

ALL CHILDREN IN SCHOOL BY 2015

Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children

ESAR REGIONAL REPORT



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Preface

Governments in the Eastern and Southern Africa region have made tremendous efforts in recent years towards attaining the Millennium Development and Education For All Goals.

This has led to gender parity in primary school enrolment and net enrolment rates of close to 100 per cent in many countries. There are still, however, large variations within and between countries, and gender inequality remains a very serious concern across the region at the post-primary level.

This study was commissioned as one of several regional studies to provide a critical analysis of the system at all levels, in terms of statistics on school participation, as well as enabling factors including policy, planning and implementation that enable us to better understand the remaining challenges within the region to ensuring universal access to quality education.

This regional analysis is one of five initial studies carried out in the region. The other studies were at the country level in Zambia, Mozambique, Ethiopia and South Sudan. Further studies will be facilitated throughout the region in 2013 and beyond. Such studies should be core to situation analyses in all countries and help guide sector-review processes.

Despite the progress noted above, it is still very clear that many countries are far from achieving MDG2 in terms of enrolment and even more, will fail to satisfy the MDG target of 100 per cent completion of primary education by 2015. There is also a huge challenge in terms of the number of children who progress beyond primary education to lower and upper secondary school as well as those able to access other forms of post-primary education.

There are also serious problems about learning outcomes in the region as evidenced by the results of the surveys carried out by the Southern and East African Consortium for Measuring Educational Quality (SACMEQ). Schooling without learning is of little if any value.

One of the critical challenges highlighted by this study is the inadequacy of reliable data to underpin strategic responses to the needs of children and youth who are excluded from education. Another is the need to profile those who are excluded according to different typologies so that strategies can be developed to address their specific needs. Many factors conspire to exclude children from accessing basic education. These include policies, plans and budgets that fail to address issues of equity; information systems that fail to gather data on those excluded from the system; weak mainstream-data systems; and finally the lack of adequate analysis on different types of excluded children. This study demonstrates the importance of addressing income poverty, as well as issues of location and gender. It also highlights the importance of culture and language, issues of security and environment, and the fact that many children affected by disability are invisible to those who should be responding to their needs.

We sincerely hope that this study will play a key role in removing the final bottlenecks and barriers, that exclude children from education and allowing all countries in the region to attain the Education for All and Millennium Development Goals. Education is a goal in itself; it is also critical to the attainment of the broader MDGs and fulfilment of the rights of the child, as well as to the broader socioeconomic development of the region.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'S. Allen', with a stylized, cursive script.

Steven Allen,
November, 2013

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Acronyms

ABE	Alternative Basic Education
ANAR	Adjusted Net Attendance Rate
ANER	Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate
CBE	Complementary Basic Education
CMF	Conceptual and Methodological Framework
CREATE	Consortium for Research on Educational Access and Transitional Equity
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
ECCE	Early Childhood Care and Education
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EFA	Education For All
EMIS	Education and Management Information Systems
EPDC	Education Policy Data Centre
ESAR	Eastern and Southern African Region
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GHS	General Household Survey
GMR	Global Monitoring Report
GPI	Gender Parity Index
IDP	Internally Displaced Person
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
NAR	Net Attendance Rate
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NIR	Net Intake Rate
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
OOSC	Out-of-School Children
OOSCI	Out-of-School-Children Initiative
PIF	Policy Investment Framework
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SACMEQ	The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
UCW	Understanding Children's Work
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

Executive Summary

Introduction

Remarkable efforts have taken place to increase educational access in the Eastern and Southern Africa Region (ESAR) and to achieve the targets highlighted by the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Education For All (EFA) goals. Most countries in the region have experienced a rapid expansion in primary- and secondary- school enrolment rates, but major questions remain about the achievement of primary-school completion rates, the quality of educational provision, whether transitions to secondary school have improved, and if gains in educational outcomes have been equitable. This report is a situation analysis of out-of-school children (OOSC) in ESAR. Its aim is to provide up-to-date knowledge and evidence on the profiles of OOSC, the barriers and bottlenecks that children and families face in terms of access to education, as well as an analysis of responses, including the policies and strategies to enable children to gain meaningful access (defined below).

Conceptual Framework

This situation analysis is guided by a conceptual framework and a review of available data and research. The framework was produced by UNICEF and UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) in 2011 as part of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children. It draws upon the idea of 'Zones of Exclusion', developed by the Consortium for Research on Educational Access Transitions and Equity (CREATE). The Five Dimensions of Exclusion provides a useful conceptualisation of children who are out-of-school. According to this document, Dimension 1 includes children of pre-primary age who are not in pre-primary or primary school; Dimension 2 includes children of primary age who are not in primary or secondary school; Dimension 3 applies to children of lower-secondary age who are not in primary or secondary school; and Dimensions 4 and 5 refer to children who are in primary or lower secondary school and at risk of dropping out.

Data and Evidence

This analysis consulted a broad range of quantitative and qualitative research and data, produced by academics, governments, international non-governmental organisations (INGOs) and other international organisations. The evidence gathering focussed on the 21 countries in ESAR, which were organised into four groups to help structure the review and analysis. The four groups were: middle income countries, small development contexts, large development contexts & fragile states. In addition, the analysis consulted policy documents and plans drawn up by international organisations and governments relevant to the problems of OOSC. UNICEF country offices in ESAR also provided key documents.

Main Findings

Analyses of administrative and survey data

The profiles of OOSC were generated from administrative data and from household surveys. The results suggest some very important conclusions about education in ESAR:

- A large majority of pre-primary-age children do not have access to formal pre-primary education.
- Many children are likely to enter primary school late, which, combined with high repetition rates, has led to large numbers of over-age children in school. In some countries, over half the children in primary school are two or more years over the appropriate age for their grade.
- Educational systems face the persistence of high dropout and low survival rates to the end of primary and lower secondary school as well as low transition rates into lower secondary school.
- In lower secondary schools a very small proportion of children are the appropriate age for their grade.
- Based on household surveys, approximately 19 million primary-age children and 7 million lower-secondary-age children were out-of-school, which represents approximately one out of five children.
- The UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) estimates that 9 million children of primary-school age and 8 million children of lower-secondary school age were not enrolled in school in 2010.
- The majority of out-of-school primary-aged children are expected to enter into primary school at some point, but the majority of children of secondary-school age who out-of-school are expected never to enter primary school.

Inequalities

The concept of equity in education refers to the ability of children to reach their full cognitive, physical and social development without discrimination based on gender, race, ethnicity or where they live. In ESAR, large disparities in access to education exist between children from different socioeconomic backgrounds, between children in different locations, and between boys and girls. These primary inequalities are crosscut by other demographic variables, such as ethnicity, language, disability, single parenthood etc. Furthermore, the inequitable distribution of resources is exacerbated in fragile states, i.e. those that have experienced conflict and/or natural disasters, both of which have multiple negative consequences for children, including poor access to school. The findings on equity issues suggest that:

- Inequalities in access are often associated with wealth and, to a lesser extent, with location and gender, as well as certain livelihoods, e.g. pastoralist or nomadic communities.
- Disparities in educational indicators such as school progression, retention, and dropout rates associated with wealth remain high in several countries.
- Generally low completion rates across the region suggest that many countries are off-track for reaching MDG 2 by 2015.
- Disparities within countries tend to be higher than those between countries.
- Overlapping dimensions of wealth, gender and location exacerbate the likelihood of school exclusion for many children. Understanding these overlapping dimensions is important to contextualise and repair equity problems in the region.

Demand-side barriers

The framework produced by UNICEF and UIS shows two categories of demand-side barriers: the sociocultural practices and experience of children, and the economic circumstances and priorities of households.

Overall, the findings suggest multiple barriers to the demand for education, which include the following:

- Hidden (indirect) and opportunity costs of even 'fee-free' education make schooling unaffordable for many poor families.
- Sociocultural demand-side barriers are difficult to track or generalise as they are constructed from social practices within specific cultural contexts. Traditional social hierarchies often present particular barriers to the demand for girls' education.
- Corporal punishment and gender violence in schools lessen the demand for schooling, especially amongst girls.
- Social and cultural hierarchies militate against parents demanding schools that are safe, well-managed and with good quality teaching;
- Many vulnerable children are unable to access education. Notwithstanding differences across the region, they include: girls, children with disabilities, children affected by HIV, migrants, nomadic people and racial, ethnic and linguistic minorities;
- Children from communities affected by natural disasters or conflict, such as internally displaced persons (IDPs) and refugees, continue to be denied sustained access to quality education.

Supply-side barriers

Multiple supply-side, barriers are related to quality schools, e.g. school buildings, teaching and learning resources, trained teachers and management, suitable pedagogy and school safety. This analysis highlights several of these barriers:

- Continuing high demand for education is not always met with sufficient quality or quantity of schools.
- Supply and quality of classrooms, e.g. water, toilets, books, pencils, pens, furniture and other basic equipment are inadequate, inferior or non-existent.
- Many children have no provision of basic education at all. This ranges from the absence of schools altogether to those that are beyond a safe walking distance from homes as well as the incompatibility of livelihood rhythms (for example harvesting time) with school timetables.
- The quality of teaching and learning needs major attention as learner-friendly pedagogies are rarely in evidence. The capacity of teachers and schools to deal with significant numbers of over-age children is limited. Skills development is sorely needed to train teachers to deal with children at different stages of cognitive and physical development in a multi-grade class.
- The low supply of qualified teachers remains a challenge. In addition to difficulties in attracting qualified people into teaching, teacher education is of variable quality. Professional development and local educational support for teachers are limited and levels of teacher attrition are high.
- The deployment of teachers, female teachers in particular, is especially limited in the more rural locations.
- Teacher attitudes, discipline and absenteeism are all widely significant problems, meaning that being in school is sometimes not a pleasant, positive or productive experience for children.

Bottlenecks

Political, governance and financial shortcomings are the key bottlenecks that impede sustained school access for all children. Key observations reveal the following:

- Expanded demand for and supply of education have strained the administrative capacity in all countries. Such limited capacity to supply education has led to the involvement of private providers especially for early childhood care and education (ECCE), in informal settlements (where it is not captured by administrative data) and in fragile states (where frequent crises restrict education).
- Beyond gender, political sensitivities to certain population subgroups, e.g. ethnic or religious groups, have limited the development of targeted strategies to address their educational rights.
- There is limited evidence showing whether the decentralisation of educational systems is working as intended and if not, whether the cause is local capacity or type of decentralisation.
- Evidence is also limited relating to the co-ordination among education, health and social protection ministries that is vital to educating OOSC.
- There is also limited data, research and evaluation to inform educational policy and planning, especially with respect to OOSC.
- A lack of funding and poor capacity to address the logistical challenges of educational administration, continue to be principal bottlenecks.

Policies and Strategies

The demand- and supply- side barriers and bottlenecks mentioned above are inextricably linked with policy and strategy. This review highlights that:

- Most governments in ESAR have made commitments to achieve the MDGs and EFA goals, and are focussing their education-sector plans on access and inclusion. Most governments describe primary education as free and compulsory, and in a few countries secondary education is also said to be free.
- The policy emphasis and mobilisation strategies have fostered a closing of the gender gap in primary enrolment and completion in most countries, although many other gender inequalities are still very much in evidence.
- Pre-primary education is limited but growing as a few countries have integrated it into their national plans. To extend its scope, private-sector involvement in early childhood development (ECD) has not been discouraged, and alternative community-based approaches have been actively encouraged. But access to ECD is highly inequitable, thereby reinforcing rather than reducing inequalities further up the education system.
- Some countries have made efforts to co-ordinate different government ministries or departments to address the problems of OOSC more holistically.
- Some countries have developed alternative forms of education to reach 'hard-to-reach' regions and groups of children, although issues remain about regulation, quality, and sustainability of these efforts.
- Strategies to target particular groups of children identified as vulnerable to exclusion include support both in and out-of-school for HIV-affected children, orphans and children with disabilities.
- Some countries have made significant progress in improving data collection and monitoring that will provide a better basis to inform policy and planning.

Recommendations

The following recommendations emerging from this situation analysis are offered to ESAR governments and other stakeholders to reduce the number of out-of-school children

1. Increase , enhance and share among countries country-level data and evidence on children who are out-of-school and children in school who are most vulnerable to dropping out.
2. Improve data to identify varied vulnerable and hard-to-reach groups of OOSC, introduce specific, funded policies to target them.
3. Improve quality and quantity of education facilities and opportunities, including school equipment, resources and measures to combat exclusionary cultures and practices in schools.
4. Improve incentives for inclusive education and high standards in schools and among teachers.
5. Improve governance and planning to support schools and teachers in quality teaching and learning, and encourage the community voice and participation, especially in decentralized areas.
6. Identify and support analysis of expenditures that contribute to addressing the needs of OOSC.
7. Sustain and implement commitment to enhancing investment in basic education to ensure that children are equipped to lead meaningful and productive lives and in peaceful co-existence.

Introduction

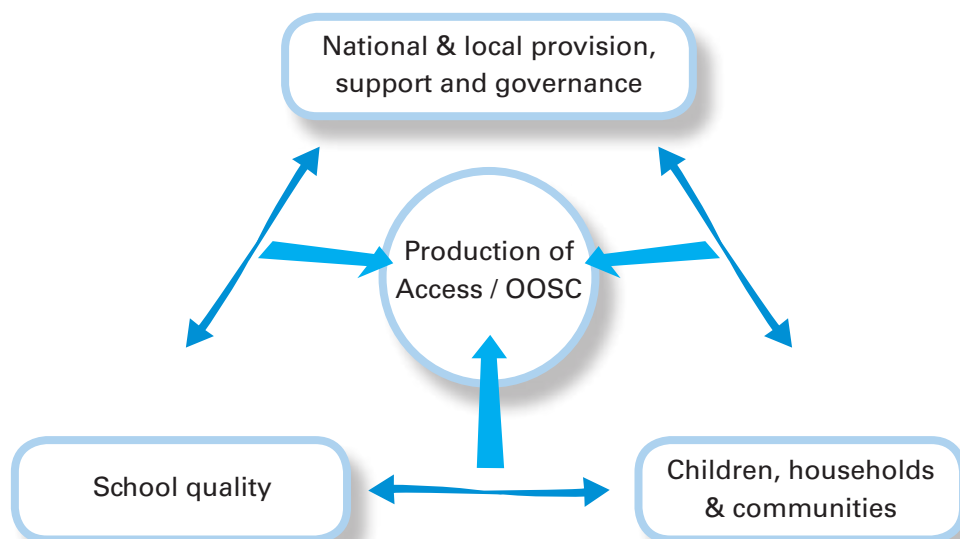
1.1 Overview

Remarkable efforts have taken place to increase educational access in the Eastern and Southern Africa Region (ESAR) to achieve the millennium development goals (MDGs) and Education for All (EFA) targets. Most of the 21 countries in this region have experienced a rapid increase in primary and secondary-school enrolment rates. Still, many questions remain about primary-school completion rates, the quality of education, the state of transition from primary to secondary school, the equitability of gains in educational outcomes across gender, location, or wealth to prevent the exclusion of children from school. In ESAR, a significant proportion of children are still out-of-school, either because they have never entered the system, or because

they have dropped out without completing the basic level of education. Such children may not achieve the minimum reading and numeracy competencies that allow them entry into formal labour markets and societal participation at the appropriate ages. Although data also suggest that many children currently in school also fail to achieve meaningful learning outcomes (see SACMEQ), this report focuses on OOSC in ESAR in keeping with a broader definition that includes the risk of dropping out.

Many factors are associated with accessing, completing, transitioning and dropping out-of-school. This report has organised these factors into three main categories shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Factors influencing numbers of out-of-school children



Adapted from Dunne et al. 2007

These categories include:

1. The government's educational support in both centralised and decentralised areas. This includes policy frameworks, targeted strategies, funding, infrastructure and resources, including teacher training and other support to schools.
2. The individual child who may be in poor health, under-nourished or lacking motivation to learn (Hunt, 2008). These children are influenced by the community and/or households characterised by child labour, migration, poverty, orphanhood and harmful traditional practices.
3. The school level, which plays an important role in encouraging sustained access or increasing pressure to drop out. This includes infrastructure and school environment, as well as quality issues such as class size, teacher absenteeism, disciplinary sanctions and teacher-student relations (Alexander, 2008).

A second important conceptual model in this analysis is the Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE) developed by UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) that identifies which children are considered out-of-school. The model goes beyond focussing on children who are actually not in school to include those children who are in school but at risk of dropping out. This model will be discussed further in Chapter 2.

Adopting the 5DE model, Chapter 3 profiles the children in and out-of-school over the educational cycles of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary school. Chapter 4 explores the equity issues of OOSC in order to capture disparities in educational opportunities between children of different income groups, sub-national regions and gender and other areas.

The over arching structure in Figure 1 above both separates communities, schools,

and administrations and connects them as significant contributors to the variable influences on educational access or exclusion. Chapter 5 describes four areas of barriers and bottlenecks: i) demand-side sociocultural barriers; ii) demand-side economic barriers; iii) supply-side barriers; and iv) political, governance, capacity and financial bottlenecks. Chapter 6 identifies data, analysis and policy gaps, and Chapter 7 presents the final conclusions and recommendations based on the research and analysis.

1.2 Eastern and Southern Africa Region (ESAR)

The Country Groups

ESAR consists of 21 countries, which for the purposes of this analysis have been divided into four country group:

Group 1: Middle Income Countries

(Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland),

Group 2: Fragile States

(Burundi, Comoros Islands, Eritrea, Madagascar, Somalia, South Sudan, Zimbabwe),

Group 3: Mid-size Development Contexts

(Angola, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Zambia),

Group 4: Large-size Development Contexts

(Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda).

These groupings correspond with those commonly used in the UNICEF Regional Office and have been used to assist in the manageability of the literature, data and analysis. The analysis at times, however, goes beyond these clusters to explore other patterns emerging within the region.



Political Context

The political context of the ESAR countries is a fundamental factor that both affects and is affected by the social environment in which educational strategies and policies are formed and implemented. Historically, all 21 countries experienced periods of colonial rule, mostly under the British, but also under French, Portuguese, Italian and Belgian administrations. All countries are currently independent states and, excepting the fragile states (Group 2) and the monarchy in Swaziland are also self-declared democracies (leaving aside one of the four Comoros islands, which remains under direct French rule). At the same time, there are many concerns about political and press freedom, particularly in the more authoritarian regimes. By definition, the political situation of Group 2 countries is more fragile than that of other groups, ranging from the unstable union of the Comoros, to the new democratic South Sudan, to others with various forms and degrees of democracy from Eritrea or Zimbabwe to Somalia, which lacks a unified government. It is important to note, however, that armed conflict has marked the uneasy path to nation building in all 21 countries, including the establishment of national boundaries, command of resources, and the institution of political processes. The competition for economic and political power on the African continent as a whole has had lasting socioeconomic effects that are often drawn along ethnic, religious, regional, and gender lines to produce inequality and disadvantage, not least in terms of access to quality education.

The political history of the region has left a further legacy, which relates to the diversity of national and official languages and linguistic groups. In most ESAR countries a European language is at least one of the official languages. Although English dominates the

region, several countries are Franco-phone or Luso-phone, while Afrikaans is also used in South Africa and Namibia, and Kiswahili has a high status in Tanzania and serves as a lingua-franca across several nations. Arabic is also widespread across the region, most notably in countries with sizeable Muslim populations. Other languages, such as Somali are spoken in several countries and many countries also have an official African language, although it may not be the first language of the majority of the population. As such, many people in the region have knowledge of at least three languages, although many are not educated in their mother tongue.

The complex issue of language of instruction clearly relates to the region's political history and also raises important educational concerns from the medium of instruction to curriculum, structure and resources, pedagogy and social identities. In broader terms it impacts on issues of learning achievement, access and retention, teacher and system capacity, and educational expenditure with implications for OOSC, especially those from linguistic minorities.

Economic Conditions and Demographics

The economies of many ESAR countries demonstrate a continued dependence on basic production, such as agriculture, fishing and resource extraction, including minerals. As such, the regional average gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate is extremely high, providing potential for enhanced internal investment in education and other social services. In a few cases (e.g. South Africa and Angola) there is also a significant industrial sector. And most ESAR countries have large informal sector in which the majority of the population work outside of government regulation. Dependence on high-cost imports, including manufactured goods and fuel,

as well as on development assistance and humanitarian aid, characterise the economies of many of the region's countries, especially the fragile states and large development contexts. Unemployment figures, where available, are high, especially in the middle-

income countries, ranging from 25 per cent in South Africa to 51 per cent in Namibia. Ironically, the Gini coefficient, Table 1 below shows that some of the greatest wealth inequalities in the region occur within the middle-income country group.

Table 1: Economic indicators, total population and percentage of rural population in 2009 in countries in ESAR

Country	GDP*	Gini	Total population	Rural population (%)
Group 1: Middle-Income Countries				
Botswana	13,384	**61.0	1,949,780	40
Lesotho	1,467	52.5	2,066,919	74
Namibia	6,410	**74.3	2,171,137	63
South Africa	10,277	57.8	49,320,150	39
Swaziland	4,998	50.7	1,184,936	75
Group 2: Fragile States				
Burundi	392	33.3	8,303,330	89
Comoros Is.	1,182	64.3	659,098	72
Eritrea	580	n/a	5,073,279	79
Madagascar	1,003	47.2	19,625,030	70
Somalia	n/a	n/a	9,133,124	63
South Sudan	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Zimbabwe	n/a	50.1	12,473,992	62
Group 3: Middle-size Development Contexts				
Angola	5,812	58.6	18,497,632	42
Malawi	794	39.0	14,442,290	81
Mozambique	885	45.6	22,894,294	62
Rwanda	1,136	53.1	9,997,614	81
Zambia	1,430	50.7	12,723,746	64
Group 4: Large-size Development Contexts				
Ethiopia	934	29.8	82,824,732	83
Kenya	1,572	47.7	39,802,015	78
Tanzania	1,362	37.6	43,739,051	74
Uganda	1,217	44.3	32,709,865	87

Source: World Bank Metadata and Human Development Report 2009. Rural population refers to people living in rural areas as defined by national statistical offices. The rural population is calculated by World Bank as the difference between total population and urban population and the data come from the United Nations, World Urbanization Prospects. The percentage of rural population is calculated using total population and rural population figures estimated by World Bank.

*US Dollars.

** Data for 2007.

The population specifics in each country have an important bearing on the demand and supply of schooling, such as large population growth leading to an insufficient number of schools and teachers. Middle-income countries in ESAR (Group 1) have populations below 3 million with the exception of South Africa, which has a population of 49 million. The population in large-size development contexts (Group 4) ranges from 33 million in Uganda to Ethiopia with 83 million. Middle-size development contexts (Group 3) have populations ranging from 10 million in Rwanda to 23 million in Mozambique, whereas there is much more variation in fragile states ranging from the smallest population of nearly 700,000 in Comoros to Madagascar with nearly 20 million people. As Table 1 indicates, the majority of people within the region are located in rural areas with the notable exceptions of South Africa, Botswana and Angola. Larger and more rural populations put greater logistical and organisational strain on under-resourced education systems often leading to less access to services and poorer quality schooling.

Population growth rates continue to be high across the region, and the age profile of all countries, other than the middle-income group, shows over 40 per cent to be between 0-15 years old. The capacity of each government to supply education to this large and growing proportion of the population and to sponsor demand at the family/community level relates directly to the economic conditions within each country. Migration from rural to urban areas is also a key dynamic which is seldom addressed.

Regional wealth and income disparities in ESAR unsurprisingly result in uneven supply and demand for education, with particular implications for rural children, girls and other disadvantaged groups (Lewin, 2011; Lewin, 2007). Lewin and Sabates' (2011) analysis of data from 13 African countries explored several of these well-known patterns longitudinally (using data from the 1990s and early 2000s). Their analysis found that the chances of children from the poorest



households enrolling in and progressing through school, compared to the richest households, have barely improved and in some cases have actually deteriorated. Poorer children, especially girls, are also more likely to be over-age and unlikely to complete schooling. Girls are more likely than boys to be out-of-school in most of the Francophone countries, according to the Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS); in most of the Anglophone countries in Sub-Saharan Africa,

it is the rural children who are more likely to be over-age. (Lewin and Sabates, 2011)

Poverty and economic inequalities also influence educational uptake, although more indirectly, through inadequate health care and social protection. The data across the region are very weak but Table 2 below shows two groups known to be among the most vulnerable to dropping out-of-school. They are HIV positive children and refugee children.

Table 2: Vulnerable populations (2009)

Country	HIV rate (%)	Refugees (%)
Group 1: Middle-Income Countries		
Botswana	24.8	0.154
Lesotho	23.6	n/a
Namibia	13.1	0.332
South Africa	17.8	0.097
Swaziland	25.9	0.641
Group 2: Fragile States		
<i>Much data in group 2 unavailable or n/a. Is that key?</i>		
Burundi	3.3	0.301
Comoros Is.	0.1	n/a
Eritrea	0.8	n/a
Madagascar	0.2	n/a
Somalia	0.7	0.020
South Sudan	n/a	n/a
Zimbabwe	14.3	n/a
Group 3: Middle-size Development Contexts		
Angola	2	0.079
Malawi	11	0.037
Mozambique	11.5	0.015
Rwanda	2.9	0.540
Zambia	13.5	0.448
Group 4: Large-size Development Contexts		
Ethiopia	n/a	0.147
Kenya	6.3	0.902
Tanzania	5.6	0.272
Uganda	6.5	0.388

Source: World Bank Metadata (2009)

*HIV rate (%) in adults (15-49 years)

**Refugee population by country or territory of asylum

The data on HIV show a wide range of infection rates that are especially high in the middle-income countries, which are also among the most unequal countries in the region. In Malawi, Mozambique, Zambia and Zimbabwe 1 in 10 adults (15-49 years) are infected with HIV. In Swaziland and Botswana this rises to around 1 in 4. The shadow cast by HIV includes increased poverty, orphans,

child-headed households and household dependency on the labour of school-age children to provide income, domestic labour and care, as well as children directly infected by HIV. Girls are more likely than boys to be infected and affected by HIV at a younger age. All of these HIV-related conditions tend to affect overall demand for education and the number of OOSC.



