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**A Report to USAID/Zambia
June, 1991**

**ASSESSMENT OF THE PRIMARY AND NON-
FORMAL EDUCATION SUB-SECTORS IN
ZAMBIA**

Academy for Educational Development

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LIST OF ACRONYMS / ABBREVIATIONS

ADB/ADF	African Development Bank/African Development Fund
CDC	Curriculum Development Center
CG	Consultative Group
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CMAZ	Churches Medical Association of Zambia
CSO	Central Statistical Office
CUSA	Canadian University Service Abroad
DEO	District Education Officer
DPS	Deputy Permanent Secretary
DTEVT	Department of Technical Education & Vocational Training
EBS	Education Broadcasting Services
EC	European Community
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ERP	Economic Recovery Program
FINNIDA	Finnish International Development Agency
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GRZ	Government of the Republic of Zambia
HIRD	Human and Institutional Resources Development
IAS	Institute for African Studies
IESC	International Executive Service Corps
ILO	International Labor Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
INDP	Interim National Development Plan
JICA	Japanese International Co-operation Agency
KKF	Kenneth Kaunda Foundation
LICEF	Lusaka Islamic, Cultural and Educational Foundation
MGEYS	Ministry of General Education, Youth, and Sport
MHEST	Ministry of Higher Education, Science, and Technology
MIS	Management Information Systems
MLSDC	Ministry of Labor, Social Development, and Culture
MOA	Ministry of Agriculture
MOF	Ministry of Finance
MOH	Ministry of Health
MPU	Microprojects Unit
NCDP	National Commission for Development Planning
NFE	Non-Formal Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NGO-CC	Non-Governmental Organization Coordinating Committee
NISTCOL	National In-Service Training College
NORAD	Norwegian Agency for International Development
ODA	Overseas Development Agency

OPEC	Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries
ORT	Oral Rehydration Therapy
PEO	Provincial Education Officer
PFP	Policy Framework Paper
PIP	Public Investment Program
PPS	Provincial Permanent Secretary
PSP	Practical Subjects Project
PTA	Parents and Teachers Association
SAP	Social Action Program
SCE	School for Continuing Education
SHAPE	Self-Help Action Program for Education
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
TSC	Teaching Service Commission
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
UNIP	United National Independence Party
UNZA	University of Zambia
VIS	Village Industry Services
VITA	Volunteers in Technical Assistance
WHO	World Health Organization
WID	Women in Development
YWCA	Young Women's Christian Association
ZAMS	Zambia Agribusiness Management Support
ZAMSTEP	Zambia Mathematics and Science Teacher Education Program
ZATPID	Zambia Agriculture Training, Planning, and Institutional Development
ZCF	Zambia Co-operative Federation
ZCSD	Zambia Council for Social Development
ZEBS	Zambia Educational Broadcasting Service
ZEMP	Zambia Educational Materials Project
ZEPIU/PIU	Zambia Educational Projects Implementation Unit
ZNUT	Zambia National Union of Teachers

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CHAPTER 1

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The fundamental problem in the Zambian educational system may be summarized very simply: the number of children to be educated is rising fast, while the quantity of resources available to educate them is falling even faster. Neither of these trends will be reversed soon. The deterioration of the system that began with Zambia's economic decline in the mid-1970s has accelerated since 1985, and may accelerate further. The educational system as is it is now organized can no longer be sustained.

The extent of the catastrophe that has occurred in the educational system is illustrated in Figure 1.1, which presents recent trends in the school-aged population and in the GRZ expenditures for education. The data on which Figure 1.1 is based are presented in Table 1.1. Between 1980 and 1989 the number of children between the ages of seven and thirteen increased by approximately 30 percent, while real expenditures for education were reduced by half. Per pupil recurrent expenditure in primary schools fell by more than two-thirds across the decade, and by nearly 80 percent from its peak in 1982. The appalling consequences of this decline for schools, teachers, and students can hardly be exaggerated.

FIGURE 1.1

TRENDS IN THE ZAMBIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM, 1980 - 1989

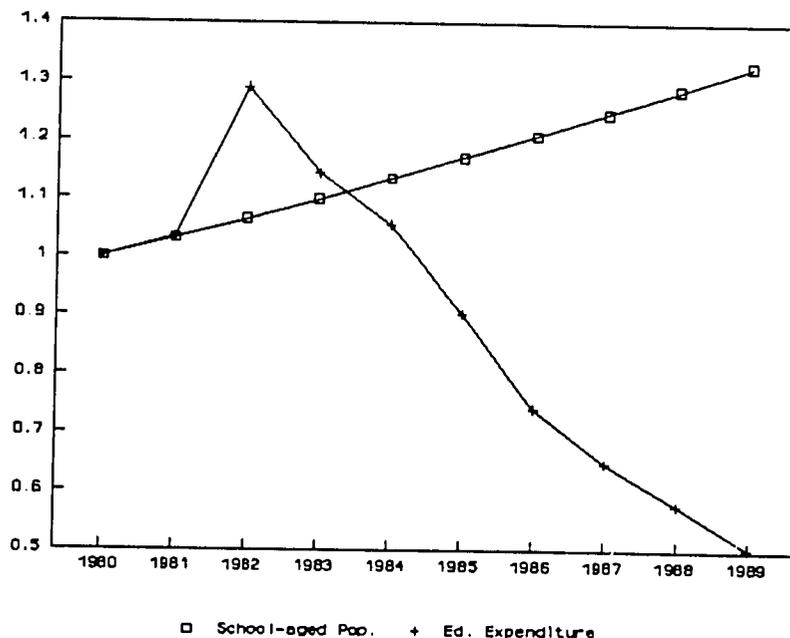


TABLE 1.1

TRENDS IN ZAMBIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM, 1980 - 1989

	School-aged Population ^a (000)	Education Budget ^b (K '000,000)	Per-Pupil Expendit. ^b (K)
1980	1,281	324.6	117.7
1981	1,322	335.3	123.1
1982	1,365	418.6	157.1
1983	1,408	371.1	135.7
1984	1,453	342.5	113.3
1985	1,500	293.2	88.6
1986	1,548	240.7	60.9
1987	1,598	210.6	50.0
1988	1,649	187.6	47.6
1989	1,701	164.0	33.5

^a Estimates based on annual growth rate of 3.2 percent.

^b All values in constant 1985 Kwacha.

Source: M.J. Kelly, "The Financing and Costing of Basic Education for All"

Issues in Primary Education

Reductions in funding in the past five years have been proportionately larger in primary schools than elsewhere in the educational system. One result is that the enrollment rate in Grades 1 to 7 has fallen from 97.7 percent in 1985 to 88.5 percent in 1990.

Enrollment rates remain high in rural areas, but in the main urban centers fewer than two-thirds of the eligible children are able to find places. The numbers of excluded children continue to increase despite the fact that many urban schools operate three and even four sessions daily, with average class sizes of seventy or more students for each teacher. Physical and human resources are now being exploited to and beyond their limits, and further declines in enrollment rates are inevitable.

Growth in enrollments has to date been purchased primarily at the cost of deterioration in instructional quality. Teachers' workload has been steadily increased while their salaries have been as steadily reduced. Central government has spent nothing on books and instructional materials since 1986, though some funds for these purposes continue to be available at provincial and school levels. School buildings and school furniture are in use for up to 16 hours a day, with 70 or more children packed into classrooms designed

for 40 and four students seated at desks designed for two. Many schools lack furniture altogether, and students are seated on the floor.

Such learning as now takes place depends almost entirely on the talent and dedication of teachers, but this too is a nearly exhausted resource. Low salaries and excessive burdens have led to widespread demoralization, and resulted in a lengthy strike in 1990. Teachers are obliged to "moonlight" to make ends meet: many engage in petty commerce on school grounds, while others teach private tutorials in exchange for fees. A growing number are migrating to countries south of the Zambezi in search of better conditions.

In the past increased access could be achieved at the cost of reduced quality, but this is no longer possible. Access and quality are both declining fast, and appear set to decline further as the numbers of school-aged children continue to rise. Even maintaining present low levels of enrollment and instructional quality in the coming decade will be a monumental task, one that is almost certainly impossible without radical changes in the organization and operation of the educational system. In the absence of such changes the system is in danger of complete collapse.

Non-formal Education

One way in which the failings of the formal education system can be remedied is through non-formal education. Current GRZ efforts emphasize literacy training for adults and equivalency courses for students excluded from formal schools. In addition, some ministries have programs to provide basic skills and information on sectors including health and agriculture. All of these efforts are far too small to meet present or future demand for services, however, and all lack the resources necessary for staff development and retention, materials production and distribution, equipment, and transport.

In view of the small and declining role of the GRZ in providing NFE, the role of NGOs has increased both in size and significance. Community organizations, self-help groups, cooperatives, the railways, some mining companies, and other parastatals are also delivering NFE to selected audiences. Programs offered include agriculture, rural development, skills training, small scale enterprises, and women in development.

Much remains to be done if non-formal programs are to play a larger role in the educational system. Co-ordination among Ministries, among NGOs, and between Ministries and NGOs will have to be improved to make full use of available resources and avoid duplication of effort. The administrative capacities of many NGOs must be strengthened, and private provision of NFE should be encouraged. Information about opportunities needs to be compiled and disseminated if participation rates are to increase. Curricula and materials should be developed in areas including child development, nutrition, health, and sanitation, and instructors should be trained in the appropriate use of traditional and alternative instructional technologies.

As access to the formal education system declines, the importance of NFE as a means to provide citizens with the knowledge and skills that they need will necessarily increase. For now, however, the sector is too small, too poor, and too disorganized to meet more than a small fraction of the many demands that it could usefully address.

Educational Planning, Budgeting, and Administration

Increasing access and improving quality in the educational system depend in part on the government's capacity to plan, supervise, and manage the education sector. That capacity is at present very limited, which severely constrains GRZ ability to respond to the crisis that is unfolding in the schools.

Administrative structures are strictly hierarchical, and power within the educational system is highly centralized. Because of lack of transport and other resources, however, inspectors and other administrators at central and provincial levels are only rarely able to leave their desks, and officials at local and especially school levels are in fact left largely to their own devices. Officials in Lusaka lack the information they need to manage the system or plan for the future, while officials at lower levels often fail to receive the direction and support they need from the center. Despite the presence of an impressive number of competent and dedicated people doing the best they can in jobs at all levels, the "system" barely functions.

The capacity of the Planning Unit within MGEYS has been on a steady decline since the late seventies. A decade-long effort by SIDA to strengthen the Unit was discontinued in 1990 in part because of GRZ failure to provide staff or resources necessary to the planning function. At present the Unit is not equipped to conduct economic or financial analyses, and data collection and analysis are slow and haphazard. The most recent published data on the educational system are from 1984. Much energy is expended in a futile effort to control local construction of schools and classrooms, while crucial issues of instructional quality are neglected. Impressive analyses of the education sector and its problems produced outside of the MGEYS appear to have little impact on planning or decision-making within the Ministry.

Budgeting and planning within MGEYS are separate and unrelated activities. Given the virtual absence of funds for anything other than salaries and transfers this may not be surprising. More surprising is the lack of planning and budgetary control with respect to donor contributions, which account for nearly all discretionary resources in the education sector. Lack of planning and coordination of donor activities may limit the impact of foreign assistance to the education system.

Communities and households now pay almost all of the costs of maintaining school buildings and providing books and instructional materials, but decisions about the recruitment and deployment of teachers and headmasters and about curriculum design continue to be made centrally. Many communities have accepted this attempt to share

burdens without sharing power, but elsewhere it has undermined efforts to persuade communities to assume responsibility for their schools, and contributed to a perception of the schools as "government" institutions, foreign to the community and open to the depredations of vandals.

Several donors have expressed interest in strengthening planning and budgeting capacity within MGEYS, but such efforts will have limited success unless and until the GRZ commits the staff and resources necessary to support the Planning Unit and takes steps to integrate the Unit into the decision-making process within the sector.

Costs and Finance

The Zambian economy has been in decline since the mid-1970s. GRZ revenues and expenditures have fallen as a percentage of GDP, which has in turn fallen substantially in per capita terms. Under these straitened fiscal circumstances the education sector has not fared well. In the decade to 1985 GRZ expenditures on education averaged more than 12.7 percent of total public expenditure per year. Between 1985 and 1989, however, educational expenditure averaged less than 10 percent of government expenditure, in a period when total public expenditure was declining rapidly. The consequences were devastating. Total per capita expenditure on education fell by more than half; per pupil expenditures on primary education fell by nearly two-thirds. Modest expectations for GDP growth and GRZ continuing commitment to restrain public spending mean that these trends will not be reversed soon.

Primary education has suffered a disproportionate reduction in funding relative to secondary and higher education. Between 1970 and 1985 primary schools were the beneficiaries of approximately 44 percent of annual recurrent expenditures in education, but by 1989 their share had been reduced to 32 percent. The need to distribute a shrinking budgetary allocation over an ever-increasing number of pupils has had nearly catastrophic effects on the quality of instruction in many primary schools. Growing numbers of children are unable to find places in schools at all.

Within the primary education sub-sector the consequence of the precipitous decline in sectoral and sub-sectoral budget allocations has been the abandonment by the GRZ of nearly all responsibilities in primary schools except the payment of salaries. Given the present extent of community participation in financing primary schools and the poverty of most Zambian households it is not clear how much scope remains for shifting additional educational costs to households and communities. There is undoubted scope for increased cost recovery in secondary and higher education, but whether the quantity of resources produced by GRZ initiatives in these areas will grow beyond the nominal amounts now collected depends on policy decisions that have not yet been taken. The deregulation of the private sector would relieve some of the pressure for places in urban public schools, but in absolute terms the reduction in costs that this will allow is likely to be relatively small, and especially so at the primary level.

The long decline in the Zambian economy and the economic difficulties to be faced in the coming decade mean that the GRZ is unlikely to be able to allocate large quantities of new public resources to the educational system, and the quantity of additional private resources available to the system may prove to be quite limited. Foreign assistance will continue to provide funds to address some of the most pressing problems in the sector, but otherwise the resources available are unlikely to increase much in the near future. It is therefore clear that if enrollments are to be expanded to accommodate some of the million or more additional children who will demand places in the next ten years, and if the quality of instruction provided in the schools is to be maintained or improved, better use will have to be made of present resources. The GRZ has only begun to consider how this might be done.

Foreign Assistance to Education

Throughout the years of economic decline Zambia has come to rely increasingly on donor support in all sectors, including education. Although the absolute amount of aid to education has remained stable over the past ten years it has come to represent an increasing percentage of education expenditures as GRZ revenues have declined. Donor assistance has in the past favored secondary and tertiary education, but more recently foreign assistance has gone increasingly to the primary level. The amount provided in the form of personnel has declined, while the amounts allocated for construction and rehabilitation of schools and for instructional materials and equipment have increased. The major donors in the sector include ODA/British Council, SIDA, FINNIDA, NORAD, CIDA, JICA, EC, UNICEF, UNDP/UNESCO, and ADB/ADF. Churches and other NGOs also make important contributions to both formal and non-formal education. Extensive and growing collaboration among donors in the sector serves to facilitate policy dialogue with the GRZ, target resources to areas of greatest need, and minimize duplication of effort. In the end, however, foreign assistance can only postpone an inevitable confrontation with demographic and economic realities. It cannot resolve the fundamental problems that face the educational system.

Options for USAID Assistance

The scale of the disaster that is now unfolding in the Zambian educational system can hardly be exaggerated, but there is some doubt as to whether the GRZ has yet recognized the nature of the problem they face, or acknowledged the severity of the crisis that looms in the schools. Until the government comes to terms with how bad the situation has become, however, conditions within the schools are only likely to grow worse. In the absence of a sustainable sectoral development strategy the identification of appropriate objectives for USAID or other donor assistance remains deeply problematic.

The effectiveness of almost any intervention by USAID therefore depends upon prior policy dialogue with the GRZ. Assistance must also be carefully calibrated to the

absorptive capacities of the economy. In addition, should USAID decide to provide assistance to the education sector close cooperation with other donors including SIDA, FINNIDA, and the World Bank would be essential to long-term impact.

There are five main areas in which USAID support could make a lasting contribution to the education sector.

- 1) Supporting the development and implementation of non-traditional modes of instructional delivery, including programmed teaching/learning and expanded use of radio, with a focus on peri-urban communities;
- 2) Supporting private, NGO, and government programs in NFE, both to provide basic education to children excluded from school and to provide knowledge and skills in areas including agriculture, commerce, nutrition, and health;
- 3) Encouraging private and community efforts to establish and expand schools through policy dialogue with the GRZ, provision of start-up grants and loans, and administrative and financial training;
- 4) Strengthening planning and budgeting capabilities within MGEYS and throughout the education sector; and
- 5) Supporting research on the reasons for girls' under-representation at higher levels of the educational system, and supporting interventions aimed at increasing their participation.

The first three of these interventions have as their principal aim support for the development of institutions complementary to the formal school system, in order to reduce the strain on public resources and expand access for children who would otherwise be excluded from school. These interventions would also advance equity within the system, and could--if successful in establishing non-traditional modes of instructional delivery--lead to improvements in quality as well, both outside and inside the formal system. The fourth option aims primarily at increasing the efficiency with which resources are used within the formal school system, while the fifth is directed toward enhancing gender equity.

CHAPTER 2

THE STRUCTURE, ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IN ZAMBIA

The Formal Sector

The formal school system's structure for a long time consisted of a 7-2-3 pattern. The first seven years covered primary schooling (Grades 1-7) which was followed by a two-year junior secondary education comprising grades 8-9. The last phase was the senior secondary level (grades 11-12). A new policy under the 1977 education reforms altered this pattern and, though not as yet fully implemented in all schools, introduced the concept of basic education. This new concept entails the inclusion in the curriculum of a set of basic skills, knowledge and attitudes which should equip the learners to be in control of their own well being. It covers both the basic learning skills of reading and writing and the acquisition of basic knowledge regarding, for example, health, family matters, nutrition, environmental care, and so on. Essentially, in Zambia, basic education entailed the merging of the primary and junior secondary courses into a single nine-year course for all children. This is to be followed by a highly selective second phase covering a three-year senior secondary course.

Preceding the primary/basic grades is the pre-school component. Pre-school education is available in private nurseries, church, community, and district council schools and is financed by the payment of fees. Due to the generally high user fees, enrollment at this level is low and highly dependent on the income levels of parents.

Since primary education is considered to be basic, it is presently provided free of charge in all government schools. However, parents are expected to meet the costs of their school-going children's transport, uniforms, exercise books, textbooks and other basic learning requirements. Besides government institutions, a small number of private schools are also available to the public, some of which are run by religious and industrial organizations.

It is worth noting that the government spends a relatively small amount of its educational resources on primary education as Chapter 6 reveals. Suffice it to mention here that in per capita terms, this reality is alarming. As Table 2.1 shows, while the government spent K4,210.68 per university student in 1985 (at constant 1977 prices), the primary school pupil in the same year received only K36.11. In 1989, the ratio of the unit cost of the pupil in primary school and the student at the University of Zambia was roughly 1:186. In other words, one university student's cost of education could be sufficient to create 186 school places at the primary level.

Table 2.1

PUBLIC RECURRENT EXPENDITURE PER STUDENT BY EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	Actual Expenditure in Current Kwacha				
	Primary Level	Secondary Level	Tertiary Level		
			University Grant	Bursaries (Local)	Grants plus Bursaries
1970	28.30	240.99	2,874.90	504.47	3,379.37
1975	39.16	234.09	2,275.80	367.88	2,643.68
1980	52.36	294.22	3,383.04	618.13	4,001.17
1981	58.71	306.88	5,057.29	1,639.90	6,696.79
1982	79.50	408.97	7,120.59	1,621.60	8,742.19
1983	81.50	394.54	5,652.12	2,444.04	8,096.16
1984	80.46	389.22	6,663.23	2,401.85	9,065.08
1985	88.64	420.51	8,004.35	2,732.77	10,737.12
1986	109.45	520.10	12,929.62	2,261.31	15,190.93
1987	135.71	570.14	15,552.22	5,374.01	20,926.23
1988	184.43	889.34	10,224.43	6,651.70	16,876.13
1989	266.51	1,876.00	43,557.41	6,092.28	49,649.69
Expenditures per Secondary and University Student as a Multiple of Expenditure per Primary Student					
	Secondary Student	University Student			
		Without Bursary	With Bursary		
1970	8.5	101.6	119.4		
1975	6.0	58.1	67.5		
1980	5.6	64.6	76.4		
1985	4.7	90.3	121.1		
1986	4.8	118.1	138.8		
1987	4.2	114.6	154.2		
1988	4.8	55.4	91.5		
1989	7.0	163.4	186.3		
1970-74	7.0	74.1	87.0		
1975-79	5.5	59.2	67.4		
1980-84	5.1	787.3	102.1		
1985-89	4.9	103.0	133.1		

Source: Financial Reports, 1970-89. Enrollment Data, Educational Institutions

The secondary education system is much smaller in terms of the number of institutions, teachers and enrollment. Hence, entry to this level from the primary schools is highly competitive. The low progression rate is determined by the limited number of places available in Grade 8, and admission is based on competitive examinations. The progression rate is lower for girls than for boys, even though the minimum marks for admission are set lower for girls. (See Tables 2.2 and 2.3)

Table 2.2.

SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT BY REGION, 1988

Province	Number	Enrollment %	Percentage Girls
Copperbelt	39063	24.2	40.9
Central	11603	7.2	39.0
Lusaka	21223	13.1	40.9
Southern	22998	14.2	37.3
Luapula	11432	7.1	44.6
Northern	25944	16.1	27.6
Eastern	11894	7.4	34.2
North-Western	7722	4.8	32.9
Western	9470	5.9	37.1
All Zambia	161349	100.0	37.3

Table 2.3

GRADE 7 TO GRADE 8 PROGRESSION RATE, 1976-1988

Year	Progression Rate
1977	21.9
1978	19.7
1979	19.3
1980	21.6
1981	20.2
1982	20.8
1983	22.4
1984	19.8
1985	21.6
1986	21.9
1987	25.0
1988	31.7

Source: Ministry of General Education, Youth and Sport

Up to 1982, secondary school comprised three years for junior secondary and two years for senior secondary. From 1983, the structure changed to one comprising two years of junior secondary and three years of senior secondary (grades 10 - 12). Transition from grade 9 to grade 10 is not automatic, and only about half of the eligible pupils are able to proceed to grade 10.

At the secondary school level, some cost-recovery measures were introduced in 1986. In that year, secondary school students were required to contribute towards their boarding expenses. Thus, in addition to meeting the cost of their school requisites, students now pay a nominal fee of K200 per term for residing in a boarding facility. At this level, the number of private schools is larger because of the limited number of places available in public schools. Most private secondary schools are located in urban areas. They charge fees which are subject to government approval. Some organizations provide private schools for their employees (e.g. the mines), and there are also a number of aided mission schools.

A wide range of institutions, run by the government and other organizations, provide tertiary level education (i.e. at the post secondary technical and university level). At this level, government provision is not a monopoly of the ministries of education alone. Rather, some programs are offered by such other ministries including Agriculture (training in the fields of agriculture, forestry, and veterinary health) and Health (which provides various nursing programs). Other tertiary level programs are offered by professional associations such as the Law Practice Institute; the Zambia Institute of Certified Accountants; and the Engineering Institute of Zambia.

Notwithstanding the above, the government still maintains a special role in the provision of tertiary level training. Technical education and vocational training are administered and funded by the MHEST through its Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training. Teacher training colleges are also financed by the government. In addition to this, the government finances numerous degree programs at both the University of Zambia and the Copperbelt University. The two universities are quasi-autonomous and are expected to generate their own funds, in addition to government grants which now provide more than 90 percent of their recurrent and capital expenditure. The large majority of students at the tertiary level are sponsored by the government. As a result of the poor state of the economy, however, the government has decided to introduce some policy changes at the tertiary level, namely:

- (a) rationalization of the level of state aid to higher educational institutions;
- (b) rationalization of the award of government bursaries at the university and the introduction of competitiveness in these awards; and
- (c) requirement that beneficiaries should make a contribution and the shifting of resources from student welfare to educational provision. This policy introduces user fees at the tertiary level.

The realization of the above cost-recovery measures has yet to be seen.

The Non-Formal System

Non-formal education offers possibilities for continuing education and covers those who either have been excluded from the formal education system or those who have had no access to educational facilities at all. Such non-formal channels of education (often referred to as the "second channel") have been necessitated by the diversity of the communities that ought to be covered by formal education ("first channel"); the difficulties of reaching some of these communities using the more traditional formal schooling; and the limited resources at the disposal of educational planners. The second channel of education is, thus, targeted at meeting the literacy needs of youths and adults as well as facilitating the acquisition of practical knowledge and skills.

The main vehicles of basic education under the non-formal system include night schools and distance education programs (by correspondence). The communication media (radio, in particular) have also been used in Zambia as a complement to other educational processes, and have often been integrated into the formal educational sector as well, particularly at the primary level. It is worth noting that this mode of instruction has been compromised somewhat in Zambia by a variety of constraints which include poor radio reception, particularly in rural areas; the limited number of radio receivers; poor maintenance facilities for radio sets and, though seemingly peripheral, the difficulty of acquiring batteries for radios due to their cost and/or non-availability.

At another level, NFE encompasses extension services which enable the targeted population to acquire skills and knowledge in such areas as family planning, child care, nutrition, environmental protection, public health, community development, and so on. Due to its very nature, NFE is provided by diverse agencies including individuals, NGOs, the church, professional associations, the donor community, and the government itself. At present the government gives only lip service to the non-formal sector, as few public resources are made available for NFE. The quantity of resources allocated to the adult literacy program tells the complete story:

at constant 1985 values, K642,200 was allocated for the literacy program in 1970; this had fallen to K540,900 by 1975; to K30,000 by 1985 and to K12,600 by 1989 [Kelly, 1991, p. 9].

Allocations on this scale clearly paint a dismal picture of lack of interest, commitment and seriousness on the part of the GRZ to support a well-meaning non-formal educational program.

National Educational Policies

The original government position regarding educational development was founded on the assertion that quantitative growth of the sector would facilitate economic growth. On the basis of this assumption, the educational sector initially claimed a considerable share of

government expenditure. Despite the massive levels of investment in the educational sector during the first decade of independence, however, the expected growth in the economy did not materialize. For instance, real GDP growth rates remained stagnant over the years amidst an escalating number of unemployed educated people. The Draft Statement on Educational Reforms further noted a certain degree of inappropriateness in the curriculum. Some of the concerns that were raised regarding the school system were as follows:

- (a) that its pre-occupation with the selection function has resulted in minimum transmission of useful knowledge and skills;
- (b) that it emphasizes academic rather than intellectual and production-oriented skills;
- (c) that although only a tiny fraction of pupils proceed to secondary school education, the pre-occupation of the curriculum with preparing the children for secondary school entry has remained predominant; and
- (d) that the nature of the school system perpetuated inequalities.

