Educationally Marginalized Children in Namibia: An Inventory of Programmes, Interventions and Data

UNICEF/Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC)

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1. Introduction

This study is the outcome of the Strategic Planning Meeting of the Intersectoral Task Force (ITF) for Educationally Marginalized Children (EMC) in December 2001.

The ITF was established in 1996 by the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC), after realising that there was a persistent enrolment gap of school-age children around 7%, in spite of Namibia’s growing enrolment rate since independence.

The Namibian government realised that specific, temporary affirmative action efforts were required to reach out to educationally marginalized children (EMC) and to provide universal access to education as outlined in the Constitution of Namibia.

In 2000 the *National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalized Children (NPO)* identified poverty and negative attitudes towards disadvantaged sections of society as the underlying causes for educational marginalisation, in spite of the constitutional right to free education since 1990. Poor parents are not able to pay the direct costs of education such as school development fund, uniforms and transport, and inadequate nutrition of poor learners leads to irregular attendance and early dropout. Since the time the NPO were drafted, the problems relating to orphanhood and children infected and affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic has become an additional and growing challenge. The NPO identifies thirteen groups of educationally marginalized children (EMC) and makes recommendations to improve their access to education within the context of the government’s poverty reduction strategy.

At the Planning Meeting in December 2001 the ITF, however, realised that in order to monitor improvement in access for EMC and to initiate strategic responses to their educational needs, more information with respect to statistical data on the different groups and on current programmes and interventions was necessary.

This study is a short-term consultancy (19 days) with the objective of filling information gaps on existing and planned interventions per group of EMC and to provide the Intersectoral Task Force with information with respect to statistical data. The aim of the study is to enable the Intersectoral Task Force on Educationally Marginalized Children to make a medium-term action plan for those groups most in need and to monitor improvement in access for EMC.

The study undertook desk reviews, an analysis of policies, project reports, statistical data and key informant interviews with ITF members, MBESC officials and agencies involved in educational programming for EMC.
Due to the lack of the 2001 population census and other national data, this study does not provide a comprehensive overview. While policy papers, reports and overviews from the education ministries were available, data and information on most EMC groups were only available for specific local groups and projects or not at all.

The report will give a short background on the history of EMC in Namibia and the Ministry's response to their specific needs and problems. It will analyse the current situation of primary school enrolment with respect to gender, region and language group and will discuss the current regulations, policies and programmes that have relevance for EMC and the NPO. A run-down of the thirteen EMC groups with specific recommendations per group will then be given, followed by a summary and overall recommendations.

2. Executive Summary

Background

Since independence in 1990, access to education for all Namibian children has increased substantially. Today approximately 95% of primary school age children are in school, and according to the “UN Report on the Economic and Social Conditions in Southern Africa, 2000”, Namibia has the highest primary school enrolment rate after Botswana (96%) and Mauritius (99%) and the highest public expenditure on education with 8.7% of GNP.

However, the Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (MBESC) has acknowledged that some groups in Namibia are still educationally marginalized and that special efforts have to be made in order to achieve the government’s goal of “Education for All”. For this reason, following the “Workshop on Educationally Marginalized Children” in November 1995, an Intersectoral Task Force (ITF) was established in 1996 with the MBESC as lead ministry and with representatives from other ministries and NGO's.

The “National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalized Children” (NPO – EMC) was consequently developed and published in 2000. It provides a number of temporary policy options to achieve 100% net enrolment and identifies and defines thirteen groups of educationally marginalized children. This study is providing an up-to-date inventory of programmes, actions and available statistical data for each of these thirteen groups of EMC and is indicating possible medium-term interventions of educational services to the ITF.

General Observations

The thirteen groups of “educationally marginalized children” as identified by the “National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalized Children” (NPO – EMC) of 2000 were found to be targeted by studies, surveys, policies and programmes to very different degrees.

- For the groups of the San and the Ovahimba children numerous programmes and projects are in place, focussing on education and increase of enrolment. For the Ovahimba children as a homogenous group in a specific area, the programmes have been successful in that enrolment has increased substantially to about 50%. For the San, who are scattered all over Namibia and who are no homogeneous group, by far
the highest number of surveys and programmes exist; enrolment of San children has generally improved but is still by far the lowest of all language groups in Namibia (between 25 and 30%).

- While a substantial number of programmes are in place for the relatively small number of San and Ovahimba learners, there are no programmes or projects and very little Information available with respect to increasing number of children living in informal settlements around the towns of Namibia. This group of „educationally marginalized children“ is possibly the largest group of all thirteen groups identified by NPO – EMC, except orphans, and needs urgent attention. Children in squatter areas are marginalized both on account of poverty and a lack of access to schools in their vicinity.

- Another large group of EMC on which no information is available are the children of farm workers on communal farms.

- In the face of the devastating HIV/AIDS pandemic, policies and programmes for orphans both by government ministries and by private initiatives are developing locally and nationally. By means of official definitions not all orphans are educationally marginalized and quite a substantial number of orphans will overlap with other categories of EMC such as street children, children in squatter areas and children of farm workers.

- For teenage mothers, children from poor homes (orphans, children of farm workers, street children, children in resettlement and informal settlement areas, young offenders) and children with special educational needs clear government policies or guidelines by the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture (MBESC) exist. They are aimed at both increasing enrolment and retaining learners at school, for example the guidelines on the school development fund, school uniforms and exemption from hostel fees, and the policy on teenage pregnancy. However, policies, regulations and guidelines are not always clearly and forcefully stated and are either not known, not clearly understood or not properly applied by parents, teachers and learners.

- For young offenders, children of farm workers on commercial farms and children in resettlement areas a small number of programmes and projects are in existence or are in the process of being developed or established. All projects are, however, local programmes focussing on a specific town, farm or resettlement camp.

- Very little information is available on and very few programmes are established for teenage mothers who are in school or have dropped out of school, and on street children. No comprehensive figures and statistics are available and no national or even regional surveys have been conducted. A few local initiatives do exist.

- Children with special educational needs are the only group of the “educationally marginalized children” as identified by the NPO – EMC that have a special directorate responsible for them, i.e. the Directorate: Special Education within the MBESC. This existing structure within the MBESC and the existing policy guidelines of the MBESC with respect to the inclusion of children with special educational needs should be the basis for any interventions by the Intersectoral Task Force
- On the basis of enrolment figures, latest statistics and definitions, three groups of children termed “educationally marginalized” by the “National Policy Option” document were found to be of less priority than others: **Overage learners** are a decreasing problem in Namibia, and in spite of the regulation by the MBESC that learners accepted into grade 1 should not exceed the age of 10 years, statistics indicate that overage of learners is flexibly handled by schools. The educational needs of **children in refugee camps** are catered for by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) in co-operation with the MBESC and Non-Governmental Organisations. Although classrooms are crowded, refugee children in Namibia have both access to appropriate education and the necessary means (school uniforms, food etc.) to attend and remain both at primary and secondary school. **Working children**, as defined by the Ministry of Labour, are not educationally marginalized in Namibia as a group and do not need to be targeted as a special category. The percentage of working children that are in fact marginalized will fall under the categories of street children, children of farm workers, orphans and others.

The study indicates that in Namibia in general **young boys** are educationally more marginalized than girls, although this is not true for all regions and not for all ethnic or language groups. In particular the Ondangwa East and West Education Regions (Ohangwena, Omusati and Oshana Administrative Regions) show an above average dropout rates for boys between the ages 9 and 19 years or between grades 6 to 9. It would be worthwhile to establish the reasons behind these figures and to consider adding young boys in some parts of the country to the EMC groups so that the problem can be addressed by the ITF.

**Recommendations**

1. **Co-ordinate targeting of groups**

   While some small groups of EMC (e.g. the San), are relatively well covered by programmes, studies and projects, other relatively large groups are undertargeted, e.g. children in informal areas and children of farm workers on communal farms. Interest in and attention on groups such as the San and Ovahimba is disproportionally high because of high NGO involvement, while the needs of other groups that do not have NGOs representing their interests are neglected. The Intersectoral Task Force (ITF) should therefore assist in co-ordinating and directing new projects and programmes of NGO’s offered to the Ministry of Education so that finances and resources are directed to those groups of EMC have been neglected up to now.

2. **National School Feeding Programme**

   The National School Feeding Programme has been operating since 1991 within the MBESC. At the time of implementation it was specifically aimed at increasing attendance and at the retention of poor and educationally marginalised learners with a very high success rate during the first years of implementation. Today there is, however, very little awareness, understanding and little monitoring of this government programme. ITF should urgently look at how the School Feeding Programme can be
re-activated, re-directed and extended to those in need, especially with the increasing number of orphans in Namibia.

3. The ITF should make maximum use of regional offices and the cluster school system, in order to improve implementation of programmes and policies, for example for organising, monitoring and extending the School Feeding Programme.

4. The ITF should address policies and regulations with respect to teenage pregnancy, the age of school entrants into grade 1 and the learner:teacher ratio for small schools in remote rural areas. Some regulations are unclear such as the policy on teenage pregnancy, others are in contradiction with the objective of the ITF to improve access to education for EMC.

5. From statistics and reports it is evident that in Namibian primary schools retention is a greater problem than enrolment. The ITF should therefore focus attention on high dropout rates, especially of boys in primary school.

6. ITF should establish a database for EMC by liaising with organisations such as the Legal Assistance Centre, (LAC), the Namibian Agricultural Union (NAU), and the Church Alliance for Orphans (CAFO). These organisations conduct regular surveys and the ITF could request them to include questions with respect to educationally marginalised children.

3. Methodology

The study is based on desk reviews, documentary analysis of reports, educational policies and of EMIS and other statistical data and on interviews with key informants and programme managers.

Interviews were conducted with key informants in the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture, related ministries and NGO’s. Interviews provided information on statistical dimensions, existing and planned programmes, policies and initiatives and human and material resources committed and available.

A semi-structured interview schedule was followed for key informants, allowing time for general impressions and comments by interviewees, while informal interviews were conducted with farmers, teachers and church workers.

Interviewees were chosen in consultation with the UNICEF Programme Co-ordinator and on recommendation by other interviewees. Due to the short time frame, not all relevant key informants were available for interviews.

4. Chronological background to improved access to education in Namibia
Before 1990, the Namibian education system had been marked by high inequalities between ethnic, racial and language groups. When gaining independence and electing a national government in 1990, the government of the Republic of Namibia introduced compulsory education for all children between the ages seven to fourteen or for at least seven grades. Since then the enrolment of school-age children of all previously disadvantaged groups has increased considerably. However, by 1995 it was realised that there was still a persistent enrolment gap of school-age children of about 7%. The Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture came to the conclusion that specific, temporary affirmative action efforts were required to reach out to educationally marginalised children in order to provide universal access to education as outlined in the Constitution. Since then “Educationally Marginalised Children” have become a specifically defined group of learners, for which various actions and policies have been developed.

1990 - Adoption of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, Article 20: “All persons have the right to education. Primary education shall be compulsory and the State shall provide reasonable facilities to render effective this right for every resident within Namibia, by establishing and maintaining State schools at which primary education will be provided free of charge.”

1992 - The National School Feeding Programme was introduced with the long-term objective “to support the Government’s policy of assuring adequate primary education for the entire population and thereby overcome the effects of the former apartheid system” (UN World Food Programme, Project Namibia 4500/Q, 1992).

1995 - A workshop on Educationally Marginalised Children took place with recommendations to government.

1996 - The Intersectoral Task Force was established by the MBESC.

1999 - The Presidential Commission on Education, Culture and Training published a report of its main findings. The report identified the main groups of EMC, including teenage mothers.

2000 - The educational policy „Towards Education for All“ 2000, reiterates that all Namibians should have access to education.

2001 - The Education Act of 2001 focuses attention on the need to address the situation of EMC in the context of providing equitable quality education to all children in Namibia. The Act comprises the establishment of an Education Development Fund to provide for facilities, bursaries and educational programmes for socio-economically disadvantaged learners.

2001 - The „National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalized Children“ (MBESC, 2000) were issued, a policy document funded by UNICEF and carried out in Cupertino with the Intersectoral Task Force on Educationally Marginalized Children of MBESC. It suggests a temporary policy of affirmative action in order to speed up the process of 100% enrolment, identifies groups of EMC and defines EMC as „children who for one or another reason, have difficulty in getting access to basic education or who drop out prematurely, or who have been pushed out from the formal education system by the
The NPO identify three common underlying reasons for educational marginalisation:

a) poverty
b) attitudes by non-marginalized people
c) high illiteracy rate among parents of EMC


5. Situation analysis

5.1 Enrolment, attendance and retention

Unfortunately the 2001 population census was not yet available by the end of 2002. While it is possible to determine the numbers of school-age children who do attend school from the Education Statistics 2001 (EMIS 2001), there are no up-to-date data on the number of children that are presently NOT in school – both nation-wide, in the different regions and per group of EMC. This makes it difficult to measure exact progress over the past ten years and to evaluate existing programmes in terms of increased enrolment and retention.

**General enrolment**

In 2001, there were 528,958 learners in 1545 schools in Namibia. 396,252 learners were in primary school and 130,577 in secondary school.

Table A: **Number of school, learners and teachers** (EMIS 2001, Table 1)
The apparent intake rates of grade 1 learners in 2001 in Namibia are 97.1%. For female learners this intake rate is 98.1% and for male learners 96.1% with an annual growth rate of 2.4% between 1995 and 2001. The intake rate is measured in comparison to the six-year-old population. (EMIS 2001, p. 50, table 23)

Net and gross enrolment ratios are indicated in the table below:

Table B: Net and Gross Enrolment Ratios, (EMIS 2001, Table 28)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>7 - 13</th>
<th>7 - 16</th>
<th>7 - 18</th>
<th>14 - 18</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grades</td>
<td>Gd 1 - 7</td>
<td>Gd 1 - 10</td>
<td>Gd 1 - 12</td>
<td>Gd 8 - 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Enrolment Ratio</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>89.1%</td>
<td>90.8%</td>
<td>87.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>91.2%</td>
<td>93.4%</td>
<td>90.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>87.0%</td>
<td>86.1%</td>
<td>85.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross Enrolment Ratio</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114.9%</td>
<td>108.6%</td>
<td>97.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>114.9%</td>
<td>110.0%</td>
<td>99.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
<td>114.9%</td>
<td>107.1%</td>
<td>96.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Net and Gross Enrolment Ratios (NER and GER) are the two most widely reported indicators of the proportion of the school-age population enrolled in school.

