



TOWARDS ENDING CHILD LABOUR IN ZAMBIA: An assessment of resource requirements

Inter-agency country report
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Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Project

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As part of broader efforts towards durable solutions to child labour, the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), and the World Bank initiated the interagency Understanding Children's Work (UCW) project in December 2000. The project is guided by the Oslo Agenda for Action, which laid out the priorities for the international community in the fight against child labour. Through a variety of data collection, research, and assessment activities, the UCW project is broadly directed toward improving understanding of child labour, its causes and effects, how it can be measured, and effective policies for addressing it. For further information, see the project website at www.ucw-project.org.

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ACRONYMS

AICA	Agricultural inputs-for-assets programme
BESSIP	Basic education sub-sector investment plan
CBT	Community-based targeting
CCT	Conditional child cash transfer
CRC	UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
CWACs	Community welfare assistance committees
EYPC	Employment of Young Persons and Children Act (No.10 of 2004)
FBE	Free basic education policy
FSP	Food security pack
IEC	Information, education and communication
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPEC	ILO International Programme on the Elimination of Child labour
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MCDSS	Ministry of Community Development and Social Services
MLSS	Ministry of Labour and Social Security
NAPSA	National Pension Scheme Authority
ODI	Overseas Development Institute
PAM	Programme against malnutrition
PUSH	Project urban self-help
PWA	Public welfare assistance scheme
SFP	School feeding programme
SCT	Social cash transfers
SCTS	Social cash transfer scheme
UCW	Inter-agency Understanding Children's Work Programme
ZFE	Zambia Federation of Employers
ZLFS	Zambia Labour Force Survey
ZMK	Zambian Kwacha

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The current Inter-Agency Report provides an overview of the child labour situation in the country and how it is changing over time, building on and updating the results of the comprehensive Country Report on child labour published in 2009.¹ With this overview as background, the Inter-Agency Report then analyses the resource implications of meeting the national commitment to eliminating child labour. Specifically in this context, the report assesses the economic costs over a five-year period of (1) providing the poorest of the poor families with a minimum degree of social protection and (2) providing a package of special, targeted measures aimed at protecting and removing children from employment.

The report shows that while Zambia has witnessed a substantial reduction in the incidence of child labour, this progress will not be enough to eliminate child labour by 2015. Even under a best-case growth and policy scenario a substantial number of children aged 7-15 years— just below one million – is expected to be still in employment in 2015. This signifies that additional policy efforts will therefore be necessary to eliminate child labour within this period.

The cost estimation results indicate that providing poorest of the poor with social protection (through a conditional cash transfer scheme) would cost some \$US80.4 million annually, and would help prevent or remove some 100,000 children from child labour over a five-year period. A package of special prevention and protection measures targeting the remaining child labourers would require an additional average outlay of \$USD26.3 annually over a five-year time horizon.

These costs are premised on a best-case economic and policy scenario. In a context of slower household income growth and less progress in terms of improving school quality, the target number of children in child labour would be higher over the five-year period, in turn raising the cost of eliminating child labour.

Child labour situation in Zambia

Child labour constitutes an important obstacle to achieving Universal Primary Education and other Millennium Development Goals in Zambia. It not only harms the welfare of individual children, but also slows broader national poverty reduction and development efforts. Children forced out of school and into labour to help their families to make ends meet are denied the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills needed for gainful future employment, thereby perpetuating the cycle of poverty. Moreover, child labour can lead to social vulnerability and social marginalization, and can permanently impair the attainment of personal and productive potential, in turn influencing lifetime patterns of employment and earnings, and generating important constraints to national development goals.

Child involvement in employment remains very high in Zambia. More than one out of every three children aged 7-14 years were at work in economic activity in 2008. A comparison of the results from the 2005 and 2008 labour force surveys shows a dramatic decline in children's employment of 14 percentage points during this period (from 48% to 34%). In absolute terms, there were over 270,000 fewer children in employment in 2008 than in 2005. The progress in reducing children's employment during this period extended to both boys and girls. The decline in employment was not, however, accompanied by similar *gains* in children's school

¹ Government of Zambia and Understanding Children's Work Programme (2009). *Understanding children's work in Zambia. Country Report.*

attendance: the proportion of children attending school rose by only about three percentage points from 2005 to 2008.

There are several important characteristics of children's employment in Zambia of relevance for policy. First, children's employment is mainly a rural phenomenon. The share of rural children in employment was three times that of their urban peers in 2008. Second, there are substantial regional differences, underscoring the need for the geographic targeting of efforts against child labour. Sixteen percent of children worked in employment in Lusaka in 2008, for example, against 55% in Eastern province and 52 percent in Northern province. Third, child economic activity rises sharply with age, but numbers of even very young working children are far from negligible. Around 14% of seven year-olds and 22% of eight year-olds are already at work in employment.

Children's employment in Zambia is concentrated overwhelmingly in one sector – agriculture. Nearly 92% of total 7-14 year-olds in employment work in agriculture, against around four percent in services and three percent in trade. At the same time, almost all children in employment (93%) work for their families as unpaid labour. Only about four percent of children work as paid employees in formal entities; this is important because children in the formal sector are the only ones typically accessible to labour inspection regimes.

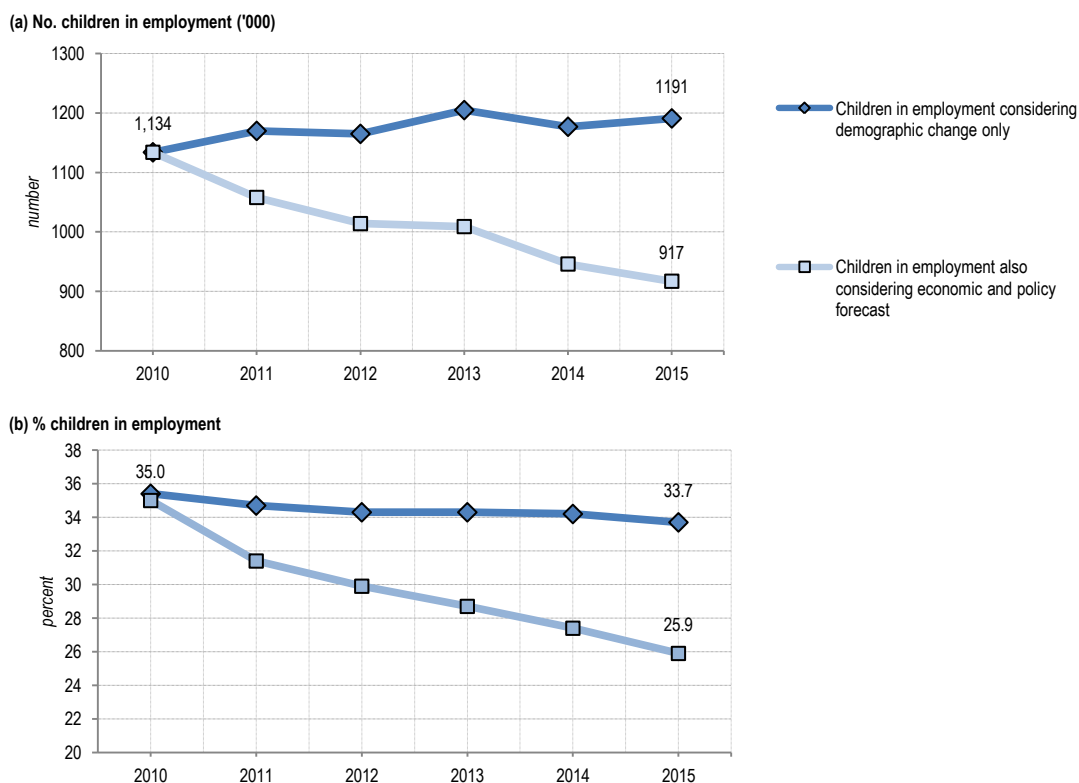
The report also looks at the factors associated with child labour in Zambia. Child labour increases clearly with age, not surprising in that children are more productive as they grow older. Parental education reduces the probability of children working, at least in part the product of the fact more educated parents are more aware of the benefits of schooling. Higher household earnings also reduce child labour, underscoring the link between child labour and poverty. Improved school quality, as proxied by the number of teachers relative to the child population, makes it less likely that children work. Child labour is pro-cyclical, increasing with overall increases in labour demand.

Resource implications of meeting national commitment to eliminating child labour

As we have seen, children's involvement in employment in Zambia is still relatively high, although it is trending downwards. Economic growth and demographic evolution, coupled with a set of education policies already in place, are likely to generate a further "spontaneous" reduction in children's employment even without new policy measures. In order to assess the costs of eliminating child labour over a five-year time horizon, it is first necessary to know the size of this spontaneous reduction, and, following from this, the size of the target population of children remaining in child labour when this reduction is accounted for.

The projections of the number of children in employment up to 2015 in the absence of specific additional interventions are undertaken in two steps. First, we look at how the population of children in employment will evolve based only on demographic change, utilizing information from Zambia LFS 2008 on the dynamic of the previous population cohorts. Second, we also consider the impact of the economic and policy outlook on the evolution of the population of children in employment, using an econometric model of child labour determinants and a set of economic growth and policy assumptions.

Figure 1. Predicted number of children in employment (,000), 7-15 years age group, considering demographic change and economic/policy forecast



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey 2008

Figure 1 shows the projections of child labour both in percentage and in absolute terms. The percentage of children in child labour will steadily fall from about 35% to 26% over the five-year period. However, due to demographic growth, the reduction in the absolute number of children working will be more limited, and in 2015 still more than 900,000 children aged 7-15 years are still expected to be working.

It is worth underlining that these projections are premised on a best-case economic and policy scenario, and therefore constitute a lower-bound estimate of the likely target population in child labour.² In an unfavourable economic and policy environment, the number of child labourers will be higher over the five-year period.

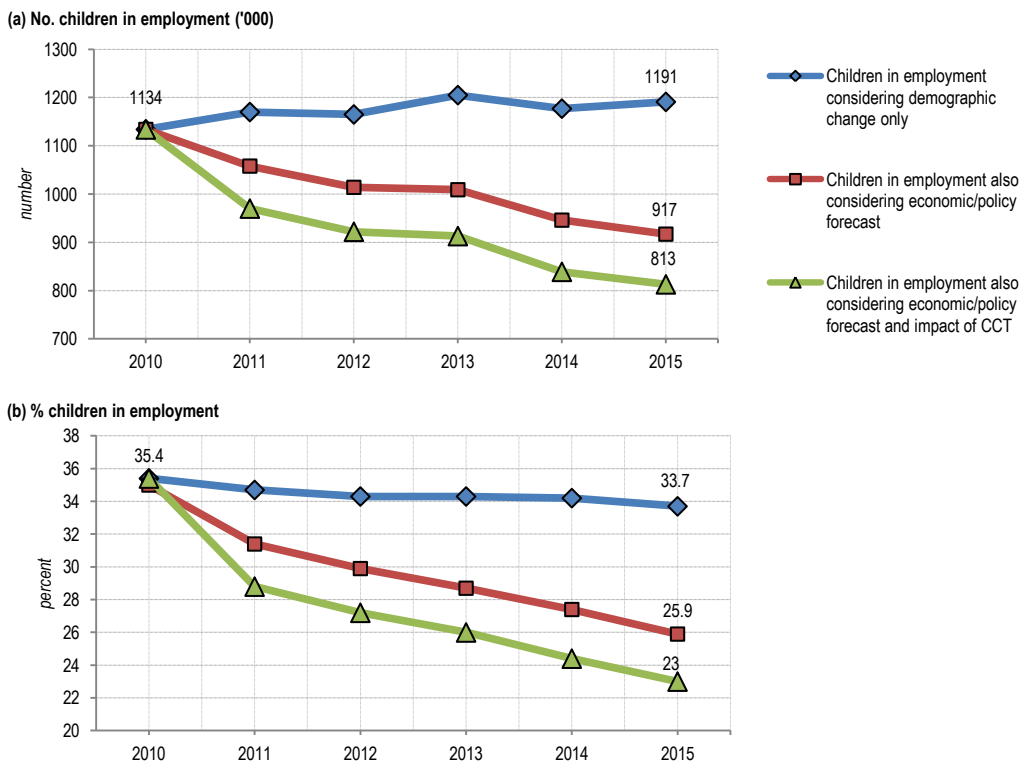
We next look at the cost and impact of a specific social protection intervention - child cash transfers - for addressing the target population in child labour. We focus on simulating the impact of a *conditional* child cash transfer (CCT), where eligibility is conditional on children's school attendance. We consider eligible, among poor households, only those in the bottom 20% in income and with

² We assume that (1) the average income at district level increases by 10% every year; (2) absolute poverty falls, such that households with income below half of the mean local income in year 0 earn half of the mean local income by year 5; and (3) the teacher/school-aged child ratio increases by 10% every year. This of course reflects an optimistic economic and policy scenario; should, for example, the repercussions of the renewed global financial turmoil impact significantly on Zambia, this scenario is unlikely to be realized.

children aged 7-15 years. Each household receives a transfer differentiated by the number of children living in each household.³ A total of 907,422 children are targeted in the first year in accordance with these targeting criteria, at a total cost of \$US 80.4 million.

Figure 2 reports the simulated impact of the conditional cash transfer on children in employment over the five-year period. The CCT scheme would lead to a predicted further fall in children's involvement in employment of about three percentage points (translating to over 100,000 children in absolute terms) over the target period. These results suggest that a CCT scheme is a potentially useful policy tool against child labour, but not, in and of itself, sufficient for eliminating child labour. But it is worth recalling in this context that conditionality in this simulation did not include children's absence from employment; adding this condition would inevitably increase the impact of the scheme, although it would also raise practical issues of implementation.

Figure 2. Predicted number of children in employment (,000), 7-15 years age group, considering demographic change, economic and policy forecast and impact of CCT



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey 2008

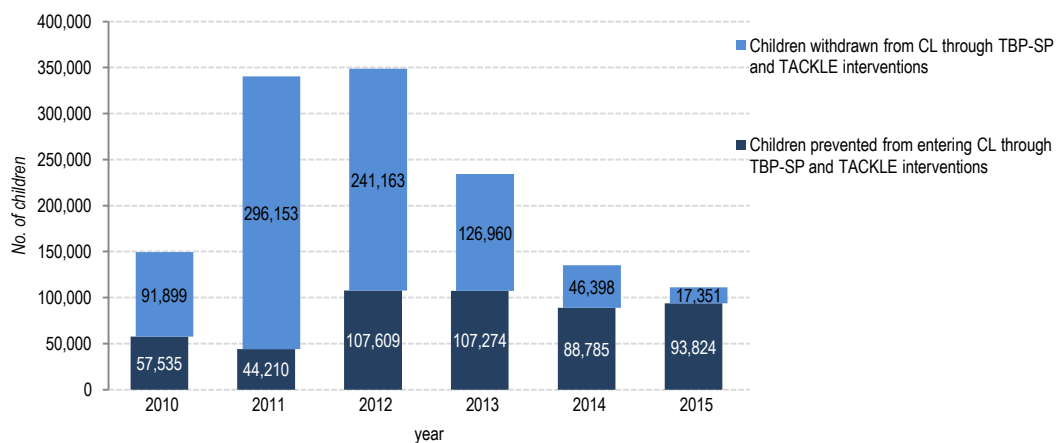
We next look at the costs associated with an additional package of prevention and withdrawal measures targeting children remaining in child labour even after the spontaneous reduction and the reduction stemming from the CCT scheme are taken into consideration. We consider an intervention package consisting of prevention through formal education and of withdrawal measures through both formal education and skills training. The intervention package is modelled on the basis of the ILO Time-Bound Programme Support Project (TBP-SP) and the TACKLE project in Zambia.

³ The amount of the transfer is differentiated by the number of children living in each household. It decreases as the number of children per household increases, starting at 50,000 ZMK per child per month for a single child household and falling to 25,000 ZMK per child per month for households with five or more children.

We consider an implementation scheme involving a gradual three-year phase-in period during which some children graduate into adulthood untreated. While other implementation schemes are of course possible, e.g., 100% implementation from the outset of the program (and therefore no capacity constraints), the gradual phase-in scheme is deemed most realistic and therefore offers a valid basis for benchmarking the costs of the core intervention package for child labour elimination.⁴

Figure 3 reports the total numbers of children prevented from entering and withdrawn from child labour over the five-year period through the intervention package. In all, some 1.3 million children are treated with either prevention (about 500,000 children) or withdrawal/second chance (some 800,000 children) measures; efforts peak in year 2012 and diminish gradually thereafter.

