

Addressing School Related Gender Based Violence in Zambia: A Scoping Study

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List of acronyms

ACRWC	African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child
BETUZ	Basic Education Teachers' Union of Zambia
CAMFED	Campaign for Female Education
CEDAW	The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
CP	Child Protection
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
DEBS	District Education Boards
DHS	Demographic and Household Survey
ECCDE	Early Childhood Care and Development Education
EGVS	End Gender Violence in Schools
EMIS	Education Management Information System
FAWEZA	Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GEWELS	Girls Education, Women's Empowerment and Livelihoods
HDI	Human Development Index
HTP	Harmful Traditional Practices
H-Well	Hell and Wellbeing survey
ICCPR	International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights
ICESCR	International Convention on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
MoG	Ministry of Gender
MoGE	Ministry of General Education
MYSCD	Ministry of Youth, Sport and Child Development
MESVTEE	Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NIF III	National Implementation Framework III
NWLG	National Women's Lobby Group
PEOs	Provincial Education Offices

UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNZA	University of Zambia
r-SNDP	Revised Sixth National Development Plan
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAQMEC	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SRGBV	School-related gender-based violence
SRH	Sexual and Reproductive Health
VSU	Victim Support Units
WHO	World Health Organisation
ZNUT	Zambia National Union of Teachers
7NDP	Seventh National Development Plan

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1. Introduction and overview

School-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) describes physical, sexual and psychological acts of violence in and around schools, underpinned by unequal access to resources and power, and inequitable norms and stereotypes. While there is increasing recognition of SRGBV as a major issue globally, rigorous reviews of literature have concluded that evidence about effective ways to address it is lacking. In particular, the links between different levels of action – from international and national policy and legislation, to practice and projects on a school or community level – have thus far been inadequately addressed. The End Gender Violence in Schools (EGVS) initiative aims to build evidence to better understand, inform and strengthen the process of policy enactment on SRGBV in Zambia, Ethiopia, Togo and Cote d’Ivoire. Findings from the initiative in these four countries will contribute to global debates on how to address SRGBV.

This report presents findings from a scoping study of policy, practice and evidence on school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV) in Zambia, which was carried out in 2016. The main objective of the study was to analyse responses to gender-based violence in and around schools in Zambia, in order to inform future planning of policy and practice initiatives. The study was a collaboration between the government of Zambia, UNICEF, and researchers at the UCL Institute of Education working alongside consultant, Romana Maumbu. Its core elements consist of: analysis of legislation and policy; analysis of programming on SRGBV; mapping of stakeholders working on SRGBV; and the identification and evaluation of research and data sets. The findings presented here will be used to guide decision making for phase two of the initiative which will take place during 2017, as well as longer term planning and action on SRGBV in Zambia. The findings will provide the basis for reflection and the development of the action plan for the next phase of the EGVS initiative.

The overarching research questions guiding the study are:

1. What is the existing evidence on SRGBV in Zambia, and how is SRGBV shaped by contextual features, including social, economic, political and educational structures and norms, in varying contexts across Zambia?
2. How is SRGBV being addressed in law and policy in Zambia? How are laws and policies enacted at macro (national), meso (provincial) and local (district/school/community) levels? What programmes are in place to address SRGBV? How effective is policy and practice, where are the gaps and barriers, and how could they be addressed?
3. What sources of evidence have been used to inform SRGBV policy and practice in Zambia? What approaches have been used to collect data, and by whom? How effective have they been, where are the gaps, and how could they be strengthened?

This report begins by detailing the methodology used to carry out this research, before discussing patterns, perspectives and research on SRGBV in Zambia. It then presents findings on the enactment of laws, policies and programmes on SRGBV in Zambia. After outlining the legislative and policy framework, discussing key laws and policies, and government structures and partnerships addressing gender and SRGBV within the education sector, it analyses a range of initiatives underway in Zambia to address SRGBV. These include policy enactment initiatives linked to re-entry of pregnant school girls and young mothers, and child marriage; and initiatives concerned with non-violent teaching practices; and a range of programmes aiming to create safe, gender-sensitive schools. The report also examines reporting and referral systems and services out of school, and the role of technology. It considers the data, monitoring and evidence that is available to inform SRGBV policies and programmes, and concludes with possible priority areas for action.

2. Concepts and methods

2.1 Sampling and data collection

The End Gender Violence in Schools (EGVS) initiative overall takes an action research approach to achieving its aim to strengthen evidence-based policy and practice on SRGBV. Action research means research developed through a staged reflective process of problem solving among a team to achieve a longer term goal. It involves actively participating in a change situation, while simultaneously participating in research. Thus the initiative does not define the problem and present ready-made solutions from the outset. Instead it involves stakeholders, Government of Zambia, UNICEF, and UCL Institute of Education, working together to rigorously review evidence, using this to enable stakeholders in Zambia to develop action plans that are concerned with strengthening evidence-based policy enactments.

As part of this approach this Zambia study maps and analyses patterns and perspectives on SRGBV, including legislation, policy and programmes at national, district and local levels. In order to do this several methods for data collection were employed:

- An interactive two-day workshop with 64 participants led by the Ministry of General Education (MoGE) and facilitated by UNICEF and the UCL Institute of Education (March 2016). A range of stakeholders participated to share knowledge and information relating to SRGBV. These included national and provincial experts from the Ministries of General Education; Gender; Community Development and Social Welfare; Justice; Ministry of Chiefs and Traditional Affairs; and Home Affairs; Central Statistics Office; Library Services; NGOs and multi-lateral organisations; teacher unions, universities and research teams. Participants in the workshop were selected and invited with the intention of spanning a wide range of actors working in areas linked to SRGBV. The workshops were structured to provide a rich source of qualitative data for the study, contributing to the stakeholder analysis as well as insights into the policy, research, data and programmatic mapping. Each participant completed a short survey, mapping their experience and perspectives relating to SRGBV (Appendix 1).
- Literature review and documentary analysis of 1. Contemporary legislative and policy texts linked to SRGBV in Zambia; 2. Research reports and datasets on SRGBV in Zambia; 3. Documents describing programmes or interventions addressing SRGBV.
- In-depth interviews were carried out with 26 stakeholders in order to gain a deeper understanding of the processes, strengths and gaps in evidence, policy and practice around SRGBV. The sample for these interviews was devised with the intention of engaging a wide range of key stakeholders, both in and outside of government. The semi-structured interview guides (Appendix 2) were designed to address the research questions, while allowing flexibility to discuss the specific experience and perspectives of each interviewee.

The multiple sources of data were recorded and synthesised by Romana Maumbu and the team at UCL Institute of Education, using an agreed template, along with transcribed interviews, workshop reports and field notes. Using Microsoft Office and NVivo (software for qualitative analysis) the materials were organised and analysed thematically. Data was coded in relation to the research questions, and to identify themes and issues emerging from the data which had not been previously anticipated, such as networks and partnerships.

A limitation of the research design was that it was not possible within the size and scope of the study to collect data from every province, or at local levels. In particular, the voices of girls and boys are

missing. These limitations were mitigated to an extent by careful selection of interviewees with a range of expertise and experience of work with SRGBV across Zambia.

2.2 Key terms and concepts

There are several key concepts central to the present study, and the understandings of which form the basis of the analysis within. Firstly, as introduced earlier, *SRGBV* is broadly conceived and we understand it as describing physical, sexual and psychological acts of violence, underpinned by norms, stereotypes, inequalities and exclusions. Examples might include boys being beaten by their teacher, girls being harassed verbally on their route to school, boys proving their ‘manliness’ by hitting their girlfriends, or pupils bullying each other for defying gender norms. Corporal punishment can also be a form of *SRGBV*, and is often practiced in gendered ways, for example, boys may be beaten more harshly to ‘toughen’ them up, while girls may be beaten for not complying with domestic tasks. It is recognised that *SRGBV* violates human rights, and undermines girls’ and boys’ potential to learn and develop with dignity, confidence and self-esteem.

Gender describes the socio-cultural characteristics of masculinity and femininity as articulated by individuals and through cultural practices, contrasted with *sex* as the biological ascription of man or woman. Gender is also a structuring feature of all societies, shaping political, economic and social institutions, as well as relations between individuals. Thus it is a key lens through which inequalities and power relations can be examined and addressed. Gender is rarely a relationship to be understood on its own, and often needs analysis together with other forms of social division linked to socio-economic status (or class), region, ethnicity, and level of education.

The notion of *policy enactment* is central to the framing of this study. The term reflects how actions relating to policy take place at many levels (international, national, local, school) and involve many different actors and relationships. While the term ‘implementation’ describes how policy is converted into practice, the term ‘enactment’ is intended to signal the continuous, interactive nature of activity related to policy. It includes the negotiations involved in developing policies, allocating resources, prioritising and planning across sectors, and in putting plans into practice, which involve a wide range of policy actors at international, national, provincial, district and local level, who may have different positions with regard to promoting or opposing policy initiatives at different moments (Ball et al., 2012). It also involves paying attention to the influence of contexts.

2.3 Ethical considerations

The EGVS research underwent full ethical review and was awarded ethical clearance by the UCL Institute of Education’s Ethics Committee. Although not working directly with minors or vulnerable individuals, the themes of the work are undoubtedly sensitive, and the politics around this was something which was considered throughout the study – for example in designing the workshop and interview guides.

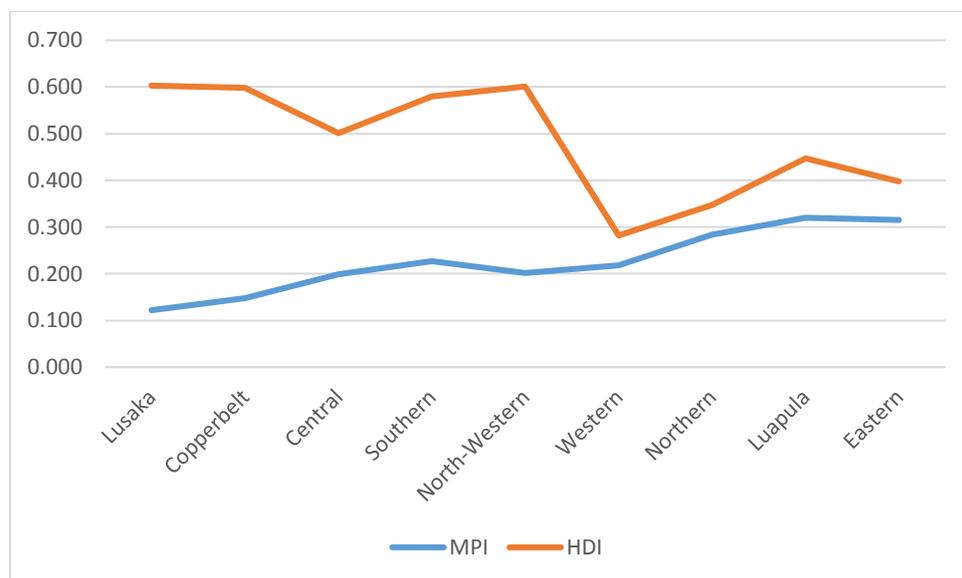
Central to the study was ensuring informed consent for all participants – to this end information sheets were distributed to all workshop and interviewee participants (Appendix 3). The workshop included detailed discussions about the aims of the project as a whole and the scoping study specifically. At the beginning of interviews there was another opportunity to explain the purpose and seek consent. It was also made clear that participants were free to stop the interview at any time and not obligated to answer questions they preferred not to. Confidentiality was maintained through ensuring interviews could not be overheard, anonymising interview data and ensuring that data represented in reports could not be attributed to individuals (e.g. by masking identifiers like job titles).

3. Contexts, Patterns and Perspectives on SRGBV in Zambia

The Republic of Zambia has a fairly small but fast-growing population of just over 13 million (Republic of Republic of Zambia, 2012). The country has significant natural resources, in particular copper and agricultural crops and animal, meat and dairy products, and a fast growing economy. Zambia experienced strong growth after independence 1964, but this was followed by stagnation linked to crashing copper prices. Structural adjustment policies in the 1980s and 90s helped kick start growth but at a cost to spending in education, health and social spending, which had devastating consequences (Babalola et al., 1999). Since then Zambia’s economy has continued to expand. Mining of uranium and oil and gas as well as copper, tourism, agriculture and an emerging manufacturing industry have helped move the country into the IMF’s category of middle income country (Republic of Republic of Zambia, 2011).

However, development has not been even, and inequality has started rising in recent years, as measured by the GINI coefficient (UNDP, 2016). The population is one of the most urbanised in sub-Saharan Africa, with 39% living in urban areas (Republic of Republic of Zambia, 2012), and much development has concentrated here, particularly in the Copperbelt mining area and around the capital city. International measures in Figure 1 show how human development is lower, and poverty higher, in the predominantly rural regions of Eastern, Luapula, Northern and Western Provinces. These areas are also less well served by rail and road infrastructure and more reliant on agriculture, which has experienced weak growth (UNDP, 2016). The current National Development Plan thus aims to concentrate efforts on developing infrastructure in these regions (Republic of Republic of Zambia, 2011).

Figure 1: Development indicators by region



Zambia’s population is also linguistically and ethnically diverse, with 73 ethnic groups. Whilst English is the official principal language there are 7 other languages officially recognised for use in formal communications; the predominant ones being Bemba, Nyanja and Tonga, which are spoken by nearly 80% of the population (Republic of Republic of Zambia, 2012). Over 95% of Zambians identify as Christian, the majority of those Protestant, which includes growing apostolic groups. The population is also very young – with 45% below the age of 15 (Republic of Republic of Zambia, 2012). HIV/AIDS

has had major impact on Zambia's population, with life expectancy dropping to 42 in 1995, but rising again to 60 in 2014 with the help of HIV prevention and anti-retroviral efforts (UNDP, 2016).

Zambia has remained relatively stable politically. Its one party system was replaced with multi-party politics from 1991, and the Patriotic Front party are currently in power. Edgar Lungu serves as Zambia's sixth president. There have been efforts to decentralise government in recent years. This was part of Zambia's Fifth National Development Plan (2005-2010). However, financial and human capacity constrained implementation, so although sector plans were made, actual devolution of powers and financial resources did not take place. The Sixth NDP aimed to fully implement decentralised governance to city, municipal and district councils, make them the focal points for service delivery (Republic of Zambia, 2011), and the 7th NDP is currently being developed. In education just over 100 District Education Boards have some autonomy in managing education within the districts of Zambia (MESVTEE, 2015).

3.1 Gender Relations in Zambia

As in many countries, traditional gender roles in Zambia are rooted in patterns of the family. For example, Simpson (2005) examined learning about masculinity among a broad cohort of men over several decades. This revealed the distinct gendering of play, chores and discipline during the men's upbringing.

