

ALL CHILDREN IN SCHOOL BY 2015

Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children



Out-of-School Children in the Balochistan,
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab and Sindh
Provinces of Pakistan

June 2013



© United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) Pakistan
June 2013

United Nations Children's Fund
Pakistan Country Office
Street 5, Diplomatic Enclave
Sector G-5, Islamabad.
Pakistan

Tel.: +92 51 2097700

Fax: +92 51 2097799

www.unicef.org

Cover photo: © UNICEF Pakistan/2013

Permission is required to reproduce any part of this publication. Permission will be freely granted to educational or non-profit organizations. Others will be requested to pay a small fee.

Out-of-School Children in the Balochistan,
Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Punjab and Sindh
Provinces of Pakistan

UNICEF
Pakistan Country Office
June 2013

FOREWORD

UNICEF Pakistan welcomes this opportunity to take part in the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children, a joint project by UNICEF and UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), through the publication of this country report, *Out-of-School Children in Pakistan*. This report presents an analysis of the most recent and reliable statistical information on out-of-school children in Pakistan, and examines the factors that lead to exclusion from schooling in the country. Its aim is to provide policy-makers with information about gaps in data, analysis and policy on the participation of children in school and so guide concrete reforms in the education sector and beyond to ensure that all children can exercise their right to education.

The Constitution of Pakistan guarantees the right to education for all children aged 5–16 years. This right is reinforced by laws, policies and programmes at both federal and provincial levels. Nevertheless, over 6.5 million children are currently not in primary school and another 2.7 million are not in lower secondary school. These children, as well as those who are at risk of dropping out, are being denied the right to a full basic education of good quality. Using statistics gathered by the Government of Pakistan, this study has identified profiles of children who fall into five dimensions of exclusion and are consequently most likely to be out of primary or lower secondary schools or are at risk of dropping out.

Out-of-school children often face deep-rooted structural inequalities and disparities. This study found that in Pakistan these are most commonly linked to gender biases, income poverty, child labour, inadequacies in the supply of schools and teachers especially in rural and remote areas, lack of infrastructure and school facilities especially for girls, deficiencies in the teaching–learning process, problems with the processes of devolution and decentralization, incapacities in school management committees, weak coordination between the public, private and non-profit sectors, and inadequate budget allocations and resource distribution.

By understanding the bigger picture through this systematic analysis, it is hoped that policies and strategies to address the problem of out-of-school children in Pakistan can be refined and strengthened to ensure the more equitable targeting of excluded groups of children, both by programmes within the education sector and more widely through targeted social protection measures.

UNICEF Pakistan would like to acknowledge the work of Dr Abid Aman Burki, Usman Khan, Hina Sheikh and Abubakar Memon all at the Lahore University of Management Sciences (LUMS) in producing this country study, and hopes that the recommendations made will help the country's policy-makers to drive forward their efforts to substantially reduce the number of out-of-school children in Pakistan.

Dan Rohrmann
Country Representative
UNICEF Pakistan

MESSAGE FROM THE SECRETARY MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Pakistan is faced with the highly serious challenge of out-of-school children. Children, mainly those from disadvantaged backgrounds, do not access schools due to various barriers including poverty, distance to schools, non-availability of schools and lack of awareness. It is also true that schools fail to retain children, resulting in high drop out rates. The situation is, therefore, deeply worrying.

The Government of Pakistan, as a primary duty-bearer, is taking this challenge seriously. Article 25A of the Constitution of Pakistan guarantees that education is a fundamental right for children aged 5–16 years. It is now the responsibility of key stakeholders to ensure that there is adequate provision of the necessary facilities and also awareness and motivation amongst right-holders to attend school, as stipulated by the Constitution. In this situation, education stakeholders and provinces have a large role to play.

With regards to effective planning, one of the major stumbling blocks is the non-availability of reliable and relevant data. For this reason, this report of the study on out-of-school children in Pakistan is highly commendable. The report is expected to provide policy-makers and planners with information necessary for framing policies and plans to ensure equitable access to education for all children—thus fulfilling their fundamental right according to the Constitution of Pakistan.

I deeply appreciate this effort and would urge UNICEF and other partners to ensure continued updating of these important data. I am certain that this report will significantly contribute towards improved planning in response to the complex challenge of out-of-school children in Pakistan—an important MDG target to achieve by 2015.



Qamar Zaman Ch.
Federal Secretary for Education & Training
Pak Secretariat
Islamabad

CONTENTS

Foreword.....	iii
Message from the Secretary of the Ministry of Education and Training.....	iv
Acronyms.....	vii
Executive Summary.....	ix
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 Country context.....	1
1.3 Understanding Pakistan's education system.....	2
1.4 Main educational stakeholders addressing OOSC.....	3
1.5 Analytical framework.....	3
1.6 Key data sources.....	4
1.7 Qualitative survey.....	5
1.8 Report organization.....	5
Chapter 2: Profiles of Excluded Children.....	6
2.1 Overview and analysis of data sources.....	6
2.2 Participation in pre-primary education.....	7
2.3 Participation in primary and lower secondary education.....	11
2.4 Disaggregated data on children in and out of school.....	15
2.5 OOSC and involvement in child labour.....	19
2.6 Children at risk of dropping out of primary or lower secondary school.....	31
2.7 Analytical summary.....	36
2.8 Provincial profiles of excluded children.....	36
Chapter 3: Barriers and Bottlenecks.....	42
3.1 Demand-side socio-cultural barriers and bottlenecks.....	42
3.2 Demand-side economic barriers and bottlenecks.....	44
3.3 Supply-side barriers and bottlenecks.....	46
3.4 Political, governance, capacity and financial barriers and bottlenecks.....	47
3.5 Analytical summary.....	49
Chapter 4: Policies and Strategies.....	50
4.1 Demand-side socio-cultural policies and strategies.....	50
4.2 Demand-side economic policies and strategies.....	51
4.3 Supply-side policies and strategies.....	53
4.4 Management, governance and capacity policies and strategies.....	57
4.5 Analytical summary.....	61
Chapter 5: Recommendations and the Way Forward.....	63
5.1 Policy recommendations on OOSC.....	63
5.1 Policy recommendations on child labour.....	64

References	67
Annex 1: Analysis of Alternative Data Sources	71
Annex 2: Qualitative Comparative Study of OOSC in Flood-affected and Non-flood Communities	72
Annex 3: Why Children Go to Work and Do Not Attend School - Empirical Evidence from Pakistan	74
Annex 4: Punjab Tables	88
Annex 5: Sindh Tables	100
Annex 6: Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Tables	111
Annex 7: Balochistan Tables	125

ACRONYMS

5DE	Five Dimensions of Exclusion
AEPAM	Academy for Education Planning and Management
ANAR	Adjusted Net Attendance Rate
ANER	Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate
ASER	Annual Status of Education Report
BISP	Benazir Income Support Programme
CMF	Conceptual and Methodological Framework
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EFA	Education for All
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ESR	Education Sector Reforms
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPI	Gender Parity Index
HIES	Household Integrated Economic Survey
HIV	Human Immuno Deficiency Virus
ICLS	International Conference of Labour Statisticians
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
KP	Khyber Pakhtunkhwa
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
NAR	Net Attendance Rate
NCHD	National Commission for Human Development
NEP	National Education Policy
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
OOSC	Out-of-School Children
PBS	Pakistan Bureau of Statistics
PKR	Pakistani Rupee (US\$ 1 = PKR 89)
PSLM	Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey
SMC	School Management Committee
SNA	System of National Accounts
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

In 2010, UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) launched a Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children in 26 countries including Pakistan. The goal of this initiative is to improve statistical information and analysis of out-of-school children (OOSC) and to scrutinize the factors leading to exclusion from schooling and the policies related to enhancing participation. As part of this global initiative, this report aims to improve statistical information and analysis of OOSC in Pakistan and guide concrete education sector reforms in this regard. It develops profiles of children who remain out of school, investigates the major barriers to education, and identifies the reasons why children in Pakistan drop out of school.

The Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE) are used to analyse the problem of OOSC. Dimension 1 represents children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary education; for this study, this covers children aged four years. Dimension 2 captures the out-of-school population of primary-school-age children not in primary or secondary education; this covers children aged 5–9 years. Dimension 3 captures OOSC in the lower-secondary-school age group not in primary or secondary education; this covers children aged 10–12 years. Dimension 4 covers children in primary school who are considered at risk of dropping out, and Dimension 5 covers children in lower secondary school who are at risk of dropping out. Exploring structural inequalities and linking them to income poverty, exposure to child labour, conflict and natural disasters, location (urban/rural), gender, etc. can provide a useful basis not only for profiling OOSC and developing an understanding of their barriers but also for feeding into future policy after a review of current strategies and programmes.

The main data source used in this report is the Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM) for 2007–08 and its associated Household Integrated Economic Survey (HIES). The reason for relying on this data source was the consistent availability of all indicators required for calculations defined in the Conceptual and Methodological Framework used by this study. Other data sources include the Labour Force Survey 2007/08, the Pakistan Education Statistics 2008/09 compiled by the Academy for Education Planning and Management, and the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) Punjab

flood-affected communities in Punjab and Sindh to assess the impact of 2010 floods on children's education. Furthermore, a multivariate regression analysis of the determinants of child labour and schooling was conducted.

PROFILES OF EXCLUDED CHILDREN

Children in Dimension 1, pre-primary level: Some 51.2 percent of four-year-olds are not attending either pre-primary or primary school. Some 23.7 percent are attending pre-primary school and 25.1 percent are attending primary school. Pre-primary OOSC are more likely to be girls than boys; to be rural than urban; to be from poorer households than richer households; and to be Balochi-speaking, followed by Pashto-, Sindhi-, Urdu- and Punjabi-speaking.

Children in Dimension 2, primary level: Some 34.4 percent of primary-school-age children are out of school, i.e., not attending primary or secondary levels of education. This equates to 6.5 million children (2.9 million boys and 3.6 million girls). The proportions of OOSC drop each year between the ages of five and eight years from 54.9 percent to 21.9 percent and then rises again for nine-year-olds to 27.1 percent. Girls are more likely to be out of school than boys, rural children more likely than urban children and children from poorer households more likely than children from richer households. Again Balochi-speaking children are the most likely to be out of school, followed by Sindhi-, Pashto-, Urdu- and Punjabi-speaking children. The adjusted net attendance rates (ANAR) is lowest for five-year-olds, suggesting that many children do not start primary education at the official entry age¹ which results in a considerable number of overage children in each grade of school. Gender disparity is greater in rural areas than urban areas and in poorer households than richer households. There was limited data available on child labourers of this age but it is possible to say that child labourers of primary-school-age are much more likely to out of school than their non-working peers (80.5 percent compared to 33.9 percent).

Children in Dimension 3, lower secondary level: Some 30.1 percent of lower-secondary-school-age children are out of school, i.e., not attending primary or secondary levels of education. This equates to 2.7 million children (1.1 million boys and 1.6 million girls). The percentage is higher for girls than for boys (37.6

¹ Prior to the 2009 Education Policy, the official entry age was five years old. After the 2009 Education Policy came into force, it was changed to six years old.

percent compared to 23.0 percent). Rural children are more likely than urban children to out of school, particularly rural girls. Children in the poorest wealth quintile are the most likely to be out of school, with out-of-school rates falling as household wealth increases. Sindhi-speaking children are the most likely to be out of school, followed by Balochi-, Pashto-, Punjabi- and Urdu-speaking children. The ANAR for lower secondary school it is 34.5 percent, with a significant proportion (35.4 percent) of lower-secondary-school-age children still attending primary school. Some 15.9 of 10–14-year-olds are classified as involved in child labour (economic activity and/or household chores per week). Boys and girls are as likely to be involved in child labour, mainly as unpaid family workers. Children engaged in economic activity work an average of 32.2 hours per week and those involved in household chores work an average of 24.3 hours per week. Children aged 10–14 years engaged in child labour are more likely than non-working children to be out of school, with only 9.9 percent reporting attendance at school.

Children in Dimension 4, at risk of dropping out from primary level: Although only 13 percent of children entering Grade 1 have not received some form of pre-primary education, the quality of this education must be considered questionable as repetition rates are highest in the first two grades of primary education and fall as children transition to higher grades, from 6.4 percent in Grade 1 to 2.9 percent in Grade 5. Dropout rates are lowest in the early grades of primary school, from 2.5 percent in Grade 1 to 15.9 percent in Grade 4. They increase substantially in Grade 5 to 42.8 percent. Children in rural areas are most at risk of dropping out of primary school, and girls are more likely than boys to drop out. Dropout rates tend to be higher for children in poorer wealth quintiles than for those in richer ones.

Children in Dimension 5, at risk of dropping out from lower secondary level: The overall transition rate from primary to lower secondary levels is 92.7 percent. Boys have a slightly higher transition rate than girls, and rates are slightly higher in urban areas than rural areas. Repetition rates in lower secondary school fall from 2.7 in Grade 6 to 0.9 percent in Grade 8. Dropout rates rise from 16.2 percent in Grade 6 to 26.7 percent in Grade 8. Children in rural areas are more likely than those in urban areas to drop out.

BARRIERS AND BOTTLENECKS

Demand-side socio-cultural barriers and bottleneck influencing exclusion from school in Pakistan are strongly related to society's attitude to gender roles, with girls in particular facing restrictions on their mobility because of fears about their safety and the need for them to carry out household duties, and boys

experiencing pressure to start contributing to household incomes. Girls also are also vulnerable to early marriage and sexual harassment, causing them to drop out of school. Lack of awareness of the importance of starting and continuing education also has a profound influence, especially at pre-primary level. Poor health can also prevent children from obtaining a full cycle of education.

Demand-side economic barriers centre on family poverty. The costs of schooling include not only direct costs such as expenditure on school materials, examination fees and transportation but also indirect costs related to the opportunity cost of a child's time. Boys are often compelled to drop out of school in order to work and girls are required to help in the household. Child labour is common for children aged 10–14 years; the vast majority of it is unpaid.

Supply-side barriers and bottlenecks that result in children being excluded from school or in dropping out early relate to the undersupply of schools, particularly at pre-primary and lower secondary levels; inadequate school infrastructure and facilities, including a lack of buildings, water supply, toilets for boys and girls, boundary walls and electricity; problems with teacher supply, deployment and training; irrelevant and out-of-date curriculum and textbooks; deficiencies in the teaching–learning process; and harsh corporal punishment. These barriers and bottlenecks are more serious in rural areas than urban areas and in girls' school than boys' school, especially at lower secondary level.

Political, governance, capacity and financial barriers and bottlenecks affect the smooth functioning of the education system. The most important barriers of this type affecting the exclusion of children from education in Pakistan are problems related to School Management Committees (SMCs); issues with devolution including unclear roles and responsibilities between provincial and district authorities; weak coordination and implementation of programmes; problems with monitoring and data collection; lack of clarity and non-regulation of non-public provision of education; lack of political commitment; and problems with budgetary allocations including under-spending, overspending, unpredictability and inconsistency.

POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

The main national policy statements for education in Pakistan are the National Education Policy (NEP) 2009 and the Education Sector Reforms (ESR). These two documents address many of the barriers discussed above with the aim of ensuring universal primary education. In addition, the Gender Reform Action Plan seeks to address gender gaps through reform at national and provincial levels. Particular initiatives

include construction of girls' schools closer to the community; elimination of gender stereotyping in textbooks and the curriculum; and advocacy on combating early marriage and large family sizes. Pakistan is a signatory to the regional strategy and National Plan of Action to Combat Child Abuse and Sexual Exploitation along with other South Asian countries.

Child labour is regulated through various national laws as well as the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and ILO Convention No. 138 on the Minimum Age of Employment. The national law on child labour states that 'no child below the age of 14 years shall be engaged in any factory or mine or in any other hazardous employment.' In addition, there are a number of social protection programmes aimed at reducing household poverty and encouraging children's education. Cash transfers are a significant initiative and have generally been implemented in collaboration with international donor agencies. For example, the World Bank launched a conditional cash transfer scheme for lower secondary girls in rural areas of Punjab in 2003, which increased the share of female enrolment significantly. The Education Voucher Scheme launched by the Punjab Education Foundation in 2006 provides free education to eligible students from slum areas at primary and lower secondary levels. Other forms of social protection include the Zakat Programme, the Benazir Income Support Programme and Bait Ul Mal, and microcredit programmes such as Pakistan Poverty Alleviation Fund, the Khushali Bank, the KASHF Foundation and the National Rural Support Programme. Rural support programmes that aim to reduce household poverty have been successful in raising household income levels; therefore, given the link between household income and education, they can be considered to have had a positive impact on children's education. Primary and secondary schooling and textbooks are provided free of charge in public schools. The World Food Programme's Food for Education Programme targets girls and has been successful in boosting female enrolment and attendance levels at the primary level. The Tawana Pakistan Programme, a multifaceted project conducted between September 2002 and June 2005, was funded by the government to address the poor nutritional status and school enrolment of primary-school-age girls.

The NEP and ESR particularly address supply-side barriers and have promoted pre-primary education, the development of school infrastructure and basic facilities, teacher supply and training, and curriculum reform. In addition, some provincial governments have issued directives against corporal punishment. Within the framework of the ESR, the aim is to strengthen the pre-primary education through

provision of one classroom in each school for the pre-primary class, appointment of a contract-based pre-primary teacher and assistant, development of a comprehensive curriculum and learning aides, and creation of a stringent monitoring and evaluation system to assess the performance of teachers.

Child-friendly schooling has been introduced in some areas, specifically targeting enrolment and retention of girls in primary school by creating a supportive and learner-centred environment. This approach has also proved to be a significant intervention for earthquake- and flood-affected areas, since it takes into account the needs of children in emergencies. After the earthquake in 2005 and floods in 2010, great efforts have been made to rebuild school infrastructure damaged in the emergencies in a disaster-resilient way.

Increasing the number of teachers at all levels of schooling is always a priority in government policy. Initiatives have been implemented to recruit and train more local female teachers for rural schools and remote schools, as well as provide incentives such as accommodation and transportation allowances. Furthermore, the current education budget has raised the salaries and allowances provided to public school teachers across Pakistan in order to keep them motivated and enhance their commitment to student learning. Teacher training has been strengthened and comprehensive reforms of the national curriculum have been undertaken. Numerous interventions exist for non-formal education but the most significant are the National Commission for Human Development (NCHD) programmes for feeder schools and adult literacy centres.

The Government of Pakistan has developed a number of public-private partnerships to help promote quality education such as education foundations and rural support programmes. National and provincial education foundations are semi-autonomous bodies supporting the government in promotion and implementation of education-related programmes. Rural support programmes have reduced poverty levels, and made some headway into improving education and health indicators in the communities where they operate.

The Local Government Ordinance, passed in 2001, transfers responsibility and revenues for primary and secondary education from provincial to district governments. The NEP proposes that decentralization should be pursued at each level of governance to move decision-making closer to the point of implementation. The school would then become the basic unit for planning, including school-based budgeting. However, SMC members know little about

their roles and responsibilities and head-teachers are still largely in control of school planning. SMCs' role is limited to providing support for school facilities and infrastructure projects, with no contribution to the quality of education. In addition, SMC members lack the capacity and training to perform their assigned responsibilities, as well as a channel through which to report problems and malpractices to local government officials. At the district level, local government is responsible for the planning, implementation and monitoring of the education system. While devolving powers to districts a standardized 'blueprint' approach was adopted; this has been problematic, given that districts vary a great deal in the amount of resources they can generate as well as their institutional capacity. There is also concern regarding the institutional capacity and capabilities of district staff to carry out duties devolved from the provinces.

Following the 18th Amendment to the Constitution, provincial governments now have a greater role than the federal government in education. The main responsibilities of provincial governments included formulation of provincial education policy, coordination with federal and district governments for implementation of the ESR, arranging pre-service and in-service training, ensuring equity in access to schools and quality education, and influencing the curriculum. The government has gone some way to filling the gap in service delivery and quality by outsourcing some of these aspects to the private and NGO sectors. Fiscal decentralization in education is another key area under devolution. Although the 18th Amendment promises greater autonomy, the federal government has been too uncertain about the capacity and ability of the provinces to effectively translate this into practice. The largest component of the ESR is the rehabilitation of facilities in existing primary schools. The operational and maintenance responsibilities for these schemes rest with the districts, but they have not been able to take on complete ownership of the projects.

There has been a decrease in education's share of the federal budget and this has not been compensated for by an increase in provincial budgets for education. The education budget for 2009/10 decreased again and this suggests that there has been a fall in the commitment to improving education and enhancing investments. It reflects neither the government's determination to meet international targets for education nor an adequate understanding of the returns to social investment made by education as an important tool for achieving and sustaining economic growth. Another major problem is allocation of budget to provinces: a real cause of concern is that underdeveloped regions such as Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Balochistan are receiving their education budget

according to their population size rather than their needs.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations made in this report aim to create targeted interventions that address the problem of OOSC through the following three dimensions: (i) bringing OOSC of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary age into school; (ii) reducing the number of children dropping out of school at all three levels; and (iii) ensuring that children successfully transition from primary to secondary education. Improvement of education quality is fundamental to all three of these dimensions and special emphasis needs to be placed on children in rural areas, especially girls.

Girls face strong resistance from their families and communities when it comes to gaining an education. Although the government has made many national and international commitments and prepared ambitious policy plans to counter gender disparity in education, gender gaps have not decreased substantially. The problem is much worse at the lower secondary level. Lack of basic facilities discourages parents from sending their daughters to school, and parents are reluctant to send girls to school where schools lack adequate security. The following recommendations are made: improve infrastructure and security provisions; reduce distance to school through infrastructure development; and increase the provision of female teachers.

The education-related differences between boys and girls narrow as households become richer, with households in the poorest wealth quintile having the highest proportion of OOSC. As a large percentage of Pakistan's population lives below the poverty line, social protection programmes are essential. The following recommendations are made: provide social safety nets; link social protection programmes to school attendance; introduce flexible school hours, especially for working children; provide skill-based learning; establish incentive schemes for the poorest families; and focus incentive schemes on both girls and boys.

As rural-urban disparities are quite pronounced, the following recommendations are made: increase education budgets, especially in less privileged regions; conduct school mapping to ensure sufficient schools in under-populated and remote areas; increase the spread of schools; and increase the attendance of female teachers in remote areas.

While pre-primary education has improved, too many children still have little or no access to the first step for school readiness. The following recommendations are made: regularize ECE; and integrate pre-primary education more fully into the primary education cycle.

Better transitioning is critical for reducing the number of children dropping out of basic education. At the ECE level, space needs to be provided and the importance of ECE needs to be communicated to parents. At the primary level, targeted interventions for children aged 10 years and over are required to help them transition to lower secondary school. The following recommendations are made: upgrade existing primary schools to lower secondary schools; reduce mobility costs for girls through a cash stipend for lower secondary school; and provide catch-up programmes for OOSC aged 6–10 years.

Based on the regression analysis conducted for this study concerning the determinants of child labour and schooling, the following recommendations are made: convince parents of the benefits of educating girls; develop education programmes for new mothers; develop education-related programmes that focus on potential dropouts and working children aged 11–14 years; develop specific policies to address boys' labour and girls' labour; improve lower secondary schools for girls; and invest in school infrastructure and improving teacher quality.





CHAPTER 1 : INTRODUCTION

According to the Constitution of Pakistan 1973, the State's mandate is to 'remove illiteracy and provide free and compulsory primary and secondary education within a minimum possible period'. In April 2010, under the 18th Amendment to the Constitution, a new article was inserted that further reinforces the government's responsibility to ensure the provision of education as a basic right (see box).

Nevertheless, current statistics suggest that Pakistan will not be able to meet its targets on education for the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015, and will not achieve the goal of universal primary education as stated in the Dakar Declaration 2000, to which Pakistan is a signatory. This is despite several major government and donor interventions over the last decade including the Education Sector Reforms Action Plan 2001–2004, the National Education for All (EFA) Plan 2000–2015, and provincial education reform programmes.

Pakistan has the highest proportion of out-of-school children (OOSC) in South Asia. According to UNESCO, over 5.4 million primary-school-age children and 6.9 million lower-secondary-school-age children were out of school in Pakistan in 2011 (UIS, 2012). The Pakistan Education Task Force reported in 2011 that roughly one in 10 of the world's primary-school-age children who are not in school live in Pakistan, thereby placing Pakistan second in the global ranking of OOSC; it is estimated that, of these children, about three million will never enter school.

Recognizing this critical issue, it is important to analyse why, despite commitment from the Government of Pakistan to address this urgent need, millions of children are still out of school. This report aims to improve statistical information and analysis on OOSC,

Article 25A—Right to education: The State shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of five to 16 years in such manner as may be determined by law.

scrutinize factors leading to exclusion from schooling, and examine existing policies related to enhancing participation. It will develop profiles of children who remain out of school, investigate the major barriers to education, and identify the reasons why children in Pakistan drop out. Exploring structural inequalities and linking them to income poverty, exposure to child labour, conflict and natural disasters, location (urban/rural), gender, etc. can provide a useful basis not only for profiling OOSC and developing an understanding of their barriers but also for feeding into future policy decisions after a review of current strategies and programmes. The overall aim is to introduce a more systematic approach to addressing the problem of OOSC and to guide concrete education sector reforms in this regard.

1.2 Country context

Pakistan is located in South Asia and is bordered by Afghanistan and Iran in the west, India in the east and China in the northeast. It has a population of 180.8 million, of whom 43.6 percent are children aged less than 18 years and 28.6 percent are children aged 5–14 years (UNICEF 2011a; FBS, 2007). It has a score of 0.504 on the Human Development Index, ranking it 145th of 187 countries (UNDP, 2011). It is categorized as a low human development country, with a nominal per capita GDP of US\$ 2,686 and a real GDP of US\$ 1,254 in 2010/11. The urban population accounts for 36.2 percent of the total population. A selection of recent socioeconomic indicators is given in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Socioeconomic indicators for Pakistan

Indicator	Value
Gross national income (GNI) per capita (2011) (constant 2005 PPP \$)	2,550
Income Gini coefficient (2000–2011)	32.7
Population below income poverty line (2000–2009) (%)	22.6 (PPP \$1.25 a day) 22.3 (national poverty line)
Multidimensional Poverty Index (2007)	0.264
Population in multidimensional poverty (headcount) (2007) (%)	49.4
Population vulnerable to poverty (2007) (%)	11.0
Population in severe poverty (2007) (%)	27.4
Gender inequality index (2011)	0.573 (ranked 115th)
Maternal mortality ratio (2008) (per 100,000 live births)	260
Life expectancy at birth (2011) (years)	65.4
Under-five mortality (2009) (per 1,000 live births)	87
Population under age 5 suffering from stunting (2000–2009) (%)	41.5
Population under age 5 suffering from wasting (2000–2009) (%)	31.3
Mean years of schooling (2011) (years)	4.9
Expected years of schooling (2011) (years)	6.9
Adult literacy rate (% aged 15 and older) (2005–2010)	55.5
Gross enrolment ratio (2001–2010) (%)	85.1 (primary) 33.1 (secondary)
Population with at least secondary education (2010) (% aged 25 and older)	23.5 (female) 46.8 (male)
Primary pupil–teacher ratio (pupils per teacher) (2005–2010)	39.7
Birth registration (2000–2010) (%)	27
Share of multidimensional poor with deprivations in environmental services (2007) (%)	6.9 (clean water) 32.1 (improved sanitation) 40.5 (modern fuels)
HIV prevalence (2009) (% aged 15–24 years)	<0.1
Labour force participation rate (2009) (%)	21.7 (female) 84.9 (male)
Public expenditure on education (2006–2009) (% of GDP)	2.6
Public expenditure on health (2009) (% of GDP)	2.6

Source: UNDP, 2011; UNICEF, 2011a.

1.3 Understanding Pakistan's education system

In order to develop the profiles of OOSC, it is important to understand the different levels of the education system in Pakistan; these are linked to the age of children and the main service providers.

1.3.1 Levels of education

In general, formal schooling can be divided into several stages.² The divisions in Pakistan are pre-primary, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary and intermediate.

- **Pre-primary** is the first stage at which children in Pakistan enter school and is an important component of early childhood education (ECE). Typically, children are 3–4

years old. The official pre-primary enrolment age is four years.

- **Primary** education is for students aged 5–9 years and covers Grades 1–5. Children spend five years developing basic competencies.
- **Lower secondary** (also known as middle school) is for children aged 10–12 years and covers the three years from Grades 6 to 8. This stage prepares them to enter upper secondary and post-secondary levels of education.
- **Upper secondary** (also known as high school) covers Grades 9 and 10, the final two years of basic education for children aged 13–14 years. At the end of this stage, students appear for their school-leaving examinations.
- **Intermediate** (also known as higher secondary) schooling covers Grades 11 and

²The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) classifies primary education (ISCED 1) = Grades 1–5; lower secondary education (ISCED 2) = Grades 6–8; and upper secondary education (ISCED 3) = Grades 9–12.

See ISCED mapping at: <http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/ISCEDMappings/Pages/default.aspx>

12, and prepares students for tertiary education.

1.3.2 Service providers

Public and private sector: Around 71 percent of education institutions are in the public sector and 29 percent in the private sector (AEPAM, 2009). The public sector accounts for 66 percent of enrolment and the private sector for 34 percent.

The **non-profit sector** is an important player in Pakistan, running a large number of educational institutions, some of which are known as low-cost schools. Many of these schools draw their resources from local communities, with models that are replicable on a larger scale.

Non-formal schooling has played an important role in providing education to the poorest children and adults, especially in rural areas. These schools are generally run on a 'one-teacher, one-classroom' model and help those with no access to educational facilities gain literacy and basic education skills. There are 15,886 non-formal basic education centres in Pakistan (AEPAM, 2009). This number surges after emergencies, when temporary learning centres are run. Some 700,000 individuals are enrolled in these centres, of which 44 percent are male and 56 percent are female.

Deeni madrasahs also provide education. The main emphasis of madrasah education is on Islamic teachings. However, a majority of the madrasahs also provide formal education. Three percent are public sector and 97 percent are private. Male enrolment is 62 percent and female enrolment is 38 percent (AEPAM, 2009). *Deeni* madrasahs are included in the formal education system and accounted for in school census data.

1.4 Main educational stakeholders addressing OOSC

An extremely important player at the national level is the National Commission for Human Development (NCHD), which supports the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) to address the problem of OOSC by expanding access to formal schooling, and helps to implement reforms and system improvements to ensure quality primary education and reduce dropout from school. The national and provincial education foundations support public-private partnerships and non-formal education in remote areas. The following organizations are also working in this area and are responsible for data collection, analysis and policy formulation relating to OOSC.

- Statistics Division – Federal Bureau of

- Statistics, Population Census Organization
- National Database and Regulatory Authority

Other programmes, coordinating processes and mechanisms for ensuring adequate funding space needed for universal primary education completion (thereby addressing the issue of OOSC) include various international and national agencies, especially in the context of the Global Partnership for Education (known as the Fast Track Initiative before 2011) and/or the sector-wide approach.

1.5 Analytical framework

In order to address the problem of OOSC, key data, analysis and policy gaps need to be identified and addressed. There is a general lack of adequate tools and methods to identify OOSC, to measure the scope and describe the complexity of exclusion and disparities, to assess the reasons for exclusion, and to inform policy and planning. There is a need to acquire a better overview of existing data, utilize the range of data collected through administrative records and household surveys, and make more effective use of such data sources. More information is needed on the profiles of OOSC and on the multiple and overlapping forms of exclusion and disparities that affect them. Policies and programmes to address the problem of OOSC and reduce inequalities remain inadequate and small scale, and there is no systematic analysis of the barriers and bottlenecks in reaching underserved populations.

UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) launched a Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children at the beginning of 2010. The objective of this initiative, which covers 26 countries including Pakistan, is to improve statistical information and analysis on OOSC and to scrutinize the factors leading to exclusion from schooling and the policies related to enhancing participation (addressing the data, analysis and policy gaps). The goal is to introduce a more systematic approach to addressing the problem of OOSC and to guide concrete education sector reforms in this regard (UNICEF and UIS, 2011).

1.5.1 Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE)

This study uses the Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE) model to analyse the problem of OOSC as laid out in the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) devised for UNICEF and UIS's global initiative on OOSC (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). This approach examines five categories of children divided into three levels of education (pre-primary, primary and lower secondary) and two population groups (children who are out of school, and those who are in school but at risk of dropping out). Each group represents a distinct dimension of exclusion (Figure 1.1).

Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age³ who are not in pre-primary or primary school. For Pakistan, this comprises children aged four years.

Dimension 2: Children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school. In Pakistan's case, this dimension covers children aged 5–9 years, with five years being the official age for entry to primary school.

Dimension 3: Children of lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school. For Pakistan, this includes children aged 10–12 years.

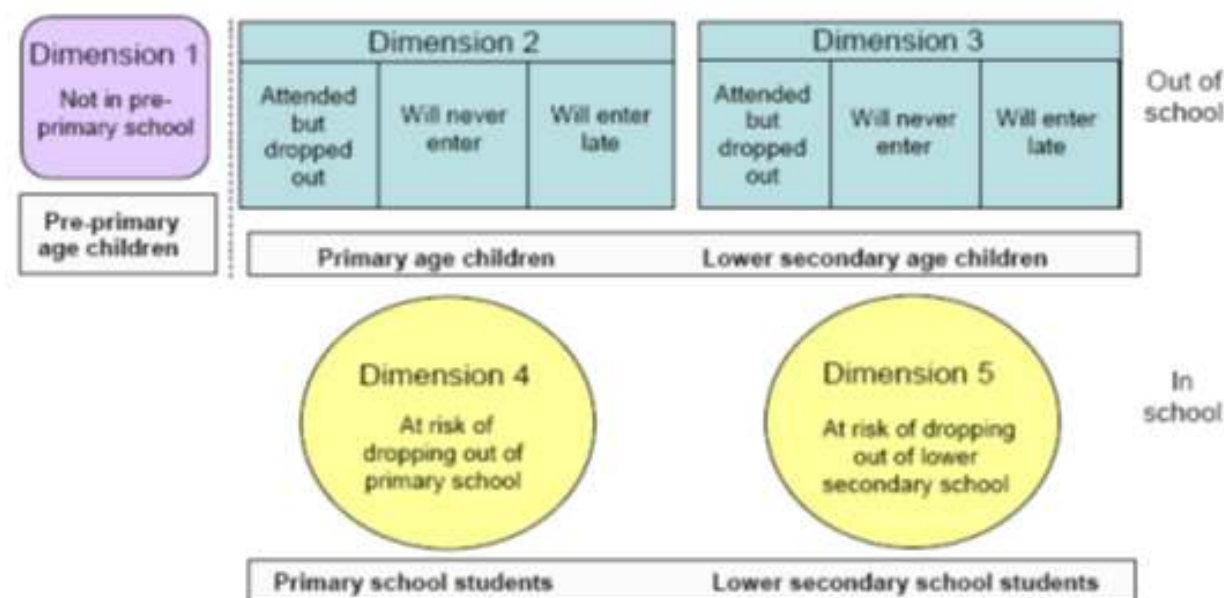
Dimension 4: Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out.

Dimension 5: Children who are in lower secondary

school but at risk of dropping out.

A key element of the framework is analysis of the disparities that cut across each of the 5DE. The development of a complex profile of children within each dimension reflects an effort to systematically disaggregate numbers and categories of OOSC according to a wide range of individual, household and group characteristics that are linked to marginalization and inequality, such as wealth, health, location, gender, and race/ethnicity. Such disaggregation is crucial because it determines in many ways the positioning of children across the 5DE as well as the movement of children within and between them.

Figure 1.1: Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE)



Source: UNICEF and UIS, 2011.

By generating data on OOSC of both primary and lower secondary school age, as well as pre-primary school age, the 5DE model underlines the importance of the life cycle approach and of effectively linking the provision of education to children with different developmental needs at different stages in life. Primary education alone is insufficient to ensure that children are equipped with the skills and knowledge necessary for their own development and to build societies and economies. Addressing the whole life cycle of children's education needs, including the transitions between the basic levels of education, is necessary to successfully reach the goal of universal primary education. This methodology has a particular strength in drawing attention to the various patterns and forms of exposure to schooling of OOSC (early

school leavers, children who will enter in the future, children who will never enter school, as well as exposure to community-based pre-primary education and non-formal education services that are not recognized by the formal system and not captured by statistics). This focus has key implications for an improved analysis of the barriers to school participation, for improved targeting, and for accounting, strengthening and developing policies and strategies that provide for multiple and alternative pathways to education and learning.

1.6 Key data sources

The primary data source used in this report to develop the tables in Chapter 2 and, from them, the profiles of OOSC is the Pakistan Social and Living Standards

³This refers to children who are aged one year below the official entry age into primary education.

Measurement Survey (PSLM) for 2007–08 and its associated Household Integrated Economic Survey (HIES)⁴ (FBS, 2008a; FBS, 2008b). The PSLM is one of the main mechanisms for monitoring implementation towards the MDGs. The key education indicators covered include school attendance and enrolment rates for both public and private schools. The PSLM-HIES 2007–08 covers more than 15,000 households from the four largest provinces of Pakistan—Punjab, Sindh, Balochistan and Khyber Pakhtunkhwa (KP)—providing data for analysis of education trends in the country⁵.