Figure 3. Total children prevented and withdrawn from employment through TBP-SP and TACKLE interventions, by programme year (a)

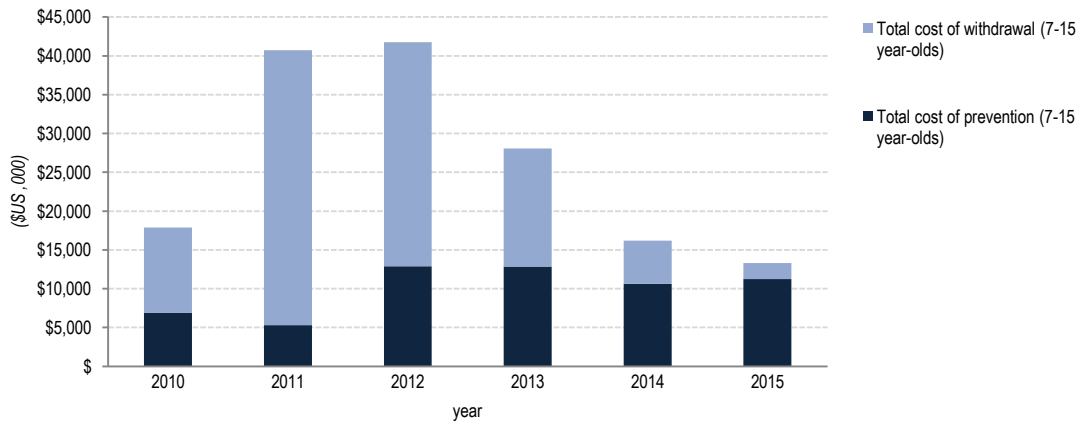


Notes: (a) Phase-in coverage targets are set as follows: year 0 - 40%, year 1 - 60%, and year 2 and beyond - 100%. Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey 2008

Per unit cost calculations for the intervention package are based primarily on the average budgeted costs (both direct and management and administrative costs) associated with the intervention package when implemented through the TBP-SP and the TACKLE Project. Annual costs are reported in Figure 4. Costs peak in 2012, when the largest number of children are provided with withdrawal and second chance interventions. Costs decline thereafter as expanded prevention coverage reduces the need for withdrawal/second chance interventions (and as economic growth and other factors contribute to a “spontaneous” decline in the target population).

⁴ The costs associated with two alternative implementation schemes are available upon request: the first involves the withdrawal of all children already in child labour from the outset of the programme, and therefore assumes that there are no capacity constraints; the second involves a gradual phase-in, but does not allow any children to slip through the cracks, even during the initial phase-in period.

Figure 4. Allocation of cost of core intervention package, by intervention strategy and programme year



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey 2008

Total costs for implementing the intervention package over the five-year period amount to \$US 157.9 million. Again, these costs are premised on a best-case economic and policy scenario. In a context of slower household income growth and less progress in terms of improving school quality, the target number of children in child labour will be higher over the five-year period, in turn raising the cost of treating this population with the core intervention package.

1. INTRODUCTION

1. Zambia has made a number of important legal and political commitments to combating child labour. The Government signed the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1992, ratified the ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) in 1976 and ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) in 2002. The Employment of Young Persons and Children (EYPC) Act, which regulates the employment of young persons and children, was amended in 2004 to bring it in line with these international legal standards. The country's Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010) and the National Employment and Labour Market Policy (2006) both call for the elimination of child labour, while the follow-up Sixth National Development Plan (2011-2015) emphasises elimination of gross human rights violations such as the worst forms for child labour. The National Child Policy (NCP) also proposes a number of measures aimed at stopping the child economic exploitation in Zambia, while the National Child Labour Policy (NCLP) provides the overarching framework for child labour programmes in the country.

2. Yet despite these important commitments, the challenge posed by child labour remains very large in Zambia. As detailed further below, although there has been recent progress in reducing child labour, over one-third of children aged 7-14 years, some 950,000 children in absolute terms, were at work in employment in the 2008 reference year. Many of these children worked in hazardous conditions, and experienced greater difficulties than non-working children in attending and benefiting from school. Child labour not only constitutes a serious violation of the rights of the children concerned, but also has clear broader consequences for national social development. Children growing up compromised educationally and developmentally by early involvement in work will be in a poor position to contribute to Zambia's growth as adults.

3. The current Inter-Agency Report provides an overview of the child labour situation in the country and how it has been changing over time, building on and updating the results of the comprehensive Country Report on child labour published in 2009.⁵ With this overview as background, this Inter-Agency report then analyses the resource implications of meeting the national commitment to eliminating child labour. Specifically in this context, the report assesses the economic costs over a five-year period, from 2010 to 2015, of (1) providing the poorest of the poor families with a minimum degree of social protection and (2) providing a package of special, targeted measures aimed at removing and preventing children from employment.

4. The exercise does not extend to estimating the benefits of child labour elimination and increased school enrolment, for several reasons. First, the benefits of both are inherent, and a child's rights to education and to protection from child labour are enshrined in international legal standards. Whether or not to act against child labour, therefore, is not a question requiring a cost-benefit analysis to answer.

5. But there are also important technical reasons for not addressing the more narrow *economic* benefits of child labour elimination. There are two main potential economic benefits associated with children being in school rather than at work: first, reduced poverty arising from the greater productive capacity of a *more educated* population; and second, reduced poverty arising from the greater productive capacity of a *healthier* population. With regards to the first, the extent to which more human capital will reduce future poverty depends on what happens

⁵ Government of Zambia and Understanding Children's Work Programme (2009). *Understanding children's work in Zambia. Country Report*.

to returns to human capital over time, in turn a complex, general equilibrium question that is not possible to answer with the available data. With regard to the second potential benefit, there is simply too little information in Zambia concerning the immediate and long-term health effects of child labour to assess the health-related economic benefits flowing from child labour elimination.

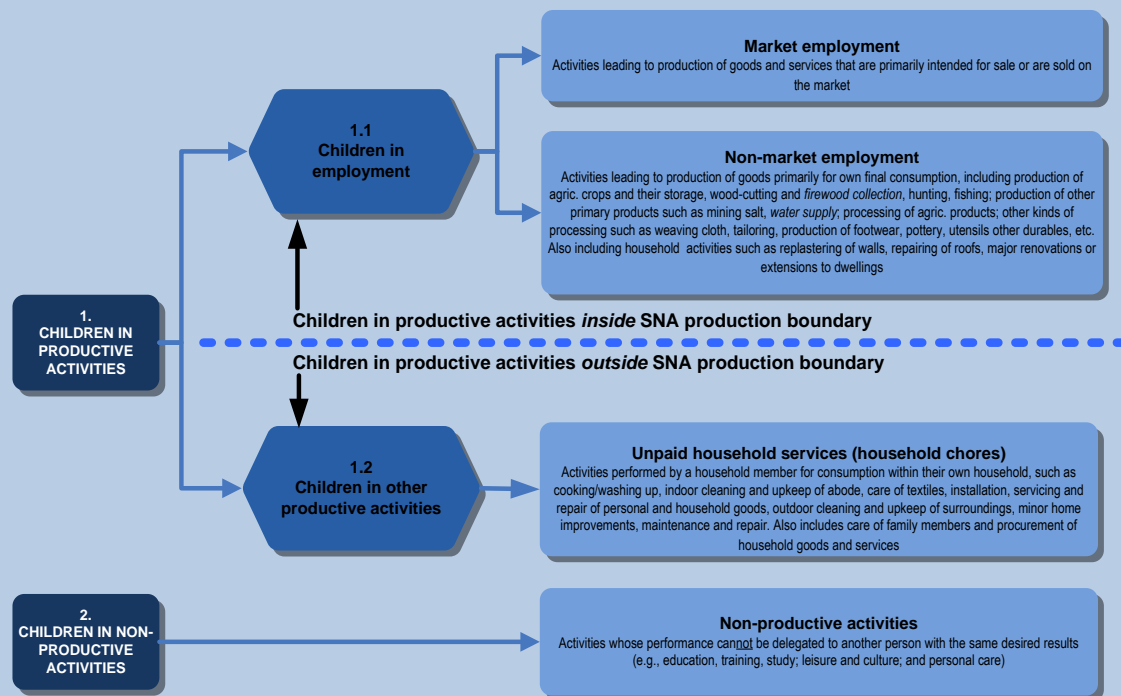
Panel 1. Child labour terminology and measures used in this report

Child labour is a legal rather than statistical concept, and the international legal standards that define it are therefore the necessary frame of reference for child labour statistics. The three principal international conventions on child labour – ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) (C138), United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) (C182) together set the legal boundaries for child labour, and provide the legal basis for national and international actions against it.

But the translation of these broad legal norms into statistical terms for measurement purposes is by no means straightforward. The international legal standards contain a number of flexibility clauses left to the discretion of the competent national authority in consultation (where relevant) with employers’ and workers’ organizations (e.g., minimum ages, scope of application). This means that there is no single legal definition of child labour across countries, and concomitantly, no single standard statistical measure of child labour consistent with national legislation across countries.

It should be noted that the concept of child labour in the International legal standards extend up to the age of 17 years. However data shortcomings in Zambia do not permit the identification for older 15 to 17 year old children.

With this limitation in mind, the current report looks primarily at **children in employment** below the general minimum working age of 15 years as a proxy for child labour.



The definition of children in employment in turn derives from the System of National Accounts (SNA) (Rev. 1993), the conceptual framework that sets the international statistical standards for the measurement of the market economy. It covers children in all market production and in certain types of non-market production, including production of goods for own use. It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal sectors, as well as forms of work both inside and outside family settings (see diagram).

It is worth repeating that this child labour proxy is not necessarily consistent with child labour as defined in legal terms in individual countries. In accordance with Convention No.138, for example, national authorities may specify temporarily a lower general minimum age of 14 years. The Convention also states that national laws may permit the work of persons from age 12 or 13 years in “light” work that is not likely to be harmful to their health or development or to prejudice their attendance at school. Using children in employment as a proxy for child labour may therefore overstate actual child labour in some national contexts where a provision for light work exists.

6. The remainder of the report is structured as follows. Chapters 2 and 3 review the macro-economic and policy context in which child labour elimination efforts take place. Chapter 4 presents a descriptive overview of the nature and extent of children's involvement in employment, and how it has changed in recent years. Chapter 5 assesses the future evolution of the target population of children in employment under a set of economic and policy assumptions. Chapter 6 assesses the resource implications of policy options for addressing child labour. The chapter first simulates the cost and impact of providing one element of a needed comprehensive social protection strategy - child cash transfers. It then estimates the costs associated with a package of targeted interventions aimed at preventing and withdrawing children from employment. Chapter 7 concludes.

2. COUNTRY CONTEXT

7. Zambia is a landlocked country surrounded by eight neighbouring countries (Congo DR, Tanzania, Malawi, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana, Namibia and Angola). The country's land surface area of 752,614 square kilometres is made up of three main topographic features: a mountainous range, high plateau and low valley areas. Zambia and Zimbabwe to the south share a man-made lake at Kariba which was built to generate hydro-electric power. Along the border area with Congo DR to the north lies a long mineral rich stretch especially of copper, cobalt and emeralds called the Copperbelt. The country's vegetation is mainly savannah with areas of tropical grassland and woodland consisting of a variety of grass and tree species. Several seasonal flood areas exist in flat swampy and marshy plains such as the Kafue flats, the Bangweulu and Lukanga swamps.

8. Improved economic management has contributed to economic growth at an annual average rate of over five percent since 2000⁶ - the best sustained performance in several decades. The economy proved resilient to the series of shocks that hit the country in 2008, namely the sharp rise in food prices, the hike in fuel prices and the deep global recession.⁷ Provided that sound economic management is maintained, growth is expected to remain strong over the medium term. In March 2005, Zambia was evaluated as having reached the completion point under the enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative, triggering an external debt cancellation of \$3.9 billion over a period extending to 2023. Zambia is also expected to be eligible for additional multilateral debt relief as a result of having reached HIPC Completion. Considering that during most of the 1990s interest payments on foreign debt service were higher than public spending on human development, debt relief will have a potentially far-reaching impact on the country's development prospects. The World Bank reclassified Zambia as a middle income country in 2011, reporting that foreign aid-driven interventions and surging prices of copper in the last few decades resulted in the upward adjustment in Zambia's income growth.

9. Zambians on average have better access to health, education, and safe water than many of their neighbours, but the country's development challenges are nonetheless daunting. Poverty is widespread (see paragraph 10 below), aggravated by rapid population growth. At the same time, the income divide between urban and rural areas remains large, and migration from rural areas to the cities is increasing. Zambia's life expectancy remains very low at 51 years.⁸ This is partially explained by the high prevalence of HIV (the HIV infection rate is 14%⁹) combined with overall poor health indicators. Twelve percent of children die before their fifth birthday and 15 percent of young children are underweight.¹⁰ Forty percent of the population live without sustainable access to an improved water source and 36 percent without access to improved sanitation facilities.¹¹ Zambia ranks 164th out of 187 countries on the United Nations Human

⁶ World Bank, World Development Indicators 2000-2010.

⁷ Government of Zambia, *Zambia Millennium Development Goals Progress Report 2011*, Ministry of Finance and National Planning, Lusaka, Zambia.

⁸ Central Statistical Office, Zambia (2010). "2010 Census of Population and Housing Preliminary Report", CSO, Lusaka, Zambia

⁹ Government of Zambia, *Zambia Millennium Development Goals Progress Report 2011*, Ministry of Finance and National Planning, Lusaka, Zambia.

¹⁰ Government of Zambia, *Zambia Millennium Development Goals Progress Report 2011*, Ministry of Finance and National Planning, Lusaka, Zambia.

¹¹ Government of Zambia, *Zambia Millennium Development Goals Progress Report 2011*, Ministry of Finance and National Planning, Lusaka, Zambia.

Development Index .¹² While the country has made progress towards achieving some of the Millennium Development Goals, attaining many of the specific targets will be difficult (Table 1).

Table 1. Zambia and the Millennium Development Goals: an overview

Goal	Indicator	Latest Figure	2015 target	Will Target be Achieved under the Present Trend?	
	MDG 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger	Proportion of population in extreme poverty (%)	51	29	Significant reforms and investments needed
		Poverty Gap Rate (%)	34	31.1	Yes
		Prevalence of underweight children U-5 (%)	14.6	12.5	Acceleration required
	MDG 2: achieve universal Primary education	Primary school net enrolment rate (%)	102*	100	Yes
		Pupils reaching Grade 7 (%)	91.7	100	Acceleration required
		Literacy rates: 15-24 year olds (%)	70	100	Acceleration required
	MDG 3: Promote Gender equality	Ratio of girls to boys in primary education	0.96	1	Yes
		Ratio of girls to boys in secondary education	0.88	1	Acceleration required
		Ratio of girls to boys in tertiary education	0.74	1	Acceleration required
		Ratio of literate women to men 15-24 years old	0.8	1	Acceleration required
		Share of women in wage employment (%)	0.34	-	-
		Proportion of seats held by women in parliament (%)	14	30	Significant reforms and investments needed
	MDG 4: Reduce Child Mortality	U-5 mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)	119	63.6	Acceleration required
		Infant mortality rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)	70	35.7	Acceleration required
		One-year olds immunized against measles (%)	84.9	100	Acceleration required
	MDG 5: improve Maternal Health	Maternal mortality ratio per 100,000 live births	591.2	162.3	Significant reforms and investments needed
		Births attended by skilled personnel (%)	46.5	-	-
		Contraceptive prevalence rate (%)	24.6	-	-
	MDG 6: Combat Hiv/aids, Malaria and other Major Disease	HIV prevalence rate (%)	14.3	<15.6	Yes
		Proportion of population (15-24 years) with comprehensive, correct knowledge of HIV/AIDS (%)	48	-	-
		Ratio of school attendance of orphans to non-orphans (10-24 years) (%)	97	100	Yes
		Proportion of population with advanced HIV infection with access to ARV	79	80	Yes
		New malaria cases per 1,000 population	252	≤255	Acceleration required
		Malaria fatality rate per 1,000 population	39	11	Acceleration required
		Households with ITNs (%)	64.3	-	-
	MDG 7: ensure environmental Sustainability	Land covered by forests (%)	45	-	-
		Land protected to maintain biological diversity (%)	41	-	-
		Carbon dioxide emissions (MT per capita)	0.22	-	-
		Proportion of population using solid fuels (%)	83.8	-	-
		Proportion of population without access to an improved drinking water source (%)	40	25.5	Acceleration required
		Proportion of population without access to improved sanitation facilities (%)	36.1	13	Significant reforms and investments needed
	MDG 8: Develop a Global Partnership for Development	Overseas development assistance (US\$ m)	918.6	-	-
		Access to markets in developed countries	-	-	-

¹² UNDP, 2011 (<http://hdrstats.undp.org/en/countries/profiles/ZMB.html>).

Partnership for Development	Foreign direct investment (US\$ m)	699.15	-	-
	Fixed telephone lines per 1,000 people	7	-	-
	Cellular subscribers per 1,000 people	322.8	-	-

* NER cannot exceed 100%; however, it is based on demographic data, which does not include factors such as migration within Zambia.

Source: Zambia Millennium Development Goals Progress Report 2011, Ministry of Finance and National Planning, Lusaka, Zambia.

10. The latest evidence points to continued progress in reducing poverty in Zambia, but poverty levels remain very high. According to the 2006 Living Conditions Monitoring Survey (LCMS V), almost 64 percent of the population lived below the “moderate” poverty line (i.e., unable to meeting the monthly cost of all basic needs) and 51 percent lived below the “extreme” poverty line (i.e., unable to meet the cost of the monthly food basket) during the 2006 reference year. The comparable levels in 1998 were 73 percent and 58 percent, respectively. Poverty is increasingly a rural rather than urban phenomenon: in 2006, 80 percent of rural residents lived below the moderate poverty line against only 34 percent of urban residents.

11. Zambia is one of the countries worst-affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. An estimated 14 percent of the population is HIV-positive, severely compromising the country’s social and economic development prospects. A large proportion of Zambian children must grow up in the absence of one or both birth parents. In all, 1.3 million children aged 0-17 years are orphans, of which some 690,000 are orphans as a result of AIDS.¹³ Child labour is linked with the country’s HIV/AIDS crisis. Many children orphaned by the disease must perform some form of work to support themselves and/or their families, interfering with or precluding schooling. The worst off are forced onto the street, where they become involved in prostitution or other harmful and exploitative forms of work.