Children from internally displaced and refugee populations are also particularly vulnerable to being out-of-school. This raises questions about the responsibility for these groups. The large-size development countries (Group 4), especially Kenya, are recipients of significant numbers of refugees (see Table 2). Rwanda, Zambia, South Africa and Burundi have also accepted relatively high percentages

of refugee populations, often from or near countries engaged in conflict or other kinds of emergencies and humanitarian crises. The Uptake of refugees exposes the multi-faceted difficulties of educational demand and supply, as well as capacity bottlenecks (explored in Chapter 5). Compared to refugees, who in some cases may have advantages to educational access in refugee camps,



children who are internally displaced often endure violence, stigma, lack of institutional support and almost non-existent provision of educational facilities and services. (UNHCR 2010). According to the UNHCR (2010) in 2009, an estimated 2.1 million people in Sub-Saharan Africa were refugees and 6.1 million people were internally displaced.

The composition of OOSC varies across and within countries. Although data may be insufficient to fully capture the nature and scope of educational exclusion, ample evidence has shown that many groups of children suffer from major challenges to school access. In addition to those discussed above, these include children with disabilities, boys as well as girls, orphans, child soldiers, nomadic groups, those in child-headed households and particular ethnic, language and religious groups. Furthermore, they include an increasing number of children vulnerable to natural disaster and the impacts of climate change. Such unexpected events have changed the strategies of households to cope with new forms of production and risk that has generated new implications for children's schooling. In addition, as documented in the 2010 UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report (GMR), livelihoods play an important role in schooling patterns across the region, with children in pastoralist families facing especially difficult challenges to enrol in education and, if they do enrol, to complete a full cycle of basic education (UNESCO, 2010a).

Educational Structure

Educational systems vary across the region, but they are usually structured at four levels: primary education sometimes linked with pre-primary; lower secondary; upper secondary and tertiary education. In most

contexts, policy focuses on basic education, which includes primary and lower secondary levels, which is also the focus of this analysis. Early childhood education, although now often included as integral to the education system, has received little policy emphasis, government support and regulation, or, when given support, has had little impact on budgets or implementation. Upper secondary and tertiary education are generally not considered part of the basic education cycle and are usually neither compulsory nor free (see Chapter 5 for a fuller discussion).

Across the region, primary education should start at age six or seven and last for five to eight years. Lower secondary schooling should start between 11 and 14 years of age and last for two to four years, with the age of completion between 14 and 18 years. For most countries in ESAR the basic education cycle lasts a total of 10 years within an acceptable range of 8 to 11 years. In many countries, the cycle has recently been extended as primary enrolments have increased and stabilised at a higher number. The range for the completion age of upper secondary school is between 17 and 20 years. South Africa and Eritrea have the shortest basic education cycle of an eight-year duration and Tanzania and Uganda have the longest cycle with eleven years.

Educational Funding

Table 3 below presents data on the percentage of GDP allocated to education as government expenditure. While it does not cite actual amount, it does serve as an indicator of political will and the importance accorded to education within national budgets. Such data are difficult to obtain in the fragile states but in other ESAR countries, government spending on education is in excess of 20 per cent, the highest is in Tanzania with 27.5 per cent. Of the

other countries with available data, six spend a smaller proportion; in descending order—Kenya, South Africa, Uganda, Madagascar, Malawi and finally Angola with only 4.4 per cent of total government expenditure going to fund education.

The differences in the length of education cycles across the region described above have obvious implications for educational expenditure, supply and retention and the comparability of the figures presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Educational expenditure, total and by educational level

Country	% GDP to Education	% Total education Government spending	% Primary in Government educational expenditure	% Lower-secondary in Government educational expenditure	% Upper-secondary in Government educational expenditure
Group 1: Middle-Income Countries					
Botswana (2009)	7.8	16.2	17.8	22.5	10.1
Lesotho (2008)	13.1	23.7	36.0	n/a	n/a
Namibia (2010)	8.1	n/a	40.0	n/a	n/a
South Africa (2010)	6.0	19.2	42.5	n/a	n/a
Swaziland (2010)	7.4	15.9	47.2	24.0	11.5
Group 2: Fragile States					
Burundi (2010)	9.2	25.1	45.4	n/a	n/a
Comoros Is. (2008)	7.6	n/a	61.7	9.3	14.3
Eritrea (2006)	2.1	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Madagascar (2009)	3.2	n/a	52.3	12.6	5.6
Somalia	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
South Sudan	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Zimbabwe (2010)	2.5	8.3	51.6	n/a	n/a
Group 3: Middle-size Development Contexts					
Angola (2006)	2.7	4.4	31.4	n/a	n/a
Malawi (2011)	5.7	14.7	34.6	21.0	9.4
Mozambique (2006)	5.0	21.0	57.7	18.6	10.6
Rwanda (2011)	4.7	16.9	34.3	23.9	6.5
Zambia (2008)	1.3	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Group 4: Large-size Development Contexts					
Ethiopia (2010)	4.7	25.4	65.1	n/a	n/a
Kenya (2010)	6.9	17.2	n/a	n/a	n/a
Tanzania (2008)	6.8	27.5	67.6	9.3	n/a
Uganda (2009)	3.2	15.0	57.7	n/a	n/a

Source: UIS Data Centre

Overall, primary education is the main funding priority for most countries in the region. This is consistent with human rights principles and with international targets such as the MDGs and EFA goals. Countries in the large-size development group (no data available for Kenya), the fragile states (no data available for Eritrea, Somalia and South Sudan) and Mozambique allocate over half their educational expenditure to the primary level. On the other hand, countries in the middle-income group allocate less than 50 per cent to the primary level, and the mid-size development countries allocate over 30 per cent to the primary level. Where data are available in other countries, allocations to lower secondary are less than a third of that allocated to primary education. Although available data are patchy, they show that education budgets diminish as they go up the grade level. The exception is in Comoros which allocate higher proportions to the higher secondary than to the lower secondary level. This has specific implications for Dimensions 3 and 5 (lower secondary-age not in school and those in lower secondary school at risk of dropping out) that relate to sustained access to lower secondary schools. Notable exceptions include Botswana, Malawi and Rwanda where

allocations are more evenly spread across the levels of education.

Across the region, the issue of educational expenditure goes beyond what is spent relative to the GDP. One major problem is that overall per capita expenditure in education is extremely low in ESAR countries relative to countries in other regions. The 2006 Global Monitoring Report (GMR) estimated that the median annual expenditure per capita in primary school in Sub-Saharan Africa was US\$167 (UNESCO GMR, 2006). This expenditure is little over 10 per cent of what is spent globally per capita in primary education (median expenditure US \$1,000) and less than 3 per cent of what is spent in developed countries (median expenditure US \$5,000).

A second key problem relates to how educational expenditures are distributed within countries. ESAR governments tend to allocate a large proportion of educational expenditure to urban areas and/or richer regions. Despite limited data at the sub-national level, this indicates that distribution of educational funding further exacerbates existing inequalities within countries.

US\$167
Estimated median annual
expenditure per capita in
primary school in
Sub-Saharan Africa



2. Methodology

2.1 Overview

This situation analysis has combined quantitative and qualitative data including policy analysis and research evidence. The analysis is based on a conceptual framework developed by UNICEF and UIS that differentiates between children who have never been to school and those who managed to enter into schooling but dropped out. It also highlights children who are currently in school but at risk of dropping out. The conceptual framework is discussed further in Section 2.2 below.

This chapter presents the data sources utilised for the situation analysis and the way in which they were investigated. It also provides a detailed explanation of the output generated by the large volume of information. In particular, for each country and each data set, the analysis generated different indicators of educational access and progression through the schooling system, as well as estimates of the total number of children who are out-of-school in pre-primary, primary and lower secondary age groups. Finally, this chapter outlines some of the main limitations of the situation analysis itself which should be kept in mind when interpreting the findings.

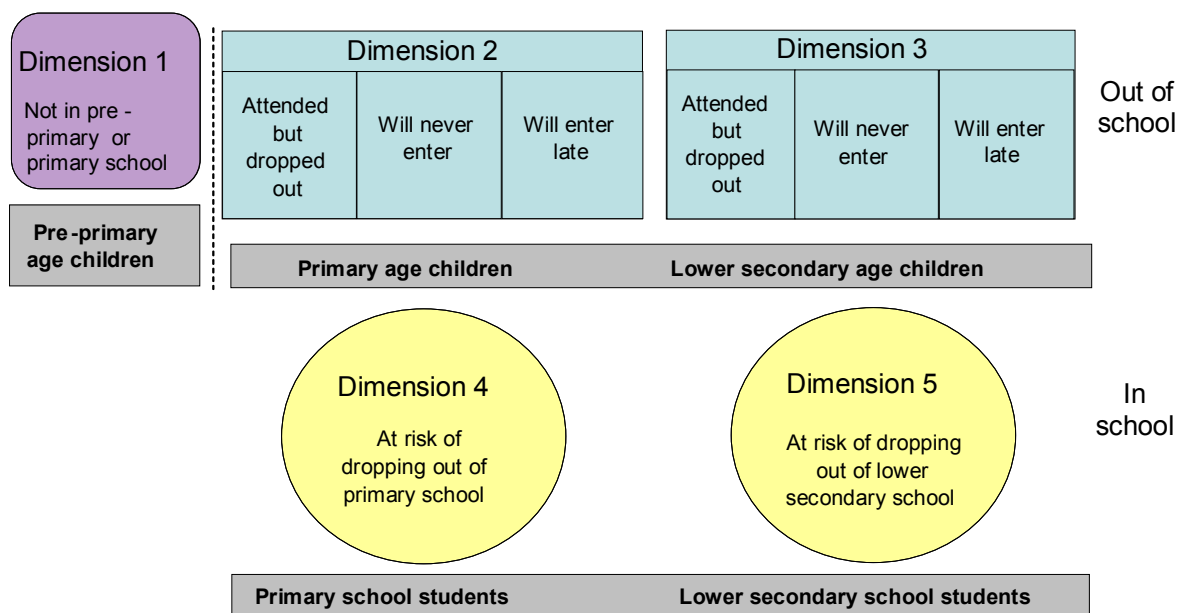
2.2 Conceptual Framework

The analysis views the situation of OOSC as the result of a series of processes that occur over their life-cycle. Being out of school is influenced by multiple actors and factors resulting in a complex interaction between children, parents or carers and educators, in

cultural, institutional and legal frameworks. It was important, therefore, to adopt a clear conceptual framework to help understand the situation of children who are out-of-school.

The guiding methodological framework was produced by UNICEF and UIS in 2011 as part of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UNICEF & UIS, 2011). The Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) draws on the CREATE model (Lewin, 2007) and provides an understanding of OOSC through the lens of 5DE (see Figure 2). Dimension 1 includes children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school. Dimension 2 includes the children of primary age who are not in primary or secondary education. Dimension 3 applies to children of lower secondary age who are not in primary or secondary school. Dimensions 4 and 5, respectively, comprise children enrolled in primary or lower secondary school who are at risk of dropping out. The identification of children at risk of dropping out is based on observed dropout rates as a measure of the percentage of children at risk. This model is important as it helps to define children's schooling experiences; it differentiates between children who drop out and those who have not yet entered school. As such, the model makes explicit the different levels of exclusion from educational access and aids in the profiling of children into different dimensions, which is helpful for policy and planning. Figure 2 below shows the five dimensions of exclusion and the linkages between them.

Figure 2: Five Dimensions of Exclusion

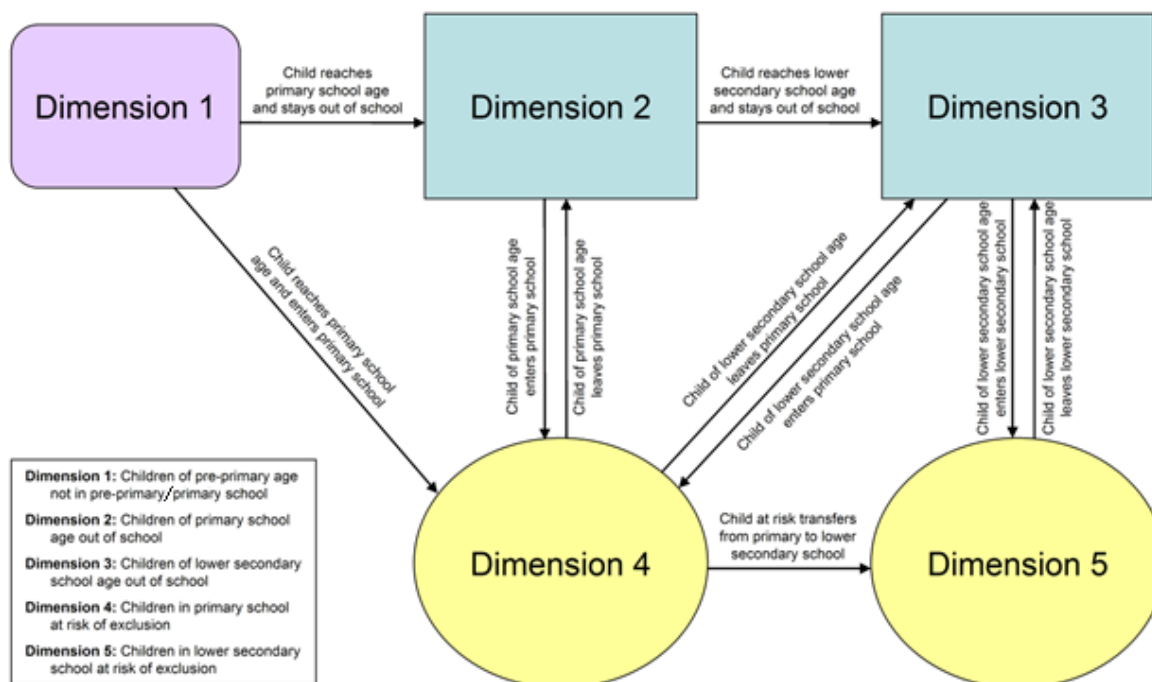


Source: UNICEF & UIS, 2011

Both the 5DE and the CREATE models provide snapshots of children at particular points in time. They both differentiate between children who are in school and those who are not. They both also demonstrate that even when children are in school, some are at a higher risk than others of dropping out. Nevertheless, when addressing OOSC, it is important to understand the flows or movements in and out of education over time. These movements include several factors: whether children will have access to primary education; whether they are expected to enrol on time; what is their chance of grade repetition; if children will complete a full cycle of primary education;

whether there are enough spaces in lower-secondary schools to accommodate the population of primary school leavers; and so on. In this respect, there is a dual relationship between the dimensions of exclusion and the characteristics of the educational system. These characteristics are poor quality teaching and regular grade repetition, either of which can push children out-of-school and increase the chances that children in Dimension 4 or 5 (at risk of dropping out) could end up in Dimension 2 or 3 (out-of-school). Figure 3 below illustrates the flow of children among the 5DE.

Figure 3: Flow between the 5 Dimensions of Exclusion



Source: UNICEF & UIS, 2011

2.3 Data Sources

Since no single source of information contains all the relevant data for a situation analysis, a broad search was adopted. Both quantitative and qualitative studies, produced by a wide authorship such as academics, governments, INGOs and other international organisations, were searched using keywords for OOSC, access to and exclusion from education, dropout from schooling and risk of dropping out. In addition, information was gathered from research organisations such as CREATE, which specialise in educational access. Documents were also provided by UNICEF country offices in ESAR.

In order to generate indicators for the OOSC profiles in ESAR, it was necessary to use secondary sources of national data, at least one from each country. Data sources were reviewed, to enable the tracking of children’s educational status at least over the course of one year, and then linked to other available socioeconomic, demographic and regional information. If the data did not provide enough detail about children’s educational background, then linking their situation to other important factors such as barriers and bottlenecks would not be possible. (Chapter 5 expands on these issues). Appendix A lists the sources of household data used in the analysis. The main secondary sources were the

Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) and Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), in addition to a General Household Survey (GHS) used for South Africa and the 2005 General Health Survey also used for Botswana. The analysis also used administrative data from UIS on school enrolment. Although household surveys provide rich background information and are often a more reliable indicator of actual participation in education than administrative data, they do have some drawbacks, e.g. that they are collected at different points in time making accurate comparative analysis a challenge.

2.4 Data Analyses

Two main analyses provide OOSC profiles. The first is an overall profile of pre-primary, primary and lower-secondary age children who are in and out-of-school. This enables a longitudinal view of the schooling cycle and provides indicators of flows as well as numbers of children at different stages of schooling. Pre-primary education is the starting point (and for this study pre-primary age refers to those who are one year younger than the official starting age of primary

education). Pre-primary school age children who are not in pre-primary or primary education are considered to be in Dimension 1. Good quality pre-primary schooling can help to prepare children for education and hence, is taken as a proxy indicator for school readiness.

The focus then shifts to the primary level with an estimate of the proportion of out-of-school primary-age children (Dimension 2). It also introduces an indicator for late entry into primary school. Late entry produces immediate problems of over-age in education, which is strongly associated with the risk of dropping out (Hunt, 2008; Sabates, et al. 2010) and is directly linked to Dimension 4. The problem of over-age students intensifies over time as grade repetition increases. The analysis continues with an estimate of the likelihood that children will complete a full cycle of primary education and continue into lower-secondary school. The transition from primary to lower-secondary school is often a key moment when many children leave formal education due to examinations, as well as the under-supply of lower secondary schools and suitable teachers. This transition period is of particular policy interest in many countries.



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Finally, the situation of lower-secondary-age children is investigated, taking into account whether they are still in primary school, in lower secondary school or out-of-school. Children attending lower-secondary school but at risk of not completing the cycle are considered to be in Dimension 5. Each of these dimensions of exclusion has different implications for policy and practice.

The second main analysis of the OOSC profile focuses on equity issues. Equity has been brought to the centre of attention of many donors and international organisations. The inequitable distribution of resources both between and within countries, as well as the large disparity in opportunities between children who have and do not have

resources, is perhaps the strongest barrier to fulfilling their rights to education. Inequality has many dimensions. This analysis focuses on those based on wealth, location, and gender, which are interrelated and overlapping. For instance poor girls living in rural areas may have even fewer opportunities than poor girls living in urban areas. But equity concerns should extend further to the many groups of children who are excluded or marginalised and unreached according to the national studies. Hence, the analysis of equity also addresses children of pastoralist households, orphans, children of displaced households, children living in conflict zones, and children who suffer from disabilities. These groups are reviewed in Chapter 5 as part of the sociocultural barriers to educational access.

In its initial stage this analysis had four axes: the country and country group; the framework for the 5DE; multiple categories of children who are out-of-school and those vulnerable to educational exclusion; and the series of barriers and bottlenecks as outlined in the CMF (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). In the process of reading and summarising reports, reviews and empirical research, the principal organising structure became the country. This was followed by later phases of distillation by collating the four country groups. The second organisational structure was the set of barriers and bottlenecks, which echo the widely used reference to demand, supply and governance within the field. These are presented in Chapter 5 although, as discussed in Chapter 1, the relational aspects among them are highly significant especially for those children who fall outside the network of educational provision. The analytical process and the presentation of summaries are structured by the country groups and the barriers and bottlenecks within which the 5DEs and particular groups of OOSC are highlighted. Finally, it is important to underline the specificity of each context and thereby the problems of access for different OOSC groups at each of the 5DEs. In the summaries derived from text sources of 21 countries analysed, there is inevitable loss of detail on the range of conditions that militate against access of all children to school.

2.5 Output

Data for each country from DHS, MICS and/or other sources were downloaded and manipulated using Stata statistical software. Following this, tables with indicators of the 5DE as well as late entry and the proportion of over-age children in primary school were generated. Indicators were estimated, based on the characteristics of the education system of each country according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

In addition, data on educational expenditure, countries' GDP and indicators of income inequality, population estimates and estimates on the number of vulnerable children in ESAR, shown in Chapter 1, were obtained mainly from the World Bank and UIS.

Results from Stata were extracted into Excel. One Excel file was generated for each country. Eighteen tables were generated with indicators ranging from net attendance rates and gender-parity indices, to repetition rates. Some of these indicators were disaggregated by wealth, location and gender, and where possible by ethnicity,¹ to address equity. Other indicators were disaggregated by age or grade to understand failures in the schooling system. Despite the difficulties in the reliability and comparability of data, the information contained in this report provides a good sense of realities in the region and is useful in pointing towards certain gaps in the development of research-based policy initiatives.

2.6 Limitations

Undertaking an analysis such as this has several limitations. The first is the time when information is accessible and accessed. In some cases the most recent available household surveys date back to 2001 and 2003. Similarly, some qualitative studies about pastoralist or other marginalised groups refer to research undertaken several years ago. In addition, certain excluded groups are often not covered by standard household studies e.g. children who work and live on the streets.

The second limitation is with the information contained in the data in household surveys or administrative sources. Currently, no single source of data exists with a sufficiently large sample containing information about different aspects of children's home, school

¹ In some countries data on ethnicity are not collected or are considered unreliable due to delicate political situations.

and community contexts to fully assess their situation. Thus a variety of sources have to be combined. There are also important data gaps in some surveys. For example, household surveys are not always sufficiently documented to identify whether education participation is formal or non-formal. There is also no information about the regularity of school participation or school attendance, limiting the potential to fine tune educational indicators.

A related limitation is the fact that data collected at one point in time have not been followed longitudinally. Therefore it is not possible to estimate changes over time. The analysis in this situation analysis is based on cohort predictions. In that sense, the models presented here on primary-school survival are based on the situation of children at the start of primary school, i.e. those children who are enrolled in Grade 1, followed by the situation of children enrolled in Grade 2 and so on. For each cohort, the model estimates the probability of progression, dropout and grade repetition. Survival rates are estimated based on the transitions from one cohort to another.

The third limitation is the quality of the data. Administrative data tend to overestimate the number of children in school because funding allocations are generally based on enrolment, not attendance. Household surveys, on the other hand, estimate attendance in school, estimates that are subject to parents' or carers' responses to their children's schooling. It is possible that parents or carers report that children are in school when the children are actually not attending regularly. In Botswana, Namibia, Swaziland and South Africa enrolment and attendance are closely aligned at the primary level. In other countries, such as Comoros, Ethiopia, Mozambique, and Tanzania, the attendance rate appears to be on average 20 percentage points lower than the enrolment rate. And in other countries, like Burundi and Lesotho, the adjusted net

attendance rate was higher than the adjusted net enrolment rate.

A fourth limitation is the lack of qualitative and quantitative data to assess policies or interventions holistically. One example is the case of disability. Quantitative data are very limited on the indicators used to measure children's disabilities in ESAR; indicators are broad and simply used to estimate the size of the problem. Qualitative sources, on the other hand, may look at particular groups of children with disabilities, the challenges they face in accessing school and the barriers to learning presented by specific aspects of their disabilities. These types of studies tend to focus on particularities at a more micro-level and as such provide both more specific and more limited information about the representativeness of the phenomena observed within the wider population. This separation between macro-level and micro-level perspectives is also evident within policy. Governments may have information about policies to help integrate children suffering from disabilities into the education system, but with limited evidence about the effectiveness or the impact of the specific policies. Although NGOs and other organisations may also present evidence regarding particular interventions, this is usually done for small rather than large scale interventions.

Finally, this review covers a large number of countries in a very diverse region. Gathering data, documents and literature about the region was an extensive task. Through the process of analysis and writing it is inevitable that some detail and contextual particularities will be lost. It is fair to say that this review presents the main headline issues but cannot capture a complete picture of significance within specific countries, making an in-depth analysis of inequities within countries not possible. Appendix B provides a snapshot of equity and education in four countries based on their country-level OOSCI studies.

3. Profiles of OOSC- Over the Schooling Cycle

3.1 Pre-primary Children Out-of-school (Dimension 1)

There is growing consensus around the value of early childhood education, although a debate remains around its benefits for future schooling success (Jaramillo and Mingat, 2008), as well as about the optimum mode of delivery, such as community-based models compared to more formal approaches. Research has shown that pre-primary education in terms of cognitive development complements rather than replaces good parenting and a stimulating home environment (Brooks-Gunn, et al. 1996). Hence programmes for ECCE should work in collaboration with households and communities to improve overall child well-being. Pre-primary education could benefit future schooling if it provides children with a quality education and helps to combat social disadvantage (Siraj-Blatchford, et al. 2008). In ESAR, good quality pre-schools may help counteract the negative effects of poverty, malnutrition and ill health, which are commonplace in the region (Chawla-Duggan, et al. 2010; Malmberga, et al. 2010). Unfortunately, quality early-childhood education remains inaccessible to the majority of children, particularly in ESAR (UNESCO, 2010a). Figure 4 below shows that a significant proportion of pre-primary age children in the

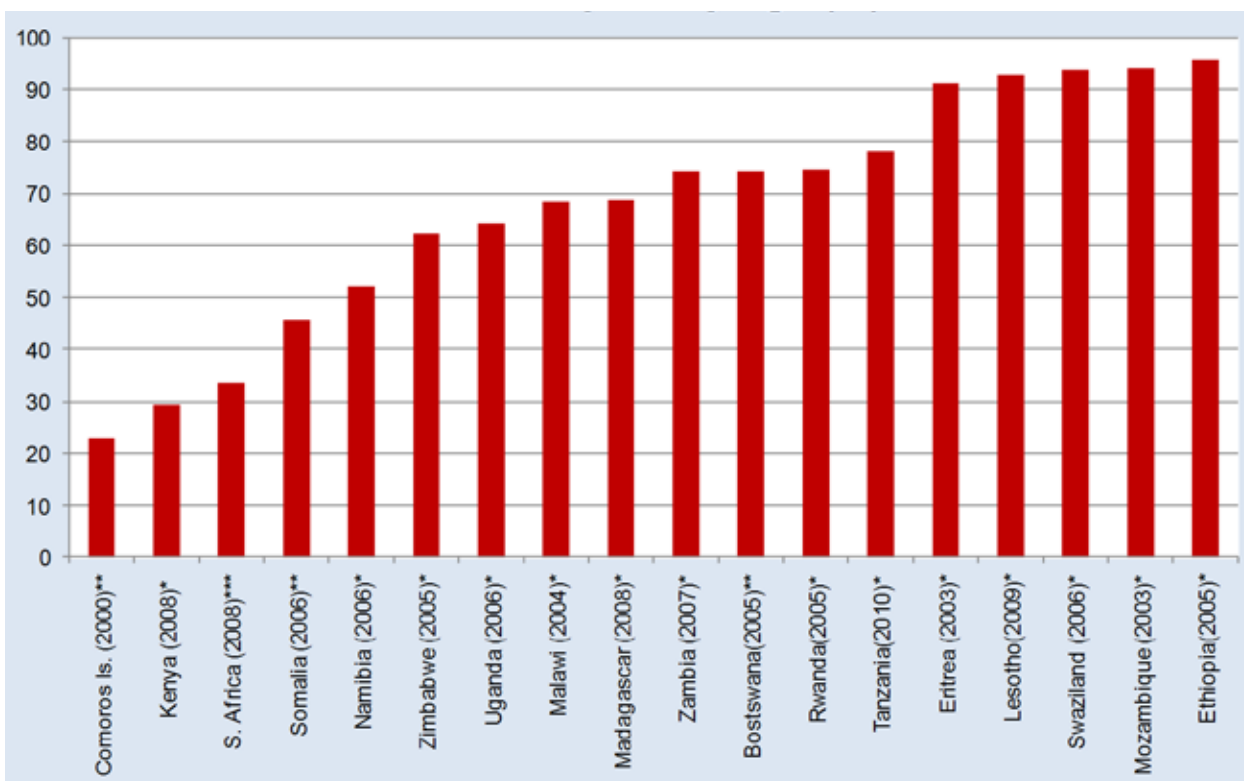
region are not in school. In Eritrea, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Mozambique, and Swaziland, this is more than 90 per cent compared to Comoros, Kenya, and South Africa, where a low proportion of pre-primary age children are out-of-school. In the region, an overall 36 per cent of pre-primary age children attended pre-primary or primary education at various points from 2000 to 2009². For Angola, Burundi and South Sudan population samples are not representative as data were only gathered from non-conflict areas.