Other data sources used to supplement findings from the PSLM-HIES included the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) Punjab 2007/08, the MICS Sindh 2003/04 and the Pakistan Education Statistics 2008/09 compiled by the Academy for Education Planning and Management (AEPAM). Data from the Labour Force Survey 2007/08, conducted by the Federal Bureau of Statistics, were used for generating information in the tables on child labour. The population sampling weights available in the PSLM-HIES 2007–08 were used to calculate the number of OOSC.

1.7 Qualitative Survey

Given the devastating floods in the summer of 2010, data were collected from eight flood-affected and non-flood-affected communities in two districts: one from each of the provinces of Punjab and Sindh. The survey was conducted at community, household and school levels to assess the impact of the floods on children both in and out of school. The findings of this survey are presented in Annex 2.

1.8 Report Organization

This report is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 is an introduction, giving the country context, an overview of the current education system, and the methodology for the study. Chapter 2 examines macro-level data from national surveys to create profiles of children likely to fall into the 5DE. It covers adjusted net attendance, dropout and repetition rates for primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children, and provides information on OOSC and child labour. Chapter 3 analyses the barriers and bottlenecks that affect school participation and identifies reasons that impede enrolment, put children at risk of dropping out, and prevent some from initially entering school. Chapter 4 examines the education and social protection policies addressing these barriers and bottlenecks, as well as relevant programmes, projects

and initiatives undertaken by the government and other stakeholders. Chapter 5 presents conclusions and provides recommendations for the way forward in Pakistan.

⁴Reports of these surveys were published by the Federal Bureau of Statistics (FBS). In December 2011, the Federal Bureau of Statistics, the Agriculture Census Organization, the Population Census Organization and the Technical Wing of Statistics Division were merged to form the Pakistan Bureau of Statistics (PBS). Links to the reports of the surveys used in this study can be found on the PBS website.

⁵Omitted areas of the country are Gilgit-Baltistan, Pakistani Administered Kashmir, Islamabad Capital Territory and Federally Administered Tribal Areas.



CHAPTER 2: PROFILES OF EXCLUDED CHILDREN

2.1 Overview and analysis of data sources

The volume of information available on the education sector in Pakistan has increased greatly in recent years. This section provides a brief overview of the main sources of data used in this report to develop the profiles of excluded children. Use of these sources has made it possible to capture the complexity of the OOSC problem in terms of magnitude, inequalities and multiple disparities.

2.1.1 Key data sources

The main data sources used to develop the profiles of OOSC are as follows.

PSLM-HIES 2007–08: The PSLM provides data on social indicators, while the HIES provides data on economic indicators. The PSLM-HIES 2007–08 presents household income and consumption expenditure data and consumption patterns at national and provincial levels with an urban/rural breakdown. This round of the HIES covered 15,453 households. This is the main source for generating the tables in this report.

Pakistan Education Statistics: These statistics are prepared by the AEPAM within the National Education Management Information System (NEMIS) under the aegis of the MOET. They are part of the annual school census and are considered to be administrative data. They include data on enrolment, institutions, teachers, basic facilities, etc. for all four provinces as well as Pakistan Administered Kashmir, the Federally Administered Tribal Areas and Islamabad Capital Territory. The most recently available data are for the 2008/09 school year.

Labour Force Survey: This is a nationwide annual cross-sectional survey, conducted by the Federal Bureau of Statistics to collect data on labour force participation of household members aged 10 years and above. This report uses the data for unemployment rates, and adult and child wages at the district level. Original data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) 2007–08 were used to generate the tables for this study.

2.1.2 Data limitations and constraints

No single data source can provide a complete profile of OOSC⁶. Multiple sources of data that provide

information on different issues are needed for a comprehensive analysis. To use the procedure outlined in the CMF for generating the tables in the study required particular information, which was spread across the above-mentioned data sources. However, the data in these sources were collected at various points in time and there are specific limitations that need to be considered during analysis. Information was mainly required for children aged between four and 17 years and included the following key indicators.

- Grade or education level ever attended by the child
- Grade or education level currently being attended by the child
- Grade or education level attended by the child in previous years
- Household and individual characteristics of the child
 - Gender
 - Ethnicity
 - Residence
 - Wealth status
 - Labour status
 - Work-related injuries
 - Access to credit
 - Availability of formal social protection

It is acknowledged that data on enrolment and attendance are collected through different sources. Administrative sources usually focus on reporting enrolment at the beginning of the school year. By contrast, household surveys estimate educational participation over a specified period using data on school attendance. Children who are attending school may not be enrolled and those who are enrolled may not be attending school. Enrolment can only be computed from administrative data such as the annual school census. The count of children enrolled in school is usually taken from enrolment registers at schools. Data on attendance is usually collected from household surveys. Figures on OOSC can be computed from both types of information (administrative and survey data). Furthermore, the collection of enrolment and attendance data does not always occur at the same time. Household surveys are often not coordinated with the academic calendar and the timing of a survey can affect estimates of participation rates and age reporting. To ensure that data from the two types of sources are comparable, the ages of

⁶See Annex 1 for a more detailed analysis of the data sources.

children must be adjusted if, as is the case for the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, the survey was conducted in July, when the academic year began in the previous September, i.e., the survey data were almost one year older than the administrative data. However, it is fair to say, in summary, that both administrative records and household surveys provide important perspectives regarding the profiles of OOSC.

It was decided to use the PSLM-HIES for 2007–08 as the main data source for generating the tables rather than the most recent edition of the survey, i.e., the PSLM-HIES 2010–11, for the following reasons. Given the known distinctions between data on enrolment and attendance as discussed above, the PSLM-HIES 2010–11 collected data on attendance levels by asking for information on whether a child was ever admitted to school and on current status—'is he/she studying in any institution at present?' This question is phrased in such a manner that it can lead to an ambiguous interpretation of whether the survey was asking about the child's enrolment in school or his/her attendance at school; therefore, the PSLM-HIES 2010–11 was not considered suitable. Furthermore, as data on previous enrolment status, work-related illness or injuries, access to formal social protection and credit, etc.—collected in the HIES portion of the PSLM—had not been published by the PBS at the time of this study, the PSLM-HIES 2010–11 was again not suitable. Finally, issues related to changes in the official age ranges⁷ for the different levels of schooling became irrelevant as they had no bearing on the PSLM-HIES 2007–08 data.

To summarize, the PSLM-HIES 2007–08 contained almost all the information required to generate the tables for this study, including both attendance and enrolment data. It included data on both whether a child had ever attended school and whether he/she had attended school in the previous year. It also contained information on current attendance in school, including at pre-primary level. Data on grade/education level of current and previous year of schooling were also available. Nonetheless, bearing in mind the CMF requirements, certain measures had to be taken to generate the tables correctly.

- As the survey took more than six months, the official primary-level enrolment date and age

variables were adjusted during computations for the tables.

- Information for wealth quintile indicators was generated using data from the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, by categorizing each household according to the total value of land and property owned.
- Sampling population weights were applied to the numbers in each table to make them nationally representative.
- Transition rates from primary to secondary education were produced according to procedures in the CMF. These results may differ from official reported figures due to differences in PBS and CMF guidelines.
- Information on work-related illness or injury was not available in PSLM-HIES 2007–08 and, although this information is available in the LFS 2007–08, it does not report information for OOSC. Therefore, this table was omitted.

2.2 Participation in pre-primary education

Although Dimension 1 only covers four-year-olds, figures for the attendance rates of 3–4-year-olds in pre-primary education are included here because they are considered relevant in the light of changes by the Education Policy 2009 to the official pre-primary age group.

Using data from the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, 63.2 percent of 3–4-year-olds are not attending either pre-primary or primary school (Table 2.1). Some 22.8 percent are attending pre-primary school and 14.2 percent are attending primary school. Girls are more likely than boys to be out of school (66.9 percent compared to 59.6 percent). Children from rural areas are more likely than those from urban areas to be out of school (68.3 percent compared to 49.9 percent). Children from poorer households are more likely than children from richer households to be out of school: 74.7 percent of 3–4-year-olds in the poorest wealth quintile are out of school compared to 44.8 percent of 3–4-year-olds in the richest wealth quintile. Balochi-speaking children (90.3 percent) are most likely to be out of school, followed by Pashto-speaking (80.2 percent), Sindhi-speaking (75.9 percent), Urdu-speaking (56.9 percent) and Punjabi-speaking (49.9 percent) 3–4-year-olds.

⁷The National Education Policy 2009 increased entry to primary school from five years to six years; therefore, the primary school age range was changed to 6–10 years from the previous 5–9 years.

Table 2.1: Attendance rates of 3–4-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	47.3	34.9	17.8	52.7
Rural	64.5	21.0	14.5	35.5
Wealth index quintiles				
Poorest	70.1	17.8	12.0	29.9
Second poorest	72.5	16.0	11.6	27.5
Middle	58.6	26.2	15.2	41.4
Second richest	50.4	32.1	17.5	49.6
Richest	40.8	36.4	22.8	59.2
Language				
Urdu	52.7	30.1	17.2	47.3
Punjabi	44.6	33.4	22.0	55.4
Sindhi	73.7	10.1	16.2	26.3
Pashto	80.3	16.5	3.2	19.7
Balochi	87.5	2.8	9.7	12.5
Other	69.4	23.9	6.7	30.6
Total	59.6	25.1	15.5	40.6
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	52.8	28.8	18.4	47.2
Rural	72.0	17.2	10.7	28.0
Wealth index quintiles				
Poorest	78.9	12.3	8.7	21.1
Second poorest	72.5	17.2	10.3	27.5
Middle	67.2	19.6	13.2	32.8
Second richest	58.7	26.6	14.7	41.3
Richest	49.3	31.0	19.7	50.7
Language				
Urdu	61.2	24.8	14.0	38.8
Punjabi	55.9	26.6	17.5	44.1
Sindhi	78.3	6.2	15.6	21.7
Pashto	80.2	17.7	2.1	19.8
Balochi	92.4	3.3	4.3	7.6
Other	73.8	19.3	7.0	26.2
Total	66.9	20.3	12.8	33.1
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	49.9	32.0	18.1	50.1
Rural	68.3	19.1	12.6	31.7
Wealth index quintiles				
Poorest	74.7	15.0	10.3	25.3
Second poorest	72.5	16.5	10.9	27.5
Middle	63.0	22.9	14.2	37.0
Second richest	54.2	29.6	16.2	45.8
Richest	44.8	33.9	21.3	55.2

Language				
Urdu	56.9	27.4	15.6	43.1
Punjabi	49.9	30.2	19.9	50.1
Sindhi	75.9	8.2	15.9	24.1
Pashto	80.2	17.1	2.7	19.8
Balochi	90.3	3.0	6.7	9.7
Other	71.7	21.4	6.8	28.3
Total	63.2	22.8	14.2	36.9

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Using data from the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, Table 2.2 presents attendance rates for children in Dimension 1. Some 51.2 percent of four-year-olds are not attending either pre-primary or primary school. Some 23.7 percent of four-year-olds are attending pre-primary school and 25.1 percent are attending primary school. Girls are more likely than boys to be out of school (56.0 percent compared to 46.8 percent). Children from rural areas are more likely than those from urban areas to be out of school (57.3 percent compared to 35.1 percent). Children from poorer households are more likely than children from richer households to be out of school: 66.7 percent of four-year-olds in the poorest wealth quintile are out of school compared to 32.2 percent of four-year-olds in the richest wealth quintile. Balochi-speaking children (82.1 percent) are most likely to be out of school, followed by Pashto-speaking (69.1 percent), Sindhi-speaking (64.6 percent), Urdu-speaking (44.5 percent) and Punjabi-speaking (38.3 percent) four-year-olds.

There is strong evidence of early enrolment in primary education. Boys are more likely than girls to be in primary school (27.2 percent compared to 22.7 percent), and children from urban areas are more likely to be in primary school than those from rural areas (32.9 percent compared to 22.1 percent). Four-year-olds from richer households are more likely than those from poorer households to be in primary school: 36.9 percent of four-year-olds in the richest wealth quintile are in primary school compared to 19.0 percent of four-year-olds in the poorest wealth quintile. Punjabi-speaking (34.5 percent) four-year-olds are most likely to be in primary school, followed by Urdu-speaking (28.5 percent), Sindhi-speaking (25.8 percent), Balochi-speaking (12.3 percent) and Pashto-speaking (4.9 percent) children.

Table 2.2: Attendance rates of four-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	32.3	35.4	32.3	67.7
Rural	52.6	22.1	25.2	47.4
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	61.4	17.2	21.4	38.6
Second	60.2	19.1	20.7	39.8
Middle	45.4	28.7	25.9	54.6
Fourth	37.0	32.8	30.2	63.0
Richest	26.1	33.8	40.1	73.9
Language				
Urdu	39.3	30.1	30.5	60.7
Punjabi	31.2	30.6	38.2	68.8
Sindhi	62.5	11.0	26.5	37.5
Pashto	69.8	24.4	5.8	30.2
Balochi	77.9	4.9	17.2	22.1
Other	59.4	27.4	13.2	40.6
Total	46.8	25.9	27.2	53.2
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	38.5	27.8	33.7	61.5
Rural	62.3	18.9	18.8	37.7
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	72.1	11.3	16.6	27.9
Second	63.7	18.3	18.0	36.3
Middle	51.9	24.8	23.3	48.1
Fourth	44.9	28.3	26.8	55.1
Richest	39.3	27.6	33.1	60.7
Language				
Urdu	50.2	23.6	26.2	49.8
Punjabi	46.5	23.3	30.2	53.5
Sindhi	66.9	8.0	25.1	33.1
Pashto	68.3	27.8	3.9	31.7
Balochi	85.6	6.2	8.2	14.4
Other	62.8	23.4	13.8	37.2
Total	56.0	21.2	22.7	100.0
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	35.1	31.9	32.9	64.9
Rural	57.3	20.6	22.1	42.7
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	66.7	14.3	19.0	33.3
Second	62.0	18.7	19.3	38
Middle	48.6	26.8	24.6	51.4
Fourth	40.5	30.8	28.7	59.5
Richest	32.2	30.9	36.9	67.8

Language				
Urdu	44.5	27.1	28.5	55.5
Punjabi	38.3	27.2	34.5	61.7
Sindhi	64.6	9.6	25.8	35.4
Pashto	69.1	26.0	4.9	30.9
Balochi	82.1	5.6	12.3	17.9
Other	61.2	25.3	13.6	38.8
Total	51.2	23.7	25.1	48.8

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

2.3 Participation in primary and lower secondary education

Using data from the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, Table 2.3 shows that 64 percent of five-year-olds attend some level of education. This rises to a peak of 81 percent for eight-year-olds, then falls to 25 percent for 17-year-olds. For every age, there is a substantial gender difference, with boys more likely than girls to be attending some level of education. Also notable are the considerable proportions of overage children in each year of school: children aged between five years and 17 years are attending primary school and children aged between nine years and 17 years are attending lower secondary school⁸.

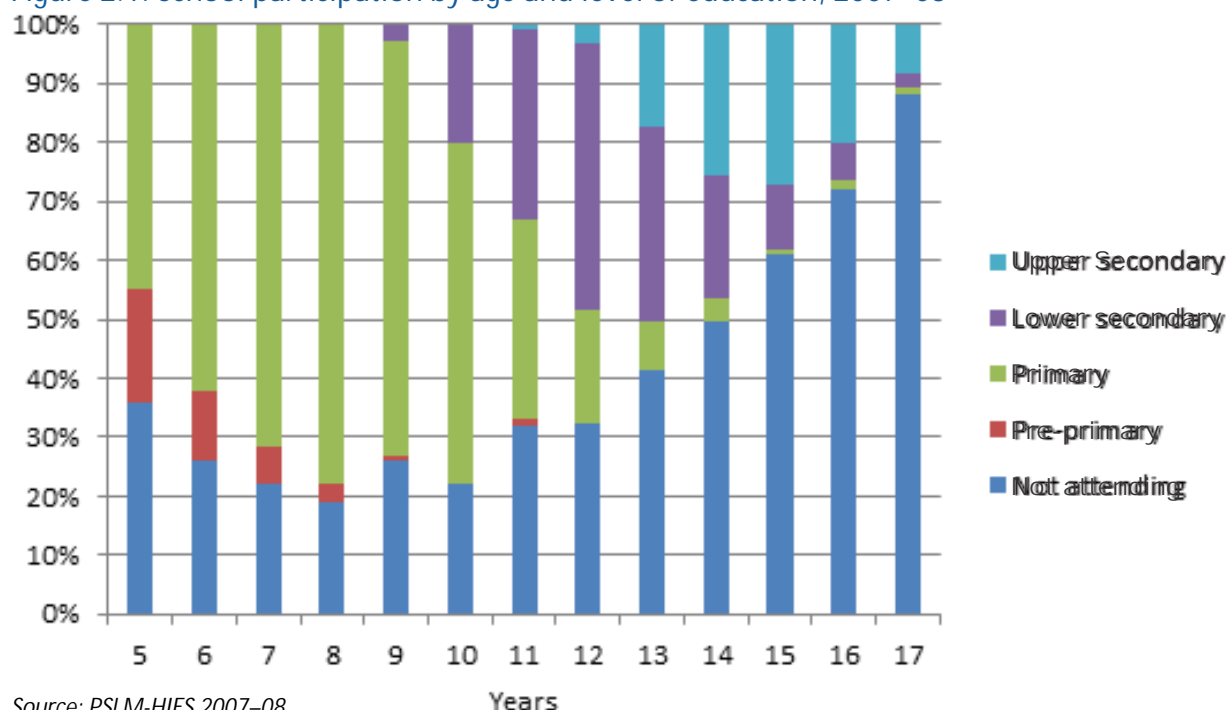
⁸Presumably there are pupils older than 17 years in lower secondary (and perhaps even primary) education, but data on school attendance of persons over 17 years of age are not presented here.

Table 2.3: Percentage of children attending school by gender, age and level of education, 2007–08

Age (years)	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Intermediate	Other/higher	Any level of education
MALE								
5	32.1	21.1	46.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	67.9
6	21.2	13.3	65.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	78.8
7	17.1	6.4	76.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	82.9
8	15.8	2.4	81.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	84.2
9	19.2	1.4	76.6	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	80.8
10	16.0	0.1	62.6	21.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	84.0
11	27.0	0.3	37.8	34.3	0.6	0.0	0.0	73.0
12	23.1	0.1	22.1	51.4	3.3	0.0	0.0	76.9
13	33.2	0.0	8.9	39.1	18.5	0.4	0.0	66.8
14	41.2	0.1	4.3	22.7	28.8	2.9	0.0	58.8
15	46.8	0.0	1.8	12.9	29.0	8.3	1.0	53.2
16	52.5	0.0	1.1	6.1	20.8	17.1	2.3	47.5
17	71.6	0.0	0.5	1.7	9.8	12.9	3.6	28.4
FEMALE								
5	39.5	17.2	43.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	60.5
6	30.9	11.6	57.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	69.1
7	27.2	6.4	66.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	72.8
8	23.0	3.3	73.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	77.0
9	32.2	1.5	62.4	3.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	67.8
10	29.3	0.2	50.9	19.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	70.7
11	38.5	0.8	30.7	29.6	0.4	0.0	0.0	61.5
12	42.0	0.0	15.7	39.0	3.3	0.0	0.0	58.0
13	48.6	0.1	6.9	28.1	16.2	0.0	0.0	51.4
14	55.3	0.0	2.7	17.5	22.0	2.5	0.0	44.7
15	63.9	0.0	0.8	6.4	20.7	7.3	0.9	36.1
16	62.2	0.0	0.8	3.1	12.2	16.9	4.8	37.8
17	78.8	0.0	0.5	1.5	4.2	9.8	5.3	21.2
TOTAL								
5	35.7	19.2	45.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	64.3
6	25.9	12.5	61.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	74.1
7	22.2	6.4	71.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	77.8
8	19.1	2.8	78.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	80.9
9	25.6	1.5	69.6	3.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	74.4
10	22.3	0.2	57.0	20.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	77.7
11	32.5	0.5	34.4	32.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	67.5
12	32.3	0.1	19.0	45.3	3.3	0.0	0.0	67.7
13	41.1	0.1	7.9	33.4	17.3	0.2	0.0	58.9
14	48.2	0.0	3.5	20.1	25.5	2.7	0.0	51.8
15	55.6	0.0	1.3	9.6	24.8	7.8	0.9	44.4
16	57.4	0.0	0.9	4.6	16.5	17.0	3.6	42.6
17	75.1	0.0	0.5	1.6	7.0	11.3	4.4	24.9

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Figure 2.1: School participation by age and level of education, 2007–08



Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Figure 2.1 shows a breakdown of attendance by age and level of education. The distribution of OOSC (dark blue bar segments) is U-shaped, with the percentage dropping until the ages of about 8–10 years and then rising again. School attendance peaks at the age of eight years, where it reaches a level of 81 percent. Overage attendance is clearly evident, with children as old as 11 years still attending pre-primary level, and children aged 17 still in primary level.

As noted above, many children are overage for their level of education. Table 2.4 presents attendance rates for primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children in a level of education that is lower than the one appropriate for their age. Some 8.6 percent of primary-school-age children (5–9 years) are still attending pre-primary school, and 35.4 percent of lower-secondary-school-age children (10–12 years) are still attending primary school. Boys are more likely than girls to be overage for the level of education that they are actually attending.

In order to assess the number or percentage of children of the intended age for a particular level of education who are enrolled in that level or in higher levels, the adjusted net attendance rates (ANAR) and the adjusted net enrolment rates (ANER) can be calculated. For this study, the adjustment takes into account the fact that children of primary or lower secondary school age may be enrolled in other levels of education and ensures that these children are not counted as part of the OOSC population. As noted above in Section 2.1.2, administrative data and household surveys use different indicators to estimate enrolment, therefore, there is a tendency for rates to differ between school censuses such as those compiled by AEPAM and household surveys such as the PSLM-HIES. Definitions of ANAR and ANER are provided in the box that follows.

Table 2.4: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary or primary education, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Primary-school-age children attending			
Pre-primary	9.0	8.1	8.6
Lower-secondary-school-age children attending			
Pre primary	0.2	0.4	0.3
Primary	39.5	31.1	35.4

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Definitions of ANAR and ANER

Primary ANAR = Number of children of primary school age (5–9 years) attending primary or secondary education divided by the number of children of primary school age.

Lower secondary ANAR = Number of children of lower secondary school age (10–12 years) attending lower or upper secondary education divided by the number of children of lower secondary school age.

Primary ANER = Number of children of primary school age enrolled in primary or secondary education divided by the number of children of primary school age.

Secondary ANER = Number of children of lower secondary school age enrolled in lower or upper secondary education divided by the number of children of lower secondary school age.

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), 2005. *Global Education Digest 2005*. Montreal: UIS.

Table 2.5: Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) by gender and level of education, with GPI, 2007-08

Level of education	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary	69.8	61.1	65.6	0.88
Lower secondary	37.5	31.3	34.5	0.83
Total	53.7	46.2	50.0	0.86

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Using data from the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, Table 2.5 presents ANARs for primary and lower secondary levels, with values for the gender parity index (GPI)⁹. At primary level, total ANAR is 65.6 percent, with a GPI of 0.88. At lower secondary level, total ANAR is 34.5 percent, with a GPI of 0.83. The GPIs indicate that more boys than girls are attending primary and lower secondary education, and that the rate of attendance between primary and lower secondary levels declines more for girls than for boys.

The ANER was also calculated, using data from the Pakistan Education Statistics 2008/09 published by AEPAM. This source indicates that the ANER is 87.5 percent for primary level, with a GPI of 0.85, and is 42.6 percent for lower secondary level, with a GPI of 0.79 (Table 2.6). The GPIs show that girls have lower enrolment rates than boys, particularly at the lower secondary level. In addition, urban rates of enrolment are generally higher than rural rates (except for primary boys) and gender disparity is greater in rural areas than in urban area.

As expected the ANER and ANAR differ and this divergence can be explained in terms of the different methods adopted by the administrative and household data sources. A comparison of the figures in Tables 2.5 and 2.6 suggests that more children are enrolled in school than are actually attending at both primary and lower secondary levels. Therefore, for this study, ANARs have been used to calculate the number of children out of school. At primary level, this calculation is represented by the equation $OOSC = 100 - \text{primary ANAR}$. At lower secondary level, the equivalent equation is $OOSC = 100 - \text{lower secondary ANAR} - \text{percentage of children of lower secondary school age attending primary education}$. This means that a child of lower secondary school age who is attending primary school is still considered to be in school. The figure for this latter parameter is provided in Table 2.4.

Estimates of the total percentage and number of OOSC at primary and lower secondary levels are given in Table 2.7. Dimension 2 refers to children of primary

Table 2.6: Adjusted net enrolment rate (ANER) by gender and level of education, with GPI, 2008/09

Level of education	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary	94.1	80.3	87.5	0.85
Urban	89.6	86.3	88.0	0.96
Rural	96.2	77.4	87.3	0.80
Lower secondary	47.6	37.4	42.6	0.79
Urban	57.5	54.9	56.2	0.95
Rural	42.5	27.8	35.4	0.65

Source: Pakistan Education Statistics 2008/09.

⁹The GPI is the ratio of female to male values of a given indicator. A GPI between 0.97 and 1.03 indicates parity between genders. A GPI below 0.97 indicates disparity in favour of males, while a value above 1.03 indicates a disparity in favour of females (UIS Online Glossary, www.uis.unesco.org, accessed 23 November 2012).

Table 2.7: Percentage and number of children out of school by gender and age group, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
DIMENSION 2						
Primary school age	30.2	2,991,865	38.9	3,640,074	34.4	6,631,939
DIMENSION 3						
Lower secondary school age	23.0	1,096,818	37.6	1,664,326	30.1	2,761,144

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age group for primary school is 5–9 years and for lower secondary school is 10–12 years.

school age who are not attending primary or lower secondary levels of education. In total, 34.4 percent of primary-school-age children are out of school. The percentage is lower for boys than for girls (30.2 percent compared to 38.9 percent).

Dimension 3 refers to children of lower secondary school age who are not attending primary or lower secondary levels of education. In total, 30.1 percent of lower-secondary-school-age children are out of school. The percentage is lower for boys than for girls (23.0 percent compared to 37.6 percent).

Using population sampling weights from the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, it is possible to estimate that more than 6.6 million children of primary school age are out of school (Table 2.7). Of these, nearly 3.0 million are boys and over 3.6 million are girls. In addition, over 2.7 million children of lower secondary school age are out of school. Of these, nearly 1.1 million are boys and over 1.6 million are girls.

2.4 Disaggregated data on children in and out of school

Disaggregating ANAR data by gender, age, residence, wealth quintile, language and child labour status allows comparison of subgroups within a population and provides greater insight into the typical characteristics of children who might be out of school.

Table 2.8 provides disaggregated data for primary-school-age children who are in school at either primary or secondary level. As mentioned previously, overall boys are more likely than girls to be attending school; such gender disparity is true for every disaggregation, except urban residence, where the GPI is 1.0. The ANAR for five-year-olds is the lowest (45.1 percent), suggesting that many children do not start primary school at the official entry age. The highest ANAR at primary level is for eight-year-olds (78.1 percent). Primary-school-age children in urban areas are more likely than those in rural areas to be attending school (urban ANAR of 78.0 percent compared to rural ANAR of 60.5 percent). Gender disparity is more pronounced in rural areas than urban areas. ANARs are lower for poorer households than for richer ones, with wider gender disparities. This indicates that children from poorer households, particularly girls, are less likely to be attending school than those from richer households. Using language spoken as a proxy for ethnic background, Punjabi-speaking children are most likely to be in school; this is followed by Urdu-speaking, Pashto-speaking, Sindhi-speaking and Balochi-speaking children. Gender disparities are most pronounced for Sindhi-speaking and Pashto-speaking children. Children who are child labourers are over three times less likely to be attending school than those who are not child labourers (19.5 percent compared to 66.1 percent).

Table 2.8: Primary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	46.8	909,163	43.3	797,631	45.1	1,706,794
6	65.4	1,382,293	57.5	1,126,187	61.6	2,508,480
7	76.5	1,576,049	66.3	1,378,993	71.4	2,955,042
8	81.8	1,430,070	73.7	1,096,909	78.1	2,526,979
9	79.4	1,632,064	66.3	1,321,511	72.9	2,953,575
Residence						
Urban	78.1	2,281,740	77.8	2,095,385	78.0	4,377,125
Rural	66.4	4,647,899	54.4	3,625,848	60.5	8,273,747
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	56.1	1,289,588	44.9	932,754	50.8	2,222,342
Second	63.5	1,430,805	49.2	1,024,497	56.6	2,455,302
Middle	74.5	1,464,743	64.6	1,278,991	69.5	2,743,734
Fourth	77.5	1,452,601	74.6	1,293,335	76.1	2,745,936
Richest	84.5	1,291,902	80.1	1,191,655	82.3	2,483,557
Language						
Urdu	72.4	1,862,987	68.4	1,595,872	70.5	3,458,859
Punjabi	75.7	2,339,249	72.8	2,253,842	74.3	4,593,091
Sindhi	65.6	1,108,214	46.7	723,497	56.6	1,831,711
Pashto	72.1	835,942	54.9	576,019	63.9	1,411,961
Balochi	58.7	44,504	49.0	32,199	54.2	76,703
Other	55.3	738,742	42.4	539,804	49.0	1,278,546
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	70.5	6,904,671	61.6	5,702,678	66.1	12,607,349
Child labourer	20.4	24,968	18.4	18,555	19.5	43,523
Total	69.8	6,929,639	61.1	5,721,232	65.6	12,650,871

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are excluded.

Table 2.9 provides disaggregated data for lower-secondary-school-age children who are in school at secondary level only, i.e., children of lower secondary school age who are still in primary school are excluded. Overall, boys are more likely than girls to be attending secondary school. However, in urban areas, gender disparity favours girls, with a GPI of 1.11; and there is no gender disparity for children in the richest wealth quintile and for Urdu-speaking children. Older children are more likely than younger children to be in secondary school, suggesting that many children, especially younger ones, are still in primary school. Overall, only just over one third (34.5 percent) of lower-secondary-school-age children are in secondary school. The lowest ANAR is for 10-year-olds (20.5 percent) and the highest is for 12-year-olds (48.6 percent). Children in urban areas are more likely than those in rural areas to be attending secondary school

(urban ANAR of 46.3 percent compared to rural ANAR of 28.7 percent). There is pronounced gender disparity in rural areas. ANARs are lower for poorer households than for richer ones, with wider gender disparities. This indicates that children of this age from poorer households, particularly girls, are less likely to be attending secondary school than those from richer households. Urdu-speaking children of this age are most likely to be attending secondary school; this is followed by Punjabi-speaking, Balochi-speaking, Sindhi-speaking, and Pashto-speaking children. Gender disparities are most pronounced for Sindhi-speaking and Pashto-speaking children. Children who are child labourers are over four times less likely to be attending secondary school than those who are not child labourers (8.2 percent compared to 37.3 percent), with a particularly high gender disparity (GPI = 0.35).

Table 2.9: Lower secondary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	21.3	1,257,593	19.6	1,136,557	20.5	2,394,150
11	34.9	2,020,279	30.1	1,874,153	32.6	3,894,432
12	54.7	1,482,282	42.3	1,412,360	48.6	2,894,642
Residence						
Urban	44.0	1,570,254	48.7	1,446,148	46.3	3,016,402
Rural	34.3	3,189,901	22.8	2,976,921	28.7	6,166,822
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	22.6	955,148	18.3	829,699	20.6	1,784,847
Second	28.2	1,006,987	16.7	904,694	22.8	1,911,681
Middle	41.3	975,677	27.8	976,924	34.6	1,952,601
Fourth	42.1	940,217	40.2	941,437	41.2	1,881,654
Richest	55.0	882,125	55.9	770,314	55.4	1,652,439
Language						
Urdu	41.2	1,321,913	40.9	1,217,717	41.0	2,539,630
Punjabi	40.0	1,628,136	37.4	1,498,915	38.7	3,127,051
Sindhi	39.0	708,424	20.6	637,130	30.3	1,345,554
Pashto	35.8	526,466	21.1	490,700	28.7	1,017,166
Balochi	37.9	28,672	30.9	27,800	34.4	56,472
Other	20.8	546,544	14.7	550,807	17.8	1,097,351
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	40.6	4,253,761	33.8	4,056,513	37.3	8,310,274
Child labourer	11.3	506,394	4.0	366,555	8.2	872,949
Total	37.5	4,760,155	31.3	4,423,069	34.5	9,183,224

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending primary school are excluded.

Table 2.10 shows disaggregation for OOSC of primary school age. Overall, girls are more likely than boys to be out of school. This is true for every disaggregation, except urban residence, where there is gender parity. Younger children are more likely than older children to be out of school. Some 54.9 percent of five-year-olds are out of school. This drops to 38.4 percent for six-year-olds, 28.6 percent for seven-year-olds, and 21.9 percent for eight-year-olds; it then starts to rise again to 27.1 percent for nine-year-olds. As noted earlier, children aged eight years have the highest rate of school attendance in Pakistan. Gender disparity increases as children grow older. Children in rural

areas are more likely than those in urban areas to be out of school, and there is considerable gender disparity in rural areas. Children in poorer wealth quintiles are more likely than those in richer wealth quintiles to be out of school. Punjabi-speaking children (25.7 percent) are the least likely to be out of school and Balochi-speaking children are the most likely (45.8 percent). Gender disparities are most pronounced for Pashto-speaking and Sindhi-speaking children. Children who are child labourers are much more likely to be out of school than those who are not child labourers (80.5 percent compared to 33.9 percent).

Table 2.10: Percentage of primary-school-age children out of school by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	53.2	1,035,306	56.7	1,045,039	54.9	2,080,345
6	34.6	729,968	42.5	830,700	38.4	1,560,668
7	23.5	485,334	33.7	699,548	28.6	1,184,882
8	18.2	317,196	26.3	392,299	21.9	709,495
9	20.6	424,062	33.7	672,488	27.1	1,096,550
Residence						
Urban	21.9	638,496	22.2	599,104	22.0	1,237,600
Rural	33.6	2,353,370	45.6	3,040,970	39.5	5,394,340
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	43.9	1,007,704	55.1	1,144,093	49.2	2,151,797
Second	36.5	824,187	50.8	1,058,517	43.4	1,882,704
Middle	25.5	502,572	35.4	700,551	30.5	1,203,123
Fourth	22.5	420,531	25.4	440,531	23.9	861,062
Richest	15.5	236,871	19.9	296,383	17.7	533,254
Language						
Urdu	27.6	710,197	31.6	735,635	29.5	1,445,832
Punjabi	24.3	749,330	27.2	841,198	25.7	1,590,528
Sindhi	34.4	580,372	53.3	824,351	43.4	1,404,723
Pashto	27.9	324,176	45.1	472,547	36.1	796,723
Balochi	41.3	31,295	51.0	33,522	45.8	64,817
Other	44.7	596,494	57.6	732,822	51.0	1,329,316
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	29.5	2,894,647	38.4	3,557,923	33.9	6,452,570
Child labourer	79.6	97,219	81.6	82,152	80.5	179,371
Total	30.2	2,991,865	38.9	3,640,074	34.4	6,631,939

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are considered to be out of school.

Table 2.11 shows disaggregation for OOSC of lower secondary school age. Overall, girls are more likely than boys to be out of school, with much greater gender disparities for this age group than for primary-school-age children. Younger children are less likely than older children to be out of school. Some 22.5 percent of 10-year-olds are out of school, increasing to 33.0 percent of 11-year-olds and 32.4 percent of 12-year-olds. Children in rural areas (35.3 percent) are much more likely than those in urban areas (19.3 percent) to be out of school, and there is considerable gender disparity in rural areas. Children in poorer

wealth quintiles are more likely than those in richer wealth quintiles to be out of school, with 47.5 percent of children in the poorest wealth quintile out of school compared to 13.3 percent in the richest wealth quintile. Urdu- (23.3 percent) and Punjabi-speaking children (23.8 percent) are the least likely to be out of school and Sindhi-speaking children are the most likely (43.6 percent). Gender disparity is particularly pronounced for Sindhi-speaking children. Children who are child labourers are much more likely to be out of school than those who are not child labourers (81.6 percent compared to 24.6 percent).