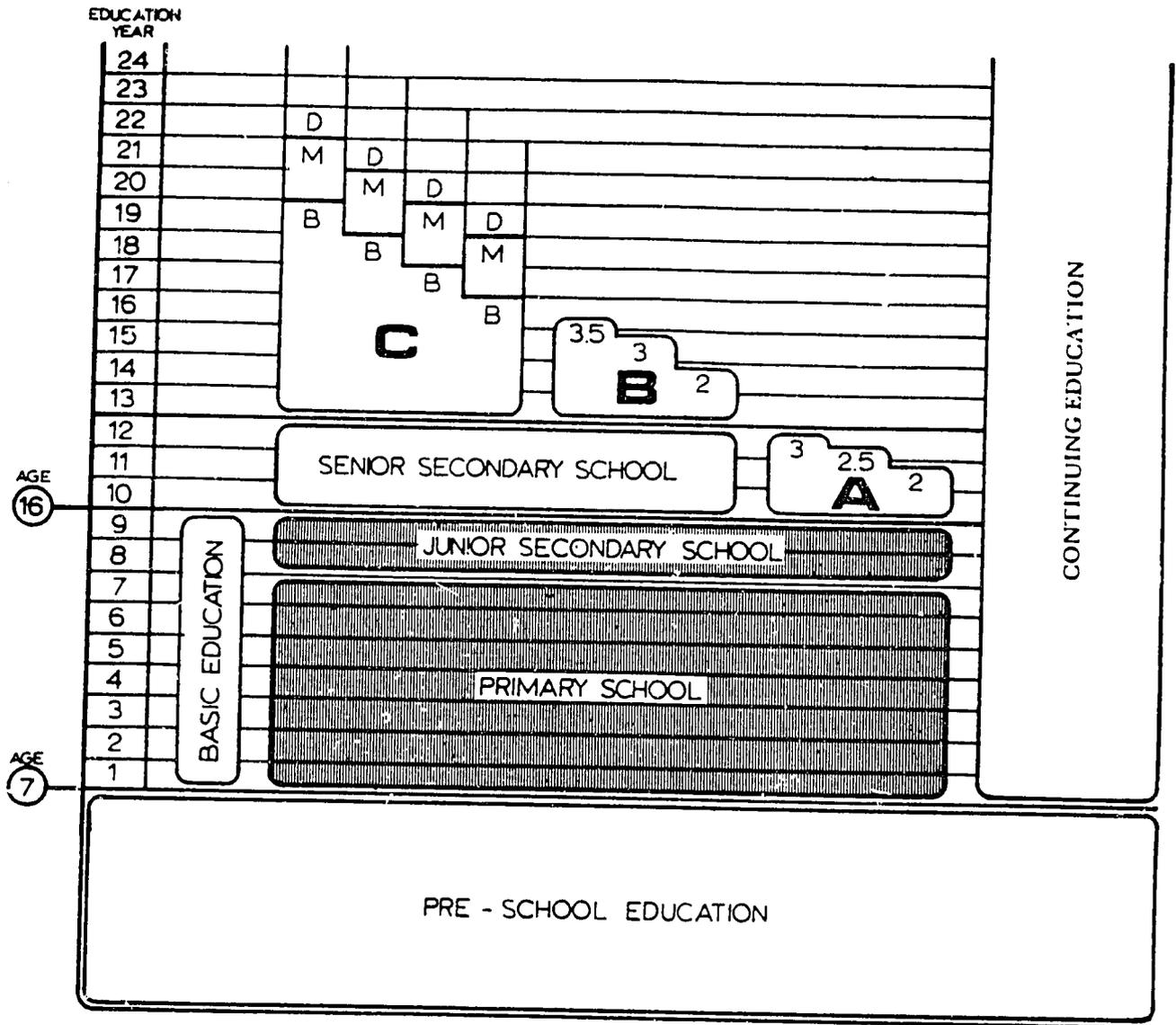
The above concerns led to two policy decisions by the government, namely, (a) the integration of 'productive work' into the school curriculum; and (b) the prescription of a nine-year universal-basic education system. These policy changes became part of the 1977 Educational Reforms document. Figure 2.1 shows the structure of education as proposed in the Educational Reforms document.

In keeping with the second of these policy changes, basic schools are continuously being opened up. With regard to the integration of 'productive work' into the school curriculum little has yet been done, and where attempts have been made they have been poorly handled. Besides, practical subjects have not been integrated into the primary school leaving selection examinations. In so far as the present curriculum largely prepares pupils for secondary school entry, practical subjects, where taught at all, are widely seen as a 'waste of time' since they are irrelevant to the child's secondary school entry. As two educationists observed about this new policy, "it seems that [the new education curriculum] involves nothing more substantial than developing a continuous nine-year sequence of learning to replace the present primary (seven-year) and junior secondary (two-year) curricula, and is not noticeably concerned with developing practical and productive skills for the school leavers" [Clarke & Kaluba, 1986, p.129].

During the past five years, GRZ policy towards the educational sector has been governed first by the Interim National Development Plan (INDP) and subsequently by the Fourth National Development Plan. The overall aim in the educational sector during the INDP (1987-88) was to work towards qualitative and quantitative improvement in the sector. The Plan was to be realized through the following measures:

FIGURE 2.1

Interim structure of education



NOTES

A Various vocational programmes, e.g., Trades, Nursing, Teacher Training, etc., leading to a certificate.

B Various programmes, e.g., Agriculture, Technology, Commerce, Nursing, etc., leading usually to a diploma.

C University degree:

D = Doctorate

M = Master

B = Bachelor: 4 years – Ordinary
 5 years – Engineering, Agriculture, etc.
 6 years – Veterinary Science.
 7 years – Medicine.

NB

In A and B there are also some courses which take less than 2 years.

From primary to senior secondary an education year represents a grade.

- (a) increased production, supply, and distribution of educational materials;
- (b) development of new curriculum to meet the needs of the nation;
- (c) in-service training directed towards the new curriculum; and
- (d) quantitative and qualitative expansion of more widespread educational opportunities at the basic level.

The FNDP lists the following as its objectives for the 1989-1993 period:

- (a) ensure improved performance of all educational institutions;
- (b) provide pre-school education through community efforts;
- (c) provide more widespread and equitable educational opportunities at the basic level giving priority to expansion of primary education;
- (d) widen access to primary and secondary education through distance education, night schools and part-time courses;
- (e) ensure carefully controlled expansion at other levels;
- (f) enhance the training and research capacities at tertiary levels;
- (g) consolidate and enlarge the financial resource base for educational provision especially in the field of science and technology; and
- (h) monitor adherence to standardized chargeable fees by all private education institutions.

In order to realize the above policies, the government identified three implementation strategies, namely:

- 1) qualitative strategy;
- 2) quantitative strategy; and
- 3) cost-effective strategy.

With regard to quantitative strategy, the FNDP aims first at increasing access to pre-schools by children less than seven years old. Secondly, at the primary school level, the GRZ set itself to expand existing facilities through the involvement of district councils, communities, private schools, and Parent Teachers Associations. Thirdly, at the secondary school level, the GRZ intends to expand available places with the help of self-help community projects. Due to experience during the TNDP when self-help junior (basic) secondary schools mushroomed without adequate preparations leading to a

decline in the quality of services, the government has stipulated that during the plan period self-help junior secondary schools or basic schools shall not be allowed to emerge where the community has not provided for all the facilities needed. (This does not include provision for teachers' salaries or other recurrent costs, however.) In addition to this, the government has resolved to phase out boarding facilities where they still exist (particularly in urban areas) in order to allow for the development of basic schools. Science and mathematics teaching shall also be emphasized at this level. Fourthly, at the teacher training level, the government plans to increase the number of teachers by increasing enrollment at existing colleges, in addition to the creation of a new primary teacher training college. Fifthly, the FNDP aims to expand technical education and vocational training through, *inter alia*, the construction of more institutes. Lastly, several expansion and consolidation programs have been planned at the university level.

The April 1990 PIP document reviewed existing government priorities in all of the main sectors of the economy and prioritized GRZ investments over the 1990-93 period within the context of the PFP. With respect to the educational sector, the PIP document sets government priorities as follows:

Confronted with a growing crisis in education, the government has set as its principal goal to re-orient public expenditure towards primary education. The specific objectives are to improve the quality of learning by rehabilitating existing schools and increasing the availability of text-books and learning materials and to enhance the access to primary education by building additional classrooms [GRZ, PIP, 1990].

In the light of the above objectives, the PIP has identified the following priorities over the 1990-1993 period:

- (a) provision of learning materials, school desks and equipment;
- (b) the strengthening of adult and continuing education by way of provision of learning materials and promotion of teacher training;
- (c) the rehabilitation and maintenance of primary schools; and
- (d) expansion of primary schools.

Critical Analysis of Educational Policies

The Government has set for itself a number of different educational policy directions in recent development plans and economic policy documents. This brief analysis shall confine itself mainly to the Government's set policies regarding the enhancement of qualitative and quantitative improvements in educational provision under the current budgetary squeeze *vis-a-vis* resources allocated to the sector.

Firstly, the FNDP has acknowledged that despite the Government policy during the TNDP and the INDP to improve the quality of education, the opposite has in fact occurred. As the Government admitted:

the quality of education during the (TNDP) declined due to financial and other constraints such as excessively large classes, poorly furnished classrooms, dilapidated buildings, scarcity of textbooks, science equipment and other essential items. A combination of these factors, together with accommodation problems led to a fall in teacher morale. Also the level of school inspection was unacceptably low due to lack of transport [GRZ, 1989, p. 298].

While GRZ commitment to its ideals is not being questioned here, one sees two major explanations for the government's failure to realize its policy objectives.

Firstly, it is indisputable that regardless of the seriousness of its policy commitments, the GRZ could not accomplish much without a marked improvement in the performance of the national economy. In so far as social sectors like education and health are significantly dependent on GRZ resources generated by the 'productive' sectors, the performance of the former shall inevitably be influenced by the productivity of the latter. Thus, the Government's resource base has to be expanded; inflation must be controlled; and public expenditure must be restrained before expenditures in the social sectors can be significantly increased. Dependence on external assistance cannot and should not be seen as a solution to this problem.

Notwithstanding the above, the GRZ must recognize that in view of its inability to meet its obligations in the provision of adequate educational services internal alternative sources of educational resources have to be exploited. The main issue that has to be faced, therefore, is to decide whether the present system in which the provision and management of education is viewed as the entire responsibility of the central government is realistic and sustainable under changed economic circumstances. The current political atmosphere that emphasizes pluralist strategies, one may argue, lends support to a multi-sectoral approach to educational provision. In this regard, the central government should be seen as a partner in the provision of education alongside a variety of local agencies, NGOs, private companies, and so on. In this respect, apart from providing educational services (including schools) directly, the GRZ should also assume a coordinating function to establish an enabling policy environment within which a variety of educational providers could act without undue constraints.

Related to the above is the question of GRZ commitment to its declared policy of introducing meaningful user fees at the tertiary level. Up to now, despite policy commitments in both the INDP and the FNDP to institute user fees as a strategy for cost recovery under budgetary constraints, these have not been implemented in any serious way, particularly at the university level. Government subsidies at this level of the educational system are still warranted under some circumstances, but these should be targeted to the neediest students and should ultimately be provided as loans rather than grants. Where students and/or their parents are able to contribute, however, they should be required to do so.

The other consideration is for the GRZ to match its policy commitments to its actions. The GRZ must be seen to respect its policies by allocating more to the educational system in general, and to basic/primary education in particular. If this is not done policy commitments remain mere statements of good intentions with no hope of being translated into reality. As data presented in Chapter 6 reveal, the share of education and especially of the primary sub-sector in total government expenditure has declined significantly over past several years.

Lastly good planning is essential for the realization of the government's goals in the educational sector, as is discussed in Chapter 5. At present there is an urgent need to strengthen the planning units of the two ministries of education. This is necessary since it will allow for the ministries to generate the needed planning information and to identify priority areas in their respective sub-sectors for integration into national plans. It is worth noting that the efficiency and effectiveness of the educational sector's planning portfolios are significantly dependent on a well-conceived and integrated national planning system. Both the PFP and the PIP emphasize the need to improve budget analysis. This is commendable. This can be perfected if planning and budgeting functions are integrated as they now are not. Project planning and expenditure control at the sectoral level should also be strengthened, which could be realized in part by encouraging financial devolution to provincial and district authorities.

CHAPTER 3

SPECIAL ISSUES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION

The seven-year primary school cycle starts at the age of seven and leads to a selection examination at the end of Grade 7. Most primary schools in Zambia serve Grades 1-7 although some rural schools serve only Grades 1-4. Schools in isolated areas with small enrollments are organized as multi-grade schools in which one or two teachers instruct several grades. Recently, the development of over 400 Basic Schools has added some confusion to the organizational pattern of primary schools. Basic Schools are Grade 1-7 schools that have added Grades 8 and 9. Thus Basic Schools continue to function as primary schools but they also function as junior secondary schools.

In the past decade enrollments have risen sharply in the primary schools as is shown in Table 3.1. Table 3.2 illustrates the growth in number of primary school teachers and their level of training. Teachers are in effect the only resource provided to primary schools by the GRZ. Teachers' salaries account for more than 96 percent of the budget for primary education.

TABLE 3.1

PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT, 1980-1990

	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990
Grade 1	169,038	175,649	182,592	193,390	205,189	229,397	246,930	217,476	231,034	237,718	238,520
Grade 2	165,744	172,288	180,392	191,015	200,281	212,276	237,330	218,391	219,546	229,545	231,400
Grade 3	162,385	166,091	172,964	183,573	192,151	201,417	214,119	220,858	215,813	213,334	220,064
Grade 4	157,696	161,091	167,372	177,029	184,407	192,588	201,894	203,223	213,807	207,101	204,649
Grade 5	130,705	135,761	143,037	152,076	161,318	171,300	178,819	180,849	186,120	196,240	188,704
Grade 6	126,900	130,498	137,183	147,101	154,859	165,624	176,928	171,384	173,755	176,033	185,406
Grade 7	129,360	131,304	138,034	149,767	162,167	175,716	187,113	179,041	185,470	186,697	183,700
Grade 1-7	1,041,937	1,072,793	1,121,719	1,194,079	1,260,610	1,348,689	1,443,133	1,391,222	1,426,135	1,446,847	1,452,443

The primary school system in 1989 served 1,446,847 pupils in 3,493 schools. The 19,958 primary school classrooms were used by a total of 36,542 classes, indicating that double and triple sessions were common.

Private schools are not much of a factor in the provision of primary education. There are fewer than 50 registered private primary schools, though the number of unregistered

schools may be larger, and they are almost all located in urban areas. Private schools enroll fewer than 1 percent of the students attending primary schools.

TABLE 3.2

PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS, 1980-1989

	Trained	Untrained	Total	% Untrained
1980	17,365	3,807	21,172	18.0
1981	18,288	3,600	21,888	16.4
1982	19,734	3,697	23,431	15.8
1983	20,770	4,319	25,089	17.2
1984	23,281	4,270	27,551	15.5
1985	23,389	3,913	27,302	14.3
1986	26,627	2,254	28,881	7.8
1987	27,838	2,696	30,534	8.8
1988	29,306	3,042	32,348	9.4
1989	29,683	3,697	33,380	11.1

Many teachers are members of the Zambia National Union of Teachers (ZNUT), an organization that may play a larger role in the educational system as dissatisfaction builds among teachers facing loss of real income and poor conditions of service. Nearly two thirds of the teachers are dues paying members of ZNUT.

Primary schools are administered under a confusing set of arrangements spanning national, provincial (regional), and district levels. The formal responsibility for primary schools now resides at the provincial level, but most administrative tasks are the responsibility of the districts. Neither the provinces nor the districts have been given resources to fulfill this responsibility. The District Education Officer (DEO) has no budget so travel and communication expenses must come out of his pocket. The same is true for the few primary school inspectors who are deployed at the district level. Lack of transport and allowances limit these officers to desk work at the district headquarters, depriving them of the opportunity to provide service in the field.

The district education office sets the Grade 4 exam for the schools that end at this level, and administers the Grade 7 exam in the district. This is the one activity for which resources are consistently provided, both from Lusaka and from the district council. The Provincial Education Office faces the same set of constraints. The few available resources are used to supply stationery and other office needs, which leaves nothing for travel, workshops and other professional services. Resources, when available, are more likely to be used in support of secondary education than primary.

The administration of primary education at the national level also suffers from lack of resources, and from the additional confusion caused by functioning within two quite separate and at times competitive education ministries. As at the district and provincial levels, resources are not available for travel and other professional requisites, and the effectiveness of the few headquarters staff assigned specific responsibility for primary education is seriously compromised.

Access to primary schools

Zambia has had remarkable success in providing access to primary education. Primary school enrollments increased by nearly 50% between 1979 and 1990, rising from 996,597 students to 1,452,443 students during a period of protracted economic decline. In 1990 approximately 88.5 percent of children between the ages of seven and thirteen were enrolled in school. Few developing countries can match Zambia's achievements in expanding access to primary schools.

School places for these half million children were created mainly by making more intensive use of existing resources. Pupil/teacher ratios were increased, double and triple sessions were instituted, and teachers' salaries were kept relatively low. The limits of this strategy for the expansion of enrollments have now been reached, however. Pupil/teacher ratios are as high as 75/1 in many urban schools. Classrooms in high-density areas are already being used two, three, or even four times a day. Restraint on teachers' salaries has led to rising levels of demoralization, absenteeism, moonlighting, and migration to neighboring countries.

Since 1986 Grades 1-7 enrollments have barely increased, while the number of school-aged children has increased at approximately 3.5 percent per year. As a result the enrollment rate has declined sharply, from 97.7 percent in 1985 to 88.5 percent today. The decline is most pronounced in urban areas. In the Lusaka and Copperbelt Provinces only 71.5 percent and 73.7 percent, respectively, of the eligible grade one children are enrolled in school, compared with the Zambian average of 88.4 percent. The other provinces enroll 96 percent or more of the eligible grade one children.

The worst is yet to come. Zambia is faced with the task of providing nearly three times more new places by the year 2000 than were provided during the previous 12 years. Only by doubling the number of primary school places and teachers will Zambia meet the goal of universal primary education. The government has already exhausted most of the available strategies for providing access, such as increasing the pupil/teacher ratio, double and triple sessions and maintaining a relatively low salary scale for teachers.

Doubling the number of teachers and classrooms by the year 2000 is beyond the reach of Zambia under current economic conditions or, for that matter, under healthy and robust economic conditions. The problem is one of too many children in the school age stream and not nearly enough resources to provide a place for them in the primary schools.

Hard choices must be made among a set of not so desirable alternatives. Among them are the options of a catastrophic reduction in the quality of the schools, further limitations on educational access for Zambia's youth, and/or designing and implementing a non-traditional system of instruction that is affordable.

Equity in access to primary schools

It is remarkable how equitable the provision of primary education is in Zambia, although signs of change are now beginning to be seen. Currently the differences in enrollment rates between urban and rural areas, between regions, and between boys and girls are not great. It is only at the secondary level that significant distinctions begin to appear.

There are differences in the pattern of access between urban and rural areas, though net enrollment rates remain in approximate balance. About 25 percent of rural children are unable to find places in Grade 5, while a similar percentage of urban children are initially denied places in Grade 1. The result is that roughly the same percentage of children in both areas complete primary school.

Regional differences are small, and essentially mirror the differences between urban and rural areas. On balance the differences are not substantial, though they may increase with population growth.

Girls have a marginally smaller chance than boys for continuing their primary education after Grade 4. Taking equity for girls seriously, the GRZ has reduced the cut-off scores for girls on the 7th grade selection exam, in order to give girls a more equal chance for advancing into the secondary level.

Supplying a full complement of teachers for isolated rural schools with small enrollments would be too costly. Instead, government has established multi-grade schools where one or two teachers instruct several grades in much the same manner as the one-room school house provided primary education for generations of rural Americans.

With the costs for expanding and maintaining primary schools shifting from government to the local community, a troubling condition is developing on the fringe of urban areas. Many of these peripheral urban areas are squatter communities which do not have the social or political resources to function as "communities." Moreover, they often lack the basic infra-structure of adequate roads, schools and clinics, and piped water.

These areas contain people with the greatest needs and the least ability to pay. The government can no longer meet the rising demand for additional classrooms, and the residents of the urban periphery lack the resources and community mechanisms for bringing people together for effective collective action. Children from these areas already have a substantially smaller chance of enrolling in primary schools than children from rural communities, and these disparities are likely to increase with time.

Efficiency in the provision of primary education

On the surface the Zambian educational system appears to be very efficient. Nearly all pupils who begin primary school complete Grade 7, and per pupil costs have been steadily reduced. Below the surface, however, a pattern of reduced educational quality of tragic proportions has begun to render the entire system both inefficient and ineffective.

Zambia's success in moving students through primary schools includes low rates of grade repetition and wastage, very high progression rates, and relatively few overage students. Repeating occurs most frequently in Grades 4 and 7, among students who have failed selection exams and wish to repeat a grade to prepare for a second attempt. Nevertheless, repeaters represent only about 4 percent of the Grade 7 enrollment and a negligible percent of the Grade 4 enrollment. Progression rates from grade 4 to grade 5 have steadily improved, from 77.7 percent in 1975 to 91.2 percent in 1990. Progression from Grade 7 to the first year of secondary school (Grade 8) is limited by the availability of spaces in Grade 8, and controlled by the results of a national examination. Grade 8 intake has increased from 23 percent of eligible candidates in 1975 to 31 percent of candidates in 1990. Zambia has controlled the age of entry for Grade 1 by allowing only those between the ages of seven and nine to enroll. This has averted the problem of large numbers of overage students in primary classrooms, but only at the cost of preventing a large and growing number of urban children from ever enrolling in the formal school system at all.

Zambia has lowered per pupil costs by increasing the pupil/teacher ratio. The highest ratios are found in urban areas where as many as 50 to 100 students are often enrolled in each class. Although costs are kept low these overcrowded classrooms are not efficient because of reduced learning output by pupils.

Multiple shifts taught by the same teacher are also used in Zambia to lower unit costs. This practice is most prevalent in the lower primary grades, but it has been extended to upper primary in many schools. Multiple shifts reduce costs but may lower efficiency if fatigued teachers fail to produce the learning output required for a quality education.

The use of double and triple sessions has greatly reduced capital investment in new classroom blocks in the recent past. The ever more intensive use of schools on a daily basis represents no long-term savings, however, since massive rehabilitation and replacement costs are required sooner.

The inescapable conclusion is that policies aimed at cost-reduction in the Zambian school system have resulted not in increased efficiency but in severe and accelerating deterioration in the quality and effectiveness of primary schools. Enrollment and progression rates are high, but it is doubtful whether primary school leavers have learned very much during their seven years in school.

Low and Declining Levels of Quality

Uniform decline in nearly every indicator of instructional quality was visible in primary schools as early as 1985.¹ Today the deterioration of facilities is much more advanced. Hours devoted to teaching have declined for increasing numbers of students enrolled in double, triple, and even quadruple sessions. Per pupil expenditures have fallen precipitously in the past five years, and classrooms still lack books, instructional materials, and furniture. Physical facilities and equipment have deteriorated further. Members of the teaching staff have become demoralized by huge classes, double and triple sessions, low pay, and lack of supervisory support. Zambia has spread resources so thinly in the primary schools that teachers can only rarely ensure that students master the basic literacy and numeracy at the levels expected of each grade.

A similar deterioration is visible outside the classroom. The impact of the educational broadcasting system has been drastically reduced by a persistent lack of working equipment for preparing and receiving broadcasts. A misdirected examination system serves only to select students for scarce secondary school places. The curriculum emphasizes form rather than substance and is so subject-centered that linkages between subjects and between subjects and the lives of students are lacking.

The physical deterioration of primary school facilities is obvious and overwhelming for anyone visiting schools in Zambia. The government, unable to raise the resources to maintain and rehabilitate existing schools or to build new schools, has passed the problem on to the local PTA and community. Few communities, however, have the resources for rehabilitation and new construction. Many PTA's levy annual fees ranging from K10 to K250 per child, with the money to be used for school maintenance. Virtually all of these funds must be used to repair damage caused by vandals and by the wear and tear caused by intensive daily use of classrooms rather than for expansion or improvement of facilities. Some urban schools spend thousands of Kwacha that could be spent on additional classrooms or other quality inputs to construct security walls and employ watchmen to keep out vandals and thieves. Attempts by several donors to provide materials and tools have not kept pace with rapid deterioration of primary schools, and GRZ failure to invest in new school construction has hastened the decay of the remaining physical plant. The result is an environment for most primary pupils that seriously undermines the quality of the education provided for them.

The dearth of educational materials is one the strongest indicators of the low quality of instruction in primary schools. Text books, teachers' handbooks, supplementary texts, pupils stationery, simple classroom equipment (rulers, scissors, etc.) and consumable supplies are scarce commodities in many classrooms. Donor efforts through the ZEMP have not kept pace with the requirements for learning and teaching materials in primary school classrooms. Greater availability and use of instructional materials would enhance

¹ M. J. Kelly, "Education in a Declining Economy: The Case of Zambia, 1975-1985." Washington: EDI/IBRD, 1986.

the quality of learning activities and boost student achievement, but for now students and teachers go without many of these essential inputs.

An effective primary school curriculum would increase the quality of the school program. As currently constituted, however, the curriculum is problematic because it emphasizes form and procedure rather than substance. Control by subject committees results in too much subject-centered activity rather than building curriculum as a whole with linkages between different subject areas and between education and the community.² The latter approach would ensure greater relevance, effectiveness and efficiency in the school curriculum. The current curriculum, being too fragmented, contributes little to educational quality and may represent an obstacle to learning in primary schools.

The examination system serves only to screen and select children for advancement to higher grades rather than to provide guidance to teachers and administrators on areas where instruction and curriculum might be in need of improvement. The examinations themselves tend to elicit rote answers rather than answers based on reasoning. The large quantity of resources spent on the examination system have almost no impact on improving the quality of primary education. Current exams may even detract from the achievement of learning objectives by diverting teacher and student effort in unproductive directions.