¹³ UNICEF 2009 (http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/zambia_statistics.html).

3. NATIONAL RESPONSE TO CHILD LABOUR: AN OVERVIEW OF POLICY AND PROGRAMMES

12. This section outlines the strategic approach to child labour and the various programmes and policies in place for eliminating child labour by 2016. For the purpose of this report, programmes and policies are grouped in the following categories: (i) those directly addressing child labour; (ii) education; (iii) social protection; (iv) advocacy and awareness-raising. The legislative framework is not addressed in the section, as it is discussed in the inter-agency report *Understanding Children's Work in Zambia* (2009).¹⁴

3.1 Policies and programmes directly addressing child labour

13. A National Child Policy (NCP) provides core guidelines for improving the welfare and quality of life of children, as well as for protecting their survival and developmental rights.¹⁵ The NCP aims to consolidate all existing and proposed legislation pertaining to children into one easily accessible and comprehensive statute, and also to update laws to incorporate the provisions of UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. The NCP proposes a number of specific measures aimed at stopping the child economic exploitation and child labour in Zambia in the sphere of both prevention and protection.

14. In the specific context of child labour, a National Child Labour Policy (NCLP) was adopted in 2010 and officially launched in 2011. Both District Child Labour Committees and Community Child Labour Committees are in place to facilitate implementation. The NCLP stems from the Government's recognition that child labour is harmful to the development of the child and has long term consequences on the cultural, economic, social and political development of the country. It is the product of extensive consultations and follows a multidimensional approach in the fight against child labour.¹⁶

15. The NCLP recognizes education as the key to reducing children's premature entry into the labour market and contains a number of policy objectives relating to improving the education system and children's access to it.¹⁷ The NCLP highlights the vulnerability of parents/guardians and the HIV and AIDS pandemic as main determinants of child labour, and states the Government's responsibility (through the Ministry of Labour and Social Security) to empower vulnerable parents/guardians through various social safety nets to enhance their ability to support their children. The importance of awareness raising, sensitization, law enforcement, and an improved labour inspection system is also stressed in the NCLP.

16. Recognizing the need for filling the gap between Zambia's international obligations and national action, the Ministry of Labour and Social Security

¹⁴ UCW (2009). *Understanding Children's Work In Zambia*. UCW Country Studies Series.

¹⁵ Initial Report to the Committee on the Rights of the Child, CRC/C/11/Add.25: para. 38

¹⁶ Consultations were undertaken by the Government with the Zambia Congress of Trade Unions (ZCTU), Zambia Federation of Employers (ZFE), the Federation of Free Trade Unions of Zambia faith based organizations (FBOs), non governmental organizations (NGOs) and concerned government ministries.

¹⁷ NCLP policy objectives relating to the education system include: ensuring free education for all children till completion of secondary school; ensuring free education to victims of child labour; developing a school system for reintegration of child labourers into the school system; supporting increased funding to the education sector; encouraging increased support to community schools; ensuring increased number of primary, basic and high schools to match the population growth; promoting a lower teacher-pupil ration by recruiting more teaching staff at all levels of education; formulating an appropriate policy on education of orphans and the vulnerable children which will increase their accessibility to such institutions; and reducing inequalities between the boy and girl child at all levels of education.

developed the National Action Plan for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (NAP) in 2009, which was validated in January 2010 and officially launched in November 2011.¹⁸ The NAP recognizes the complex nature of child labour. Indeed, its first guiding principle is that all activities in the NAP should be imbedded and fully integrated into the national development process. This means that all NAP activities are to be coordinated and linked with the National Development Plan (NDP) and the various sectoral policies and programmes approved by the Government (including the National Child Labour Policy, Education Policy, the Health Policy for Disability, the National Gender policy, National Child Policy, the National Agricultural Policy, and the Decentralization Policy).

17. The NAP envisages the active involvement of government structures, international organizations, NGOs, community-based organizations, faith-based organizations, donors, the private sectors and media organizations. The NAP identifies five strategic priorities to eliminate the WFCL: improved enforcement of existing laws and policies on child labour and lobbying for review of such laws where necessary; young persons (16-18 years) protected from hazardous forms of child labour; strengthening the institutional and technical capacities, including coordination and coalition building and monitoring and evaluation; awareness raising on child labour issues; establishing of monitoring and evaluation systems and maintenance of continuous flow of baseline information; and enhanced prevention, withdrawal and social reintegration system.¹⁹

18. The ILO has implemented two projects towards the elimination of child labour under Pillar III of its Zambia Decent Work Country Programme (Z-DWCP):²⁰ the first is the Time-Bound Programme Support Project (TBP-SP) funded by the US Department of Labour (USDOL); the second is the Tackling Child Labour through Education and Training (TACKLE) project funded by the European Union.

19. The Time-Bound Programme Support Project, which ran from 2006 to March 2010, was designed to support national partners in establishing and begin implementation of the National Action Plan for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (NAP). The project supported the strengthening of the knowledge base on child labour, awareness raising activities, capacity strengthening and mainstreaming child labour interventions into national and local policies and programmes, and direct support to children and families at risk of or in child labour.

20. The TACKLE project aims to contribute to poverty reduction by providing equitable access to basic education and skills development to some of the most disadvantaged segments of society. The project aims to strengthen the capacity of national and local authorities in the formulation, implementation and enforcement of policies to fight child labour in coordination with social partners and civil society. Among its strategies is the strengthening of capacity among national

¹⁸ Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MLSS), National Action Plan for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour 2010-2015, January 2010

¹⁹ Similarly, the National Plan of Action (NPA) for Children in Zambia for 2009-2010 by the Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development develops clear actions to be taken for the survival, growth, promotion, protection and development of the child. Six strategic priorities are outlined in the NPA: strengthening and support the capacity of families to protect and care for children; mobilize and strengthen community-based and government responses for the care, support and protection of children; ensure that the legislation, policy, strategies and programmes are in place to protect all children including the most vulnerable children; ensure access for all children including OVC to basic essential services; raise awareness and advocacy to create supportive environment for children; and engage the multi-sectoral community to play an active role in supporting the survival, protection and development of children.

²⁰ The Zambia Decent Work Programme, revised in 2009, identifies three priorities for Zambia: i) job creation for women, young people and people with disabilities; ii) prevention and mitigation of HIV/AIDS in the world of work, and iii) elimination of child labour, particularly in its worst forms.

partners to provide quality education and training to all children to prevent their premature entry into work. Through its mandate, the TACKLE project partners with Ministry of Labour and Social Security and the Ministry of Education. The implementation of TACKLE started in 2008 and will run until 2012. The project is engaged in both upstream work related to the policy and legal framework and institutional capacity strengthening, and downstream work related to targeted interventions, networking, advocacy, sensitization and enhanced information sharing.

3.2 Education

21. Child labour and children's education are closely linked. Evidence presented in the inter-agency *Understanding Children's Work* report (2009) shows that school-related factors are particularly important in explaining the parents' decisions to keep children from school. High schooling costs, lack of interest or approval of schooling and long distance from school were cited by more than one in three adult respondents in explaining why their children were absent from school (UCW, 2009).

Panel 2. Education system in Zambia

The formal education system in Zambia is a 9-3-4+ structure (nine years of basic, three of high school and four years plus of university education). Zambia's education system consists of a multi structure comprising pre schooling, basic, secondary and tertiary levels.

Historically, primary and secondary education was offered in separate institutions, but this changed with the development of basic schools, which provide the first nine years of schooling. This in itself has posed a challenge in that many pupils that make it to grade 9 have to be moved from the so called upper basic to high schools which offer Grades 10 to 12. However, following a recent directive, Zambia is now in the process of reverting back to the primary and secondary school structure.

Community schools play a central role in the Zambian education system: these schools are founded by communities to meet the basic education needs of those children who are not in formal schools. (see Annex I).

22. The Government of Zambia's national policy on education, *Educating Our Future*, was published in 1996 and focuses primarily on decentralization, partnership, equity, efficiency, quality, democratization and effectiveness.²¹ Under this policy, the Government aims to have every child access nine years basic education by 2015. In 1997, the Government adopted the Education Sector Investment Plan (ESIP). On this basis, the Government developed plans for two subsectors, the *Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Plan* (BESSIP, Ministry of Education) and the *Technical Education and Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training* plan (TEVET, Ministry of Science, Technology and Vocational Training). A *Free Basic Education* policy (Grades 1-7) was announced in February 2002 by the President of Zambia. The policy abolishes all user fees while uniforms are no longer compulsory.

23. In the context of the above, the policy thrust of the Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010) operationalised by the education sector through the National Implementation Framework was to contribute to the provision of accessible quality and equitable education at all levels of the system. The Ministry of Education integrated many project-based interventions directly into the Fifth National Development Plan and in its annual work plan and budget. These project-based activities are usually supported by key cooperating partners, but also include

²¹ The World Conference on Education for All in 1990 in Jomtien gave impetus to the education sector, although it took almost ten years before the plans were turned into concrete action. Indeed, as a result of the economic situation, the previous document by the MoE, *Focus on Learning* (1992), failed to mobilise resources needed to develop the formal education in schools.

local and international NGOs. Projects collaborate with the Ministry by adhering to sound operating principles for projects. The above has been carried on into the development of the follow up Implementation Framework for the Sixth National Development Plan.

Panel 3. Education and Vision 2030: Innovative and productive life-long education and training accessible to all by 2030

The policy of the Government for the education sector can be summarized as follows

- The Government shall facilitate *equitable access to education* at all levels;
- The Government is committed to *delivery of quality and relevant education*, which enhances knowledge skills, attitude, values and lifelong learning;
- It is Government policy to *improve policy formulation, planning and information management environment*. Complementary to this is the provision of a sufficient, skilled and motivated human resource to manage the education system.
- In its pursuit for quality in educational services delivery, the Government shall support an adequately-financed, professionally managed, accountable and *cost effective decentralised education delivery system*.
- The Government shall support an education system that *counters the HIV and AIDS pandemic* and will continue to mitigate its adverse impact on education delivery, with particular attention paid to the needs of orphans.
- *Functional literacy education* shall be promoted through non-formal education.
- Effective *partnerships with other stakeholders in educational services provision* shall be developed, focusing on Faith-based Organizations and other religious bodies, the private sector, NGOs, community-based organizations, traditional leadership, Cooperating Partners/donors, and individuals.

The Government of Zambia target to 2030 are the following:

- Put in place a comprehensive and diversified curricula that is responsive to the social and economic needs of the individual and the community by 2030;
- Increase the literacy rates to 80% by 2015 and work towards eliminating illiteracy by 2030;
- Increase Net Enrolment Rates to 96% by 2010 and to 99% by 2030 at basic school level (Grade 1-9);
- Improve pupil/teacher ratio to 40:1 at basic school and 25:1 at High school by 2030;
- Improve the pupil/text book ratio at basic school to 1:1 in all subjects by 2030 and 1:3 in all subjects at High School by 2030;
- Reduce the average distance to basic schools to 5 km radius to 75% of the potential learners by 2030; and
- Increase university and skills training output by 2% per annum, and increase equity of access while maintaining internationally recognised and locally validated standards of quality.

Source: Ministry of Education, National Implementation Framework 2008-2009, Lusaka, 2007

24. The Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Plan (BESSIP) addressed the issues of access and quality improvement at the basic education level. Strategies and plans for BESSIP were developed over a three year period and then extended until 2006. BESSIP sought to improve access to education through: constructing new schools; reducing school cost for parents by providing grants to schools; enrolling children who had dropped out or had never gone to school, and offering more bursaries to vulnerable children. At the same time, the quality of education was to be improved through: providing textbooks; more focused and decentralized training; implementing a national assessment of the education system; revising the basic school curriculum; and teaching initial literacy through familiar languages.

25. A Primary Reading Programme was set up in 1998 in order to enhance reading and writing skills at the lower grades (grades 1-4) and middle (grades 5-7) basic education levels. From its beginning in 1998 in 25 schools it was subsequently expanded to cover the entire country. The programme has become a key route to literacy for all pupils from Grade 1 to Grade 7 in government and community schools. The programme's main purpose was to improve pupils' literacy through

the use of local languages: children in the first classes start to learn to read and write in one of the seven main Zambian languages before moving to English.

26. A *Free Primary Education (FPE)* policy was announced and immediately introduced in February 2002. Guidelines mandating the elimination of fees for grades 1 to 7 were prepared by the Ministry of Education (MOE) and circulated to schools. Studies suggest that the policy has had an important impact on enrolment among disadvantaged groups.²² The *Programme for the Advancement of Girls Education* and a re-entry policy for pregnant girls improved access to education for girls, while the bursary schemes and the *School Health and Nutrition Programme* improved access for the poor (Mwansa et. al. 2004).

3.3 Social protection

27. The empirical results cited in the inter-agency *Understanding Children's Work* report (2009) indicated that children's work frequently forms part of a household's strategy for dealing with risk, making them less vulnerable to losses of income arising from individual or collective shocks. The Government recognises that reducing household vulnerability by expanding social protection is a critical priority in the country. In this context, the Sixth National Development Plan (SNDP 2011-2015) focuses on effectively coordinating and providing social protection through empowering low capacity households, providing social assistance to incapacitated households and supporting various vulnerable groups. The key objectives, strategies and programmes for the social protection sector during the SNDP period are summarised in Table 2 below. A more comprehensive list of Zambia social protection schemes is reported in the Annex 1.

Table 2. Social protection sector: Objectives, strategies and programmes during SNDP period

	Objectives	Strategies	Programmes
1.	Empower low capacity households (LCHs).	a) Provide access to finance, agricultural inputs and training to vulnerable groups; and b) Expand social security coverage to formal and informal sectors.	Empowerment of low capacity households
2.	Provide social assistance to incapacitated households.	a) Provide regular, predictable transfers to the chronically poor to support basic needs and human development; and b) Provide discrete transfers in response to shocks to people at risk of rapid deterioration in economic and social wellbeing and security;	Social assistance to incapacitated households
3.	To provide care and support to vulnerable children and youth.	a) Provide places of safety, vocational and life skills training to vulnerable children and youth; and b) Support school attendance of vulnerable children and youth**.	Support for vulnerable children and youth
4.	To ensure the protection of human rights and provision of services to vulnerable groups	a) Establish one stop centres and places of safety in all the Provincial centers; and b) Provide empowerment for survivors of violence & human trafficking through the provision of livelihood services.	Enhancement of access to justice for vulnerable groups

Source: Republic of Zambia, Sixth National Development Plan 2011-2015: Sustained Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction. January 2011.

Transfer schemes

28. The *National Pension Scheme Authority (NAPSA)* was established in 1996 and became operational in 2000. It is a compulsory scheme that covers regularly employed persons in the private, para-statal sectors and all employees who joined the public Service and Local Authorities on or after 1 February 2000.²³ NAPSA was the largest pension scheme in Zambia with about 355,200 members at the end of 2005. The minimum entry age into the scheme is 16 years and the worker needs to be employed by a registered contributing employer. To qualify for retirement

²² Mwansa et al. (2004)

²³ For a comprehensive list of members and exemptions, see ILO 2008

benefits the member must have reached the retirement age (55 years) or five years prior to retirement age but must have contributed to the scheme for a minimum period specified by the Authority. The minimum pension is set at 20% of national average earning which is determined by the Authority annually using the data from Central Statistical Office.

29. The largest *school feeding programme* (SFP) currently operating began in mid-2003 and is funded by the World Food Programme.²⁴ The SFP seeks to address the nutritional needs of children from poor households in food-insecure areas while improving enrolment and attendance rates as well as children's performance at school. Targeted at orphans and other vulnerable children, it combines the provision of on-site meals in primary schools with take-home rations provided to children, particularly girls, from vulnerable households who are otherwise unlikely to attend school. An additional component of the SFP consists of monthly HIV and AIDS sensitization sessions conducted in the schools. In addition to nutritional support, the programme facilitates basic health services for school children such as de-worming and promotes the cultivation of school gardens as a means of generating income for schools. In 2006 the SFP covered 526 community schools in 11 districts in four provinces. Around 140,000 children benefited from on-site school feeding and close to 35,000 households from take-home ration.

30. Implemented alongside the government policy of free primary education, school feeding is said to have a generally positive impact on child education through stabilized attendance rates at primary schools and improved academic performance among child beneficiaries. At the same time, the take-home ration provides a significant form of food and income support for the most vulnerable household. However, the school feeding programme has been highlighted to be too expensive, inefficient and donor dependent. There are also concerns relating to its effectiveness, with increased primary-school enrolment rates attributed more to the increase in the number of community schools rather than to programme incentives. Food quality is another area of concern (ILO, 2008). However, more systematic evaluations are needed before any concrete conclusions about the effectiveness of school feeding can be drawn.

31. The *Food Security Pack* (FSP) is a country-wide public programme providing basic agricultural inputs, technology transfers and training to vulnerable small-scale farming households in the form of a low-interest loan. Established in 2000, it is operated by Programme Against Malnutrition (PAM) and is targeted at small agricultural households that face food insecurity as a result of endemic poverty and/or insufficient seasonal rainfall. Every year 200,000 households are targeted at community level by committees consisting of central and local government officials, NGOs and local leaders. Each beneficiary household is entitled to a food security pack consisting of basic agricultural inputs (seeds), training in conservation farming and food-processing, technology transfers and marketing assistance provided seasonally over a two-year period, with the average annual benefit package valued at around USD 38 per household. Following the harvest, beneficiaries are required to pay back a portion of their production (between 10 and 20% of the value of inputs provided) which is allocated to communal seed reserves.