Table 2.11: Percentage of lower-secondary-school-age children out of school, by age, gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	16.1	202,478	29.5	335,614	22.5	538,092
11	27.2	550,446	39.2	735,466	33.0	1,285,912
12	23.2	343,893	42.0	593,245	32.4	937,138
Residence						
Urban	18.4	288,850	20.3	293,346	19.3	582,196
Rural	25.3	807,968	46.1	1,370,979	35.3	2,178,947
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	39.6	377,790	56.7	470,804	47.5	848,594
Second	32.0	322,513	54.0	488,382	42.4	810,895
Middle	17.4	169,740	37.0	361,367	27.2	531,107
Fourth	15.4	144,802	21.9	206,148	18.7	350,950
Richest	9.3	81,973	17.9	137,624	13.3	219,597
Language						
Urdu	20.3	268,631	26.5	322,638	23.3	591,269
Punjabi	19.7	320,840	28.3	423,595	23.8	744,435
Sindhi	32.4	229,508	56.0	356,981	43.6	586,489
Pashto	13.4	70,737	49.9	244,778	31.0	315,515
Balochi	33.6	9,646	37.5	10,429	35.5	20,075
Other	36.3	197,456	55.5	305,905	46.0	503,361
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	16.1	686,034	33.6	1,362,371	24.6	2,048,405
Child labourer	81.1	410,783	82.4	301,954	81.6	712,737
Total	23.0	1,096,818	37.6	1,664,326	30.1	2,761,144

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary level are considered out of school children.

2.5 OOSC and involvement in child labour

2.5.1 Measuring child labour

Child labour and the involvement of children in economic activities and household chores is an important component in the analysis of OOSC, since prior research has demonstrated that many children who are not in school are engaged in some form of economic activity. In fact, child labour, which is strongly linked to the socioeconomic background of households, may be one of the primary reasons that keeps children out of school or causes them to drop out. It is important to note that not all economic activity is considered to be child labour; however, any time that is spent by children in economic activities, household chores or child labour takes away from time available for studying or recreation, possibly resulting in dropout or poor learning outcomes.

Child labour is a legal rather than a statistical concept, and the international legal standards that define it are therefore the necessary frame of reference for child labour statistics. Three principal international

conventions set the legal boundaries for child labour, and provide the legal basis for national and international actions against it.

- United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC)
- ILO Convention No. 138 on the Minimum Age of Employment
- ILO Convention No. 182 on the Prohibition of the Worst Forms of Child Labour

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

The resolution on child labour statistics adopted at the 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 2008 provides a first-ever set of global standards for translating international legal standards on child labour into statistical terms¹⁰. This resolution states that child labour may be measured in terms of the engagement of children in productive activities on the basis of the general production boundary. The general production boundary is a broad concept encompassing all activities whose performance can be delegated to another person with the same desired results. This includes unpaid household services (household chores) that are outside the more narrow System of National Accounts (SNA) production boundary.

Although largely based on the measurement guidelines contained in the 18th ICLS resolution, the scope of this study is restricted to children aged 14 years and below (as 14 years is the most common upper-age limit for basic schooling).

Using data from the LFS 2007–08, labour force participation can be disaggregated by type of economic activity and involvement in household chores. The child labour measure used in this report comprises the following three groups of children.

- 10–11-year-olds in economic activity (i.e., those engaged in any activity falling within the SNA production boundary for at least one hour during the reference week). Economic activity covers children in all market production and in certain types of non-market production, including production of goods for own use. It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal sectors, as well as forms of work both inside and outside family settings.
- 12–14-year-olds in non-light (or 'regular') economic activity (i.e., those engaged in any activity falling within the SNA production boundary for 14 or more hours during the reference week).
- 10–14-year-olds in hazardous unpaid household services (i.e., defined for the scope of this report as those engaged in the production of domestic and personal services for consumption within their own household, commonly referred to as 'household chores', for at least 28 hours during the reference week).

The first two groups relate to ILO Convention No. 138, which stipulates a minimum age of generally 14 years (possibly 15 years in more developed countries) for admission to employment or work (Article 2), but states that national laws may permit the work of persons from the age of 13 years (or even 12 years) in light work (Article 7). In determining the hour

threshold for permissible light work, which is not defined explicitly in ILO Convention No. 138, the ICLS resolution recommends a cut-off point of 14 hours during the reference week, below which non-hazardous work can be considered permissible light work. It should be noted that the second group of child labourers does not include those children working for less than 14 hours per week in hazardous work.

The inclusion of the third group marks recognition of the fact that the international legal standards do not rule out a priori children's production outside the SNA production boundary from consideration in child labour measurement. The ICLS resolution, building on this recognition, opened the way for classifying those performing hazardous unpaid household services—where the general production boundary is taken as the measurement framework for measuring child labour—as part of the group of child labourers for measurement purposes.

The ICLS resolution does not recommend a specific hour threshold for classifying household chores as hazardous (and therefore as child labour), and cites establishing hazardousness criteria as an area requiring further conceptual and methodological development. In the absence of detailed statistical criteria for hazardousness, an hour threshold of 28 hours per week is used in this report, above which performance of household chores is classified as child labour. It should be kept in mind, however, that this threshold is based only on preliminary evidence of the interaction between household chores and school attendance, and does not constitute an agreed measurement standard.

The child labour indicator utilized in this study, therefore, represents a benchmark for international comparative purposes, but is not necessarily consistent with (estimates based on) national child labour legislation owing to the flexibility clauses contained in the international legal standards.

Presently, the only national-level data are from the 1996 National Child Labour Survey conducted by the Federal Bureau of Statistics, which estimated a total of 3.3 million child labourers in Pakistan. The ILO is providing technical assistance to the PBS to conduct the second national child labour survey during 2011–12. This new survey will provide updated statistical information on the extent of child labour, including hazardous forms of child labour, within the country. The data will support efforts to advocate for children's rights and to overcome hazardous forms of child labour. The country's annual LFS provides labour force participation rates for 10–14-year-olds but does not cover all forms of child labour including the worst

¹⁰<http://www.ilo.org/ipecc/ChildlabourstatisticsSIMPOC/ICLSandchildlabour/lang--en/index.htm>

ones. The LFS 2007–08 collated information on child labour and is used for analysis in this section of the report.

2.5.2 Findings on child labour

Evidence suggests that child labour is linked with a smaller proportion of children entering school at the official entry age, and with a higher proportion of children leaving the schooling system prematurely. Data from the LFS suggests that children's involvement in child labour rises with age.

Table 2.12 shows that 8.6 percent of children aged 10–11 years are engaged in economic activity for at least one hour per week. Boys are as likely as girls to be engaged in child labour (8.6 percent compared to 8.7 percent). The largest category is unpaid family workers (7.2 percent), and of these children, 29.8 percent reported 'no attendance at school'. Involvement in economic activity for at least one hour per week is negatively correlated with the education level of the household head. Children belonging to households where the household head has no education (13.6 percent) are more likely to be involved in economic

Table 2.12: Percentage of children aged 10–11 years involved in economic activity for at least one hour per week by type of work and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Wage work	Self-employed	Unpaid family work	Others	Total	Sample size
Gender						
Male	0.7	0.3	7.2	0.3	8.6	594
Female	0.6	0.8	7.2	0.0	8.7	498
School attendance						
No	2.9	2.6	29.8	0.7	35.9	943
Yes	0.1	0.0	1.3	0.1	1.5	149
Household head's education						
No education (or non-formal)	1.1	0.9	11.2	0.4	13.6	856
Primary (but below middle)	0.3	0.3	5.0	0.0	5.6	120
Below intermediate	0.2	0.1	2.5	0.1	2.9	75
Intermediate	0	0.1	2.8	0.0	3.0	21
Higher	0.2	0.4	1.3	0.0	1.8	20
Total	0.7	0.6	7.2	0.2	8.6	1,092

Source: LFS 2007–08.

For children aged 12–14 years, 16.2 percent are engaged in economic activity for 14 hours or more per week (Table 2.13). Boys are more likely than girls to work at least 14 hours per week (19.2 percent compared to 12.8 percent). The largest category again is unpaid family labour (12.3 percent) and, of these children, 33.7 percent reported 'no attendance at school'. At least 14 hours of economic activity per week is again negatively correlated with the education level of the household head: children in households where the household head has no education (24.9 percent) are more likely to engage in economic activity than households with more educated heads.

Table 2.13: Percentage of children aged 12–14 years involved in economic activity for 14 hours or more per week by type of work and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Wage work	Self-employed	Unpaid family work	Others	Total	Sample size
Gender						
Male	3.3	1.2	14.2	0.6	19.2	2,193
Female	1.7	0.9	10.2	0.0	12.8	1,111
School attendance						
No	7.7	2.9	33.7	0.9	45.2	2,882
Yes	0.2	0.1	2.3	0.0	2.7	422
Household head's education						
No education (or non-formal)	3.9	1.5	19.0	0.5	24.9	2,553
Primary (but below middle)	1.8	0.8	9.9	0.2	12.7	409
Below intermediate	0.9	0.5	3.9	0.1	5.5	266
Intermediate	0.5	0.2	3.0	0.1	3.8	35
Higher	0.9	0.3	1.6	0.0	2.8	39
Total	2.6	1.0	12.3	0.3	16.2	3,304

Source: LFS 2007–08.

For children aged 10–14 years, 15.8 percent are engaged in economic activity and 3.1 percent are engaged in household chores (Table 2.14). While there is little gender disparity among children engaged in economic activity, the gender gap rises to 6.3 percentage points for those engaged in household

chores—an area traditionally assigned to girls. Some 51.0 percent of children engaged in economic activity and 11.2 percent of children engaged in household chores report 'no attendance at school'. Involvement in child labour is negatively correlated with the education level of the household head.

Table 2.14: Percentage of children aged 10–14 years involved in child labour by type of activity and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Economic activity ¹	Household chores ²	Sample size
Gender			
Male	15.5	0.2	2,807
Female	16.2	6.5	2,520
School attendance			
No	51.0	11.2	4,756
Yes	2.4	0.0	571
Household head's education			
No education (or non-formal)	24.2	4.4	4,068
Primary (but below middle)	11.8	2.4	648
Below intermediate	6.0	1.7	454
Intermediate	4.3	0.9	76
Higher	3.0	0.8	79
Total	15.8	3.1	5,327

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Notes: ¹At least one hour per week for children aged 10–11 years and at least 14 hours per week for children aged 12–14 years. ²At least 28 hours per week for children aged 10–14 years.

According to the LFS 2007–08, 15.9 percent of children aged 10–14 years are involved in child labour, and 89.3 percent of child labourers are out of school (Table 2.15). This suggests that children engaged in child labour are more likely than other children to be out of school. Female child labourers are more likely than male child labourers to be out of school (96.9 percent compared to 82.4 percent). Older children (12–14 years) are more likely than younger children (10–11 years) to be engaged in child labour (20.2 percent compared to 9.1 percent), and older child labourers (12–14 years) are slightly more likely than younger child labourers (10–11 years) to be out of school (90.0 percent compared to 87.0 percent). The education level of the household head is negatively correlated with children being involved in child labour: some 24.4 percent of children in households where the head has no education are involved in child labour; this falls to 3.2 percent for children in households where the head has higher education. In addition, child labourers in households where the head has no education are

more likely than child labourers in other households to be out of school (from 91.4 percent for 'no education' to 73.4 percent for 'higher' education).

As children grow older, expectations about their economic contribution to the household increase. The opportunity cost of time spent in the classroom or studying increases as children become more productive; there are also fewer higher-level educational opportunities for older children. For girls, responsibility for household chores and the care of younger siblings increases with age, and this may be one of the main reasons that the percentage of girls involved in child labour is slightly higher than the percentage of boys. There is also a higher probability that older children will drop out of school prematurely due to their involvement in child labour. This will have an effect on the completion rate for basic education and on the probability of continuing study to higher levels.

Table 2.15: Percentage of children aged 10–14 years who are involved in child labour by gender, age and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Child labourers in sample		Child labourers who are out of school	
	%	Sample size	%	Sample size
Gender				
Male	15.2	2,807	82.4	2,313
Female	16.8	2,520	96.9	2,443
Age (years)				
10–11	9.1	1,147	87.0	998
12–14	20.2	4,180	90.0	3,758
Household head's education				
No education (or non-formal)	24.4	4,068	91.4	3,720
Primary (but below middle)	11.9	648	84.9	550
Below intermediate	6.0	454	80.8	367
Intermediate	4.4	76	78.9	60
Higher	3.2	79	73.4	58
Total	15.9	5,327	89.3	4,756

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table 2.16: Percentage of OOSC aged 10–14 years who are involved in child labour by gender, age and other characteristics, 2007–08

	OOSC in sample		OOSC who are in child labour	
	%	Sample size (n)	%	Sample size (n)
Gender				
Male	20.4	3,610	64.1	2,313
Female	35.9	5,875	41.6	2,443
Age (years)				
10–11	20.7	2,789	25.8	998
12–14	31.8	6,696	56.1	3,758
Household head's education				
No education (or non-formal)	40.9	7,083	52.5	3,720
Primary (but below middle)	21.1	1,146	48.0	550
Below intermediate	12.7	967	38.0	367
Intermediate	7.0	121	49.6	60
Higher	5.9	166	34.9	58
Total	27.6	9,485	50.1	4,756

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table 2.16 shows the percentage of OOSC who are involved in child labour. According to the LFS 2007–08, 27.6 percent of children aged 10–14 years are out of school, and half of these (50.1 percent) are engaged in child labour. Although girls are more likely than boys to be out of school, out-of-school boys are more likely than out-of-school girls to be engaged in child labour (64.1 percent compared to 41.6 percent). Older children are more likely than younger children to be out of school, and older OOSC are more likely than younger OOSC to be involved in child labour (56.1 percent compared to 35.8 percent). Again as the level of education of the household head increases, involvement in child labour decreases. This is an additional indication of the high vulnerability and exposure to child labour faced by OOSC.

Table 2.17 shows the percentage of OOSC aged 10–14 years who are involved in child labour and their type of work and average hours. Overall, 51.0 percent of OOSC take part in at least one hour of economic activity per week and 30.0 percent are engaged in household chores. OOSC involved in economic activity work for an average of 32.2 hours per week and those engaged in household chores work for an average of 24.3 hours per week. Children who spend a significant amount of time engaged in economic activities or household chores have little time left for educational or recreational activities. Some 75.5 percent of those involved in economic activity are doing unpaid family work, with an average of 30.9 hours per week. This is followed by wage work (12.4 percent) and self-employment (10.5 percent). By gender, some 62.5 percent of boys are involved in some form of economic

activity, either paid or unpaid, compared to 43.5 percent of girls. Girls are more likely than boys to be engaged in household chores (47.7 percent compared to 2.8 percent). For boys, 74.0 percent were involved in unpaid economic activities and 16.9 percent were employed in wage labour. For girls, 76.9 percent were involved in unpaid labour and 14.8 percent were self-employed. Average working hours in economic activity were longer for boys than for girls (42.5 hours compared to 22.6 hours) and average working hours in household chores were longer for girls than for boys (24.5 hours compared to 17.0 hours). Older children were more likely than younger children to be engaged in economic activities and household work, and to work more hours. The education level of the household head is negatively correlated with economic activity but positively correlated with household chores: children from households where the head has no education are most likely to be involved in economic activity (53.8 percent) and least likely to be involved in household chores (28.0 percent), and children from households where the head has higher education are least likely to be involved in economic activity (36.3 percent) and most likely to be involved in household chores (44.2 percent). However, children involved in economic activity from households where the head has higher education are most likely to be involved in wage work (23.6 percent) and least likely to be involved in unpaid family work (57.7 percent).

Table 2.17: Percentage of OOSC aged 10–14 years at work in economic activity and household chores by type of work and average hours, 2007–08

	Type of economic activity								Economic activity ¹		Household chores ²		Sample size ³
	Wage work		Self-employed		Unpaid family work		Others		% Ave hrs	% Ave hrs	% Ave hrs	% Ave hrs	
	%	Ave hrs	%	Ave hrs	%	Ave hrs	%	Ave hrs					
Gender													
Male	16.9	51.5	5.8	44.2	74.0	40.0	3.3	51.4	62.5	42.5	2.8	17.0	2,319
Female	8.2	41.4	14.8	11.7	76.9	22.7	0.1	31.8	43.5	22.6	47.7	24.5	2,412
Age (years)													
10–11	8.2	48.4	7.1	18.6	82.9	31.0	1.9	50.4	35.9	31.9	17.4	19.3	943
12–14	13.5	48.0	11.3	20.7	73.6	30.8	1.6	51.0	57.2	32.3	35.1	25.2	3,788
Household head's education													
No education (or non-formal)	12.5	48.0	10.0	21.5	75.8	31.5	1.7	51.4	53.8	32.9	28.0	24.4	3,708
Primary (but below middle)	11.1	47.0	10.1	19.4	77.7	29.7	1.1	44.9	47.9	30.7	34.7	23.6	543
Below intermediate	12.4	46.8	15.1	15.8	70.5	26.2	2.0	50.8	36.6	27.7	35.7	24.5	363
Intermediate	8.1	70.2	13.0	14.2	78.9	27.4	0.0	–	49.9	29.1	39.4	21.9	59
Higher	23.6	52.6	18.7	16.4	57.7	26.1	0.0	–	36.3	30.5	44.2	22.7	57
Total	12.4	48.0	10.5	20.4	75.5	30.9	1.6	50.9	51.0	32.2	30.0	24.3	4,731

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Notes: ¹ OOSC aged 10–14 years who, during the week preceding the survey, did at least one hour of economic activity in wage work, self-employment or unpaid family work; ave hrs = average hours worked per week. ² For the LFS 2007–08, information on household chores is available only for children who are not working, and who indicate as reason for not working, the fact of being busy in household chores. This means that the estimate of children in household chores and the average of hours in household chores are likely undervalued. ³ OOSC involved in economic activity for at least one hour per week.

According to the LFS 2007–08, 74.7 percent of OOSC aged 10–14 years involved in economic activity are employed in agriculture; this is followed by services (11.5 percent), manufacturing (8.0 percent) and commerce (3.3 percent) (Table 2.18). Boys are more likely than girls to be engaged in manufacturing (8.7 percent compared to 7.3 percent) and commerce (6.7 percent compared to 0.2 percent), and girls are more likely than boys to be engaged in agriculture (78.2 percent compared to 71.0 percent) and services (12.7 percent compared to 10.2 percent). Younger children are more likely than older children to be involved in agriculture, while older children are more likely than younger children to be involved in manufacturing, commerce and services. Children belonging to households where the head has a low level of education are more likely to work in agriculture, and children from households where the head has a high level of education are more likely to work in services.

Table 2.18: Percentage of OOSC aged 10–14 years involved in economic activity by sector of employment, 2007–08

	Agriculture	Manufacturing	Commerce	Services	Other	Sample size (n)
Gender						
Male	71.0	8.7	6.7	10.2	3.4	2,319
Female	78.2	7.3	0.2	12.7	1.8	2,412
Age (years)						
10–11	83.0	4.8	1.6	9.8	0.9	943
12–14	72.6	8.8	3.8	11.9	3.0	3,788
Household head's education						
No education (or non-formal)	75.7	7.5	3.1	11.2	2.5	3,708
Primary (but below middle)	73.1	11.1	4.0	8.7	3.1	543
Below intermediate	68.4	10.5	4.6	14.5	1.9	363
Intermediate	74.0	0.0	5.4	18.0	2.6	59
Higher	59.3	3.7	2.0	33.6	1.5	57
Total	74.7	8.0	3.3	11.5	2.5	4,731

Source: LFS 2007–08.

According to the LFS 2007–08, children not engaged in child labour are over eight times more likely to attend school than those involved in child labour (84.3 percent compared to 9.9 percent) (Table 2.19). This is true for both boys and girls and across age groups. This is indicative of the fact that schooling and work are not usually compatible, as work can affect the time and energy that children have for their studies, and negatively influences their ability to benefit from their classroom time. Work is associated with more frequent absenteeism or tardiness, and poor performance in school, factors not captured by the attendance indicator. Again, there is a positive correlation between school attendance and education of household head. Household heads with higher

levels of education are more likely to have children in child labour who also attend school.

As a comparison to data in the LFS 2007–08, Table 2.20 shows the proportion of OOSC aged 9–12 years who are involved in child labour according to the PSLM-HIES 2007–08. Some 16.4 percent of out-of-school nine-year-olds are involved in child labour, rising to 20.7 percent of out-of-school 12-year-olds. Overall, out-of-school boys are more likely than out-of-school girls to be involved in child labour (9.2 percent compared to 6.5 percent). OOSC in urban areas are less likely than OOSC in rural areas to be involved in child labour (5.7 percent compared to 8.3 percent). OOSC in poorer wealth quintiles are more likely than

Table 2.19: Percentage of children aged 10–14 years attending school by their involvement in child labour, 2007–08

	Children in child labour who are attending school	Children not in child labour who are attending school
Gender		
Male	16.6	90.9
Female	2.9	76.5
Age (years)		
10–11	12.8	85.9
12–14	9.1	83.1
Household head's education		
No education (or non-formal)	8.1	75.5
Primary (but below middle)	13.8	87.7
Below intermediate	17.5	91.7
Intermediate	19.9	96.4
Higher	24.1	96.4
Total	9.9	84.3

Source: LFS 2007-08

¹¹No data were available from either the PSLM-HIES or LFS for children aged below 10 years. Information for nine-year-olds represents an adjustment in figures to take account of the one-year time lag.

Table 2.20: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age OOSC who are involved in child labour by age, gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer		Child labourer	
	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)				
9	83.6	917,180	16.4	179,370
10	93.6	1,781,023	6.4	122,362
11	85.9	2,255,076	14.1	370,552
12	79.3	1,178,264	20.7	308,412
Gender				
Male	90.8	5,421,472	9.2	546,559
Female	93.5	6,245,460	6.5	434,137
Residence				
Urban	94.3	2,695,219	5.7	163,417
Rural	91.7	8,971,713	8.3	817,279
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	90.4	3,226,227	9.6	342,153
Second	91.0	3,058,788	9.0	300,773
Middle	92.4	2,293,759	7.6	187,422
Fourth	95.3	1,875,303	4.7	92,892
Richest	95.5	1,212,855	4.5	57,456
Language				
Urdu	94.9	2,792,717	5.1	150,642
Punjabi	91.1	3,192,997	8.9	313,044
Sindhi	91.4	2,140,240	8.6	202,254
Pashto	97.7	1,486,956	2.3	34,913
Balochi	92.9	94,611	7.1	7,245
Other	87.8	1,957,084	12.2	272,597

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

OOSC in richer wealth quintiles to be involved in child labour. Punjabi- and Sindhi-speaking OOSC are most likely to be involved in child labour, followed by Balochi-, Urdu- and Pashto -speaking OOSC.

Table 2.21 shows disaggregated data for child labourers who are in school and not in school, according to the PSLM-HIES 2007–08. Of those involved in child labour, 10.5 percent are not in school, ranging between 19.5 percent for nine-year-olds and zero for 10-year-olds. Male child labourers are more likely than female child labourers to be out of school (13.0 percent compared to 7.1 percent). Child labourers in rural areas are more likely than those in urban areas to be out of school. Interestingly, in the lowest four wealth quintiles, poorer child labourers are less likely than richer child labourers to be out of school; however, child labourers in the richest wealth quintile also have a lower likelihood of being out of school. Pashto-speaking child labourers are most likely to be out of school, followed by Sindhi-speaking, Urdu-speaking, Punjabi-speaking and Balochi-speaking child labourers.

Table 2.21: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age child labourers who are in school and not in school by age, gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	In school		Not in school	
	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)				
9	80.5	179,370	19.5	43,523
10	100.0	122,362	0.0	0
11	93.5	370,552	6.5	25,885
12	87.1	308,412	12.9	45,738
Gender				
Male	87.0	546,559	13.0	82,021
Female	92.9	434,137	7.1	33,125
Residence				
Urban	91.9	163,417	8.1	14,366
Rural	89.0	817,279	11.0	100,781
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	92.9	342,153	7.1	26,096
Second	89.0	300,773	11.0	37,102
Middle	87.5	187,422	12.5	26,724
Fourth	82.3	92,892	17.7	19,937
Richest	91.6	57,456	8.4	5,287
Language				
Urdu	87.9	150,642	12.1	20,735
Punjabi	90.2	313,044	9.8	34,181
Sindhi	86.9	202,254	13.1	30,431
Pashto	77.7	34,913	22.3	10,006
Balochi	100.0	7,245	0.0	0
Other	93.2	272,597	6.8	19,793
Total	89.5	980,696	10.5	115,146

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table 2.22 shows that, according to the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, nearly 1.1 million children are reported to be in child labour. Child labourers of primary and lower secondary school age are most likely to be 11 and 12 years old. They are more likely to be boys than girls. They are more likely to live in rural areas than urban areas. They are more likely to be from households in poorer wealth quintiles than richer wealth quintiles. They are most likely to be Punjabi-speaking, followed by Urdu-, Sindhi-, Pashto- and Balochi-speaking.

Table 2.22: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics

	Not child labourer		Child labourer		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	13.8	3,787,140	0	0	13.3	3,787,140
6	14.9	4,069,148	0	0	14.3	4,069,148
7	15.1	4,139,924	0	0	14.5	4,139,924
8	11.8	3,236,474	0	0	11.4	3,236,474
9	14.0	3,827,232	20.3	222,893	14.2	4,050,125
10	8.3	2,271,788	11.2	122,362	8.4	2,394,150
11	12.8	3,497,995	36.2	396,437	13.7	3,894,432
12	9.3	2,540,492	32.3	354,150	10.2	2,894,642
Gender						
Male	51.3	14,053,078	57.4	628,580	51.6	14,681,658
Female	48.7	13,317,114	42.6	467,262	48.4	13,784,376
Residence						
Urban	30.9	8,453,343	16.2	177,783	30.3	8,631,126
Rural	69.1	18,916,849	83.8	918,059	69.7	19,834,908
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	21.2	5,790,738	33.6	368,249	21.6	6,158,987
Second	21.6	5,911,813	30.8	337,875	22.0	6,249,688
Middle	20.8	5,685,313	19.5	214,146	20.7	5,899,459
Fourth	19.6	5,375,822	10.3	112,829	19.3	5,488,651
Richest	16.8	4,606,507	5.7	62,744	16.4	4,669,251
Language						
Urdu	26.6	7,272,942	15.6	171,378	26.2	7,444,320
Punjabi	32.8	8,963,445	31.7	347,225	32.7	9,310,670
Sindhi	15.9	4,349,304	21.2	232,685	16.1	4,581,989
Pashto	11.6	3,180,931	4.1	44,920	11.3	3,225,851
Balochi	0.7	190,747	0.7	7,245	0.7	197,992
Other	12.5	3,412,822	26.7	292,389	13.0	3,702,885
Total	–	27,370,192	–	1,095,842	–	28,466,034

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

According to the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, most child labourers (71.6 percent) are involved in unpaid family work (Table 2.23). Older child labourers are more likely than younger child labourers to be in paid employment. Male child labourers are more likely than female child labourers to be in paid employment. Child labourers in urban areas are more likely than child labourers in rural areas to be in paid employment. There is no clear correlation between the employment status for child labourers and the wealth quintile index. Children are most likely to be engaged as unpaid family workers in Sindhi- and Balochi-speaking households, followed by Pashto-, Punjabi- and Urdu-speaking households.

Table 2.23: Percentage and number of primary- and lower secondary-aged out-of-school children at work in employment, household chores or both by sector and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Self-employed (non-agri)	Paid employee	Unpaid family worker	Own cultivator	Livestock	Total
Age (years)						
9	0.0	23.0	76.7	0.0	0.3	100
10	0.8	14.3	81.6	0.0	3.3	100
11	1.0	29.0	67.5	0.4	2.1	100
12	1.2	27.4	69.7	0.0	1.8	100
Gender						
Male	1.6	32.6	62.3	0.2	3.2	100
Female	0.0	16.7	83.3	0.0	0.0	100
Residence						
Urban	1.9	59.9	38.1	0.0	0.1	100
Rural	0.7	18.7	78.3	0.2	2.1	100
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	0.9	28.7	67.6	0.0	2.8	100
Second	0.1	22.2	75.9	0.5	1.3	100
Middle	0.9	21.5	77.6	0.0	0.0	100
Fourth	3.6	27.9	64.2	0.0	4.3	100
Richest	0.0	34.1	65.9	0.0	0.0	100
Language						
Urdu	0.0	40.3	57.4	0.9	1.4	100
Punjabi	0.4	32.8	64.9	0.0	2.0	100
Sindhi	0.1	11.5	87.6	0.0	0.7	100
Pashto	8.6	25.2	65.2	0.0	1.0	100
Balochi	0.0	13.7	80.5	0.0	5.8	100
Other	1.5	19.9	76.0	0.0	2.6	100
Total	0.9	25.6	71.6	0.1	1.8	100

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

The LFS 2007–08 provided data on the health problems experienced by children. This is an additional factor that might keep them out of school. Table 2.24 shows that children aged 10–14 years who are working are more prone to experiencing health problems than other children. Boys are more prone than girls.

According to the LFS 2007–08, children aged 10–14 years who are working as apprentices are most prone to experiencing health problems, followed by children who are self-employed, those who are unpaid family workers, and those who are paid workers (Table 2.25).

Table 2.24: Percentage of children aged 10–14 years experiencing health problems by gender and activity status, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Economic activity only	1.5	0.8	1.2
School only	0.0	0.0	0.0
Both economic activity and school	1.8	1.3	1.7
Neither economic activity nor school	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table 2.25: Percentage of working children aged 10–14 years experiencing health problems by gender and work modality, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Paid worker	0.7	0.9	0.8
Self-employed	1.9	0.0	1.6
Unpaid family worker	1.6	0.8	1.3
Apprentice	3.2	0.0	3.2
Other	9.6	0.0	7.7

Source: LFS 2007–08.

2.6 Children at risk of dropping out of primary or lower secondary school

Dimensions 4 and 5 refer to children who are in either primary or lower secondary school but are at risk of dropping out.

Exposure to pre-primary education is considered to improve retention rates, particularly in Grade 1, and reduce the likelihood of dropout. According to the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, only 12.7 percent of children entering Grade 1 have not received some form of pre-primary education, e.g., kindergarten, nursery, pre-nursery, or religious education (Table 2.26). There is no gender difference. Rural children (13.9 percent) are more likely than urban children (10.2 percent) to have not received pre-primary education. Children in poorer wealth quintiles are more likely than those in richer wealth quintiles to have not received pre-primary education. Sindhi-speaking children (46.8 percent) are much more likely than other children to have not received pre-primary education; this is followed by Urdu-speaking children (11.8 percent), and Punjabi-, Pashto-, and Balochi-speaking children (2–3 percent).

A closer look at the characteristics associated with smooth promotion from one class to another, i.e., internal efficiency—repetition, survival, completion, transition and dropout—can help predict whether children are likely to drop out of primary or lower secondary school. Official education statistics suggest low internal efficiency in Pakistan. In other words, students are accessing education to a satisfactory degree but have to repeat classes (as there is no automatic promotion) and often drop out before they can complete compulsory primary education or attain functional literacy and numeracy.

According to the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, repetition rates for primary and lower secondary education decrease from 6.4 percent in Grade 1 to 0.9 percent in Grade 8 (Table 2.27). Repetition rates are higher in the first two grades of primary education and fall as children transition to higher grades; this could be partly due to a lack of pre-primary experience and hence a lack of school readiness among children in Grade 1. It may also be due to a smaller pool of at-risk children, since those who drop out are obviously not at risk of repeating. There are no clear patterns across the

Table 2.26: Percentage of new entrants in Grade 1 of primary education with no ECE experience, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Residence			
Urban	10.8	9.5	10.2
Rural	13.3	14.7	13.9
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	12.3	12.3	12.3
Second	20.4	24.6	22.2
Middle	11.7	11.6	11.7
Fourth	9.0	6.9	8.0
Richest	8.1	9.5	8.7
Language			
Urdu	11.3	12.3	11.8
Punjabi	3.6	3.2	3.4
Sindhi	44.7	50.0	46.8
Pashto	1.4	4.1	2.5
Balochi	4.1	0.0	2.4
Other	1.9	4.8	3.4
Total	12.5	12.9	12.7

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table 2.27: Repetition rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	5.0	5.0	3.7	3.1	3.0	1.9	1.5	1.2
Rural	7.1	4.1	2.8	4.1	2.9	3.3	0.8	0.6
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	6.2	4.0	3.4	3.0	3.7	3.1	0.2	0.8
Second	9.6	3.2	1.9	4.5	4.5	1.0	0.6	0.0
Middle	4.7	4.6	3.8	4.9	2.5	4.2	0.8	1.5
Fourth	6.3	5.6	3.2	3.6	2.7	2.0	1.4	0.9
Richest	5.3	4.4	3.2	2.6	2.0	3.1	1.6	0.8
Language								
Urdu	3.7	4.4	4.0	2.6	4.0	3.0	0.9	1.1
Punjabi	2.2	4.1	1.6	4.3	2.2	3.2	1.2	0.4
Sindhi	29.3	4.1	3.5	3.6	4.2	0.7	1.0	1.7
Pashto	4.1	7.4	3.8	3.8	1.7	3.0	2.3	1.2
Balochi	0.0	8.8	2.3	0.0	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	1.7	1.8	5.9	4.5	1.8	1.5	0.0	0.4
Total	6.4	4.4	3.1	3.6	2.9	2.7	1.1	0.9

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

grades by rural–urban divide, wealth index quintiles or language.

Repetition rates, according to the Pakistan Education Statistics 2008/09, are similar to the PSLM-HIES 2007–08 at primary level but show much higher rates at lower secondary level, although rates tend to fall at higher grades in each level. There is also a significant jump in repetition rates between primary and lower secondary school. In urban areas, rates start at 7.1 percent in Grade 1 and fall to 4.5 percent in Grade 5

(Table 2.28). They then jump to 23.1 percent in Grade 6 and fall to 11.7 percent in Grade 8. In rural areas, they start at 7.3 percent in Grade 1 and fall to 4.6 percent in Grade 5, then jump to 12.3 percent in Grade 6 and fall to 5.8 percent in Grade 8. Boys are slightly more likely than girls to repeat grades, and repetition rates are higher in urban areas than in rural areas. This latter might be because rural children are more likely to drop out than to repeat.

Table 2.28: Repetition rates at primary level by gender, residence and grade, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Urban			
Grade 1	7.6	6.6	7.1
Grade 2	6.2	5.8	6.0
Grade 3	5.7	5.7	5.7
Grade 4	6.1	6.4	6.2
Grade 5	5.1	3.7	4.5
Grade 6	24.1	22.2	23.1
Grade 7	21.3	16.6	18.9
Grade 8	15.7	7.8	11.7
Rural			
Grade 1	7.6	6.9	7.3
Grade 2	5.3	5.1	5.2
Grade 3	4.7	4.7	4.7
Grade 4	5.2	4.9	5.1
Grade 5	5.4	3.5	4.6
Grade 6	15.0	9.2	12.3
Grade 7	11.2	6.3	9.0
Grade 8	8.0	3.1	5.8

Source: Pakistan Education Statistics 2008/09.

The transition rate from primary to lower secondary level also provides a measure for internal efficiency. Using data from the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, the UIS calculated that the transition rate from primary to lower secondary education is 72 percent (Table 2.29). There is gender parity, with a transition rate of 72 percent for girls and 73 percent for boys and a GPI of 0.99.

Many children drop out of school because they are above the official age for a particular grade. In addition, expenses related to education remain a significant concern for households, especially for those in urban areas where parents have the opportunity (and often prefer) to utilize private schools. Table 2.30 shows dropout rates at primary and lower secondary levels. The dropout rates are

lowest in the early grades of primary school, ranging from 2.5 percent in Grade 1 to 15.9 percent in Grade 4. The dropout rate increases substantially when children reach Grade 5, peaking at 42.8 percent. In lower secondary school, dropout rates rise from 16.2 percent in Grade 6 to a peak of 26.7 percent in Grade 8. Dropout rates are higher in rural areas than urban areas at every grade across primary and secondary levels. This may be related to the higher costs of education in urban areas and the greater opportunities for employment. Dropout rates tend to be higher for children in poorer wealth quintiles than for those in richer ones. Sindhi-, Punjabi- and Balochi-speaking children tend to drop out in greater proportions than Urdu- and Pashto-speaking children in Grade 5 and again in Grade 8.

Table 2.29: Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Transition rate to lower secondary	73	72	72	0.99

Source: UIS calculation, using data from the PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table 2.30: Dropout rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	1.7	7.3	11.0	13.5	36.5	12.3	13.4	24.1
Rural	2.8	9.5	13.9	17.1	46.0	18.5	14.9	28.3
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	3.3	9.2	15.7	16.7	46.7	14.6	17.1	23.4
Second	3.9	11.9	13.9	19.1	51.7	22.2	19.2	30.1
Middle	2.5	8.6	14.5	16.5	48.7	19.5	18.3	30.9
Fourth	1.6	7.5	10.7	16.2	37.2	15.7	12.5	28.2
Richest	0.7	6.3	9.4	10.8	28.3	9.4	8.6	21.3
Language								
Urdu	1.5	6.5	9.6	11.4	36.0	13.3	13.0	25.8
Punjabi	4.1	9.3	13.6	16.8	44.8	18.5	14.7	27.6
Sindhi	0.9	11.4	12.6	10.9	54.6	7.4	19.0	26.7
Pashto	0.7	5.5	13.1	20.4	29.0	18.0	11.5	19.6
Balochi	0.0	3.8	6.5	12.0	43.1	7.2	14.4	44.0
Other	3.4	13.1	19.3	24.6	48.3	26.3	13.3	33.2
Total	2.5	8.8	12.9	15.9	42.8	16.2	14.3	26.7

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Figure 2.2 shows the peak in dropout rates at Grade 5 and the rise again in Grade 8. These two points of maximum dropout coincide with completion of primary education and lower secondary education.