Different processes of initiation, intended to prepare young men and women for adulthood are widespread – although varying by area, gender and ethnic group. Some research looking at sexual health has included discussion of initiation, as particularly for young girls and women it includes a sexual dimension and is generally more restrictive. Research in both urban and rural areas in Lusaka and Copperbelt provinces and rural Eastern Zambia have identified how boys learn sexually aggressive masculinities whilst girls receive mixed messages emphasising being sexually assertive, passive, and yet chaste (Dover, 2001; J. Heslop, 2008; Jo Heslop & Banda, 2013), which can contribute to gender violence and HIV risk. Gari et al. (2013) highlight the fact that HIV prevalence among young women aged 15–24 is more than twice that of men in the same age category. They argue that limited agency in sexual relationships, tolerance of gender-based violence, and fear of social rejection contribute to this. Warenius et al. (2007) found young people in their school-based study hugely lacking in accurate information about sexual health, with serious misinformation evident in the questions posed by the young people.

Early marriage is common in Zambia –amongst 20-24 year olds, 31.4% of women and 2.2% of men were married by the age of 18. Overall, 45% of women (aged 25-49) are married by the age of 18 and 65% by the age of 20 (DHS, 2014). Research carried out by UNICEF suggests a range of factors contribute to the early marriage of girls and boys, including poverty, being out of school, or as a perceived solution to lack of support or discipline (UNICEF, 2015). Many women also become mothers early - with more than one-third of women giving birth by age 18 and more than half giving birth by age 20. Currently, 12% of married women and 7% of married men are in polygamous relationships.

Gender dynamics as reflected in women's participation in household decision making vary – married women are not particularly likely to have sole decision making power over their own healthcare (31.7%), major household purchases (11.7%) or visiting friends and relatives (20.6%). However higher numbers report joint decision making with husbands on these issues, at 42.4%, 54.6%, and 54.6% respectively (DHS, 2014).

In a more positive light, Evans' (2014) ethnographic work in the Copperbelt area suggests that traditional ideas about gender are changing, with for example, rising support for women's education

and employment. Evans argues that the reducing segregation of the labour market is contributing to changing views about gender roles. However, unpaid care work continues to be seen as the preserve of women. Evans (2015) has also explored ‘what works’ in relation to gender sensitisation in this area of the country. Although reporting that much work under this rubric is too quick and cursory to produce change, she suggests that abstract equality messages work well when supported by first hand evidence countering gender stereotypes, such as examples of women working outside the home and men engaged in caring and household labour.

Women’s (descriptive) political representation in Zambia remains low, however there has been some work examining women’s political activism in relation to both mainstream and outsider lobbying, and how this shifted after the transition to multi-party elections. Geisler (2006) has examined attempts to influence politics through the National Women’s Lobby Group (NWLG) formed in the early 90s, including clashes with different political parties in their drive to shape the agenda and increase women’s representation, and intense hostility at time limiting their influence. Evans (2016) also suggests that although slowly, women’s political participation is rising. She discusses gendered ideas about who can be a political leader and argues that these are shifting along with changing patterns of work for men and women.

At the grassroots level, Wisken (2012) presents an interesting case study of a Zambian NGO that has developed a successful rights based approach to improving gender equality and women’s participation in community development. Women for Change in Zambia operates in rural areas in four of Zambia’s provinces (Central, Southern, Western, and Eastern) and has more than 262,450 members. He argues that their approach is effective as it works on social and economic development for the entire community, including specific components which work to increase women’s leadership and community understanding and value of gender equality. Positive change within the community as a whole in terms of attitudes around gender have taken place – for example, with increasing acceptance of girls’ education, and women owning and caring for productive animals such as bees and goats.

3.2 Education in Zambia

There has been massive growth in education access since 1999, as shown in **Error! Reference source not found.** below. Zambia’s primary net enrolment rate rose from 71 per cent in 1999 to over 97 per cent in 2013 (MESVTEE, 2015). This is particularly impressive given the educational challenges faced by the country in the two previous decades, when chronic underinvestment led to a decline in education delivery, access and outcomes (MESVTEE2015). The current commitment can be seen by a target being set that a 20% share of national budget should be going to education by 2015 (MESVTEE, 2011), although one national stakeholder suggested that this target had been revised downwards.

Table 1: Selected education data (UNESCO 2014) (NB figures not available in 2015 report)

	1999				2011/2012			
	Total	Male	Female	GPI	Total	Male	Female	GPI
GER Primary (2012)	84	88	81	0.91	114	114	113	0.99
GER Lower secondary (2011)	68	74	63	0.85	70	75	64	0.86

(No data available for Upper Secondary) (EFA Global Monitoring Reports, 2014a; 2015)

Error! Reference source not found. also shows how at primary level there has been progress in achieving gender parity. At lower secondary level, however progress has been slow, 64% of girls, compared with 75% of boys enrolled in 2011/12.

However, teacher recruitment and retention have not kept up, and have affected learning outcomes. The Revised 6th National Development Plan (r-SNDP) focuses on improving pupil teacher ratios by a recruitment drive and improved conditions for teachers. Education is currently free for 7 years, and there are plans to remove fees at secondary school up to Grade 12 (MESVTEE, 2015). There is a drive to build more secondary schools to accommodate this further expansion. Implemented at secondary level to address quality and relevance issues is a two tier system, so that any child not able to continue with traditional education can undertake skills or vocational training (MESVTEE, 2015). A significant development in the Zambia education sector since the 1990s has been the growth of 'community schools'. These schools have been set up by communities to provide primary education to children in areas with low access to government schools, and now form approximately 20% of primary school enrolment (MESVTEE, 2015). These schools have been critical in reaching disadvantaged communities, have been run by volunteer teachers from the community who have used more informal, inclusive and participatory teaching methodologies and tend to use local languages and remove other barriers to education such as uniforms (Cashen et al., 2001). But these schools lack infrastructure, are under-resourced, and teachers are usually not trained, qualified or paid. The government now formally recognises these schools and is starting to provide investment and improve support (MESVTEE, 2015). Another more recent policy change across Zambian schools is the language of instruction. Schools are expected to teach in their own chosen local language in Grades 1-4, and afterwards in one of the 8 official languages of Zambia, aiming to reduce barriers to learning (UNICEF, 2016).

Whilst gender gaps in access at primary level have closed and universal coverage has been almost reached, these gaps widen at secondary level. 64% of girls attend lower secondary, despite it being compulsory, and only 55% complete this level (65% for boys) – gender ratios which have remained consistent for the past 15 years (EPDC, 2013). Data is not available for upper secondary education, but is expected to be significantly lower, although they will increase as fees are removed. Data reflects that girls begin to drop out from Grade 5 onwards. The government has introduced laws and policies that aim to address this, including a re-entry policy for pregnant schoolgirls and a law against and harsh jail terms for parents withdrawing schoolgirls for marriage, bursary support for disadvantaged girls and affirmative action for higher level and vocational courses (MESVTEE, 2015).

There are clear inequalities in access to education based on poverty, rurality and province. Whilst 75% of the richest quintile complete lower secondary school, only 13% of the poorest do. Whilst 61% in urban areas complete, only 25% in rural areas do. Similarly 60% complete in Copperbelt compared to 25% in Eastern province (UNESCO 2016). Gender intersects with these markers to exacerbate inequalities: For example the gender parity index was 1.00 in urban areas and 0.75 in rural areas for secondary enrolment (MESVTEE, 2015). MESVTEE data indicates that approximately 15,000 girls a year over the past 5 years have become pregnant, 80% in rural areas. Early marriage, the opportunity cost of schooling and distances to school also act as barriers for girls, particularly in rural areas. Community schools are seen as a key strategy to help address these issues, and the focus on pregnancy entails a strategy emphasis on educating girls against early sex (MESVTEE, 2015).

Quality of education is a major concern. In the 2007 SAQMEC survey 34% of girls and 40% of boys at primary school were found to have achieved the international learning standard in basic reading (UNICEF, 2016). In national learner assessments in 2012, attainment in Mathematics, English and other national languages were generally higher than in 1999, but have seen a marked drop in all subjects since 2008 (MESVTEE, 2015). Insufficient schools in urban areas have led to shift systems

being introduced, reducing contact time. Teachers lack skills in formative assessment to supporting learning and have large classes to manage. Class sizes are on average 56 at primary level, 25 at lower secondary and 37 at upper secondary – all staying fairly consistent over the past ten years except upper secondary, which has doubled (MESVTEE, 2015). These data mask large variations across geographical locations – for example average class sizes were more than twice as large in Luapula Province than Copperbelt.

3.3 Gender, education and violence in schools

Not a great deal of research has been carried out on SRGBV in Zambia, limiting the evidence somewhat. However, there are a few surveys which touch on SRGBV to varying degrees. The most robust recent evidence is the Health and Wellbeing Survey (H-Well) (Together for Girls, 2014) which is the first national survey of violence against children across the country and is disaggregated by gender and age group. A multi-stage, geographically clustered sample design was used to produce nationally representative estimates. The findings show that violence against children is a major problem in Zambia. Of the 1819 respondents (aged 13-24), 891 were female and 928 male. Preliminary results show that of the 13-17 year olds, 17% of girls and 6% of boys had experienced some form of sexual violence in the past 12 months, including unwanted sexual touching, unwanted attempted sex and forced or coerced sex. Nearly a quarter of girls who had had sex said that their first experience was unwanted (7% for boys). Meanwhile no girls who experienced sexual violence below aged 18 received support services (Together for Girls, 2014). 28% of girls and boys (13-17 years) experienced physical violence in past 12 months: for girls 14% by relatives, 12% by adults in the community (including teacher), 8% by a peer and 4% by an intimate partner. Only 9% of girls and 2% of boys received services (Together for Girls, 2014).

A study by Population Council on SRGBV among children aged 14-18 years in eight schools of Lusaka and Chongwe districts of Zambia. It found that 24% (of boys and girls) reported that someone touched them in a sexual way and 27% reported exposing themselves in a sexual way. Peer violence was high for girls and boys, but boys were more likely to perpetrate. Violence by teachers was less common, but surprisingly more likely to be reported by boys than girls (Topp et al., 2012).

The Global School Based Health Survey findings are now a little out of date (having been conducted in 2004) and there were some problems with the methodology (see section 5 for more information). Worth mentioning though are the very high levels of violence reported by students (the majority aged 13-15) in schools, with almost one-third of both girls and boys reporting having been raped, two thirds reporting experiencing bullying in the past month, and two-fifths reporting being physically hurt by a boyfriend or girlfriend in the past year. It also revealed alarming levels of mental health concerns in young people, with over half experiencing hopelessness and nearly one-third contemplating suicide in the past twelve months (similar for boys and girls). These issues need further investigation. High levels of drinking and drug taking were reported, with nearly half of girls and nearly two-fifths of boys reporting having been extremely drunk. 33% of girls and 54% of boys reported having had sex - 21% of girls and 30% of boys before the age of 13. Whilst this data should be treated with some caution they do warrant further investigation – and it is possible that some of the high levels reported are linked to the self-report questionnaire format, which has been linked to more honest and higher disclosure of sensitive data than face to face interviews (Langhaug et al., 2010).

The last available Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SAQMEC) survey (with data collected in 2007) also had some methodological problems, but did identify that 7% of head teachers said bullying and 94% said fighting between pupils was a problem in

their school, whilst 38% said bullying and 20% said sexual harassment by teachers was a problem (SAQMEC) .

A small scale qualitative study undertaken with girls (mostly grades 9-11) in urban, peri-urban and rural schools in Lusaka province revealed high levels of sexual violence and how unhelpful norms were reinforced through the school (Women and Law in Southern Africa Trust - Zambia et al., 2012). Over half knew of teachers who had sex or entered into relationships with schoolgirls, sometimes in exchange for school fees, money or grades. Many were sexually harassed or assaulted by boys at school. Girls were assaulted on the way to school, and girls in private boarding facilities were particularly vulnerable. In the schools they carried out interviews, they found that school staff often advised girls to stay away from boys and not to wear sexy dresses. In other words, they normalised sexual abuse, taking for granted that boys would act this way, and putting onus on girls to take preventive action. Girls often took for granted dating relationships with teachers. There was no comprehensive sex education (this has since been introduced). Girls were also blamed if they reported violence, such as being stigmatised in the community (CAMFED, 2011; Evans, 2015; Gari et al., 2013).

The Demographic Health Survey elicits little data directly on SRGBV but does provide a large amount of robust evidence around GBV and aspects of sexual decision making, practices and perceptions. It reveals high levels of experience of domestic violence by women aged 15-49 in Zambia, and high levels of acceptance. 47% of women agree that a man is justified in beating his wife in some cases. There are large regional patterns, with for example 79% agreeing in Northern and 22% in Lusaka. This figure is lower for men, at 32% (DHS, 2014). Overall only 46% of women (57% of men) think women are justified in refusing sex if they are tired, not in the mood, or have concerns about their husband's fidelity or sexual health, with broad acceptance cutting across age, geographical and socioeconomic groups (DHS, 2014).

For girls closer to school age, 29% of 15-19 year olds have experienced physical violence and 8% sexual violence. 36% of 15-19 year olds who experienced sexual and/or physical violence sought help to stop the violence, and 10% told someone without taking action. Help seeking behaviour was higher for physical than sexual violence. 15-19 year olds were more likely to tell someone than actually seek help to take action against the violence than older women, suggesting that girls' first line of support may not be encouraging action to be taken. Education seemed to have little bearing in the action women took – in fact women with higher education were the least likely to report. Of those who sought help, only a small minority approached formal services such as police, health facility, social work organisation or lawyer (11% physical violence, 5% sexual violence), with the majority seeking help from family.

The DHS (2014) also highlights high levels of sexual activity and childbearing. 59% of 19 year old girls have begun childbearing. Teenage pregnancy is much higher in rural areas (36 percent) than urban areas (20 percent). Clear patterns by education can be seen here: whilst 53% of 15-19 year olds with no education have begun childbearing, this reduces to 36% with primary education and 23% with secondary education. 12% admit having had sex before age 15 – 22% of those with no education, 17% with primary, 8% with secondary and 0.3% with above secondary education. Trends in early sex had been falling since 1996 but the latest DHS saw a rise. Among sexually active unmarried girls aged 15-19 only 19% are using some form of contraception (9% condoms). HIV is 4.8% for 15-19 year old girls and 4.1% for boys. It is higher in towns, and with increased education and wealth indicators. Prevalence has been declining since 2001.

Some studies have examined sex and relationships with the UNESCO (2014b) baseline survey suggesting 78.5% of schools reported providing some form of life skills, HIV and sexuality education in

the previous academic year. However, of those young people who had had sex, the median age of sexual debut was 14, and girls were less likely to use contraception. Additionally, "Over 36% of in-school learners reported that they have experienced violence or abuse, while about a quarter of all learners reported that bullying takes place in their school. Higher rates of bullying were reported by government secondary school learners, followed by government primary school learners. Additionally, in all school types, except community, female learners reported more prevalence of bullying in schools." This suggests this remains an area where gender, education and violence need further attention to be fully addressed in concert. Other evidence from the study was extrapolated to suggest that almost 20,000 GBV and harassment cases were dealt with in the previous year across Zambia. It found teachers with GBV training in one-third of schools and sessions on GBV run in less than 50% of schools. Although many schools had policies on bullying and sexual harassment more than 75% of these did not communicate to anyone about these, highlighting a key gap in their potential to be enacted.