The GER is the total enrolment in a range of grades, divided by the number of people in the population of the age that should be enrolled in those grades. GER values over 100% are an indication of over-aged learners enrolled in the specific school phase. The NER is the number of learners of appropriate age enrolled in a range of grades, divided by the population in the same age group. There were, for example, 304,057 learners aged between seven and thirteen enrolled in Grades 1 to 7 out 341,196 people in the same age range in the projected population. The NER of 89.1% is 304,057 divided by 341,196.

By using a projection of the 1990 census figures, the Central Statistics Office of MBESC has provided data on the general increase of enrolment during the past 10 years in percentages for boys and girls. (Annex, Table 1)

These figures are based on the „medium scenario“ population projections provided by the Central Bureau for Statistics after the 1991 Population and Household Census (which excluded Walvis Bay). The total projected population seems to be under-estimated in some cases as some totals exceed 100%. According to these data, the rate of enrolment for 6 year olds is 34%, for 7-year olds 72% and for 8 to 16-year-olds between 82% and 108%.

In general, enrolment at the primary level has grown substantially since 1991 from a primary school net enrolment of 89.2% to 94.9% in 1997, with female enrolment even higher than the national rates at 95.7%.
The UN Country Assessment of 1999 gives a rough figure of about **16 500 children in the age group 7 to 13 that are still not at school**. This is a clear improvement to 1992, when about 28 000 were estimated not to be enrolled at school.

**Enrolment by region**

Figures for enrolment by Education and Administrative Region are given below. Around 50% of all learners of both primary and secondary schools are in the Ondangwa East and Ondangwa West Education regions. The Kunene, the Omaheke and the Karas Administrative Regions have the smallest number of learners with between 14 000 and 15 500 learners each.

### Table C: Enrolments in the different school phases in each region (EMIS 2001, Table 7)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Subtotal Primary</th>
<th>Lower Primary</th>
<th>Upper Primary</th>
<th>Subtotal Secondary</th>
<th>Junior Secondary</th>
<th>Senior Secondary</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>528 958</td>
<td>396 252</td>
<td>237 274</td>
<td>158 978</td>
<td>130 577</td>
<td>105 643</td>
<td>24 934</td>
<td>2 129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education regions</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katima Mullo</td>
<td>23 277</td>
<td>15 601</td>
<td>9 019</td>
<td>6 583</td>
<td>7 667</td>
<td>5 932</td>
<td>1 735</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rundu</td>
<td>62 441</td>
<td>51 072</td>
<td>33 285</td>
<td>17 787</td>
<td>11 369</td>
<td>9 705</td>
<td>1 664</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondangwa East</td>
<td>130 917</td>
<td>103 230</td>
<td>59 262</td>
<td>43 974</td>
<td>27 701</td>
<td>24 279</td>
<td>3 422</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ondangwa West</td>
<td>141 942</td>
<td>103 811</td>
<td>60 154</td>
<td>43 667</td>
<td>37 934</td>
<td>30 246</td>
<td>7 688</td>
<td>174</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khorixas</td>
<td>36 508</td>
<td>26 412</td>
<td>16 500</td>
<td>9 912</td>
<td>9 932</td>
<td>7 904</td>
<td>2 028</td>
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<tr>
<td>Windhoek</td>
<td>97 302</td>
<td>69 949</td>
<td>43 161</td>
<td>26 788</td>
<td>26 605</td>
<td>20 197</td>
<td>6 408</td>
<td>748</td>
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<tr>
<td>Keetmanshoop</td>
<td>35 276</td>
<td>25 825</td>
<td>15 696</td>
<td>10 129</td>
<td>9 197</td>
<td>7 208</td>
<td>1 989</td>
<td>254</td>
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<tr>
<td>Head Office</td>
<td>1 235</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>717</td>
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<td>Administrative regions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Caprivi</td>
<td>23 277</td>
<td>15 601</td>
<td>9 018</td>
<td>6 583</td>
<td>7 667</td>
<td>5 932</td>
<td>1 735</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kavango</td>
<td>62 441</td>
<td>51 072</td>
<td>33 285</td>
<td>17 787</td>
<td>11 369</td>
<td>9 705</td>
<td>1 664</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohangwena</td>
<td>80 302</td>
<td>64 688</td>
<td>37 333</td>
<td>27 355</td>
<td>15 614</td>
<td>14 082</td>
<td>1 532</td>
<td>197</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oshikoto</td>
<td>50 675</td>
<td>38 549</td>
<td>21 929</td>
<td>16 619</td>
<td>12 087</td>
<td>10 197</td>
<td>1 800</td>
<td>40</td>
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<tr>
<td>Omuasei</td>
<td>89 901</td>
<td>66 504</td>
<td>38 838</td>
<td>27 666</td>
<td>22 397</td>
<td>18 051</td>
<td>4 346</td>
<td>748</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oshana</td>
<td>53 041</td>
<td>37 307</td>
<td>21 316</td>
<td>15 901</td>
<td>15 537</td>
<td>12 195</td>
<td>3 342</td>
<td>179</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kunene</td>
<td>14 934</td>
<td>11 823</td>
<td>7 594</td>
<td>4 039</td>
<td>3 249</td>
<td>2 764</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>63</td>
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<tr>
<td>Enongo</td>
<td>21 574</td>
<td>14 789</td>
<td>8 916</td>
<td>5 873</td>
<td>6 684</td>
<td>5 140</td>
<td>1 544</td>
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<td>Otjozondjupa</td>
<td>30 911</td>
<td>24 249</td>
<td>15 227</td>
<td>9 022</td>
<td>6 564</td>
<td>5 434</td>
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<td>Omaheke</td>
<td>14 258</td>
<td>10 698</td>
<td>6 591</td>
<td>4 107</td>
<td>3 503</td>
<td>3 138</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>55</td>
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<tr>
<td>Khomas</td>
<td>52 135</td>
<td>35 002</td>
<td>21 343</td>
<td>13 659</td>
<td>16 538</td>
<td>11 625</td>
<td>4 913</td>
<td>595</td>
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<td>Hardap</td>
<td>19 731</td>
<td>14 210</td>
<td>8 445</td>
<td>5 765</td>
<td>5 388</td>
<td>4 290</td>
<td>1 098</td>
<td>133</td>
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<td>11 615</td>
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<td>3 809</td>
<td>2 918</td>
<td>891</td>
<td>121</td>
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<tr>
<td>Head Office</td>
<td>1 235</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>717</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variation in the sizes of regions in terms of schools, enrolment and teachers has been shown in Table 1 and Figures 1 to 3. Enrolments in the different school phases have been reported in Table 7. Figure 8 indicates the variation in the distribution of learners between phases.

Only 0.4% of all learners were in grades other than grades 1 to 12. Learners in 'other' grades accounted for 58% of the enrolment in special schools resorting under Head Office, but represented between 0 and 1.1% in the geographic regions.
From the Namibia Human Development Report 200/2001 of the United Nations development Programme (UNDP), the following percentages could be established with respect to net school enrolment in the thirteen different Administrative Regions of Namibia:

Table D: **Components of adult literacy and school enrolment for the thirteen administrative regions** (UNDP 2000/2001)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Life Expect.</th>
<th>Adult Literacy</th>
<th>School Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Caprivi</td>
<td>32.6</td>
<td>75.4</td>
<td>95.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erongo</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>89.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardap</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>80.7</td>
<td>85.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karas</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>88.6</td>
<td>89.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kavango</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>73.1</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khoamas</td>
<td>46.1</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>83.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kunene</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>94.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ohangwena</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>76.0</td>
<td>93.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omaheke</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>64.0</td>
<td>79.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omusati</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>99.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshana</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>99.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshikoto</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>81.9</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otjozondjupa</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>72.0</td>
<td>79.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NAMIBIA</strong></td>
<td><strong>43.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>81.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>94.5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table shows that school enrolment is around the national average of 94.5% in regions such as Caprivi, Kavango, Kunene, Ohangwena, and Oshikoto. Enrolment is above the national average in the Omusati and Oshana administrative regions. Erongo, Karas and Hardap are below average with enrolment rates between 86% and 90%. Enrolment is lowest in the Omaheke and Otjozondjupa regions with 79.4% and 79.0% respectively. These two regions also have the lowest literacy rates in Namibia. Interestingly, enrolment is also rather low in the Khoamas region with 83.7%, although this region has by far the highest literacy rate in Namibia with 94%.

**Enrolment by language group**

The table below shows the number of learners in primary and secondary school with respect to home language of learners:
Table E: Home language of learners (EMIS 2001, table 16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Subtotal</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>National</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>528 958</td>
<td>496 252</td>
<td>237 274</td>
<td>158 978</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>37 588</td>
<td>24 064</td>
<td>14 444</td>
<td>10 220</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>3 487</td>
<td>2 221</td>
<td>1 203</td>
<td>1 018</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>2 318</td>
<td>1 383</td>
<td>801</td>
<td>562</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khoekhoegowab</td>
<td>53 342</td>
<td>4 165</td>
<td>25 237</td>
<td>15 808</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshiwambo</td>
<td>121 473</td>
<td>28 034</td>
<td>54 781</td>
<td>40 233</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshindonga</td>
<td>77 807</td>
<td>57 500</td>
<td>32 957</td>
<td>24 543</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Oshiwambo languages</td>
<td>96 841</td>
<td>66 491</td>
<td>39 168</td>
<td>27 323</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Caprivian languages</td>
<td>19 490</td>
<td>12 358</td>
<td>6 995</td>
<td>5 363</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other European languages</td>
<td>1 062</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>229</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshikuru</td>
<td>11 341</td>
<td>9 222</td>
<td>5 932</td>
<td>3 290</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rukwangali</td>
<td>23 171</td>
<td>23 106</td>
<td>15 188</td>
<td>7 918</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San (Bushman languages)</td>
<td>3 930</td>
<td>3 687</td>
<td>2 818</td>
<td>849</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setswana</td>
<td>1 612</td>
<td>1 110</td>
<td>668</td>
<td>442</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shishambuy</td>
<td>2 805</td>
<td>2 203</td>
<td>1 378</td>
<td>825</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shingi</td>
<td>5 983</td>
<td>4 055</td>
<td>2 521</td>
<td>1 534</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shimirushu</td>
<td>7 761</td>
<td>6 676</td>
<td>4 265</td>
<td>2 410</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other languages</td>
<td>21 967</td>
<td>17 772</td>
<td>12 133</td>
<td>5 640</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table indicates that more than 290 000 learners have an Oshiwambo language as home language, which corresponds to 55%. Khoekhoegowab (Nama/Damara) comes second with 10%, followed by Otjiherero and Afrikaans with both around 7% of learners.

The table below indicates the 2000 rate of school enrolment with respect to language group. According to this table, San learners still have by far the lowest rate of enrolment with 20.3 %, followed by the Otjiherero and Khoekhoegowab language groups with 84.2% and 83% respectively. Since no up-to-date census data were available in the year 2000, enrolment rates might not be accurate.

Table F: Human Development Index 2000 by language group, UNFDP Development Report 2000/2001)
School leaving rates

The number of learners (percentages not yet available) leaving school before completion of their primary education has substantially decreased between 1994 and 2000. In 1994, 17,752 learners (grade 1 to 6) left primary school compared to 8,724 learners in the year 2000. (EMIS 2001, table 33). Taking into consideration that the number of learners has considerably increased since 1994, the number of school leavers in grades 1 to 6 has dropped by more than 50%.

Table G: Approximate numbers of people who had left school between 1994 and 2000 (EMIS 2001, Table 33)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>44,236</td>
<td>44,836</td>
<td>40,123</td>
<td>45,674</td>
<td>51,463</td>
<td>40,238</td>
<td>40,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Primary</td>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>5,686</td>
<td>4,605</td>
<td>1,765</td>
<td>2,329</td>
<td>2,982</td>
<td>2,040</td>
<td>1,782</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>1,964</td>
<td>2,170</td>
<td>1,550</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>1,235</td>
<td>368</td>
<td>435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 3</td>
<td>1,334</td>
<td>2,104</td>
<td>1,474</td>
<td>1,841</td>
<td>1,318</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 4</td>
<td>3,682</td>
<td>3,333</td>
<td>2,861</td>
<td>2,905</td>
<td>3,505</td>
<td>1,230</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Primary</td>
<td>Grade 5</td>
<td>2,725</td>
<td>3,155</td>
<td>2,713</td>
<td>2,386</td>
<td>2,664</td>
<td>2,663</td>
<td>3,304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 6</td>
<td>2,341</td>
<td>2,656</td>
<td>2,542</td>
<td>2,790</td>
<td>3,359</td>
<td>2,424</td>
<td>2,561</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 7</td>
<td>3,045</td>
<td>2,923</td>
<td>2,866</td>
<td>3,113</td>
<td>4,503</td>
<td>3,068</td>
<td>3,283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Secondary</td>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>3,064</td>
<td>2,687</td>
<td>2,955</td>
<td>3,161</td>
<td>4,176</td>
<td>4,203</td>
<td>4,452</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 9</td>
<td>2,051</td>
<td>1,879</td>
<td>2,090</td>
<td>2,236</td>
<td>3,283</td>
<td>2,986</td>
<td>3,636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>5,427</td>
<td>7,861</td>
<td>7,268</td>
<td>11,300</td>
<td>9,796</td>
<td>9,446</td>
<td>8,631</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Secondary</td>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>545</td>
<td>626</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>566</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>12,352</td>
<td>10,837</td>
<td>11,303</td>
<td>12,018</td>
<td>12,874</td>
<td>10,908</td>
<td>11,337</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table G indicates that the number of school leavers has always been especially high in grades 1 and 5.

The number of school leavers in junior secondary schools (grade 8 and 9) has increased since 1994. In that year about 5000 grade 8 and 9 learners left school, while in 2000 the number was about 8000.

Unfortunately no information about school leaving figures or rates with respect to region or language group is presently available.

Enrolment, drop-out and gender

In 2001, 3,179 learners nation-wide left lower primary school. Of these 60% (1,910) were male. This high percentage of male school leavers is reversed in junior secondary school. Of about 8000 school leavers in grades 8 and 9, about 54% are female and 46% are male. Also in grade 11, consistently more girls than boys have been leaving school for the past nine years. (EMIS 2001, Table)

The above figures show that in primary school non-retention or premature dropout has a gender base: male learners have a significantly lower survival rate than female learners. While enrolment rates for boys and girls are more or less equal, dropout rates in primary school have been significantly higher for boys than for girls in all grades.