Inspectors are responsible for visiting schools to assess and improve the quality of the teaching/learning process. Lacking transportation and allowances, however, inspectors remain at their desks and so contribute little to improvement in the quality of education at the school site.

The sole remaining resource representing quality in primary schools is the classroom teacher, and that resource is being seriously compromised. Excessive numbers of students, the virtual absence of essential inputs to support instruction, and low salaries have lowered morale and induced a growing number of teachers to leave primary teaching or even leave the country. Nearly all teachers are obliged to supplement their incomes through outside employment, petty commerce, or the provision of fee-paying instruction. That most teachers continue to perform with energy and dedication is a great testimonial to their patriotism and professionalism.

It is disturbing that trained primary teachers are leaving their teaching positions in Zambian schools. They are opting for higher paying teaching jobs and better conditions of service in countries south of the Zambezi River. Others are moving into higher status teaching positions in Grades 8 and 9 in community-built Basic Schools. Some mark time in their classrooms waiting for an opportunity outside of education. The net gain of newly trained primary teachers in 1990 was 300. This number may soon be insufficient to replace departing primary teachers (far less to provide school places for rapidly increasing numbers of school-aged children), which will require increased employment of

² C. Wright, "Enhancing Educational Quality in Zambia," Lusaka: 1987.

unqualified teachers in the primary sub-sector if enrollment rates are to be maintained or increased.

The potential for growth in the number of untrained teachers and the absence of in-service opportunities for them directly affects the quality of education provided in classrooms. Only by giving up employment and enrolling in a pre-service training program can these teachers gain the knowledge and skills necessary to certification.

As noted previously, teachers are not supported by the necessary inputs, which for many leads to demoralization and reduced performance. The practice of teaching two classes a day drains the teacher of creative energy and reduces the time and energy needed for adequate preparation. This practice, in conjunction with over-crowded classrooms, further reduces the teacher's ability to sustain high quality instruction. Teachers are further demoralized by the dwindling real value of their salaries (the equivalent of US\$50/month at the official exchange rate). Many are not provided with housing and are not eligible for housing allowances. The consequence of all this is lost educational opportunity for children.

The Zambian primary education system can no longer guarantee access to primary education for all children. Neither can it guarantee a high quality instructional program for children who do succeed in enrolling in school. The situation appears likely to deteriorate further, considering the rate of growth in the school-aged population and the strict limits on GRZ revenues and expenditures. The goal of providing universal primary education, as delivered by the existing traditional primary system, is clearly out of reach for Zambia. Hard choices must be made among a set of not so desirable choices. The easiest choice would be to allow current declines in access and quality to continue. A second choice would be to drastically limit enrollments and pour Zambia's limited inputs into a system of quality education for fewer children. Another choice would be to transform the system by developing a low cost and effective non-traditional delivery system parallel and complementary to the formal system that focuses on quality and the mastery of literacy and numeracy skills for children excluded from traditional schools. This third option is developed in the final chapter of this report.

CHAPTER 4

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

History of Non-formal Education in Zambia

Literacy programs were one of the earliest examples of non-formal education in Zambia. Interest in mass adult literacy increased following World War II, when some literacy teachers were trained and projects undertaken by church groups, native authorities and interested individuals. However, no campaign or large scale programs in literacy began until after independence.

During the 1950's, the British Colonial Office established community development centers, farm training institutes and marketing boards in each province, as part of community development work for rural communities. The Development Training Centers instructed adults in carpentry, bricklaying, farming, tailoring, home economics, health and hygiene.

In 1957 the YWCA originated as an urban association based in Kitwe, aimed at fostering multi-racial understanding and Christian fellowship. Most other non-governmental organizations (NGOs) probably became active following independence, although not much information is available.

Recognizing the generally low level of education at independence, the government worked not only to expand the formal education system, but also initiated non-formal education to meet the needs of out-of-school youth and adults. Adult education opportunities included classes for women, educational broadcasting, regional libraries and literacy programs. In the late 1960's, emphasis shifted from mass literacy to functional literacy, and in 1971, a Functional Literacy Program replaced the Basic Literacy Program.

Definition

Two recent papers on non-formal education in Zambia, use the following broad definition of non-formal education: "any organized, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal school system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults as well as children" (Siaciwena, 1991; Mwanang'uku, 1991). Although the non-formal education activities in any particular government Ministry or NGO may be relatively narrow in focus, the diversity of organizations involved in non-formal education and the range of activities undertaken, support this broad definition. It should also be noted that, in Zambia, the terms "continuing education," "adult education" and "extension services" are used to refer to different types of non-formal education efforts.

Non-formal education is characterized by wide variation in target audiences, content, methods and implementing agencies. This diversity is one of its strengths and enables non-formal education to respond to a wide range of needs, but at the same time makes classification difficult. In Zambia, the following categories of non-formal education activities have been distinguished based on the objectives of the non-formal education curriculum (Siaciwena, 1991):

- 1) provision of basic skills in literacy and numeracy
- 2) improvement of basic life skills or acquiring additional knowledge, for example, in health or farming
- 3) delivery of technical skills and knowledge, for example in agriculture, industry or commerce
- 4) offering a "second-chance" for formal education certification through part-time equivalency courses

Need for Non-formal Education

Non-formal education makes important contributions to education throughout the world, but in countries like Zambia, it assumes even greater significance. The limited access to, and strong academic orientation of the formal system do not permit Zambia to provide basic education and life skills for many of its citizens.

The failure of the formal education system to meet the ever-increasing need and demand for education by the Zambian population is well-documented. Although non-formal education has expanded, often in an attempt to solve problems associated with the formal system, the continuing need for provision of non-formal education to complement the formal system is demonstrated by the following facts from Zambia's Declaration at the National Education for All Conference (March 1991):

- over 35,000 seven-year-old children are denied admission to primary school each year due to lack of places;
- over 15,000 eleven and twelve-year-old children must drop out of school each year because there are no places in higher grades;
- over 10,000 girls fail to complete the primary cycle each year;
- over 250,000 children between the ages of seven and fourteen are not attending school;
- over 1 million adults, two-thirds of whom are women, are illiterate;

- a significant proportion of those who complete the primary school program leave with low levels of competency in literacy and numeracy, without acquiring essential knowledge and skills;
- almost all rural dwellers and the majority of urban dwellers have restricted access to printed materials and other channels of knowledge, skills and technologies that would help them to take charge of their own destinies and to improve the quality of their lives.

As a result of emphasis placed on literacy programs, the illiteracy rate declined from 70% in 1964 to 25% in 1985, where it has remained. At the same time, public support for adult literacy has been decreasing, accompanied by a concurrent decline in enrollments, as illustrated in Table 4.1:

TABLE 4.1

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON ADULT LITERACY PROGRAMS

	Allocation		Enrollment	Allocation per Student	
	Current Kwacha	Constant 1985 Kwacha		Constant 1985 Kwacha	Constant 1985 Dollars
1970	137,000	642,187	17,385	36.9	13.6
1975	127,000	540,926	6,010	90.0	33.2
1980	55,000	123,616	3,605	34.3	12.7
1981	97,000	203,435	5,330	38.2	14.1
1982	57,000	112,629	5,055	22.3	8.2
1983	40,000	66,602	5,258	12.7	4.7
1984	35,000	43,226	4,413	11.2	4.1
1985	30,000	30,000	5,378	5.6	2.1
1986	35,000	19,460	4,240	4.6	1.7
1987	60,000	22,127	3,347	6.6	2.4
1988	80,000	20,659	4,489	4.6	1.7
1989	100,000	12,558	4,363	2.9	1.1

Source: Ministry of Labor, Social Development and Culture

In relation to the number of people to be served, government spending on adult literacy has been low in comparison to any level of the formal system. However, the low priority accorded adult literacy is most clearly revealed by the fact that in 1988 more money was spent on educational allowances for staff in each mission abroad (except Canberra) than was allocated to meet a basic educational need of nearly half the adult population (Kelly, 1991).

Increases in the level of illiteracy in the Zambian population are largely attributable to the increase in illiteracy among youth and children. The major contributing factors are limited access to the formal system, early dropouts (especially in rural areas) and the deteriorating quality of primary education content and facilities. The need to develop and implement programs for youth (particularly girls) who are not able to enroll in school or who must leave the formal system after grade 4 is clear. These programs should provide functional literacy with links to health and practical skills. Those young people who leave the formal system at the end of primary school (grade 7), need opportunities to sustain literacy and develop income-generating skills. Although the number of street children is said to be increasing, apparently there has been little research into the needs and interests of the growing population of out-of-school youth.

The government in Zambia is aware of the worsening crisis in education, and the problems have been highlighted in several recent policy documents, including the FNDP and the SAP, as specified in the PIP. Among the objectives of the FNDP are to:

- 1) reduce levels of illiteracy;
- 2) raise levels of literacy, health conditions, home management and child care;
- 3) intensify and diversify efforts aimed at creating self-reliance in rural and urban communities capable of assuming more responsibility and active participation in self-help development projects and other activities for the improvement of their living standards;
- 4) increase the participation of women in national development and facilitate their full integration into the main stream of society;
- 5) provide data to map out strategies for the future development of the program.

Government support of "basic education for all" is strong in both public and policy statements, but this support has yet to be demonstrated by increased resource allocations. In fact, the declining allocations for the adult literacy program can be viewed as illustrative of a more general lack of serious commitment to non-formal education.

Overview of Government Efforts

Within the GRZ, non-formal education is delivered through a number of Ministries, including Labor, Social Development and Culture, Decentralization, Health, Agriculture, General Education, Youth and Sport and Higher Education, Science and Technology.

The Department of Social Development within the Ministry of Labor, Social Development and Culture uses its extension staff as instructors to deliver programs in functional and basic literacy, using primers on maize and groundnut production, health, nutrition and arithmetic. In this work, the MLSDC collaborates with the Prisons Department, churches and the Zambia Association of Literacy Clubs. The District Councils of the Ministry of Decentralization are also involved in efforts to promote basic literacy.

The Ministry of Health (MOH) has a Health Education Unit which is responsible for developing and disseminating messages related to Primary Health Care, including immunizations, food and nutrition, ORT, AIDs, malaria, environmental health, safe water, family planning and first aid. The Ministry has personnel in 900 health clinics throughout the country and provides training for community health workers.

Home economics and agricultural extension workers from the Ministry of Agriculture (MOA) deliver extension services, information and training to the rural population, including all categories of farmers, the majority of which have little or no basic education. Their facilities include farm institutes and farmer training centers.

In the Ministry of General Education, Youth and Sport, the Department of Continuing Education offers junior and senior secondary courses through evening classes, and correspondence studies and open secondary classes. Most of these classes are supervised by qualified teachers and offered in primary and secondary schools, after regular classes have been dismissed. In addition, recent school leavers and adults can receive skills training in twelve Schools for Continuing Education (SCEs) located throughout the country.

Since these programs operate outside the traditional formal school system, they are considered to be non-formal, although the primary objective of three of the four programs is to provide opportunities for youth and adults to undertake or complete their formal education through part-time study, with the possibility of obtaining formal certification. Professor Kelly (1991) suggests that the "second-chance" role played by the Department has resulted in low and declining allocations of resources and prevented it from addressing the broader needs in non-formal education.

The Department of Continuing Education (MGEYS) provides another example of the lack of government interest in and attention to non-formal education. Since the department was established in 1979, it has rarely accounted for more than 0.5% of total education expenditures. Three recent years are highlighted in Table 4.2.

TABLE 4.2

DEPARTMENT OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

	Total Expenditure		Total Expenditure as Percentage of Total Education Expenditure
	Current Kwacha (million)	Constant 1985 Kwacha (million)	
1987*	1.98	0.73	0.35
1988	2.65	0.63	0.36
1989	8.07	1.01	0.62

* Expenditure prior to 1937 not shown separately

Source: Financial Reports, 1937-89

Within the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, the University of Zambia's Center for Continuing Education utilizes resident tutors to provide part-time courses in areas such as accounting, public administration and accounting.

In addition, other government departments may offer specific skills training programs. For example, the Department of Energy instructs urban audiences in making and using improved charcoal burners and the Fisheries Department teaches the skills needed in the fishing industry, including preservation.

To estimate the number of participants in or beneficiaries of these programs would require research and data collection at each of the service providing ministries, since there is no single focal point in the government for information on non-formal education. Total enrollment in both basic and functional literacy programs from 1966-1985 was only 159,680.

All those consulted claimed to be meeting the needs of only a small percentage of their target populations. They described women and remote rural populations as the most disadvantaged. Almost all efforts are constrained by totally inadequate budgetary allocations, which in turn lead to problems in staffing, materials production and distribution, equipment and transport. Thus, although a variety of government structures exist with potential to contribute to non-formal education, without sufficient and sustained resource allocations, this potential will continue to be largely unrealized.

Overview of NGO Efforts

NGOs play an important and increasing role in providing education and community services in many parts of Zambia. Declining government allocations to the social sectors and the fact that NGOs are generally considered to be more effective than government in reaching poorer and disadvantaged population groups, magnifies the importance of their contributions in these times of economic adversity. A number of NGOs focus specifically on the needs of women, who are under-represented in the formal education system.

The NGOs which will be discussed in this section are those non-profit local and international development agencies, including church and voluntary organizations, which are funded by public donations or providing development services as contractors in the aid system. The 1988 Directory for Social Development Agencies in Zambia listed over 130 active organizations of this type in Zambia.

However, it is important to note that throughout Zambia, community groups like women's clubs and self-help groups are contributing to non-formal education, and that the mining companies, railways and other parastatal organizations have also been involved. For example, in the agriculture sector, the parastatal LINTCO has its own extension service which provides training related to cotton, soybean and sunflower crops.

Furthermore, there are 1693 registered cooperatives in Zambia, 1022 of which belong to the Zambia Cooperative Federation (ZCF). ZCF serves adults with member education and training courses in marketing, simple bookkeeping and other skills; and provides assistance with credit, obtaining imported inputs and transport of goods to market. The Federation has a Department for Women and Youth, designed to insure that these two audiences are involved and benefiting from their membership.

In Zambia, NGOs are working throughout the country to implement projects focused on agriculture, rural development, skills training, small scale enterprises and provision of social services. The NGOs which concentrate on women and women in development issues have helped to increase awareness of WID issues on the part of government and other NGOs.

Funding for NGOs comes primarily from international support groups and both bilateral and multi-lateral development organizations. The support which USAID Zambia has provided to VITA/VIS, AFRICARE, and IESC under the ZAMS Project is one example. For about four years, the European Community (EC) has funded a Microprojects Program administered by the Microprojects Unit (MPU) in the Ministry of Finance (MOF). The MPU recently received additional funding under the World Bank Social Recovery Project to finance a series of small, community initiatives in health, nutrition, education and economic infrastructure, and to provide institutional support to the unit, including capability for analysis and monitoring. In the past, NGOs have played an

important role in the design and implementation of microprojects, and are expected to continue to do so in the future.

In addition, the NCDP expects to use government and donor funds to create a Social Action Fund, to facilitate the implementation of projects under the SAP, however the status of this funding seems uncertain. Some embassies and aid missions also have small project funds which are available upon application to fund activities of NGOs and community groups.

Organization/Cooperation of NGOs

NGO Forum - This group currently consists of 17 member NGOs and was formed to facilitate systematic and wider cooperation among NGOs in Zambia. They plan to meet quarterly and have developed a statement of purpose, but hope to maintain an informal structure.

NGO Coordinating Committee - NGO-CC was formed in 1985 as a result of NGO collaboration for the Nairobi Conference during UN Decade for Women. It is made up of 22 member NGOs which share an interest in Women in Development. NGO-CC and some of its member NGOs are also members of the NGO Forum.

Zambia Council for Social Development - ZCSD seems to have once played a greater role in coordinating NGOs, and in 1988 published a Directory of NGOs. District Councils and community service divisions of the mining companies are also members. Disagreement among members over proposed links to the government and level of attention to NGO member needs led to the appointment of an evaluation committee which is working to develop and present a new structure. Although it is not currently in a position to play a real coordinating role, the framework is in place if the differences can be resolved. ZCSD is listed as a member of both NGO-CC and NGO Forum.

NGOs and the GRZ

The government has come to realize and appreciate the role of NGOs in the development of Zambia. The Interim Recovery Plan mentioned NGOs as channels which could be used for development efforts, and proposed an NGO desk in the NCDP. Although a post has been established, it does not seem to be functioning effectively. Collaboration is, however, well-developed in the health sector, where the Churches Medical Association of Zambia (CMAZ) receives some government funding to deliver health services in parts of rural Zambia. The GRZ has also contributed office space to some NGOs, and some have had representation on government committees. Also in the area of health, UNICEF has collaborated with and facilitated cooperation between MOH and MGEYS to implement the Child-to-Child program.

However, a recent paper prepared in the MLSDC noted that information on literacy programs conducted by NGOs and churches has not been available. Despite the examples cited, the links between government and NGOs and among government ministries are generally weak. In countries where non-formal education appears to be stronger, there is an established body or unit which not only coordinates, but also provides professional support to program design and evaluation, staff training and materials development. For example, in Botswana, a Department of Non-formal Education has been formed in the Ministry of Education.

Although the FNDP stated that a portion of funds coming in through bilateral agreements should be used through NGOs, lack of a governmental link with NGOs constrains implementation. In general, NGOs aim to work in concert with government priorities, but avoid central administrative bureaucracy and government interference. The strongest collaboration is reported to be at the provincial and district levels revolving around the implementation of specific projects.

Recently, the GRZ invited the NGOs (through the NGO Forum) to select representatives for each of the SAP working and steering committees. The SAP was created to alleviate some of the adverse effects of the ERP, and has identified the following sectors to facilitate implementation of the program: health, education, women in development, food security and sanitation, and income and employment generation. The dialogue with government and donor representatives on these committees may help to enhance the understanding of and appreciation for the contributions of NGOs, ultimately leading to improved linkages with the GRZ and increased NGO role in policy formation.

Issues and Opportunities in Non-formal Education

Management, Organization and Funding

Coordination in the provision of non-formal education appears to be problematic within government, among NGOs and between government and NGOs. The 1990 Review of Adult Literacy in Zambia concluded that in spite of the obvious connection between access to primary education and reduction of illiteracy, there has been very little coordination between the MGEYS and MLSDC, and recommended a multi-sectoral approach to the problem. Education staff in one provincial headquarters reported that no formal structure exists to facilitate cooperation in non-formal education efforts between the Ministries of Health, Agriculture and General Education, Youth and Sport, and characterized those cases in which collaboration occurs as temporary, informal arrangements. The existence of two education ministries is not only an inefficient use of resources, but also complicates coordination.

There are currently three bodies (somewhat overlapping) which represent a number of NGOs, however, a large number of NGOs are not listed as members. No formal

mechanism exists for the government to access the insight and experience of NGOs, although there is NGO representation on some government committees. A recognized, representative body could give government and donors easier access to NGO perspectives and grassroots experience.

The potential contribution of non-formal education in Zambia has not been realized in part because it has not been adequately planned and coordinated. A clearinghouse for information and coordination of non-formal education activities should be established within government. Furthermore, the National Education for All (EFA) Conference recommended that mechanisms be provided at national, provincial, district and community levels for exchange of information and coordination.

To plan effectively for the future will require more information about current coverage and needs. This would reveal gaps in provision and identify points of connection between formal and non-formal education. Professional support should then be provided for program design, monitoring and evaluation to insure that these two types of education are truly complementary, and promote more efficient and effective use of limited resources.

The problem of inadequate funding is common to both NGO and GRZ non-formal education programs. The case of adult literacy programs has already been described. The current budget allocates only about 10% to education and 3% to health. It has been suggested that inadequate government attention and support of non-formal education has influenced donors to accord it low priority, as well. In a period of declining public resources, especially for the social sectors, donors and NGOs can play a crucial role. However, local NGO representatives highlighted specific funding problems which they believe are peculiar to NGOs.

First of all, dependence on outside donors for funding makes it difficult to establish and maintain clear organizational goals and priorities. Local NGO representatives reported feeling pressured to accept donor priorities along with funding and being pulled in too many directions. Furthermore, the need to attract project funding consumes considerable NGO resources, in particular time spent on writing, presenting and re-writing proposals. NGOs need to strengthen their skills in outlining and presenting the priorities, competence and programs of their organizations in a way that will attract donor support and reduce the amount of time devoted to developing and re-writing individual project proposals.

An additional problem is that although donors are interested in funding projects, they are generally less willing to fund recurrent costs. Since NGOs usually serve the most disadvantaged populations their clients and beneficiaries cannot afford to pay economic costs for services. One NGO advisor estimated that the potential exists for recovering not more than one-third of their costs through user fees. A 1990 World Bank Mission identified the financing of recurrent costs as a major problem impacting the effectiveness and implementation capacity of NGOs. If NGOs are to have a reliable source of

operating funds, it is essential for them to establish their own income-generating capabilities.

Recruitment and retention of qualified staff is another problem shared by government and NGOs, directly related to the lack of funds. NGOs complained that they are frequently unable to pay enough to hire and retain good staff, and when staff receive training, they leave for better jobs. Even non-monetary incentives are absent in many cases. The recent Review of Adult Literacy revealed that most instructors of literacy classes in the provinces have received no training since completion of their pre-service course.

While NGO staff may have considerable experience in program design, training and implementation, they often lack the management and business administration skills required to run the organization. Developing this capacity in local NGOs could strengthen their effectiveness in program implementation.

To date there appears to have been very little involvement in non-formal education on the part of industry and private companies. These businesses need to be made aware of the potential of non-formal education to increase the skills and productivity of their workers, and encouraged to participate in the finance and delivery of relevant programs.

Access and Participation

In spite of the large number of government and NGO-sponsored non-formal education programs, lack of resources limits the number of people they are able to serve. This total number still appears to be quite low in relation to the need, although a needs assessment would be prerequisite to the design of any new and sizable intervention.

There are geographic differences in access to non-formal education. The typical residential pattern in rural areas is one of small settlements and villages. The low density and uneven distribution of population creates problems in the provision of all types of social services, including education. The 1980 census figures reveal that illiteracy was, in fact, lower on the line-of-rail provinces (Copperbelt-24.4%, Lusaka-26.4%, Southern-38.1% and Central-39%); and higher in North-western-62%, Eastern- 60.4%, Northern-62% and Western-56.8%). Available information indicates that few non-formal education programs target peri-urban audiences, although one large NGO indicated that this is an area of increasing interest.

Gender can also affect participation in non-formal education. The 1980 census reported illiteracy among men at 29.5%, while 48.5% of the women were illiterate. In rural provinces, female illiteracy averaged 64%. A field worker in the Kasama District Health Service reported that, in her experience, women are less likely to ask questions and contribute to discussions in the presence of men. Since only 31% of its field workers are women, in many cases the MLSDC has no qualified female extension officers to work with women's clubs, which may in part, account for lower participation on the part of

rural women. However, it has also been noted that the involvement of men in some aspect of non-formal education activities is an important key to enabling women to use the information and skills they have gained.

It has been suggested that the sex-stereotyped activities in functional literacy programs discourage girls from participating, since they do not lead to the same opportunities as the skills targeted to boys. The literacy review team found that boys tend to receive skills training in industrial arts and new technology, while girls are trained in traditional tasks of cooking/nutrition, sewing and child care, and recommended that literacy activities for both males and females be increasingly linked to income-generating skills. Similarly, at the SCE in Kabwe, 21 of 22 students in the electrical and maintenance course were male, while 59 of the 60 home economics students were female.

In addition to gender, age should be considered in the design and implementation of non-formal education. The Adult Literacy Review found that women and girls were frequently treated as one group, and recommended that the needs of girls should be addressed separately from those of older women, possibly increasing the participation of both groups.

In a 1987 dissertation on integrated non-formal education in Zambia, it was noted that non-formal education programs tend to attract those with some initial amount education, thereby adding to the disadvantage of those who were never able to enter school. In fact, several of the full-time and part-time non-formal education programs offered in Zambia require some prior formal education.

A lack of awareness of available non-formal education opportunities on the part of potential beneficiaries may also restrict participation. The comprehensive study of education in Zambia's declining economy concluded that "No systematic attempt has been made to develop an inventory of non-school educational and training opportunities or to estimate the resources devoted to them. Neither has any attempt been made to compile a register of training or further educational opportunities for school-leavers at various levels. Young people's knowledge of these programs is sketchy and is obtained in an informal and frequently incomplete way." (Kelly, 1990) The Adult Education Association was reported to be working on a survey of non-formal education programs and activities, UNICEF has compiled a list of NGOs and their principal interests, and SIDA has offered to fund a directory. However, the need for a comprehensive survey and wider dissemination of the information to potential program participants remains unmet. Such a survey might also be used to identify successful projects for support and as models for replication.

Curriculum and Methods

Learning materials for non-formal education need not be expensive, but should be carefully written and illustrated to meet the needs and interests of the target audiences. Well-designed materials can motivate learners and increase the confidence of the instructors.

A 1990 Review of Adult Literacy in Zambia found a general lack of learning materials and that the materials which were available had not been reviewed in ten years. The review team recommended that the current literacy curriculum be revised in order to clearly specify the learning objectives and properly sequence the learning activities. Other non-formal education contacts also reported the use of out-dated materials, and materials which were described as unattractive and lacking illustrations. The 1991-95 Zambia Country Program of UNICEF includes specific objectives for the development and production of sequenced learning materials, including materials for radio listening groups and newspapers geared to rural and peri-urban neo-literate readers.

Questions were also raised with respect to the relevance of the content in the literacy curriculum. Most literacy materials are limited to agricultural topics, and the primer on growing more maize was in use in all centers visited, regardless of whether maize was the principal crop. For Zambia to implement functional literacy programs to meet the needs of diverse rural and urban audiences, materials must be developed in areas other than agriculture. Specifically, early childhood development, household food security and nutrition, health, population education, sanitation, environmental protection and civic participation have been mentioned as areas of need.

Particularly in government-sponsored non-formal education efforts, the curriculum tends to be centrally developed with little or no adaptation to local conditions. Non-formal education programs should provide opportunity for local development and production of materials by both teachers and learners. The Adult Literacy Review team recommended the establishment of simple presses at two sub-centers to facilitate the printing of materials such as newsletters and stories written by participants.

Those government units and NGOs who had recent experience in materials development complained of long delays and excessive expense for local materials production. Their problems are much like those experienced in the formal education sector.