More research is needed to understand how violence affects particular groups of young people, for example girls and boys with special education needs, or children growing up in different regions of the country. Although more evidence is needed to understand how SRGBV varies in different locations, whether and how it is changing over time, and the influence of laws, policies, programmes and schools, this brief review of research shows that for many girls and boys in Zambia, violence in many guises is commonplace. We turn next to the efforts underway in Zambia to address SRGBV.

4. Enacting Laws, Policies, and Programmes on SRGBV in Zambia

4.1 Legislative and policy framework

- While gender and violence have been addressed in law and policy since the Constitution, SRGBV has gained more attention since 2011 Anti-Gender Based Violence and Education Acts.
- Recent policies indicate political will to address gender inequality and GBV, but give little attention to SRGBV, or monitoring of SRGBV strategies
- Reviews of laws and policies could integrate gender and SRGBV across the plans, and develop indicators to monitor progress.

4.1.1 An overview of laws and policies

Internationally, Zambia has ratified, without reservation, four international human rights treaties: *the International Convention on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)*, *the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR)*, *the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)*, and *the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)* – these oblige the state to respond to and prevent SRGBV.

Regionally, Zambia has adopted: *African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights (African Charter)*, *the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC)*, *the Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa (Protocol on the Rights of Women)*, *the Protocol on the Prevention and Suppression of Sexual Violence Against Women and Children (Great Lakes Protocol)*, and *the Southern African Development Community Protocol on Gender and Development (SADC Gender Protocol)*. Articles 20 – 25 of the SADC Protocol on Gender and Development call on States to enact and enforce legislation prohibiting all forms of GBV; discourage traditional norms including social, economic, cultural and political practices; public awareness programmes; adopt integrated approaches; provision of specialised facilities including support mechanisms for survivors of GBV among other obligations – this inspired the *Anti-Gender Based Violence Act No. 1 of 2011*.

Zambia has also adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), with two of the targets within the Education Goal 4 relating to SRGBV:

4.7 By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture’s contribution to sustainable development

4.A Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all.

Table 2, below, summarises key legislation, while table 3 presents policies, plans and guidelines related to SRGBV in Zambia.

Table 2: A chronology of laws and codes related to SRGBV

Law/Code	Elements relating to SRGBV
<i>Zambian Constitution</i> (1996)	Articles 11 through 24, known as the fundamental rights provisions, include the rights to life, liberty, security of person; protection of the law; protection from torture, or inhuman or degrading treatment; and protection of young people from exploitation. The key constitutional provision for children’s rights is Article 24, which provides that “[a]ll young persons shall be protected against physical or mental ill-treatment [and] all forms of neglect, cruelty or exploitation.”
<i>Zambia Police Act</i> (1999)	details the functioning of the police service, including powers and duties of police officers. Section 53 refers to the establishment of Victim Support Units (VSU) at all police stations and posts to respond to cases involving child abuse, property grabbing, sexual offenses, abuse of the elderly, rape, and sexual violence. Although the act does not refer specifically to GBV or SRGBV, it specifies counselling services to be offered through the VSUs.
<i>Penal Code Act</i> (amended in 2005)	defines criminal acts, defences to criminal acts and prescribes appropriate penalties. Chapter XV addresses offences against morality; it specifies punishment for rape is life imprisonment; for indecent assault of a woman or girl is imprisonment for fourteen years; for defilement of a child (under 16) is imprisonment for not less than twenty years/life; and for child trafficking is imprisonment for life. This Amendment criminalised sexual harassment in an educational institution
<i>Juveniles (Amendments) Act No 3 of 2011</i>	provides mechanisms for protection and correction of juveniles, including elimination of child labour. The act specifies punishments for juveniles, including the circumstances in which children can be sent to reformatories, and that no young person shall be sentenced to imprisonment if he can be suitably dealt with in any other manner. No juvenile can be kept in a place of safety for more than 14 days without a renewal of order. One interviewee expressed positive views about how this act gives guidance on how to protect children in court, including not forcing them to appear in open court, and adjourning trials if they appear distressed (prov gov off 16)
<i>Anti-Gender Based Violence Act No. 1 of 2011</i>	provides for the protection of victims of GBV; including establishing a Gender-Based Violence Committee and a Gender Based Violence Fund to assist victims. It sets out provision for filing and dealing with complaints of GBV, setting up shelters, protection orders, and emergency monetary relief. See section 4.1.4.
<i>Education Act 2011</i> (currently under review)	seeks to regulate the provision of accessible, equitable and quality education. Section 19 provides that educational institutions “shall not discriminate against a learner in any manner.” Section 28 prohibits corporal punishment, with a penalty of a fine, up to one year’s imprisonment, or both. Section 32 states that the education board shall develop procedures for preventing the gender-based violence of employees, teachers and learners at educational institutions; and provides for the establishment of an education board or board of management to develop procedures for preventing and responding to GBV. Section 18 specifies that a learner who is a child shall not contract any form of marriage; with a penalty of imprisonment of not

	<p>less than 15 years to life for a person who contravenes this section. Section 25 allows for girls’ and boys’ re-entry to school after the birth of a child.</p> <p>The MoGE commissioned a report on how to bring gender more effectively into the act and strengthening its child protection provisions. The act is currently being reviewed.</p>
<p><i>Code of Ethics for the Teaching Profession in Zambia 2016</i> (Teaching Council of Zambia)</p>	<p>The Code applies to all teachers. If a teacher is found guilty of assault, penalty can include de-registration and cancelling of practicing certificate. If found threatening violence, then the penalty can include suspension of practice certificate /de-registration and cancelling of practicing certificate. However, it does not clearly specify the measures that should be applied. The code is an extension of the <i>Code of Ethics for Public Service</i> (2008), which is signed by all public servants. See section 4.4.1.</p>

Table 3: A chronology of SRGBV in Policies, Plans and Guidelines

Policy, plan or guideline	Elements relating to SRGBV
<p><i>Education Policy</i> (1996) (currently under review)</p>	<p>sets out the structure of the education system. Policy has made it compulsory for basic education from Grade 1-Grade 9 to promote universal basic education of good quality. Gender is addressed as an area of special concern, with a view to increasing parity in access to, participation in, and successful completion at all phases, and the document proposes affirmative actions, including bursaries for girls and strategies to increase numbers of female teachers. Although gender based violence is not addressed explicitly one of the strategic interventions proposed is: “the development by the Ministry and Education Boards of procedures for preventing sexual harassment of employees and pupils” (p. 63) and “The Ministry will review and enforce penalties against school pupils, teachers and other educational personnel engaging in sexual harassment of pupils or education employees or making a school-girl pregnant.” (p. 65).</p>
<p><i>Revised Sixth National Development Plan 2011-16 (r-SNDP)</i> (extended to end of June 2017)</p>	<p>sets out the Government’s approach to achieve the Vision 2030 of becoming a “prosperous middle income country”, articulating policies and strategies towards sustained economic growth and poverty reduction. See section 4.1.2.</p>
<p><i>Education Sector National Implementation Framework III 2011-2016 (NIF III)</i> (extended to end of June 2017)</p>	<p>Aligned with the r-SNDP, this sets out the strategic focus of the Education Sector towards achieving Vision 2030. With the overarching goal to “increase equitable access to quality education and skills training to enhance human capacity for sustainable national development”. See section 4.1.3.</p>
<p><i>National Gender Policy</i> (2014) (Ministry of Gender)</p>	<p>develops over-arching framework for work of Ministry of Gender, outlining its purpose, mission and vision: “to create a Zambian society which has achieved the vision of a nation where there is gender equality and equity for sustainable development”. The policy sets out</p>

	to mainstream gender in all national policies and programming, including monitoring and evaluation; and addresses range of issues including GBV, child marriage, though not specific to school age young people or schools.
<i>Gender Policy on Accountability (2015)</i> (MOG with support from UNESCO, ILO, UNFPA)	aims to help those that have been oppressed, including through allocation of financial support, and facilitating women's voices and participation in decision making. The policy recognises the need to gather data on prevalence of GBV, and of monitoring and evaluating activities on GBV. The policy does not refer specifically to SRGBV.
<i>National Strategy on Ending Child Marriage in Zambia (2016-21)</i> (MOG)	coordinates multi-sectoral responses in order to reduce children's vulnerability to marriages, emphasising the role of social services such as education to prevent child marriage; strategy addresses beliefs and practices, and facilitates provision of child sensitive services; and sets up national coordinating unit to monitor.
<i>National Youth Policy (2015)</i> (Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development)	offers priorities and strategies to effectively, efficiently and sustainably promote youth development, but does not refer to gender-based violence.
<i>National Disability Policy (2015)</i> (Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development; Ministry of Health)	aims to enable persons with disabilities to live independently and participate fully in all aspects of life; and addresses access to health care, and social protection. The policy aims to "increase access to appropriate formal and non-formal education and skills training including lifelong learning through inclusive education system at all levels". <i>A Guide for the Implementation of Inclusive and Special Education (2014)</i> (MoGE; Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development) provides guidance of assessment of and provision for children with disabilities. Neither the policy nor the guide refers to SRGBV.
<i>Guidelines on the Administration and Management of Guidance and Counselling in the Education Sector 2014</i> (MoGE)	These guidelines are intended for school counsellors, guidance teachers, head teachers, college counsellors and lecturers, other educational administrators and other stakeholders. They aim to improve the provision of school guidance services in the education system. See section 4.5.1.
<i>Strategic Plan for promoting Gender Equality and Child Development in Zambia (2014-16)</i> (MOG/MYSCD – formerly Ministry of Gender and Child Development)	With a vision of creating: "A nation where there is gender equity, equality and the full realisation of women's and children's rights for sustainable development", this sets out the plan to co-ordinate gender mainstreaming programmes, and to monitor the implementation of gender and child development policies and programmes. The plan mentions GBV as one of the major threats that may militate against the successful implementation of the Strategic Plan. One of the objectives of the plan is: to effectively coordinate the implementation of Anti Gender Based Violence programmes in order to contribute to the reduction of incidences of GBV, to be achieved through measuring the cost of the impact of GBV on the economy, facilitating the work of the Anti-GBV Committee, mobilising resources to implement anti-GBV programmes, and strengthening stakeholder collaborations. The plan

	does not refer specifically to SRGBV. Since the plan was developed, the Ministry has been re-organised, with its functions now split between MOG and MOSYCD.
<i>National HIV/Aids Strategic Framework 2014/16</i>	addresses comprehensive sexuality education. See section 4.5.2
<i>National Child Policy (2015) (MYSKD)</i>	To coordinate and manage the formulation and implementation of multi-sectoral child welfare and development programmes in order to facilitate attainment of their full potential in the enjoyment of life – including violence against children. A National Plan of Action Child Policy is not yet finalised.

This overview of laws and policies shows that SRGBV has gained increasing attention, particularly since 2011, when the Anti-GBV Act and Education Act heralded a large amount of policy activity. In the same year the CEDAW Committee (2011) commended legal reforms in Zambia aimed at eliminating gender discrimination against women and promoting gender equality, including the 2011 Anti-GBV Act and the 2011 Education Act. Within education, the Committee praised efforts to increase enrolment, retention and progression, but expressed concern about challenges: “such as lack of adequate capacity and infrastructure at schools, including inappropriate sanitary facilities for girls; lack of adequacy in gender responsive teaching; and insufficient availability of resources to comprehensively implement free basic education, sexual harassment and the HIV/AIDS pandemic which keeps many girls out of school” (p.8). Among its recommendations were to: “Improve the quality of training in gender-responsive teaching and learning methodologies for teachers to encourage change in social norms and traditional attitudes toward the gender role of boys and girls; f) Implement a zero tolerance policy to end violence against girls, sexual abuse and harassment in schools and ensure that perpetrators are punished” (p.8). In subsequent sections of this report we discuss the extent to which these recommendations have been addressed since 2011. We begin by discussing in greater depth three of the most influential plans that have guided policy during this period. We consider the extent to which they address SRGBV, and present recommendations for future plans.

4.1.2 Revised Sixth National Development Plan

The r-SNDP sets out the Government’s approach to achieve the Vision 2030 of becoming a “prosperous middle income country”, articulating policies and strategies towards sustained economic growth and poverty reduction. Gender is a cross-cutting issue, and the plan sets out to mainstream gender within laws, policies and programmes in different sectors, and to support economic empowerment of women. Among the strategies to achieve these goals are commitments to reduce women’s vulnerability to GBV, to domesticate relevant CEDAW provisions; and to facilitate the GBV Bill, which subsequently became law in 2011 (see above). Targets to achieve by 2016 (extended to end of June 2017) included creation of 9 one stop centres, sensitisation on the GBV law in 9 provinces, and a reduction in GBV (from 45% in the DHS 2010 to 25% in 2015).

Within education the goal “to increase equitable access to quality education and skills training to enhance human capacity for sustainable development” was to be achieved through an emphasis on expanding access to secondary and tertiary education, and through enhancing quality of education so that learners gain knowledge and skills required for social and economic development (p. 93). Among the strategies those that relate to gender include creating gender responsive school environments in ECCDE, basic and high schools, increasing bursaries for female student teachers, and to “provide a safe learning environment for all learners by re-introducing boarding facilities including weekly boarding

facilities” (p. 95). None of the targets, outputs or performance indicators in education refer to violence, safety, or to gender responsive school environments, and so it is not possible to assess the effectiveness of the plan in achieving these strategies by 2016 and so inform the planning of the Seventh National Development Plan, due to begin in mid-2017. Apart from this one reference to safe learning environments, there is no mention of GBV in or around schools.

4.1.3 Education Sector Third National Implementation Framework 2011-2016 (NIF III)

The NIF III is the implementation plan to realise the education sector goals of the r-SNDP. With the overarching goal to “increase equitable access to quality education and skills training to enhance human capacity for sustainable national development”, NIF III set out to address low quality of education. Objectives were to increase: access, efficiency and equity to quality ECE, Primary and Secondary, and university Education; the number of qualified and competent teachers in schools; access to science, technology and innovation, and TEVET; to increase Adult Literacy levels; to expand and improve infrastructure; and to review the curriculum at all levels to make it relevant and responsive to national aspirations and education needs.