Table 2.31 shows transition rates from primary to lower secondary levels by various characteristics. The

overall transition rate is 92.7 percent. Boys have a slightly higher transition rate than girls (93.7 percent compared to 91.5 percent). Rates are slightly higher in urban areas than rural areas. There is no disparity by wealth quintile, and little difference by the language spoken.

Figure 2.2: Dropout rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level of education

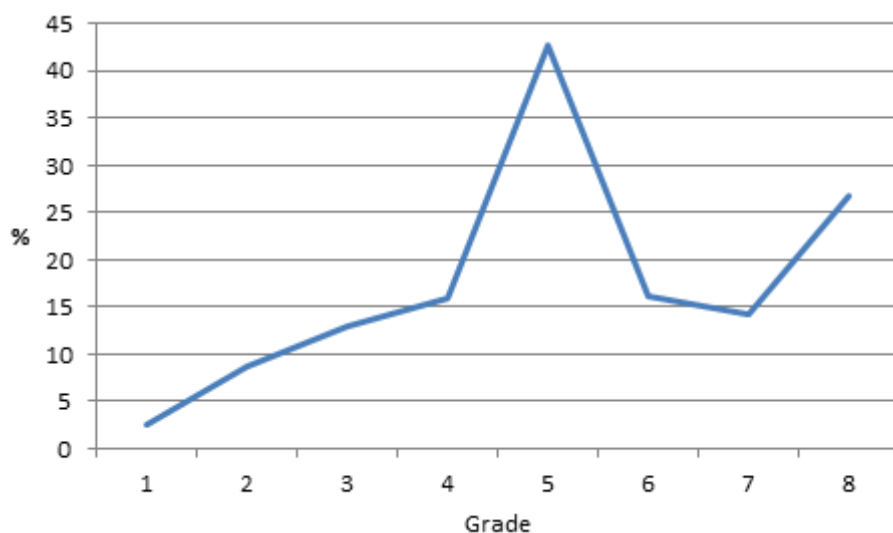


Table 2.31: Transition rates from primary to lower secondary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Residence				
Urban	94.1	92.7	93.4	0.99
Rural	93.5	90.3	92.3	0.97
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	95.1	90.0	93.1	0.95
Second	94.2	91.6	93.3	0.97
Middle	94.4	88.0	91.6	0.93
Fourth	92.7	93.5	93.1	1.01
Richest	92.9	93.1	93.0	1.00
Language				
Urdu	90.0	92.8	91.4	1.03
Punjabi	95.4	88.8	92.4	0.93
Sindhi	92.3	94.0	92.9	1.02
Pashto	94.9	94.7	94.8	1.00
Balochi	100.0	94.4	96.6	0.94
Other	99.3	92.3	96.5	0.93
Total	93.7	91.5	92.7	0.98

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

The availability and use of social protection is acknowledged to lower the risk of dropping out. Table 2.32 shows that only a small proportion of households are receiving any form of social protection measured in terms of Zakat¹². Furthermore, there was little disparity between households with children in school and households with children out of school.

Access to credit also reduces the risk of dropping out. Table 2.33 shows that 27.0 percent of households with OOSC had made use of credit to take out a loan. However, there was little disparity between households with children in school and households with children out of school.

Table 2.32: Percentage of households enjoying access to formal social protection

	Did not receive Zakat	Received Zakat	Total
Received Zakat from public sector only			
In school	99.7	0.3	100.0
Not in school	99.7	0.3	100.0
Received Zakat from private sector only (relatives/NGOs/Trusts)			
In school	99.7	0.3	100.0
Not in school	99.5	0.5	100.0
Received Zakat from public or private sector			
In school	99.5	0.5	100.0
Not in school	99.3	0.7	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

Table 2.33: Percentage of households enjoying access to credit

	Did not borrow	Received a loan	Total
In school	75.0	25.0	100.0
Not in school	71.1	28.9	100.0
Total	73.0	27.0	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

¹²A religious-based social protection programme operating under the principle that wealthy Muslims provide contributions that are distributed to the deserving poor.

2.7 Analytical summary

The information provided in this chapter is intended to assist in creating profiles of excluded children. Although Pakistan has made some progress in terms of access to education and increased enrolment in schools—children are more likely to go to school today than in previous generations—education performance across the country remains marked by deep disparities based on gender, geographic location and wealth. There is still a long way to go before universal basic education targets can be achieved, especially if the 18th Amendment is to be implemented in its true spirit.

Official data sources such as the PSLM-HIES 2007–08 and LFS 2007–08 confirm that people with the lowest levels of education are largely found in the poorest segment of the population and children growing up in households whose members have low educational levels are themselves among the most excluded from education. Disparities in access to and participation in education continue to be significant across household wealth quintiles, across the urban–rural divide and between the genders. Such disparities are part of a pattern of inequality that is strongly correlated with wealth and gender, and is linked to regional inequalities across and within provinces. Hence, a large proportion of the literate population is concentrated in urban centres and provincial capitals. Areas with low literacy are also backward in terms of economic development. Women have lower literacy rates than men. The adult literacy rate for males is 69 percent while that of females is only 40 percent, as measured over the period 2005–10 (EFA Global Monitoring Team and UNESCO, 2011).

Analysis shows that a large proportion of Pakistan's primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children are out of school. Based on the PSLM-HIES 2007–08, an estimated 6.6 million primary-school-age (5–9 years) and 2.7 million lower-secondary-school-age (10–12 years) children are out of school.

A key element of this analysis is the identification of disparities that cut across the 5DE. A major barrier to children aged 10–14 years attending school is the incidence of child labour. The majority of child labourers are OOSC, with female child labourers more likely than male child labourers to be out of school. Child labour is also negatively correlated with the educational level of the household head, i.e., the higher the education level of the household head the less likely that children from that household will be engaged in child labour.

Key characteristics of OOSC that emerge from the above profiling are as follows.

- More girls than boys are out of school. Pakistan is a characteristic example of gender disparity in education with a bias against girls. The problem is much worse in lower secondary school than in primary school.
- A related finding is that the difference between boys and girls tends to disappear in richer households.
- Poorer households are more likely than richer households to have children out of school.
- Children in rural areas are more likely than children in urban areas to be out of school.
- Balochi-speaking children lag behind other children in all key indicators for education.
- Children engaged in child labour are the most likely to be out of school.
- Pre-primary school attendance is low, with 51.2 percent of four-year-olds not attending pre-primary or primary school. Some 23.7 percent are attending pre-primary school. Early enrolment is common with 25.1 percent of four-year-olds enrolled in primary education.
- Primary ANAR is 65.6 percent, with a GPI of 0.88, and lower secondary ANAR is 34.5 percent, with a GPI of 0.83.
- Repetition rates range from 6.4 percent in Grade 1 to 0.9 percent in Grade 8.
- Dropout rates are lowest in the early grades of primary school, ranging from 2.5 percent in Grade 1 to 15.9 percent in Grade 4. They peak at 42.8 percent for Grade 5. In lower secondary school, dropout rates rise from 16.2 percent in Grade 6 to 26.7 percent in Grade 8.
- The transition rate from primary to lower secondary education is 72.3 percent.
- Overall, poor girls living in rural areas are several times more likely to be out of school than boys from the wealthiest households living in urban areas.

With the lowest primary net enrolment rates in comparison to other countries in South Asia, especially for girls, the largest proportions of OOSC, the highest dropout rates and the lowest percentage of children moving from primary to secondary school, Pakistan needs much greater efforts and resources to meet the EFA and education targets in MDGs 2 and 3.

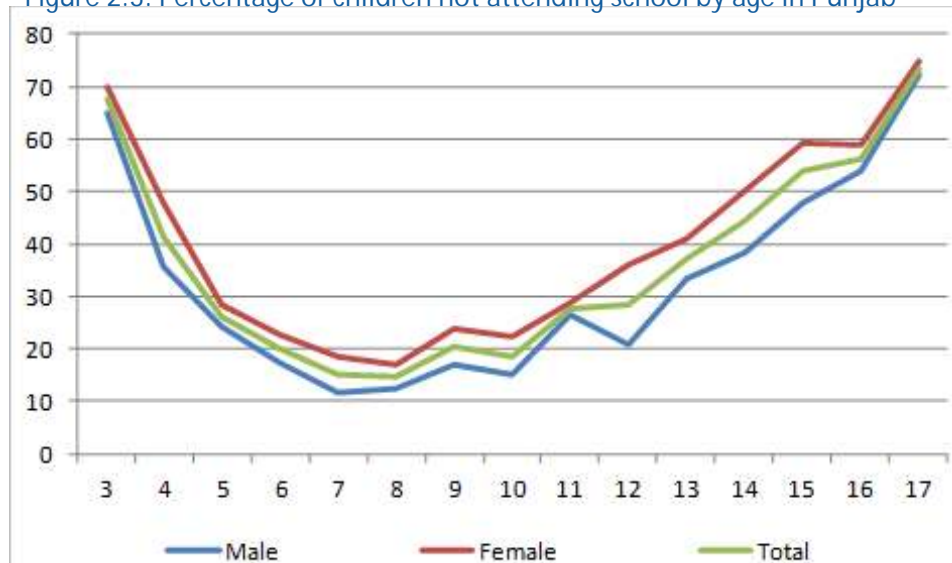
2.8 Provincial profiles of excluded children

A brief analysis of the profiles of excluded children within the four main provinces is presented below.

Punjab

Key findings for profiling of OOSC in Punjab based on the CMF are presented below (see Annex 4 for the relevant tables).

Figure 2.3: Percentage of children not attending school by age in Punjab



Source: PSLM-HIES 2007-08.

- Some 41.4 percent of children aged four years in Punjab are not attending school. The gender difference is fairly stark, with 47.8 percent of girls not attending compared to 35.7 percent of boys. The urban-rural disparity is fairly large, with 47.9 percent of rural children not attending compared to 23.9 percent of children in urban areas. Wealth is also a significant variable in determining attendance at school. The non-attendance rate is more than three times greater for the poorest wealth quintile than for the richest wealth quintile (61.6 percent compared to 18.6 percent).
- The trend of non-attendance for children aged 3-17 years in Punjab follows a similar pattern to that depicted at the national level. Figure 2.3 shows that the lowest out-of-school rates occur in the age group 6-9 years. However, data indicate that many children aged 6-9 are enrolled in pre-primary, suggesting high levels of late enrolment or repetition. Some 16.1 percent of six-year-olds, 9.3 percent of seven-year-olds, 4.1 percent of eight-year-olds and 2.0 percent of nine-year-olds are enrolled in pre-primary. Moreover, 37.8 percent of 11-year-olds and 20.5 percent of 12-year-olds are enrolled in primary school, again showing the accumulation of overage children.
- The ANAR at primary level in Punjab is 72.5 percent for males and 67.9 percent for females, resulting in a GPI of 0.94. The ANAR falls at lower secondary level to 37.5 percent for males and 35.3 percent for females, again resulting in a GPI of 0.94. At primary level, the ANAR is 52.7 percent for five-year-olds and gradually increases to 77.5 percent for nine-year-olds. The primary ANAR is significantly higher for urban areas (81.7 percent) than for rural areas (65.7 percent). Similarly, the primary ANAR is much higher in the richest households than in the poorest households (88.0 percent compared to 54.8 percent). The primary ANAR for child labourers is 15.5 percent. At lower secondary school, the ANAR increases with age, from 22.7 percent for 10-year-olds to 51.1 percent for 12-year-olds. The lower secondary ANAR for child labourers is 6.5 percent.
- Data analysis based on the CMF estimates that at primary level nearly 1.5 million boys and 1.7 million girls are out of school, and at lower secondary level nearly 0.6 million boys and 0.8 million girls are out of school. In total, 4.5 million children of primary and lower secondary school age are out of school.
- It is estimated that in Punjab 47.3 percent of five-year-olds, 36.1 percent of six-year-olds, 24.3 percent of seven-year-olds, 18.7 percent of eight-year-olds and 22.5 percent of nine-year-olds are out of school. Of child labourers aged 5-9 years, 84.5 percent are out of school. Additionally, 18.8 percent of 10-year-olds, 28.4 percent of 11-year-olds and 28.4 percent of 12-year-olds are out of school. Of child labourers aged 10-12 years, 83.1 percent are out of school.
- Most child labourers aged 9-12 years in Punjab are either paid employees or unpaid family workers. In the poorest households child labourers are most likely to be involved in paid employment; as household wealth increases, the proportion shifts in favour of unpaid family work.
- Only a minor fraction of households with OOSC received social protection of any form. However, 27.1 percent were able to secure a loan.
- Only 1.3 percent of children from urban areas and 4.2 percent of children from rural areas enter Grade 1 with no pre-primary education.
- Repetition rates are higher in rural areas than urban areas, and there is no clear pattern by wealth quintile. The dropout rate is highest in Grade 5 at

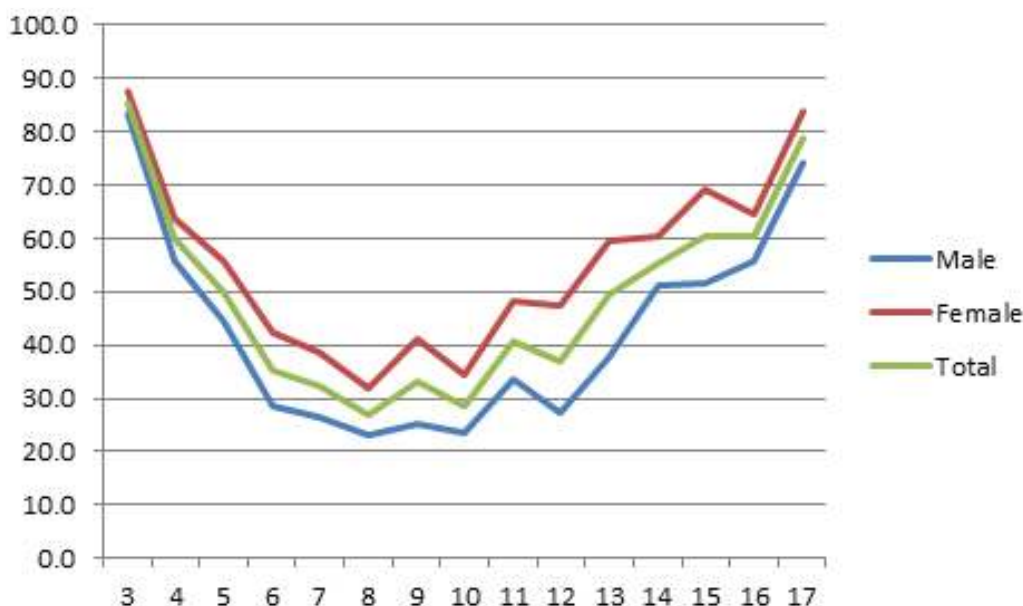
43.7 percent. The dropout rate in Grade 5 is 45.9 percent for rural households, and 50.1 percent for the poorest households. Overall, the transition rates from primary to lower secondary level are generally above 90 percent.

Sindh

Key findings for profiling of OOSC in Sindh based on the CMF are presented below (see Annex 5 for the relevant tables).

- Some 59.8 percent of children aged four years in Sindh are not attending school. There is a large gender disparity, with 63.9 percent of girls out of school compared to 56.0 percent of boys. Urban–rural disparity also exists: 46.1 percent of urban four-year-olds are not in pre-primary or primary school compared to 68.7 percent of rural four-year-olds. Wealth is also a factor in determining attendance rates. There is strong evidence of early enrolment in primary education, particularly of four-year-olds from the richest households (25.9 percent) compared with those from the poorest households (14.0 percent). The non-attendance rate decreases from the poorest wealth quintile to the richest wealth quintile (69.0 percent compared to 47.3 percent).
- The trend of non-attendance for children aged 3–17 years in Sindh is similar to the one observed at national level (Figure 2.4). There is a considerable level of overage children in each grade. The official pre-primary age is four years but children up to nine years are attending this level; 4.7 percent of six-year-olds, 1.4 percent of seven-year-olds, 1.3 percent of eight-year-olds and 0.9 percent of nine-year-olds are enrolled in pre-primary school. Moreover, 25.8 percent of 11-year-olds and 16.1 percent of 12-year-olds are attending primary school. Children aged between nine years and 17 years are attending lower secondary school.
- The ANAR at primary level is higher than at lower secondary level (60.1 percent compared to 34.5 percent). The ANAR at primary level is 65.9 percent for boys and 53.8 percent for girls, resulting in a GPI of 0.82. The ANAR at lower secondary level is 39.4 percent for boys and 29.3 percent for girls, resulting in a GPI of 0.74. Primary ANAR is lowest for five-year-olds (38.9 percent), suggesting that many children do not start primary school at the official age; it is highest for eight-year-olds (71.8 percent). Primary ANAR is higher in urban areas than rural areas (75.0 percent compared to 49.7 percent). Primary ANAR is lowest for children from the poorest wealth quintiles (46.1 percent) and highest for children from the richest wealth quintile (77.4 percent). The primary ANAR for child labourers is 26.4 percent. At lower secondary school, the ANAR increases with age, from 22.1 percent for 10-year-olds to 47.1 percent for 12-year-olds. The lower secondary ANAR for child labourers is 11.5 percent.
- Data analysis based on the CMF estimates that at primary level over 0.8 million boys and 1.0 million girls are out of school, and at lower secondary level over 0.3 million boys and 0.4 million girls are out of school. In total, 2.6 million children of primary and lower secondary school age are out of school.
- It is estimated that in Sindh 61.1 percent of five-year-olds, 40.0 percent of six-year-olds, 33.8 percent of seven-year-olds, 28.2 percent of eight-year-olds and 33.9 percent of nine-year-olds are out of school. Of child labourers aged 5–9 years, 73.6 percent are out of school, with higher rates for boys than for girls (76.0 percent compared to 69.8 percent). Additionally, 28.7 percent of 10-year-

Figure 2.4: Percentage of children not attending school by age in Sindh



Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

of 12-year-olds are out of school. Lower-secondary-school-age children in rural areas are much more likely to be out of school than those in urban areas (52.8 percent compared to 19.6 percent). Of child labourers aged 10–12 years, 39.0 percent are out of school.

- Most child labourers aged 9–12 years in Sindh are either paid employees or unpaid family workers. However, child labourers in the poorest households are most likely to be paid employees; as household wealth increases, there is a trend towards child labourers being involved in unpaid family work.
- Over 99 percent of households with OOSC had no access to Zakat from either the public or private sector. However, 14.6 percent were able to secure a loan.
- Some 27.1 percent of children from urban areas and 46.5 percent of children from rural areas enter Grade 1 with no pre-primary education.
- Repetition rates in primary school are higher than those in lower secondary school in both urban and rural areas. The Grade 1 repetition rate for urban areas is 10.6 percent and for rural areas is 29.6 percent. However, repetition rates are generally lower in rural areas than in urban areas, except in Grade 1 and Grade 8. There is no clear pattern by wealth quintile. The dropout rate increases with grade level, at 1.0 percent for Grade 1 and 27.3 percent for Grade 8. The highest dropout is in Grade 5 in both urban and rural areas and for all wealth quintiles. Overall, the transition rates from primary to lower secondary level are generally above 90 percent.

Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

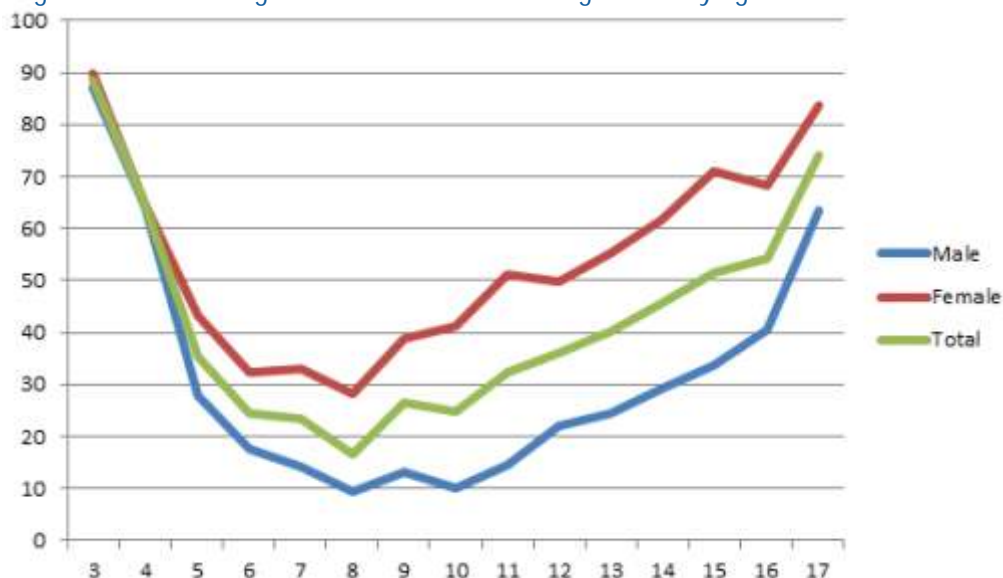
Key findings for profiling of OOSC in KP based on the CMF are presented below (see Annex 6 for the relevant tables).

- Some 64.7 percent of children aged four years in KP are not attending school. There is no gender disparity, with 64.4 percent of girls and 65.0 percent of boys out of school. Urban–rural disparity exists: 51.7 percent of urban four-year-olds are not in pre-primary or primary school compared to 66.8 percent of rural four-year-olds.

Wealth is also a considerable factor in determining attendance rates. There is strong evidence of early enrolment in primary education, particularly of four-year-olds from the richest households (9.6 percent) compared with those from the poorest households (2.4 percent). The non-attendance rate decreases from the poorest wealth quintile to the richest wealth quintile (71.4 percent compared to 55.7 percent).

- The trend of non attendance for children aged 3–17 years in KP is similar to the one observed at national level (Figure 2.5). There is significant late enrolment and hence many overage children in each grade. The official pre-primary age is four years but children up to nine years are attending this level. Such trends are observed across all age groups and grades. Children aged between three years and 17 years are attending primary school, while children aged between eight years and 17 years are attending lower secondary school. Attendance is high for children aged 7–8 years due to late enrolment, and the trend starts to reverse after the age of nine years as children begin to drop out.
- The ANAR at primary level is higher than at lower secondary level (63.0 percent compared to 30.5 percent). The ANAR at primary level is 71.1 percent for boys and 54.0 percent for girls, resulting in a GPI of 0.76. The ANAR at lower secondary level is 37.5 percent for boys and 23.2 percent for girls, resulting in a GPI of 0.62. Primary ANAR is lowest for five-year-olds (33.5 percent), suggesting that many children do not start primary school at the official age; it is highest for eight-year-olds (82.1 percent). Primary ANAR is higher in urban areas than rural areas (71.8 percent compared to 61.4 percent). Primary ANAR is lowest for children from the poorest wealth quintiles (52.6 percent) and highest for children from the richest wealth quintile (71.8 percent). The primary ANAR for child labourers is 29.6 percent. At lower secondary school, the ANAR increases with age from 12.4 percent for 10-year-olds to 45.9 percent for 12-year-olds. Urban ANAR is higher than rural ANAR and the disparity is more pronounced for girls than for boys. The lower secondary ANAR for child labourers is 1.1 percent.

Figure 2.4: Percentage of children not attending school by age in Sindh



Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

- Data analysis based on the CMF estimates that at primary level nearly 0.5 million boys and over 0.6 million girls are out of school, and at lower secondary level over 0.1 million boys and 0.3 million girls are out of school. In total, 1.5 million children of primary and lower secondary school age are out of school.
- It is estimated that in KP 66.5 percent of five-year-olds, 39.8 percent of six-year-olds, 29.7 percent of seven-year-olds, 18.0 percent of eight-year-olds and 27.3 percent of nine-year-olds are out of school. Of child labourers aged 5–9 years, 70.4 percent are out of school, with higher rates for girls than boys (77.1 percent compared to 60.6 percent). Additionally, 24.9 percent of 10-year-olds, 32.4 percent of 11-year-olds and 36.2 percent of 12-year-olds are out of school. Of child labourers aged 10–12 years, 63.6 percent are out of school.
- Child labour is a critical issue in KP. Boys aged 9–12 years who are out of school are more likely to be child labourers than their female counterparts. OOSC in rural areas are more likely than those in urban areas to be child labourers. The percentage of OOSC involved in child labour decreases as the wealth quintile increases: poorer households are more likely to have OOSC involved in child labour than richer households.
- Most child labourers aged 9–12 years in KP are either paid employees or unpaid family workers. However, child labourers in the poorest households are most likely to be paid employees; as wealth increases, there is a trend towards child labourers being involved in unpaid family work.
- Access to social protection is limited. Only 2.4 percent of households with OOSC receive Zakat from either the public or private sector. However, 51.9 percent were able to secure a loan.
- Only 3.0 percent of children from both urban and

rural areas enter Grade 1 with no pre-primary education.

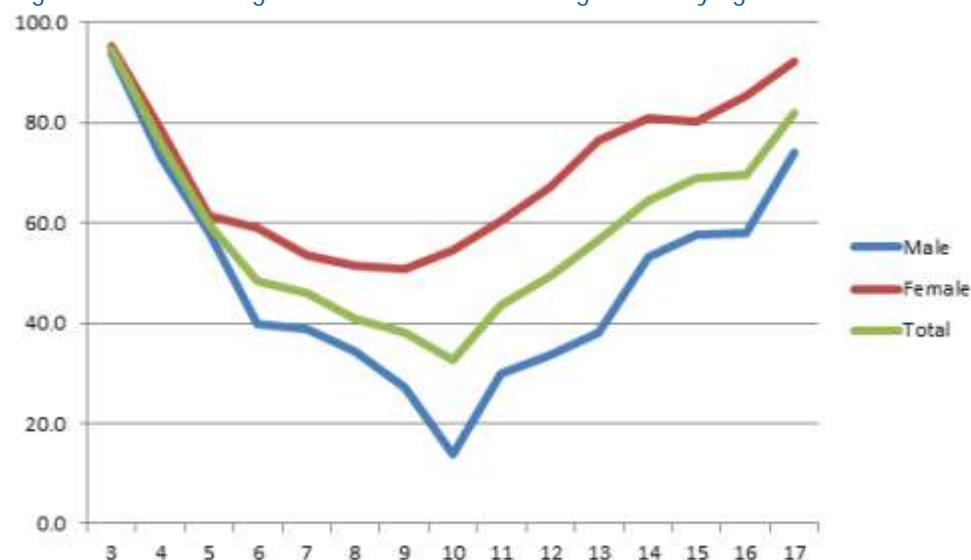
- Repetition rates in primary school are higher than those in lower secondary school in both urban and rural areas. The Grade 1 repetition rate is 3.6 percent. Repetition rates are generally higher in rural areas than in urban areas, except in Grade 5. There is no clear pattern by wealth quintile. The dropout rate increases with grade level, at 1.8 percent for Grade 1, 31.0 percent for Grade 5 and 20.1 percent for Grade 8. Overall, the transition rates from primary to lower secondary level are generally above 90 percent for each disaggregation.

Balochistan

Key findings for profiling of OOSC in Balochistan based on the CMF are presented below (see Annex 7 for the relevant tables).

- Some 75.7 percent of children aged four years in Balochistan are not attending school. There is little gender disparity, with 73.2 percent of girls and 78.5 percent of boys out of school. Urban–rural disparity exists: 60.8 percent of urban four-year-olds are not in pre-primary or primary school compared to 79.9 percent of rural four-year-olds. Wealth is also a considerable factor in determining attendance rates. There is strong evidence of early enrolment in primary education, particularly of four-year-olds from the richest households (27.5 percent) compared with those from the poorest households (11.6 percent). The non-attendance rate decreases from the poorest wealth quintile to the richest wealth quintile (81.4 percent compared to 53.1 percent).
- The trend of non attendance for children aged 3–17 years in Balochistan is similar to the one observed

Figure 2.6: Percentage of children not attending school by age in Balochistan



Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

- The ANAR at primary level is higher than at lower secondary level (52.2 percent compared to 24.1 percent). The ANAR at primary level is 59.6 percent for boys and 43.4 percent for girls, resulting in a GPI of 0.73. The ANAR at lower secondary level is 29.3 percent for boys and 17.9 percent for girls, resulting in a GPI of 0.69. Primary ANAR is lowest for five-year-olds (35.9 percent), suggesting that many children do not start primary school at the official age; it is highest for nine-year-olds (61.6 percent). Primary ANAR is higher in urban areas than rural areas (69.3 percent compared to 46.5 percent). Primary ANAR is lowest for children from the poorest wealth quintile (40.1 percent) and highest for children from the richest wealth quintile (77.0 percent). The primary ANAR for child labourers is 7.0 percent. At lower secondary school, the ANAR increases with age, from 13.7 percent for 10-year-olds to 33.8 percent for 12-year-olds. Urban ANAR is higher than rural ANAR and the disparity is more pronounced for girls than for boys. The lower secondary ANAR for child labourers is 0.5 percent.
- Data analysis based on the CMF estimates that at primary level over 0.2 million boys and nearly 0.3 million girls are out of school, and at lower secondary level over 70,000 boys and 0.1 million girls are out of school. In total, over 0.7 million children of primary and lower secondary school age are out of school.
- It is estimated that in Balochistan 64.1 percent of five-year-olds, 50.6 percent of six-year-olds, 46.2 percent of seven-year-olds, 40.8 percent of eight-year-olds and 38.4 percent of nine-year-olds are out of school. Of child labourers aged 5–9 years, 93.0 percent are out of school, with higher rates for boys than girls (97.7 percent compared to 81.4 percent). Additionally, 32.7 percent of 10-year-olds, 43.4 percent of 11-year-olds and 49.6 percent of 12-year-olds are out of school. Of child labourers aged 10–12 years, 97.8 percent are out of school.
- Most child labourers aged 9–12 years in Balochistan are either paid employees or unpaid family workers. However, child labourers in the poorest households are most likely to be paid employees; as wealth increases, there is a trend towards child labourers being involved in unpaid family work.
- More than 99 percent of households with OOSC have no access to Zakat from either the public or private sector. Only 11.1 percent were able to secure a loan.
- Some 40.0 percent of children from urban areas and 47.0 percent of children from rural areas enter Grade 1 with no pre-primary education.
- Repetition rates in primary school are higher than those in lower secondary school in both urban and rural areas. The Grade 1 repetition rate is 9.0 percent. Repetition rates are generally lower in rural areas than in urban areas, except in Grade 1, Grade 5 and Grade 6. There is no clear pattern by wealth quintile. The dropout rate increases with grade level, at 2.2 percent for Grade 1, 38.3 percent for Grade 5 and 33.2 percent for Grade 8. The transition rate from primary to lower secondary level is 95.8 percent for boys and 88.4 percent for girls.

CHAPTER 3 : BARRIERS AND BOTTLENECKS



This chapter investigates the reasons for children not being in school at different levels of the education cycle, and also the reasons they tend to drop out or not transition to the next level. At each dimension, as the age and level of education of the child changes, different barriers and bottlenecks become relevant and some weigh more heavily than others. By studying all the relevant contributing factors, analysing the profiles from the preceding chapter and drawing from various secondary resources, the most pertinent and plausible barriers and bottlenecks affecting OOSC are identified.

3.1 Demand-side socio-cultural barriers and bottlenecks

3.1.1 *Lack of awareness on the importance of education*

An important demand-side socio-cultural barrier is the lack of awareness among some parents and communities of the importance of education. This is especially relevant for ECE, where even educators are not always aware of the benefits of pre-primary education as a preparation for transitioning to formal primary education. This results in the late induction of children into pre-primary school, which delays the progression of children through formal primary and secondary school. Some children also enrol directly in primary school, skipping pre-primary education. The presence of these children has implications later in the education cycle, with overage children more likely to drop out of primary or secondary school than other children (i.e., children in Dimensions 4 and 5). Lack of awareness about the importance of ECE and the need to enrol children at the correct age are issues that are particularly common in rural communities and high poverty areas. This barrier mostly affects children in Dimension 1.

3.1.2 *Attitudes to gender*

Parental attitudes to education are also apparent in the gender disparities found in attendance rates for boys and girls at both primary and lower secondary levels. These gender differentials can be partly attributed to the socio-cultural context of Pakistani society that is predominantly patriarchal. As women in Pakistani society are not viewed in the role of producers or providers, they lack social value and status. Male members of the family are given better education and are equipped with skills to compete for resources in the public arena, while female members are taught domestic skills in order to fulfil their

reproductive roles as wives and mothers (Khan, 2007). As girls grow older, primacy is given to their domestic duties and, since women are unlikely to work in the future, families see no real need to educate them beyond primary level. A powerful aspect of this socio-cultural situation is the perpetuation of patriarchal norms by women: women in general have internalized the patriarchal ideology and play an instrumental role in transferring and recreating it during socialization of their children (Zafar, 2010).

An ideological demarcation between private and public space is maintained through the notion of *izzat* (honour) and the institution of *purdah* (covering). Since women's sexual behaviour can be considered unacceptable within society, it is strictly controlled in order to protect the honour of the family. This means that women's mobility is severely restricted through *purdah*, segregation of the sexes, and violence against them. In the more feudal and tribal parts of the country, fear of honour killing keeps girls confined to the home. As girls grow older, the barriers associated with gender become stronger: once they reach sexual maturity, they face harsher social restrictions on mobility. For these reasons, girls in Dimensions 3 and 5 are strongly affected by factors such as distance to school, the presence of female teachers, single-sex schooling and a secure school environment, which are important issues for female enrolment (ADB, 2000).

However, there is substantial evidence from independent studies that the nature and degree of women's subordination varies across regions, classes and the rural–urban divide. Patriarchal structures are stronger in rural and tribal settings, where local customs establish male authority and power over women's lives. In remote communities, tribal laws dictate women's fate; they can even be bought and sold or exchanged in marriage. Women are given limited opportunities to create choices that enable them to take control of their lives (Zafar, 2010). Girls in all dimensions are affected by gender norms surrounding women's place in society but they impact children in Dimensions 3, 4 and 5 the most, as older girls are removed from school when parents' attitudes begin to determine that girls' behaviour requires 'control' or 'restriction'.

3.1.3 *Early or forced marriage*

Girls older than 10 years become vulnerable to early or forced marriage. In Pakistan, 24 percent of children aged less than 18 years are married (UNICEF, 2011b).

In most rural and remote communities, girls are promised in marriage at an early age and, although they might not move to their husband's residence until a later age, their activities and mobility become severely restricted. In many cases, the husband and in-laws have a great influence over the girl's life, so early marriage acts a serious deterrent to girls' transition from primary to secondary education (Planning Commission, 2010).

Girls in Dimensions 3, 4 and 5 are most affected by early marriage, as they are unable to complete their basic education, especially in transitioning from primary to secondary school.

3.1.4 Sexual harassment

Sexual harassment becomes a far weightier concern as children reach adolescence, especially in Pakistan where sexual harassment is likely to go unreported and children are not provided with an education or support structure to fight against it. Adolescent girls are particularly vulnerable to rape and abduction. A report by UNFPA states that the most vulnerable age for sexual harassment/abuse is 10–18 years for girls (77 percent) and 5–10 years for boys (32 percent) (UNFPA, 2000). If parents feel that children are at risk of sexual harassment, they might opt to remove them from school, precipitating their dropout. Fear of sexual harassment/abuse at school or in the community means parents will be most protective of children, especially girls, in Dimensions 3 and 5.

3.1.5 Parental attitudes for boys

Societal gender norms also impact boys. There is an expectation that sons will start earning a living at a certain age, especially if they come from impoverished homes with a large family. Therefore, as boys grow older, the opportunity costs associated with continuing their education increase and can cause a shift in parental attitudes. This barrier especially affects older boys in Dimensions 3 and 5.

3.1.6 Home environment

Another socio-cultural barrier to education is the absence of a home environment conducive to

schooling. In rural areas, it is highly probable that all adult members of a family are employed in long hours of rural labour and have little or no education themselves, so there will be no one responsible for supervising children's continuing education.

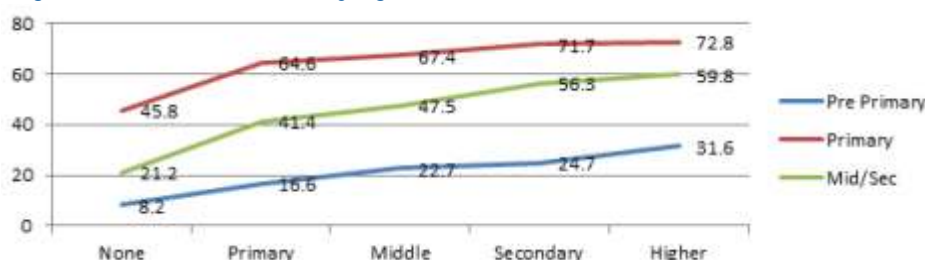
Nomadic tribes exist in Pakistan in both rural and urban areas, from those grazing cattle in remote rural areas to those begging in cities and other urban environments. Nomadic children are particularly at risk of never enrolling in school or dropping out early. In addition, children in poverty-stricken homes often find that their families migrate frequently in search of better labour opportunities or are displaced due to floods or other major problems, constantly uprooting them from school.