Existing data on access to pre-primary education or early-childhood education usually refer to formal service provision. Hence, results shown in Figure 4 below do not include children who may be in non-formal education. In addition, data on pre-primary education are collected for children aged five and above in most household surveys, which leaves out a significant proportion of children aged two to four who may be accessing pre-primary education (although some surveys collect information on younger children, for example the DHS). The draft UNICEF Education and Equity Strategy for ESAR (2011) shows that while the overall percentage of children enrolled in formal pre-primary education is still very low, there have been major improvements over the last decade. In South Africa, for example, the proportion of pre-primary age children in education increased

² Estimation excludes Angola, Burundi and South Sudan.

from 21 per cent in 1999 to 51 per cent in 2008, while in Eritrea it increased from 5 per cent to 13 per cent during the same period (UNICEF SEER, 2011). Figure 4 below shows the percentage of pre-primary age OOSC.

Figure 4: Percentage of OOSC in Dimension 1 based on attendance

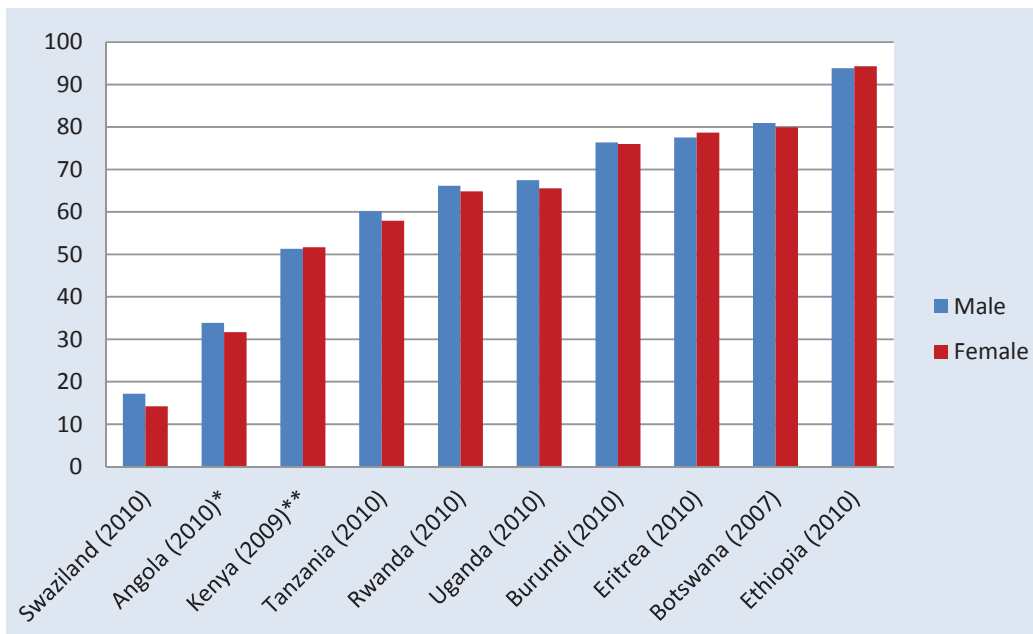


Note: South Sudan, Angola and Burundi are not included because the population samples of the analysed age are not representative.

One critical consequence of differential access to pre-primary education based on who can afford it, or who is best reached by free or low-cost services is that early inequitable provision will exacerbate inequalities in later phases of education. Children of wealthier families are more likely than poor families to enjoy access to early childhood education and nutrition in ESAR unless there are programmes specifically focused on the most vulnerable children. Children of wealthier families have

a much lower risk of malnutrition, as well as an increased likelihood of enhanced cognitive development due to resources at home. Children from poor families continue to suffer the consequences of malnutrition, estimated at 50 per cent in many countries, which may have significant and sometimes irreversible consequences in terms of brain development and functioning, memory impairment and other related learning disabilities (UNICEF SEER, 2011).

Figure 5: Percentage of OOSC in Dimension 1 based on enrolment



Source: UIS, 2012

* National Estimation

** UIS Estimation

Data missing for Comoros, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Zambia, Zimbabwe

Figure 5 above, based on UIS (2012) data, suggests little or no gender gap in pre-primary school enrolment. The results overall roughly correspond to those based on household surveys with approximately 65 per cent of all pre-primary age children out-of-school. What is of note, however, is the huge improvement

in Swaziland, where in 2006 approximately 95 per cent of pre-primary age children were not attending school (based on DHS) while in 2010 only 15 per cent were out-of-school. Still, the inherent differences in data based on enrolment and those based on attendance must be kept in mind.





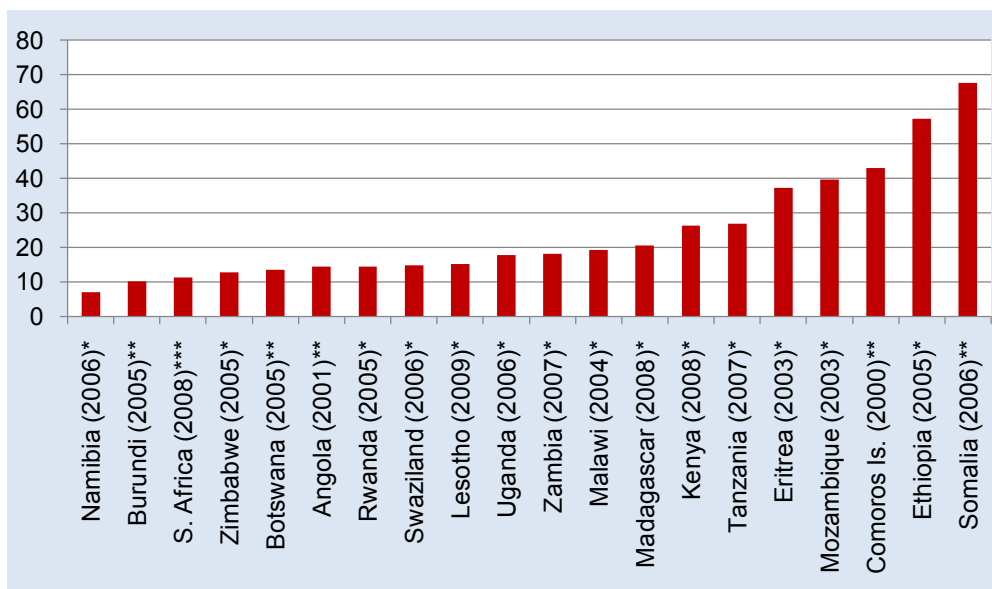
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3.2 Primary Age Children Out-of-school (Dimension 2)

Despite the fact that primary-school enrolment rates have improved dramatically in the past 15 years in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2010a), 20 per cent of primary-age children are still out-of-school in ESAR. In some countries such as Comoros, Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia that proportion is more than 40 per cent (Figure 6).

20%
of primary-age
children are still
out-of-
-school
in ESAR

Figure 6: Percentage of OOSC in Dimension 2 based on attendance



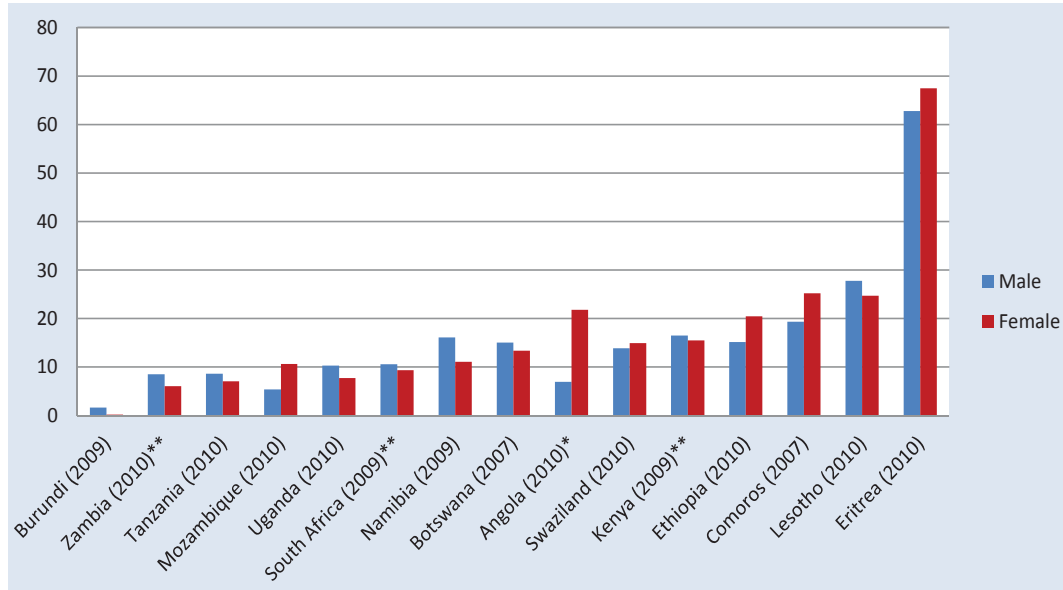
Source: Own calculation based on data DHS, MICS** and GHS****

Using information from administrative data in 2010, UIS estimates that the total number of primary-age children in ESAR who are out-of-school is 9 million. This represents a significant improvement since 2000 with an estimated 18 million primary-age OOSC. Household survey data, on the other hand, estimates the total number of primary-age children who are out-of-school to be around 19 million, which is significantly higher than the number reported by UIS. The large difference in these two estimates arises from differences in the data sources (administrative versus household surveys) and the years when the data were collected, highlighted in Section 2.6 on limitations. However, it is reasonable to estimate that the total number of children in Dimension 2 (primary school age) of educational exclusion to be between 9 and 19 million, with the highest proportions by far in Ethiopia and Somalia. Figure 7 below shows the children of primary age who are out-of-school.



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Figure 7: Percentage of OOSC in Dimension 2 based on enrolment



Source: UIS, 2012

* National Estimation

** UIS Estimation

Missing data: Madagascar, Malawi, Rwanda, Seychelles, Somalia, South Sudan, Zimbabwe



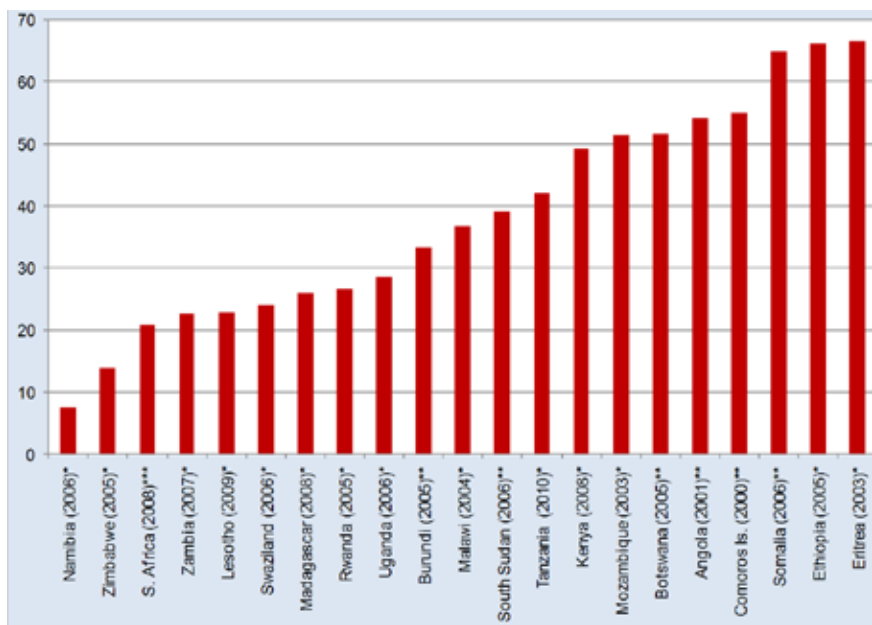
Significant gender gap exist among both boys and girls who are out-of-school in Dimension 2 (primary age). Girls are particularly disadvantaged in Angola, Comoros, Mozambique and Ethiopia, while boys are disadvantaged in Lesotho and Namibia. As expected, when considering administrative data, the proportions of OOSC are generally lower than those based on attendance from household surveys. For example, exceptional discrepancies exist in Comoros and Ethiopia where the levels of OOSC are much higher in Figure 6 (based on attendance) than in Figure 7 (based on enrolment). Eritrea, however, is a notable exception with a higher proportion of OOSC reported through the administrative data than household survey. This may reflect a significant decline in access to primary education over the last 10 years as the household survey in Eritrea was carried in 2003.

3.3 Late Entry into Primary School

One of the key contributors to the large number of over-age children in primary education is their late entry into primary school. Late entry results from many factors: children without accurate or any birth certificates; parental beliefs about school; readiness of children; poverty and lack of good quality or affordable primary education, etc. This is a very significant issue as children who enter late into school have been shown to be more likely to drop out (Hunt, 2008; Lewin (2008); Ampiah and Adu-Yeboah, 2009). Using the cohort of children in Grade 1, the data estimated late entry as three or more years older than the official entry age. It also

included children two years older than the official entry age but who have not repeated the first year of primary school. Across ESAR, 38 per cent of children have entered late into primary school between 2000 and 2009. Numbers varied as in Eritrea (2003), Ethiopia (2005) and Somalia (2006), the proportion of children who entered late into primary school was between 65 per cent and 66 per cent, while in Zimbabwe (2005) and Namibia (2006) it was as low as 14 per cent and 7 per cent, respectively (Figure 8).³ It is not surprising to note that the countries with the highest rates of late entry – Comoros, Somalia, Eritrea and Ethiopia – were also the countries with the highest rates of OOSC in Figure 6. See Figure 8 for the percentage of late-entry children into Grade 1.

Figure 8: Percentage of children who enter late into the first grade of primary school⁴



Notes: Estimation of late entry excludes repeaters if these children were only two years older than the official entry age. All the children in Grade 1 as well as those who were at least three years older than the official entry age were considered late entrants. Estimates were obtained using a weighted sample. In Botswana, South Africa and Eritrea there is no data on repetition, so late entry also includes repeaters. Hence data from these countries are not comparable to the rest of ESAR.

- 3 Late entry is used instead of the Net Intake Rate (NIR) because it offers a clear hypothesis of uneven progression rates through the system. Higher proportions of late-entry children are correlated with a larger risk of dropping out from school (Dimension 4). The NIR, on the contrary, provides a rather static picture since children who enter on time tend to exhibit a more stable progression throughout the education system.
- 4 The percentages of late entries are over-estimates as age was not adjusted to take into account the gap between academic-year starting and the survey-collection period.

For teachers, late entry means facing the challenge of a class containing children of different ages and different stages of development. Although many children will have similar levels of literacy and numeracy, their overall cognitive, physical and sometimes even emotional development can vary substantially. Many children can end up substantially over-age due to late entry and grade repetition. For example, in Ethiopia (2005) over 30 per cent of children attending primary school were between the ages of 14 and 19 years, in Kenya (2008) this proportion was 15 per cent, and 7 per cent in Namibia (2004). Percentage of over-age children is the next indicator used to assess the situation of OOSC in ESAR.

3.4 Over-age Children Attending Primary School

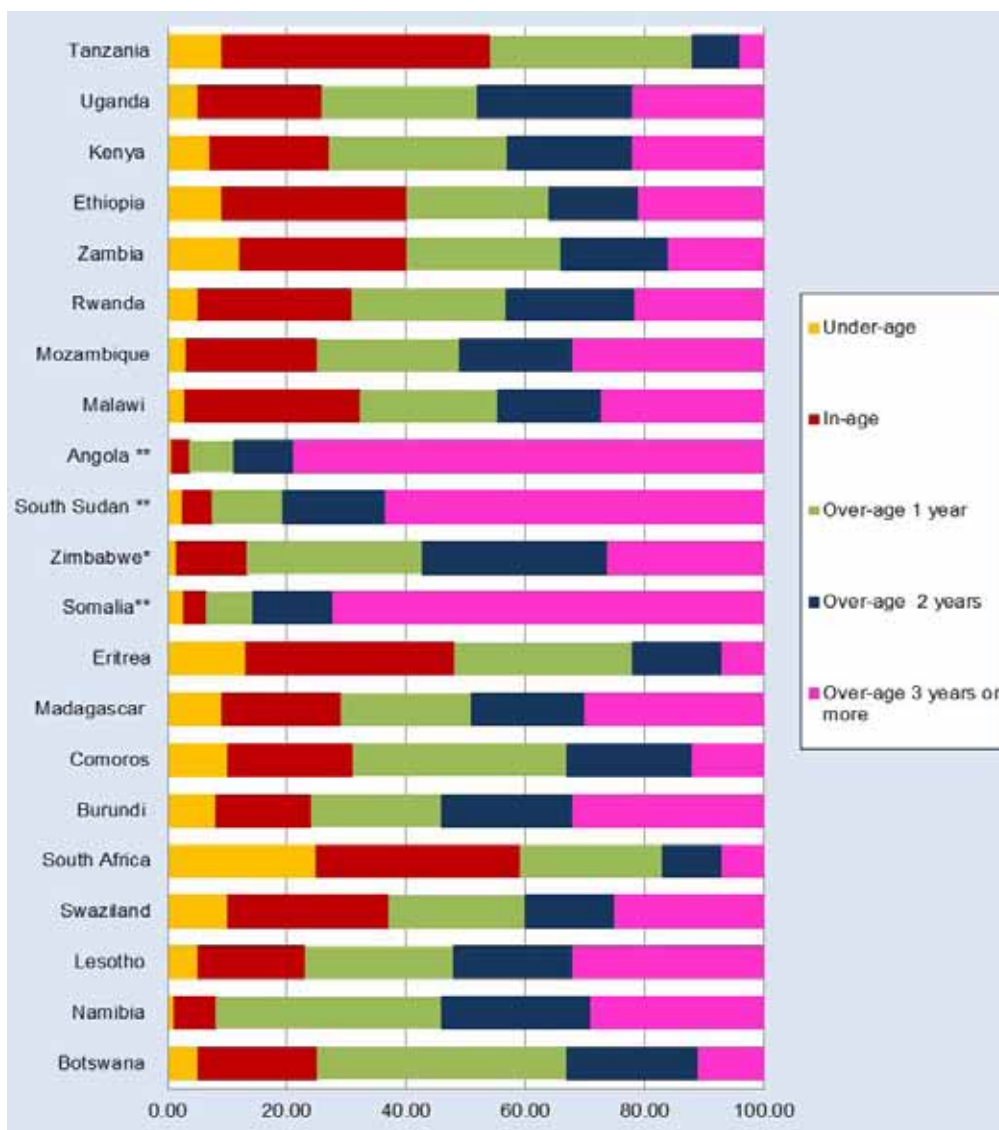
Many school systems in ESAR have been unable to cope with the large demand for primary education. Lewin and Sabates (2011) showed that reductions in the number of OOSC in Sub-Saharan Africa were often accompanied by an increase in the proportion of children over-age for the grade in which they were enrolled. Over-age children are more likely to repeat and to drop out than those who are in the correct grade for their age (Hunt, 2008; Lewin (2008); Ampiah and Adu-Yeboah (2009)



The patterns identified by Lewin and Sabates (2011) are also found in ESAR. Although the age distribution of children at primary-school level varies widely, more than 70 per cent are over-age in the majority of ESAR countries. While in Tanzania (2007), Eritrea (2003) and South Africa (2008) the proportion of children enrolled at the appropriate grade for their age is greater than 40 per cent, Angola (2001), South Sudan (2000) and Somalia (2006) have the largest proportion of children being

over age for their grade by three or more years (greater than 60 per cent). Uganda (2006), Comoros (2000), Botswana (2009) and Namibia (2004) have the largest proportion of children who are two years over their appropriate primary-school age-in-grade. All these children are likely to be in Dimension 4 of educational exclusion, that is, they are enrolled in primary education but at significant risk of dropping out. See Figure 9 below.

Figure 9: Over-age enrolment in primary school⁵



Source: Own calculation based on data provided by CREATE, DHS* and MICS**

5 it is important to interpret +/- 1 year over/under-age values in light of the fact that many surveys show a large gap between age at the time of the survey and at the beginning of the school year.

Figure 9 above emphasises the size of the age problem. The vast majority of students in ESAR primary schools are not at the correct age for their grade (red colour) particularly in fragile states such as South Sudan and Somalia. Underage enrolment is far less common than over-age enrolment, but nonetheless may be a significant problem in some countries e.g. South Africa. It is most common in the early grades of primary school, especially Grade 1. Underage children may be enrolled as an alternative to unaffordable or non-existent pre-primary education. Evidence from the Education Policy Data Centre (EPDC, 2009) showed that underage pupils progress through the school system with the same efficiency as on-time pupils and with better efficiency than over-age pupils. Using data from 35 countries worldwide, including 12 ESAR countries, results from EPDC (2009) showed that dropout rates are higher for over-age pupils than for those who are underage, in particular for the last grades of primary school. In Namibia, for example, the dropout rate from Grade 7 for over-age pupils was 13 per cent whereas for underage pupils it was close to 3 per cent (EPDC, 2009). Similar patterns were found in Ethiopia, Kenya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Tanzania, Zambia, Uganda and Zimbabwe (EPDC, 2009).

Grade repetition in ESAR continues to be endemic in primary school. From the analysis of household data, the overall repetition rate in primary school was 12 per cent with the same three countries Comoros (27.5 per cent), Burundi (24.1 per cent), and Rwanda (21.7 per cent) having the largest repetition rates. Children are more prone to repeat certain grades within the schooling cycle, in particular, Grade 1 (around 23 per cent for all countries). Then, it drops by a half in the

second grade and remains at a constant rate until the end of the primary school cycle, when it tends to increase again particularly in countries which have introduced national examinations. It is particularly affected by the existence of national examinations and the under supply of school infrastructure at higher levels of education. In Kenya, for example, the repetition rate in Grade 7 was around 13 per cent and increased substantially in Grade 8 to around 22 per cent (EPDC, 2009). High repetition rates suggest inefficient systems and low quality education, whilst extremely high repetition rates in Grade 1 suggest low levels of school readiness and education systems that are not welcoming to young children.

Dropout rates also seem to follow a particular cycle. Essentially they start low in the first grade of primary (around 2.3 per cent), then steadily increase during the primary-school cycle up to 7 per cent and, in the final year of primary school, significantly double to 14 per cent. This rate reduces to 6.4 per cent upon entry into lower secondary school and then increases substantially to an average of 19 per cent for the last year. In other words, dropout is a fundamental phenomenon at the end of each schooling cycle. Two groups of countries show different patterns of dropout rates. Tanzania, Kenya, Namibia, and Malawi showed the lowest dropout rates during primary school (around 1.2 per cent on average),⁶ whereas high dropout rates during primary school were found in Uganda, Rwanda, Angola, Burundi, Comoros, with an average dropout rate of 10.9 per cent. Of this last group, the worst performing countries in terms of average dropout rates in primary school were Burundi and Comoros.

6 Somalia has a very small proportion of dropouts, but this is because the survey only includes information from children living in conflict-free areas. In addition, schooling is measured for children in formal education, which includes only 30 per cent of primary-age children living in these areas. Estimations of dropout and repetition in Somalia do not include children in Quranic education, as this is considered non-formal.

Over time, dropout rates have continued to increase in a number of countries. UNICEF SEER (2011) compared trends in primary-school dropout rates, from 1999 to 2007. Results showed that they decreased in Mozambique, Swaziland, Zambia and Botswana during this time period, while increasing in Malawi, Ethiopia, Madagascar, Lesotho, Eritrea and Namibia. For the rest of the region, no data exist to estimate changes over time. It is likely, as suggested by UNICEF SEER (2011), that many pupils who drop out from school do not achieve even the minimum cognitive ability required for the modern economy. Results from reading and mathematics tests obtained from the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) for 12 countries in ESAR showed that only 57 per cent of pupils achieved the minimum score for reading and only 25 per cent achieved the minimum score for mathematics. It is expected that children who have dropped out reach even lower than the reported average for the region. As with high repetition rates, high dropout rates are the products of inefficient education systems and suggest low-quality education. Unlike repetition rates, dropout rates can also be directly affected by demand-side barriers and external factors which force students to leave formal education.

3.5 Survival Rates in Primary School

Retention during primary school years continues to be a problem for a significant proportion of children in ESAR.⁷ Clearly, there are some educational systems where children are more likely than others to reach the last grade of primary education. Tanzania and Kenya, for instance, have managed to achieve

survival rates of 90 per cent and 97 per cent respectively. A contrasting example is Burundi, where the survival rate from grade 1 to 2 of 98 per cent drops drastically to 67 per cent from Grade 1 to Grade 3, 45 per cent from Grade 1 to Grade 4, and 17 per cent from Grade 1 to grade 7. The educational system of Comoros also shows decreasing survival rates per grade as children transit from one level to another in primary school.