Gender equity within NIF III is understood mainly as increasing parity between girls and boys in access to educational provision, particularly at secondary schools. The ways in which gender stereotypes, norms and inequalities may influence quality of or access to schooling is discussed in a one section of the chapter on Equity, which considers teen pregnancies and the limitations of the re-entry policy in enabling girls to return to school. Violence is briefly mentioned: “Another factor impeding gender equality in education, which does not receive appropriate attention, is the lack of safety of learners in institutions of learning, leading to sexual and other forms of abuse of children; particularly females.” (p. 91). One of the equity goals is to create gender responsive learning environments – strategies are to sensitise on gender related legislation; to make the curriculum more gender-sensitive; and to develop child protection policies for all schools (reduced GBV is mentioned as an outcome). Other relevant strategies in the plan relate to retention of girls through SRE curriculum, implementing re-entry policy; life skills education (intended to address HIV/AIDs); the expansion of guidance and counselling services in secondary schools (target of 40% of schools by 2015); building gender-sensitive pedagogies into teacher training.

As discussed in this report, since NIF III was initiated in 2011, a number of initiatives have been underway to implement these strategies, and an analysis of outcomes data should inform planning for the joint MoGE and MoHE Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) 2017-21, that covers both ministries, drawing from the 7NDP and Ministry of National Development Planning documentation. In relation to the outcome on reducing GBV, there has not been data collected over time, and so it is not possible to show whether levels of violence have reduced. We have not accessed data showing whether all schools have child protection policies, and without data on both issues it is not possible to assess the effectiveness of school based CP policies. For the ESSP it would be valuable to review progress with each of the strategies relating to gender and violence, including whether and how they have been implemented, and analysis of evidence of their effectiveness. Integrating these important issues throughout the plan, rather than in a separate chapter (or subsection of a chapter), may help to forefront their significance in achieving quality education at all phases. Establishing clear, achievable outcomes will be important for monitoring their effectiveness.

4.1.4 SRGBV and implementing the Anti-GBV Act (2011)

The Anti-GBV Act is the key legislation for putting into place mechanisms to protect victims of GBV, establishing a Gender-Based Violence Committee, procedures for dealing with reports of GBV, and a Gender Based Violence Fund to assist victims. The *Government of Zambia and UN Joint Programme on Gender Based Violence 2012-2016* has established integrated, multi-sectoral mechanisms for the

act's implementation. The GRZ UN Joint Programme combines Government, UN agencies and donors. It has four pillars: Health (coordinated by UNFPA), Social Protection (UNICEF), Justice (UNDP) and Coordination (MOG). Initiatives of the Joint Programme have included launching two fast track courts in 2016.

These combined efforts may explain why many interviewees were aware of the existence of the act, and several spoke positively about its effectiveness in building awareness on GBV:

Putting that law in place is really a good step in the right direction. Making people know even what gender is, what GBV is and what provisions are there for them and what rights they can enjoy. So I think the Anti GBV Act is one piece of legislation which is really helping us. (Interview 4, NGO worker)

There have, however, been some criticisms. Women in Law in Southern Africa (WLSA) have criticised the use of the term "domestic relationships", which excludes some forms of gender violence such as violence associated with prostitution; violence at the work place; violence by the police and security forces including torture of detained women. The CEDAW Committee criticised the omission of marital rape (CEDAW, 2011). Although it refers to right of victims to education, the Act does not refer to SRGBV. The MoG is currently responsible for reviewing the act, and one interviewee felt that this could be an opportunity to fill a gap in the law by adding a component explicitly addressing SRGBV:

So that we avoid duplication of effort where we have this act and this act and another act and another act and this policy and so many policies so what could happen is to just incorporate everything in one (Interview 15, National Government Representative).

4.2 Government structures and partnerships to address SRGBV

- Devolved structures from national to provincial to district are used to disseminate laws and policies on gender and violence
- Competing priorities, and adding on gender to responsibilities of officials at all levels means SRGBV work can be sidelined
- Strong links have been established between government, cooperating partners and NGOs, providing a strong foundation for developing collaborative initiatives on SRGBV

Within the **Ministry of General Education** (MoGE), key responsibility for policy work on SRGBV is within the Planning Department, where there is a **Gender Focal Point**. Other key directorates include the Directorate for Open and Distance Education (DODE), which works with out of school children, and the Directorate for Teacher Education and Specialised Services (TESS), which works on counselling/guidance. Related to this, there is the Teaching Council, which has been recently established. At provincial level, the MoGE has **Provincial Education Offices** (PEOs), and at district level, there are **District Education Boards** (DEBs). The DEBs are responsible for inspecting and monitoring school standards, planning (including resource allocation), and human resources, including addressing disciplinary offences by school staff.

The **Ministry for Gender**, formerly the Ministry of Gender and Child Development, has a coordinating role with responsibility for planning on gender and GBV. Within the MOG there are four departments: gender rights and protection, gender in development, planning and human resources/administration. This separation from child development in 2015 has meant that the 'structures on the ground' have moved to the new **Ministry of Youth, Sports and Child Development**, leaving the MoG without a provincial or local architecture (MGCD Strategic Plan 2014-16). The MoG has steered the National Gender Policy (2014), coordinates the Anti GBV Quarterly Forum, and now houses the work against Child Marriage.

The devolved structures from national to provincial to district are used to disseminate laws and policies on gender and violence. However, interviewees were concerned that gender was easily sidelined, because at macro, meso and micro levels responsibility for gender was added on to many other responsibilities, and because of many competing priorities. As one interviewee put it: “gender must also receive [a full time coordinator] because it is key, we can’t just risk it as added responsibility to someone” (interview 14, National Government Representative). There is currently a restructuring in the MoGE, with a possible outcome being to make the gender focal role more prominent within the Planning Department. Another interviewee felt that the absence of gender structures at meso and micro levels made it difficult at times to implement activities (Interview 15, National Government Representative).

There are strong links between the Government and Cooperating Partners and NGOs. One cooperating partner, for example, described their relationship with the government as “very strong and very cooperative”. The openness of government colleagues was praised:

There is a lot of emphasis put on teenage pregnancy here, and the Ministry bring it up themselves, you know what I mean. And they are very willing to admit that it’s their issue. (Interview 3, NGO worker)

A number of committees have been established within the MoGE, such as the Project Coordinating Committee (PCC) and the Programme Implementation Technical Committee (PITC), which include both NGO and cooperating partner representation. NGOs often assist with policy dissemination through their links to local communities and schools. FAWEZA, for example, have developed simplified versions of the Anti GBV Act, the re-entry policy and the Education Act, picking out elements relating to violence against learners, to share in schools and communities (Interview 5, NGO worker). However, one local government worker felt that the government should consult schools when developing policies:

The big people in government they don’t come to the grassroots level, to us the teachers who are the owners of the children, to find out from us how are we going to do this (Interview 21, Local Government Worker).

Other interviewees were concerned that the process of devolution has been slow and difficult, only recently reaching the education sector, and that limited resources hindered their efforts to use the devolved structures to maximum effectiveness.

There's no problem with talking about [GBV]; people are usually receptive to things that are communal. The world is changing and people want to be abreast with what is going on. The only limitation usually is resources because if there's no funding for the programme, for you to call people from far and near getting to the meeting point is sometimes a challenge. You may catch more people when you follow them to their district but you may not have the funding to go round all the districts. So normally the limiting factor is lack of adequate resources; but people themselves especially those of us who are in schools, the Ministry of Education and other workers, we are very receptive to things which come. People listen and analyse and give their feedback and see how it can adapt to the situation. (Interview 18, Provincial Government Representative)

Lack of resources was a challenge mentioned by interviewees at national, provincial and local levels. A National Government Representative explained that most of the available budget is used for infrastructure development, with very little assigned for work on activities relating to gender. Among survey respondents it was most often provincial officials who commented on the lack of resources, perhaps because they were tasked with finding funding sources to implement policy.

4.3 Addressing teenage pregnancy and young mothers, and child marriage

- Strategies to implement the re-entry policy and address child marriage have been central priorities in recent gender initiatives
- Barriers to the re-entry policy include tendency to blame girls for pregnancy, without recognising role of GBV
- Interviewees advocated awareness raising at school level, and prevention strategies, including access to condoms

Child marriage and teen pregnancy have been central focuses of government policies relating to girls. As discussed in section 3.3, 59% of girls have given birth by the age of 19, more commonly in rural areas, where child marriages are more widespread. One driver of teen pregnancy is violence, with the H-Well survey finding that 1 in 4 girls reported that their first sexual experience had been unwanted (Together for Girls, 2014).

The Child Marriage Campaign was launched in 2014, with a National Strategy on Ending Child Marriage approved in April 2016 and the NPA ECM almost finalised. With a high level of consensus on this issue in parliament (though not among customary gatekeepers or religious leaders from different religions), one interviewee was optimistic that it would soon be passed (Interview 13, National Government Representative).

Many interviewees spoke about the re-entry policy. Although there has been a policy allowing girls to return to school following pregnancy, the policy was reviewed and incorporated into the Education Act in 2011 (see table 2). Prior to then, a review of the policy led by the MoE concluded that though there was Government political commitment to re-admit girls back into schools after delivery, implementation at school level was uneven. While some schools assisted pregnant girls, other school authorities resisted the policy and there was persistent social stigma associated with teen pregnancies. One stakeholder explained that there were no supportive structures to help with childcare; and that some girls would prefer to change schools, but there were no schools sufficiently nearby to enable this.

Views among our interviewees were mixed, with several interviewees praising the policy for enabling girls who may have been coerced into sex or whose pregnancies were “not of their own making” (Interview 10, NGO worker). One interviewee narrated a recent encounter with an ex-pupil, who returning to school after the birth of her child, had successfully completed school and gone to university:

We met her at UNZA – this girl completing. She was so happy – so the re-entry policy - it is a good thing because it is helping vulnerable girls to have a future through education because sometimes it just happens but they learn their lessons afterwards. (Interview 11, NGO worker)

Several interviewees expressed disappointment that although some girls return to school after delivery there remain many girls who do not return to school. This was attributed to several interlinked reasons. Views in communities and schools are reported to be mixed, with some viewing the policy as encouraging girls to get pregnant, with these girls viewed as ‘bad examples’ for other pupils:

Government schools are accepting the re-entry policy but Mission schools they are a bit sceptical because they feel it is creating indiscipline and immorality among the children. (Interview 11, NGO worker)

Overall, interviewees felt that there is still more work to be done in working with schools, to show them how to manage the process with girls, encouraging them to discuss their pregnancies with the

school counsellor or matron, as well as to address the stigma, shame and gender-based bullying girls often experience when they return.

Several interviewees were also critical about the policy of not providing condoms to young people, despite the awareness that they are sexually active:

But it is policy rule that the condoms should never be distributed to school children. I look at that as a form of contradiction, because the number of school children who are falling pregnant keeps on increasing, which means for this to happen they are sexually active and the condom would prevent that. But the official policy is that you can't distribute condoms to children. (Interview 19, Local Government Worker).

4.4 Addressing violence by teachers

- The new *Code of Ethics for the Teaching Profession in Zambia* was developed through a consultative process, and implemented by Teacher Service Commission, with support of teacher unions
- Research on knowledge of the Code among school staff and school children could support implementation
- Persistent practice of corporal punishment - More support and guidance for practicing teachers is needed on positive discipline

4.4.1 Code of Ethics

A recent initiative has been to develop and implement the *Code of Ethics for the Teaching Profession in Zambia 2016*. All public servants are bound by a *Code of Ethics for Public Service (2008)*, which they sign when taking up their position. As discussed in table 2 above, teachers found guilty of assault are liable to de-registration and no longer able to practice. Interviewees reported that following extensive consultations with many stakeholders in the development of the new Code of Ethics, the Teaching Council has been set up to be responsible for its implementation. Suspensions following misconduct may take place at local levels, but serious cases are referred to the Teaching Council. The new system sets out to address difficulties with inconsistent application of codes, including tendencies at institutional level to cover up teacher misdemeanours, or to shift the problem by removing offenders from one school but allowing them to work elsewhere, or for failing to bring teacher unions on board. Such barriers to implementation of codes of conduct have been identified in a number of countries (Parkes et al., 2016). In Zambia, as outlined by one interviewee:

What used to happen in the past we saw situations where perpetrators would just be transferred, or be dismissed in public school but employed elsewhere, for example in a private school. So what we will see now with the council is that these teachers once it is shown they have a case to answer they will have their license to practice revoked and they will never be teachers. For me this is a plus of my work because we'll have sanity within the profession, with moral upright standing. (Interview 10, NGO worker)

Teacher unions have been central in the consultations and the implementation of the code, and one interviewee explained that BETUZ are working on a code of ethics for their own leadership, at provincial, district and branch levels, with unions fully on board with ensuring high ethical standards among the teaching profession:

For us as a labour movement there is no shielding people who are actually perpetrating violence because next time it will happen on my child, even on my boss's child (Interview 7, NGO worker).

A survey respondent also commented that the unions have been supporting women teachers who have faced sexual harassment.

One interviewee suggested that the code of conduct could be extended to guide relations between teachers and learners more broadly: “how the teachers relate to the pupils and also the normal conduct of the pupil within the school environment”, as well as providing guidance to children:

I think first of all we want to be sure whether children have a code of conduct in a school set up which provides reporting lines when their rights are violated in any way, do they know where to report and if they report directly to the head, does that represent a threat, do they know who else they can talk to. (Interview 6, NGO worker)

Although the new procedures appear to be being widely disseminated, the study did not identify mechanisms to monitor its implementation across the country, and further analysis in this area could be a valuable way to support these efforts towards creating safe schools. One stakeholder reported that there is currently a revision relating to the development of school improvement plans, which could provide a useful entry point for implementing codes of conduct for schools, involving pupils themselves.

4.4.2 Ban on corporal punishment

Although corporal punishment in schools was banned by a ministerial circular in 2003, and by law in the 2011 Education Act, interviewees, echoing findings of recent research studies (e.g. HWell survey), spoke of its persistence in schools. As one interviewee explained:

We cannot rule out that that is happening because you know attitude change is gradual. Teachers are aware that corporal punishment has been banished so to speak, but I cannot rule out the fact that it may still be happening in some places; because I think like ourselves we always used to see the teacher with his stick and for that mentality just to go is not so easy. (Interview 18, Provincial Government Representative)

Changing long held social norms around discipline has been found challenging in many countries (Parkes and Heslop 2013; Devries et al 2014). One interviewee, though supporting the ban, felt that pupils sometimes ‘take advantage...dwelling on their rights and not what their responsibilities are’ (Interview 22, Local Government Worker); another interviewee felt that teachers were replacing the cane with other forms of corporal punishment that were still within the law:

Corporal punishment in the form of punishment where pupils are being made to dig trenches, for me its corporal punishment, it is still corporal punishment. I think we’re just doing it in different ways. So, it still exists. I know that for example, pupils, especially the first week of opening school, they don’t want to go to school for a simple reason that they will be made to clean toilets that are dirty and stinking and so on and so forth. So they’d rather keep away from school. So it means it takes away from them learning and accessing education because there are all these vices that are still taking place in the school system. So yes there is still corporal punishment. (Interview 2, NGO worker)

Although reportedly teacher training institutions do address discipline, one interviewee expressed concern that “when you start practising the story is different.... It’s up to you as an individual teacher to think what you can do” (Interview 22, Local Government Worker).

