stratified geographic regions/purposeful and snowball approach	Not enrolled	Zone (cluster of sc hools)	Age, sex, location	Available and accessible	Limited coverage
Name: School annual data (Termly data and information) **Agency**: Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED) **Type**: Administrative data;	Annually (Termly)	Specific geographic region	Not enrolled	Province	Sex, area	Available	Not available for all schools

Name: Labour Force Survey; **Agency**: Central Statistical Office; **Type**: Household Survey; **Date**: November to January	Every Two years	Sampling is done at two levels. The first level involves sampling enumeration areas (EAs), (which are either rural or urban) from the census frame. Because most of the labour related economic activities are generally in urban areas, more urban EAs are selected than rural EAs. Overall, a total of 1,500 EAs are selected from about 16,000 EAs in the Census frame. The second level of sampling involves selecting households to be interviewed. Firstly, the listing of households within the selected EA is conducted in which more than 120 household will be listed. This is then followed by systematically selecting 30 households per EA to be interviewed. In total 30,000 households countrywide were interviewed. In terms of coverage, all the constituencies countrywide are covered. This is to ensure representativeness of the entire country.	A child (below the 18 years old) who is currently not attending school either because he/she has never been to school or has been made to withdraw due to various reasons	provincial level	Age, Sex, Rural/ urban, Province, Educational attainment	Microdata or raw data is available and can be accessed on request directly or via the internet. However, final reports, survey instruments such as questionnaires, enumerators' manual, codebooks can be obtained directly at our office or be downloaded from the CSO website (www.zamstats.gov.zm).	*inaccessibility of some areas* -Data entry, especially of income as a variable, does not have in-built controls to take care of zero filling functions in the computer system *At planning stage*, not every concept or definition is included but as far as possible, an attempt is made to conform to the international standards. Moreover, not all key indicators of the labour market were analysed in the report such as labour productivity, labour elasticity etc
Name: National Household Expenditure Survey; **Agency:** National Statistical Office; **Type**: Household Survey; **Date**: January - March 2010.	Every two years since 2000	Nationally representative survey. Excludes two remote islands that account for 2 per cent of the national population.	The child did not attend school during the three weeks preceding the survey (reference: survey manual	Province level	Age group, sex, wealth quintile, urban/rural, education level	Individual-level data (without personal information) available from National Statistical Office upon request. Data available in SPSS and Stata format	Survey excluded two remote islands with 2 per cent of the national population. High number of missing values in responses to questions on household income.
Name: Direct Beneficiary Monitoring and Reporting (DBMR); **Agency**: ILO; **Type**: Administrative; **Date** varies	Quarterly Basis (Every 3 months).	Provincial level	A child who reports that they are not attending school.	District Level	Sex, Age, Area, Level of education	Data is accessible which is basically available upon request through Micro soft Access Database. Through reports Also through Internet access on the web site	Respondents normally encounter constraints in giving out of information mainly because of the sensitivity of the information. Sometimes the information obtained is incomplete. Hence this basically results in making follow ups in an effort to capture accurate information which is costly and also time consuming

Name: Census Of Population and Housing; **Agency**: Central Statistical Office **Type**: Census Data; **Date**: October - November	Every Ten years	National	Not enrolled	District Level	Age, sex, area, socio-economic group, ethnicity religion, marital status.	Soft copies and hard copies are provided free at request from Central Statistical Office and are available online at www.zamstats.gov.zm	Age misreporting
Name: Living Conditions Monitoring Survey; **Agency** Central Statistical Office; **Type** Household Survey; **Date:** November-December	Bi-annually	The LCMS covers the entire nation on a sample basis. It covers both rural and urban areas in all the nine provinces. The survey is designed to provide data for each and every district in Zambia. A sample of 1,000 Standard Enumeration Areas (SEAs) was drawn to cover approximately 20,000 households	Whether one has never attended school	District	Age, sex, marital status, type of school.	Microdata or raw data is available and can be accessed on request directly or via the internet. However, final reports, survey instruments such as questionnaires, enumerators' manual, codebooks can be obtained directly at our office or be downloaded from the CSO website (www.zamstats.gov.zm).	Non response errors, age misreporting.
Name: Zambia Demographic Health Survey, **Agency**: Central Statistical Office **Type**: Household Survey; **Date**: April – October	Every four years	National, Region and Provincial	Not enrolled	Provincial	Age, sex, area, wealth quintile, marital status	Soft copies and hard copies are provided free at request from Central Statistical Office and are available online at www.zamstats.gov.zm	Age misreporting, non-response errors
Name: Basic Needs Basket Survey; **Agency**: Jesuit Centre for Theological Reflection (JCTR) **Type**: Market survey	Monthly	Convenience sampling and specific geographical region	Not Applicable (N/A)	District	Not Applicable (N/A)	Available and accessible on request from Information Officer	Data not generalizable, limited coverage