This issue affects children of all ages in all dimensions, as it may prevent them from being enrolled in school as well as result in them dropping out.

3.1.7 Mother's literacy level

Studies suggest that households with an educated mother are more likely to value education and place greater importance on children completing their schooling, perhaps because a literate woman is more empowered and has higher bargaining power at home. Therefore, mother's level of education can be used as a proxy for household environment (SAFED, 2011). Data from MICS Punjab, MICS Sindh and ASER 2010 show a strong correlation between mother's education and net attendance rate (NAR). In Figure 3.1, MICS Punjab 2007/08 data show the variation of NAR for children through pre-primary to secondary education against literacy level of the mother. The NAR for children aged 3–4 years who are attending pre-primary school rises from 8.2 percent to 31.6 percent as the mother's education increases. A similar steep rise is noted in primary NAR, with an increase from 45.8 percent to 72.8 percent as mother's education increases, and in secondary NAR with an increase from 21.2 percent to 59.8 percent. Although not plotted here, mother's education level was more significant for girls than for boys. Children in Dimensions 1, 2 and 3 from families with poorly educated mothers are

Figure 3.1: Mother's literacy against NAR at various educational levels



Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

3.1.8 Health and nutrition

The PSLM-HIES and MICS show that children with a compromised immune system or severe malnutrition are not only unlikely to start school but also fail to perform well in school. Underweight in children suggests acute malnutrition and stunting suggests chronic malnutrition. According to the Punjab MICS 2007/08, 34 percent of under-fives are moderately or severely underweight, 42 percent are severely or moderately stunted, and 13 percent are severely or moderately wasted (Punjab Bureau of Statistics, 2009). According to the Sindh MICS 2003/04, 40 percent were underweight for their age, and prevalence was greater in rural areas than urban areas (45 percent compared to 30 percent) (Sindh Planning and Development Department, 2005). Children in rural areas are also more likely to be stunted than children in urban areas. These findings are correlated with lower attendance rates in pre-primary for children from rural areas than from urban areas. From these statistics, it can be inferred that malnourishment is a serious problem for small children and a contributing factor to the lower attendance rates of children from rural areas. Children in Dimensions 1 and 2 are most affected by health and nutrition issues.

3.1.9 Trafficking

Studies have shown that those most vulnerable to prostitution and trafficking are pre-pubescent and pubescent children from underprivileged backgrounds, living in unsafe communities with high crime rates. A study in 2008 estimated that more than 150,000 children live on the streets in urban areas (SPARC, 2008). One way to ensure that children's rights are adequately protected is through birth registration, as it ensures legal guardianship and an address. According to the Punjab MICS 2007/08, 77 percent of under-fives are birth registered, with the level falling as low as 20–40 percent in some remote districts (Punjab Bureau of Statistics, 2009). Along with more stringent law enforcement against child prostitution and trafficking, higher rates of birth registration would help to ensure that children were properly protected and could access education. Children in Dimensions 3 and 5 are most likely to be trafficked; however, birth

registration is an important protection factor for children in Dimensions 1, 2 and 4 as well.

3.2 Demand-side economic barriers and bottlenecks

3.2.1 Costs of schooling

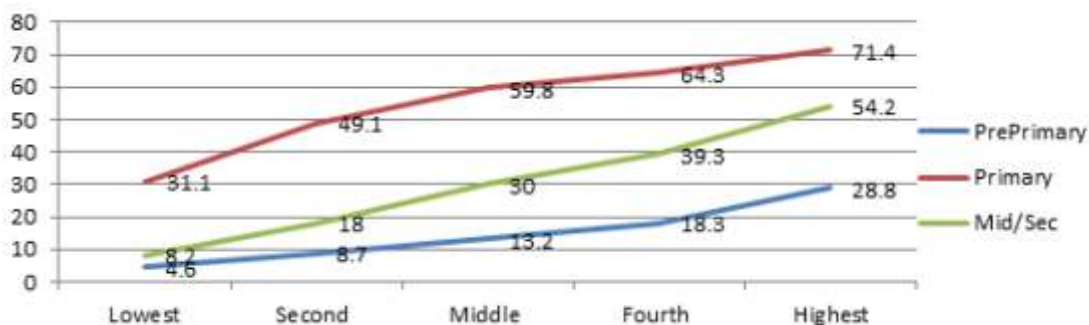
The cost of schooling can act as a barrier to education; furthermore, as the level of education increases both the direct and indirect costs also rise. Direct costs include expenditure on school materials, examination fees, and transportation. Indirect costs include the opportunity cost of a child's time—a child could be earning an income rather than spending time at school, so this implies the household is losing income by educating a child. Another indirect cost is incurred in monitoring female mobility—as girls grow older they need guardianship and protection to be mobile, which implies the cost of an adult's time to take the child back and forth to school.

There are no school fees in the public sector at pre-primary level. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that household income would not be a major barrier. Yet in Punjab, the NAR for pre-primary children increase sharply from 4.6 percent for the lowest wealth quintile to 28.8 percent for the highest (Figure 3.2). However, this correlation does not necessarily imply causation. Households sending their children to preschool could be doing so not solely because they have more income at their disposal but because they are more educated or may have a greater awareness of the importance of pre-primary education; so this correlation might be due to a third external factor. Moreover, rich households are more likely to live in areas with pre-primary schools such as urban areas.

Primary education is also free; nevertheless, households do experience direct and indirect costs that have a differing impact depending on household income.

Secondary education is free too, although there are still many direct and indirect costs. In fact, the lower number of secondary schools and the greater subject specialization make the direct costs in terms of

Figure 3.2: Wealth quintile against NAR at various educational levels



Source: MICS Punjab 2007/08.

transportation and school materials higher. Furthermore, older children have higher opportunity and social costs; hence, household income becomes more relevant as the level of education rises (UNESCO, 2010).

The expense of education has a strong impact on dropout at lower secondary level, especially for urban children. The urban–rural disparity in dropout due to the cost of education may be because schools in urban areas often charge a nominal fee for their 'more developed' facilities or because many households in urban centres also use private tuition that adds to the cost of education. In rural areas, although the cost of education is also an issue, other problems are more pertinent.

Children in all five dimensions are affected by the cost of schooling; however, it becomes greater for older children in Dimensions 3 and 5.

3.2.2 Child labour

Child labour is a highly relevant demand-side economic barrier, particularly for children in secondary education. Opportunity costs when measured against the cost of education, the quality of education and a household's livelihood concerns are a significant deterrent to education.

The literature supplies various explanations of why children go to work rather than attend school. Some key supply-side factors include, but are not limited to, the educational attainment of household members, the employment status of parents, the size and composition of the household, the source of household income, etc. The Situation Analysis of Women and Children 2011 developed by UNICEF suggests that the probability of a child leaving home to live and work on the streets is greater for the fourth or fifth born (UNICEF, 2012). As family size increases, income insufficiency leads to poverty that forces children to leave home, drop out of school, and work to make a living.

Demand-side factors are those beyond the ambit of a household's decision-making process. Demand usually comes in the form of children being required to assist their family in work on farmland or small-scale production where cheap child labour substitutes for more expensive adult labour, or through involvement in self-employment activities, or in circumstances where the engagement of children frees up adults to take on better opportunities, especially where adults migrate to cities or even abroad. Annex 3 details regression analysis and economic modelling aimed at assessing the determinants of child labour and schooling in Pakistan. The key findings on child labour are as follows.

- The probability of child labour increases if the mother of the household is working. Moreover, the impact is different for boys and girls. Daughters of working mothers are 2.3 times more likely to engage in child labour than the sons of working mothers.
- Higher educational attainment of mothers reduces the incidence of child labour. Sons of literate mothers are 7.3 percent less likely to become child labourers than sons of illiterate mothers. Similarly, daughters of literate mothers are also less likely to become child labourers. Moreover, as the educational attainment level of the household head increases, the likelihood of child labour falls, hence increasing the probability of children attending school.
- The results suggest that as the age of the child increases, his/her likelihood of leaving education and entering labour also increases. Moreover, the probability of a child going to work and leaving school significantly increases where the household head is self-employed, or engaged in agriculture or manufacturing.
- The data also provided significant evidence that girls are 10 percent less likely to go to work than boys.

The key findings on schooling are as follows.

- The sons of working mothers are 5.6 percent less likely to go to school and the daughters are 3.2 percent less likely to go to school.
- Mother's education has a much stronger impact on the schooling of girls than of boys. Specifically, a mother's education is 7.0 percent more effective at putting girls in schools than boys. Moreover, the probability of boys and girls attending school increases with the educational attainment level of the household head. The probability of enrolment in female-headed households is 11.6 percent more than in male-headed households, indicating the importance of a mother's education.
- Consistent with the results for child labour, the analysis suggests that as the age of a child increases the chance of being in school decreases.

The impact of adult and child wages on child labour and a household's decision to send its children to school was also tested (see Annex 3). Theoretically, one would expect that low market wages should lead to more child labour and less schooling. However, the results were as follows.

- Adult market wages do not influence the child labour of boys. However, at the same time, an increase in adult wages results in lower child labour for girls. These results support the view that the child labour of boys may be strongly influenced by

customs, social traditions and cultural norms where market forces do not influence a household's decision to put the child to work. On the other hand, the child labour of girls is strongly influenced by market forces where increased adult wages lower the demand for child labour.

- When the analysis is done for schooling, the results suggest that adult market wages have a strong positive impact on the probability of schooling of both boys and girls. Working mothers have a negative impact, while literate mothers have a positive impact on the schooling of both boys and girls. The household head's level of education continues to have the strongest influence on child labour and the schooling of boys and girls.

Children in Dimensions 3 and 5 are particularly affected by child labour.

3.3 Supply-side barriers and bottlenecks

Children in all dimensions are vulnerable to supply-side barriers and bottlenecks in Pakistan, as these types of barrier both prevent families from enrolling their children in school and cause children already in school to drop out.

3.3.1 Supply of schools

Traditionally, children in pre-primary sit in a multi-grade classroom, sharing the space, materials and teacher's time with students of Grades 1 and 2. The teacher allocates a portion of his/her time in teaching pre-primary students (Mohiuddin, 2008). Although the Pakistan Education Statistics 2008–09 do not provide data on pre-primary schools in the public sector because no standalone pre-primary schools exist, some 7,627,642 children are enrolled at pre-primary level, with 56.4 percent in public schools and 43.6 percent in private schools (AEPAM, 2009). Anecdotal evidence suggests that the undersupply of schools with pre-primary places results in children needing to travel long distances to learning facilities; parents are therefore reluctant to send them.

The undersupply of primary schools acts as a supply-side bottleneck to primary-school-age children too, as children have to travel long distances to school.

3.3.2 School infrastructure

A major contributor to the school environment and the quality of education is physical infrastructure. Of 127,503 public primary schools, 12.5 percent do not have a building, 67 percent have no electricity, 37.5 percent have no access to drinking water, 39 percent have no latrines for students, and 40 percent have no boundary wall (AEPAM, 2009). Of schools with a building, only 39 percent are satisfactory; the condition of the remainder ranges from minor repairs

required to dangerous. The absence of basic facilities gives an idea of how unfavourable the learning environment is for children. Such conditions not only discourage children from coming to school but also give parents serious concern regarding the safety and well-being of their children (Zafar, 2010). The damage caused to schools during the flood emergency required the setting up of temporary schools in several districts; however, not all communities benefited (see Annex 2).

3.3.3 Teacher supply

Data do not exist on the number of pre-primary teachers; however, the majority of teachers catering to this age group are multi-grade teachers, not specifically trained for pre-primary (AEPAM, 2009). The undersupply of teachers specifically trained for pre-primary is evidenced by the fact that since 2002 the NCHD has provided teachers to feeder schools and government schools located in communities with pre-primary classes.

3.3.4 Curriculum and textbooks

Pre-primary teaching in government schools is based on the ECE curriculum developed in 2001 and relies on the standard pre-primary textbook (the qaida); this is usually the only form of learning material available in pre-primary classes. Although other learning and training materials have been created for teachers and students, they are not always widely published or disseminated and have yet to find their way into government schools (Mohiuddin, 2008). Various kinds of pre-primary teaching and learning aids such as blocks, charts, posters, handbooks, flashcards, teachers' guides, planners, teachers' kits, etc. have been developed by several NGOs.

The curriculum and textbooks for primary education are crucial for developing foundational skills and catering to the learning needs of children. The curriculum currently used does not promote gender equality or inclusion of minorities; it has an urban and class bias and encourages rote learning. It is also devoid of reference to locally relevant information. A new national primary curriculum, launched in 2006, is yet to be fully implemented.

3.3.5 Quality of education

If the quality of education is poor, parents have no real motivation for sending their children to school and children tend to drop out early. A common reason for children dropping out of primary school is 'unwillingness to go to school', which implies that the education system is not stimulating, possibly due to a substandard curriculum, lack of teachers' capacity, teacher absenteeism, unfavourable school environment and/or abuse.

School quality and its associated infrastructure are postulated to have an important role in increasing school attendance. There is also an expectation that school quality positively affects test scores and grade repetition. Literature provides evidence to show that better school infrastructure has a positive impact on schooling outcomes especially on school enrolment, attendance, transition rates and child test scores. Specific data for Pakistan suggest the following.

- On average, the state of infrastructure appears to be poorer in middle schools than in primary schools and in girls' schools than in boys' schools.
- Schools with better infrastructure and better teacher quality continue to increase demand for education both for boys and girls. Moreover, the estimated coefficients indicate that improvement in either infrastructure or teacher quality has a generally more powerful effect on primary schools than on secondary schools.

3.4 Political, governance, capacity and financial barriers and bottlenecks

Political, governance, capacity and financial barriers and bottlenecks affect the smooth functioning of the education system and impact children in all dimensions by reducing the effectiveness of schooling, causing both non-enrolment of children in school as well as their dropout.

3.4.1 Issues in governance, capacity and management at the school level

The school as an administrative unit suffers from a variety of management issues. The authority of the School Management Committee (SMC), especially in the management of teachers, remains ambiguous. SMCs operate with varying degrees of effectiveness. There are many reports of SMCs being subjected to harmful interference by district governments in general and by union *nazimeen* in particular (Indus Resource Centre, 2003). For the most part, the responsibility for hiring, firing and transfer of teachers technically comes under the purview of the district government, as does the appointment of the head-teacher. In this sense, with the decision for teacher appointment and transfer still a political one, the desired local engagement that was intended by empowering the SMC has not been achieved. Since the level of illiteracy in communities is high, it is likely that most SMC members are illiterate parents; therefore, teachers do not take them seriously and this further undermines their authority. The appointment

of the chair of the SMC may also be politically motivated, and is made either by the head-teacher or the district *nazimeen* instead of being elected democratically by the SMC members themselves. Furthermore, most schools do not have a head-teacher, and those who are appointed as head-teacher do not receive specific training in what this role entails. Beyond this, the lack of monitoring and the underutilization of scholarships and incentives for teachers affect the quality of teaching and teacher supply.

3.4.2 Issues for schooling at the community and household level

Communities also acknowledge various barriers to education. In the Punjab district of Muzaffargarh, major barriers identified by communities were large family size, poverty, unemployment, shortage of schools, mobility issues for girls, inadequate school facilities, lack of interest on the part of teachers, and poor quality of teaching (see Annex 2). These reasons were also given by households with OOSC, and school quality was defined further in terms of teachers' attitudes and absenteeism. Most households expressed a demand for stipends for boys, although no stipends were even being given to girls in these communities. However, textbooks and, at times, other school items were provided free of cost. A few cases of disability or early marriage also contributed to the number of OOSC.

Floods have destroyed many schools in Punjab and Sindh, and have displaced millions of people over the years, sometimes repeatedly. Most households in flood-affected communities received some external financial support (PKR 20,000) in the form of Watan Cards¹³ but there was no clarity on what the money was spent on; 22 percent used it for rebuilding houses and seven percent bought food. Very few households mentioned spending on education, which might be because all households in flood-affected communities reported having access to a government school for both boys and girls. In the Sindh district of Shikarpur, major barriers included large family size, poverty, and unemployment, shortage of schools, mobility issues especially for girls, inadequate school facilities, teacher absenteeism and poor quality of teaching. Shortage of lower secondary schools was cited as a reason for the low levels of transition from primary schools. In general, community expectations from education were minimal; most saw it as providing reading and writing skills and some consciousness of citizenship by 'becoming a good Muslim'. For boys, the intent of education included obtaining a government

¹³Watan Cards are a scheme for the rehabilitation of flood survivors; PKR 20,000 has been distributed to each family affected by the floods. The National Database and Registration Authority (NADRA) issued Watan Cards to survivors, who received the PKR 20,000 from special NADRA counters using the cards.

job, setting up business, and improving social status; and for girls, it was to improve marriage options. For flood-affected communities, external support was unreliable: the Watan Card provided support to 90 percent of households and the Benazir Income Support Programme to 15 percent. Most of the PKR 20,000 cash was spent on food and some on health; the rest was spent on house repairs, business and other urgent needs (see Annex 2).

3.4.3 District-level management and governance issues

Districts do not have the institutional capacity or human capital to undertake their new responsibilities since devolution. Executive District Officers (Education) are responsible for planning, budgeting and teacher transfer, while the main responsibilities of District Education Officers include overall supervision of schools and conducting official inquiries related to teachers and head-teachers. Given the scale of responsibilities, the requisite institutional capacity and framework has not been developed at the district level to allow for the smooth running of District Education Departments. In addition, although most Executive District Officers (Education) and District Education Officers hold a Master's degree, only some have received management training from AEPAM or other training institutions. Since district officers are not adequately trained for their new responsibilities, provincial officers are unwilling to devolve control to the districts (Shah, 2009). Although districts are entrusted with the task of monitoring the quality of education, district education management information systems (EMIS) do not have the technical skills or capacity to do this. Even though district EMIS are functional, they are confined to conducting the annual school census and maintaining a database on public schools; they do not compute district or school-level indicators due to lack of skills.

3.4.4 Provincial and federal management and governance issues

Following the 18th Amendment to the Constitution in 2010, education has been moved from the concurrent list and is now entirely the responsibility of provinces. However, a major bottleneck to the management and governance of the education system is the existence of three tiers of service: public, private and *madrasah*. No policy exists on provision of education by the non-public sector, and there is no balanced regulatory framework that ensures compliance with standards, so non-public provision is unregulated. This makes it difficult for provincial governments to manage education quality, access and uniformity.

Over the decades, the inability of the public sector to match increasing demand as well as provide quality

education has largely contributed to the growth of private educational enterprises (Andrabi *et al.*, 2008). The private sector is estimated to account for around 33 percent of education provision (I-SAPS, 2010); and although it fills a gap left by the public sector, it does create a social divide. A small but important component of the private sector caters to the elite, thereby increasing exclusivity. The absence of appropriate regulatory oversight to ensure the effective and efficient performance of private educational enterprises can lead to market failure and further worsen issues of inequity.

Deeni madrasahs are privately managed and highly pro-poor, but offer a curriculum that lies outside the mainstream and is of questionable quality. The curriculum and qualification structures do not give a clear idea of their equivalence with public sector qualifications, which creates further division in quality across the different tiers of education.

This lack of clarity and non-regulation of non-public provision of education presents a major barrier to provincial governments in managing equity, access and quality within the education system.

Finally, the manner in which public finance is planned and managed for the education sector has exacerbated the challenges related to access, quality and equity. The scope of the policy debate in the country has been narrow, chiefly focusing on low spending on education and failure of the system to absorb the meagre resources that are available. Very often, reference is made to insufficient budgetary allocation, low spending due to poor management and problems related to fiscal flow, poor governance and leakage, huge administrative expenditure, and poor oversight.

3.4.5 Lack of political commitment and budgetary spending

Analysis of the education budget reveals that the federal education budget was reduced by 13 percent in 2010/11; this goes against the commitment made in the National Education Policy 2009 that the education budget will be increased to seven percent of GDP by 2015. Similarly, in 2009/10, provincial allocations were reduced compared to the previous year. This lower spending indicates a declining political commitment to education, which is resulting in continual reductions in the percentage share of education in the total budget at federal and provincial levels.

Furthermore, analysis shows that allocated resources are not being optimally utilized to address society's educational needs due to a weak connection between education data and budget-making and the poor capacity of education managers to develop and utilize

gender-effective budgets. Both overspending and under-spending is indicative of poor planning and management at provincial and federal levels. One reason for this is the sharp difference in functional classification of budgets; although the classification of federal and provincial budgets is identical at the aggregate level, where the total education budget is a sum of current and development budgets, neither federal nor provincial budgets agree on the items that make up these categories. An analysis of federal and provincial budgets highlights issues such as low share of education budget for development projects, overall higher share of salary for current budget, and underutilization of allocated budget. Finally, missing budget lines, delays in fiscal transfers, and lack of transparency are other problems that continue to have deleterious effects on the education sector's financing (I-SAPS, 2010).

3.5 Analytical summary

At each dimension, children's circumstances may change and particular barriers can become more relevant. Furthermore, gender, the urban–rural divide and household wealth may exacerbate certain barriers and bottlenecks as a child's age increases. Barriers and bottlenecks pertaining to governance, institutional capacity, budget and utilization of resources are generally relevant to all dimensions; however, the policy prescriptions and consequent strategies that need to be implemented must be tailored to the specific needs of each dimension and its risk profile.

3.5.1 Dimension 1: OOSC of pre-primary school age

The major barriers faced by children in Dimension 1 tend to be supply-side and include an inadequate supply of classes (particularly in rural areas), poor school infrastructure, a lack of trained teachers, poor teacher training, and a lack of pre-primary teaching–learning materials. Policy on pre-primary education is weak, suffering from a both lack of endorsement by the government and a lack of ownership by the community.

3.5.2 Dimension 2: OOSC of primary school age

For children in Dimension 2, the major barriers and bottlenecks are again supply-side, relating to education quality in terms of a lack of teachers, a lack of appropriate teacher training, and weak implementation of curriculum reforms. As children grow older, issues such as child labour, sexual abuse, corporal punishment and the opportunity costs of education surface.

3.5.3 Dimension 3: OOSC of lower secondary school age

For children in Dimension 3, gender is a decisive barrier, especially for girls as they grow older and start to mature sexually. For many children, the socio-cultural pressures associated with gender demand that girls discontinue their education to take on household responsibilities and boys leave school to become economically active. Girls at this age are also vulnerable to early or forced marriage. Supply-side barriers at this age also increase the opportunity costs of schooling for boys and girls.

3.5.4 Dimension 4: Children at risk of dropping out of primary school

Children in Dimension 4 are most likely to drop out early in the primary education cycle because they are not adequately prepared by effective pre-primary education or later when they should be transitioning to secondary level. There are large numbers of overage children in all grades of primary school; these children are extremely vulnerable to dropout. Supply-side barriers such as ineffective teaching methodologies, irrelevant curriculum and harsh punishment all push children of this age into dropping out. As children grow older, demand-side barriers associated with gender and child labour start to impact children's attendance at primary school.

3.5.5 Dimension 5: Children at risk of dropping out of lower secondary school

Children in Dimension 5 are most likely to drop out of school because of factors associated with gender and economic activity. Families who require their labour at home and see little point in continuing their education pull girls out of school, and boys are pulled out in order to start contributing to family incomes. Distance to school increases for many children of this age, as there are far fewer secondary schools than primary schools. This particularly impacts girls who experience restricted mobility and heightened security concerns at this age. Early or forced marriage can also lead to girls dropping out. Supply-side barriers that affect the quality of education also push children out of school. Corporal punishment becomes more severe as children grow older.



CHAPTER 4 : POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

This chapter on policies, strategies and interventions creates a link between the profiles of OOSC and the bottlenecks and barriers to education. It analyses the various responses to Pakistan's educational and social protection needs by government, non-profit, private and donor agencies, shedding light on the situation since the 18th Amendment to the Constitution in April 2010 gave greater autonomy to provinces to manage education in their region. Human resource development is a priority area for the Government of Pakistan, and several education-related policies and programmes have been launched to meet this need. The main national policy documents for education are the National Education Policy (NEP) 2009 and the Education Sector Reforms (ESR). Achievement of universal primary education has been one of the main reasons behind the establishment of several institutions such as the NCHD and the national and provincial education foundations, and their strategies will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

4.1 Demand-side socio-cultural policies and strategies

4.1.1 Gender

All major policy documents for Pakistan's education sector such as the NEP and ESR focus on socio-cultural factors impacting the demand for female education.

Pakistan is a signatory to various international commitments including the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. The government has also prepared a National Plan of Action and a National Policy for the Development and Empowerment of Women. Despite these national and international commitments, gender-related gaps in education have not decreased substantially. The Gender Reform Action Plan seeks to address gender gaps through reform at national and provincial levels. Similarly, the goal of the Gender in Education Policy Support Project is to accelerate progress towards gender parity and equality at all levels of education by 2015. In order to contribute to the achievement of this goal, the project aims to improve policy-making and management for gender parity and equality in education.

The NEP requires that to ensure universal primary education there should be an increase in the attendance of girls at lower secondary level. Greater

numbers of schools are needed to increase access and reduce the distance girls have to travel from home to school, since as girls reach adolescence there are increased restrictions on their social mobility and distance from schools is a major barrier to their education. School construction in many parts of Sindh and Punjab has followed these guidelines. Communities are scattered in many areas and population density is very low; consequently, it is not possible to place single-sex public schools, especially at the lower secondary level, in every rural community. At the primary level, this issue has been addressed to some extent by the creation of co-educational and NCHD feeder schools. NCHD feeder schools utilize community spaces to educate pre-primary and primary-school-age children who do not have access to education. NCHD is responsible for setting the curriculum as well as training and employing local teachers and, since these schools require no expenditure on infrastructure, they effectively bridge the gap in supply and demand for education in certain communities. Although one of the ESR strategies is to convert all primary schools to co-educational institutions with a boy-to-girl ratio of 60:40, this is yet to be fully implemented. At the lower secondary level however, parents are more wary of the idea of mixed schools. They are not confident about the safety and well-being of their daughters, especially in rural communities with repressive social norms for women.

Gender stereotyping in textbooks and the curriculum has been reviewed and efforts are underway to ensure a rights-based gender-sensitive portrayal of girls and women to help change negative perceptions related to female education.

The government has been unable to come up with an effective policy response to combat cultural attitudes towards early female marriage. The Child Marriage Restraint Act of 1929 defines the official age for female marriage as 16 years. However, the law needs to be updated, and stricter monitoring and enforcement mechanisms regarding marriage registration need to be put in place to curtail child marriage.

Fertility patterns have changed very slowly over the years, especially in rural areas, where the family size can reach 10–11 children. As a result, girls are often compelled to remain at home as caregivers for younger siblings. The government has undertaken a number of initiatives in cooperation with the NGO

sector to curb population growth such as setting up free health clinics, initiating the Lady Health Worker Network programme to increase awareness on reproductive health, and distributing free contraceptives.

4.1.2 *Child abuse and sexual harassment*

The National Plan of Action to Combat Child Abuse and Sexual Exploitation, in line with the Stockholm Declaration and Plan of Action, has been adopted by Pakistan along with other South Asian countries as a regional strategy to combat the sexual abuse of children. In addition, the National Commission for Child Welfare and Development has reviewed national laws to ensure that they comply with international commitments. Consequently, the government has promulgated laws related to the trafficking of young children, especially girls. However, these regulations have not resulted in any specific directives for school management, and they have not been incorporated into training for head-teachers or school administrative staff.

4.2 Demand-side economic policies and strategies

4.2.1 *Child labour*

Pakistan has signed two international conventions related to child labour: the CRC and ILO Convention No. 138 on the Minimum Age of Employment. The national law on child labour states that 'no child below the age of 14 years shall be engaged in any factory or mine or in any other hazardous employment'. It also prohibits all types of forced or bonded labour. In addition, several national laws contain provisions prohibiting child labour and regulating the working conditions of child and adolescent workers.

Despite these laws and agreements, child labour persists in Pakistan due to lack of strict monitoring and reporting procedures. Most child labourers work as rural labour or in the non-formal sector, and are not registered as workers. Indeed, while there is still widespread poverty, children, particularly boys, will be compelled to work in order to help supplement their family's income. The Pakistan Bait-ul-Mal scheme has attempted to address this issue by running several National Centres for Rehabilitation of Child Labour; by 2007, they were 149 such centres across Pakistan. Children enrolled in these centres receive free primary education (completed in three years instead of the usual five), clothing, footwear, books and stationery. To compensate families for the opportunity cost of sending their children to school, enrolled children receive a stipend of PKR 10 per day and their parents are paid PKR 300 per month, giving a total incentive for the family of PKR 600 per month. The programme currently covers 20,000 children.

4.2.2 *Social protection programmes*

Pakistan's Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper recognized the fundamental role of social protection programmes in reducing the poverty level of households and positively impacting children's education, since a strong correlation exists between wealth quintile and households that send their children to school. Cash transfers are a significant initiative within this framework and have generally been implemented in collaboration with international donor agencies. An example of this is the World Bank's Conditional Cash Transfer Scheme launched in 2003 for lower-secondary-school-age girls in rural areas of Punjab. The cash transfer was conditional on an attendance rate of 80 percent, and transferred PKR 200 per month directly to students via postal order. The Punjab Education Sector Reform Programme, a major implementing partner of the scheme, noted that the share of female enrolment increased significantly as a result of the scheme, while dropout rates declined sharply (Chadhury and Parajuli, 2008). The Education Voucher Scheme launched by the Punjab Education Foundation in 2006 provided free education to eligible students from slum areas at primary and lower secondary levels. The facilities at programme schools, particularly those charging fees lower than the voucher amount (PKR 300 per month), were improved due to the availability of surplus funds. The extra funds were also used to raise teacher salaries and enhance overall working conditions (Population Council, 2011). In Sindh, in addition to the regular stipend scheme which provides PKR 1,000 per annum to girls in lower secondary school, the Differential Stipends Programme has been launched, targeting 45 sub-districts of Sindh that display low transition rates from primary to secondary levels. Under this programme, all girls attending Grades 6–10 in government schools are given PKR 3,600 annually by the Sindh government.

Other forms of social protection include the Zakat Programme. The Zakat system, initiated in 1980 under the Zakat and Ushr Ordinance, is based entirely on contributions (currently voluntary but earlier mandatory) from wealthy individuals and uses community structures to deliver benefits. The programme operates under the principle that deserving needy Muslims are given assistance, and benefits include educational stipends to households and direct stipends to eligible students. However, several evaluations of the Zakat Programme show that it suffers from considerable leakage; a general point consistently made is that Zakat funds accrue inordinately to the non-poor and moderately poor, but rarely to the poorest and 'neediest'. The Zakat Programme is managed by the Ministry of Religious Affairs, which does not have the requisite management information system, staff or capacity to

monitor and effectively implement the programme. Over the years, it has had negligible impact on household poverty levels or income distribution and no measurable impact on schooling (Khan and Qutub, 2010). The Watan Card scheme, introduced in flood-affected areas to address the food and nutritional needs of affected households, is a promising initiative for putting cash into the hands of disaster-affected people.

4.2.3 *Microfinance and other poverty reduction initiatives*

In addition to social protection schemes, several agencies have been working to provide a more focused and results-oriented microfinance facility. Most programmes have tried to augment the incomes of poor households, so that they can substitute income used for subsistence with spending on education and better health care. Some of the most important microcredit programmes in Pakistan include the Pakistan Poverty Alleviation Fund, the Khushali Bank, and non-profit microfinance banks such as the KASHF Foundation and the National Rural Support Programme. Effects on education are difficult to assess and are more often inferred when microfinance has had a proven impact on poverty alleviation, since household income level and children's education are positively correlated.

There are many rural support programmes that focus on the augmentation of incomes of poor households. These programmes have impacted education through community mobilization and training of local people for SMCs; they have also provided small amounts of money to communities to hire female teachers. Broadly speaking, they play three roles. Firstly, they mobilize and organize communities to stimulate more effective demand for better public goods and services, targeted at both household and village levels. Secondly, they foster linkages between community organizations and service providers (government, private sector, or others) for the supply of services. Thirdly, at times they directly supply services where there is a dearth of supply or the supply lacks quality. The poverty reduction strategies of rural support programmes have been successful in raising household income levels and, therefore, a positive impact on children's education can be inferred, given the link between household income and education of children.

Cash schemes not conditional on educational outcomes are acknowledged to alleviate poverty to a certain extent; however, their effect on enrolment levels has yet to be measured. Anecdotal evidence suggests that their impact has been minimal, although

there is a need to conduct more rigorous analysis of such schemes. For example, subsidies provided to the lowest income group through the Benazir Income Support Programme (BISP), another nationwide social protection intervention, have not resulted in recipient households using the extra money to meet costs related to education. The BISP has been implemented in the provinces of Punjab, Sindh, Balochistan and KP. The programme also operates in Pakistan Administered Kashmir, the Federally Administered Tribal Areas and Islamabad Capital Territory. In order to be eligible for cash payments under this programme, a family must earn less than PKR 6,000 per month (equal to approximately US\$ 67). The programme claims to have targeted some seven million people.

Eligible families receive cash payments of PKR 2,000 bi-monthly. This amount increases the purchasing power of families earning approximately PKR 5,000 each month by 20 percent. Most low-income families spend 50–70 percent of their total income on food alone. According to the BISP, the cash payment of PKR 2,000 every two months will allow a family of 5–6 members to purchase 20–25 days worth of flour.

Critics of the programme say that the payment amount is not enough to move impoverished families above the poverty line, as this would require PKR 2,550 per month (cf. PKR 1,000 per month). Another major flaw with the BISP is its lack of conditionality. Conditional cash transfer programmes in Latin America have experienced greater degrees of success because recipient families must meet certain requirements before receiving a cash payment. These programmes build human capital by requiring recipients to enrol their children in primary education, participate in health and nutrition seminars, and visit healthcare providers. Apart from the Waseela-e-Taleem initiative, programmes in Pakistan do not require recipients to meet particular obligations in return for cash payments. Hence, the amount of money actually spent on education as a result of the BISP is minimal¹⁴.

4.2.4 *Abolition of school fees and distribution of free textbooks*

An initiative aimed at reducing the economic burden on families of educating their children is the abolition of school fees at all levels of schooling by Article 25A of the 18th Amendment to the Constitution. As a supplement to this, the government has implemented a strategy to distribute free textbooks in government schools (MOE, 2009a). Despite these actions, many parents still prefer to send their children to low-cost private schools because of the perception that such

¹⁴www.bisp.gov.pk — viewed on 30 April 2013.

schools provide a higher quality of education than public schools. No impact analysis of this scheme has been conducted so far.

4.2.5 *School feeding and take-home rations*

The World Food Programme initiated the Food for Education Programme in 1998. It is based on the notion that poor households often do not have enough food (or money to buy food) for all the family members at home and, therefore, children's nutritional needs can be used as an incentive to bring them into school. The Food for Education Programme specifically targeted girls' schools in Pakistan and has been successful in boosting female enrolment and attendance levels at the primary level. Participation in the programme has encouraged many parents to send at least one daughter to school. After primary level, the results are less positive, implying that food incentives alone are not sufficient to keep girls in the education system and ensure their transition to secondary level.

To address the poor nutritional status and school enrolment of primary-school-age girls, the government funded the Tawana Pakistan Programme, a multifaceted project conducted between September 2002 and June 2005. Empowerment of women in the community was both a strategy and positive outcome of the project. Improvement in nutritional status was reflected in the fact that wasting, the most acute form of malnutrition, decreased by 45 percent among targeted girls. The project also showed an overall increase of 40 percent in enrolment by attracting previously un-enrolled girls. In terms of raising the quality of education, the programme was less successful, as female students focused more on cooking in schools than attending classes (Population Council, 2011). A school feeding programme for Balochistan, providing milk and biscuits, failed owing to the poor quality of the food items provided and issues of graft. More recently, the disbursement of high-energy biscuits to children attending schools in flood-affected areas has emerged as a strategy to maintain attendance levels and meet the nutritional needs of children during emergencies. Programmes where broad-based ownership of the initiative was established were more successful than other types. Moreover, governance of delivery mechanisms is considered to be a key element in ensuring success.

4.3 *Supply-side policies and strategies*

4.3.1 *Regularization of pre-primary education*

Government efforts to promote pre-primary education are part of the MOET's EFA programme. Within the framework of the ESR, the aim is to

strengthen pre-primary education through the following strategies.

- Provision of one classroom in each school for the pre-primary class
- Appointment of a contract-based pre-primary teacher and an assistant to look after the needs of children and support the teacher
- Development of a comprehensive curriculum and learning aides
- Creation of a stringent monitoring and evaluation system to assess the performance of teachers

The MOET's Bureau of Curriculum introduced the national curriculum for pre-primary in 2002. The Teachers' Resource Centre was involved in development of the original curriculum, and has since worked with the MOET to improve it and devise teacher training materials and guides for pre-primary teachers. The curriculum takes into account the cognitive and social needs of very young children.