Most non-formal education programs rely heavily on face-to-face delivery methods. If the need for basic education for all is to be met, non-formal educators must creatively explore alternative methods of instruction. Suggestions include increased use of mass media (radio and newspapers), traditional technologies (songs, dances, folk drama and popular theater), mobile courses and modern instructional technologies (radio, television and computers, if feasible.) It is possible that these methods may have relevance and utility in the formal system as well.

The Literacy Review found that few literacy radio groups are still in existence, many radios are no longer working and the supply of batteries is unreliable. The team recommended that rural radio listening groups should be merged with those organized by the MOA to increase the impact of this method. They also recommended that at least one reading center be established in every ward, which would enable learners to employ self-instructional methods.

It should be noted that availability of operational transport is essential for delivery of most types of programs. Lack of transport was cited as a major hindrance to effective work by 72% of the field workers responding in the Adult Literacy Review. Administrators also mentioned insufficient transport as the major obstacle to effective supervision of staff and programs.

Another problem which has been identified is that most non-formal education instructors lack training in adult education methods. To be effective, instructional design for adults must take into consideration the unique characteristics, needs and interests of adult learners. The Catholic Secretariat, YWCA and CUSA are currently introducing participatory training methods (Training for Transformation), which are well-suited to adult learners and can be used to deliver a wide range of content.

If schools are truly to become community learning centers, the role of the teacher in the community will also need to expand. It will be important to incorporate the theory and practice of non-formal education into both pre-service and in-service teacher training. The policy of "basic education for all" should lead to the utilization of school personnel and facilities to meet the learning needs of the broader community, in particular youth, and especially girls, who are not in school.

The challenges and opportunities for involvement in non-formal education summarized in Figure 4.1 are many and diverse. Specific options for USAID consideration are addressed in Chapter 8 within the context of the education sector as a whole.

FIGURE 4.1

NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

1) MANAGEMENT, ORGANIZATION AND FUNDING	
ISSUES	OPPORTUNITIES
Coordination - within the GRZ - among NGOs - between the GRZ & NGOs	Establish Clearing house/Center for NFE in Zambia
NGOs - lack of management skills - dependence on donor support - lack of funds for recurrent costs	NGO Support and Strengthening
Lack of funds for NFE	Promoting Private Participation
2) ACCESS AND PARTICIPATION	
ISSUES	OPPORTUNITIES
Generally low awareness & participation	Conducting survey & disseminate information Increase emphasis on & support of NFE
Geographic disparities	Target rural & peri-urban audiences
Gender differences	Research factors & design interventions aimed at women & girls
Bias toward those with some education	Examine entry requirements & approaches to expand access
3) CURRICULUM AND METHODS	
Methods - lacking - out-dated - irrelevant - unattractive - centrally developed	Design & produce new materials in priority areas for target audiences Base development on needs assessment & production
Methods - lack of appropriate adult ed methods - reliance on face-to-face methods	Explain alternative methods Provide training in suitable methods Replicate successful models
Basic Education for all	Train teachers in NFE theory & practice Develop schools as community learning centers

CHAPTER 5

PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Increasing access and improving quality in the educational system depend in part on the government's capacity to plan, supervise, and manage the education sector. That capacity is at present very limited, which severely constrains GRZ ability to respond to the crisis that is unfolding in the schools. Nearly all of the analyses of the education sector point to the need to enhance planning and management capacity in order to meet the objectives spelled out in various policy documents and investment plans by both government and donors.

The PFP cites the need to strengthen management and supervision in the sector in order to meet the objectives of the SAP. Similarly, in the recently completed Draft Report of the National Conference on Education for All, held in March 1991 as a follow-up to the Jomtien conference, several of the Articles adopted by the participants make direct or indirect reference to the planning and management capacity of the government for the formulation of appropriate policies; the management of the implementation of those policies; the mobilization of resources for education; the monitoring and evaluation of sectoral activities; and the research and analyses of education strategies and innovations. The issue of planning and management was also raised by the donor community collectively in the last CG Meeting in Paris, and it has been raised again in sectoral reports sponsored by major donors in the education sector. Key to any significant improvements in the sector is the overall planning and management system and GRZ commitment to building, maintaining, and using planning and management capacity in the education system.

Overall Structure and System of Education Management

The MGEYS has responsibility for most aspects of pre-university education. The structure is one in which the Minister is supported by two Ministers of State, one for Education and the other for Youth and Sport. There is one Permanent Secretary and three Deputy Permanent Secretaries for (1) Finance and Administration, (2) Youth, and (3) Sport. The Chief Inspector of Schools reports directly to the Permanent Secretary. In Headquarters there are six units: Administration and Technical Assistance; Personnel; Planning; Finance; Policy; and the Inspectorate. The Ministry also has responsibility for several departments and parastatal organizations: Education Broadcasting Services; Curriculum Development Center; Continuing Education; Zambia Education Project Implementation Unit; Examinations Council of Zambia; the Kenneth Kaunda Foundation; Orbit Magazine; Youth and Sport; and the Hubert Young Hostel. (See Figure 5.1)

Ministry of General Education, Youth, and Sport

Functional Structure

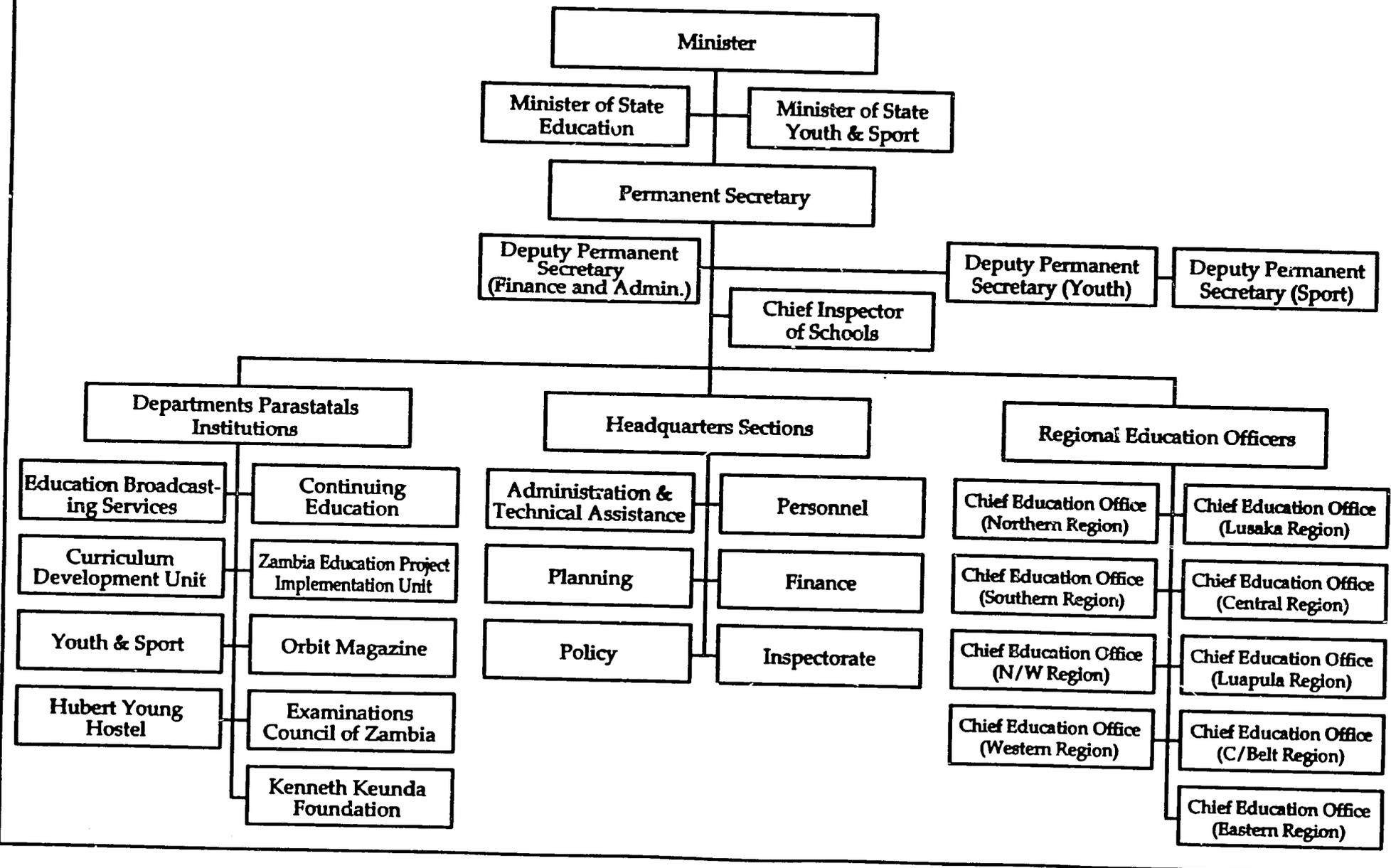


FIGURE 5.1

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There are Provincial Education Officers (PEOs) in each of the regions or provinces, whose responsibility it is to supervise all education in the province. To use the Central Province (headquartered in Kabwe) as an example, there is a Deputy Provincial Education Officer reporting directly to the PEO who looks after all administrative matters related to education in the province. There are two Regional Inspectors with purely professional responsibilities, one a Senior Inspector for Primary and the other a Senior Inspector for Secondary. There is now only one Education Officer in the region with responsibility for Continuing Education. Two Buildings Officers and three Examinations Officers complete the professional establishment.

Directly answerable to the PEO is the District Education Officer (DEO), whose functions mirror those of the PEO but at the District level. In the case of the Central Province, the DEOs have supervisory responsibility for education in the 391 primary schools in the five administrative Districts within the region. The DEO for Kabwe District, for example, supervises one Education Officer and one Inspector for primary schools and must coordinate the District activities with the Provincial Office. The PEO receives directives and communications from headquarters in Lusaka and in turn disseminates that information to the five Districts who then communicate with the various schools in the District. Information or inquiries originating at the school level come through each level in the reverse order described. (See Figure 5.2)

The government's stated intention is to have a decentralized system of government in Zambia and certainly within the education sector. The need for decentralization is even more acute as educators both within and outside of government persistently call for community participation and involvement in the education process as the only way to achieve and maintain quality education for all. The system in Zambia, however, sometimes by intention and sometimes by force of circumstance, is in many respects highly centralized. According to most written and verbal accounts, many of the responsibilities charged at one time to the provinces and the districts are, in direct contradiction to even recently stated policy, gradually reverting back to the central Ministry.

Cutbacks in staff and resources required to carry out management, supervision and planning responsibilities in response to the economic decline have often, in fact, had greatest impact at the provincial and district levels, giving decentralization less and less meaning. The Province's role is that of an implementor of central directives and a reporter of data. Staff and transportation constraints at the provincial and district levels force officials at these levels to be virtually office-bound and render their participation in the process of understanding or addressing their areas' problems, issues, and needs extremely limited. Those same constraints hinder their ability to effectively fight on behalf of their communities at the central level.

Ministry of General Education, Youth, and Sport Central Region

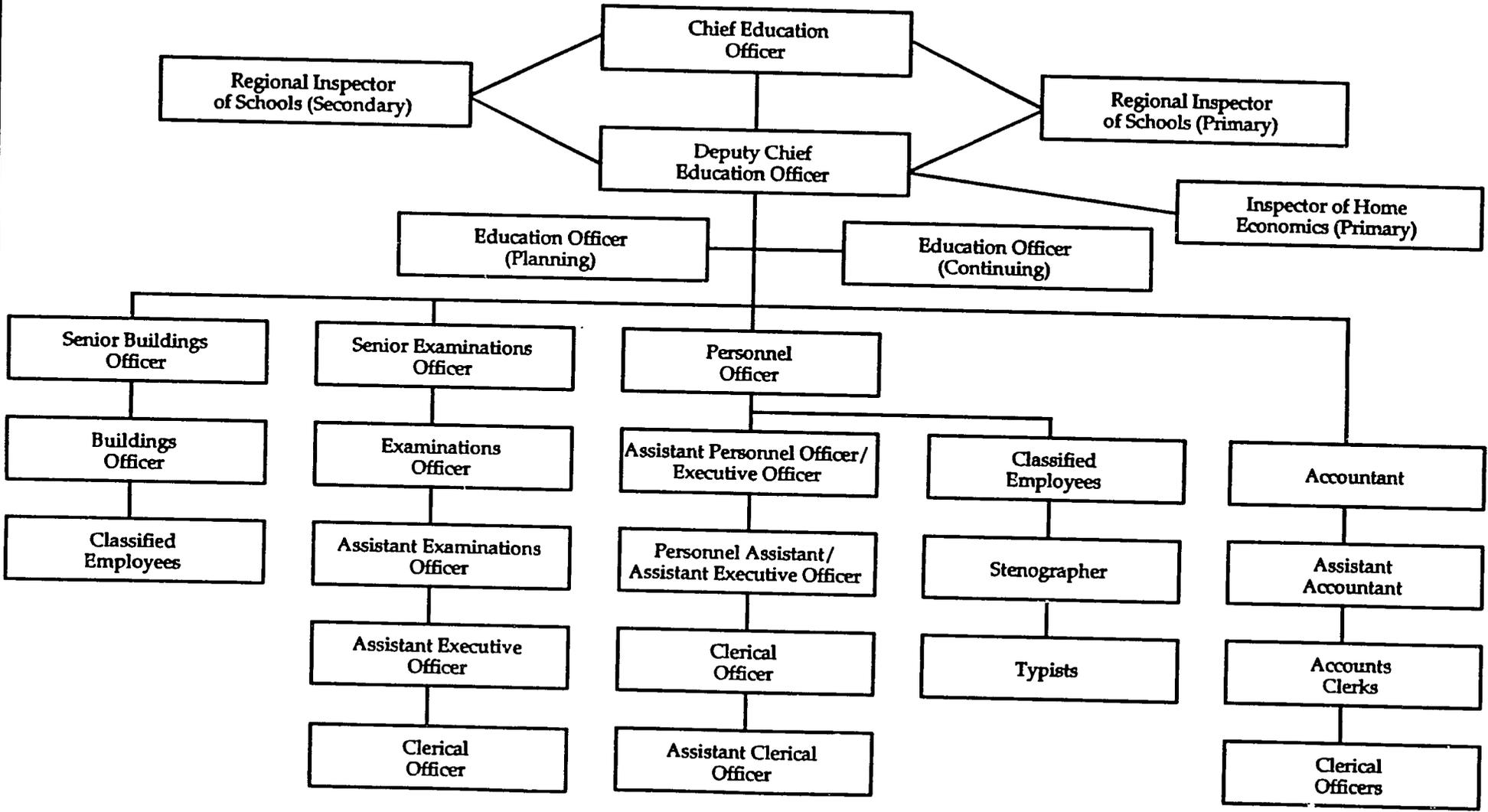


FIGURE 5.2

Planning, policy formulation and decision-making, and curriculum development are all highly centralized activities. At the same time responsibilities such as primary education budgeting, the apportioning of education allocations, and the resolution of some problems are charged to the provincial level. At the school and community levels decisions regarding enrollment levels; whether to establish a Basic School, open a night school or open secondary school; the identification of construction, maintenance and rehabilitation projects; and the levying of fees on parents are left to headmasters and PTAs. Though there is a requirement for provincial or headquarters level approval for some of those decisions, they are many times implemented without that approval. Involvement in other key policy and administrative decisions affecting the school does not yet exist. As communities and schools, by necessity, become more directly and officially responsible for the schools that their children attend, they must be empowered to make decisions that relate to the quality of those schools and to plan more substantively for the education of local children. Clearly the process of establishing a decentralized education system in Zambia still has a very long way to go.

At the overall organizational level there are problems of coordination between the MGEYS and the MHEST, which became two separate ministries in 1982 following a policy decision that has met with much criticism. Each has responsibilities that affect those of the other; for example, pre-service and in-service training are the responsibility of the MHEST. Classroom construction and programs designed to support in-service teachers like SHAPE fall under the MGEYS. Much more coordination in research, planning, implementation, and evaluation is required to successfully meet the objectives of the joint activities of the two ministries than is currently being done.

The Inspectorate

The Inspectorate should be an important agency in the promotion of educational quality in Zambia. It represents the most direct link between the ministries and educational practitioners in the classroom. There are two groups of inspectors in the MGEYS: (1) Secondary school general inspectors, who are based in the provinces and work under the Provincial Education Officers and subject inspectors in headquarters; and (2) Primary school inspectors, some based at the provincial headquarters and in the districts. In headquarters there are general inspectors for all subjects.

Their role is to:

- Inspect schools and teachers and look at the school facilities;
- Organize in-service activities such as seminars and conferences for teachers and headmasters;
- Participate in project work (e.g., SHAPE, ZEMP, Child-to-Child)

- Act as resource persons for seminars and workshops;
- Look at the way in which subjects are taught in schools and at teaching and learning materials;
- Liaise with subject association on professional matters (e.g., math and science associations);
- Provide advisory service to the schools;
- Maintain involvement in innovation work such as testing new methodologies, chairing curriculum committees, and cooperating with EBS and the exams council;
- Advise on appointments, transfers, promotions of teachers, and discipline cases; and
- Interpret and implement education policy.

In addition to providing support to teachers and classrooms inspectors, when equipped with their job requisites, can be valuable sources of data and information on the education sector for teachers, administrators, policymakers, planners and others involved or seeking to become involved in the education sector. They are, after all, former teachers selected to join others like them because of their experience and effectiveness as teachers. Interviews with inspectors at the District, Provincial and central levels of the organizational structure revealed a perception of their role as a professional, supportive, and facilitative one rather than a policing or control one. Some of the inspectors were impressively thoughtful, reflective, experienced, and insightful about the education sector and issues affecting its development. They expressed regret at not being able to be more helpful to teachers and administrators.

The work of the Inspectorate is by all accounts seriously hampered by lack of transport, which is worse in the districts and provinces and which reduces substantially the inspectors' ability to visit schools. Four of the five Districts in Central Province, for example, are rural with schools spread out over large areas making visits to those schools at regular intervals impossible. Even when vehicles are provided through SHAPE or other programs, funds for running and maintaining them are non-existent and the demand for them is very great. The conditions of service are poor causing many experienced inspectors to leave the ministry and some to leave the country. Opportunities for exposure to current trends and innovations in education have also been restricted due to budget constraints. In the absence of such upgrading, inspectors are not in a position to adequately advise and supervise those involved in the sector.

The Headmistress/Headmaster

School heads or principals play a pivotal role in the education process at the school level. Supervised on professional matters by inspectors and by the DEO's on administrative issues, they obtain their position as Heads because of their record of effective teaching, organization and leadership and sometimes their performance in workshops and refresher courses designed for them. They are nominated by inspectors in collaboration with CEO's and are usually identified first by the Heads under whom they work following their probation and confirmation period of one to two years. Others are selected after responding to advertisements of openings by the Teaching Service Commission (TSC) while still others move into the position after having acted previously and successfully as Deputy Heads or heads of subject departments in secondary schools.

The role of Headmasters/Headmistresses is to:

- Carry out education policies as laid down by the Ministry and passed through the regional and district offices;
- Inform CEO's of the status of enrollment, staffing, accommodations, and transport;
- Inform CEO's of the curriculum she or he follows so that the appropriate books and materials can be sent;
- Develop appropriate timetables and otherwise organize the school day and teacher assignments;
- Write confidential reports on all teachers and auxiliary staff and children's reports and continuous assessments;
- Enroll students and report on pupil requirements and teachers' needs;
- Call for PTA meetings and act as Secretary of the organization, participating actively in the mobilization of resources for the school; and
- Meet teachers daily and notify them of changes or issues.

A good school head has strong interpersonal, leadership and management skills. Such qualities serve to motivate teaching staff and inspire both teachers and parents to mobilize the necessary resources for enhancing the quality of the school. Heads are, however, hampered by the lack of any regular training either at the time of induction or while in-service. As school management becomes an even more challenging task and resource mobilization by the school and community an ever-larger responsibility, the role of the headmaster/headmistress will become even more demanding. Calls for more substantive involvement in the school on the part of the community will also require that

school heads be trained to develop new relationships with the community and to see parents as the integral participants in the educational process that they should be.

The Planning Process

Planning for the education sector occurs at two levels, the national level and the sectoral level. As suggested above, planning at the sectoral level is a top heavy process since there are no planners at the regional and district levels and no one is equipped to assume that responsibility in any meaningful way. More importantly, mechanisms for involving schools in more substantive issues affecting instructional quality are not in place.

Macro Planning: National Commission for Development Planning

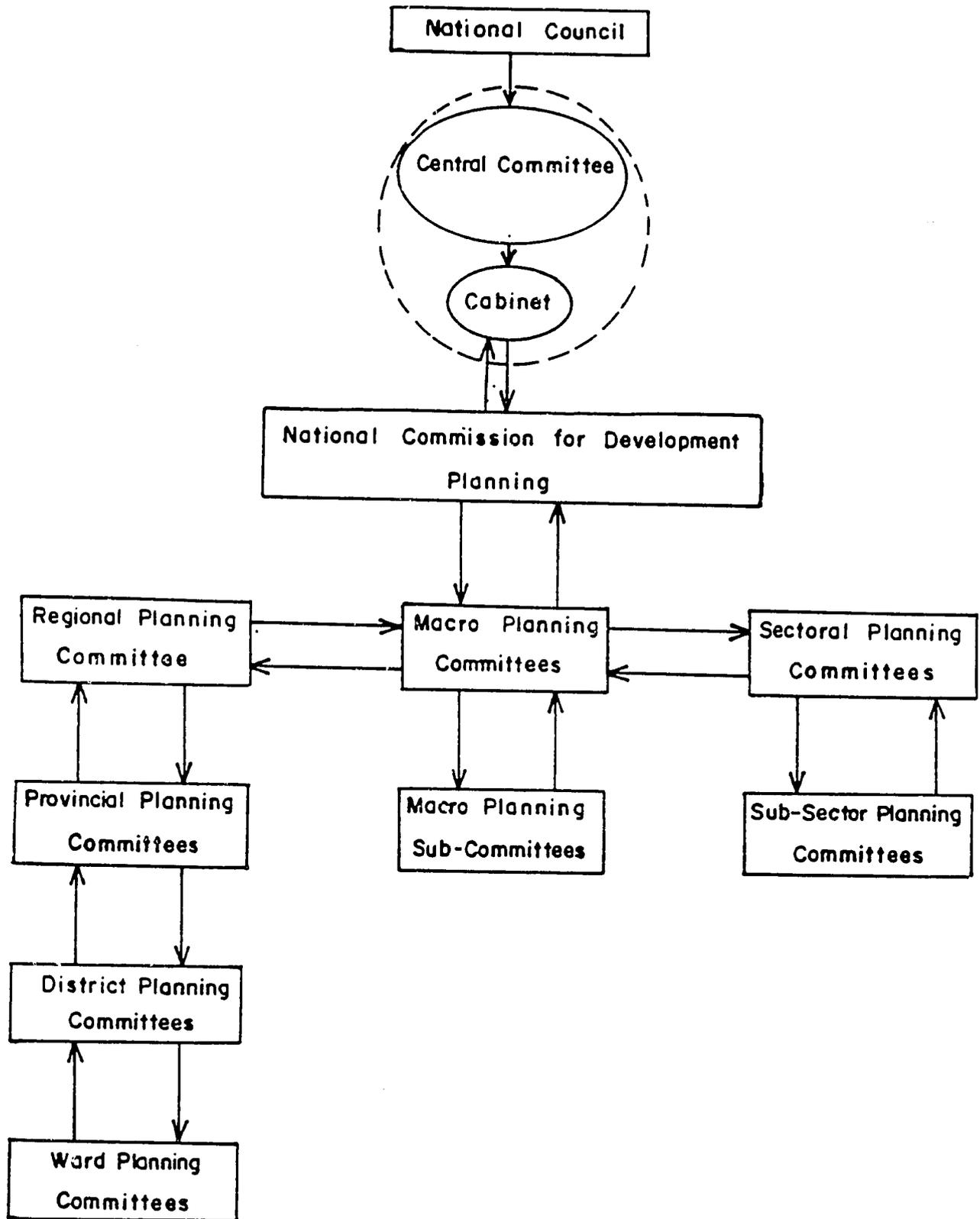
At the national level, macro level planning for education and the determination of a budget ceiling for the sector is the responsibility of the National Commission for Development Planning (NCDP) which falls under the Ministry of Finance though it has its own Senior Permanent Secretary. A rather complex process for planning has recently been instituted, initiated by the ruling party, UNIP, with the aim to make planning more participatory (see Figure 5.3). In theory, planning now begins at the grassroots level where needs are articulated by Village Development Committees after receiving guidelines and criteria from NCDP. Village plans are sent up to Ward Planning Committees. From the Ward level, the plans go to the District Planning Committees, which are headed by local politicians. The Village, Ward, and District Planning Committees are all political structures whose membership must be approved by the Minister of Finance. The plans are then filtered through the Regional Planning Committees which fall under the Regional Planning Department of NCDP, which is the focal point for coordination of all provincial development plans.

Within NCDP headquarters, Macro Planning Committees are formed for each sector. The Committee's Secretariat is the Investment Policy and Planning Department of NCDP, which has representation from the Ministry of Finance, the private sector, the University of Zambia, and the relevant Sectoral Planning Department Office. The absence of participation by the Planning Unit in the MGEYS reveals and confirms the lack of coordination and effective linkages between national planners and line ministries.

The MOF/NCDP has the final responsibility for determining sector policies and budget ceilings, which are used as guidelines for negotiations between the MOF and the line ministries. Realignments of the budget are also the responsibility of NCDP through a Planning and Budget Committee comprising the Directors of the Sectoral Planning, Regional Planning, and Investment Policy and Planning Departments of NCDP and the Director of the Budget Office in the Ministry of Finance.

FIGURE 5.3

THE PLANNING PROCESS IN ZAMBIA



This process is potentially a cumbersome one, requiring large amounts of technical resources and coordination to implement. Village level planning does not really exist since the resources, time, and skills required to write proposals are lacking. In actual practice, planning begins at the District level. The process is employed yearly for purposes of the Annual Plan and every five years for the development of the five year plans.

The relevance and usefulness of the national planning process in light of the rapid decline of the economy and of equally rapid policy shifts has been discussed and analyzed extensively. There is nevertheless much more that can and should be done by planners in line ministries such as education that can help to address problems within the sector.