ANNEX 2
LIST OF OFFICIALS INTERVIEWED IN GOVERNMENT LINE MINISTRIES

Name of Officer	Designation	Contact Details	
		Mobile/Land line	Email
Central Statistical Office(CSO)-Ministry of Finance and National Planning(MoFNP)			
1. Mr. William C.Mayaka	Deputy Director-Social Statistics	+260-977 849241 +260-211 256973	wcmayaka@zamstats.gov.zm
2. Mr. Goodson Sinyenga	Deputy Director-Economics & Financial Statistics	+260-976 447012 +260-211 253609	gsinyenga@zamstats.gov.zm
3. Mr. Peter M. Mukuka	Deputy Director-Information, Research & Dissemination(IRD)	+260-977 758590 +260-211 250 195	pmmukuka@zmastats.gov.zm
4. Mr. Shebo Nalishebo	Senior Statistician-Head(National Accounts)	+260-955 261 769 +260-211 251377, Ext: 397	snalishebo@zamstats.gov.zm
5. Mr. Gerson Banda	Officer-Labour Force unit	+260-977 332 699	Gerson.banda@gmail.com
6. Mr Lovemore Zonde	Officer-Public Finance Unit	+260-977 717551	lovezonda@yahoo.co.uk
7. Mr. Kambaila Munkoni	Officer-Living Conditions Monitoring(LCM) Survey Unit	+260-977-881425	
8. Mr Palver Sinkanyiti	Assistant Demographer	+260-211 251377	spalver@yahoo.co.uk
9. Mr Owen Siyoto	Statistician-Living Conditions Monitoring Branch	+260-211 251377	osiyoto@zamstats.gov.zm/owensiyoto@gmail.com
Ministry of Education(MESVTEE)			
10. Mr Charles Ndakala	Systems Development Manager, Planning & Information Directorate	+260-977 859 522	
11. Mr Victor Chitambala	Officer- Planning & Information Directorate	+260-977 695678	vchitambala@MESVTEE.gov.zm vchitambal@hotmail.com
12. Mr Bupe Musonda	Senior Statistician	+260-955 835032 +260-211 250855,Ext :239	musondabupe@hotmail.com
13. Dr F.Phiri	Director, Planning & Information Department(PID)	+260-211 250760	
Examinations Council of Zambia(ECZ)			
14. Ms Teza N. Musakanya	Principal Officer :Education Diagnostic Researcher	+260-955 754781	tnakazwe@yahoo.com
Ministry of Community Development and social Services(MCDMCH)			
15. Mr Simmy Chapula	Chief Planner, Planning & Information Department(PID)	+260-955 958 017 +260-975 495 212 +260-211 221 354	simmychapula@MCDMCH.gov.zm
16. Mr Victor Kachabe	Senior Welfare Officer(SWO), Social Welfare Department	+260-977 686942	
17. Ms Esther Nga'mbi	Senior Welfare Officer (SWO), Social Welfare Department	+260-979 492 690	
18. Ms Bernadette Malungo	Senior Welfare Officer(SWO), Social Welfare Department	+260-979 579 623	
19. Mr Cornelius Musonda	Senior Community Development Officer, Community Development Department	+260-211 221 354	
20. Mr Yengwe Kakusa	Senior Planner	+260-211 221 354	
Ministry of Labour and Social Security(MLSS)			
21. Mr Arthur Choobe	Acting Permanent Secretary	+260-211 227040/42	
22. Mr Seti	Assistant Labour Commissionner/Child Labour Protection Manager		
Public Service Management Division			
23. Mr Ackim Sakala	Director-PMEC Support Services Department (PSSD)	+260-976 154015 +260-211 250245	sakalaaa@coppernet.zm sakalaaa@yahoo.com
Micro Bankers Trust			
24. Bernard Lusale	Financial Services Programme Coordinator	+260-211-290852	
Ministry of Health			
25. Dr. Penelope Kalesha	Director - Child Health Department	+260-211-222692	

