REPUBLIC OF RWANDA

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PLANNING A SYSTEMIC EDUCATION RESPONSE TO THE NEEDS OF ORPHANS AND OTHER VULNERABLE CHILDREN (OVC) IN RWANDA

REPORT

By

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Study undertaken for MINEDUC
and supported by C*f*BT, DFID and UNICEF

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DISCLAIMER

The views in this study do not necessarily reflect those of any of the agencies involved.

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All names of interviewees in this report are fictitious.

ABBREVIATIONS and ACRONYMS; AND GLOSSARY

ABBREVIATIONS and ACRONYMS

APBES	Association pour la Promotion du Bien-être Social, Ishimwe
CBO	Community based organisation
CDC	Community Development Committee
CDF	Common Development Fund
CERAI	Centre d'enseignement rural et artisanal integré
CfBT	Centre for British Teachers
CFJ	Centre de formation de la Jeunesse (youth training centres, YTCs)
CHH	Child-headed household
COOPEC	Coopérative d'Epargne et de Crédit (savings and credit cooperative)
CNJ	Conseil National de la Jeunesse (National Youth Council)
CPMER	Centre de Promotion des Petites et Moyennes Entreprises- Centre providing services to SMEs
CU	Catch-up (programme)
CWIQ	Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (similar to domestic household
DEF	District Education Fund
DFID	Department for International Development
DHS	Demographic and Health Surveys census
EFA	Education for All
EIVC	Household Living Conditions Survey
ESSP	Education Sector Strategic Plan/Programme
FARG	Fonds d'Assistance aux Rescapés du Génocide (Assistance Fund for Genocide Survivors)
FRw	Rwanda franc
GER	Gross enrolment ratio
GOR	Government of Rwanda
JRES	Joint Review of the Education Sector
LSD	Livelihoods skills development
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MIGEPROF	Ministry of Gender and Family Welfare
MINECOFIN	Ministry of Commerce and Finance
MINALOC	Ministry of Local Affairs
MINEDUC	Ministry of Education……..
MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
NER	Net enrolment ratio
NFE	Nonformal education
OVC	Orphans and other vulnerable children
OOS	Out-of-school
P1, P2, S1, etc.	Primary I or first grade; Senior One or secondary school Form I, or 7th grade
PACFA	The First Lady's Office
PPPMER	Projet pour la Promotion des Petites et Moyennes Entreprises Rurales
PRS (P)	Poverty Reduction Strategy (Programme)
PRS-PR	PRS Progress Report
RAAAP	Rapid Assessment, Analysis and Action Planning
RESSP	Rwanda Education Sector Support Programme (DfID)
SACCA	Streets Ahead Children's Centres Association
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality
SME	Small and medium enterprises
TOR	Terms of reference
UBPR	Union des Banques Populaires du Rwanda
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
WFP	World Food Programme

GLOSSARY

ababyeyi b'umutima + nkundabana	neighbour mentors and advisors to OVC / CHHs
abarwanashyaka	children united, with a spirit of solidarity
amizero y'u Rwanda	people of hope
ibirara	vagabonds
imidugudu	villages built for newly settled people or IDPs
inturari	the brave ones
ishuli ry' amahoro	peace schools
mayibobo	street children
nyamweru	albinos

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Rwanda has made remarkable progress in several sectors over the last ten years, since the war. Recently a number of policy documents have been produced to guide development planning. In the education sector, which is considered key to poverty reduction and development, school enrolments have surpassed pre-war levels but, as a tragic legacy of the genocide in 1994, there are many children still out of school, a high proportion of them orphans. The Government of Rwanda is committed to universal primary education (UPE) by 2010 and Education for All (EFA) by the year 2015. DFID is the Government's largest bilateral partner and is providing support to the education development process through the Rwandan Education Sector Support Programme (RESSP). The Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Scientific Research (MINEDUC) has requested assistance within the RESSP for the development of its strategies for providing education services to out-of-school, vulnerable and hard-to-reach children, the many orphans of the genocide and of HIV/AIDS in the intervening years. UNICEF has been a major partner in supporting the study.

The objectives of the present study on education provision for OVC, as agreed with MINEDUC and CfBT, were to:

- Review the categories of OVC and children out of school.
- Review the identification and description of current education programmes for OVC and out-of-school children.
- Summarise what is known today of these programmes
- Identify unmet needs – and/or changes needed in current OVC education programmes.
- Note the diversity of children, the diversity of their educational needs, their geographical contexts, social contexts, presence/absence of existing programmes in terms of geographical spread, content, etc.
- List programmes needed, describe them – and fit into the framework proposed below.
- Develop a framework for out-of-school OVC programmes which would link with – and be a part of – the existing education system

The study starts with a review of policy relevant to OVC planning and takes particular note of poverty reduction strategies, examining the challenges to reaching the poorest of the poor, and the context in which OVC live and strive to get education, and noting the dire consequences of failing to improve the living conditions of OVC. The first effects of PRS in the education sector are discussed, among them the introduction of fee-free education in 2003/4, school uniforms becoming optional, the capitation grant to schools, the start of free textbook distribution to schools. An area of concern, however, is the apparently slow implementation of programmes to raise incomes in rural areas and among the urban poor. Clearly, unless PRS affects the micro-level, so that poor households begin to produce higher agricultural yields, and increase their earnings and purchasing power, there will be no solid economic foundation for long-term educational development in the country.

The documentation indicates that nonformal education or alternative education outside adult literacy programmes is a recent concept in Rwanda and, although noted in recent policy documents, plans have not yet been elaborated in this area. Accumulating studies report that there are, visibly, an increasing number of children out of school, on the street, in the fields and in domestic employment. Yet primary enrolment rates are rising. It is, therefore, an opportune moment to study the phenomenon of the education needs of OVC at a time when government policies are being enacted, education is expanding but the education needs of the society are also increasing by leaps and bounds.

To complement the significant data collection of RAAAP in late 2004, the present study included the voices of OVC (82) among the views and opinions solicited, as well as those of parents, of opinion leaders at community level, schools, local authorities and key informants at central level, a total of 226 interviews. Second, 34 livelihoods skills development centres and other NGO/project centres were visited by the team, across the twelve provinces of the country.

THE FINDINGS

Statistical Information

A total of 0.7 million children are estimated to be out of school and out of reach of skills training programmes. As many as 0.6 million children could be out of secondary school, while up to 100,000 children of primary age are out of school. Further, a high number of children fail to attend primary school regularly, perhaps as many as 20 per cent of enrolments, bringing the total of children out of school on any one day to almost one million children. Other relevant statistics include the following:

. 100,000 children live in child-headed households
. Orphans number 1.2 million and constitute 16% of the total population
. 30% of Rwanda's children are orphans, and the number is rising
. Rwanda has the world's highest percentage of children under 15 years who are orphans (data for 2000)
. On average Rwandan families shelter two orphans per family
. 37% of families include orphans
. Four catch-up centres reached 860 children (2003/4)
. 49 CFJs (including 27 private); and other training opportunities

The Situation of OVC related to Education Needs

The daily lives of OVC as expressed by themselves are far more harsh than adults in the field describe it. Eleven years after the genocide, their housing is in an advanced state of dilapidation. The burden of fostering is becoming too heavy for many foster families who are themselves below the poverty line (60 per cent in the country; 70 per cent in rural areas), and support systems and monitoring processes of OVC and foster families are not effective at community level. Foster children are increasingly being exploited as free or cheap labour in return for board and lodging. Working and foster children have no time available away from their work for joining an LSD centre, to participate in sports, or to further their education. OVC options are narrower than most LSD programmes conceive of, resulting in significant drop-out rates from programmes. Increasing numbers of separated children prefer to live in groups of their peers in preference to the house of a foster parent. Some are running away from foster families to work in the street.

The main causes of separation from the family/foster family and/or exclusion/drop-out from school are:

. Death of a parent, orphanhood
. Poverty
. Bad treatment in the home
. Distance from school
. Large and/or multistructure families, which increase poverty and in-family tensions

NGOs have had recent success with voluntary community mentoring programmes: the Bamporeze NGO *ababyeyi b'umutima*-mentors and advisors to individual OVC; *nkundabana*-mentor multiple support activities for child-headed households in Gitarama Province under CARE International Rwanda. These achievements point to the continuing viability of volunteerism at community level and the capacity of communities to take care of their own if assistance is well designed, well structured and supported from central levels. They also raise hopes for building on grassroots structures in a more sustainable way than in the past, when local government authorities were tasked to play the role, but quickly overwhelmed. Local NGOs with a sound trackrecord such as ARCT, and the Scout movement, and the umbrella organisations such as Pro-femmes/TweseHamwe and Haguruka, have lessons to offer development planners, but need

considerably more funding to play a national inspirational and active role in spear-heading more community-based activity, programmes and support for OVC.

The First Critical Group of Children – Primary age children

Enrolling more children and keeping them in school cannot be achieved by broad, national campaigns; nor is it useful to work without careful analysis of data. For instance, the provinces of Ruhengeri, Byumba and Butare need to be prioritised to increase primary enrolments, while Gisenyi, Ruhengeri, Gikongoro, Byumba and Gitarama have the most secondary children out of school. It needs to be recognized that boys are as much at risk as girls – and sometimes more – of nonenrolment and drop-out out from primary school. The issue of importance for girls' education is to address the qualitative aspects of schooling, such as curriculum, teacher attitudes, institutional ethos and practice. There is no indication of change in these factors, therefore girls' performance continues to be lower than boys'. A far more conceptually rigorous model of gender differentiated support needs to go to girls and boys out of school and at risk of exclusion from school, backed up by strong data. It is estimated that less than 100,000 primary age children are outside school but that levels of noncompletion are high. Orphans are more likely than other children to be at risk of exclusion from school. In terms of support to primary age OVC, the following is needed:

- **To address poverty:** Stipends to the poorest families (families with parents or CHH families) to substitute for the work of the schoolgoing child; and an increased number of school bursaries. [Action MIGEPROF/EDUC]

  Faster implementation of PRS, to give wide access to micro-credit to poor families. [Action MIFOTRA, MINAGRI, etc.]

  Serious review of mechanisms to produce higher agricultural yields, such as good quality seed distribution and marketing ; distribution of chemical fertilizer; re-establishment of a corps of agricultural extension workers. [Action MINAGRI]

- **To address a hostile family environment:** Advice and support (financial) direct to the child, to ensure continuation at school and improve the family context. [Action MIGEPROF]

- **To lessen the burden on large, or multistructure families:** Advice and support (financial) direct to the child and family through extension workers or a trained PTA team. [Action MIGEPROF]

- **To reduce distance to school:** Innovate education provision with alternatives such as home schools, multigrade or feeder schools, facilitating instructors, and regular instructor support. [Action MINEDUC]

- **To improve the quality of schools:** Reinforce and speed up support to every level of MINEDUC and every activity of schools, with all the measures listed in the ESSP, ensuring capacity building of school management and, in addition, introduce partial automatic promotion, provide leaving certificates and lower the official entry age to primary school to six years. [Action MINEDUC]

- **To provide education to those who cannot attend school:** Provide alternative education programmes outside school, not always within school compounds, but also in well selected locations on the *collines*, near homes, fields, markets, and other workplaces, respecting the short time that learners have available for education/training.
  [Action MINEDUC/MINALOC]

- **Demand**: Younger children outside school, under 13 years, would like to return to school or alternative basic education programmes, as compared with skills training. Work fast to re-integrate them back into schools or Catch-up centres before demand decreases with age.
  [Action MINEDUC/MIGEPROF]

The Second Critical Group of OVC – Adolescents/secondary age children

With enrolments significantly increasing at primary level, the critical mass of children to be addressed at this point are adolescents and secondary age children, aged 13-17 years. While half a million overage adolescents are estimated to be in primary instead of secondary school, less than 150,000 of them (11 per cent) are in the place destined for them, secondary school. As many as 0.7 million children of secondary age could be currently unreached.

While it would be tidy to have statistics on the numbers of children attending LSD (livelihoods skills development) training and support centres, the numbers would, by all accounts, be infinitesimal. To guess the number of children in 49 CFJs, and other livelihood skills development (LSD) training centres and projects as 50,000, as this study does, is probably to overestimate the total.

Centres visited were classified into the following types:

A. Centres providing general education programmes:	. Catch up centres, primary and secondary level . Literacy centres
B. Centres for skills training and other programmes:	. LSD Centres of many types, including CFJs (centres de formation de la jeunesse)
C. Centres supporting OVC, without LSD programmes:	. Centres specialising in support to OVC, multiprogrammes – in day centres. Residences specialising in support to OVC, multiprogrammes, providing a nurturing environment
D. Programmes giving financial and material support for schooling:	Provision of bursaries to school children, and/or other school materials and expenses

Programmes observed varied in terms of goals, types of target beneficiaries, coverage, content and delivery. Some useful models were noted in the field for extension and replication. A number of highly motivated individuals ensured the continuity of programmes, which were, however, generally poorly and precariously funded, for short time spans, run by a variety of providers: government, local and international NGOs, FBOs and CBOs. There was no collaboration between centres or projects nor did they benefit from any coordinating structure. Action was specific, uncoordinated, failing to benefit from the experience of others.

THE PROPOSED PROGRAMME OF ALTERNATIVE EDUCATION

The development of programme components and the framework for structuring the delivery of alternative education depended closely on the concepts presented by the National Policy for OVC and the accumulating sociological studies commissioned by NGOs, the Government and by multilateral agencies.

First, children should be encouraged and supported to go to school and to stay there. This will require not only **bursaries** to meet the continuing direct expenses of school, at primary and secondary level, which have been detailed in the report, but **stipends** direct to families too poor to spare their children for school, to forego their labour contribution to the family. Stipends and bursaries need to be allocated to children currently out of school and OVC at risk of noncompletion. There was ample evidence from the field that children under 14 years have the highest motivation for returning to school. In addition, **schools need increased technical and financial support** to improve the quality of delivery.

Second, it is recommended that three broad types of **alternative education programmes** be set up outside the classical schooling system:

- **General education programmes**
- **LSD programmes**
- **Outreach**

OVC in the field fall into two distinct categories in terms of **programme content** aspirations: (a) demand for general education programmes targeting a distinct education goal, such as a primary school certificate, or literacy; and (b) those wishing to learn livelihoods skills. The children can be further classified in terms of the **time** they have available for education/LSD programmes: some are available full time during the day, some part time and some find it difficult to find more than a two hour slot per week, for whom an outreach programme would be most appropriate. Time availability of potential learners will be a major factor in designing the structure of the alternative education system and programme offerings. The third important determinant of programme type is the **age of the child**. Children fall broadly into three categories: children 6-9 years who can be can be absorbed into the lower grades of primary school; 10-14 year olds who need basic education as a priority and who can cope with an accelerated programme; and older adolescents, 15-17 years, who are old enough for LSD training. Fourth, programmes need to be **located** as **near** as possible to the child, to reduce distance, cost and time taken to reach the programme. The challenge for education programme providers is to respond to these diverse demands and educational needs.

- **General education programmes** would include accelerated or catch-up programmes or extensive programmes, providing the equivalent of school programmes at a faster or slower pace, depending on demand; attached to existing schools or colleges, or in a different environment, such as separate centres for young married women still under 18 years, or for adolescents and young adults. They would also include modified and separate child-oriented literacy programmes to meet the requirements of adolescents, such as those running currently in Ruhengeri. MINEDUC Catch-up programmes should increasingly target mid and late adolescents, as primary school enrolments rise.

- **LSD programmes** require innovative approaches in the future, to provide low cost as well as medium cost options; to encompass both minimal skills training, such as bicycle repair, and more complex, more skilled training; to experiment with the use of a variety of premises for the programmes, including existing workshops, apprenticeship arrangements; a variety of instructors, such as master artisans, itinerant instructors and peer facilitators; to include the development of production units at LSD centres, sales outlets, hire of equipment, supplies procurement at advantageous group prices, and other facilitative activities, particularly at the follow-up stage of programmes.

- **Outreach programmes** will accommodate children who have few hours per week for any educative/training activity, even as few as two hours per week. The aim is, first, to reach out to all OVC, to gather them and include them in an educative programme, to give them the experience of inclusion. Second, the intention is to assist them to make achievable life plans, education, training, or job choices, and to identify the concrete steps needed to accomplish the plans; to encourage and facilitate them to join an LSD or education programme in time. Outreach will include sports programmes and edutainment. It will depend to some extent on voluntary action at community level, inspired by the mentoring programmes that some NGOs have been pioneering in community support to child-headed households.

The area of psychosocial support is the proper domain of social services, either government or NGO, and, as it happening already, the nurturing and material support given to OVC in day or residential centres, is enriched by a variety of programmes that can be described as educational and as LSD in nature. The educational programmes provided in these centres to date range from the religious and spiritual, to literacy, HIV/AIDS prevention programmes, cultural activities, homework assistance and language courses. Sensibly, the OVC support centres tend to outsource education and LSD training in existing locations/institutions. However, as noted above, OVC support centres and programmes are in urgent need of financial and other assistance.

THE PROPOSED NEW FRAMEWORK

While the school system needs strengthening in order to enrol more OVC and keep them in schools, an alternative education framework has been developed to complement current formal education. It is composed of three elements: General Education Programmes, including catch-up programmes; LSD Programmes; and Outreach.

It is proposed that the **alternative education subsystem** be assumed under the new Directorate of Nonformal Education in MINEDUC and be considered as an integral part of basic education provision to the nation, and an integral part of the education sector, targeting children who are outside the formal school system. It will parallel adult education/literacy programmes also run from the NFE Directorate. This strategy will significantly facilitate the achievement of EFA.

STRUCTURE AND IMPLEMENTATION PLAN

To plan, design, run and monitor the alternative education programme, it is recommended that a post of **Alternative Education Coordinator** be created under the NFE Director, responsible for the three components of the programme, including catch-up programmes under the first component. In time, further technical staff can be added. LSD may, if it is considered appropriate, be implemented through an extended CFJ Division, which would deal with all LSD programmes and not only CFJs. Outreach may be implemented through partnership between the AE Coordinator and School Sports and School Health programmes, elsewhere in MINEDUC, the primary responsibility being shouldered by the AE Coordinator.

A **Steering Committee** will be needed to advise the AE Coordinator which should comprise sister ministries, such as MIGEPROF and MINALOC, lead NGOs in alternative education, and UNICEF. It is strongly recommended that one NGO consultant be seconded full or part-time to accompany and support the AE Coordinator, inside the Ministry. NGO flexibility, experience and work modes are a distinct advantage when working at district and community levels. Globally, ministries are constrained by their culture and history. The partnership of ministry and NGO would benefit both partners and action at every level.

Specifics of the implementation plan are detailed in the report.

RWANDA'S

MISSION STATEMENT

FOR EDUCATION

The global goal of education of the Government of Rwanda is to reduce poverty and in turn to improve the well-being of its population. Within this context, the aim of education is to combat ignorance and illiteracy and to provide human resources useful for the socio-economic development of Rwanda through the education system.

Education Sector Policy (2002: 7)

1.0 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Rwanda has the world's highest percentage of children under 15 years who are orphans: 13.6%

RAAAP-OVC Rwanda,
Report Tool A (2004: 10)
– data for 2000 –

Rwanda has made remarkable progress in several sectors over the last ten years, since the devastating genocide of 1994. More recently, the Government has produced baseline policy documents to focus and direct the tremendous energy that is still being expended to rehabilitate Rwandan society at public and private levels in social, economic and political development. In the education sector, which is considered key to poverty reduction and development, school enrolments have caught up with and surpassed pre-war levels but, as a tragic legacy of the genocide, there are many children still out of school. Yet the Government of Rwanda is committed to universal primary education (UPE) by 2010 and Education for All (EFA) by the year 2015. DFID is the Government's largest bilateral partner and is providing support to the education development process through the Rwandan Education Sector Support Programme (RESSP). Several national and international partners are supporting the programme.

The Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Scientific Research (MINEDUC) has requested assistance within the RESSP for the development of strategies to provide education services to out-of-school, vulnerable and hard-to-reach children, to the many orphans of the genocide, and orphans of HIV/AIDS in the intervening years. UNICEF has been a major partner in the support and planning of the study.

1.1 OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT STUDY

Given positive and changing circumstances in Rwanda, notably the visible increase in enrolments at primary level and the achievement of gender parity in enrolment and retention rates, evident at a first perusal of updated sector data, the present study was not intended to replicate that of 2001 on girls and vulnerable children in five of the twelve provinces. Using the 2001 report as a reference, the present study was to focus specifically on: the current provision of education opportunities for orphans and other vulnerable children (OVC) out of school, across the entire country; on the situation of OVC at risk within the formal education system; and on planning a

systemic education response which would take into account the totality of OVC in and out of schools and complement and enhance the existing services of the education sector.

The specific objectives of the present study on education provision for OVC, as agreed with MINEDUC, CfBT and UNICEF, were to:

- **Review** the categories of **OVC** and **children** out of school.
- **Review** the identification and description of current **programmes** for OVC and out-of-school children. Note the extent and type of analysis to date of these programmes.
- **Summarise** what is known today of these programmes: their coverage, their objectives, their approaches, their strengths (how well they meet the needs of OVC) and weaknesses (the continuing unsatisfied needs of OVC); the mechanisms which account for the success or failure of the programmes; the role of Government so far.
- **Identify unmet needs** – and/or **changes needed** in current OVC education programmes. Note the diversity of children, the diversity of their educational needs, their geographical contexts, social contexts, presence/absence of existing programmes in terms of geographical spread, content, etc.
- **List programmes needed**, describe them – and fit into the framework proposed below.
- **Develop a framework** for out-of-school OVC programmes which would link with - and be a part of - the existing education system. [Appendix A reproduces the detailed ToR]

1.2 POLICY BACKGROUND

The critical documents shaping Rwanda's development and education policies are reviewed below in relation to planning education provision for OVC. The points raised, the conclusions of the cumulative literature, and existing education sector plans, have guided the present study in assessing current education provision for OVC, in interpreting OVC educational need, and in developing a framework for providing education services to all OVC, many of whom are at present out of school.

1.2.1 DOCUMENTATION RELEVANT TO OVERALL EDUCATION POLICY DEVELOPMENT

Vision 2020

The document, *Vision 2020*, published in 2002, stated Rwanda's vision for the future of the nation, evoking the thousand year history of the country, the role of the traditional monarchy which had unified the nation with its sole language, sole religion and common social structures, and its shared culture. Noting the causes of the genocide in 1994, and the catastrophic effects at every level of Rwandan society, the document emphasised reconciliation and a firm commitment to social progress. *Vision 2020* put its faith in the potential of the Rwandan people and recognised the urgency of exploiting Rwanda's human capital for accelerated national development. The youthful demographic make-up of the nation was seen as an advantage to be optimised, a social group which would be capable of learning effectively and quickly. *Vision 2020* voiced the need for expanded, improved and relevant education and training; for giving the younger generation skills for a new marketplace; and for opening Rwanda up to the wider world. It emphasised the importance of basing the educative endeavour on positive national values. The report specifically noted the low level of literacy (48 per cent) in the country;[1] the need for 'adapting education programmes to specific national needs'; and the expectation that partners in government and civil society would work together to achieve the goal.[2] It returned continually to the crosscutting theme

[1] EICV, data on 2000.
[2] *Vision 2020 : Analyse des Piliers*, MINECOFIN (2002: 12-14), French version.

of diversification: diversification of institutional structures, of employment opportunities and 'economic diversification', to which the education sector needed to respond. Nowhere in the report was it stated or implied that any group of children or adults could be left out of the millennium thrust towards educating Rwanda's population. On the contrary, the report emphasised the need for universal basic education and Education for All. *Vision 2020* saw education as a rights issue and as the corner stone of Rwandan development, linked to better health, the implementation of demographic policies, economic development and improved quality of life. The message of *Vision 2020* is clear: that development is for all Rwandans and that national progress will depend on uplifting the living conditions of everyone. This has direct implications for the education of orphans and other vulnerable children, and for equitable provision of education.

Poverty Reduction Strategy - Progress Report (2003) (PRS-PR)[3]

Rwanda's poverty reduction strategy (PRS), developed in 2001, can be regarded as the country's road map for development, derived from *Vision 2020* which was conceived at the same time as the PRS. It encompasses all sectors and is intended to give overall guidance to them. The most significant groups of children still out of school in Rwanda and/or performing below par, are the rural poor, domestic workers, the street children of the towns, and girls, who together represent the main categories of the OVC. Many have been driven out of rural areas by poverty, by the very conditions addressed in the PRS. The significant action points relevant to OVC in the PRS Progress Report (2003) are noted overleaf (Box 1.1).

It has to be kept in mind that the extension and upgrading of an education system is to a large extent dependent on both macro and micro economic growth and in this sense the PRS is of vital importance to the success of schooling. Therefore, the education sector has to keep a watchful eye on the mechanisms purported to be increasing micro or household incomes; first, to signal to itself and to Government in general the capacity for households to directly contribute more or less to the education sector over time; second, to periodically adjust the financing of the sector, responding to these changes; and, third, to justify policy modification with regard to household contribution to education. Lessons have been learned, world-wide, from the cost-sharing experiences and effects of the 1980s and 1990s SAPs which resulted in education sector decline in many countries and even decrease in enrolments in some cases.

With regard to education, the PRS-PR states expressly that education should play 'a catalytic role in economic growth and poverty reduction' and that education is linked to 'issues of equity'. It recommends:

- Increased and improved quality of education throughout the sector, lowering repetition rates.
- Expansion of CFJs[4] to one centre per district, that is, 106 in all, with new 'content and form' of programmes.
- Tracking CFJ graduate employment records.

[3] *The Government of Rwanda Poverty Reduction Strategy Progress Report*, 2003, MINECOFIN.
[4] *Centre de formation de la jeunesse* (CFJ) or youth training centre.

Box 1.1

Policy statements in the PRS-PR Relevant to OVC

Policy statements	Observations
. Addressing inequality is an important part of poverty reduction [p.55]	The education system, like other sectors, must not only ensure that programmes reach the most disadvantaged social groups, but are tailored to their needs.
. Rural incomes have to increase, to augment demand for non-agricultural goods and services [p.80]	Increased incomes will lead to more disposable income to spend on education.
. Increased agricultural/livestock yields are pivotal to rural income increase [p.80]	Research points to increased take-up of innovative agricultural methods by women who, in Rwanda, are less educated than men. Note also that girls perform less well in school than boys and are therefore less likely to become effective income earners. These points are relevant to the issue of raising rural incomes.
. Marketing and commercialisation of agri-culture are the priority mechanisms for increasing the sale of farm products [p.29]	Performance in basic arithmetical skills (to enhance effective marketing/commercialisation) needs attention through intensified teacher inservicing. Rwanda should avoid the pitfall of introducing business studies in schools.
. Labour intensive public works are the main mechanism at present for recapitalising the rural economy [p.5]	83% of the people live in the rural areas yet very little (2%) of the country's prime UBPR microcredit scheme currently funds agriculture;[5] rural demand for micro-credit needs to be increased, backed by microcredit training. The World Bank does not support micro-enterprise in Rwanda.[6]
. PRS interventions in 2002 resulted in increased cash crops (coffee, tea, soya, rice and potatoes) but maize and bean production declined [p.5]	This may have led to increased income but lower nutritional status of the people/schoolchildren – instead of improving both at the same time. Schools/learning centres need to directly address nutrition issues and produce rural citizens articulate on rural development priorities.

[5] The PRS-PR explains that credit cannot be dispersed more widely through the UBPR (Union des Banques Populaires du Rwanda) due to lack of domestic savings (2003: 11) which implies that UBPR does not yet use the microcredit mechanisms successful in other parts of Africa, supplying credit without savings or collateral on the Grameen Bank model, and adapted by Burkina Faso, Kenya, Somalia, and other countries.

[6] World Bank documentation defines SMEs (small and medium enterprises) as employing between 5 and 150 employees, being *outside* the informal and microenterprise sectors and notes that loans in Rwanda under this programme average USD 100,000.

While there is no explicit mention of nonformal education for children, the PRS-PR urges innovation, response to the immediate environment and to diverse education demand, recommending that schools be transformed into 'community and development centres' and that skills learned should be marketable.[7] It sees decentralisation as being the key to improving the sector.[8] The present report will translate those general PRS recommendations, which emphasise equity, into a concrete national and holistic education programme designed to reflect those aspirations and to address the educational needs of OVC.

While the PRS-PR (2003) listed some achievements it acknowledged that PRS strategies had not yet made a difference where it matters: 'Financing the poor remains a challenge'.[9] Informal reports in January/February 2005 noted that labour intensive public works which are a vital strategy for monetarising the poor, were ongoing. However, the fertiliser and seed production sectors, which are pivotal in increasing agricultural yields, were non-performing. Also, Rwanda has no local agricultural extension officers. And, as noted above, microcredit is not reaching a significant number of rural households. The education sector cannot expect to perform satisfactorily when underfinanced. While external aid can kick-start a system it cannot sustain it. It is imperative for the poor, for rural dwellers, for the education sector and for government, to keep an eye on the progress of the PRS. A last observation concerns international assistance. Donors have not matched pledges with action; and a significant proportion of aid is delayed for up to nine months, which makes budgeting and overall disbursement within sectors an extremely difficult exercise, pushing the poor out of school as systems fail during the course of the school year. A PRS failing at micro level will, by definition, affect the poor and will disproportionately affect orphans and other vulnerable children. The primary school drop-out rate in Rwanda was 15 per cent in 2003/4 and the most common cause cited was financial difficulties at the household level.

Education Sector Strategic Plan (2003) (ESSP)

Vision 2020 and the PRS gave rise to the development of sectoral policies. Rwanda's Mission Statement for Education, is reprinted at the start of this chapter. The sectoral policy for education[10] was followed by the Education Sector Strategic Plan (2003). Policy statements in the ESSP directly relevant to OVC are noted below, committing to the education Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for 2015: 'by 2015, all children of primary school age will have access to free schooling of acceptable quality and gender disparities in schooling will be eliminated'. The ESSP planned to develop all the subsectors of education.[11] In Phase 1 of the EFA Plan 2003-8, the first five years of the Basic Education Strategy, the implementation priorities included:

- Issues of access and social disparity reduction: the reintegration of out-of-school children into the formal primary education system.
- 'Improve[d] school completion and learning achievement of girls' and reduced repetition.

[7] PRS-PP (2003: 31,36, 54,83). Rwanda needs to engage in debate over the essential role of schools: to educate or train; and to determine the most appropriate location of training, taking into consideration the cultural ethos of the school and with cost in mind.

[8] Experienced Ministers of Education note that unless decentralisation is preceded by thorough capacity building and the establishment of functioning monitoring bodies, the consequences can be worse than central administration: corruption and misadministration can be transposed to local levels, with no effective checks and balances in the system. The Ministers recommended respecting the need for sequence of steps when preparing for decentralisation (ADEA Biennale Meeting, 2003, Mauritius: *The Quest for Quality: Learning from the African Experience, 2004*).

[9] PRS-PP (2003: 15).

[10] *Education Sector Policy* and *Education Sector Strategic Plan* (ESSP), MINEDUC (2003).

[11] *ESSP* (2003: 14).

- District Education Fund to support 'needy children' by Oct 2004 – the concept of 'needy children' was to be defined and a strategy for comprehensive care and support to OVC was to be developed in collaboration with MINALOC, linked to OVC Policy and Plan, and standardise guidelines for DEF operationalisation'. DEF to fund secondary fees for 'all needy children'.

- Establish school feeding programmes where necessary; and school gardens.

- Development of a Special Education Needs policy and provision, mainstreaming and providing 8 special centres, more trained teachers.

- Provision of 'flexible programmes for "hard-to-reach" children'; and 'education opportunities (including vocational and literacy opportunities) for out-of-school, hard-to-reach children… '

- 'Increase[d] opportunities for out-of-school youth and adults to follow vocational training programmes', framing vocational education within Basic Education: 40,000 young people to be trained by 2007, in 50 CFJs including production units, with 700 trainers, textbooks, consumable materials and equipment; CFJs to become self-financing.

- Secondary education was to include 'technical and professional training'

- 'Diversify modes of secondary education delivery: alternatives to traditional secondary education [to include] evening classes, distance and virtual education and alternative schools'.[12]

In terms of the Catch-up Programme, the ESSP Framework planned for:

. 70 catch-up centres for 12,000 pupils by 2008

. Provision of 'adequate equipment, textbooks and materials' for the initial 3 centres (2004)

. Identification of 30 new catch-up centres (2004)

. Payment of 300 catch-up teachers' salaries

. Catch-up teacher training (2004)

The Catch-up Programme was seen solely as a mechanism for integrating children into the formal system and not as a programme in its own right or with any goals other than formal school orientation.[13] Nonformal education was to be allocated 583m FRw in 2004, rising to 853m in 2008, but was earmarked for adult literacy and vocational training only.[14] The MTEF 2005-7, however, budgeted for 807m in 2005 rising to 837m in 2007, with an allocation for the Catch-up Programme of 3m FRw rising to 75m in the final year, while nearly 700m was earmarked for adult literacy in 2005, declining to about 550m in 2007. The Professional Apprenticeship budget ranged from 41m to over 130m during the three years and could be of relevance to the proposed Livelihoods Development Skills programmes proposed in this report.[15]

[12] Ibid., pp.10, 14-16, 21-23, 27-28.
[13] Ibid., p.15.
[14] 565 FRw is equal to 1 USD; 1 million FRw is USD 1,770 or approximately USD 2,000 (early 2005).
[15] *Rwanda Education Budget:* MINEDUC Final Budget 2005 and MTEF 2005-7; and *ESSP* (2003 : 57)

In tandem with the policies developed in the PRS and supporting the EFA education sector policy, the GOR took the following action in 2003/4, enacting pro-poor policies and shifting significant household contributions for education to the state:

- Primary schooling became fee-free
- Uniforms were declared to be no longer compulsory
- A capitation grant totalling 300 FRw per child was sent direct to primary schools
- The book policy translated into the start of free distribution of textbooks to schools[16]

The result was a 7.1 per cent increase in enrolments since the previous year, netting 93 per cent of primary age children, achieving a gross enrolment ratio of 131 per cent, a gross admission rate of 191 per cent and a net admission rate of 25 per cent. This meant that seven per cent of primary age children remained out of school (7 – 12 years); and that 75 per cent of children aged seven years were still out of school.[17] It also indicated that schools were grossly overcrowded with repeating and overage children, with almost double the numbers the first grade was designed to enrol. Attendance rates remained debatable[18] and children out of school were a common sight in the city streets, in rural markets, and in domestic work. Determined local administrators had more luck with child workers in the tea plantations. They went out to round them up and put them back in school. Fines ranging from 500 to 5,000 FRw were imposed on parents with children out of school. But fisher children, miners and brick makers continued to ply their trades, as did most street children and domestic workers.

The three pilot Catch-up centres were increased to four by 2004, enrolling 860 children, and they received individual attention from the central Ministry in terms of regular visits, moral support and advocacy. However, there were no government subsidies to civil society initiatives in alternative education. The first regular budgetary support from the Ministry was planned for 2005, three million FRw, as noted. Rwanda was set for a 'step-change', as DFID put it in the study *Out of school children*,[19] preparing the way for the first serious planning process in producing an adaptive education system which would comprise a new range of education opportunities to address the needs of the new millennium.

1.2.2 Documentation Significant to OVC Education Policy Development

Aide-Mémoire on the Joint Review of the Education Sector (JRES I) (mid-2003)

The first Joint Review, carried out at the end of April 2003, aimed to review progress in the development of the education sector in the context of a sector wide approach (SWAp), within the PRS framework. It noted the need for 'a more coherent policy and planning framework that addresses both the social protection and education needs of vulnerable children'. A recommendation to develop 'creative strategies to reach the hardest to reach [children, adults and youth] with a plurality of partners and financing sources' stopped short of urging innovative education delivery mechanisms. Generally, nonformal education was equated with literacy programmes. There was one mention of linking 'economic livelihood opportunities' with functional literacy while the expansion of early childhood education was recommended.[20] In conclusion, notions on alternative strategies of education had not been developed in Rwanda by the first half of 2003, nor education provision targeting OVC.

[16] Textbook and teacher guide provision 2003-8 costing 8.6b FRw (ESSP, 2003: 96), textbook-pupil ratio 1:3.
[17] *Recensement Statistique. Enseignement Préscolaire et Primaire. Année scolaire 2003-2004* (2004).
[18] The Ministry is set to collect attendance data for the first time in 2005. The GOR/UNICEF 2001 MICS data on school attendance are not borne out by observation in the schools, streets and countryside, nor by the statements of several local authorities.
[19] DFID (2001).
[20] *Aide-Mémoire*, JRES I (April/May 2003: 3, 12).

Joint Review of DFID, UNICEF and World Bank Support to the Education Sector (JRES II) (end 2003)

The Joint Review of aid to education noted at the end of 2003 that there were 'no major demand-side financing measures to increase the incentives for particularly disadvantaged children to attend school'. The report said: 'Little is known about these never-attenders or "hard-to-reach" children… the poorest and most vulnerable children – orphans, street children, child labourers and household heads'. And it pointed out that while primary school drop-out rates were high, and rising, OVC suffered even higher rates of attrition. The review recommended 'stronger institutional linkages with other parts of government to maximise the coherence of a multi-sectoral approach to the needs of vulnerable children' and 'join… up with budget allocations for OVC elsewhere in Government'.[21] In sum, the review recommended that an OVC education policy and strategy should be developed. At this point it can be concluded that by the end of 2003, both in the Government in general and in the Ministry of Education in particular, there was an understanding of the need to address OVC access to education as a special case, and of the need for a plan.

1.2.3 Government Policy on OVC

The Rwanda Government is a signatory to the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), to the African Charter on the Rights and the Welfare of the Child (1990), and is party to several other conventions and resolutions targeting the well-being of the child.

The *National Policy for Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children in Rwanda* was developed early in 2003, for the protection of children and to form the basis of future OVC programming. For Rwanda the following definitions apply:

- **A vulnerable child** is a person under 18 years exposed to conditions which do not permit him/her to fulfil her/his fundamental rights for her/his harmonious development.

- **An orphan** is a child who has lost one or both parents.[22]

To explain the needs of OVC the report drew attention to the overall socio-economic context, to the fact that more than 60 per cent of the population lived below the poverty line,[23] the high maternal mortality ratio at 1,071/100,000 live births, the under fives mortality rates at 107/1000, contraceptive prevalence at 4 per cent, and life expectancy at 49 years. Rwanda's particular tragedy is the number of children in child headed families. Noting the impressive achievements in addressing the problems of vulnerable children to date, such as the reunification and fostering of children after the genocide, and 'the numerous programmes initiated for destitute children, street children and children in child headed households', the report sounded the alarm on the rising numbers of vulnerable children in the country and their degree of vulnerability. It acknowledged the effects of 'persisting widespread poverty, the high HIV infection rates… and the increasing reports of child rights abuses' which constitute the tragic ongoing legacy of the genocide. The report stated: '[T]here are indications that the situation is becoming worse.' And, as pointed out in our discussion of the PRS above, the report was concerned that the strategies devised by the PRS, among them the stimulation of economic activities, 'may not reach the members of the poorest category (*umutindi nyakujya*), such as young orphans, the elderly, the disabled, etc.'. It specifically urged gearing investment towards rural areas.[24]

[21] JRES on aid to ESSP (end 2003: 16, 19-20).
[22] *National Policy for OVC in Rwanda* (2003: 7).
[23] UNICEF reported that in rural areas over 70 per cent of the population was estimated to be below the poverty line (UNICEF SITAN, 2003: 35).
[24] *National Policy for OVC in Rwanda* (2003: 4).

The report was of the view that 'these [vulnerable] people require particular attention through social safety nets provided by Government, NGOs, CBOs and other different associations as well as by the private sector'. This is the strongest statement so far by the Government of Rwanda on the obligation of duty bearers in society - and the major duty bearer in particular, namely the Government - to ensure that special programmes are developed, safety nets, and free services, to ensure the well-being and advancement of the most vulnerable members of Rwandan society.[25]

Rwanda selected the following four overriding principles to guide the policy and programme development for OVC, which will be critical to highlight in an education policy for OVC:

> - The principle of the best interest of the child
> - The principle of non-discrimination
> - The principle of the right to survival and development
> - The principle of participation of the child in the actions and decisions that concern him/her.
>
> *OVC National Policy (2003: 5)*

The OVC policy was intended to contribute to the following:

- the prioritisation of major areas of work
- a systematic co-ordination of services and programmes
- avoiding overlaps of services
- identifying gaps in services

- a better geographical distribution of services available for orphans and other vulnerable children
- improving and/or establishing services for children who are not adequately served

- an appropriate use of human and financial resources
- identifying gaps in human resources

- improving the allocation of budgetary resources on a rational basis
- ensuring technical and financial sustainability of programmes
- planning for future assistance from outside as well as inside Rwanda

- the establishment of a comprehensive monitoring and evaluation system
- assessing the impact of programmes and services.[26]

The policy refers, significantly, to the need for eliminating the marginalisation and stigmatisation of vulnerable children.[27] There is a litany of words and phrases used to designate unfortunate children in Kinyarwanda. Street children are known as urchins, ruffians, vagabonds, little bandits, and worse: *mayibobo*, *ibirara*, etc. These are strong terms and street children hate to be called by these names, as they explained to interviewers during the present study. Terms for disabilities or physical characteristics, for example, *nyamweru* for albino children, are also offensive. It will be up to schools to educate other children out of prejudice and stigmatising practices such as name calling, malicious teasing, shunning and bullying, and to promote new vocabulary, positive ways of relating to OVC and inclusive interaction. Programmes recommended for learning new social skills are outlined in the *Peace, Reconciliation and Conflict Resolution Framework Proposal – I* through the life skills programme for schools that Rwanda has been planning since 2000.[28]

[25] Ibid., pp.1,3 and 4.
[26] Ibid., p.2, re-ordered list.
[27] Ibid., p.7.
[28] *Peace, Reconciliation and Conflict Resolution Framework Proposal - Ishuli ry' Amahoro,* Obura (2004).

One area of progress during recent years is the decision of civil society partners to deal with OVC as one group. Donor funds earmarked for HIV affected orphans are now usually extended to supporting all orphans. Such programmes are no longer used as a mechanism for publicly identifying HIV orphans as different from other orphans, which could lead to stigmatisation. Also, there is a move to share funds allocated specifically to genocide survivors/orphans (Tutsi children only) with orphans in general (orphans from all social groups). Rwanda is working on eliminating social discrimination and these are major steps forward.

1.2.4 Documentation on OVC

The Cantwell study, *Starting from Zero,* set the scene in 1997, recounting the dilemmas faced by Rwanda in dealing with 'tens of thousands of unaccompanied children' who had been orphaned or separated from their families during the genocide. The Government and aid agencies tried to trace children's families, then placed as many orphans as possible with their extended family or in 'family-based care' with foster families, to reduce the numbers of unaccompanied children who had been placed in centres or orphanages.[29] They noted even at that critical time that the informal foster care arrangements needed monitoring to ensure that children received protection and care. Cantwell highlighted the neglect of adolescents of 14-17 years by most agencies.[30] The practice continues to this day but can be rectified with some re-angling of programmatic orientation, as CARE International Rwanda has succeeded in doing.[31] The issue of 'children born of rape' which is alluded to in 1997 is no longer talked of in 2005, no doubt in an attempt to avoid the stigmatisation of the children. Researchers should keep attuned to the issue so that any specific trauma continuing today, on the part of the children, is picked up and addressed. [32]

> They come from all corners of Rwanda, these victims of interrupted childhood, these premature adults, fighting with admirable strength for their very lives. ADPA (2002)

The indepth study on orphan and community dependent children, *Struggling to Survive*, added significantly to the description of issues facing children alone. What Veale et al. wrote in 2001 is echoed by the NGO SACCA today,[33] pointing to the persisting issue of orphans in Rwanda society, which was highlighted by the Hunter and Williamson survey on HIV/AIDS orphans in 1997.[34] Maternal orphans were seen as more vulnerable than paternal orphans, particularly those under five years, and the inevitable remarriage of widowers led in many cases to maternal orphans leaving home. However, paternal death has the most immediate impact on the income level of a family and on a child's schooling. The report of the NGO ADPA is the first to describe in detail the experiences of child domestic workers, their numbers, their invisibility, their never-ending hours of work and their low (or no) pay.[35]

The most recent study expanding and updating information and understanding on OVC, Guluma's *Lives of Separated Children: Study on the Immediate and Root Causes of Child Separation in Rwanda – Focus on Children of the Streets,* was carried out by Save the Children in 2004.[36] It corroborates the impressions of the OVC policy document one year before, noting that the numbers of separated children[37] seem to be increasing and that their plight is worsening. There is tacit recognition of this by NGOs who started working in Kigali with street children and domestic workers and then very quickly spread to the provinces, to arrest the rising tide of separated children migrating to the towns. The current tragic situation of children alone or 'separated' children is explained in the Guluma study by the fact that Rwandan families are at breaking point

[29] Greenwell's (2002) study on the UAC children's centres.
[30] Cantwell (1997: 92).
[31] Karangwa's study (2003) on livelihoods skills development needs.
[32] Cantwell (1997: 92 and 57).
[33] SACCA (Streets Ahead Children's Centre Association) *Proposal for a Study on Kayonza Street Children* (2005).
[34] Children on the Brink, by Hunter and Williamson (1997), funded by USAID.
[35] *Quelle place pour les enfants domestiques au Rwanda?* ADPA (2002).
[36] Guluma, Save the Children (2004).
[37] A 'separated' child is one living without parents or foster parents, whether those parents/guardians are alive or dead (Guluma, 2004).

and are no longer able to cope with increased fostering or increased moral or financial responsibility for more children. This has nothing to do with their unwillingness to foster more children but they are simply not able to do more than they are doing now. One could add that after more than ten years post-genocide generosity to several children from outside the immediate family, exhaustion may be setting in, moral and financial exhaustion: 'a significant proportion of the adult population in Rwanda is also dealing with psychosocial problems thereby making it difficult for them to support children experiencing emotional difficulties'.[38] On average Rwandan families foster more than two children each, some families are fostering three or four children in addition to their own. The consequences are that while HIV continues to rage, while poverty persists and while some family contexts remain hostile to the child, there will be more orphans in Rwanda and separated children.