The total female enrolment in the lower primary school in the year 2001 was
117 500 for girls and for boys 119 000; however, in the same year there were 80 670 girls and only 78 300 boys enrolled in upper primary schools. EMIS attributed the much higher enrolment figures for girls in upper primary schools to both lower promotion rates and higher school leaving rates for males in most primary grades. The promotion rate in grade 5, for example, was 77% for girls and 68% for boys and is higher in all grades from grade 1 to grade 9. It then changes slightly in favour of male learners.

Table G: Promotion, repetition and school-leaving rates in grades 1-11 between 2000 and 2001 (EMIS 2001, table 30)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Promotion rates</th>
<th>Repetition rates</th>
<th>School-leaving rates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Females</td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>79.0%</td>
<td>80.5%</td>
<td>77.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>76.6%</td>
<td>81.7%</td>
<td>77.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>86.2%</td>
<td>89.0%</td>
<td>85.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 3</td>
<td>86.1%</td>
<td>88.8%</td>
<td>83.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 4</td>
<td>65.9%</td>
<td>86.6%</td>
<td>83.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 5</td>
<td>72.6%</td>
<td>77.3%</td>
<td>68.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 6</td>
<td>80.1%</td>
<td>81.1%</td>
<td>79.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7</td>
<td>78.2%</td>
<td>78.7%</td>
<td>77.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>69.6%</td>
<td>89.0%</td>
<td>70.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9</td>
<td>73.4%</td>
<td>71.3%</td>
<td>75.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>58.3%</td>
<td>58.0%</td>
<td>58.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>95.6%</td>
<td>95.1%</td>
<td>96.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since 1994 the survival of both male and female learners has consistently increased, However, it has still not reached 90% from grade 5 to grade 6, and it is lower than 70% from grade 8 to grade 9 and even lower than 60% from grade 9 to grade 10. The overall promotion rate for the year 2000 is 87%. Only 66% of learners reached grade 9 in 2000 while 57% stayed in school up to grade 10.

At the same time, the rate of survival of female learners has remained consistently higher than that of males in all grades up to grade 12, called by EMIS an „extraordinary feature.“ (EMIS 2001, p.) For example, 4% of girls left school after or during grade 5 while almost 7% of boys left school during the same time, same grade. In grade 6, 91% of females survived in comparison to 84% boys. In grade 7, 86% girls survived in comparison to 79% boys. These figures illustrate that, on average, early school leaving was and is a greater problem among male than among female learners.

Table H: Survival rates to grade 2 – 12 between 1994 and 2000 (EMIS 2001, table 32)
It will be worthwhile to look into the reasons for this fact and to assess in which way and in which specific regions or language groups boys are „educationally marginalised“ when it comes to retention.

5.2 Policies, regulations and programmes with respect to EMC

The National School Feeding Programme

The National School Feeding Programme, funded and administered by the MBESC, is specifically targeted at poor and marginalised primary school children. According to warehouse figures it is presently providing more than 87 000 needy learners with one or more daily meals. In spite of the programme’s objective of assuring access to primary education for learners from poor families, there is an acute lack of awareness and lack of control of the programme. It is not regarded and used as an important strategy to
address the problem of educational marginalisation, although poverty was identified as one of its underlying causes by the “National Policy Options for EMC”.

**Background**

In 1992 the United Nations World Food Programme (WFP) in co-operation with the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture started the implementation of the national school-feeding programme. This programme specifically targeted poor and marginalised school children with the long-term objective “to support the Government’s policy of assuring adequate primary education for the entire population and thereby overcome the effects of the former apartheid system.” The main immediate objectives were to reduce the present inequality in the access of pre-school and primary day school children to food and alleviate the widespread short-term hunger resulting from it.

The programme gradually grew over the next five years and was established in most poor, non-crop producing and drought affected areas in Namibia with well-planned and successful community participation. It provided needy learners with one daily meal at school and one to three meals at a number of poor private hostels. By 1995 the feeding programme had 78,000 beneficiaries.

The implementation of the programme was very successful. One of its aims was active community involvement, and parents, chiefs and church leaders were enthusiastic to “own the project”. In co-operation with teachers and headmaster, the parents would organise the school feeding, cook meals and monitor regular supply of foods. The headmaster or a teacher would be responsible for ordering, storing and dispensation of food as well as reporting back to the Ministry on the number of children fed, absenteeism of learners, success of programme etc.

The impact of the programme was very soon clearly evident to teachers, parents and programme administrators. In a 1995 report to WFP (WFP Progress Report, 1995) using data from the GoN/WFP Evaluation of School Feeding Impact, conducted in 1994 (including a survey of 56 schools and 181 teachers), it is stated that “teachers reported that the School Feeding Programme had a significant impact on school life including the virtual elimination of afternoon absenteeism, improved concentration and improved school attendance and pass rates.” The observation on attendance was supported with data from a study by the Namibian Institute for Social and Economic Research (NEPRU). The study found average attendance rates for primary schools ranged from 34% to 62% but in schools where the School Feeding Programme operated, the figure was 90% to 100%. (WFP: Phase Out Review, Namibia 2002)

In 1999 the SFP was extended to schools in the most drought affected areas in northern Namibia including 16,000 more primary school children in the regions of Caprivi, Ohangwena, Khomas and Otjozondjupa.

**Today**

The estimated number of beneficiaries for the year 2001 is 87,800 (WFP Report 2002). However, no statistical data could be obtained from the MBESC on the actual number of daily meals provided, on any monitoring processes of food distribution and on the successes and/or failures of the programme. The only information available were figures
of food distribution from different warehouses from the administrator of the school feeding programme (see table from WFP report below).

Table I: SCHOOL FEEDING BENEFICIARY AND INSTITUTION NUMBERS
2nd Term, 2002

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Warehouse</th>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Number of Institutions</th>
<th>Number of Hostels</th>
<th>Number of daily meals for Hostel</th>
<th>Total Daily Meals</th>
<th>Estimate of Beneficiary numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oshakati</td>
<td>Ondangwa East: Ohangwena &amp; Oshikoto</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16024</td>
<td>16024</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ondangwa West: Omusati &amp; Oshana</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>9131</td>
<td>9022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rundu</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rundu</td>
<td></td>
<td>188</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1276</td>
<td>17664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otjiwarongo</td>
<td>Windhoek: Otjozondjupa</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>584</td>
<td>8047</td>
<td>7658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Khorixas: Erongo (area 1)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>2851</td>
<td>2455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Windhoek</td>
<td>Windhoek: Khomas</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>755</td>
<td>3080</td>
<td>2577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Khorixas: Erongo (area 2)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>3774</td>
<td>3641</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Keetmanshoop: Rehoboth</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>5135</td>
<td>5037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keetmanshoop</td>
<td>Keetmanshoop: Hardap</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>934</td>
<td>5542</td>
<td>4919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Keetmanshoop: Karas</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1182</td>
<td>6454</td>
<td>5666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gobabis</td>
<td>Windhoek: Omaheke</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3341</td>
<td>9443</td>
<td>7216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katima Mulilo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>560</strong></td>
<td><strong>49</strong></td>
<td><strong>9177</strong></td>
<td><strong>94001</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is no information on whether the food actually reaches the beneficiaries, and no data on school feeding appear in the MBESC’s Annual Report or in the Education Statistics. From the interviews conducted with ministry officials and NGO programme managers it became apparent that there is very little awareness of the school-feeding programme and that it is not integrated into other efforts targeting educationally marginalised children.

A WFP: Phase Out Review conducted several interviews with headmasters and teachers in Namibia in October 2002, confirming that the School Feeding Programme had a clear impact on enrolment and attendance. “People interviewed often noted that without food, children would not come to school”, the review notes, quoting i.e. a regional school feeding co-ordinator in the Caprivi Region who described a school where most learners
were San: “Before school feeding 30 to 35 students came to school. After the start of the programme attendance increased to more than 300 learners.”

In spite of the successes of the programme in the past and the obvious and often stated need for school feeding, the WFP Review also noted the lack of data on the programme. The regular statistical surveys conducted through schools during the first five or six years are not carried out any more, and the only data available are based on food deliveries of warehouses.

In the Phase Out Review Report, WFP could only estimate the number of beneficiaries by using figures from different warehouses. From these data, WFP established that in the second semester of 2002, 95 000 daily meals were provided to 87 800 beneficiaries in 560 institutions. i.e. schools and poor private hostels. The School Feeding Programme is thus serving about 50% of all primary schools and 22% of Namibian learners in primary schools. (The difference in percentage is due to internal targeting by teachers according to the agreed selection criteria of needy learners.) However, there is no control of whether food is actually reaching the targeted children on a regular basis and in a controlled way.

Lack of food has been identified as a major factor of non-attendance and dropping-out of poor and marginalised school children in Namibia. With the increasing number of AIDS orphans the lack of food will become an ever greater and increasing problem for school-age children. In the face of these facts, it is extremely surprising that the existing school feeding programme is not identified or acknowledged in official policy documents or by officials and project managers beyond those officials directly involved in implementation.

School Feeding is neither mentioned in the MBESC’s Annual Report nor in the Education Statistics, and there is no mention in the MBESC “Strategic Plan for the period 2001 to 2006”. Only in the “Education for All” National Plan of Action 2002 to 2015 the School Feeding Programme is mentioned as a mechanism for achieving Education for All goals. The Plan suggests as a specific target plan that the School Feeding Programme be extended to 150 000 learners, particularly in remote and rural areas. In spite of this, there is little recognition and understanding of the programme which has resulted in several weaknesses such as lack of training of cooks, of monitors and of officials responsible for school feeding and thus of the programme itself.

The lack of knowledge and awareness of the school feeding programme in other ministries and non-government agencies can be regarded as a serious loss of opportunity to use the full potential of an existing and well-established programme that will directly enhance and re-enforce the aims of and objectives of the ITF for Educationally Marginalised Children. Rather than devising new programmes, the school-feeding scheme, as an existing and functioning programme, could be extended with respect to the number of beneficiaries and funding support. It could thus serve as a short and medium term response to the increasing need of providing orphans with one of their basic needs such as a daily hot meal and at the same time keep them at school.

Policy on school development fund and school uniforms

Policy on school development fund and school uniforms
Although no formal school fees are levied by the government for primary education, the practice of charging a monetary contribution of parents in the form of a school development fund has been established in Namibia. This practice has been putting a financial strain on poor families resulting in dropout or non-enrolment and often also in stigmatisation.

In January 1996 the MBESC informed all regional directors, school principals, parents and learners by means of a press statement “no learner must be refused admission to any school on the basis of parents being unable to pay the prescribed school fund or uniform.” Written proof for inability to pay had to be obtained from e.g. a magistrate, headman, social worker, regional governor or church leader.

In September 2002 a formal Education Circular and a press statement was again issued in which schools were very clearly “INSTRUCTED to do away with the practice of requesting deposits, full payment of school development fund or non-refundable registration fees on application or registration of learners”.

Although the government has clearly stated its policy that the payment of the school development fund is not mandatory, in practice poor parents seem to be unaware of their right to be exempted and often experience pressure or discrimination when unable to pay the fund. The same applies to the wearing of school uniforms.

To prevent a rise in school drop-out in line with the rising number of orphans on account of the school development fund, in October 2002 the MBESC commissioned a study to cost school development fund exemption for orphans and other vulnerable children. The purpose of the study is to provide costing projections on school development funds in order to assist the MBESC in taking a decision with respect to future policy on school funds and the possibility of reimbursing schools that exempt parents from paying the fund on account of poverty (NEPRU, Draft Report 2002).

**Policy on hostels**

Because of long distances to schools in Namibia’s rural areas, a great number of school children are dependent on hostel accommodation. School hostel accommodation in Namibia is, however, expensive and often badly supervised. Also entry requirements do not always ensure that those learners most in need gain access to hostels.

With the aim of providing a circle of support for orphans and other vulnerable children through schools and hostels, a study on hostel policy and hostel management “to ensure access to education for orphans and other vulnerable children through safe and supportive hostel/community boarding facilities” was commissioned by the Ministry at the end of 2002.

**Policy on teenage pregnancy**

1994 the MBESC set up a study group to investigate the issue of teenage pregnancy. The group drafted a “Policy on Pregnancy amongst Learners” and submitted it to Cabinet for approval. Cabinet then resolved as a temporary guideline that, in principle, the
educational system should give support to teenage mothers „to make the most of their lives“ and that falling pregnant is no reason for discipline or expulsion (see section 6.13 on Teenage Pregnancy).

In a circular letter of April 2001 this policy was explained to regional directors, inspectors, principals and school councillors with the aim to „encourage the implementation of those measures Cabinet has approved for implementation.“ The circular letter, however, deviates in important aspects from the approved policy such as continuation of school attendance of pregnant schoolgirls and their return after giving birth. While the policy states that a pregnant girl may continue with school “until her time of confinement”, the circular letter states that she may continue, “at least until her pregnancy is visibly clear.” Furthermore, the policy states that after giving birth, a girl may return to school within 12 months of date of leaving school, while the circular letter states that girls may return to school after spending at least one year with the baby.

**Policy on age restrictions**

Overage learners were identified as one of the groups of educationally marginalised children. The policy of the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture is partly creating this group itself by its policy on age restrictions, according to which the maximum age for entry into grade 1 is 10 years of age. At the same time the National Literacy Programme of Namibia may not be joined by people younger than 15. Thus there is no alternatives for those learners who are older than 10 and younger than 15 and who have failed to enter the school system at the appropriate age.

The question to be clarified is whether the policy should be changed in order to accommodate overage learners in ordinary schools or if schools should rather be encouraged to handle the policy flexibly and on individual merit. According to EMIS Statistics 2001, the number of learners older than 10 in grade 1 was 1 757 in 2001, indicating that the policy is not strictly applied and in this way benefiting the educationally marginalised group of overage learners.

**Policy on teacher: learner ratio**

At present, the policy of the MBESC with respect to teacher-learner ratio (1:35) is in conflict with the *National Policy Options on Educationally Marginalised Children*. This has resulted in actions directly opposing the efforts of the ITF to increase the rate of enrolment of EMC.