ANNEX 3
LIST OF OFFICIALS INTERVIEWED IN CIVIL SOCIETY ORGANISATIONS (CSOs)

Name of Officer	Designation	Contact Details	
		Mobile/Land line	Email
Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia (FAWEZA)			
1. Ms Daphine Chimuka	Executive Director	+260-211 295482	faweza@coppernet.zm
2. Ms Edith Ngo'ma	Programmes Manager	+260-974 041541 +260-211 295482	ecngoma@yahoo.com faweza@coppernet.zm
3. Ms Mwanzanji Phiri	Monitoring and Evaluation Officer (M&E)	+260-977 819163	Mwazzy200@yahoo.oc.uk
4. Mr Misheck Mwanza	Data Analyst	+260-977 674608	Mush.naka@gmail.com
Zambia Open Community Schools(ZOCS)			
5. Mr Peter Sinyangwe	Programmes Manager	+260-211 253841/3	petersinyangwe@yahoo.com
6.	Exécutive Director	+260-211 253841/3	
CAMFED			
7. Ms Barbara Chilangwa	Exécutive Director	+260-211 257774/257902	
8. Ms Chritabel M.Sunkutu	Programme Manager: Education	+260-977 740 752 260-211 257774/257902	Cmusonda@camfed.org
Zambia National Education Coalition(ZANEC)			
9. Mr George Hamusunga	Programme Officer	+260-977 805695 +260-211 226422	ghamusunga@yahoo.com
Platform for Social Protection			
10. Ms Mutale Wakunuma 11. Mr Vince Chipatuka	Country Coordinator Programmes		mutalemw@yahoo.com chipatukavince@yahoo.com
Civil Society for Poverty Reduction			
12. Ms Diana Ngula	Programme Officer - Information Management & Communication	+260-211-290154	
Africa Directions			
13. Bwalya Mushiki	Programme Officer	0979324359	
14. Gift Chimpampwe	Programme Officer	0977962733	

ANNEX 4
LIST OF OFFICIALS INTERVIEWED IN OTHER STAKEHOLDER INSTITUTIONS

Name of Officer	Désignation	Contact Détails	
		Mobile/Landline	Email
1. United Nations Children's Fund(UNICEF)			
1. Ms Amanda Bissex	Chief, Child Protection	+260-978 953844 +260-211 252055 :Ext.231	abissex@unicef.rg
2. Dr Raymond Chipoma	Officer, Social Protection	+260-955 068 133	
3. Ms Sheila Nkunika	Officer, Social Protection	+260-977 410 625	snkunika@unicef.org
2. International Labour Organization			
4. Ms Shebbah Hamusimbi	Programme Assistant, IPEC TACKLE	+260-977 635 582 +260-211 252779	hamusimbi@ilo.org
5. Mukatimu Chabala	National programme Coordinator-ILO	+260-211 252 779	chabala@ilo.org

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS WITH YOUNG PEOPLE

Type of Group	No. of people	Location
boys	7	Mutendere Compound
girls	8	Mutendere Compound
boys	10	Mathero Compound
girls	8	Mathero Compound