> One of the lasting legacies of [war and genocide in Rwanda] is the large number of orphans and children living without adult protection in Rwanda.
>
> Veale et al. (2001 : viii)

The Guluma report urges for acknowledgement of the fact that the extended family is no longer functional in Rwanda; that the nuclear family is closing ranks; and that recognition of these factors will result in more realistic social sector planning in the future. Clearly, this would lead to the development of more appropriate education programmes for OVC at risk, within foster families, and living on their own.

Rwanda is the most densely populated country in Africa with 321 inhabitants per km^2 and has been at risk for decades from overuse and destruction of its natural resources: wood cover, water and land. Some would argue that overpopulation in Rwanda and Burundi is the sole factor causing tension and strife in the area, and the origin of regular overspill into neighbouring countries in search of resources for survival. The factors responsible for maintaining Rwanda's high fertility rate, one of the highest in Africa, include: the unchanging hold of ultra conservative religious bodies on fertility policy in Rwanda; the inevitable post-war rise in births; low quality of education; and current external control over HIV programmes across Africa, which has resulted in significantly reduced funding and support for broad sexual and reproductive programmes, family planning and culturally appropriate contraceptive programmes. Demographic growth rate in the country is not significantly offset by the tragically high infant mortality rate, nor by the unacceptable levels of maternal mortality noted above. Curriculum developers should be asking themselves what girls and boys learn in school that is failing to stem these avoidable deaths; what girls and boys learn in school that is failing to promote women and children's well being; and what girls and boys learn in school that fails to curb the most damaging trend in Rwandan society today, namely the demographic time-bomb.

The correlation between large families and poverty levels, and the negative impact on children's welfare and schooling patterns, is noted in Section 5.1.2. Further, as a MINALOC study points out, the correlation between women's education and fertility is strong in Rwanda. '[T]he most striking feature is the effect of education on fertility: women with no education had an average of 7.0 children, 5.9 children for women of primary level and 4.3 for women with post primary

[38] Veale et al. (2001: xii).

Box 1.2

At A Glance - Facts related to OVC

Facts on Orphans:*

. Orphans number 1.2 million and constitute 16% of the total population
. 30% of Rwanda's children are orphans, and the number is rising
34% children in Kigali are orphans, 32% in Kigali Ngali, 23% in Cyangugu
. Rwanda has the world's highest percentage of children under 15 years who are orphans (data for 2000)
. On average Rwandan families shelter two orphans per family
. 37% of families shelter orphans, the highest rate in the world
. 100,000 children live in child-headed households

. 83% of the orphans live in towns; 17% in rural areas

. 7,000 children on/of the streets
. 3,475 children live in centres/orphanages
. 28,341 children are in foster care
. 900 children are in prison
. 2,000 Rwandan children are with armed forces in DRC

Fertility Rates:*

. Highest: Ruhengeri (7.39 per mother), Byumba (7.07), Kibuye (7.04) – north, west
Lowest: Kigali town (4.38), Butare (5.49), Gitarama (5.57) – south, central (1996)

Maternal Mortality:* 1,071/100,000 live births
Under fives mortality rates:* 107/1000

HIV/AIDS adult prevalence:** 13% in Kigali, 4% in rural areas
Maternal AIDS orphans: 65,000 children 16 yrs old (2003)

Contraceptive Prevalence:* 4%

Existing Alternative Education Programmes:

. Four catch-up centres reached 860 children (2003/4)
. 49 CFJs (including 27 private); and other training opportunities

**RAAAP OVC - Rwanda*, *Summary* (2004)*
***JRES II (2003)*

education, which on average is almost three children fewer then women with no education. [For post primary women] the age of marriage went up, to 21.5 years [and] the average age of first sexual relationships to 19.7 years. The proportion of 15-19 year old adolescents who were pregnant or had a child was 22 per cent for those with no education and 3 per cent among girls with post primary education. Education therefore has a strong correlation with age of marriage and age of sexual relationships'.[39] Given the current low practice of family planning in Rwanda, one of the most effective and culturally acceptable contraceptive strategies would be to retain girls in school for as long as possible, but particularly in post-primary classes.

[39] MINALOC (2000: 120).

To return to the question posed above. It appears that girls who prolong their education to post primary levels engage in fertility reducing behaviour, that schooling has an impact on individual fertility. Perusal of the current curriculum indicates that it is not the content of education which is responsible for this behaviour change but the life aspirations and life plans that girls pick up spontaneously from the cultural environment of school. This report returns to the pivotal role of children's individual life plans, hopes and ambitions at a later point; and the importance of implementing life skills in the curriculum as first envisioned by MINEDUC in 2000.[40] The danger remains, however, that the majority of girls fail to reach or to stay in secondary school, and that girls out of school - orphans and other vulnerable girls - continue to make a negative impact on national fertility rates. The missing information here is the impact of education on boys and men. There are no data, no studies, on the sexual and reproductive behaviour of schooled and unschooled boys or on possible correlations between schooling and male behaviour.

1.3 STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

The next chapter presents the methodology of the present study, carried out in Rwanda Jan – Feb 2005. Chapter 3 examines available statistical data on population, school enrolments and trends, to identify pointers for action for OVC within the formal school system, primary and secondary, in terms of increasing enrolments and addressing the problems of children at risk of noncompletion. Preliminary directions for education programmes outside the formal system are also noted.

Chapter 4 reviews data on OVC in relation to their educational needs, guided by the National Policy on OVC, expanding the categories of OVC listed in the Policy document. This leads to a detailed examination of OVC occupations outside school, their availability for school or alternative education programmes in the light of data in the literature, to be complemented by the findings of the current study in Chapters 5 and 6. Chapter 5 presents the experiences of parents with children out of school, and noncompleters; and the perceptions of community opinion leaders and local authorities on OVC realities and needs. In Chapter 6 children express themselves: their life aspirations, experiences of education or training, and their attitudes towards education and towards skills training. Recommendations are embedded in the text and summarised at the end of each chapter. Chapter 7 completes the picture with a report on the centres visited, detailing the types of alternative education programmes observed. Recommendations for the development of three broad programmes are detailed: for primary/secondary catch-up centres, LSD and outreach programmes.

Chapter 8 proposes a framework for education programmes for OVC, and specific programmes of alternative education are listed and described. Recommendations are summarised at the end of the report.

[40] The proposal to re-activate behaviour oriented life skills programme in Rwanda as planned by MINEDUC with the support of UNICEF, and to add a component of peace education into the life skills curriculum (Obura, 2004).

2.0 METHODOLOGY

Given the objectives of the study regarding planning educational opportunities for OVC, the first stage in the study was to revisit the situation of OVC in general within the broad context of national development policy; and in the context of education sector policy and OVC policy. Interviews were held with key informants to update information on OVC and education trends in Rwanda. Documentation, education statistics and social indicators relevant to OVC were reviewed. In order to complete the picture, and taking the 2004 RAAAP[41] exercise into account, with its findings and acknowledged information gaps, field interviews were conducted, primarily with children, but also with other members of the community; and visits were made to centres providing education and/or training for children out of school. The findings of RAAAP are certainly important and have advanced understanding of the overall OVC situation. However, according to the RAAAP report, the data collection component of the exercise had suffered from a late start and subsequent rushed data collection in the field. It depended heavily on secondary sources of data and was not able to collect new data from the field relating to education. The present study had two weeks in the field. It was important to complement RAAAP and to include the perceptions and views of children in the data of the present study.

Key Informant Interviews

Interviews were held by the international consultant with key informants in government and civil society, with donors and agencies partnering the Government of Rwanda, and with individuals. A number of senior policy makers within the sector were interviewed on specific education issues. Economists and rural development specialists involved with ongoing planning and implementation programmes were also consulted, for briefing on broad development trends in Rwanda which impact on micro-economics and household decisions regarding the schooling of children. The full list of key informants is included in Appendix F.

Literature, Documentation and Statistics Review

Education statistics were reviewed to investigate historical trends in Rwanda on school access and to take into account the latest data on the sector (see also Appendix B). Data were examined for information on OVC and on the profiles of out-of-school children: their number, their age, their location, their characteristics. This was an important stage of the study since the number and profiles of children out of primary school are changing rapidly in Rwanda, in the wake of widespread and successful campaigns to get more children into primary school. Second, HIV prevalence affects school access and completion rates, as do economic trends.

Literature related to the education needs, access and performance of vulnerable children in Rwanda, was made available to the consultant from MINEDUC, external agencies such as UNICEF, international NGOs such as Save the Children and CARE, local NGOs such as Twese Hamwe and ARCT (see the References section at the end of the report) and added to information from NGO consultations in 2004 on peace education which had involved the international consultant. Global literature on education provision for out-of-school children was reviewed.

[41] *Rapid Assessment, Analysis and Action Planning (RAAAP) for Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children - Rwanda* , UNICEF (2004: 5). The RAAAP process was an initiative of UNAIDS, UNICEF, USAID and WFP, to scale up response to OVC needs in 17 Sub-Saharan African countries.

Field Interviews

The ToR was explicit on the need for conducting participatory discussion with a range of stakeholders in the field, particularly with children. A total of 82 interviews were conducted with OVC. The profiles are listed in Appendix D. This was a way of complementing the RAAAP exercise in late 2004 which had not included the voices of children.[42] The methodology of data collection in the present study reflected this instruction closely. Some members of the team had worked together previously using in-depth qualitative interview techniques. The findings here reflect not only the structured data they collected but insights from informal encounters in the field.

Visits were made to the field by the five members of the research team, to the twelve provinces of Rwanda, to capture the perceptions and experience of OVC and their parents, the perceptions of the community, local leaders and local authorities, including local education officers, heads and teachers. The aspirations of the children were noted, as well as the proposals by a variety of actors, on the children's education needs, the viability of getting them to school in the future, and the types of education programmes that should and could realistically be established for them outside school, where necessary.

Structured questionnaires were prepared by the field study team for interviewing:

- OOS children — Questionnaire 1
- Parents of OOS children — Questionnaire 2
- Local community leaders — Questionnaire 2 or 3
- Local authorities, including education officers — Questionnaire 3
- Visit/Observation Guide for Centres — Guide/Questionnaire 4

Depending on the social roles of the local community leaders interviewed, Questionnaire 2 or 3 was used as appropriate. Half of the children, parents and community members interviewed were female. Some of the parents and community members sought out for interview were illiterate, to contrast with the more educated people interviewed among the community leaders. Interviews with children, parents and the community were conducted mainly in Kinyarwanda. The four national interviewers were invaluable in this respect. French and Kinyarwanda were used in the other interviews. Information was recorded in French or English, depending on the preference of the interviewer.

Three days were spent in each province. With no prior programming, interviewers searched for suitable interviewees on their arrival, using the parameters agreed on by the team. In each of their three provinces, the four research assistants were to visit/interview:

CENTRES: Minimum 2 ***centres*** per province, but attempt to cover to 3 or 4 per province; achieve mix of centre types

INTERVIEWS: Minimum *5* ***children*** (out of school children)
Achieve gender balance, most over 15 yrs, achieve mix of 'occupational' child profiles

Minimum *2* ***parents*** who have OOS children
Minimum 2 ***community*** *leaders* or *opinion-leaders*
Local authorities*, at least 1 per province:* District Education Officer, Social Services & Migeprof Officer & Mayors/Vice Mayors
Achieve gender balance overall

[42] 'A very important aspect which had to be sacrificed was that of children's participation [and] limited interviewing to the capital city'. *RAAAP OVC-Rwanda* (2004: 8)

The essential questions the team asked children and parents were:

To Out-of-school Children:
What do you want to do next in terms of education?
- . Do you want to enter/return to school?
- . Do you want to go to any other education programme outside school?
- . Do you want to go to a training programme?
- . Do you have any other plans?

And every answer was to be probed by questions of: which type? where? when? how?
The child was encouraged to introduce or discuss any related topic of interest to her/him.

Parents: Similar questions were put to parents of out-of-school (OOS) children, asking them what they wanted for their child or children in terms of education and/or training plans. In most cases, these were not the parents of the specific children interviewed above.

Local opinion leaders were asked what OOS children were likely to do in terms of education or training; what they felt was needed for these children; information on existing education/training programmes that would cater for their needs; and recommendations for future programmes.

Local authorities, including education officers, were asked the same questions as above.

Visits to Education Centres

Observation guidelines for visits to education and training centres were also drawn up by the field study team. The aim was to visit a representative sample of all types of centres engaged in educative activities for children aged 6-17 years out of school. The centres types, as identified and agreed at preparatory team meetings during the first week of the mission, included:

- Adult education centres admitting children
- Catch-up centres with primary-equivalent three year accelerated programmes for primary drop-outs or never-schooled children
- Catch-up centres with an accelerated secondary school programme for post-primary students
- Post-primary government skills training centres for children outside the secondary schools, the CFJs (Centres de Formation de la Jeunesse, or youth training centres);
- LSD (livelihoods skills development) oriented centres run by various organisations and churches
- NGO/church children's projects of various types, including day and residential centres, which included educative elements, such as street children projects, sports programmes, edutainment, HIV prevention education, etc.

[see Appendix G listing the centres visited]

The team visited education and training centres, observed classes and training sessions, and interviewed students, organisers and instructors, and CBO, FBO and NGO directors. The aim was to make a few in-depth visits to representative types of centres rather than to survey a large quantity of them. It was the intention of the team to identify viable programmes for out of school children which could be proposed as models for support in the future under a coordinated structure.

Questions focused on the objectives of the centre, the target learners, the type of programme offered, its scope and mode of delivery, the learning tools available in the centre, the characteristics of the instructors; the profile of the owners, organisers, supporters and funders; the perceived strengths and weaknesses of the programmes, their achievements, lessons learned and their sustainability. In many cases the headquarters of the organisation was subsequently visited to gain an overall picture of the activities and future aims of the organisation. Quantitative data were collated, analysed and reported; qualitative data were subjected to content analysis where appropriate.

The four questionnaires and observation guides are available on request from CfBT, Rwanda.

Totals of Interviews and Centre Visits

The tally of interviews and centre visits is given in Table 2.1. The principal focus in the field was to listen to OVC, in order to complement information collected by the RAAAP enquiry in late 2004.

Table 2.1: Interviews and Visits Conducted in the Field

Respondent Categories Interviewed/Visited	N
Children	82
Parents	23
Opinion Leaders	15
Local Authorities	14
Key Informant Interviews	57+
Centres visited	35
Total	226

Interviews were conducted with 82 children, 23 parents, 14 local authority officers and a further 15 local opinion leaders. Visits were made to 35 centres. In total, 226 interviews/visits were carried out, averaging 16 interviews/visits per province. Key informant interviews totalled 57 but included approximately 80 people. This brings the total to 226 interviews and visits in the twelve provinces of Rwanda, in the towns and rural areas, in tea plantations, with fisherfolk by the lakesides, at brickmaking enterprises, in markets, in the fields and the homes of informants. Visits were made to markets[43] in the towns and villages, to observe income generating enterprises, the activities of children in the markets and streets, and to interact with the street children.

Full profiles may be consulted of the children, the parents (Table 5.1), opinion leaders, local authorities and key informants, in Appendices D, E and F; and the centres, in Appendix G.

[43] In Kigali, Gakinjiro markets I, II and III were visited at Gachuliru, the town centre and Cimironko at Remera, as well as the Gare Routière area; also markets in Nyamata, Base, Gitarama, and two Ruhengeri villages.

Dialogue with MINEDUC, Other Government Bodies and Rwandan Civil Society during the Mission

MINEDUC provided briefing for the consultant, after an initial meeting with CfBT, including the Director of Primary Education, the Coordinator of the Ministry Catch-up classes, the EFA Unit and the Director of Planning. MINEDUC allocated a research assistant full time to the mission, working alongside the three other research assistants from outside the Ministry. MINEDUC directors, in particular the incoming Director for Primary and Secondary Education and other senior officers, were constantly available for consultation during the mission, as were those from MIGEPROF, MIJESPOC, the Decentralisation Unit of the Government, the partners in support of the mission, namely UNICEF and DFID, and NGOs experienced in OVC projects world-wide and locally. As the lead agency in the field in support of the protection of the child and specialised in the provision of education for hard-to-reach children, regular consultation with UNICEF was particularly valuable. CARE International Rwanda, now working in nine of Rwanda's twelve provinces, on a variety of programmes, was also a valued, regular and experienced interlocutor and field guide during the mission.

A debriefing session was held with senior officers of MINEDUC in the final week of the mission. A final presentation-discussion session at the end of the week was led by the Secretary General of the Ministry, with approximately 20 directors and policy makers of MINEDUC. The Minister of Education, Hon Professor Romain Murenzi, showed a keen interest in the study and met with the mission. Wrap-up meetings were held separately with UNICEF, CARE International Rwanda, and the new Director of Nonformal Education, at the end of the mission.

The Field Research Team

The team was made up of four national assistant researchers and an international consultant. National team members included, as noted above, one officer from MINEDUC, and three from civil society, from the fields of NGOs, trades unions, academic enquiry, child protection, HIV/AIDS education and administration, formerly in MINEDUC. They comprised three women and one man; of diverse social profiles; one Anglophone and three Francophones who also operated in English, while the international consultant worked in both languages. Kinyarwanda, Rwanda's sole indigenous language, was used extensively in the field.

The four assistant researchers travelled alone, each to three provinces, carrying out interviews, and centre and school visits in each province. The international consultant concentrated on centre and district office visits, and interviews with key informants, in six provinces.

The first week of the mission was spent writing questionnaire and visit guidelines, identifying the targets of interviews and visits, and making travel plans. Two weeks were spent in the field. In the fourth week, information was collected and collated by the research assistants.

Logistical support was provided by CfBT in the form of meeting rooms in CfBT or elsewhere, and travel for the international consultant. Transport and accommodation upcountry was arranged by the researchers, and funded by CfBT. MINEDUC and the EFA Unit of the Ministry organised some of the meetings. UNICEF was a major funding partner of the mission, readily provided documentation, and was available for regular consultation.

3.0 STATISTICS RELEVANT TO EDUCATION PROVISION FOR OVC

The 2002 Census reported a total of 1.2 million orphans under the age of 18 in Rwanda, out of a total population of 8.1 million people, that is 16 per cent of the entire population, and 30 per cent of all children. There is known to be a close relation between orphanhood, and exclusion from school.[44]

Statistics relevant to planning education provision for orphans and other vulnerable children are presented below. Figures are available for the year 2003/4 but not the gross (GER) and net enrolment ratios (NER) by province. Data for 2002/3 has therefore been used in Sections 3.1.1 and 3.1.2. The 2002/3 statistics have benefited from the 2002 census findings.

3.1 ENROLMENT

3.1.1 Population Totals, Density and Primary School GER by Province

For planning purposes, it is important to know the location of the children out of school. The first question to ask on out-of-school children in Rwanda is: **is there any correlation between population levels and/or density by province, and school enrolment?** Failure to attend school in the Africa region is associated with: (a) living in remote, sparsely populated areas; (b) arid areas, particularly those inhabited by nomadic pastoralists; (c) residence in capital cities, due to the high proportion of in-migrating disadvantaged rural children into domestic work and to the streets; and (d) political and or historical neglect of some regions. In terms of social factors determining school attendance, low enrolments are linked to: (a) poverty; (b) sex; (c) policies and practice governing the allocation of the nation's resources.

Umutara is the largest province, followed by Kigali Ngali. There is no significant difference between the size of the other provinces, except Kigali Town, which is the smallest province.

Table 3.1: Population and GER by Province 2002/3
ordered by population numbers

Province	**Population** in millions	**Density** per km^2	**GER**
Ruhengeri	0.89	540	129
Gisenyi	0.86	424	132
Gitarama	0.86	404	138
Kigali Ngali	0.80	285	137
Butare	0.73	386	115
Byumba	0.71	421	116
Kibungo	0.70	239	136
Cyangugu	0.61	322	121
Kigali	**0.60**	**1943**	**127**
Gikongoro	0.49	250	122
Kibuye	0.47	260	132
Umutara	0.42	100	129
RWANDA	**8,128,553**	**321**	**128**

Sources: *Recensement 2002 en bref* (2004: 4); *Indicators*, Directorate of Planning, MINEDUC 2005

[44] World Bank (2003: 67-69).

Table 3.1 indicates that some provinces (Ruhengeri, Gisenyi, Gitarama and Kigali Ngali) have approximately double the population of others (Kibuye and Umutara – and Gikongoro, to a lesser extent). They also have the highest school enrolment ratios. Population has always been concentrated in the northern provinces, and in the central provinces of Gitarama and Butare. The new phenomenon since 1994 is the very high density of population in Ruhengeri and Gisenyi

The most striking feature on enrolment is that Rwanda's national and provincial GER is relatively high compared to some countries in the region, despite the genocide in 1994 and the tragic disruption of the education system. Second, there is relative lack of disparity between provinces, ranging from 115 to 138 per cent. Also, there is no one province in some unique position: provinces cluster together. This reflects the relative homogeneity of the country in spite of district and local differences. Detailed data at district level was not available but needs to be examined in order to pinpoint latent disparities. Third, there is no gender gap in primary school enrolments in Rwanda, with the exception of Ruhengeri, Gisenyi and Umutara.[45] The literature points to cultural rather than economic characteristics of the north as the prime factor responsible for keeping girls out of school and for the relatively high rate of girls' drop-out in those provinces. This point is corroborated by a recent study on separated children,[46] comparing a southern and northern province, concluding that polygamy in the north leads to stress within families.

The answer to the first question posed is that while provinces with high populations tend to have higher GERs than other provinces, the three least populated provinces (Kibuye, Umutara and Gikongoro) do not have the lowest enrolment ratios. There is no simple correlation between population distribution and school enrolment in Rwanda. The implication for out-of-school children is that, at provincial level, there is no particular problem in the more sparsely populated areas of the country.[47] However, there will be a higher number of children out of school in provinces with higher populations. This is borne out by data below.

The secondary GER is 15.4 per cent.

3.1.2 Population, GER and NER

The second question to be asked is: **does the NER for primary schools reveal any new factor masked above by the GER?** Table 3.2 shows GER and NER by province and provincial population totals, ranked by GER.

The pattern of NER closely follows that of GER., with the exception of Kibuye's relatively high NER. Byumba and Butare, with the lowest NERs, of 81 per cent, are not the least populated provinces. The most important characteristic of both GER and NER spread is the relatively low range of regional disparity in Rwanda, which can undoubtedly be attributed to the fairly similar geographical and climatic features across the country.

The secondary subsector NER was reported to be 10.6 per cent (2003/4), meaning that 89.4 per cent of children of secondary school age are not at secondary school. A high proportion are in primary school, as will be noted below.

[45] The Abagi et al. report (2002) identified Ruhengeri and Gisenyi as the sole provinces with a marked disparity in enrolments by gender to the disadvantage of girls.

[46] Guluma (2004).

[47] It is difficult to find data on distance from school. *The Situation of Children and Women in Rwanda*, UNICEF/GOR (2003: 69) reports Gisenyi and Gikongoro Provinces with 12 and 10 per cent children, respectively, who dropped out of school reportedly living 'far' from school, but with no indication of the distance.

Table 3.2: Primary GER and NER (2002/3) by Province

Province	GER %	NER %
Gitarama	138	99
Kigali Ngali	137	94
Kibungo	136	94
Gisenyi	132	96
Kibuye	132	99
Ruhengeri	129	93
Umutara	129	90
Kigali	**127**	**90**
Gikongoro	122	84
Cyangugu	121	89
Byumba	116	81
Butare	115	81
RWANDA	**128**	**91**

Sources: *Recensement 2002 en bref* (2004: 4);
Indicators, Directorate of Planning, MINEDUC 2005

3.1.3 Population and Numbers of Children Out of School by Province

The third question in this section refers to equity/disparity by province: **what are the provincial differences in numbers of children out of school?** The numbers of children out of school are reported by province in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Primary Age Children Out of School (2002/3) by Province

Province	Children of Primary Age 7-12 yrs	NER %	N Children Out of School
Byumba	110672	81	20950
Butare	107739	81	20651
Gikongoro	77141	84	12266
Ruhengeri	156356	93	10985
Cyangugu	99909	89	10566
Kibungo	111682	94	6998
Kigali Ngali	120914	94	6984
Kigali	**65128**	**90**	**6799**
Umutara	67860	90	6586
Gisenyi	152189	96	6551
Kibuye	80502	99	1181
Gitarama	124744	99	1361
RWANDA	**1274836**	**91**	**111887**

Sources: Calculated from data of primary enrolments 2002/3, *Indicators*
Directorate of Planning, MINEDUC 2005

In 2002/3 the net enrolment ratio was a remarkable 91 per cent, and rose to 93 per cent the following year. The figure of over 110,000 primary age children out of school, declined to just over 93,000 the following year. Only seven per cent of primary age children were officially out of school in 2003/4. However, the 95 per cent attendance rates reported by MICS[48] survey of 2000 are not confirmed by observations.

Table 3.3 indicates the geographical location of out-of-school children by province and provinces where, from the point of view of programming, the major efforts need to be focused in the future:

- **Provinces with most children out of school:** The numerically highest concentrations of out-of-school children are located in **Butare** and **Byumba**, each with over 20,000 children out of school, which are almost double the next cluster of **Cyangugu**, **Gikongoro** and **Ruhengeri**, with 10-13,000 each. The first four provinces simply have low enrolment rates. The Ruhengeri factor is different. The NER is relatively high (93 per cent) but the number of children excluded from school remains high in this most populated province of the country - over 10,000 children of primary age - due to the sheer population numbers involved. Another point of significance is that Cyangugu (and Kibungo) has a low indicator of proximity to learners,[49] which indicates the need for a wider geographical spread of schools, or the establishment of some small, feeder schools.

- **Middle level provinces:** Provinces as different at Gisenyi and Kibungo, Umutara, Kigali Ngali and Kigali Town, indicate a similar number of children out of school, over 6.000.

- **Best performing provinces:** The provinces of Gitarama[50] and Kibuye are not generally considered to be a natural pair. Gitarama is a highly and densely populated province, while Kibuye is one of the lower and less densely populated provinces. History has provided the provinces with very different education experiences, yet the NERs are now the same.

Overall: The highest number of OOS children are not found in the highest population provinces or the most densely or least densely populated areas. Enrolment is unrelated to demographic factors, with the exception of Ruhengeri.

Further, the urban poor are less enrolled (NER 36 per cent for the lowest consumption quintile) than rural poor (66 per cent).[51] It will be important to monitor the enrolments of 2003/4, the initial year of fee-free primary education in the country (Table 3.4 below). At the time of writing, information on the age of children enrolled per province was not available. The additional enrolments (Col. 4) refer to children of all ages, not only to those of primary age. They include overage and underage children.

Only the four provinces with significant numbers of children out of school are featured in Table 3.4. Three provinces continue to have a large number of children out of school, Butare, Byumba and Ruhengeri. The first striking feature of Table 3.4 is the absence of Gikongoro and the remaining seven provinces from the group of provinces with high numbers of out-of-school children (Table 3.3). Given the lack of data on the age of children, this does not necessarily indicate that NER has reached 100 per cent but it emphasises an effort of significance in increased admissions (7.1 per cent) for 2003/4 across the country, the first year of fee-free education. The GER-NER gap needs to be watched, for example in Gikongoro, to ensure that provinces with lower net ratios are succeeding in putting their primary school age children into school.

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[48] Multiple Indicators Cluster Survey (UNICEF 2000).

[49] World Bank (2003: 79).

[50] To anticipate the findings on the situation of Catch-up Centres in Chapter 7, it was noticeable in the field that demand is declining for primary age children at the Gitarama Catch-up Centre. The programme in Ruyumba, Gitarama, now needs to target children over 12 years.

[51] *EFA Plan of Action,* MINEDUC (2003: 22).

Table 3.4: Enrolment Trends in Four Problematic Provinces (2003/04)
- ordered by Col (5) -

Province (1)	NER % 2002/3 (2)	Children Out of School 2002/3 (3)	Additional enrolled children 2003/4 (4)	Children Out of School* 2003/4 (5)
Cyangugu	89	10,566	8,582	2,000
Ruhengeri	93	10,985	**1,577**	9,000
Byumba	81	20,950	12,146	9,500
Butare	81	20,651	10,623	10,000

*Approximations

Source: Calculated from data of primary enrolments 2002/3 and 2003/4 and *Indicators*, Directorate of Planning, MINEDUC (2005)

Table 3.4 (Col. 5) indicates trends in meeting UPE targets, rather than exact statistics on out-of-school children 7-12 years, 2002/3 to 2003/4:

- Nine provinces are progressing.
- Three provinces are still far from achieving the goals: Ruhengeri, Butare and Byumba
- Ruhengeri is a special case and, due to lack of progress, is cause for concern

Cyangugu, Byumba and Butare made great strides in increasing enrolments in 2003/4 and are on track for UPE. However, **Byumba** and **Butare** still have a considerable way to go. **Ruhengeri** is recorded as having increased enrolments by a small margin only, 0.78 per cent, and is cause for major concern. In terms of UPE progress, the province is markedly different from Gisenyi and Umutara Provinces, with which it is often grouped for other purposes.

In conclusion, the numbers of the children out of school are more significant, by province, than the enrolment ratios in terms of working towards UPE, and it will be important to monitor progress in reducing those **numbers** of children out of school.

In nine provinces more than 20 per cent of the people, 6-29 years, have never attended school.[52] Gitarama, Kigali Ngali and Kigali Town have a higher proportion of schooled people of the same age then other provinces. Gisenyi and Gikongoro Provinces have the highest percentage of illiterate people.[53]

3.1.4 Enrolment by Gender in Primary Schools

The fourth question relates to gender: **is there marked or any gender disparity in enrolment in Rwanda?** The latest data show that in 2003/4 gender parity of enrolment continued, with slightly more girls (50.8 per cent) in primary school than boys and even in the sixth and final grade of primary school: girls at 49.65 per cent, in contrast with boys at 50.35 per cent, a shortfall of only 625 girls in the whole country, which is insignificant. Five provinces have more boys in sixth grade than girls and seven provinces have more girls than boys.

[52] *Census 2002 Summary* (2003: 30).
[53] *Census 2002 Summary* (2003: 28, Table 14).

Table 3.5: Total Enrolment and Enrolment in Sixth Grade by Gender, in Primary Schools, 2003/4

	Total Enrolment N (%)	P6 Enrolment N (%)
Girls	890,432 (50.8)	44,971 (49.65)
Boys	862,156 (49.2)	45,596 (50.35)
Difference	28,276 more girls	625 more boys

Source: *Recensement Statistique, Année scolaire 2003-4*
MINEDUC (2004 : 17 and 26)

The MOESTSR/UNICEF *Baseline Study of Basic Education for Girls and Other Vulnerable Groups in Rwanda* (2002) reported that three of Rwanda's twelve provinces indicated disparity of enrolment at primary level to the disadvantage of girls. The provinces with the least girls, Ruhengeri and Gisenyi, registered 48.2 per cent girls and 51.8 per cent boys, which is hardly significant.[54] As will be noted below, gender disparities in these two provinces are more important in terms of drop-out at upper primary, but only in these provinces.

In 2003/4 ten provinces registered higher enrolments of girls than of boys. Two provinces had a higher enrolment of boys, **Ruhengeri** (49.6 per cent girls) and **Gisenyi** (49.5 per cent girls) with higher numbers of girls out of school.[55]

Conversely, the provinces with higher enrolments of girls and a notably higher proportion of boys out of school, were Butare, Gitarama and Kibungo in 2000;[56] and **Kigali Ngali, Gitarama**, and to a lesser extent, **Butare, Gikongoro** and **Kibuye**, in 2003/4.

3.1.5 Secondary Enrolment

The next questions relate to secondary age children: **what is the number of secondary age children out of school or skills training programmes and how are the numbers to be estimated?**

It is reported for 2003/4 that 1,319,364 children were of secondary age in Rwanda (13-18 years). 139,264 students of that age were enrolled in all secondary schools (NER 10.6 per cent); 203,551 students in total, of all ages (GER 15.4 per cent). In state schools girls represented 42 per cent of the students and 51 per cent in the private schools.

In order to estimate the numbers of children out of secondary school, aged 13-18 years, the following points need to be taken into consideration (see details in Appendix B): approximately half a million children in primary schools are overage; 139,264 are in secondary schools, about 20,000 in CFJs and others in nonformal training programmes. It could be estimated that approximately 0.6 million children of secondary age are out of school/ training programmes.

[54] MOESTSR/UNICEF (2002: 23, Table 8).
[55] Ibid. p.17.
[56] *Rapport d'une Campagne Nationale de Sensibilisation*, MINEDUC (2000: 25).

GER by province is shown in Table 3.6. Gisenyi, Ruhengeri, Gikongoro, Byumba and Gitarama Provinces have the lowest secondary enrolment rates. However, all provincial rates are low except Kigali. Access to secondary schools, in terms of distance, is calculated to be available to 11 per cent of the population, that is, 9 per cent in rural and 50 per cent in urban areas.[57] This poses a particular challenge to planners in making secondary school accessible to children in the rural areas.

At secondary level, in junior secondary state and assisted schools, 42 per cent of the pupils are girls as compared with over 50 per cent girls in private secondary schools.[58]

Table 3.6 : Secondary GER 2000/1

Province	Secondary GER
Gisenyi	6
Gikongoro	7
Ruhengeri	7
Byumba	8
Gitarama	9
Butare	10
Cyangugu	10
Kibuye	10
Kigali Ngali	13
Kibungo	16
Umutara	22
Kigali Town	**48**
RWANDA	**11**

Source: World Bank (2003)

3.1.6 Total Estimated Number of Children Out of School/Training Programmes

The 93,000 children of primary age out of school, and the estimated 0.6 million adolescents of 13-18 years outside schools and training centres, total approximately 0.7 million children (Fig. 3.1).

Fig. 3.1 : Children In/Out of School, 7-18 yrs 2003/4

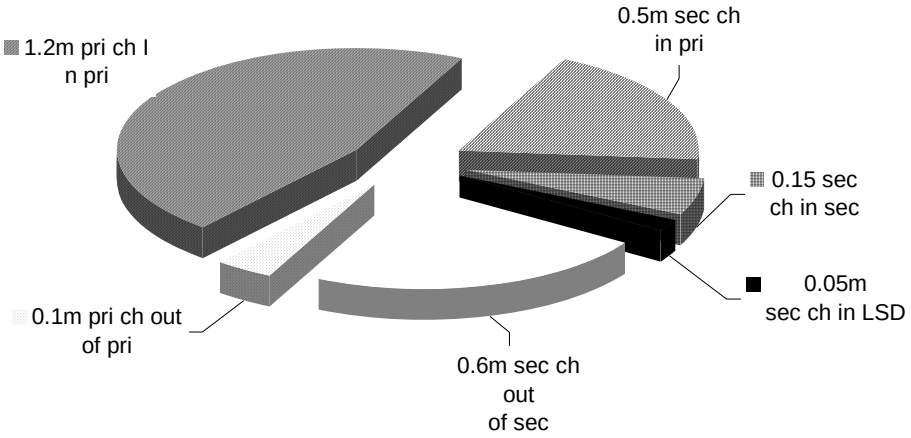


Fig. 3.1 shows the education status of primary and secondary age children, in or out of school, in or out of LSD training, and highlights the high proportion of secondary age children in primary.

[57] *EFA Plan of Action,* MINEDUC (2003: 22).

[58] Calculating the percentage of girls as a proportion of the total number of pupils in secondary schools, with the figures given (*Recensement Statistique. Enseignement Secondaire, Année Scolaire 2003-2004*, MINEDUC (2004 : 10), the percentage would be 42% and not 49% as reported.

How Many Children are Out of School?

Approximately 0.7 million children of school age are out of school:

. Nearly 100,000 children of primary age are not registered at school.

. 0.6 million children of secondary age may be out of school/education programmes

The official numbers out of school are boosted on any one day by the children absent from school who, according to different estimations as reported in Chapter 6, may include as many as 20 per cent of enrolments, or 0.3 million. There could therefore be as many as one million children of school age out of school on any one day.

The new ESI or junior secondary schools proposed by Government will absorb increasing numbers of young adolescents. It will be some time before all children up to 16 years are in full time schooling. In the meantime, education and training programmes need to be offered to children, to provide them with basic education and with skills training. It will also be important to take care of noncompleters dropping out from primary and secondary schools. As school enrolments increase a higher number of noncompleters can be expected.

3.2 CHILDREN AT RISK OF NON-COMPLETION[59]

3.2.1. Repetition in School - Negative Consequences of Repetition on Sector and Learner

Repetition rates are high in Rwanda, despite the fact that there is no evidence that repetition increases the level of learning.[60]

The general consequences of repetition include the following:

- Repetition lowers the morale and confidence of learners.
- Repetition increases the cost of education to the state, in addition to raising the cost of schooling for households.

2003/4

- **FIRST GRADE -**

  Repetition: 22%

  Drop-out: 20%

- **OVER THE PRIMARY CYCLE -**

  Repetition: 21%

  Drop-out: 15%

[59] Data are taken from published Ministry of Education sources, the *Recensement Statistique, Enseignement Préscolaire et Primaire – Année scolaire 2003-4*, MINEDUC.

[60] Schwille (1991) argues that the Burundi six year primary cycle is too short to achieve the learning targets set. Conversely, one could opt to improve teaching skills rather than lengthen the learning cycle.

Repetition generally leads to increased drop out from school: children who have repeated more than once are older than their peers and are at a markedly higher risk of dropping out than children who have not repeated.

Rwanda cannot afford the inefficiency of more than minimal repetition rates, since repetition keeps children out of the school places occupied by repeaters and adds considerably to the cost of schooling. The cost of repetition to the household can be calculated on an annual basis: a child repeating once would cost the family 17 per cent more than budgeted for a six year cycle of education, a two-time repetition would cost 33 per cent over budget. The cost to the sector has been calculated using various simulation models. Savings of over 4 per cent per graduate have been calculated when repetition is reduced by 10 per cent. When both repetition and drop-out rates are reduced by 10 per cent the saving could be as high as 16 per cent.[61] These models are noted merely to indicate that a significant level of cost saving could be achieved. Whatever the case for Rwanda, considerable savings could be made for the education sector through the reduction of repetition and drop-out rates and funds re-allocated to OVC at risk of dropping out of school, through stipends, etc., and to OVC outside school who need support for entry or for alternative programmes.

A World Bank study compared repetition levels and student flows from 1990 to 2000 in Mozambique, Madagascar, Cameroon and Benin, where repetition was widespread, with trends in Rwanda. They warned that urgent measures needed to be taken to arrest the negative effects of repetition, in order to prevent the student flow efficiency index in Rwanda dropping to the 'lowest [level] among low-income countries in Africa'.[62] To improve efficiency, the Ministry stipulated that repetition rates should not exceed 10 per cent. The results are indicated in the table below.

Table 3.7: Repetition in Primary School in Rwanda, 1998-2003

Grades	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
1	36	45	43	37	19	22
2	31	32	31	27	15	18
3	29	32	32	29	15	19
4	30	36	37	31	18	21
5	30	40	42	32	20	23

Note: 1998 refers to school year 1998/9, etc.
Source: *Recensement Statistique, Enseignement Préscolaire et Primaire – Année scolaire 2003-4* (2004: 6)

Table 3.7 indicates that

- Repetition rates remain high in Rwanda, at approximately 20% across primary grades in 2003/4.
- The highest repetition rates are during and after first and fifth grades. This trend has continued since 1998.
- The sector has made progress by reducing overall repetition rates from 30-40% across all classes of the primary cycle between 1998 and 2001 to around 20% in 2002 and 2003. While, unfortunately, the rates for 2003/4 are higher than for 2002/3, it is hoped that this one year rise in 2003 does not indicate a return to the previous rates.

[61] Personal communication from Peter Buckland and Mohamed Allak of the World Bank team, Iraq, who are not responsible for the conclusions noted above.
[62] World Bank (2003: 28).

The Joint Review of the Education Sector towards the end of 2003 noted that the new regulation limiting repetition rates to 10 per cent 'has not yet been universally implemented'.[63] It has to be pointed out that to fail to implement this vital directive – or any other directive targeting efficiency and costs of the system - is to increase the education risks of OVC, to jeopardise funds which could be allocated directly to OVC, and to thwart the equitable distribution of sector resources.

In 2003/4 in eleven provinces girls' repetition rates were higher than boys'.[64] In Ruhengeri, an insignificantly higher number of boys (100) repeated, over the six grades. To anticipate Section 3.2.5 which reports the low achievement rate of girls, it is clear that the higher repetition rate for girls is indeed a consequence of their lower performance rates.

In conclusion:

- The challenge remains: for reducing the abnormally high rate of 20% repetition across primary school classes in Rwanda.
- The first and fifth grades present the greatest challenge to schools, both in terms of avoiding repetition and of keeping children in school.
- Girls' rates of repetition are higher than boys, except in the one province that has a higher enrolment ratio for boys.
- In 2003/4, repetition added significantly to the costs of primary schooling, utilising funds which could have been allocated to OVC educational needs.

Repetition rates must be reduced still further, to increase the efficiency of schools, to maintain a good rate of student flow through the system and to reduce the cost of schooling to households and to the state.

In order to stem repetition, special efforts are required to improve the quality of teaching in primary schools, by:

- upgrading teaching skills
- lowering teacher/pupil ratios[65]
- providing essential learning materials to pupils
- ensuring focus on improving the all round quality of schooling in Rwanda
- introducing automatic promotion, with a possible exception for a one-time-repetition in third grade[66]
- avoidance of repetition in first and fifth grades.

[63] JRES II (2003: 20).

[64] *Recensement Statistique, Enseignement Préscolaire et Primaire – Année scolaire 2003-4* (2004: 6).

[65] Districts which are misguidedly taking primary classrooms from primary classes - and increasing the PTR, to the detriment of the learner (and the teacher), in order to create nursery classes - should be advised against the practice, which directly undermines the urgent priority of increasing the quality of primary schooling.

[66] See the experiences of Namibia (Fair 1994) and Cambodia (John Virtue, personal communication) to turn around the 'culture of repetition' in those countries.

3.2.2 Drop-out - The Consequences of Drop-out on Sector and on Learner

- Learners who drop out of school before the completion of a cycle acquire experience of failure – a negative learning experience to be avoided in future.
- Wastage means sector funds lost and a consequent rise in sector costs.
- Wastage means household funds lost and possible increased reluctance to send other siblings to school.

Table 3.8: Drop-out in Primary School in Rwanda, 1998-2003

Grades	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
1	13	6	13	16	22	20
2	9	10	12	11	13	11
3	11	13	12	12	14	10
4	12	12	13	15	12	11
5	15	18	15	18	18	24

Note: 1998 refers to school year 1998/9, etc.

Source: *Recensement Statistique, Enseignement Préscolaire et Primaire – Année scolaire 2003-4* (2004: 6)

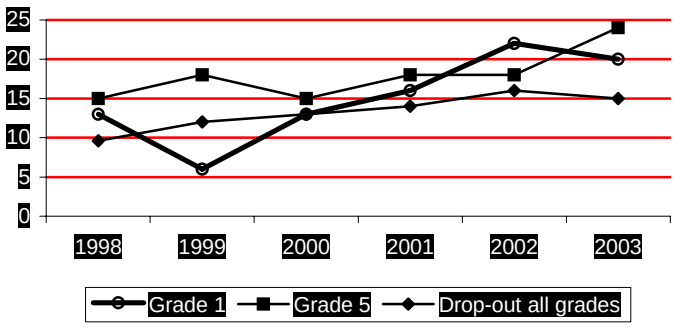
Table 3.8 indicates that:

- Drop out rates are increasing in Rwanda (1998-2003), particularly during the last two years (2002 and 2003).
- The highest drop-out rate occurs consistently during or after the fifth grade across the years 1998-2003.
- Classes affected by increasing drop out rates are the first, second and fifth years, *particularly the first grade in 2002 and 2003.*

It is estimated that 266,393 (15.2%) children dropped out of school in 2003/4, which is higher than the increased number of children (7%) who entered primary school as a result of the elimination of fees in the same year.[67]

Fig. 3.2 illustrates the recent increase in a graph, showing the increase over the last few years of the percentage of children dropping out from school, with the highest growth rate affecting first grade.

Fig. 3.2: Primary Drop-out P1, P5 and Totals, 1998-2003



The overall drop-out rate has risen from 10% in 1998 and 1999 to 15/16% in 2002 and 2003.[68] The grades most at risk are first and fifth year. The high drop-out rate at first grade presents a new and growing problem and needs urgent attention, particularly in the light of the new policy of free education which brings increasing numbers of children into the first grade of school.