Example: In the year 2000 a well-run farm school in the Keetmanshoop Region catering for 60 children of farm workers and some street children from grades 1 to 6, providing excellent private hostel facilities for 60 children, good accommodation for three teachers and free transport for all children within an area of 120 km from the farm school was closed by the regional Office without consultation with the parent community, the school community or the farmers. The school buildings with three classrooms, an office and a sports field, all built from private funds at no cost for the government, are now standing empty. The reason for closure was the low teacher-learner ratio, which was about 1:20 at that time, each teacher teaching two grades. The majority of the 60 children have dropped out of school since then.
because hostel accommodation in the nearest village was too expensive and transport was difficult. The street children from Mariental and Kalkrand returned to the streets.

The NPO proposes small schools, closer to home, for educationally marginalised children living in isolated rural places, even at an above average unit cost. However, to achieve this, the teacher: learner ratio needs to be relaxed in specific cases and should not be rigidly applied.
6. The thirteen groups of Educationally Marginalised Children

The following groups of educationally marginalised children (EMC) were identified by the National Policy Options for EMC:

1. Children of farm workers
2. Children in remote rural areas: San
3. Children in remote rural areas: Ovahimba
4. Street children
5. Working children
6. Children in squatter areas
7. Children in resettlement camps
8. Children in refugee camps
9. Children with special educational needs
10. Overage children
11. Young offenders
12. Orphans
13. Teenage mothers

6.1 Children of farm workers

General remarks

The term „children of farm workers“ refers to children of parents who are employed or live on a commercial or a communal farm. Commercial farmers are represented in the Namibian Agricultural Union, NAU, and communal farmers in the Namibian National Farmers Union, NNFU.

According to the „National Policy Options for EMC“ most farm workers (63%) are poor, illiterate or semi-illiterate and live in relative isolation. They nevertheless understand the importance of education for their children and are prepared to pay for it as far as possible. Education for children of farm workers is more costly than for other children because of the isolation of Namibian farms. This means that in addition to school uniform and school development fund, farm workers also have to arrange and pay for transport to and from school and arrange and pay for accommodation, be it privately or in state hostels.

In January 2003 a minimum wage of N$ 2,20 per hour (in addition to adequate housing and water for farm workers will be introduced The minimum wage was negotiated by the Namibia Agricultural Labour Forum on which employers, labour unions and government are represented, with the aim to reduce poverty and to provide more security for socially weak employees. This could lead to further impoverishment of farm workers, as some of them will loose their employment.

Very little information on children of farm workers on commercial farms is available, although there are channels in place to obtain more data in future. There is no information at all available on the probably much greater number of children of farm workers in communal areas.
Relevant policies

1. Policy of MBESC on teacher-learner ratio

This policy determines the number of teachers that the MBESC is allowed and willing to provide per number of learners in a class. Small schools in sparsely populated areas - such as the areas where most commercial and communal farms are situated - will rarely satisfy the prescribed teacher-learner ratio.

2. „National Policy Options for EMC“

The policy options include affordable education for children from poor families. For children of farm workers this means either financial assistance for transport or boarding facilities or smaller schools closer to home with relaxed regulations for the teacher: learner ratio.

Relevant Surveys and Reports

1. „Children on Commercial Farms who do not go to school“ - UNICEF Report, May 1995
2. Wage Survey by Namibian Agricultural Union (NAU) 2001
4. „Missing Youth“, Social Sciences Divisions of the University of Namibia (on children older than 14)

Statistical information available

According to NAU statistics and the Labour Survey of 1999, there are about 4000 commercial farms and about 200 000 subsistence farms on communal land with family labour in Namibia. On these farms, there are

- about 35 000 workers employed by commercial farmers. Of these about 23 000 are permanently employed, usually receiving wage packages consisting of rations, cash, animals and grazing, and transport.
- about 45 000 workers are employed by communal farmers, most of them family related and usually receiving rations and little or no cash.

In the past, NAU has conducted wage surveys every two years and will conduct annual surveys in future. The return of the surveys has been about 25 to 30% (Mr. Oliver Horsthemke, Manager: Speciality Fields NAU). From these surveys it was found that an average of 5 workers are employed per commercial farm. With the implementation of the minimum wage, a slight decrease of the number of farm workers is expected.

Unfortunately no data on the number of school age children living presently on farms is available at present. The only indication from the NAU survey with respect to school children is the monetary amount spent by farmers per month on transport of sick persons and school children. It was found that in the year 2000, an average of N$ 82/per month/ per permanent farm worker was spent by a commercial farmer on transport of sick persons and school children based on a calculation of N$2,20 per km. The amount is
higher in the Karas (140 N$) and Hardap Regions (117 N$) and much lower in the Oshikoto region (N$ 20).

The 1995 UNICEF conducted a survey on children on commercial farms, aged 6 to 14, who have never attended or who have dropped out of school. The survey was done in the Otjozondjupa, Oshikoto and Hardap Regions and a total of 23 farms were visited. Farm workers cited lack of money and transport as the main reason for their children not going to school. Another reason was the negative impact on children who have to leave their family to live in a state hostel or with families in town. Parents complained about loss of respect towards parents, crime and a sense of homelessness. On the farms surveyed, the attendance rate of 6 to 14 year old children was between 70% and 76%.

No surveys have yet been done by NNFU and there is no information available on school age children on communal farms. Considering the figure of 45 000 farm workers on communal farms, the number of children of communal farm workers must be considerable.

**Projects and programmes**

There are a number of farm schools with private boarding on commercial farms in Namibia, usually built by farmers themselves or with the help of donor money and run as state-aided private schools by the MBESC. Usually children from several farms are attending these schools. The farmers provide the buildings and MBESC carries the running costs, i.e. paying for teachers, school materials and maintenance.

In the survey carried out by UNICEF with the assistance of NAU in 1995 (UNICEF Report, May 1995), 125 out of 768 farmers indicated that they were interested in discussing the possibility of establishing a school on their farm. However, individual offers by farmers to the MBESC were not taken up or met with different obstacles such as suitable school buildings (Mr. Grobler, NAU). The main reason for the reluctance of the MBESC was, according to the farmers, the prescribed teacher-learner ratio, which would be difficult to achieve in a small farm school. Some long running farm schools were even closed because of unfavourable teacher-learner ratio (e.g. Primary School Gras in Keetmanshoop Region).

No programmes by NGO`s or Ministries are run for children of farm workers.

**General findings**

Children on farms who do not go to school experience the typical problems of poor people in Namibia: lack of money to pay for the school development fund and school uniforms. In addition there are the logistic and financial problems of transport and accommodation. Often accommodation in nearby villages is unsuitable, especially for small children who have to leave their home at an early age.

The UNICEF survey of 1995 indicates that the majority of school children of farm workers on commercial farms do go to school and that farmers usually assist them with transport and sometimes with school uniforms and payment of school fund. This was confirmed by Mr. Grobler, former General Manager of NAU. However, the rate of enrolment of children of farm workers is probably still below the national enrolment rate.
There is a complete lack of information and programmes for children of communal farm workers, although their numbers exceed the number of commercial farm workers by far.

**Recommendations**

1. The ITF should inform communal and commercial farm workers as well as their employers of the possibilities of getting a reduction or an exemption of fees for boarding facilities and the school development fund and of the fact that school uniforms are no condition for acceptance into school.

2. ITF should formally request NAU to include the number of children on farms as well as number of children attending Primary/Secondary school in their survey. NAU indicated willingness to include these data.

3. ITF should urgently request NNFU or another agency to do a survey on school children on communal farms.

4. Commercial farms usually have a basic infrastructure, and transport to the nearest village or town is usually available. Most employers of farm workers on commercial farms are therefore able to assist and co-operate with respect to the transport of school children of their farm workers to schools. ITF should therefore explicitly encourage farm owners e.g. via a letter to NAU, to continue or to assist in providing transport to schools. Tax exemption or other incentives for transport of school children should be considered.

5. The MBESC should enter talks with NAU about the possibility of establishing small schools on farms. With the assistance of willing farmers, the number of farm schools could be extended within the school cluster system, with several small farm schools as satellite schools of a central school. Tax reduction, provision of work to the farmer, his wife, or unemployed people living on the farm, keeping the community together and stabilising social peace on the farm could all be incentives for the establishment of a small school. The MBESC’s policy of teacher-learner ratio needs to be reviewed and the unit cost of small schools on farms versus large central state schools would have to be compared.

**6.2 San Children**

**General remarks**

Of the roughly 105,000 San people in southern Africa, 38,275 live in Namibia. The highest concentration of San is in the eastern and northeastern parts of Namibia. San also live in scattered communities on commercial farms all over the country, or on cattle post in their traditional areas where they cluster in larger groups than before, for the sake of water, government services or lack of alternatives. (Le Roux, Willemien: “Torn Apart”, 1999, p.20)

Various resettlement schemes for San exist, with a few hectares per family allocated for agricultural use. In most resettlement areas, San people complain about being dominated
by stronger groups, often „living in servitude to their non-San neighbours“ (Sylvain, Renee: Report for WIMSA, 1998). The San are not a homogenous group. More than 10 different clusters speaking different languages can be identified in Namibia. The biggest group are the Hai//om in the northern and the Otjozondjupa regions, the Ju/'hoansi in Eastern Otjozondjupa and Omaheke regions and the Kxoe in the Caprivi region.

The table below shows that about one third of San learners lives in the Otjozondjupa region. Smaller populations of San learners are found in the Omaheke, Oshikoto and Kavango regions.

Table J: **San Populations in Namibia** (Rein Dekker, Kuru Development Trust, 1999)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group name</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hai//om</td>
<td>Ovambo, Tsumeb, Grootfontein, Outjo districts (Otjozondjupa region)</td>
<td>11,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xwaga b) Karen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!Kung</td>
<td>Okavango and Otjozondjupa regions</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!Xu (!Khu, Vasekele)</td>
<td>Ovambo, Kavango districts and former West Bushmanland (Tsumkwe constituency West)</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ju/'hoansi</td>
<td>Eastern Otjozondjupa and Omaheke regions</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kxoe (Khwe)</td>
<td>Kwando, West Caprivi</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naro (Nharo)</td>
<td>Gobabis and Aminuis, (Omaheke district)</td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>//Khau-/lesi</td>
<td>Otjinene and Omaheke regions</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>!Xõo (Magong)</td>
<td>Aminuis, Gobabis, Aranos and Mariental (Omaheke and Hardap regions)</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/Nu-/en (Nusan)</td>
<td>Mariental district (Hardap region)</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/Auni</td>
<td>Mariental, Koës, Karasburg districts (Hardap, Karas regions)</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban groups</td>
<td>Cities and towns, (e.g. Windhoek, Katima Mulilo, Outjo, Otjiwarongo, Gobabis)</td>
<td>1,875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>38,275</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The number of San children going to school has risen from 1,766 children in 1992 to 3,930 in 2001. This represents an increase in enrolment of more than 100% in a decade, compared to 1,9% nationwide between 1995 and 2001 (EMIS 2001, table 21). In spite of this dramatic improvement, San children are still the educationally most marginalised learners in Namibia. Less than 30% of San children go to school, and San children drop out more rapidly than learners from other groups in Namibia. Also the gender gap is greater among San learners than among the rest of Namibia (UNICEF, San Communities in Omaheke Region, 2000).

Table K: **Total Number of San speaking Learners in each Region** (Data provided by EMIS)
Only 151 San learners are receiving mother tongue instruction, other San children are instructed in English, Afrikaans, Rukwangali and other Namibian languages (EMIS 2001). San is thus the language with the lowest percentage of learners being taught in their mother tongue (4%) with the next lowest being Khoekhoegowab with 34% and Setswana with 36%.

The reasons for marginalisation and causes for dropping out have been analysed in numerous reports and surveys and recommendations for solutions have been stated (e.g. UNICEF Proposal: San Communities in Omaheke Region Pursuing their Right to Education, April 200).

On the other hand, it must be stressed that
a) in comparison to other countries of Southern Africa, „Namibia is way ahead with alternative programmes and initiatives trying to alleviate the problems of the San specifically“ (Le Roux, Willemien: „Torn apart“, p.21). Namibia has numerous innovative and progressive programmes for alternative educational initiatives and traditional leaders are increasingly gaining recognition and given recognition as facilitators in education.

b) the number of learners with a San language as home language has risen more than 100% during the past decade.

c) San children as an educationally marginalised group have been targeted by numerous programmes, projects, surveys and research groups – at a much higher rate than any other marginalised group in Namibia.

Programmes/ Organisations working with San education in Namibia

ACORD is supporting community-based initiatives that benefit the San in Eastern Omaheke.

Gqaina Primary School is a farm school run by Omaheke farmers for children of farm workers.

GTZ AfriLa Project (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit - Upgrading African Languages Project) in co-operation with NIED is developing teaching material for the Ju/'hoan language.

Health Unlimited is an NGO working in the Omaheke and Tsumkwe districts.

Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (MBESC) is providing bursaries for secondary school San learners.

NAMAS, Namibian Association of Norway, is planning intervention in the form of an educational resource centre in the Tsumkwe District.

NIED has developed curricula and teaching material for the Ju/'huan San. They are based on the books developed for the Village School Project in Nyae Nyae, who have been running a mother tongue education village school project since 1990.

Nyae Nyae Village Schools Project, managed by the Nyae Nyae Development Foundation, offers mother tongue instruction in five schools near Tsumkwe.

Omaheke San Trust started under the umbrella of WIMSA with the aim of promoting the education of San children in the Omaheke region.

Ombili Foundation runs a primary school on a private farm.

UNESCO Research Project on Poverty Reduction in Ohangwena region is targeting about 2000 to 3000 San in three resettlement areas.
West Caprivi Institut für Afrikanistik of the University of Cologne has developed an alphabet and orthography for the Kxoedam language and produced collections of folk tales.

WIMSA, the “Working Group of Indigenous Minorities in Southern Africa”, is pointing out the special needs of all San children in Namibia and is specifically working with the San in the Omaheke. WIMSA has been a member if the ITF since 1996.

**Relevant Reports**

1. AfriLa/MBESC/NIED: „Field Visit to Schools in the Nyae Nyae Area“, September 2002
2. GTZ- AfriLa: Situation Analysis and Co-ordination with Major Stakeholdings, 2000
3. GTZ – AfriLa: Field Study on the Actual Situation Regarding the Teaching and Learning Environment of Ju’hoan Communities”, 2001
8. WIMSA: Report on Activities 2001 to 2002

**Summary**

Numerous programmes, studies and projects are targeted at San children, although not all are on-the-ground projects that focus on enrolment and retention. The Naye Naye Village Schools, the Omaheke San Trust and some isolated resettlement projects such as Ombili and schools like Gquaina and Hippo have good or even outstanding schools with the special commitment from certain groups or institutions. San children are making progress where there are programmes giving attention to their specific cultural needs and where donor funds are backing up these targeted programmes.