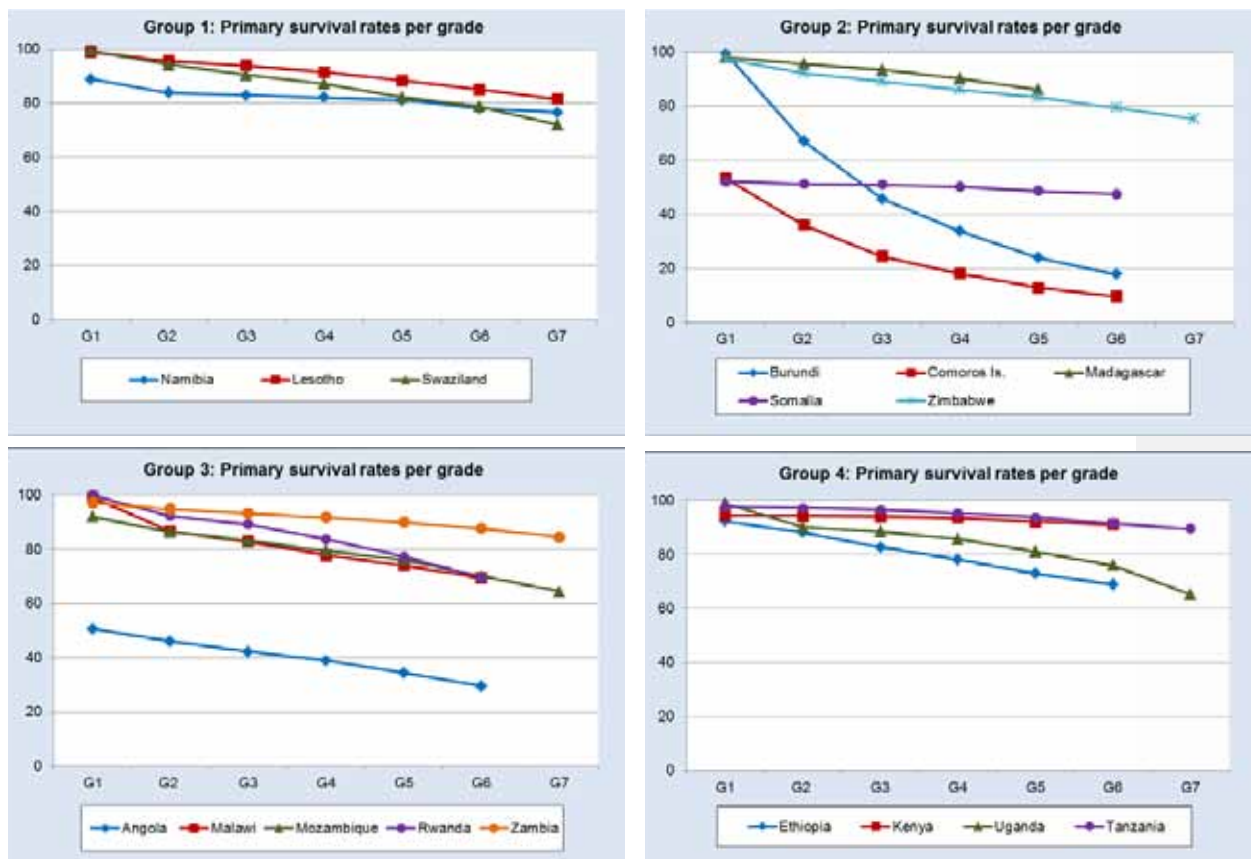
Survival rates are negatively affected by pupils being over-age for their grade. According to EPDC (2009) the survival rate to Grade 5 in Ethiopia for pupils who were over-age by two or more years was 15 per cent lower than for pupils who were of the correct age for their grade. Madagascar, Malawi, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe showed similar patterns to Ethiopia (EPDC, 2009). In Kenya, however, the difference in the survival rate to Grade 5 between pupils who were over-age by two or more years and those who were on time was 4 per cent. It is noteworthy that survival rates to the last grade of primary school estimated with administrative data, tend to be lower than those estimated with household surveys (UNICEF SEER, 2011). Administrative data for 19 countries in ESAR suggest that only 50 per cent of children survive the full course of primary school, on average, whereas household survey data for 17 of the 19 countries suggest a survival rate around 80 per cent (UNICEF SEER, 2011). This may be due to administrative data counting more children being in school as discussed above.

Countries in ESAR can be grouped as follows according to survival rates by grade in primary school obtained from household survey data. Countries with high and stable survival

⁷ Survival rates in primary education are used, as opposed to completion rates, to capture the flow or continuity of children moving through the primary-school cycle. This provides a richer approach because it is not affected by national examinations and makes indicators comparable across countries.

rates include most middle-income countries (See Figure 10 below) as well as Tanzania, Kenya, Madagascar, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. The second group of countries have lower survival rates for higher grades of primary school. Countries in this group include Malawi, Mozambique, Rwanda, Ethiopia and Uganda. Finally, countries with low survival rates or fast-declining rates are Burundi, Somalia, Comoros and Angola.

Figure 10: Primary School Survival Rates per Grade⁸



Source: Own Calculations based on DHS, MICS

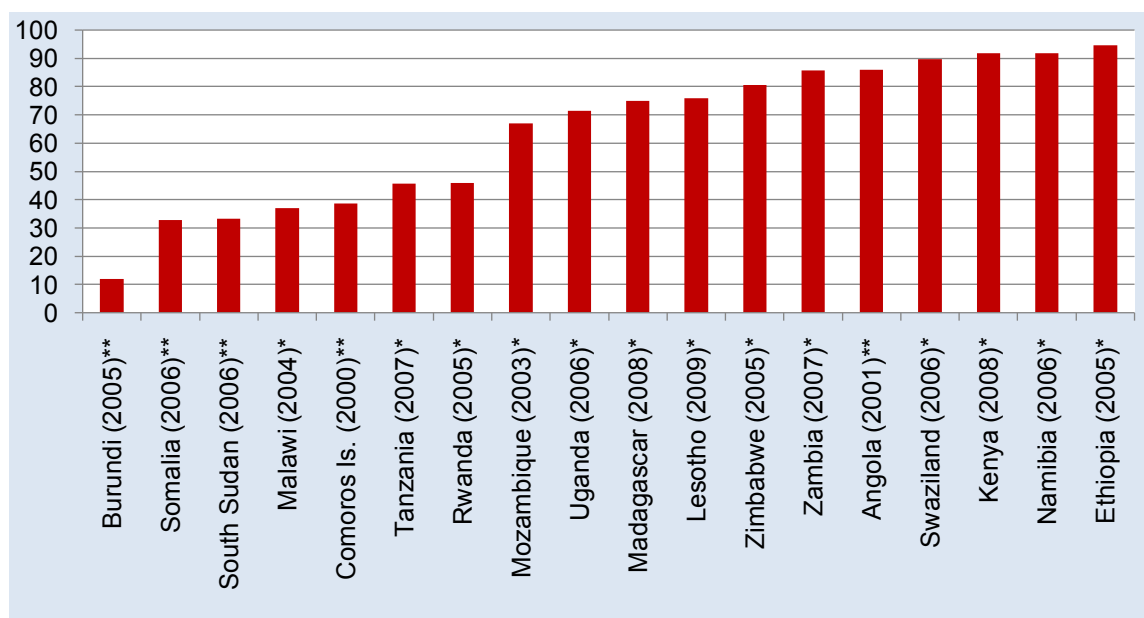
Note: Angola data only included zones considered by the government as secure areas. It is not possible to calculate survival rates in Botswana, South Sudan, South Africa and Eritrea.

8 Survival rates are based on the reconstructed cohort method applied to the household survey with the decreasing values across grades caused by the cumulative effects of drop out and repetition.

3.6 Transition into and Attendance in Lower Secondary School

There are also large differences in transition rates from primary to lower-secondary school. Of the children who survive the full primary school cycle, those in countries such as Ethiopia have a high transition rate to lower secondary school (see Figure 11 below), while Burundi (2005), Somalia (2006), and South Sudan (2006) are among the countries in the region with the lowest transition rates to lower secondary school, with rates below 35 per cent.

Figure 11: Transition rates from primary to lower secondary school



Source: Own calculation based on data DHS* and MICS**

Overall, the last decade has seen remarkable improvements in transition rates from primary into lower-secondary school across the region, in particular in countries with a lower baseline in 1999 (UNICEF SEER, 2011). The transition rate into lower-secondary school improved from 16 per cent in 1999 to 46 per cent in 2007, in Tanzania, from 42 per cent to 61 per cent, in Uganda, from 42 per cent to 57 per cent in Mozambique and from 44 per cent to 56 per cent in Zambia. Other countries in the region have managed to maintain high transition

rates such as Botswana, South Africa, Ethiopia, Namibia and Swaziland, with transition rates above 85 per cent.

Notwithstanding these high transition rates, a large proportion of children are still excluded from lower-secondary school. The opportunity cost of schooling for older children is an important demand-side reason for this exclusion. Dropout rates from primary-school increase significantly with age. In Rwanda, for example, the dropout rate for 10-year-old



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children is around 4 per cent and increases to 20 per cent for children who are 14 years old. An important supply-side explanation of the low enrolment in secondary school is the lack of places and of qualified teachers to cope with the demand (this argument is expanded in Chapter 5). Linked to these issues, is a lack of policy priorities for lower secondary-school investment, as many countries still focus their efforts on primary education (UNICEF SEER, 2011).

Burindi, Somalia and South Sudan

have the lowest transition rates to lower secondary school in the region.

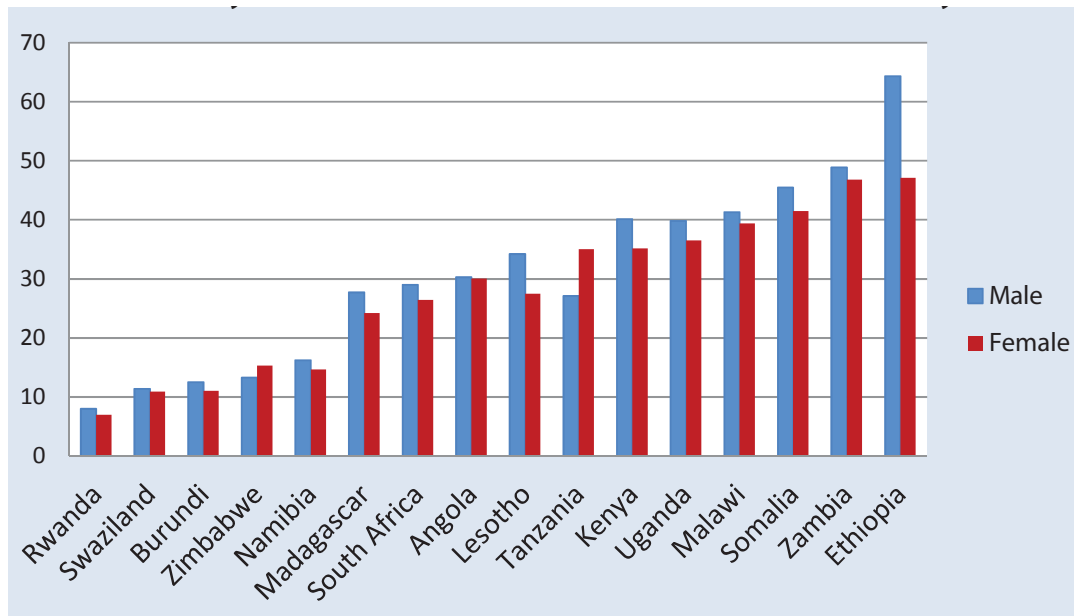
Transition rates are below 35%.

3.7 Child Labour in the Region

Child labour has a detrimental effect on children’s school attendance and performance even when it does not cause them to drop out

(see Chapter 5). High levels of child labour are incompatible with successful participation in education and should therefore be of concern to those working with OOSC and those at risk of dropping out.

Figure 12. Percentage of 7-14 involved in economic activity



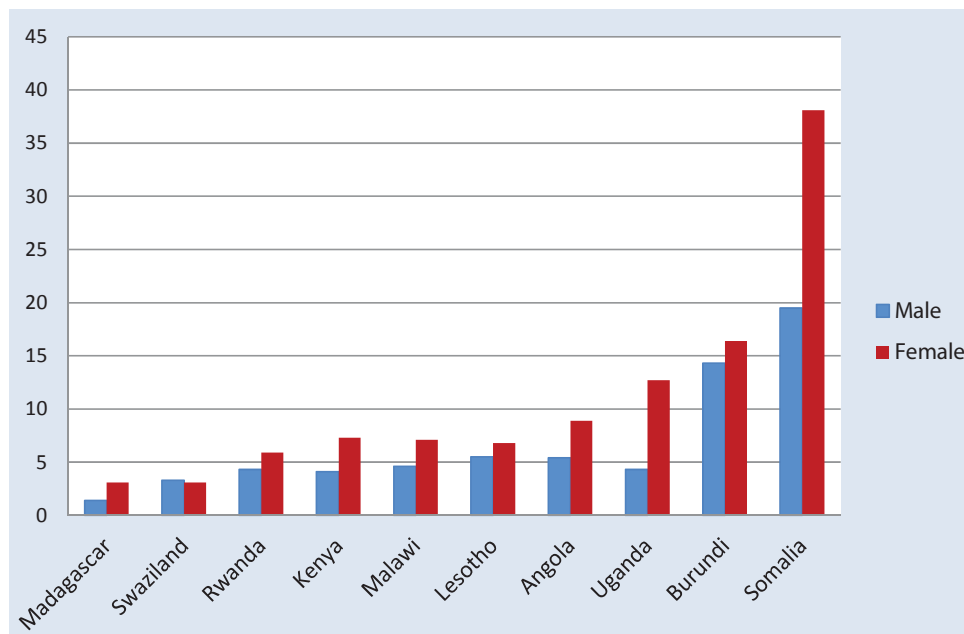
Source: UCV, 2012

High levels of economic activity⁹ among 7-14-year-olds were found across the region, but were particularly high in Ethiopia, Somalia and Zambia. Although causation is difficult to establish, it is not surprising to note that Ethiopia and Somalia also had the highest rates of OOSC in Dimension 2 (Figure 6 above) and among the highest rates of 7-14-year-

olds involved in economic activity (Figure 12 above). Boys appear more likely than girls to be involved in economic activity, with particularly large gender gaps existing in Ethiopia and Lesotho. From Figure 21 in Chapter 4 it can be seen that boys are much less likely than girls to attend school in Lesotho.

9 Economic activity differs from child labour in that it is not necessarily harmful to children, it may involve activities which positively contribute to their development and the welfare of their families (ILO, 2012).

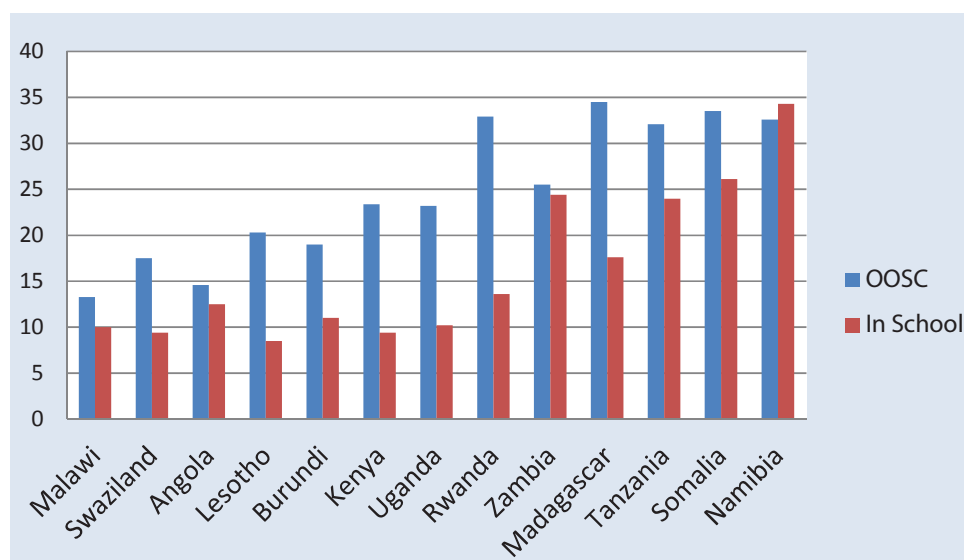
Figure 13. Percentage of children doing more than 28 hours of household chores per week



Source: UCW, 2012

Although boys are more likely than girls to be involved in economic activity as seen above in Figure 12, the situation is reversed when considering those children who spend more than 28 hours a week doing household chores. In most countries in the region girls are more likely to devote a lot of time to household chores, most significantly in Somalia and Uganda.

Figure 14. Average number of working hours per week for 7-14-year-olds



Source: UCW, 2012

Figure 14 above shows that 7-14-year-olds involved in economic activity across the region, whether in school or not, spend large amounts of time working, 16.2 hours per week for those in school and 24.8 for those out-of-school. On average, OOSC spend 50 per cent more time working than children in school. However, it is not clear whether the extra workload is the reason for leaving school or is a consequence of the extra time available to children once they have left formal education. What is noteworthy is the large variance between those children in school and those out of it. In Namibia and Zambia, for example, students appear to be able to combine school and work with little or no difference in the number of hours worked. In contrast, in Kenya, Uganda, Rwanda, and Madagascar, OOSC work approximately double the number of hours as children who are in school.

3.8 Out-of-school Children (Dimensions 2 and 3)

The previous sections suggest large inefficiencies in the educational system of ESAR countries. High repetition rates, high dropout rates and low survival rates indicate that children are attending school but not necessarily making progress; and if they are making progress it takes longer than it should. Hence, the allocation of funds to education is not obtaining the expected gain to both economic and social well-being for the children and the country.

By combining population estimates from the UN Population Division (UNPD) with proportions of OOSC from DHS, GHS and MICS it is estimated that 19 million children of primary age and 7 million children of lower-



secondary-age are not in school (Table 5). The regional estimate is based on household surveys from a range of years and may not capture recent trends. It may also be an underestimation as no figures from South Sudan are included.

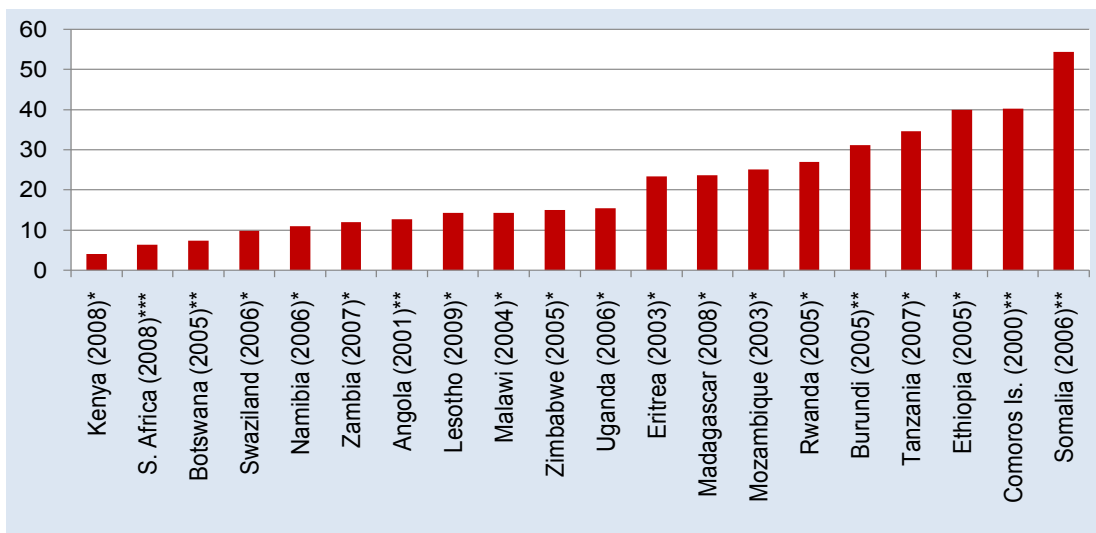
Table 4: The number of primary and lower secondary age children OOS

	% of primary age children OOS	% of lower secondary age children OOS	Total number of primary age children OOS	Total number of lower secondary age children OOS
Group 1				
Botswana	13.6	7.4	40,317	9,621
Lesotho	15.2	14.3	56,699	22,372
Namibia	7.0	11.0	25,226	16,830
South Africa	11.3	6.3	796,172	125,287
Swaziland	14.8	9.8	31,586	9,143
Group 2				
Burundi	10.2	31.1	121,468	243,238
Comoros Is.	43.0	40.2	40,928	22,630
Eritrea	37.2	23.3	230,961	77,130
Madagascar	20.5	23.7	552,711	460,223
Somalia	67.6	54.4	1,005,248	229,292
Zimbabwe	12.8	15.0	285,064	96,748
Group 3				
Angola	14.4	12.7	455,471	172,834
Malawi	19.2	14.3	523,004	224,095
Mozambique	39.6	25.1	1,755,549	396,798
Rwanda	14.4	27.0	216,462	177,548
Zambia	18.1	11.9	455,322	73,159
Group 4				
Ethiopia	57.3	40.0	7,591,258	3,138,177
Kenya	26.3	4.0	1,669,242	74,790
Tanzania	26.8	34.6	2,156,166	1,339,723
Uganda	17.8	15.4	1,214,604	496,611
Un-weighted Average	24.4	21.1		
Total			19,223,457	7,406,248

Source: UNPD, DHS, MICS and GHS

Nearly 66 per cent of primary-age OOSC overall are in large-size development contexts. This includes 40 per cent in Ethiopia (in 2005) and 11 per cent in Tanzania (in 2007). Similarly, nearly 70 per cent of lower-secondary-age OOSC are also in large-size development contexts, with 43 per cent in Ethiopia and 18 per cent in Tanzania. Figure 15 below shows the middle-income countries to have Dimension 3 children (out-of-school lower-secondary age) ranging from 6.3 percent in South Africa to 14.3 percent in Lesotho. Unsurprisingly very high levels of OOSC were found in the fragile states, particularly Somalia and Comoros.

Figure 15: Percentage of OOSC in Dimension 3 based on attendance

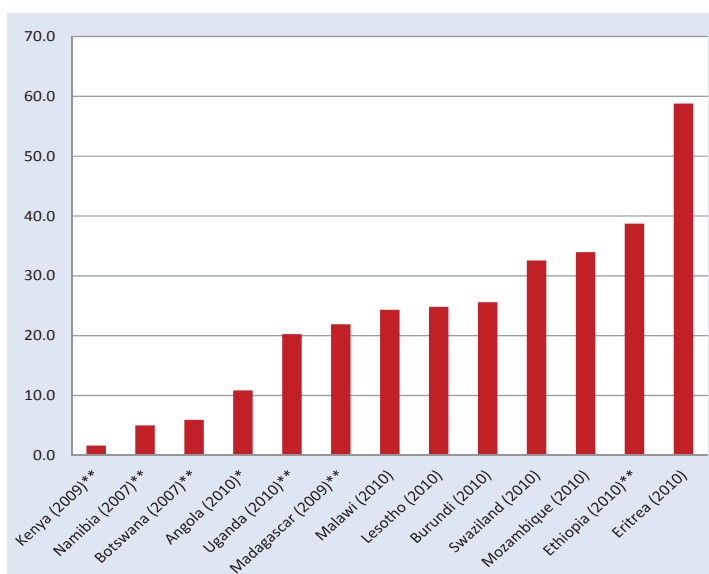


Source: Own calculation based on data DHS*, MICS** and GHS***

OOSC can be divided into two groups based on their previous exposure to school: children who entered school and dropped out, and children who never entered school (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). Children who never entered school can be further divided into two sub-groups: children who will enter school in the future (as late entrants), and children who will

never enter school. Using administrative data, the UIS estimates that in 2009, 60 per cent of primary-age OOSC in Sub-Saharan Africa were unlikely to ever enter school, while 29 per cent expected to enter as late entrants, and a further 11 per cent have already left school (UIS, 2011).

Figure 16: Percentage of OOSC in Dimension 3 based on enrolment



Source: UIS, 2012

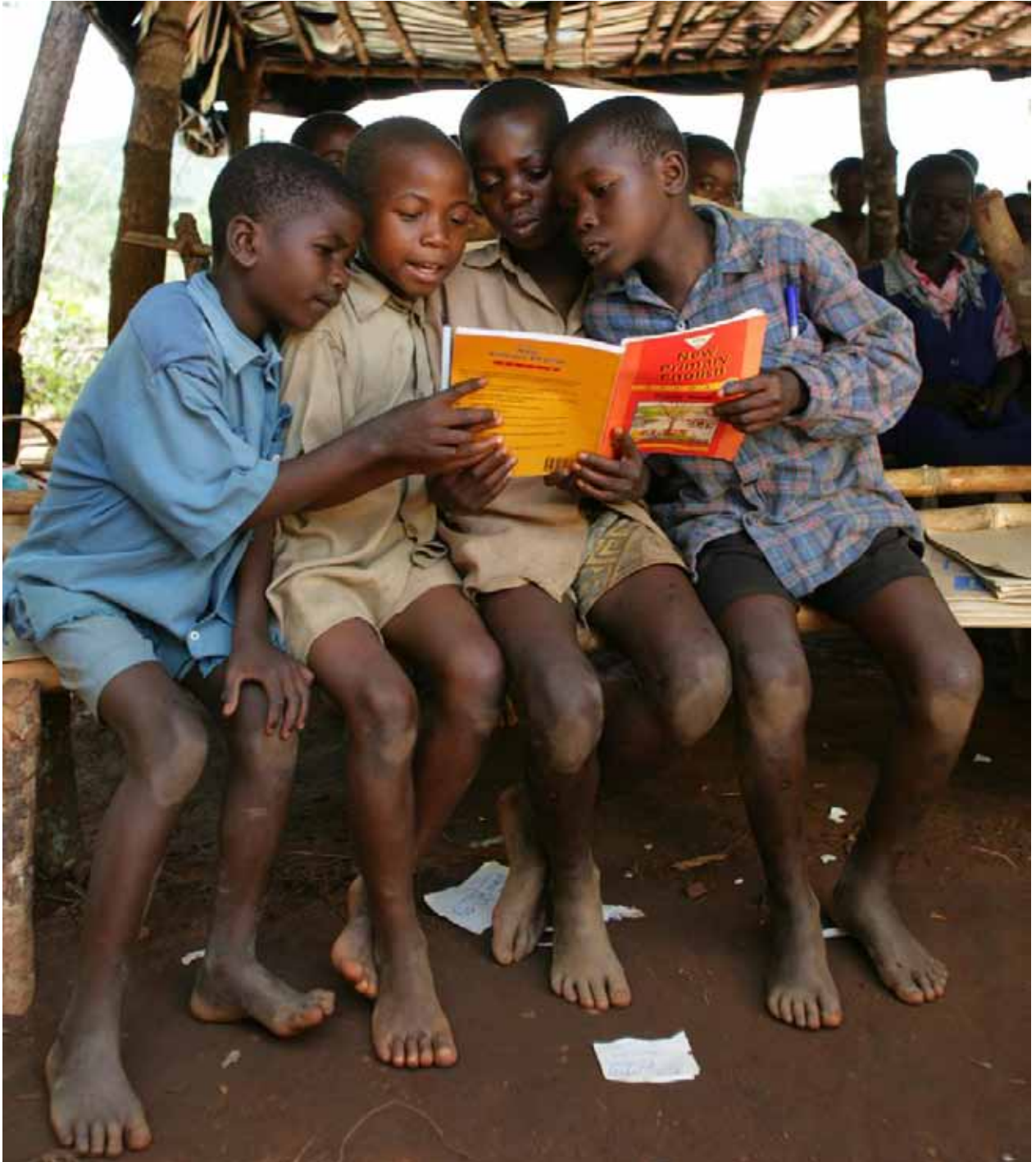
* National Estimation

** UIS Estimation

Missing data: Comoros, Rwanda, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, Zambia, Zimbabwe

From the countries where administrative data are available there appear to be three rough levels of OOSC. Low: Angola, Botswana, Kenya and Namibia; high: Eritrea, and the

rest at a medium level of between 20 and 40 per cent. It is clear that keeping children of lower-secondary age in school is a common challenge across the region.