[67] MINEDUC (2004: 8).
[68] MINEDUC (2004: 7).

In order to reduce drop-out, the same efforts are required as for the reduction of repetition rates, namely improvement in the quality of teaching in primary schools, and additional efforts to:

- upgrade teaching skills
- lower teacher/pupil ratios to a maximum of 40 per class
- provide essential learning materials to pupils
- ensure focus on improving the all round quality of schooling in Rwanda

and, in addition:

- reduce repetition rates
- special attention to reduction of drop-out in first, second and fifth grades through meetings called on the subject for parents with children in these grades and through discussing the issue with learners, class by class.

The gravity of the out-of-school problem shifts from province to province over time. While the rates were highest in Butare in 2000, the current concern focuses on Ruhengeri Province.[69]

3.2.3 Gender Issues Relating to Drop-out in Primary Schools

There is a widely held belief in Rwanda that girls drop out more than boys in primary school, particularly at upper primary levels. Yet as early as 2000 MINEDUC reported that more boys were out of school than girls in 1998/7 and that only two provinces recorded more girls out of school than boys, Ruhengeri and Gisenyi.[70] This information should have led to questioning the widely held view that girls' drop-out rates were higher than boys'. Two years later the *Baseline Study of Basic Education for Girls and Other Vulnerable Groups in Rwanda* confirmed that boys' drop-out rate is equal to or higher than girls' in all but three of the twelve provinces. Table 3.9 below will review the latest data.

Table 3.9 overleaf shows that more boys (51 per cent of the drop-outs, N= 966 more) drop out of primary school than girls,[71] peaking in third grade (471 more boys than girls or 52 per cent of the year group), the particularly dangerous year for boys. Only in one of the six years, *in the fifth year*, girls have a higher drop out rate than boys (285 girls or 52%). The finding on fifth grade is consistent with data on girls' low performance in sixth grade, see below. In other words, as children near the primary leaving certificate, in sixth grade, many girls drop out in fifth year given the teachers' and pupils' anticipation of girls' low achievement one year later. Repetition rates peak after the fifth grade. The above figures on drop-out could reflect the drop-out rate exacerbated by prior repetition. To its credit, Rwanda has closed the gender gap in relation to enrolment, repetition and drop-out, and must now focus equally on the differing circumstances resulting in the continued exclusion from school of both boys and girls.

[69] *Campagne*, MINEDUC (2000: 23).

[70] It was estimated that boys of 9–14 years out of school numbered 50,907 as compared with 47,585 girls. *Rapport d'une Campagne Nationale de Sensibilisation*, MINEDUC (2000: 23-24).

[71] Confirmed trend reported in 2000, with 52% of the children out of school being boys, *Rapport d'une Campagne Nationale de Sensibilisation*, MINEDUC (2000: 27).

Table 3.9: Drop-out by Gender in Primary Schools, 2003/4

Grades	**Girls**	**Boys**	**Boys' Risk Year**	**Comparison by Sex**	**Total**
1	10130	10498 (51%)	2	368 more boys	20628
2	8081	8274 (51%)	2	193 more boys	16,365
3	6081	6552 (52%)	1	471 more boys	12,633
4	5710	5809 (50%)	3	99 more boys	11,519
5	5284	4999 (48%)	-	285 more girls	10,238
6	2495	2572 (51%)	2	177 more boys	5067
Total	37718	38704 (51%)		996 more boys	76422

Note: 1998 refers to school year 1998/9, etc.
Source: *Recensement Statistique, Année scolaire 2003-4* (2004 : 31)

3.2.4 Review of the Causes of Drop-out Cited in the Literature

To Rwanda's credit there have been a number of studies[72] explaining drop-out from school. The causes can be summarised as:

- Poverty (hunger, drudgery and sheer hard work in the home, despair of ever advancing in life)
- Unhappiness at home (beaten by father, abused by step-parent)

A third factor, which Rwanda has addressed in the recent past, has been cultural attitudes, which pull girls out of school from fifth grade onwards. This phenomenon has been successfully tackled in almost all districts, except in the north.

[72] Gakuba's CERAI study (1991); Cantwell (1997) *The Promotion and Protection of Children's Rights in Post-genocide Rwanda*; the Trocaire, Quigley et al. study (1998) *L'enfant rwandais dans une communauté renouvelée: Un espoir pour un lendemain meilleur*; the MINEDUC (2000) study on children out of school; the Pro-femmes/Twese Hamwe study (2000) on girls out of school *Recherche sur les Raisons de la Non Scolaristaion des Filles au Rwanda* and the Abagi et al. study (2003) on the same topic; Veale et al. (2001) on orphans, *Struggling to Survive: Orphan and Community Dependent Children in Rwanda*; Karangwa's report, *Community Harnessed Initiatives for Out-of-school Children and Youth* (2003); the ADPA report (2003) on domestic workers; the Guluma, Save the Children study, *Refuge in the City: The Lives of Separated Children* (2004)*;* and reports of Aide et Action, ARCT-RUHUKA, Oxfam GB, and others. The conference report on Children's Rights (2000), MINALOC/UNICEF; and the *National Policy for Orphans and Other Vulnerable Children in Rwanda* (2003).

A fourth factor, distance from school, was cited as a problem in Umutara Province in 2000 due to the unplanned distribution of schools,[73] and in Gisenyi and Gikongoro. Children within 30 minutes of school 'using facilities commonly available to the household' were considered to 'have access' or to be within reasonable distance of school, estimated at 52 per cent nationwide, that is, 51 per cent of rural and 72 per cent of urban children attending school.[74] This is a significant piece of information on such a small and densely populated country such as Rwanda, that as many as 48 per cent of children are considered to live far from school. The point does not negate the finding in Section 3.1.1 that there was no correlation between population density and enrolments in the lower populated provinces, since these latest subprovincial data highlight conditions which may be masked at provincial level. The issue of proximity to school in Rwanda needs further investigation. In the meantime, these data point to the need for creating more, smaller primary schools nearer homes.

The first two causes of drop-out from school – poverty and a difficult home environment - also account for separation from home. Children leave home, or are pushed out of the home, for the streets or for poorly paid domestic work in the nearby town or in Kigali (Guluma, 2004), or into marriage. The former, the children on the streets, are a visible daily reminder of the incapacity of guardians and the school system to keep them. Child domestic workers, both boys and girls, become completely invisible, lost to the eyes of the world, quietly and daily exploited and abused behind street doors. National researchers have put the blame on parents for the low attendance of girls in school. In the case of boys, they have concluded that it is largely the children themselves, who choose to leave or to stay out of school to earn their living. This conclusion is open to debate. Another viewpoint expressed is that the polygamous family structure in the north, compounded by poverty, is the most common factor driving boys and girls from home and out of school.[75] In the drought-prone areas of the south and east, it is sheer poverty and hunger which push children out of their homes (and schools) and to towns. In both cases the underlying cause of poverty is paramount, while a secondary but significant factor is the structure of family life. 'Severe parental neglect or abandonment for whatever reason was identified as rendering children in similar circumstances to orphans. Family breakdown, divorce or remarriage, were key factors placing children at risk of neglect or abandonment', as Veale et al. (2001) put it, and at risk of dropping out of school.

Strategies for reducing low performance in first grade, leading to (repetition and) drop-out rates which are particularly high at this level, could include the following. First, lower primary should be organisationally separated out from upper primary (a) in large schools, and (b) in schools with overage children. Second, by lowering intake to children of six years, the school system would keep the pupils for more years before their labour becomes useful to the family (or to themselves).

3.2.5 Performance as a Factor Influencing Access and Retention

Performance levels in Rwanda continue to be low and point to a major area of concern with regard to the equity of the system. If OVC continue to fail at a higher rate than other children, even when they succeed in getting into school, the culture of the classroom needs attention. When analysing the results of public examinations in Rwanda it must be noted that examinations are competitive, are used as selection mechanisms for entry into the next cycle of education, and that a 'pass' is not a measure of individual academic attainment in the sense that the cut off point for selection or 'passing' can change. However, the cut off point is low, at below 40 per cent. The Joint Review (2003) of the education sector noted: 'Learning outcomes are poor. Only around 17 per cent of all children pass the P6 examination'[76] which is a lower rate than the one quarter of candidates passing in 2000 and 2001 (Table 3.10).

[73] *Rapport d'une Campagne Nationale de Sensibilisation*, MINEDUC (2000: 28).
[74] CWIQ findings reported in the *EFA Plan of Action* (2003: 22).
[75] Polygamy is still practised at 5.8% according to the 1996 ESD and in spite of it being legally banned' MINALOC (2000: 125).
[76] JRES II (2003: 20).

Table 3.10: Grade 6 Primary Leaving Examination, Candidates and Pass Rate, 2000 and 2001

Candidates	2000 N (%)	2001 N (%)
Total	59,686 (100)	63,931 (100)
Boys	31,396 (52.6)	33,560 (52.5)
Girls	28,290 (47.4)	30,371 (47.5)
Total Passed	15,319 (**25.7**)	16,612 (**26.07**)
Boys	9,142 (29.1)	10,521 (34.6)
Girls	6,173 (21.8)	6,091 (20.1)

Source: National Examination Board, reported in *EFA Plan of Action* (2002: 30)

General observations:

- **Pass rate:** The proportion of candidates passing is low, 25.7 and 26.07% in 2000 and 2001, respectively. Three quarters of the children fail the examination. The proportion of candidates passing showed no improvement (less than one percentage point increase in proportion of passes, from 25.7 to 26.07%).

- **Number of candidates:** Candidates increased by 4,245 (7%). However, there was no improvement in proportion of children passing the examination in the second year.

Observations related to gender:

- **Comparative number of candidates by gender**: Girl candidates were fewer than boys in both years and did not increase in proportion over these years (47.4 to 47.5%). Girl candidates decreased in number (by 82). By 2003/4 girls had overtaken boys in numbers in sixth grade but they were, reportedly, not yet equalling boys in terms of number of examination candidates.[77]

- **Girls' performance:** Girls performed less well than boys in both years - and their performance decreased by 1.7 percentage points, as compared with the improvement of boys by 5.5 percentage points. The proportion of girls passing the examination decreased in the second year (from 21.8% of the girls to 20.1%), while the proportion of boys passing the examination rose (from 29.1% to 34.6%).

In sum, the performance was low, with no evidence of general improvement in the proportion of children passing, although a higher proportion of boys passed the examination in 2001. A downward trend for girls was noted in terms of numbers of candidates and the proportion of girls passing the examination. As the Ministry noted: 'there are discrepancies between the performance of boys and girls at both primary and secondary levels' and this point was reiterated in the *Baseline Survey of Basic Education for Girls and Other Vulnerable Groups in Rwanda.* [78]

A World Bank study demonstrated what they called 'the startling pattern [in] the scores of males and females in national examinations administered at the end of primary, lower and upper secondary cycles and [among] applicants to the public institutions of higher education'. The pass rates for the primary examination 'circa 2002' cited in the study (Table 3.11) vary considerably from the Ministry figures reported in Table 10 for 2000 and 2001. This underlines the problem of

[77] The 2003/4 data are not yet available for full analysis since the new school year was delayed until January 2005 and examination results are linked to secondary school entry.

[78] *EFA Plan of Action* (2003: 30); Abagi et al. (2002).

data collection in Rwanda at the moment. It is possible that each agency, Government and Bank, has collected their data in a different manner and there is no reason to doubt the validity of either. The significance of the data in Table 3.11 is to demonstrate the wide gender discrepancies and to confirm the deteriorating performance of girls over the years.

Table 3.11: Gender Differences in Performance on National Examinations, circa 2002

Public examinations	Female % Pass	Male % Pass
Primary P6	17.8	28.5
Lower secondary S3	29.3	55.6
Upper secondary S6	62.8	76.0

Source: World Bank (2003: 73, Table 4.8)

In Rwanda, girls consistently perform worse than boys, particularly in the primary and lower secondary cycle. In other countries, girls' performance mirrors their enrolment ratios in school and as girls reach parity with boys in school attendance the performance gap narrows. Considering that gender parity in primary enrolment is not a new feature in Rwanda – has been the case for about two decades – the finding is indeed 'startling'.

The issues of performance by gender are discussed in some detail in this section: (a) due to the consistent lack of attention given to performance; and (b) to the confusion in messages going out to the public on girls' education in the country which tend to mix (unfounded) statements on enrolment, retention and drop-out of girls. with correct messages on their low performance. The present report notes that girls' poor achievement is not inexplicable and that discriminatory curriculum, materials, teacher/institutional and sectoral attitudes, and the generally poor living conditions of life of women (see Box 1.2), are responsible for this outcome.[79] The World Bank points out that poor performance at primary and lower secondary levels 'takes its toll in the competition for the highly coveted places in public higher education' and is the best explanation for the consistently low enrolment (25 per cent) of women in higher education in Rwanda, arguing that tinkering with cut-off points to make up for the shortfall of women at tertiary levels of the sector will not address the fundamental issue of discrimination in primary and secondary schools.[80]

[79] Obura (2004).
[80] World Bank (2003:73-74).

3.3 FOCUS PROPOSED

Strategies to provide education to all children need to be two-pronged: (a) to increase school enrolments; and (b) to provide education and training in out-of-school modes for children out of school.

3.3.1 Proposed Focus to Increase Enrolment in Primary and Secondary Schools

Primary:

In the light of these findings, rather than dissipate efforts in a country-wide campaign for higher enrolments at primary level, it would be effective to prioritise the provinces facing the greatest challenges, with the specificities of each district in mind, in order to reach national UPE goals.

- Prioritise efforts to increase primary enrolments in **Ruhengeri, Byumba** and **Butare.**

Secondary:

- All provinces except Kigali Town are in need of expanded secondary education. **Gisenyi, Ruhengeri, Gikongoro, Byumba** and **Gitarama**, with the lowest enrolments, need special attention.

3.3.2 Proposed Focus for Alternative Education and Training Programmes

Basic Education: The criteria for establishing catch-up centres will be:

- Provinces with the greatest number of young children, out of school and still of primary age (10 years and over), for example, **Ruhengeri, Byumba** and **Butare**.
  Children 6-10 yrs should go to school.

- Any other localities with sufficient numbers, on demand.

- Provinces with the greatest number of children never schooled.

- Provinces with a high proportion of unschooled people.

- Areas with a high number of primary graduates out of secondary school, older adolescents, requesting accelerated or catch-up secondary classes.

  Catch-up classes for adults – or accelerated basic education classes - could usefully be run in all provinces, particularly the nine provinces with a high proportion of unschooled people.

Expand Accelerated secondary programmes:
Primary graduates, adolescents over 15 years and adults, could attend accelerated secondary programmes, modelled on programmes in the private colleges in Kigali, and one known NGO, CIESPD.

Expand Livelihoods Skills Development (LSD) Programmes:
Training programmes teaching skills to boost income generation, such as soap manufacture, carpentry, auto-mechanics, hairdressing.

Expand Other Educative Programmes – including Outreach:
A great diversity of education programmes already exist, ranging from sports programmes, HIV prevention programmes, cultural activities, language courses, to religious programmes.

3. 4 RECOMMENDATIONS SUMMARISED

Recommendations in Chapter 3 are gathered, re-ordered and summarised below.

1. **Increasing Primary Enrolment:**
   - Prioritise attention for: Ruhengeri, followed by Byumba and Butare Provinces.
   - Lower the official age of entry to six years.
   - Explore the organisational separation of lower primary from upper primary in big schools and in schools with a high proportion of overage pupils

2. **Alternative Education Programme Outside Schools:**
   - Provide countrywide access to a variety of well structured education and livelihoods skills development (LSD) programmes, including:
   - catch-up programmes
   - extensive (slow-paced programmes)
   - LSD full time and part time programmes
   - outreach programmes for children unreached by other programmes.

3. **Reducing Repetition and Drop-out in Schools:**
   - Keep in mind the external factors causing drop-out and poor performance (leading to repetition), namely cost of schooling and dysfunctional family life, enlisting the support of sister ministries to provide education stipends to poor families, and social support to households.
   - Address retention efforts to boys and girls alike, but with a gender differentiated approach, in response to the gender-distinctive causes of drop-out.
   - Note the particularly high wastage rates in Ruhengeri.
   - Alert teachers and parents to the dangers of repetition and drop-out, particularly affecting the first and fifth grades; fully implement the regulation on a maximum of 10% repetition per class or try partial repetition (in one grade only).
   - Implement the sector targeted recommendations to increase the quality of schooling:
     - upgrade teaching skills
     - lower teacher/pupil ratios
     - provide essential learning materials to pupils
     - ensure focus on improving the all round quality of schooling in Rwanda
     - create child-friendly schools
     - provide accreditation to all examination candidates and cycle completers

4. **Secondary Education:**
   - Continue the countrywide effort to increase enrolments (such as the ESI initiative) and take into consideration distance from school, particularly for the rural poor, in terms of bursaries for hostel accommodation. Open up well funded state bursaries to all social groups.

5. **Girls' Education:**
   In order to focus on the important issues, re-angle advocacy, social mobilisation and programmes:

   - **Improve performance** as the most important mechanism for ensuring girls' survival through secondary to university level, by transforming institutional/sector attitudes towards gender issues, the curriculum, teaching/learning materials, and institutional and teaching practices.
   - Incorporate daily, good quality sports programmes into every education programme, include schools, for fitness and the empowerment of girls.
   - Ensure curriculum application to the world of work and adult life.
   - Consider the provision of a bridging programme from primary to secondary, in three locations (for example in the FAWE school, one northern and one southern school), as an interim measure (for two years) to highlight the issue of girls' low performance and to improve the performance of girls for entrance to secondary schools
   - Alert parents and teachers to fifth grade as the danger point for drop-out of girls

- Provide special catch-up centres for married 'women' under 18 years where they will feel comfortable to pursue their education.

6. Boys' Education Needs:

- Monitor and prioritise areas of declining enrolment of boys (Kigali Ngali and Gitarama Provinces).
- Ensure curriculum application to the world of work and adult life.
- Incorporate daily and good quality sports programmes into every education programme, including schools, to retain boys in education programmes.
- Redirect older boys to LSD and CU in preference to losing them altogether from the school system.

7. Adult Illiteracy:

- Provide programmes oriented towards 15-17 year olds, taking inspiration from the literacy programmes linked to LSD courses in Gitarama and Ruhengeri.
- Focus on the provinces with the highest *number* of illiterate people – to be determined – while taking into consideration that Gisenyi and Gikongoro have the highest *proportion* of illiterates.

8. Education Sector Data:

- Collect and use data at school, sector, district and provincial levels.
- Capacity build schools, sectors, districts and provincial actors to collect and use education sector data.
- Devise distinctive strategies to increase enrolment/retention levels in different localities (differentiate north from south, for example).
- Use subprovincial data to identify localities needing attention.
- Incorporate distance from school as a factor to determine the location of new classical and innovative school models.
- Continue to monitor direct and indirect costs of education – despite fee-free education - to determine the type and extent of financial support to give to poor households; and when to modify programmes.

4.0 OVC REALITIES TO BE INCORPORATED INTO FUTURE EDUCATION PROGRAMMING

The objective of the present study, as noted above, is to investigate the educational needs of orphans and vulnerable children *who are out of school* and to look also at *the problems of OVC within school*. It is not the situation of OVC in general that is of focus in this study, which has been well presented in the national OVC Policy (2003) and in the accumulating literature on OVCs in Rwanda, quoted above, but their educational and learning needs. It is well established, for example, that double orphans are more likely to be out of school than children with one or two living parents: the single most important predictor of non-entry to first grade is whether or not the child has lost both his parents… Many double orphans… do not even get started'. For the orphans who enter school 'the prospects are unforgiving for the most vulnerable children – the double orphans: those who fail to advance [to the next class] are more likely to leave the system than return for a second try the following year'. The occurrence of repetition is linked to household income. Children from relatively higher income households, the first quintile, are more likely to repeat and to be retained in the system than children from lower income households.[81] The chances of access to and survival in the Rwanda education system are, statistically, best measured by orphanhood status, household income, urban/rural status, but not by gender.

In this chapter, the situation of OVC excluded from school will be the prime consideration. There is a detailed examination of their daily occupations, as documented in the literature, and the parameters to be respected when designing education programmes for them. These factors will be reviewed in the light of the findings of the field visits reported in Chapters 5-7, and proposed additional and alternative education programmes for OVC will be presented at the end of the report.

4.1 CATEGORIES OF OVC IN RELATION TO THEIR EDUCATION NEEDS

The national consultants to the present study reviewed the OVC Policy list of 15 categories of OVC children. They also consulted an UNESCO IIEP list of global categories of children in post-conflict situations at risk of exclusion from school (Appendix C). For the purposes of the present exercise, for estimating the needs of and planning education opportunities for OVC children in Rwanda, the 15 Rwanda OVC categories were expanded by the national research team to 18, and re-ordered, omitting one original category and adding some education-relevant details to the original categories. The new education-relevant categories and details are highlighted in Box 4.1 overleaf.

Category 14 in the OVC National Policy, infants accompanying their mothers in prison, was omitted in the list, due to their pre-school age.

4.1.1 The Situation of OVC Currently Excluded from School

The vulnerability of children is generally associated in the Rwanda literature with poverty with:

- Single orphans who have lost one parent, working children, girls, marginalised children such as the Batwa, children with disabilities, children infected by and affected by HIV/AIDS.

[81] World Bank (2003: 67-69).

Box 4.1

RWANDA - CATEGORIES OF OVC
in relation to
EDUCATION NEEDS

modelled closely on the OVC Rwanda Policy List of 15 Categories

1. Children in child-headed households (head, siblings)
2. Children of single mothers
3. Foster children
4. Street children
5. Children living in centres
6. Girl mothers
7. Girls married before their majority
8. Children sexually exploited and/or abused, **rape victims**
9. Children with disabilities, including **albino children**
10. Children **(physically and mentally)** affected by armed conflict
11. Refugee, **returnee** and internally displaced children
12. Working children
13. Children affected/infected by HIV/AIDS
14. Children in very poor households, **malnourished children, children from disadvantaged areas** (famine areas, for example), from **large and multi-structured families**
15. Children from **remote homesteads**
16. **Batwa children**
17. Children in conflict with the law
18. **Girls** out of school, **particularly of secondary age**

- Foster children.

- 'Separated' children, that is, children on their own: 'double' orphans without father or mother, children who have run away from home or been chased out of the home, and the specially tragic case of children heading and in child-headed families. A recent study found that 35 per cent of the children in the streets had never gone to school.[82]

4.1.2 Factors Keeping OVC Out of School, by Cluster

In an attempt to organise the 18 OVC categories into a smaller number of manageable, programme oriented clusters, the categories are differentiated and grouped in Table 4.1 overleaf, according to the children's availability for educational programmes or skills training. It has been established in the literature that poverty is the principal cause of exclusion from school, driving children into income generating activities, thus limiting the few hours impoverished children have available for schooling or learning. It is also assumed, given the discussion in Chapter I on the continuing lack of improvement in rural household and peri-urban incomes, that children's work will have to be tolerated for a time and factored into development planning for children,[83] (a) until economic productivity takes off in Rwanda, until the micro unit of society, the household, benefits from higher income and (b) until child-headed households receive stipends from the state in lieu of income generating.

[82] Guluma (2004: 40).

[83] While officially tolerating children's work, it is nevertheless the duty of the state and the community to regulate and monitor the type and amount of work children do, in order to ensure that they are not involved in exploitative or abusive work.

Table 4.1: Out-of-School OVC Clustered by Current Occupation

Cluster (1)	Category (2)	What do the children do at present? (3)
I	*Potential school attenders:* 9 children with disabilities 1b children in CHHs 10 children affected by armed conflict 11 refugees, IDPs, returnees 16 Batwa children 18 OOS girls	9 **Idle** at home 18, 1b, 10, 11, 16 **Multiple chores** and childminding at home and/or work in the fields
II	7 girls married early	7 **Unpaid domestic** work/cultivating family **fields**
III	15 children far from school	15 **Unpaid domestic** work/cultivating family **fields**
IV	3 children in foster families	3 **Unpaid domestic** work or **school**
V	5 children in centres	5 **Centre activities**, supported in **schools** or **LSD** programmes
VI	12 working children: 1a head of CHH 4 street children 6 girl-mothers 10 children affected by armed conflict 14, 2 poor children & children of single mothers	12, 1a, 4, 6 , 10 **Earn income**: domestic employ, fields, herding, fishing, street work, tea/rice plantations, brickmaking, quarrying/mining, etc. 14, 2 **Home** or **fields/street**
VII	*Fitting into any of the above categories:* 13 HIV affected children 17 in conflict with the law 8 abused children 16 Batwa children 18 Girls OOS***	**Any of the above**

*CHH= child-headed households **LSD= livelihoods skills development ***OOS out-of-school

Cluster I – Potential school attenders – Promising candidates for school in the future: The first cluster groups children who have time for school and motivation. For these children - such as children in child headed households, children who have been displaced by war, returnees from exile abroad, and even children affected by armed conflict - it is not their occupation or work in itself that keeps them out of school. The ex-child soldiers, and boys and girls back from the frontline of combat, speak of their wish to go to school. Those still out of school lack only (a) money for schooling, or are waiting for (b) a change in schools' attitude towards them, as in the case of Batwa children and most children with disabilities, and/or (c) special provision of schooling, in the case of children with severe disabilities.

The Batwa, a marginalised social group in Rwanda, numbering less than 1 per cent of the population, former forest dwellers and hunter-gatherers, have been neglected by successive colonial and post-Independence regimes. There is little tradition in the community of schooling and, since Batwa children have suffered from discrimination and stigmatisation in schools in the past, and still feel uncomfortable socially in school,[84] this has discouraged them from attending, despite enrolment campaigns since 1994.

Second, children with disabilities in Rwanda, and in many other African countries, are kept at home for various reasons. These range from the children's incapacity to attend school, to the parents' reluctance for children with disabilities to be seen outside the home, to mainstream schools' hesitation in taking them, despite the policy of mainstreaming children with disabilities, and to the lack of special schools for those needing special attention. There is only one state school catering for children with special needs in Rwanda, integrating special needs with general education.[85]

Third, in impoverished families, children may remain at home due to parents' incapacity to meet the direct or indirect costs of schooling. Despite the introduction of fee-free primary tuition in 2003/4 which brought considerably more children into school, some direct costs remain, detailed in Section 5.2.2.10. Children help with domestic chores at home, look after their younger siblings, work in the fields or with the family livestock, freeing up the parent(s) for income generating activities. In some cases, girls are kept at home with a view to training them in their future domestic roles. Children at home often work very hard, for long hours, and do not earn money, as illustrated in Chapter 6.

The following clusters present children in more complex situations.

Cluster II – Girls in early marriages – Girls/now considered as adult women, unable to continue with school, or considered unsuitable for the school context: Girls may be married off by their families before the age of 18, may be pulled out of school deliberately, particularly in northern Rwanda, driven by poverty to seek ways of improving family assets by acquiring dowry for their daughter. The young brides may be officially of school age, and minors, but as married 'women' they have full time domestic work, field work and childrearing responsibilities. Schools are reluctant to take in married pupils and the girls/young women are generally uncomfortable at the thought of mixing with and being treated as non-adults or children in schools. Their husbands and husband's family are also unwilling for them to go back to school since it is considered an inappropriate environment for married women.

Cluster III – Children in remote areas – Awaiting educational institutional change: Rural Rwanda, where 83 per cent of the population live, is a patchwork of isolated homesteads on the hills, the *collines*. Sometimes the steep ridges, swamps, mountains, rivers and irregular terrain make it difficult for young children to walk to the nearest school. It is not easy for the state to provide schools near enough for all the remote homesteads. In such cases, smaller children are, understandably, kept at home and are not sent long distances to school due to the fatigue it will

[84] A Batwa child speaking in Chapter 7 attests to this.

[85] An Umutara secondary school integrates visually impaired and children with physical disabilities into mainstream classes. A private special school in Gitarama, HRRD Primary School, gives special attention to hearing and mentally impaired children. At one of Kigali's premier schools a specialist teacher teaches children with various disabilities.

cause them and possible dangers along the way to school. There are no data from Rwanda on whether distance from school has an effect on girls' school attendance but in neighbouring countries where studies have been carried out this factor is a particularly important determinant of whether girls go to school at all, whether they stay in school after puberty, and whether they go to school young enough.

Cluster IV – Foster children – Difficult to reach: The Guluma (2004) study raises the alarm on the high proportion of foster children in Rwanda who are out of school, whether fostered in the extended family or with a foster family unrelated to them. Due to poverty levels and the inadequacy of the stipend, if any, received by the fostering family, a growing number of foster and extended families use foster children for domestic labour in the home or the fields, which reduces the need for the family to use paid labour, while the children of the nuclear family are sent to school. Statistics show that, on average, Rwandan families each foster more than two children. It is arguable that it is far better for children to be housed with a foster family or the extended family than to be in centres or orphanages or on the street. However, a significant number of foster children are not attending school despite official school enrolment figures.

Cluster V – Children in centres – Available for school: Children in centres have no work responsibilities, apart from domestic chores in the centre, Most orphanages, children's residential centres and street children centres, etc., benefit from bursaries (and used primary school fee waivers in the past) to send children to formal school or to LSD programmes. With the introduction of fee-free primary schooling in 2003/4, centres have found it easier to ensure that children go to primary school. FARG, MINALOC and DEF bursaries are available for secondary students. Some centres do their own fund raising through churches and NGOs. Nevertheless, there are not enough bursaries to go around - or children's centres - and some of the bursaries to secondary school are too meagre for the children to remain at school.

Cluster VI – Working children – Difficult to access: Children are forced to look for paid employment or work for cash if they need food. This may be the case for children in impoverished families, in single parent families, in families directly and still affected by the war or by HIV/AIDS, or in families where parents neglect their children; and it may be the case of separated children, children on the streets, children heading families who work not only for their own needs but also for their siblings; and girl-mothers working to feed their babies. Since these children work full time and often have family household chores, there are no hours left in the day for schooling.

Cluster VII – Miscellaneous: This last, mixed cluster of children could be redistributed among any of the above clusters in terms of their daily occupations which, in addition to poverty-related factors, keep them out of school. HIV affected families are generally poor, sometimes with no remaining breadwinner or they need the labour of children to look after the sick or to substitute for sick parents. Juveniles in trouble with the law may be in remand centres, were they normally benefit from some educational programme - but not necessarily an appropriate one - or return to the streets. Batwa children may suffer the effects of extreme poverty and deprivation, or find schools culturally hostile, in the same way as children with disabilities may find school hostile, and therefore be 'pushed out' of that environment. Girls in some northern provinces, particularly those where polygamy is practised, and after puberty in many areas of the country, may be discouraged from schooling. Seeing the fate of their older sisters younger girls lower their educational aspirations, and girls' poor performance levels indicate that they are discouraged early.

In sum, whatever the reasons excluding OVC from school – and they are linked to poverty – once the child is out of school, the major constraint to education access is *lack of time available*.

- **Full-time** out-of-school OVC workers, with no time at all during the week for school.

- **Part-time/flexible time** out-of-school OVC workers, who **cannot attend full time school/programmes**.

Other factors include:

- **Lack of appropriate education institutions:** OVC are overage or married, either too busy to attend education programmes or considered as unsuitable for school - but there are no alternatives to primary school for basic education in their areas.

- **Unreadiness of schools:** At times, stigma and hostility exclude or discourage some children from school – in the case of children with disability, street children, the Batwa.

- **School/programme supply**: There is no school or LSD programme in the vicinity.

- **School costs**: The cost of secondary school is prohibitive for a significant proportion of post-primary age children (13-17 yrs); there are insufficient bursaries available; and there is no alternative to secondary school available in their area. The direct and indirect costs of schooling still exclude the poor.

Finally, as noted in Chapter 1, factors internal to schools constitute a further disincentive to schooling and involve additional risk factors for OVC attending school. Schools tend to be inflexible institutions, at times overtly hostile to vulnerable children. They are overcrowded, without books or learning aids, still lacking in quality and continue to espouse the ethos of win-lose instead of win-win for all, epitomised in the high failure and repetition rates which contribute to pushing children out of school.

4.2 PROGRAMME PLANNING - THE TIME FACTOR

In order to manage the seven clusters of OVC and to organise the children into educationally programmable clusters, the children were clustered according to their everyday activities (Table 4.2, Col. 3 below). Next, a series of education programmes (Col. 4), drawn from the national, regional and international literature, were matched to their availability – as dictated by their daily occupations – and education needs. The clusters are not exclusive. Some categories of children appear in more than one cluster. Users of the framework are encouraged to modify it and to rearrange the categories of children according to the specificities of their district.

The end result of children being out of school is similar: children work and their work is in most cases indispensable to the survival or well-being of the family or to themselves. Without pay, they provide essential labour to the family unit: they do domestic work in their homes, including childminding; they work in the fields. Outside the home they earn money, as casual agricultural workers or livestock herders, or in the street; and in some cases they work in more formal contexts, such as tea plantation workers, brickmaking, fishing or mining, for example.

The 18 OVC categories and seven clusters are organised in Table 4.2 in terms of time available for learning programmes (Cols. 4 and 5).

Table 4.2: Out-of-School OVC, Time and Demand-driven Educational Programmes

Clstr (1)	Category of children (2)	Work patterns (3)	Availability for school (4)	Duration and location of education programme needed (5)
I	*Dependents:* 9 © with disabilities 1b CHH © 10 ©… armed conflict 11 refugees, IDPs, returnees 16 Batwa © 18 OOS girls	9 None *Others:* Home/field chores	**Type A**: 9 and some others: Time available for school **Type B:** Some daily hours (except during planting/ harvest, ceremonies)	**A.** 9 and some others: Formal school, with extra support programmes 9 Special education for some Ensure schs exist & are near enough **B.** Daily short, condensed or accelerated programmes, in nearby location
II	7 girls married early	Heavy domestic work day	**Type C:** A couple of hours, if any, per week	**C.** Minimal hours per week, in nearby location – II separate from children
III	15 faraway ©	Home/field chores	**Type A**	**A.** Small home and feeder (formal, flexible) schools
IV	3 foster ©	School or heavy domestic work	**Type A or C**	**A** or **C**
V	5 © in centres	None	**Type A**	**A .** Formal school, with extra support programmes
VI	*Working children*: 12 working © 1a head CHH 10 ©…armed conflict 4 street © 6 girl-mothers 7 early married 14/2 poor/ single-mother ©	12, 1a, 10, 4, 6 Work outside home, earn income 14, 2 Home or fields/street	**Type C:** A couple of hours, if any, per week	**C.** Minimal hours per week, in nearby location **A, B** or **C**
VII	13,17,8,16,18 Fitting into any above categories:	Any of the above	**Types A, B or C**	**A, B** or **C**

*CHH= child-headed households ©= children ***OOS out-of-school

It was anticipated at this stage of the study that OVC would fall into three categories in terms of their availability for schooling or learning in centres:

Type A: Children with plenty of time, for full-time, formal schooling, such as children from centres; children with disabilities; children in CHH.

Type B: Children with some hours per week available for learning, such as those helping with domestic and agricultural chores at home.

Type C: Children with almost no time available at all such as child domestic workers, girls married early, heads of CHH and most income earning children.

4.3 PROGRAMME PLANNING - STRUCTURAL, CONTEXTUAL, PACE AND CONTENT ISSUES

Cluster I – These children can be and should be placed in schools.

However, time for school is critical factor for the majority of children out of school, since most of them are workers, paid or unpaid. Further, closer examination of the categories of OVC with little time available indicates that for some children there are *additional* issues of programme context, pace and structure to be addressed, together with content, which will be discussed in more detail in connection with the study findings.

Cluster II – Girls/young married women: In other words, girls married before 18 acquire the status of adult women. They may have less time available for education, due to childcare and domestic work, and it is considered inappropriate for them to attend school with children. This implies the need for a programme located away from the primary school, and for the location to be perceived as a centre rather than a school. During visits to catch-up centres within primary schools this very issue arose as the lead consultant sat in a classroom of children and older adolescents. It is not a trivial cultural issue but, on consideration. These very young married women, who are still physically, emotionally, developmentally and legally children – a group often totally neglected in basic education provision – have special education needs. They generally want to finish their primary (equivalent) programme as fast as they can, before their family gets too big and domestic chores become too heavy, that is, through accelerated programmes. On the other hand, they may need an extensive programme, in fewer hours per day or week, extending over a longer timeframe. This is an issue of programme pace. They also have immediate learning needs in the area of household management; practical childcare, sexual and reproductive health and nutrition; budgeting, etc.; and they need fitness and sports activities for personal health. They may have immediate need of livelihood skills for income earning purposes. These are issues of programme content.

This group of excluded 'children' still under 18 years, evidently have complex, multiple and immediate education needs in terms of programme location and context, pace and content.

Cluster III – Faraway children: Small primary age children, ages six to nine or ten, cannot walk far. If the nearest school is more than 2 kms distant it would be better to create home or feeder schools, along the lines of the current Rwanda satellite schools, but more flexible, more frequently monitored and well supported. Multigrade classes can be held for the children of the immediate neighbours in an informal setting, within a homestead courtyard or veranda or under a tree or simple temporary shelter. The home, home school teacher and the immediate community need orientation and training in how best to run and support such schools and older schooled children should be invited to assist as peer teachers, and to organise structured games for the children. At an older age, the home-school children join the nearest full primary school.

While the content of the home-school programme is the same as school programmes, teachers and supporting actors need training in exploiting the immediate environment to enrich teaching/learning, for organising the timetable to suit the learners and the homes, for ensuring uninterrupted lessons and concentration, for programming structured play and games, and for getting the cooperation of parents and neighbours.

Cluster V – Children living in centres: These children have time available for schooling. In addition to school, they may need in the centres: structured and monitored daily life chores/activities, extra sports and organised physical activities to keep them busy after school hours and special support programmes such as building confidence and self-esteem, interpersonal skills, HIV prevention education, preparation for the world of work and adulthood.

These educational needs, in addition to normal schooling, could be classified as programme content needs or 'special support programmes and activities'.

Cluster VI – Working children: The prime characteristic of this group of children, in terms of education needs, is their lack of time for learning. They fall into two major categories: those who have no time at all during the working day for any other programme or activity; and those who have a few regularly available hours per day. In terms of content, daily education programmes may include general education, in the form of accelerated courses, or other programmes; or they may focus on LSD, relating to the immediate work skills required by learners.

Children with only two hours available per week or per fortnight will need programmes designed specifically for them, to attract them and ensure regular attendance (edutainment or edusports programmes), and to provide relevant, useful, agreed and attainable learning. These could be termed outreach programmes because although they may be run in centres, facilitators and animators will also have to be ready to go out to where the children are, cutting down the time children need to get to their education programme. More details on outreach programme content are discussed in Chapter 7.

In summary, Section 4.2 discussed **time** available for OVC education programmes, and course length. Section 4.3 has addressed OVC education needs in terms of **structure of institutions required**, the **learning context** and **location**. It has introduced the notion of varied **pace** of learning to suit different learning groups; and learning programme **content**. The schema below, Table 4.3, summarises these elements, which need to be taken into consideration when designing education programmes for OVC.

Table 4.3: Critical Elements in Planning OVC Education Programmes

Programme Aspects to respond to Learner Needs	**Potential Variation in Learner Demand**
Programme Time:	All day; or few hours per day; or a couple of hours per week
" Length:	Variable
Institutional Structure and Location:	Integrated into, attached to or run as outreach programmes from existing education institutions or in collaboration with them - within, attached to or physically separate from existing schools, CFJs, other centres or new locations (homesteads or streets or community sports fields)
Learning Pace:	Accelerated or extensive; partial or full courses; modular programme structure to respond to varied pace demands
Programme Context:	Programme readiness in terms of social and institutional acceptance of and welcome for all learners
Programme Content:	General education (including Catch-up); LSD; personal development programmes; sports; and others
Admission policies:	Multilevel admission, for illiterates to secondary school drop-outs

The next two chapters report on the findings of the study.

5.0 PARENTS' AND COMMUNITY PERSPECTIVES ON THE EDUCATION NEEDS OF OVC

The aim of interviewing children, parents, community opinion leaders – including teachers – and local authorities, was to hear a broad spectrum of society speak about OVC, their life situations, the problems facing them and, most particularly, their education experiences and challenges. This chapter presents adults' perspectives of the dilemmas of OVC. A parents' questionnaire and a local authorities' questionnaire was used for parents, community leaders and local authorities. Given the short time spent in each province, with no prior selection of interviewees, discretion was allowed the interviewers in terms of which of the two questionnaires to use. The result was that the less educated parents talked about their own children and the more educated parents talked about general trends, as did the community leaders and local authorities.

5.1 THE RESPONDENTS

5.1.1 Overview of Community Leader Respondents

At district level and in communities, 29 opinion leaders were interviewed in twelve provinces: 18 men, five women;[86] between the ages of 30 and 50 years: mayors, civil servants in the sectors of social affairs, gender, sports, youth and education, and elected district officials in the same sectors; a doctor; church ministers; heads and teachers; businessmen, traders; and NGO personnel, listed in Appendices E, F and G. Many of them had completed secondary education. A small minority were graduates. The respondents were asked about the general status of OVC their educational needs and the education opportunities available for them in the district. Their views will be reported with those of the parents, below.

5.1.2 Overview of Parent Respondents

A total of 23 parents gave interviews, 16 women and 7 men, ranging from 20 to over 60 years; from ten of the upcountry provinces and from the capital city, Kigali (see Table 4.1).

Occupations and educational level: The occupations of the parents were a typical spread of Rwanda's employment sector: many (13) farmers, either working full time on their own plots or as casual agricultural labourers working neighbours' plots, or on rice or tea plantations, among them a Batwa farmer. There were hawkers and market vendors of milk, fruit and vegetables in the provinces and the city; a bicycle repairer, a mason, a trader; a Kigali institution cleaner, a childcare assistant; a foster mother in her sixties; and a married woman tailoring trainee at an NGO centre. Many of the parents were illiterate. Some had done two or three years in primary school.

Characteristics of the family, as related to schooling: The twelve single-parents were all women - ten widows, one unmarried mother and one divorcee - mainly in their thirties and forties. They had between three and six children, except for the unmarried woman, who had two children. Almost all these single women had little or no schooling. It has been noted above that the more educated the woman the less children she has. This is borne out in the sample interviewed. All the men in the sample were married currently to living wives, although it was indicated in some cases that a previous wife had died, or left the home. The men had all remarried even though, in

[86] Six respondents among the district authorities were not identified by sex. Aggregated, the 29 opinion leaders and 22 parents (51) were balanced by sex, that is, 25 men, 21 women, and 6 unidentified. Also, other district officers sat in and participated in some of the interviews, but are not always identified in the questionnaires. See also Appendix E listing the local authorities and local opinion leaders interviewed.

Table 5.1: Parent Respondents

ID N	PARENTS	Place
236f	*__Léonie__, mid 50s, **no work**, disabled husband, **8 (c)** 20-6 yrs (?); looks after **orphan** 7 yrs. **All (c) OOS.** Adobe brick hse	Gisenyi
208f	**Josine**, 45 yrs **widow, farmer** Kabuga,5 (c) 19-10 yrs 3 in sch) little land 30m25m, mud hse	Kabuga
238f	**Rose**, 48 yrs, **widow**, **farmer**, **4 (c)** 20-13 yrs, mud hse,	Kibuye
274f	**Goretti**, early 30s **widow, farmer**, has land, mud hse, 3 (c) 17-10	Nyagatare
237f	**Pascasia**, 47 yrs, married but **breadwinner** (casual labourer?), alcoholic husband, mud hse, no land **8 (c) + 1 orphan** (relative) 14 yrs; 1 with mental disability (17 yrs), 1 pregnant (16 yrs).	Kibuye
272f	**Claudine**, late 20s **casual rice plantation worker**, **single** woman, with 2 (c) 14 & 11 yrs, some land, mud hse	Kibungo
252f	**Marie**, 30s **widow, market seller**, 3 (c) 13-8, no land, mud hse	Butare Town
270f	**Susanne**, 30s **widow**, **sells milk and bananas**, no land, rents hse, **4 (c)** 15-3 yrs	Umutara
204f	**Judith**, 40 yrs, **widow, fruit seller**, Kgli, **6 (c)** 25-10 yrs, mud hse - sent daughters to Umuhoza	Kigali
203f	**Ruth**, 46 yrs, **widow, gardener** at NGO Kgli, **6 (c**), mud hse	Kigali
206f	**Natalie**, 39 yrs, **widow**, **5 (c), cleaner** at Umuhoza, mud hse, 1 ha upcountry	Kigali
201f	**Francine**, 28 yrs 4 (c), forced **early marriage**, adobe brick house, LSD **trainee** – NGO, from upcountry	K new
202f	**Epiphanie**, 36 yrs, Kgli, **childcare asst**, husband upcountry; **6 (c)** 15 yrs to 7 mths; mud hse; from upcountry	Kgli new
235f	**Dora**, 60 yrs, **foster mother**, **casual agric labourer**, divorced Gisenyi town. No land. Rents hut. **2 orphans**: 1 in Centre, 1 in P3; 20 yrs+13 yrs. 5 adult (c) - 20 yr son works in taxis.	Gisenyi
250f	**Chantal**, 40s **widow, farmer**, **8 (c),** 21-5 yrs, wood and thatch hse	Gikongoro
254f	**Jean**, 40s married, **farmer**, **7 (c)** 21-10 yrs, mud hse, v small land	Cyangugu
209m	**François**, 63 yrs, **TWA farmer**, Rugarema, Byumba, 3 (c) 20,18,15 yrs, mud hse	Byumba
273m	**Marcel**, 30s married **farmer**, 3 (c), land, mud hse	Umutara
255m	**Faustin**, 40s married farmer, **tea plantation worker**, **11 children** 2 wives, mud hse	Cyangugu
239m	42 yrs, married, **farmer** and **trader**, 3(c), mud hse	Gitarama Ruyumba
251m	**Nicodème**, 40s married**, farmer** on his land and also as a casual, **7 (c)** 18-10 yrs	Gikongoro
271m	**Claude,** 40s married, **bike repairer + farmer**, with 2 or more wives, 4 (c) total from the 2 wives, elder has left; mud hse, some land,	Kibungo
205m	**Dieudonné**, 48 yrs, married, **mason**, **6 (c),** mud hse	Kigali

m= male; f= female; (c) = children

*All names are have been changed, to protect the privacy of the respondents

one case, this brought the number of children in the family to eleven. No undue dismay was voiced. On the contrary. The father, who was a casual labourer on a tea plantation, explained: 'God gave me these children and I could not refuse them. They must all be given a chance of surviving in this world. So I have to work hard. But because I don't have enough money, my grown up children must help me with money for the younger ones.' Most of the interviewees lived in mud and wattle traditional houses. Some had adobe brick houses. None had permanent brick houses. This indicated that they were low income earners. Most had land, but described it as 'very small'.