There is brief mention of positive discipline in the Guidance and Counselling Teachers’ Guide, which states that “it involves positive reinforcement to encourage the child as well as ensuring that there are consequences for choices made by children” (p. 152). However, although pointing out a range of

benefits of positive discipline, there is no guidance on how to build skills in this approach. There are some initiatives from elsewhere in Africa, such as Raising Voices Good School Toolkit in Uganda, which have worked successfully with teachers and school communities to substantially reduce levels of violent punishment (Devries et al., 2014). It is clear that there is no quick fix for changing long held attitudes and practices, but these initiatives may have potential to be adapted to assist schools in Zambia in creating violence free classrooms.

4.5 Creating safe and gender-sensitive schools

- Policy is in place to have guidance and counselling teachers in all schools, with published guidelines and manual
- Skills and commitment of guidance teachers are variable, with lack of support from some school administrators
- Reviews of guidance/manuals should incorporate SRGBV in more depth, including sexual harassment between pupils, dealing with unwanted sexual advances by teachers, gender-based bullying against boys and girls.
- There are a range of multi-component programmes, in which SRGBV is addressed as part of a package of interventions to empower girls.
- Safe spaces and school clubs offer promising approaches for SRGBV prevention with young people, and would benefit from a coordinated, harmonised approach across schools.

While section 4.4 has addressed problems with teacher violence, teachers in Zambia are also key to enabling children to learn in safe, gender-sensitive environments. Education International, in conjunction with the Government of Canada and UNGEI, have been working with the two teacher unions in Zambia – ZNUT and BETUZ - to strengthen their approach to gender and SRGBV. ZNUT at national level have been developing a gender policy, working in collaboration with the MoGE and MOG. They have formed Change Teams in each province, comprised of teachers who act as change agents, sensitising on SRGBV in school and PTA meetings. One interviewee explained that the change teams conduct training and support in two schools, which then act as ‘model schools’ for other schools (Interview 11, NGO worker). In this section we examine a range of initiatives in and around schools that address SRGBV within the curriculum, the school setting, and clubs. Integrating SRGBV prevention into the school curriculum was viewed as a priority by interviewees and survey respondents.

4.5.1 Guidance and counselling

The recent policy in Zambia to have guidance and counselling teachers in all schools has considerable potential to strengthen SRGBV prevention and response. The value of this work was demonstrated through a randomised control trial a teachers’ diploma programme on psychosocial care, support and protection in Lusaka and Eastern Province (Kaljee et al., 2016) . Findings showed that the 15-month distance learning programme improved teachers’ approaches to safety, social support and gender equity, and pupils’ outcomes relating to safety, sexual abuse and bullying. The *Guidelines on the Administration and Management of Guidance and Counselling in the Education Sector* produced by the MoGE’s Directorate of Teacher Education and Specialised Services in 2014 has a guiding principle that “optimum emotional and psychosocial wellbeing of the learner is a determining factor for effective learning” (p.1). The Guidelines set out structures and processes to provide educational, personal, social and career guidance in schools. One senior education officer in each province is responsible for coordinating guidance and counselling across the province. They support officers with guidance and counselling responsibilities in the DEBS, who in turn support the schools, each of which should have a Guidance and Counselling Committee, a students’ council, and a Learner Support Team, which is intended to harmonise a range of clubs in schools (see section 4.5.3). Guidance and counselling teachers complete records on individual cases. A recent initiative has been the development of School Guidance Services Annual Return forms, which provide details on the activities

and types of difficulties (eg. Pregnancy, fighting and aggression, use of abusive language) addressed through guidance and counselling in the school. A system to analyse data from this is not yet in place, and has the potential to feed in to school improvement plans and support for schools on areas like positive discipline.

Teachers interviewed described the many ways in which girls and boys consulted them about gender-based violence. For example, girls talked to the counsellors about problems with male pupils making unwanted sexual advances to them; girls boarding near schools, away from protection of caregivers, were vulnerable to sexual predation by men in the community, who tried to coax them into transactional sex; boys might be bullied by older boys, who might pressurise them to abuse alcohol or drugs, saying “just try that – that’s what it means to be a boy” (interview 22, Local Government Worker). Clearly, counselling young people in these situations requires high levels of skill and sensitivity, and several interviewees were concerned that not all counsellors had sufficient specialist training or commitment. One interviewee explained that teachers may attend training in counselling in college, but prefer to teach examinable subjects and tend to drop this work once they are working in schools (Interview 9, NGO worker). Another felt that these specialist teachers did not receive an allowance for their additional responsibilities and so often felt unmotivated (Interview 6, NGO worker). Others felt that more opportunities to disseminate the guidance and teaching resources are needed, because this material: “hasn’t filtered down to school level yet, because its relatively new as well, and you know it just hasn’t filtered down” (Interview 3, NGO worker).

Other interviewees were concerned that there was insufficient time for guidance teachers to fulfil their role:

SRBV may not be a core subject, yes, so when you look at the Zambian curriculum, especially the revised curriculum, there is a lot of ... there's some periods assigned to every subject to cover in the school timetable and so you find that the time even for the guidance teachers to do guidance work sometimes is a challenge because certain schools have double sessions they have an afternoon school and a morning school, so time is like you are just gambling with some slots (Interview 19, Provincial Government Representative).

Pressure on resources leading to a double shift system, in which the full curriculum needs to be covered in restricted time, impacts on the time available within school time for guidance and counselling. Lack of resources were also mentioned by another interviewee, who was concerned that many schools do not have rooms set aside for this work, so there are no private spaces for counselling to take place (Interview 8, NGO worker).

Much of the work of the guidance teachers is individual consultations with learners, without allocated curricular time to address personal and social issues at a whole class level. As one interviewee pointed out:

What I’ve been advocating for is that we have these teachers be full time on guidance, and they should be allowed to offer lessons.... with regard to their wellbeing and lots of other issues (Interview 5, NGO worker).

A useful resource for teachers is the Guidance and Counselling Teachers’ Guide (Directorate of Teacher Education and Specialised Services 2014). This manual provides information on personal guidance, including for example assertiveness and self-esteem, coping and stress management skills, and on social guidance, including dealing with bereavement, or with social, family and financial pressures; as well as educational and vocational guidance. In a unit on legal issues, it provides information on child abuse and reporting procedures, and on human and child rights. Although the

manual explains what is sexual abuse, and procedures to report abuse (see section 4.6), there is no guidance for teachers on how to manage some of the everyday gender-based violence that takes place in schools, such as how to offer guidance or develop a curriculum to prevent or manage routine sexual harassment of girl pupils, or bullying of boys not considered sufficiently manly. A review of this manual could benefit from incorporating guidance related to gender stereotyping, discrimination and SRGBV.

While guidance and counselling teachers do not tend to implement programmes themselves, they may liaise with NGOs. One interviewee explained how *Read to Succeed* had worked with these teachers in training peer educators, known as Agents of Change, supporting counselling work in relation to child marriage, pregnancy and HIV prevention (Interview 7, NGO worker). One interviewee, while praising the programmes implemented in schools by organisations like FAWEZA, felt that the emphasis on working directly with children often meant that teachers did not learn from them: “That’s the sad part. It’s like it’s just for the children. Even the NGOs they just come specifically for the children.” (Interview 21, Local Government Worker). This raises questions about sustainability, if the implementation is not directed at changing school practices and pedagogies, then its effects are unlikely to be sustained once funding ends.

4.5.2 Comprehensive sex education

In a positive development, the Zambian government, supported by UNESCO, has begun the implementation of comprehensive sexuality education as part of the curriculum. Valuable baseline research has been conducted in relation to this as discussed earlier (see section 3.3). The 2013 framework for grades 5-12 includes content highly relevant to SRGBV such as GBV and healthy relationships, including gender inequality and respect. However, more information is needed in relation to understanding the efficacy and evaluation of this work as implemented to date, and how it can be strengthened in a context where time and resources are scarce. The need for greater resources and specialist training to ensure the effective delivery and integration of comprehensive sexuality education was also highlighted by some participants in the workshop in 2016.

4.5.3 Safe Spaces, Clubs, and Empowerment initiatives with Girls

A number of programmes in Zambia that target girls, often focusing on girls who are vulnerable because of poverty, and use a range of methods to empower them in and out of school. Some of these do not directly address SRGBV, but may help to prevent violence through providing girls with protective social, economic and psychosocial resources.

The Population Council, in partnership with the Young Women’s Christian Association of Zambia (YWCA-Zambia), implemented an *Adolescent Girls Empowerment Programme* with 10,000 girls in rural and urban Zambia (Lusaka, Central, Copperbelt, and North-Western) between 2013 and 2016. The programme is designed to find the best way to improve girls’ social, health and economic resources so that they can stay in school longer, avoid early marriages and delay sexual activities to prevent unintended pregnancy, HIV/AIDS and other STIs. The intervention with 10-19 year old girls involves health and financial education and life skills during weekly ‘safe space’ girls group meetings led by young women from the community; vouchers for health services; and savings accounts developed in partnership with a Zambian financial institution. A randomised control trial is underway to evaluate the effects of different combinations of these interventions. The full impact of the programme will not be understood till the final evaluation in 2017, but the mid-project evaluation (Austrian et al., 2016) found that participation rates in the Safe Space groups were not as high as desired, with only approximately one out of every three girls invited to the programme attending more than half the group sessions, highlighting a need for more community sensitisation, fun days and prizes for attendance. The quality of mentors influenced girls in a number of areas, with for example, girls with mentors who had positive attitudes towards contraception less likely to have ever been pregnant; and

girls with mentors who scored high on “safe-space creation” less likely to have been married, had sex, had an unwanted pregnancy, or given birth. The programme did not directly address gender-based violence, and took place outside schools, but its rigorous research means that it is likely to generate rich information to support future interventions empowering girls.

Girls Education, Women’s Empowerment and Livelihoods (GEWELS) is a large, new programme, supported by World Bank, at a cost of US\$65m, from 2016 to 2021. Working with the MOG, MoGE, and Ministry of Community Development and Social Welfare, the initiative, working in 51 districts, is designed to empower women through improved livelihoods of 75,000 rural women and provide secondary school bursaries to 14,000 girls who are currently not in school due to poverty and whose families are receiving social cash transfers. One question raised by an interviewee was whether bursaries on their own may affect attendance: “especially if they don’t have access to schools locally, if the schools are too far away or if the schools are unsafe”. (Interview 3, NGO worker).

Time to Learn is a USAID funded project, implemented by CAMFED and FAWEZA, working in ten provinces of Zambia targeting 48,000 orphans and vulnerable children - 60% are girls and 40% are boys, providing scholarships for children to attend school, including stipends, sanitary towels, and transport money. As well as the scholarship package, the project has support interventions, focusing on HIV prevention, adolescent SRH services, life skills and GBV services. The intervention uses safe clubs and help desks in schools, supports the use of child protection procedures in schools, and trains club mentors, guidance and counselling teachers, and peer educators, as well as mother support clubs. One interviewee explained how the programme considers SRGBV:

Gender based violence in the way we look at it in the schools – first we create sensitization and awareness to the target group and then we focus on their rights – what are their rights. They have rights to freedom and expression. The girls have the right to say “No” for example if they do not feel like having sex, she has the right to say no. Likewise the boy has the right to say “No” if he does not feel like having sexual intercourse. Anything beyond what somebody is able to agree to is violation of one’s rights. So we have had some instances in secondary schools where especially the vulnerable girls where - girls were sexually abused by even head teachers or teachers. An example could be like Luwingu, we have had one vulnerable girl who was sexually abused by the teacher under the pretext that he was going to be paying school fees for the child but she was continuously being abused by him; eventually she came out through the Peer Support and the case was reported. (Interview 8, NGO worker)

FAWEZA has implemented a range of programmes with girls, and many interviewees praised their work linked to SRGBV. One interviewee explained that they view themselves mainly as an advocacy organisation, trialling programmes for relatively short periods so that the Government can decide whether to extend and scale up the interventions. One of their programmes is *Safe Spaces for Girls*, operating in 50 schools since 2014, in which girls meet once a week together with ‘mother mentors’. An interviewee explained that the groups provide:

a platform where girls can meet and discuss issues - what types of GBV exists, linking them to services in case GBV happens – whether at school, at home or on the journey – places they should seek help. We link them to mother mentors who provide psychosocial support – especially for victims. And also just how they can change certain behaviour that exposes them to violence, because you know sometimes girls expose themselves to violence even unconsciously. In such and such an environment I may be exposing myself by dressing in such a manner. Maybe I should avoid being there late, I should avoid being in such an environment where I am alone. So those are the skills that we give them through the safe spaces. (Interview 5, NGO worker)

One challenge faced by the project has been how to sustain the mother mentors, who are volunteers, and may need incentives to maintain commitment. Provision of bikes proved an effective incentive, according to the interviewee.

A methodology that FAWEZA adopts in several of their programmes is to invite participants to map out their environment, and create an action plan to advocate and implement improvements. For example, in the Safe Spaces programme, girls map out where dangerous places are in the community. In another of their programmes on Participatory School Governance, pupils use Score Cards to feedback on improvements needed in school environments. A similar approach has been adopted with a gender score card for communities, so that community members identify issues and come up with community-based solutions (Interview 3, NGO worker).

Restless Development also runs career camps and clubs for girls, addressing life skills, SRH, financial education and negotiation.

The range of clubs and programmes bringing young people together to discuss issues like SRGBV is impressive, though few yet have clear evidence of effectiveness. The plethora of clubs in schools risks duplication, and has led to the recommendation in the Guidance and Counselling Guidelines (see section 4.5.1) to harmonize these clubs and innovations under one coordinating team, known as the learner support team. Careful planning around the distribution of such interventions across the provinces is clearly needed to maximise their potential.

4.5.4 Safer environments around school for vulnerable girls

Safety of girls in the environment near to school was mentioned as a concern for some interviewees. In many areas, secondary schools are far from girls' homes, leading in some areas to groups of girls renting houses near school where they live unaccompanied. One interviewee explained that these girls sometimes fell prey to older men, who took advantage of their need for provisions to coax them into sexual relation in exchange for bread (Interview 2, NGO worker). FAWEZA has implemented a programme of safe houses for girls who are at risk of dropping out due to long distances or GBV:

They create an environment that is safe for them, and from demonstrating we have seen that no girls get pregnant, when they are in proper care, an environment that is safe for them. Very few drop out of school because they really don't have an excuse because you are providing them with meals and with shelter, you are giving them a mother figure a matron who lives with them (Interview 5, NGO worker).

FAWEZA are currently phasing these out, reducing from 8 to 3 safe houses, with the intent that local governments will take over their running. Increasing boarding provision for girls in schools is another approach to address the problem of risky long journeys to school. Clearly both community hostels and boarding provision in schools need supervisory support to ensure they are safe and girl friendly. Neither approach substitutes for building more schools close to girls' homes.