ANNEX 5 TYPOLOGY OF SOCIAL PROTECTION PROGRAMMES IN ZAMBIA

TYPE OF PROGRAMME	COVERAGE		BENEFIT (Description)	FINANCING		IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS			YEAR PROGRAMME INITITIATED	Additional details
	Per cent of total population	**Universal or targeted (and targeting method)**		**Total cost (%GDP)**	**Financing source**	**Periodicity (e.g. weekly, monthly, etc.)**	**Method of delivery (e.g. banking system, postal service, NGOs, local government unit, etc.)**	**Lead Agency/ Ministry**		
Public Welfare Assistance Scheme (PWAS)	Direct beneficiaries per year average 105,000 (40% men and 60% women)	-Bottom 2 per cent of incapacitated members of the population -Orphans and neglected children; -Households that are headed by elderly persons; the chronically ill; the disabled; households with no productive assets and victims of natural disasters	-Helps the poorest and most vulnerable households to meet their basic needs -Food, shelter, education support (e.g. uniforms), health support, clothing and repatriation		-Central Government (MCDSS ministry annual budget allocation)	-Varies according to type of support, for example, educational support typically provided at the beginning of each school term	-Through decentralised district (DWACs) and community structures (CWACs)	MCDSS	-1950s	-Programme redesigned in 2002. Guidelines for implementation also revised -Potential for scale-up very high
Social Cash Transfers (SCT)	10 Districts are benefiting from the programme at present -Plans for scale up in place	10 per cent most incapacitated households in the country	-Inclusive Model (providing a regular fixed monthly transfer per household selected); -Child Grant; -Old age pension (pilot) providing a fixed amount to all persons aged 65 years and above residing in Katete district, Eastern Province)		Government annual budgetary allocations and cooperating partners (i.e. DfID, Irish Aid, UNICEF)	Monthly	Administered through district offices of MCDSS and subsequently through PayPoint Managers drawn from other government ministries (e.g. health and education).	MCDSS	2003	Initially implemented as a pilot in a few Districts and now being scaled up (contingent on resource and capacity) -Plans are underway to recruit an agent to deliver payments -Plans also in place to establish a management information system to enhance data capture and overall M&E improvement
Child Grant	3 Districts are benefiting from the programme at present-plans for scale up in place	-Implemented in districts with the highest poverty and infant mortality rates as per Living Condition Monitoring Survey -Targeting at the point of registration dictates that a child should be 36 months or below to qualify for the transfer (to be on the scheme until they are five years old)	-Provides a *transfer of K55, 000* (per month) per household for a child who is under 5 years -scheme aims to improve the psychological and physical development of children		UNICEF	Monthly	As other cash transfers	MCDSS	Introduced in 2010	Scheme recently included special attention to children with disability (supported up to the age of 14)

School Feeding Programme (SFP)	-Currently in 31 Districts of Zambia	Government and community schools- selected using MESVTEEs NER data, food security baseline data from VAC and malnutrition levels	- So far benefited 830,000 children country-wide, with: Hot meals,		WFP	Daily, when schools are in session	Delivered through the schools and community members (who prepare meals and related activities e.g. fuelwood collection)	WFP/MESVTEE	-2003 -However, school feeding programmes of varying sizes have been in existence in Zambia *since the 1970s*	-Programme transformed into HGSF which focuses on stimulating local community economy by sourcing food supplies from local farmers -Programme also designed to be all- embracing by promoting environmental sustainability (e.g. through use of efficient cook stoves to prepare meals, aforestation, gardening and deworming)
Bursaries Support		Targets poor and vulnerable-MCDSS and ZAPD help identify and recommend pupils/ students in categorised as such	School fees		MESVTEE and NGOs/ CBOs	Typically fees paid at the onset of a school term	Fees paid directly to schools by MESVTEE or partners, e.g. FAWEZA	MESVTEE	2002	-Support provided to lower secondary pupils and those in tertiary institutions -There is significant contribution from NGOs (e.g. FAWEZA) and FBOs in providing bursaries, particularly for supporting education of girl children
Food Security Pack (FSP)		-Vulnerable but viable small – scale farmers	-Pack consists of basic agricultural inputs (seeds), fertiliser and training in conservation farming		-Government (MCDSS ministry annual budget allocation)	At the beginning of a farming season (however, support also provided outside these period, particularly in area of training)	Through the MACO/ MCDSS district committees	MCDSS	2000	
Micro-Credit (Micro Bankers Trust)	-Currently reaching 7 of the nine Provinces of Zambia - By the end of June 2011, the total number of beneficiaries was 15,571 (13,451 females & 467 males)	-Alternative financial services for the vulnerable and viable population in Zambia, with special emphasis to women using the Grameen model	-Loans and savings for stimulating various trading, and service provision activities.		-MBT is a GRZ grant-aided institution under MCDSS. The Ministry provides monthly grants that supplement operational costs of managing the core business of providing financial services	Loans provided throughout the year (based on applications)		Micro Bankers Trust (MBT)	1996	MBT currently managing a revolving fund for providing loans to people displaced by the establishment of Lumwana Mines in Solwezi (N.Western Province). The fund was provided by Lumwana Mine in the early 2010.

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