Coverage is, however, very uneven regionally: no efforts or interventions are taking place with Hei/om in the Outjo and Oshivelo districts, with the San in the West Caprivi and with the Ohangwena San.

**Recommendations**

1. A nation-wide approach to San children as EMC is not advisable because of the dispersed settlements of San communities.
2. The ITF should continue to actively liaise with NGO’s involved with San children.
3. The ITF should ensure that the National School Feeding Programme reaches poor San children.
6.3 Ovahimba Children

General remarks

The Ovahimba live in the Kunene region in northwestern Namibia. Their main economic activity is cattle and goat herding, most are still semi-nomadic.

The literacy rate in the Kunene region is low with 64.3% compared to the 81% national literacy rate (UNDP 2000/2001) and school enrolment rate is also substantially lower than in other areas. It is estimated that about 50% of Ovahimba children presently attend school. (Interview Fitz Dittmar, Education Advisor, GTZ/ Basic Education Project). It is difficult to obtain exact enrolment rates, as the Namibia Population Census does not provide figures on the number of Ovahimba people. As they speak the same language as the Herero, they are counted as part of the Herero speaking language group.

According to the “National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalised Children”, poverty and malnutrition have not been the predominant causes for poor school attendance of Ovahimba children. Rather the resistance to modern forms of education that do not specifically respect the culture and traditions of the Ovahimba have for a long time been a factor for keeping children at home. Children are integrated into the economic system of herding cattle and goats, and most of them still wear traditional clothing.

Mobility and cultural background of teachers and teaching content are therefore important factors in the provision of acceptable education among the Ovahimba. (NPO EMC, p.13). Because of the similarities between the Otjiherero the Ovahimba dialects, written materials for formal schooling are available.

During the past 5 years the attendance of Ovahimba children have risen substantially due to one successful education programme implemented in the Kunene region that were specifically aimed at Ovahimba children. As the Population Census of 1992 did not specifically determine figures for the Ovahimba group of Herero speaking people, it is unfortunately not possible to determine the exact increase in school enrolment of Ovahimba children.

Reports and Studies

1. Evaluation Report on Ondao Mobile School Units

2. Educationally Marginalised Children – A Desk Study Submitted by Bert H. Lund November 1995

3. The School Cluster System in Namibia, Framework for Quality Education (MBESC and GTZ)

Projects and programmes for Ovahimba children

1. Ondao Mobile School Project, NAMAS and MBESC
2. GTZ „Basic Education Project“ (Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit) within the MBESC

Ondao Mobile Schools

The Ondao Mobile Schools project was started in 1998 by the Namibia Association of Norway (NAMAS) and the Ministry of Basic Education, Sports and Culture. Six Ovahimba communities were supplied with large tents for schools, which could easily be moved, and one teacher per school, recruited from the area and provided with training and teaching aids.

Implementation took place in two phases: a pilot phase with a limited number of mobile school units for one year, and a full implementation phase commencing thereafter. In 1999 12 mobile school units were operating. By the end of 2002, 2 070 children (1 112 boys and 958 girls) were taught in 30 mobile units from grade 1 to grade 5.

Table L: Ondao Mobile Schools (provided by GTZ – Units in bold are new as of 1 – 2002)

| CURRICULUM EXPANSION 2003-2006: DRAFT DOCUMENT (Based on 15th Day School Statistics) |
|---------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
|                                | Boys  | Girls | Total | 1    | 2    | 3    |
| 1. Ekote                        | 23    | 27    | 50    | 24   | 24   | 24   |
| 2. Epembe                       | 49    | 47    | 96    | 72   | 27   | 27   |
| 3. Igengue                      | 62    | 43    | 105   | 54   | 17   | 17   |
| 4. Ohangurumre                  | 37    | 56    | 93    | 30   | 13   | 13   |
| 5. Okaheko                      | 74    | 50    | 124   | 72   | 11   | 11   |
| 6. Okandimbo                    | 33    | 22    | 55    | 21   | 21   | 21   |
| 7. Okapenimbu                   | 39    | 40    | 79    | 28   | 24   | 24   |
| 8. Okangephu                    | 53    | 41    | 94    | 45   | 33   | 33   |
| 9. Okaanawo                     | 46    | 43    | 89    | 27   | 17   | 17   |
| 10. Okondimbo                   | 19    | 21    | 40    | 16   | 16   | 16   |
| 11. Okonepke                    | 33    | 33    | 66    | 41   | 41   | 41   |
| 12. Omakualra                   | 43    | 52    | 95    | 2   2 | 2    | 2    |
| 13. Ombangale                   | 44    | 36    | 80    | 45   | 39   | 39   |
| 14. Omaheko                     | 55    | 60    | 115   | 44   | 22   | 22   |
| 15. Omaheko                     | 19    | 3     | 22    | 1    7 | 7    |
| 16. Omaheko                     | 56    | 64    | 120   | 50   | 18   | 18   |
| 17. Omaheko                     | 41    | 23    | 64    | 27   | 17   | 17   |
| 18. Omaheko                     | 46    | 30    | 76    | 24   | 24   | 24   |
| 19. Omaheko                     | 13    | 15    | 28    | 10   | 10   | 10   |
| 20. Omaheko                     | 41    | 31    | 72    | 22   | 22   | 22   |
| 21. Omaheko                     | 30    | 24    | 54    | 13   | 13   | 13   |
| 22. Omaheko                     | 44    | 44    | 88    | 23   | 23   | 23   |
| 23. Omaheko                     | 44    | 59    | 59    | 59   | 59   | 59   |
| 24. Omaheko                     | 2     | 2     | 2     | 2    | 2    | 2    |
| 25. Omaheko                     | 17    | 14    | 31    | 13   | 5    | 5    |
| 26. Omaheko                     | 45    | 17    | 62    | 31   | 28   | 28   |
| 27. Omaheko                     | 1    14 | 15    | 23    | 12   |
| 28. Omaheko                     | 76    | 59    | 59    | 46   | 27   | 27   |
| 29. Omaheko                     | 35    | 35    | 64    | 9    |
| 30. Omaheko                     | 28    | 26    | 28    | 28   | 28   |
| Total                          | 1112  | 958   | 2070  | 911  | 625  | 319  |

The chiefs of the Ovahimba people were first hostile towards the mobile schools, fearing that children would discard their culture and later leave the community for towns and cities. (Mr. Nangolo, Chief Education Officer for Primary Schools) Today, however, they are actively supporting the mobile schools, the main reason being that teachers are drawn from the Ovahimba community, that time-tables are flexible with respect to school hours and starting times of terms during various seasons of the year, that irregular attendance of children is accommodated without strict sanctions and teaching content is adapted to the Ovahimba culture. There is also much interest in the schools from the
parents’ side, with participation in teaching traditional knowledge and a distinct feeling of ownership. The 2000 children in the Ondao schools presumably represent the bulk of the enrolment increase over the past years increase.

The 30 Ondao Mobile Schools are organised as satellite primary schools with one teacher each, doing multi-grade teaching, and one principal and two heads of department stationed at a circuit office in Opuwo and serving all 30 schools. Principals and heads of departments are regularly visiting the different mobile units and are advising and monitoring schooling. The key role of the principal has been stressed by all teachers and has been experienced as supportive, encouraging and motivating. (NAMAS, Evaluation Report on the Ondao Mobile School Project, 1999)

The findings of a study conducted in September 1999, the Evaluation Report on Ondao Mobile School Units by an evaluation team suggest an overwhelming positive impact of the project on the communities with regards to access to education and high levels of commitment of teachers. The schools provide access to a large number of learners who would otherwise have been unable to go to school. The enrolment for most units is high and attendance good under the circumstances. Although called “mobile schools”, the potential mobility of the schools has never played an important role, and many communities would like more permanent structures.

„Basic Education Project“

The GTZ Education Project, integrated into the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture, is advising the Kunene Regional Office in ways of integrating the mobile school units into the cluster school system of the MBESC. The aim is to sustain the project, even if NGO’s are pulling out of the project in future. The school clusters comprise a number of small schools under a decentralised administration with the aim of improving access to schools, equity and quality of education as well as to facilitate administrative tasks and educational functions of schools and teachers.

Summary and way ahead

The Ovahimba children are an example of an EMC group where NGO/donor intervention in co-operation with the MBESC appears successful. The increase in enrolment over the past years is clearly due to the Ondao Mobile School Project.

When it comes to taking decisions as to the establishment of additional mobile schools in the future, the question arises who is „owning“ the mobile schools. The answer to this question is important because there is still a great demand for more mobile schools in the region (Mr. Nangolo, MBESC and Mr Fritz Dittmar, GTZ).

The initial aim of NAMAS was to establish 60 to 80 schools and at present NAMAS collects requests for new schools by the communities. As almost every community would like to have a school, prioritising is necessary. At the beginning of the Ondao Project, NAMAS decided alone. Now it is a more consultative process with regional offices having a strong part. The MBESC (Basic Education Project) maintains that sustainability should be a criterion for future decisions.
Recommendations

1. The ITF should take a decision up to which grade mobile schools should teach. Should they remain small junior primary schools up to grade 3 or 4 or develop into full primary schools?

2. Training for multi-grade teaching is becoming increasingly necessary. The ITF should approach NIED on developing educational aids and courses.

3. The ITF should determine if the nutritional status of the Ovahimba children necessitates the present involvement in the National School Feeding Programme. If the necessity is affirmed, the ITF should investigate how the programme can be integrated into the administrative structure of the School Cluster System for better control and accountability.

6.4 Street Children

General remarks

Street children are an urban issue. The majority come from very poor families, often from overcrowded households (Ms. Aune Naanda, Programme Specialist: Education, UNESCO). Others are from families with problems of alcoholism or other social problems. Most street children go to school for some time before dropping out. Some street children continue to attend school but are often regarded by teachers as „problem children“. Street children are often exposed to negative attitudes in and out of school. They are considered problematic and sometimes refused admittance. The majority of street children are boys, but there are girl street children as well.

Although UNESCO is running a project for street children, no data on street children could be obtained at the UNESCO office. A survey is presently being conducted, but it was not available yet.

In general, very little data on street children in the different towns of Namibia are available. Rundu is frequently mentioned as having „many street children“, in Oshakati the number of street children is allegedly increasing. Other towns besides Windhoek with a visible number of street children are Katima Mulilo, Otjiwarongo, Gobabis and Mariental.

A survey of 1991 indicated that half of Namibia’s street children were from single-parent families, usually headed by women, the other half were school drop-outs from families with little formal education. Most street children maintained that they have a place they call home where they go to periodically. Most children claim that they live on the street to earn money for themselves and their families.

Studies and projects

1. UNESCO is conducting a study on street children, distinguishing between children ON the street (children that go to school, go begging after school, and return home in the
evening) and children IN the street. i.e. children that are sleeping and living in the streets. Most of the latter group do not attend school at all.

2. The Ministry of Regional and Local Government and Housing launched a Street Children Programme in 1991. The objective of the programme is the re-integration of street children back into families, into schools and into society in general. Most street children who are being re-integrated are sent to schools outside Windhoek into hostels in order to avoid stigmatisation and negative attitudes. The emphasis is on the counselling of both children and parents.

3. The Interim Night Shelter in Windhoek was established in 1996 as a pilot project to address the material needs of the street children. The Night Shelter is a temporary shelter that accommodates children while tracing parents and identifying schools to place the children.

4. The Windhoek Day Care Centre in Khomasdal was established in 1997. It is now incorporated in the existing After School Centre to address the educational needs of street children in Windhoek. It also serves as a temporary measure and is linked to a project that offers activities for unemployed parents.

5. In 1998, a sub-regional training workshop for social workers and educators for street children was held to equip participants with skills for their task. School principals were also invited to involve them in the re-integration of street children into schools and to provide them with training.

6. The National Working Group for Street Children is a co-ordinating structure for the Street Children Programme. It is supposed to tackle the issue of street children in a multi-disciplinary approach and consists of the following members on a steering committee:
   Min. of Health and Social Services as the responsible ministry
   Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture
   Ministry of Home Affairs and Namibian Police
   Ministry of Prisons and Correctional Services
   National Planning Commission
   Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare
   Legal Assistance Centre
   Municipality of Windhoek
   UNESCO Windhoek Office
   COLS – Change of Life Style
   Namibian National Commission for UNESCO

The business community in Namibia is also assisting the programme.

**Recommendations:**

1. ITF should invite representatives of the National Working Group for Street Children in order to be informed about and involved in projects and programmes for street children.
6.5 Working children

**General remarks**

Working children are not automatically "educationally marginalised“. In fact, according to the definition made by the „Namibia Child Activities Survey 1999“ by the Ministry of Labour, the majority of Namibia’s working children attend school and say that the work they do does not affect their attendance.

When looking at the problem of „working children“ one therefore needs to concentrate on those school-age children that

a) work and do not go to school
b) work and whose school attendance is affected by work (mainly in urban areas)

**Definition of a „working child“**

According to the 1999 Child Activities Survey „working children“ (or „currently employed children“) are „children aged between 6 to 18 years old who worked for pay, profit or family gain during the last 7-day period before the interview, even for one hour on any day, including children who did not work during the last seven days but have a job or work from which they were absent“. (1999 Survey)

**Relevant policies and conventions**

- Namibia’s Constitution
- International Convention on the Rights of the Child
- Namibian Labour Act of 1992 (section 42)

The Namibian Constitution sets clear guidelines for the minimum ages for certain types of work. In line with the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Constitution stipulates that children under the age of 16 cannot do work which is „likely to be hazardous or interfere with their education or to be harmful to their health or physical, moral or social development.“ Also no children under the age of 14 are allowed to be „employed to work in any factory or mine“. On farms or other undertakings, minor children of employees may not be compelled to work for or in the interest of the employer.

The Labour Act stipulates that

- no child under 14 years may be employed for any purpose
- no child under 15 may be employed in any mine or industrial undertaking
- no child under 16 may be employed underground in any mine

**Relevant surveys and reports**

a) Government of Namibia: 1991 Population and Housing Census found that
860 children under 15 were already in the labour force)

b) Ministry of Labour: Namibia Child Activities Survey 1999, with the assistance of UNICEF and ILO, is the first report on child activities in Namibia. It provides baseline data on the activities of the child population in Namibia at national, regional, rural and urban level.