Planning in the MGEYS: the Development Planning and Research Unit

Supervisory and planning officials and their interaction with each other greatly influence what goes on within the formal education system. They, along with teachers and parents should be constantly examining the aims of the education system and making adjustments required by developments at the local, national, and international levels. They should help shape the ideas that will enable the education system to respond to the goals established for it. Planning personnel have the task of converting issues, ideas and policies into attainable plans. (Kelly, 1991)

The Organization, Role and Status of Planning

The Development Planning and Research Unit (hereinafter referred to as the Planning Unit) is one of the units of the MGEYS. It has four sections: (1) Buildings Section, (2) Planning Section, (3) Statistics Section, and (4) Design Section. The Design Section, which deals with the design of buildings and the use of local materials has an establishment of two Senior Officers, but no one has been in these positions since 1983. It has no Research Section; that section went to MHEST when the Ministry of Education was split into two separate Ministries in 1982. Only the Buildings Section, which advises and supervises the construction and maintenance of school buildings, furniture and teachers' houses, has officers at the Provincial and District levels. The Statistics Section, responsible for the collection, analysis, and publication of statistical data pertaining to education, has two Senior Officer slots and five Junior Officers, all at headquarters. Clerical officers at the regional and district level have responsibility for data collection at local and school levels.

The Planning Unit is organized with a Director at the head and an Assistant Director. Three Senior Planning Officers all based at headquarters comprise the Planning Section. There have been no planners at the regional level since 1986. The Planning Unit has overall responsibility for planning primary and secondary education in Zambia. Specifically, its role is as follows:

- To set targets for new Grade 1 openings and for the upgrading of incomplete schools to ensure balanced national development.
- To participate in the execution, monitoring, and evaluation of certain technical assistance projects that affect primary and secondary schools.
- To effect developments such as the extension of multiple session teaching or the conversion of primary schools with low enrollments into multigrade schools.
- To plan the development of secondary schools.
- To implement high level policy regarding education.
- To research and analyze various education issues.
- To collect, compile and analyze education data and statistics.

It is widely accepted that the Planning Unit's role, influence and effectiveness have been on a steady decline since 1978. Up to that time the Unit was deeply involved in the 1977 proposals for educational reform and exerted considerable influence on policy formulation. The downgrading of the Planning Unit after 1978 may be due in part to disenchantment with education as the great equalizer at the international level. Locally, there was a virtual end to capital investment in education, which meant that little physical development could take place, leaving nothing with which to plan (Kelly, 1991). It should be noted, however, that planning takes on an even more crucial role in the present period of rapidly dwindling resources and increasing demand, when the need for low cost, high impact, catalytic and sustainable interventions in the educational system is so urgent.

In 1980, SIDA began supporting the Planning Unit with long-term technical assistance and training of planning staff through both in-country mobile training of regional and district education officers and school administrators and managers and overseas training. In 1985, through SIDA support, the Planning Unit, with the Universities of Zambia and Stockholm, began a university level planning course to supplement the mobile training, but at a higher level for senior education officers. During that period, the Planning Unit had a sufficient establishment and most of the officers were adequately trained. The Statistics Section was strong with trained personnel. SIDA discontinued its support in 1990 as it became clear through staff cutbacks in planning and other indications that the Unit was becoming marginalized.

Current Capacity for Planning

The Planning Unit now appears to be oriented more toward quantitative expansion of schools than toward improving the effectiveness and quality of primary and secondary

education. It concerns itself with forecasting the need for school buildings and teachers, promoting self-help activities, and gathering education statistics. Instead of being a source of ideas about educational change and innovation, the Planning Unit has confined itself primarily to concentrating on making the existing system bigger. It no longer has the resources to evaluate educational provision or to use research findings to plan, manage, and generally improve the overall system. The Unit continues to collect annual data mostly for purposes of control, but performs very little data analysis.

The 1986 decision to discontinue Planning Officer posts at the regional level seriously compromises the integrity and legitimacy of the Planning Unit and renders it less effective and less responsive to the needs of the education sector. Now more than ever there is a critical need for a Planning Unit that has the capacity to collect, analyze, and disseminate education data in a timely fashion; to work with communities in designing and implementing strategies to improve education quality and to mobilize resources; to conduct research on low cost, high impact, and sustainable interventions to improve access and quality; to plan, coordinate, and monitor donor investments in the sector; to participate in the formulation of educational policy from the local level to the national level; and to analyze the implication of policy pronouncements and decisions regarding education.

The MGEYS recognizes the need to return the Planning Unit to its prominent role in education and has a request pending in the Personnel Office to increase the staff, allowing it to re-institute the regional planning posts and to add an Economist and a Researcher to the staff at headquarters.

An essential pre-requisite for effective planning is comprehensive, reliable, and current data. The compilation of education statistics began to fall behind in 1979. The latest published data for the sector are from 1984; 1986 data are currently being processed. There are more recent data available but some have not been entered while others have yet to be tabulated. Requests for data from donors and government officials to facilitate their own planning and decision-making are met if at all on an ad hoc basis. One major obstacle to the availability of timely and useful data is the fact that there are not statistical officers at the regional and district levels. Data from the provinces and districts are the responsibility of clerical officers who have had little to no training in data collection. Lack of training to utilize the computers that the Planning Unit has is an additional constraint. Add to that the backlog at the Central Statistical Office and Government Printers and the problems related to the analysis, publication, and dissemination of information are overwhelming.

Zambia is fortunate in having a significant amount of impressive analysis of the education sector and its problems that have been produced by individuals and groups both within and outside the GRZ, including the University of Zambia and several donors. These analyses, impressive as they are, will continue to be of limited use unless and until the GRZ begins to make use of the wealth of current information available to them for policy formulation and decision-making. Steps may need to be taken to inform

policymakers not only of the gravity of the situation in the educational system but also of some of the strategies that have been proposed to ease the current pressure on the system. Well planned seminars or workshops for high level officials could be employed as the forum during which the analyses can be presented for discussion and adoption.

The Budgeting Process and Financial Management within the MGEYS

At one time the Ministry of Finance collected information from the line ministries regarding their requirements and then made its own decisions as to what should be eliminated or configured in another way. That system was dropped and replaced by one that assumed that the line Ministries knew best what the needs were within each sector. Now a block sum of money is provided to the line ministries following negotiating sessions with the Ministry of Finance, to be apportioned within the sector as ministry officials see fit. The block grants include both development and recurrent funds. Funds allocated to the education sector have been declining as a share of GRZ expenditure in recent years, which confirms the lower priority accorded to the sector. Indications from meetings with the Ministry of Finance are that no significant increases in the allocation to primary education in Zambia are expected.

Funds to the provinces are also provided as a block grant and are controlled by the Permanent Secretary for the Province. The allocation process at the regional level involves yearly requests for submissions of requirements, including textbooks, materials, exercise books and other student requisites. The requirements are passed to the District level by the schools for screening; the DEO in turn sends the submission to the PEO who reviews the needs of each District and consolidates them into a regional submission. Certain funds, such as those for secondary schools are controlled by headquarters while others, such as those for primary schools, are sent to the accounts unit of the Provincial Permanent Secretary. Funds for the education sector are not earmarked, which means that they may vary at the discretion of the PPS. The Provincial Coordinating Committee, chaired by the Provincial Planning Unit (of which the PEO is a member) sits and advises on the correct allocations for each sector. Funds allocated to the District level are not broken down by line item. The result is that costs are incurred not knowing whether and to what extent they have been budgeted for. It creates a problem for the DEO who does not what he has to spend. District funds are the responsibility of local government and not the MGEYS.

The MGEYS has an officer responsible for Finance whose function may be more accurately characterized as that of an accountant or controller. He is seconded from the Ministry of Finance and keeps weekly tabs on expenditures by the Ministry. He has no working relationship with the Planning Unit of the MGEYS, suggesting that the planning and budgeting functions are unrelated. With approximately 97% of the budget for primary education already committed to teachers' salaries, the apportioning of government resources within the sector is almost a meaningless exercise.

Donor contributions to the sector are large and increasing. Local communities, through the PTAs, make large contributions in some instances and small in others. As far as we know, these contributions are not quantified for planning purposes, except as they may relate to expansion of the system. The lack of knowledge of both donor and community resources has been said to be distorting the budget reporting system in the Ministry of Finance.

Coordinating Donor Input to the Sector

Donor support to education in Zambia is increasing. There is, however, no structure or system for overall coordination of donor support to the education sector within the MGEYS. Donor-financed sectoral programs and projects are coordinated within each individual project. For example, the SIDA-financed SHAPE program and the FINNIDA-financed ZEMP project coordinate with other donors on matters related to in-service teacher training and desk rehabilitation and educational materials, respectively. Planners from the Planning Unit are involved in each of the coordination committees.

The Zambia Education Project Implementation Unit (ZEPIU) is a parastatal department under the MGEYS which has responsibility for all donor-financed investment in school construction and rehabilitation at the secondary level as well as the construction of teachers' housing. The unit became fully operational in 1973 with the first World Bank educational loan to Zambia. NORAD actually established the ZEPIU more than 20 years ago. The procurement of books and the new OPEC and FINNIDA projects for the upgrading of primary schools have now been added to the ZEPIU's responsibility. This unit has the flexibility to work in an autonomous manner to facilitate its recruitment and hiring of staff, to offer more attractive conditions of service to employees, and to procure and reimburse for outside contracting in an efficient and expeditious manner. While it also works very well for the donors involved, it is yet one more separate structure for a specific activity.

Improving Planning and Management Capacity

The increasing needs of the education system in Zambia demand that the capacity for planning and management be developed at all levels and be given priority attention. Several donors have indicated their intention and willingness to strengthen that capacity, including SIDA, UNESCO/UNDP, and FINNIDA. FINNIDA, for example, has proposed an Education Planning and Management project which will include studies on planning and budgeting; teachers' records, staff planning and costs; program support to planning; and short-term technical assistance. A project to enhance educational research capacity in Zambia is also planned. Among the activities being considered by SIDA is support to strengthening of the management and organization of the ministry and educational planning.

A significant omission in the Terms of Reference for the government-appointed education task force currently developing an education strategy is any substantial attention to planning and management capacity in the education sector. That capacity is critical to the development of a system of education providing high-quality instruction that can be sustained over time. Before any assistance to building planning and management capacity will have a positive impact on the system, however, GRZ authorities must make the necessary commitment of staff and resources to give the function the credibility and legitimacy it once had. The GRZ must also be prepared to make policy and procedural changes when these are required. Zambia, for example, is the one country in southern Africa receiving support from the Commonwealth Secretariat for a personnel management program that has not yet implemented the project. The problem with regard to the state of teachers' records is universally recognized, and continues to cause serious delays in the payment of salaries and allowances and to produce costly errors in the management of teaching personnel.

School Level Management

Experience in other parts of the world has revealed that primary schools in particular are best managed with the involvement of the community. Over-centralization in the management of educational provision, in general, and schools, in particular, has actually marginalized the community which, as a consequence, looks at schools as the 'property' and responsibility of the government. While a centralized system of educational administration might be justified in countries with well-developed administrative systems; good communication and infrastructure; and a homogenous context of schooling, one observes that in countries like Zambia "with long distances between individual schools and the center; great ethnic and linguistic diversity; and relatively poorly developed systems of transportation and communication, rigid centralization blocks resource and information flows and leads to inefficient and ineffective operation of the system". (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1990, p. 85)

Against the above background, effective community participation in school and educational administration could come about through decentralized systems of delivery. Such participation may be enhanced through community involvement as partners in curriculum development (with, for instance, community representatives sitting on the relevant school committees); the interaction with PTAs in the conception, implementation and evaluation of school expansion plans and quality improvements; the recruitment and selection of staff and administrators; and fundraising. The educational system could only benefit from pooled resources, experiences and creativity from a diverse partnership of parents, educators, administrators, the business sector and other segments of the community from which the students come.

CHAPTER 6

COSTS AND FINANCING OF EDUCATION

The surest guarantee of increased public or private revenues for education is economic growth. As output rises, local and national authorities can invest more in the construction, maintenance, and operation of schools. As household income increases, parents can invest more in the education of their children. Investments in education in turn help to produce skilled, informed, adaptable citizens, who can contribute in a variety of ways to further economic expansion. A virtuous circle is established.

In a stagnant or declining economy, in contrast, the opportunity cost of investment in education rises, both for governments and for households. Increased public investment in education requires either increased taxes or reduced expenditure in sectors that may yield more immediate economic or political returns. Increased household investment in education requires that other expenditures be reduced, and in many poor households this means cutbacks in basic items including food and shelter. The long-term cost of private and public failures to invest in education is high, but the short-term costs of investment are higher still. Under these circumstances the educational system may begin a long-term decline, which is very difficult to reverse. Sadly, this is precisely the situation in which Zambia now finds itself.

In this chapter we present a discussion of costs and financing in the Zambian educational system. In the first section of the chapter we briefly review some of the main economic and political arguments in support of public investment in education. In the second section we survey the main features of the Zambian economy and of current GRZ economic policies. In the three sections that follow we discuss the financing of education, with attention to the size and distribution of public expenditures, the contributions of communities and households, and private schooling. In the concluding section we assess the fiscal capacity of the GRZ to address the educational problems that Zambia will face in the coming decade.

Education as an Investment

Economists have long recognized that investment in education contributes both to increased individual productivity and to aggregate economic growth. The relationship between education and productivity is especially well established in agriculture, where a number of studies in Africa and elsewhere have shown a positive relationship between years of education and measures of farm output. These relationships are especially strong in modernizing agriculture, where the ability to read instructions and calculate costs become increasingly important. In the urban economy the relationship is more difficult to establish empirically, both because of the uncertain relationship between formal sector wages and individual productivity and because of the difficulty of measuring

output in the informal sector, but the importance of literacy and numeracy to the effective performance of most urban jobs is evident. Educated people are better able to acquire and make use of information, to negotiate the complexities of the urban economy, and to recognize and respond to new opportunities.

Studies of the social rate of return to investments in education conducted in developing countries around the world show an almost invariant pattern of results. The rate of return to investments in human capital is consistently higher than the rate of return to investments in physical capital, and the rate of return to investments in primary education is consistently higher than rates of return to investments in secondary and higher education. These studies provide strong support for increased public investments in education, and especially in primary education where students acquire the essential skills of literacy and numeracy.

Studies of the private rate of return to investments in education in developing countries show a rather different but equally consistent pattern of results. Highly qualified people remain scarce, and the private returns (i.e. wages) to those who succeed in completing secondary or higher education are consequently large. Because (as in Zambia) most or all of the costs of secondary and higher education are often borne at public expense, moreover, the private rates of return to education at these levels are substantially higher than the social rates of return. The disparity between private and social rates of return provides support for policies aimed at shifting a larger share of the cost of secondary and higher education to those who will receive the benefits (i.e. students and their families). This conclusion is strengthened by other studies that show that students at these levels of the education system are disproportionately drawn from among the wealthiest households, who are least in need of public subsidies.

Education contributes to economic growth in less direct ways as well. Among the most important of these are the well-established relationships between education and health and between education and fertility. Educated mothers have been shown to be more likely to immunize their children, and educated households are more likely to adopt effective health and sanitation practices. Educated mothers have also been shown to have fewer children than those with less education. The consequences of these changes for economic growth are clear. A healthy labor force is at least potentially more productive, and reductions in fertility reduce the strain on public services (e.g. primary schools) and increase the quantity of public and private resources that can be invested in each child.

Education is also essential to the exercise of citizenship, and to the establishment and maintenance of democratic institutions. As Zambia enters an era of multi-party democracy Zambians will increasingly be obliged to absorb and evaluate information, to weigh the often difficult political choices that face them and their nation, and to organize and act to protect and advance their own interests in the larger political system. Citizens who lack literacy and other basic skills will be ill-equipped to fulfill their civic obligations. They will simultaneously be handicapped in the political competition for resources and

opportunities. Democratic politics may thus compound the economic disadvantages of the poorest and most vulnerable groups if they are not assured of equitable access to basic education.

Macro Economic Context

At Independence Zambia was one of the most prosperous countries in Africa, but the Zambian economy has been in decline since 1975.³ Real GDP has increased slightly, but population growth has been very rapid, averaging 3.2 percent per year. (Current estimates place the rate of population growth at over 3.5 percent per year.) As a result real per capita incomes have fallen by more than one third since 1975. A similar decline has taken place with respect to employment, as the labor force has grown even more rapidly than the total population. More than a quarter of the Zambian labor force was employed in the formal sector in 1975; by 1990 fewer than 10 percent of the labor force were in formal sector employment. These trends have accelerated since 1985, as real per capita GDP has fallen at an annual rate of 4.3 percent and the percentage of the labor force in the formal sector has been reduced by half. Approximately half of the Zambian labor force continues to work in subsistence agriculture, with the remaining 40 percent divided between informal sector employment and various degrees of unemployment. It was estimated in 1986 that more than one third of the urban population lived in absolute poverty, and this proportion is likely to have increased substantially in the difficult years since then.

Many of Zambia's economic problems can be attributed to excessive dependence on copper exports, which accounted for 15 percent of GDP and 87 percent of total exports in 1989. Copper made Zambia relatively well-off in the 1960s and 1970s, but since 1975 a long-term decline in world copper prices combined with a fall in Zambian output has reduced GDP growth almost to zero. Government policies aimed at protecting living standards pending a hoped-for recovery in copper prices and output have meanwhile led to declines in domestic savings and investment and a rapid increase in external debt. Investment at present accounts for less than 15 percent of GDP; debt service requires approximately two-thirds of annual export revenues. (See Table 6.1). The anticipated depletion of copper reserves in the coming decade will inevitably exacerbate these difficulties, as the (import-intensive) effort to maintain copper production and revenues comes into conflict with increasingly urgent efforts to establish new industries and exports, to rehabilitate essential infrastructure, and to maintain social services including basic education.

³ The discussion that follows is based on data presented in the Policy Framework Paper approved by the GRZ and the World Bank in March 1991, and on published and unpublished analyses of the PFP and the GRZ adjustment program drafted for donor agencies including USAID, FINNIDA, SIDA, the IMF, and the World Bank.

TABLE 6.1

ZAMBIA: BASIC ECONOMIC INDICATORS, 1985-1993

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990 Est.	1991	1992	1993
	(in percent change)						Projections		
Real GDP	1.9	0.7	2.7	6.3	0.1	0.9	3.1	3.7	4.3
Real Non-mining GDP	2.6	1.3	2.5	8.1	-0.6	1.2	3.7	4.1	4.6
Real Per capita GDP	-1.7	-2.9	-1.0	2.5	-3.4	-2.7	-0.6	--	0.6
Terms of Trade	-5.9	-24.3	3.1	30.5	19.5	-15.3	-23.7	-6.7	-3.4
Consumer Prices (end per.)	58.3	34.6	50.4	64.1	154.3	75.0	40.0	20.0	10.0
Export Volume	-4.0	-8.3	7.9	-11.2	6.7	4.0	0.3	0.1	2.2
Copper	-14.2	-6.0	8.9	-16.2	8.4	4.3	-4.4	-1.2	--
Nonmetal	39.2	-31.3	-3.0	16.1	-13.1	22.6	16.7	10.0	10.0
Import Volume	6.5	-27.7	1.1	7.3	16.0	-0.2	-5.9	-4.1	0.2
Metal Sector	--	-19.8	-6.1	11.5	34.8	-12.2	-8.2	-4.5	1.4
Nonmetal Sector	--	-33.0	5.4	5.5	7.4	6.7	-4.8	-3.9	-0.4
Real Exchange Rate (depreciation -)	-7.5	-51.8	5.5	55.1	13.2	-17.1	--	--	--
Money Supply (M2)	23.5	93.1	54.3	61.6	65.3	45.8	25.0	15.0	10.0
	(in percent of GDP)								
Gross Domestic Savings	14.7	27.8	18.5	18.8	14.1	17.3	19.2	19.3	20.2
Gross National Savings	4.5	10.5	3.0	8.0	5.6	3.8	5.7	6.7	8.4
Central Government	-10.8	-21.0	-7.5	-7.1	-5.2	-2.7	1.8	2.8	4.6
Nongovernment	15.3	31.5	10.5	15.1	10.7	6.4	3.8	3.9	3.9
Gross Domestic Investment	14.9	23.8	13.9	12.3	8.7	14.7	18.7	20.7	21.7
Central Government	2.6	3.9	2.8	4.6	4.3	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.7
Nongovernment	12.3	19.9	11.0	7.7	4.4	9.2	13.0	15.0	16.0
Consumption	85.9	77.9	84.9	82.9	86.9	85.9	85.9	84.7	83.6
Central Government	18.3	16.2	15.4	12.4	12.9	11.0	9.6	10.1	10.5
Nongovernment	67.6	61.7	69.5	70.5	74.0	74.9	76.3	74.6	73.1
External Current Account	-10.4	-13.3	-10.9	-4.3	-3.1	-10.9	-13.0	-14.0	-13.3
Nonmetal Sector	--	-28.7	-32.4	-23.1	-21.6	-33.8	-30.6	-29.9	-28.0
Metal Sector	--	15.4	21.5	18.8	18.5	22.6	17.6	15.8	14.8
Unrequited Transfers and net factor income	-9.6	-11.7	-12.1	-9.1	-7.6	-10.3	-8.4	-8.6	-8.0
Govt. revenue and grants	22.3	24.7	22.1	18.3	17.6	21.3	26.0	25.0	24.5
Government Expenditure	36.7	53.2	32.9	30.4	27.0	29.5	29.9	27.9	25.6
Government Deficit									
Accrual Basis	-14.4	-28.5	-10.8	-12.1	-9.4	-8.2	-3.8	-2.9	-1.1
Excluding foreign int.	-8.3	-15.6	-5.3	-8.4	-6.3	-2.5	3.5	4.8	4.9
Excl. grants and int.	-5.2	-11.8	-2.7	-7.1	-6.1	-4.5	-0.5	0.4	0.4
Domestic Financing of Government Deficit (net)	6.3	6.6	1.8	5.1	5.8	3.8	0.2	-2.4	-2.7
	(in percent of exports of goods and services)								
Debt service (accrual) ¹	74.9	109.9	99.7	79.2	56.5	65.8	70.7	68.1	58.4
External Interest (accrual)	28.7	41.8	37.7	34.5	28.2	32.7	35.2	34.2	32.9
	(in percent)								
Comm. bank lending rate (end of period)	29.7	33.5	18.4	25.0	35.0	40.0	--	--	--

¹ Excludes payments of arrears

Source: Zambian authorities and IMF staff estimates for Policy Framework Paper

In recognition of the structural problems that characterize the Zambian economy the GRZ is now engaged in an ERP with the cooperation of the IMF and the World Bank. The measures adopted include a sharp devaluation of the Kwacha, an increase in interest rates and reserve requirements, an end to price controls and a reduction in consumer subsidies, and liberalization of the market for foreign exchange. In the medium term these measures are intended to reduce the public deficit and limit the role of the government in the economy, to encourage private savings and investment, and to foster non-traditional (i.e. non-copper) exports. They have already begun to show some effect. Non-traditional exports increased substantially in 1990, and government expenditures have been cut from over 40 percent of GDP in the early 1980s to less than 30 percent at the end of the decade. Government revenues have fallen even faster than expenditures, however, and annual deficits continue to run at about 10 percent of GDP.

The Policy Framework Paper approved by the GRZ and the World Bank projects growth in real GDP of over 3 percent per year between 1991 and 1993 with the implementation of the adjustment measures and the securing of requisite donor support. In the short term, however, it is not certain that as elections approach the GRZ will be able to resist social and political pressures to weaken or abandon the program.

Within the ERP the GRZ is seeking donor support for the SAP, which is aimed at softening the impact of adjustment on the most vulnerable Zambians, including women and children. The SAP will redirect present resources and target new resources to uses that provide benefits to these groups, particularly in the health and education sectors. In education, for example, expenditures are to be shifted away from secondary and higher education toward primary education, especially in poor urban and rural areas. The policy initiatives in education and related sectors included under the SAP are discussed above in Chapter 2, and again in the concluding section of this chapter.

Public Expenditures on Education

With the continuing decline in the economy, GRZ revenues have fallen sharply, from an average of 25 percent of GDP in the early 1980s to an average of 17 percent of GDP in the period 1988-90. Public expenditures have also fallen, but not as fast: the annual GRZ deficit amounts to nearly 10 percent of GDP. The decline in GRZ revenues and expenditures in a context of negative growth in GDP means that the pool of resources from which public expenditures on education must be drawn has been shrinking fast. To compound the problem, a history of foreign borrowing to finance domestic consumption means that debt service takes a very large share of remaining public revenues.

Under these straitened fiscal circumstances the education sector has not fared well.⁴ In the decade to 1985 GRZ expenditures on education averaged more than 12.7 percent of total public expenditure per year, reaching a peak of 16.8 percent of the total in 1984. (See Table 6.2). Between 1985 and 1989, however, educational expenditure averaged less than 10 percent of government expenditure, in a period when total public expenditure was declining rapidly. The consequences were devastating. Total per capita expenditure on education fell by more than half; per pupil expenditures on primary education fell by nearly two-thirds. Modest expectations for GDP growth and GRZ continuing commitment to restrain public spending mean that these trends will not be reversed soon.

TABLE 6.2

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION, 1970-1989*

	Amount (K'000,000)	As % of GDP	As % of all Public Exp.	Value per Capita (K)
1970	262.3	4.5	9.0	62.6
1975	417.5	6.5	11.5	85.4
1980	288.3	4.5	7.7	50.8
1985	293.2	4.6	13.4	43.6
1989	164.0	2.4	10.5	21.0

* All kwacha amounts are expressed in constant 1985 values.

Source: M. J. Kelly, "The Financing and Costing of Basic Education for All"

Within the education sector all instructional levels have experienced declines in funding since 1985, but primary education has undergone a disproportionate reduction relative to secondary and higher education. (See Table 6.3). Between 1970 and 1985 primary schools were the beneficiaries of approximately 44 percent of annual recurrent expenditures in education. By 1989, however, their share had been reduced to 32 percent, while the shares allocated to secondary and higher education had been increased substantially. The need to distribute a shrinking budgetary allocation over an ever-increasing number of pupils has had nearly catastrophic effects on the quality of instruction in many primary schools. GRZ commitments in the PFP to reverse these

⁴ The discussion that follows is primarily based on the financial data presented in M.J. Kelly, "The Financing and Costing of Basic Education for All," a paper prepared for the National Conference on Education for All, Lusaka, March 1991.

trends and direct additional resources to primary schools have not materialized, as the 1990 budget increase for higher education is once again larger than that for primary.