32. Out of the 300,000 households that benefited from the programme until 2006, 10% graduated, becoming self-sufficient in food production and able to gain access independently to commercial agricultural services. At the same time, 70%

²⁴ There have been a number of government-sponsored school-feeding programmes in Zambia since the 1970s.

of the loans were reported as having been recovered from households having graduated, with repayments used to support additional beneficiaries.

33. The FSP has led to some significant gains in food production at both household and national level. At household level, those receiving the pack have witnessed increased crop yields, leading to improved nutrition and additional income from the sale of excess produce. Such households have therefore been able to escape the worst forms of poverty and in some instances even invest in human development. The programme has also contributed to greater food security at the national level, stabilizing crop yields in poor-performing agricultural areas and reducing the need for emergency assistance following adverse seasonal rains. Rural areas have benefited from the growth of local markets, while urban areas face a potential fall in food prices. Overall, the investment in national food production represented by the programme has achieved annual returns of between 200 and 300%. However, a number of barriers have arisen and the programme is suffering from poor and erratic funding. Moreover, external factors such as unpredictable rains, a lack of interest in farming among some beneficiaries, and confusion about the aims of government assistance among some communities have also contributed to the relatively low graduation rates achieved by the programme (ILO, 2008).

34. The *Public Welfare Assistance Scheme* (PWAS) reaches out to over 100,000 beneficiaries providing a range of benefits linked to better nutrition and health, income support, child protection, education and occupational training. PWAS will soon include elements of cash transfers. Established in the 1950s to provide support to Zambian war veterans, PWAS was redesigned in the second half of the 1990s to decentralize its operation and include elements of community decision making in welfare assistance.

35. PWAS aims to help the poorest and most vulnerable households throughout the country to meet their basic needs. Targeted groups include: households where the head is elderly, chronically ill, a disabled woman or a child; households with no productive assets, relatives to provide assistance or adults capable of working; victims of natural disasters, people with poor-quality housing, orphans and children not at school, including street children. Assistance to a value of USD 2-20 annually is provided in health, education and social support.

36. PWAS covers 6,500 communities, with 166,559 individuals receiving benefits in 2006. However, the programme is operating below the target of 200,000 beneficiaries per year.

37. Since its last restructuring in 2000, the scheme received mixed reviews. On the one hand, the identification of needy individuals and disbursement of benefits at community level are considered innovative, cost efficient and empowering way of delivering social assistance to the needy. On the other hand, the scheme is reported to suffer from weak administrative capacity and from lack of funds. The community-based targeting mechanism is also reported to be susceptible to manipulation and not sustainable in the long run as the activities are carried out by volunteers from the Community Welfare Assistance Committees (CWACs). (ILO, 2008)

38. A group of *social cash transfer* schemes are financed by international donors and implemented under PWAS structures in a few districts of the country. Implementation of pilot schemes started in 2003 as a pilot scheme in Kalomo District of Southern Province, followed by one in Kazungula (2005), in Chipata (2006) and in Monze and Katete (2007). In 2009 a decision was taken to rollout a national social cash transfer scheme (SCTS) to cover the whole country by 2012.²⁵

²⁵ Dennis Kaputo Chiwele, *Assessing Administrative Capacity and Costs of Cash Transfer Schemes in Zambia*, International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth, Country Study, February 2010

These schemes pay out modest monthly cash benefits reaching close to 70,000 households. They have been implemented with some variation so that they generate information on the feasibility, costs and benefits and negative impacts.

Public works

39. In the case of public works the objectives are usually two-fold: to provide seasonal safety nets to address cyclical poverty and vulnerability at times of need by offering employment; and to create community assets that are beneficial for productive activities (ODI, 2008).

40. The *Project Urban Self-Help* (PUSH) is a government funded public works programme that originated in the early 1990s. PUSH is a peri-urban self-programme to develop urban infrastructure and mitigate the negative effects of economic reform. In principle, linking income and consumption support to the development of infrastructure combines protection and promotion. In practice, however, the programme prioritises food transfers to areas affected by natural disasters where vulnerability is acute and infrastructure development has remained a secondary objective.

41. Beneficiaries were typically the extreme poor, whose family members had lost jobs as a result of economic reform or were victims of natural disasters, such as drought and floods, or were women and orphans. Beneficiaries of PUSH took part in public-works projects aiming at the upgrading of infrastructure and public services, in exchange for which they received food and other in-kind benefits such as clothing and shelter. Although the in-kind benefits were assessed as below the minimum formal sector wage, demand for participation has been consistently high and has frequently outstripped the number of available places. Major reported outputs in 2006 included the construction of 540 water wells in the Western Province, two community markets in North-Western Province and three community schools in Eastern Province. Nevertheless, monitoring of the programme has also revealed that in several cases infrastructure improvements were of poor quality, while the skills obtained by participants were put to little use owing to poor macroeconomic conditions and a lack of access to capital (ILO, 2008)

42. There are many smaller, shorter-term public works programmes implemented by NGOs. One example is CARE's agricultural inputs-for-assets (AICA) programme. In most cases, the primary objective is protection rather than promotion and most programmes are short-term and part of a humanitarian response (ODI, 2008)

4. CHILDREN'S INVOLVEMENT IN EMPLOYMENT

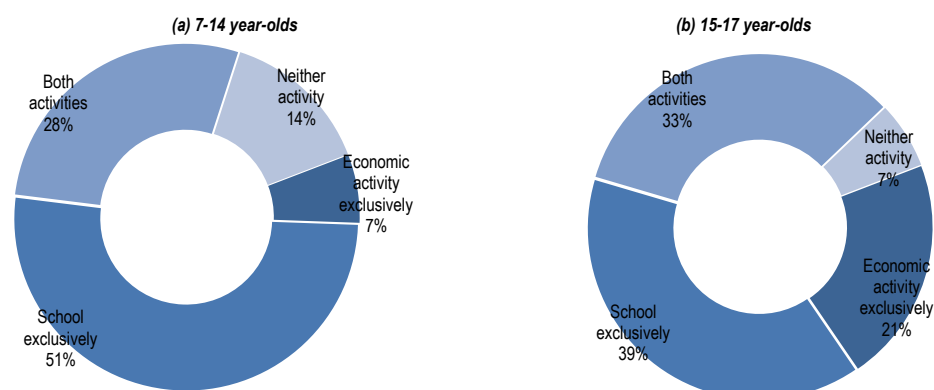
43. This section provides an overview of results from Zambia Labour Force Survey conducted in 2008 (LFS 2008). It reports descriptive data from LFS 2008 on the extent and nature of children's work in Zambia, disaggregated by child age, sex and residence, and on how children's involvement in work has been changing over time.

4.1 Extent of children's involvement in employment

44. Child involvement in employment²⁶ remains very high in Zambia. More than one out of every three children aged 7-14 years, some 950,000 children in absolute terms, are at work in employment. About 28% of children under the age of 13 years are at work in employment, the absolute minimum age specified for light work in the amended Employment of Young Persons and Children (EYPC) Act of 2004.²⁷ A comparison with survey results from 2005, however, points to important progress in reducing child labour. An estimated 48% of 7-14 year-olds, 1.2 million children in absolute terms, were in employment in 2005. Trends in children's employment are discussed further in Section 4.3 of this report.

45. Most children at work in employment also attend school. Indeed, 81% working children are also in school. This figure, however, should not be interpreted as evidence that work and schooling are compatible. Indeed, evidence presented in the inter-agency *Understanding Children's Work* report (UCW, 2009) indicated that work involvement is associated with higher levels of repetition, slower grade progression and reduced school life expectancy, suggesting that working students are disadvantaged in the classroom.

Figure 5. Distribution of children by activity category, 7-14 years and 15-17 years age groups



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

46. Another way of viewing children's involvement in work and schooling is by disaggregating the child population into four non-overlapping activity groups –

²⁶ In line with the definition of children in employment adopted by the 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians, the threshold for classifying a person as employed is to have been engaged at least one hour in any activity during the reference period relating to the production of goods and services set by the 1993 UN System of National Accounts. Children seeking work are thus excluded. Employment covers all market production and certain nonmarket production, including production of goods for own use. It excludes unpaid household services (commonly called "household chores")—that is, the production of domestic and personal services by household members for own-household consumption.

²⁷ Zambia specified a general minimum working age of 15 years. The lower age limit of 13 years refers only to "light" work that (i) is not hazardous to their health and psychological development and (ii) will not affect their school attendance.

children only engaged in employment, children only attending school, children combining school and employment and children doing neither (Figure 5). This disaggregation shows that 28% of all 7-14 year-olds work and attend school at the same time, while only six percent work in employment without also going to school. A further 51% of all children aged 7-14 attends school exclusively, while the remaining 14% of 7-14 year-olds is “inactive”, i.e., not involved in employment or in schooling. Activity patterns differ somewhat for older, 15-17 year-old children: a greater share is in employment exclusively and a smaller share is in school exclusively or is inactive compared to the 7-14 years age group.

Table 3. Child activity status, by age group and sex, 2008

Activity status	Children aged 7-14 years						Children aged 15-17 years					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Employment exclusively	92233	6.7	84549	6.1	176782	6.4	100264	20.3	102792	22.4	203056	21.3
School exclusively	695813	50.3	725501	52.6	1421314	51.4	194787	39.4	177612	38.7	372399	39.1
Both activities	398643	28.8	376276	27.3	774919	28.0	175028	35.4	142475	31.0	317503	33.3
Neither activity	198128	14.3	193849	14.1	391977	14.2	24007	4.9	36247	7.9	60254	6.3
Total employment^(a)	491780	35.4	461759	33.3	953539	34.4	275578	55.7	245786	53.4	521364	54.6
Total school^(b)	1102770	78.9	1109458	79.7	2212228	79.3	371259	74.9	321695	69.8	692954	72.4

Notes: (a) Refers to all children in employment, regardless of school status; (b) Refers to all children attending school, regardless of work status.

Source: UCW calculation based on Zambia *Labour Force Survey*, 2008

Table 4. Child activity status, by age group and place of residence, 2008

Activity status	Children aged 7-14 years						Children aged 15-17 years					
	Urban		Rural		Total		Urban		Rural		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Employment exclusively	13891	1.5	162891	8.8	176782	6.4	42508	11.5	160548	27.5	203056	21.3
School exclusively	684417	74.4	736899	40.0	1421316	51.4	215364	58.5	157036	26.9	372400	39.1
Both activities	124250	13.5	650670	35.3	774920	28.0	71193	19.3	246310	42.1	317503	33.3
Neither activity	97666	10.6	294311	16.0	391977	14.2	39216	10.7	21038	3.6	60254	6.3
Total employment^(a)	138223	15.0	815316	44.0	953539	34.4	113884	30.9	407480	69.6	521364	54.6
Total school^(b)	818806	87.7	1393421	75.1	2212227	79.3	288047	77.8	404907	69.0	692954	72.4

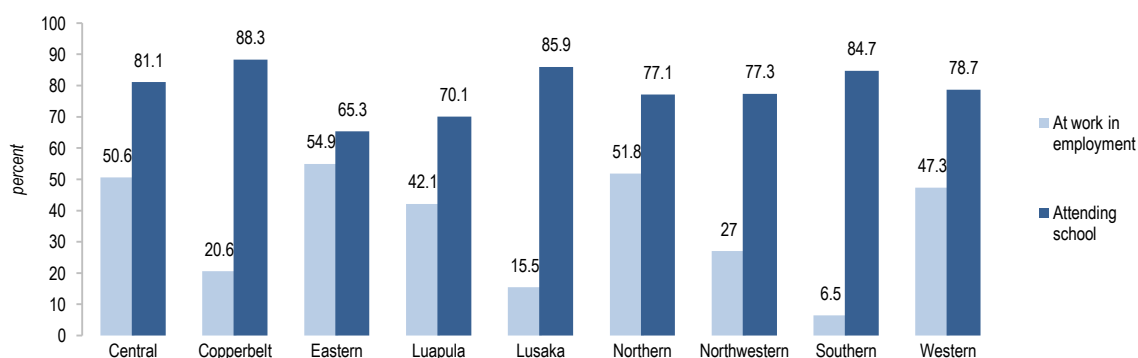
Notes: (a) Refers to all children in employment, regardless of school status; (b) Refers to all children attending school, regardless of work status.

Source: UCW calculation based on Zambia *Labour Force Survey*, 2008

47. Aggregate estimates of children’s activities mask important differences by residence, region, age and sex. Table 3 and Table 4 illustrate the main patterns.

- *Residence.* Children’s involvement in economic activity is largely a rural (agriculture sector) phenomenon. Children living in cities and towns are considerably less likely than their rural counterparts to engage in economic activity, at every age and for both sexes. At the same time, urban children are more likely to attend school generally (88% versus 75 percent), and much more likely to attend school exclusive of work (74% versus 40 percent).
- *Region.* Sub-national data point to large regional differences in children’s work, underscoring the need for the geographic targeting of child labour elimination efforts (Figure 6). In four provinces (Central, Eastern, Northern and Western) around one-half of children work in employment. In Southern province, by contrast, only about one in 20 children is in employment. There is less geographic variation in school attendance; at least 70% of 7-14 year-olds attend school in all but Eastern province.

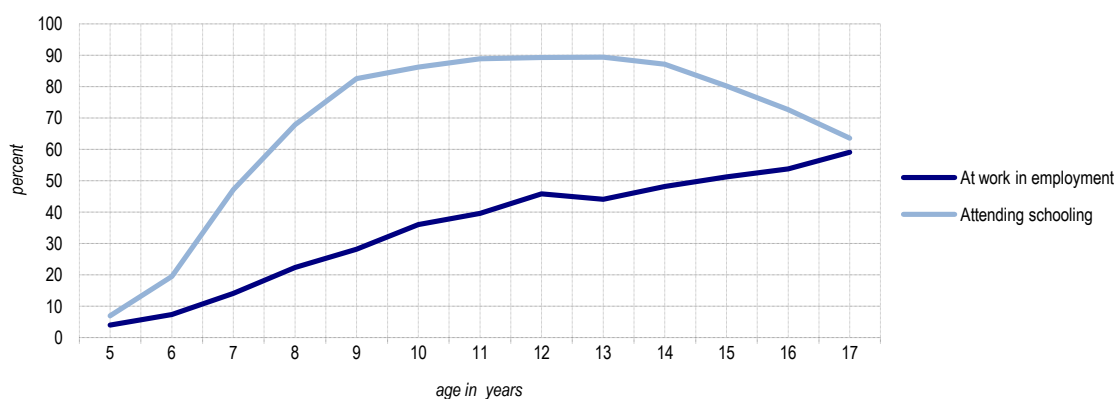
Figure 6. Child employment and school attendance rates, 7-14 years age group, by province



Source: UCW calculation based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

- Gender.** There is surprisingly little difference in the time use patterns of boys and girls in rural or urban areas in the 7-14 years age group. The share of boys and girls aged 7-14 years in economic activity and in school (or in both or in neither) are almost equal. Larger differences by sex emerge among older, 15-17 year-old children. Boys are more likely than girls to be in school and less likely to work exclusively (Table 3).
- Age.** Child economic activity rises sharply with age, but numbers of even very young working children are far from negligible. Around 14% of seven year-olds and 36% of 10 year-olds are already at work in economic activity. These children, needless to say, are most vulnerable to workplace abuse and injury, and are most likely to have their education compromised. School attendance rises (i.e. entrants exceed early leavers) until the age of 11 years and then begins to fall from the age of 13 years onwards.

Figure 7. Children's involvement in economic activity, by age, sex and residence⁽¹⁾



Source: UCW calculation based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

48. The time-intensiveness of children's work in employment is also a concern in Zambia. Involvement in work *per se* is a relatively crude measure of the work burden faced by children because it does not capture work *intensity*, i.e., the time spent by children in work.²⁸ As shown in Table 5, the intensity of children's work is high in Zambia. Working children aged 7-14 years work an average of 4.4 hours per day, or almost 31 hours per week. Even those who are also students must put

²⁸ In line with the international definition of employment, children classified as at work in employment can work as little as one hour per week.

in 30 working hours per week, with obvious consequences on their time and energy for study. Average weekly working hours rise further when the time these children spend on household chores is also considered. As discussed in the inter-agency *Understanding Children's Work* report (UCW, 2009), three-quarters of all children in employment also perform household chores in their own homes.