Starting from the federal capital Islamabad, pre-primary programmes were gradually taken up by provincial governments, although they often have low priority in education planning and funding. The Sindh Education Department has included funding for pre-primary education in schools since 2004. Under the Early Learning Programme, early childhood classrooms have been set up in 150 public schools. Similarly, the Punjab Government's Literacy and Non-Formal Education Department has assigned part of its budget to the improvement of the pre-primary class.

The role of the non-profit sector is important for pre-primary education. While many non-profit agencies and institutions have made inroads in the pre-primary education sector, both by encouraging local communities to send their pre-primary-age children to school and also by implementing pre-primary classrooms in schools, their lack of networking and coordination has resulted in a loss of lesson-sharing and programme development efforts. Another limitation has been the NGO sector's inability to develop projects that act as models for the public sector to adopt and replicate on a larger scale. Gaps still exist at the level of demonstrating practical implementation of pre-primary education programmes, particularly low-cost and innovative ones, such as how local communities can become involved and how much of a difference can be made with relatively small inputs.

4.3.2 *Child-friendly schools*

UNICEF's Child-Friendly Schools Programme is a successful strategy that continues to be implemented in Punjab, specifically targeting enrolment and

retention of girls in primary school by creating a supportive and child-friendly environment. The approach focuses on using safe and nurturing environments to promote learning among children, consequently reducing dropout rates and ensuring that children complete a full cycle of basic education. Teachers are trained to understand and support children in their learning process. Child-friendly schools have emerged as a significant intervention for earthquake- and flood-affected areas, since they take into account the needs of children in emergencies. They have also encouraged parents in other areas to send their children, especially girls, to school due to their protected learning settings (UNICEF, 2008).

4.3.3 *School infrastructure and basic facilities*

Both the NEP and ESR acknowledge the need to increase the number of classrooms and improve facilities such as water supply, latrines, fans and child-appropriate furnishings in public schools. There is specific emphasis on safe infrastructure development such as boundary walls for female schools. After the earthquake in 2005 and floods in 2010, great efforts have been made to rebuild school buildings damaged in these emergencies. UNICEF has worked in cooperation with the government and other partners to establish Transitional School Structures in affected areas of Punjab, Sindh and Balochistan. New structures are reported to be much improved over previous ones, generating excitement among students and teachers alike. Save the Children has launched a campaign to rebuild over 490 schools in flood-affected districts of KP, Punjab and Sindh. The initiative is estimated to have benefited over 74,000 children (Save the Children, 2010). Evidence of this intervention was found in flood-affected communities during the field survey for this study, with improved schooling and latrine facilities compared to non-flood affected areas.

UNICEF also launched school sanitation and hygiene education interventions in Pakistan Administered Kashmir, in partnership with local government, following the 2005 earthquake. One of its components included self-built latrines using community help. Female enrolment levels within target schools have shown an upward trend since the start of the project. Other efforts to promote water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) include the creation of the Pakistan WASH coalition, which has contributed to the development of research-based WASH programmes in over 166 schools. Improving WASH facilities has resulted in an improvement in student health indicators, leading to lower absenteeism. However, the programme does not address hygiene issues related to menstruation. As part of emergency interventions after the 2010 floods, sanitation

facilities were provided by UNICEF in schools within affected communities (see Annex 2). However, schools and households are often unable to afford the cost of soap and other hygiene-related inputs.

4.3.4 *Teacher supply*

Increasing the number of teachers at all levels of schooling is always a priority in government policy. Many schemes have been tried, especially to bring more females into the teaching force. According to the ESR, the proportion of female-to-male teachers at primary level should be 70:30, and special monetary incentives should be designed to attract and retain female teachers in rural and hard-to-reach areas. Under the Primary Education Development Project funded by the United States Agency for International Development, the strategy has been to recruit and train more local female teachers for rural schools in Balochistan by reducing age- and education-related barriers. In KP, initiatives to reduce outstation transfers and temporary postings to remote schools have been implemented. The Sindh government provides accommodation and transportation facilities to female teachers working in remote areas, along with an allowance of PKR 1,500. Other initiatives to enhance teacher supply include the NCHD feeder school programme through which additional teachers are provided to government schools. CARE has also been hiring additional teachers for its CARE-adopted government schools.

To meet the resource shortage, the government has experimented with hiring teachers on a contractual basis in all provinces. Under the scheme, teachers were hired from localities close to schools, with contract renewals dependent on performance. Contract teachers did not receive the same allowances or annual increments as permanent teachers. As a result, many teachers, especially males, ended up leaving for more lucrative opportunities in the private sector. More recently, the federal government has started looking into the issue and plans to regularize teacher contracts (Kardar, 1997).

The Punjab and Sindh governments require all public school teachers to hold at least a Bachelor's or Associate degree in education. Teachers are also encouraged to upgrade their qualifications. Many do this through the Allama Iqbal Open University distance-learning programme. The quality of this degree, however, is uncertain, as has emerged during in-service education and training programmes, classroom observation studies and student examination results. In addition, many teachers only seek another degree for the purpose of promotion, and generally study easier subjects not linked to what they are currently teaching.

The current education budget has raised the salaries and allowances provided to public school teachers across Pakistan in order to keep them motivated and enhance their commitment to student learning. This strategy will only be fully effective if combined with strong teacher training linked to teacher career paths, greater access to appropriate learning materials, and improved school infrastructure. Teacher absenteeism remains a serious concern in the public sector, more so than in the private sector where monitoring and evaluation of teachers is more stringent. In this regard, the National Commission for Government Reforms had called for the establishment of institutional arrangements and powers for District Education Officers to inspect schools and initiate action against teacher absenteeism, laxity of standards and other operational lapses (GOP, 2008). The NCHD has been working specifically on the issue of teacher absenteeism in public sector schools; however, measures need to be stepped up to become more effective.

4.3.5 Professional development of teachers

There are many institutions providing pre-service, in-service and professional development education for teachers. There are also a number of interventions conducted by the public sector, non-profit organizations and donor agencies to improve teacher training and qualifications in Pakistan. The Pre-Service Teacher Education Programme (Pre-STEP) and Strengthening Teacher Education in Pakistan (STEP) Programme have been used to develop a strategic framework for both aspiring and in-service teachers. Both programmes call for increased coordination between teacher training institutes and for improved access in rural areas. These projects have helped Pakistan's teacher education system to shift away from the traditional notion of teacher training towards the broader concept of professional development, using a more pedagogical and practical approach to better prepare teachers for work with diverse student groups in varied contexts.

The government in Punjab has identified the Directorate of Staff Development as its apex body to coordinate the training and professional development of public school teachers. In order to overcome limitations in quality education and teacher training by providing financial and technical assistance to the low-cost private education sector, the Punjab Education Foundation's Continuous Professional Development Programme was launched in August 2005. This programme recognizes that it is not possible to raise the standard of education without qualified and competent teachers. Within the programme, the Continuous Teachers' Development Programme is operational in low-cost schools, where teachers are

given opportunities for ongoing professional development through cluster-based training aimed at improving their pedagogical skills and subject area knowledge. The major focus of training is on content knowledge of subjects such as English, Mathematics and Science. By December 2010, approximately 104,298 teachers had been trained through 2,614 trainings (PEF, 2011). Although the programme has been readily adopted, there are problems in gauging its quality and how it is impacting student learning achievements since examination results are still poor. The Punjab Education Foundation has also introduced the School Leadership Development Programme for principals and vice-principals of both foundation-assisted and non-foundation-assisted schools to improve the managerial capability of private school heads and deputy heads.

The Sindh Training and Education Development Authority's special restoration programmes for militancy-affected areas in KP and new measures under the Aghaz-e-Haqooq-e-Balochistan Package are working towards addressing significant gaps in access to and quality of education through the recruitment and training of teachers, especially female teachers. National Professional Standards for Teachers in Pakistan were launched by the MOET in 2009. They define the required qualifications and competencies for public school teachers. Emphasis is on bringing more subject specialists into the teaching workforce, particularly at lower and higher secondary levels. However, the enforcement of these standards at the provincial level remains questionable, since the capacities and institutional frameworks of the different provinces vary.

4.3.6 Curriculum reform

Comprehensive reforms of the national curriculum began in 2005 and were embedded in three MOET initiatives: the NEP reform process, national curriculum reforms and the first national census of all service delivery units in education. Pre-primary, primary and secondary curricula were revised under the reform process. The National Curriculum 2006/07 is a significant effort at reform; however, it has not been widely disseminated, with circulation restricted to public sector departments of education and civil society organizations. Minimal efforts have been made to ensure its availability for teachers/head-teachers and the general public. Furthermore, as it is written in English, its use is severely limited. Teacher training, which should be the backbone of this initiative, has been conducted in only one province so far, and textbook development has yet to be completed. Officially, the national curriculum, as agreed in the 11th Interprovincial Education Ministerial Conference, was intended to be implemented in the 2010/11 academic year; however,

it is still pending (Baela, 2009).

The Textbooks and Learning Materials Policy 2006 was introduced to improve the quality of education at all levels through the production of better quality textbooks and other learning materials at affordable prices, with the aim of promoting Pakistan as a knowledge-based society. This policy is a significant initiative, given that textbooks are the primary mode for teaching in Pakistani classrooms and there is an acute lack of additional materials such as teaching aides and supplementary reading materials. It is expected that these gaps will be filled through a well-regulated system of competitive publishing, thereby ensuring more choice for consumers.

The policy's impact on the quality of textbooks has been limited so far. It has been pointed out that merely providing the contents of the curriculum to the authors of textbooks does not necessarily ensure adequate coverage of topics demanded by the curriculum. Furthermore, as the evaluators of textbooks, members of the National Textbook Review Committee must ensure appropriate content coverage, as demanded by the national curriculum, while reviewing and approving textbooks. The MOET should provide explicit guidelines, not only to the committee members but also to textbook writers and publishers. In order to bring more objectivity into the evaluation/review processes, a pool of experts should be developed from which committee members could be selected. Analysis has highlighted the need for a more objective and transparent textbook approval system.

Despite efforts to standardize criteria for textbook approval through the National Textbook Board, many discrepancies still exist. Due to lack of subject expertise, evaluators on the National Textbook Board have not been able to ensure coverage of all topics set forth in the National Curriculum Policy. This situation also points towards the inability to provide consistent guidelines for the different subjects in the national curriculum. The material covered in many textbooks is not in line with the pedagogical demands of the curriculum, thus causing difficulty in student and teacher understanding. The number of exercises and pages assigned to cover topics in approved textbooks were found to be incompatible with instructions given in the national curriculum guidelines regarding the time to be allocated for teaching each topic and its weighting in the overall curriculum.

The Government of Pakistan has also attempted to work with publishing houses such as the Oxford University Press to produce high-quality textbooks. However, this initiative has been delayed by problems related to cost and the rights to publication.

4.3.7 *Abolition of corporal punishment*

Although Pakistan is a signatory to the CRC, which states that 'a child must be protected from all forms of physical and mental violence while in the care of parents and others' and 'no child shall be subjected to torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment', the national Penal Code provides legal cover to anyone physically abusing a child, by stating that 'any act done in good faith for [the] benefit of a person under 12 years of age' is not an offence even if the person knows that his/her action would cause the child harm.

At the provincial level, the governments of Punjab and Balochistan have issued directives against corporal punishment at all levels of schooling, instituting disciplinary action against teachers found to have punished students severely. The *Maar Nahi Pyar* ('learning through love not fear') campaign was carried out in both provinces in collaboration with NGO partners to raise awareness against corporal punishment. However, implementation of such policies can be problematic at the school management level, primarily because of cultural resistance and inadequate training for teachers on alternative positive discipline. In addition, as madrasahs and the private sector are not under any regulatory control, government regulations against corporal punishment do not extend to them.

4.3.8 *Non-formal education*

Numerous interventions exist for non-formal education but the most well known are the NCHD programmes for feeder schools and adult literacy centres. NCHD feeder schools are located in some of Pakistan's most remote areas and employ the model of community-based schools to ensure universal primary education. Adult literacy centres are also located in local communities, providing basic literacy skills to individuals (especially women) aged 11–45 years who have either never enrolled in school or dropped out early.

The issue of increasing literacy and vocational skills for lower-secondary-school-age children is also important. Although there are a number of policies that call for the establishment of polytechnics, monotronics and technical stream schools, the focus is on older children, typically those who have matriculated or completed Grade 8. The Indus Resource Centre runs an Education and Literacy Programme that provides skills-based and literacy training to both primary- and lower-secondary-school-age girls. The *Bunad* Literacy Community Council conducts enterprise-based learning programmes for rural girls in the Punjab.

4.3.9 Public-private partnerships

In its Medium-Term Development Framework 2005–2010, the Government of Pakistan recognizes the importance of improving and expanding infrastructure services for sustaining economic and social development. In order to accomplish the goal of providing quality education and meeting its MDG and EFA targets, it has increasingly relied on public-private partnerships. Focus has shifted from supporting community initiatives to collaborating with the NGO and private sectors in recognition of the fact that they can contribute much to supplementing the work of the public sector.

Education foundations and rural support programmes are significant examples of public-private partnerships. Pakistan's first rural support programme was established by the Aga Khan Foundation with support from the World Bank. Following its success in mobilizing rural communities in northern areas, the government showed an interest in replicating this model in other parts of the country. This culminated in the creation of the National Rural Support Programme, and staff members from the initial programme were instrumental in setting up provincial structures such as the Sindh Rural Support Programme and the Punjab Rural Support Programme. However, over the years, successive governments have shown varying levels of support for the programme. Despite this, there are sufficient data to suggest that rural support programmes have impacted economic growth and poverty levels, and made some headway into improving education and health indicators in the communities where they operate. The establishment of rural support programmes as private entities and the government's decision to set up endowments has enabled them to remain semi-autonomous (Sohaib and Khan, 2004).

The approach taken in setting up rural support programmes later became the basis for establishing other development organizations, for example, the Pakistan Poverty Alleviation Fund, the NCHD and the national and provincial education foundations. The NCHD was initially funded by the Human Development Foundation but later received extensive support from the government, allowing it to expand across the whole country. Currently, efforts are underway to devolve the NCHD to provincial education departments.

National and provincial education foundations are semi-autonomous bodies supporting the government in the promotion and implementation of education-related programmes. The National Education Foundation has provided educational support to many disadvantaged communities across the country through low-cost high-quality educational

innovations. The Punjab Education Foundation's Foundation-Assisted Schools Programme supports private schools set up by NGOs. The Sindh Education Foundation, as well as emulating the Foundation-Assisted Schools Programme, has also set up a support fund for teacher training and salaries, resource materials for curriculum enrichment, and capacity-building of local community bodies on school establishment and management.

Lack of coordination between the National Education Foundation and the provincial education foundations is a major criticism of the public-private partnership strategy. Many of the projects undertaken are conducted in isolation or in parallel, leading to duplication of effort and less impact. For instance, rural support programmes have conducted projects similar to government efforts, which, with more coordination and harmonization, would not only have had greater outreach but would have also used resources more efficiently. Beyond public-private partnerships such as the education foundations, there are many public-NGO partnerships where NGOs are providing technical support and facilities to the public sector, such as those developed by CARE, Indus Resource Centre, Society for Community Support for Primary Education in Balochistan (SCSPEB) and Idara-e-Taleem-o-Aagahi (ITA) amongst others. However, these partnerships are entirely donor-driven without any government funding: the government needs to identify and start funding successful public-NGO partnerships too.

4.4 Management, governance and capacity policies and strategies

Pakistan's education sector suffers from chronic inefficiencies in service delivery, with lack of transparency, accountability and community involvement in the political process. The Local Government Ordinance, passed in 2001 to accelerate decentralization to the districts, has been implemented through the Devolution Plan. It transfers responsibility and revenues for primary and secondary education from provincial to district governments.

4.4.1 National Education Policy (NEP) 2009

Education policies have been guided by a series of documents dating back to 1947. In 2005, a review of the NEP 1998–2010 was initiated, as the policy was not producing the desired results thus making it difficult to achieve the MDG and EFA targets (MOE, 2009a). Given the ambiguities surrounding decentralization, the NEP 2009 proposed that decentralization should be pursued at each level of governance to move decision-making closer to the point of implementation. The school would then become the basic unit for planning, including school-based budgeting. Furthermore, it

also proposed that decentralization within the framework of devolution should focus on delegation of educational functions and not just administrative powers.

4.4.2 SMCs and Parent–Teacher Associations

As discussed in the previous chapter, issues of governance and management persist even after increased authority was given to SMCs. Although SMCs predate devolution, they have come to be associated with it; and, in recent years, they have been revived, largely as a result of donor engagement at the provincial level. Problems hampering the efficient operation of SMCs include confusion with regards to roles and responsibilities, lack of empowerment in hiring and firing of teachers, and politicization of the appointment of chairpersons. In most cases, head-teachers still largely control SMCs and continue to select members; therefore, school management remains in effect with school staff. Most SMC members, moreover, know little if anything about their roles and responsibilities. For example, the majority of SMC members in Sindh had never received notifications delineating their powers and, in Punjab, it was observed that School Council members had never seen the proceedings register designed to help in the supervision and management of schools by SMC members (Indus Resource Centre, 2003).

SMCs and Parent–Teacher Associations (PTAs) potentially provide citizens with a link to education service providers, thereby holding service providers accountable for the quality of service delivery. Under provisions of the Local Government Ordinance, each school has an SMC/PTA to allow parents to provide direct input into the management of educational facilities; however, SMCs/PTAs receive a limited amount of funding from the government each year, which they can only use for small repair projects in school or for the purchase of textbooks and other supplies. Moreover, even where effective, their role is limited to providing support for school facilities and infrastructure projects, with no contribution to the quality of education. In addition, SMC/PTA members lack the capacity and training to perform their assigned responsibilities, as well as a channel through which to report problems and malpractices to local government officials. Without such a channel, through which to take action and effect change, SMCs/PTAs cannot be expected to have an impact on the performance of the education sector (USAID, 2008).

4.4.3 District-level management, governance and capacity issues

At the district level, local government is responsible for

the planning, implementation and monitoring of the education system. It can decide how much of its budget is spent on education to a certain extent; however, it is obligated to funding the salaries and management of teaching and non-teaching staff. Furthermore, it can generate its own funds in addition to the funds transferred by the federal and provincial governments. District governments also have lead responsibility in deciding where to locate new schools and how to finance their construction, in inspecting schools to ensure they conform to established standards, and in conducting annual evaluation of teachers and head-teachers. Sub-district community organizations called Community Development Boards may also assist in determining the location and timing of new school facilities, but their precise role is still undefined.

While devolving powers to districts a standardized 'blueprint' approach was adopted; this has been problematic, given that districts vary a great deal in the amount of resources they can generate as well as their institutional capacity. Those districts with major urban centres are potentially rich in resources and economically viable, while rural districts are highly impoverished with weaker institutions. The major issue between districts and provinces is the insubstantial linkage between provincial and district governments. While functions assigned to Tehsil municipal authorities and Union administrations are well specified, functions allotted to district governments are less clear. This is partly because districts have been assigned many responsibilities that prior to devolution were performed by the provinces. However, the jurisdictional line between provincial and district governments has remained somewhat unclear. For instance, the issue of hiring, firing and transfer of teachers is largely undefined; District Education Officers and Deputy District Education Officers have been deprived of their powers to transfer teachers, despite the fact that devolution has shifted these powers to the district. Many members of the district education staff are not aware of their own terms of reference. Some are confused as to the roles of the new district cadres. Similarly, the role of members of national and provincial assemblies and their relation with their constituencies in the governance and management of education is not clear.

There is also concern regarding the institutional capacity and capabilities of district staff to carry out duties devolved from the provinces. District-level capacity to manage large budgets and civil bureaucracies, mostly teachers, is limited. Of particular concern is the weak financial management capacity of district governments. Development

allocations are not being given due importance because they have yet to demonstrate anticipated effects or results, while the lack of monitoring, scholarships and incentives for teachers has affected the service delivery system. Similar confusions and gaps exist in procurement policies; for instance, procurement of school supplies requires the approval of the provincial government, thus delaying provision of school equipment and supplies. Such organizational and institutional issues have impacted the monitoring of teacher attendance and performance (USAID, 2008).

4.4.4 Provincial/federal management, governance and capacity issues

The 1973 Constitution recognized education as a national responsibility and put it on the concurrent list for provincial governments. Following the 18th Amendment, provincial governments now have a greater role than the federal government in education. Article 25A on the right to education states: 'The state shall provide free and compulsory education to all children of the age of five to 16 years in such manner as may be determined by law.' In addition, the 18th Amendment seeks to increase the role of provinces in curriculum and syllabus development, planning, policy formulation, and creation of standards for education. However, the federal government remains responsible for national policy-making—addressing issues regarding access, equity and quality in education; formulating the pay structure for teachers; defining required teacher classifications; setting norms for the national curriculum; and measuring student performance through national assessment systems.

The main responsibilities of provincial governments include formulating the provincial education policy, coordinating with federal and district governments for implementation of the ESR, arranging pre-service and in-service training, ensuring equity in access to schools and quality education, and influencing the curriculum. However, the benefits of decentralization have yet to be fully realized due to structural weaknesses and problems. The Local Government Ordinance bypassed the provinces altogether, resulting in confusion and antagonism between provincial and district governments in the implementation of policies. Furthermore, the devolution process has not been homogenous, with different provinces devolving their education sectors to varied extents (MOE, 2009a).

In 2000, the ESR was introduced with the intention of bridging major supply-side gaps in education such as improvement of school infrastructure, provision of free textbooks, creation of SMCs, upgrading primary schools to lower secondary schools, teacher training, monitoring, conditional cash transfers, etc. It was

initiated in Punjab and then progressed to Sindh. In order to manage the ESR, the Programme Monitoring and Implementation Unit and the Reform Support Unit were created to assist in teacher training, curriculum review, improvement of quality education, and monitoring and evaluation of the performance of different tiers of governance within the education system. However, these institutions, which are externally driven, have been added on to the education system without full integration and have done little to improve the system.

The government has gone some way to filling the gap in service delivery and quality by outsourcing these aspects to the private and NGO sectors. In recent years, the private sector has emerged as an important player in the provision of education; hence the NEP aims to improve regulation of the private sector and bring the public and private sectors closer. Some policy actions taken under the NEP in this regard include mapping of educational resources available in the private sector, dissemination of this information, and initiation of transparent and clear procedures to allow utilization of private sector inputs. The NEP also suggests that where a private school already exists with available admission space, children should be accommodated there through public financing. New public schools will be developed either in separate vicinities or for different levels.

The NEP also calls for a common curricular framework to be applied to educational institutions in both the public and private sectors, encouraging provincial governments to take steps to harmonize these sectors through common standards, quality and regulatory regimes. In addition, formal subjects should be introduced to madrasahs to harmonize with formal public secondary schools. The NEP also suggested that the MOET, provincial and local governments should develop regulations for establishing and running private sector institutions including transparent accountability procedures, as well as build capacity of regulators to effectively monitor private sector compliance (MOE, 2009a).

Fiscal decentralization in education is another key area under devolution. The National Finance Commission distributes financial resources from the federal government to the provinces on an annual basis. Certain types of taxes collected in each province are pooled and then redistributed according to a formula established by the National Finance Commission. Provinces retransfer revenues to districts according to a formula set by the Provincial Finance Commission; districts then have to decide how much to spend on education in relation to other public services. The fiscal decentralization process is marred by the fact that district governments remain dependent on

provincial governments for transfer of funds. Funding for education services continues to be provided by provincial governments in the form of grants to district governments.

Although the 18th Amendment promises greater autonomy, the federal government has been too uncertain about the capacity and ability of the provinces to effectively translate this into practice. It is important to note that the provinces have already been providing school and college education and have the capacity to handle devolved responsibilities. They also have the autonomy to design curricula according to contextual needs and learners' requirements. So the real barrier to the implementation of the devolution programme comes from a trust deficit between the centre and the provinces. With federal institutions dealing with curriculum and textbook development being phased out, provincial curriculum bureaus and textbook boards will have to be strengthened. Similarly, the Interprovincial Education Ministerial Committee will have to deal with issues related to standardization and uniform assessment or these issues will need to be taken up by some other body. As with any other law and policy, effective implementation is the key.

The largest component of the ESR is the rehabilitation of facilities in existing primary schools. Although districts were given responsibility for identifying beneficiaries, political pressure has caused Members of Provincial Assemblies to become involved as well. The operational and maintenance responsibilities for these schemes rest with the districts, but they have not been able to take on complete ownership of the projects. These problems in district-level ownership are worsened when ESR programmes bypass the districts altogether. For example, the literacy and ECE programmes are managed at the district level by the Executive District Officer (Literacy) through a separate, post-devolution Literacy Department rather than within the Education Department as before. For these programmes, federal funds are given to provincial governments, which then channel them onward without the involvement of district governments to the Executive District Officer (Literacy), an office supposedly subordinate to district officials. These vertical programmes have posed a challenge for district education planning, as districts have no freedom or flexibility to use resources according to their own priorities, and no additional funding to support recurrent cost implications. For instance, the Literacy Department in Karachi receives its funding directly from the provincial government. This support, however, effectively frees the Literacy Department from the control of the district government, under which it is meant to work, and puts it under provincial control. The Executive District Officer (Literacy) is able

to establish schools, which are often run by NGOs. The Education and Literacy Departments do not work together, with the result that schools are opened by one agency without taking account of what the other is doing. Some areas have 5–6 schools within a small radius, while others have none.

Discussions of district finance in Pakistan tend to focus on the flow of funds from the federal and provincial governments, while little attention is paid to the own-source revenues that districts can generate. Districts have not been assigned any broad-based taxes under the Local Government Ordinance nor has their potential for own-tax generation been explored. There is no medium- or long-term budgetary planning taking place at the district level. Most of the expenditure for education is salaries, leaving very limited funds for other expenses. The result is inadequate repair and maintenance of schools and lack of adequate furniture, equipment, electricity and sometimes drinking water for students.

4.4.5 Budget and financing

In absolute terms, the total budget allocation for the education sector in Pakistan has been on the rise in recent years, increasing from PKR 70 billion in 1999/2000 to PKR 216 billion in 2006/07, a three-fold increase in expenditure. However, the overall share of education in the total federal budget has decreased since 2007/08. This decrease in education's share of the federal budget is a matter of concern, especially as it is not compensated for by an increase in provincial budgets for education.

The education budget for 2009/10 decreased again and suggests that there has been a fall in the commitment to improving education and enhancing investments. This does not reflect either the government's determination to meet international targets for education or an adequate understanding of the returns to social investment made by education as an important tool for achieving and sustaining economic growth. The majority of the budget is used for current expenditure and for higher education. As most of the allocation is used for salaries, only meagre amounts are left for other activities. Examination of the sub-sectoral share of the education budget across different levels of education in all four provinces between 2000/01 and 2005/06 shows that at the federal level most of the budget is inclined towards college and universities and professional education, and this share has been increasing over the years. Expenditure on primary and secondary education is proportionally higher at the provincial level but has remained steady over the years. On average, slightly more than half of the education budget, at the national level, goes to primary education, whilst the remainder is distributed evenly between secondary

and other levels. These percentages differ between provinces.

According to UNESCO, Punjab allocates the highest proportion (over 65 percent) to primary education, whereas Balochistan allocates less than half of its education budget to primary education. The Punjab education development budget 2009/10 decreased by 13 percent, indicating a decline in the provincial government's commitment to development of the education sector. In Sindh, although the share of development expenditure in the total education budget grew from 15 percent in 2007 to 24 percent in 2008/09 and 27 percent in 2009/10, the current budget received higher priority; 73 percent of the education budget went to salaries and other recurring expenditure.

Another concern relates to the awarding of budget to the provinces. In an attempt towards fiscal decentralization, all provinces are given their share according to the National Fiscal Commission award; provinces then distribute this through Provincial Finance Commissions. However, this remains a contentious issue, with the more underdeveloped provinces such as Balochistan and KP receiving their education budget on the basis of their smaller populations and not on disparities or educational needs within these provinces. The relative share by province is comparatively consistent with population size; Punjab, the largest province, is allocated the largest share of the education budget, followed by Sindh, KP and Balochistan, respectively.

4.4.6 *Fast Track Initiative and Debt Swap Initiative*

The Fast Track Initiative was launched in 2002 following the Dakar Declaration on EFA. Since 2011, it has been known as the Global Partnership for Education. Underlying its implementation is recognition of the multiple benefits of education, for which universal primary completion is considered essential. Pakistan has requested funds under the Fast Track Initiative, and also has agreed to the Debt Swap Initiative, under which the Canada Basic Education Project and others fall. Pakistan is one of five countries with large out-of-school populations that have been offered technical support to prepare plans for achieving universal primary completion. However, shortage of funds has remained a serious concern.

4.5 Analytical summary

Gender disparity in education requires a multipronged approach since it is deeply rooted in a variety of socio-cultural and economic factors. The NEP's focus on building lower secondary schools for girls has proven effective in countering the problem of 'distance' from

school for girls in this age group; where gaps remain, co-educational schools and NCHD feeder schools have proved effective to a certain extent. Poverty is also a major barrier in education, and targeted social protection programmes have proved successful at boosting enrolment rates, especially of girls. Based on broader anecdotal evidence, general social protection programmes have not had a measurable impact on improving education. However, there is a need to conduct systematic impact analysis to develop empirical evidence on this. Effective interventions that do encourage education by reducing costs include the provision of free schooling and free textbooks, and school feeding programmes. Although appropriate legislation and policies on child labour exist, many laws are ambiguous and leave gaps, creating problems in implementation.

The ESR aims to bridge supply-side gaps in terms of improvement in education quality and access. In line with this, the national and provincial governments have made concerted efforts since 2000 to improve school infrastructure and access to schools, along with curriculum reform and teacher training. The challenge of teacher undersupply has been acknowledged, and the current education budget has raised salaries and allowances for public school teachers across Pakistan in order to enhance their commitment to student learning. Many efforts have been made to strengthen the provision and quality of education through a variety of public-private partnerships. These strategies, although a step in the right direction, have been largely ineffective, primarily because professional development, access to learning materials and monitoring of teacher performance are still missing, compromising performance in the classroom. Similarly, the impact of curriculum reforms and textbook revisions has been limited, with serious gaps in implementation.

Pakistan's education sector suffers from chronic inefficiencies in service delivery, with lack of transparency, accountability and community involvement in the political process. The Local Government Ordinance was passed in 2001 and devolved power from the provinces to the districts. However, given that district officials do not have the capacity to shoulder their new responsibilities and there is confusion in the roles and responsibilities of the provincial and district staff, issues in management of the education sector have only worsened. Most importantly, many of the issues in management and governance at the federal and provincial levels have been transferred to parallel systems such as the Programme Monitoring and Implementation Unit and the Reform Support Unit. The 18th Amendment is an important step forward with regards to education in Pakistan; however, as positive as this development is,

it has not been effectively translated into practice due to uncertain power dynamics between the federation and provinces.

Lastly, finance and budget remains a contentious issue for Pakistan's education sector, with the education

budget continually declining as a share of the total budget. Although in absolute terms there has been an increase, it is not sufficient for the government to meet its targets, specifically with reference to the 18th Amendment that promises free education up to the age of 16 years for all citizens of Pakistan.



CHAPTER 5: RECOMMENDATIONS AND THE WAY FORWARD

The previous three chapters have examined the profiles of children excluded from schooling, linked barriers and bottlenecks to each dimension of exclusion, and identified policy responses made by the government, the non-profit and private sectors and the donor community to address these barriers and bottlenecks. This chapter specifically analyses gaps in policy, particularly as they related to the profiling done in Chapter 2, to provide recommendations for creating targeted interventions to address the problem of OOSC through the following three dimensions.

- Bringing OOSC at pre-primary, primary and lower secondary levels into school.
- Reducing the number of children dropping out of school at all three levels.
- Ensuring that children successfully transition from primary to secondary education.

Improvement of education quality is fundamental to all three dimensions and special emphasis needs to be placed on children in rural areas, especially girls.

5.1 Policy recommendations on OOSC

Pakistan is a characteristic example of gender disparity, with more girls than boys out of school. Girls face strong resistance from their families and communities when it comes to gaining an education. Although the government has made many national and international commitments and prepared ambitious policy plans to counter gender disparity in education, gender gaps have not decreased substantially. The problem is much worse at the lower secondary level. Lack of basic facilities such as toilets, boundary walls and drinking water discourages parents from sending their daughters to school. Parents are also reluctant to send girls to school where schools lack adequate security. The following policy recommendations are made.

- **Improve infrastructure and security provision:** Lack of road networks, effective public transport, security guards, and boundary walls at schools, etc. all heighten security risks for sending girls to schools, especially in remote areas.
- **Reduce distance to school through infrastructure development:** School location has a significant and large impact on girls' enrolment; therefore, define a specific distance to school to ensure that there is at least one nearby school for all areas of each province. Girls' access to school is also limited by

safety concerns; therefore, schools should be built in areas where they do not currently exist in order to reduce travelling time.

- **Increase the provision of female teachers:** One key intervention that the government can make is to increase the number of female teachers, since this hugely increases parents' confidence with respect to sending their daughters to school.

A related finding is that the education-related differences between boys and girls narrow as households become richer and eventually disappear in the richest households. Overall, households in the poorest wealth quintile have the most OOSC. A large percentage of Pakistan's population lives below the poverty line and, while this situation persists, social protection programmes will remain essential. The following policy recommendations are made.

- **Provide social safety nets:** Social protection for the poorest 20–30 percent of households helps to ensure that both the direct and indirect costs of education are mitigated. Programmes that specifically target education, such as the BISP and the Punjab Education Foundation's Education Voucher Scheme, are most effective.
- **Link social protection programmes to school attendance:** By linking social protection programmes with school attendance and increasing the amounts provided, the impact of such schemes could be enhanced.
- **Introduce flexible hours:** More flexible school hours would help families and communities to better manage schooling within their day-to-day routines. This is particularly useful for households and communities where children are engaged in labour such as working in the fields during sowing or harvesting or carrying out household chores. It would also help to reduce the opportunity costs for parents in sending their children to school.
- **Provide skill-based learning:** Parents' perception is often that children are not learning useful or income-generating skills. Hence, the government should provide opportunities for skill-based learning to ensure children are trained appropriately for local markets.
- **Establish incentive schemes:** Schemes such as stipend programmes or provision of cooked midday meals help to make it attractive for parents to send children to school. Midday meals may also encourage children, especially those from low-

income groups, to enrol in school. Such schemes have proved successful in India; indeed, the school feeding programme there is so vast that India's Right to Education Act has specific requirements for kitchens in schools in order to provide hot midday meals.

- **Focus incentive schemes on both girls and boys:** Currently, most stipend and cash transfer programmes focus on girls only. This is unsurprising given the status of female education. However, many boys are also pulled out of school after the age of 10 years because of economic responsibilities. These boys need to be targeted too. In addition, it is important to bring the many disparate education stipend programmes together to improve overall outreach and reduce duplication of effort.

Rural areas have more OOSC than urban areas. Analysis in this report shows distinct rural–urban disparities. The following policy recommendations are made.

- **Enhance education budgets:** Given the education sector's low budgetary allocations, there is an acute shortage of public schools in remote areas, particularly in mountainous and tribal regions such as Gilgit-Baltistan and Federally Administered Tribal Areas. The current budgetary allocation for education has dipped to 1.5 percent of GDP. This needs to be raised urgently in order to ensure that each rural or urban block has a school. In addition, some provinces are heavily indebted and need extra grants for new schools and school improvement.
- **Conduct school mapping:** Proximity to school has been identified as a key determinant of primary school enrolment and retention: the further a child lives from a school, the less likely she/he is to attend. School mapping should be conducted to ensure that enough schools are present in under-populated and remote areas and are not just concentrated in certain areas. This will ensure greater accessibility. Lack of nearby schools particularly hampers girls' access to education.
- **Increase the spread of schools:** Schools need to be built in villages/neighbourhoods where they are currently non-existent.
- **Increase attendance of female teachers in remote areas:** Attendance rates for female teachers can be enhanced through transportation allowances. Currently, teachers posted in urban areas receive a 'big city' allowance. This benefit should be expanded to female teachers posted in rural and remote areas to help reduce problems related to mobility. This would increase not only teacher supply but also the morale of female teachers, especially in rural and remote areas.

Pre-primary enrolment is relatively low. While pre-primary education has improved, too many children still have little or no access to the first step for school readiness. The following policy recommendations are made.

- **Regularize ECE:** Ensure that ECE is regularized across the public sector through its inclusion within the primary cycle or by creating separate budget lines for pre-primary education.
- **Integrate pre-primary education into the primary education cycle:** Pre-primary education needs to have greater significance by making it a principal component of primary education cycle. This can be achieved by hiring dedicated teachers for this level, preferably local females who have received specialized training in understanding the cognitive and social development needs of young children.