The level of poverty of the family accounts for the absence from school of many children in these families. Observations on school costs persisting after 'fee-free education' are detailed below.

Fostering: Among the child respondents a number of foster cases were found and are reported here, to complete the picture on fostering which emerged from the study. Most of the parent respondents did not foster children, which was a surprise, given the national average of over two foster children per family. Judith, a street fruit seller, a widow with three adolescent children, made it clear that she kept the extended family at arm's length in order not to have relatives foisted on her: 'I have to chase away my relatives' children who come looking for help because they are a burden to me'. Judith felt she did not have enough for her own children, let alone enough to share with others.

Box 5.1

A Benevolent Employer

'Susanne, who is 13 years old, asked me to do her a favour by taking her into my house. She works as my maid now. She had already dropped out of school after second grade, at the age of 10 years, when she approached me. She was having problems with her mother's new husband. He threatened her. So she decided to leave home, and dropped out of school.

These days she attends a sewing programme in town, run by an NGO which has a good reputation. The course will last nine months. It's free and the children are given a free lunch at midday. Susanne will be able to earn money after the course.'

Elizabeth, a civil servant

Elizabeth, a civil servant at district level, had the kindness, contacts and authority to do something for a child who came to her asking for help (Box 5.1). Dora, a divorcee farmer in her sixties, with grown up children, fosters two orphans and receives food for them from time to time, probably as a fostering incentive. The children are sponsored at school and at a care centre. They help with domestic chores.

In many cases foster children are very grateful to be housed and fed by the extended family, or friends and neighbours of their late parents, and find it normal to work alongside other family members in the house and in the fields. There are cases where foster children willingly give all their earnings as casual labourers or as street workers to their foster families. One foster child was evidently very grateful to her neighbours for having taken her in, pointing out to the interviewer that her foster family was very poor and implying that they were sacrificing themselves by taking care of her. Another, Nataria, had been looked after by her uncle for the last eleven years, since the genocide. She had never been to school and although she secretly longed to learn how to read and write, she felt that she should accept the shelter she was offered without asking for more. Nataria commented that she would probably not have been taken into her uncle's family if she had not made her contribution to family work in the house and the fields, and in modest earnings in the neighbourhood. However, the foster children find it difficult to accept their lot when their work is heavier than the other children of the family, and when they are left at home while the others go to school.

A clear case of discrimination was described by Pascal, the 16 year old orphan street vendor in Kibungo. Every day Pascal is sent to sell sweets by the roadside and has to hand over the daily

earnings to his uncle. His cousins go to school. He has 'escaped' from his uncle twice but the uncle found him and brought him back each time. The final injustice of the case is that the uncle has taken over Pascal's father's land and lives there with his family, while refusing to produce school fees to send his nephew to school. Vianney in Umutara is housed by his uncle and has had to watch his cousins going to school. He had completed primary school but was told by his uncle to go and work daily as a domestic in another family. Now Vianney is given some hours a day to attend the NGO ASSIST LSD course, where he learns soap, polish and candle making. He is saving some money from the products he makes and hopes to pay for driving lessons.

Most interviewees in the sample who foster children - relatives or nonrelatives - did not seem to receive any fostering stipend and the accounts in this study witness to the rarity of direct assistance for fostered children.

5.2 PERCEPTIONS OF SCHOOL

The terms of reference for this study placed emphasis not only on the *situation of children out of school* but on the need for understanding the context of *children at risk of* dropping out of school. The present chapter is a significant response to this request. Parents all want their children to go to school. As a head in Gashora said: 'Children who have been to school confer status on the family and are the pride of their parents.' There is evidently honour and pride tied up with the prestige of a school education in addition to the hope that the child's future earnings will increase family income and provide insurance for the parents' old age. A mayor in Bicumbi agrees. A parish priest in Kibuye notes, however, that: 'It's one thing to get the children to school but quite another to keep them there'. The parents' voices, below, articulate their struggle in keeping children in school, express their fears of imminent drop-out, and explain why some of their children have already dropped out of school or have not, to this date, been enrolled.

5.2.1 Nonenrolment and Drop-out

The perceived extent of nonenrolment and drop-out: Drop-out at primary level is persistently *overestimated* by people who do not look at the education statistics. The report what they see in the streets and the fields. The proportion of children of secondary age in school is u*nderestimated*, by everyone. Many people state that 30 per cent of the primary age children are out of primary school, yet the national figure is seven per cent. The research team had to grapple with the disparity of observations on the ground and the official statistics. Conclusions are noted at the end of this chapter. The local authorities often claim they do not have the figures – yet the statistics exist for every district in the country. One district officer in Kigali can only quote the figures for Kigali as a whole, and cannot quote those for his own district. With regard to secondary level, few people are aware that only 11 per cent of the secondary age group are in secondary school. It was a general conclusion of the research team that statistics were not easily available; and were not being analysed or used for OVC planning by the local authorities.

Perceived causes of nonenrolment and drop-out: Local authorities and educated members of the community listed the causes of drop-out from school as:

Internal school factors: *High failure rate, French language problems, lack of school materials; teacher abuse; teachers need upgrading on new curriculum/textbooks; irrelevance of school; lack of uniform; school levies and cost.*

External factors: *Lack of schooling tradition (sometimes called 'ignorance'), low ceiling of satisfaction with school; multiple family*

units/family conflicts, illness, girls in the north, delinquency, forceful pull of earning money in whatever income generating activity the region offers (rice, tea, petty trading, porterage, border trade, quarrying, mining, brickmaking, prostitution); poverty and hunger.

Internal school factors: The local education authorities were worried by the large number of children in each class, often cited as 70 per class, in each shift. In Kigali one of the education officers described the situation graphically: 'teachers can't mark enough prep, can't give enough tests or mark enough tests, and the pupils feel neglected. Due to the impossibility of managing such large classes pupils now copy from each other and tests are no longer valid. He said: 'We need more schools and classrooms… and teachers'. In Gitarama the education officer described the problems children had with French, which is the language of instruction from the fourth grade onwards: 'some children are just scared of French'. Since Rwanda is one of the rare five countries in Africa with a sole mother tongue, Kinyarwanda is used all the time, to good effect. This minimises and delays a child's need for the first dominant international language in Rwanda, French, and the learning of the international language suffers, as compared with countries with several local languages. An education officer from Gitarama summed up the situation: 'Most of those who fail are the poor children', he said, stating what happens the world over, and what is true for Rwanda.

From the teachers' standpoint, whatever the cause of drop-out, they 'are glad of drop out rates. If five children leave the class, so much the better! The teacher can breathe a little easier… ', as one teacher put it. A head in Kibuye explained: 'There's no room for the children to repeat in sixth grade if they fail the primary leaving examination'. These statements indicate the need to reduce the size of classes and, in the interim, to support teachers with large classes. According to one interviewer in the team: 'No one gives much thought if children of average or low ability leave school. Parents are relieved when children leave school of their own volition because then they can be of assistance in the fields and the home. But teachers will try to keep bright children in the class, for the honour of the school'.

A serious allegation, which was later confirmed by child respondents, was the lack of integrity of some teachers. A prominent businessman said: 'teachers have turned into traders, trading marks for sex with the girls and for money from the boys'. Such a situation disproportionately affects children from low income families.

Box 5.2

Ten Causes of Nonenrolment and Drop-out from School Reported by Poor Families in Rwanda

Performance
Appropriate Age for School
Distance from School
Family Conflict
The Role of the Father
Large families
The Continuing Pregnancy Problem
Gender Issues
Hunger
Cost

5.2.2 Out-of-school Cases and Causes reported by Parents

The perceptions and experiences of less educated parents are listed (Box 5.2) and presented below in some detail since they are less frequently cited. They are all related to poverty. The respondents in this category were mainly parents with children out of school: parents with never-enrolled children or drop-outs; and parents with children who are at risk of dropping out of school.

5.2.2.1 Performance: Many parents see drop-out as caused directly by failure to pass annual class examinations and by the threat of repetition. A secondary headmaster notes the high rate of failure: 'students want to repeat and repeat but there's no room for them. When they have failed two or three times they get discouraged and leave school'. The education system faces the challenge of devising programmes which children can master, and upgrade teaching skills so as to give children the best chance possible of performing well at school. Vocabulary commonly bandied about divides children into the 'brilliant' and 'stupid', the 'clever' and 'dull' children. Once you have failed a school year exam, for example in fourth grade, you have failed school, it seems. This is what happened to Judith the market seller's 13 year old son in P4. He was taken quickly out of school and is now training in carpentry. Her eight year old son then dropped out of school, after P2. There was little discussion of absenteeism during the study. The case of Emmanuel in

third grade was, however, and indication of a little talked of problem. The teachers called it a problem of poor performance and made Emmanuel repeat twice. But the boy was constantly away from school, waiting for his parents to provide uniform or writing materials before the school could allow him back into class. He must have fallen behind in his work and was soon labelled 'not very intelligent'. Eventually, his mother told him he was stupid and pulled him out of school.

5.2.2.2 The appropriate age for school: Enrolment and pull-out decisions are also a question of how the age of children is perceived by parents. 'My grown children must help me with money for the younger ones,' said Faustin. He went on to explain: 'My 13 and 12 year old sons are helping their mother farm the small field we have'. His eight and ten year old children are still in school. But for how long? Even now their schooling is organised according to the work hours they must put in for the family: 'When they are not in school they tend the goats. They share the work between them through the day so that 'there is always someone to look after the goats.' Luckily for Faustin's sons, the current shift arrangement of primary school makes it possible for the boys to herd the goats and go to school on the same day. Faustin summed it all up by saying emphatically: 'P3-4, that is enough for them and for me'. It is significant that primary school shifts operate up to the third grade only and that this could influence parents to pull children out of school rather than forgo their labour for a full day of schooling in grade four. This is a second case, in addition to Nicodème's, of parental/paternal attitudes determining how long children stay in school.

Box 5.3

Survival - A Family Enterprise

My house is full of hard workers! Everyone has to work for his or her own survival! We all like to work. And, if we don't work we won't survive.'

Faustin, tea plantation worker, father of eleven children

5.2.2.3 Distance from school: The schooling difficulties of Faustin's eleven children are compounded by the fact that the family lives far from school. A parish priest explains that the further one gets into the *collines* the less of a tradition of schooling there is – and the more son preference (see below, on gender issues).

5.5.5.4 Family conflict and the repercussion on schooling: Elise's case bears out the observations on family problems in Guluma's study on separated children.[87] She ran away from school at 12 years, after her father married a second wife. Her mother had left the home. The desolation of Elise can be guessed through her father's tale. 'The girl is now in some CFJ about 3 kms from here – I don't know what course she is doing, but I think it could be tailoring… She has never told me what she is doing exactly… I think she knows better than I do what she is up to. I don't pay her fees but I am told that there is a male relative who pays for her. I can't say that I have anything positive to say about this girl or her course since she ran away from school'. It seems that the father's anger at his first wife has been displaced on the daughter who has dropped out of school as a result of family disruptions. A teacher in Kabuga had experienced how the war tore families apart: in many cases, she said, after the experience of war, men opted out and 'kept widows, leaving their families to fend for themselves'. As in post-war situations in other countries, fathers take time to adjust to new and/or previous peacetime roles and responsibilities.

5.2.2.5 The pivotal role of the father in schooling: Nicodème, with seven children between 10 and 18 years, explained that it was his children who opted to leave school, not

[87] Guluma (2004).

he who had pulled them out. They dropped out at age ten, one after the other: 'The children decided. I could not force them to stay at school!' His sons are now in streets of Gikongoro and his 16 year old daughter is at home helping her mother. The 13, 11 and 10 year olds are still at school. Nicodème has never heard of CFJs and yet three are near his area. It would seem that the father's expectations have influenced the children. He does not expect them to go far – and they don't.

Traders interviewed in Kabuga and Gikongoro separately and spontaneously pointed to poor school attendance rates once the father is negligent towards his children, in polygamous families where fathers often opt out of monitoring their individual children, or in families with no paternal presence. Guluma's study also highlights the importance of the father's role in the home, in a patriarchal society such as Rwanda.

The dysfunctional family is a direct contributing factor to children dropping out of school, (a) in polygamous households, (b) in multiple marriage families (whether the partnerships are simultaneous or consecutive), (c) in single-parent families, and (d) in child-headed families. Evidently, while empowering women to take more control in the home and in society, and while supporting diverse newly emerging family structures, Rwanda has to impress on fathers that, they have a pivotal role to play in ensuring that their children stay in school. Interestingly, it was again one of the businessmen interviewed who stressed the need for support direct to families, as the cornerstone of the society and of the economy: 'The local authorities should resolve problems at family level', he said, rather than assuming that school matters can be solved solely by the schools.

5.2.2.6 Large families: The larger the family, the more likely that several children are out of school. The continuing direct costs of schooling make it impossible for large families to send all their children to school and to keep them there. Among the parent respondents with seven or more children, some of the children had done one to four years schooling, and some, already ten years old, were still not in school. A primary teacher notes that 'in large families there's not enough money to buy the necessary writing materials', which is a reference to the continuing direct costs of schooling.

Faustin's story was told above, the polygamous tea plantation worker from Cyangugu, with eleven children. Eight of the Gisenyi widow Léonie's nine children are out of school. Two of the widow Françoise's five children go to school when the school food programme is on in Gikongoro. The three children remaining in school, of Nicodème's seven children, are likely to leave school in the near future, since his and the children's horizons are limited and his aspirations low, and he has no plan for getting them into a training course. Child respondents confirmed the common experience of neglect of children in polygamous families, where the father's attention is given to the latest wife, leaving the first wife's children to fend for themselves, as in the case of 16 year old Siméon, who ended up working as a street porter after only two years in school.

Rosalie, a primary teacher, says she is alarmed by the population growth of Rwanda. According to her, the street children phenomenon is 'caused by big families', by parental negligence to control births, and lack of sex education. A businessman from Cyangugu describes the plight of street children: 'They literally grow up on the streets, looking after themselves. There is no one at all to look after them'.

There are limits to what an illiterate, farming widow in Kibuye can do, and what the state can do, for five children. Rose has four children between 13 and 20 years and a nephew to look after. The eldest, of 20 years, is hawking in Kigali. Her 17 year old son, due to his status as a single orphan, has been taken in by the Amizero Centre, 16 kms away. He lives at the Centre and is sent to P4 in a nearby school. Amizero gives the children seeds and the use of a plot to cultivate during their free time. But Rose has not managed to help her other children beyond her first attempts. Edouard, her 13 year old, is already in the streets, having sold his exercise books and his school uniform, as if both he and she despair of improving his lot.

5.2.2.7 The continuing pregnancy problem: Pascasia is landless, has an alcoholic husband, eight children and one orphan to look after, one child with a mental disability, and a pregnant 16 year old daughter. None of the children go to school, but the eldest, Claire, was at school until she became pregnant. The school did not expel her but Claire was 'too ashamed to return to school this year and feared being ridiculed by her friends'. In Rwanda it is no longer legal to expel pregnant girls from school but, evidently, social pressure continues to be a force greater than mere legislation in terms of factors pushing girls out of school.

5.2.2.8 Gender issues: In Kibungo some local authorities say that boys feel bad about not receiving any food rations from WFP as girls do, 5 litres of oil per month. One district education officer said that boys leave school 'to show that they should also receive something'. As noted above, the statistics indicate that boys drop out more than girls in most primary classes. In Gikongoro community leaders and schools are well aware that boys are the most at risk from drop out.

In the north the education officers were familiar with the issues surrounding girls' relatively lower primary school enrolment rates in their areas, three of the twelve provinces in Rwanda. A priest in Kibuye, in the west, made reference to the effect of remoteness in lowering girls' school enrolment. No one, however, brought up the issue of the lower access of girls to secondary level, which is linked closely to performance at primary level.

Box 5.4

The Work Children Do

Unpaid work:
- Domestic work
- Family agricultural work/animal husbandry
- Casual wok, giving earnings to guardians

Paid work:
- Domestic work (both boys and girls)
- Guarding houses
- Prostitution
- Casual agricultural labouring/herding
- Rice, tea, sugar plantation work
- Brickmaking
- Quarrying and mining
- Market/shop assistants
- Hairdressing
- Hawking in the towns
- Transporting loads nr markets, bus stations
- Bicycle repair
- Bicycle taxis
- Frontier districts offer intensive crossborder trade and porterage/transport work

5.2.2.9 Hunger*:* Chantal, a widow with six children, said that her three school-going children decided to leave school last year, due to 'hunger'. When the World Food Programme started in the area, two of them went back. A prominent businessman from a drought-prone area of Gikongoro observes that 'Children can't study when they are hungry. A doctor in Byumba expressed it this way: 'An empty stomach is hard of hearing' and is not ready to listen to people lecturing on the importance of schooling for their children, 'An empty stomach can't digest words'.

A nearby Anglican pastor in charge of church development programmes in the diocese agrees: 'Children will only be able to stay at school when we have food security in the area'. The church feels totally overwhelmed by the magnitude of poverty in the province. They don't know where to begin in terms of programming. At first, when the pastor was asked what development programmes the church carries out, he said: 'We do nothing! There are just too many problems! We can't do everything at once!' What he apparently means is that the little the church does could be seen as nothing, given the extent of the need. He then goes on to say that the church supports agricultural programmes since everyone in the area sees their problems as emanating from hunger: 'The people are always talking about it'. He would like to set up more agricultural training centres but the church lacks the funds to do this. There is widespread agreement with this point of view, confirmed by mayors, headmasters and businessmen.

5.2.2.10 Cost: There is a new problem regarding the cost of primary education to the household, costs perceived and real costs, since the declaration of fee-free primary education in 2003/4 (Box 5.5 overleaf). Many of the interviewees' children dropped out of school as recently as the previous academic year, 2003/4 – yet this was the year of fee-free education – and were not

Box 5.5

CONTINUING COSTS OF FEE-FREE SCHOOLING TO POOR HOUSEHOLDS AND CONTINUING BARRIERS TO FINDING ASSISTANCE

. Nathalie, a cleaner in Kigali, a widow, says her six children are regularly out of school despite fee-free primary schooling since last year.

. The daughter of the fruit vendor, Judith, dropped out of P4 'last year', also.

. Claudine, a single mother in her late twenties, working in the rice plantations of Kibungo, says: 'I am poor and cannot manage to pay my daughter's school fees'.

. Pascasia, a casual agricultural labourer, has an alcoholic husband, eight children and one orphan to look after, among them a child with a mental disability, a pregnant 16 year old daughter – and is landless. None of the children go to school.

. The Batwa dancer, Juliette, is planning for 'various costs, uniform and exercise books' before she can return to fifth grade.

. Epiphanie, who works in Kigali while her husband remains upcountry, explains: 'Every time I lose my job, I have no money and the children are sent away from school again. This is why my 15 year old is still in P3. At present, three of my four school age children are out of school. My 15 year old daughter dropped out of school after P3, as did my 13 year old son, and my boy of 7 years dropped out after P1.' This is simply not the scenario anticipated after the introduction of fee-free education.

. A Kabuga widow, Josine, of 45 years, with five children, recounted the fate of the last three children: a 15 year old daughter dropped out at P4 level some years ago; followed by the 13 year old son, dropping out after one year, 'failing', as she put it, in P1, at the age of eight years; followed by the last born, currently 10 years old, who has never been to school. One wonders if Josine made any attempt to get the youngest into school on the introduction of fee-free schooling in 2003/4. This is probably another example of a schooling persistency pattern being established by the older children in a family - or lack of persistency - which leads to the family losing hope for the youngest ones.

. Léonie had applied for help through the *nymubakumi* 'but it didn't work', she said.[88] 'To get a poverty certificate you have to go through all sorts of hoops, from the *nyumbakumi* to the councillor, to the chief to the district level' she explains the levels. 'These *nyumbakumi* heads and cell leaders are often corrupt'. The poverty certificate used to lead to a fee waiver prior to 2003/4. Léonie is recounting past difficulties. By now, she should not have primary school fee problems but they seem to be continuing.

. With regard to secondary school, Léonie says that the District Fund for Education in her area is only given to people with no houses. She does have a house, but that does not provide her with school fees. No doubt, the DFE is limited and the authorities are using justified criteria for selecting the most needy cases. The problem is, however, that there are far too many needy cases and far too few funds to go around. *cont'd*

. 'Where we live, schooling isn't free. They ask for 2,000 FRw in all the town schools - and this would have meant 2,000 for each child. Where am I going to get that kind of money?' Léonie asked rhetorically. Her husband has a disability and she has eight children and an orphan in the house. Parents are still required to pay a levy at the start of the school year in Gisenyi town. Léonie has found a solution for the eldest, of 15 years, who can walk far: she goes to school for free in the neighbouring rural district 'where the schools are underenrolled', leaving home at 5.00 am every day for her three hour walk to school. Léonie's first three daughters reached grade six, but the three youngest ones, of 10, 8 and 7 years, have never been to school. While school is supposedly getting more accessible, Léonie's problems are multiplying. Yet she has proved her interest in education for her children, by schooling the three eldest. Now, her three youngest daughters are at serous risk of never attending school.

[88] The *nyumbakumi* is a cluster of ten households. At the next level of local administration comes the cell represented by a chief, then the sector, the district, then the province.

in school by February 2005. As the stories multiplied, a cumulative picture of the continuing costs of primary education emerged and the ongoing barriers to finding support. A businessman in the drought-prone area of Bugarama in Cyangugu feels that as long as the issue of poverty is not addressed then 'we cannot expect children to be enrolled in 2010 or even in 2015'.

5.2.3 Challenges Remaining for Fee-free Primary Education

On the face of it, it is difficult to explain all these casualties among school children after primary schooling was made free. There are eight issues here which, from the point of view of parents, fee-free schooling has yet to deal with:

- **Levies and Uniform:** Some schools continue to demand levies and put pressure on children to wear (noncompulsory) uniforms. One district education officer in the city admitted that levies for teachers were now 'compulsory' in Kigali. If it is the case that many parents wish to pay levies in order to guarantee quality schooling, especially to pay for more teachers or give salary supplements to teachers, then district officials must ensure that poor parents are identified by the PTAs and exempted from the levies. The bottom line is that the state needs to provide more teachers.

  Although uniform is no longer compulsory, the authorities have not managed[89] to change attitudes towards uniform, or lack of it. Children without uniform feel bad and feel visibly marked. To make matters worse, many NGOs give children uniform (rather than clothing) and are unconsciously supporting the national popular habit of equating schooling with uniform.

- WFP **school feeding programmes** are not free. They cost 450 FRw per year, which is 50 per cent more than the former fees, which were 300 FRw. Some children need free or subsidised food. Whether this should be tackled at school or the family level is debatable.

- **Exercise books and writing materials** are not provided by schools. This – and transport to school in some cases - remains a direct cost. The survey revealed that textbooks have not yet reached schools in any sufficient quantities. This is a second major item that parents need to buy – but which they do not buy. The end result, without textbooks, is low quality education. NGOs should focus on giving children writing materials and textbooks.

- The **opportunity costs** of education will not go away. When poor and large families are deprived of children's labour it cannot be made up except through development programmes targeting the poorest of the poor and interim family stipends.

[89] There is no information campaign or sensitisation exercise waged on the uniform issue. Attitudes will not change without such a campaign.

- **Teacher integrity**: While the 'trading or selling of marks to pupils needs to be stopped for monetary reasons and to give all pupils an equal chance of succeeding at school, there is the more important issue of the integrity of teachers.

- **Disillusionment of the poor and new hesitation in applying for entitlements:** In the past, when primary school fee waivers were limited, it was impossible for all poor families to acquire a poverty certificate for accessing benefits for the poor such as fee waivers, since local officials were probably given instructions to hand out only a limited number. The experience of 'going through hoops' as the widow from Gisenyi calls it - for whatever reason - has resulted in disempowering a number of poor families and in sowing despair. It will take a new effort at grassroots level and a new mechanism to get poor families to come forward to claim their rightful benefits under the current provisions. Some of them may even lack information on current provisions for the poor or on new criteria which may apply.

- **Severely restricted access to secondary school:** It is important for the authorities to demonstrate that entrance to secondary school is a legitimate hope for many primary children. This will require a variety of measures to reduce secondary costs – including the setting up of junior secondary day schools, the new ESIs, which are popular among the respondents – and making more bursaries available for OVC, together with distance secondary courses.

In sum, for the children of low income parents, cost related, family and structural factors militate against keeping children in school (Table 5.2).

Circumstances are stacked against OVC and poor, large families. It takes an extraordinary measure of persistence and courage for the poorest of the poor to seek out help in the form of support or entitlements. Everyone knows how state bureaucracies deal with the destitute. These families should no longer be continually labelled 'ignorant' but should be regarded as social groups and individuals who need to be sought out and rescued from the cycle of hardship they are in. Unless the state steps in, in a focused and proactive manner, with the assistance of NGOs, to strengthen local support structures, OVC will remain at risk of nonenrolment and of dropping out of school.

Table 5.2: Push-Out Factors Relevant to OVC

5.2.4 Ending a Culture of Failure

The sense of failure is widespread in Rwanda and yet there are achievements, both sectoral and individual, that go unrecognised. When children do not go to secondary school, it is said in Rwanda that they have 'dropped out of school' and that they have 'failed'. Neither is true, but these are strong perceptions.

Faustin, with eleven children, has little time for school, and he has reason. Julie, the eldest daughter, was 'very courageous', walking a long distance to school daily. 'But she is now discouraged' since she 'failed' her primary leaving examination. 'I have no money to send her to a private school'. She now works as a domestic in a neighbouring family 'so that her siblings can survive'. Since this child was Faustin's second, of the eleven, it is perhaps understandable that he hesitates to leave the other children in school for more than three or four years, consuming all the family's income.

Dieudonné's two daughters left school after repeating sixth grade several times: 'she's not very intelligent', he said of one, while the other 'was always among the last children in the class. She could never have managed secondary school. She was too stupid for that', said her father. Fortunately, Dieudonné has not given up on them. 'I am going to buy the eldest a sewing machine as soon as she finishes her course in the Umuhoza [NGO training] Centre.' He explained that the girl was now working as a domestic: 'She sometimes goes to the Centre to attend training when she is given permission by her employer'. Soon she'll have her tailoring certificate. These pupils seem to personify the anonymous statistics on girls' low performance in schools, noted above, and sound like prime candidates for a girls' empowerment programme which might have succeeded in retaining them in school till the end of the primary cycle.

Cost related factors	➢ Continuing direct school costs such as: • levies – mainly to pay supplements to teachers • writing materials • uniform • school feeding programmes ➢ The opportunity costs of family labour ➢ High cost of secondary school, diminishing motivation at primary level ➢ Teacher exploitation, demanding pay/services for pass marks
Family related factors	➢ Large families ➢ Family pattern of failed schooling ➢ Significance of paternal attitudes to schooling ➢ Dysfunctional families and hostile family environment
Structural factors	➢ Negative past experience stymies new applications

Schools fuel the culture of failure instead of creating alternatives to carry all children through until they are ready for the world of work. 'Our Bugarama children will go nowhere in life', mused one secondary headmaster, as he reflected on the masses of children who were not getting post-primary education in his district. Like the Anglican pastor, he felt overwhelmed by the situation, by the sheer numbers of secondary children

he saw every day out of school. The education officers waited for a solution to be brought to them from Kigali.

It will be important to start saying 'this girl completed primary school' and ‘this boy passed his primary leaving examination', even if the state secondary system could not squeeze him into the few last places available. There needs to be (a) a changed perception about the importance of completing primary school as an achievement in itself, not just as a preparation for secondary school, and new ‘talk’ introduced into the system to mirror this. (b) Rwanda does not give out primary leaving certificates or P6 public examination certificates. It is recommended that both be made available, possibly with grading levels such as A to E. (c) Authorities and leaders at district level need to take initiatives to find solutions to their locale-specific needs. Assistance from central levels would be helpful, but should not be necessary.

5.2.5 A Last Word

To round off this section on cases and causes of drop-out, one last case is presented. The story of the beautiful Batwa daughter is perhaps the most poignant (Box 5.6). It evokes the hopes a family once had for their daughter, her special talents and the incomprehension, disappointment, disillusionment which followed, as she is left to the fate of the other girls from low income families and to become yet another Batwa casualty of the education system. The Batwa people are estimated to be less than 1 per cent of Rwanda’s population and are noticeably absent from the list of school attenders and achievers. The national troupe of dancers that Juliette’s father speaks of is apparently now dissolved but the simple country farmer's daughter was once one of the stars. For whatever reason, there is now no money to get Juliette through school. Yet the father had been proud of his daughter being in school. When asked about the type of schooling he would like for his children: 'I'd like to see good teachers in schools who don't beat the children and who don't chase them away from school', he said, dwelling more on interpersonal relations between teachers and children than on learning aspects. It is well known in Rwanda and Burundi that the Batwa object to their children being beaten in school. By implication, the father is saying that Juliette, too, was 'chased away from school' for lack of fees There could indeed be some way of using children's talents such as dancing, and providing school fees in return, as long as performances do not distract from school work. In this case, like a sports scholarship, Juliette’s dancing should have been her passport to secondary school and to a better life. It was a talent she contributed from her Batwa context to the local and national cultural heritage but it was not enough to secure her continued access to education.

Box 5.6

The Dancer

'Juliette used to go to school. One day they came to the school and selected her to be a professional dancer in the 'Ballet National', the national dance troupe. She gained the respect of the authorities and became the pride of all the family. The official vehicle used to come to pick her up.

She looked so fine in her dancing outfit, with her new shoes; and everyone ran to come and look at her. I was quite a famous figure myself at the time.

But now we have no money for school fees for Juliette. She works in the fields, and she washes the clothes of rich people. They pay well because she always has soap for herself, beauty oil, and she buys herself new clothes whenever she wants them. She has refused to get married although she has many suitors… She's very beautiful.'

The Batwa farmer’s tale

5.3 POST-PRIMARY EDUCATION

5.3.1 Perceptions of the Secondary school

Formal secondary school is the preferred option for parents, and by children, as will be reported in Chapter 6. Secondary qualifications give children the best chance of entering the formal employment market. State school fees are considerably lower than private school fees and are consequently in high demand. It is recognised that having one's child in a boarding secondary school reduces household expenditure: 'parents prefer boarding schools for their children because there's not enough food in the home', explained a secondary head – it is one less mouth to feed. A second point is that the homes have no electricity, which makes it difficult to study at night. And, say the teachers: 'there are many distractions in the home'. Most of the secondary schools receive children from all over the country, increasing the travel costs for children and insulating parents from involvement in a school they cannot themselves afford to travel to. However, some of the heads are now supporting the Ministry in paving the way for reducing boarding places in favour of increased day places.[90]

Secondary school expenses are a disproportionate drain on District Funds for Education and NGOs resources, leaving little of the Fund for other education programmes in the district. Yet DFE provides so little per individual student. The fund is divided into bursaries of only 7,000 FRw per child for secondary school term fees, a sum which is less than one third of the cheapest boarding secondary school fee. Consequently, secondary students have constant worries over how to supplement this assistance. Children funded by FARG, churches or NGOs fare better. They are provided with full fees, uniform, textbooks and writing materials, bedding in some cases, soap, incidentals and travel expenses. The state provides 100 FRW per student per day for meals in secondary schools, which is seen as inadequate by the heads.

As noted in Chapter 3, there are far too few secondary places available for the increasing numbers of primary leavers. The second option for parents is placing their child in a training centre, in state, church, NGO or private centres. Some parents, however, send their children immediately into employment.

5.3.2 Perception of CFJs, Private, Church and NGO Centres

Parents' perceptions of training centres, including CFJs, are present below, the positive and negative perceptions, and the expectations and practices with regard to parental participation in the centres. Information on costs is given in Section 7.1.

Positive Perceptions

Parents' positive perceptions of livelihoods training centres centred on their expectations of the children's imminent earning capacity, the assistance that a graduating kit will give to the graduate, the current and future operation of the centres as production centres and/or sales points, the social benefits for their children in terms of good social behaviour; and they appreciate the personal qualities and commitment of the instructors. The cases below illustrate these points.

Expectations of immediate earnings: Much of the parents' satisfaction with skills training programmes is linked to their expectation of the child's earning money

[90] The new education policy is to increase day secondary places, in order to reduce the cost of secondary education to parents and to the state. However, households whose child has a bursary, attending a day secondary school, will find family food expenses increase when the child lives at home. There is apparently no intention of eliminating boarding for those living far from schools.

immediately on graduating. In Rwanda siblings carry an even heavier burden for their siblings' school fees than in other countries. It takes a toll on the older children, however, and everyone knows of young people into their thirties who are still shouldering sibling expenses instead of starting their own families.

Marcel, a farmer from Umutara, is glad that his son manages to get casual carpentry work in the holidays while he is still just a trainee carpenter at the local CFJ.

Francine is attending a catering course in the Umushumba Mwiza Centre in Kigali. Her friend did a hairdressing course there and is now successfully employed by a salon in Kigali. The Centre arranges short internships for the students and they tend to end up employed in the enterprises of their internship.[91] Francine's satisfaction arises mainly from the confidence she has that she will find a job very soon: 'It's a great relief for me to have started this course. I just feel as if all my problems have been solved, even if I am not sure what job I will get in the future.' She explains that she was married off at an early age, against her will. The UM training represents a second chance for her. She had to leave her four children upcountry with her husband (8, 6, 3 yrs and 7 mths) and come to live with friends while doing the course. The investment and temporary separation from her children is evidently perceived to be worth it.

The Kibungo bicycle repairer, Claude, is very happy about his son going to CFJ and expects him to get a job immediately after the course. His neighbour's son is doing very well after a CFJ course in carpentry.

Graduating kit: Some CFJs and centres still provide a graduation kit of equipment and/or materials/capital, although it seems that the donor funds for this, which were widely available three years ago, have almost completely dried up. Goretti's eldest daughter will be given a treadle sewing machine and set up in a group enterprise. 'She will pay for her younger siblings to go to school', says Goretti expectantly. The widow can now allow herself to hope that the two younger children will stay in school and follow in the footsteps of the eldest daughter.

Centres as sales points: The fruit seller's daughter has already started earning piecework money with the dolls and postcards she has learned to make, selling them back to the training centre.

Saving the girls from the streets: Judith says: 'I really appreciate the training the girls have had at the Centre… This keeps the them off the streets and away from prostitution. I am really very proud of my eldest daughter who has become very useful to the family. When she's not at the centre she helps me sell fruit and does the household chores.' The Centre has evidently taught a sense of responsibility alongside the skills.

Dieudonné, the Kigali mason with six children, also feels that his daughter has been saved from the dangers of destitution, of being a maid, and of prostitution: 'The Umuhoza Centre is very encouraging… I am really relieved. I was afraid that my daughter might become a prostitute – because you know, when you are a maid you become a prostitute. Now I am sure that she will never go that way'.

[91] Such arrangements usually lead to employment saturation in the area in a short time. Centres need wide contacts or a growing reputation to sustain the momentum of finding employment for graduates.

Promoting career focused behaviour among the boys: 'Youth who are busy will not get into drinking,' Claude says happily.

Integrity of instructors in NGO and church centres: The other factor that parents appreciate is the integrity of the instructors. Judith was worried in the past about the future of her daughters but in the NGO centre: 'The trainers are like mothers, and treat the children like their own daughters, really kind… I have no idea if they are qualified or not but the outcome of the training is very positive.' A farmer says of his son's teachers at the training centre: 'The teachers are marvellous!' And Dieudonné, the mason, said simply: 'I am satisfied that my daughter is in good hands. That's enough.'

Parental Involvement in the centres

Parents in the sample are not involved in CFJ or centre programme administration or management. Most uneducated parents are happy that their child has succeeded in entering the course and they do not expect to have any involvement. However, they do not like to be ignored: 'I am not in favour of the fact that a CFJ can take in children without the parents' permission', said Claude, the bicycle repair man, whose daughter had managed to gain admission without his permission. Moreover, 'I don't know the teachers and I don't know if they are properly qualified or not', he said with some bitterness, leaving his daughter to her fate, good or bad.

Marcel, the farmer from Umutara, puts his faith in his son's judgment and is happy to leave things at that: 'I don't know anything directly about the teachers but my son says they are competent and helpful to the students'. And, to reiterate the sentiments of the Kigali mason with six children to educate: 'I am not bothered about the fact that there's no parents' committee at the Centre. I am satisfied that my daughter is in good hands. That's enough,' said Dieudonné, as if he did not wish to push his luck.

Only the educated parents seem involved in their children's schools or centres. Elizabeth, the district civil servant sheltering an orphan who attends a skills training course, says: 'The Centre invites us to regular meetings to discuss the children's problems. The fact that we are called to these meetings shows that the Centre considers the parents and guardians as important'. Elizabeth is educated enough to have enquired into the qualifications of the teachers, to assess their capabilities and to feel confident in them. She also makes time to attend the Centre meetings.

Negative Perceptions

Unemployed CFJ graduates: CFJs are perceived as 'no good' by some, since their 'graduates are doing nothing'. Faustin, the father of eleven, has listened to his neighbour who sent his children to a CFJ, after completing primary school. Now they 'are doing nothing' and the parents regret having wasted their money on the CFJ. So Faustin has changed his tactic and sent his daughter out to work as a maid, rather than waste time in a training centre. A doctor in Byumba had nothing good to say about CFJs whose graduates, he said, were unemployed. He singled out the churches as being the type of organisation which ran skills training centres best.

Marcel's son first attended a CFJ course in carpentry, and was lucky enough to be sponsored by an agency. But he could not find work when he left the course. Marcel is now paying for him to attend a second CFJ course, in masonry this time, which is perceived to lead more surely to cash

income by many respondents. Selecting the right CFJ course for the employment market is important.

Given the negative views expressed by parents in Cyangugu it is no wonder that the CFJs are reportedly underenrolled in that province. But, while some see the CFJs as underenrolled, education personnel state that far more CFJs are needed in the country to cope with the ever-growing population in the country.

Inadequate supply: Education officers and teachers all say that there are insufficient CFJs and centres for all the children who need them, for example, in Kibuye, Kabuga and Gisenyi. There is evidently a difference of perception among education personnel and the community, and general lack of information.

Geographically out of reach: 'They don't even bother to apply', said one businessman, talking of children who live out of walking reach of CFJs, since boarding fees are beyond the pocket of most parents. Centres/CFJs either have to be multiplied or boarding will be come necessary. A third alternative is to offer another type of training.

Out of reach in terms of level: Ruth is a gardener with six children: 'I don't dare to put my daughter into any centre, even this one where I am working'. She says that after three years in school her 16 year old daughter is still illiterate. 'I need centres which will take in illiterate children like mine', she explains. It is arguable that a greater diversity of courses should be available in CFJs, including courses in CFJs or in other centres for illiterate trainees, and that government subsidies could be allocated to centres which are already dealing with illiterate trainees.

CFJs have at times responded to directives to take in street children or demobilised child soldiers who have not completed the primary cycle. But these have generally been shortlived, one-off efforts rather than regular programmes and have not led to the production of new curricula for neo-literates or illiterate trainees.

Insufficient engagement of local authorities: In Kigali one education officer could not name training centres or CFJs in the city. He claimed that the central ministries work with NGOs and not the Kigali district offices. There seems to be confusion in the city, where a great number of NGO programmes are located, on the role of local education authorities in NGO activities. It could be that central authorities are indeed dealing direct with Kigali NGO activities which are geographically near to them, instead of delegating the task to the proper level, the localities.

Insufficient engagement of external partners: The interventions of international organisations and donors were seen to be short-lived and unsustainable due to short programme timespans which impacted negatively on education alternatives for children out of school.

It is to be noted that the educated people in the community, businessmen and local authorities, particularly in drought-prone areas, argue for increased agricultural skills training in LSD centres. Yet children request non-farm informal sector types of skills training, according to CARE's interviews in Gitarama. With long experience behind them, both the CFJs and CARE International are of the opinion that agricultural skills should form a compulsory part of most skills training programmes, since everyone in the rural areas cultivates land and could get higher and/or better yields, to improve the nutrition of their families and to increase their income.

5.3.3 Other Types of Centres/Education Programmes

Adult Literacy Classes Interestingly, none of the parents or the children reported children attending adult education

classes, although this is apparently fairly common in Rwanda. One of the interviewers noted the scarcity of adult education classes in Gikongoro and Cyangugu Provinces.

OVC Centres, Day and Residential

Parents did not talk about the centres specialising in general support to OVC, unless the children received skills training there. Dora, the elderly widow looking after two teenage orphans, made the sole comment among the interviewees on such programmes, saying that one of her boys was learning 'how to behave, HIV/AIDS prevention, sports… ' and lamenting, 'God knows what the child will do after this programme!' There was no livelihoods training or basic education programme at the centre. It seemed as if Dora was having a battle to keep the two children off the streets. Further observations on these centres will be reserved for Chapter 6, from the children themselves.

5.3.4 Conclusion

Parents and children prized school education as a mechanism for accessing the formal employment market. As a second option, if secondary education was inaccessible, they appreciated the quick-entry, as they perceived it, to cash earnings from livelihoods skills training in CFJs and other LSD centres. It seemed as if the parents' and children's ambitions would be met by those CFJ and centre courses with follow-up programmes which more or less guaranteed future employment.

5.4 ASSISTANCE TO OVC

Parents reported a number of cases of assistance to OVC, to their own children or to others.

- PPPMER[92] pays for the daughter of a very poor farmer in Umutara, in a CFJ near Nyagatare, which would normally charge 10,000 FRw per term.

- The son of Nathalie, the cleaner, a widow with five children, has been identified by a CFJ run by an NGO in Kigali as a child from a very poor family and receives free training.

- The two orphans sheltered by the elderly Dora in Gisenyi are supported by agencies, one at school – including provision of uniform – and the other in a centre offering personal development courses.

- The Umuhoza Centre in Kigali takes the initiative to identify children of poor families in the city and goes to the trouble of visiting the homes of the children to ask the parents for permission for the children to follow a training programme at the Centre.

However, in line with the literature on the subject, the overall impression from hearing parents and community members talk, is that educational assistance to OVC is insufficient and allocated on an ad hoc basis, as detailed in Box 5.5 above. Worse, some social services which are officially free are still not free in practice. Access to assistance

[92] PPMER (Projet pour la Promotion des Petites et Moyennes Entreprises Rurales) is a government programme targeted at the higher rather than the lower levels of rural enterprise development but includes sponsorship of some CFJ students.

may depend on what you know about the system, how much confidence and energy you have to engage local authorities, and who you know. The senior civil servant in Butare knows how to access information and take full advantage of the system to benefit her protégée. In contrast, the lonely Gisenyi mother with nine children and a handicapped husband, exhausted the 'hoops' of the administration some years ago with no luck, and is now resigned to the fact that none of her children will get access to LSD, not even the orphan in the household. While one woman succeeds for her one charge, the other gets nothing for her nine children in her household. Then there is a case of misuse of funding and inequitable distribution of CFJ places, which permitted a boy to do two CFJ courses, while many children do not get a chance of attending one course. Organisations and funds are restricted to specific target groups: the members of one church, the survivors of genocide, the inhabitants of one district. To Rwanda's credit, there is now a move afoot to treat people according to need rather than according to the causes of their need, such as HIV/AIDS, or according to their social group affiliation.

The bottom line in this discussion, and in reviewing opinions expressed to the research team, is that unless the PRSP reaches down and fast to rural populations and, most particularly, to the poorest of the poor, as its name would imply, there is not likely to be an improvement in the lives of OVC. Very low income households need targetted and intensive support in order to lift them out of the cycle of poverty, coupled by sustained programmes to ensure they maintain progress, before graduating such families onto microfinance programmes.

In terms of OVC and access to schooling, the present study has updated understanding on the cost issues facing households *from those household perspectives*, in the fee-free post 2003/4 era. There is the stark reality of the eight issues spelled out by the parents (Sect. 5.2.3) and the ten current causes they cite which exclude children from school. Fee-free schooling is not enough. It is a major first step in pro-poor policy enactment, but needs to be coupled with special financial and other supportive programmes run by sister ministries, targeting the families of OVC and the separated children.