TABLE 6.3

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY EDUCATION, 1970-1989*

	Amount (K '000,000)	As % of total Education Exp.	Recurrent exp. per Pupil (K)
1970	100.4	38.3	132.7
1975	162.8	39.0	166.8
1980	127.9	44.4	117.7
1985	120.3	41.0	88.6
1989	48.8	29.8	33.5

* All kwacha amounts are expressed in constant 1985 values.

Source: M. J. Kelly, "The Financing and Costing of Basic Education for All"

Within the primary education sub-sector the consequence of the precipitous decline in sectoral and sub-sectoral budget allocations has been the abandonment by the GRZ of nearly all responsibilities in primary schools except the payment of salaries. (See Table 6.4). The rehabilitation and maintenance of school buildings has been left to communities for some time, and MGEYS expenditures on instructional materials including textbooks have been reduced to zero since 1986, though some minimal funds for these purposes are expended at provincial and district levels. In the 1991 Estimates personal emoluments (salaries and allowances) account for more than 97 percent of all recurrent expenditures, and open-ended commitments to provide teachers in communities that build new classrooms continue to drive this percentage higher. Donor support has taken the place of government funding in some areas, including school rehabilitation and the production and distribution of books and materials, but the distance between what is lacking and what is provided remains large.

TABLE 6.4

**RECURRENT EXPENDITURE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION, BY FUNCTION,
1971-1989 (in percent)**

	Personal Emoluments	Instructional Materials	Other
1971	81.9	7.5	10.6
1975	84.3	9.8	5.8
1980	92.2	2.8	5.0
1985	95.6	1.7	2.6
1989	96.8	0.0	3.2

Source: M. J. Kelly, "The Financing and Costing of Basic Education for All"

Throughout the education sector investment has for some time been scanted in favor of recurrent expenditure. (See Table 6.5). In the early 1970s capital expenditure accounted for more than 20 percent of total education expenditure, but by 1980 the amount allocated for investment had fallen well below 10 percent, where it has since remained. Virtually nothing is invested in the primary education sub-sector, where reliance on community self-help projects is extensive; between 1985 and 1989 an average of only 4 percent of the amount allocated for capital expenditures in education went to primary schools.

TABLE 6.5

RECURRENT AND CAPITAL EXPENDITURE IN EDUCATION, 1970-1989

	Recurrent Exp. (K '000,000)	Capital Exp. (K '000,000)	Capital as % of Total	Primary as % of Capital
1970	208.1	54.2	20.7	15.1
1975	321.2	96.3	23.1	18.0
1980	269.5	18.7	6.5	28.5
1985	272.4	20.8	7.1	3.5
1989	151.0	12.9	7.9	1.6

* All kwacha amounts are expressed in constant 1985 values.

Source: M. J. Kelly, "The Financing and Costing of Basic Education for All"

Community and Household Support for Education

In the FNDP the GRZ has stated that "the responsibility for education of children rests primarily with the parent, and it is they who must ultimately provide the necessary resources for educational services." A variety of efforts have been made to shift a part of the cost of education to parents and communities, but the extent to which these measures have had practical effects varies decisively by level of education. At the primary level, as noted, almost total responsibility for the construction and maintenance of schools has been delegated to local authorities, and much of the cost of books and materials must be borne by households. At the secondary level some urban schools that previously boarded pupils have been reorganized as day schools, and nominal boarding fees are collected from students who reside in the remaining hostels. In post-secondary institutions nominal fees have also been introduced, but as at the secondary level these defray only a trivial portion of the real costs of tuition and student welfare.

Little has been accomplished with respect to the administrative decentralization that might accompany and encourage the assumption of financial responsibility at local levels. Primary schools are formally the responsibility of Provincial authorities, but competing priorities for resources at this level of government and the shortage of qualified personnel outside the MGEYS mean that primary schools receive a limited share of Provincial resources, and administrative control continues to be exercised in Lusaka. Communities are afforded complete discretion as to whether their schools are to be well- or ill-maintained, and households enjoy a similar freedom to decide whether or not their children should be provided with books and materials. Crucial decisions about curriculum and the employment and assignment of teachers and headmasters remain under the control of MGEYS, however.

As elsewhere in Africa, the shifting of costs and responsibilities to communities and households often works least well in unregulated squatter settlements on the urban periphery, which in Zambia house a substantial proportion of the total population. Many of these are "communities" in name only, with few of the organizational resources available to more deeply-rooted and tightly-knit rural settlements, and many of their residents are desperately poor. Under these circumstances local authorities and households are unable to assume the responsibilities that central authorities have thrust upon them, with the result that these responsibilities are not fulfilled.

The present GRZ policies aimed at increasing the participation of communities and households in financing education have been effective only at the primary level, where virtually all costs except salaries are now borne locally. At secondary and higher levels per student costs are far higher and students are in general recruited from more prosperous households, but despite commitments in the PFP and elsewhere to increased cost-recovery at these levels the GRZ continues to pay virtually the full cost of education and student maintenance.

Private Schools

At present private schools play a minimal role in the Zambian educational system. There are only 52 registered private schools at all levels, the majority of which are administered by religious organizations and large companies. There are also an undetermined number of unregistered private schools, operating "illegally," which reportedly draw their students from among those children denied places in public schools at both primary and junior secondary levels. Private primary schools enroll fewer than 10,000 students, or less than one percent of total enrollments. The role of private schools is larger at the secondary level, because of the strict limitation on the number of places in public junior secondary schools.

Private schools vary greatly both in the quality of instruction that they provide and in the fees that they charge. Among registered schools fees vary from as little as K1,000 to as much as K20,000 per term. The cost of uniforms, books, materials, transportation, and so on place nearly all of these schools beyond the means of all but the best-off households. Nothing is known about fees in unregistered schools. Instruction in such schools is presumably of relatively low quality, but the demand for places apparently remains strong.

Despite official pronouncements to the contrary in the FNDP and the PFP, GRZ policies actively discourage the establishment and growth of private schools. Those that operate within the law are required to undergo an annual inspection (for which they pay a fee), and are obliged to maintain far higher standards with respect to teacher qualifications, classroom accommodation, sanitation, and so on than are public schools. A newly-introduced policy will allow inspectors to assign a "grade" to each school, depending on the standards that it maintains. The fees that private schools are allowed to charge must be negotiated with parents, and subsequently approved on a case-by-case basis by the MGEYS. Private schools that operate without benefit of registration face large fines, and run the risk of being closed down.

In the first instance private schools are regulated by inspectors in the Provincial Education Offices, but at the end of a lengthy process the registration of each school must be approved personally by the Minister of Education. The number of officials at both provincial and national levels who enjoy authority over private schools, and the vast discretion that each exercises in determining whether or not a school should be registered, represent additional large obstacles to the expansion of the sector.

Financing Educational Improvement

The GRZ faces nearly insurmountable obstacles in its efforts to fund either expansion or improvement at any level of the educational system. The economy has been stagnant or in decline for more than a decade, and the expectation that the ERP will lead to a resumption of vigorous economic growth in the short and medium term is not assured.

Even as the economy begins to grow, however, the effort to encourage the private sector and reduce the government's role in the economy, in combination with the obligation to service an enormous external debt (now more than three times GDP), will mean that the revenues available for education and other social expenditure are strictly limited.

The prospect is darkened further by the continuing rapid increase in the numbers of school-aged children. In 1985, for example, there were about 1.5 million children between the ages of seven and fourteen, and approximately 1.35 million primary school places. By the year 2000 the population of primary school-aged children is projected to be 2.64 million. If the government's objective of universal primary education is to be achieved, therefore, the number of primary school places will have to be doubled. (GRZ simultaneous commitment to assume recurrent costs if communities upgrade existing primary schools to include Grades 8 and 9 raises the number of places that will be needed even further.) Simply maintaining present enrollment ratios in Grades 1-7 will require the provision of one million new primary school places in the next decade. Resources of this magnitude would be difficult to mobilize under the best of circumstances. In Zambia's present circumstances it may not be possible.

Past expansion in enrollments has been purchased in large part at the cost of widespread deterioration in the quality of education provided in public schools. Teachers' salaries have fallen sharply. School hours have been reduced through the institution of double and triple sessions, and the instructional time received by each pupil has been reduced by increasing class sizes. Textbooks and instructional materials have not been provided. School buildings have not been maintained, and desks and chairs have not been repaired or replaced. More children have been enrolled in school, but the amount of "education" they have received once there has steadily diminished.

GRZ commitments under the SAP to reverse this deterioration in quality are to be commended, but as in the case of the quantitative expansion discussed above the resources with which to achieve them will be very hard to come by. The difficulty is compounded by GRZ simultaneous commitments to maintain or even increase enrollment ratios, and to support communities that provide accommodation for Grades 8 and 9 in existing primary schools by paying teachers' salaries and other recurrent costs. It is uncertain whether the GRZ can achieve either its quantitative or its qualitative objectives in the coming decade. It is extremely unlikely that it can achieve both, without greatly increasing the share of public resources allocated to the education sector or imposing draconian reductions on spending for secondary and higher education. In the absence of such moves decision-makers in the education sector will face some painful choices in the next few years.

One way to generate additional resources for the education sector is to increase the share of educational costs borne by communities and households. Communities may be called upon to build, maintain, and repair local schools, and to provide housing for teachers. Households enrolling their children in public schools may be required to purchase books and materials, or to pay school fees. At higher levels of the educational

system, where the private returns to schooling are larger and where students tend to be recruited from better-off households, students may be asked to pay a larger share of the costs of the education that they receive. The establishment and expansion of private schools may be encouraged rather than discouraged.

Except for the last, Zambia has begun to experiment with each of these strategies in recent years. In primary schools virtually all classroom construction and maintenance is funded and carried out at the school level, by local PTA's. Central government expenditures for textbooks and materials in primary schools have been reduced to zero, which means that in many schools books and materials are available only if parents purchase them, or if they are provided by donors. In addition primary school parents are often required to contribute to various school funds, and to pay examination fees. These expenditures already represent a significant burden for large numbers of poor households in rural areas and on the urban periphery.

At the secondary level measures aimed at shifting the costs of education to households include the introduction of boarding fees, though the amounts collected thus far remain small relative to the boarding costs borne by government. At the university level the value of student bursaries relative to the cost of tuition has been reduced slightly, with students required to make up the difference. The real value of bursaries was expected to decline with inflation, but thus far the GRZ has made annual corrections that have left the real value constant and student contributions very small. Boarding fees have been introduced at this level as well, with the same qualification as above. Tuition fees for students not holding bursaries (i.e. students sponsored by households and companies, and non-Zambians) have been increased. A student loan scheme to take the place of government transfers is planned, but not yet in place. The GRZ is committed to use the savings realized under these measures to increase the resources available for quantitative and qualitative improvements in primary education, though these commitments have not yet been put into practice.

Given the extent of present efforts and the poverty of most Zambian households it is not clear how much scope remains for shifting educational costs to households and communities. At the primary level communities have already assumed virtually full responsibility for the construction and maintenance of school buildings. In communities with sufficient financial and organizational resources this responsibility has been accepted and fulfilled, but in others lacking these resources (notably those on the urban periphery) the effort to shift costs and responsibilities has led to the virtual abandonment of the schools to vandals and decay. While the elasticity of demand for education among households is apparently very low, further increases in fees may nevertheless begin to cause significant numbers of children from poor households to leave school. There is undoubted scope for increased cost recovery in secondary and higher education, but whether the quantity of resources produced by GRZ initiatives in these areas will grow beyond the nominal amounts now collected depends on policy decisions that have not yet been taken. The deregulation of the private sector would relieve some of the pressure

for places in urban public schools, but in absolute terms the reduction in costs that this will allow is likely to be relatively small, and especially so at the primary level.

A second potential source of additional resources for the education sector is foreign assistance. Donors including FINNIDA and SIDA have in recent years assumed a large and growing share of responsibility for important aspects of the primary education sector, including the production of textbooks and materials and the in-service training of teachers and administrators. In the short run such assistance helps to fill urgent gaps in the provision of education: if books were not being provided by foreign donors through the ZEMP, for example, many if not most primary school children would simply be without books. In the longer term, however, the crucial question is whether the activities financed by foreign assistance can be assumed and sustained by the GRZ after the foreign donors depart. There is some doubt as to whether this is now the case in Zambia. If foreign assistance is not successful in building local capacity to sustain the activities that it supports, however, it only postpones an inevitable confrontation with fiscal and demographic realities, or else fosters a lasting dependency, or both.

The long decline in the Zambian economy and the economic difficulties to be faced in the coming decade mean that the GRZ is unlikely to be able to allocate large quantities of new public resources to the educational system, and the quantity of additional private resources available to the system may prove to be quite limited. Foreign assistance will continue to provide funds to address some of the most pressing problems in the sector, but otherwise the resources available are unlikely to increase much in the near future. It is therefore clear that if enrollments are to be expanded to accommodate some of the million or more additional children who will demand places in the next few years, and if the quality of instruction provided in the schools is to be maintained or improved, better use will have to be made of present resources. Several possible strategies for achieving this end (e.g. more efficient allocation of personnel, alternative instructional delivery systems, more appropriate construction standards, deregulation of private schools) are discussed in the final chapter of this report.

Though there is a great deal to be done to restore the Zambian educational system to the high levels of coverage and quality that it once attained, the capacity of the system to absorb large quantities of new resources appears at present to be very low. The GRZ has been reluctant to address the educational policy choices that they face, and they have consequently been slow to set priorities or to act on them. The effectiveness of the Planning Unit in MGEYS is hindered by a shortage of appropriately trained personnel, by the absence of planning officers at regional and district levels, and by a lack of coordination between the Unit and other agencies involved in administering and funding the educational system. As a result the present capacity of the GRZ to make effective use of new resources is strictly limited. Strengthening this capacity is another way in which donor support could make a lasting contribution to the Zambian educational system, as is discussed in the final chapter of this report.

CHAPTER 7

DONOR SUPPORT FOR EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

Overview and Trends in Support

Zambia has increasingly relied on external aid received in the form of loans, grants, commodities and equipment and technical assistance. The aid dependency ratio (aid as a percentage of GDP) rose from 10.2% in 1977 to 24.9% in 1985. The amount of donor cooperation and technical assistance to education during the period from 1980-1990 averaged US\$14.5 million per year. In recent years, this contribution represented an increasing percentage of total education spending (up from 11.4% in 1980-84 to 16.5% in 1985-89), due to the decrease in local expenditure (Kelly, 1991).

In the past, almost all aid to the education sector was in the form of technical assistance, primarily personnel for the university, teacher training colleges, technical institutions and secondary schools. Important exceptions were the World Bank loans which provided capital assistance totaling US\$83 million beginning in 1969. As more aid became available, expenditures for equipment and materials grew, but the major recipients continued to be the university and secondary schools. Recently, however, donor interest and investment in primary education has started to increase. Precise figures are not available for earlier years, but in 1989 donor support for non-formal education totaled 8.2% of spending for human resources development or US\$2.67 million (UNDP 1989 Report).

Aid to education has responded to the growth and development of the Zambian education system since independence, and to changes in the economic situation. The number of donors involved and the diverse forms of assistance provided have made the administration and coordination of aid to education increasingly complex. The decline in local resources which made the government more dependent on external aid, also made it more difficult for the sector to establish its own priorities. Plans tend to be developed in accordance with donor interests and aid is rarely refused due to lack of correspondence with national objectives. This is not unlike the situation described in Chapter 6 of local NGOs who are dependent on donor support.

Description of Current Involvement

The formal education sector in Zambia is currently being supported by a number of bilateral and multilateral donors. Although many of these donors have been tentative in their commitments, following the 1987 government decision to suspend the IMF restructuring program, others have remained active in the sector. Substantial donor support has also been forthcoming for the Social Action Program (SAP), which includes education among six areas of emphasis. In addition, churches and other non-govern-

mental organizations make important contributions to both formal and non-formal education, although their aid is not as well- documented.

Figure 7.1 presents the major donors in basic education (literacy, primary schools, materials, teacher training) by area of involvement, and is followed by brief narrative summaries:

FIGURE 7.1

DONOR AGENCIES INVOLVEMENT IN BASIC EDUCATION PROVISION

	Primary Schools	Teacher Training	Literacy
Schools	ADB	ADB	
Construction & Maintenance	EC FINNIDA SIDA	SIDA	
Equipment	FINNIDA SIDA UNESCO	ADB FINNIDA SIDA	
Learning Materials	FINNIDA ODA SIDA	ADB FINNIDA SIDA	UNICEF UNESCO NORAD DVV AFRICARE
Teacher Training	CIDA FINNIDA SIDA	ADB FINNIDA SIDA	

Source: Adapted by Kelly, 1991 from Supporting Zambia's Education Sector Under Structural Adjustment, Trevor Coombe, et al, March 1990, FINNIDA.

ODA/British Council

In financial terms, the education sector receives the greatest amount of assistance from ODA and British Council. A large part of this aid is administered by the British Council on behalf of ODA, but the Council also has funds and acts as a contractor for other agencies. A large component of British support is in the form of supplements to the salaries of expatriate teachers in secondary schools and in higher education, particularly in English, science and mathematics, subjects in which they are also developing secondary school resource centers.

Training, which consists of scholarships for study in the UK and local training courses, is the second major emphasis of ODA support. Books and equipment have also been presented to a variety of institutions, but this assistance is shifting to development and production of materials in collaboration with ZEMP.

ODA/British Council are reported to be concluding their contracts with expatriate teachers at the end of this year, and are in the process of studies and negotiations to determine future program directions.

SIDA

Prior to 1980 SIDA supported components in the education sector, but since then has provided sector-wide support. Their aid program is now the second largest program in financial terms, as well as the most comprehensive among bilateral donors. SIDA serves as the Lead Agency on the SAP Education Task Force. Sweden has supported staff development and training in educational planning at the national, regional and district levels; in special education and technical and vocational education. They have conducted in-service training for primary school teachers through the Self-Help Action Plan for Education (SHAPE) program, which emphasizes local initiatives in school-based maintenance and production. SIDA has supported the provision of materials at the primary school level (texts, teachers' guides and exercise books) through ZEMP, and equipment such as school desks. They also helped to design and introduce techniques for more effective utilization of available classrooms, i.e. multi-grade teaching and "tight-timetabling" or the "block" method. The School of Engineering (UNZA) has received training, technical assistance and equipment in the areas of electronics and telecommunications. Although historically SIDA has provided non-project assistance, the diminishing government capacity to use this effectively has led them to consider project funding. Their current annual level of support is 40 million Swedish Kroner (US\$6,450,000).

FINNIDA

Although FINNIDA is active in five sectors, education has been the main sector in their country program since the early 1970's. A fifteen year Practical Subjects Project (PSP) to introduce the teaching of industrial arts into upper primary school and teacher training was phased out in 1990. Overall, the evaluation team found both quantitative and qualitative achievements of the project disappointing, but anticipated that the SHAPE program may build on some of the activities of PSP.

FINNIDA initiated the Zambia Educational Materials Project (ZEMP) in 1984, and this continues to be a key component of their support. In addition, their sector support program for 1991-94 includes projects to support educational research, the upgrading of colleges and buildings, and studies related to new materials orientation, public libraries, the correspondence college and materials, policy analysis and planning for the national

literacy campaign. FINNIDA currently serves as the Deputy Lead Agency in the SAP Education Task Force.

NORAD

In cooperation with the GRZ, NORAD established the Zambia Education Projects Implementation Unit (ZEPIU) more than 20 years ago, and continues to provide technical and financial support to this unit, including co-financing with the World Bank. This unit is responsible for coordinating school expansion, rehabilitation and preventive maintenance. NORAD assistance has had an impact on primary schools through improved rural water supplies and financial support to the SHAPE Program. The Norwegians have also cooperated in the production of primary school textbooks (through ZEMP) and assisted with special education for the mentally handicapped. Their support for non-formal education includes rehabilitation of three Schools for Continuing Education and aid for the adult literacy program.

CIDA

As part of a larger Human Resources Development Project, CIDA supports both pre-service and in-service teacher training in primary science, mathematics and the health aspects of home economics and staff development for technical and vocational education.

JICA

Japan has recently become a major donor in education, with the construction and support (staff, equipment and training) of the School of Veterinary Medicine (UNZA). JICA is currently supporting construction of junior secondary schools, improvements in training for auto mechanics and electronics through the Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training (DTEVT), and the School of Medicine (UNZA).

EC

The European Community has supported the upgrading of junior secondary science and mathematics teachers through the ZAMSTEP Project, which was implemented by the British Council under a contract. Both formal and non-formal education benefitted from EC support of a microprojects fund, which funded local initiatives from communities and NGOs, including the construction of primary schools. The EC has also assisted the Copperbelt University in business, industrial studies and accountancy.

UNICEF

UNICEF's 1991-1995 Zambia Country Program consists of two main components to support the concept of basic education for all. Learning Achievement focuses on primary school aged children with activities in curriculum revision and teacher in-service; materials development and production, including an EFA magazine; and promoting

school-community linkages. Learning Opportunities targets functional literacy for women and girls through a revised literacy curriculum, development and production of materials and radio spots, training for non-formal education instructors and enhancing the capacity of the MLSDC. UNICEF provided support for the recent review of adult literacy in Zambia.

UNDP/UNESCO

UNDP/UNESCO are supporting in-service training at the National In-Service Training College (NISTCOL) to up-grade non-graduate primary teachers, especially in science and mathematics. The project, which continues through 1992, will also develop low cost science and mathematics equipment and establish resource centers in these two subjects. UNDP has funded non-formal education through the SELP Project for Youth Enterprise, which is executed by the International Labor Organization (ILO). The Copperbelt University has also received technical assistance from UNDP.

ADB/ADF

The African Development Bank is involved in the construction of 700 primary classrooms, houses for 300 primary school teachers (with community self-help) and rehabilitation of NISTCOL and two senior secondary technical schools. They are also working to improve the capacity of MGEYS to build and maintain primary school facilities.

Opportunities for Collaboration and Support

Following are a few examples of donor cooperation and coordination within the education sector. Such collaboration, can lead to more efficient and effective use of resources, and should be facilitated by the GRZ and supported by the donors.

Educational materials have received support from FINNIDA, SIDA and NORAD. In 1989, the Zambia Educational Materials Cooperation Committee was established to facilitate the production and distribution of textbooks, teachers' handbooks, exercise books, etc.

The SHAPE Program has also been supported by both SIDA and FINNIDA, and has worked with ZEMP in the distribution of educational materials.

School construction, maintenance and rehabilitation have also received the attention of a number of donors, including the World Bank, NORAD, SIDA, FINNIDA, JICA, ADB, EC and OPEC.

The Microprojects Unit set up by the EC is now receiving funding through the Social Recovery Project of the World Bank.

UNICEF has collaborated with both MOH and MGEYS in the Child-to-Child health education program.

WHO, MOH and MLSDC have been involved in "Promoting Health Through Women's Functional Literacy and Intersectoral Action."

Despite the efforts of FINNIDA, SIDA, the British Council and UNDP, educational materials continue to be needed in primary schools and for primary teacher training. There is opportunity for coordinating support with these donors and for strengthening local materials production capacity. Although SIDA has been providing assistance to the planning unit in education, more assistance will be required to build a capacity for research and information management that will enable to government to formulate sound educational policy and negotiate effectively with donors.

The need for and problems existing in coordination among NGOs and between NGOs and the GRZ were discussed in Chapter 6. However, it will be important to coordinate NGO efforts and share their experience with other donors in the sector.

CHAPTER 8

OPTIONS FOR ASSISTANCE TO BASIC AND NON-FORMAL EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

The Context of Foreign Assistance

The fundamental problem in the Zambian educational system may be summarized very simply: the number of children to be educated is rising fast, while the quantity of resources available to educate them is falling even faster. (See Figure 1.1.) Neither of these trends will be reversed soon. The deterioration of the system that began with Zambia's economic decline in the mid-1970s has accelerated since 1985, and may accelerate further. The educational system as it is now organized can no longer be sustained.

The prospects for the Zambian educational system are by any reckoning bleak and unattractive, and the case for foreign assistance to the sector is consequently strong. There is some doubt as to whether the GRZ has yet recognized the nature of the problem they face, however, or acknowledged the severity of the crisis that looms in the schools. Until the government comes to terms with how bad the situation has become, however, conditions within the schools are only likely to grow worse.

This poses a dilemma for USAID and other potential donors to the sector. On the one hand, the immediate needs of the educational system are vast and expanding, and the suffering of children excluded from the system or attending schools that are on the verge of collapse is very real. On the other hand, however, in the absence of policy changes by the GRZ, foreign assistance to the sector can at best postpone a confrontation with the demographic and economic trends that are undermining the system, plastering over gaps in the masonry until the walls fall down. The provision of this kind of emergency assistance may be warranted on macroeconomic or humanitarian grounds, but it will do little to put the educational system on a sustainable footing.

Present and future resource constraints will require the GRZ to make some difficult policy choices if the deterioration of the Zambian educational system is to be reversed. The analytical groundwork for these choices is now being laid by the Education Reform Commission, but this is only a beginning. The long-term development of the education system will require the government to define priorities and devise policies capable of achieving them with available resources. In the absence of a sustainable sectoral development strategy, however, the identification of appropriate objectives for USAID or other donor assistance remains deeply problematic.

Under these circumstances the effectiveness of almost any intervention by USAID depends upon prior policy dialogue with the GRZ, to ensure that resources are not misdirected or simply wasted. Projects aimed at a more efficient use of available

resources, for example, will be of value only if the government is previously committed to make use of the instruments and strategies that are developed. Efforts to strengthen planning capacity within the MGEYS will only contribute to the long-term development of the sector if planning and budgeting functions are integrated and the Planning Unit is fully incorporated into the sectoral decision-making process. Even assistance to private schools requires commitments from the GRZ to encourage rather than discourage the growth of the private sector.

The imminence of elections may provide a strategic opening for USAID and other donor intervention in the education sector. A new government with a popular mandate may be prepared to address some of the educational policy issues that have been avoided in the recent past, and to enact the policy changes necessary to renewed growth in enrollments and improvement in instructional quality. USAID should be prepared to respond in the event that appropriate policy initiatives are forthcoming from the GRZ after October 1991.

A second potential obstacle to effective intervention in the education sector is posed by the low absorptive capacity of the Zambian economy. Present efforts by other donors to produce books and instructional materials face serious bottlenecks in the local printing industry, and even with books printed or purchased abroad there are difficulties in ensuring distribution to schools and classrooms. It remains to be demonstrated that the local construction industry has the capacity to construct the 5000 new classrooms foreseen in the GRZ Public Investment Program, even on a self-help basis. Even assistance that is relatively independent of policy change must therefore be carefully calibrated to the capacities of the economy, in order to avoid the waste of resources.