4. Equity Concerns for OOSC in ESAR

Inequalities in access to education between children who have resources and those who do not, between children of different ethnic groups, regions and even between boys and girls, are principal contributors to the poor situation of OOSC. The concept of equity in education refers to the ability of children to develop their full cognitive, physical and social potential without discrimination due to gender, race, ethnicity or location (UNICEF SEER, 2011). Achieving equity often means higher provision for those who are most disadvantaged, a term which is linked to social justice (CSDH, 2008).

The 2010 UNESCO GMR “Reaching the Marginalised” showed how inequalities are often associated with income and wealth, gender, ethnicity and regional disparities (UNESCO, 2010a). Regional disparities, in particular, tend to be higher within countries than between countries. For example, in comparing Uganda to Tanzania, 22 per cent of youth aged 17 to 22 in Uganda achieved less than two years of education compared to 27 per cent in Tanzania. Within Uganda, however, there was a far greater disparity between the youth living in two different regions. For example, in the richer central area, 14 per cent of 17-22 year-olds had less than two years of education, while in the poorer northern district of Moroto, more than 84 per cent of the same age group had less than two years of education (Harttgen and Klasen, 2009).

Disparities in educational indicators such as school progression, retention or dropout rates by gender, wealth and location continue to be high within several countries in ESAR

(UNESCO, 2010a). Overall the gap in dropout rates between children from the poorest 20 per cent of families and those from the richest 20 per cent was around 25 percentage points (Sabates, et. al. 2010). School attendance rates for children living in the richer central region of Uganda are 89 per cent for boys and 90 per cent for girls, whereas for boys and girls living in Moroto, the attendance rates are 21 per cent and 18 per cent, respectively (UNESCO, 2010a).

Overlapping dimensions of gender, wealth, location and other factors increase the likelihood of educational exclusion for many children (UNESCO, 2010a). For example, children living in rural areas have fewer educational opportunities than children living in urban areas and the situation tends to be even worse for children living in poor rural households than for children living in richer rural households; it is further exacerbated when also considering the gender differences (UNESCO, 2010a). Finally, there are inequalities associated with specific livelihoods or forms of marginalisation such as for nomadic groups and children with disabilities. For instance, in Ethiopia, Kenya and Uganda, pastoralist groups achieved the lowest levels of educational attainment when compared to the national averages. In Uganda, children with a reported disability were twice as likely to have never been to school as other children in the same country (UNESCO-DME, 2009).

This chapter provides specific indicators that depict the exacerbating consequences of educational disparities based on overlapping dimensions of wealth, region, and gender.

Chapter 5 investigates the situation of children in ESAR who are marginalised and excluded from education due to a disability, nomadic livelihood, conflict or violence, or who suffer from yet other forms of marginalisation.

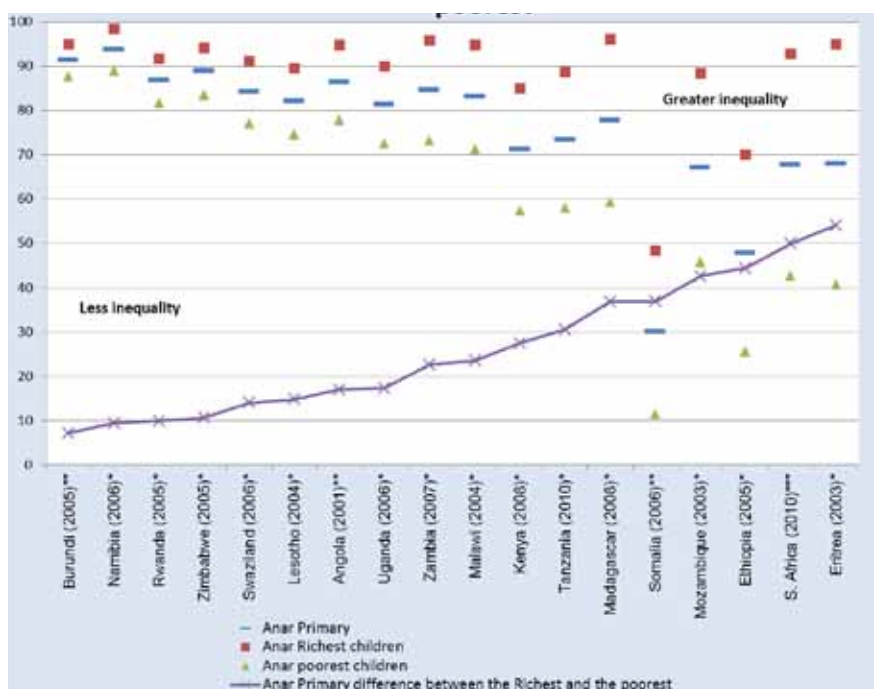
4.1 Wealth

Children from richer families continue to outperform children from poorer families across most education indicators. Children from the poorest families are less likely to be attending school, and those who do are more likely to be over-age, to repeat grades and to be less likely to complete a full cycle of primary education. Although the difference in access for children from different wealth quintiles varies significantly across ESAR, they are much more pronounced within some countries than others. For instance, the comparison between the richest and the poorest children attending either primary or secondary school (primary ANAR) is 54 per cent in Eritrea compared to 49 per cent in South Africa. In countries such as Burundi,

Namibia and Rwanda the difference is much less pronounced (see Figure 17).

A relationship between the adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) and the level of inequality within countries (Figure 17) is striking. Countries with the highest levels of attendance tend to have lower levels of inequality between the richest and the poorest children, as in Burundi, Namibia, Rwanda and Zimbabwe. This may mean that once a country has enrolled the majority of children, the difference between rich and poor will narrow. As it is assumed that most rich children are already enrolled in school, additional benefits from more universal enrolment tend to produce equality in access. This suggests that an equity agenda should focus on those most in need and on targeted, as well as universal approaches. When used, universal approaches should be progressive, i.e. giving more support to those with the greatest needs. These issues are discussed further in Chapter 6.

Figure 17: Primary ANAR (differences between richest 20 per cent and poorest 20 per cent in ESAR)

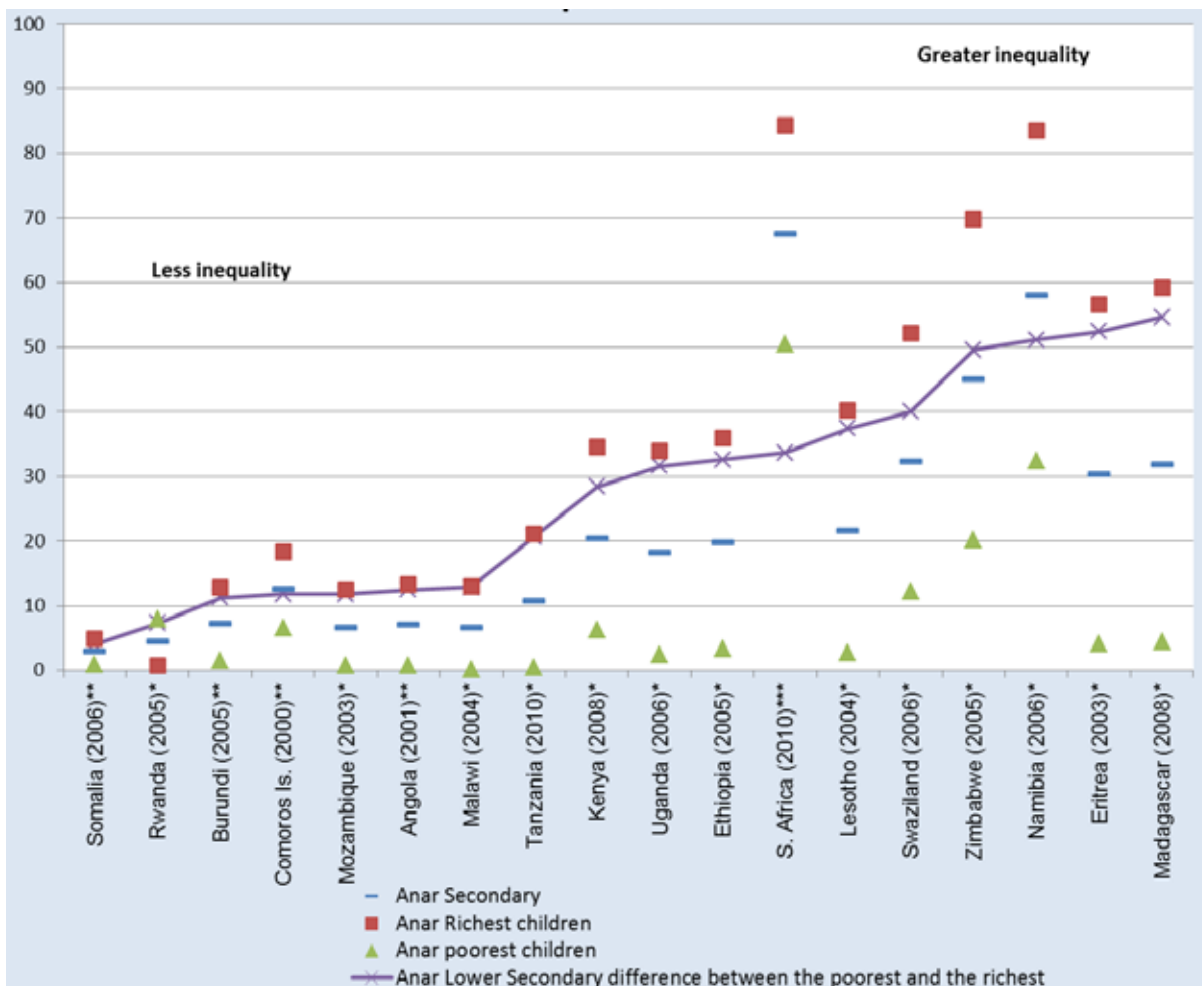


Source: Own calculation based on DHS*, MICS** and GHS***

The difference between the richest and the poorest children enrolled in lower secondary is consistently larger than that in primary school. On average, children from the richest families have a primary ANAR 27 percentage points higher than those from the poorest households.¹⁰ In countries such as Zambia, Madagascar and Eritrea, ANAR differences are extremely large, reaching more than 50 percentage points in Eritrea.

Contrary to the finding that ANAR in primary school is negatively related to inequality, at the lower secondary level, some countries with lower ANAR present less inequality, as in Somalia, Rwanda, Burundi, Comoros and Mozambique (Figure 18). This might be explained by the fact that despite improvements in enrolment rates across the region (see Chapter 3), household wealth continues to be a key determinant of participation in education particularly in secondary school (Lewin, 2007).

Figure 18: Lower secondary ANAR (differences between richest 20 per cent and poorest 20% per cent in ESAR)



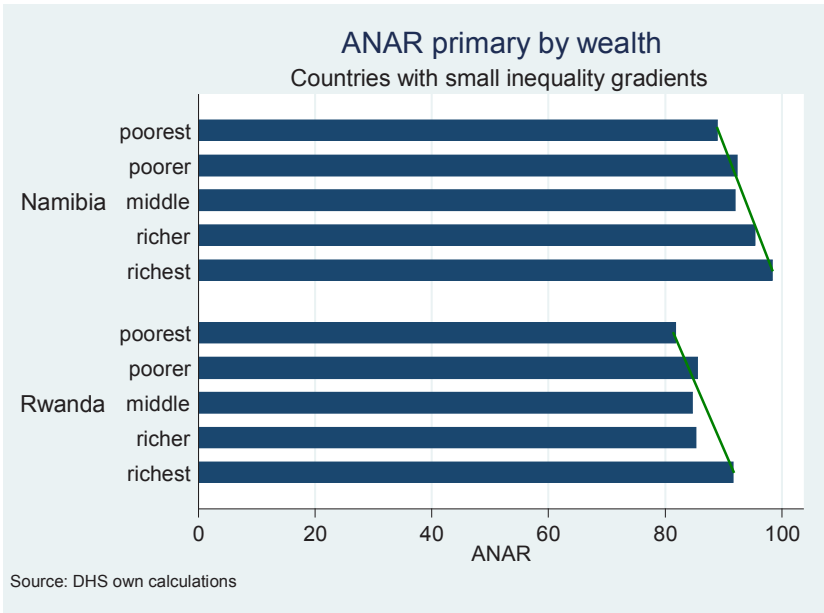
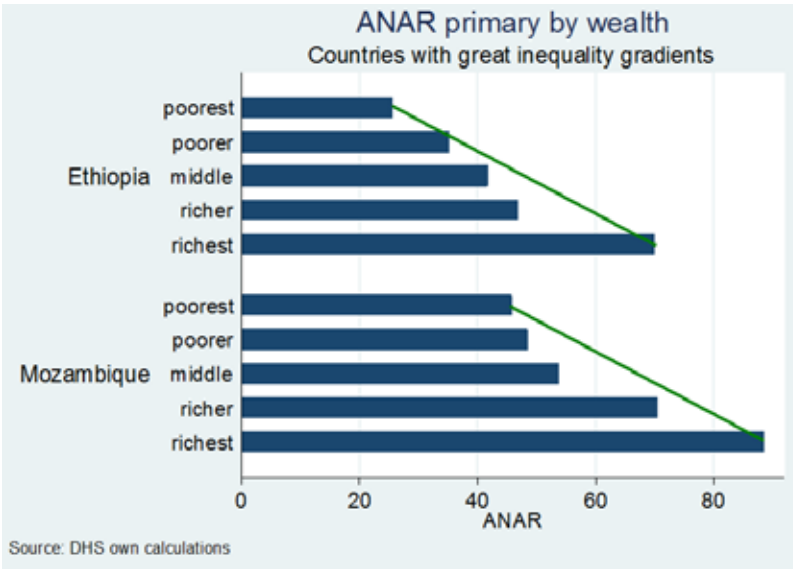
Source: Own calculation based on DHS*, MICS** and GHS ***

10 Remember that the difference in the ANAR between richest and poorest children in primary school was 21 per cent.

Differences between children from the poorest and the richest households may mask distributional problems. For instance, some countries have a very steep wealth gradient in primary ANAR (see Figure 19 below), for example, Ethiopia and Mozambique. In Ethiopia, there is a large drop in primary ANAR between the richest and the richer and

then a smaller decline between the richer and the middle group. In Mozambique, there is a similar drop in primary ANAR between the richest and the richer and between the richer and the middle group. In countries with small wealth gradients the distributional problems are likely to be smaller (see Figure 19 for Rwanda and Namibia).

Figure 19: Primary ANAR gradient differences between countries



The likelihood that children are out-of-school is strongly associated with their relative wealth. The probability is greater in some countries, such as Ethiopia, Eritrea, Kenya and Madagascar where the poorest children have almost a three times greater chance of being out-of-school than the richer children. In Somalia, 85 per cent of the children from the poorest households are out-of-school. However, as highlighted in the limitations section, OOSC may refer to children in the formal system who may still be enrolled in non-formal education. This is likely in Somalia where 53 per cent of the children aged 5 to 19 years are enrolled in Qur'anic education, which is categorised as non-formal.

The inefficiencies of the educational sector are closely related to wealth differentials. High repetition and dropout rates are more likely to be experienced by children from the poorest households (UNICEF SEER, 2011). In Swaziland, for example, there is a 10 percentage-point higher primary-school promotion rate¹¹ for rich than for poor children. There is also a 4 per cent differential in dropout and repetition rates between children of poor and rich families in Swaziland. Therefore dealing with inefficiencies in education, repetition and dropout rates, requires approaches that also focus on equity issues related to household wealth.

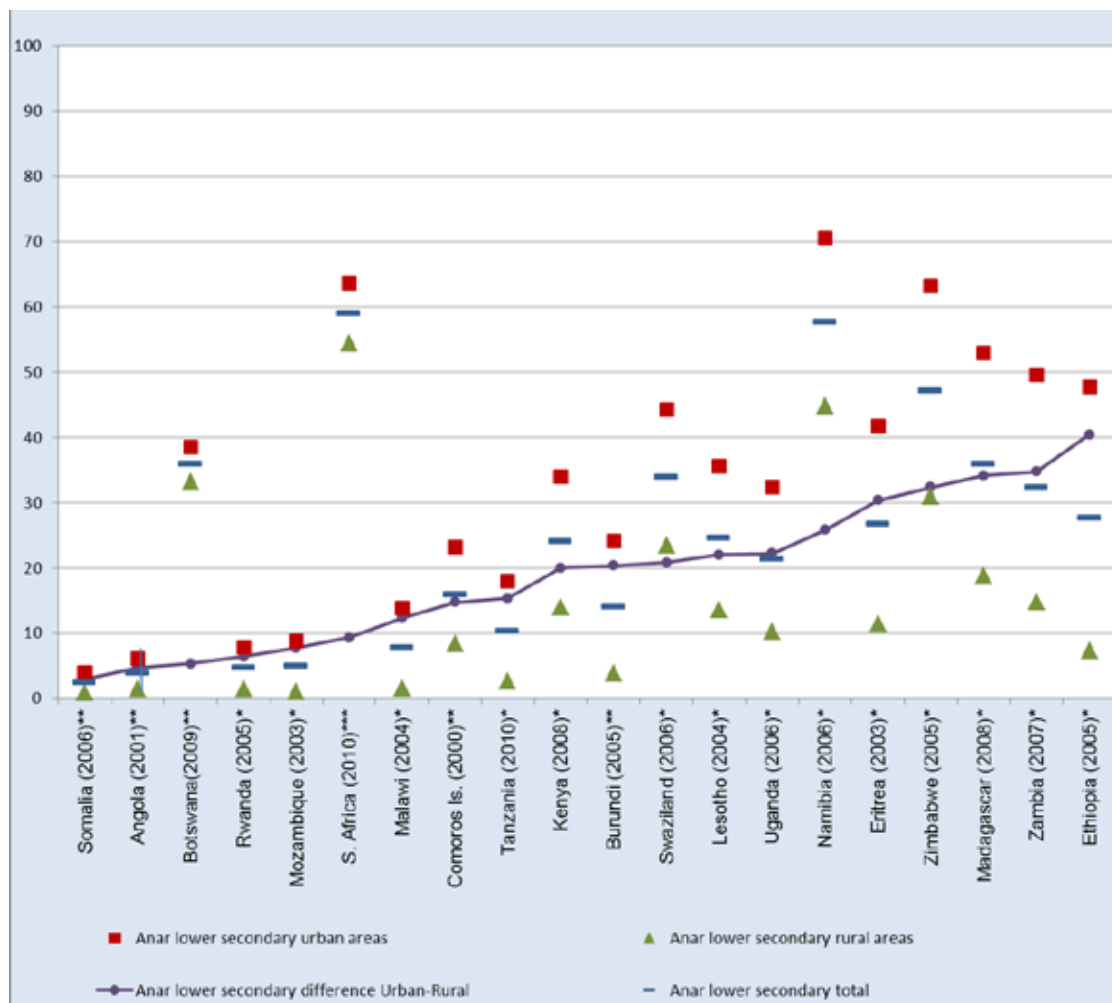
4.2 Location

Area of residence continues to be a strong predictor of attendance in some ESAR countries. In Ethiopia, for example, the primary ANAR is 40 per cent higher for children from urban areas than for those from rural areas. In countries, such as Eritrea and Mozambique, regional inequalities remain around 30 per cent, with children living in urban areas having higher chances of educational access in primary school than children in rural areas. Across ESAR, it is also important to highlight, however, that other countries have very little difference in primary attendance rates between urban and rural areas. This is particularly true in Swaziland, Lesotho, South Africa, Namibia and Rwanda, where primary attendance rates for urban and rural areas are above 83 per cent with very small urban-rural differentials.

Urban-rural differences for lower-secondary-school attendance, on the other hand, remain particularly high across the whole region where differences hover around 19 percentage points. Countries with larger differences are Ethiopia, Zambia and Madagascar where the difference is 35 percentage points between urban and rural attendance rates for lower secondary school. (See Figure 20 below). This issue highlights the difficulty that children from rural areas face in accessing secondary school, a barrier discussed in Chapter 5.

11 Defined by 100% minus repetition rate minus dropout rate.

Figure 20: Lower secondary ANAR (differences between urban and rural areas) in ESAR



Source: Own calculation based on DHS*, MICS** and GHS***

In general, children living in rural areas are more likely to be out-of-school at both primary and lower-secondary age. However, it appears that location affects children of lower-secondary age more than primary age. An extreme case is Ethiopia where children of lower-secondary age living in rural areas have an ANAR 40 percentage points lower than cohorts living in urban areas. In contrast,

when it comes to dropout and repetition rates, very little difference is found between urban and rural areas. The country with the largest differential is Ethiopia where the dropout rate in rural areas is 10 percentage points higher than in urban areas. This may suggest that the rural/urban divide is more relevant in terms of initial access to schooling rather than the actual education processes.

A significant issue that is not addressed by this analysis is impact of climate change and natural disasters on educational access. Recurrent natural disasters such as drought, flooding and cyclones in most ESAR countries where hundreds of thousands of learners experience annual disruptions to their schooling, have a hugely detrimental long-term impact on learning outcomes (UNICEF SEER, 2011). The recent crisis in the Horn of Africa has also highlighted the neglect of children in refugee camps such as Dadaab in the northeast of Kenya, where only 42 per cent of primary-aged children were accessing education before the recent emergency, despite their being a 'captive audience' where distance to school and opportunity costs should not have been an issue. Interestingly, gender differences are also very pronounced in Dadaab with girls dropping out in much greater numbers than boys due to various cultural reasons including child marriage and pregnancy. This issue is investigated in the next section.

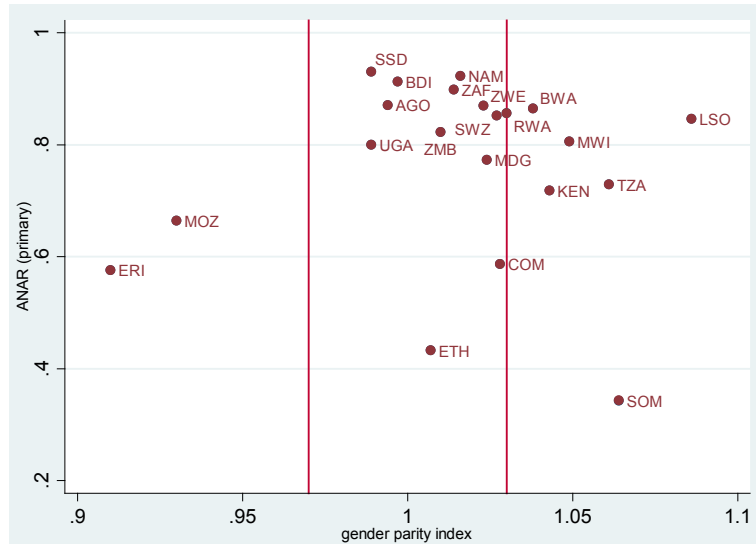
4.3 Gender

Figures 21 to 23 below show the distribution of educational indicators by gender. Primary ANAR for all countries are plotted by regions of gender disparity in Figure 21. Values on the gender-parity index (GPI) between 0.97 and 1.03 are considered gender parity. A GPI for the ANAR lower than 0.97 indicates that girls are at a disadvantage; if the index is greater than 1.03 boys are at a disadvantage.

As Figure 21 below shows, the largest group of countries in ESAR falls into the gender-parity classification in primary school (13 countries of the total 21). The second largest group (6 of 21) consists of those countries whose GPI values are above 1.03, indicating that boys are at a disadvantage. Countries in which boys' attendance rates are particularly low compared to girls are Lesotho, Tanzania and Somalia, although the Somalia result should be treated with caution. In Eritrea and Mozambique, to the contrary, girls are much less likely to be attending school. The general pattern within ESAR is, nonetheless, one of equal primary school attendance by gender. In addition, the higher a country's ANAR, the less likely this country is to have gender disparities.



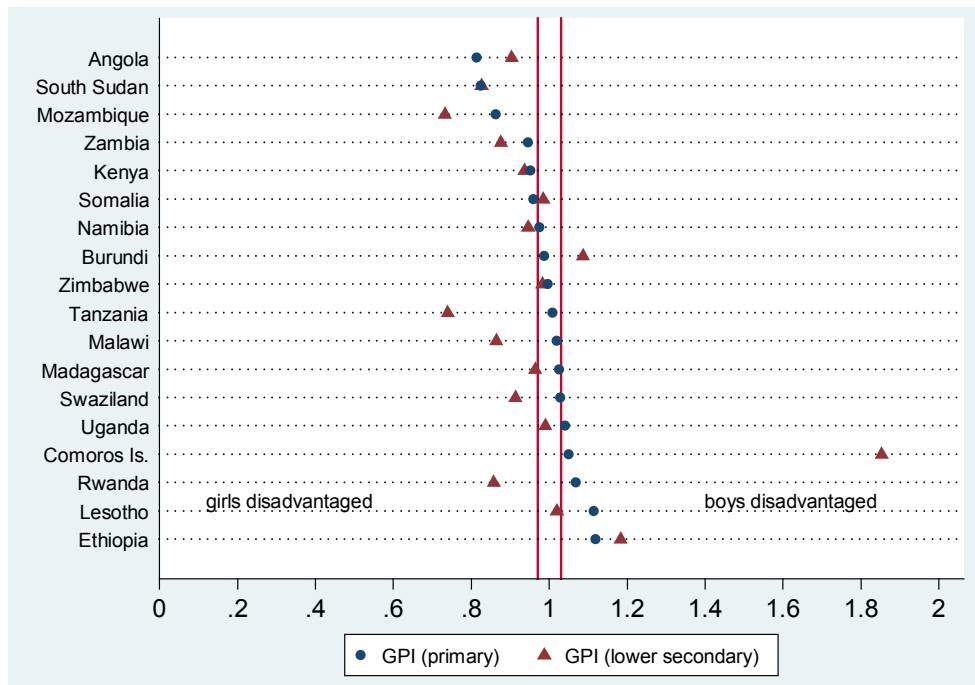
Figure 21: Relationship between primary ANAR and gender parity across countries



Source: Own calculations based on DHS and MICS

Figure 22 contains the gender-parity index of survival to the last grades of both primary and lower secondary school. In six countries girls are less likely to reach the last grade of primary school, whereas in five countries boys have lower survival rates. In lower secondary school, on the other hand, girls are less likely to reach the last grade in 10 countries, and boys in only three.