Table 5. Average daily working hours, children aged 7-14 years, by sex, place of residence, status and sector of employment

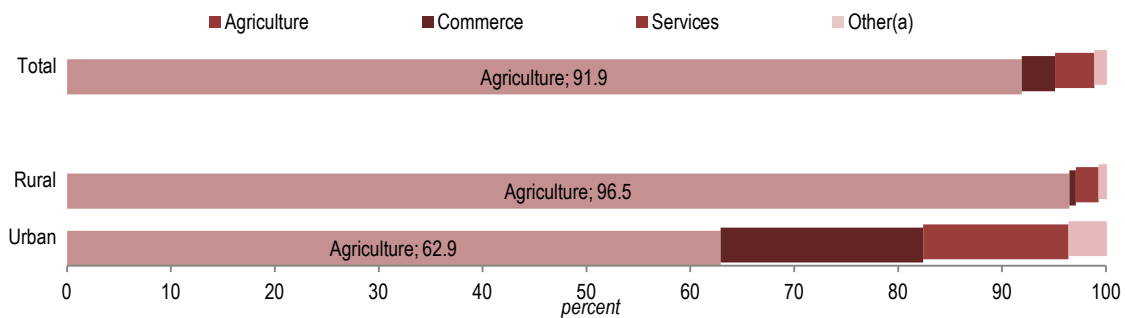
Characteristics		All children in employment	Children only in employment	Children in employment and schooling
Sex	Male	4.4	5.0	4.2
	Female	4.3	4.6	4.3
Residence	Urban	4.5	5.0	4.5
	Rural	4.3	4.8	4.2
Total 7-14		4.4	4.8	4.2

Source: UCW calculation based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

4.2 Characteristics of children's work in employment

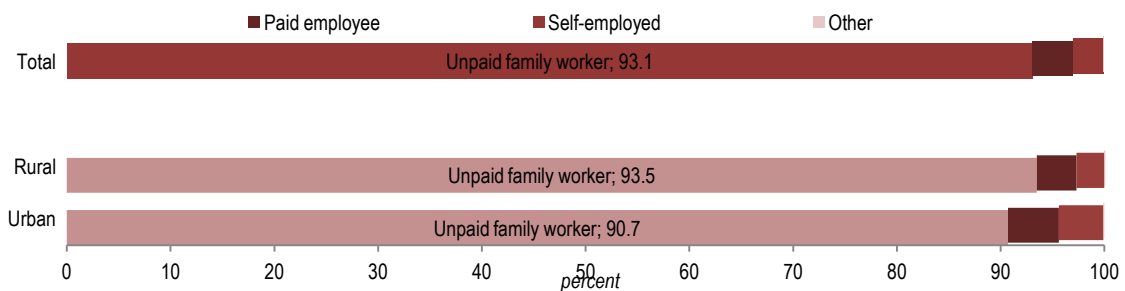
49. Children's employment in Zambia is concentrated overwhelmingly in one sector – agriculture. Almost 92% of total 7-14 year-olds in employment work in agriculture, against around four percent in services and three percent in trade. Differences by sex in terms of sector of employment are not large: girls are slightly less likely than boys to be in agriculture, and more likely to be in services and trade. There are larger differences in the nature of children's employment by place of residence. While agricultural work accounts for almost all children's employment in rural areas, their employment in urban areas is more varied. Agricultural work still predominates, but trade and services sector work is also an important proportion in urban areas.

Figure 8. Employment sector, children in employment aged 7-14 years, by residence



Source: UCW calculation based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

Figure 9. Employment sector, children in employment aged 7-14 years, by residence



Source: UCW calculation based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

50. Almost all children in employment work for their families as unpaid labour, with little variation by age, place of residence or sex (Table 6). In all, 93% of children in employment work within the family. Only about four percent of children work as paid employees. Again, there is very little variation by age and sex, but some differences in work modality by rural or urban residence. Children living in cities and towns are slightly less likely to work for their families, and slightly more likely to be involved in waged work and self employment, compared to their counterparts living in the peri-urban and rural areas.

Table 6. Employment status of children, by age, sex and place of residence

Background characteristic		Status in employment				
		Unpaid family worker	Paid employee	Self-employed	Other	Total
Residence	Urban	90.7	4.9	4.3	0.1	100
	Rural	93.5	3.8	2.7	0.1	100
Total 7-14	Total	93.1	3.9	2.9	0.1	100

Source: UCW calculation based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

4.3 Trends in children's employment

51. A previous labour force survey for the 2005 reference year permits a look at how the level and composition of children's activities, and particularly children's employment, has changed in recent years. A comparison of the results from the 2005 and 2008 labour force surveys shows a dramatic decline in children's employment of 14 percentage points during this period (from 48 percent to 34 percent). In absolute terms, there were over 270,000 fewer children in employment in 2008 than in 2005. The progress in reducing children's employment during this period extended to both boys and girls is shown in Table 7. The decline in employment was not, however, accompanied by similar gains in children's school attendance: the proportion of children attending school rose by only about three percentage points from 2005 to 2008.

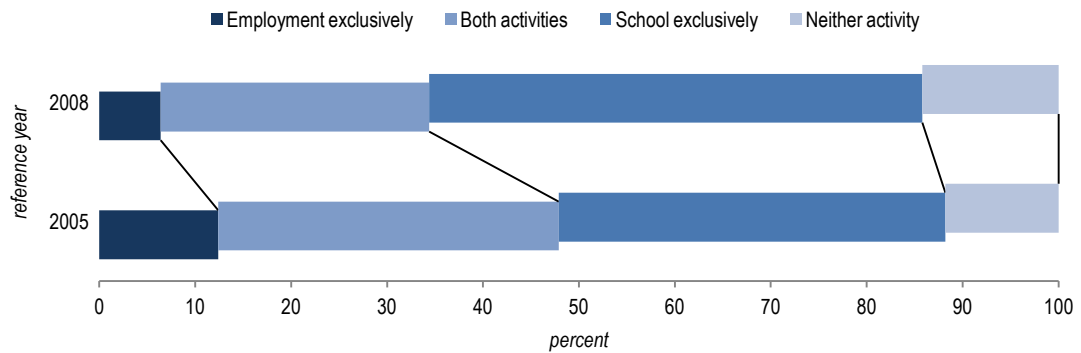
Table 7. Changes in child activity status, 7-14 years age group, by sex and residence, 2005 and 2008

Activity status	Male				Female				Total			
	2005		2008		2005		2008		2005		2008	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Employment exclusively	172,600	13.3	92,233	6.7	145,414	11.5	84,549	6.1	318,014	12.4	176,782	6.4
School exclusively	512,889	39.6	695,813	50.3	517,416	41.0	725,501	52.6	1,030,305	40.3	1,421,314	51.4
Both activities	462,556	35.7	398,643	28.8	446,202	35.3	376,276	27.3	908,758	35.5	774,919	28.0
Neither activity	147,196	11.4	198,128	14.3	154,644	12.2	193,849	14.1	301,840	11.8	391,977	14.2
Total employment^(a)	635,156	49.0	491,780	35.4	591,616	46.8	461,759	33.3	1,226,772	47.9	953,539	34.4
Total school^(b)	975,445	75.3	1,102,770	78.9	963,618	76.3	1,109,458	79.7	1,939,063	75.8	2,212,228	79.3

Notes: (a) Refers to all children in employment, regardless of school status; (b) Refers to all children attending school, regardless of work status.

Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2005 and 2008

Figure 10. Changes in the composition of children's activities, 7-14 years age group, 2002/03-2005/06



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2005 and 2008

52. Figure 10 illustrates how the composition of children's activities changed over the 2005 to 2008 period. It shows that the measured reduction in children's employment came from both the group of children working exclusively (decreasing by 6 percentage points) and from the group working and attending school (decreasing by 7 percentage points). In other words, the changes reflected more children choosing not to work in order to go to school full-time, as well as more students choosing not to combine work with study. While overall school attendance changed little during 2005-2008 period (3 percentage points), the proportion of children attending school exclusively, unburdened by work responsibilities, changed by much more (11 percentage points). This also constitutes an important gain in educational terms, as the double burden of work and schooling is associated with poorer educational outcomes.

4.4 Determinants of child labour

53. As most children (excluding those that live on their own) exercise little control over their time allocations, determining why children work requires investigating why parents choose to engage their children in work rather than sending them to school or leaving them idle at home. In this section we estimated a model that explains parental decisions concerning children's participation in employment and schooling as a function of a set of child, household and district variables:

$$Y_{id} = \beta_0 + X_i' \beta_1 + Z_d' \beta_2 + u_{id}$$

54. where i denotes an individual, d a district (there are 72 districts, most of which spanning over both urban and rural areas). The X_i are individual characteristics and the Z_d are local characteristics.

55. Table 8 reports descriptive statistics (sample averages) for the set of child, household and district variables used in the analysis.

56. The set of variables used in the analysis includes: the age of the child; a dummy variable taking value 1 if the child is male (*male*); a set of dummy variables describing the relationship to the household head (*head/spouse, grandchild, other relative, non relative*); a dummy variable taking value 1 if the mother/father deceased (*mother/father deceased*); a dummy variable taking value 1 if the child is not living with the mother/father (*not living with mother/father*); a dummy variable taking value 1 if a child has disability (*disability*); a set of dummies variable taking into account the level of education of the household head (*primary, junior secondary, tertiary, being no education the reference group*); a dummy variable taking value 1 if the household head can read or write (*head can*

read/write); a dummy variable taking value 1 if the household is female headed (*female headed*); a dummy variable taking value 1 if the household has a job (*head employed*); the child to adult population ratio at the district level (*child/adult population*); and the logarithm of the household size (*household size (log)*).

Table 8. Descriptive statistics, children aged 7-15^(a)

		Not in employment	In employment	All	
Child characteristics	Age	10.41	11.71	11.06	
	Male	0.49	0.52	0.50	
	Relationship to household head	Head/spouse	0.00	0.01	0.01
		Child/stepchild	0.76	0.77	0.76
		Grandchild	0.11	0.11	0.11
		Other relative	0.12	0.11	0.11
		Non relative	0.00	0.01	0.00
	Mother deceased	0.09	0.10	0.10	
	Father deceased	0.21	0.20	0.20	
	Not living with mother	0.22	0.22	0.22	
	Not living with father	0.36	0.35	0.35	
	Disability	0.01	0.01	0.01	
Household characteristics	Rural	0.56	0.85	0.71	
	Head age	43.49	44.78	44.14	
	Head Education	Less than primary	0.10	0.15	0.13
		Primary	0.38	0.49	0.44
		Junior secondary	0.19	0.18	0.19
		Senior secondary	0.25	0.15	0.2
		Tertiary	0.08	0.03	0.05
	Head can read/write	0.84	0.79	0.82	
	Female headed	0.23	0.22	0.23	
	Head employed	0.93	0.97	0.95	
p.c. Earnings (ZMK)	88412.3	42238.61	65325.45		
Household size	7.12	6.95	7.03		
District characteristics	Teacher/school population (x 100)	4.09	3.35	3.72	
	Employment rate prime age mean	0.82	0.92	0.87	
	Child/adult population (7-15/20-50)	0.97	1.01	0.99	
	Average local p.c. earnings (ZMK)	98806.4	49589.87	74198.13	

Notes: (a) Sample averages of the set of child, household and district variables used in the analysis.
Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

57. School quality is taken into consideration using as a proxy the share of teachers over the school population at the district level (*teacher/school population*). Labour market characteristics are taken into account by including the employment rate at district level (*employment rate*).

58. In order to analyze the role of living standards, we include both per capita labour income as a fraction (or a multiple) of local average per capita income (*p.c. earnings/average*) and the average local income (*p.c. average earnings*). Average local income refers to the average across all households (whether with children or not) in the same district and area (rural or urban). The coefficient on the first variable measures the effect of being at different points along the income distribution relative to the average household in the area of residence, while the coefficient on the average local income measures generalized differences in living standards, including those that generate variation in both the demand and the supply of child labour. We transform both earnings variables using the square root (that is akin to a log transformation but has the advantage of being defined for zero earnings).

Table 9. Determinants of children's time use (children aged 7-15 years)

		(1)School	(2)Work	(3)Hours	(4) Neither in school nor at work	
Child characteristics	Age ^(a)					
		8	0.118***(0.004)	0.133***(0.012)	0.329***(0.046)	-0.067***(0.002)
		9	0.170***(0.003)	0.227***(0.013)	0.612***(0.049)	-0.094***(0.002)
		10	0.193***(0.003)	0.327***(0.012)	1.023***(0.046)	-0.111***(0.002)
		11	0.188***(0.003)	0.368***(0.012)	1.226***(0.050)	-0.108***(0.002)
		12	0.201***(0.003)	0.435***(0.010)	1.549***(0.047)	-0.122***(0.002)
		13	0.190***(0.003)	0.440***(0.011)	1.559***(0.050)	-0.113***(0.002)
		14	0.186***(0.003)	0.475***(0.010)	1.826***(0.049)	-0.119***(0.002)
		15	0.165***(0.003)	0.498***(0.010)	2.026***(0.049)	-0.114***(0.002)
		Male	-0.006(0.004)	0.014***(0.005)	0.077***(0.022)	0.004(0.003)
	Relationship to HH head	Head/spouse	-0.123***(0.032)	0.091***(0.035)	0.518***(0.148)	-0.010(0.019)
		Grandchild	-0.002(0.010)	0.009(0.013)	0.031(0.057)	0.006(0.007)
		Other relative	-0.040***(0.010)	-0.002(0.013)	0.030(0.055)	0.018*(0.008)
		Non relative	-0.590***(0.040)	0.374***(0.047)	3.461***(0.204)	-0.012(0.025)
		Mother deceased	-0.051***(0.010)	0.031***(0.012)	0.123*(0.051)	0.036***(0.008)
		Father deceased	0.004(0.007)	0.011(0.009)	0.031	-0.003(0.005)
		Not living with mother	0.010(0.008)	-0.038***(0.011)	-0.109**	-0.006(0.006)
	Not living with father	-0.024***(0.008)	-0.006(0.010)	-0.026	0.006(0.006)	
	Disability	-0.227***(0.025)	-0.085***(0.022)	-0.352***(0.109)	0.188***(0.022)	
Household characteristics	Rural	0.048***(0.010)	-0.053***(0.013)	0.032(0.054)	-0.025***(0.008)	
	Head age	0.000(0.001)	-0.002(0.001)	-0.008(0.006)	0.001(0.001)	
	Head age squared	0.000(0.000)	0.000*(0.000)	0.000(0.000)	-0.000*(0.000)	
	Head Education. ^(b)	Primary	0.058***(0.007)	-0.002(0.010)	-0.144***(0.045)	-0.020***(0.005)
		Junior sec	0.093***(0.006)	-0.016(0.012)	-0.248***(0.053)	-0.036***(0.005)
		Senior sec.	0.127***(0.006)	-0.062***(0.012)	-0.431***(0.054)	-0.053***(0.005)
		Tertiary	0.141***(0.005)	-0.118***(0.014)	-0.586***(0.067)	-0.068***(0.004)
		Head can read/write	0.065***(0.007)	-0.002(0.009)	-0.030(0.040)	-0.026***(0.005)
		Female headed	0.040***(0.006)	-0.048***(0.009)	-0.163***(0.038)	-0.010*(0.005)
		Head employed	0.034***(0.011)	0.102***(0.012)	0.426***(0.057)	-0.050***(0.009)
		p.c. earnings/average	0.056***(0.010)	-0.040***(0.013)	-0.281***(0.059)	-0.044***(0.007)
		Household size (log)	0.019***(0.006)	-0.060***(0.008)	-0.200***(0.036)	0.005(0.005)
	District characteristics	Teacher/school age pop.	0.033*(0.000)	-0.103***(0.000)	-0.371***(0.001)	-0.002(0.000)
		p.c. average earnings	0.411***(0.040)	-0.783***(0.053)	-2.661***(0.231)	-0.124***(0.029)
Child/adult population		0.126***(0.015)	-0.473***(0.020)	-1.801***(0.086)	-0.054***(0.011)	
Employment rate		-0.145***(0.034)	1.167***(0.046)	3.256***(0.181)	0.012(0.024)	

Note: (a) The reference category is 7 years; (b) Household head education – the reference category is No education

Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

59. Estimation results are presented in Table 9. Each column of Table 9 reports coefficients from a number of regressions for children aged 7-15, each corresponding to a different dependent variable. The first column of table 11 presents the result of the regression on children attending school (*school*), the second column the result of the regression on children in employment (*work*), the third column the result of the regression on working hours (*hours*), and the last column the results of the regression on children neither working nor studying (*neither in school nor at work*). With the exception of hours of work (for which we use ordinary least squares), all other coefficients are obtained from probit regressions and in the table we report marginal effects.

60. Focusing on child labour, it is worth emphasizing a few important results. Child labour involvement increases clearly with age and decreases with parental education. Children that have lost their mother are at greater risk of child labour and of being denied schooling. Disabled children are less likely to be both working and going to school and more likely to be neither working nor studying.

Higher household earnings reduce child labour as does a higher number of teachers relative to the child population. Child labour is pro-cyclical, responding positively to increase in adult employment and, consistent with a simple model of the labour market with aggregate demand and supply, child labour is lower the higher is the share of children in the population.

5. EXPECTED EVOLUTION OF CHILD LABOUR POPULATION

61. In order to assess the costs of eliminating child labour by 2015, it is necessary to know how the child labour population will evolve in the absence of specific additional interventions. As we have seen, children's involvement in employment in Zambia is still relatively high, although it is trending downwards. Economic growth and demographic evolution, coupled with a set of education policies already in place, are likely to generate a further reduction in children's employment. This chapter is aimed at assessing this "spontaneous" reduction in children's employment over the period up to 2015, and, following from this, the likely size of group "left behind" in employment that will need to be targeted with special policy efforts.