4.5.5 Engaging boys in work on SRGBV

The majority of work on SRGBV in Zambia has a focus on girls and young women, yet, given the relational nature of gender inequality, and indeed gender violence, it is valuable to consider the role of men and boys in SRGBV and its prevention. Policy and programming in Zambia generally focuses on young women, and on pregnancy and rape as manifestations of this – however there have been some steps taken to work with men and boys in positive ways, including through the UN Joint Programme on GBV (which does not have a specific focus on SRGBV but addresses gender-based violence broadly). For example, FAWEZA's Boy's Forums work with groups of school boys (in a similar way to their work

with girls creating safe spaces, see section 4.6) to change their attitudes in relation to women. Boys meet together to undertake fun and informative activities, including topics such as hygiene, relationships and sexuality. However, this is a relatively recent development for FAWEZA, so more information is needed to evaluate and understand the effectiveness of this initiative.

Oxfam's *I Care About Her* programme similarly aims to engage men and boys to champion non-violence (although not specifically SRGBV). It involves a range of strategies including media campaigns, community discussion and work in schools. Working in schools the project aims to discuss GBV with boys and girls in order to enable them to express themselves, and take action to challenge norms.

4.6 Reporting SRGBV

- Responses to SRGBV are hampered by poverty and cultural constraints on reporting, as well as constrained resources
- Victim support services and one stop centres offer gender- and child-friendly services, with sensitivity to local contexts; but there is a need to strengthen and expand coordinated, cross-sectoral services

A study of sexual violence against girls in Zambia's schools (Women and Law in Southern Africa Trust - Zambia et al., 2012) found that few schools had policies or procedures for responding to sexual abuse; school officials failed to respond, and were reluctant to fire teachers so cautioned or transferred offending teachers to other schools; school officials rarely took cases to police; police lacked resources and there was absence of child-friendly court procedures. So very few cases taken up through official channels.

Since this report was published in 2012, there have been efforts to strengthen responses to child protection and gender-based violence. For example, the Anti-GBV Unit has worked to increase awareness of the 2011 Act, disseminating a simplified version which has been produced in braille, and translated into 7 local languages. One interviewee claimed that, while in the past, domestic violence was often viewed as a private matter: "a domestic issue, we will sort it out as a family", the sensitisation has resulted in an increase in reporting. This can give a misleading view that prevalence has increased, when the rise may be because women are more likely to report violence because of their increased capacity to recognise violence:

there has been a lot of sensitisation, and we could say there has been more reporting and so thinking that the cases have risen, but I feel there has been an increase [in reporting] because in the past we never used to hear of these cases, yes they went unreported (Interview 15, National Government Representative)

Many interviewees, however, were concerned that very few cases of GBV are reported, with even fewer reaching police or medical services. Girls and boys may not recognise acts as violent, but view them as normal. One interviewee, for example, talked of how even highly educated women may expect their husbands to beat them, and may hold the view that "when you are beaten you are being loved" (interview 14, National Government Representative). Where families are living in poverty, reporting violence may impoverish them still further. For a child: "the perpetrator is the breadwinner, if I tell who will look after me?" (Interview 1, NGO worker).

They would rather be kept private for fear of embarrassing the family; others are still quiet for fear of having the bread winner jailed and then the rest of the family suffers, so we still have those limitations. [...] there is poverty around in our shanty compounds, so if the person maybe who is abusing this child is sole bread winner and has so many people to take care of... our extended family is dying slowly but is still there, a lot of people are taking care of cousins, uncles and the entire extended family know if this is the abuser

what happens when they come to another family they will just hush it. (Interview 18, Provincial Government Representative).

While underreporting remains a major challenge, there are now official procedures for reporting child abuse at school level, and child abuse and domestic violence in communities. **Guidelines for the Prevention and Management of Child Abuse in Zambian Schools**, produced in 2009 by Camfed, have been adapted in the MoGE's Guidance and Counselling Teacher's Guide (2014) (see section 4.5.1), for disseminating across schools in Zambia. These designate headteachers to be child protection officers, and set out procedures for recording and reporting abuse to VSUs, police or health centres, and for informing the DEBS. The need to address underreporting and norms that condone violence was considered a major challenge by many survey respondents.

One interviewee described the procedures used within the police service:

Once a report is brought we establish the offence, and we find the law related to this. Then we can open up a case file, and having done so we make follow ups, and if it is sexually related we do a medical report form. And then the survivor or victim is referred to hospital for expert evidence witnessing. Having done so, any sexual offence needs to be corroborated, and needs independent evidence supporting it. So we also look at the corroboration, eg maybe torn underwear or people who might have discovered the act (Interview 16, Provincial Government Representative)

It can be extremely difficult however to gather evidence for prosecution. For example, forensic evidence is needed within 72 hours of a rape taking place. One interviewee explained for example that because many births are not registered, perpetrators of defilement may feign lack of knowledge that a girl was under age, and police may not be able to find a record proving her age (interview 16, Provincial Government Representative). Delays in following up cases have been addressed through **fast track courts** (Interview 4, NGO). There have also been a range of initiatives to create more child-sensitive services, including **youth friendly corners** in health facilities, supported by UNDP and UNICEF, and currently operating in Copperbelt and Lusaka.

Zambia has developed a strong network of **victim support units** (VSUs), based in all major police stations with officers who have special training in gender, rights and law. One interviewee reported that the number of VAC cases reported to VSUs in 2015 and 2016 were: 5,832 and 4,714 respectively. An evaluation of these units in police stations and posts in Lusaka found that 85% of cases of sexual violence involved girls aged 16 or under, demonstrating a clear need for staff to be trained to meet the particular needs of child survivors of sexual violence, as well as a need for staff training, resources, and services open for 24 hours per day (Zama et al., 2015). In rural areas, provision of such units is less common. One interviewee lamented the lack of resources for police – e.g. no private office for interviewing a girl who has been defiled; only one vehicle at the station so may restrict sensitisation activities or home visits to counsel families; would benefit from information leaflets to hand out; insufficient manpower for victim support (Interview 17, Local Government Worker).

Child protection officers at provincial and district levels have been attempting to increase reporting through sensitisation:

So mostly what we've been doing is getting close to the chiefs and explaining our role, we're not there to intimidate them or break their culture, we're there because government has identified it has interest to protect children, children being the future of the Zambian nation. So we go there and have some meetings with them. (Interview 16, Provincial Government Representative)

Another interviewee valued engaging with community members acting as Neighbourhood Watch Committees, who could then encourage victims to report GBV (interview 17, Local Government Worker). A community based intervention led by FAWEZA was praised by an interviewee for its potential to link schools and communities:

FAWEZA has gone a step further by training community members they call the CAGS - community action groups. Those are able to monitor the schools as well as the life of the children in the community. They even have registers of out of school youth who are supposed to be in school and they urge them to go back to school; and in terms of gender based violence they sensitise the communities and people even know they are like the eyes of the police officers and people know if you fight they are going to report you to the police, so they will report you to the school because they work within the school. The school like monitors the entire programme so they will report you to the school and take you to the police so if we had more interventions in that manner where the school is not isolated it's really in that bigger system. (Interview 18, Provincial Government Representative)

Using radio or TV, when offered free air time, has also helped to spread messages about recognising GBV and the law (Interview 16, Provincial Government Representative).

4.6.1 One stop centres

One stop centres provide integrated, multi-disciplinary services in a single location to survivors of GBV, offering medical, legal and mental health services within one location – usually in or near a public health facility. Zambia has been at the forefront of developing these centres, and there have been some positive evaluations of their effectiveness. USAID (2010) evaluated one stop centres in Lusaka, finding that views were overwhelmingly positive, and that outreach activities helped to increase awareness about GBV. The Population Council compared three delivery models used in Zambia and Kenya – those based in and run by hospitals, those based in health facilities but as separate centres run by NGOs, and those run by NGOs as stand-alone facilities (Keesbury et al., 2012). They found that the hospital ‘owned’ facilities offered the broadest range of health and legal outcomes for survivors. The study found that though many GBV cases reached these one stop centres, few were processed through the criminal justice system, and better integration of medico-legal and police services was recommended, including child-friendly, child protective services for children.

More recently, workshop participants discussed the one stop centres supported by UN/GRZ, reporting that the coordinated, integrated services enabled timely access to assistance for GBV survivors, including more cases being prosecuted. They viewed the model as both sustainable and cost-effective, with personnel on government salaries or volunteers (source: Workshop Report). One interviewee explained that combining different professional services under one roof was particularly effective in urban areas, where trauma following victimisation can be reduced by ready access to paralegals, police and psycho-social counsellors, as well as health services (Interview 4, NGO).

The interviewee praised their effectiveness in strengthening collaborations between police and communities in rural areas:

I think the issue of working with Zambia police and the communities and making them work together and see each other as partners in the fight against GBV is really a good model because you've got communities now that have come together formed a One Stop Centre in a village perspective they have been trained by our partners Women for Change and Ministry of Gender and anything that happens and anything heard by the centre they

will call the police, the partners have been given GBV response equipment bicycles and phone mobile phones so they will call the police who have been provided a vehicle. So the police will rush there get the perpetrator or solve the problem if they think the problem can be sorted out there and then. The same village One Stop Centres are anchored by chiefdoms, chief and chieftainness. If they think this case can go to the chief they go to the chiefs; so there is this strong network between the communities, chiefs, the police, the health providers and for us that is exactly what the program wanted to achieve - a coordinated response to Gender Based Violence. (Interview 4, NGO)

However, as discussed above, many interviewees were concerned that few cases of violence against children are reported to services, and the need for strengthening collaboration and coordination between sectors was mentioned by survey respondents and interviewees. There are only 28 one stop centres across the county, and in rural areas, many people are unable to access them because of the distance from their homes. With outreach funded by UN bodies and NGOs supporting them, there remain questions about their long term sustainability once funding ceases.

4.7 Using technology to address SRGBV

- There have been positive collaborations involving NGOs, government, and private sector using ICT to address SRGBV
- Uneven access to technology hinders programmes in rural areas
- Good potential for data collected through programmes using technology

As in many other countries around the world (Parkes et al 2016), in Zambia technology provides new forms of both threat and opportunity for SRGBV. Interviewees were concerned about the effects on children of cyberbullying, pornography and sexting, and other on-line violence. Insensitive reporting in the media can entrench inequitable norms. At the same time, use of phone help-lines, and engaging with the media to support policy enactment were valuable platforms for addressing SRGBV.

The Zambia Information and Communications Technology Authority (ZICTA) is a regulatory body responsible for regulating the ICT Sector in Zambia. It falls under the Ministry of Transport, Works, Supply and Communications, mandated by the Electronic Communications and Transactions Act No. 21 and the Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) Act No. 15 of 2009. ZICTA has been contributing to developing a policy on child on-line protection, and plans in the next year to influence schools to address on-line violence in their own policies (Interview 12, NGO worker).

Childline opened its first call line in Zambia in 2005, to address HIV. In 2011 a second line opened, focused on GBV. Today two call lines – Lifeline and Childline – operate from the same offices and with the same management, though different donors. Interviewees explained that girls call frequently about sexual abuse, while boys call about corporal punishment, misuse by stepfamilies, addiction to pornography, sexual identity, drug abuse and child labour (Interview 1, NGO worker). As well as running the call centre, staff promote the lines in schools and where possible through the media. Once a call is received, they open a file and can follow up and refer callers to specific services. They have close links with organisations to whom they refer callers, including one stop centres and health centres. They also visit schools to promote the call lines, finding that the volume of calls increases considerably in areas where they have been campaigning. Calls also increase after they have featured in radio or TV programmes, though funding limitations mean these broadcasts are only possible when invited by partners, like ZICTA or Plan. ZICTA has also supported their work by negotiating with mobile providers so that the number is provided toll free. The confidentiality of the call line may support many young people to speak about violence – with 137,000 GBV/VAC calls received on their toll free

line in 2015 – a number that is far higher than the number of cases reported to VSUs – perhaps indicating the value of anonymous reporting.

U-Report is another intervention that uses phones, supported by UNICEF working with several NGOs. This is a mobile phone service with adolescents, and involves sending messages by texts on sexual reproductive health, or HIV prevention. As well as messaging, this provides an excellent information gathering tool, as polls are carried out using texting.

Use of technology in interventions such as these lend themselves readily to monitoring and evaluation, and Childline routinely analyses data about calls, using it to plan future campaigns and so on. There are however, challenges in this work. Recent periods of load shedding in Lusaka brought down the phone lines intermittently; internet connectivity is a widespread problem; and the current state of technology in Zambia prevents the potential for instant messaging, that is popular with children. Donors can at times be restrictive, choosing to fund certain areas, whilst neglecting hard to reach locations. Problems with coverage are particularly marked in rural areas, where there may be no access to electricity. Interviewees advocated for NGOs, donors and government to coordinate their efforts and share resources more equitably (Interview 1, NGO worker).

5. Data and evidence on SRGBV

This section will investigate and evaluate the sources of evidence on SRGBV and if and how they are used to aid decision making. Many stakeholders lamented the paucity of evidence available and how it can limit policy development and enactment:

‘...In the absence of empirical evidence that drives thinking, I don’t think this can go further than it is now, they can deliberate but if they don’t have information as a result of investment into research, there is very little they can do push that into a very strong law which should be adhered to.’ (NGO worker 6)

Although there are some sources of evidence – both regular monitoring data from surveys and the education and justice systems and standalone pieces of research, we had limited information to assess the quality of all data sources and the extent to which data is used in policy processes is unclear, yet has great potential.

5.1 SRGBV prevalence and attitudes

Understanding what forms of SRGBV are occurring, when, where and by whom are central to understanding SRGBV, as well as understanding which groups are most/least affected. However, **violence prevalence** is notoriously difficult to measure. Survey data is the most reliable reflection of violence occurring, as violence reported to formal authorities, as discussed in section 4.6, is a small fraction of all violence experienced. However, even with surveys some under-reporting is expected – girls or women may feel ashamed, see it as a private matter, do not wish to speak badly about their abuser or do not see their experience as violence. Under reporting can vary according to survey methodology – surveys that are centred around researching violence (rather than as an add-on to a bigger survey) tend to elicit more honest, and therefore higher numbers. This is attributed to the specialised planning, training and protocols developed to create the most conducive and supportive environment for helping people discuss sensitive issues (Ellsberg *et al.* 2001).

There are a number of surveys that have been carried out – some have been focused in certain locations or linked to specific interventions or a standalone piece of research (relevant findings discussed in section 3.3). However, there are three surveys that are aimed to be a regular surveillance and generalizable to the population: The Health and Wellbeing Survey (also called H-Well survey), the Demographic Health Survey (DHS) and the Global School-Based Health Survey (GSHS).