On the positive side, Zambia is fortunate in the extensive and growing communication and cooperation that has emerged among donors in the education sector. Such cooperation can greatly facilitate policy dialogue with the GRZ target resources to the areas of greatest urgency, and avoid duplication of effort. Should USAID decide to provide assistance to the education sector close cooperation with other donors including SIDA, FINNIDA, and the World Bank would be essential to its effectiveness.

In the remainder of this chapter we present a variety of options for USAID assistance to basic and non-formal education in Zambia. The principal focus of the first three alternatives that we present is the development and strengthening of institutions outside of and complementary to the formal public school system, in order to reduce the strain on public resources and expand access to educational opportunities for children who would otherwise be excluded from school. These interventions would also advance equity and could--if successful in establishing non-traditional modes of instructional delivery--lead to improvements in quality as well, both outside and inside the formal system. The fourth option aims primarily at increasing the efficiency with which resources are used within the formal school system, while the fifth is directed toward enhancing gender equity.

Each of these alternatives is subject to a greater or lesser extent to the cautions noted above. The success of USAID intervention in any part of the education sector will therefore depend on close cooperation with other donors, on continuing policy dialogue with the GRZ, and on USAID's readiness to fit the timing and scale of assistance to changes in economic and policy environments.

A. Programmed Learning/Programmed Teaching

Purpose: To support the development and implementation of a low cost and effective non-traditional instructional system that focuses on the delivery of quality education and student mastery of literacy and numeric skills to students not enrolled in traditional primary schools.

Problem: Reductions in funding in the past five years have been proportionately larger in primary schools than elsewhere in the educational system. One result is that the enrollment rate in Grades 1 to 7 has fallen from 97.7 percent in 1985 to 88.5 percent in 1990. Enrollment rates remain high in rural areas, but in the main urban centers fewer than two-thirds of the eligible children are able to find places. The numbers of excluded children continue to increase despite the fact that many urban schools operate three and even four sessions daily, with average class sizes of seventy or more students for each teacher. Physical and human resources are now being exploited to and beyond their limits, and further declines in enrollment rates are inevitable.

Growth in enrollments has to date been purchased primarily at the cost of deterioration in instructional quality. Teachers' workload has been steadily increased while their salaries have been as steadily reduced. Central government has spent nothing on books and instructional materials since 1986, though some funds for these purposes continue to be available at provincial and school levels. School buildings and school furniture are in use for up to 16 hours a day, with 70 or more children packed into classrooms designed for 40 and four students seated at desks designed for two. Many schools lack furniture altogether, and students are seated on the floor.

Such learning as now takes place depends almost entirely on the talent and dedication of teachers, but this too is a nearly exhausted resource. Low salaries and excessive burdens have led to widespread demoralization, and resulted in a lengthy strike in 1990. Teachers are obliged to "moonlight" to make ends meet: many engage in petty commerce on school grounds, while others teach private tutorials in exchange for fees. A growing number are migrating to countries south of the Zambezi in search of better conditions.

In the past increased access could be achieved at the cost of reduced quality, but this is no longer possible. Access and quality are both declining fast, and appear set to decline further as the numbers of school-aged children continue to rise. Even maintaining present low levels of enrollment and instructional quality in the coming decade will be a

monumental task, one that is almost certainly impossible without radical changes in the organization and operation of the educational system. In the absence of such changes the system is in danger of complete collapse.

Zambia does not have the resources to operate a traditional primary school system for all students. A non-traditional system of education for students excluded from the formal system may be a viable and sustainable complement to traditional schools if external support is available to assist with the development and initial implementation of the system.

Approach: The transformation of any system is a task of immense proportions. The project suggested here would not replace the existing school system with another one. Instead the project would develop and pilot a non-traditional instructional system, targeted during the life of the project at urban children who are now denied access to the traditional system. Targeting the project to children who would otherwise not attend school at all may serve to overcome much of the political and institutional resistance that non-traditional systems often encounter.

The vast majority of Zambian children denied access to primary education live in squatter settlements on the periphery of the three main urban centers. Targeting the project to this population should reduce logistical problems (e.g. with transport or radio reception) to a minimum.

Project design would be based on introducing one grade each year until the full seven years of instruction have been implemented. This would allow community organizations and/or NGOs to secure classroom space year by year, making use of churches or other existing structures. The addition of one grade each year also simplifies the preparation of teachers by allowing the training to focus entirely on objectives, lessons, materials, and skills for only one grade at a time.

Programmed Learning/Programmed Teaching is cost effective because it allows very high pupil/teacher ratios, reduced expenditures for educational materials and furniture, reduced teacher training costs, and maximum use of the inspectorate and other existing and under-exploited resources within the educational system. If classes can be held in structures provided by churches and/or NGOs capital costs are also minimal.

Zambia has in place much of the organizational and professional infrastructure to develop a non-traditional system, including the Curriculum Development Center (CDC), the Educational Broadcasting Service (ZEBS), the Inspectorate, and the Zambia Educational Materials Project (ZEMP). These resources can be mobilized to assist in the development of a non-traditional system by providing additional resources to them.

Present CDC staff could be utilized to prepare the programmed learning/programmed teaching materials if they were given some initial orientation and training about the unique features of the new system. The ZEMP structure could be utilized for printing

and distributing new materials. The urban location of the project greatly simplifies the distribution process. Similarly, supervision and support can be built in by relying on existing inspectors. Transportation for supervisors will not be a serious problem because of the urban location of the project. Low cost motorbikes would be sufficient.

Training for those who will staff the non-traditional system can be provided at low cost over a period of 4-6 months. Short initial training can be supplemented by annual upgrading workshops to be held during the school vacation. Continuous growth and development of teaching skills can also occur as a consequence of regular visits from inspectors. Sustained and direct instructional assistance of this type can have a powerful impact on the professional growth of individual teachers.

Advantage can be taken of the capabilities of the CDC and the ZEBS to augment the initial training and the assistance given by the inspectors, by broadcasting radio programs aimed at the teachers. These programs can help teachers internalize skills and insights which immediately improve performance. In addition, a series of radio programs can be designed to help the head teacher/headmaster understand and organize the new approach.

At the lower primary level the pupil/teacher ratio can be very large because of the use of split instruction within each classroom. This means that the teacher divides the class into two groups. While presenting a lesson to one group the other group will be using the programmed worksheet/workbook exercises that follow up the lesson just received. The teacher rotates between these two groups all day, presenting each subject lesson twice. This practice allows children working on follow-up exercises to listen in, if needed, to review the lesson. This provides immediate reinforcement for the student. This instructional process is called programmed teaching because the teacher directs learning using programmed lessons and monitors student responses to programmed exercises and exams. Creativity from the teacher is not required, but experience has shown that once a teacher masters the programmed learning system s/he begins to devise creative ways of reinforcing the objectives and techniques contained in daily lessons.

Furniture requirements are minimal. Half of the students at any given time will be in direct instruction, which requires only benches or planks resting on blocks. The other half of the class will need a writing surface. Typically, this is a small lap board, painted black, that the child can use whether seated on a chair or on the floor. The lap board can hold exercise paper for writing or the pupil can use chalk when practicing rote exercises.

At the upper primary level, the emphasis shifts to programmed learning. Here a teacher becomes a monitor/facilitator who only occasionally presents information. Instead the 150 or more students are placed in small learning groups of five or six pupils in which they use programmed learning materials written at their reading level in each subject. The process of learning is driven by the materials as monitored by the teacher. The teacher organizes the learning groups, prescribes the materials for each group, monitors

the learning activity of each group, and records individual student progress as the various exercises and exams are completed. Students not mastering a concept or procedure can be given complementary materials and/or direct instruction by the teacher. Learning groups are provided a large square board, painted black, for use while performing as a group. The students face each other in a small circle and place the large board on their knees (if sitting on chairs) for common use as a writing space. When the programmed materials ask for written responses students can use the chalk to respond. Each group has a student leader who is given the answer key for that particular lesson and who facilitates the lesson. This task rotates among the members of the group for each daily subject.

In both programmed teaching (lower primary) and programmed learning (upper primary) the learning materials are organized and stored in a lockable wooden box. Each classroom has its own box of instructional materials that contain all the items needed for both the teacher and the pupils for one semester in all subjects. For that reason the accumulation of instructional materials for each classroom is often called a "semester box".

Programmed teaching/programmed learning integrates continuous assessment into the instructional process with reviews and exams given at the conclusion of several lessons in a given subject. These unit exams provide immediate feedback to the teacher about what was learned and provide the basis for returning pupils to a concept or procedure, using complementary materials, until the item is mastered. At the end of each 10 week period, exams are given covering all the material learned in each subject. Again, the purpose is to diagnose and provide remediation for lack of mastery. Time in the daily timetable can be made available for review and mastery for individual students needing this assistance. Typically, this is during the last 30-45 minutes of the school day, allowing students demonstrating mastery to depart.

Policy Issue: Developing a non-traditional delivery system parallel and complementary to the traditional system will require making changes in the operation of many on-going functions within the Ministry of General Education, Youth and Sports. These changes will require the full support of the Ministry leadership as expressed by modification in policies and operating procedures governing the Inspectorate, CDC, ZEBS, and ZEMP.

Nature of Inputs: Existing operational units within the Ministry will need inputs that provide an orientation to the new system and training in specific skills to carry out new and/or revised tasks. In each case the input builds upon a known capacity and is directed at expanding that capacity to fit the unique skills required for developing and piloting a non-traditional approach. Short term and long term technical assistance is available from other African countries currently using programmed learning/ programmed teaching. Mobility for the inspectorate would require the provision of motorbikes. The CDC and ZEBS will require some electronic equipment to upgrade and expand current program development and broadcasting capacity. Funds will be needed for the production of programmed materials and the construction of semester boxes and lap boards. During

the planning stage a representative group of educators, MGEYS officials and parents need to get direct exposure to programmed learning/programmed teaching by visiting a country successfully implementing the concept. A project manager, perhaps from the University of Zambia, would be needed to plan and coordinate the project as well as liaise with the various units of the Ministry.

Timeframe for Measurable Impact: Development of specific lesson objectives and writing of lessons, exams and supplementary materials for the first grade will be completed at the end of the first year. Identification of persons to be trained as teachers and their initial training can be completed at the same time. Identified urban community (neighborhood) groups and/or NGOs can simultaneously mobilize classroom space and necessary furniture. Developing a grade per year will require 7 years to develop and test the entire system. Impacts will be measurable one year after the introduction of each grade as measured by the numbers of pupils served and the level of mastery of the specified learning objectives. Measuring the impact of the entire system will require at least 8 years.

Case for USAID involvement: A non-traditional system is the only affordable approach for the provision of quality primary education in Zambia. The goal of providing universal primary education in traditional primary schools is clearly out of reach. To provide every child with quality primary education, a low cost and effective non-traditional delivery system must be developed that focuses on the mastery of literacy and numeracy skills. This objective is consistent with the AID's strategy and objectives for basic education.

B. Strengthening Non-formal Education

Given the rapid deterioration in access and quality that has occurred in the formal education sector over the past few years, and the increasing numbers of children who will be excluded from traditional schools in the future, alternative ways of delivering educational services are an urgent priority in Zambia. This can be done either through non-traditional "schools," as above, or through non-formal education.

Three options are proposed to improve the coordination and delivery of NFE programs, thereby increasing educational opportunities for out-of-school youth and adults. USAID should assist the GRZ in establishing a center or clearinghouse for NFE, to coordinate information and activities and provide professional support and training. At the same time the capacity of NGOs to deliver NFE should be expanded by supporting and strengthening NGOs and promoting the participation of private businesses in the provision of NFE opportunities.

Non-Formal Education Clearinghouse

Purpose: To establish a focal point in government for gathering, maintaining and disseminating information about NFE, particularly in Zambia; and to develop the capacity for professional leadership for materials development and NFE methods, and for support and coordination of on-going activities in NFE.

Problem: To date, NFE in Zambia is the sum of a number of discrete programs and activities, generally implemented independently by various government ministries and NGOs without unified planning and coordination. While this flexibility and diversity is a strength, coordination among ministries, between NGOs and between government and NGOs is currently inadequate. Some of the educational materials in use at present have been criticized for lack of relevance and properly sequenced learning activities. Many instructors rely too heavily on face-to-face teaching methods, and others lack appropriate adult education techniques.

Approach: Work with the GRZ to establish a Center for Non-formal Education, to gather information and resources, and to recruit and train staff to operate the center. In order to establish the need for and utility of such a center, policy makers and program staff should undertake a study tour to other NFE centers in the region. Training should be tailored to the qualifications and needs of the staff assigned to the center.

Policy Issue: This option requires the GRZ to identify a suitable location for the center, probably MLSDC or MGEYS, and to establish staff positions. Under present economic conditions, creating new posts will be extremely difficult, but it may also be possible to modify or sacrifice existing positions. It requires increased recognition of the importance of NFE and resource commitment that has not been evident in the past.

Nature of Inputs: Depending on staff training needs, long-term training, short-term training or on-the-job training may be implemented. Short term technical assistance will be required, and one long-term technical advisor. Commodities and equipment for office furnishing, appropriate storage of information and materials, design of materials and training in NFE methods would have to be provided. To facilitate information gathering and coordination efforts, transport will also be required.

Timeframe: Once the GRZ identifies the location and staff, it should be possible to have the center operational within one to two years, depending on the number of staff assigned to it and the amount of training required. Impact will be demonstrated by the establishment of the center, by the use that non-formal educators make of it, and by how effectively it is able to facilitate planning and coordination of NFE activities.

Case for USAID Involvement: USAID has experience in working with NGOs under the ZAMS project and in some of its health/population/AIDS activities, and mission strategy aims at strengthening private and NGO participation in several sectors. The usefulness of such a clearinghouse has been recognized by many donors, but none has stepped forward to establish one.

NGO Support and Strengthening

Purpose: To assist non-governmental organizations to strengthen administrative and management capabilities and develop income-generating capacity.

Problem: This option is intended to address several separate but related problems which seem to be common to NGOs operating in Zambia. First, inadequate funding to meet recurrent costs makes it difficult to retain qualified staff and to devote sufficient resources to administration. Many NGOs depend in large part on funding from outside donors, who are generally more interested in funding projects than in assisting with recurrent costs. Since NGOs usually target the poorest and most disadvantaged groups, their clients are least able to pay for the services they receive. The lack of funding for overhead and recurrent costs forces many NGOs to operate with minimal administrative capacity, and lack of administrative and business skills further reduces the effectiveness of NGO management. Dependence on external resources means that substantial effort goes into the pursuit of continuing or additional support, and can even distract the organization from its primary purpose and goals.

Approach: USAID may wish to select NGOs operating in areas of current interest, e.g. AIDS education, agriculture and small business, or select from a broader range of NGOs who might indicate interest in this type of assistance. The former can enhance the program implementation capacity in areas of USAID interest, and both have the advantage of leaving increased local capacity in indigenous NGOs.

One of the keys to stability and organizational development for NGOs is the availability of a guaranteed source of regular income. International NGOs and those affiliated with international support groups are sometimes better off than local NGOs in this regard. To address this need, assistance should be used to identify and develop means of income-generation which will enable the organization to meet recurrent expenses. For example, the YWCA recently built apartments which they are able to rent. Three women's groups are preparing a proposal to develop a center with secretarial and training facilities, both for their own use and rental to other organizations.

Concurrent with the establishment of a regular source of income, training should be provided in the management of these resources, and solicitation of project support consistent with organizational goals and objectives. Instead of concentrating simply on proposal writing, training should enable NGOs to present their organizational priorities, plans and areas of expertise in such a way that they are able to attract donor funding to enable them to implement their programs.

Policy Issue: The GRZ increasingly recognizes and appreciates the contributions of NGOs, especially in light of declining government resources and expenditures in education. However, there is currently no focal point for NFE in the government, nor any representative coordinating body for NGOs. The government should be encouraged to establish such a unit, and to promote increased NGO coordination.

Nature of Inputs: The nature of inputs will depend on the specific needs of the organizations assisted, and the income-generating projects identified. However, short and long term technical assistance, training and office equipment would likely be needed to strengthen management capacity.

Timeframe: This is an area in which it should be possible to see impact on the NGO in as little as two years, depending on the commitment and particular situation of the organization. The establishment of an income-generating capacity and success in managing those resources, as well as success in attracting donor funding will be measures of impact. However, it will be important to consider the process nature of organizational change and the limitations of NGOs when designing assistance.

USAID Capability: USAID Zambia has experience in support of NGOs under the ZAMS Project. The Agency here has also worked to develop management capabilities under the HIRD Project, through work with the cooperative movement and in activities focused on AIDS and population education. This experience should enable them to make a meaningful contribution to the delivery of NFE through NGOs.

Promoting Private Participation in NFE

Purpose: To encourage and support the involvement of the private sector in NFE, with special emphasis on out-of-school youth.

Problem: Although some mining companies and parastatal organizations are reported to have been involved in NFE, their participation is apparently not extensive. Other businesses and industries should be made aware of the role which NFE can play in improving the skills and productivity of their employees. The need for employment-related training opportunities is especially critical for those youth who are forced, by limited access at the secondary level, to terminate their education at primary school. These youth are at risk of losing the literacy and numeracy skills they have gained, and are equipped with no marketable skills.

Business should also be made aware of its responsibility to the community in which it operates and from which its employees are recruited. The link between community nutrition and sanitation and the health and productivity of workers should be clarified to stimulate business involvement in this area.

Approach: USAID should support small scale experiments to determine the feasibility and potential for business to contribute to NFE through skills training and community development. The sector assessment in this area may provide useful background information and insights. Proposals should be solicited from interested businesses who could benefit from assistance in the form of matching grants or start-up funds. Skills training might be provided in the context of community education and improvement, such as providing skills training through the construction of improved sanitation facilities or improvement of school buildings and furnishings. Wherever possible, the emphasis should be on recruiting of out-of-school youth and equipping them with employment skills.

Nature of Inputs: Funds should be made available, both in local and foreign currency. Since this represents a new concept and area of activity for most businesses, an awareness campaign would need to be conducted to inform them of the availability and intent of the assistance. Additional technical advice might also be required to facilitate the development of acceptable proposals. Depending on the design and content of the proposals, additional inputs of short term technical advice in training design and implementation, materials development and equipment could be utilized.

Timeframe: The timeframe will depend to a great extent on the success of the awareness campaign, and the receptivity and interest of local businesses. Initial impact could be measured in the first year by the amount of interest generated and the number of proposals received. However, to design and implement NFE programs and see measurable impact would require at least three to five years.

Case for USAID Involvement: USAID has sought to strengthen the participation of the private sector in a variety of areas, and this effort is consistent with that larger strategy. Encouraging private sector provision of NFE also fits well with the effort to encourage the expansion of private schooling proposed below.

C. Management Reform

Purpose: To improve the planning and management capacity of the MGEYS and the communication with and coordination of those involved in the education sector.

Problem: Increasing access and improving quality in the educational system depend in part on the government's capacity to plan, supervise, and manage the education sector. That capacity is at present very limited, which severely constrains GRZ ability to respond to the crisis that is unfolding in the schools.

Administrative structures are strictly hierarchical, and power within the educational system is highly centralized. Because of lack of transport and other resources, however, inspectors and other administrators at central and provincial levels are only rarely able to leave their desks, and officials at local and especially school levels are in fact left largely

to their own devices. Officials in Lusaka lack the information they need to manage the system or plan for the future, while officials at lower levels fail to receive the direction and support they need from the center. Despite the presence of an impressive number of competent and dedicated people doing the best they can in jobs at all levels, the "system" barely functions.

The capacity of the Planning Unit within MGEYS has been on a steady decline since the late seventies. A decade-long effort by SIDA to strengthen the Unit was discontinued in 1990 in part because of GRZ failure to provide staff or resources necessary to the planning function. At present the Unit is not equipped to conduct economic or financial analyses, and data collection and analysis are slow and haphazard. The most recent published data on the educational system are from 1984. Much energy is expended in a futile effort to control local construction of schools and classrooms, while crucial issues of instructional quality are neglected. Impressive analyses of the education sector and its problems produced outside of the MGEYS appear to have little impact on planning or decision-making within the Ministry.

Budgeting and planning within MGEYS are separate and unrelated activities. Given the virtual absence of funds for anything other than salaries and transfers this may not be surprising. More surprising is the lack of planning and budgetary control with respect to donor contributions, which account for nearly all discretionary resources in the education sector. Lack of planning and coordination of donor activities may limit the impact of foreign assistance to the education system.

Communities and households now pay almost all of the costs of maintaining school buildings and providing books and instructional materials, but decisions about the recruitment and deployment of teachers and headmasters and about curriculum design continue to be made centrally. Many communities have accepted this attempt to share burdens without sharing power, but elsewhere it has undermined efforts to persuade communities to assume responsibility for their schools, and contributed to a perception of the schools as "government" institutions, foreign to the community and open to the depredations of vandals.

Several donors have expressed interest in strengthening planning and budgeting capacity within MGEYS, but such efforts will meet with limited success unless and until the GRZ commits the staff and resources necessary to support the Planning Unit and takes steps to integrate the Unit into the decision-making process within the sector.

Management Information System for Personnel Records, School Enrollment Data and other Data and Analyses on the Education Sector

It is widely believed that there may be significant wastage of resources related to teaching because of the lack of information on the numbers of teachers who are actually teaching and correctly receiving salaries. Several entities are involved in some way or the other with teachers. MHEST has responsibility for the pre-service and in-service training of

teachers. MGEYS is responsible for the deployment of teachers, classroom construction, and programs such as SHAPE that provide support for primary teachers. The Personnel Office and the MOF are involved in the payment of teacher salaries and allowances. At present there is no single agency in the system that maintains accurate and easily accessible information on teachers. In addition to the waste of GRZ resources attributable to outdated or inaccurate records, the costs of this confusion include lost time and decreased morale among teachers seeking information regarding pay, promotions, and allowances.

The Commonwealth Secretariat recently developed a series of workshops aimed at assisting several countries in southern Africa to develop and maintain an effective personnel record-keeping system. Zambia was the one country that did not implement the system.

Enrollment data are collected but there is a serious lag in the compilation, publication, and dissemination of the data. Comprehensive data and analysis are also generated by external sources such as the University of Zambia, donors and joint GRZ/donor groups. The reports that are produced are not catalogued and kept in one place, nor are they actively promoted as valuable sources of information for policy- and decision-makers. The Planning Unit has two computers but no current capacity to use them for data entering and analysis.

Policy Issue: The MGEYS must first revive the personnel system proposal developed in conjunction with the Commonwealth Secretariat and re-evaluate its usefulness and readiness for implementation in Zambia. A commitment must be made by the government to implement the system. It is essential with the development of any MIS system that staff be available and responsible for the development and maintenance of the system. The Planning Unit should be responsible for the MIS, and should be appropriately staffed and supported.

Program: Once the commitment has been made by the government, USAID could proceed to work with the MGEYS, especially the Planning Unit and other donors involved, to design an EMIS component of the management reform program. Collaboration with FINNIDA and SIDA is especially critical given their previous work on improving planning capacity and SIDA's long history of involvement with the Planning Unit. Workshops should be planned at the beginning to inform providers and users of data on the purpose of the activity and the benefits that are expected once the system is put in place. Both long-term and short-term technical assistance would be needed to work with staff responsible for the EMIS. Necessary procurement such as computer software, training manuals, photocopying and binding equipment will be made and other workshops planned during the course of the project to keep providers and users involved in the development of the system. Once the initial phases of the system are in place, other information deemed useful can be added. The system, once in place, will make the operations of the Planning Unit much more efficient and facilitate the timely provision of education information to those who need it.

Nature of Inputs: Inputs would include any additional hardware and software required and other commodity assistance, long- and short-term technical assistance, local training and regional training in countries that have established similar information systems. All inputs must be coordinated with other donors involved in management reform. Counterpart funds could be made available for workshops and other local costs. Local technical assistance, procurement, and facilities will be utilized to the greatest extent possible.

USAID Capability: The case for USAID involvement in this form of assistance is very strong. Similar assistance has been a part of AID basic education projects in a number of African countries in recent years and most have demonstrated notable success. USAID/Lusaka has worked very closely with the Central Statistical Office and the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning over the years, especially in its work with the agricultural sector. The mission is knowledgeable about the possibilities and the constraints to providing assistance aimed at improving planning capacity. This assistance would be consistent with USAID strengthening of overall economic management and cost containment. USAID/Lusaka's knowledge and experience with the institutional development of the Ministry of Agriculture's Planning Division will be immensely useful to the Planning Unit and to SIDA and FINNIDA as they move into design and implementation of their projects.

Decentralization and Local Capacity-building

The highly centralized system of planning for and administering the education sector that now exists is neither effective nor beneficial to those trying to improve access and quality in primary education. Issuing policy directives and decisions to the regional, district, and school levels for implementation without any meaningful input and participation at these levels has exacerbated many of the problems faced by the sector. Failure to delegate authority and to provide the financial and human resources that would enable Education Officers and Inspectors at regional and district levels to work directly with school administrators, teachers, and local communities has eroded the confidence of officials and undermined their credibility as advocates for the schools and communities they are asked to represent. Officials at these levels are asked to provide vital information on their needs without staff who are qualified to collect and compile that information. They are required to ensure the mobilization of resources for most of the school requisites and plan for the efficient use of these resources without the benefit of appropriate training and exposure to mechanisms for doing so.

Policy Issue: The government must commit itself to a decentralized system of planning, managing and administering education in Zambia. Delegating authority for local decision-making and resources for the maintenance of vehicles would strengthen the role of local education officers and allow them to do their jobs.

Program: In close collaboration with the other donors involved in management reform, USAID/Lusaka would design a program that will involve a series of workshops aimed at building the capacity of education officers in all nine provinces at both provincial and district levels. Seminars for the purpose of discussing decentralization and the manner in which it might be organized to improve the education system for officers from the central ministry would be essential. Training in planning techniques, obtaining and analyzing information and maintaining accurate records are topics to be covered in seminars for regional and district level staff. Resource mobilization and allocation are other important topics to be covered. The training will be designed to be implemented at the regional level. A Zambian, experienced in the education sector, should be recruited to manage the project.

Nature of Inputs: Short-term technical assistance secured locally or, if necessary, from the outside, will be required for the design, implementation, and evaluation of training programs. The concept of the Mobile Training Units utilized by SIDA in its earlier assistance to planning and management will be employed in this activity, making appropriate vehicles necessary. Training materials and equipment will also be required commodity procurement.