62. The analysis builds on the baseline estimates for 2008 presented in the previous chapter. It makes use of information from the 2008 Labour Force Survey together with educational data from the 2008 Zambia Annual School Census. The Zambia LFS 2008 constitutes the most recent source of data on children's involvement in employment and, combined with the 2008 Zambia school census, allow consideration of the impact of economic growth outlook and educational policies in assessing the spontaneous reduction of the population of children in employment.

63. The projections of the number of children in employment up to 2015 in the absence of specific additional interventions are undertaken in two steps. First, we look at how the children in employment population will evolve based only on demographic change, utilizing information from Zambia LFS 2008 on the dynamic of the previous population cohorts. Second, we consider the impact of the economic and policy outlook on the evolution of the population of children in employment, using the model of child labour determinants estimated in the previous chapter.

5.1 Evolution of children in employment arising from demographic change

64. The evolution of the overall population in the age range 7-15 is derived from the dynamic of the previous cohorts. In particular, information on population growth is obtained using the cohort information contained in the Zambia LFS 2008.

65. Conveniently, children aged seven years (the youngest age group of interest) in the last year of observation (2015), are aged 0 in the first year of observation (2008). Because of this, the 2008 data can be used to estimate both the size and the characteristics of the group of interest in 2015 (and, *a fortiori*, in each year between 2008 and 2015). Thus, as shown in Table 10, the population aged 15 at year 2008 is estimated as the actual population aged 15 in 2008, and the population at any age for the years 2009 to 2015 is computed using the population of the younger cohorts (age 14, 13,, 0).

Table 10. Size of birth cohorts

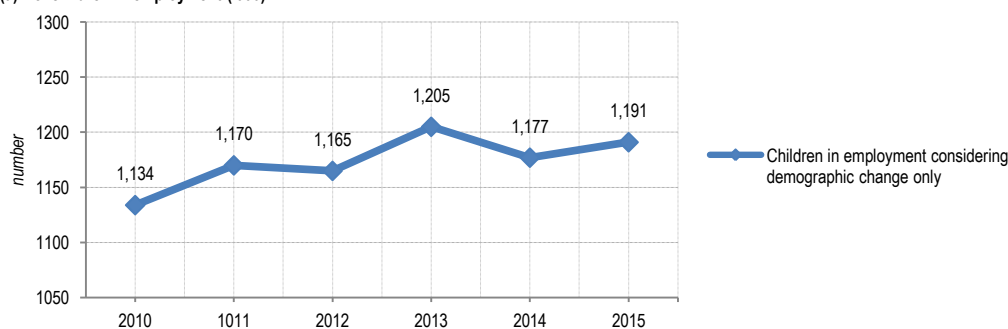
Cohort	Size	Age in								
		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	
1993	329,976	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	
1994	333,784	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
1995	299,396	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
1996	382,611	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
1997	286,848	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
1998	407,222	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	
1999	322,124	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
2000	426,131	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
2001	346,315	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	
2002	346,255	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
2003	386,019	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
2004	466,741	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
2005	407,857	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
2006	408,109	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
2007	335,706	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
2008	415,329	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Total age 7-15 years		3,134,407	3,150,686	3,202,921	3,370,266	3,395,512	3,516,773	3,445,257	3,538,462	

Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

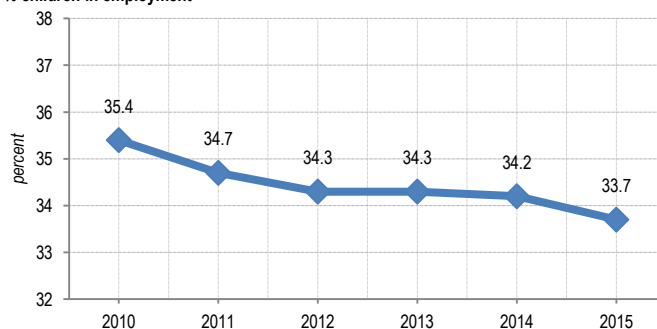
66. The projections of the population of children in employment based only on the evolution of population are presented in panel (a) (absolute value) and panel (b) (incidence rates) of Figure 11. One remarkable feature of the data is the trend in population growth. While there are around 330,000 children born in 1993 (i.e. aged 15 in 2008) there are about 415,000 children born in 2008 (i.e. aged 7 in 2015). Such trends in population growth imply that - everything else equal - the number of children in employment is meant to grow in Zambia in the absence of major macro-economic changes or policy interventions. In fact, while the projection shows a slight reduction in the incidence of children in employment, due to the sustained population growth, their absolute numbers increase.

Figure 11. Predicted number of children in employment (,000), 7-15 years age group, considering demographic change

(a) No. children in employment ('000)



(b) % children in employment



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

5.2 Evolution of population of children in employment arising from economic and policy forecast

67. Projections of changes in the population of children in employment arising from the economic and policy outlook first require a model of how these and other factors influence involvement in child labour. In section 4.4 of this report, we estimated a model that explains children's participation in employment and schooling as a function of a set of child, household and district variables:

$$Y_{id} = \beta_0 + X_i' \beta_1 + Z_d' \beta_2 + u_{id}$$

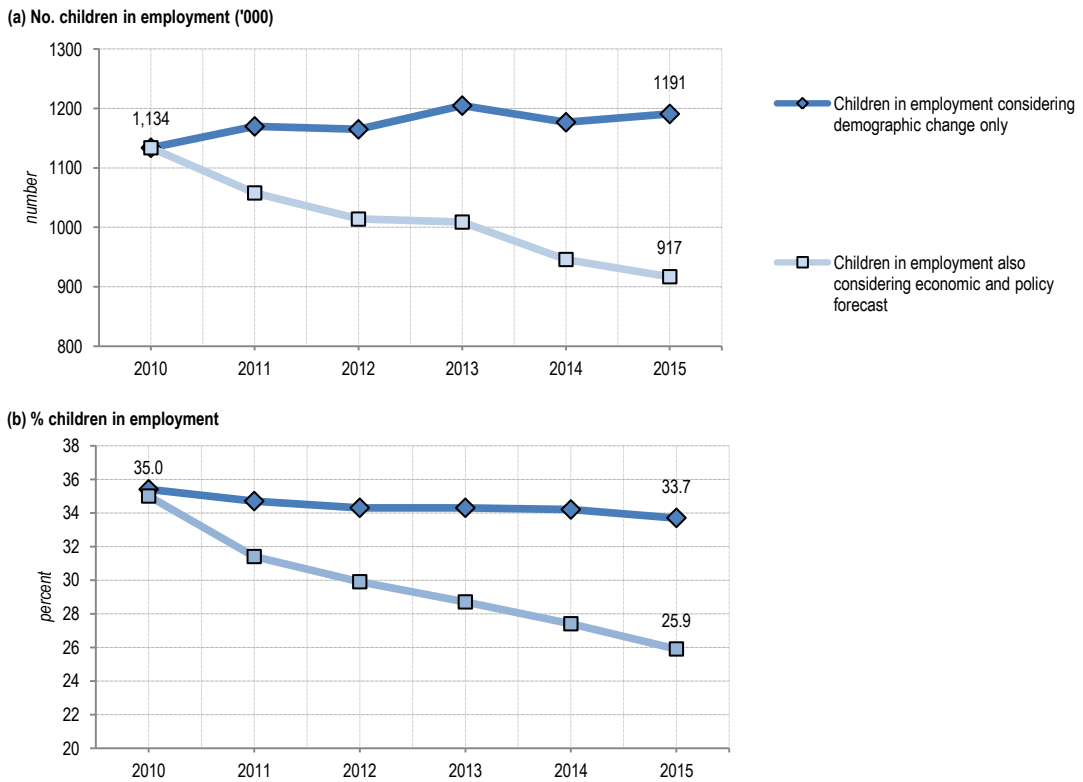
68. where i denotes an individual, d a district (there are 72 districts, most of which spanning over both urban and rural areas. The X_i are individual characteristics and the Z_d are local characteristics.

69. The results of the estimation, reported in section 4.4, highlight the importance of both economic and policy factors, and in particular the importance of household income and education quality, on children's involvement in child labour. Improvements in household income, measured in both relative and generalised terms, significantly reduce child labour. Likewise, improvements in school quality, as proxied by the ratio of teachers to the school-aged population, significantly lessen the likelihood of child labour.

70. Given the importance of household income and school quality as determinants of child labour, we next need to make forecasts about how these factors will change over the five-year study period. We assume that (1) the average income at district level increases by 10% every year; (2) absolute poverty falls, such that households with income below half of the mean local income in year 0 earn half of the mean local income by year 5; and (3) the teacher/school-aged child ratio increases by 10% every year. This of course reflects an optimistic economic and policy scenario; should, for example, the repercussions of the renewed global financial turmoil impact significantly on Zambia, this scenario is unlikely to be realized.

71. On the basis of the estimation results and the forecasts concerning income growth, poverty and the teacher/school-aged child ratio, the baseline projections of the population of children in employment are reported in panel (a) (absolute value) and panel (b) (incidence rates) of Figure 14. The projections indicate that the incidence rate will steadily fall from about 34% to 26% over the five year period. However, due to the population increase, the reduction in the absolute number of children working will be more limited, and in year 5 still more than 900,000 children aged 7-15 years are expected to be working.

Figure 12. Predicted number of children in employment (,000), 7-15 years age group, considering demographic change and economic/policy forecast



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

72. Obviously caution should be exercised in interpreting these results as, again, they are based on a best-case economic and policy scenario – lesser progress in terms of improving household incomes and school quality will mean a more limited baseline decline in children’s employment over the study period. Nonetheless, the analysis suggests clearly that even under this best-case scenario current efforts will fall short of the goal of child labour elimination over the five-year study period, and points to the need for significant additional policy efforts.

6. POLICY OPTIONS FOR ADDRESSING CHILD LABOUR: ASSESSING RESOURCE REQUIREMENTS

73. The previous chapter highlighted the fact that even under a best-case growth and policy scenario a substantial number of children – just below one million – are expected to be still in employment at the end of the five year time horizon. An additional policy response will therefore be necessary to eliminate child labour within this period. What policy areas are most relevant in this context? A wide body of research underscores the importance of expanding social protection: households with adequate social protection do not have to resort to child labour as a buffer against negative shocks and are in a better position to forego the immediate returns to child labour in order to invest in their children's education. Beyond social protection, a range of additional prevention and withdrawal measures are relevant to fully stemming the flow of children into child labour and to reaching the large numbers of children already trapped in child labour. This chapter assesses the cost implications (1) providing the poorest of the poor families with a minimum degree of social protection through child cash transfers and (2) providing a package of special, targeted measures aimed at removing and preventing children from employment.

6.1 Child cash transfers

74. This section assesses the costs and impact of expanding social protection. Attention focuses on one element in particular of a needed comprehensive social protection strategy - child cash transfers.²⁹ The rationale for transfers as a tool for promoting schooling as an alternative to child labour is clear: not only do they provide families with a cushion against shocks, but they also help families overcome the economic costs associated with school attendance, both direct (fees, uniforms, etc.) and indirect (foregone wages and production). The body of evidence on existing pilot cash transfer schemes in Zambia, including one begun in the Kalomo district and since expanded to additional districts, corroborates this rationale: it suggests that cash transfers can significantly raise household welfare, increase household education expenditures and increase school enrolment (although none of the evaluations or reviews to date has looked at child labour as an outcome variable).³⁰

75. To measure the likely effect of cash transfer program on child labour and human capital accumulation, we utilize an ex-ante micro simulation approach. Ex-ante methods consist of simulating the effect of the program on the basis of some model of the household. These models can vary widely in complexity and coverage. Arithmetic simulation models simply apply official rules to determine whether or not a household qualifies for the programme, and the amount of the transfer to be made, on the basis of data commonly available in typical household surveys. More sophisticated models include some behavioural response by households.

76. The micro-simulation model applied here falls within the latter category. In particular we make use of a variant of the model developed by Bourguignon, Ferreira and Leite (2003). By estimating the occupational choice of children after the cash transfers it yields predictions of the effect of a program on school and work status of children. Of course, ex-ante analysis based on micro-simulation models should be seen as only a component of a comprehensive evaluation

²⁹ A detailed listing of social protection schemes in Zambia is provided in Annex 2.

³⁰ See for example, Devereux S. and Wood D., *Zambia's Social Cash Transfer Pilot Schemes: A Review Report for the Technical Working Group on Social Assistance*, September 2008.

package of a program, which includes ex-post assessments, program reviews, performance monitoring and evaluation and process evaluations, among others.

77. We focus on simulating the impact of a *conditional* child cash transfer (CCT), where eligibility is conditional on children’s school attendance (but *not* their absence from employment). The CCT is targeted to the poorest of the poor with school-aged children. Specifically we consider eligible, among poor households, only those in the bottom 20% in income and with children aged 7-15 years. The amount of the transfer is differentiated by the number of children living in each household. It decreases as the number of children per household increases, starting at 50,000 ZMK per child per month for a single child household and falling to 25,000 ZMK per child per month for households with five or more children (see Table 11).

Table 11. Conditional cash transfer scheme

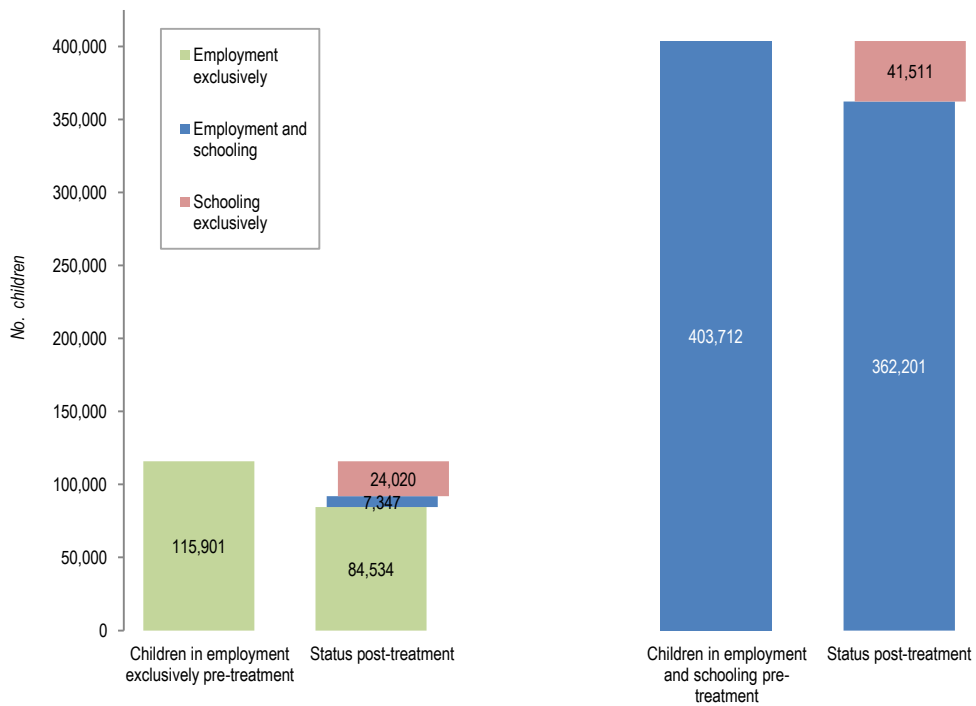
Number of children per household	Amount of transfer ^(a)
1	50,000
2	45,000
3	40,000
4	30,000
5+	25,000

Note: (a) Values indicate the monthly transfers in Zambian Kwacha payable to each eligible child conditional of being in school

78. A total of 907,422 children are targeted in the first year in accordance with the targeting criteria described above³¹, of whom almost half (47%) are in school exclusively, 41% combine school and employment and 12% are in employment exclusively. Figure 14 reports the simulated impact of the conditional cash transfer on the latter two of these groups. As shown, a predicted total of 24,020 children would move from a situation of exclusive employment to exclusive schooling, and an additional predicted 41,511 children would move from a situation of combining employment and schooling to a situation of schooling exclusively. Taken together, then, a predicted total of 65,531 children would leave employment in the first year of the CCT scheme.

³¹ The CCT is targeted to the poorest of the poor with school-aged children. Specifically we consider eligible, among poor households, only those in the bottom 20% in income and with children aged 7-15 years.