Figure 22: Gender parity index for the survival rate to the last grade of primary and lower secondary

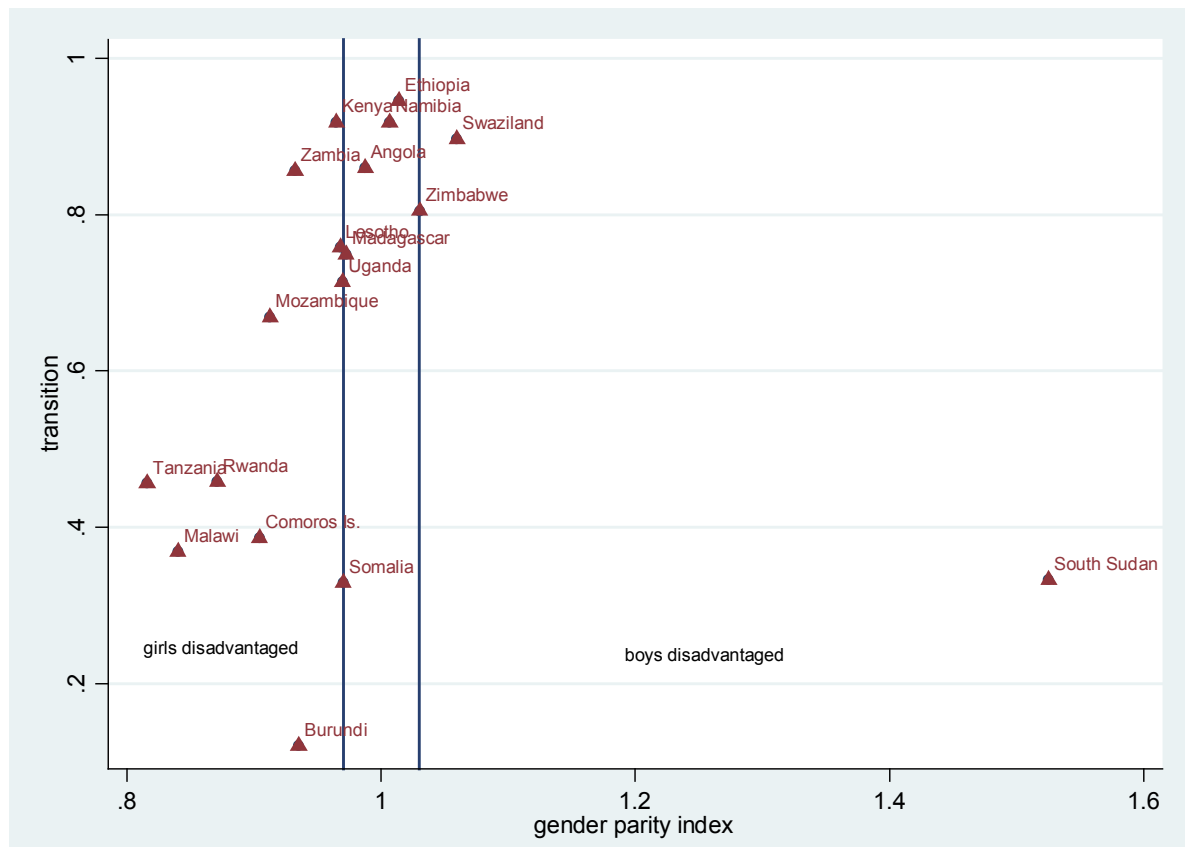


Source: Own calculations based on DHS and MICS

Finally, Figure 23 below shows that countries with low transition rates from primary to secondary education tend to have greater gender disparity, with girls most often the disadvantaged. In countries where transition rates are below 50 per cent (7 countries in total), girls are at a disadvantage.¹² In the rest of the countries, however, there seems to be gender parity with respect to transition to secondary school. Three exceptions are Swaziland, where boys are less likely than girls to progress to secondary school, and Zambia

and Mozambique, where girls are less likely than boys to progress to secondary school. The outlying results for South Sudan (See Figure 23) might be explained by continued political instability, widespread poverty and high demand for child labour. These factors influence the low enrolment which is exacerbated by sustained teacher strikes and the limited development of education infrastructure including the compilation of data.

Figure 23: Relationship between transition rates and gender parity across countries



Source: Own calculations based on DHS and MICS

12 South Sudan shows a large disparity in the transition where boys are at significant disadvantage. Given the quality of the data for South Sudan, which has been highlighted before, caution is advised when considering this finding.

Overall, the gender analysis is silent about quality and processes within schools. Research has shown that girls in secondary school are vulnerable to sexual abuse, violence and HIV infection, leading many to drop out. (Dunne et al, 2006). In addition, UNICEF SEER (2011) shows that girls' performance in subjects such as math and science is generally weaker than that of boys; yet when it comes to reading achievement, SACMEQ's results suggest significant and consistent gender differences in favour of girls. This may be related to teaching practices or curriculum, as well as family support. Cultural attitudes, beliefs and values that ascribe lower regard for girls negatively affect their schooling access and performance. Girls are also called upon more often than boys to perform household chores, leaving them with little time to study, thus contributing towards their lower academic performance. These issues are discussed in Chapter 5.

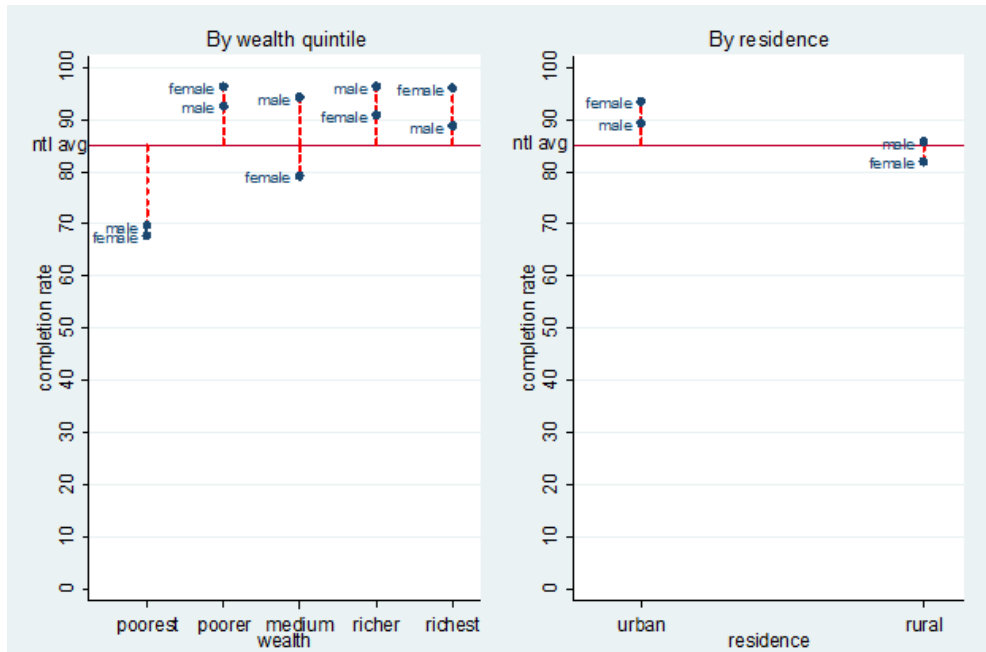
4.4 Overlapping Dimensions of Equity

The above results suggest that ESAR has large inequalities in attendance, survival and transition that are based on wealth, location and gender. Wealth differentials seem to be universal in the region, whereas locational inequalities may be related to both spatial isolation, natural disasters and violent conflict. Although gender inequalities have been decreasing over time, issues of gender processes within and outside of the school continue. This section focuses on the overlapping dimensions of inequality in children's schooling. For instance, poor

rural households face different constraints than poor urban households. Barriers to educational access for poor girls in rural areas may be greater than those for poor girls in urban areas. In poor rural areas, distance to the nearest school may be the main barrier whereas in poor urban areas, it may be the lack of school places for the number of children. Overlapping dimensions of inequality highlight the need for contextualised and targeted studies at the country level.

Figure 24 below shows the positive relationship between wealth and primary completion rates in Kenya. The completion rate is calculated using the expected survival rate to the last grade of primary school. While the likelihood of completion for the poorest quintile is around 70 per cent (significantly below the national average of 85 per cent), the richest quintile completion rates are at least 90 per cent. This direct relationship between wealth and completion rates, however, is not directly linked to the narrowing gender gap as it is in many other countries. In fact, Kenya presents higher gender inequalities among the richer groups with a change of direction in favour of girls. The gender gap in completion rates for the bottom quintile is just 2 per cent in favour of boys but for the richest group it is 8 per cent in favour of girls. Location also appears to exert an influence on gender completion rates. Both sexes from urban areas show completion rates above the national average. But it is interesting to note that the gender gap changes, as girls from rural areas are the most disadvantaged group while girls in urban areas are the most advantaged group).

Figure 24: Primary completion rate by gender, wealth and residence (Kenya)



Source: DHS own calculations



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5. Barriers and Bottlenecks

5.1 Introduction

This chapter covers the qualitative data and analysis to present the barriers and bottlenecks. Previous chapters have examined available statistical data to provide a regional profile of children's access to school at key points in the 5DE model. Chapter 3 in the data on enrolment presented sustained access and transition, as well as a discussion on the related issues of over-age, repetition and drop out. Chapter 4 explored in greater detail the relationships between and among the key variables of wealth, location and gender, which are all widely acknowledged to influence school access (UNESCO 2010c). The emphasis in this chapter is on the important influences and outcomes that are less receptive to statistical measurement and derive more from social and cultural conditions, practices and relations in specific contexts. The evidence is distinctly different from that provided in the previous two chapters, and although less amenable to generalisation, it is highly significant in understanding issues related to OOSC.

This chapter focuses on barriers to the demand and supply of education and then on the bottlenecks that restrict educational access to OOSC. The CMF (UNICEF & UIS 2011) elaborates two categories of demand-side barriers: first, the sociocultural practices and experience of children; and second the economic circumstances and household priorities. Supply-side barriers include multiple impediments to the provision of quality schools that range from buildings to resources and from teachers to management, pedagogy

and school safety. The bottlenecks refer to political, governance and financial factors that block the implementation of policies and strategies to ensure sustained school access for all children. These two sets of demand-side barriers, the supply-side barriers and bottlenecks are discussed separately below. However, it is important to emphasise how they are all inextricably linked. Points raised in one section of this chapter are likely to be echoed in another, for example, as issues of supply and demand influence one another. As illustrated in Figure 1 in the Introduction of this review the access of all children to education emanates from relations between governance arrangements (policy, strategy, finance etc.), schools (their location, facilities and teaching and learning practices) and families, communities and children. These relations are vitally important to understanding who, where and why there are children out-of-school and what can be done about it.

5.2 Sociocultural Demand Barriers

Sociocultural demand barriers remain difficult to capture, measure and generalise. While analyses of power, hierarchies, authority structures, explicit and subtle discrimination and responsibilities within local contexts can inform how barriers operate and persist in particular communities, they vary widely from country to country and are not common universally. Yet, within the limited research evidence on sociocultural demand, this chapter discusses these social barriers as they relate to education access.

Gender

Gender has an important bearing on the demand for schooling and numbers of OOSC as shown in Section 4.3. There is a lower demand for girls' schooling related to child marriage and pregnancy, which are major causes of dropout and incomplete basic education across ESAR. While many girls, especially in lower secondary school, drop out because they are pregnant, others are denied access to school by their families out of fear that they might become pregnant. Uncertainties about their safety in and on their way to and from school also exacerbate their fears of exposure to sexual harassment and/or abuse, especially when the school is far away from their home. (Mothibeli and Maema 2005; Dunne 2008). The aspect of distance has an even-more acute impact on girls in rural areas where schools are much further apart than in urban areas. Other school-safety issues that threaten girls' access include inadequate sanitation, other poor school facilities, the predominance of male teachers and lax school management (Colclough et al. 2000; Dunne and Leach 2005; Keitheile and Mokubung 2005; Jennings 2011; Jones 2011).

Child labour and its gender dimensions point to another set of sociocultural practices in addition to poverty that militate against school participation access. Where families under economic stress, are large or HIV-affected, girls are prone to remain within the home where they bear significant domestic and caring responsibilities for sick parents or relatives and/or for their siblings or orphans (Avenstrup et al. 2004; Colclough et al. 2003). The other side of the gendering of child labour refers to cases in which young boys are out-of-school to work as herdsmen (Mothibeli and Maema 2005; UNESCO 2010c) which also relates more acutely to rural settings (Jennings 2011; Jones 2011; Colclough et al. 2000). Box 1 below shows large school-going gender imbalance in South Sudan.

Box 1: Gender Imbalances in South Sudan

South Sudan has proportionately fewer girls going to school than any country in the world. According to UNICEF, less than 1 per cent of girls complete primary education and only one school child in four is a girl (Brown 2006). In 2009, the average gross enrolment rate (GER) in South Sudan was 85 per cent for males and 57 per cent for females, with the general trend of males attending schools more than females in all ten states. Girls are less likely to enter school and more likely to drop out. There are just 400 girls in the last grade of secondary education in South Sudan. Today, a young girl in South Sudan is three times more likely to die in pregnancy or childbirth than to reach Grade 8 (UNESCO 2011b).

The low enrolment rate of girls is important beyond the issue of gender equality. Because girls make up only 44 per cent of the school-age population, they are doubly under-represented in schools (Kim et al. 2011:22). The lack of female teachers – just 7 per cent of the teaching force – reinforces this gender imbalance. It is estimated that around 90 per cent of women in South Sudan are illiterate (Brown 2006).

Overall, the gender division of labour reflects stereotypical gender patterns that indicate normalised sets of social expectations and limit the range of social roles and future possibilities for both girls and boys (Chege 2001). These expectations produce dominant forms of masculinity and femininity that pervade the broader macro-social setting in which the participation, voice and representation by gender is unequal. The gender hierarchy also influences local dynamics and personal interactions, which at the extremes, underlies female subordination, gender violence and sexual abuse (Leach and Machakanja 2006; Human Rights Watch 2001; Humphreys et al. 2008).

Sociocultural attitudes towards girls and young women and their education are a contributing factor to their high representation among OOSC. Where levels of access to school

are generally low, there also tends to be reduced demand for and access to education for girls (Lewin 2011). The situation in South Sudan is particularly severe, where the primary national enrolment rate (NER) for girls at 37.1 per cent is far below that for boys at 50.8 per cent. Many countries, however, have made massive strides towards gender parity and the issue of boy-child preference is less significant as basic schooling becomes more available for all. The analyses of OOSC profiles indicates that in some countries, especially the middle-income group, the gender gradient has changed so that boys are now more likely to be OOSC (also shown by Motala and Dieltens 2008). Despite this progress toward gender parity, in most countries in the region the progress of boys remains higher than that of girls, which points to gendered sociocultural attitudes or subtle discrimination operating against girls within as well as outside of school (Mirembe and Davies 2001; Aikman and Unterhalter 2005; Humphreys 2005; Dunne 2007; Unterhalter and North 2011).

Disability

Notwithstanding the constitutional rights of persons with disabilities, limited evidence tends to reveal a situation in which many disabled children are subjected to discrimination, abuse, social marginalisation and exclusion, with their basic human rights being violated (Modern et al. 2010). Children with disabilities whether physical, cognitive or psychological are over-represented among out-of-school children (SINTEF 2003; 2011). Their historic exclusion from educational opportunities appears to have reduced their expectations and demand for schooling. Problems of school access are exacerbated where resources and infrastructure are insufficient to provide opportunities for children with disabilities. The sociocultural attitudes towards disability combine with a lack of school resources that limit access

(Croft 2010). While both education and social protection policies have been created in a few countries across the region, they are variable. In a wider review of the work of DFID on disability and education, Modern et al. (2010) comment that 'relatively strong policy environments are just not being put into practice' (Modern et al. 2010:14). In many countries, there is no national system to identify and assess children with physical or mental impairments and therefore no coherent data to track them or respond to their needs. In the few regional countries where these data are available, there is no evidence of levels of access to quality education. The box below lists some of the educational barriers to children with disabilities.

Box 2: Barriers to school for children with disabilities

Inaccessible school buildings;

- *Schools located too far away from where these children live;*
- *Lack of appropriate facilities at school;*
- *Lack of teacher training in inclusive-education methodologies;*
- *Lack of appropriate teaching and learning materials;*
- *Lack of extra support in the classroom for children with disabilities;*
- *Social stigma and negative parental attitudes to disability;*
- *Poverty.*

(Modern et al. 2010:15)

HIV-affected children

Rates of HIV infection across the region are high, especially in the middle-income countries to the south (Bennell et al. 2002; UNAIDS 2006). This has produced a significant number of orphans, child carers and child-headed households with known gender dimensions and OOSC (Human Rights Watch 2002). Conditions of household poverty are often exacerbated by social stigma and educational marginalisation (Mannathoko 2008). While there are signs that negative

attitudes to HIV-affected people have lessened, evidence of support, community responsibility or accountability remains unclear or largely absent. The evidence of social protection measures and community support for these and other children with disrupted households (e.g. orphans, child soldiers etc.) who are highly likely to be out-of-school remains very limited. Box 3 below focuses on children who have lost their parents to AIDS in Uganda.

Box 3: AIDS orphans in Uganda

In 2007, almost 18 per cent of all primary-school children in Uganda had lost one or both parents to AIDS, and were classified as "AIDS-orphans" (MoES 2008). Orphans are less likely to be enrolled in school than non-orphans (Case et al. 2004; Bicego et al. 2003), and are more likely to repeat grades and become over-age or drop out-of-school than their non-orphan counterparts (Deininger et al. 2003). The likelihood of attending school drops particularly for children aged 13–17 years who have lost their parents to AIDS (UBS 2007). As parents become ill and die from the disease, children take on the roles of household head and must provide for the family by working instead of attending school (Kakooza and Kimuna 2005). The most common difficulty households with orphans face, is covering school fees, including those for materials and uniforms (UNICEF 2003; Ssewamala et al. 2011).

Nomadic groups

Access to quality education is already more difficult in rural than urban areas, but nomadic/pastoralist groups, often found in very remote regions, are even more disadvantaged (UNESCO 2010a). These groups have significant populations of OOSC especially in the fragile states and large-development countries. Children

from nomadic or migratory groups often have very little access to schooling, and providing accessible meaningful education to these mobile populations is a challenge. Lack of access is further exacerbated by the communities' view of school education that it is not of sufficient value to justify the time and resources it requires. The reported low value of education by nomadic groups also relates to the standard school format through which education is usually offered by government systems (Carr-Hill et al. 2011). Evidence of low demand is seen in low enrolments among nomadic groups, which are also heavily skewed towards boys (Johannes 2010).

In Eritrea, Kenya, Somalia and Tanzania, where nomadic groups comprise at least 20 per cent of the population and have very low rates of school enrolment, there are no specific government policies or provisions for the education of their children. Improving access to nomadic and pastoral groups could improve national overall figures significantly (Car Hill et al. 2005; Bekalo et al. 2003; Johannes 2010). In Ethiopia, the government has made efforts to step up provision to pastoralist groups. The recent third Education Sector Development Plan emphasised the government's commitment to mainstream pastoralist education in all sub-sectors, including through the Alternative Basic Education and Adult Education programmes. Kenya has established a Nomadic Education Commission along with various strategies to address the needs of these groups, including mobile schools, boarding schools for girls and a scholarship system to fund them. Box 4 below compares the educational participation of nomadic groups in Eritrea and Ethiopia.

Box 4: Contrasting the situation of nomadic groups in Eritrea and Ethiopia

Between 700,000 and a million nomads live in Eritrea, making up 20-30 per cent of the population. Nomads suffer from poverty and exclusion from many basic services. The GER and NER of regions inhabited by nomads are significantly lower than in other areas. In addition, within these regions, the GER of nomads is lower than that of non-nomads. The main reasons given by nomads for not sending their children to school are: a lack of available schools, the long distances to the nearest schools, and difficulties combining schooling with a nomadic lifestyle, particularly for those who move long distances as part of their livelihoods. Some parents were also reluctant to send their children, particularly girls, to school due to uncertainty about the value and benefits of education.

Some limited policy interventions to encourage more enrolment by nomads include: boarding facilities; publicity campaigns to convince nomadic people of the benefits of education; incentives for teachers to teach in nomadic areas; mobile schools; and flexible timetables – with longer weeks during the period when nomad children are free to attend and shorter weeks during the ‘off season.’

Due to the high proportion of nomads in the population, the government of Eritrea would prefer them to settle in one place and engage with mainstream education. There is no clear separate

government strategy for the education of nomads (Carr-Hill et al. 2005).

In Ethiopia, pastoral communities number approximately 12-15 million people (out of 83 million) who belong to 29 nationalities/ethnic groups and inhabit 61 per cent of the country's land mass. The Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP) includes programmes to improve pastoral livelihoods and asset bases and provide basic social services. They are targeted to what are known as the ‘emerging regions’ of Afar, Somali, Gambella and Benishagul-Gumuz, which are the most rural, remote and deprived areas in the country. There is now a Pastoral Affairs Standing Committee in the Parliament, a Pastoralist Area Development Department (PADD) and an Inter-Ministerial Board under the Ministry of Federal Affairs.

To expand access to primary education for pastoralist children, the following strategies have been adopted and are described in more depth in Jennings (2011):

- Expanding access to formal primary schools;
- Using the system of ABE to provide access to pastoralists;
- Mobile education;
- Para-boarding Schools and Hostels (Jennings 2011).



Other marginalised groups

Several other population groups across the region are under stress as a consequence of poverty, displacement, discrimination, minority status or stigma. They are often marginalised or disenfranchised with little space, time or capacity to demand educational provision for their children. It is difficult to draw these groups together as the exact nature of their social exclusion varies from country to country and location to location, compounded by the lack of data and insufficient research on the particularities of their social context. While these groups and their associated OOSC may be known locally, they are difficult to generalise and often invisible to the larger world.

Across ESAR, there are significant, although variable, regional and ethnic dimensions to educational exclusion and particular groups of OOSC (UNESCO 2010c). They also may manifest religious differences or preferences including language, both of which shape the practical day-to-day operation of a school as well as its political and symbolic positioning within a community (Trudell, 2005).

In countries and areas where one ethnic religious or linguistic group dominates in education, trade and power imbalances and inequalities emerge. These imbalances may operate at the very local level of personal and community interaction, but they can also escalate and may even result in armed conflict, as witnessed in the African Great Lakes Region. Ethnic and/or religious rivalries, heightened historically by colonialism may be revived in the contemporary political rhetoric. (Rutayisire 2007; Nkurunziza 2009, often resulting in groups of OOSC in periods of both national instability and conflict (Sommers 2002). The consequences of conflict, 'natural' disaster and humanitarian emergency within the region are significant to the numbers of OOSC who may be refugees or internally displaced (USCRI 2006), orphans or child soldiers. The scope of this impact is beyond the means of this regional overview, but it is an area that demands further and more focussed research and analysis. Furthermore, it is the poor, rural populations and females who tend to bear the heaviest social and educational costs of political or environmental emergencies. The box (5) below highlights the educational struggles faced by refugees and IDPs.



Box 5: Challenges to education for refugees and internally displaced people

The interconnected issues surrounding refugees, internally displaced people and undocumented migrants combine to exclude many children from school. Internally displaced people and undocumented migrants have no legally enshrined rights to education.

For Congolese refugees in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, education was seen as one of the only ways to escape a life of hardship. Their inability to enrol in school for financial security or practical reasons was a source of deep unhappiness and resentment. Children and parents went to great lengths to secure an education, despite the fact that their undocumented status meant that enrolling in public school was actually against the law. Some children engaged in dangerous work as sex workers or night guards to pay for school fees, or they bribed teachers to allow them into schools. Others returned to the dangerous conflict zones or refugee camps that they had fled from to benefit from subsidised education (Mann 2010).

In Kenya, despite efforts to expand educational access to refugee children, primary education remains inaccessible to many of them. In various ways, Kenyan government policy constrains the access of refugee children to education in Nairobi. In the city-council primary schools, refugee parents and guardians are required to produce a proper

registration document such as a UNHCR-mandated certificate in addition to the child's birth certificate. Although many refugee children in Nairobi are born in Kenya, they do not have birth certificates, which hinders their enrolment into public schools. At the same time, proper documentation does not necessarily guarantee access to education to urban refugee children. Other barriers, such as discrimination and extortion, have prevented the enrolment of refugee children in some city public primary schools (Karanja 2010).

Insecurity and conflict are important reasons for non-attendance in the north and northeast of Uganda, where more-than 20 years of armed conflict have had a devastating impact on education. It has led to the abduction, killing, sexual abuse, displacement and psychosocial and physical victimisation of children and communities. The Lord's Resistance Army (LRA) has forced children to become armed fighters. Estimates range from 30,000 to 60,000 children connected to the fighting forces constituted almost 90 per cent of the LRA's soldiers. Recruits are inducted through raids on villages, with some as young as eight forced to become soldiers. People seek security in internally displaced peoples' camps. Approximately 1.6 million Ugandans – half of them children – have fled to these squalid and overcrowded camps (de Kemp and Eilor 2008).

The visibility of demand for education depends on sociocultural practices and relational politics within specific social settings. The social and political structures and practices work in both formal and subtle ways to include and exclude, and to normalise social interactions which sometimes lead to stigma, disincentives, and discrimination. These values often become entrenched in social and cultural practices and can be very resistant to change. As such, the local social context is crucial to a sense of place, belonging and identity which in turn produces sociocultural norms, personal experiences and expectations that are crucial to the demand of services and rights.