The main findings of the 1999 Survey are:

- Of the total 6 to 18-year-old child population (445 000) 16.3% were found to be working. This means that in Namibia 72 400 children were working in 1999.

- Of these 72 400 children 34 800 were female children and 37 600 were male children.

- Of all children in primary school age (6 to 14) 46 700 are working. Of these children 24 400 are boys and 22 300 are girls.

- Out of a total of 72 400 working children in Namibia, 69 050 children were living in rural areas (95.4%). Most working children are found in the Ohangwena region (22 476) and the Oshikoto region (29 771). Most children in rural areas work in agriculture, hunting and forestry.

- Only 3 356 children work in urban areas. Of these, about a third (1 040) are between 6 and 14 years old, the majority being girls (653 girls and 387 boys).

- Most working children go to school and their work does not interfere with school attendance. Only 12.7% say that the work they do affect their attendance. In the age group of 7 to 14 year-old working children almost 90% are attending school.

- More urban (27%) than rural (12.7%) working children are not attending school.

- 7% of all working children never attended school, of these almost 5% are boys and 2% are girls.

- Female enrolment rates of working children are consistently higher than the male rates at all age levels and in rural and urban areas.

- School leaving becomes significantly higher for male working children in the 12 to 15-years age group. 7% of working boys at this age leave school in contrast to less than 3% girls leaving school at that age.

- Among all working children who are not at school 25.9% say they are not participating due to poverty, 15.2% failed at school, 7.6% withdrew to help at home. „In essence, poverty is the major factor in non-participation of children in the educational system, in most cases, children stay away from school because they simply cannot afford the cost or have no access.“

- In terms of work intensity (defined with reference to usual number of hours worked per day), most working children do not appear to be intensely engaged (p. 62). The majority are in home-related jobs, about 66% are involved in subsistence farming and
18.4% work at home. In urban settings about 31% children work at home, and almost 10% in the streets.

The following *recommendations* were made by the by 1999 Survey:

- Government should ensure a more rigorous enforcement of the Labour Act.
- Government should embark on a public education programme in rural areas to encourage parents to release their children for a full participation in the education system of the country.
- Employers of labour in urban areas should be given appropriate information on the Labour Act and the need to comply or face penalty.
- The programme on vocational education should be expanded to accommodate young school dropouts and those who have completed primary education.

**Projects**

The Ministry of Labour has no projects running at present and is not planning any projects for the years 2002 and 2003 (telephone interview, Ms. Kali, Ministry of Labour, October 2002).

No NGO’s could be identified who specifically attend to „working children“.

**Summary**

The involvement of children in the work force is mainly a rural phenomenon in Namibia. The family is the source of farm labour supply and children are traditionally drawn into family work as early as they are able to do something, even below 6.

Findings show that in spite of engagement in work the majority of Namibian children continue to attend school. Interference of work with school attendance is a greater problem in urban than in rural areas. It is also a greater problem for male children than for female children.

**Recommendations**

The ITF should consider scrapping “working children” as a group of EMC. Most working children in rural areas who do not go to school or are early school leavers are most probably part of the San and the Ovahimba children or part of other groups of educationally marginalised children such as children of farm workers. In urban areas working children are part of the EMC groups of street children, orphans or children living in informal settlements.
6.6 Children in informal settlements

General remarks

Most towns in Namibia have fast growing informal settlements on their outskirts. However, only very few town-specific studies and no comprehensive information or data are available on informal settlements.

As these settlements are not regarded as permanent, the regional education offices are reluctant to build schools in the areas and access to schooling has become a growing problem.

Approximately 55 000 to 60 000 people in about 12 000 households are living in informal settlements around Windhoek (Interview Mr Alcock, Windhoek Municipality, Community Development Division). The number increases by 600 to 800 people per month or 7 000 to 10 000 per year. The Municipality meets with representatives of informal settlement communities on a regular basis and are informed on their needs and problems.

No surveys have been done on the access to education of children in these areas, but the Municipality of Windhoek is aware of the importance of such an assessment. Although the Municipality is not responsible for school education, its officials are often requested to liaise with the MBESC by the leaders of the communities.

Two primary schools were established in informal settlements around Windhoek, the Olof Palme Primary School in Goreangab and another Primary School in Babylon. However, the majority of children in informal settlements do not go to school on a regular basis, firstly because of a lack of schools in these areas and secondly because of poverty. Parents cannot pay school fees and transport. They often have to walk long distances to bring their children to the next bus stop. Taxis are too expensive, especially in areas with gravel roads, where taxis charge more money or even refuse to drive. In addition, parents experience that schools in Windhoek give preference to children from closer areas and do not readily accept children from informal settlements (Interview Ms. Edith Mbanga, Shack Dwellers Association of Namibia, October 2002).

Relevant Reports and Studies

There is no national study on access to education in informal settlements, only studies of certain towns with little or no focus on education and access to school.

No projects and programmes are conducted in and on informal settlements with respect to education (Ms E. Mbanga).

A case study in Owambo (Inge Tvedten and Akiser Pomuti: Social Relations of Poverty: a Case-Study from Owambo, 1994) indicates that a distinct feature of the informal settlement areas in the northern regions is the relatively low number of children between 5 and 19 years (only 22% of the total population). Children of these ages are often left behind in rural areas, because “the shanty is no place for a child to grow up.”
**Recommendations**

The ITF should urgently commission to obtain figures on school attendance of children in informal settlements before taking concrete action.

**6.7 Children on resettlement farms**

**General remarks**

After independence the new Namibian government aimed at resettling a large number of landless and unemployed people, dislocated by 20 years of civil war and by migrations, to informal settlements near urban areas. According to the resettlement policy of the Ministry for Land, Resettlement and Rehabilitation (MLRR), the beneficiaries of the resettlement programmes are in order of priority:

a) San communities  
b) ex-soldiers  
c) displaced, destitute and landless Namibians  
d) people with disabilities  
e) people from overcrowded and uninhabitable communal areas

For this programme the MLRR purchased 97 commercial farms with a total of 570,000 hectare through the «willing-seller willing-buyer» programme. A total of 27,600 black Namibians have been resettled since independence (S.L.Harring and W. Odendaal, “One day we will all be equal...” Legal Assistance Centre, 2002).

Namibia’s resettlement programme is basically aimed at improving the living standards of the previously disadvantaged people. It has a broad social agenda, including the provision of training facilities and housing. The 2002 study “One day we will all be equal...” of 2002 by the Legal Assistance Centre (LAC) found that land resettlement has, however, not contributed to poverty reduction. No detailed studies have been conducted so far, but it can be stated that most people living in resettlement areas have remained poor, isolated and untrained. Many resettlement camps are overcrowded and the areas surrounding them are overgrazed.

**Relevant policies**

The *Agriculture Land Reform Act of 1995* regulates the purchase and redistribution of privately owned farms, one of the most basic goals of the SWAPO liberation movement during its war of independence. The Act provides the legal mechanism for acquiring White owned land and redistributing it to Blacks.

The *Communal Land Reform Bill* will regulate resettlement processes occurring on communal land.

**Relevant Studies and Reports**
1. „One day we will all be equal...“ – A Socio-Legal Perspective on the Namibian Land Reform and Resettlement Process, Legal Assistance Centre (LAC), January 2002. For this report ten resettlement projects of 2002/2001 were visited:

Excelsior (Oshikoto Region 14 family units, school for children)
Tsintsabis (Oshikoto region, 169 family units, overcrowded, school for children)
King Kauluma Project (Omaheke Region, 60 residents, King Kauluma Primary School
Queen Sofia Project (Kunene)
Skoonheid (150 people, mainly San, 2 schools)
Drimiopsis (about 120 families, overcrowded, 3 schools)
Mangetti Dune (Otjozondjupa Region, about 2000 people, primary school)
Gam (Otjozondjupa Region, 420 families, primary school)
Otjihau (Omusati Region, 131 people, primary school near project)
Onandjendje (Omusati Region, 154 people, primary school near projects)

All resettlement projects visited by LAC had a primary school on or very near the resettlement farm or camp, and most school-age children were attending school. In interviews parents expressed that there was schooling for their children and that they were happy about that.

Projects

There are no projects specifically directed at „children in resettlement areas“ in general. There are, however, different projects directed at San learners, who live in resettlement areas, such as those of WIMSA and the Omaheke San Trust.

Summary

Most problems experienced by school children in resettlement areas coincide with the problems of San children, as the majority are ethnic San. Poverty remains one of the most important factor for dropping out or for poor attendance. Lack of school uniform, inability to pay school funds, and sometimes the negative attitude towards poor children or children of different ethnic background are factors contributing to weak school attendance.

Recommendation

Establish a list of all resettlement areas/farms in Namibia and educational facilities available.

6.8 Refugee children

General remarks

There are an estimated 24 000 refugees in Namibia, the majority hailing from Angola. 95% of all refugees are accommodated in the Osire Refugee Camp; others are living temporarily in a transit camp in Kasave near Grootfontein.
At Kasave, there is one primary school. At Osire, there are two pre-schools that care for 1,500 children while one primary school (Osire Primary School) offers schooling to 5,500 learners.

An agreement is being worked out between the Namibian government, the Roman Catholic Church and the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) to establish a senior secondary school in Osire. At present senior secondary students go to school in Otjiwarongo or Okakarara.

School attendance at Osire Primary School is good in spite of a high teacher-learner ratio of up to 1:60 in some classes. The medium of instruction is English and Namibian syllabi are used. No Portuguese is taught, although it is the mother tongue or second language of the majority of refugee children. Most teachers are Angolan, the headmaster is Namibian. Portuguese can be studied at a Language Institute in the camp. The Namibia College of Open Learning (NAMCOL) also operates at Osire.

**Relevant polices**

Compulsory education extends to all children in Namibia according to the Constitution of Namibia

**Projects and NGO’s**

1. The Jesuit Refugee Service (JRS) in collaboration with the Bishop’s Conference became involved with refugees in Namibia in September 1999 with the aim of supporting and increasing the capacity of local structures. JRS has promoted and given advice on tertiary education at Osire, addressing emergency needs for food, clothing, shelter and health care and has involved local communities in responding to the needs of refugees.

2. The United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) in co-operation with the MBESC is responsible for the educational needs of refugee children.

The UNHCR is committed to covering the primary education for all refugee children for eight years and is of the opinion that refugee children at Osire Refugee Camp are not educationally marginalised. Of the about 23,000 refugees in Osire, 5,500 children (2,948 boys and 2,502 girls) go to Osire Primary School in the camp which corresponds to an estimated enrolment rate of more than 70%. The remaining 30% do not attend school due to the mobility of their parents who are returning to Angola, sometimes coming back and returning again. 150 teachers, mostly refugees themselves and able to speak Portuguese and the different mother tongues of the learners, are teaching at the school. UNHCR provides furniture and food to all refugee families, and also provides school children with school uniforms. The building of additional classrooms at Osire Primary School is already planned with the assistance of the Portuguese community in Namibia. (Interview, Mr. A.O. Kamil, Administrative Officer of UNHCR, November 2002)

In November 2002, the Namibian and the Angolan governments signed an agreement with the UNHCR to formalise the repatriation process of refugees to Angola. Repatriation is already being prepared and different repatriation packages developed for families to
return. The repatriation process will start in May 2003. The repatriation process will take five to ten years and is carried out on a voluntary basis (Mr. A.O. Kamil, UNHCR).

**Summary**

Refugee children in Namibia live and are schooled in very crowded conditions. However, they are provided with school uniforms, school material and food, and although the medium of instruction is English, learners are taught by teachers who can speak Portuguese or their mother tongue. Most children whose families are settled at the camp attend school. The wording of the NPO that refugee children „are less well catered for than the majority of children in Namibia“ is no longer valid.

The repatriation process is in preparation, and a substantial number of refugees will return to Angola during the year 2003. Those refugees who decide to remain in Namibia will loose their refugee status and will be integrated in different ways into Namibian society.

**Recommendations**

The ITF should consider removing refugee children from the list of EMC in due time.

**6.9 Children with special educational needs**

**General remarks**

According to the 1991 population census, 3.1% of the Namibian population or 44 000 people are permanently disabled. The majority of disabled people, almost 80%, are found in rural communities. Blindness, deafness, speech impairment, limb impairment and mental handicaps are the main disability conditions.

Using the 1991 census information, it was estimated that one third of all children with disabilities in Namibia never attend school. Various factors play a role such as the distance to schools from home and the parental belief that disabled children might not receive the necessary type of education required if enrolled at ordinary schools. Unfortunately the 2001 census figures were not yet available at the end of 2002.

After independence special education classes and special education teachers were abolished at some of the formerly white schools. A policy of inclusive education was introduced by the MBESC but has not yet been successfully implemented. A major problem is the lack of suitably trained teachers and that pre-conditions for inclusive education are not yet in place, i.e. a therapeutic support system and an practicable teacher-learner ratio.

Eight special schools, which are administered directly from the Head Office of the MBESC, provide for children with special educational needs that could not be taken up in the mainstream (EMIS 2001, p.20).
Relevant Policies

1. The Namibian Constitution

2. 1997 a National Policy on Disability was adopted by the National Assembly, stating “the Government shall ensure that children and youth with disabilities have the same right to education as children without disabilities.” It is proposing inter alia - the establishment of small schools in remote areas - the provision of inclusive education for all children to be taught together whenever possible to develop the capacity of the regular school system to meet the diverse educational needs of all children.

3. Education for All, The Year 2000 Assessment, stating four broad goals for children with disabilities, namely - the expansion of access to special education programmes - the equitable distribution of resources both among regions and within regions - the improvement of quality of special education - increased efficiency in the management and use of available resources

3. „Namibia’s Education For All“ National Plan of Action 2001 to 2015, launched in November 2002 by the Ministry of Basic Education, Sports and Culture

Projects and Programmes

In 1990, the Directorate of Special Education Programmes was established under the Ministry of Basic Education with the objective of providing special education to persons with special needs and disabilities, including those with emotional and behavioural problems.

The existing special schools in Namibia do not cover the needs of disabled children. All schools have long waiting lists, especially for the deaf and the mentally disabled (Interview, Heide Beinhauer, Director and Education Training Officer: CLASH, November 2002).