Given negative experiences in the past on the part of many poor families in seeking for support, and their subsequent hesitation in applying for assistance, the state can no longer depend on OVC and poor families coming forward. It will take a new strategic tactic to find them. The authorities will have to become proactive in searching for OVC and in designating families in the category of 'poorest of the poor', District officials may operate in tandem with NGO partners or churches or community based organisations. The important thing is for the district to set up the mechanism at sector, cell and *nyumbakumi* levels, to designate the actors who will play this role and to supervise the exercise. It implies organising an annual census, to identify indigent families, separated individuals and OVC. It also means instituting checks so as to ensure that the identification exercise is being run transparently, without corruption. And it requires a gentle and empathetic approach, not an intrusive or aggressive one.

This report agrees with the insightful businessmen interviewed, who are calling for support at family level.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations listed below are gathered from this chapter, summarised and re-ordered.

Box 5.7

PROGRAMMES TO EFFECTIVELY TARGET OVC

PROGRAMMES TARGETTING OVC AT FAMILY LEVEL

In relation to schooling: Poor families need **stipends** if they are to forgo the labour of

	their children, and if children are to remain regularly in class or in centres during the entire school year. The stipends would be designated for (a) family upkeep and/or food; (b) to direct expenses incurred by the schoolchildren in the family, for clothing, essential writing materials and textbooks, and school levies; and for alternative basic education for 10-12 year old children; and (c) for transport, if necessary.
In relation to the family's income generating ability:	(a) **Initial grants** to capitalise the household should be converted, at a later stage, into access to **microfinance**. (b) Able adults in the family and older children should be offered **LSD training, including general education components.**

PROGRAMMES TARGETTING SEPARATED CHILDREN

To eliminate children's work, the separated children need to be supported by **a broad programme**, such as the Gitarama OVC programmes: identified, grouped, assisted to increase family/group earnings, to live better, and to go to school/education centres. They will also be provided with a variety of **goods in kind**, such as food, clothes, agricultural implements, school materials. In essence, this broad type of programme is the equivalent of a stipend but little cash can be given direct to (separated) children. The programme will depend on the **proximity of NGOs and *nkundabana* and *ababyeyi b'umutima***, voluntary neighbours acting as advisors, mentors and monitors, who will assist children to manage their households, develop a household budget, and a group/family plan for survival and advancement.

1. Local Authorities:

- **Proactive search for OVCs:** The authorities need to establish a new mechanism to take the initiative in searching out indigent families, separated individuals and OVC, in order to effectively allocate support to them. The registration of OVCs has yet to be done in a comprehensive manner, cell by cell.

- **New messages:** The sensitisation programmes so common in Rwanda need to focus on *retaining children in* primary school, since the battle for enrolment is almost won. Coupled with this, it is important to explain to parents that children will not be functionally literate and maintain their literacy skills until they have completed primary school.

- **Targetted programmes to increase school retention.** Campaigns to increase retention need to be targetted at specific groups and individuals:
  - separated children
  - large families;
  - the poorest families;
  - families with a history of drop out, in order to break the negative family cycle;
  - families with marital problems;
  - parents with children in first and fifth grade; P1 and P5 teachers

- **Paternal role:** It has to be impressed on fathers that they have a pivotal role to play in ensuring that their children stay in school, while simultaneously empowering women to take more control in the home and in society, and while supporting diverse newly emerging family structures.

- **Improve the social environment for children:** Eliminate corporal punishment in the homes through a series of gradual programmes, possibly working through the churches.

2. Schools:

2a. Dealing with direct costs:

- **Levies**: Private initiative and parental contributions to schools should not be discouraged. However, district officials must ensure that poor parents and OVC are identified by the PTAs and provided with stipends to cover levies and other essential items.

- **Uniform**: The authorities must wage a campaign to change attitudes towards uniform, or lack of it. NGOs should be stopped from giving (noncompulsory) uniform and should provide various items of clothing/material instead. Children from middle income families and above should stop wearing uniform.

- **Provision of essential learning materials:** Some special state programmes and NGO programmes should focus on providing OVC (in the home, not in the school) with exercise books and writing materials, and also textbooks, in order to give OVC a special advantage. The same parameters should apply as for emergency programmes: provision of essential items only.

2b. Dealing with opportunity costs:

The opportunity costs of education will not go away and need to be addressed by the Local Authorities (see the recommendations above).

2c. *Other school related recommendations:*

- **Reducing failure:** To counter the culture of failure:
  (a) Develop a culture of success: recognise cycle completion, give awards, acknowledgement, praise.
  (b) Give all pupils primary school completion certificates and primary leaving public examination certificates, with grading levels such as A to E.
  (c) Provide programmes countrywide for out-of-school children.

- **Performance and large classes:** Reduce the size of classes and, in the interim, give special support to teachers who currently have large classes.

- **Secondary school:** Access to secondary school must become a legitimate hope for many primary children. This will mean reducing secondary costs and making more bursaries available, together with distance secondary courses. The expansion of ESIs – day junior secondary schools - are a step in the right direction in cost reduction and bringing secondary schools nearer the home.

3. Teachers:

- **Teacher provision:** Since many levies go to paying more teachers and topping up the salaries current teachers, the state needs to provide more teachers, and to improve their working conditions with the aid of the community.

- **Teachers with large classes:** Teachers with large classes need special support, skills upgrading, materials, and recognition.

- **Teacher-pupil relationships:** Positive interpersonal relations between teachers and children must be encouraged in school, together with the elimination of corporal punishment.

4. LSD Centres:

- **Disseminate correct information:** It will be important for CFJs to ensure that parents understand the CFJ orientation to the world of work and get parents to support this aim.

- **Agricultural skills training:** Agricultural/animal husbandry skills training should be a component of most livelihoods skills training programmes given widespread farming across the country and the poor yields currently produced.

- **Diversify CFJ programmes:** The 106 CFJs proposed, for every district in Rwanda, need to plan their programmes to reflect the absorption capacity of the employment market per district; and to address the high demand for illiterate or neo-literate trainees.

- **Family planning, sexual and reproductive health programmes:** There is need to focus on these all-encompassing programmes rather than narrow health interventions such as simple HIV prevention programmes, so as to focus on the notion of personal decision-making, and to reduce the incidence of large families.

- **Allocate state funds to LSD centres:** Increase and share CFJ funding with LSD centres, according to local demand and demonstrated effectiveness in procuring employment for graduates.

6.0 OVC PERSPECTIVES ON THEIR EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 presented the perspectives of parents and other adults in the community on the factors pulling children out of school. The current chapter focuses on children's perspectives, and the situation of the children once they are out of school: their hopes, fears and life aspirations, their coping strategies; their attitudes towards formal education and their efforts to return to school, if any; their attitudes towards skills training and the mechanisms they use for accessing training. In this chapter it is the children themselves who speak. Theirs is, altogether, a more harsh reality than most of the parents and adults described it.

The structure of the present chapter is as follows. The first section introduces the sample of child respondents (Sect. 6.1). Next, a short overview of some of the issues raised by the children is presented (Sect. 6.2). This is followed by the children's voices, direct quotations, describing their life aspirations, their interest in education, their interest in livelihoods skills development (LSD), and their strategies for entering the world of work (Sects. 6.3 and 6.4). Recommendations for future action are embedded in the narrative text, and then collected and re-ordered at the end of the chapter (Sect. 6.5).

6.1.1 Overall Description of the OVC Sample

Four national interviewers had three days in each province and, in addition to interviewing children, were also interviewing parents, community opinion leaders and local authorities, and visiting skills training centres. The interviewees were selected spontaneously, not in a random scientific manner, due to (a) the brief duration of the fieldwork and (b) the numbers involved.

The sample totalled 82 out-of school OVC respondents, listed in Appendix D:

- 60 children, that is, persons of 17 years and below, of 11-17 years
- 22 young people, mainly 18-21 years

  Of the 22, seven were over 21 years, including one of 32 and one of 37 years.

Purposively, all the children interviewed were out of school – never-schooled or had dropped out of school – except one double orphan who was currently attending school, sponsored by the residential centre which housed him. The reader may judge how well the final sample reflected the population of children out of school in Rwanda and their circumstances, and the extent to which the sample focused on the educational needs of OVC.

- *Orphans*: There were eight maternal orphans in the total sample and 16 paternal orphans. Double orphans numbered 26. A total of 50 orphans among the 82 respondents.

- *Child-headed families:* Total seven: five of the interviewees were children heading families; one CHH head, 18 years old; one was a member of a child-headed family

- *Two-parent families:* 32 interviewees had two living parents, many of whom had been abandoned or did not live at home; some were in polygamous families with

problems. Many complained of alcoholism in the family. Three of the children had parents in prison

- *Children with disabilities:* Three children had disabilities, one with a mental disability, a second with mental and physical disabilities, and the third child was deaf.

- *Occupations:*

. Casual workers in the streets, in agriculture, livestock herding and fishing (N= 36)
. Domestic workers (N= 15)
  . Children with access to centres (29)
  . Others: two, over 21 years, with recognisable jobs; three with disabilities and at home; one at home, reportedly with no work.

The team included compassionate and insightful interviewers. They were encouraged to write their observations and recommendations at the end of the interview questionnaire.

6.1.2 Education History of the Children and Young People in the Sample

Orphanhood and schooling: Orphans in the sample had had less years in school than children with two living parents, were more likely to have dropped out of the primary school cycle and to have failed to access a training centre. The 12 never-schooled children in the sample were almost all orphans, mainly double orphans and two were children with disabilities. None of the seven children in the sample in child-headed households (CHH) had completed primary school. Drop-out from school seemed to be immediate for many children after the death of a parent. The death of the father, the principal cash earner of the family, generally resulted in lack of money for school expenses. In the case of maternal death, older girls could be pulled out of school to play the mother's role in the household. Sons also found their domestic chores significantly increased. The hunger level could rise in the family.

Age and its relevance to schooling*:* Children who had never enrolled in school, or who had dropped out during or after P1 or P2 were of the following ages:

. The never-schooled children ranged from 14-17 years
. Children who had dropped out during or after P1 were 11-17 years
. Children who had dropped out during or after P2 were 13-17 years

This confirms the situation observed in the field, where many of the children out of school are now beyond primary age and where Catch-up classes will need to take account of *older* rather than *younger* children in future, reformulating their programmes accordingly.

The 22 young adults in the sample over 17 years, presented a different picture: 12 had completed the primary cycle. The older the respondents were, the more likely it was that they had completed primary school. In fact, all those 21 years and over in the sample had finished primary school. In the current sample, the younger respondents were therefore those who had experienced the most disruption in their schooling. Looked at in a positive light, this presents an opportunity for providing education to them while still young, instead of counting them a lost generation to schooling and turning exclusively to skills training.

Children with disabilities, and schooling: Of the three children with disabilities, two had never been enrolled in school and one was asked to leave school during the first year.

The findings of this study confirm those noted above, that orphans are less likely than other children to be in school and that children with disabilities are almost never enrolled in school.

6.2 LIFE ASPIRATIONS OF OVC

To give the reader an impression of the variety of life circumstances and views encountered, a sample of the life aspirations of the children interviewed are presented below. They range from the goal of participating in society in some pro-active way, to merely surviving. Gashumba's hopes and determination shone out among those interviewed. He is 15 years old and works as a tea picker. Amazingly, he is able to see beyond his immediate circumstances: 'I want to be useful to myself, to my family and to society'. He says his two parents are alcoholics and he has never been to school. But he aspires to be a mechanic, somehow, some day. The interviewer commented: 'here is a soul to be saved', in the sense of the boy's need to be advised on training options and the strategies to access them. Agnès is 17 years old, sheltered by a poor family, friends of her late parents who kindly give her 1,500 FRw a month in return for her help in the house: 'I want to break out of this narrow life I lead now and be useful to society', she says disarmingly. She has only done one year in school but her hopes remain high.

6.2.1 Narrowing Horizons - Giving Up the Struggle

Some young people have no ambition and no confidence in themselves. Life has beaten it out of them (Box 6.1). Others are simply overburdened with family cares, even at a very tender age.

Box 6.1
Thomas has given up

Thomas is now 18 years old, with three years schooling behind him He works as a casual porter at the Byumba taxi station, a provincial town in the north. On first impressions he seems satisfied. 'This is the sort of work I am capable of. I get immediate cash and I am well paid [400F per day or about 10,000 FRw per mth] and so I am able to survive'. His uncle, who is also a market porter, had suggested the work, and Thomas feels good about the encouragement from this older man. Another picture emerges, however, when Thomas is asked if he would ever think of continuing his education. Tears course down his cheeks: 'I am incapable of learning anything now. There is no centre that would ever accept me for an educational programme'. Thomas has two parents living and could be considered more fortunate than some, but he has given up the unequal struggle to better himself.

. Vincent, who grills meat at the market every day in Byumba, rationalises his job to himself: 'It doesn't take much arithmetic to do this job, you don't have to know French, and it's not a difficult job'. He is content, for the time being, to remain in this job.

. Dieudonné who is 18 years old and has completed primary school is now a casual labourer in the tea plantations: 'This is the sort of work that I deserve', he says doggedly, probably referring to the fact that he has no secondary school qualifications, 'and the 1,000 FRw or more that I earn every month is a lot for me'. He has no intention of getting any more education or looking for a training course. He remembers his teachers as being very harsh at school.

. Agnetta, a double orphan, now 17, who has recently been taken in as a maid in the house of her parents' friends, is grateful for the meagre 1,500 FRw per mth she is given in addition to board and lodging. She did one year in primary school and has never thought of getting more education. She says that her only hope in life is to catch up with her peers by getting married and having children since 'the other girls of my age all have one or two children already'.

. Robert, a fisherboy of 15 years from Gashora, only went as far as third grade in school. He cannot see how he could even think of going to school again until his father is released from prison. Right now, he focuses on getting enough hours of the day for fishing, looking after his mother and caring for his father in prison.

. Olive, a street girl from Gisenyi, is pregnant at 15 years, supported by a non-residential rehabilitation centre at present. She expects to be fully responsible for her baby and realises that this will mean limiting herself to some training or work which she can do while looking after the baby. She understands that her options have narrowed considerably as a result of the pregnancy. 'It was an accident', she explains, 'it was not the fault of my boyfriend'. Olive's vulnerability is apparent, her courage also.

6.2.2 Surviving, Unpaid Work and Family Work

The children on the streets are thin, suffering from stunted growth, looking at least three years younger than they really are, due to malnutrition and the conditions they live in. Earnings ranged from 3,5000 FRw upwards, with several children earning under 5,000 FRw per month, as reported in this study (Table 6.1). Child agricultural casual workers also earned a pittance, with the lowest earnings reported to be 1,000 FRw. Child domestic workers earn the least but are fed and lodged in the employers' houses. Two cases reported earn no cash at all.

Table 6.1 Children's Monthly Earnings

	Street earnings	Agricultural labour	Domestic work
Monthly average earnings	6,700	5,700	2,715
Range of earnings	3,500-16,800	1,000-14,400	1,500-5,000
N cases with data reported	14	14	14
Other benefits	0	0	Workers housed and fed

. Ornella, a double orphan, is an unpaid domestic worker, 16 years old: 'It's a bad life that I lead. I am not paid for the work I do but my employer feeds and shelters me, and buys my clothes. Apart from that I get nothing. No – I don't have any plans for the future. If I went to a training course, or back to school, I might be chased away from this house'. Ornella had reached fourth grade in school some years earlier.

. Rose Marie is only 13, a double orphan, fostered by a family for whom she works in the house and in the fields. 'I have never been to school', she says. She reasons: 'All this is because I don't have any parents'.

. Uwera has never been to school. At 16 years, she is content to be in the house of a good employer, as a domestic worker: 'I am happy to be in her house, and she encourages me a lot'. Her horizons are limited to the satisfaction she gets from earning 4,000 FRw per month, being able to give some money to her sickly mother and buying herself essential clothes.

Most children work for pay. Those with one or two parents hand it over willingly to the family, happy to contribute to the family coffer. These children have a highly developed sense of responsibility and are continually searching for ways of helping their family more, of paying for the school fees of younger siblings, and so on.

6.3 OVC ATTITUDES TOWARDS EDUCATION

None of the children in the sample who head or are a member of child-headed households (CHH) have completed primary school. This highlights the acute problem for this category of children in getting to school and staying there.

6.3.1 Positive Attitudes Towards Schooling

Some children are highly motivated to return to school. All have a high regard for schooling and those who have dropped out of secondary school are in the most distress. Some children have developed strategies for re-entry and ways of finding school fees. These cases are reported below.

The Will to Return to School: Despite the generally very difficult circumstances and waning ambition in some children, many of the OVC were keenly interested in going back to school and continuing their education. Most of the younger out-of-school children in the sample – of 12 or 13 years – still have a yearning to go back to school. They are simply not ready to give up the struggle for education and go for skills training. They feel they are owed an education, even if they are not explicitly aware of the concept of children's rights to education.

. Nizeyimana, at 13 years, analyses things this way: 'We street children are children like any others and one day the Government should remember us and give us school places'.

. Mazimpaka is 12 years old. He has only done one year at school and now finds himself in the streets of Butare, the university town of Rwanda, working as a porter. 'I must go back to school and prepare myself for the future. I need a good future,' he says,' I can't stay in the street all my life'.

. Olivier, a double orphan, a bicycle taxiboy in Byumba, said firmly: 'I want to live better, like those people who have gone to school'.

. Uzaribara, a fisherboy of 17 years, who has never been to school, says simply: 'I can't read or write'. And, as I get older I realise that this is like a second death [after that first death of my parents]. I must learn to read and write and then I would like to attend a skills training programme. I am really determined not to die ignorant'.

Strategies for Re-entry: Some of the older youth interviewed saw skills training as a step to earning, saving, and re-entering an education programme. Elisa is now a domestic worker, earning 5,000 FRw per month, after having failed the primary leaving examination. 'I was just too discouraged to repeat at the time and now I regret it', he said. 'I kept on thinking how poor I was, and that my clothes were not good enough. But now, with my earnings, I have managed to save enough to go back to school'.

Finding the Funds: At 17 years, Claudeta has just realised that she has a last trump card to play. Eligible for FARG funding, she could apply for assistance. However, it is for the two last years in primary school that she needs assistance, not secondary school, which is normally the target for FARG bursaries. And, she muses, even if she managed to get FARG support for school she would need accommodation and food from somewhere. Claudeta is wondering where to turn and evidently needs advice. She is a paternal orphan. After the remarriage of her mother, her new stepfather told her to leave the house. Her only refuge was a family who agreed to take her in, in return for domestic work. Claudeta earns no salary at all. She was evidently relieved just to find a roof over her head. Now she realises that when she was at primary school, coming fourth regularly in class (which would have numbered 70-80 children) was no guarantee that the teachers would notice her or that the school would make an effort to find fees (100F at that time) and writing materials for her. She wishes she had made that extra effort and come first in class. She does not see herself ready for skills training at this stage.

The Distress of Drop-out: 'When I see children of my age going to school, said Angélique haltingly, as she told her tale, 'I weep. Now I have no future at all! And what will I do if I have no knowledge at all!' The rare children who get as far as secondary school are even more distressed than primary drop-outs when they do not complete their education. Béata laments that, as a Hutu, she cannot benefit from FARG educational support and she knows no way of finding school fees. In her case she was forced out of school by an increase in the fees two years previously and finds herself working as a casual tea plantation picker, like any illiterate agricultural worker, earning a maximum of 280 FRw a day.

Faith in a Better Future: All the children and young people currently in training centres want their own future children to go through school, 'from primary to university', they say. It is school that remains the ideal for all children and all parents in Rwanda. No one is 'ignorant' of the benefits, as it sometimes claimed in the literature. All the children now out of school want their children 'to have a better chance in life'. Olive, the pregnant street girl of 15 years, says that her baby must go to school to 'become someone'. Bahati thanks God that he was able to stay in school long enough to learn how to read and write. He thinks that staying in school would be the ideal, but unworkable for him.

It will be important to capitalise on the strong interest that OVC have in education; to follow up on those who have had to drop out, with a view to their re-entering the system once a critical family problem is solved; and to provide alternative basic education programmes in centres outside schools for those who cannot go back to classical formal classrooms. For the drop-out/drop-in cases, a modular primary education programme such as the one designed in Central America, for El Salvador, could be an inspiration for Rwanda, tailored deliberately to irregular attendance.

6.3.2 Negative Attitudes Towards Schooling

Some children can be turned off schooling at a very early age.

. Modeste is only 13 years and had reached second grade. He is not going back to school, even if he could (see Box 6.2). Perhaps it is not the cup and plate that he needs as much as skills training or information and encouragement to get some education and build on the literacy skills he is learning, since he is still young, through alternative programmes.

Box 6.2

Almost Independent at 13 Years

'I do all sorts of work here in Gisenyi Town: I am a street porter, I mend shoes. I look around for work all the time and I earn good money. Sometimes I go back to my older brother's place where I am staying in Gisenyi with 2,000 FRw to give the family. I don't want to go back to school because I think I'm too old for that. I earn good money, 300F a day. My aim is to go back to my home district and live in the house my parents left me. These days, I go to a street children's centre in Gisenyi, two hours a day, where they teach us to read and write. They give us a cup, plate, saucepan, and other things, and that helps a lot'. His aspiration in life is to be a bicycle taximan.

Modeste, 13 yrs, reached second grade, street porter and shoe repairer

. Now that Gaspard, at 17 years, and with only three years of education behind him, has run away to Gikongoro town, he says he has developed a liking for earning money and being his own boss. He compares life in Gikongoro streets with the way he lived in his very remote home in drought-stricken Kaduha District, where he was at the continual beck and call of his widowed mother to help around the house, fetch water, find firewood, look after the livestock and tend the family fields. He has no further interest in general education. He would welcome the chance to train as a mechanic.

There are children who failed in school, have totally lost confidence in themselves, and others who are hesitant to return to school for various reasons.

. Agnès, a 17 year old orphan, is now a maid. She only got as far as first grade and describes what happened: 'I kept on failing and repeating', she says. 'Both my parents are dead, first my father, and then my mother, who was a prostitute. She died of HIV'. Agnès is not interested in education but would like to attend a training course, if she could, in tailoring or cookery.

. Others fear they will not be socially acceptable in school due to their social status or shabby appearance, like Elisa, quoted above.

. Although Juliette, a Batwa girl, would like to finish her primary education, she is reluctant to go to the nearby Catch-up class since she says people of that area do not like her people. At school she was 'often beaten for nothing at all by the teachers, and insulted'. But she insists that she wants to continue with her education: 'I refused when my parents wanted me to marry,' says the 15 year old girl, 'and that proves that I am serious about schooling'. She thinks that she could save something regularly from the 500 FRw that she earns daily and put it towards 'various costs, uniform, and exercise books'.

. Others think they are too old for school. The idea of sitting in a classroom with young children does not appeal to Halima, an orphan of 19 years, who had reached fifth grade. 'The children would laugh at me since I am old'. She is resigned to the one year catering course she is now doing in a training centre. Until Rwanda provides general education opportunities in an environment outside school, there will be many teenagers who fail to complete their basic education.

. Béa, a paternal orphan at 16 years, also feels too old to go back to school but for other reasons. She had reached third grade. 'I am so behind now', she says 'and I've forgotten almost everything I learnt. My duty is to help my family – I can't abandon them.' Her mind is fixed on continuing to work in order to feed her family and she has little energy, interest or information for thinking of anything else.

Practical problems are facing Mungini and Olive, the pregnant girl quoted above.

. Mungini, a paternal orphan of 14 years, would go back to school in the *imidugudu*, to third grade, if his mother had a house he could live in. Her tent was stolen. The three children of the family are scattered now, with Mungini and his younger brother on the streets of Gisenyi, while the smallest child is still with his mother.

. Olive has only done first grade at school. She will have no one to leave her baby with if she returns to school. So she has given up the idea of school and decided that she will learn knitting skills.

. Zihunikira is in a similar position. He would have been interested in staying at school but, as a 16 year old paternal orphan in the streets of Gisenyi, trying to help his old mother feed his three younger sisters, he feels that schooling is no longer an option for him.

As time passes, the option of school becomes more and more remote for these children. They need another option.

. Anastase is a victim of the lack of government secondary schools. He did not get a place in a state (affordable) secondary school: 'My parents do not want to pay fees for me in a private secondary school. They say that I'm not going to become president even if I go to school'. 'Passing' the primary leaving examination is dependent on gaining a place in a state secondary school and, in turn, on the availability from year to year, of places available. The examination is competitive, a *concours*, and not a measure of achievement. It has the effect of relegating three quarters of children graduating annually from primary school to the status of 'school failures',[93] especially since no certificates are distributed. 'I am a domestic worker

[93] See the discussion in Section 3.5.5.

now here in Kigali', concluded Anastase. He would dearly like to continue studying but has no plan or strategy to achieve this aim.

As a child from a poor rural family, Eric did well to continue schooling until ninth grade. At that point, he failed the examination and is labelled a failure and a drop-out (see Box 6.3). His words are a sad comment on the relevance of education and on the failure of the curriculum to relate to the economic opportunities in his area. It is clear that Eric's teachers never made school learning relevant to the context of the rice fields or the cement factory, where almost everyone in the area works, and the education authorities have not demonstrated that more years of schooling produces a more effective rice farmer than one with no schooling. A farmer in the area says that illiterate rice farmers can put as much as 3 million FRw (almost USD 6,000) into the bank and that rice growing can yield good returns. In one sense, however, Eric's schooling seems to have stood him in good stead. It is as if it is only this bright student who can make the connection between classroom learning and work. Even if the school did not do it explicitly, Eric himself is able to stand back and analyse his situation, see the positive aspects of the on-the-job learning that he is engaged in and develop practical and achievable world-of-work goals.

Box 6.3

A Failure or an Opportunity?

'I failed my junior secondary examination's says Eric, one of the rare OVCs to have got that far. He is trying to face the reality of the rice fields he now has to work in every day. 'Everything I learned in school is going to be forgotten now. I am not going to think about school any more. What I am learning in my parents' rice fields is what will help me in the future. I will get my own rice fields one day and work for myself'.

When Eric was asked if he thought a vocational training course would be useful he replied: 'What I am learning now is vocational: I am learning how to grow rice and how to manage the business of rice farming'.

Eric, 17 yrs, discontinued school after ninth grade, in Bugarama, Cyangugu

It is not recommended that Rwanda schools introduce Business Studies as a subject onto the curriculum, or even practical Agriculture, given the paucity of land available, although agricultural topics should be an integral component of science and applied science curricula. In the light of the experience of practical subjects across the continent in primary and secondary schools, over the last thirty years, this would be the last route to recommend. Instead, it would be useful, first, to embed a message in the curriculum about the rewards of work in the informal sector, and give examples of workers who, by dint of determination and planning, make progress every year. The national press can go a long way towards transmitting such messages and teachers can be trained to pick them up and use them regularly in class. Second, sound basic arithmetical skills constitute a solid foundation for life. But it is important to ensure effective learning of these skills through good quality basic education. Mathematics at both primary and secondary level should include a solid component of applied maths, relevant to work in Rwanda's rural and urban environments. Third, citizenship lessons can include information on further education and training in out-of-school contexts, and practical tips on how to strategise and access these opportunities. Fourth, instead of attempting practical work within the school compound, teachers can bring the experience of the children and the world-of-work of the area into the classroom. They can make frequent reference to it, can get children to relate the work they do in their homes and in the fields to the subjects they are learning, ask children to go and observe successful workers during holidays or during out-of-school hours, and even ask children to experiment with doing their home and field work differently, putting some new principles into practice. These incremental steps have never been integrated systematically into a school curriculum in Africa, using effective monitoring and evaluation methods. Yet they are no-cost and doable. and they provide an alternative route to making the curriculum relevant.

6.3.3 The Difference Between a Little Schooling and Completing the Primary Cycle

In general, there is a visible difference between the teenagers in the sample who dropped out of primary school and those who completed the primary cycle. The drop-outs are picking tea or working as porters in the market, or they are domestics. They have no plan

for bettering their lives, and are already beginning to despair. 'I am just doing this work because I can't find anything better to do', many of them say. Nicodème has completed primary school. He runs a public phone and sells phone cards. 'He is clean and organised', remarks the interviewer. He earns between 500 and 1,000 FRw a day and manages to save from his profits to buy goats and hens. He is planning to get into a mechanics training course with his earnings from livestock and poultry rearing. The tailoring instructor, Marie, is a good role model for the girls in her centre. She completed eighth grade in primary school some time ago, graduated from a tailoring course and feels that she is very lucky to have her present job, given what she considers to be her 'low level of education'.

In conclusion, the completion of a school cycle is beneficial to leavers in the world of work and to their self-confidence but Rwanda has to find a way of rewarding the cycle completers, through public acknowledgement, certificates and praise. More education and training opportunities need to be made available to the graduates of every level. Evidently, despite all the hardships of OVC out of school, there are still a surprising number of optimistic and determined youngsters who can be gainfully reached, educated or trained, and saved from despair.

6.3.4 Children with Disabilities and Schooling/LSD

The Ministry of Education is about to carry out a study on the educational needs of children with disabilities, to complement the current study. It is estimated that, in any country, such children would form about 10 per cent of the population. In the developing world and in a post-conflict country, it would be expected that the proportion would be higher than in middle income, stable countries. It should be noted, also, that ten per cent is above the figure of primary age children officially out of school in Rwanda (7 per cent). Yet, observers continually note the total absence of children with disabilities from classrooms in Rwanda. One interviewer in the team, a Rwanda national trained in special education, with experience of at least one other African country, said that she found it extremely difficult to find any disabled children at all while she was in the field. She noted the tendency to hide disabled children from the community and described it as particularly 'extreme' in Rwanda. The cases of Patient, Maddie and Frank, are recounted below.

. Patient, from Kibungo, is 15 years old and has never been to school. 'I am deaf and so I cannot learn', he explained. He is a good worker in the rice plantations, however, and earns as much as 2,500 FRw per month. He says he is able to communicate with his fellow workers and 'they enjoy and accept me'. He has heard of schools for the deaf and would like to go to one. He fears a mainstream school, however, because he thinks the children might tease him. But neither Neither Patient, nor his parents, have any concrete plans for him to go to school.

. Maddie is eleven, with a mental disability. She is reported to behave 'strangely' but Maddie is a cheerful girl. She feels comfortable with her siblings and the community, and thinks they accept her as different but one of them. Her widowed mother has had no guidance on how to deal with her daughter or how to plan for the future.

. Finally, Frank, also eleven years old, has a mental and a physical disability which seem to be the direct result of the circumstances of his birth in 1994, when a bomb went off, wounding the mother's legs. The baby remained for several days without medical attention. The father abandoned his wife and baby. Frank's grandmother has looked after them both since that time. The family does not know how Frank can be educated since they judge him to be unable to cope with ordinary school. They have had no advice on what can be done for him in terms of education and they cannot pay for a private special school. The interviewer noted that the family does not hide Frank away as some families do with disabled children, and the result is positive for the child.

None of the families have thought of skills training in the future for their children, not realising that Frank and Maddie can also become viable income earners.

6.3.5 Other General Education Programmes

Literacy Classes: One sole respondent among the 82 cases of children out of school attended a literacy centre. Unlike the CARE International classes in Ruhengeri Province, it was not linked with skills training programme. The Adult Education Department in Kigali says that children of 15 years and over are welcome in their classes, although they point out that the curriculum is adult and not youth oriented. Children as young as 12 years apparently sometimes find their way into the programme.

Alternative Education Programmes: ***None of the remaining 81child/youth respondents had access to out-of-school general education programmes such as accelerated classes, catch-up classes, bridging programmes, extensive or distance programmes. This is a sign of the scarcity of educational and outreach programmes in the country.***

6.4 LIVELIHOODS SKILLS TRAINING

6.4.1 Attitudes Towards Skills Training

The children who have no hope of going back to school are very keen to access skills training so that they can improve their livelihoods. Those that attend LSD centres appreciate their good fortune. However, there are still worries about entering the world of work, as noted below (Sect. 6.4.7). The positive experiences are noted first, followed by the continuing concerns of some of the children.

. Bahati, at 16 years, thanks God that he can at least read and write. He completed four years of schooling. He tries to dismiss any thought of continuing school. He is concentrating on what he is doing now at the Scout Training Centre in Butare, in a four year carpentry course, and forces himself to be content with his lot. Since his family is extremely poor he gets the training free and looks forward to earning 500-1,000 FRw per day when he graduates. He is grateful for this and bends his mind to his work, shutting out any shadow of disappointment or discontent. His minimal level of literacy has opened the door for him to enter the carpentry course which requires some skills of measurement and arithmetical calculations.

. The Umuhoza Centre trainees say they will be content to work at tailoring, restauranteuring, etc., 'for the rest of their lives'. At 28 years, Mathilde is one of the older trainees, having spent several years doing nothing in particular, after finishing seventh grade of primary, and she is delighted now to have focus in her life.

. The tailoring instructor, Marie, is a good role model for the girls in her centre. She completed eighth grade in primary school more than two decades ago, followed by an LSD tailoring course, and feels that she is very lucky to have such a job, given her low level of education.

. Agnès is 17 years, working as a maid. She only got as far as first grade and now would like to do a course in tailoring or cookery. But there is no LSD centre in her area. She is not interested in visiting the Kabuga Youth Centre, because it is 'only music, sports and dance and… nothing like that can be of use to me', she explains. She has grasped the difference between income generating skills training and edutainment programmes for youngsters out of

school and like another youngster in her area can only spare time for a focused skills training course.

Most domestic workers, boys or girls, have no information about training centres: if they exist in their districts, where they are located, or what type of training they offer. The maids with minimal pay, and those not paid at all, see themselves as entirely cornered, without hope of getting any education or skills training; and they are aware that if they opted for a course, they would have to sacrifice not only their job and board, but the roof over their head. As the orphan Marie-Louise puts it, it would mean being 'chased away from work' and losing the only home she has. She gets no pay whatsoever, working from six in the morning until after eight at night. 'I grew up without parents', she says, which may explain why no one is demanding that she gets pay. The foster family she is with saw her through four years of primary school but may have decided to end her schooling at that point. Rose Marie, another maid, who has never been to school, echoes the same sentiment: 'If I went to a training centre, I'd lose my job and I would have nowhere to live'. She ended the interview abruptly. It is amazing that Agnès, cited just above, manages to see further than this, and to hope. But her rescue strategy, her chosen tactic for getting skills training, depends on getting married, and becoming dependent on someone else, a husband. This could present other risks.

There remains the case of Juliette who figured in the previous chapter, through her father's story. Her ambition was to be a national dancer and performer: 'I wanted to be a famous dancer, famous in all the country, and to dance for the rest of my life!' When I was a dancer, everyone had respect for me', she glowed. Pondering a minute she added: 'And it was my plan to be a dance instructor in traditional dance. In future, I would also like my children to be dancers because it is only for their dancing talents that my people, the Batwa' are appreciated', she says. She is now reduced to being a washerwoman and earning 500 FRw a day; and she has no concrete plans strategies for achieving her goal.

Street boys judge auto-mechanics as the most promising route for income earning, followed by carpentry, then masonry. Masonry is reputed to provide employment fastest after training. The boys' dilemma - like the domestic and the agricultural child workers interviewed – is that they must continue to earn income while attending an LSD course.

6.4.2 The Difficulties of Accessing LSD Training

Supply: Not many of the children can find or access training centres. Some areas simply do not have them. Going to a centre 'remains a dream' for the children in Muganza Sector of Bugarama, Cyangugu Province, so they say. Children in such places are worried about their future, with no one to advise them: 'I can't plan anything. I don't know how to get back to school. I don't know who could start a training centre here and our parents are not interested in such things', says 14 year old Alice who completed primary school but now works in the rice plantations. The issue of career advice and information dissemination was noted above.

In other cases – and this is the most common situation – there are insufficient numbers of centres. When he was eight years old, Nizeyimana was abandoned by his widowed mother when she remarried and went to live in Kigali. 'The Government is the only parent I have now. I belong to nobody. Well, I think I really belong to the State,' he reasoned. Left alone in Butare, Nizeyimana took to the streets, and gets jobs carrying loads: 'What I have done so far is go around town trying to find a place in the NGO training centres. But everywhere I go they say they have no more room and that I should come back another time'.

Cost: Even the most modest fees – one centre was quoted in Karuba District, Gikongoro, charging only 1,000 FRw per term – are too expensive for children heading families. This was the case of 15 year old family head Angélique, who has no agency to sponsor her. In a small private

LSD centre in Karuba, there are only six children in a tailoring training centre that has the capacity for ten trainees. The CFJ in Kinyamakara[94] nearby, charging 3,000 FRw, is also underenrolled. When poverty is widespread, people simply cannot pay training fees. It has been recognised by the authorities that the presence of the World Food schools feeding programme is not enough to attract pupils to school. LSD centres generally charge fees. A COOPEC (Coopérative d'Epargne et de Crédit) has been established to encourage microcredit in Kabuga, so that, in future, the community may have funds for paying education and training fees.

Cost versus Labour: Some fee-charging CFJs give skills training in the mornings and have trainees work on the land in the afternoons. However, in one state CFJ in Cyangugu the policy caused 20 of the 70 trainees to drop out in the first year and more in the second year. While this may have been a justifiable way of sustaining the existence of the centre, it seems as if the principle was not explained to the trainees, the budget not discussed, and the trainees did not understand the strategy for running the centre.[95] A few training centres, such as the Scout Training Centre in Butare, have succeeded in running a production unit, which sells the trainees' products. The profits are put back into the Centre and are used to purchase supplies, in order to ensure the sustainability of the Centre, since no fees are charged.

Conflict between Work Hours and Centre Programmes: A number of centres are free. However, this does not diminish the conflict between the chance to access training and opportunity/survival costs, that is, between centre hours and the work hours the trainees must put in, either on the streets or in their employers' houses, to earn their food and lodging. This is the case with Dativa attending a tailoring course at an international NGO centre. She is often late in the mornings because of her domestic work, by as much as two hours. The problem of juggling work hours and centre hours was typical of many trainees interviewed. The team was able to observe this in a centre in Kigali, run by a very well intentioned NGO which specifically targets domestic workers. At least half of the children had had their monthly pay reduced as soon as they started at the training centre. Some had to forfeit it entirely. The employers-foster families had continued to accommodate and feed the children but benefited from five or six hours less work daily than before from their charges/employees.

Eligibility: Most of the LSD centres visited during the study require six years of primary schooling as an entry requirement. This was evidently due to the high demand for training. It means, however, that OVCs, the most needy children with the least education, are the least likely to get LSD training.

6.4.3 Nontraditional skills learning

There are cases of non-traditional skills learning among the girls in the sample.

> . Chantal, at 16 years, is from a very poor family that only has one meal a day. She dropped out of school after fourth grade for lack of fees but has braved carpentry training in a CFJ. She is fired with ambition: 'I am going to set up my own workshop by the time I am 20', she announces, 'and be head of the workshop'. She explained that there are only two girls in the carpentry course 'and the boys laugh at us. They call us names like *virago ibishgabo* (girls who have turned into boys) but we shall get

[94] This CFJ is not on the official list of state or private CFJs.
[95] While government CFJs state that they run one year courses, this was one instance of a two-three year programme.

used to it', she says determinedly. 'My parents don't understand me, but I will finish my course'.

. A second one who is breaking with traditions is Sabrina, a married woman of 32 years with a ten year old daughter, who wants to be a driver. Her husband was wounded in the war. FARG is funding her auto-mechanics training at a Kigali state CFJ and she hopes to do a driving course after that.

. Gérardine is 16 years old. She heads her little family of siblings and wants to earn enough money to send one of her sisters to university. She works as a maid for 3,500 FRw a month, but would jump at the chance of becoming a mechanic and a driver. She says that women waste a lot of money on simple car repairs because they don't know how cars work. So she sees a good future as a car mechanic particularly for assisting women car owners. And, she wants to become a driver because she admires women who drive cars. Gérardine has never set foot in school but she seems to have identified a niche career for herself.

. Josée is 15 years old, has finished primary school and is training in masonry at a government CFJ, paying 30,000 FRw fees per term for tuition and boarding. She has seen women building houses and was impressed by this.

Rare girls were also observed in apprenticeships in Ruhengeri carpentry workshops during the visit.

6.4.4 Apprenticeship Training

Unlike Francophone West Africa the tradition of apprenticeship has not translated into a significant characteristic of the modern informal sector in Rwanda. Apprenticeships are not readily available but constitute an important area to be developed.

Children going through three or four years skills training in centres sometimes get weary of the length of these courses and opt out in order to enter apprenticeships, as was the case with Joséphina, noted below (Sect.5.4.7). Masimpaka, at 15 years, having gone as far as seventh grade in secondary school, also has his eye on an apprenticeship in a nearby garage. But he has to wait for his seventeenth birthday which is the minimum entry age. He is marking time as a domestic worker, earning 2,000 FRw per month. The advantage of the apprenticeship is that Masimpaka will pay no fees and that he has been promised a job in the garage at the end of his apprenticeship. Despite the fact that he is an exceptionally bright student, his parents could not sustain the secondary fees and costs. The boy is now totally resigned to leaving school and making the best of what the future holds. It could be argued that his education has given him strategies for survival, for making the best of his circumstances, and a keen sense of realism.

Apprenticeships are valued for the ease of entry into the workplace at the end of the course, for their relatively short duration, and due to the fact that most do not require fees. CARE International has gone further than tap into existing apprenticeships. In Ruhengeri, the organisation has identified some of the best artisans to give structured training to about 20 trainees per workshop, and has provided support to the proprietors to do so, to extend their workshop space and buy more equipment and supplies. The course is free, and provides equipment and supplies to the apprenticeships. They benefit from entering into a real workplace, dealing with real customers, and getting involved with the production of real goods for immediate sale. The instructor-artisans receive a two week orientation at the start of the course and are assisted to produce a curriculum, which is then posted on the wall of the workshop, providing a work plan. CARE organises regular monitoring of the workshops, to ensure the quality of the training. Given the success of the programme so far, and the satisfaction of the proprietor-instructors in their increased production and increased income as a result of the extra labour of

the trainees, the proprietors are looking forward to expanding their businesses and increasing their staff in the near future, seeking out new employees from the pool of graduates. If the purchasing power of the area increases, the employment market should expand.

6.4.5 Residential Centres

Even the children fortunate enough to be taken into residential centres are not free of worry. In the north, the children have seen a well known street children's centre close down in Gisenyi and they all worry what will happen to them if the Kibuye centre they have been moved to closes down also.

. Alexis' parents were both killed 'in the war'. He is now 16 years old, the exceptional child of the total sample of 82 who is being sponsored at primary school. He has reached fourth grade and has two more years to go to complete primary school. When he is not studying, he works with the other boys on the centre *shamba* or allotment, growing maize, carrots and sweet potatoes. He has plans for becoming a mechanic or a driver but he is not acquiring any income generating skills at present. His mind is not at rest: 'I don't know what will become of me if this centre closes. At home everything was destroyed. I don't have a house'.

Eliace, an orphan of 16 years, agrees: 'I'll just have to go back to the street if I can't stay in this centre. I have no family'. It seems that the residential centres are neither getting the children into working groups, nor preparing them for finding work once they have left the centre, or preparing them for finding their own accommodation.

Some children who were in the centre which closed have, understandably, developed a negative attitude to life, and have narrowed their expectations. Most do not even expect to access any training centre in the future. None of the others ever thinks about pursuing education. When asked what they learned in the previous residential centre, they say: 'Nothing much, some French and English and Kinyarwanda'. Like the Kabuga children who have opted not to go to the edutainment centre, these children are keenly aware of the difference between LSD training and other programmes. They say they need LSD programmes that will help them earn an income and give them some financial security.

SACCA (Streets Ahead Children's Centres Association) was a jewel of a centre, tucked away unobtrusively in Kayonza, sheltering 24 street boys. The philosophy behind the project was that hard core street children have been so inured to the terrors of the street, have picked up so many unsociable behaviours, attitudes and values, that it is impossible to turn their lives around unless they are provided with distance from the street and a haven of protection and repose: a new and nurturing environment. The argument is persuasive and a day of observation of SACCA is convincing. The only problem is that funds are not available for Rwanda to take into residence all the children who need this type of programme. SACCA is a very low cost programme, depending on highly qualified international volunteers and reasonably paid, highly committed local personnel. It is not unreplicable. It is merely difficult to replicate. SACCA runs three centres in Kibungo Province, reaching a total of 75 boys. They are housed and fed, given constant and consistent care and affection, and are gradually placed in schools, training centres or apprenticeships, depending on need and preference. In this way SACCA provides a home, a residence and education of skills training for the boys, and even homework tutoring support for them in the afternoons in the centre.

The experience of SACCA on the streets has alerted the organisation to the very different problems faced by street girls, who are mainly prostitutes - on the streets by day and sharing precarious lodgings with other girls at night. In their lodgings, the girls have a measure of protection from the inevitable attacks they would be faced with at night on the

streets. But they and their young children are mortally vulnerable to other dangers, such as beating, sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS. SACCA plans to work with girls and is approaching them as slowly and as carefully as it approached the street boys initially, anxious to understand their situation before devising programmes to address their needs. Informal individual and group meetings are under way, to give the girls a forum for expressing their views, aspirations and needs.