Overall H-Well can be seen to be the most useful and robust source of evidence on SRGBV of the three. The main advantages of H-Well are its focus on relevant questions focusing on violence aimed at young people, its age range down to 13 (still not covering enough of the school-going population but reaching younger ages than DHS), and its rigour (linked to its violence focus), reflected in higher disclosure rates than DHS. For example, response rates were high (Together for Girls 2017), increasing data quality by reducing bias and a sign of good ethical standards. Another advantage is the close alignment with policy processes suggesting strong potential for feeding into decision making– discussed further in 5.4 below. The main drawback is its relatively small sample, which, despite being carefully sampled to be representative of the population, is not large enough to disaggregate apart from by sex and age group (13-17 and 18-24), which limits the ability to understand patterns within the country helpful for planning. The DHS, with its large sample of 18,052 women and men aged 15-49, allows disaggregation between groups by region, urban/rural location, education level, wealth quintile, religion, age and other criteria. It is possible to look at the 15-19 age group as being more reflective of a school-going population, but further disaggregation within that group is limited. However, the overall patterns on violence and related indicators are helpful in understanding risk between groups. The discussion of DHS data in section 3.3 illustrate how this data is useful in helping to target interventions for example.

Whilst there is a lot of useful data on issues close to SRGBV, such as experiences and attitudes to violence generally, and girls' and women's experiences of sexual activity and pregnancy, there is not a lot that focuses directly on SRGBV. Because H-Well is targeted at young people their data is more relevant to education, with a few questions asking for example whether teachers or pupils were perpetrators, although that survey is not oriented around the school setting (77% of 13-17 year old girls and 81% of boys in the survey were attending school) (Together for Girls 2017). Those indicators most closely aligned to SRGBV from H-Well and DHS are listed in Annex 1.

One survey that is focused around the school setting is the Global School-Based Health Survey (GSHS), which is for 13-17 year old pupils in Grades 7-11. The main drawbacks are that, although the instruments seems well designed, there is not enough explanation of the sampling approach to determine how generalizable it is, nor is it clear if/how age and sex were controlled for. A 70% response rate indicates possible bias (this was mostly due to seeking permissions from parents, which was logistically difficult to attain). The analysis was not disaggregated beyond sex, presumably because the sample of 2257 students was not large enough. However, it does produce some useful data not available elsewhere, such as whether students had learned about whether to avoid violence at school, and the questions on violence are centred on the school environment. Notably this survey produced some high prevalence statistics of SRGBV (findings discussed in section 3.3). This could be attributed to the self-complete questionnaire format of the survey. Other research has identified that non face-to-face methods attain more honest responses and higher disclosure on sensitive topics (Langhaug et al., 2010).

The regularity of survey implementation is also a factor in usefulness: H-Well and DHS (both 2014) are much more recent than GDHS (2004). DHS has been implemented approximately every 5 years in Zambia since 1992 and thus allows useful trend analysis. H-Well was introduced for the first time in 2014, and future plans are unclear. GSHS has not been undertaken since 2004, suggesting there is little appetite or funding for conducting regular surveillance. All are dependent on external funding and input (although with heavy involvement and leadership from government departments). As mentioned by one respondent:

'Research is an open book and it totally depends on who has financial ability at the time around in Zambia. I think we have already seen UNICEF advancing interest, UNESCO advancing interest and under the UN delivering as one I think that is well coming more to generate evidence in this arena and civil societies, gender based organisations like Forum for African Women, CAMFED, they have always been involved in this but to what extent I think they can be pushed to do a bigger research, because we need a bigger sample in order to inform you not just looking at gender based violence in town. They could be different parameters that could influence it so we may need a wider perspective that collects more data.' (Interview 6, NGO worker).

Whilst H-Well appears to be the most useful data source on SRGBV prevalence, it will be important to allow regular repeats of the survey. Increased funding could allow the survey sample to expand and allow further disaggregation to better understand risk of violence and target interventions. Another shortcoming of the three surveys is that none of them elicit data from children below the age of 13. This may well be partly to do with the sensitive nature of some questions. But it does mean that there is a gap in capturing younger children's experiences of violence.

Research discussed in section 3.3 also highlights how **gender norms and beliefs about sexuality and violence** are an important shaper of violence experienced. The two population-based surveys (H-Well and DHS) discussed above also capture aspects of these norms and beliefs, such as acceptance of physical violence as corrective or of the importance of males deciding about whether to have sex

rather than females. Localised one-off surveys, mixed-methods studies or smaller scale in-depth qualitative studies can enrich knowledge in this area. In particular they can highlight how SRGBV is manifested and understand how it is produced in certain communities or contexts that may experience particular forms of risk (for example students engaging in exchange sex in a cross-border town, risks related to certain customary practices or associated with private boarding houses).

5.2 Monitoring efforts to address SRGBV

Zambia's Education Management and Information System collects data from all schools through the Annual School Census (ASC). Schools are asked to capture whether they are implementing a number of initiatives linked to preventing SRGBV. A few questions refer to school safety, such as whether the school has a policy, reporting system and awareness raising activities, but do not capture gender dimensions of safety and violence. Detailed information on HIV and sexuality education is collected, in terms of pupils' taught, teachers trained, learning resources available and guidelines linked to SRGBV (full list of indicators are listed in Annex 2). Both sets of questions also ask about community sensitisation and involvement. These data are potentially very useful for helping schools and government at different levels understand what is being implemented and give an indication of efforts being made to make schools safer. However, it is not clear how this data is used or analysed, or its quality, to fully evaluate its potential to feed into decision making at different levels. Whilst there is an effort in the guidelines to help define some terms such as comprehensive sexuality education, many questions are not clearly defined and may be interpreted differently. Head teachers may also see their school as being judged in performance in these areas, and they may not accurately reflect what is happening. They do not provide data about the quality or content of the intervention (such as child protection policy or CSE provision). However, it is worth further investigating data quality and how data is or could be used to further explore its potential to inform policy and practice.

The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SAQMEC), undertaken every few years in Zambia, also collects data from schools sampled across the country. Head teachers are asked whether they think bullying and fighting by pupils and bullying and sexual harassment by teachers is a problem in their school, giving some indication as to level of safety in the school. However the data is subjective and does not capture the gendered nature of violence. SAQMEC, despite having a strong design, has been beleaguered with problems around data collection, data loss and delays in releasing findings in Zambia.

At a national level it can also be useful to monitor what efforts are being made to address SRGBV. The WHO collect data against a number of global indicators on violence reflecting the national institutional environment. These are not framed around SRGBV but do monitor whether action plans are in place on for example child abuse, sexual violence and youth violence. Also covered is information on the existence and level of enforcement of laws against child marriage, statutory rape, female genital mutilation and corporal punishment. There are also detailed questions about sexual violence laws and enforcement, victim reporting and services, including child-focused, and what sexual violence prevention activities are taking place, e.g. Training to recognise / avoid sexually abusive situations, dating violence prevention in schools, school sexual violence programmes and work to change social norms (see WHO 2014 for further details). Whilst this data is not detailed enough to be very useful for more nuanced decision making at national/sub-national level, it does provide a useful snapshot of what is in place in Zambia and where efforts might be focused. Data is gathered from a number of people in Ministries and a consensus workshop held to agree responses against each indicator.

5.3 Violence reporting

Data on how children and young people respond to violence – in particular whether they report, where and with what outcomes are important in understanding how effective institutions like the school and police are at responding to violence.

There is now guidance on how schools should handle cases of violence reported to them, including how they should record cases (Guidance and Counselling Teacher's Guide 2014). These are in individual case forms and there is no system to compile this data at school level or above. The only data linked to SRGBV cases that are captured through EMIS are the number of pupils defiled by age, sex and grade, collected in the Annual School Census form (number of girls becoming pregnant by grade and age and number readmitted are also collected). These data are purportedly collected from the Guidance and Counselling teacher (Interview 16, Provincial government representative). However we have not been able to verify to what extent these data are completed by schools or data quality. There is no system for recording or compiling other cases of SRGBV taking place in schools, such as corporal punishment, bullying, sexual harassment or assault, and no system to capture what actions are taken to respond to the violence, such as punishing the perpetrator, providing counselling or taking preventative action.

Guidance stipulates that cases are referred to the police and health services where appropriate, and Victim Support Units are seen as the source of data on violence cases. Statistics are available, but are only disaggregated by sex and whether the victim was under 16 (for defilement cases) (Interview 15, National Government Representative), so does not capture other forms of SRGBV cases or identify which cases of violence are school-related.

Data from surveys such as H-Well and DHS highlight what actions victims take to respond to violence. They add to data from police and other institutions as they help explain what happens in the large number of cases that do not reach formal authorities and where barriers may lie (in many cases family members or friends are told but the matter is not taken further).

Childline's two telephone support phone lines also elicit a number of reports on cases of violence by children. Their statistics identify gender, nature of interaction, severity, type of violence, and which province (Interview 1, NGO worker).

5.4 Feeding into policy and planning

The study found limited information as to how evidence was used by policymakers and implementers at various levels in Zambia, but interviews that did discuss this suggest it is limited. However, there are some interesting initiatives that engage evidence with planning processes. The H-Well survey is spearheaded internationally by Together for Girls (2014), a partnership between multiple international organisations including CDC, USAID, Unicef and others. The process involves high levels of government engagement: a multi-sectoral steering group guides the development of the study and ensures strong buy-in from the start, and then goes on to oversee a process of reflecting on findings and building into planning processes across sectors with the help of a toolkit (Chiang et al 2016). This approach has potential to be expanded to encourage planners to look at not only the H-Well survey but other data sources, such other survey data, EMIS or police data, and pieces of research, to give as full a picture on SRGBV as possible. In particular helping planners consider data on patterns of violence across the country will be helpful in planning interventions and targeting resourcing in decentralised structures.

NGOs also have undertaken a range of initiatives to address SRGBV, and some have conducted evaluations. There is potential for more sharing of evidence and data about what seems to be effective in addressing SRGBV to strengthen evidence informed collaborative planning.

There is potential for a similar approach at any level – e.g. school, district and province - whereby those with responsibility reflect on what data (from EMIS and other sources if possible) is telling them about policy enactment, and how to plan work accordingly. High levels of collaboration between government sectors and NGOs provide a good context for collaborative reflection and planning. However we found little evidence of this happening, at least on a broad scale. Approaches such as these could be highly beneficial but care would need to be taken in ensuring data quality, and supporting people in interpreting violence data – for example that increasing numbers of cases reported at schools and police are likely to reflect increasing awareness and/or improved services rather than actually an increase in violence.

6. Conclusion and Possible Priority Areas for Action

A recent global review of evidence on policy and practice on SRGBV found that research evidence on policy enactment around the world is limited (Parkes et al., 2016). The existing evidence points to a need for strengthened dialogues between national, provincial and local policy actors in order to strengthen the ways policies are developed and implemented. The review also found that many SRGBV programmes were small scale, short term interventions with little long term follow up, and that often these programmes were not well integrated into governmental education structures. Globally there is a need for strengthening quantitative and qualitative data collection to provide evidence to inform policy and practice.

This scoping study adds to the limited evidence on policy processes through looking in depth at policy enactment on SRGBV in Zambia. It has involved the examination of a wide range of primary and secondary sources, the collection of new data including from stakeholders, and the analysis of existing legislation, policy and programming with relevance to SRGBV. The study addressed three research questions:

- What is the existing evidence on SRGBV in Zambia, and how is SRGBV shaped by contextual features, including social, economic, political and educational structures and norms, in varying contexts across Zambia?

Until recently, the research evidence on SRGBV in Zambia was slim, but this has begun to change, and there are some robust recent studies that reveal commonplace violence experienced by girls and boys in and around schools. One major study found that 1 in 6 girls had been sexually abused in the past year. Corporal punishment in schools remains commonplace, despite being banned, with physical punishment also used routinely in many families. Few children report their experiences of violence, with very few cases reaching professional services. Some studies have found that sexual harassment of girls is considered normal, making it very difficult for girls to speak out against violence. Although some recent studies are national in scale, they do not yet capture the varying ways in which norms and practices around gender and violence operate in diverse rural and urban contexts across Zambia. Many stakeholders in this study viewed local gender norms and stereotypes that condone violence, intersecting with poverty, as being major challenges in their work to prevent and respond to SRGBV.

- How is SRGBV being addressed in law and policy? How are laws and policies enacted at macro (national), meso (provincial) and local (district/school/community) levels? What programmes are in place to address SRGBV? How effective is policy and practice, where are the gaps and barriers, and how could they be addressed?

The legislative and policy framework in Zambia reflects a commitment to increasing girls' access to quality education, and addressing barriers to it including pregnancy and child marriage. In recent years, particularly since the Anti-GBV and Education Acts of 2011, political will to address GBV is evident, but within recent policy documents, there is little attention to SRGBV, or to how SRGBV strategies will be monitored. The devolved government structures at national, provincial and district levels have potential for disseminating laws and policies. However, competing priorities, limited resources, and lack of dedicated staffing on gender means that SRGBV work can be sidelined. There are well established links between government, cooperating partners and NGOs, that provide a strong foundation for collaborative initiatives on SRGBV.

Reducing child marriage and implementing the re-entry policy for pregnant school girls and young mothers have been key policy initiatives. While the re-entry policy has been widely disseminated,

implementation has been hampered by girls' experiences of stigma and rejection, with work needed to enable schools to be more supportive together with comprehensive sex education. Another recent focus of policy initiatives has been violence prevention through the new Code of Ethics for the Teaching Profession (2016), which sets out through a collaborative process to address inconsistencies and evasions in schools' approaches to ensuring high standards of teacher behaviour. The policy to have guidance and counselling teachers in all schools, trained and supported with recently published guidelines (2014) also has strong potential for enhancing gender equitable, safe schools. More attention in the guidance to SRGBV, and to resourcing and building capacity and motivation of these specialist teachers would help to embed this work in schools.

Often SRGBV is addressed as one component of a broader programme concerned to empower girls affected by poverty. Clubs in schools, safe spaces and youth friendly corners, with trained mentors and peer educators, have provided spaces for girls and boys to discuss and learn about gender equality, violence prevention and redress. There have been initiatives to strengthen reporting of SRGBV in schools, within the police service, and innovative work around victim support units and one stop centres. Technology is being harnessed to enable children to report violence, as well as to provide ways of conveying information about SRGBV prevention. Many of these initiatives involve collaborations between government and NGOs. However, there is a need to harmonise and coordinate work between organisations, and to ensure that girls and boys across the country, including in remote rural areas, are able to benefit from these initiatives,

- What sources of evidence have been used to inform SRGBV policy and practice in Zambia? What approaches have been used to collect data, and by whom? How effective have they been, where are the gaps, and how could they be strengthened?