USAID Capability: USAID has been a proponent of decentralization in education for some time. Most of the basic education projects designed and implemented in recent years encourage and support the type of decentralization in decision-making and planning proposed in this activity. Experience not only in Africa but also in Latin America and the Caribbean can be brought to bear in the Zambian context.

School Based Management

School based management is an essential element in a decentralized system of education. School heads are currently managing schools under extremely difficult conditions, and especially so in the urban areas. They must deliver education to large numbers of students with limited time, classrooms, and teachers. Limited classroom space requires that school heads devise ways of scheduling classes so that all students have classrooms and teachers available to them. They must provide the teaching staff with whatever resources and support can be mobilized and set the tone for a productive learning environment even in circumstances that are often depressing or worse.

The relationship with the PTA is an extremely important one since that organization is responsible for providing nearly all of the support that schools receive in many communities, including security, furniture, discretionary funds, materials, and exercise books. The bleak financial situation in the education sector will demand even more community support and participation in the operation of the school. Developing and maintaining an excellent working relationship with the PTA and other members of the local community will become even more challenging for headmistresses and headmasters.

Currently Headmasters/Headmistresses receive no regular in-service training on managing a school and accommodating changes and challenges in the way schools are run. PTAs are accustomed to mobilizing resources but not to participating in the more substantive decisions regarding the school.

Policy Issue: The government must adopt the strategy contained in the proceedings from the follow-on to the Education for All Conference held in Zambia and the education strategy paper currently being developed by the government appointed Task Force that calls for increased community participation in the school.

Program: USAID will provide district level training for school heads on managing their schools in an environment of increased demand for schooling and decreasing government resources. Timetabling and scheduling of teachers and other organizational and administrative matters will be addressed in the program. The role of the PTA and managing relations with the community will need to be addressed. School financing and budgeting are other essential topics in addition to the development of low cost materials.

PTA Executive Committees will also participate in workshops, perhaps presented by NGOs, to address organization, role, resource mobilization, and participation in the education sector. Successful activities by schools and PTAs will be documented and discussed in these workshops. Visits to schools that are successfully delivering education utilizing creative schemes and activities will be arranged. Priority setting, project planning, and implementation at the school level will be included in the training sessions. Building the capacity in Zambia for on-going training in these areas is critical.

Nature of Inputs: Trainers experienced in school based management in contexts similar to that of Zambia and in community participation are the primary requirements for this project. Vehicles to get to districts and other designated training centers are required. Training materials, most of which should be developed in the local school context, will be required and can then be utilized in follow-up training.

USAID Capability: Projects in Africa and other parts of the world have given attention to school based management. USAID is also building up a respectable track record in the area of community participation which is a relatively new, though increasingly important, concept in most developing countries.

USAID/Lusaka would want to involve the NGO community in designing and implementing aspects of this activity. The mission has in recent years begun to build relationships with the NGO community and has involved them in some of its agricultural and other sectoral work.

D. Support for Community and Private Initiatives in Education

Purpose: To increase the number of primary school places available in urban areas by encouraging private and community efforts to open new schools or expand existing facilities.

Problem: Current estimates suggest that one-third of eligible children are excluded from school in the main urban centers (Lusaka, Kitwe, and Ndola) each year for lack of places. The straitened fiscal circumstances of the GRZ mean that public resources will not be sufficient to make up the shortfall, which promises to grow larger as the urban population continues to increase. Maintaining or increasing present enrollment rates in urban areas will therefore require the development and implementation of strategies for mobilizing private and community resources and increasing the number of schools administered and financed outside of the "official" system. Because of past and present public policies, however, community and private organizations have very limited experience in the establishment and administration of schools and the private sector remains very small.

Approach: USAID could support a range of relatively small-scale activities aimed at increasing the number of schools administered and financed by communities, NGOs, and individuals, and also at enhancing the administrative capabilities of the individuals and organizations responsible for such schools. Such activities might include the provision of loans or matching grants to new schools; the establishment of a revolving fund to support the acquisition of books, materials, and equipment by local PTA's or in non-public schools; the organization of training in educational administration and financial management for administrators and in-service training for unqualified teachers in community or fee-paying schools; and support for the activities of the Private Schools Association, consortia of NGOs in education, and related organizations.

Many of the activities aimed at increasing private participation in the educational system could be undertaken in a framework consistent with USAID's expressed interest in the development of micro-enterprises, though training needs differ significantly across sectors. The project could be administered directly by USAID in tandem with similar projects in other sectors, or by local NGOs. Restricting the project to the most urbanized provinces (Lusaka and Copperbelt) where the need is greatest would reduce administrative and transportation costs. Local currency needed for the project could be generated through the existing Commodities Support program.

Policy Issues: In the FNDP and the PFP the GRZ has adopted a policy of encouraging the expansion of private sector activities in education. Despite official pronouncements, however, the GRZ remains in an adversarial relationship with existing private schools, and indifferent at best to the growth of the sector. Success in a project of this kind would require a reconciliation between GRZ policy and practice, and the dismantling of current regulations that hinder the establishment of new schools and the expansion of existing schools.

There is at present no statutory means by which communities can assume administrative and financial responsibility for local schools or organize themselves to establish new schools. GRZ open-ended commitment to pay the salaries of teachers in all "public" schools represents a further obstacle to community initiatives along these lines, as GRZ resources for salaries are increasingly limited. USAID efforts to foster communication among interested parties (e.g. MGEYS, ZNUT, local officials) might begin to open space for expanded participation by communities in the financing of local schools.

Nature of Inputs: USAID should sponsor local and needs assessment in the private school system, as little is now known about the sector. USAID should also participate in policy dialogue with the GRZ to ensure a policy environment conducive to the success of the project. Funds for grants and loans would also come from USAID. Research, training, and project administration could be handled by local organizations under contract to USAID.

Timeframe: The demand for school places far exceeds the supply, and the need for expanded community and private participation in administering and financing schools is increasingly urgent. Initiatives by community and private organizations nevertheless remain scarce. In the short term USAID intervention could help to bring about positive change in the policy environment. Impacts that might be observed within two years would include the legitimation of "illegal" private schools, the establishment of new private schools, community projects for the rehabilitation and expansion of primary schools, and school-based projects aimed at improvement in instructional quality.

USAID Capability: USAID has expressed an interest in strengthening markets and expanding private sector activity across a number of sectors. Other donors are not now working with private schools, though some NGOs may be. Small-scale and experimental activities in conjunction with policy dialogue with the GRZ could yield substantial returns in terms of expanded opportunities at relatively small cost in this sector. AID has acquired extensive project experience working with private schools, especially in Latin America and the Caribbean.

E. Increased Educational Opportunities for Girls

This option suggests addressing the educational needs of girls through both formal and non-formal approaches. Each one could be undertaken independently, however.

Opportunities in the formal education system

Purpose: To investigate the reasons for low female progression and achievement in the formal system, and to address the problems identified.

Problem: Although girls enroll in primary school at a rate only slightly below that of boys, their participation begins to drop off at grade 4 and again at grades 7 and 10. In

recognition of the problem, the GRZ has lowered the cut-off point on selection exams for girls (relative to that for boys) to increase their chances of entering secondary school. However, this may strengthen the idea that girls are not as academically capable as boys, and does nothing to identify the underlying causes of these differences in achievement.

Approach: Research should be undertaken to identify the reasons for gender differences in patterns of school participation and achievement. Once factors have been identified, interventions should be designed to increase gender equity at the primary level.

Policy Issue: Since the government already recognizes the problem, no policy issue should be raised, except perhaps in relation to a proposed strategy aimed at amelioration.

Nature of Inputs: Technical assistance (preferably local), transport and other logistical support will be required to conduct the research. Subsequent inputs will depend on the outcome of the investigation and the specific strategies adopted to address the problems identified.

Timeframe: The research design, and whether or not the researcher devotes full time to this effort are among the factors influencing the time required for this phase. A minimum of six months should be allowed for the research. The time needed for the second phase depends entirely on the research findings and development of interventions based on those findings.

USAID Capability: USAID has considerable experience in primary education in Africa, and also in addressing gender issues. Insights from other research and projects should be of assistance in designing the investigation and developing a strategy to address the problem(s).

Opportunities in non-formal education

Purpose: To provide functional literacy programs targeted to out-of-school girls in areas associated with the USAID/Zambia portfolio.

Problem: The problem can be simply stated: over 10,000 girls fail to complete the primary cycle each year. In addition, over 15,000 eleven and twelve-year-old children, approximately half of whom are female, must drop out of school each year because there are no places in higher grades. In total, over 250,000 children between the ages of seven and fourteen, the majority of whom are girls, are not attending school.

Approach: Develop or adapt functional literacy materials in content areas supportive of USAID/Zambia interests and current involvement, e.g. AIDS, population education, agriculture and small business. The findings of the research conducted in the formal sector (i.e. the reasons girls drop out of school and any special needs these dropouts may have) should be considered in the design of this program. For example, it has been

noted that some women feel more free in discussions where no men are present and that only one-third of the MLSDC field workers are women. If the program were delivered through MLSDC, it might be important to recruit and train more women as instructors. Another possibility is to contract with an interested NGO to pilot test materials and delivery methods. It will also be valuable to collaborate with UNICEF who has specific objectives in their 1991-95 Zambia Country Program to develop learning materials geared to rural and peri-urban neo-literate audiences.

Nature of Inputs: Regardless of the approach taken, the project will require both long and short term technical assistance for materials development and instructor training, commodities and equipment for materials production, and transportation for program delivery.

Timeframe: Three to five years should be allowed for needs assessment, materials development/adaptation and testing, instructor training, program implementation and evaluation. Impact can be measured in terms of the materials produced, instructors trained and girls' participation and learning.

USAID Capability: USAID has had experience with NFE over many years and in many places. In addition, USAID/Zambia has experience and local contacts in the content areas which will be addressed.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: NGOS IN ZAMBIA

Following is a partial list of NGOs currently operating in Zambia, categorized by their primary area of interest and activity, although several organizations belong in more than one category.

Agriculture and Rural Development

AFRICARE
Global 2000

Children and Youth

Anglican Council of Zambia
Boy Scouts Association
Christian Children's Fund Inc. (CCFI)
Makeni Ecumenical Center (MEC)
Girl Guides Association of Zambia
Street Kids International
Zambia Pre-School Association

Education and Training

Adult Education Association of Zambia
ADRA (Adventist Development Relief Agency)
Africa Development Assistance
Catholic Secretariat
CUSA
Development Support Forum
Home Economics Association of Zambia (HEAZ)
Institute for Cultural Affairs
Mental Health Association of Zambia
Works Councils
YMCA
Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD)
Zambia Association of University Women (ZAUW)
Zambia Congress of Trade Unions (ZCTU)
Zambia Council for the Handicapped
Zambia Evangelical Fellowship
Zambia Helpers Society
Zambia Library Association
Zambia Prisoners Aid Society

Health and Nutrition

Breast Feeding Association of Zambia (BFA)
Child Care and Adoption Society of Zambia (CCAS)
Churches Medical Association of Zambia
Family Life Movement of Zambia
National Food and Nutrition Commission
Northern Province Crippled Children's Society (NPCCS)
Nurses Association of Zambia
Planned Parenthood Association of Zambia (PPAZ)
OXFAM
Salvation Army
Zambia Flying Doctor Service
Zambia Red Cross Society

Literacy

Association for Adult Society
Christian Council of Zambia (CCZ)
Mindolo Ecumenical Foundation
National Council for Catholic Women (NCCW)
World Vision
Zambia Association of Literacy Clubs
Zambia Association of School Literacy Clubs

Small Scale Enterprises and Income Generation

Mbeza Council for Social and Economic Development
Self-Help Association
Small Industrial Development Organization (SIDO)
Village Development Foundation
Village Industry Services (VIS)
Zambia Community Research and Occupation Foundation

Urban Development

Human Settlement of Zambia (HUZA)

Volunteer Services

Danish Volunteer Services (DVS)
Finnish Volunteers
German Volunteer Services (GVS)
Mennonite Central Committee (MCC)
SNV (Dutch Volunteer Service)

UN Volunteers
VSO (British Volunteer Service)
Volunteers in Technical Assistance (VITA)
World University Service

Women in Development

Association for the Advancement of Women in Africa (ASAWA)
National Association of Business and Professional Women of Zambia (ZABPW)
NGO Coordinating Committee of Zambia (NGO-CC)
Women's Finance Trust of Zambia
Women in Media
World Day of Prayer (WDP)
YWCA
Zambia Alliance of Women (ZAW)

APPENDIX B: PERSONS CONTACTED

Ministry of General Education, Youth and Sport

Mr. Simataa Akapelwa, Permanent Secretary
Mr. Kashweka, Deputy Permanent Secretary
Mr. Bwalya, Deputy Permanent Secretary
Mr. Frank Chelu, Chief Inspector of Schools and Chairman of Zambia National Task Force on Education for All
Mr. Shadreck Hakalima, Director, Educational Materials Unit
Mr. R.S. Zulu, Chief Inspector, Primary
Mr. James Banda, Director, ZEPIU
Mr. E. Chileshe, Director, Planning Unit
Mr. Phiri, Deputy Director, Planning Unit
Mrs. V. Yumbe
Mrs. I. Simukonda, Chief Education Officer, Administration
Mr. C. Simpungwe, Assistant Controller of Accounts
Mr. G. S. Mwale, Deputy Director, Curriculum Development Center
Mr. Mwiinga, Director, Department of Continuing Education
Mr. G. M. Sitali, Department of Continuing Education
Mr. Chris Chirwa, Deputy Director-General, Kenneth Kaunda Foundation
Mr. M. P. Malumbe, Director, Educational Broadcasting Services

Lusaka Province

Mr. S. Chumbu, Provincial Education Officer
Mrs. Lwara - Senior Inspector, Primary, Lusaka Province

Central Province (Kabwe)

Mr. Chilikwela, Provincial Education Officer
Mr. A. Mwananyanda, Senior Inspector
Mr. Chembe, Personnel Officer
Mr. Chibale, Education Officer (Continuing Education)

Kabwe District - Mr. Siakwazia, District Inspector

Copperbelt Province

Mr. Saukani Nyirenda, Chief Education Officer
Mrs. Msemiwe, District Education Officer, Kitwe District

School Visits

Lusaka Province

Mumoni Primary School - Mr. Munkondya, Headmaster
LICEF (Lusaka Islamic Cultural and Educational Foundation) - Mrs. Xavier,
Headmistress

Jacaranda Basic School - Mr. Zulu, Headmaster
Musamba Primary School - Mr. Chilongo, Acting Head
Chainda Primary School - Mr. Chembe, Acting Head
Muchinga Primary School

Central Province

Lukanga Primary School - Mrs. Shadunka, Headmistress
Broadway Basic School - Mr. Phiri, Head
School for Continuing Education

Copperbelt Province

Kasongo Primary - Mrs. L. Chama, Headmistress
Ndeke Basic School - Mr. E. L. Munyenyembe, Headmaster
Buseko Primary School - Mrs. M. Mondabe, Headmistress
Machona Primary School - Mr. G. B. Chamileke Sipando, Deputy Headmaster

Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology

Mr. C. F. Chiyenu, Deputy Permanent Secretary
Mr. Paul E. Machona, Council Secretary, Zambian Examinations Council

Ministry of Labor, Social Development, and Culture

Mr. Mwanang'uku, Deputy Commissioner
Mr. W. N. Mulenga, Adult Literacy

Ministry of Finance

Mr. James Mtonga, Senior Permanent Secretary
Dr. B. Mweene, Budget Director
Mr. Mfune, Budget Officer
Mr. J. Madhubansi, Director, Sectoral Planning, NCDP

Ministry of Health

Dr. Ben Chirwa, Director, Health Education Unit
Ms. Gertrude Musonda, Health Education Unit
Mrs. Miriam Heynders, District Health Service, Northern Province (Kasama)

Zambia National Union of Teachers (ZNUT)

Mr. L. S. Chellah, Acting General Secretary
Mr. L. C. Iwayayo, Financial Secretary
Mr. G. F. Chisenga, Organizational Secretary
Mrs. Joyce K. Muiiko, Women's Organizational Secretary

Mr. L. L. Lunkuntwe, National Organizer Secretary

Teacher Training Colleges

Mr. Samuel Ndhlovu, Principal, Kitwe Primary Teacher's Training College
Mr. S. M. C. Nkhata, Principal, Copperbelt Secondary Teacher Training College

Catholic Secretariat

Mr. Mulungwe

Private School Association

Mr. Munthali, National Chairman

Education Task Force

Mr. J. Banda, Director, ZEPIU
Mr. F. Chelu, Chief Inspector, MGEYS
Mr. Chiyenu, DPS, MHEST
Professor M. J. Kelly, Department of Educational Administration & Policy Studies,
UNZA
Dr. E. Mumba, Adult Education, UNZA
Mr. Mwanang'uku, Deputy Commissioner Social Development, MLSDC
Dr. O. Saasa, Director IAS, UNZA
Mr. Sikuyuba, Planning, MGEYS
Mr. Silanda, CSO

World Bank Team

Mrs. Ruth Kagia
Dr. Cream Wright
Mr. Kithinji Kiragu
Ms. Lily Mulatu
Mr. Wim Hoppers
Mr. Manuel Zimmermann
Mr. Steen Jurgenson

Education Donors

FINNIDA - Mr. Matti Kaariainen
Ms. Merab Kiremire
Ms. Seija Toro, Second Secretary

SIDA - Mr. Torsten Wetterblad - Acting Head and Senior Economist

UNICEF - Mr. Ian G. Hopwood, Representative
Ms. Lela Khan

ODA/BRITISH COUNCIL - Ms. Bridgette O'Connor

World Bank - Mr. John Innes, Resident Representative

Project Staff

Mr. Nigel Billany - Project Coordinator, Zambia Educational Materials Project (ZEMP)
Mr. F. C. Mbulwe - Executive Secretary for SHAPE (Self-Help Action Program for Education)

Non-formal Education

Ms. Anne Touwen, SAP-WID Coordinator - NCDP Women's Desk
Ms. Anne Sutherland - YWCA
Dr. Carolyn McCommon, VITA Volunteer - Village Industry Services
Mr. Gerry Finnigan, Chief Technical Advisor - ILO/UNDP SELP Project for Youth Enterprise
Mr. Ahuma Adodoadji, Director - World Vision
Ms. Monde Sawakema, Director for Women and Youth - Zambia Cooperative Federation

AID/Washington

Ms. Julie Rea
Ms. Sue Grant-Lewis

USAID/Zambia

Mr. Bruno Kosheleff, Deputy Director
Mr. John Wiebler, Program Officer
Ms. Asina Sibetta, Project Officer, HIRD (Human and Institutional Resources Development Project)
Dr. Irene Whalen-Hopwood, ZAMS
Mr. Leroy Sclerer
Dr. Florence Chenoweth, COP, ZATPID

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APPENDIX D: TERMS OF REFERENCE

ARTICLE III - STATEMENT OF WORK

1. Establish the context for the sub-sectoral assessments. Review existing documents, reports and data on the education sector as a whole: Determine government goals for education and subsector priorities; describe government capacities for the planning and management of education and training; summarize problems and issues regarding the cost and financing of education in Zambia; and, make conclusions on the relationship of education and productivity under current conditions.
2. Assess the state of the primary education subsector: Examine and assess government priorities for basic education; describe the administration, financing and delivery of government primary education services; identify issues of equity, access, and efficiency; and, discuss problems of quality and relevance of the primary schooling experience. Review the role and provision of primary education services by the private sector. Describe other donor and NGO programs of assistance to the subsector. Employing available information from AID's Technical Resources Office, and given the findings of the assessment, determine the relative state of primary education in Zambia vis-a-vis that of the other countries of Africa in which A.I.D. is active. Suggest opportunities and priorities for USAID program involvement.
3. Assess the state of the nonformal education subsector: Examine and assess government priorities for nonformal education; define and describe nonformal education opportunities in Zambia; describe the number and type of people now involved in nonformal education, and the amount of potential demand; explain the objectives of nonformal education from both the provider and beneficiary point of view, and assess the actual benefits. Review the role and provision of nonformal education services by the private sector. Describe other donor and NGO programs of assistance to the subsector. Suggest opportunities and priorities for USAID program involvement.
4. In laying out the opportunities for USAID, attention is to be given to the relationships of basic and non-formal education on such areas as health (including AIDS), improved nutritional status, female fertility, increased agricultural production, and improvement of human resources bases for industrialization. The fiscal and macroeconomic implications of more efficient national expenditures on basic education shall also be assessed. The private provision of education as an alternative or supplement to publicly-funded education is also to be examined.

Team Composition and Level of Effort:

Educational Policy and Development Specialist/Team Leader

A. Responsibilities:

- Review recent government and foreign assistance agency sectoral and subsectoral analyses.
- Ensure that the Ministry of Education and other relevant host country officials or representatives are fully aware of and involved in the team's work.
- Meet regularly with the USAID/Zambia liaison to report findings and progress.
- Exercise professional and editorial control over the content and recommendations of the assessment.
- Describe the administrative and delivery systems for primary education, elucidating public and private responsibilities.
- Examine organizational structures for planning and implementing education policy.
- Analyze institutional and human resources constraints to meet the government's education sector goals. This will include assessing capabilities for administration, policy analysis, research, evaluation, and planning, including MIS.
- Review other donor, parochial/missionary and NGO programs of assistance to education. Hold discussions with other donors to identify donor activity in education and to ensure that options identified are consistent with and do not duplicate such work.

- Identify measures required to build necessary administrative, policy analysis, research, evaluation, and planning capacities at central, regional and school level.
- Supervise all team activities, ensuring that team stays within its scope of work regarding sector and subsector analyses and the identification of basic education investment options which respond to Zambia's social and economic needs.
- Coordinate the writing of this report.
- Present the completed report to USAID/Zambia and AFR/TR/EHR.
- Work with other team members to analyze constraints to Zambia meeting its goals regarding equity, access, efficiency, quality and relevance of its basic educational system.

B. Deliverables:

The Education Systems Specialist/Team Leader shall be responsible for:

- Authoring chapter on institutional capacities for the sectoral policy analysis, research and evaluation, planning and management of education including analysis of constraints.
- Working with the Education Economist to finalize the report. This includes drafting options and synthesis chapters.

Educational Planner/Non-Formal Education Specialist

A. Responsibilities:

- Review recent government and foreign assistance agency sectoral and subsectoral analyses. Highlight goals related to equity, access and efficiency.
- Identify government goals and priorities in non-formal education.

- Identify indigenous NGOs and community groups providing non-formal education services. Discuss sources of funding.
- Review any existing analyses or assessments of the contribution of non-formal education efforts to productivity.
- Any other duties assigned by the Team Leader.

B. Deliverables:

- Writing chapters, and sections of chapters, concerned with non-formal education.
- Contribute to Options and Synthesis chapters.

Education Planner/Basic Education Specialist

A. Responsibilities:

- Review recent government and foreign assistance agency sectoral and subsectoral analyses.
- Identify government goals for education and basic education subsector priorities. Highlight goals related to equity, access, quality, and efficiency.
- Examine local school management structure and identify capacities and constraints.
- Examine private sector financing options for primary education.
- Identify indicators of quality and assess problems and potentials at the basic education level.
- Any other duties assigned by the Team Leader.

B. Deliverables:

- Writing the chapter on equity and access concerns.

- Write review of NGO and donor involvement in education.
- Contribute to drafting of options and synthesis chapters.

Education Economist/Financial Analyst

A. Responsibilities:

- Review recent government and foreign assistance agency sectoral and subsectoral analyses.
- Analyze government resources committed to education over the last five years, by subsector, and the economic sustainability of current and future commitments.
- Identify alternative indigenous sources of educational finance such as NOGs and community groups.
- Summarize what is known of the education system's internal efficiency.
- Analyze the financial management and budgetary constraints in the sector with attention to absorptive capacity.
- Identify ways in which outside assistance might help address budgetary and financial management constraints.
- Work with other team members to analyze constraints to Zambia meeting its goals regarding equity, access, efficiency, quality and relevance of its basic education system. Ensure that economic and financial dimensions receive attention.
- Draw conclusions on the relationship of education to productivity under current conditions.
- Work with Team Leader to complete report using contributions of all team members.

-- Any other duties assigned by the Team Leader.

B. Deliverables:

The Educational Economist shall be responsible for:

- Writing the analysis of government resources to education.
- Writing section on the internal efficiency of basic education system.
- Writing chapter on cost and financing of education, including analysis of constraints.
- Work with team leader to write final report. This includes writing options and synthesis chapters.

Education Economist

A. Responsibilities:

Review recent government and foreign assistance agency sectoral and subsectoral analyses.

Serve as local advisor by identifying key informants for other team members' areas of inquiry.

Contribute to the analysis of constraints to Zambia meeting goals regarding equity, access, efficiency, quality and relevance in the provision of basic education.

Work with other team members to identify primary and nonformal education investment options to address these constraints.

Any other duties assigned by the Team Leader

B. Deliverables:

Write the section on the role of communities in the provision of schooling and nonformal education.

Contribute to the review of NGO and Foreign Assistance Support for Education.

Proposed/Illustrative Outline of Sector Review and Options Paper
Chapter 1. Synthesis

Chapter 2. Education and Training in Contemporary Zambia: An Economic and Political Analysis

Includes:

-Discussion of the relationship of education to productivity, using Zambia based arguments where available

-Summary of government goals for education and subsector priorities

-Analysis of government resources going to education

Chapter 3. Government Capacities for the Planning and Management of Education and Training

-Discussion of the extent of decentralization and the possibilities worth exploring

-Description of current planning and analytical capacities, including information systems

-Analysis of management structures

Chapter 4. Cost and Financing of Education

-Distribution of budget across subsectors

-Discussion of funding sources

Chapter 5. Special Issues in Primary Education

-Linking outcomes of Chapter 2-4 where appropriate

-Education of the role of communities in the provision of schooling

-A discussion of equity and access, particularly the gender dimensions

-Discussion of issues related to promoting quality

Chapter 6. Special Issues in Non-Formal Education

Chapter 7. NGO Productivity and Foreign Assistance Support for Education

Chapter 8. Options and Opportunities for USAID

Including discussion of "fit" with mission portfolio.

ARTICLE IV - REPORTS

Thirty (30) copies of the final report shall be prepared: fifteen (15) for USAID/Zambia and fifteen (15) for AID/W, care of AFR/TR/EHR.