6.4.6 Rehabilitation Centres and Day Centres for Street Children

Children in day rehabilitation centres share the same uncertainty about their future, and even the same uncertainty about the sustainability of the centre, as the children in residential centres. Rehabilitation centres run by local organisations are difficult to sustain. The closure of a second rehabilitation centre - this time in Murambi, Gikongoro Province - was brought to the notice of the study team.

A non-residential rehabilitation centre has contacted Olive, the 15 year old pregnant orphan, and offered her a support and lifeskills programme. She says that in the centre she learns 'how to live and how to avoid prostitution'. She used to trade in second hand clothes but has stopped now, since living on the street brought her problems. The centre gives her 3,500 FRw a month and helps her manage her money. She has no idea what she will do in the future, how she will earn money and what is going to happen to her and her baby. The centre is not in a position to provide skills training.[96]

Despite teaching children some basic literacy and providing an introduction to English, the rehabilitation centres do not seem to orientate the children to the world of work. Zihunikira, at 16 years of age, says he does not how to go about graduating from being a street worker to something more substantial like a driver: 'I don't know how to work this out. I am just a street child. I don't know how to work collaborating with others, although I have heard of young people getting into groups and setting up cooperatives, and I don't know how to find a mechanics course so that I can become a driver', he says.

Street children feel strongly about their shabby appearance, and feel marked out if they cannot dress like other people and shed their visible street identity as *mayibobo* or street urchins. But not all the centres can give them clothes.

In conclusion, the precarious nature of funding, the isolation of the centres and their lack of technical support, impacts on the children they try to support. As UNICEF noted to the team, centres in Kigali are duplicating programmes, leading to higher costs, and failing to benefit from the experience of the better centres and from coordinated action.

6.4.7 Starting Up in the World of Work

From the many interviews it was clear that assistance or follow up from training centres to start up in the world of work is rare.

. Joséphina, who is 17 years old, is atypical in the sample in that she is relatively well educated. She completed eighth grade in secondary school and has already completed two years of a tailoring course. She describes the tribulations of trying to establish a tailoring business with three other CFJ graduates. They have been struggling for three months, using up the meagre capital they have for buying licences, registering their group, investing in one sewing machine and paying monthly rent on their workshop. They are finding it difficult to earn money and have so far managed a maximum of 500 FRw in one day.

. Habib is a maternal orphan. At the young age of 15 years, he has already completed a masonry course at a CFJ. At this point he does not know where he will find work. He says, vaguely, that he will find out where building is going on and go and ask for a job. He does not seem to know, either, how to use a group of young graduate masons as leverage for finding a job.

[96] This is an example of a highly reputable local NGO which finds it impossible to access serious funding. Yet it deals with the most needy OVCs.

. Narcisse heads a family of siblings. He has just reached 18 years. He does not know how he is going to manage when he finishes his masonry course at a state CFJ in Umutara Province. He does not know how to go about finding an employer back home in Kibungo, is not sure if he will join in a group of peer workers and is uncertain about what he can expect to earn. He worries about whether he will be able to earn enough to feed his siblings. FARG has funded two courses for Narcisse, carpentry and then masonry.

. Dativa, the young maid of 17 years, fortunate enough to attend a free NGO tailoring course, has just realised that she will have no sewing machine for starting work once the programme is over. She has not realised that one way to acquire a sewing machine is to hire one. She is rather young to fend for herself in the world of work.

. Trainees at the Umuhoza and Umushindwa Mwiza Centres plan to work in groups after training. It is not explicit how much immediate follow-up or assistance individual trainees or groups may get from their former centres.

. In a Kigali skills training centre targeting domestic workers, the children were worried that in four weeks, at the end of the course, they would have to make a choice between going out into the world with no employment plan, with no capital for acquiring equipment or supplies, with no idea whatsoever of how to set up a workshop or gain clients. They were concerned about losing their lodging and food. Several were planning to request the employer-guardians to renew their previous work agreements, going back to domestic work full time and putting aside their newly acquired training. Street children in a similar situation are ready to branch out and attempt to enter a new field of work, since they have no board or lodging to lose.

These cases present a number of interesting challenges and questions. It is not clear why Narcisse (a) did not find work in carpentry after the first course, (b) why he is being funded a second time by the same organisation, this time in masonry, and (c) why the sponsors have sent him as far as Umutara, when he has responsibilities for his siblings, with no other family members to care for them, in Kibungo. Narcisse could find himself stranded a second time after the masonry course. CFJ expectations, and the aims of the sponsoring agencies could be questioned, in the sense of expecting young 17 year olds to set up businesses on their own, unadvised and unsupported.

Start-up Kits Plus: Until recently several CFJs provided structured follow up as well as start-up kits and help in kind or some capital to their graduates, wherever they worked, even in provinces remote from the original CFJ. There seems to be no more funding for follow up. The CARE International Gitarama programme gives as much support to follow up as to initial training, helps graduating groups of workers with the rent of their premises for the first months, and provides essential equipment and supplies. Amizero Centre (Kibuye) does not give the trainees any assistance after graduation, nor does the Butare Jyambere-CICR or ADPA, Kigali: no start-up kits, supplies or start-up capital. Most NGOs have not budgeted for such expenses, nor fund-raised for this purpose. Several are now thinking about it.

Starting out Groups or as Individual Workers: The group or *association* formula, as they call it in French in Rwanda, is not likely to succeed any better for groups than for individual efforts, without ongoing advice on group dynamics and strategies for working in a group. The Amizero graduates join or choose not to join up together in groups but it is not clear whether they are given any guidance on how to work in groups or how to go about finding work. While young people prefer the idea of setting up in groups – there is surely comfort in being in a group - there is no hard evidence to date on which works best for youngsters, individual or group enterprise, in the absence of follow-up. There is no information on what happens to the groups three years down the line.

Starting a Business or Looking for Employment: The next issue is the assumption that the trainees should set up their own businesses immediately after graduation, individually or in groups. However, in the informal sector, young people normally seek work as casual or permanent employees, rather than imagine that they can establish their own businesses. In many countries in East Africa artisans who have been in employment aim, after some years, to rise to the status of a skilled or master artisan. Once they have reached 30 years they may have the know-how, the capital and the confidence to run their own business. But not all craftspeople become business proprietors. The common career pattern of artisans should be taken into account by training centres in order to effectively assist graduates when they leave the programme. That is, centres need to help graduates find employment rather than risk setting up on their own, with or without equipment and capital.

Exchange: Centres of all types would benefit from a forum for discussing the issue of post-training support to graduates, for the development of guidelines on follow up, for information on follow up options, and for discussion on how recruitment and programme/curriculum policies should be guided by the type of follow up that centres are able to provide.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The NGO skills training centres in the provinces tend to have adult trainees, 18 years and over. In Kigali the students may be a little younger. The CFJs take both adult and child trainees (under 18 years), but CFJs are few in number and there is nowhere else for most adolescents to go in the provinces.

While taking into account the needs and wishes of the younger OVC teens who are out of school, to continue with general education, it is recommended that the catch-up model be extended for all those who express an interest in completing the equivalent of primary education.

Some of this age group are already working and need to increase their income. While Rwanda does not wish to encourage child labour, there is plainly not enough financial support to households or to individual separated children, to provide an alternative. In the interim, to give immediate assistance to these children, they need skills training. There is an urgent need for extending the availability of skills training throughout Rwanda. LSD programmes should provide information on strategies for accessing further general education at a later stage in life; and minimal literacy, on demand. Skills programmes and centres need to be listed and registered, classified, monitored and supported by a specific unit of a ministry, for example, by the CFJ unit recently moved to the Ministry of Education, which to date has only had the responsibility of less than 22 state CFJs and has listed a further number of 27 private CFJs. The unit is planning the development of 79 more centres, one per district, but needs to take on the wider issue skills training in general.

In conclusion, an extensive, structured and coordinated national system of skills training programmes needs to be developed incorporating state and private initiatives, with a view to supporting and facilitating the sector, encouraging diversity, innovation and experimentation, particularly low cost models. It will be important to avoid the bureaucracy or unwarranted state interference.

(a) RECOMMENDATIONS RELEVANT TO SCHOOLS AND GENERAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES (Sect. 6.3)

1. **Basic education and age considerations:** The younger OOS children still want education rather than skills training. This is fortunate since, in terms of personal development, this is what they need.

2. **Children with disabilities:** This is arguably the most neglected group of children out of school. Schools should search out those who can manage mainstream education

and welcome them, adjusting to their needs. Those needing specialist care should be the target of new education policy and provision, involving the total community (especially the school and schoolchildren) in low cost, affordable efforts.

3. **Following-up on Drop-outs:** It will be important for schools to follow up fast on a child who drops out of school, so that a sudden family crisis does not become a permanent barrier to resuming school.

4. **Facilitating DROP-BACK-IN to school programmes:** Given the high rate of school drop out in Rwanda - and the inevitability of family crises provoking (intermittent) drop out - it makes sense to facilitate the child's return to school as fast as possible. This would normally be the function of a subcommittee of the PTA, in conjunction with teachers, and should become a major policy of the Government, enacted at the level of each school.

5. **Modular formal school programmes:** Produce modular school programmes so that children can drop back IN to school without too much disruption after a temporary absence (see El Salvador EDUCO school programmes).

6. **In Schools:**
   - Ensure effective learning of basic arithmetical operations.
   - Include applied mathematics in core primary and secondary mathematics courses.
   - Explore practicable ways of making learning relevant to the immediate environment, without introducing practical/vocational subjects onto the curriculum
   - Apply for Rwanda to join in SACMEQ achievement monitoring programmes, to improve the quality of system monitoring
   - Schools should teach life skills;[97] and provide information on education programmes and skills training programmes in the district.

7. **Acknowledge and reward progress, particularly cycle completion:** Devise ways of publicly lauding progress through school, and of rewarding cycle completion. Rebrand completion as success. Let schools transform the prevailing national culture of failure to one of gain.

8. **Provide a primary leaving examination certificate and completion certificates** for each level of schooling completed, 6^{th}, 9^{th} and 12^{th} grade.

9. **Catch-up target ages:** Develop not only (a) "ten-plus" programmes but (b) mid-teens' programmes and (c) older teens' programmes, since children out of school are getting older.

10. **High demand for out-of-school or beyond-school education programmes:** Alternative education programmes need to be provided outside schools for children over ten years who are unable, or justifiably reluctant, to return to the location of the school: for older children, for children with little time to spare, children with experience of failure, or experience of marginalisation or bad treatment in school.

[97] There is no indication that Rwanda has espoused or has plans to espouse the behaviour-change oriented type of life skills programmes available across the continent and discussed in Rwanda in 2000.

(b) RECOMMENDATIONS RELEVANT TO SKILLS TRAINING (Sect. 6.4)

11. **Advice to OOS children:** The study revealed an urgent need for information dissemination and for personal advice, to help OOS children develop life goals, gain information on education and LSD programmes available, and strategise with their immediate, medium term and long-term education options in mind. Such an exercise could be incorporated into the outreach programmes (Sect. 8.1) and integrated specifically into life skills courses for OVCs.

    Voluntary cell advisors should be trained in helping children increase their earnings, make a personal savings plan and access financial assistance if available.

    The following information needs to be disseminated in each district, at cell level:

    List of types of education programmes in the district, address,
    brief description of the course, entry requirements or qualifications
    duration, indication of programme timing (daily or weekly)
    fees, the type of certificate (if any) that is offered by the programme

    List of skills training opportunities in the district, address,
    brief description of the course, entry requirements or qualifications
    duration, indication of programme timing (daily or weekly),
    fees, the type of certificate (if any) that is offered by the programme

    List of advisors /focal points per cell on nearby education/skills opportunities; advice on selecting an appropriate programme; and strategies for accessing the programme.

12. **Wider goals for youth centres:** Youth centres need to go further than edutainment focusing narrowly on HIV/AIDS prevention. They could develop an advisory centre for life plans, and aim to help children - girls in particular – to develop life goals beyond the necessarily limited aim of marriage and child-bearing, domestic work, casual agricultural work, and so on. This would constitute a full life skills programme.

13. **LSD Centres:**
    - Provide skills training centres; provide more centres per district.
    - Facilitate catchment area recruitment, to lower costs and improve the effectiveness of follow-up programmes.
    - Provide access for diverse levels of entrants, from illiterate to primary leaving levels, designing programmes accordingly.
    - Review fees requirements and trainee labour or production inputs in lieu of part/full payment of fees.

- Provide bursaries and stipends for needy cases; full scholarships for most needy OVCs.
- Ensure full enrolment in training centres, particularly state funded centres.
- Integrate post-training guidance and follow-up into all LSD training programmes; and keep tracer records.
- Give guidance to graduates on finding employment rather than let them risk setting up on their own or in young newly trained groups.

14. **Oversight and coordination of LSD centres** should be located in the new MINEDUC CFJ unit, under NFE, expanding the CFJ into a broader division.

15. **LSD Forum:** Hold a forum to discuss (a) post-training career patterns and (b) post-training guidance and support

16. **Harness the media for the cause of education:** Develop a collaborative relationship with the media for transmitting new messages on education, such as the links between school learning and long-term benefits for rural incomes and small entrepreneurs.

7.0 OUT-OF-SCHOOL EDUCATION CENTRES IN RWANDA

Chapter 7 reports on the centres visited, detailing the types of alternative education programmes observed. Recommendations for the development of three broad programmes are detailed: for primary/secondary catch-up centres, LSD and outreach programmes in Section 7.4. Section 7.5 provides a description and assessment of the Catch-up Programme in MINEDUC.

The mission visited 35 centres during the two weeks field work. They are listed in Appendix G (see also Appendix D listing the children interviewed at centres). Much of the information gathered has been presented through the words of the community and the children in the previous two chapters. The issues will be summarised here. The first point to make is that the children interviewed who had access to CFJs and LSD centres were generally 16 years and over. Children under this age were working, seemingly without access to further education or training. Individual interviews covered 24 children attending centres, four in support centres, other informal and group interviews, and one child with a bursary from a residential centre to a nearby school.

The centre programmes observed by the mission varied in terms of goals, types of target beneficiaries, coverage, content and delivery. Some useful models were noted in the field for extension and replication. A number of highly motivated individuals ensured the continuity of programmes, which were, however, generally poorly and precariously funded, for short time spans, run by a variety of providers: government, local and international NGOs, FBOs and CBOs. There was no collaboration between centres or projects, with the exception of the Catch-up and CFJ systems, nor did they benefit from any coordinating structure. Action was specific, uncoordinated, failing to benefit from the experience of others, and often heroic.

Lists of organisations which proved useful during the study included: (a) the preliminary list being compiled by MINEDUC of agencies supporting the education sector, divided into local (81) and international agencies (35); the (b) UNICEF list of organisations active in education, including sister ministries involved in education and training; (c) the CARE list of NGOs working in education; (d) the Government general listing of NGOs; and (e) the official list of government and private CFJs. The MINEDUC list is the most exhaustive so far, of nearly 120 agencies involved in education. However, it is still preliminary and does not permit final analysis as yet. This would require visits to the approximately 150 organisations that are likely to exist, including local and international initiatives.

7.1 WHAT TYPE OF PROGRAMMES EXIST FOR OVC AND CHILDREN OUT OF SCHOOL?

Currently, the following alternatives to schooling for children in Rwanda, and educational programmes for OVC, include (a) catch-up classes for primary age children; (b) CFJs (centres de formation de la jeunesse) providing vocational training for secondary age children; and (c) various educational, training and support centres in the private and NGO sector. There are, in addition, programmes providing bursaries for children at school. These centres and programmes have been classified below into four types:

Table 7.1: Centre and Education Programme Types

Types of centres/programmes	Activities
A. Centres providing general education programmes:	. Catch up centres, primary/secondary level . Literacy centres
B. Centres for skills training:	. CFJs (centres de formation de la jeunesse) . LSD Centres
C. Centres supporting OVC, without LSD programmes:	. Day or residential centre specialising in support to OVC, multiprogrammes and a nurturing environment
D. Funding mechanisms supporting OVC in school:	. Provision of bursaries to school children, and/or other school materials and expenses

There are two major distinctions to make, between Type A-C programmes and Type D. Types A-C organisations and centres provide education, training or educative support programmes. Type D programmes are, in essence, bursary schemes which fund children in other institutions, schools and education centres and do not run any form of education, training or support programme themselves. Some organisations do both, such as Amizero and ASOFERWA.

❖ EDUCATION PROGRAMMES OUTSIDE THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Type A General Education Programmes

Type A institutions provide general or academic education programmes as contrasted with vocational skills training, Type B. Some offer the equivalent of primary and secondary school courses; some provide accelerated (or extensive) modes of education. Others run initial education programmes, such as literacy classes. Only the literacy classes could be described as widespread at present, and they are not oriented towards children.

Examples of Type A centres:

1. **Literacy centres and programmes**
   . Mamans Sportives runs literacy centres in four provinces,
   . CAURA literacy centres particularly target the Batwa
   . FAWE school, now funded by Government
   . CHILD programme in Ruhengeri, with CARE, provides an initial literacy course, on demand, as a foundation programme for the LSD courses which follow

2. **Accelerated primary programmes** (covering the six year course in less time)
   . MINEDUC catch-up pilot programme, now operating in 4 locations

3. **Outside-school secondary programmes**
   (a) Commercial colleges in towns providing classes/tutorials for mainly adult learners
   (b) Accelerated secondary programmes for young adults and some children under 18 yrs: one known example, CIESPD, Kigali

Children who are out of school can access government literacy centres run by the Adult Education unit. The programmes are geared to adult learners. While officially taking in children from 15 years onwards, the research team was informed that children as young as 12 years are admitted.

It is important to note that accelerated primary programmes number four in total in Rwanda. There is one identified new accelerated junior secondary programme. As an NGO devoted to giving a second chance to OVC and poor adults, CIESPD charges 1,000 FRW per month and gives free places to 40 per cent of the student body. The commercial colleges cater mainly for adults, charging as much as 45,000 FRw per month for classes and are not accessible by aspiring taximen, domestics and office clerks.

Type B Livelihoods Skills Development Programmes

The term livelihoods skills development (LSD) is preferred to vocational education, in order to span a wide range of programmes. They include short courses, modest interventions such as teaching bicycle repair, and longer courses, 6 months to 4 years, teaching more complex skills such as tailoring, running a business, and managing money or group ownership of an enterprise. They are divided into two categories, comprising centres which call themselves CFJs, state or private, which are classical vocational training centres, and LSD centres which are more varied, innovative and flexible, offering courses ranging from those taught in CFJs to more modest and low cost programmes, short and longer courses. It is useful to keep the dichotomous model of centres since, if they were all called CFJs or aspired to be CFJs, there would probably be a tendency to emulate the more formal and costly CFJ model, and Rwanda would lose out on the more exciting, lower cost and more replicable LSD model.

Examples of Type B centres:

1. **CFJs**
   . (a) 22 State, (b) 27 registered and officially listed private CFJs, and (c) other CFJs

2. **LSD training centres**
   . ADPA, Umushumba Mwiza, Giribambe, Amizero, CHILD and YIELD programmes of CARE, Kimisegera, Ihorere Munyarwanda, ASSIST, Umuhoza, Pharm Umbwe Club, ADAP

Type C General Programmes of Support to OVC

The Type C centres, which have been extensively described in the OVC literature, included centres for street children, for orphans and destitute children, for separated children, generally for the most vulnerable of children. There were day centres and residential centres. Due to the efficient tracer programmes, there are only 3,000 children in orphanages today in Rwanda. Residential centres tended to send children to school or to LSD centres during the day. Day centres provided a number of different programmes, ranging from the varied activities in sports and entertainment of Kimisgera Centre in Kigali, and the HIV/AIDS prevention programme through edutainment activities of the Kabuga Youth Centre in the provinces, to more modest activities in smaller centres. The Scouts and Guides programmes reached out across every province, run generally under the churches. They provided week-end and holiday activities for members. Day centres for street children also operated in a number of towns, providing essential support: food, a place to wash, clothes, basic life skills programmes and other educative or training programmes. As noted, children appreciated most any LSD programme that they could access since this meant reducing their dependence on begging, precarious and dangerous street work, meagre agricultural work or exploitative domestic work. The aspects of interest to this study are the educative programmes of the centres which were varied, ad hoc, generally designed by the centres themselves, with little support from professional bodies.

Examples of Type C Programmes/centres:

Programmes :	Right to Play, HIV prevention programmes
Day Centres :	Point d'Ecoute, Association des Scouts au Rwanda, Benyshyaka, Bamporeze, Kimisegera
Residential Centres:	Amizero Centre, SACCA, SOS Rwanda

Other examples (not stated whether day or residential or both): APBES Ishimwe, Mwana Ukundwa, CPAJ (Centre Presbytérien d'Amour des Jeunes), Pinganayi, supported by many international organisations.

❖ BURSARY SCHEMES

Type D – Bursary Schemes

Type A programmes are funding mechanisms, providing bursaries to existing education institutions and centres. They include local and national NGOs, government funds, and government or NGO sector scholarship programmes, and individual sponsors.

Examples:

. FARG (a Government fund supporting genocide survivors at secondary level)
. PPPMER, through the Ministry of Commerce, funds children at CFJs,
. very many local and international NGOs, and churches, support children at primary and/or secondary school, for example, Abadahogora, Amizero, AMUT, AVEGA-AGAHOZO, Bamporeze, Barakabaho, CARITAS, Haguruka, Mwanukundwa, PACFA, Point d'Ecoute, Red Cross Rwanda, SACCA, Tumurere.

These bursaries have been the lifeline of the school system, ensuring that many children stay in school even when orphaned and destitute. There is no record of the numbers of bursaries, children reached and funds involved across the nation. This study did not concern itself with bursary schemes. Some of the Type D organisations are also involved in providing education or training programmes, Types A-C.

7.2 WHICH CHILDREN NEED OUT-OF-SCHOOL EDUCATION/TRAINING?

To very briefly recap on the children who need out-of-school education/training, the numbers and groups of children are summarised below.

(a) The Smaller Group of OVC – Primary Age Children 7-12 years – up to 100,000 children

Given the laudable progress towards UPE in Rwanda there are fewer than 100,000 children of primary age now out of school. However, the drop-out rate is high, at 15 per cent, as reported in Chapter 3. As discussed above, the best strategy is to follow up drop-outs quickly and help them back to school before their absence becomes permanent. Further, a large number of children seem to be absent from school. Local authorities, who would be most likely to minimise the numbers, report absenteeism to be as high as 20 per cent on any one day in some schools. Some areas have had notable success in forcibly pulling truants back into school. MINEDUC will collect attendance rates for the first time in 2005.

(b) The Larger Group of OVC – Adolescents/secondary age children – 600,000 children

With enrolments significantly increasing at primary level, the critical mass of children to be addressed at this point are adolescents and secondary age children, aged 13-17 years. To recap on the 1.3 million secondary age children (13-18 years):[98]

. less than 150,000 (11 per cent) are in the institution designed for them, secondary school
. half a million overage adolescents estimated to be in primary (instead of secondary) school
. 20,000 may be in registered CFJs
. up to 30,000 may attend the remaining CFJs, LSD and support centres

While it would be tidy to have statistics on the numbers of children attending LSD (livelihoods skills development) training and support centres, the numbers would, by all accounts, be infinitesimal. To guess the number of children in 49 CFJs, and other livelihood skills development (LSD) training centres and projects as 50,000, as this study does, is probably to overestimate the total.

. As many as 0.6 million children of secondary age may be currently unreached by education programmes.
. That is, 0.7 children of both primary and secondary age are unreached.

To add the truancy factor would be to reach a total or up to one million children. However, let us work with the figure of 0.7 million for now.

7.3 DESIGNING FUTURE PROGRAMMES TO REACH OVC OUT OF SCHOOL

In order to plan for the future, the promising characteristics of existing programmes will be noted below, so as to ensure that they are incorporated into plans for the future. These include focus on apprenticeships, new profiles of volunteerism and organisational structures.

(a) LSD Focus on Apprenticeships

As noted above, Rwanda has not developed a strong model of apprenticeship in the informal sector. However, apprenticeships exist, and the sector could be expanded and supported.

Model 1. Tapping into the Best Entrepreneurship Expertise in the Area: The experiment of CARE in Ruhengeri is one way of developing opportunities, using the existing expertise, experience and work premises of the most skilled artisans in the rural areas. Not only has this provided training to as many as 50 trainees within a 10 km radius but it has monetarised the enterprises through the monthly cash contribution to the workshop proprietor and provided extra equipment and supplies. It has also resulted in increased production in the workshops. This first model should not be over-used since it could lead to saturation of skilled workers in some zones, that is, to more highly skilled artisans than the locality can employ, but it should be extended and spread across districts and provinces.

Model 2. Mobile instructor programmes: A second model of LSD is recommended: to run mobile instructor programmes. This model is equally low-cost; contributes in a significant way, like the first model, to microenterprise development; and has the advantage of reaching out to a more diverse range of smaller workshops and lower level artisans. It consists of minimally extending the number of existing apprenticeships in each workshop, from 2-3 apprentices to 5 or 6, for example, and providing a regular system of monitoring and fortnightly/weekly meetings run by itinerant instructors, for as many as 20 apprentices and for about 5 artisan-trainers at cell level. The instructors will spend the rest of their time visiting apprentices in training, advising and monitoring at workshop level. In all cases, engaging practising artisans and existing enterprises in LSD training should be accompanied by access to microfinance and even to kick-start grants

[98] As noted in Chapter 3, demographic data available refers to persons 13-18 years and not to children 13-17 years.

permitting the expansion of workshop space, equipment and supplies. Support to microenterprise should be done in partnership with organisations specialised in microfinance and on no account be handled by education focused NGOs.

Experiments may be carried out minimally extending existing enterprises by merely adding one or two apprentices.[99]

(b) Volunteerism

Rwanda has to be commended for continually stretching the capacity of the society for caring for OVC. In the 1990s the campaign *Une famille, un enfant* succeeded in providing homes for almost all the orphans, in foster homes, to the extent that today 37 per cent of Rwandan families shelter orphans. It has since been noted that the monitoring mechanisms to follow up foster children were weak and that exploitation of orphans occurred in many instances. Or it was simply the case that they did not get to school, or benefit from the advantages that other children enjoyed in the family. It is now well documented and appreciated that too much was expected of families which were themselves traumatised or living below the poverty line. A new movement was initiated, selecting volunteer neighbours to watch over child-headed families and other families in need of support. The reports are very positive, from organisations as varied as Red Cross and Food for the Hungry, [100] Care Gitarama support to CHHs, and Bamporeze[101]. The advisor-mentors work an agreed number of hours per week, looking after a specific and manageable number of children or families. They are in turn regularly trained and monitored by NGOs with a strong local presence. An important lesson has been learned: that there needs to be a well structured programme with sound reporting and supervisory mechanisms up and down the system. A second lesson might be that the changing nature of the society needs to be monitored and captured - and the changing nature of government and NGO achievements - so that new approaches that work and old approaches that no longer work, are identified.

(c) NGO Experience with Supervision and Monitoring

Both the instances of apprenticeship training and of positive mentoring experiences, highlight a third factor, namely new success in supervisory practices within NGO structures, which were missing from the previous MINALOC interventions for OVC at grassroots level. It is strongly recommended that these new structures be thoroughly documented and understood, before being incorporated into future government and NGO programmes nationwide. This is also the rationale for including a lead NGO or implementing partner (IP) in MINEDUC, under the NFE Director, acting in partnership with programmes to be run under the Ministry, and as a critical member of the Steering Committee proposed in Chapter 8, due to the experience of NGOs with grassroots out-of-school programmes, and with designing structures and monitoring mechanisms at the level of the community that function well.

7.4 TARGETED PROGRAMMING

TYPE A – GENERAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

By 2006, about half of the primary age children out of school, approximately 30,000 will need catch-up programmes:

CATCH-UP CLASSES (CU)

- **Primary** age children: CU, *primary equivalent*,
  Provision for **30,000** children: classes of 30 children:

[99] See the Madagascar UNICEF DESCOL programme.
[100] Veale et al. (2001: xix).
[101] UNICEF, *RAAAP-OVC Rwanda*, Tool 2c Report (2004).

1,000 classes in
333 programmes/centres, attached to 333 primary schools or elsewhere (3 classes each)
1,000 teachers

Start: Note from Chap. 3 the provinces to be targeted: Ruhengeri, then Byumba and Butare, according to the numbers of children in each province, district and cell out of school.

- **Secondary** age children: CU, *primary equivalent*, for one quarter of secondary age children: 0.6 million/ 4 = 150,000 children

  Start with target of **100,000 children**, two thirds of those estimated to need CU
  2,500 classes in
  833 programmes/centres, preferably NOT attached to primary schools (experiment here)
  - near markets, plantations, bus stations, etc., near workplaces of children
  2,500 teachers

  All provinces should be targeted, with priority for districts to be identified from 2005 data on secondary enrolments.

- *Secondary equivalent*, use the CIESPD model, accelerated classes for older children where possible (from 16 years onwards), and distance modes

  Start with experiments in 11 provincial towns, in addition to supporting CIESPD, with
  11 centres
  22 classes (2 classes per centre),
  880 students (40 students per class)
  33 teachers

LITERACY CLASSES

Since literacy classes are widespread, the system should be exploited for children: produce courses targeted at teenagers and separate them out from the adults, wherever possible. The dynamic and relevant courses used in Ruhengeri could be used across the country.

TYPE B – CFJ / LSD PROGRAMMES

CFJs

- Ensure full enrolments in government CFJs, then expand to the 106 envisaged, one per district. Fund raise for CFJ bursaries. Reduce boarding places and rationalize CFJ admissions. Explore a more varied curriculum, flexible short courses and lower cost options.
- Subsidise non-government CFJs, inspect and provide advisory services; demand rigorous standards
- Register other existing CFJs with a view to providing advisory services to them, and funding
- Review overall situation before permitting further CFJ expansion.

LSD CENTRES

- Government funding should be extended to existing LSD centres.
- Government programmes in microfinance and enterprise development (PPPMER, etc.) should coordinate with and be put at the service of existing LSD centres.
- The proposed new LSD unit in MINEDUC, NFE (preferably housed with the CFJ/vocational education unit), needs to coordinate LSC centre development with CFJs.
- The critical issues of time, learning context and location, programme pace, content and institutional structure, noted in Table 4.3, need to be incorporated into programme design.
- LSDs need to experiment with very short courses, lower cost, situated in market places, near bus stations and plantations.
- Prior to admission, they need to examine trainees' availability for the course and help them plan accordingly.

CFJ / LSD FOLLOW-UP PROGRAMMES

Children and adults across the country have noted the effectiveness of centres which prepare graduates carefully for entering the world of work and follow up graduates when they leave the centre. Not all centres will be able to kit graduates out with capital, tools/equipment and supplies. Not all centres will be able to provide the first few months of workshop rent or similar benefits. However, these types of support are welcomed by trainees, in spite of their being, to date, no research on the effectiveness of it.

Second, while it is good for graduates to form groups for mutual support, the viability of setting up new enterprises (in groups) should be weighed against the option of finding employment (individually or in groups).

. All centres can regularly visit graduates to advise them on strategies, once the principle of catchment area recruitment is implemented.

. All centres can encourage graduates to form groups for mutual social support, if not necessarily for the purpose of working together.

. Groups working together in their own new enterprises need training on teamwork and on group dynamics.

Graduates need:

. strategies for finding employment, discussion on aspirations and career plans;

. help to plan their life arrangements once out of the centre or away from their current lodgings;[102]

. training on start-up: on how to find a work location, how to hire equipment they need, how to access microfinance, how to manage loans, etc.

TYPE C - OVC SUPPORT PROGRAMMES

NGOs and churches are providing tremendous support to OVCs across the country. However, the need is overwhelming and the response is patchy, and still uncoordinated. It was reported four years ago that some provinces such as Kibuye, Cyangugu and Umutara were not well covered by NGOs, while Kigali, Gitarama and Butare benefit from the presence of many civil society initiatives.[103] This type of analysis needs annual updating. The interest of this report is in the *educative types* of programmes at present offered to OVCs.

Day and residential centres for OVCs, particularly for double orphans and street children provide the following types of educative programmes:

. Literacy
. Language lessons
. Tutoring to complement schooling
. Sports programmes, games and recreational activities – some show films and videos
. HIV/AIDS prevention programmes, through lectures, discussion and edutainment
. Cultural activities
. Life skills
. Religious instruction, moral training

The centres offering LSD programmes in addition to the above are covered in Type B, above.

[102] See the worries of children in Chapter 6, in domestic employment with dilemmas over future board and lodging arrangements. Centres had in some cases negotiated with employers that children should be admitted to daily LSD courses, but need to help children plan for entry into skilled work afterwards.

[103] Veale et al. (2001: 18).

Children attending day centres were not enthusiastic about the educative programmes listed above, except the sports programmes, and were actively looking for LSD programmes. Children living in the centres did not feel they were progressing in life if they could not access LSD training. Working, needy children in the area who had heard about the programmes said they had no time or wish to attend courses which would not lead to income generation. They all wanted to benefit from LSD courses (Type B). It is possible that the nurturing, care, edutainment and generally educative programmes in the rehabilitation centres benefited the children more than they realised. It is important to note, however, that their urgent desire for skills training needs addressing. Since the support centres are typically very short of funding, mechanisms should be made available to provide sponsorship for these children in nearby LSD centres.

Rwanda will continue to need day and residential support/rehabilitation centres in the future. The work of individuals in these centres cannot be overestimated. The centres are characterised by total devotion of staff and a high level of volunteerism.

The lesson learned in this instance is that future outreach programmes should incorporate a strong element of sports in their programmes and offer a life skills component which will propel children into LSD programmes in the future.

7.5 DESCRIPTION AND ASSESSMENT OF THE CATCH-UP PROGRAMME

By the end of the 1990s it became clear that despite impressive enrolment growth rates in formal schools, there were many overage children who, for diverse reasons, would not be able to go regularly to the classical schools. One major reason was that, having survived the genocide, they and their families took time to adjust, to piece their lives together again, and many were nearing ten years of age by the time they addressed the issue of schooling. While some primary schools accept children over eight years into first grade, others do not. Most schools are already overcrowded. To cater for this potentially lost generation, an alternative education programme was designed by MINEDUC: the Catch-up system, piloted from 2002/3 as the *Cours de Rattrapage* in three sites, in Ruhengeri, Byumba and Gitarama Provinces. A fourth site was approved in the second year of the programme, at Kirambo TTC in Ruhergeri.

> At the end of the second year, the Catch-up Programme had 860 pupils in four pilot centres

7.5.1 Aims and Objectives of the Catch-up Programme

The aim of the Catch-up Programme (CU) was to offer overage, vulnerable children a second chance of basic education and even, for some, and over time, the opportunity of integrating into mainstream formal education. At the time of the finalisation of the programme in 2001/2, 25 per cent of primary age children were still out of school.[104] At the end of this introduction the issue of current need, in 2005, and need for a CU programme over the next ten years, will be revisited.[105]

CU was to offer never-schooled children or drop-outs, aged 9-14 years,[106] an accelerated learning programme of three years, which would provide them with the equivalent of primary six year education. The programme is divided into three levels: Level 1, 2 and 3, which each cover two years of the primary cycle. Many pupils leave at each stage or level and are successfully incorporated into the third and fifth grades of primary school. Many (unrecorded numbers of) new entrants are accepted into Levels 2 and 3 each year.

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[104] MINEDUC (2004: 2).

[105] In 2003/4 there were officially only 7 per cent of this age group still out of school.

[106] 9-14 years is the targeted entry age. (a) This means that some children may be 17 years when they complete the programme. (b) Centres all have exceptional cases in Level 1, some as old as 17 years, who will finish at 19-20 years.

Each centre has four teachers for the four classes that they intend to enrol: two streams for Level 1 and one stream each for the last two levels. Centres normally have two or three classrooms and therefore adopt a shift system, teaching some Levels in the mornings and some in the afternoons, alternating weekly or termly, using the same four teachers working part-time hours. It was intended that classes would have a maximum of 33 pupils, given the need for creating conditions conducive to effective learning. It was anticipated that learners on accelerated courses would need a more supportive context than children in primary school and better quality teaching.

A second concern in the late 1990s was girls' low enrolment levels, which in the northern provinces had not reached parity with boys'. In view of children's daily heavy work load in the family, particularly the work of girls, CU was designed to last only four hours per day, to permit children to participate in family work at other times of the day. Two centres enrolled a majority of girls in 2002. Overall, the CU system included 55 per cent girls.

Care was taken to eliminate direct household costs of education to the CU children, due to the poverty of the potential learners and the aim to include children heads of households in the programme.[107] CU was fee-free, free of levies of any kind and did not require uniform, since it was argued that those who could afford it were already at school. Children were at times requested to buy exercise books and pens, but even these were sometimes provided free through the external funder. CU represented a second chance to the children of the poor to enter or go back to learning. Recruitment in the CU took place once the primary year was underway, to ensure that CU took only older children excluded from the primary schools rather than younger children or middle income families looking for a cheaper, alternative schooling strategy.

UNICEF supported preliminary discussions and plans, and funded a Ministry study tour to Uganda, to observe the COPE NFE accelerated system in place. Further planning in Rwanda included the Ministry of Local Affairs, ActionAid and UNICEF, in addition to the Ministry of Education.

The specific objectives of the programme were listed in 2002 as:

- To provide accelerated basic education for vulnerable children and girls out of school
- To redirect 80% of out-of-school children into the formal education sector
- To assist vulnerable children and children heads of households to earn a living.

The programme strategies included:

a. Provision of a flexible, accelerated education programme
b. Modification of the formal primary curriculum and textbooks to respond to CU children's needs
c. The use of a teaching/learning methodology appropriate for CU children
d. Involvement of the children in programme planning
e. Involvement of parents, 'the authorities' and communities in paying CU instructors' salaries

It has never been clear whether the principal objective is to integrate children into formal education or whether it is to provide them with a full and meaningful programme of education equivalent to the primary school curriculum or both, or whether each are equally acceptable. As the programme expands in the post-pilot phase, the programme needs to clarify this issue and gain more focus.

The Organisational Structure of the Programme: From 2002-5 the programme was administered through a unit under the Directorate of Pre-School and Primary Education, under one part-time officer whose other duties could clash with the priorities of the Catch-up programme in terms of time and attention. The ministry officer dealt directly with the district education officers, the headmasters of the hosting primary schools, and the teachers in the field. This direct link from ministry to teachers may have discouraged district offices from taking a more active role in the

[107] MINEDUC (2004: 9).

centres. The result has been that the teachers and centres depend directly on the faraway central ministry for support, professional advice and physical inputs.

There is no doubt that the programme received genuine moral support from the Ministry. However, no structured plan of ministerial support was available which would have clearly listed the periods and types of support required by the CU programme throughout the annual cycle; nor was there a set of guidelines for the establishment of new programmes. This omission led to the same mistakes being made in the fourth CU site that had initially been made in the first three, namely overenrolment and high drop-out rates.

Further, centres were not learning from each other, despite teachers being gathered regularly in 2004 for teacher development courses. Training focused on teaching methodology and MINEDUC missed the opportunity of upgrading the organisational capacity of the centres. The conclusion is that the organisational structure of CU is weak, from top to bottom, and needs considerable development, expansion and strengthening before a roll-out phase of the programme is started.

7.5.2 Implementation

In terms of programme strategies, noted on the previous page, the first strategy was effectively implemented in that an accelerated programme was designed and piloted in three sites, now starting its third cohort. Flexibility is demonstrated in pupil recruitment patterns, accepting new learners dropping into Levels 2 and 3 of the programme, and in teachers' decisions on the extent of topic coverage. Little else appears flexible. Since CU classes are situated within primary schools, rather than attached to them as separate institutions, the aura of the school permeates the CU. CU classes start and end at the same time as primary lessons, classrooms are identical, although of better physical quality at times than primary classrooms, opening onto the general primary school playground like the other classrooms.[108] The lay-out of the classroom is the same. However, due to teacher development programmes over the last 12 months, there are far more visual aids hanging from the ceilings and pinned to the walls. The CU calendar is the same as the primary school. It has not taken advantage of the school holidays in any way, or of developing its own daily timetable. The latter is a concern in the sense that CU pupils may need a different calendar and daily timetable, particularly as their afternoon shift needs to be as long as four hours, a factor often neglected in the system. The CU weekly alternating schedule of four hours in the morning and 150 mins in the afternoon short-changes all the CU pupils of up to 20 per cent of their learning time every fortnight. The issue of learning time needs to be reviewed.

Curriculum: Curriculum has not been significantly modified. Topics for the CU programme have been listed and this constitutes the CU syllabuses. The ten new curriculum modules for CU Level 2 science teaching are a very recent addition to the teaching aids of CU, implementing the new methodology already incorporated in STE (science and technology education) in the primary subsector but which has, by all accounts, not been implemented due to lack of teacher development. The CU modules are seen as the result of a fresh approach to teacher development for the CU in 2004. However, the first Module for Level 2 does not give the impression of having been produced for an eleven year old or mid-teen adolescent, who are the targets of Level 2. It is written and illustrated like a lower primary textbook and does not make good use of page space. Given that the learner is an adolescent and at the academic level of third/fourth grade, the booklet could have used smaller print per page, far more informative text per page (rather than mixing workbook style, which is page-consuming, and some reference material), illustrations of adolescents rather than children, and could have used the opportunity of producing new learning materials for gender sensitisation.

It has proved too onerous to envisage the production of CU curriculum or materials proper, given the cost and the lack of capacity for innovation. There are no (primary) textbooks in CU classes,

[108] One CU centre has deliberately selected classrooms for CU classes dispersed among the primary school blocks, so as to integrate the CU children even more closely into the primary school.

just as there are almost none in primary schools in general[109] and the sole copy of the (primary school) textbook is in the hands of the teacher. The dearth of textbooks results in the same quandary as in primary schools: the teacher or instructor is forced into wasting time copying textbook content on the blackboard. This constitutes a serous brake on acceleration, on time and capacity for creativity in the CU classroom, and for modifying the primary curriculum to suit CU needs. Given the budget constraints in the future ministry textbook provision exercise, it will be important for the CU system to make its needs known early to MINEDUC in order to benefit from free and sufficient distribution of textbooks in the future.

CU Instructors: Teachers in the programme are trained primary teachers, paid at a markedly higher rate than primary teachers.[110] Due to lack of classrooms teachers have to work in shifts, resulting in a part-time load for teachers per day instead of a full day teaching schedule. It is recommended, below, that the CU system matches number of teachers to the number of classes and classrooms per centre in order to make economic sense of employing full time teachers, or pays teachers according to the part-time hours taught.

Teachers receive two weeks training initially, and further training throughout the year. The teacher development programme was not programmed and this is a major concern fur the future. The CU programme will survive or die depending on the quality of the instructors. Fortunately, training was offered, spontaneously, through ministry sources in the EFA unit, with an exceptional tutor,[111] funded by ad hoc external funds. However, it is not sustainable under current funding mechanisms.

It was a delight to see the result of the CU teacher development programme, which could be described as having covered about half of what needs to be done. CU classrooms were definitely and distinctively different from routine primary classrooms. CU teachers were more alert and enthusiastic than primary teachers, and CU learners were bright-eyed and eager. Lessons were better structured, there was more question-and-answer exchange, there was group work in every lesson, and teaching/learning aids hung from every ceiling and wall, livening up this traditionally resource poor environment that is the classroom across Africa. While the CU methods are becoming more activity oriented, there was still a major gap in that teachers did not relate the lessons they were teaching to daily life, did not ask pupils to identify the application of the lesson to their lives, or to state the way in which the lessons learnt in the classroom were intended to change behaviour outside the classroom, in the home and in the community – and even in the daily life of the CU centre/school. Until this happens education will continue to be irrelevant to learners. Second, there needs to be more attention given to higher order learning. Third, the teacher development sessions concentrated mainly on mathematics and science. There still needs to be a language-oriented component in the training, since language skills often determine learning effectiveness across the curriculum. The short visits during the mission did not allow time for any assessment of impact of the teacher development programme on the humanities or on confidence building which would be one of the gains most relevant to older, unschooled children attending a basic education programme.

Adolescent Girl Learners: One incident during the visit served to highlight the situation of the adolescent girl learners and their unease in a classroom of younger children and of boys. To ensure that girls in the CU centres feel they are in the right place, and feel comfortable in this social environment (within primary schools), special attention may need to be given to their needs. Either attention should be given to their acceptance among the boys, and to building the girls' self-esteem, or separate classes may need to be organised, depending on the numbers involved, to ensure their continued attendance and quality of performance. As noted in many

[109] MINEDUC has already embarked on a long-term programme for providing textbooks to schools. The benefits will be felt very soon in the primary system.

[110] Primary teachers receive 23-25,000 FRw per month (USD 46-50) whereas CU teachers receive 35,000 FRw (USD 70). Teaching experience ranges between 2-20 years. All the CU teachers are paid the same rate.

[111] Teacher training was provided regularly to the very small group of teachers, 12 then 16, by a highly experienced international. It concentrated not specifically on CU needs but on improving the quality and creativity of teaching skills and, it could be argued, on producing exactly the type of teaching in the classroom that the STE (and to some extent the language) innovations had envisaged for the formal primary classroom.

government documents, in Rwanda the adolescent girl requires affirmative education programmes.