5.3 Economic Demand Barriers

Family income and poverty

Despite pockets of growth in the industrial and service sectors, most people in ESAR live in rural contexts (see Table 1) that are characterised by low income-generating opportunities and high levels of poverty. For impoverished households, the availability of food and water is central to survival, and obtaining them absorbs most of the time and energy of household members. Family survival in low-yielding and labour-intensive rural economies spares little time and resources

for education, a situation that is compounded by low levels of supply from national governments, leaving many of the poorest children out-of-school. Increased urbanisation in the region results from population flows in which families migrate (voluntarily or forced by conflict or natural disaster) from conditions of rural poverty to urban slums. This urban relocation is clearly disruptive, and while it may allow new opportunities and constraints it has not been shown to make a significant impact on levels of family poverty. Household poverty interacts with other factors that affect educational access. Health, for example, is an area of concern with poor children suffering from malnutrition, under-nutrition or sickness (UNICEF, ND) and unhealthy and sick children from poor households are more likely to be out-of-school (Pridmore 2007).

While ESAR has seen increases in educational uptake overall, the link between wealth and access has grown stronger rather than weaker in recent decades, suggesting that many improvements in access have been among the relatively rich (Lewin and Sabates 2011). It is also important to note that poverty intersects with other structures of inequality so that ethnic minorities, nomadic groups and children with disabilities, who are socially excluded, are also often economically poor (Modern et al. 2010; UNESCO 2010a). In the case of gender, as shown in Chapter 4, it is the poorer girls who are more likely than richer girls to be out-of-school, and in many regional contexts poor girls are the most likely of all to be out-of-school. (UNESCO 2010a).

The close relationship between household poverty and poor educational access is further strengthened in national contexts with severe economic difficulties, administrative weakness or disruption caused by conflict. This tends to typify the fragile states, but is also evident in other countries. In some cases, such as Somalia, private providers offer education where the state cannot or will not do so

(Cassanelli and Abdikadir 2007). The inability of poor parents to pay results in the further exclusion of their children, which is evident at pre-primary level in most countries, where all but the wealthy are excluded from formal pre-primary education (UNESCO 2010a; UNESCO 2010b; UNESCO 2006a; GoSS 2010).

Child labour and opportunity costs

As described above, food security is a major concern for many in the poor rural areas and is often given higher priority in household economies than education. In these circumstances children are often required to work to ensure sufficient food for the family (McAlpine 2009; Nyambedha and Aagaard-Hansen 2010; Jennings 2011). Child labour is a major driver of late entry, absenteeism and dropout at all levels. UCW (2008) found that in a sample of 60 developing countries, working children were at an attendance disadvantage of at least 10 per cent in 30 countries, at least 20 per cent in 16 countries and at least 30 per cent in 10 countries. Although all types of labour can have a negative effect on children's schooling, household chores were found to be less damaging than economic activity, especially outside the family (UCW, 2008). However, child labour does not just affect attendance rates, it also affects education achievement and performance. Repetition rates were found to be higher among child workers who also scored significantly lower than non-workers in both language and math tests (UCW, 2008). In conditions of sustained poverty, the involvement of children in labour (and their absence from school) may become embedded in the social norms and sustained through inter-generational cycles of people without education. The younger their parents entered the labour market, the more likely children are to work (UCW 2010:49).

The labour demands of specific lifestyles, even if they include only short-term or seasonal labour make these patterns of school exclusion difficult to address. Seasonal labour demands

often clash with the organisation of schools and their calendar. As a result, many households with nomadic, migratory or settled subsistence farming lifestyles contain children who have no access to schooling (Smita 2008; Hadley 2009; Jennings 2011). A possible solution may be the integration of flexible schooling, where school calendars and curriculum can be adjusted, as they are in the community schools initiatives in Zambia and Mali (UCW, 2009). In such economically stressed circumstances the benefit of schooling is diminished when those who complete basic education do not find formal labour-market positions or improved prospects for income generation. With high opportunity costs and low returns for the poorest to send their children to school, many parents prefer their children to work. In poor rural areas, and especially among nomadic groups, boys work as herdsman and girls are required to work in the household and/or as care givers (Jennings 2011).

However, children are not always “pulled” into child labour by household poverty or labour-intensive lifestyles. They may also be “pushed” into economic activities by poor-quality or inaccessible schooling. The availability of schooling has been found to have a direct effect on child labour, particularly in rural areas, although the most significant gains in attendance are generally among those children who were “inactive” (neither in school or working) before (UCW, 2008). Despite overall agreement that school quality affects education outcomes and therefore household decisions to invest in education, problems remain in defining school quality and analysing its impact on child labour. Slight positive correlations have been found between pupil-teacher ratios and levels of economic activity amongst children (UCW, 2008)

School costs

Although most countries in ESAR describe basic education as free, schooling has many costs, including school uniforms, transportation, equipment and learning

resources. In addition, it is not uncommon for schools to ask for contributions or levies to be paid by families to school funds. These costs of education were cited by poor people as one of the main reasons why they removed their children from school or could not send them at all (Hunt 2008).

The introduction of free education to improve access works up to a point. Its success lies in pulling a large group of OOSC back into education (Akyeampong, 2011). Reducing the age of entry, increasing regular attendance, and reducing dropout are at the heart of the challenge in achieving sustainable education as shown in Chapter 3. If educational systems are unprepared to deal with the surge in enrolments through increased and improved infrastructure and incentives, they may find that free education actually creates more problems than it solves to achieve sustained enrolment (Akyeampong, 2011).

5.4 Supply Barriers

Schools, infrastructure and resources

Despite the large rural populations in the ESAR region the supply of rural schools is inadequate, militating against school attendance for many of ESAR's poorest children. Long journeys to school increase dropout rates and are a key safety problem for girls (Jennings 2011; Jones 2011). Many countries have regional disparities in the distribution of schools (Ravishankar et al. 2010; McAlpine 2009; Nkurunziza 2009) which have a direct impact on rural-urban differentials, particularly at secondary school level (see Section 4.2). Adding to the problems of weak educational administration, school buildings in many of the fragile states have been destroyed during periods of conflict and political instability (Bureau of International Labour Affairs 2002; Abdinoor 2008). In countries such as South Sudan and Burundi, the number of schools is inadequate for the rapidly growing school-age populations with demand outstripping supply (Kim et al. 2011) while the

provision for children with physical disabilities or those with special needs is minimal at best (Modern et al. 2010).

The government supply of pre-primary schools for ECCE is inadequate across the region and virtually non-existent in many countries. Its uneven and unregulated supply is dominated by private providers and remains the preserve of privileged urban elites. The paucity of ECCE supply is reflected in the low levels of access for children in ESAR, which has large numbers of pre-primary age children who are not in school (see Section 3.1 and UNESCO 2010a; UNESCO 2010b; UNESCO 2006a; GoSS 2010). Similarly, although to a lesser degree, the reduced availability of secondary schools has detrimental effects on transition and has become a point of significant dropout (UNESCO 2006b; de Kemp and Eilor 2008; Ohba 2009; Otieno and Colclough 2009). The expansion of free educational access for all to primary and secondary schools has brought with it a demand for schools, resources and trained teachers that some countries have failed to plan for and to date have failed to adequately supply (Chapman et al. 2010).

Many schools in ESAR are over-crowded with poor and sub-standard facilities. In several countries, the lack of classrooms means that classes are being held outside (Brophy 2003; Bekalo et al. 2003; Ravishankar et al. 2010). A lack of safe drinking water or toilet facilities within the school compound is not uncommon. Although some countries have set targets to improve sanitation in schools, it remains a serious barrier to girls' access (McAlpine 2009; Ravishankar et al. 2010). Beyond the issue of personal comfort and hygiene, toilet facilities are also related to school safety, a particularly sensitive issue for girls (UNESCO, 2010a).

The supply of teaching resources and textbooks is uneven within countries and across the region. In many countries, including

the middle-income group, children in rural areas and in the lower socioeconomic groups experience more limited access to textbooks. In some instances this means that they are required to share, and in more extreme cases that the teacher holds the only available copy (McAlpine 2009; Bines and Woods 2007; UNESCO 2011b; Government of Zimbabwe, 2010). National policy concerning the language of instruction has important implications for the availability and supply of textbooks. It is a complex issue in pedagogical and cultural terms with local policy across the region ranging from all texts in one language to the daunting task of supplying texts in as many as 80+ languages (Glewwe et al. 2007; Gordon 2010; Trudel 2005).

The size and quality of the teaching workforce is another key area of educational supply. In many countries across the region there are insufficient numbers of trained teachers. The recruitment and training of teachers is grossly inadequate and further depleted in countries with high HIV prevalence (Avenstrup et al. 2004). Many of these teachers often work in overcrowded classes with high student-to-teacher ratios. Although the gender profile is different in each country, in many cases the majority of teachers are men, which has important consequences for the school environment and student experience. The absence of female teachers has been associated with school-safety concerns as well as problems with the retention and inspiration of girls in schools (Aikman and Unterhalter 2005). Absenteeism, poor salaries and low morale are cited as problems affecting teachers in several countries (Hunt 2008). Given these conditions, many teachers have been found to supplement their income with work outside school; others leave, producing high rates of attrition and brain drain from the profession (Government of Zimbabwe 2009; 2010). Problems of teacher supply are worse for schools and students in poorer rural areas (UNESCO 2010a; McAlpine 2009).

Quality of Educational Provision

The quality of educational provision is a major concern in all countries in the region. It features widely in policy and strategy documents (Government of Zimbabwe 2010; Government of Eritrea 2005; McAlpine 2009; de Kemp and Eilor 2008). Rapid expansions in enrolments amidst economic constraint have contributed to decreases in the quality of provision (Obura 2008). The strains are most evident in fragile states where the struggle to provide basic level inputs is often hindered by unstable, newly formed or inefficient administrative capacity (Bekalo et al. 2003; UNESCO, 2011b). ECCE, which enjoys less government oversight and support, is a particular quality concern within many countries in ESAR (Mtahabwa and Rao 2010; Federal Ministry of Education 2010).

Several factors combine to challenge the quality of education. The growth of admissions inadequately matched by school and classroom construction has left students in classes that are outside or overcrowded, with high student-teacher ratios (Woodhead et al. 2009; World Bank 2008). Teachers who are often under-qualified, badly paid and poorly motivated will provide low-quality educational experiences. Available data indicate a link between these factors and low performance, dropout and repetition (Hunt 2008; Lewin 2011). Large numbers of over-age children highlighted in Chapter 3.4, who may have started late or been forced to repeat classes, have reduced chances of completing their education and increased chances of dropping out (Lewin and Sabates 2011; Ohba 2009). Even where these system inefficiencies are more extreme, there appears to be no reference to attempts at remediation for over-age children or dropouts who return to school.



The lack of quality is inferred from a number of factors, which include the insufficient supply of well-trained teachers, large class sizes, poor attendance of children and teachers, insufficient books and difficulties with the language of instruction. Test-performance data in reading and mathematics provide further evidence of low quality with children performing poorly and falling several years behind expected learning levels (SACMEQ, 2010; UNESCO 2010a; Purcell 2010; World Bank 2008; Government of Eritrea 2005). It appears that most children in the region experience low-quality education, especially those from lower socioeconomic groups and those who live in the poorer regions of each country (McAlpine 2009; Bagaka's 2010).

Because it is difficult to measure, only patchy research evidence exists on teaching and learning practices and the experience of students in schools and classrooms. Limited opportunities for teachers' professional development, the absence of local teacher support and overcrowded classes have made pedagogical reform towards learner-centred education difficult to implement. Small-scale qualitative research suggests the widespread and unregulated use of corporal punishment even though in most countries it is against national policy and the law (Humphreys 2006; McAlpine 2009). Corporal punishment as a disciplinary sanction tends to be used more on boys than girls and has been cited as a cause of dropout (Dunne and Leach 2005; Humphreys 2005; Gordon 2010). Poor school management, authoritarian teacher-student relations and antagonistic student interrelations have raised school safety issues that include the perpetration of violence, bullying, sexual harassment and sexual abuse (Leach et al. 2003; Pattman and Chege 2003; Gordon 2010; Jennings 2011). Beyond the immediate consequences of dropout or pregnancy, these factors describe difficult conditions for learning.

5.5 Bottlenecks

Political context

All the countries in ESAR (except Somalia) have signed the international conventions on human and children's rights. All have shown some political will to tackle educational problems, commitment to EFA and the MDGs. Most have credible education-strategy documents prepared by governments, often informed by international guidelines and imperatives, and supported by development partners. Most describe the provision of free basic education, and others refer to compulsory schooling despite little capacity to legally regulate school attendance or address the opportunity costs that contribute to children being out-of-school. Fining or imprisoning poor parents for failure to send their children to school is problematic from an ethical perspective, if support is not provided and if the quality or relevance of education offered is questionable. In the majority of countries a single ministry of education manages the system's administration, (although in some countries like Somalia there are separate ministries for Somaliland and Puntland). There is, however, a growing tendency to decentralise education governance with countries operating with different degrees of devolution and decentralisation to sub-national or local levels (IIEP, 2011).

The provision of ECCE is relatively new, and in some cases administered by ministries other than education or jointly by several ministries, or by private providers. In Ethiopia for example, ECCE is provided by the Ministry of Education, Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Women's Affairs (Federal Ministry of Education 2010). In most cases where private and religious providers deliver much of the ECCE and provision, it is unevenly distributed leaving rural children and those in the lower wealth quintiles without access. (UNESCO 2010b; 2008; Mtahabwa and Rao 2010; MOEST 2005; Woodhead et al. 2009).

At other levels too, the rapidly increasing demand for education and higher-quality standards have provided an incentive for the growth of the private sector (Grogan 2008; World Bank 2008; Somerset, 2009). Non-state organisations and religious groups provide education in many fragile states where governments have been unable to provide schooling (Abdinoor 2008; Obura and Bird 2009). The relationship between government and private providers, especially with respect to regulation, remains unclear in most cases.

Equality is usually highlighted in the policy and strategy of many countries, despite the linguistic, geographical and economic diversity that makes the provision of education by a single uniform system an enormous challenge. In most places there have been some educational gains in terms of gender equity (usually referring to females) (Lewin and Sabates 2011), although this is less apparent at higher levels of education or in the workplace (including political office or civil service) (Jennings 2011; Colclough et al., 2000). The identification of other groups of OOSC has been less obvious and sometimes politically sensitive, which makes specific policies and strategies difficult to construct. Children with disabilities have more recently emerged as an important category of OOSC, although as yet, their rights to education have not been reflected as a priority in policy or strategy documents. In a few countries, such as Zimbabwe, ministries have taken explicit responsibility for the development of strategies for children with disabilities and special needs. This has led to the training of specialist teachers, the establishment of special schools and/or support for those in mainstream education (UNICEF 2010a). It appears that the naming of specific groups facilitates more targeted approaches to ensure universal educational access (Croft 2010).

Across the ESAR countries, the provision of Education For All requires the political

will necessary to finance and manage sustainable-universal education policies. This requires stable and determined political and administrative situations. The political system and culture has implications for the equitable delivery of quality education (Little 2008). In autocratic regimes dominated by particular political, religious, ethnic or regional groups, education is likely to be denied to many who do not belong to a particular group. In some national contexts, not only the fragile states, political problems with other countries or internal political conflicts hamper progress that will need to be resolved before equitable progress can be achieved.

Beyond national and party politics, the provision of equitable access to education demands communication and co-ordination among a number of political and administrative bodies. These might include ministries responsible for education, health, social protection, finance, legislative and enforcement bodies, local-level administrators and civil servants, private sector and non-government providers and development partners (Avenstrup 2004; Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler 2004; Mannathoko 2008). Despite political and administrative complexities there have been important gains in the region. It has become clear, however, that such co-ordination and communication will be required if the educational needs of the OOSC are to be addressed.

Governance and Capacity

The provision of free basic education has stretched administrative capacity in all countries, although different strategies have different consequences for educational governance and administrative efficiency. For example, the phased incremental approach adopted in Lesotho is more manageable but takes more time than the all-at-once approach in Malawi, although significant proportions of OOSC remain in both countries. (Avenstrup 2004)

Educational decentralisation is in place in many ESAR countries. Although its extent varies, most programmes include local education administrators, schools and communities (see Figure 1). Limited available evidence indicates the existence of problems at the local level with the capacity to engage in school management. (Dunne et al. 2007). Despite the policy intention to improve quality and address local needs, social and administrative hierarchies seem to hamper communication. The aspiration and effort to provide free primary education requires capacities to deal with the volume and pace of increased administration, and in most cases to initiate or develop decentralisation, which implies the need for significant changes in the educational structures, processes and roles. Established social hierarchies are resistant to change and often act as barriers to both accountability and equity (Rose 2005; Bray and Mukandan 2005). In many communities, for example, teachers hold authority that is rarely challenged or called to account, even when they may have acted unprofessionally or in some cases unlawfully. On the other hand, there is little evidence of teacher support from local education officials and few examples of school changes to reduce the numbers of children in school at risk of dropping out (Dimensions 4 and 5 in the 5DE model) or to adjust the calendar/timetable to suit the lifestyle or economic necessities of parents or local communities (Carr-Hill et al. 2011, Hadley 2009; Ananga 2011).

Reliable up-to-date data on OOSC remain patchy as does research to identify the causes and solutions. The capacity to record, analyse and/or act on data is limited at all levels and most especially within local contexts. With incomplete birth registration and school records, monitoring education indicators and progress for educational planning is very challenging, often unreliable, politically sensitive and in many fragile states non-

existent (Nkurunziza 2009). Many countries seem to be without reliable data on the number of OOSC. Ideally they could be traced through national surveys or census data, but coverage is low and enumeration of marginalised groups unreliable. The identification of OOSC, monitoring and evaluation of educational provision for them, and their participation in education, is weak. The paucity of data negatively influences the capacity to understand the nature and numbers of OOSC and to address their educational needs. (Grogan 2008; McAlpine 2009; Bekalo et al. 2003; MOEST 2005; Kim et al. 2011; UNESCO, 2004). While UNICEF provides analyses of OOSC children, this situation analysis may need to be deepened by more in-depth studies at the country level, such as those commissioned in this Global Study of OOSC.

The range of evidence used in monitoring, evaluation and research is often restricted to quantitative data and analysis. While extremely valuable, especially if collected in a reliable and consistent way, it can only present part of the story related to sustained access to quality schooling. There is a lack of complementary qualitative data to contribute to strategy development for OOSC and ensure improved quality of educational experiences and outcomes. This lack of qualitative data provokes further demands for capacity because a successful educational experience depends on the willingness of different administrations to engage in constructively critical research and analysis on their education systems in order to understand and address the perspectives of different educational and local stakeholders. Despite the potential to inform positive strategies to extend the educational reach to those OOSC, such research may be regarded as threatening in countries with autocratic leaders or those with fragile political circumstances.

Finance

As discussed in the regional overview in Chapter 1, most countries allocate significant proportions of their national budgets to education with the largest proportion going to the primary sector. For most, there is a very limited allocation to ECD making it inaccessible to many children and effectively increasing the number who are out-of-school. Although the involvement of private and religious providers in ECD and other levels of education reduces the national financial burden, it can also increase inequalities within the system.

Universal education, as discussed earlier, depends on more than the organisation, capacity and finances of education ministries. Distribution of school resources, for example, requires good communication networks and the timely payment of teachers who need reliable and efficient banking services (Akyeampong, 2011). Getting enough buildings, books, pencils, teachers, chairs, money and chalkboards to the right places is a logistical challenge that evades many education systems in the region, and more so in fragile states. As such, the costs of educational supply, especially for the more rural and harder-to-reach groups, tend to be relatively high. Providing education to marginalised groups simply costs more (UNESCO, 2010a). In times of budgetary constraint or civil disruption caused by conflict or emergency, the reach and quality of education for OOSC is more likely to be under threat, even where these groups form part of a strategic plan.

In many contexts, development partners play a significant role in financing education and in working at the system level as well as in formulating education policies and strategies. National financial accountability is often weak although some countries are showing stronger systems. Where decentralisation is taking place, the devolution of financial decision-making and accountability systems are more complex and less clear (Dunne et al. 2007). Moving funds directly to schools has tested the capacity of some local authorities and communities to handle funds. With many social and political contexts in the region characterised by hierarchical relations and deference to authority, fiscal accountability is difficult to demand and not without personal and/or professional consequences.

The research evidence on budgeting is also limited, but in addition to the funding gap in ECD, it appears that in most ESAR countries there are other gaps in targeted and funded strategies to ensure universal access to quality education. These gaps affect (but are not limited to) children in one or more of the following groups:

- Children who have disabilities or special educational needs;
- Children who live in rural locations;
- Children who belong to the lower-wealth quintiles;;
- Children who are over-age for their grade;
- Children who are married and/or parents;
- Children who are household heads or orphans;
- Children who have nomadic or migratory lifestyles;
- Children who belong to locally defined minorities or marginalised groups.

6. Policies, strategies and gaps

6.1 Introduction

According to this situation analysis, national education policies across the region express a commitment to EFA and the MDGs with respect to access, quality, gender and equality. These commitments are presented within a broader context of the national ratification of international human rights conventions, including the rights of the child and of women (e.g. CRC, CEDAW). While the ratification of treaties, conventions and statements of national policies and plans can provide ways to hold national and local governments accountable, they may not be a clear indication of political will or commitment as their formulation is often supported by external or international organisations and financial or aid relationships on which many ESAR countries rely. On the other hand, political will to ensure access to primary education is always negotiated within a wider context of multiple constraints and barriers. These include, for example, the national economy, foreign trade and debt, the global economy, the impact of HIV/AIDS, climate change and natural disasters (Avenstrup 2004). This chapter, however, emphasises positive practices and strategies focussed on OOSC.

6.2 Positive Policy and Practice

Educational access and inclusion has been the focus of various policies and strategies, throughout the region, which have absorbed considerable funds and received extensive professional attention. Although still a long

distance from full success, they are examples of initiatives with the potential to directly address and increase school access for out-of-school children. Some of these policies appear in Box 6 below.

Box 6: Policies to Reduce the Number of OOSC

The abolition of school fees is the principal route through which governments have attempted to reduce the number of OOSC, and it has led to surges in enrolments. In Tanzania, for example, the enrolment ratio doubled between 1999 and 2008 to 99.6 per cent. (UNDPI 2010).

In 2003, the Ministry of Education in Mozambique completed its implementation plan for the fast-track initiative in support of basic education. In efforts to meet both universal access and gender-equity goals, the priority activities included accelerated classroom and school construction, implementing the new curriculum to improve efficiency and quality, increasing the supply of competent and motivated teachers, and implementing the strategies for gender equity and combating HIV/AIDS (Mozambique Ministry of Education 2005).

The Botswana government introduced a Short-Term Plan of Action (STPA) for HIV/AIDS orphans that focussed on meeting the urgent needs of orphans by providing food, clothing, education, shelter, access to health services, protection and care. This programme also included psychosocial support (SIAPAC 2006).

The acknowledged importance of universal access to school is evident across the region, and, despite the difficulties in the fragile states, it has been embraced in the early introduction of free education by the revolutionary governments in Zimbabwe and Eritrea.

Many countries have focussed on policy. Kenya's 2001 Children's Act and free education system, for example, provide an ambitious programme that will reap significant long-term dividends – if it is supported by sustained political will and funding. In a similar vein, Malawi has shifted its emphasis from post-primary to primary education, and has adopted a comprehensive policy approach in which the Policy Investment Framework (PIF) and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) are in place and geared towards quality universal education that targets the key barriers and bottlenecks outlined in Chapter 5. After introducing free primary education, to cope with the increased enrolments and the consequent demand for more teachers, the Ministry of Education employed many temporary teachers who were trained under the innovative Malawi Integrated In-service Teacher Education Programme (MIITEP). In the face of massive expansion, this was an attempt to improve literacy while also ensuring an equitable distribution of physical

resources to primary schools (Chimombo et al. 2005) that will reduce the negative impact of supply-side barriers such as poor physical infrastructure and education quality.

The multiple and intersecting causes of OOSC are addressed by focussed policy and practice initiatives in which different ministries work together (Avenstrup 2004). Namibia provides an example of inter-ministry co-ordination that has resulted in using social protection funds to encourage school access for children with disabilities who are often over-represented in OOS populations and face a number of intersecting challenges to accessing education (see Chapter 5). In an alternative but clearly focussed approach to increase the educational access of children with disabilities, a Department of Special Needs has been set up in 2011 within the Ministry of Education in Angola. Other more practical approaches include the supply of donkeys as school transport to some children with disabilities in Eritrea. An evaluation of this innovative approach to this excluded group is due shortly.



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Box 7: Including Children with Disabilities

Kenya's Oriang Inclusive Education was highlighted as a best practice that included the following outcomes:

- *Increasing the number of children with disabilities attending five state primary schools;*
- *Facilitating access to sensory-stimulation learning materials and assistive devices;*
- *Providing financial support for the adaptation of the physical educational and learning environments;*
- *Training community health workers and trainers who supported other teachers at school level.*

UN (2011)

Co-ordination across different ministries and partnerships with the private sector or NGOs have provided positive outcomes in terms of access, in many countries and to different degrees, e.g. Christian denominations that are engaged in educational provision. Government responses have varied. The government of Malawi has taken over the financing of schools that were previously unassisted private schools. In contrast, 90 per cent of schools in Lesotho are owned by different Christian denominations, and although the government pays teachers' salaries and the costs of some resources, it has little say in running the schools. Efforts to introduce free primary education presented difficulties as it meant a loss of income for the school owners (Avenstrup, et al. 2004). In countries with fragile and unstable governments, however, there are examples of extraordinary perseverance by communities and religious-education providers. In Somalia and Burundi these providers have maintained educational provision through wars in the absence of government support. In most countries, alternative Qur'anic education is not reflected in national statistics. Where there is limited funding and capacity such co-operative initiatives play an important part in educational provision in many parts of the region.

With reference to the first dimension (or pre-primary) level of exclusion, in most ESAR countries ECD is a newcomer on the educational landscape. It has effectively increased educational demand for policy, supply and funding as it changes from being a beneficial but optional extra into a necessary and foundational part of education. Despite challenges experienced by all countries, Zimbabwe has worked well to integrate ECCE into the mainstream of education, which has resulted in significant proportions of children going to pre-primary education. An emphasis on ECCE is also found in Angola where work is on-going to support training of early-childhood caregivers at the provincial level. Most countries in the region now have ECD policies and are developing strategies, curriculum and other essential supports. Ethiopia has developed a highly innovative and cost-effective approach to ECD using the child-to-child methodology and peer mentoring, which will be evaluated soon.