Transition rates between the different levels of education are low. Better transitioning is critical for reducing the number of children dropping out of basic education. At the ECE level, facilities need providing and awareness needs creating among communities and households. This will also help to ensure that pre-primary children move on to primary school at the correct age so that they are not overage as they progress through basic education. With the high dropout rates at the end of primary, targeted interventions for children aged 10 years and over are required to help them transition from primary to lower secondary level. The following policy recommendations are made

- **Upgrade schools:** Upgrade existing primary schools to lower secondary schools in all provinces so that children have opportunities to transit from primary to lower secondary education.
- **Reduce mobility costs for girls:** Similarly, participation by girls in education beyond primary is hampered by high mobility costs to the few and distant lower secondary schools. The cash stipend provided for lower secondary school should be enhanced for girls from rural communities to enable them to meet travel costs.
- **Provide catch-up programmes:** Expansion of non-formal learning options can be critical for OOSC particularly those aged 6–10 years. These children require well-designed catch-up programmes using non-formal methods in order to assist to them in reaching the same level as their school-going peers before they are mainstreamed into formal school when ready.

5.1 Policy recommendations on child labour

Analysis in this report suggests that the daughters of

working mothers are over twice as likely as the sons of working mothers to become child labourers. This is a critical issue, as adult females in most poor households have to work to subsidize household income. This is often domestic work, and mothers will either take their daughters with them to share the workload or will involve them in similar work to subsidize household income further. The following policy recommendation is made.

- **Create awareness on the benefits of educating girls:** Mothers should be made aware of the benefits of educating their daughters and not to involving them in child labour. Awareness programmes should be followed up by targeted support for working mothers with daughters. The education of daughters should be subsidized, and a further subsidy could be provided to compensate for the opportunity cost of taking a girl from work and putting her into school. Poorest regions should be targeted and the poorest households within these regions.

Analysis also shows that the literacy of mothers or household heads is significantly correlated with child labour: the more educated the mother or household head, the more likely she/he is to send the children to school and keep them out of child labour. Moreover, evidence suggests that a mother's education impacts more positively on the education of girls than of boys. Hence, policy using this evidence can have a strong gender impact. Furthermore, enrolment is higher for female-headed households. The following policy recommendation is made.

- **Develop education programmes for new mothers:** Specific programmes that initiate late education for fresh and young mothers can be managed or linked through the Lady Health Worker Network (LHWN). The network can maintain data on the education levels of mothers-to-be and encourage them to enrol in special education programmes. UNICEF is ideally placed for working with the government on the creation of such a programme.

Data on child labour suggest that the chances of a child leaving school and going into child labour increases with age, with the crucial ages being 11–14 years. The impact is much stronger in households where income comes from self-employment or the household head is engaged in agriculture or manufacturing activities. The following policy recommendation is made.

- **Develop programmes that focus on 11–14-year-olds:** Policy to reduce child labour should focus on this age group and schools should be better trained to reduce dropout at these ages.

Specific awareness programmes on continuing education at these ages should be developed. Moreover, a linkage should be created between schools and technical and vocational institutes. Students intending to start work should be absorbed by these vocational training institutes and trained to become skilled workers. Monetary compensation should also be provided for work done by students enrolled in technical and vocational institutes.

Regression analysis also shows that girls are nearly 10 less likely to go out to work than boys. This large disparity suggests that policy can have a significant gender impact. The following policy recommendation is made.

- **Consider boys and girls separately:** When formulating policies related to child labour, boys' and girls' issues should be addressed separately.

Data suggest that higher adult wages do not prevent child labour for boys; indeed, higher adult wages increase child labour for boys when both the father and mother are illiterate. Conversely, low adult wages lead to significantly more child labour for girls. It is possible to conclude that decisions to send boys into labour are non-income-based, while those about girls are income-based. This again suggests that policies should be different for girls and boys. The following policy recommendation is made.

- **Develop specific policies to address boys' child labour and girls' child labour:** Designing programmes that augment incomes of households can reduce girls' child labour. On the other hand, boys' child labour can be reduced by improving school infrastructure and creating awareness programmes that influence customs, social traditions and cultural norms. Better school infrastructure at the community level and better teacher quality may persuade low-income households to increase schooling and decrease child labour for boys. Moreover, it would be more viable for policy-makers to target districts where wages are low and incomes are more skewed, as it is much easier to identify deprived districts and regions than deprived households dispersed across the country.

Evidence from analysis suggests that schooling quality plays an important role in increasing school attendance and potentially reducing child labour. Better infrastructure and teacher quality increase the demand for education by both boys and girls.

Moreover, school infrastructure and teacher quality is more skewed towards girls' schools than boys' schools.

Infrastructure is poorer in lower secondary schools than primary schools and in girls' schools than boys' schools. The following policy recommendations are made.

- **Invest in school infrastructure:** There needs to be more public sector investment in school infrastructure, improving the quality of school buildings, classrooms, latrines and water supply, desks and chairs, etc.
- **Focus on girls' lower secondary schools:** More investment is required for girls' lower secondary schools, as they have the worst quality infrastructure.
- **Improve teacher quality:** More investment is required for improving teacher quality.

REFERENCES

- Action Aid, 2011. *Devolution of Education in Pakistan*. Lahore: Action Aid.
- ADB, 2000. *Situation Analysis of Women in Pakistan*. Islamabad: Asian Development Bank.
- AEPAM, 2009. *Pakistan Education Statistics 2008–09*. Islamabad: Academy for Education Planning and Management.
- Andrabi, T., Das, J. and Khwaja, A.I., 2008. A dime a day: the possibilities and limits of private schooling in Pakistan. *Comparative Education Review*, 52(3): 329–355.
- Andrabi, T., Das, J., Khwaja, A.I., Vishwanath, T., Zajonc, T. and the LEAPS Team, 2007. *Pakistan: Learning and Educational Achievements in Punjab Schools (LEAPS). Insights to Inform the Education Policy Debate*. Islamabad: World Bank.
- Bacolod, M. and Tobias, J.L., 2006. Schools, school quality and achievement growth: evidence from the Philippines. *Economics of Education Review*, 25: 619–632.
- Baela, R.J., 2009. *Curriculum Reforms in Pakistan: A Glass Half Full or Half Empty?* Paper presented at the Seminar on School Curriculum Policies and Practices in South Asian Countries held on 10–12 August 2009 at NCERT Delhi, India.
- Basu, K., 1999. Child labour: cause, consequence, and cure, with remarks on international labour standards. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 37: 1083–1119.
- Basu, K. and Van, P.H., 1998. The economics of child labour. *American Economic Review*, 88: 412–427.
- Bedi, A.S. and Edwards, J.H.Y., 2002. The impact of school quality on earnings and educational returns: evidence from a low-income country. *Journal of Development Economics*, 68: 157–185.
- Burki, A.A. and Fasih, T., 1998. Household's non-leisure time allocation for children and determinants of child labour in Pakistan. *Pakistan Development Review*, 37: 899–914.
- Burki, S., 2004. *Education Reform in Pakistan*. Woodrow Wilson Publication.
- Chadhury, N. and Parajuli, D., 2008. *Conditional Cash Transfers and Female Schooling: The Impact of the Female School Stipend Program on Public School Enrollments in Punjab, Pakistan*. Impact Evaluation Series No. 9. Islamabad: World Bank.
- CQE, 2007. *An Overview of Professional Development Programmes for Teachers: Support Provided by International Aid Agencies and the Government of Pakistan (2000–2007)*. Lahore: Campaign for Quality Education.
- CQE, 2007. *Education in Pakistan: What Works and Why*. Lahore: Campaign for Quality Education.
- DeGraff, D., Bilsborow, R.E. and Herrin, A.N., 1993. The implication of high fertility for children's time use in the Philippines. In Cynthia B. Lloyd (ed.), *Fertility Family Size and Structure: Consequences for Families and Children*. New York: The Population Council.
- DFID and USAID, 2006. *Options and Recommendations for Education Sector Budget Support in Pakistan*. Islamabad: Department of International Development and United States Agency for International Development.
- Edmonds, E.V. and Pavcnik, N., 2005. The effect of trade liberalization on child labour. *Journal of International Economics*, 65: 401–419.
- EFA Global Monitoring Team and UNESCO, 2011. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Fafchamps, M. and Wahba, J., 2006. Child labour, urban proximity, and household composition. *Journal of Development Economics*, 79: 374–397.
- FBS, 2006. *National Education Census of Pakistan 2005*. Islamabad: Federal Bureau of Statistics.
- FBS, 2007. *Pakistan Demographic Survey 2007*. Islamabad: Federal Bureau of Statistics. <http://www.statpak.gov.pk/fbs/content/pakistan-demographic-survey-2007>
- FBS, 2008a. *Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM) 2007–08*. Islamabad: Federal Bureau of Statistics.

- FBS, 2008b. *Household Integrated Economic Survey (HIES) 2007–08*. Islamabad: Federal Bureau of Statistics.
- FBS, 2009. *Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey (PSLM) 2008–09*. Islamabad: Federal Bureau of Statistics.
- Fuller, B. and Clarke, S., 1994. Raising school effects while ignoring culture? Local conditions and the influence of classroom tools, rules and pedagogy. *Review of Educational Research*, 64: 119–157.
- Glewwe, P. and Jacoby, H., 1994. Student achievement and schooling choice in low-income countries: evidence from Ghana. *Journal of Human Resources*, 29: 843–864.
- Global Campaign for Education and RESULTS Educational Fund, 2011. *Make it Right: Ending the Crisis in Girls' Education*. Oxford: Oxfam.
- GOP, 2008. *Reforming the Government in Pakistan Report*. Islamabad: National Commission for Government Reforms, Government of Pakistan.
- Grootaert, C., 1998. *Child Labour in Cote d'Ivoire: Incidence and Determinants*. Washington DC: The World Bank.
- Hanushek, E.A., 1995. Interpreting recent research on schooling in developing countries. *World Bank Research Observer*, 10(2): 227–246.
- Harbison, R.W. and Hanushek, E.A., 1992. *Educational Performance of the Poor: Lessons from Rural Northeast Brazil*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Indus Resource Centre, 2003. *Institutional Strengthening of SMCs*. Karachi: Indus Resource Centre.
- IRIN, 2008. *Pakistan: Corporal Punishment Key Reason for School Dropouts*. Nairobi: Integrated Regional Information Networks.
- I-SAPS, 2010. *Private Education Sector in Pakistan: Mapping and Musing*. Islamabad: Institute for Social and Policy Sciences.
- Jamal, H., 2009. *Growth and Income Distribution for Poverty Reduction: Pakistan's Experience*. Islamabad: UNDP.
- Kambhampati, U.S. and Rajan, R., 2006. Economic growth: a panacea for child labour? *World Development*, 34: 426–445.
- Kardar, S., 1997. Technical and vocational education in Pakistan. *Lahore Journal of Economics*, 2(2).
- Khan, S.A., 2007. Gender issues in higher education in Pakistan. *The Bulletin*, No. 162.
- Khan, S.N. and Qutub, S., 2010. *The Benazir Income Support Programme and the Zakat Programme: A Political Economy Analysis of Gender*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Kremer, M., 1995. Research on schooling: what we know and what we don't – a comment on Hanushek. *World Bank Research Observer*, 10(2): 247–254.
- Kruger, D.I., 2007. Coffee production effects on child labour and schooling in rural Brazil. *Journal of Development Economics*, 82: 448–463.
- Leach, F., 2004. Gender violence in schools. *Education Update*, 7(1).
- Levy, V., 1985. Cropping pattern, mechanization, child labour, and fertility behaviour in a farming economy: rural Egypt. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 33.
- Lloyd, C.B., 1993. Fertility, family size and structure: consequences for families and children. In *Proceedings of a Population Council Seminar*. New York: The Population Council.
- Maitra, P. and Ray, R., 2000. *Intra-household Resource Allocations and their Impact on Expenditure Patterns: Comparative Evidence from South Africa and Pakistan*. Paper 2000-09, Department of Economics. Hobart, Australia: University of Tasmania.
- Mansoor, S., 2010. The miseducation of Pakistan—fits of the state have ill served our schools. *Pakistan Newsweek*, November 22 & 29, 2010.
- Ministry of Finance, 2009. *Economic Survey 2009/10*. Islamabad: Ministry of Finance.
- MOE, 2005. *State of Education in Pakistan 2003/04*. Islamabad: Ministry of Education.
- MOE, 2009a. *National Education Policy 2009*. Islamabad: Ministry of Education.
- MOE, 2009b. *Education Sector Reforms: Action Plan 2001–2004*. Islamabad: Ministry of Education.
- Mohiuddin, S., 2008. *An Evaluation Study of Early Childhood Education (ECE) in Pakistan*. PhD Thesis. Karachi: Hamdard University.

- NIPS, 2008. *Pakistan Demographic and Health Survey (PDHS) 2006/07*. Islamabad: National Institute of Population Studies.
- Pakistan Education Task Force, 2010. *Education Emergency Report*. Islamabad: Pakistan Education Task Force.
- Patrinós, H.A. and Psacharopoulos, G., 1997. Family size, schooling and child labour in Peru –an empirical analysis. *Journal of Population Economics*, 10: 387–405.
- PEAS 2008. *Provincial Report in Assessment of Students' Learning 2008*. Lahore: Punjab Education Assessment System, School Education Department, Government of Punjab.
- PEF, 2011. *Continuous Professional Development Program (CPDP). Overview*. Islamabad: Punjab Education Foundation.
- Planning Commission, 2010. *Pakistan Millennium Development Goal Report 2010: Development Amidst Crisis*. Islamabad: Centre of Poverty Reduction and Social Policy Development.
- Population Council, 2011. *What Worked and Why in Girls' Education: Experience from Yesteryears*. Islamabad: Population Council.
- Punjab Bureau of Statistics, 2009. *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) Punjab 2007–08*. Lahore: Planning and Development Department, Government of Punjab.
- Rahman, T., 2004. Education policies in Pakistan. *Pakistan Perspectives*, 9(1): 73–90.
- Ranjan, P., 2001. Credit constraints and the phenomenon of child labour. *Journal of Development Economics*, 64: 81–102.
- Rosenweig, M.R. and Evenson, R., 1977. Fertility, schooling and the economic contribution of children in rural India: an econometric analysis. *Econometrica*, 45: 1065–1079.
- SAFED, 2009. *Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) 2008*. Lahore: South Asia Forum for Education Development.
- SAFED, 2011. *Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) 2010*. Lahore: South Asia Forum for Education Development.
- Sahil, H., 2009. Against child sexual abuse. *Quarterly Magazine*, January–March.
- Sathar, Z. and Lloyd, C., 1994. Who gets primary schooling in Pakistan: inequalities among and within families? *Pakistan Development Review*, 33: 103–134.
- Save the Children, 2010. *The Future of Flood-Affected Children*. Islamabad: Save the Children.
- Shah, D., 2009. Monitoring the quality of secondary education in the context of decentralization in Pakistan. *Bulletin of Education and Research*, 31(1): 1–25.
- Shahnaz, L., 2011. *Households' Time Allocation for Children and their Interaction with Adult Labour: Evidence from Pakistan*. PhD dissertation. Department of Economics, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad.
- Shahnaz, L. and Burki, A.A., 2013. *Why Children Go to Work and Do not Attend School? Empirical Evidence from Pakistan*. LUMS Economics Working Paper Series, Department of Economics, Lahore University of Management Sciences, Lahore. [Forthcoming.]
- Sindh EMIS and Reform Support Unit, 2010. *Annual School Census: 2009/10*. Sindh: Government of Sindh.
- Sindh EMIS and Reform Support Unit, 2010. *Sindh Education Profile: 2009/10*. Sindh: Government of Sindh.
- Sindh Planning and Development Department, 2005. *Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) Sindh 2003/04*. Karachi: Planning and Development Department, Government of Sindh.
- Skoufias, E., 1994. Market wages, family composition and the time allocation of children in agricultural households. *Journal of Development Studies*, 30: 335–360.
- Skoufias, E. and Parker, S.W., 2001. *Labour Market Shocks and their Impacts on Work and Schooling: Evidence from Urban Mexico*. FCND Discussion Paper No. 129. Washington DC: International Food Policy Research Institute.
- Sohaib S. and Khan, J., 2004. *Scaling up Poverty Reduction: Case of the Rural Support Programmes in Pakistan*. Islamabad: World Bank.
- SPARC, 2008. *The State of Pakistan's Children 2008. SPARC Annual Report*. Islamabad: Society for Protection of the Rights of the Child.

- SPARC, 2010. *The State of Pakistan's Children Report 2009*. Islamabad: Society for the Protection of the Rights of the Child.
- Tanaka, R., 2003. Inequality as a determinant of child labour. *Economics Letters*, 80: 93–97.
- UIS, 2005. *Children Out of School: Measuring Exclusion from Primary Education*. Geneva: UNESCO Institute of Statistics and UNICEF.
- UNDP, 2011. *Human Development Report 2011. Sustainability and Equity: A Better Future for All*. New York: UNDP.
- UIS, 2012. *Online Database and Glossary*. UNESCO Institute for Statistics. <http://www.uis.unesco.org>
- UNESCO, 2006. *Pakistan Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) Programmes*. Geneva: International Bureau of Education (IBE).
- UNESCO, 2010. *Access to Secondary Education*. Bangkok: UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education.
- UNFPA, 2000. *The State of World Population*. New York: UNFPA.
- UNICEF, 2001. *Corporal Punishment in Schools in South Asia*. Kathmandu: UNICEF Regional Office for South Asia.
- UNICEF and UIS, 2011. *Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF). Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children*. New York: UNICEF and UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (Unpublished.)
- UNICEF, 2008. *Child-friendly Schools in Punjab Province, Pakistan*. Islamabad: UNICEF.
- UNICEF, 2011a. *Pakistan. Statistics*. http://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/pakistan_pakistan_statistics.html
- UNICEF, 2012. *Situation Analysis of Children and Women in Pakistan*. Islamabad: UNICEF Pakistan.
- UNICEF, 2011b. *The State of the World's Children 2011: Adolescence—An Age of Opportunity*. New York: UNICEF.
- USAID, 2008. *Assessing the Impact of Devolution on Healthcare and Education in Pakistan*. Islamabad: United States Agency for International Development.
- Wahba, J., 2006. The influence of market wages and parental history on child labour and schooling in Egypt. *Journal of Population Economics*, 19: 823–852.
- Zafar, F., 2003. *Fiscal Devolution in Education*. Lahore: Society for Advancement of Education (SAHE).
- Zafar, F., 2010. *Situation Analysis of Gender Disparities in Primary and Middle Education in the Punjab: Case Studies of Khanewal and Rawalpindi Districts*. Society for Advancement of Education (SAHE).

ANNEX 1: ANALYSIS OF ALTERNATIVE DATA SOURCES

Ideally, one would like to use MICS data for the four provinces, as MICS has a much wider sample size than the PSLM and so is more representative. However, there are other issues that militate against the use of MICS data.

- The MICS for each province or region is conducted in different years. Hence, analysis based on MICS data may lack required consistency and comparability. Although MICS data are being updated for all regions for some provinces such as Sindh the data are old, going back to 2003–04. In this regard, the PSLM is more appropriate as a source because of its newer data (2008–09 and 2010–11), which is consistently available for all four provinces.
- The biggest drawback to using the MICS to generate tables for this study is the non-availability of MICS micro-data, i.e., original data tapes at the household and individual level. It should be stressed that micro-data required for this purpose should not be confused with the published reports of provincial MICS.
- PSLM data for 2010–11 are available for the four provinces, but do not cover other regions, e.g., the Federally Administered Tribal Areas and Azad Jammu and Kashmir. The best option would be to use PSLM 2010–11 data to generate tables for the four provinces and MICS data to extend analysis to the Federally Administered Tribal Areas and Azad Jammu and Kashmir. However, it would

be essential to have access to original MICS data tapes to do this, and this is not possible.

Another potential source is the Demographic Health Survey (DHS)—this is conducted using the same methodology and questionnaires for all countries in all years. This allows for strong cross-country comparisons. As an example, in the 'household member' data file for Pakistan DHS 2006–07, the variable 'hv106' refers to 'highest educational level'; it is the same variable in the same file for DHA Cambodia 2005–06 (used as an example in the CMF). However, it is possible that the DHS for a country in a particular year may not ask/include certain questions.

Given this, the Stata code to generate OOSC tables was applied precisely to the data available in

- Data on pre-primary education were not available; therefore, relevant tables could not be generated. Questions related to school attainment were asked only of children aged five years and above.
- Adjusted net enrolment rate (ANER) could not be computed due to the non-availability of enrolment data in the household survey.
- Tables related to child labour and the education of children in the previous year could also not be generated as relevant data were not available.
- The DHS incorrectly accounts for 'current status of school attendance'; therefore, tables requiring the use of attendance data could not be computed.

Thus, it was not possible to generate the required information from the Pakistan DHS 2006–07.

ANNEX 2: QUALITATIVE COMPARATIVE STUDY OF OOSC IN FLOOD-AFFECTED AND NON-FLOOD COMMUNITIES

The analysis presented below used a qualitative methodology to contrast OOSC in flood-affected and non-flood areas. A household survey was conducted in Muzaffargarh (Punjab) and Shikarpur (Sindh) to investigate the characteristics of OOSC.

A2.1 Findings from the survey

The National Commission for Human Development (NCHD), UNICEF and national and international NGOs were working on (i) improving the conditions and quality of schools in the districts through repair and maintenance; (ii) setting up temporary learning centres; and (iii) training teachers, education managers and school management committees on disaster risk reduction, psychosocial support, instructional support, child protection, etc. The Children's Global Network and NCHD were working on running and rehabilitating damaged schools to cater for more than 17,000 children.

Barriers and bottlenecks: There is no link between knowledge about OOSC and the implementation of programmes related to OOSC. There is a lack of information-sharing with teachers at district and provincial levels. According to the *nazimeen*, poverty and large family size result in children having to work. Furthermore, when both parents are working, the responsibility for looking after other siblings falls on the eldest child. Social protection policies are vulnerable to political influence, thus identifying their impact is difficult. Creating job opportunities and raising parental awareness are identified as instrumental in reducing the number of OOSC and child labourers. Schools are unable to maintain children's interest in education, thus resulting in children dropping out. This can be partly attributed to the dual language system used in education (Urdu/English). There is a lack of motivated and good-quality teachers at the primary level, resulting in a high teacher-to-student ratio. At lower secondary level, the shortage of schools and mobility issues, especially for female teachers, are major problems. There is a need for the role of the teacher to extend beyond the school out into the community, as teachers are not concerned with how many students drop out of their class. No action is taken against poor-performing or absent teachers, as most are contracted through political connections. There are no variations in the attitude towards education due to variations in religion; variations do exist due to variations in castes/tribes. Variations also exist across districts due to variations in the socioeconomic status of communities. There are a

few large landlords who have political power and a feudal mindset against education. High repetition rates in pre-primary and Grade 1 have been attributed to the existence of malnutrition among children of this age.

Survey findings: The flood-affected communities in Muzaffargarh were Khanwala and Moria, and the non-flood communities were Ghulamwala and Sultanwala. More children were in school in flood-affected communities. With the exception of Khanwala, more boys than girls were in school. More children were enrolled in government schools; younger children were studying in temporary learning centres set up by NCHD. In comparison to lower secondary level, a large number of children dropped out of primary school and most dropouts were child labourers, in both villages and towns. The highest number of OOSC was in non-flood communities. Technical training has emerged as an option for both boys and girls. Overage students were common, with children aged up to 13 years enrolled in Grade 1. Dropout is common after the age of 10 years, regardless of whether primary education has been completed or not. Households mainly reported access to government schools, with very few children attending private schools.

Major reasons stated by households for having OOSC were poverty and poor school facilities. There was a demand for stipends in the case of boys, although they were not even available for girls. Sultanwala was a conservative community and it had the largest number of working children. Almost all households in flood-affected communities had had their home completely destroyed. Most households consisted of single families and the majority had male heads. The average household size was 7.45 persons; Moria had the smallest household size. Within households, there were more boys than girls and, in most cases, both parents were alive. However, when the father was not alive, the responsibility for looking after the family fell on the eldest son. Although most households were aware of the need for cleanliness, waste disposal was an issue for more than three quarters of households. Drainage was inadequate, particularly in flood-affected areas. Most people used open spaces as toilets, although temporary latrines had been constructed by NGOs. Water for drinking was not boiled. Despite having access to doctors, many households did not use this facility. One third of households resorted to self-medication. One quarter of household members were reported as being sick at the time of the survey, with more instances in

Sultanwala and Moria. There was a small gender gap; only in Sultanwala was the gender gap wide. Both flood-affected communities reported shortage of food. In all communities except Sultanwala, two thirds of households could be classified as very poor. Most householders were tenants. The gender gap in daily earnings was significant. One third of households actively discouraged their children from working. More children were discouraged from working in flood-affected areas than in non-flood areas. Child labour was seen as making a significant contribution to the household after children reached the age of 12 years and stopped their education.

Most households in flood-affected areas received some form of external financial support, while few in non-flood areas received it. Most households spent this support on buying food or rebuilding their house; very few spent it on education. In 90 percent of cases the house had been completely destroyed. At the time of the survey, most people were living in their own homes and only a few were in rented or temporary accommodation. Only a few schools were damaged; at the time of the survey, most were functioning in their own premises, while 10 percent were in alternate spaces provided by the community. More households in Khanwala than in Moria were aware of rehabilitation work done on the school. Latrine facilities were reported to be useable by less than 50 percent of households. More children were out of school due to flood losses in Moria than in Khanwala. Health issues arose after the flood, and this was attributed to the lack of health facilities. Free medicines were provided to half of households; however, only a few children were vaccinated in Moria and none in Khanwala.

Due to the loss of most physical structures and social settings in flood-affected communities, everyone was suffering. Thus, prioritizing education had become a problem, especially during the rebuilding phase. Communities were waiting for external help to revive schools, affecting the re-entry of their children to school. In flood-affected communities compared to non-flood communities, households were using this as a reason for not sending their children to school; they had diverted their attention to economic and infrastructural revival. Variations existed at the school level; only a few schools had been improved through external interventions. Attendance generally was irregular and there was high dropout in the majority of primary and lower secondary schools. Variations existed in the responses between households with children in school and those with children out of school. Teachers were more concerned with supply-side issues than demand-side issues when it came to explaining the high dropout rate. They said that OOSC were exposed to poverty, flood adversities, parental negligence and teachers' insensitivity. School-going children were more concerned about inadequate school facilities; they did not express discomfort with

the teachers and claimed to be interested in studies. They seemed sympathetic towards those who were not in school.

Poverty was at the core of many issues, making education a scarce opportunity. Although many parents realized the value of education, they reported being helpless as they needed their children to work and contribute to the family's survival, even in average-sized households. Their preference was to make boys earn a living. A girl's role was predominantly considered to be household chores. They were also concerned with protecting their family's honour by following religious injunctions.

A2.2 Bottlenecks and barriers identified

Socio-cultural issues

- Family and caste-based values creating hurdles in girls' education—Jat and Baloch
- Uncertainty and insecurity of job prospects for educated poor
- Emotional trauma in flood-affected areas
- Focus on shaping child into good Muslims—*madrasah* was considered a good education
- Perception of dispossession, vulnerability, pessimism and disbelief
- Gender insensitivity (patriarchal)
- Large family size
Children's inclination towards earning rather than schooling

Supply-side issues

- Inadequate number of teachers
- Poor condition of school furniture and other facilities or none at all
- Distance to school

Demand-side issues

- Distance to school
- Cost of overheads (notebooks, stationery, uniforms, etc.)

Poverty and child labour

- Majority below poverty line
- High unemployment in educated youth
- Average income less than the minimum requirement
- Paid child labour mostly for boys
- Average age for child labourers was 10–14 years.
- High trend of child labour in villages nearest to industries and mills

Gender

- Paid labour for girls not common
- Islamic studies compulsory for girls
- Restricted mobility for older girls
- Equal rights for boys and girls an exception

Ethnic/caste/language issues

- Jat and Baloch cultural norms against the education of girls

ANNEX 3: WHY CHILDREN GO TO WORK AND DO NOT ATTEND SCHOOL — EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE FROM PAKISTAN¹⁵

In development literature, there are various explanations on why children go to work and do not attend school. Market demand and supply factors are often cited as key explanatory variables determining the outcome on child labour and schooling (Grootaert, 1998; Basu, 1999; Kambhampati and Rajan, 2006). On the supply side, households' attitudes to education, health and resource provision vary depending upon their socioeconomic status, which in turn is determined by the factors surrounding each household, including but not limited to education and employment status of parents, size and composition of the households, etc. Moreover, based on focus group discussions conducted by UNICEF in 2011 with working street children in Karachi, there was clear evidence that, as the size of the family increases, the possibility of a child going to school reduces whilst that of working increases (UNICEF, 2012). Of the children interviewed, none was first born; in fact, most were the third or fourth child of the household. The eldest son of the household mostly went to school. Hence, there was clear evidence that as family size increases, it has direct impact on poverty, and increased poverty reduces the possibility of a child going to school and increases the chances of child labour.

However, demand-side factors are mostly external to households. Because agricultural production systems in developing countries are dominated by labour-intensive technologies, it is often seen that children assist their parents in farm-related activities. Particularly, the intensive nature of small-scale production activities makes substitution between adult and child labour very high. Moreover, demand for child labour may also come from households engaged in self-employment activities, or from those where peculiar circumstances may warrant engagement of children in household chores so that they are able to free up adult members to engage in more lucrative jobs (Kruger, 2007).

The following provides empirical evidence on the determinants of child labour and schooling in rural Pakistan. Using the large pooled cross-sectional data obtained from the Household Integrated Economic Survey (HIES), this study investigates the determinants of child labour and schooling. It begins with the basic empirical model.

The analysis begins with two basic econometric models on child labour and schooling. As in Edmonds and Pavcnik (2005), our choice of empirical specification is the linear probability model (LPM), which not only provides quite similar estimates to the probit or the logit models but also is more convenient to interpret, as its estimated coefficients directly indicate marginal effects. Two LPM regressions are specified as

$$C_{ijkt} = a_1 X_{iht} + u_{kt} + t_t + d_j + e_{ijkt} \quad (1)$$

$$S_{ijkt} = a_1 X_{iht} + u_{kt} + t_t + d_j + e_{ijkt} \quad (2)$$

where C and S are for child labour and schooling, respectively; *i* is for the *ith* child, in *hth* household, residing in *jth* district, in *kth* province, in survey year *t*; X_{iht} is a vector of individual and household control variables, viz., household head's education, household head's sector of employment, household head's gender, interaction terms for mother's education both with boys and girls, interaction terms for mother's employment status with boys and girls, household size, child's age and gender, nuclear family, and siblings below five years old and above five years old; u_{kt} is for (province*survey year series) to capture province-level trends that vary over time across provinces; t_t controls for seasonal variation in child labour and schooling, which is represented by a vector of month dummy variables indicating the month in which the interview took place; d_j controls for spatial variation captured by 57 district dummy variables; and e_{ijkt} is the error term.

The empirical specifications presented in Eq. (1) and Eq. (2) can be viewed as reduced form models that reflect the demand for and supply of child labour and schooling. Various functional forms were tried for child labour and schooling models and the ones with best goodness-of-fit were selected.

Analysis is based on household- and individual-level data obtained from eight rounds of the HIES, viz., HIES 1990–91, HIES 1992–93, HIES 1993–94, HIES 1996–97, HIES-PIHS 1998–99, HIES-PIHS 2001–02, PSLM-HIES 2005–06 and PSLM-HIES 2007–08. The analysis is based on data from rural domains only¹⁶.

The household survey data is supplemented by data of adult and market wages obtained from eight rounds of

¹⁵ This section draws on Shahnaz (2011) and Shahnaz and Burki (2013).

¹⁶ In the rural domain of the household survey, each administrative district in Punjab, Sindh and North West Frontier Province (now Khyber Pakhtunkhwa) is treated as an independent stratum, while each administrative division from Balochistan is also treated as a stratum. Therefore, each rural district is easily identified from its district code. Due to the obvious ambiguity in classification of the urban sampling frame, this study only focuses on data obtained from rural districts of Pakistan.

the Labour Force Surveys (LFS) for the corresponding years¹⁷. The household survey data provide comprehensive information on individual and household attributes of children aged 10–14 years including information on schooling and labour market participation. Original data tapes of the relevant survey rounds of HIES and LFS were used to extract data on child characteristics.

ILO defines the age range for child labour as all boys and girls aged 14 years or below, but the employment section of household survey asks information only on boys and girls aged 10 years or above. Hence, this study takes children aged 10–14 years for the empirical analysis. District boundaries in the last survey round used here (i.e., 2007–08) were significantly different from the first survey round (i.e., 1990–91). In some instances, new district demarcations were done, while in others a few tehsils/towns were taken out of a district. To avoid such inconsistency in survey data, this study keeps the original demarcation of districts and boundaries as was used in HIES 1990–91 and carries it forward to all subsequent rounds. Necessary adjustments were made where required to generate consistent cross-section time-series data for the eight rounds. Each individual/household from Punjab, Sindh and North West Frontier Province was identified by district code. However, for Balochistan individuals were identified on the basis of divisions (instead of districts) because the survey only identifies administrative divisions. With this characterization, a total of 57 rural districts (i.e., 53 districts from Punjab, Sindh and North West Frontier Province, and four rural divisions from Balochistan) are selected. Total working sample consists of 60,263 boys and girls.

The two binary dependent variables are child labour and schooling. Child labour is a dummy variable, which equals 1 if a child (aged 10–14 years) worked for at least one hour in the month preceding the interview, including unpaid, casual and illegal work as well as work in the informal sector, and paid and unpaid work in family enterprise, domestic work carried out in another household but not including household chores in one's own home, and equals 0 otherwise¹⁸. Child schooling is a dummy variable that equals 1 if a child (aged 10–14 years) attended school in the month preceding the interview, including government schools, private schools, religious schools, NGO schools and trust or foundation schools, and 0 otherwise.

Market wages of adults are normalized by consumer price index with base year 2000–01 to convert them

into real wages. Child wage is determined by the market wages of 10–14-year-olds in the relevant LFS. Variation in income inequality is measured by the Gini index, which is a continuous variable ranging between 0 and 1. While the association between income inequality and child labour and schooling is an empirical question, a priori expectation is that regions with more income inequality may have higher incidence of child labour and lower schooling.

Household control variables included in the regressions are child's gender, child's age, household size, literacy and employment status of mothers of boys and girls, household head's employment, household head's education, gender of the household head, nuclear family status, and sibling characteristics¹⁹. Since employment and education status of mothers has a key role to play in household time allocation for children, the regressions also include interaction terms for working mothers and literate mothers with the gender of the child. Moreover, the regressions also include province-level trends to capture time-varying economic changes in each province during each year. Seasonal variation is captured by a month dummy, which indicates the month the household was interviewed. To capture district-specific time-invariant characteristics, the regressions include 57 district dummy variables to capture district-fixed effects.

The description of empirical results starts off with comments on some key relationships that have already been established by previous studies. The report then proceeds to examine the other key relationships with child labour and schooling.

A3.1 Key relationships for child labour and schooling

It is well documented in existing research that the socioeconomic status of the household dominates the decision to involve a child in market work or schooling. However, the empirical evidence of whether these two decisions are interdependent is mixed. In the case of rural Pakistan, supply constraints facing schooling, specifically in the case of young girls in terms of access and quality characteristics, would justify the assumption of mutually exclusive decisions.

Table A3.1 presents full sample (boys and girls) regression results for child labour and schooling. The impact of most of the socioeconomic and residence characteristics on child labour and schooling are the inverse of each other. Daughters of working mothers

¹⁷LFS data for adult and child wage is used because the LFS is best suited to the collection of comprehensive statistics on various dimensions of the civilian labour force in the country, by employing standard definitions set by the ILO.

¹⁸This definition is borrowed from ILO and used on survey data to identify the status of children.

¹⁹Lloyd (1993), DeGraff et al. (1993) and Patrinos and Psacharopoulos (1997) have shown that each child has a different probability of being engaged in work depending upon the age of siblings in the same household.

are 2.3 times more likely to become child labourers than sons of working mothers. Similarly, sons of literate mothers are 7.3 times less likely to become child labourers than the sons of illiterate mothers. Likewise, daughters of literate mothers are also less likely to become child labourers. This is consistent with the findings of DeGraff *et al.* (1993) who find that mother's education produces a negative impact on child's market work in the Philippines²⁰.

As the household head's education level increases, the probability of a child going to work declines. The negative and significant impact of household size on child labour supply may reflect intra-household substitution of older children for younger children. The age of a child plays an important role in a household's decision for time allocation of their children. The results indicate that the probability of child labour significantly increases with age; an 11-year-old is nearly 1.5 times more likely to go to work than a 10-year-old, but this probability gradually increases to 5.7, 8.7 and 13.9 times for 12-year-olds, 13-year-olds

and 14-year-olds, respectively. These results lend support to the general view held by other studies on Pakistan's data including those by Maitra and Ray (2000) and Burki and Fasih (1998) that the probability of work is many times greater for older children than younger ones. The probability of a child going to work significantly increases for children who are born to households where the head is self-employed, or the head is engaged in agriculture or manufacturing activities.