Training for teachers is conducted at the National Institute for Special Education (NISE), Khomasdal. It is attached to the Moreson School, Khomasdal, and co-operates with the Windhoek College of Education.

CLASH (Association for Children with Language, Speech and Hearing Impairments of Namibia) is an NGO and registered welfare organisation. It is promoting the rights of the communicatively impaired child and is running the country’s only pre-school unit for hearing impaired children in Katutura.

Summary

“Children with special educational needs” are the only EMC group that has a directorate within the MBESC assigned to them. The Directorate of Special Education Programmes was established in 1990. Policies for children with special educational needs are in place.
"Education for all" and affirmative action for OVC and EMC are formulated programmes in a Namibian context. However, two opposing demands have to be reconciled: the demand for inclusive education on the one hand, and the demand for special education for the special needs, circumstances and expectations in the different regions.

For both demands the MBESC needs teachers who have the necessary skills to meet them, so that inclusive education can be practised where possible, but special education can be applied where necessary. Also, professional advisors for groups of schools are needed who are able to identify children with special needs and transfer them when necessary and possible. The capacity of teachers who inclusively teach disabled children at ordinary schools need to be strengthened.

**Recommendations**

Identify the teachers who have obtained the Diploma for Special Education at the University of Namibia (UNAM) in the past. Many teachers have obtained this diploma for an extra salary notch without ever using it. These teachers could be assigned to special classes at ordinary schools or be involved in developing practical concepts for inclusive education at their schools.

### 6.10 Overage Children

**General remarks**

The “NPO for EMC” regards learners who are “several years older than the norm for a certain grade” as overage. Overage is common in countries such as Namibia that are in a transitional phase in their education system.

In Namibia, the typical enrolment bulge of overage children has been continuously decreasing since 1990, as most over-aged children were “absorbed” during the first years after independence ("Education for All, The Year 200 Assessment"). In 1994 25.8% of new grade 1 learners were still overage. This rate dropped to 13.8% in 1999 and to about 10% in 2000. This means that about 10% of all learners in grade 1 were older than 8 years. (EMIS 2001, p.52).

Namibia’s average age of new entrants to grade 1 in 2001 was 6.7 years for both males and females, while about 1 700 grade 1 learners countrywide were older than 10 years (EMIS 2001).

In the Kunene region the average age of new grade 1 entrants was highest with 7.5 years average and almost 20% of learners being 10 years or older.

In 2001, the total number of learners older than 16 years in primary grades was 13,261, and the total number of learners 25 years and older and still at school was 668. All in all 19% of all learners in grades 1 to 12 are too old for their grade, taking into account an entry age of 6 years and not more than one repeat in lower primary, upper primary and junior secondary (EMIS, p. 51)
**Relevant Policies**

The MBESC stipulates that the maximum age for entry into grade 1 is 10 years.

For the National Literacy Programme of Namibia (NLPN) the minimum age is 15 years.

**Recommendations**

1. According to existing policies, children between the ages 10 and 15 and who have never attended school are too old to enter school and too young to join the NLPN. To close this gap, the ITF should support that policies with respect to minimum and maximum ages are applied flexibly. The EMIS statistics 2001 clearly show that this is in fact being done by a number of schools: 13,261 overage learners do visit primary schools, even up to the ages of 20 years and older.

2. In some regions San girls complain that they are not admitted to lower grades in primary schools if they already look „like women“. In regions where this attitudinal problem exists, parents, teachers and learners should be informed about relevant policies and the girls’ right to education.

3. The ITF should in due time remove “overage children” from the list of EMC.

**6.11 Young Offenders**

**General remarks**

Young offenders are school-age children in conflict with the law. They are either not going to school at all, or they are forced to leave school once they have been arrested.

Crime interrupts schooling. Many offenders are not able to return to school due to the negative effects of conflicting with the law. Some schools are unwilling or unlikely to accept a child who has spent time in prison or a child with a criminal record. Bringing them back to school plays an important role in their rehabilitation. (Interview, Legal Assistance Centre, October 2002). The *Children’s Act* stipulates that young offenders should not be isolated but live and attend school in their own environment, either with their family or with foster parents.

Data on young offenders are only available for Windhoek; there are no national surveys, reports or statistics. In 1995, of all people sentenced to imprisonment at Windhoek
prison, 23.1% were under 21 years of age, 1997 the percentage was 22.6%. Research by the Legal Assistance Centre (LAC) has shown that most crimes committed by children are economic crimes, such as shoplifting, housebreaking and theft (Legal Assistance Centre 2001, Annual Report, and Statistics).

**Relevant surveys and reports**

1994 a survey was conducted on Namibia’s young offenders at all prisons in Namibia. This survey resulted in the establishment of the Juvenile Justice Forum by the Legal Assistance Centre (LAC) in Windhoek in order to develop a juvenile justice system.

**Projects and programmes in action**

1. **Klein Aub Industrial School of Industry for Boys**, MBESC, is a school for 70 boys from grade 1 to 10. It used to function as a school for boys in need of care from difficult social backgrounds and for those previously involved in criminal activities and sent there by court order. The school was closed at the end of 2002 (Cabinet Resolution July 2002) and will be transformed into a “special school” for boys and girls with learning problems. In Namibia there will thus be no place to which youth offenders can be sent, the closest reform school being in South Africa. Some social workers therefore conceal the criminal past of juvenile offenders when directing them to schools. (Chief Education Officer: Special Education MBESC, Mr J. Kahikuata)

2. A **School of Industry for Girls** was completed in 1998 at Klein Aub but has never been opened and has been standing empty until today.

3. The **Juvenile Justice Project (JJP)** was established in 1995 by members of different ministries and NGO’s. It is funded by the Austrian Development Co-operation and UNICEF. The Project is
   a) advocating for rehabilitation rather than punishment of young offenders
   b) decentralising the system to all regions of Namibia
   c) to conduct research on juvenile justice and maintain a database

The LAC Juvenile Justice Project is drafting new legislation applying to children in trouble with law, and advocating for the implementation of a Juvenile Justice Policy in Namibia. The Juvenile Justice Bill will probably be enacted in 2003.

Present activities: The Youth Crime Prevention Programme, targeting mainly school-going children and school drop-outs, distributes information and reading material on crime prevention. It is also trains teachers and communities on ways to prevent crime. Crime education is focused on children at high risk from 12 years of age.

JJP also offers a range of pre-trial diversion options for children who have committed less serious crimes for the first time in order to avoid criminal records and to make reintegration into society and into schools easier.

The programme will gradually be phased out of LAC for the government to take over responsibility.
The Juvenile Justice Project is described as a „major success story“. However, the forums in the different regions have not been functioning effectively for different reasons. Difficulties are experienced especially in the north. Lack of holding facilities for juvenile offenders and lack of committed role-players being the main reason.

4. The Change of Lifestyle Project (COLS) in Khomasdal, Windhoek was funded i.e. by Ministry of Health and Social Services. It is providing early intervention and advocacy for children at risk of criminal behaviour or for those already in conflict with the law. COLS is doing regular cell visits, standing in as guardians for juveniles, and making recommendations to the courts. COLS is running a safe house for about ten children with programmes such as life skills, art, sports and computer studies. Since 1996, more than 100 children have gone through the centre (Mr. C. Willemse, Big Issue November 2002)

Recommendations

1. The ITF should liaise with the Juvenile Justice Forum (JJP) to establish ways of support and co-operation.

12. Orphans and other vulnerable children (OVC)

General remarks

In Namibia, the definition for „orphans and vulnerable children“ (OVC) refers to children "under the age of 18 whose mother, father or both parents or primary caregiver has died and/or is in need of care and protection." (Second National Conference on OVC, June 2002)

In Namibia the estimated number of orphans is 82 000 (2001). Of these about 60% are AIDS orphans. Almost 50% of all orphans live in the Omusati/Oshana/Oshikoto and Ohangwena regions of the central north of Namibia; about half of them are AIDS orphans. The second highest concentration of orphans is in the Caprivi with more than 12 000 orphans, followed by Kavango with 6 400 orphans. Almost 10% of all orphans live in urban Windhoek.

Table M: Geographical distribution of the Orphan Population by Year 2001 and by AIDS/Non-AIDS Orphans (Orphan’s Study, SIAPA, 2001)
By the official definition of orphans, only part of Namibian orphans fall under the group of educationally marginalised children. A substantial number of orphans will probably overlap with other needy and poor EMC groups such as street children, children in informal settlements and children on farms.

The rapidly increasing number of orphaned school-age children will suffer from the effects of both poverty and severe emotional stress. The result with respect to education will be dropping out, erratic school attendance, poor concentration and performance and lack of money for school fees and school uniforms.

Up to now most orphans in Namibia have been taken care of by the traditional extended family structures. However, this social network will soon reach breaking point and an increasing number of child-headed households will need both material and emotional support from other social support structures besides their families.

Government ministries, churches and other NGO’s are aware of the orphan problem in Namibia. Two National OVC Conferences have taken place in May 2001 and June 2002, organised by the Ministry of Health and Social Services and assisted by UNICEF, Family Health International and USAIDS. A National OVC Steering Committee was formed in 2001 to develop plans or action and OVC policies. The custodian ministry for OVC has since shifted to the Ministry of Women Affairs.

The orphan’s study by SIAPA suggests as possible intervention to “consider a means-tested financial support package for care giving households, waive school fees, and offer school feeding on a regular basis. (Orphans’ Study, SIAPA, 20019

The Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare has started to register orphans nationwide so that they can receive a foster and maintenance grant of N$ 200 per month. Registration, however, proves difficult on account of cheating and lack of necessary documents such as birth certificates and death certificates of parents (Ms.Netumbo Nandi Ndaitwah, Minister for Women Affairs and Child Welfare, New Era, 2-5 December 2002) In addition, instead of the necessary 200 million N$ to pay foster and maintenance grants to all orphans, the ministry is only allocated an amount of N$56 million.
The MBESC has acknowledged that the input by schools is needed to address the problem of the increasing number of orphans in Namibia. By keeping orphaned children in school, schools can assist in achieving one of the main objectives of the Second National OVC conference i.e. to keep orphaned children in their extended families and communities as long as possible. To achieve this, orphans must be provided with their immediate material needs such as food, clothing and school fees (or the exemption thereof) and a caring, child-centred environment.

The MBESC is presently discussing the waiving of school fees for orphaned children and the re-organisation of hostels to be more accommodating to needy school-age orphans. In general, schools in Namibia will have to take over part of the family’s responsibility in providing a place of safety, a life rhythm as well as adult persons to whom orphaned children can turn for emotional support and advice. The immediate and primary focus of the ministries involved is to keep orphaned children at school.

**Relevant Policies and reports**

1. The *Education Act 2001* states the government policy to integrate orphans into ordinary schools
2. „*The impact of HIV/AIDS on Education in Namibia*“ – Draft Report 2002 for both Ministries of Education
4. „*Building resilience among Children Affected by HIV/AIDS*“ – Catholic AIDS Action 2002, a handbook aimed at people who live and work with children affected by HIV/AIDS, including practical advice for teachers
5. Report on the *Second National OVC Conference*, June 2002-12-08
6. Two studies commissioned by UNICEF and the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture on *hostel policy and hostel management* and *school development fund* are both aimed at finding ways to ensure access to education for orphans and other vulnerable children.

**Programmes and NGO’s working with orphans**

- *HIV/AIDS Committee* of the two Ministries of Education
- *MBESC: Directorate Special Education* provides counselling training to set up care and support groups at schools
- *Catholic AIDS Action* is Namibia’s largest non-governmental organisation in the AIDS field, founded 1998 with regional offices in all thirteen regions, providing direct help to orphans and vulnerable children. In co-operation with Philippi Namibia, a(partner NGO, Catholic AIDS Action has registered over 10 000 needy orphans and vulnerable children in Namibia. Its aim is to care for them via volunteers who act as surrogate
“aunties” and “uncles. In April 2002, 11 192 orphans were registered in 9 regions. In 2001 Catholic AIDS Action provided school uniforms to 2 135 needy orphan children nation-wide. This was found to be a big incentive to poor children to return to school.

- **UNICEF**’s country programme 2002 – 2005 will target orphans with the specific programme objective that 60% of all OVC will have access to basic education (Full report on First National Conference on Orphans and OVC, May 2001)

- The **Church Alliance for Orphans (CAFO)** is an NGO, affiliated to the Council of Churches of Namibia. It is the first church-networking organisation in Namibia. It was founded by a number of religious organisations and launched in October 2002. CAFO is dedicated solely to assisting orphans and other vulnerable children, with the vision to see all churches and faith-based organisations in Namibia contributing to a national caring and supportive environment for Namibia’s orphans. CAFO would like to ensure that churches are included in policy, planning and representational associations and/or government committees concerned with orphans and vulnerable children. As churches they regard themselves as part of the fabric of society around which communities can organise themselves in towns as well as in rural areas.

- The **Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare** has started with the registration of orphans who qualify for a foster and maintenance grant of N$ 200 per month. The Ministry was allocated an amount of N$ 56 million to meet the needs of OVC.

- The **Ministry of Basic Education and Culture** is presently assessing the impact of its policies on school development fund and hostels. The aim is to maintain or improve access of OVC to school. Two studies are commissioned with the purpose to provide information and guidelines for “prioritising orphans and vulnerable children in need of hostel accommodation ... and managing hostels in a way that children’s basic needs are met and that they become a circle of support for OVC’s.” The objective of the second study is to provide information with respect to the school development fund in order to take informed decisions on the operationalization of exemption procedures for poor families, on communication campaigns to inform the school community of the rights to free education and on re-imbursement to schools for waived school development fund contributions.

**Recommendations**

1. The ITF should formulate its own definition of orphans, narrowing it to needy, educationally marginalised orphans.

2. The ITF should find means to identify school children that are heading households and/or are forced to look after siblings due the death of one or both parents. These children should receive priority when actions and interventions for orphans are planned.

3. As suggested by the Orphan’s Study 2001, the ITF should focus on the existing resources and structures of the National School Feeding Programme to provide poor
orphans with at least one daily hot meal at school. This will keep children at school and at the same time provide them with one of their basic material needs.

4. The ITF should invite a representative of CAFO (Church Alliance for Orphans) to become a member of the task force.

6.13 Teenage Mothers

General remarks

The majority of pregnancies among learners occur at secondary school level. However, there are also a number of girls at primary school who fall pregnant and drop out of school as a result. In most cases, these girls never return to school although the Policy on Pregnancy among Teenage Learners allows this and encourages pregnant learners to do so.