Institutional Aspects of CU Centres: With regard to learner and parental participation in CU planning and management, CU centres have no parents' association, nor the planned local monitoring committee.[112] The CU is merged with the primary school for this purpose and the CU learner parents are invited to participate on the same footing as parents of the primary children. No doubt this situation arises from the fact that the headmasters have little time for extra meetings. Given the low participation rates of children in primary school management, the CU suffers from this classical scenario and is likely to receive little attention from the general PTA. It will be important in the future to create a management role for the senior CU teacher, to form a CU parents' association, to involve the learners, who are older than many primary learners, and to involve the local authorities and local leaders. The lack of data collection and analysis at present is only one indicator of the missed opportunity by the CU centres to evolve their own management structures and practices. The challenge in the future will be to retain the support and goodwill of primary headmasters/TTC heads while becoming more independent from and more flexible than these same formal, state institutions. When planning for the roll-out proper of the programme, the CU system will need to gauge the benefits accruing to the centres from their current near-integration within the primary subsector, and to plan to retain those benefits either in a similar institutional form in the future, or to retain them while designing an institutional set-up completely detached or more detached from primary schools.

It must be said that the CU has gained extraordinary assistance from the primary headmasters in terms of classrooms, facilities, attention and good will. In some cases heads have diverted newly received desks and chairs to the CU, some textbooks and other uncounted items. This will present a dilemma for the extension phase of the CU: whether to continue to target help from the primary schools and lose some of the initial flexibility and management autonomy that the programme initially envisaged or whether to strike out on their own, with less help from the mainstream primary system.

In conclusion, it could be argued that the CU programme has benefited from institutional flexibility and that it has evolved as best it could during the three years of the pilot phase, evolving into the near-integrated institution that characterises CU at present.

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS on CENTRES AND PROGRAMMES

7.6.1 Recommendations on the Catch-up Programme

System Management:

- To roll out CU a full time director is needed.
- CU needs a budget commensurate with its role.
- The CU system must develop an EMIS/data collection system, and produce regular statistics and analysis at centre level.
- CU management structures, roles and practices need review, such as the appointment of the senior CU teacher to a managerial role, defining her/his tasks, including the formation of a CU parents' association, involving the learners, local authorities and local leaders; and data collection, analysis and utilisation.
- CU must estimate its textbook needs early in order to benefit in the future from MINEDUC annual distribution of textbooks.

Location:

[112] MINEDUC (2004: 12).

- The CU system needs to determine the advantages and disadvantages of future siting of CU centres within the formal schools (and TTCs).

- Several older children have good reason to shun primary campuses. Several need to save time by having CU centres at their places of work: near markets, bus stations and plantations, and possibly home-CU centres for domestics.

Programme Design:

- Due to the vast numbers of adolescents out of school CU should focus on the older children and develop CU for 3 different age groups (older children do 2-year programmes).

- The critical issues of time, programme length, learning context and location, programme pace, content and institutional structure, noted in Table 4.3, need to be incorporated into programme design.

- Contact time, currently reduced by 20%, will need to be fully restored after the CU pilot phase.

- The CU centre environment and structure must respond to the social needs of the adolescent girls to ensure their full participation in the programme: either (a) to effect increased acceptance among the boys, while building the girls' self-esteem; or (b) by setting up separate classes, depending on the numbers involved.

Teachers:

- CU needs to take advantage of the many teachers released in the early 1990s by the Ministry, now retired, who would accept remuneration that MINEDUC/local authorities could afford, ranging from 15,000 to 20,000 FRw per month; and new secondary untrained graduates who could be bonded to stay in the system three years or more, before being guaranteed a higher status after that time.

- Keep the current trained teachers at current salaries, to take administrative roles in the future.

- A full teacher development programme must be developed to ensure the quality of CU teaching.

- CU teachers should be used effectively across hours, classes and classrooms.

7.6.2 Further Recommendations on LSD Centres

- **Two Model Expansion Pattern**: To expand, LSD centres should experiment with two models of apprenticeship training, Model I, transforming the Best Local Entrepreneurs into part-time official instructors (CARE Ruhengeri) and Mobile II, the Mobile Instructor model.

- **Volunteerism**: The models of **volunteerism** in the community for mentoring OVC on the ground should be replicated in new districts and cells under the supervision of NGOs (eg. the Bamporeze, CARE Gitarama, Red Cross, Food for the Hungry models), and funded by MIGEPROF.

- **Advisory** and **monitoring services** for OVC should be provided by similar NGOs with a strong local presence and proven track record, and be funded by MIGEPROF.

7.7 ENDNOTE

Centres offering educative programmes for OVC and out of school children were described by the community, parents and the children themselves, in the last two chapters, and discussed further in the present chapter. They included centres offering livelihoods skills training (including CFJs); and support or rehabilitation centres. Recommendations were developed and noted at the end of each chapter, and are summarised in Chapter 8.

The political voices of the children in Rwanda strike the observer as distinctive. Street children are more angry in Kigali than in Lomé, Lusaka and Luanda, more aware of their rights and more articulate. Rwandan children were provided with a forum in April 2004 to express their needs for the first time in Rwanda's history, and they spelt out their demands, demonstrating a clear understanding of child rights – among them the right to education. They accused the adult generation not only of bringing the genocide upon Rwanda but of involving children in it as victims and perpetrators. The social literature now talks about the secondary victims of genocide, the legacy of genocide to the children too young to understand what was happening in 1994. These are the children now 0-14 years.

In Kampala, Cotonou and Kinshasa, the street children of the large cities have become more unsociable than those in Kigali, and are more overtly aggressive. But they seem to be resigned to their lot and do not have as high expectations of what government and what the adult world owes them. In those cities they expect to live out their lives on the streets, in the fields, or lost in the obscurity of domestic work. They have little hope of the future and seem to have nowhere to turn for help or for a sympathetic ear. In Kigali this is not the case. The political machine of Rwanda has succeeded in getting the message of child rights out to the children. Many of them have expectations that they will, somehow, get an education. The next and final chapter is a response to these expectations.

8.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 FRAMEWORKS AND CONCEPTUAL DESIGN OF THE PROGRAMME

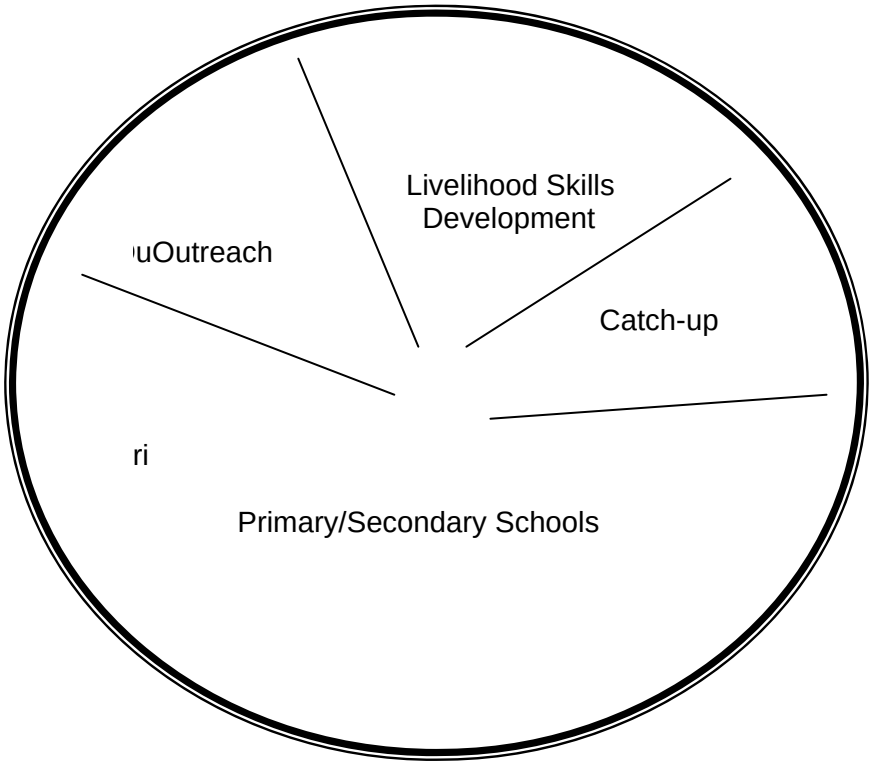
In reviewing the existing structure and provision of education in Rwanda, this report attempts to enrich education opportunities available to children and, specifically, to ensure that the educational needs of OVC are addressed. The current structure of education is retained and extended, with the aim of creating one holistic and unified system, offering diverse opportunities, within the current national planning parameters for achieving UPE and EFA. No changes to existing structures are proposed. Instead, enrichment and increased alternatives are recommended. Fig. 8.1 depicts the education sector for children as encompassing every type of educative activity and reaching out to every child. reso[pnding to a diversity of education needs.

A HOLISTIC EDUCATION SYSTEM

ENCOMPASSING ALL CHILDREN

IN RWANDA

Using alternative modes of education to reach every child, 6-17 years



F ig. 8.1 : A F R A M E W O R K

The framework on the previous page (Fig. 8.1) is expanded and explained in Fig. 8.2 below, indicating that the holistic approach contributes to achieving EFA and UPE, by providing educational programmes for children currently out of school, by complementing school programmes and by drawing more children into school. It has been demonstrated by the Rwanda catch-up pilot programme that children can move from alternative programmes into mainstream schooling. The essence of the system proposed is to:

I - Provide **alternative education opportunities** outside school for orphans and other vulnerable children:

a. Catch-up classes, and other general basic education opportunities

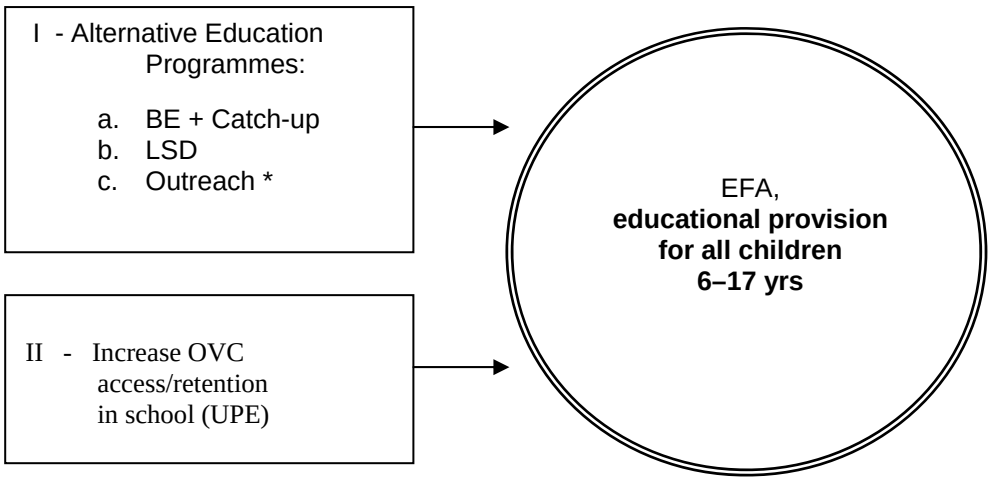
b. Livelihood skills development

c. Outreach programmes

and, at the same time:

II - Increase OVC access to and retention in **schools**, primary and secondary

Fig. 8.2 : The Contribution of an Alternative Education Programme to the Attainment of UPE and EFA



***Overleaf, explanatory notes are provided on outreach programmes. This is followed, in Fig. 3, by a schema illustrating the relationships between schooling (in the left hand column) with the alternative programmes (the circles), and the links between schooling, alternative programmes and the world of work (in the right hand column). The figure also shows how children can move from one programme to another.**

EXPLANATORY NOTES ON OUTREACH

An Alternative Educative Outreach Programme

The Outreach programme will centre around games, sports and fitness, encouraging traditional games alongside modern ones, such as volleyball; lively and entertaining programmes; cultural activities.

Each session will include an educative component: for example, personal development, peace and reconciliation in the community, citizenship education, HIV prevention, early childhood development care, parenting skills.

TWO HOURS PER WEEK OR PER SESSION

- 90 mins sports
- 30 mins educative component

Features of the Outreach Programme:

- **The programme will run is low cost activities, with a trained facilitator.**
- **All out-of-school children in a cell are to be included, 6-17 yrs, sometimes with their schooled peers.**
- **The aim is inclusivity and fun and a feeling of being reached by MINEDUC.**
- **Some insignia are to be worn, for example, coloured scarves, indicating that the child is participating in an educative programme.**
- **The programme can be called: 'the school of the future', or 'the school of peace', or some other appropriate name.***
- **All the children in the programme will be able to say with pride and a feeling of belonging: "I go to school".**
- Outreach children will be encouraged to join LSD or general education programmes, such as catch-up programmes, in time.

***This new 'school of the future' may share its name with the totality of the alternative programmes (alongside the catch-up, alternative general education and LSD programmes), or be specific to the Outreach Programme**

Fig. 8.3 : **Relationships between School, Alternative Education Provision and the World of Work**

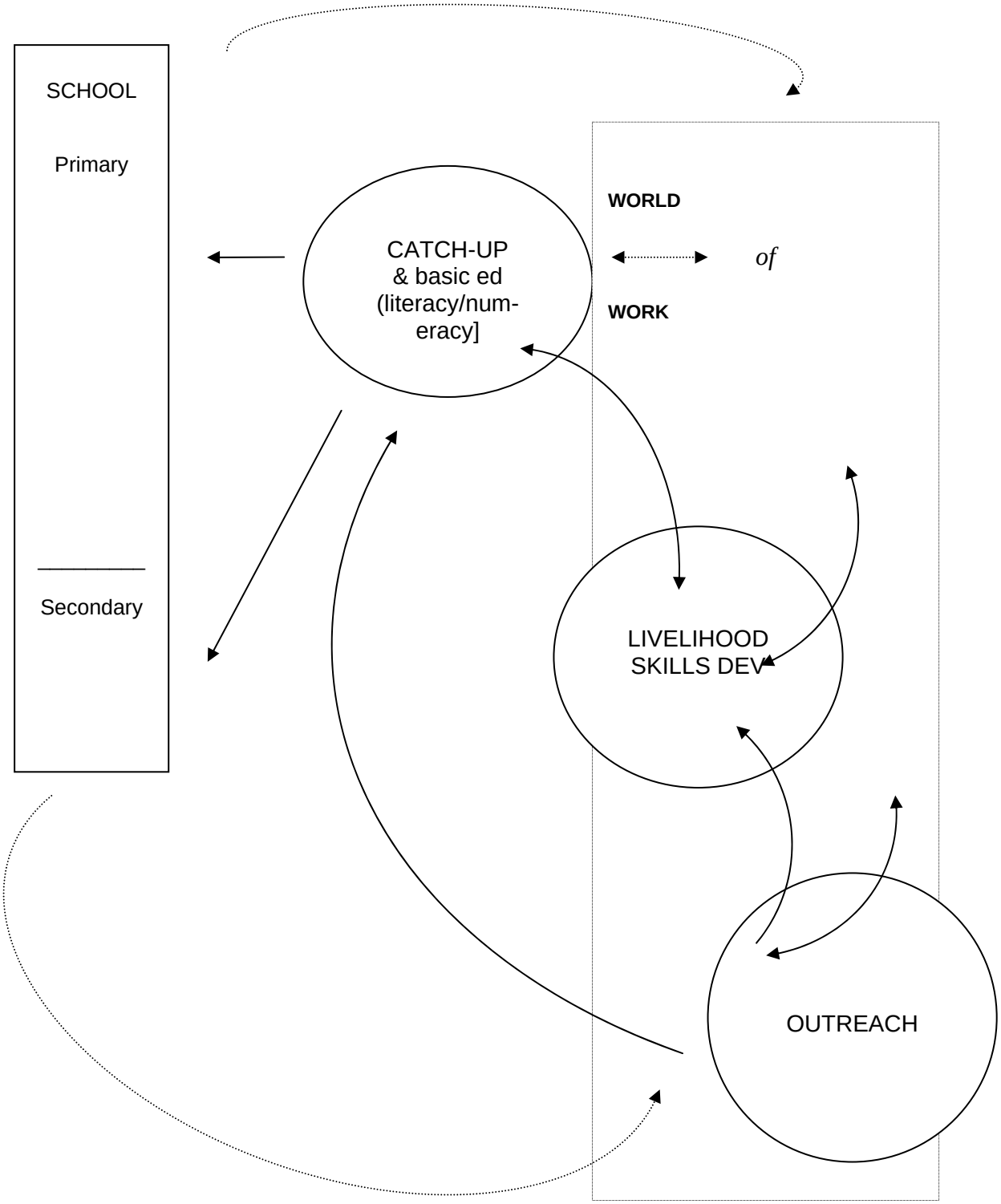
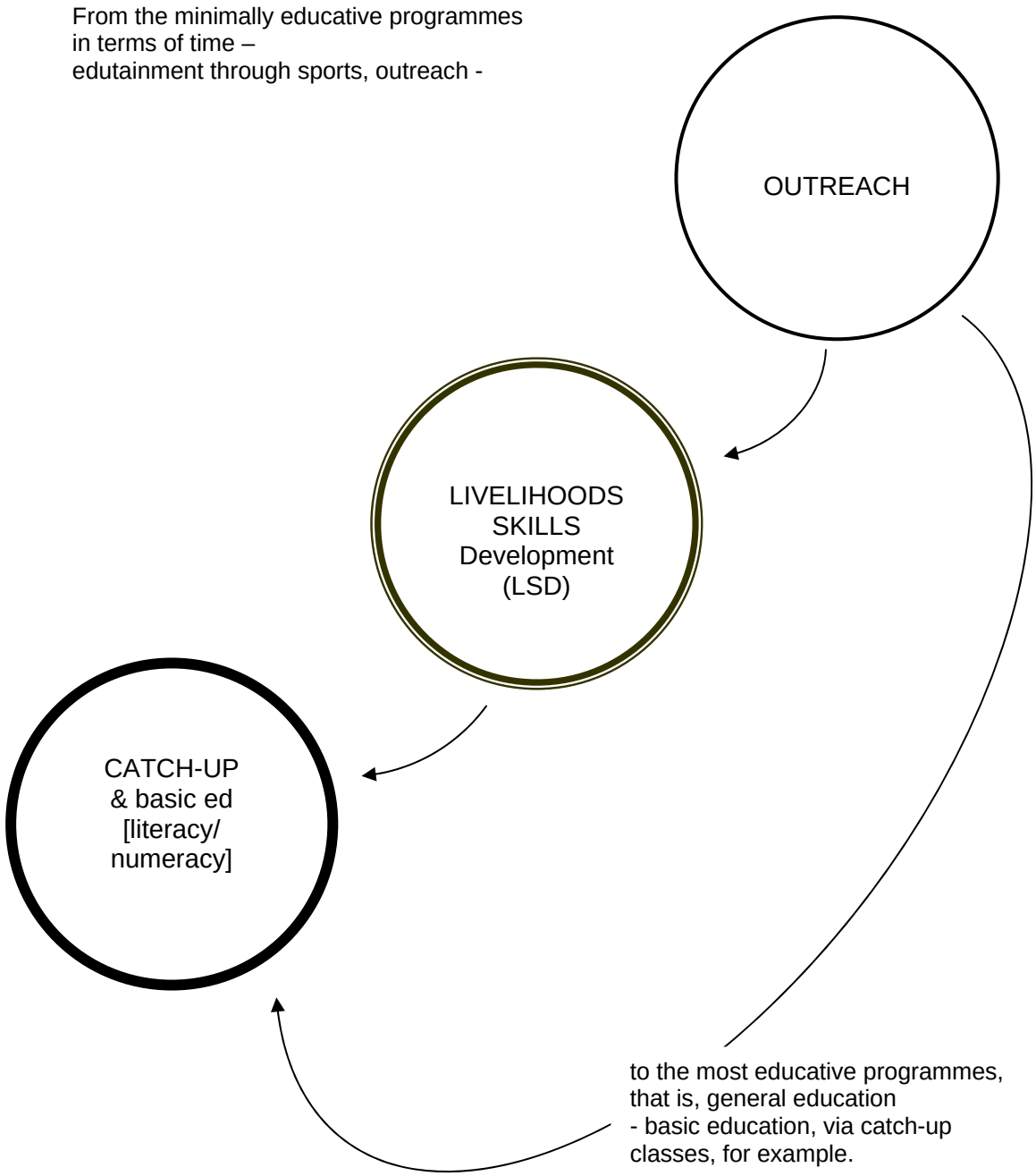


Fig. 4 illustrates more graphically how the outreach programmes are designed to pull children into LSD or catch-up programmes; and how LSD programmes may attract children to catch-up or alternative education programmes. Lifelong learning programmes need to be developed in Rwanda to tide children into and through adulthood.

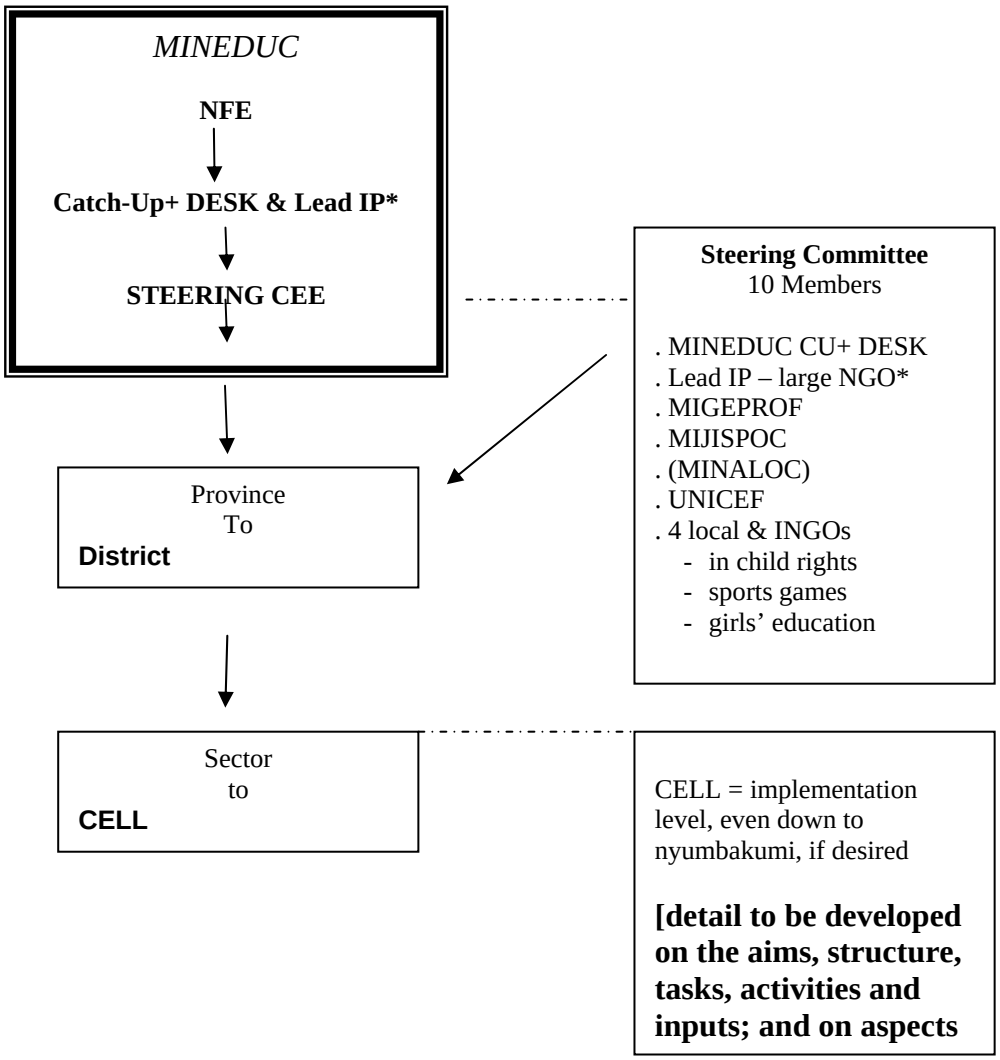
Fig. 8. 4: An Alternative Perspective



8.2 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE PROGRAMME

The proposed organisational structure of a strategy to include all children in Rwanda with educational programmes is outlined in the diagram below. It is detailed in text, overleaf.

Fig. 8.5: Organisational Structure of the Alternative Education Programme



*NGO nominated
as Lead Implementing Partner

8.3 IMPLEMENTATION DESIGN

1. New role of MINEDUC
2. The shape of the new NFE programme for children: three-pronged
3. The new venture
4. The organisational structure of the programme
5. The role of the Steering Committee
6. The role of the Lead Implementing Partner (an NGO)

1. New Role of MINEDUC

MINEDUC will be the lead ministry of the revised and all-encompassing programme, (a) strengthening and furthering its implementation of Rwanda's EFA policy and (b) working hand in hand with the spirit of Rwanda's vision of Universal Basic Education for nine years, UBE, by extending its mandate right up to the oldest children out of school who are 17 years old.

MINEDUC/NFE is the most appropriate focal point or site within Government for managing not only the Catch-Up programme but also the more encompassing OOS OVC programme. Ddistricts – particularly the District Education Officer - will have a special organisational and catalytic mandate regarding the programme, while a variety of partners will be expected to implement at cell level. There needs to be a clear departure from past experience with the pilot Catch-Up programme. The new programme has two main attributes:

a. It is to be dynamic, focused in design, spread speedily once the design has been refined, well managed, and a quality and sustainable teacher training element ensured.

b. It will be a far wider programme than the former Catch-up classes, a holistic programme providing educational opportunity for all children out of school, but will include the Catch-up classes among its programmes.

2. The shape of the new NFE programme for children: three-pronged

THE PROPOSED NEW SHAPE of what was formerly solely the catch-up programme
Called 'Alternative General Education and Catch-up Programmes'

i. Catch-Up Programme and other alternative general education programmes:

- The Catch-Up programme is only ONE of several strands of general education programmes to be offered outside schools under the alternative education rubric:
- Catch-up to extend and diversify:
  - from Model 1 of 3 yrs for children of 9-14 yrs (equivalent of primary programme)
  - to Model 2 of 2 yrs for 15-17 year olds (equivalent of primary programme)
  - to Model 3, a secondary equivalent programme
  - to general education programmes which are not accelerated or 'catch-up' but which are, on the contrary, extended and slower paced, responding to learner needs. A *tronc commun* (junior secondary) equivalent course might be spread over four years evening school rather than three years full-time schooling, for example.

ii. Livelihood Skills Development Programme

LSD will teach skills related to the world of work, mainly small enterprise and informal sector skills, and business management. It will partner with a variety of existing trainers and programmes, and encourage the spread of specialist microcredit facilities (through specialist institutions only).

iii. *Outreach Programme*

Children who have only two hours per week to visit an education centre or programme will be offered a sports, games and fitness programme, coupled with one half an hour or one element of an educative programme, for example one of the following: personal development, peace and reconciliation in the community, citizenship education, HIV prevention, early childhood development care, parenting skills. They will receive information on the LSD and alternative/catch-up programmes and be encouraged to plan for joining one of those programmes in time. They will also be offered an opportunity to join the ECD groups (see below).

3. The New Venture

It is a very new venture for the Ministry to step outside schools and into the provision of education opportunities outside classical school situations and sites. To bring capacity for this task into the Ministry, and in line with the decentralisation focus of the Government of Rwanda, it is recommended that a civil society co-partner, an NGO currently present in Rwanda, sits with the Desk for Alternative Education (including Catch-Up), in the NFE directorate. This could mean having an office in the Ministry and being present three days a week or working closely with the Ministry on a day to day basis from its NGO premises in Kigali. The lead NGO or Lead Implementing Partner, is yet to be identified. Criteria for selection are listed below.

4. Organisational Structure of the Programme

- **NFE Director** - **4 Desks:** **Alternative Ed** (with Catch-up), Adult Ed, Vocational Ed, Approp. Technology
- **Alternative Education COORDINATOR**
- **AND NGO Lead Implementing Partner (IP)**
- **STEERING COMMITTEE** (SC) for OOS OVC Education (8 members)

  MINEDUC – Alternative Ed (including Catch-Up) Coordinator
  MIGEPROF representative
  MIJESPOC representative
  (MINALOC)
  UNICEF
  Civil society - 2 or 3 local NGOs***
  - 2 or 3 int'l NGOs ***
  (total of 5)
  including the IP selected

  *** *SC NGO mbrs will not necessarily implement. Collectively, they will include following capacities*:
  -large org, countrywide spread
  -experience in OOS ed progs
  -in rights, inclusion, sports/games
  -all with focus and sound institutional track record

  - **Province** (Education Officer) – newly and regularly trained in OOS education programme provision
  - **DISTRICT** (Education Officer) – newly, regularly and thoroughly trained in OOS education programme provision
  - **Sector** (head) – newly, regularly and thoroughly trained in OOS education programme provision
  - **CELL** (head) = implementation level; newly, regularly and thoroughly trained in OOS education programme provision; and well supported from District level

The MINEDUC DESK Coordinator and Lead IP NGO will liaise with the District Office.

Liaison will proceed down through the Sector Office (Sector Coordinator him/herself) to Cell level where implementation will take place.

Rationale for selecting the location and officer(s) for directing and managing the three-pronged programme:

5. Role of the Steering Committee

The Steering Committee and in particular the lead NGO should act as a regular advisor and monitor of the Catch-up programme.

6. Role of the Lead Implementing Partner (IP), an NGO

One NGO will be invited to partner MINEDUC in programme design, coordination and responsibility for the implementation of the programme with the MINEDUC, with its three elements of alternative education (including Catch-up classes), livelihoods skills development and outreach. The NGO will also be a member of the Steering Committee. It will have the specific role of capacity building both within the Ministry, at every level, and with regard to the several implementing partners envisaged.

The criteria for the selection of a lead implementing partner NGO will include the following characteristics:

- large organisation already present in Rwanda
- recognised capacity for countrywide administration and for national coverage
- capable of identifying partners and of partnering (including the facilitation, training and support of new partners), acknowledging existing expertise in other ministries and organisations
- experience of low cost programming and spreading costs
- acknowledged track record on rights and inclusion policies, and practices
- experience in running educative programmes for out-of-school children including the three strands of the proposed programme
- capacity for planning fundraising among a wide range of actors

8.4 GETTING STARTED – THE ROLE OF EXPERIENCED NGOs

The design of the programme and the first activities will get off to a good start if the Ministry takes on board the expertise and skills of some experienced NGOs. The notes below give some pointers as to how MINEDUC could use the NGOs, giving some NGO names as example.

- **OUTREACH PROGRAMMES**

The outreach programme will be diversified but centred around a two hour session of games or cultural activities (90 mins), with an additional educative component of 30 mins.

- **Games** (90 mins): volleyball, basketball, football; traditional games; competitions; cultural activities - dance, instrumental music (drumming), song, poetry, story telling, drama; etc.

  It is important to choose one game traditionally associated with girls, one with boys and one suitable for both. At a second stage, both girls and boys can play all games. The gender dimension is vital in this programme since it is intended to be empowering for girls

as well as good for their health. For the boys, it is essentially a health-oriented exercise but coupled, as for the girls, with the goals of teamwork and social inclusion.

- **Education component** (30 mins) - or a focused educative element. The half hour can include any of the following: personal development, life skills, peace education, HIV prevention education, or rights, etc. Children attending the outreach programme will be encouraged to join Basic Education or Skills Development programmes at some later stage and strategies for accessing such courses will be discussed.

RIGHT TO PLAY (NGO) – could play two roles in the OVC Education programme, specifically focusing on the outreach programme and partner with the School Sports programme in MINEDUC, emphasising fitness and fun, not excellence:

1. RTP could be invited onto the Steering Committee in order to make inputs on the Outreach Programme, games/sports, and on the training of outreach/sports facilitators.
2. They could also implement part of the outreach programme, training the outreach sports facilitators

- **LIVELIHOOD SKILLS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES**

The programmes should complement the CFJ system, taking in children who are unable to attend the CFJ due to lack of vacancies or lack of fees, or because they do not meet the educational entrance requirements of the CFJs. They will address (a) illiterate,(b) literate children, (c) children who have dropped out of primary schools and, in some cases, (d) primary school completers who have not been able to continue their education, while prioritising the first three groups.

Livelihood skills courses will be classified according to the duration of the course and the cost of the course. It is expected that many more children will be reached by short, low cost courses such as bicycle repair and enhanced petty trading, than by the longer and more costly courses, such as tailoring and carpentry. Programme planners will be encouraged to address both low and higher level training needs, both low and higher cost programmes, and to run a variety of courses across each district, to cater for a variety of needs.

Wherever possible the apprenticeship models of training will be used, since they provide the most realistic and therefore useful context for learning, offers both technical and entrepreneurial practice, interaction with customers, and gives an opportunity for earning while training.

CARE INTERNATIONAL (NGO) – could play three roles in the OVC education programme:

1. CARE could play the role of the IP and advisory partner in MINEDUC, NFE Directorate.
2. The NGO could be invited onto the Steering Committee in order to make inputs on the Catch-up and LSD programmes.
3. They could also implement part of the three programmes

Given their wide experience CARE is in a unique position to partner MINEDUC in the overall programme and in the three components: catch-up/general education, LSD and outreach.

- **CATCH-UP AND GENERAL EDUCATION PROGRAMMES**

As noted, it is proposed that the same NGO supports MINEDUC in the consolidation and extension of the Catch-up Programme and in the development of other types of general education programmes for children out of school. Educational radio has not been used in Rwanda to date,

but a number of countries are using OLSET over Worldspace, for example, and other programmes to complement national efforts.[113]

[113] OLSET (Open Learning Systems Educational Trust) of South Africa runs a successful programme on English learning in primary schools, to support teachers in the early grades.

8.5 TARGETS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

TARGETS

The target learners of the new programme were detailed in Section 7.4. They can be classified by age and educational background. Figures bracketed below refer to sections of this report.

- FIRST OPTION - **General education:**

  - SCHOOL: Children under ten years should be taken to school/back to school; children far from school and children with disabilities need home schools grouping a small number of homesteads (6.5(a)2).

  - CATCH-UP: Children over ten years should be reached by Catch-up, accelerated classes (30,000 pupils), prioritise action in Ruhengeri specifically, then Byumba and Butare, the location of most OOS (7.5.3 and 7.4)

    Catch-up classes should be designed for three types/ages of target learners (6.5(a) 9):
    - "ten plus" learners (19-12 yrs)
    - young teens (13-14 yrs)
    - older teens (15-17 yrs) – sometimes separating girls from boys

    Older children (including married girls/women) generally opt for CU classes away from primary school locations (6.5(a) 10). (100,000 learners).

    Start 11 new secondary accelerated classes, one per province, and support CIESPD's initiative in the city (880+ students)

- SECOND OPTION - **LSD programmes** (including CFJs) (Sect 6.5 (b) 13)

  For children 14 yrs and over

- THIRD OPTION **- Outreach** (8.1)

  For the unreached (outside school and LSD programmes)

  - Provide outreach programmes to **unreached** children outside the above programmes, prioritising those children, and only including others once this category have been addressed (8.1).

  - **Increase state assistance** to all support and outreach centres; develop criteria for this exercise (8.1).

A list of summarised recommendations follows. The reader is invited to go back to the text for a full appreciation of the more detailed original recommendation, and of the section which introduced and discussed the issue, as indicated in brackets.

RECOMMENDATIONS

A. RECOMMENDATIONS ON OUTREACH AND YOUTH CENTRES

1. **Wider goals for youth centres:** Youth centres need to go further than edutainment focusing narrowly on HIV/AIDS prevention. They could develop into advisory centres for life plans, and aim to help children - girls in particular – to develop life goals beyond the necessarily limited aim of marriage and child-bearing, domestic work, casual agricultural work, and so on. This would constitute a full life skills programme.

2. **MIGEPROF support:** Though NGOs know how best to reach the unreached OVC and how to capacity build new sister NGOs, MIGEPROF funds should be the mainstay of this operation.

3. **Incorporate existing Rwanda experience:** The long experience of the Kimisegera Centre, Kigali, of Rwanda Scouts/Guides and global expertise of Right To Play would be an excellent starting point for outreach programme which wish to focus on games first (see also the notes earlier in Sect. 8.1).

4. **State support for sports:** It will be important to secure state funding for a wide network of centres and activities but to implement with NGOs, given the experience to date of MIJESPOC which was always aiming at excellence instead of fitness, fun and socialisation. MIJESPOC and MINEDUC School Sports should both contribute in large measure to this new community-OVC approach, for the children out of school.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS ON LSD CENTRES (Sect 6.5b.13)

1. **Consolidate** CFJs, ensuring full enrolments, prioritising local recruitment; and **expand** CFJs (the current plan to provide 106 in total), implementing equitable coverage for all districts.

2. **Review fees:** Review fee structures and financing mechanisms; and document the management practices of the more successful and low cost centres.

3. **Diversity of LSD programmes:** Support the development of **diverse programmes and** LSD centres, incorporating the two apprenticeship models of training (6.4.4)

4. **LSD programme design:** Address issues of time, course length, institutional structure, location, learning pace, and programme context and content, and admissions levels (Table 4.3; 6.4.2)

5. **Follow-up:** LSD centres, and CFJs, should provide follow-up guidance, support and possibly material assistance to graduates in the world of work; and keep tracer records (6.4.7, 7.4 Type B).

6. **Guidance on getting started** : Review guidance on (a) employment patterns, versus (b) establishing new businesses.

7. **Create an ongoing forum for discussion,** to discuss post-training issues: (a) post-training career patterns and (b) post-training guidance and support.

C. RECOMMENDATIONS ON COMMUNITY / LOCAL AUTHORITY ACTION – AND THE MEDIA

1. **Information dissemination**: Information on education programmes, LSD training (including CFJs), outreach and on advisors in the locality needs to reach OVC.

2. **Advise OVC:** Local authorities and communities should provide advisory services to OVCs on **educational opportunities** in the area, regularly disseminated **information**, **strategies** for accessing them, and **finance** (6.5b.11).

3. **Strengthen the community's power to support education:** It is acknowledged that a ministry of education cannot be the sole agent for financing education, in the sense that it relies to some extent on the financial backing of parents and the community. Social welfare programmes need to **target OVC at family level**, and **as individuals** (as separated children) (5.5).

4. **Activate local authorities:** LAs should actively **seek out OVCs** in their area, send out **new**, focused messages on education to the community, emphasise the **role of fathers** in their children's education, and assist families to **improve the home environment** for children (Sect. 5.5.1).

5. **Media:** Harness the media to transmit **new** messages on education and LSD issues (6.5b.14).

6. **The state and support centres: Increase** state assistance for rehabilitation and support centres for vulnerable children.

D. RECOMMENDATIONS ON CATCH-UP CENTRES (Sect. 7.5.3)

1. **System planning:** CU roll out needs a full time director, an appropriate budget, information system management; well defined roles and tasks of managers at every level of the system; links with the community; and prioritisation of areas with low school enrolments.

2. **Catch-up Programme expansion**:
   - primary age/primary CU for Ruhengeri, followed by Byumba and Butare;
   - secondary age/primary CU to all provinces;
   - secondary age/secondary CU to 11 provinces, supporting CIESPD in Kigali.

3. **Target learners:** The "ten plus" children, mid and older teens are three distinctive target groups, requiring different approaches and programme design; each important for different reasons.

4. **Programme design:** Address issues of time, course length, institutional structure, location, learning pace, and programme context and content (Table 4.3); and the special needs of older adolescent girls/women, particularly girl-mothers and young married women.

5. **Location of centres:** The review and take advantage of the benefits of primary school sites for the CU system (and for younger children); and the need for centres to be near the workplaces for working children.

6. **Teachers**: CU requires a well designed teacher development programme; well planned time utilisation of teachers in each class, in each centre, so as to maximise resources; creative staff recruitment and remuneration policies, keeping costs to affordable levels; retention of the founding staff at current salaries, as future system managers and leaders.

E. RECOMMENDATIONS ON LITERACY PROGRAMMES

- **Redesign** literacy centre curricula for children (adapt the CARE model).

F. RECOMMENDATIONS ON SCHOOL ISSUES

A number of recommendations were listed for schools, to enhance enrolment, retention and performance. These recommendations (Sects. 3.4.1-6 and 6.5a) can be summarised as quality-promoting measures and are well known.

Quality-related measures:

1. **To monitor system quality, c**hange from MLA to the SACMEQ method of (6.5a.6).

2. **Separate lower and primary school sections**, to stem first grade repetition and drop-out, where the youngest children are at risk of being overwhelmed in large schools and in schools with overage children (3.4.1).

3. **Modify curriculum:** Provide **modular** programmes in primary schools to boost performance of school returnees (6.5a.5).

4. **Reduce drop-out:** Identify drop-outs fast and set up procedures for facilitating their quick return to school (6.5a.2).

5. **Increase curriculum relevance:** Introduce **applied mathematics** and **life skills**, rather than practical subjects, to increase the relevance of the curriculum (6.5a.6).

6. **Gender-responsive programming: Girls'** education programming should focus exclusively on performance enhancement, except in the northern provinces, Ruhengeri in particular, which were recommended for quantitative attention (3.4.5), together with any other areas specifically identified by data. **Boys'** enrolment, retention and drop-out requires response particularly in Kigali Ngali and Gitarama (3.4.6). The approach should be *children*-oriented, taking the gender-differentiated *causes* of schooling problems into account.

7. **Certification and accreditation:** Encourage a culture of success through provision of examination and completion certificates for each cycle of education (6.5a.7/8).

Cost and Financing:

8. **Direct costs:** Deal firmly with the continuing direct costs of education - **school levies** and **uniform** issues - and provide essential instruments of learning (**textbooks** and **writing materials**), through **further** measures to be agreed with MINEDUC and partners, such as stipends to the most needy (5.5.2a).

9. **Stipends and bursaries:** Allocate stipends direct to the most indigent families to address ongoing expenses of schooling, and review bursary selection procedures and criteria at secondary level (6.5b.13).

10. **Indirect costs:** Schools should address continuing opportunity costs by adopting flexible and child-friendly institutional and pedagogical practices, to complement bursary/stipend provision (5.5.2b).

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A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX A

ORPHANS AND OTHER VULNERABLE CHILDREN STUDY

– TERMS OF REFERENCE FOR LEAD CONSULTANT -

Terms of reference for a field investigation and analysis of findings to provide a basis for a systemic education response to the needs of orphans and other vulnerable children (OVCs)

Rwandan Education Sector Support Programme

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1 Background

1.1 Education is a key component of the Government's approach to poverty reduction. The Government has embarked on an ambitious programme for the development of the education sector. The Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Scientific Research (MINEDUC) has gone through a process of policy development and strategic planning over the past three years. Achieving the goals it has set for itself, including UPE and EFA targets, presents many challenges to the Government.

1.2 With decentralisation, the central ministry's responsibilities focus on policy, setting standards and monitoring. A national *Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper* (PRSP) (June 2002), *Education Sector Policy* and *Education Sector Strategic Plan* (ESSP) for 2004-08 have all been developed. Particular sub-sector policies are still under development. The ESSP itself is a rolling document within which there will be ongoing development of its specific strategies.

1.3 Education sector development processes in Rwanda are characterised by a high degree of stakeholder partnership, including through the Education Development Partner Group. Among these, DFID and UNICEF are particularly active in their support to MINEDUC in the primary and basic education sub-sector.

1.4 DFID is the Government's largest bilateral partner and is providing support to the education development process through the Rwandan Education Sector Support Programme (RESSP), the purpose of which is to assist the Government to adopt a sector-wide approach (SWAp) to education policy development and planning, linked to poverty reduction strategies. The Ministry has asked for assistance from the RESSP with the development of its strategies for providing education services to out-of-school, vulnerable and hard-to-reach children. UNICEF Rwanda will participate in the study.

2 Status of Education for Orphans and other Vulnerable children in Rwanda

2.1 In its core message on Education for All, UNICEF states that education is essential for the development of individuals and nations, and is a right – a right for every child without exception, a right supported by the Foundation Principles of the Convention on the rights of the Child (CRC), and a right for which states are accountable. This right extends to girls affected by HIV/AIDS, children affected by conflicts, in conditions of crisis, violence and insecurity, and those affected by all forms of exploitation. A baseline study of *Basic Education for Girls and other Vulnerable Groups in Rwanda* was conducted in 2001/02.

2.2 A national policy document on Orphans and other Vulnerable Children (OVC) in Rwanda is in place since early 2003. The policy document identifies fifteen categories of vulnerable children. The children of marginalised groups (e.g. the Batwa people) form another category. Data on out-of-school and vulnerable children are weak and are largely based on guesswork. It is estimated that there are 300,000 child-headed households. Disabled children are not in evidence in school. Families are not sending disabled children to school, because of social stigma. No one knows how many there are. There are many thousands of street children. There are many working children, most of whom are girls. Many juveniles are in prison. Many vulnerable girl children are sexually harassed and exploited. The 20% of the school age population missing from school consist of the weak and the destitute. Discrimination against girls and vulnerable groups is masked. Data on out-of-school and vulnerable children are weak and are largely based on guesswork. Both gender- and age-specific data are lacking. The availability of accurate data is the exception rather than the norm in all the districts, provinces and schools visited as part of the 2001/02 study (*MINEDUC/UNICEF, July 2002, Baseline Study of Basic Education for Girls and Other Vulnerable Groups in Rwanda*). Because of inadequate statistical information on all these groups, it is difficult to ensure an appropriate and adequate response.

2.3 The Ministry has established three catch-up ('rattrapage') centres for out-of-school children, as a pilot project, with support from UNICEF and DFID (through the RESSP). This pilot was initiated in 2002, and presently reaches around 900 children.