The region has also made efforts to engage OOSC in alternative forms of education as a bridge (back) into standard primary provision. More established programmes include Complementary Opportunities for primary education (COPE) in Uganda and Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET), both of which have been in place since the mid-1990s. Complementary Basic Education (CBE) in Malawi is another example that is NGO-led and provided under a new GTZ- (or German) funded programme (with additional support from UNICEF). CBE lies somewhere between formal and non-formal education in its attempts to address the issues underlying school non-attendance, and aims to offer ways back into the formal system. Such schemes of flexible schooling are sometimes referred to as "para-formal education" (Swan 2007).

More recently, in 2006, Ethiopia introduced its Alternative Basic Education (ABE) programme. In consultation with the community, these schools have agreed to flexible community-led timetables and to provide basic education for 800,000 children. Despite concerns about the quality compared to mainstream schools, children can and do transfer between ABE and government schools, and the two systems are set to be integrated further. Speed Schools in Ethiopia is another project aiming to

reintegrate children who have dropped out-of-school back into the mainstream education system. By offering a more flexible and contextual solution ABE provides education to children affected by sociocultural and economic demand barriers such as nomadic groups and those forced to work at certain times of the year. Box 8 below highlights the strengths and challenges to alternative basic education programmes in Ethiopia.

Box 8: Alternative basic education (ABE) in Ethiopia

A national strategy for ABE in Ethiopia started in 2006. ABE aims to provide access to education for out-of-school children, especially those between the ages of 7 and 14. ABE enrolls over 800,000 children, or about an additional 5-6 percent to the GER for primary education (Jennings 2011).

A 2007 study on ABE found that:

- *The potential was great for reaching OOSC aged 7-14, particularly girls;*
- *Timetables were developed in consultation with communities allowing flexible schedules to satisfy the communities' demand for child labour and observance of religious days.*
- *The guideline on student transfer between ABE centres and formal primary schools was widely used in all regions;*
- *Some coordination between ABE centres and the nearest formal primary schools was observed in almost all the regions. In some instances, ABE centres were attached to cluster-resource centres and beginner facilitators were assigned for induction training;*
- *Students completing level III in ABE centres were able to join Grade 5 in the nearest formal primary school in all regions. (Shibeshi et al. 2007 cited in Jennings 2011).*

The study also raised a number of challenges for ABE:

- *Low retention rate of students during the dry session in low-land areas due to demand for child labour, mobility of pastoral groups, and lack of water in some ABE centres;*
- *Qualifications of ABE facilitators in pastoral communities were below the required standard of grade-eight completion due to low levels of education;*
- *The number of female facilitators was lower than desired due to fewer women meeting the standard (though lowered to Grade 6) and lack of interest to work in remote areas (Ibid).*

Policies in ESAR countries echo the importance given to gender in the MDGs with specific strategies to improve access and completion rates for girls. Rwanda has made important strides towards gender equity with a broad policy push and the inclusion of several strategic strands. They include: scholarships to disadvantaged girl students; making the physical learning environment more accommodating to female students, especially by improving toilet and dormitory facilities; increasing the number of female teachers; sensitising teachers to gender disparities; and advocacy within the community about girls' education. Mozambique has introduced targeted policy initiatives to improve girls' access and survival, and to reduce regional differences, including scholarships for girls and upgrading the lower-primary schools (Grades 1 to 5) to include all grades (Grades 1 to 7), thus ensuring that pupils do not need to leave their village to attend upper primary school. While these policies have positive potential, concerns remain about the speed of their implementation (Passos et al. 2005).

Other initiatives work outside the school to prevent children from becoming vulnerable to school exclusion. In the regional context of increased decentralisation there is an evident need to develop stronger links between the school and the community. This is exemplified in Swaziland with the inclusion of local communities and civil society in school management. In Angola, UNICEF is supporting HIV-prevention research and activities with children outside the formal school system. In a focussed and concrete way, the Botswana government provides across-the-board support for HIV orphans by supplying them with food, clothes and education. In Zambia, community schools are owned and managed by individuals to provide for vulnerable, HIV-affected children. Some of these schools are assisted by the government. In these examples, effective communication

and co-ordination between different groups and organisations (e.g. local communities, government ministries, international organisations and the private sector) offer more holistic, pro-active and robust approaches to ensuring access to education for vulnerable, hard to reach groups of OOSC. Check Box 9 below to see practical support for children affected by HIV and AIDS.

Box 9: Circles of support for children affected by AIDS

As discussed in Chapter 5, HIV/AIDS has a profound effect on OOSC in the region. A promising protective initiative piloted in Botswana, Namibia and Swaziland is the 'circles of support' for children affected by AIDS. Its rationale is that schools can become catalysts to develop networks for the co-ordinated and effective utilisation of resources at family, community and district levels to support children affected by AIDS. In this initiative, the child is at the centre of three levels of circles of support that interrelate and interact with one another (Mobile Task Team 2005:77).

This is one of the few initiatives that tackle the practical impacts of poverty on the education of girls and boys who are affected by AIDS. It is also a good illustration of the inter-linkages between child protection, HIV and AIDS and girls' education, as it assists duty-bearers to organise children's lives at home in ways that ensure they can attend school regularly, arrive on time, and have time after school to complete their homework assignments. Girls and boys as rights-holders are made aware of their responsibilities to share burdens of household work equally (Mannathoko 2008:145).

Many countries highlight educational quality and the need for more child-friendly school environments as critical to the reduction of OOSC, although success is hard to gauge at national and regional levels. Nevertheless, in Malawi, a programme that identifies vulnerable pupils in Grade 6 and places them on an 'at-risk' register is an explicit acknowledgment of the influence of in-school processes and conditions to sustained access, as well as to the possibilities of

silent exclusion. In the same vein, there are examples of how teacher sensitivity to the learning needs of children can improve their performance. See Box 10 below for an example.

Box 10: Child-centred education supporting disabled children

Simenda was a secondary-school pupil in rural Namibia in Grade 8, and struggling to cope at the bottom of his class academically. A few of his teachers suspected he might have hearing impairment, and when regional officials asked if there were any pupils who should be tested for this, preliminary results suggested that Simenda might well have hearing impairment. He was referred to the hospital, and meanwhile his teachers were briefed on supportive strategies to help him in class, such as allowing him to select the seating position that he found most helpful, and checking periodically that he was looking at the correct page of the textbook and otherwise appeared to be following the lesson. After two terms, his results in class tests had substantially improved - to the eighth highest results in a class of around thirty (Croft 2010:34)

Data are vital for informing policies and strategies to address universal access to school and for an understanding of the characteristics of OOSC. At the base level, birth registration is crucial to the production of demographic data and to chart progress across multiple sectors, including child protection. In many countries, UNICEF has supported birth-registration drives, as well as routine birth registration at maternity wards, access to birth certificates and the mapping of orphans and vulnerable children. The recently introduced education management information systems (EMIS) in Zimbabwe is an important step towards the use of evidence in policy formulation (Government of Zimbabwe 2010). In Rwanda, efforts to draw on evidence in policy and strategy have been demonstrated by the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data in research on girls' education.

6.3 Gaps in Data and Evidence

Data and evidence represent major gaps in the effort to attain education for all. Without appropriate knowledge and data, policy and strategy might easily be misdirected, inappropriate and inefficient. In many ESAR countries, available data are at best patchy, acknowledged to be unreliable and often not subject to relevant analysis. At a basic level, without good census data it is impossible to accurately calculate GER and NER. The absence of systematic birth registration and records detracts from the accuracy and power of the statistics to describe the local and national situation. Data on ECCE are non-existent in many countries, particularly those without a functioning national ECCE system. This results in serious difficulties when calculating the number of OOSC in the Dimension 1 (pre-primary age) Although ECCE is recognised in policy as a foundational part of educational provision, the monitoring of this sub-sector is sporadic and incomplete especially when compared to primary level. This is exclusionary in itself as the wealthier, more urban populations have greater access to ECCE opportunities. In most countries, the supply of ECCE is limited by a generally low-budget allocation and a lack of direction from government on private provision, specialist-teacher training or sector regulation. The Uganda government and UNICEF, for example, are trying to address this constraint through bringing local chiefs into the management of ECCE centres that are focussed on the most marginalised.

Countries with functioning national systems of education and EMIS have data on OOSC in Dimensions 2, 3, 4 and 5, but many from hard-to-reach groups are still excluded and under-counted in surveys, such as children in informal settlements or children living on the street. Gaps in data include lack of knowledge about OOSC among slum dwellers,

nomadic groups, people in remote rural areas, fishing communities, refugees and internally displaced groups. Very little is known about the numbers of disabled people in most countries, the types of disabilities, and their rates of school enrolment and completion. The provision of education to this group of OOSC and others with special needs requires particular types of teacher training, facilities and resources. Without data, budget streams appropriate to the magnitude and the specific needs of these children will be unlikely.

Some fragile states have no functioning national system of education or EMIS, so data on OOSC in Dimensions 2, 3, 4 and 5, e.g., in Somalia, and Eritrea are very difficult to capture, especially where census or DHS data are also not existent. In this group of countries as well as elsewhere in the region, politically sensitive issues about the educational exclusion of certain minority groups can also lead to the deliberate manipulation of data. Evidence from some countries of the Great Lakes region suggests sensitivities to the research findings, and other countries have not accepted critical reports of policy. The consequence in such cases is that the policy process towards equitable inclusion of minorities and marginalised groups is fraught with difficulties.

In many countries, the transition from primary to secondary level is a significant problem; many children are excluded due to a lack of accessible, affordable secondary provision (UNESCO 2006b; de Kemp and Eilor 2008; Ohba 2009; Otieno and Colclough 2009). In some countries less than half of those who complete primary education, make this transition (see section 3.5). This lack of supply and associated inequalities are important but difficult to identify and isolate in the 5DE model. In addition, the 5DE model is silent on the proportional importance of each dimension of exclusion, although this is crucial for policy makers and strategic planning.

Since many challenges to achieving EFA cannot be adequately analysed through quantitative data, the general lack of systematic qualitative research is another important evidence gap. It is important to understand the social, cultural and relational aspects of specific contexts as they relate to the complexities of demand, supply and governance. The exploration of questions about pedagogical quality, the nature of 'silent exclusion' of at-risk children in Dimensions 4 and 5, or multiple stakeholder views on educational provision demand qualitative or mixed methods approaches to research, the results of which could provide valuable evidence to inform policy that addresses OOSC.

In many countries, the governance of education has undergone a process of decentralisation (Bines and Woods 2007; Jennings 2011; MoESAC 2005). Whatever its intended scope, community involvement in school-level management, appears to have been severely restricted. Local politics and social hierarchies, including gender, appear to have tempered the voice and participation of the community in school affairs. In addition, the national systems of education in many countries are not flexible or responsive enough to their diverse populations, lifestyles, economic conditions and their need for child labour. There is little or no evidence of local education officers working with teachers to support their pedagogical development especially in relation to multi-grade teaching, culturally and linguistically diverse students, disciplinary strategies, or formative learning assessments. The lines of accountability for OOSC, including the silently excluded, are blurred and there is little evidence of schools, communities and educational administrators working together to share accountability for the education of their children.

There is little engagement with monitoring and evaluation at multiple levels, including

at the classroom, school, district and national levels. Feedback from each of those levels would be useful to inform issues of policy and implementation that are currently barriers to school access for all children especially those from groups vulnerable to being

OOSC. Systematic monitoring of the policy implementation on free and compulsory education can help strategies to ensure that learners are not unfairly excluded from participating in education. This could usefully focus on the 5DEs.

7. Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

This situation analysis has thoroughly examined existing data and research evidence related to OOSC in ESAR. Taking into account the size and diversity of the region, this concluding chapter highlights the main issues concerning OOSC and recommends ways for governments and other stakeholders to better understand and achieve their educational rights.

7.2 Main findings

Despite significant gains in moving toward universal primary education, large numbers of children remain out-of-school in ESAR. Approximately 19 million primary-age children and 7 million lower secondary-age children have not been attending school, which represents roughly one child out of every five. The proportions of OOSC varied significantly across the region from a high 68 percent in Somalia to a low 7 percent in Namibia. However, national averages also masked significant variations within countries, often in relation to sex, location and wealth or a combination of these and other factors. Even many children currently attending school are at risk of being excluded. This is because education systems across the region suffer from inefficiency and poor quality with high dropout and repetition rates. The linking problem of over-age students, which affects all countries in ESAR, is so prevalent that children

at the appropriate grade for their age are in the minority.

Common demand-side barriers in relation to gender, nomadic groups, refugees and IDPs and children affected by HIV and AIDS, were also identified. These included economic barriers linked to the opportunity costs of education (as demonstrated by the high levels of child labour) as well as the associated costs of attending school, which are significant despite the political commitment to free basic education. Supply remains a major issue both in terms of raw numbers of available schools and teachers and in terms of the quality of education. Related to education quality is financing, which remains insufficient, especially in the pre-primary and secondary sub-sectors. Institutional capacity gaps at national and local levels also negatively affect education provision, which will continue to be a major problem as more and more countries decentralise their education systems.

This analysis also analysed the positive policies and practices from within the region that have demonstrated an impact on the levels of OOSC, including the fast track initiative in Mozambique and the Short Term Plan of Action targeting of out-of-school HIV/AIDS orphans in Botswana. The policies and practices section addresses some of the key barriers and marginalised sub-population groups that were identified and called on to inform the suggestions and recommendations below.

7.3 Data and evidence

There is a clear and fundamental need for reliable data and evidence to better grasp the magnitude, character and context of OOSC. Improved statistical data, such as comprehensive birth registration, functioning EMIS and complementary household surveys would enable more accurate estimates of how many children are out-of-school as well as who and where they are. In turn, that knowledge could contribute to shaping policies and strategies for greater educational inclusion, to provide estimates for planning the financial and human resource requirements, and to assess capacity development needs. Regular, periodic statistical data collection and analysis would also contribute to monitoring progress towards EFA goals and/or the effectiveness of specific regional, country or local interventions.

It is also clear, however, that even the most reliable quantitative data and analysis alone are not a sufficient basis from which to address the most critical issues of OOSC. Different social and cultural contexts that include the conditions, relations, processes and norms, as well as perspectives of different stakeholder groups that are all central to analysing school access and completion, require systematic qualitative research. In-depth local-level studies are especially important, in order to expose and disaggregate the many differences obscured by national aggregates (UNESCO 2011a). In ESAR there is a paucity of this kind of qualitative research evidence, which could provide multiple perspectives on barriers and bottlenecks and the relations between them, and could explore local practices as part of the policy cycle.

In addition to hard data gaps mentioned above, there are critical areas to be explored in future research. For example, as addressed in

Chapter 4 inequities within counties need far greater attention as they are often even larger than inequities between or among different countries. A greater focus on within-country inequities would also allow for bottleneck analyses to be carried out on more operational levels that could be performed in a more quantitative manner using standardised indicators, such as school/population ratios. These within-country inequities could then be compared both regionally and at a global level.

7.4 School Quality

School quality is critical to reaching both the MDGs and EFA goals and to facilitating sustained access to education. It is central to the educational supply that determines the conditions in which children learn. Low-quality education is an important contributor to the exclusion of children from school. It affects all 5DEs and may result in dropping out, repeating grades and limited achievement. Attempts to reduce the number of OOSC need to consider the following three key components of quality: the school environment and resources; the school culture and practices; and incentives for quality improvements.

School Environment and Resources

Providing schools and classrooms, which are close to communities and in good condition, is fundamental to increasing school access for OOSC, especially girls and rural children. Water and sanitation are two essential elements of a comfortable and safe school. Other critical resources include qualified and trained teachers and basic teaching and learning resources. Although these are supply-side issues, the development of a shared responsibility between schools and communities might help to preserve and maintain resources (See 7.5 below).

School Culture and Practices

Institutional norms that include relations among and between pupils and teachers have a strong bearing on everyday life in schools. Poorly managed schools, unregulated teacher and pupil behaviour, antagonistic and violent relations, extended time in school without active teaching or learning, and the lack of professional codes of conduct are all characteristics of a low-quality school. These conditions lead to dropouts, repetition and poor educational outcomes. The teacher is key to providing quality learning and could be a focal point for strategies to encourage greater and sustained access of children who are currently out-of-school.

Teacher-focused strategies might include:

- Reviews of discipline codes and practices;
- Teacher advisory support in schools e.g., those to develop child-centred pedagogies or deal with diverse pupil-learning needs;
- Improved systems to monitor student-learning progress and to identify 'at risk' children;
- Improved pre- and in-service teacher training to include skills and techniques for multi-grade teaching;
- Development of professional teacher-bodies to share and address pedagogical and curriculum approaches;
- Action research to improve practice.

School and Teacher Incentives

The low and late payment of teachers are known to contribute to low morale, poor motivation and professional attrition. This is not conducive to improved quality or to bringing OOSC in schools. A system of school and teacher incentives focussed on OOSC could go some way to address this problem. At the school level, financial incentives might encourage the admission and survival of OOSC with their performance measured against indicators of access, completion and academic achievement. In the longer term, this

might help to establish greater teacher and school accountability for local children who are out-of-school.

Other strategies include:

- Engagement in professional and school development focussed on particular OOSC groups;
- Development of school plans that target OOSC;
- Enhanced rewards for 'hardship' postings;
- Special needs and disabled teacher training;
- Communication and outreach to the homes and carers of OOSC;
- Development of school-level codes and practices for pupil rewards and discipline.

7.5 School – Community Relations

The often-distant, partial and uneasy relationship between the school and surrounding community, even in decentralised systems is not conducive to reintroducing OOSC back into education. While community representatives may be on school committees and in parent-teacher associations, there is little evidence that they act effectively to encourage dialogue between schools and communities. Moreover, the large number of OOSC in ESAR countries further suggests that engagement between schools and their local communities is limited. Local social hierarchies and established school traditions tend to silence community voices and shut down possibilities for innovative forms of schooling that could work in cooperation with livelihood demands of families and communities. Strategies to reach out to the most marginalised children, who are usually required to contribute their own labour to support the livelihoods of their families, include more responsive forms of school provision developed in consultation with the community. This process also has the potential to encourage greater ownership and accountability for the educational rights

of children among key stakeholders. Steps towards this might include:

- Improved mechanisms for community engagement in the school;
- Increased representation of marginalised parents, especially women, on school-community liaison bodies;
- The development of school goals, targets and processes through community-stakeholder consultation;
- Adaptation of the school year/daily timetables to accommodate the community's livelihood routines and rhythms;
- Identifying and monitoring school and community accountabilities;
- Advocacy campaigns in harder-to-reach, more-resistant community groups;
- Operating a more open school policy and using the school as a community resource.

7.6 Governance and Planning

The management of large systems is a constant challenge, notwithstanding many strong policy commitments. The research clearly indicates that introducing OOSC into education requires a co-ordinated approach that will inevitably require ministry of education communication and collaboration with other ministries, including health and social protection as well as finance and water and sanitation. Financial planning, review and accountability are also highly significant to educational supply for the harder-to-reach children, and they incur higher costs. In addition, as suggested above, reliable data would better inform these processes and form a solid basis for policy formation and targeted interventions to universalise school access.

Countries across the region have adopted different levels and degrees of decentralisation to provide opportunities for institutional transformation. New governance structures have implications for the locus of decision-making, capacity development needs,

responsibilities, accountability and responsiveness. In many contexts, however, traditional social hierarchies are deeply entrenched in ways that make more inclusive localised planning and development difficult. The absence and exclusion of community voices in shaping educational provision are obstacles to the more flexible and responsive schooling that is essential to bring OOSC into education. Moreover, they obscure commitments and accountabilities of post holders (e.g. district education officers) and stakeholders (parents/carers). This has not helped to improve educational access and has often left teachers and schools unsupported in providing quality educational experiences, especially for children who are out-of-school.

Potential ways forward include:

- The development of cross-government task groups to focus on targeted service provision to OOSC and their communities;
- Improved data and monitoring of OOSC, policy, finances, budget flows, access, completion and the quality of service provision;
- Capacity building to improve local governance, school management and accountability;
- The identification and generation of accountability structures for government, local administration, schools, teachers, communities, families and children with specific reference to OOSC.
- Local government initiation and sponsorship of communications, consultation and dialogue with and between communities and schools;
- The development of school-based strategies to re-engage known OOS groups (e.g. girls, nomadic groups) in education and to support the re-integration of dropouts in the classroom;
- Community advocacy and dialogue to plan and shape appropriate educational provision;

- Local governance support of teachers and schools to improve quality, and teaching and learning outcomes.

7.7 Recommendations

Drawn from the information and analysis in this review, this situation analysis offers the following recommendations for governments and other key stakeholders to increase efforts to reduce the number of OOSC.

Data and evidence

- Increase, enhance and share among countries data and evidence on children who are out-of-school and children in school who are most vulnerable to dropping out in order to inform policy and planning.
- Collect and improve data in areas where it is of poor quality or non-existent. Make an effort to reconcile different kinds of data, such as administrative and household surveys.
- Target, disaggregate and compare information on groups known to be vulnerable in your country, from largest to smallest and from most available to hardest-to-reach children. This could include: gender, wealth, location, disability, HIV and AIDS, refugee, pastoral or nomadic lifestyle, language or ethnic and any other groups outside the mainstream.
- Intensify and deepen research on age groups and grade levels where exclusions appear most likely, such as pre- primary school and transition to lower secondary in order to better understand and inform required actions.
- Deepen analysis of ways to reduce late entry, repetition, and dropouts.
- Validate and develop qualitative micro data so that it achieves a par in value with quantitative more macro data.

Policy and programming

- Expand and improve quality and quantity of education facilities and opportunities, including school equipment, resources and measures to combat exclusionary cultures and practices, e.g. schools that are nearby villages, schools that include privacy and facilities for girls, especially in lower secondary school.
- Coordinate different government ministries or departments to address holistically the problems of out-of-school and vulnerable children. Support and collaborate with private providers to improve equity and inclusiveness in ECCE and encourage increased enrolment.
- Enhance incentives for inclusive education and high standards in schools among teachers. Seek and hire better qualified and more female teachers, providing pay that will encourage them to come to and remain in school. Train teachers with attention to child-centered education and special needs of children vulnerable to dropping out.
- Make school schedules more flexible to accommodate children engaged in seasonal and other work (including household chores) that limit their ability to attend and pay attention in school or on homework.
- Provide appropriate support for alternative forms of education to reach 'hard to reach' regions and groups of children. This includes support both in and out-of-school for HIV-affected children, orphans and children with disabilities.
- Encourage the parent and community voice and participation.

Funding

- Introduce specific funding policies to target out-of-school and vulnerable groups of children that have been identified as most in need.
- Identify and support analysis of expenditures that address the needs of OOSC to help them re-enter education.

Sustain commitments to enhancing investment in basic education to ensure that children are equipped to lead meaningful and productive lives and in peaceful co-existence.

Improve capacity and funding to address the logistical challenges of administration.

Appendices

Appendix A

Information on education systems for countries in ESAR, according to ISCED

Country	Survey Type	Year	Primary start age	Primary duration	Lower sec. start age	Lower sec. duration	Upper sec. start age	Upper sec. duration
Group 1:								
Botswana	MICS	2009	6	7	13	3	16	2
Lesotho	DHS	2009	6	7	13	3	16	2
Namibia	DHS	2006	7	7	14	3	17	2
S. Africa	GHS	2008	7	7	14	2	16	3
Swaziland	DHS	2006	6	7	13	3	16	2
Group 2:								
Burundi	MICS	2005	7	6	13	4	17	3
Comoros Is.	MICS	2000	6	6	12	4	16	3
Eritrea	DHS	2003	7	5	12	3	15	4
Madagascar	DHS	2008	6	5	11	4	15	3
Somalia	MICS	2006	6	6	12	2	14	4
South Sudan								
Group 3:								
Angola	MICS	2001	6	6	12	3	15	3
Malawi	DHS	2004	6	6	12	4	16	2
Mozambique	DHS	2003	6	7	13	3	16	2
Rwanda	DHS	2005	7	6	13	3	16	3
Zambia	DHS	2007	7	7	14	2	16	3
Group 4:								
Ethiopia	DHS	2005	7	6	13	4	17	2
Kenya	DHS	2008	6	6	12	2	14	4
Tanzania	DHS	2007	7	7	14	4	18	2
Uganda	DHS	2006	6	7	13	4	17	2

Note: Education information is based on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)
MICS = Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey, DHS = Demographic and Health Survey, GHS = General Household Survey.

Appendix B

Equity and education: Ethiopia, Mozambique, South Sudan and Zambia

The tables below show the relative risk of being out-of-school for pairs of population subgroups, e.g. children from the poorest families compared to children from the richest. A value of 1 suggests parity, whereas a value of 2 suggests that children from the first subgroup are twice as likely to be out-of-school as those from the second subgroup.

Poorest/Richest

	Primary age	Lower secondary age
Ethiopia	3.0	3.0
Mozambique	6.8	2.8
South Sudan	1.6	2.1
Zambia	6.8	3.8

The primary age children from the poorest families in Mozambique and Zambia are almost seven times more likely to be out-of-school than children from the richest families.

Rural/Urban

	Primary age	Lower secondary age
Ethiopia	2.4	2.7
Mozambique	2.1	1.7
South Sudan	1.8	2.4
Zambia	2.6	1.8

Across all four countries and both age groups rural children are more than twice as likely to be out-of-school than those who live in urban areas.

Girls/Boys

	Primary age	Lower secondary age
Ethiopia	1.2	1.2
Mozambique	1.1	1.4
South Sudan	1.2	1.4
Zambia	1.0	1.7

Girls are consistently more likely to be out-of-school than boys with the difference highest amongst secondary school age children. In Zambia lower-secondary school age girls are nearly twice as likely to be out-of-school as their male peers.

Sub-national regions (lowest performing region / highest performing region)

	Primary age	Lower secondary age
Ethiopia	13.9	6.0
Mozambique	7.8	3.3
South Sudan	2.4	3.1
Zambia	3.0	3.5

In Ethiopia primary age children in Afar region are approximately 14 times more likely to be out-of-school than their counterparts in Tigray.

In Mozambique primary age children in Tete province are nearly eight times more likely to be out-of-school than those in Maputo Citadel.

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Map





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