Most projects of the Ministry for Women Affairs and Child Welfare and the Ministry of Health and Social Services, as well as the regulations of the MBESC, focus on the prevention of pregnancies and HIV/AIDS infection among teenage learners. There are, however, no programmes for those learners who had to leave school because of pregnancy and have to look after a small child at a very young age. They need specific forms of encouragement and material and financial assistance to return to school.

Relevant policies and reports

Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing, China, 1995

Cabinet decision on teenage pregnancy policy, 1995

NGO’s and Ministries involved

1. Ministry for Women Affairs and Child Welfare

2. The Girl Child Organisation provides young girls and teenage mothers with skills, counselling and financial support.

3. The Namibia Women’s Association (NAWA) has taken responsibility for the Affirmative Action for the Girl Child Project after the UN World Conference on Women in Beijing, 1995. A main thrust of the action is to project an alternative lifestyle so that the Girl Child is made aware that there is life beyond teenage motherhood. It also aims to prepare girls for leadership positions; to involve girls in the solution of their problems; to unleash the full potential of the Girl Child; and to help girls to complete their schooling and to find scholarships for deserving cases.

Policies, Projects and Programmes
1. The Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare concentrates on preventative programmes with respect to „reproductive health“ and HIV/AIDS such as the „Young People Sexual Reproductive Health Project“. The ministry is supporting the policy of MBESC to encourage teenage mothers to stay in school as long as possible during pregnancy and to return to school as fast as possible with counselling for prevention of further pregnancies (Interview Ms. Adelheid Mboukua, Ministry of Women Affairs, October 2001)

2. The Namibian College of Open Learning (NAMCOL) focuses on providing educational opportunities for out-of-school youths who have dropped out of the formal school system. They offer grade 10 and grade 12 through distance mode or face-to-face centres throughout the country. Students must have passed grade 8 or 9 and have to pay fees and sit for examinations.

3. The Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture set up a Study Group in 1994 to investigate the issue of teenage pregnancy. It drafted a Policy on Pregnancy amongst Learners and submitted it to Cabinet for approval. In 1995, Cabinet resolved as a temporary guideline that

- Namibia cannot afford that many young Namibian women and men must give up their education because of pregnancy.
- amorous sexual relations between teachers and learners are a serious offence, if the learner is under 16, it is a criminal offence.
- sexual activity should be delayed until after a learner has completed formal schooling; sexual relationships between learners and learners are regarded as „totally inconsistent with the status of a learner at primary or secondary school“.
- however, in case of pregnancy, the educational system should give support to teenage mothers „to make the most of their lives“.
- sanctions for sexual misdemeanours be as follows: in the case of a sexual relation of a teacher with a learner a charge of misconduct must be laid and the teacher be suspended, preferably dismissed; In the case of sexual relations between learner and learner on school or hostel premises, learners should be counselled to amend behaviour; if behaviour persists, he/she may be expelled.
- falling pregnant is no reason for discipline or expulsion; rather than punishing the learners who are to become parents, the school should render them support.
- in case of pregnancy a girl may continue with school until the time of her confinement and is also entitled to continue staying in the hostel for the period that she is attending school.
- after giving birth she may return to school, irrespective of age, within 12 months of date of leaving school; girls who left school because of pregnancy may write end-of-year examinations if she has attended school for at least the first half of the school year; the same is applicable for boys.

In a circular letter of April 2001 this policy was explained to regional directors, inspectors, principals and school councillors with the aim to „encourage the implementation of those measures Cabinet has approved for implementation.“ The letter stresses the following points:

- pregnant girls should be allowed to attend school „at least until her pregnancy is visibly clear“
- pregnant girls should be allowed to attend special afternoon or evening classes and be allowed to sit for examinations
- girls who fall pregnant should be allowed to return to normal schooling after spending at least one year with the baby
- the same conditions should apply to a male learner who is responsible for a pregnancy of a female learner

**Recommendations**

1. The ITF should clarify the contradictions between the cabinet decision of 1995 and the circular letter of April 2001: are schoolgirls allowed to remain in school “at least until her pregnancy is visibly clear” (circular letter) or “until the time of her confinement” (cabinet decision)? Are schoolgirls who fell pregnant allowed to return to school “within 12 months of date of leaving school” (cabinet decision) or may they only return to school after spending “at least one year with the baby” (circular letter)?

2. The ITF should provide parents and the community with the correct information with respect to teenage pregnancy.

3. The ITF should encourage the adaptation to new cultural values, although with sensitivity, and clearly state them: education for all, education for our future mothers!
7. Summary and Recommendations

Summary of findings on the thirteen groups of educationally marginalised children as identified by the NPO

a) Overage children, working children and children in refugee camps are groups of children who do not necessarily fall any longer in the category of “educationally marginalised children”:

The problem of **overage children** is gradually decreasing, and where it exists, it is handled flexibly. **Working children** in Namibia as defined by the 1999 Child Activities Survey (Ministry of Labour) do not form an educationally marginalised group per se. Where working children are in fact marginalised they form part of other EMC groups. **Children in refugee camps** do have good access to schools and education and their educational and physical needs are looked after. The refugee repatriation programme will start from on May 2003.

b) In terms of known figures of enrolment, the San and Ovahimba children are still the educationally most marginalised groups. Although for both groups there exist more surveys, reports and programmes than for other groups of EMC, enrolment for both groups is still far below the national average enrolment rate.

The **Ovahimba children** are targeted as a homogeneous group by the *Ondao Mobile School Project* and the *Basic Education Programme* and attendance has increased substantially to about 50%. Support to and co-ordination, consolidation and extension of existing programmes is, however, still necessary. An estimated 2000 Ovahimba children of school age still do not go to school.

**San children** cannot be targeted as a homogeneous group as they are scattered all over Namibia. The focus on some groups is very strong, while there are no programmes in place for other groups. Co-ordination of programmes and co-ordinating with other ministries and projects is necessary. It is not known how many San children of school age do not go to school.

c) **Children with special educational needs** are the only EMC group that have a directorate assigned to them. They are the responsibility of the Directorate of Special Education Programmes within the Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture. In their case co-ordination with the Intersectoral Task Force is necessary.

d) Some information exists on **children of farm workers on commercial farms**, on **children on resettlement farms**, on **street children**, and on **young offenders**. No comprehensive surveys, reports and programmes exist for either group, but some initiatives like privately run farm schools, street homes for street children, government schools in resettlement areas and the Juvenile Justice Project by the Legal assistance Centre are in place.

e) No figures are available and no educational programmes are running at present for **teenage mothers**. However, there is a ministerial policy on how to keep teenage mothers and fathers in school as long as possible. ITF needs to assist with clarifying and implementing the policy.
f) No national surveys at all exist on children of farm workers on communal farms and on school age children in informal settlements. Keeping in mind that about 45000 workers are living on communal farms (NAU) with no or very low wages, and that in Windhoek alone more than 60 000 people live in squatter areas with only two primary schools in their area, these two groups definitely need special attention.

g) Another group that will need increasing attention are orphans, although they will partly overlap with other groups of educationally marginalised children. The MBESC has already initiated studies to look into and suggest possible changes in the policies of school development fund and access to hostels, and other ministries as well as NGO’s have started programmes and actions on orphans.

**Recommendations**

1. **Co-ordination of projects and programmes**

   While some small groups of EMC are relatively well covered by programmes, studies and projects (e.g. San), other relatively large groups are undertargeted, e.g. children in informal areas and children of farm workers on communal farms. Interest in and attention on groups such as the San and Ovahimba is disproportionally high because of high NGO involvement, while the needs of other groups that do not have NGOs representing their interests are neglected. The ITF should therefore assist in co-ordinating new projects and programmes of NGO’s offered to the MBESC so that finances and resources are directed to those groups of EMC that have been neglected up to now.

2. **National School Feeding Programme**

   The National School Feeding Programme has been operating since 1991 within the MBESC. At the time of implementation it was specifically aimed at increasing attendance and at the retention of poor and educationally marginalised learners with a very high success rate during the first years of implementation. Today there is, however, very little awareness and understanding and no monitoring of this costly government programme. ITF should urgently look into how the School Feeding Programme can be re-activated, re-directed and extended to those in need, especially with the increasing number of orphans in Namibia.

   The ITF should make parents of school children aware that at schools where the school-feeding programme is implemented, targeted learners have a right to one meal per day at school and that it is the parents’ co-responsibility that the programme is working.

   It should be investigated how the School Cluster System can be used to improve the administration of the School Feeding Programme in the Education Regions such as Khorixas, Rundu, Katima Mulilo and Keetmanshoop and Windhoek. The Centre School could possibly take over the responsibility for food ordering and distribution to the cluster schools and assist with monitoring and control. When constructing circuit offices, a storeroom for food could be included or added and the management of the school feeding programme could be included in the duties of the Circuit Inspectors.
The ITF should encourage the MBESC to include management of the school-feeding programme in their in-service training programmes.

The ITF should ask the MBESC to include data on school feeding in their annual statistical data collection from schools.

3. **Policies and regulations**

   The ITF should address policies and regulations with respect to teenage pregnancy, the age of school entrants into grade 1 and the learner: teacher ratio for small schools in remote rural areas. Some regulations are unclear such as the policy on teenage pregnancy; others are in contradiction to the objectives of the ITF and NPO to provide “education for all”, especially for EMC.

4. **Data Base**

   ITF should establish a database for EMC by liaising with organisations such as the Legal Assistance Centre, (LAC), the Namibian Agricultural Union (NAU), and the Church Alliance for Orphans (CAFO). These organisations conduct regular surveys and the ITF could request them to include questions with respect to educationally marginalised children.

5. **Focus on retention**

   From statistics and reports it is evident that in Namibia enrolment figures are relatively high (in comparison to the past and in comparison to other countries) while retention is a serious problem both in primary and in secondary school. The ITF should therefore focus attention on high dropout rates and non-attendance, especially of boys in primary school.

6. **Link between NGO’s and Ministry**

   The ITF should continue to serve as a link between NGO’s and the MBEC, especially with respect to short term problem solving, control and hearing the voice of communities with educationally marginalised children.
List of interview partners

1. Alcock, Mr. N., Municipality of Windhoek, Community Development Division
2. Andima, Ms. Esther, NAMAS, Ondao Mobile School Project, Windhoek
3. Beinhauer, Ms. Heide, Director CLASH, Windhoek
4. Boys, Mr. Ben, National Project Officer, UNESCO and NIED (Pilot Project: Human Rights and Democracy Education)
5. Dittmar, Mr. Fritz, Education Advisor, Basic Education Project Namibia, MBESC and GTZ
6. Felton, Ms. Silke, Education Consultant, UNICEF, Windhoek
7. Grobler, Mr. N., former manager, Namibian Agricultural Union
8. Haikera, Mr. Conrad, Administrator Namibian National School Feeding Programme of MBESC
9. Horsthemke, Mr. Oliver, Manager: Speciality Fields, Namibian Agricultural Union, Windhoek
10. Kali, Ms. M., Ministry of Labour, Windhoek
11. Kamil, Mr. A.O., Programme/Administrative Officer, UNHCR, Windhoek
12. Kann, Ms. Ulla, former SIDA Regional Education Co-ordinator, Windhoek
13. Mabakeng, Ms. Rosina, Deputy Director: Women/Family Development and Gender Mainstreaming, Ministry of Women Affairs
14. Mboukua, Ms. Adelheid, After-school Centre for street children, Ministry for Women Affairs, Windhoek
15. Mbanga, Ms. Edith, National Co-Ordinator, Shack Dwellers' Federation of Namibia, Windhoek
16. Maygag, Mr., UN World Food Programme, Windhoek
17. Naanda, Ms. Aune, Programme Specialist, Education, UNESCO, Windhoek
18. Nangolo, Mr. J.S., Education Programme Implementation, MBESC
19. Pretorius, Mr., Ministry of Higher Education, Windhoek
20. Schott, Mr. Andreas, Technical Advisor/Project Co-ordinator: Upgrading African Languages Project (AfriLa), National Institute for Educational Development/ Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)
21. Steinitz, Ms. Lucy, National Co-Ordinator, Catholic AIDS Action, Windhoek
22. Taylor, Ms. Sarah, Editor, “The Big Issue”, Windhoek
23. Thoma, Mr. Axel, Co-Ordinator, WIMSA, Windhoek
24. Voigts, Mr Friedhelm, Central Statistics Office, MBESC
25. Zaal, Ms. Celeste, Legal Assistance Centre, Co-Ordinator of Juvenile Justice Project, Windhoek
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29. SIAPA, 2001: Orphans’ Study


31. THE Big Issue” November 2002


33. TVEDTEN, Inge and Nangulah, Selma, 1999: Social Relations of Poverty: A Case-Study from Ovambo, Namibia, Chr. Michelsen Institute, 1999


36. UNICEF and MBESC, 2002: San Communities in Omaheke region Pursuing their Right to Education”, An affirmative Action Proposal

37. UNITED NATIONS Common Country Assessment of Namibia 1999


ACRONYMS

ACORD  Agency for Co-operation and Research in Development
AIDS   Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CAFO   Church Alliance for Orphans
EMC    Educationally Marginalised Children
EMIS   Education Management Information System
GNP    Gross National Product
ITF    Intersectoral Task Force
JJP    Juvenile Justice Project
LAC    Legal Assistance Centre
MHSS   Ministry of Health and Social Services
NAMAS  Namibia Association of Norway
NAMCOL Namibian College of Open Learning
NAU    Namibia Agriculture Union
NAWA   Namibia Women’s Association

NGOs   non-governmental organisations
NIED   National Institute for Educational Development
NLP    National Literacy Programme
NNC    Nyae Nyae Conservancy
NNFU   Namibian National Farmers Union
NPO-EMC National Policy Options for Educationally Marginalised Children
OVC    Orphans and other Vulnerable Children
UNAM   University of Namibia
UNDP   United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR  United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF United Nations Children’s Fund
WFP    World Food Programme
WHO    World Health Organisation
Annex 1

Enrolment rates of 6 – 18 year olds, 1992 – 2001

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Based on medium-scenario population projection released by the Central Bureau for Statistics after the 1991 population census. Schools in Walvis Bay were excluded, as the population projections excluded the Walvis Bay area.
### Annex 2

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<td>5 616</td>
<td>5 516</td>
<td>5 888</td>
<td>6 380</td>
<td>5 520 5 587</td>
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