2.4 In the strategies proposed in the OVC policy document, research on and identification of orphans and other vulnerable children is proposed, so that coherent programmes for improving access to basic services (including education) can be established. The *Joint Review of the Education Sector* (JRES) of May 2004 recommended that an OVC Education policy and strategy should be developed. This study will make a substantial contribution to the development of policy and strategy. A participatory approach to the conduct of the study will contribute to the facilitation of policy and strategy development (see Section 5).

3 Objectives of investigation

The main objective of this consultancy is to provide leadership for the team (incorporating the lead consultant, two national researchers, and Mineduc staff) which will carry out the investigation and enable the Ministry to generate the following outputs :

1. A documented analysis of experiences, strengths, weaknesses, lessons learned and future perspectives for implementing education interventions for out-of-school and vulnerable children.
2. Analysis of the main problems faced by out-of-school and vulnerable children, their causes and solutions from the perspectives of both the rights holders and duty bearers.
3. Qualitative and quantitative baseline data for the six provinces not covered by the Baseline Study against the indicators, disaggregated by gender, province and district.
4. Overview of the strengths of schools and communities supportive of out-of-school and vulnerable children in the six provinces identified.
5. Overview of the strengths, weaknesses and capacity gaps in the area of out-of-school and vulnerable children, identified at MINEDUC, provincial and district levels.
6. Profiles of the primary schools or learning centres visited against the selected indicators.
7. A database of information on agencies catering for out-of-school and vulnerable children.
8. A narrative report with tables and graphics in both hard copy and electronic form that can be updated annually and used to analyse trends.
9. A technical paper proposing strategies for the education of out-of-school and vulnerable children, for the ESSP period.

A separate study, funded by UNICEF, will investigate the specific education needs of disabled children, and children with learning difficulties (SEN) and the problems of adequate education provision for these groups.

4 Scope of investigation

4.1 The lead consultant will work with the team to carry out the tasks below. This investigation will build on and complement that already done for the 2001/02 baseline study. The OVC policy document will provide further guidance (see Section 2 above).

4.2 Suggested tasks are :

- Using the indicator tables from the baseline study, carry out the research in the six provinces not covered by the baseline study. The research design should include both qualitative and quantitative processes to ensure comprehensiveness of data and information.
- Visit a representative sample of primary schools or learning centres (15%) in the six provinces to apply the profile used in the baseline study.
- Using participatory processes that include members of the OVC group, assess and analyse the main problems and causes of non-participation in basic education in the other seven provinces. Collect information on vulnerable children in those provinces (in and out of school) from parents, teachers, school heads, PTA committees, religious leaders, youth and women's councils, central (policy makers) and provincial authorities. Attention should be given to poverty, disability, double orphan conditions, working children, HIV/AIDS affected children, displaced children, marginal group children, among others (refer to the OVC Policy document categories).
- Assemble a database of information on agencies (state, church, NGO, international agencies, community groups) which currently cater for vulnerable children groups, to include the nature and coverage of their activities, in relation to education provision.
- Map the cross-sectoral nature of social services provision to out-of-school and vulnerable children groups, with emphasis on education access.
- Identify the strengths of schools and communities which already cater for out-of-school and vulnerable children, and compile recommendations for stakeholder action.
- Suggest strategies to ensure that laws on child labour (Law No 27/2001?), early marriage, child protection, adverse cultural practices are applied; and strategies to ensure that practices at schools which negatively affect vulnerable children groups are curtailed.
- Propose how the emergent EMIS could incorporate disaggregation by category of vulnerability.
- Draw on the findings of international research into obstacles to schooling for OVCs, and initiatives to increase access and quality, e.g. elimination of enrolment fees, subsidies, direct support to identified schools, restructuring education delivery, microfinance schemes, improvement of community care capacity, advocacy, quality enhancement interventions, curriculum change, teacher sensitisation and training.
- Examine the feasibility of possible intervention programmes, e.g. expansion of school feeding (see current WFP programme, and the projected FAO school garden programme); delivery of non-formal programmes at flexible times; deployment of media to bring education to the hard-to-reach children (street children who would lose income because of school attendance); provision of lunch programmes, linked to classes, in appropriate time windows.
- Suggest a range of sensitisation programmes for school personnel, PTAs, community groups, on the education needs of vulnerable children groups.
- Examine the financing of education, with the aim of supporting special education programmes for vulnerable groups, within the context of the current ESSP and EFA Plan, and the associated resource envelope.
- Analyse the adequacy and/or effectiveness of education and other social policies, laws and programmes to address the disparities identified (inc. the recent introduction of official fee-free primary education).
- Comment on the extent to which the recommendations from Section 9.2 of the July 2002 Baseline Study have been implemented.
- Produce a narrative report, including cases, with quantitative data and a comparative analysis of the national situation against the baseline data from the five provinces featured in the baseline study.

- Based on the report, produce a 15-20 page paper on Strategies for the Education of orphans and other vulnerable children, for use by the EFA Secretariat and MINEDUC DEPP.

5 Methods and Reporting

5.1 The lead consultant will have overall responsibility for the execution of the investigation. She will work collaboratively with the other members of the team, and with MINEDUC's DEPP Primary and Pre-Primary Division. The team will liaise with the appropriate MIJEPROF desk officer, and with the UNICEF Rwanda education desk, and will consult with a range of agencies, both international and national, working in the field of education for out-of-school and vulnerable children.

5.3 A single report is required. The key findings and recommendations should be presented to MINEDUC before departure of the lead consultant. A draft report should be completed before the lead consultant leaves Rwanda.

5.4 After comments from the Ministry, the Report should be submitted in draft form, electronically, to CfBT in Rwanda, not more than 7 calendar days after the departure of the lead consultant from Rwanda.

The lead consultant will have :

6 Expertise required

- global knowledge and expertise in education interventions for orphans and other groups of vulnerable children ;
- ample international experience of conducting similar studies on education provision for vulnerable groups ;
- experience of advising at policy and/or strategic level for developing country education systems ;
- organizational, management and presentation skills ;
- at least a Master's level University degree in education ;
- familiarity with school systems in Sub-Saharan Africa ;
- the ability to work as a professional team for the consultancy period ;
- cultural sensitivity ;
- the ability to work in both English and French (desirable).

7 Timing, duration and management

7.1 The consultancy period will be of four weeks duration. The projected timeframe is 17th January to 12th February 2005.

7.2 The consultancy will be managed by CfBT, DFID's management agent for the Rwandan Education Sector Support Programme, on behalf of MINEDUC.

On a first perusal of sector data, it was clear that gender parity in enrolments had been achieved some years back, while gender parity in retention rates was a new phenomenon. It was agreed with MINEDUC and CfBT (as per the e-mail of 19 Jan 2005, of Obura) that, given these positive changes, the present study would not replicate that of 2001 on girls and vulnerable children in five of the twelve provinces. It would use the 2001 report as a reference. It would focus specifically on the current provision of education opportunities for OVCs out of school, across the entire country, on the situation of OVCs at risk within the formal education system, and on planning a systemic education response which would take into account the totality of OVCs in and out of schools.

> "In the ToR some weight was given to the Baseline Survey on Girls' Education and OVCs. Indeed, in 2001, when the survey was carried out, prior to the census of 2002 and with no reliable demographic data at hand, it was assumed that girls in Rwanda were markedly less advantaged than boys in terms of all aspects of education. Hence the focus on girls in the study and less emphasis on OVCs in general. In 2005 the picture has changed. The census data make it clear that while three of the 12 provinces may continue to reflect disadvantage for girls, this is not the case in the other nine provinces of Rwanda. Indeed, (a) there are at national level more girls at primary school than boys and (b) at secondary level Rwanda has achieved a remarkable proportion of girls in the school population (2003/4) – remarkable in the sense of comparison with other countries in eastern, central and west Africa. While there is parity of access and enrolments there is a gender gap in education performance and outcomes, which need to be addressed in a far more strategic manner than in the past.
>
> In agreement with MINEDUC and CfBT, and having further listened to views from the Secondary Education Directorate and Planning Directorate, the consultancy will reflect these new understandings and concentrate on the problems of girls and boys out of school, the OVCs, and the children at risk of being pushed out of school due to several factors – all this in order to plan out of school programmes for the future."
>
> *Email of Obura to MINEDUC, EFA Unit and to CfBT, 19.1.05*

APPENDIX B

FURTHER EDUCATION STATISTICS

First, the appendix presents background statistics on progress in enrolling more children in 2002/3 and 2003/4 in primary schools, by province; and, second, details the calculations used for estimating a ball park figure of children of school age, primary and secondary, currently out of school. The first is important for identifying provinces lagging behind others as regards rate of progress in increasing enrolments. The purpose of the second estimation is to provide a reasonable basis for planning education programmes for out-of-school children.

I - IDENTIFICATION OF PROVINCES FACING A CHALLENGE FOR ACHIEVING UPE

Children out of school are listed by province in Table B 1 (Col. 7), together with data on total population, density, NER. The table is ordered by total population (Col. 2).

The numbers listed in Col 7 refer only to the children of primary age (7-12 years) who are out of school.

Table B 1: Numbers of Children Out of Primary School by Province, 2002/3

Province (1)	**Population** '000,000 2002 (2)	**Density** per km2 2002 (3)	**NER %** 02/3 (4)	**Ranked by NER** 02/3 (5)	**Ranked by N OOS** 2002/3 (6)	**N OOS 7-12 yrs children** 2002/3 (7)
Ruhengeri	**0.89**	540	**93**	**6**	**8**	**10,566**
Gisenyi	0.86	424	96	3	3	6,551
Gitarama	0.86	404	99	1	2	1,361
Kigali Ngali	0.80	285	94	4	6	6,984
Butare	**0.73**	**386**	**81**	**12**	**12**	**20,651**
Byumba	**0.71**	**421**	**81**	**11**	**11**	**20,950**
Kibungo	0.70	239	94	5	7	6.998
Cyangugu	**0.61**	**322**	**89**	**9**	**9**	**10,985**
Kigali	0.60	1943	90	8	5	6,799
Gikongoro	**0.49**	**250**	**84**	**10**	**10**	**12,266**
Kibuye	0.47	260	99	2	1	1,181
Umutara	0.42	100	90	7	4	6,586
RWANDA	8.13	321	91			111, 881

Sources : Recensement Statistique, Année scolaire 2003-4
MINEDUC and *Indicators*, Directorate of Planning, MINEDUC 2005

Data in Table B 1 are out of date in terms of sector planning for 2005. To update the data, it will be necessary to make some rough calculations, in the absence of data on NER for 2003/4. These are presented in Table B 2.

Table B 2: Indicators on Increased Enrolments by Province, 2003/4
- ranked by numbers of OOS children, 2002/3 -

Province (1)	N OOS 7-12 yrs children 2002/3 (2)	MORE enrolled children '03/4 than in '02/3 (all ages) (3)	Difference '000 (4)
Kibuye	1,181	3,321	2 over the 2002/3 total 7-12 yr olds to be enrolled
Gitarama	1,361	15,235	14 over "
Gisenyi	6,551	10.357	4 over "
Umutara	6,586	13,825	7 over "
Kigali	6,799	8,033	1.5 over "
Kigali Ngali	6,984	14,760	7.5 over "
Kibungo	6.998	11,205	4 over "
Ruhengeri	10,985	1,577	**9.5 shortfall**
Cyangugu	10,566	8,582	**2 shortfall**
Gikongoro	12,266	19,788	7.5 over "
Byumba	20,950	12,146	**9 shortfall**
Butare	20,651	10.623	**10 shortfall**
RWANDA	111, 881*		

*Exact figure calculated from MINEDUC *Indicators*
Source: Col. 2 calculated from *Indicators* on NER and numbers of children enrolled 2002/3, Directorate of Planning, MINEDUC 2005.
Col. 3 calculated from data on total enrolments by province reported in *Indicators,* above, and *Recensement Statistique, Année scolaire 2003-4,* MINEDUC
Col. 4 compares Cols. 2 and 3 in terms of numbers.

The numbers of children out of school in 2002/3 by province are given in Table B 2, Col. 2.

In Col.3 the increased numbers of children of all ages (2003/4) enrolled by province are given (since data on children 7-12 years only, by province, are not yet available). In Col. 4, approximate figures in thousands are listed.

Col. 4 compares Cols. 2 and 3 in terms of: (a) the new enrolments achieved over and above the number that would have been necessary to achieve 100% NER in 2002/3, noting however, that Col. 3 figures (i) may not include all children of 7-12 years still out of school in the province, (ii) yet they are likely to include (an unknown proportion of) under- and overage children; and (b) **the provinces with a shortfall**.

The calculation is aimed at identifying the provinces underachieving in terms of growth rate. This represents an attempt to indicate those provinces which MINEDUC will need to monitor carefully to determine more exactly the magnitude of the problem (by analysing new enrolments by age) and to identify the provinces needing the most support in increasing enrolment rates.

The results agree with the finding of the statement in the *Recensement Statistique, Année scolaire 2003-4,* that Ruhengeri has made the least progress between 2003 and 2003/4 in enrolments, reported as 0.78% increase. This would indicate that the conclusions in the table could act as useful guidelines for action. However - and this is reiterated - it is only MINEDUC, with data on age of enrolled children, who can pinpoint exactly those provinces, and more importantly those districts, which need the most support at this point.

Table B 2 is summarized in the body of the text as Table 3.4.

II - CALCULATIONS FOR ESTIMATING THE TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN CURRENTLY OUT OF SCHOOL (2005)

(1) Primary age children - population 7-12 years reported to be 1,339,845 in 2003/4[114]

(a) 93% in school
(b) Half of the 860 children in Catch-up classes may be of this age range: 430
(c) 7% (93,790) are officially out of school, that is, 93,790 – 430 = 93,360

TOTAL: 7-12 yrs children out of school/CU centres - 93,360

(2) Secondary age children - population 13-18 yrs reported to be 1,319,364 in 2003/4[115]

Note that children are persons under 18 yrs, but there are no data on 13-17 year olds in the annual education reports. Therefore the 13-18 year old range will be the one retained in the following calculations.

Gross enrollment 203,551 (15.4%) in secondary school.

(d) Net enrolment (10.6%) 139,264 (sic)

(e) 1,180,100 elsewhere (1,319,364-139,264)

(i) 0.5 million children estimated to be in primary school
(ii) 20,000 could be in CFJs.
(iii) Unknown number in nonformal training centres, put at 30,000 (including half of the 860 children in Catch-up classes who may be of this age range: 430)
(iv) Remaining children are unaccounted for

In education/training: 0.14 + 0.5 + (0.02 + 0.03)= 0.7 million in education/training
Out of education/training: 1.3 million – 0.7 = 0.6 million

TOTAL: 13-18 yrs children out of education/training: 0.6 million

(3) GRAND TOTAL 7-18 yrs estimated out of school/skills programmes: 0.7 million

[114] *Recensement Statistique, Année scolaire, Enseignement Primaire, 2003-4,* MINEDUC (2004: 18).
[115] *Recensement Statistique, Année scolaire, Enseignement Secondaire, 2003-4,* MINEDUC (2004: 10).

APPENDIX C

CHILDREN AT RISK OF EXCLUSION FROM FORMAL SCHOOLING IN POST-CONFLICT SITUATIONS - A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

1. children living in child-headed households (and heading the households)
2. overage unschooled children
3. children in very poor households
4. children from minority or marginalised communities
5. working children (streets, domestic, fields, etc.)

6. children unable to get fee waivers (too much red tape)
7. child rape victims
8. children from regionally disadvantaged areas
9. children in conflict with the law
10. children from specific religious groups

11. children currently in danger
12. war wounded children
13. internally displaced children
14. children from remote areas; from areas with difficult/inaccessible terrain
15. refugee children

16. child returnees
17. children of specific racial groups
18. orphans (single orphans, double orphans)
19. girls
20. sex slaves of militia soldiers

21. children with disabilities (mental and physical)
22. ex-child combatants and soldiers
23. children currently sexually exploited and/or abused
24. girls in early marriages (before their majority)
25. children from specific ethnic groups

26. children affected/infected by HIV/AIDS
27. street children (sleeping in the streets)
28. rural children
29. traumatised children
30. schoolchildren with no school documents

31. overage school dropouts
32. children whose parents are not interested in school
33. children in foster families
34. malnourished children
35. current child soldiers and CAFFs

36. children in demobilisation transit camps (with no/few facilities)
37. youth
38. boys
39. pregnant girls and young mothers
40. nomadic pastoralists
41. children in temporary cattle camps

Categories selected by the 2004 IIEP UNESCO Summer School, Paris, on Education in Emergencies. Session facilitated by A.P. Obura

CHILDREN INTERVIEWED,
LISTED BY OCCUPATION

N	Sex	Ag	Ed	Family Status Child	Occupation
					All fictitious names
					STREET WORKERS
58	m	12	P1	mat.orph	W Mazimpaka, porter 200F
60	m	13	P2	pat.orph	W Nizeyimana, street child, porter/washes cars 200Fper
63	m	13	P2	pat.orph	W Joseph, porter 200 F per day (100F for mother)
48	m	14	P2	mat.orph	W Jean-Claude, porter, 200F per day (grandm resdt)
9	m	15	0	2 prts	W Gashumba, farmer, porter 200F per day
43	f	15	P1	pat.orph	W R Olive, CTR street child, **pregnant,** 3,500 mth
8	m	16	P2	pat.orph	W Simeon, porter 300F per day
80	f	16	P5	pat.orph	W Makobwa, market vendor 3000F per mth
62	m	16	P3	2 prts div	W Jerome, car washer
70	m	16	P2	dbl.orphEX	**UW** Pascal, street vendor, sweets, for uncle (resdt)
67	m	16	P3	pat.orph	W P Emmanuel, literacy ctr ,street vendor 450-500 F
4	m	17	P3	dbl.orph	W Olivier, bike taxiboy 500F per day
54	m	17	P3	pat.orph	W Gaspard, porter 300F per day
6	m	18	P3	2 prts	W Thomas, porter at taxi station , 400F per day
1	m	19	P2	2 prts	W Vincent, meat griller 700F per day, early drinker
3					3 has no work on the street, see below
					PLUS three more rehab.centre street workers (see below)
					Double entry 43 & 67
					AGRIC ETC. WORKERS
75	m	14	0	2 prts	W Habiyamsere, casual labourer rice plantation 2500F per
78	f	14	0	2 prtsExtd	UW Evariste, farms at home (rice)
26	**m**	**15**	P2	**dblorpC**HH	**UW, Elysee, farms family land, Xwant work as labourer**
71	m	15	0	2 prts	W Patient, casual agric labourer 2,500F per mth (**DEAF)**
52	**f**	**15**	P2	**dblorpCHH**	**W Angelique, casual agric labourer** 250 per day (6000)
27	**m**	**15**	P3	**dblorpCHH**	**W J de Dieu, herdsboy, farms, sells, 1000F mth**
31	m	15	P3	2 prts 1prs	W Robert, fisherboy casual, 500F per day (irreg) (10000)
64	f	16	**P6**	2 prts	W Alice, casual worker rice plantations 300F per day
29	**f**	**16**	**P5**	**dblorpCHH**	**W Oliva, casual agric labourer**, 200F irreg. (- 4800)
55	f	17	**S2**	2 prts	W Beata, casual labourer rice plantation 300F max per day
66	m	17	**S3**	2 prts	**UW Eric, farms, plans own rice fields (failed S3 exam)**
56	**f**	**17**	P4	**dblorpCHH**	**W Mugorewa casual agric labourer** 250 per day (6000)
11	m	17	P5	2 prts	W Aloys, casual in tea plantation 2500F per mth
53	f	17	0	dbl.orphEXt	W Nataria, herdgirl for uncle+neighbours 250F (uncl)
30	m	17	0	dbl.orph	W Uzaribara, fisherboy, farms home land
10	m	18	P4	2 prtsPLY	W Mathias, casual in tea plantation, 2000F mth (4800)
12	m	18	**P6**	dbl.orph	W Frederic, casual in tea plantation 2000F per mth (4800)
25	m	18	**P6**	2 prts	W Dieudonne, casual labourer tea plantation
2	m	20	P4	pat.orph	W Claude, tea worker (transporter), 600F per day (14,400)
					19
					DOMESTIC WORKERS
49	f	13	0	dbl.orph	UW Rose Marie,fostered maid ,farms
39	m	15	**P6**	mat.orph	W Selemani, domestic 5000F per mth
28	m	15	**P6**	2 prts	W Anastase, domestic worker 3000F
28	m	15	**P6**	2 prts	W Anastase, domestic worker, 3000F
47	m	16	P3	pat.orph	W Niyoseya, domestic, 3000F per mth
37	f	16	0	dbl.orph	W Rose Marie, maid 2000F per mth
51	f	16	0	dbl.orph	W Uwera, maid 4000F per mth
73	**f**	**16**	0	**dblorpCHH**	**W Gerardine, maid 3500F**
42	f	16	P3	pat.orph	W Bea, maid, 4000F
36	f	16	P4	dbl.orph	**UW** Ornella, maid, lodged etc.
35	f	17	P3	mat.orph	W Marie-Louise, maid, 2000F per mth ((stepmoth)
34	f	17	P1	dbl.orph	W Agnes, maid, 1500F per mth (friends)
50	f	17	P4	pat.orph	W Claudeta, sickly mother, maid, farms 2000F per mth
33	m	18	**P6**	2 prts	W, Elisa, domestic, 5.000F per mth
7	f	19	0	mat.orph	UW Christine, domestic in own family
32	*f*	*15*	*P4*	*2 prts*	**W Juliette, washergirl, 500F per day**

					EMPLOYED/TRAINED WORKERS
5	m	22	**P6**	mat.orph	W Nicodeme, telephone man 500-1000F per day
17	f	27	**S2**	mat.orph	T Sophie, CTR tailoring TRAINER 50,000F per mth
					THOSE WITH NO WORK
82	f	11	P1	pat.orph	U Maddie at home, sent out of school **MENT.dis**
83	m	11	0	father abd	U Frank at home- but not hidden **MENT.dis**
3	m	14	P4	2 prts	U Kalisa, no work
					ACCESS TO CENTRES
					AT A LITERACY CENTRE
67	m	16	P3	pat.orph	W P Emmanuel, **literacy** ctr ,street vendor 450-500 F
					AT REHABILITATION/SUPPORT CENTRES
44	m	13	P2	dbl.orph	W R Uwera, CTR street child-porter 300F per day
45	m	14	P2	pat.orph	W R Mungini, shelter stolen, CTRclsd, mkt porter, 200day
43	f	15	P1	pat.orph	W R Olive, CTR street child, **pregnant**, 3,500 per mth
46	m	16	P4	pat.orph	W R Zihunakira, CTR, porter 300F per day
					AT LSD CENTRES
79	f	15	**P6**	2prts div	T Josee, CTR boardg, masonry, self-funding
38	m	15	P4	mat.orph	T Habib, CTR masonry+agric work
68	m	15	**S1**	2 prts	T Masimpaka, mechanics appr at 17 yrs
19	f	16	P4	2 prts 1prs	T Janet, CTR cookery, tailoring
57	f	16	P4	2 prts	T Chantal, CTR, carpentry
61	m	16	P4	2 prts	T Bahati, CTR carpentry
41	m	16	P5	dbl.orph	T Eliace, CTR carpentry
23	f	16	**P6**	2 prts	T Marie Chantal, CTR haridressing
24	f	17	**S4**	dbl.orph	T Verene, CTR hotel work , Umushumbwa Mwiza
59	f	17	P4	pat.orph	W T Dativa, maid, CTR tailoring…. problems
76	f	17	P4	dbl.orphEx	T Consolee, tailor's apprentice (PPPMER funded)
65	f	17	**S2+ CFJ**	2 prts	W Josephina, trained CFJ tailor, expects 500F per day
77	m	18	**S1**	dbl.orph	T Desire, CTR, soap, candles, polish manufacture
81	m	18	**P6**	dbl.orphE	T Vianney, CTR, soap, candles, polish manufacture
13	f	18	P3	pat.orph	T Florence, CTR hotel, langs
74	**m**	**18**	P5	**dbl CHH**	**T Narcisse, CTR masonry+carpentry**
15	f	18	**P6**	2 prts	T Claudine, CTR haird, langs
16	f	19	P5	dbl.orph	T Halima, CTR cookery
14	f	21	**S1**	dbl.orphE	T Rose, CTR cookery
22	f	22	**P6**	pat.orph	T Godelieve, CTR hairdr, manicure
20	f	28	**P7**	2 prts	T Mathilde, CTR tailoring
18	f	29	**P7**	pat.orph	T Esther, CTR misc skills + pers ed
72	f	32	**P8**	married+c	T Sabrina, CTR mechanics
21	f	37	**P8**	married	T Marie, CTR tailoring
40	m	16	P4	dbl.orph	P T Alexis, **SCH**+fut.mech., farms at center (resdt)

W= working. UW= unpaid. T= trainee. P=pupil. R= rehab/support center
CHH= head of CHH. **C**HH= child in a CHH.

NOTES ON CHILDREN INTERVIEWED

82 interviews were recorded on paper with children and some young adults during the study: 48 per cent female (N=39) and 52 per cent male (N= 43); and supplementary interviews were carried out in centres, markets, on the street, in the fields, by lakes, in homes and elsewhere in the twelve provinces of the country. Profiles of the 82 children/young adults are given in Table D1. Where numbers do not add up to 82 there are missing data. In cases where more than one response is accepted, this is noted, and the total data items will be over 82.

Table D 1: Summary of Profiles of OVC and Adults Interviewed

Category	Responses
Sex: . female . male	48 % (N= 39) 52 % (N= 43)
Age: . under 15 yrs . 15-17 yrs . over 17 yrs	12 48 22
Family status: . with 2 living parents . paternal orphan . maternal orphan . double orphan . living with extended family . parent in prison . in child-headed household . head of CHH . pregnant street girl *[multiple responses*	 21 17 10 26 5 3 1 6 1

Age:
Two children interviewed were 11 years, children with disabilities, and one of 12 years.
The others were all 13 years and over.
Nine children in all were under 15 years.
Those over 17 yrs were mainly 18-21 yrs, but up to 32 years.
One trainee was 37 years.

Table D 2: School Background and Reported Causes of Drop-out of OVCs Interviewed

School background :		**Cause of drop-out, according to children:**	
Reached/completed S3	2	. Lack of school fees	47
Accessed secondary school	8	. Parents died: I had to take care of siblings,	19
Reached/completed P6	24	to earn money for family, to feed myself	13 11 11
. Terminated at primary school level	16	. I failed school tests	6
. Dropped out mid course, pri	46	. I was bored, so I left	3
. Never attended school	12	. My teachers were harsh	3
Drop-out, breakdown:		. My parents drank	3
- during/after P1-2	14	. Parental negligence	1
- during/after P3	11	. I was forcibly married	1
- during/after P4-5	21	. I lived far away	1
- during/after S1-2	6	. Child with a disability	1
- during/after S4	1	. I got pregnant	
Never-schooled, breakdown:		*[multiple responses possible]*	
- disabled children	2		
- double orphans	6		
- single orphans	1		
- children with 2 parents	3		

APPENDIX E

LIST OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES AND OPINION LEADERS INTERVIEWED

ID N	*In numerical order*	ID N	**Clustered by occupation**
MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY		301m	Headmaster primary (Gashora, KN*)
207m	Teacher, primary (Kabuga)	353m	Headmaster secondary (Bugarama drought area, Cyangugu)
210m	Doctor (Byumba)	336m	Headmaster secondary (Kibuye)
253f	District civil servant (Butare)		
256f	Teacher primary (Butare)	207m	Teacher, primary (Kabuga, KN)
		256f	Teacher, primary (Butare)
301m	Headmaster primary (Gashora, KN)		
302m	Businessman (Kabuga, KN)	210m	Doctor (Byumba)
304f	NGO director (Byumba)		
		302m	Businessman (Kabuga, KN)
335m	Parish priest (Kibuye)	350m	Businessman (Gikongoro)
336m	Headmaster secondary (Kibuye)	358m	Businessman (Cyangugu)
337m	Youth sports facilitator (Gisenyi)	338m	Transporter (Gisenyi)
338m	Transporter (Gisenyi)		
		304f	NGO director (Byumba)
350m	Businessman (Gikongoro)	337m	Youth sports facilitator (Gisenyi)
351m	Anglican pastor (Gikongoro)		
353m	Headmaster secondary (Bugarama drought area, Cyangugu)	335m	Parish priest (Kibuye)
358m	Businessman (Cyangugu)	351m	Anglican pastor (Gikongoro)
LOCAL AUTHORY OFFICERS			
403m	**Mayor, (**Bicumbi, KN)	403m	**Mayor** (Bicumbi, KN)
405f	**DEO**, chargée Ed + les ONG (Kgli)	453m	**Mayor** (Butare Town)
435f	**ED**+MIGEPROF+MIJESPOC officers, (Kibuye) – 2 women, 1 man	253f	District civil servant (Butare)
436m	**ED**+MIGEPROF+Soc.Affairs officers (Gisenyi) – 3 men	405f	**DEO**, chargée Ed + les ONG (Kgli)
437	**Ed** officer (Gitarama)	435f	**ED**+MIGEPROF+MIJESPOC officers, (Kibuye) – 2 women, 1 man
450	Unidentified… probably **ED** (Cyangugu)	436m	**ED**+MIGEPROF+Soc.Affairs officers (Gisenyi) – 3 men
451	MIGEPROF (Butare, Maraba)	437	**Ed** officer (Gitarama)
452	Unidentified… probably **ED** (Cyangugu)	470m	**ED**+Soc.Affairs officers (Kibungo)
453m	**Mayor** (Butare Town)	471m	**ED**+Soc.Affairs officers (Rusumo, Kibungo)
		473	**Ed**+ soc.Servs officers (Umutara)
470m	**ED**+Soc.Affairs officers (Kibungo)	474	**Ed** officer (Umutara, Kahi)
471m	**ED**+Soc.Affairs officers, (Rusumo, Kibungo)	450	Unidentified… probably **ED** (Cyangugu)
472m	**Soc.Serv**. Officer (Kibungo)	452	Unidentified… probably **ED** (Cyangugu)
473	**Ed**+ soc.Servs officers (Umutara)	472m	**Soc.Serv**. Officer (Kibungo)
474	**Ed** officer (Umutara, Kahi)	451	MIGEPROF (Butare, Maraba)

*KN= Kigali Ngali or Kigali Rural

TOTAL 29+ Male 18 ; Female 5 (sex unidentified 6)
14 Local authority officers, 15 prominent community people from the public and private sectors

APPENDIX F

Key Informant Interviews

- *numbering 57 but including approximately 80 people -*

H.E. The Minister of Education, Prof. R. Murenzi
Secretary General, Mr. C. Ruyayitera
Directorate of Planning, Mr. Y. Claver,
  Planning Officer, Mr. Rutungisha
Directorate of Primary Education, Mr. N. Musabeyesu
  (appointed to Directorate of Nonformal Education, Feb 2005)
Catch-up Programme Coordinator, Ms. G. Kayitese
Director of Secondary Education, Ms. E. Rubagumya
    (appointed Director of Primary and Secondary Education, Feb 2005)

EFA Unit, Primary Education, Mr. M. McRory
EFA Officer, Mr. G. Bimenya
Special Education Coordinator, Mr. E. Karani,
Special Education Officer, Mrs. M. Kobysinge
CFJ Director, Mr. W. Ntidereza
Adult Education Director, Mr. A. Gatera
Distance Education, Ms. A. Mead
National Curriculum Development Centre Director, Mr. J. Rutayisire
Kigali Institute of Education, Mrs. J.Rubagiza

MIGEPROF, Secretary General, Ms. A. Gahongayire
MINIFOTRA, Decentralisation Unit, Mr. Diogène Yatwa
MIJESPOC Director of Sports, Mr. P.Rwigema
MIJESPOC Director of Youth, Mr. D. Nsenga

Catch-up Centre Kinihira, Director, staff and students
Catch-up Centre, Ruyumba, Director, staff and students
Catch-up Centre, Kirambo TTC, Director, staff and literacy students
Kirambo Teacher Training Centre, Ag. Director Mr. S. Muhire

Nyamaguli, Ruhengeri, Mayor, Mr. Nkuryingoma, Vice Mayor Mr. B. Sebarwanyi
  Education Inspector Mr. Silas , and other staff
Kayonza, Kibungo, Vice Mayor, Youth, Mr. E. Mugabo
Kinihira, Byumba, Vice Mayor, Mr. M Kabasha, Education Officer and other staff
Gashora, Kigali Ngali, Vice Mayor and staff
Gashora fishing children

CFJ Mayange, Gashora, Director Mr. I. Gasana, staff and students
CFJ Gaculiro, Kigali, Deputy Director Mr. A. Manilaho, staff and students

ADPA Director, Kigali, Mr. A. Goundjo and Staff
ARCT-RUHUKA, Kigali, Director Ms. J.Abatoni, Ms.MJ.Kayitesi
CARE Director, Kigali, Dr. A.Morris,
  Education Advisor, Mr. P. Nkurunziza
  Ruhengeri, Field Officer, Mr. Habimana,
    CHILD Coordinator Ms. C.Barere
    Tailor Instructor, Carpenter Instructor Mr. Félicien, and students
  Gitarama Project Manager, Ms. A. Mukaneza
  HIV/AIDS Consultants, CARE HQ Atlanta USA
CIESPD, Kigali, Chair, Ms. MG. Mukanzigiye
Giribambe, Kabuga, Vice President, Mr. J. Gakwaya
Mamans Sportives, Kigali, Director Ms. E. Mukayiranga
PACFA Programme Officer, Mr. E. Munyamaliza
Right to Play, Team Leader Mr. JP. Marcoux

SACCA (NGO), Kayonza, Kibungo, Ms. E. Fanning, Mr. William, Ms. Rachel

Appropriate Technology Higher Education Development, Mr. R. Holland
Researcher on Children, Peace, Ms. L. McClean-Hilken
National Resources Institute, UK, WB Consultant Kigali, Dr. A. Martin

WFP, Deputy Country Director, Mr. A. Loriston
WFP Schools Feeding Programme, Mr. G. Adoua
UNICEF, Chief Education Officer, Mr. C. Nabongo
Education Officer, Mr. M. Engels
Chief Child Protection Officer, Mr. J. Bergua
DFID, Social Services, Dr. J. Walker
DFID, Education, Mr. R. Irvine
C*f*BT Consultant Coordinator, Dr. H. Smith

Telephone contact or communication with:
Pro-femmes Twese Hamwe, FAWE, Oxfam, Save the Children, NPA, Trocaire, Gisenyi Provincial Education Office, Point d'Ecoute Gisenyi, and others.

APPENDIX G

LIST OF OOS CENTRES VISITED DURING STUDY

see abbrevs. below

Ref	Name	Type	N	Observations
CFJs (LSD)				
102	CFJ Kibali, Byumba Ville	CFJ, state	200	+GTZ/DAAD input
186	CFJ Mayanje, KNgali	CFJ, state	788*	
172	CFJ Gaculiro, Kigali	CFJ, state	528	Largest, prestigious CFJ
170	CFJ Gakoni, Umutara	CFJ, state	120	
154	CFJ Maraba,, Butare	CFJ. private	60	ch+INGO
101	CFJ Kageyo, Byumba Town	CFJ. private	89	
LSD/CFJ/etc.	NOT on official CFJ list			
136	CFJM Gisenyi	church LSD	133	
153	"CFJ Mbuye" Butare Town	church LSD	80	
155	CF AEE, Butare Town	church LSD	60	
151	CF Scout, Butare Town	NGO LSD	22	
180	ADPA Centre, Kigali	NGO LSD	100 p.a.	AGR & cath chbacked
104	Umuhoza, Kgli centre	NGO LSD	170	
105	Umuhoza, Kgli, HQ	HQ MEPs	50 p.ctr	(LSD & langsJesuits) ch org,
106	Umushumba Mwiza/AGR,	MEPs/LSD	170	now AEE; 97 girls
191	CARE OVC/HIV, Gitarama	MEPs/LSD	N/A	Focus on CHHs, multiple
138	Centre Amizero, Kibuye	LSD/MEPs+sp	174	support
140	CF Père Vjeko, Kivumu,	LSD+relg.	110	
150	Gitarm.	LSD/MEPs	68	
174	Pharm Umbwe Club, Gikongoro	product./LSD	216	650 in 3 centres
	ASSIST.Nyagatere, Umutara			
Apprenticesh	Tonic Garage, Cyangugu	LSD (priv)	10	priv workshop apprenticeships
152	CARE CHILD apprentice	LSD (NGO)	12	Pilot structured " in structured,
181	prog:	"	18	supported workshops, rural
182	Ruhengeri, carpentry, tailor wks	MinCOM proj	N/A	Apprenticeships funded
173	PPPMER Nyagatare, Umutara			
MEPs				
188	SACCA, Kayonza, Kibungo	MEPs+LSD+	24	for street children
135	Centre Abadahogora, Gisenyi	LSD+MEPs	260	bursaries to pri/sec/CFJs
137	Point d'Ecoute, Gisenyi Town	MEP+ ed	30	for street children
139	NIPS, Gitarama	support	60	CNJ, now run by PACFA
103	APBES Ishimwe, Byumba		30	90% female Byumba; 4 centres
107	Town	Youth centre	50-60	HIV by edutainmt. PACFA
	Centre des Jeunes de Kabuga,			(20% girls)
ED: Literacy				
192	Kirambo TTC Literacy prog	Literacy (TTC)	32	TTC funded initiative
190	Mamans Sportives, Kigali		N /A	Literacy in the provinces
ED: CatchUp		CU pri (state)		
183	Kinihira, Byumba	CU pri (state)		MINEDUC pilot centre
184	Ruyumba, Gitarama	CU pri (state)		MINEDUC pilot centre
185	Kirambo TTC Catch-up,	CU sec (NGO)		TTC funded initiative
189	Ruherg		110	For pri graduates, 40% waivers
	CIESPD Ctr., Kigali Town			

TOTAL 35 centres, organisations, workshops or sites visited

Ch= church; p.a. = per annum (year); p.ctr= per centre
LSD= livelihood skills development or training/vocational training; TTC teacher training centre
MEPs= multiple educative programmes ; CU= catch-up centre

Umushumba Mwiza (The Good Shepherd) NGO. Common NGO/organisation acronyms are listed among the abbreviations at the beginning of the report.

*186 Enrolment figures for 2003/4

APPENDIX H

REVIEW OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE RECOMMENDATIONS IN THE 2002 Baseline Study of Basic Education for Girls and Other Vulnerable Groups in Rwanda

Recommendations 2002 related to Vulnerable Children in General

Reduction of school costs to households: The GOR made education fee-free in 2003/4; and rescinded the policy on compulsory uniform; started free distribution of textbooks books/pupil ratio 3:1. [Recommendations: Policy iii, Legal ii – substantial action carried out]

OVC Policy, action: The Policy was developed in early 2003. The current report on alternative education opportunities for OVCs is evidence of the Government's readiness to enact the policy. While there is an ongoing national intention to reach out to traumatised children, the NGO ARCT is one of the best mechanisms used for this purpose. However, it requires increased funding to make a fully national impact. [Recs. Policy xiv; School vi, Community/Society ii – GOR continues to be overwhelmed by the need; insufficient funding/capacity available]

MINALOC has been overwhelmed by the scale of need and has not been able to reach out to monitor and follow up need at cell level, regarding monitoring of fostering, the identification of families and separated children still in need, the extent of equity in the distribution of bursaries to needy children, areas still unaided, etc. MIGEPROF has taken over this responsibility and requires thorough capacity building in this area. NGOs and churches are active at grassroots level but without any coordination and they have no overall monitoring role. More concentration and coordination is needed. [Recs. Community/Society iv - little progress noted]

PTAs: There is insufficient training for not only the management committee of schools, drawn from the PTA, and insufficient training for the general members of PTAs. At the same time, some communities have given tremendous assistance to schools. [Recs. Community/Society i, ii, iii, iv – little progress noted]

School feeding programmes: These programmes have been maintained better than in most countries over the last three years. The WFP office in Rwanda has achieved staff continuity at HQ Kigali level and produced excellent data on their programmes. The programme has not expanded since 2002. [Rec. Policy xi – programmes well maintained but not expanded]

Data collection on education, measurement and analysis: The Directorate of Planning is operating more efficiently at central level and produces data with reasonable speed per year, but depends for the quality of its data on collection processes at school and ongoing training at central level to ensure the critical mass of staff required for information management. MINEDUC will collect attendance data for the first time in 2005, which is sorely needed. In addition to school centred data, community data, identifying children out of school and their education requirements, is an ongoing need.

School offices do not display school statistics.
The Catch-up programme continues to use loose papers instead of records books.
There are no tracer studies on CFJ graduates or other LSD centre graduates.

In place of MLA Rwanda should consider joining the SACMEQ process of education achievement measurement. As noted below, times change. SACMEQ has proven its scientific basis and is now capable of encompassing more countries than one decade ago. [Recs. Policy vii, viii; School iii, iv; Research i, ii, iii – continual improvement but requires further capacity building efforts]

Data collection on vulnerable children: The current study is an enactment of the recommendation on vulnerable children's education needs. At national level statistics are required

on children IN or OUT of programmes; and on all programmes. It has to be recognised that detailed national data will be out of date two months after the collection date. It is therefore more important to constantly update and trace vulnerable children at lower administrative levels: district and sector, cell, *nyumbakumi* level. [Rec. Research ii – Not carried out, needs to be carried out at local levels]

Relevance of the primary school leaving examination: GOR is examining the feasibility of extending basic education up to ninth grade. This does not necessarily mean that the current public examination in P6 will be deemed irrelevant. However, together with the curriculum examinations need constant quality improvement. [Rec. Policy xiii – no change]

B. Recommendations 2002 related to girls' education

In a country where there are more girls enrolled in primary school than boys, it is important not to run unfocused girls' education programmes, when boys' education programmes also need attention. This could produce a justified and vocal backlash, resentment and noncooperation, not to speak of a credibility gap, as is the case in current Burundi refugee camps in northern Tanzania. After all the gains in the last two decades of the last millennium with regard to girls' education world-wide, it would be a great pity to lose the credibility, the sympathy and the will for action in Rwanda. It is recommended in this report that girls' education be handled with extreme care, caution, based always on statistical evidence pointing to gaps, need, and specific, identified disparity, rather than on lose rhetoric which fails to capture the needs of ALL vulnerable children in Rwanda and the needs of boys in the education sector.

Girls' education: Thorough analysis of the status of girls' education as compared with boys' education is still lacking in Rwanda. For this reason action plans on girls' education continue to be piecemeal or misfocused. For example, drop-out of girls in primary school is not as bad as the rate of boys' drop-out rates. What GE programmes need to do is to stave off drop-out in fifth grade and sensitise society on the need for: (a) increasing places for girls in secondary schools; (b) take-up of places offered in secondary school for girls; and (c) increase the performance of girls at primary (and every other level). The latter is particularly important since it is the major cause of relatively lower rates of enrolment of girls at secondary level. Until Rwanda understands how to implement and starts to implement a gender responsive and promoting environment in schools through the curriculum teacher, institutional practice, etc.), girls' performance will not rise. [Rec. Policy ix]

Girls' education programmes need to be based on careful scrutiny of the national, district, sector and school statistics, over the last five years, teasing out the trends.

FAWE has concentrated its efforts on establishing a model and well funded secondary school for girls in Kigali, which is gradually focusing more on admitting some rural girls, and in general advocacy on the education of girls. The organisation does not have sectoral or national impact and this probably stems from the fact that FAWE Rwanda needed a very specifically Rwandan thrust instead of a general thrust similar to FAWE chapters in other countries. Enrolments and even drop-out at primary is not an issue in Rwanda, and has not been for twenty years. What is at issue, however, is the performance of girls at every level of the system, and the total lack of gender empowerment in the sector (curriculum, materials, teachers' attitudes, practices, institutional attitudes and practices, etc.); the lack of any programme to change the attitudes and practices of men and boys – the administrators, the teachers and the taught - in the education sector; the failure of the life skills programme to take off as intended with its innovative and behaviour-changing and attitude-changing methodological approach. [Recs. Policy ix, x]

Instead of placing the responsibility for gender outreach in 2005 within FAWE, it could make more sense to mainstream gender issues across the Ministry of Education in order to achieve more impact across the education sector, right into the rural areas and at primary level, rather than leave such important activities to one unit, albeit a unit which was semi-internalised by the Ministry but which could be seen as the sole unit responsible for gender promotion. Times have

changed. A small sectoral committee of five very senior and well trained gender activists could achieve more at present, given the specific nature of Rwanda's girls' education needs. [Rec. Policy v would be best carried out through this small high-powered committee, one of whom should be a representative from the Directorate of Planning, with easy access to data.]

[Recs. Policy ix, x; School i, ii, iii, v; Community/Society v; Research i, ii, iii, iv - policy and action focus not yet defined for changing circumstances]

Promotion of women in the education sector: Rwanda has started to enact its gender policy, raising the number of women in senior management positions, including those in the education sector, including heads of schools. [Rec. Policy xiii – substantial progress]

Early marriage: Just as district administrators are following up more closely on drop-outs from school they are also giving more attention to the prevention of early marriage. [Recs. Legal i, iii slow progress]

There is no report of action on Policy i, ii (science scholarships for girls/women), iv, v, xii, or on specific DEF allocation to girls [Rec. Community/Society v – no progress].

The recommendation to focus on skills training and nonformal education for girls and OVC has not been implemented. [Rec. Policy xii – no progress]