A number of sources of evidence exist on SRGBV, including a number of large scale surveys. However, some surveys have been weakened by problems in data collection and/or sampling approaches. While H-Well provides the most useful and best quality data available, it does not disaggregate data to look at how violence affects different groups in different ways. More in-depth studies have been undertaken that do this, and have provided insights into how violence is shaped by localised norms and conditions. Meanwhile EMIS does collect some useful data on what schools are doing to address violence, and on number of defilement cases, but quality has not been assessed and is incomplete. There is acknowledgement of the need for evidence and enthusiasm for using evidence to support planning processes. There are some interesting initiatives, such as a process to take the findings of H-Well into policy planning, involving a collaboration between government sectors and an INGO partnership, but these developments have not fully taken place yet, and there is little evidence of data-driven planning at more local levels. However, there is great potential to develop this area, drawing on existing decentralised structures and strong government-NGO collaboration.

6.1 Priority Areas for further discussion:

The legislative and policy framework, structures to support policy enactment, and the range of initiatives underway in Zambia provide strong foundations for further work to address SRGBV. The study findings identify a number of areas for further discussion in order to inform future planning for policy, practice and evidence generation on SRGBV in Zambia:

6.1.1 Legislative and policy framework and structures to implement policy on SRGBV

- How to ensure reviews of laws and policies integrate gender and SRGBV across their plans, and develop indicators to monitor progress.
- How to increase technical expertise and capacity for work on gender and SRGBV at all levels, and especially at district levels, including issues relating to budgets, resources, training and workloads.
- How to support and increase technical expertise on gender and SRGBV, particularly at local levels, including issues relating to budgets, resources, skills, training and workloads
- How to ensure key policies related to SRGBV are conveyed through clear, accessible materials, and shared at local levels.

6.1.2 Policy enactment on SRGBV in schools and communities

- How to monitor the implementation of the Code of Ethics across the country
- How to reduce corporal punishment through strengthening work on positive discipline in schools
- How to equip teachers in training and in service with skills, understanding and confidence to prevent SRGBV through, for example, gender-sensitive pedagogies, and addressing gender and SRGBV in the curriculum
- How to ensure guidance and counselling teachers are trained and confident with addressing SRGBV prevention and response
- How to ensure harmonised, coordinated programming approaches across organisations and across sectors
- How to ensure girls and boys in remote rural areas benefit from SRGBV initiatives
- How to sustain and scale up promising SRGBV programmes
- How to support the work of and scale up gender and child-friendly, integrated responses to violence, such as the One Stop Centres and victim support units.
- How to harness technology and the media most effectively in sensitisation on gender and violence
- How to engage young people in policy dialogue on SRGBV, learning from participatory approaches (eg. By FAWE, U-Report), as well as strengthening dialogues with local communities

6.1.3 Data and research

- How to improve understanding of the effectiveness of violence prevention initiatives, through improving M&E
- How to ensure national surveillance data is able to capture patterns of violence between groups, and/or identify other sources of evidence to do this, as well as responses to violence in and out of school, and violence prevention
- How to strengthen evidence-based policy and practice through sharing research and programme evaluations
- How to conduct research to provide a stronger foundation for policy and practice on how SRGBV is understood, practiced and resisted in local contexts

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Annex 1: Indicators on SRGBV collected in key surveys

1A H-Well (CDC 2017) – data available for girls and boys

Perpetrators of first event of sexual abuse as reported by respondents 18-24 years old who experienced any sexual abuse prior to age 18	Classmate/ schoolmate
Perpetrators of most recent event of sexual abuse as reported by respondents 13-17 years old who experienced any sexual abuse in the past 12 months	Classmate/ schoolmate
Location of first incident of sexual abuse among 18-24 year olds who experienced sexual abuse prior to age 18	School
Location of most recent incident of sexual abuse among 13-17 year olds who experienced sexual abuse in the past	School
Percent of respondents aged 18-24 years who reported any physical violence by adults living in the community prior to the age of 18, by perpetrator of first instance .	Male teacher
	Female teacher
Percent of respondents aged 13-17 years who reported any physical violence by adults living in the community in the past 12 months, by perpetrator of most recent incident	Male teacher
	Female teacher
Percent of respondents aged 13-17 years who reported any physical violence by a peer in the past 12 months, by perpetrator of most recent incident .	Classmate/ schoolmate
Percent of respondents aged 18-24 years who reported any experience of emotional violence by a peer prior to the age of 18, by perpetrator of first incident	Classmate/ schoolmate
Percent of respondents aged 18-24 years who reported any experience of emotional violence by a peer prior to age 18, by location of most recent incident	School
Percent of respondents aged 13-17 years who reported any experience of emotional violence by a peer in the past 12 months, by perpetrator of most recent incident	Classmate/ schoolmate
Percent of respondents aged 13-17 years who reported any experience of emotional violence by a peer in the past 12 months, by location of most recent incident	School

1B DHS – data from girls/women only

- 15-19 year old girls who have been physically hurt by a teacher – also others e.g. boyfriend, family member but not school specific (and frequency)
- 15-19 year old girls who have been forced into sexual activity
- Of 15-19 year old girls who have been forced into sexual activity, % saying first occurrence was by a teacher
- Age at first experience of sexual violence
- Response to violence – did she seek help (from a number of sources – school not mentioned). Did she tell anyone.

Annex 2: Indicators in school EMIS

School safety

- Does the school have a safety and protection policy?
- Does the community participate in the safety and security of the school?
- Does the school have and implement an agreed mechanism for identifying, supporting, referring and monitoring of abused Pupils?
- Does the school have and implement sensitization and awareness days with regards to the safety and security of the school?

HIV and Sexuality Education

- Has the School adopted rules and guidelines¹ for staff and pupils related to physical safety, stigma and discrimination, sexual harassment and abuse and grievance/disciplinary procedures in case of breach of the regulations and communicated them to all stakeholders (pupils, teaching staff, non-teaching staff, parents/guardians and school board/school governing board/board of trustees)?
- Did pupils at your school receive comprehensive life skills-based HIV and sexuality education² (either in the formal curricula and/or during extra-curricular activities) in the previous academic year?
- Did the school organize orientation session(s) regarding life skills-based HIV and sexuality education programmes for parents or guardians of students at your school in the previous academic year?
- How many teachers received training and/or also gave lessons, in life skills-based HIV and sexuality education? (m/f)
- School staff reached by a comprehensive HIV/AIDS prevention, treatment and support programs at your school (m/f)
- Number of pupils provided with life skills-based HIV and Sexuality education (mf)
- Number of Books on HIV/AIDS and Sexuality Education
- Number of pupil textbooks on Life Skills by grade

Other related data

- Does the school have and implement an agreed process for screening, identifying, supporting, and referral mechanism & monitoring of vulnerable pupils?
- Does the school collaborate with the nearest health facility in implementing School Health Services?
- Does the school offer Menstrual Hygiene Management Education?
- Does the school provide sanitary towels for the girls?
- Does the school have facilities for disposal of used sanitary towels?

¹ These refer to standards for processes and activities that give the legal framework. For school staff and students to reduce sexual harassment, stigma and discrimination, especially towards those who live with HIV. These can be received and adopted from the Ministry of Education, as well as developed by the school or an external source.

²Life skills-based HIV and sexuality education uses participatory exercises to equip children and young people with the knowledge, skills and values to make responsible choices about their sexual and social relationships in a world affected by HIV. Comprehensive sexuality education should cover the following subject topics

- i. Generic life skills (e.g. decision making/communications/ refusal skills);
- ii. Sexual reproductive health /sexuality education (e.g. teaching on human growth and development, family life, reproductive health, sexual abuse, transmission of STIs) and
- iii. HIV transmission and prevention

Appendix 1: Workshop Mapping Exercise

End Gender Violence in Schools – Zambia Workshop Mapping Exercise

Name:

Organisation:

Job Title:

Contact details:

1. Have you/your organisation worked directly on SRGBV before? Yes/no
2. If yes
 - a) How?
 - b) What have the challenges been?
 - c) How have you addressed these challenges?
3. What do you see as the priorities for work on SRGBV?
 - a.
 - b.
 - c.
4. How do you think your position/organisation have a role in addressing any of these priorities?

Appendix 2: Interview guide (example)

Policy makers/civil servants/government workers

Interviewee's role & background

1. [introduce self and project, discuss information sheet, confidentiality, gain verbal consent for interview]
2. Can you tell me about your current role? [prompt for key dimensions, links to gender/violence/education]
3. Can you tell me about how you came to work in this area? [prompt for motivations and perspective on SRGBV, previous key roles, and experience]

Understanding of SRGBV & its occurrence in the country

[NB this section should not be focus of the interview – ideally aim to gain detail of the interviewee's specific experience as opposed to generalisations]

4. What do you see as the main concerns relating to SRGBV in [country]? [prompt for what they regard as key examples (if not mentioned, also prompt on sexual violence, bullying, corporal punishment); for each, who is involved (victims/perpetrators), where i.e. geographic location and in/out of school, links to specific features of [country] socio/political/economic environment, interaction with other inequalities (including gender) or marginalised groups]
5. What do you see as the roots/causes of these forms of violence? [Prompts: Can you give any examples of how SRGBV is produced through social norms, such as those relating to expectations placed on girls/boys/men/women in [country]? Other inequalities (e.g. poverty)? Examples of how schools as institutional environment can also reinforce (or challenge) SRGBV?]

Policy & legislation relating to SRGBV

6. What legislation or policy do you think is important in relation to SRGBV in [country]? [prompt for detail, which ministries; concrete examples, specific legislation or policy which has addressed SRGBV or closely related topics (dates)]

[NB the following four questions should be used if/when relevant to a specific interviewee, for example if they have a high level of engagement with policy/legislation]

7. [if specific pieces of policy or legislation mentioned] What do you think has been the driver of these developments? Any challenges or blockages? [prompt in relation to leadership, alliances, international/local influences – attention to power dynamics and decision making – key collaborators, allies, opposers – including in government and civil society]
8. [for each specific piece of legislation or policy mentioned] Thinking about the implementation of this [law/policy], can you tell me about how this has progressed in practice?
[prompt for detail in terms of:
 - name, timing, rationale, key actors
 - implementation/enactment, including budget, action plan, training, monitoring
 - successes/barriers/problems – attention to power dynamics and decision making – key collaborators, allies, opposers]

9. Do you think there have been any challenges in implementing this policy/legislation at a district or local level? [prompt for how, why, if some laws/policies are widely understood, what has helped? etc]
10. [only if relevant ask] In other countries, there have been criticisms of legal frameworks being fragmented or having gaps (e.g. there may be laws about violence against women but not about gender violence in schools). What do you think are the strengths/ weaknesses/gaps of the legal framework in [country]?

Evidence & programming on SRGBV

11. What sources of information do you find useful for understanding and measuring SRGBV in [country]? [prompt for information about relevant data sets or research, particularly relating to any policy or legislation mentioned]
12. [tailor based on their previous answers/their specific experience in relation to SRGBV programming] Can you tell me about the programmes (interventions) you know/have worked on that address SRGBV in [country]? [prompt for detail of each mentioned – who, what, where, when, why, efficacy, in which contexts/way etc]
13. [if relevant to interviewee and their work] Thinking about the school system in [country], can you tell me if individual schools tend to have policies or systems in place relating to SRGBV? [prompt in relation to how common this is, if it's compulsory, whether it is acted on etc]

Avenues for change

14. What do you think the priorities should be going forward in terms of addressing SRGBV? [if needed prompt for detail in terms of:
 - priorities, actors, barriers
 - areas including norms/attitudes, media & civil society, law/policy
 - support to implement work i.e. planning, budget
 - levels: national/district/local, linkages/alliances between actors and levels]
15. Is there anything else you'd like to share or think I should know in relation to this topic?
16. [wrap up, thank for time, explain next steps etc]

Appendix 3: Country Study Information Sheet

UNICEF-GPE-UNGEI Initiative on End Gender Violence in Schools

Zambia Country Study Information Sheet

Background

Globally, violence in and around schools, henceforth referred to as school-related gender-based violence (SRGBV), adversely affects girls' enrolment, attendance, retention, and learning. It also affects boys, and it is estimated that at least 246 million boys and girls suffer from SRGBV every year. Girls, in particular, are vulnerable to sexual harassment, rape, coercion, exploitation, and discrimination from teachers, staff, and peers. SRGBV violates human rights and undermines children's potential to develop and grow with dignity, confidence and self-esteem as full members of their society.

There are many practical and systemic challenges of addressing SRGBV within education systems, when its root causes lie in the gender inequality and discrimination of society more broadly. Schools offer a unique potential to create learning environments where attitudes condoning violence in school as well as in the larger community can be changed. However, in the absence of institutional capacity among education managers and educators, to understand, respond to and address the underlying causes of SRGBV, unfortunately schools and education systems can become spaces that allow violence rather than question and eliminate it.

In Zambia, child abuse (physical, emotional or sexual) and mistreatment or lack of care (that results in actual or potential harm to the child's physical, psychological or emotional well-being) remains prevalent in and around both urban and rural schools, and teachers too can be victims of gender violence. This presents a serious threat to children's welfare and educational progression, as well as teachers' wellbeing. While the government has put in place the legal framework for protecting the Zambian child, much work remains in translating policies into action and bringing about positive transformation in capacities of systems and institutions as well as girls and boys, teachers, communities and society at large.

End Gender Violence in Schools Initiative

End Gender Violence in Schools (EGVS) is a multi-year partnership between UNICEF, GPE, UCL-Institute of Education and UNGEI which aims to develop and promote a common and systematic approach to identification, design, and monitoring of interventions to address SRGBV and, ultimately, contribute to the significant and sustainable reduction of SRGBV in Zambia³.

As part of the EGVS Initiative, a comprehensive country study is being undertaken to better understand the existing evidence base around policies, strategies and capacity, as well as critical gaps in systems, structures and broader social norms affecting the translation of policies into action. This will include a workshop and interviews involving key stakeholders, and the collection and analysis of relevant research, data and programming information. The findings of the country study will then inform the development of an action research plan to support and strengthen evidence based policy enactment on SRGBV in Zambia. This will involve stakeholders at different levels in the design of programming and partnership opportunities to drive change.

Your Participation

You have been invited to participate in the study because of your knowledge and experience linked to gender, violence, young people and/or education. You are under no obligation to participate, and may change your mind at any time. There are two main activities in this study.

³ Three other participating countries of EGVS Initiative include: Cote d'Ivoire, Ethiopia and Togo

1. A workshop, where we will introduce the study and start to find out about existing policies, programmes and evidence relating to SRGBV. We may use the contributions made during the workshop in our analysis and Zambia country study report.
2. Interviews. We will also undertake interviews with some stakeholders. Our analysis of the data from these interviews will feed into the Zambia country study report.

The information will contribute to a report, which will be shared with stakeholders and used to help plan the next stage of the EGVS Initiative. We will ask you whether you prefer for your insights shared with us in the study to remain anonymous. If this is your preference no identifying information will be included in research reports, and the information we collect will be saved anonymously. All information we collect will be saved securely and not shared with others.

We are very grateful for your time and insights in participating, and if you have any further questions about the study, or your involvement in it please contact Dr Jenny Parkes, Principal Researcher at the UCL Institute of Education – j.parkes@ioe.ac.uk.