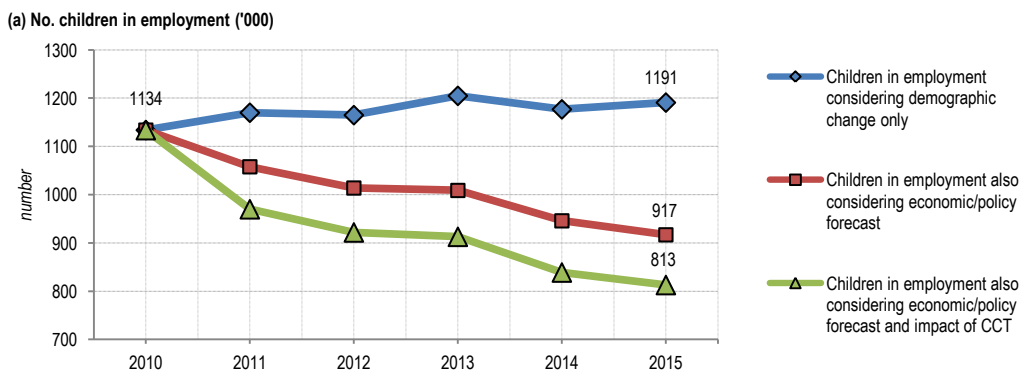
Figure 13. Post-intervention changes in children's activity status, first year of CCT programme

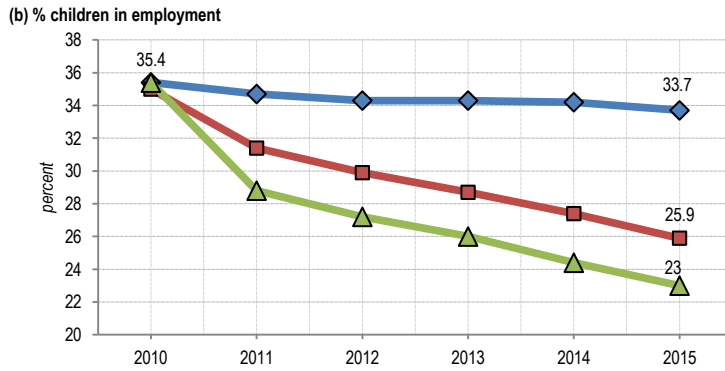


Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

79. Figure 14 reports the simulated impact of the conditional cash transfer on children in employment over the five-year period. The CCT scheme would lead to a predicted further fall in children's involvement in employment of about three percentage points (translating to over 100,000 children in absolute terms) over a five year treatment period. At the same time, about 65% of children that were out of school before the transfer will change status and go to school (not shown). These results suggest that a CCT scheme is a potentially useful policy tool against child labour, but not, in and of itself, sufficient for eliminating child labour. But it is worth recalling in this context that conditionality in this simulation did not include children's absence from employment; adding this condition would inevitably increase the impact of the scheme, although it would also raise practical issues of verification.

Figure 14. Predicted number of children in employment ('000), 7-15 years age group, considering demographic change, economic and policy forecast and impact of CCT

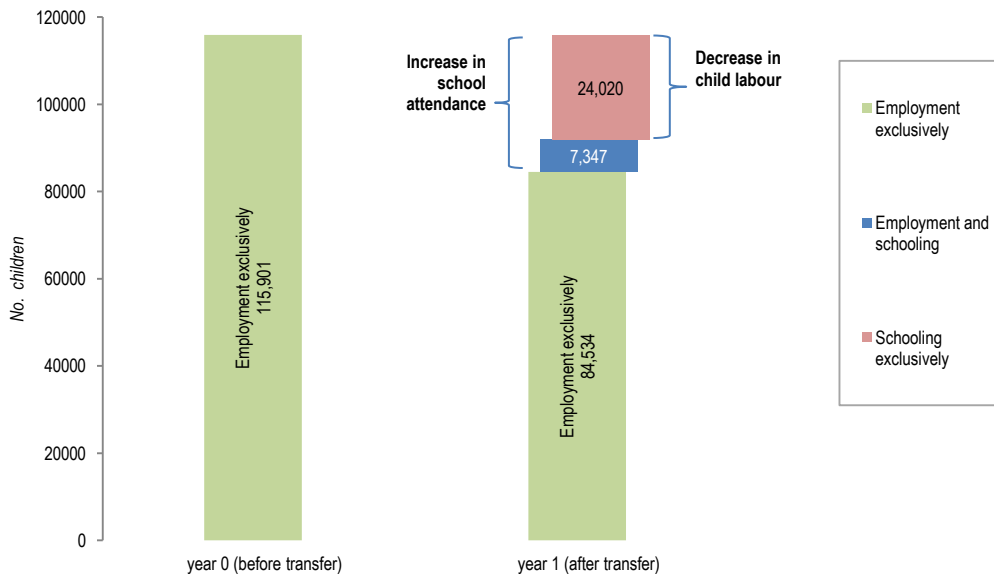




Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

80. Not shown in the Figure 14 is an important additional impact of the transfer – the significant movement of children from a situation of exclusive work to a situation of work in combination with schooling. In other words, the cash transfer induces many additional households to enroll their children in school without fully removing them from work, meaning the transfer has a larger impact in terms of increasing school attendance than it has in terms of reducing children’s employment. Figure 15 illustrates this point for the first year of the CCT. It shows that of all 115,901 children in work exclusively in year 0, a total of 24,024 give up work altogether to enter school but an additional 7,347 children enter schooling without giving up work. While removal from work altogether is clearly the ultimate policy goal – the group moving from exclusive work to work and schooling likely spend less total time in work, arguably a step towards this goal.

Figure 15. Change from employment exclusively resulting from CCT



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

81. Table 12 reports the monthly cost of the CCT scheme for the first year of the programme. A total of 907,422 children are treated on a monthly basis in accordance with the eligibility criteria described above and the transfer amount schedule provided in Table 11 at a total monthly cost of \$US 6.7 million and a per unit cost of \$US 7.38. Much of this amount, however, reflects the cost of treating households whose children are not in employment (but at possible risk of entering employment). A total of 519,613 children in employment are treated at a monthly cost of \$US 3.8 million, resulting in a predicted total of 65,973 children leaving employment. The per child monthly cost for *each child removed from employment*, therefore, can be thought of as the total transfer amount allocated to households with children in employment (\$US 3.8 million) divided by the predicted number of children actually removed (65,973), or about \$US 58 per month.

Table 12. Monthly resource requirements for conditional cash transfer scheme – year 1

a. Total children targeted	907,422
b. Total monthly cost (US\$) ⁽¹⁾	\$6,695,896
c. Per child monthly cost (= a / b) ⁽¹⁾	\$7.38
d. Total children in employment treated	519,613
e. Total monthly cost children in employment (= c X d) ⁽¹⁾	\$3,834,743.94
f. Total children in employment removed	65,973
g. Per child monthly cost for children removed (= e / f) ⁽¹⁾	\$58.14

Note: (a) US dollar amounts calculated on the basis of the exchange rate 1 ZMK = 0.000205553 USD

82. Seen from the narrow perspective of child labour elimination, therefore, the conditional cash transfer scheme appears resource intensive. It is worth recalling, however, that the goals of CCT schemes extend well beyond child labour. In Latin America, where there is most experience in this area, CCTs form an integral part of overall long-term national efforts to reduce poverty, achieve Education For All and provide a minimum social safety net for vulnerable households, and their costs should be interpreted with this in mind.

6.2 Package of additional prevention and withdrawal measures

83. The conditional cash transfer scheme discussed in the previous section is designed primarily to *prevent* from entering child labour. However, as seen from the micro-simulation exercise, the CCT scheme in and of itself is unlikely to fully stem the flow of children into child labour. What is more, there are large numbers of children already trapped in and harmed by child labour. For this latter group of children, measures aimed at withdrawing them from child labour and at providing them with “second chance” educational opportunities are needed.

84. This section assesses the costs associated with an additional package of prevention and withdrawal measures targeting the hard core of children remaining in child labour even after the spontaneous reduction and the reduction stemming from the CCT scheme are taken into consideration. The intervention package is drawn from the ILO Time-Bound Programme Support Project (TBP-SP) and the TACKLE Project in Zambia. The intervention package emphasises prevention through formal education and withdrawal through both formal education and skills training. It includes the establishment of systems of community- and district-level child labour committees linked to local government authorities, as well as information, education and communication (IEC) efforts aimed at addressing the social and cultural factors underlying child labour.

Table 13. Annual unit costs for prevention and withdrawal interventions, IPEC TBP and TACKLE Projects

Intervention		Cost	Coverage	Cost/unit
Undifferentiated costs ^(a)	Social mapping, identification & counselling	42,580.58	--	--
	Capacity building/awareness raising in communities	122,353.15	--	--
	Basic health services	10,593.86	--	--
	Awareness raising among children/educators in schools	20,011.22	--	--
	Training and inputs for parents/caregivers in IGAs	154,843.40	--	--
	Monitoring of beneficiaries	44,725.00	--	--
	Recreation centres/facilities	45,593.91	--	--
	Total undifferentiated costs	440,701.12	--	--
	Undifferentiated costs allocated to prevention	220,350.56	--	--
Undifferentiated costs allocated to withdrawal	220,350.56	--	--	
Prevention	Prevention through formal education	384,111.24	--	--
	Total prevention	384,111.24	--	--
	Undifferentiated cost component	220,350.56	--	--
	Total prevention+ undifferentiated cost component	604,461.80	5,040	119.93
Withdrawal	Withdrawal through formal education	137,077.30	--	--
	Withdrawal through skills training	184,337.83	--	--
	Total withdrawal	321,415.13	--	--
	Undifferentiated costs component	220,350.56	--	--
	Total withdrawal + undifferentiated cost component	541,765.69	5,430	99.77

Notes: (a) For purposes of the per unit cost calculations, undifferentiated costs are allocated equally between prevention and withdrawal interventions.

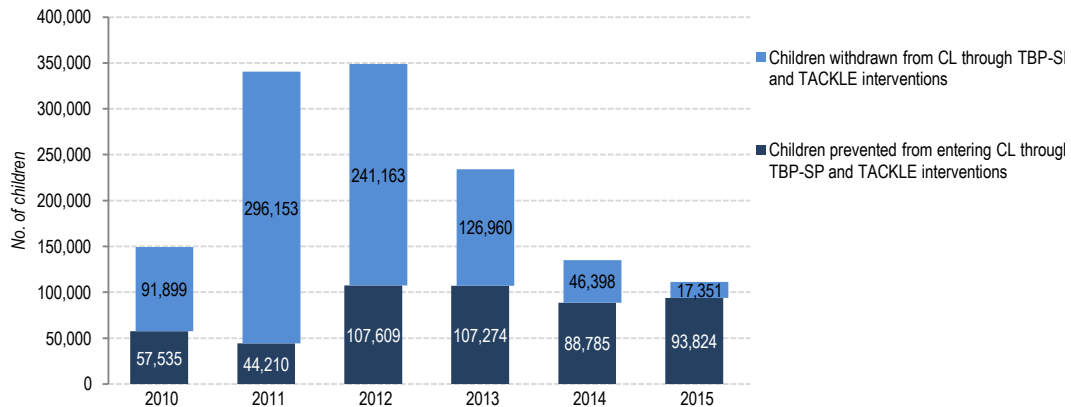
85. Per unit cost calculations for the intervention package are presented in Table 13. They are based primarily on the average budgeted costs associated with the intervention package when implemented through the Time-Bound Programme Support Project (TBP-SP) and the TACKLE Project. The cost estimates include the direct costs budgeted for the targeted interventions in the core intervention package, as well as the costs associated with their management and administration. Undifferentiated costs are divided equally between the prevention and withdrawal components of the intervention package.

86. In order to offer an assessment of the likely cost of extending the core intervention package to remaining children in child labour, we consider an implementation scheme involving a gradual three-year phase-in period during which some children graduate into adulthood without benefiting from the interventions. Specifically, the phase-in schedule targets 40% of new entrants for prevention in year 0, 60% in year 1, and 100% in year 2 and beyond. Withdrawal measures follow a similar schedule. This phase-in is consistent with long term elimination of child labour but with the cost of losing part of the “stock” of children in employment in the first five years of intervention.

87. While other implementation schemes are of course possible, e.g., 100% implementation from the outset of the program (and therefore no capacity constraints), the gradual phase-in scheme is deemed most realistic and therefore offers a valid basis for benchmarking the costs of the core intervention package for child labour elimination.³² It should be reiterated, however, that gradual phase-in comes with an important social cost in the form of young persons entering adulthood untreated and therefore lacking the basic skills needed for gainful employment. Many of these persons will be in need of other, more costly, remedial interventions later in life.

³² The costs associated with two alternative implementation schemes are available upon request: the first involves the withdrawal of all children already in child labour from the outset of the programme, and therefore assumes that there are no capacity constraints; the second involves a gradual phase-in, but does not allow any children to slip through the cracks, even during the initial phase-in period.

Figure 16. Total children prevented and withdrawn from employment through TBP-SP and TACKLE interventions, by programme year (a)

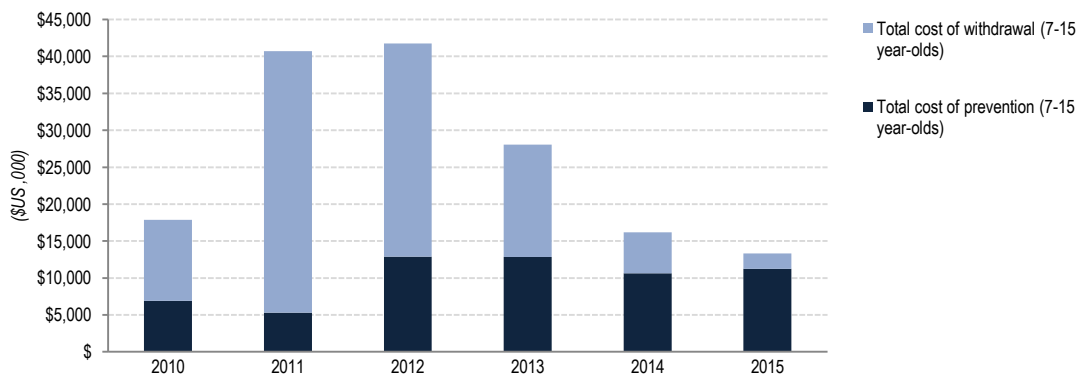


Notes: (a) Phase-in coverage targets are set as follows: year 0 - 40%, year 1 - 60%, and year 2 and beyond - 100%. Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey, 2008

88. Figure 16 reports the total numbers of children prevented from entering and withdrawn from child labour over the five-year period through the intervention package based on the gradual three-year phase-in schedule. In all, some 1,319,161 children are provided with either prevention (499,237) or withdrawal/second chance (819,924) measures; efforts peak in year 2 and diminish gradually thereafter.

89. Figure 17 and Table 14 report the annual and total costs of reaching the remaining population in child labour with the core implementation package over the five-year programme period, based on the unit costs and the phase-in schedule discussed above. It costs a total of \$US 157.9 million to reach 1,319,161 children with either prevention or withdrawal/second chance interventions over the five-year period, or an average of \$US26.3 million annually.

Figure 17. Allocation of cost of core intervention package, by intervention strategy and programme year



Source: UCW calculations based on Zambia Labour Force Survey 2008

Table 14. Estimated cost of core intervention package for eliminating child labour, by year^(a)

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
A. Total children prevented	57535	44210	107609	107274	88785	93824	499,237
<i>Unit cost (US\$) prevention</i>	\$119.93	\$119.93	\$119.93	\$119.93	\$119.93	\$119.93	--
B. Total cost of prevention (US\$, ,000)	\$6,900	\$5,302	\$12,906	\$12,865	\$10,648	\$11,252	\$59,873
C. Total children withdrawn	91899	296153	241163	126960	46398	17351	819,924
<i>Unit cost (US\$) withdrawal</i>	\$119.60	\$119.60	\$119.60	\$119.60	\$119.60	\$119.60	--
D. Total cost of withdrawal (US\$, ,000)	\$10,991	\$35,420	\$28,843	\$15,184	\$5,549	\$2,075	\$98,062
Total children prevented or withdrawn (A+C)	149,434	340,364	348,772	234,234	135,183	111,175	1,319,161
Total cost prevention and withdrawal (US\$, ,000) (B+D)	\$17,891	\$40,722	\$41,749	\$28,050	\$16,197	\$13,328	\$157,937

Notes: (a) Fixed costs associated with building an enabling environment and management are allocated equally across the programme period.

90. Costs peak in year 2012, when the largest number of children are provided with withdrawal and second chance interventions. Costs decline thereafter as expanded prevention coverage reduces the need for withdrawal/second chance interventions (and as economic growth and other factors contribute to a “spontaneous” decline in the target population).

91. The conditional cash transfer scheme discussed in section 6 would cost an additional amount of around \$US 80.4 million annually to implement (see cost calculations Table 12)³³. A conditional cash transfer scheme targeting the poorest of the poor would be a key element of an expanded social safety net for this group, in turn critical to ensuring that the impact of the targeted package of prevention and withdrawal measures discussed in this section are sustainable.

³³ The annual cost of USD 80.4 is obtained by multiplying the “total monthly cost” reported in table 12 by 12

7. CONCLUSION

92. While Zambia has witnessed a substantial reduction in the incidence of child labour, this progress will not be enough to eliminate child labour by 2015. Even under a best-case growth and policy scenario a substantial number of children aged 7-15 years – just below one million – is expected to be still in employment in 2015. Significant additional policy measures will therefore be necessary to eliminate child labour within this period.

93. The preceding chapters have assessed the resource implications of these needed additional policy measures. Specifically the economic costs over a five-year time horizon were assessed of (1) providing the poorest of the poor families with a minimum degree of social protection through conditional child cash transfers and (2) providing a package of special, targeted measures aimed at removing and preventing children from employment.

94. The cost estimation results indicate that providing poorest of the poor with conditional child cash transfer scheme would cost some \$US80.4 million annually, and would help prevent or remove some 100,000 children from child labour over a five-year period. Seen from the narrow perspective of child labour elimination, therefore, the conditional cash transfer scheme appears resource intensive. It is worth recalling, however, that the goals of CCTs schemes extend well beyond child labour. In Latin America, where there is most experience in this area, CCTs form an integral part of overall long-term national efforts to reduce poverty, achieve Education For All and provide a minimum social safety net for vulnerable households, and their costs should be interpreted with this in mind.

95. Moreover, the body of evidence on existing pilot cash transfer schemes in Zambia, including the one begun in the Kalomo district and since expanded to additional districts, corroborates the rationale for child cash transfer: it suggests that cash transfers can significantly raise household welfare, increase household education expenditures and increase school enrolment (although none of the evaluations or reviews to date has looked at child labour as an outcome variable).

96. An additional package of special prevention and protection measures targeting the remaining child labourers would require an additional average outlay of \$USD 26.3 annually over a five-year time horizon (see Table 14). These additional measures are relevant in light of the evidence presented in the report indicating that CCTs alone will be insufficient to meet the country's child labour elimination goals. Child labour is a complex phenomenon requiring comprehensive response bridging a variety of policy sectors. The additional intervention package is designed with this complexity in mind and consists of a wide array of measures, including social mapping, counselling, community-level capacity building and awareness raising, basic health services, awareness raising among children and educators in schools, training and inputs for parents and caregivers in income generating activities, recreation centres and facilities, and skills training.

97. The estimated costs for the conditional child cash transfer scheme and the additional intervention package are premised on a best-case economic and policy scenario. In a context of slower household income growth and less progress in terms of improving school quality, the target number of children in child labour would be higher over the five-year period, in turn raising the cost of eliminating child labour.

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ANNEX 1. SOCIAL PROTECTION SCHEMES IN ZAMBIA

Social protection schemes

Category	Programme name	Year(s) operated	Main form of transfer	Objective(s)	Implementing agencies	Spatial coverage	Target group	Targeting method	Condition of transfer	Direct Beneficiaries per year	Total cost per year	Transfer amount per beneficiary per year
Conditional Cash Transfer	National Pension Scheme Authority (NAPSA)	Since 2000	Cash	To respond to the risk of losing income due to retirement, disability/invalidity and survivorship	NAPSA	National	People in the formal sector	Mandatory scheme targeting people in the formal sector only	Based on contribution during working life	-	-	-
	National Trust Fund for Disabled	Since 1994	Microfinance credit	To provide economic empowerment through microcredit and entrepreneurial skills to disabled poor people for sustainable employment	MCDSS	51 district	Poor people with disabilities	Group lending approach, whereby small groups of 10-20 people are provided with microcredit based on a business plan.	Loan must be repaid	120 (based on 2002-04 data)	K 378 (based on 2001 data)	< K 3.1 million
Conditional Food Transfer	School Feeding Programme	Since 2003	Food; also deworming, treatment and hygiene education, and establishments of school orchards and gardens	To increase enrolment, prevent drop-out and stabilize attendance at assisted primary schools; to improve the attention span by relieving short-term hunger; to contribute to nutrient intakes; to promote and incorporate public health interventions (Under the School Health and Nutrition Program) into SFP, reduce worm infestation and bilharzia in school age children, and to stimulate and enhance community/parents' participation in education	GRZ through Min. of Education, WFP in collaboration with UNICEF, MCDSS and MACO	Selected schools in southern, Lusaka and Eastern Provinces	School districts that are food insecure with poor enrollment and attendance	Selection of schools based on: location in food insecure areas – drought affected, peri-urban area or outskirts of the districts, highly populated and low income townships; poor enrolment and high non-attendance; large numbers of OVCs; with adequate water and proper sanitation; adequate storage; demonstrated community links and willingness to manage the program; accessibility of the school throughout the year; and number of vulnerable children, i.e. from households that are food insecure or orphans	Community require to provide storage room/kitchen/feeding shelter; source of water and firewood; preparation of food	11,840	USD 422,315	USD 36

Social protection schemes

Category	Programme name	Year(s) operated	Main form of transfer	Objective(s)	Implementing agencies	Spatial coverage	Target group	Targeting method	Condition of transfer	Direct Beneficiaries per year	Total cost per year	Transfer amount per beneficiary per year
Conditional transfers - Farm inputs	Targeted Food Security Packs and Programmes	2000-2005	Farming inputs (2kg maize, 1 kg legume seed, 15 kg fertilizers for 0.1 ha)	To empower vulnerable but viable households; to improve household food security; to improve nutrition; to improve access to water through small-scale irrigation	PAM, MCDSS and Oxfam GB	National	Vulnerable but viable households	Community (CWAC) and NGO/CBO selection	payback 10% of pack value in maize crop	130,000	USD 4.9 million	USD 38
Unconditional Cash Transfers	Mongu and Kaoma Oxfam CT scheme	2005-06	Cash	To cushion the impact of food insecurity as a result of the 2004/05 crop failure	Oxfam GB	Mongu and Kaoma	Households that experienced 90% crop failure, child headed households, the elderly, female headed households, households caring for OVCs	Use the VAC and INGO VAA reports to targeting beneficiaries. Community and traditional setups are also used in targeting		86,000	USD 1.7 million	USD 240
	Pilot scheme, Kaloma District	Since 2004	Cash	To reduce extreme poverty, hunger and starvation in the 10% most destitute and incapacitated households in the covered region; and to generate information on the feasibility, costs and benefits of SCTS as a component of a SP strategy.	MCDSS, PWAS, CARE	Kaloma		Community based targeting system. The entry criteria for the scheme is that households have to be incapacitated, meaning that they do not have any productive members or a dependency ratio of over 300. Assets and support system are used to rank beneficiary households		1,200	USD 191,177	USD 133
Unconditional Food Transfers	WFP Assistance for Refugees from Angola	2005-07	Food	To provide secure access to food and to safeguard the nutritional status of refugee beneficiaries until they attain food self sufficiency or are repatriated to their country of origin	WFP, NGOs	5 refugee camps	Refugees from Angola, DRC, Rwanda and Burundi	UNHCR and government registers		82,000	USD 9.8 million	USD 120

Social protection schemes

Category	Programme name	Year(s) operated	Main form of transfer	Objective(s)	Implementing agencies	Spatial coverage	Target group	Targeting method	Condition of transfer	Direct Beneficiaries per year	Total cost per year	Transfer amount per beneficiary per year
Unconditional Food Transfers	WFP country programme	2002-06	Food	To improve the nutritional status of vulnerable groups; to increase primary school enrolment & attendance; to create assets to improve food security	WFP, MCDSS, MOE, PUSH, Lutheran World Federation, Harvest Help, Community Home Based Care and Evangelical Fellowship of Zambia	National	Malnourished under 5s, pregnant and lactating mothers, primary school pupils, food insecure households	Community and household surveillance system, VAC reports and other socio-economic indicators		506,800	USD 8.42 million	USD 17
	WFP Relief and Recovery and Operation	2005-07	Food	To safeguard the nutritional wellbeing of vulnerable segments of the population, including women and children affected by HIV/AIDS; to increase access to education for OVC; and to preserve, build and restore social structures, human and productive assets and community safety nets	WFP, ADRA, Africare, World Vision, Care International, Zambia Relief Foundation, Wild Conservation Society, PUSH, Project Concern	National	OVCs in Kafue, Chongwe, Mongu and Lusaka, ARV patients	Community and household surveillance system, VAC reports and other socio-economic indicators		1.1 million	USD 51,796,000	USD 47
Unconditional Transfers - Education	Free Basic Education	Since 2002	Education	To give all children free and compulsory education	GRZ through the Ministry of Education	National	Children attending primary education with particular focus on females and OVCs	Grants given to all schools and amount based on the numbers of pupils. In disbursements of bursaries, attention given to girl child and OVCs.		2,370,425	-	On average, k 3 million is allocated to each school

Social protection schemes

Category	Programme name	Year(s) operated	Main form of transfer	Objective(s)	Implementing agencies	Spatial coverage	Target group	Targeting method	Condition of transfer	Direct Beneficiaries per year	Total cost per year	Transfer amount per beneficiary per year
HIV/AIDS awareness	Community response to HIV/AIDS (CRAIDS)	Since 2003	Disseminating HIV/AIDS information	To mobilise and strengthen the capacity of communities to and the private sector to respond to the HIV/AIDS epidemic	Zambia National Response to HIV/AIDS (ZANARA)	National	Community-based programs and NGOs that aim at preventing and mitigating the effect of HIV/AIDS	Demand-led self-targeting approach in allocation of funds to beneficiaries		102 community projects	USD 1.075 million	USD 10,500 per project
Unconditional Transfers – Housing	Habitat for Humanity (HfHz)	Since 1984	Houses	To construct simple, decent and affordable houses and to sell them interest-free at no profit, and use re-payments to build more houses	Habitat for Humanity Zambia	Lusaka, Central, Copperbelt, Northwestern, Southern and western provinces	Households requiring housing (especially those with OVCs, children that do not attend school, female-headed households and the elderly)	Use of community affiliates	house provides own labour. Household services mortgage by making payments calculated in bags of cement over a period of 10 years	150 households	USD 375,000	USD 1,750
Unconditional Transfers – Basic needs	Public Welfare Assistance Scheme (PWAS)	Since the 1950s	Food, clothes, repatriation, medical, education fees, shelter	To assist the most vulnerable to meet their basic needs, and to promote community capacity for local initiatives to overcome poverty	MCDSS in collaboration with MoH, MoE, MACO, PAM, World Vision, GTZ and Churches	National	2% of the poorest and most vulnerable households, those with disabilities	Beneficiaries selected by CWAS & district social welfare officers		105,000 (40% male, 60% female)	USD 760,000	USD 7

Social protection schemes

Category	Programme name	Year(s) operated	Main form of transfer	Objective(s)	Implementing agencies	Spatial coverage	Target group	Targeting method	Condition of transfer	Direct Beneficiaries per year	Total cost per year	Transfer amount per beneficiary per year
	Street children project in Zambia (STPZ)	Since 1991	Counselling, youth skill, temporary shelter, food, clothing, school fees, books, uniforms, business skills	To strengthen the capacity of street children centres; to support children's access to quality services in the community; to provide access to safe shelter for 48 vulnerable children living on the streets and support their re-integration into community life; to enhance children's access to basic and higher education; to enhance the child's well being through access to a nutritious diet; to provide children with clothing; and to enhance the children's access to psychosocial support	Zambia Red Cross Society in collaboration with Youth Foundation, YWCA, YMCA, Girl Guides, Scout, Red Crescent, International Federation for Red Cross, DAPP, MCDSS and SCOPE-OVC	Mainly Lusaka city, copperbelt province also considered	Children on the streets and children from the streets aged 6-18 years; women with, or potential to have, children on the streets; youths without family support; mothers & households with potential to increase children on streets	Children visiting the centre; outreach through social workers; and referrals from organisations dealing with vulnerable children		200	USD200,200 (USD130,000 for feeding, USD60,000 for microfinance, USD10,200 for formal education)	-
	Strengthening Community Participation for the Empowerment of Orphans and Vulnerable Children (SCOPE OVC)	2000-2004	Resources for education interventions; food for insecure households; psychosocial counselling	To mitigate the impact of HIV/AIDS on children and households	CARE international	Rural and peri-urbans of Chipata, Lundazi, Kabwe, Masaiti, Serenje, Kitwe, Ndola, Mongu, Kalomo, Monze, Livingstone and Lusaka	OVCs	Identification through Community and District Orphans and Vulnerable Children Committees		523,166 over duration of project	USD 4.6 million over duration of project	

Social protection schemes

Category	Programme name	Year(s) operated	Main form of transfer	Objective(s)	Implementing agencies	Spatial coverage	Target group	Targeting method	Condition of transfer	Direct Beneficiaries per year	Total cost per year	Transfer amount per beneficiary per year
	Victim Support Unit (VSU)	Since 1994	Prosecuting offenders, sensitizing community members on their basic human rights	To prevent crimes, to ensure effective investigations of crimes, and to offer counselling to the victims of the family/domestic violence, crimes against children and elderly persons and sexual offences	Zambia Police service	National	All citizens	Demand-driven and self-targeting		10,000		

Source: Regional Hunger and Vulnerability Programme, Zambia: summary data on social protection schemes, January 2007

ANNEX 2. IMPACT PILOT CASH TRANSFER SCHEMES IN ZAMBIA

98. The Kalomo SCT was the first SCT pilot scheme in Zambia. It was tested from November 2003 to April 2004, and rolled out to 1,027 households by December 2004. As of mid-2008, the Kalomo SCT delivers cash to 3,515 households every second month. Households with children receive ZMK 50,000 (US\$ 12.50), households with no children receive ZMK 40,000 (US\$ 10). Kalomo is generating lessons about scaling up from a small pilot to a full district.

99. The Kazungula SCT started in August 2005 and reaches only 627 households. Kazungula is testing the feasibility of delivering cash transfers in a remote, sparsely populated and agriculturally marginal district. As in Kalomo, households without children receive ZMK 40,000 and those with children receive ZMK 50,000.

100. The Monze SCT was launched in January 2007 and currently reaches 3,500 rural households. Cash payments are the same as Kalomo and Kazungula: either ZMK 40,000 or ZMK 50,000 per month. Monze is pilot testing 'soft' conditionalities in education and health (school and clinic attendance) for children. Households that fail to meet project conditions will not be punished by having their cash transfers withdrawn, but will be followed up with a 'case management' approach.

101. The Chipata SCT started in July 2006 and now reaches 1,190 households. It is the only SCT operating in an urban area, and it also transfers more cash to households with children: ZMK 40,000 plus ZMK 10,000 per primary school child and ZMK 20,000 per secondary school child, up to four children.

102. The Katete SCT started in August 2007 and reaches 4,706 individuals. Katete is piloting a social pension – an unconditional cash grant that is not contingent on the beneficiary's retirement status and does not require contributions by either the recipient or their employer (unlike private or public sector staff pension schemes).

103. Eligible household should be both destitute and incapacitated, where a destitute household struggles to survive, adopts negative coping mechanisms, lacks decent housing, has limited access to education and health and insufficient support for others. An incapacitated household has no working age members who are fit for work, as well as a dependency ration of 3 or higher. Identification of eligible households uses a form of community-based targeting (CBT). Community Welfare Assistance Committees (CWACs) identify destitute and incapacitated community members using participatory methods. But a 10% quota is applied in each community, for pragmatic reasons (budget constraints) supported by an empirical justification (surveys conducted by PWAS and GTZ found that approximately 10% of Zambian households are destitute and incapacitated) (Republic of Zambia/GTZ, 2008: 15 16).

104. Apart from Katete, which has a different target group, all the SCTs are variations on the original project design, as implemented in Kalomo. This model has subsequently been 'exported' to Mchinji District in Malawi, where it is also in the process of scaling up (UNICEF, 2007).

105. A review recently conducted for the Ministry of Community Development and Social Services (MCDSS) reports the evaluation results of the SCT mentioned above .

- Food consumption. Food consumption by cash grant recipients in Kalomo increased as a consequence of the incremental purchasing power provided by social cash transfers. The Kalomo SCT evaluation survey found that reported hunger decreased, while meals per day (for children but not for adults) and dietary diversity both increased, as a direct result of receiving cash transfers (Republic of Zambia/GTZ, 2007: 5). Positive results, in terms of increased consumption spending, were found in Kazungula. On the other hand, average total incomes were almost identical across the two household categories,

suggesting that SCT households had few income-generating activities and were allocating much of their cash transfers to buying food and other basic necessities.

- **Livelihoods and assets.** The impact of the SCTs on beneficiaries' livelihood among the districts is mixed. On the one hand, in all the districts CTs protected households assets against 'distress sales' for food, enabled accumulation of assets (especially of small livestock), and reduced average levels of indebtedness. On the other hand, transfer income was not always used to generate additional income.
- **Education.** Cash transfers can contribute to improved education access, by paying for some of the non-fee costs and reducing the need for children to work. Education indicators (enrolment and absenteeism) generally improved following the introduction of the SCTs in Kalomo and Kazungula, though conditionalities relating to education were attached to this programme. The Chipata SCT pays households extra cash for each school-going child, as an incentive to educate children from poor families. The success of this feature can be measured by increased spending on education (which was almost double in SCT households compared to control group households), by increased enrolment (as much as 60% among asset-poor SCT beneficiaries) and by lower absenteeism rates (significant at 1%) (Tembo and Freeland, 2008: 32).
- **Health.** The health status of SCT beneficiaries in Kalomo improved between the baseline survey and the evaluation survey, probably as an indirect consequence of receiving cash transfers, though attribution is difficult and any linkages drawn from SCTs to improved health outcomes are speculative. Self-reported illness in the month preceding each survey fell, possibly because of improved disease resistance due to improved nutrition, and the incidence of partial sightedness halved, possibly because beneficiaries spent some of their cash transfers on eye surgery, but there are no data to confirm either speculation (Republic of Zambia/GTZ, 2007: 5 6).
- **Community level impacts.** Community-level impacts of SCTs can be positive or negative, and Zambia's cash transfer projects have reported both. Positive impacts include reduced begging by the poorest and reduced dependency on neighbours and relatives for support. Negative impacts can include social tension related to envy and resentment by excluded households, or conflict between genders or generations over the control of cash transfers.
- **Economic linkages.** Social cash transfers stimulate local economies by being spent in local markets and shops, and this creates a number of important secondary benefits and 'indirect beneficiaries', beyond their primary benefits in terms of enhanced income and consumption of direct beneficiaries. The Kalomo SCT evaluation estimated that 81% of cash transfers disbursed were spent locally, mostly on basic commodities such as food and groceries, but also on agricultural inputs and small livestock. Cash recipients in rural areas also buy produce and cooked food from their neighbors, so small farmers enjoy more demand for their crops, which can stimulate investment in agricultural production. Some beneficiaries hired neighbors as casual labour for their farms (for pouching or weeding their fields), using cash transfers to pay the wages.

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