By far the most important result in Table A3.1 is the differential impact of the probabilities of child labour for boys and girls in the full sample. Results show that, holding all else constant, girls are nearly 10 times less likely to go to work than boys. In other words, households respond differently to allocating the time of boys and girls due to the prevailing economic environment. This indicates that the estimated slope parameters are likely to be different for the boys' and girls' sample, which warrants splitting of the sample in two by gender for further analysis.

²⁰Household income is endogenous to child labour and schooling decisions of the household; therefore, other control variables are used in the literature (including this study) to control for income. These controls include parent's education and employment status, among others.

Table A3.1: Full sample regression results for child labour and schooling

Variables	Child labour	Schooling
Mother works × boy	0.093*** (0.0045)	-0.056*** (0.0063)
Mother works × girl	0.234*** (0.0046)	-0.032*** (0.0066)
Mother literate × boy	-0.073*** (0.0073)	0.039*** (0.0103)
Mother literate × girl	-0.014* (0.00731)	0.260*** (0.0103)
Child is 11 years old	0.015*** (0.00419)	0.068*** (0.0059)
Child is 12 years old	0.057*** (0.00344)	0.057*** (0.0049)
Child is 13 years old	0.087*** (0.00396)	0.076*** (0.0056)
Child is 14 years old	0.139*** (0.00375)	0.029*** (0.0053)
Child is female	-0.103*** (0.00287)	-0.292*** (0.0040)
Head education is below primary (yes=1; no=0)	-0.040*** (0.0060)	0.094*** (0.0084)
Head education is primary (yes=1; no=0)	-0.061*** (0.00386)	0.152*** (0.0054)
Head education is secondary (yes=1; no=0)	-0.068*** (0.0040)	0.225*** (0.0056)
Head education is above secondary (yes=1; no=0)	-0.077*** (0.00638)	0.300*** (0.0090)
Nuclear family (yes=1; no=0)	-0.011*** (0.0031)	0.005 (0.0044)
Household size in numbers	-0.0032*** (0.00047)	0.0055*** (0.00066)
Head employed in agriculture (yes=1; no=0)	0.058*** (0.0046)	-0.067*** (0.0064)
Head employed in manufacturing (yes=1; no=0)	0.020*** (0.0066)	-0.043*** (0.0093)
Head employed in construction (yes=1; no=0)	0.007 (0.0061)	-0.070*** (0.0085)
Head employed in wholesale trade (yes=1; no=0)	0.0037 (0.0061)	-0.028*** (0.0086)
Head employed in transport & storage (yes=1; no=0)	-0.004 (0.0067)	-0.022** (0.0095)
Head employed in social services (yes=1; no=0)	-0.009* (0.0054)	0.011 (0.0075)
Head self-employed (yes=1; no=0)	0.0174*** (0.0033)	0.0199*** (0.0047)
Head is female (yes=1; no=0)	-0.0008 (0.0060)	0.116*** (0.0085)
Infants up to five years of age present	0.006*** (0.0013)	-0.015*** (0.0019)
Children above five years of age present	0.0016* (0.0009)	-0.0039*** (0.0013)
Province × survey year series	Yes	Yes
Season effects (survey months)	Yes	Yes
District fixed effects	Yes	Yes
R ²	0.151	0.257
Observations	60,263	60,263

Notes: The robust standard errors in parenthesis are adjusted for district cluster effects. *, ** and *** denote statistical significance at the 10, 5 and 1 levels, respectively. The regressions include intercept terms, but they are not reported. If not * then the statistical significance level is beyond the accepted level.

Contrary to the findings of the child labour model, boys and girls of working mothers are respectively 5.6 and 3.2 times less likely to go to school than the omitted category. The estimated coefficients of mother literate \times boy and mother literate \times girl are both significantly positive but the magnitude of the mother literate \times girl coefficient is nearly seven times larger than the mother literate \times boy coefficient. The difference in these two coefficients indicates that mother's education produces a much stronger impact on the schooling of girls than on the schooling of boys. The coefficients on educational attainment of the household head are an important predictor of schooling; the probability of boys and girls attending school increases monotonically with an increase in the education level of the household head. The probability of enrolment in female-headed households is 11.6 greater than in male-headed households, which is another indicator of the importance of a mother's education. Consistent with the results on child labour, the estimated coefficients for child's age imply that the likelihood of children being in school decreases with age. This is also corroborated by Sathar and Lloyd (1994) with Pakistani data. While the probability of attending school also increases in larger households, nuclear families and female-headed households, the probability of attending school goes down if siblings are present in the same household. That girls respond differently than boys to changes in socioeconomic conditions is further revealed by the finding that girls are 29 times less likely to attend school than boys.

These results suggest the importance of separating the full sample into boys and girls because there may be structural differences in the parameter estimates of the two sub-samples. We must, therefore, turn to the estimated effects of factors on child labour and schooling separately for boys and girls.

A3.2 Do adult and child wages affect child labour and schooling²¹?

In two influential articles, Basu and Van (1998) and Basu (1999) note that a household's concern for survival along with the possibility of substitution between adult and child labour determines whether a household sends its children to school or to work. Basu and Van (1998) argue that low market wages can lead to more child labour and less schooling when adult income in a household is below a certain threshold.

Most empirical studies point towards a negative relationship between adult wages and child labour (e.g., Rozenweig and Evenson, 1977). Levy (1985) shows that adult male wages have a negative impact, while adult female wages have a positive correlation with child labour and child schooling. By contrast, Skoufias (1994) finds that market wages of adults have

no significant impact on child labour and schooling. Wahba (2006) finds that adult market wages of illiterate adults render a strong negative impact on paid and unpaid child labour in Egypt. In a slightly different context, Fafchamps and Wahba (2006) also confirm the presence of a strong negative relationship between wage rate and child labour in the market for subsistence work. Ranjan (2001) and Tanaka (2003) use theoretical models to demonstrate that for given income distributions, areas with low adult wages would have high child labour, and vice versa. In sum, the impact of adult wages on child labour and schooling is a priori ambiguous.

To explore this relationship on Pakistan's data, the benchmark models presented above are augmented. For this, two more variables are introduced, viz., the district-level adult wage and the district-level child wage. The modified regression equation is written as

$$C_{ihjt} = b_1 RW_{jt} + a_1 X_{iht} + u_{kt} + t_t + d_j + e_{ihjt} \quad (3)$$

$$S_{ihjt} = b_1 RW_{jt} + a_1 X_{iht} + u_{kt} + t_t + d_j + e_{ihjt} \quad (4)$$

where in addition to the variables defined in Eq. (1) and Eq. (2), RW_{jt} is taken as a vector of the adult and child wage both at the district-level. Because these indicators vary across districts, they are exogenous to a household. The coefficient vector b_1 is for change in probability that a child works (or attends school) associated with a 1 increase in wages. This specification is estimated separately for child labour and schooling on the data of boys and girls.

The estimated effects of market wages on child labour of boys and girls are presented in Table A3.2. Due to high collinearity between adult and child wages, two separate models are run. The statistically insignificant coefficients for log (adult wage) and log (child wage) can be interpreted as an indication that higher adult market and child wages are not associated with a lessening of the supply of boys' child labour. It implies that, all else being constant, increased adult and child wages do not prevent parents from sending their sons to work. In the terminology of Basu and Van (1998), the net effect of increased income through higher wages on child labour would be determined by the relative strength of the income and the substitution effects. Likewise, the districts with higher adult wages would have less child labour only if the income effect dominates the substitution effect. However, the results from the boys' sample indicate that the income effect is not strong enough to produce a negative relationship between adult wages and boys' child labour. Therefore, districts with higher adult wages do not significantly prevent the child labour of boys. Higher adult wages increase the child labour of boys when both father and mother are illiterate.

²¹ This section draws on Shahnaz (2011) and Shahnaz and Burki (2013).

Just like the full model, sons of working mothers are more likely to work and sons of literate mothers are less likely to work. As in the full sample, there are incremental gains in reducing child labour with an increase in the education of the household head. Larger households, nuclear families and households with female heads decrease the incidence of child labour in the boys' sample. However, self-employed female-headed households and households with siblings present increase the probability of boys' child labour.

The results for the girls' sample strongly indicate that, holding all else constant, low adult market wages lead to significantly more child labour of girls in rural Pakistan. The estimated coefficient implies that an increase in the log of the district adult wage by 0.451 (its standard deviation) lowers the probability of girls' child labour by around 1.57. These results corroborate the theoretical predictions of Basu and Van (1998) and Tanaka (2003) as well as the empirical findings of Wahba (2006) that market wages of adults render a strong negative impact on child labour. The coefficient for log (child wage) is again statistically insignificant, which indicates that just like boys, girls' child labour is also not influenced by child wages.

It appears from these results that households in rural Pakistan substitute the child labour of girls with adult labour only when survival of the household is the foremost concern. As suggested by Basu and Van (1998), low market wages force low-income households to involve their daughters more in child labour and less in schooling. Therefore, low adult wages cause the substitution effect to dominate the income effect. By contrast, boys' child labour appears to be determined by cultural norms and social traditions in many parts of rural Pakistan where changes in adult market wages do not influence a household's decision to put a child to work or into school. Therefore, a household's decision on boys' time allocation is more likely to be influenced by other factors, such as the nature of the schooling infrastructure present. Better schooling infrastructure at the community level may persuade low-income households to increase schooling and decrease child labour. Whether a causal relationship between schooling infrastructure and enrolment in school is indeed present is investigated next.

Table A3.2: Effects of market wages on child labour of boys and girls

Variables	Boys		Girls	
	Adult wage only	Child wage only	Adult wage only	Child wage only
Log adult wage	-0.0097 (0.0079)	--	-0.0348*** (0.0062)	--
Log child wage	--	0.000731 (0.0053)	--	-0.00893 (0.0091)
Mother works × boy	0.0882*** (0.0052)	0.0884*** (0.0051)	--	--
Mother works × girl	--	--	0.243*** (0.0040)	0.243*** (0.0040)
Mother literate × boy	-0.0493*** (0.0084)	-0.0493*** (0.0084)	--	--
Mother literate × girl	--	--	-0.0393*** (0.0062)	-0.0395*** (0.0062)
Head education is below primary (yes=1; no=0)	-0.0515*** (0.0091)	-0.0517*** (0.0091)	-0.0238*** (0.0072)	-0.0241*** (0.0072)
Head education is primary (yes=1; no=0)	-0.0915*** (0.0059)	-0.0916*** (0.0059)	-0.0240*** (0.0046)	-0.0242*** (0.0046)
Head education is secondary (yes=1; no=0)	-0.101*** (0.0062)	-0.101*** (0.0062)	-0.0290*** (0.0047)	-0.0295*** (0.0047)
Head education is above secondary (yes=1; no=0)	-0.113*** (0.0098)	-0.113*** (0.0098)	-0.0319*** (0.0076)	-0.0320*** (0.0076)
Nuclear family (yes=1; no=0)	-0.0112** (0.0048)	-0.0110** (0.0047)	-0.0141*** (0.0037)	-0.0135*** (0.0037)
Household size in numbers	-0.0047*** (0.00072)	-0.00461*** (0.00072)	-0.00143*** (0.00053)	-0.00131** (0.00053)
Head is female	-0.0298*** (0.0094)	-0.0295*** (0.0094)	0.0312*** (0.0072)	0.0317*** (0.0072)
Head is self-employed	0.0239*** (0.0051)	0.0246*** (0.0050)	0.00498 (0.0039)	0.00672* (0.0039)
Head self-employed × head female	0.161*** (0.0529)	0.160*** (0.052)	0.0110 (0.041)	0.00910 (0.0410)
Infants up to five years of age present	0.0059*** (0.0021)	0.00608*** (0.0021)	0.00430*** (0.0016)	0.00472*** (0.0016)
Children above five years of age present	0.0030** (0.0014)	0.00259* (0.0013)	0.00247** (0.0010)	0.00151 (0.0010)
Child age	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Head sector of employment	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Province × survey year series	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Season effects (survey months)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
District fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
R ²	0.1305	0.1305	0.2102	0.2095
No. of observations	31,786	31,786	28,477	28,477

Notes: The robust standard errors in parenthesis are adjusted for district cluster effects. *, ** and *** denote statistical significance at the 10, 5 and 1 levels, respectively. The regressions include intercept terms, but they are not reported. If not * then the statistical significance level is beyond the accepted level.

The estimated coefficients for the control variables are very robust, as they produce very similar results to the full model as well as the boys' model. Hence, daughters of working mothers are more likely to work and daughters of literate mothers are less likely to work. Moreover, the education of the household head continues to play a strong part in reducing girls' child labour. Larger households, nuclear families and female-headed households are also positive

influences in reducing the incidence of girls' child labour. The presence of a female household head or a self-employed female household head has no significant impact on girls' child labour. However, the presence of siblings in the household increases the probability of girls' child labour; this effect becomes much stronger when younger siblings are present in the household.

The determinants of schooling are estimated with the same set of variables that were used in child labour specifications. The aim here is to examine the impact of adult market wages on schooling. Table A3.3 summarizes the results for both boys and girls.

The estimated coefficient of adult wages is significantly positive for both boys and girls. It implies that, holding other explanatory variables constant, an increase in the log of local adult wages by 0.451 (its standard deviation) raises the probability of boys' schooling by 5.72 and girls' schooling by 4.45. Following Basu and Van (1998), the net effect on schooling of increased income through higher wages is determined by the relative strength of the income and substitution effects. The results of this analysis suggest that districts with higher adult wages have greater schooling for both boys and girls, implying that the income effect of adult wages dominates the substitution effect. These results are in line with those of Fafchamps and Wahba (2006) who used data from Nepal to find that ward- or village-level wages are positively correlated with the school attendance of children. Similarly, Wahba (2006) also finds a positive relationship between adult market wages and school attendance in Egypt for both boys and girls.

The other estimated coefficients in Table A3.3 are consistent with the estimates for child labour, except

for the estimated coefficient of the log of child wage. While the effect of child wages is statistically insignificant in the boys' sample, this effect is significantly positive in the girls' sample. Given the results that higher child wages do not influence the supply of girls' child labour, the positive impact of local child wages on the schooling of girls in this sample simply signals higher returns attached to girls' schooling.

The results also indicate that sons and daughters of working mothers are respectively 4.2 and 3.8 times less likely to go to school; sons of literate mothers are 7.2 times more likely to go to school, while daughters of literate mothers are 22.9 times more likely. The household head's education level continues to have the strongest influence on the schooling of boys and girls, and this effect is somewhat stronger for boys than for girls. Boys and girls of nuclear families, larger households, self-employed household heads, and female household heads are significantly more likely to go to school. Consistent with the estimates of the child labour specifications, the results indicate that the presence of siblings in the household decreases the probability of both boys and girls going to school.

Table A3.3: Effects of market wages on schooling of boys and girls

Variables	Boys		Girls	
	Adult wage only	Child wage only	Adult wage only	Child wage only
Log adult wage	0.127*** (0.0104)	--	0.0987*** (0.00998)	--
Log child wage	--	0.0132 (0.0697)	--	0.0247*** (0.00658)
Mother works × boy	-0.0425*** (0.00684)	-0.0448*** (0.00685)	--	--
Mother works × girl	--	--	-0.0381*** (0.00639)	-0.0397*** (0.00639)
Mother literate × boy	0.0727*** (0.0111)	0.0732*** (0.0111)	--	--
Mother literate × girl	--	--	0.229*** (0.00993)	0.230*** (0.00994)
Head education is below primary (yes=1; no=0)	0.106*** (0.0120)	0.109*** (0.0120)	0.0830*** (0.0114)	0.0837*** (0.0115)
Head education is primary (yes=1; no=0)	0.170*** (0.00782)	0.171*** (0.00784)	0.135*** (0.00736)	0.136*** (0.00737)
Head education is secondary (yes=1; no=0)	0.221*** (0.00817)	0.223*** (0.00819)	0.235*** (0.00758)	0.236*** (0.00759)
Head education is above secondary (yes=1; no=0)	0.297*** (0.0130)	0.299*** (0.0130)	0.315*** (0.0122)	0.315*** (0.0122)
Nuclear family (yes=1; no=0)	0.00299 (0.00632)	0.000307 (0.00633)	0.00881 (0.00590)	0.00693 (0.00590)
Household size in numbers	0.00721*** (0.000956)	0.00665*** (0.000957)	0.00524*** (0.000856)	0.00491*** (0.000856)
Head is female	0.111*** (0.0125)	0.108*** (0.0125)	0.126*** (0.0116)	0.125*** (0.0116)
Head is self-employed	0.0193*** (0.00669)	0.0111* (0.00668)	0.0178*** (0.00631)	0.0128** (0.00630)
Head self-employed × head female	-0.0328 (0.0697)	-0.0217 (0.0699)	0.0555 (0.0652)	0.0611 (0.0653)
Infants up to five years of age present	-0.0126*** (0.00279)	-0.0147*** (0.00279)	-0.0215*** (0.00260)	-0.0228*** (0.00260)
Children above five years of age present	-0.00261 (0.00181)	0.00199 (0.00179)	-0.00442*** (0.00167)	-0.00167 (0.00165)
Child age	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Head sector of employment	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Province × survey year series	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Season effects (survey months)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
District fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Number of observations	31786	31786	28477	28477
R ²	0.179	0.176	0.260	0.258

Notes: The robust standard errors in parenthesis are adjusted for district cluster effects using Moulton. *, ** and *** denote statistical significance at the 10, 5 and 1 levels, respectively. The regressions include intercept terms, but they are not reported.

In sum the results indicate that, after controlling for household and regional variations, adult market wages do not influence the child labour of boys. However, at the same time, an increase in adult market wages leads to a decrease in the child labour of girls. These results support the view that boys' child labour may be strongly influenced by customs, social traditions and cultural norms where market forces do not influence a household's decision to put a child to work. This suggests that boys' time allocation decisions may be influenced by factors such as schooling infrastructure and teacher quality in respective communities. Unlike the results for boys, the child labour of girls is strongly influenced by market forces, where increased adult wages lower the demand for girls' child labour. The empirical specifications for schooling show that adult market wages have a strong positive impact on the probability of schooling for both boys and girls. Working mothers have a negative impact, while literate mothers have a positive impact on the schooling of both boys and girls. Household head's education level continues to have the strongest influence on child labour and schooling for both boys and girls. It appears from the above that it would be more viable for policy-makers to target more deprived districts where wages are low and incomes are more skewed. This policy would be more practical because it is much easier to identify deprived districts and regions than to identify deprived households scattered across the country for targeted programmes of the sort introduced recently by the Government of Pakistan. Minimum wage laws are not likely to alleviate child labour in Pakistan, where unofficial estimates put the share of the informal sector and undocumented economy close to 40 percent of GDP.

A3.3 Does school quality affect child schooling in Pakistan²²?

School quality is postulated to have an important role in increasing school attendance and therefore potentially reducing child labour. It is well known that educational expansion increases schooling enrolment in developing countries. There is also some evidence on the effects of school quality on test scores, grade repetition, and earnings (e.g., Harbison and Hanushek, 1992; Fuller and Clarke, 1994; Glewwe and Jacoby, 1994; Hanushek, 1995; Kremer, 1995; Bedi and Edwards, 2002; Bacolod and Tobias, 2006). Some studies provide empirical evidence to show that better school infrastructure has a positive impact on schooling outcomes, especially on school enrolment, attendance, transition rates and child test scores. If true, then infrastructural investments in developing countries may help attain the goal of universal primary education.

Although these studies have effectively examined the association between school quality and schooling achievements, yet only a few studies have examined how deterioration in the quality of primary and secondary schools at the community level affects the demand for schooling. Relative decline in real adult wages may also reduce investment in schooling through its effects on reduced rates of return.

Some empirical studies have made attempts to relate school infrastructure quality to schooling outcomes. For example, Harbison and Hanushek (1992) find a positive relationship between the quality of school infrastructure and student achievement in Brazil. Similarly, Glewwe and Jacoby (1994) find that school quality is more important for better secondary school grades than school enrolment in Ghana. Likewise, Bacolod and Tobias (2006) also find a positive relationship between school quality and student achievement, where school quality is measured by such indicators as class size, teacher experience, training and availability of electricity. They find that the provision of electricity has a greater impact on student achievement than class size or teacher training. Bedi and Edwards (2002) use data from Honduras to look at the impact of school quality on earnings. They use teacher training, school infrastructure and school crowding as measures of school quality. Their findings show a strong and positive effect of school quality on earnings and educational returns. However, there is scant evidence on the relationship between schooling infrastructure and schooling enrolment in Asian countries.

Shahnaz and Burki (2012) have recently provided empirical evidence on the relationship between schooling infrastructure/teacher quality and schooling enrolment in Pakistan. They used household survey data to investigate this link. They specified an empirical model that allows school quality index to vary across rural communities. To illustrate, the regression equation they used to investigate this hypothesis is given by

$$S_{ihnji} = \beta_1 SQ_{inmi} + \beta_2 RW_{jt} + \alpha_1 X_{iht} + u_{kt} + \tau_t + d_j + e_{ihnji} \quad (4)$$

where S is for child schooling; SQ_{inmi} is a vector of school infrastructure and teacher quality index in n th community, consisting of primary and lower secondary schools for boys and girls; RW_{jt} is the district-level average real adult wage, real child wage and Gini coefficient that vary across districts and across survey years; X_{iht} is a vector of individual and household control variables; u_{kt} is for province-year series; τ_t controls for seasonal variation in schooling; d_j controls for spatial variation captured by 57 district dummy variables; and e_{ihnji} is the error term.

²²This section draws on Shahnaz and Burki (2013).

They obtained data from rural community questionnaires available in two rounds of HIES-PIHS for 1998–99 and 2001–02²³. To construct schooling infrastructure and teacher quality index for primary and lower secondary schools, they employed principal component analysis²⁴. They constructed two teacher quality indices at the community level separately for primary and lower secondary schools based on the following eight variables: (i) teaching experience in years; (ii) number of years teaching at current school; (iii) salary grade; (iv) number of times attended an in-service training during last three years; (v) educational level of teacher; (vi) number of days leave taken in the last 12 months; (vii) number of male teachers in school; and (viii) number of female teachers in school.

Likewise, for constructing two schooling infrastructure indices for primary and lower secondary schools in the community they used the following variables: (i) construction quality of school buildings; (ii) type of water supply in school; (iii) number of classrooms in school; (iv) number of classrooms unusable due to bad conditions; (v) number of classrooms with desks/tables; (vi) number of male teachers in school; and (vii) number of female teachers in school.

Table A3.4 shows the descriptive statistics for boys' and girls' samples (Shahnaz and Burki, 2012). It can be seen that there are large differences in enrolment rates in the sample of boys and girls. About 65 percent of boys are enrolled in schools; the enrolment rate of girls is 34 percent. Real monthly adult wage at the district level varies widely across districts.

Most dispersion (measured by standard deviation) in the quality of infrastructure is found in boys' and girls' primary schools. The schooling infrastructure and teacher quality is more skewed in girls' schools than boys' schools. On average, the state of infrastructure appears to be poorer in lower secondary schools than primary schools and in girls' schools than boys' schools. The descriptive statistics for other variables indicate that the proportions of working mothers are roughly the same for boys and girls, while there are 4.8 boys with literate mothers compared to 6.0 girls with literate mothers. The highest proportion of children is in the age-bracket of 12 years. In the full sample, more than 20 percent of household heads have education levels of primary and below. Only five percent are educated beyond secondary school level. In spite of being a rural sample, nearly 55 percent are nuclear families. However the average household size of the family is above the national average. In the full sample, about 43 percent of household heads are engaged in agriculture sector, followed by 13 percent in social services. Moreover 57 percent are self-employed. Females head only 6.6 percent of households. The average number of infants aged less than five years is 0.89, and between 5–9 years is 1.7.

Shahnaz and Burki (2012) show that the correlation between factor component infrastructure quality and factor component teacher quality in primary and secondary schools for both boys and girls is very high. It warrants treatment of these variables in regression models more carefully.

²³ Besides standard information, the community questionnaire provides data on school infrastructure and teacher quality indicators at the primary sampling unit (PSU) or village/community level. This includes information on (a) topographic characteristics; (b) infrastructure; (c) local transport and access to economic services; (d) education facilities; and (e) health facilities.

²⁴ This statistical method for indexing reduces the number of relationship by grouping together all those variables that are most highly correlated with each other into one factor or component.

Table A3.4. Descriptive statistics of school and teacher quality models — boys' and girls' samples

	Boys		Girls	
	Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
Schooling	0.647	0.478	0.344	0.475
Factor component infrastructure in primary school for boys	-0.335	1.228	--	--
Factor component infrastructure in middle school for boys	-2.482	0.457	--	--
Factor component infrastructure in primary school for girls	--	--	-0.982	1.401
Factor component infrastructure in middle school for girls	--	--	-2.462	0.558
Factor component teacher quality in primary schools for boys	-0.429	1.384	--	--
Factor component teacher quality in middle schools for boys	-3.385	0.657	--	--
Factor component teacher quality primary schools for girls	--	--	-1.258	1.660
Factor component teacher quality in middle schools for girls	--	--	-2.155	0.506
Log (adult wage)	8.061	0.281	8.057	0.276
Gini (income inequality)	0.574	0.099	0.566	0.093
Mother works × boy	0.234	0.423	--	--
Mother works × girl	--	--	0.241	0.428
Mother literate × boy	0.048	0.214	--	--
Mother literate × girl	--	--	0.060	0.237
Child is 11 years old	0.142	0.349	0.138	0.345
Child is 12 years old	0.256	0.436	0.243	0.429
Child is 13 years old	0.157	0.364	0.167	0.373
Child is 14 years old	0.180	0.385	0.192	0.394
Head education is below primary (yes=1; no=0)	0.076	0.265	0.068	0.252
Head education is primary (yes=1; no=0)	0.139	0.346	0.138	0.345
Head education is secondary (yes=1; no=0)	0.130	0.337	0.142	0.349
Head education is above secondary (yes=1; no=0)	0.052	0.222	0.052	0.223
Nuclear family (yes=1; no=0)	0.551	0.497	0.558	0.497
Household size in numbers	9.405	4.341	9.520	4.241
Head employed in agriculture (yes=1; no=0)	0.427	0.495	0.429	0.495
Head employed in manufacturing (yes=1; no=0)	0.051	0.221	0.056	0.230
Head employed in construction (yes=1; no=0)	0.080	0.271	0.075	0.263
Head employed in wholesale trade (yes=1; no=0)	0.084	0.278	0.082	0.274
Head employed in transport & storage (yes=1; no=0)	0.049	0.216	0.055	0.227
Head employed in social services (yes=1; no=0)	0.131	0.337	0.128	0.335
Head self-employed (yes=1; no=0)	0.564	0.496	0.570	0.495
Head is female (yes=1; no=0)	0.068	0.252	0.063	0.243
Infants up to five years of age present	0.875	1.056	0.904	1.079
Children above five years of age present	1.669	1.303	1.692	1.291
Total Sample	9236	--	8265	--

Table A3.5 shows the results of Shahnaz and Burki (2012), which presents the influence of school infrastructure quality and teacher quality variables on the probability of schooling of boys and girls, controlling for regional adult wage, income inequality, household, seasonal, non-time varying, and time-varying regional control variables. Columns 1 and 4 include all school infrastructure and teacher quality variables in the same regression. Columns 2 and 5 include schooling infrastructure variables in boys' and girls' samples, respectively, but exclude teacher quality variables. Columns 3 and 6, exclude schooling infrastructure, but include teacher quality variables.

Holding all else constant, schools with better infrastructure and teacher quality continue to increase the demand for education for both boys and girls. A policy of increasing the quality of infrastructure in girls' primary schools offers a much higher return than for boys' primary schools. For example, the estimated coefficient in Column 2 shows that an increase in boys' primary school infrastructure by 1.228 (its standard deviation) increases the demand for education by 3.7. However, the estimated coefficient in Column 5 suggests that an increase in girls' primary school infrastructure by 1.401 (its standard deviation) increases demand for girls' education by 8.13. The

estimated coefficients for teacher quality in primary schools of boys and girls further corroborate these results. Moreover, the estimated coefficients also indicate that improvement in either infrastructure or teacher quality has a generally more powerful effect in the case of primary schools than secondary schools. The policy implication of these results is quite obvious. If policy-makers are interested in raising the enrolment of boys and girls in rural areas where school enrolment rates are much lower than in urban areas, then they must focus on increasing investment in schooling infrastructure and the indicators of teacher quality. The returns to such investment are going to be highest in girls' primary schools followed by boys' primary schools.

A decline in regional adult wages uniformly lowers demand for schooling of boys and girls. The negative effect on schooling of lower adult wages may be explained by lower returns to education in regions offering lower wages. Moreover, it may also explain the income effect of low adult wages dominating the substitution effect (Basu and Van, 1998). Regions with more skewed income distribution render a strong negative influence on the schooling of boys and girls, but the negative influence is much stronger for boys than for girls. Therefore, public policy must address regional inequalities by streamlining taxation policies if the objective is to encourage the schooling of boys and girls in rural areas.

Table A3.5: Impact of school infrastructure and teacher quality on the schooling of boys and girls

	Boys			Girls		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Factor component infrastructure in primary school for boys	0.002 (0.38)	0.030 (2.04)**	--	--	--	--
Factor component infrastructure in middle school for boys	0.024 (1.91)*	0.031 (7.83)***	--	--	--	--
Factor component infrastructure in primary school for girls	--	--	--	0.025 (2.25)**	0.058 (7.16)***	--
Factor component infrastructure in middle school for girls	--	--	--	-0.011 (-0.82)	0.028 (2.61)***	--
Factor component teacher quality in primary schools for boys	0.031 (2.34)**	--	0.033 (2.35)**	--	--	--
Factor component teacher quality in middle schools for boys	0.009 (0.95)	--	0.024 (7.27)***	--	--	--
Factor component teacher quality primary schools for girls	--	--	--	0.032 (2.69)***	--	0.051 (7.62)***
Factor component teacher quality in middle schools for girls	--	--	--	0.046 (2.10)**	--	0.036 (3.37)***
Log (adult wage)	0.085 (3.67)***	0.080 (3.53)***	0.089 (3.83)***	0.079 (2.24)**	0.085 (2.49)**	0.072 (2.01)**
Gini (inequality)	-0.209 (-2.64)***	-0.221 (-2.81)***	-0.212 (-2.76)***	-0.100 (-1.05)	-0.084 (-0.80)	-0.121 (-1.31)
Mother works × boy	-0.050 (-3.78)***	-0.050 (-3.69)***	-0.050 (-3.82)***	--	--	--
Mother works × girl	--	--	--	-0.033 (-1.84)*	-0.034 (-1.93)*	-0.032 (-1.80)*
Mother literate × boy	0.065 (2.93)***	0.061 (2.82)***	0.066 (2.84)***	--	--	--
Mother literate × girl	--	--	--	0.232 (6.75)***	0.237 (6.57)***	0.232 (6.67)***
Head education is below primary (yes=1; no=0)	0.139 (8.99)***	0.140 (8.92)***	0.140 (8.66)***	0.089 (3.03)***	0.091 (3.05)***	0.089 (3.05)***
Head education is primary (yes=1; no=0)	0.182 (7.30)***	0.183 (6.79)***	0.182 (7.30)***	0.150 (14.39)***	0.151 (14.55)***	0.149 (14.49)***
Head education is secondary (yes=1; no=0)	0.247 (25.70)***	0.249 (21.62)***	0.248 (24.56)***	0.256 (12.32)***	0.258 (12.94)***	0.256 (12.41)***
Head education is above secondary (yes=1; no=0)	0.322 (16.82)***	0.324 (16.83)***	0.322 (16.85)***	0.310 (18.27)***	0.314 (20.24)***	0.309 (17.94)***
Nuclear family (yes=1; no=0)	0.017 (15.72)***	0.018 (22.82)***	0.017 (13.98)***	0.024 (3.59)***	0.024 (3.51)***	0.024 (3.56)***
Household size in numbers	0.011 (4.53)***	0.011 (4.54)***	0.011 (4.55)***	0.013 (18.78)***	0.013 (19.76)***	0.013 (16.87)***
Head is self-employed	0.049 (2.12)**	0.050 (2.19)**	0.049 (2.12)**	0.011 (1.17)	0.011 (1.16)	0.011 (1.09)
Head is female (yes=1; no=0)	0.128 (3.78)***	0.128 (3.68)***	0.128 (3.80)***	0.136 (17.09)***	0.135 (18.56)***	0.137 (17.88)***
Infants up to five years of age present	-0.011 (-2.09)**	-0.011 (-2.10)**	-0.011 (-2.08)**	-0.027 (-2.95)***	-0.027 (-2.95)***	-0.028 (-3.01)***
Children above five years of age present	-0.013 (-2.71)***	-0.014 (-2.96)***	-0.013 (-2.69)***	-0.021 (-5.73)***	-0.021 (-6.28)***	-0.021 (-5.54)***
Child age	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Head sector of employment	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Province × survey year series	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Season effects (survey months)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
District fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Number of observations	9236	9236	9236	8265	8265	8265
R ²	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.28	0.28	0.28

Source: Shahnaz and Burki (2012).

Notes: All regressions include constant terms. The robust t-values in parentheses are corrected for clustering at the district level using Moulton. ***, ** and * indicate significant at the 1, 5 and 10 levels, respectively.

ANNEX 4: PUNJAB TABLES

Table A4.1: Attendance rates of 3–4-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	34.0	43.1	22.9	66.0
Rural	54.4	27.0	18.6	45.6
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	60.8	21.4	17.8	39.2
Second poorest	66.2	22.5	11.3	33.8
Middle	47.8	33.8	18.4	52.2
Second richest	37.5	40.0	22.5	62.5
Richest	29.5	41.2	29.4	70.5
Language				
Urdu	40.0	36.0	24.0	60.0
Punjabi	44.3	33.7	22.0	55.7
Other	72.3	20.0	7.7	27.7
Total	48.5	31.7	19.8	51.5
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	42.5	33.3	24.2	57.5
Rural	63.6	22.9	13.5	36.4
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	74.0	15.1	10.9	26.0
Second poorest	63.7	25.3	11.0	36.3
Middle	61.1	23.7	15.3	38.9
Second richest	47.5	31.5	21.0	52.5
Richest	35.7	37.1	27.3	64.3
Language				
Urdu	46.8	32.3	20.9	53.2
Punjabi	55.5	26.8	17.7	44.5
Sindhi	0.0	51.6	48.4	100.0
Other	77.2	15.1	7.7	22.8
Total	58.1	25.6	16.3	41.9
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	37.9	38.6	23.5	62.1
Rural	59.0	25.0	16.1	41.0
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	67.7	18.1	14.2	32.3
Second poorest	65.0	23.9	11.1	35.0
Middle	54.7	28.5	16.8	45.3
Second richest	42.0	36.2	21.8	58.0
Richest	32.2	39.4	28.5	67.8
Language				
Urdu	43.4	34.2	22.5	56.6
Punjabi	49.5	30.5	20.0	50.5
Sindhi	0.0	51.6	48.4	100.0
Other	74.9	17.4	7.7	25.1
Total	53.2	28.7	18.1	46.8

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age of the children is adjusted due to the continuation of the survey for more than six months of official enrolment date.

Table A4.2: Attendance rates of four-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	20.5	38.1	41.4	79.5
Rural	41.7	25.6	32.7	58.3
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	53.4	13.8	32.7	46.6
Second poorest	51.8	26.9	21.3	48.2
Middle	34.4	34.5	31.1	65.6
Second richest	26.5	35.6	37.9	73.5
Richest	14.6	33.6	51.9	85.4
Language				
Urdu	27.6	30.2	42.2	72.4
Punjabi	31.1	30.7	38.1	68.9
Other	62.8	22.2	14.9	37.2
Total	35.7	29.2	35.1	64.3
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	28.1	26.1	45.7	71.9
Rural	54.4	21.5	24.1	45.6
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	69.6	8.4	22.0	30.4
Second poorest	56.1	24.0	20.0	43.9
Middle	47.1	26.5	26.5	52.9
Second richest	33.2	29.0	37.8	66.8
Richest	24.3	27.6	48.1	75.7
Language				
Urdu	34.5	25.8	39.7	65.5
Punjabi	46.1	23.4	30.5	53.9
Sindhi	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0
Other	67.0	17.5	15.5	33.0
Total	47.8	22.7	29.5	52.2
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	23.9	32.8	43.3	76.1
Rural	47.9	23.6	28.5	52.1
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	61.6	11.1	27.3	38.4
Second poorest	54.0	25.4	20.6	46.0
Middle	40.7	30.5	28.8	59.3
Second richest	29.4	32.7	37.9	70.6
Richest	18.6	31.1	50.3	81.4
Language				
Urdu	30.7	28.2	41.1	69.3
Punjabi	38.1	27.3	34.5	61.9
Sindhi	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0
Other	65.0	19.7	15.2	35.0
Total	41.4	26.1	32.5	58.6

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age of the children is adjusted due to the continuation of the survey for more than six months of official enrolment date.

Table A4.3: Percentage of children attending school by gender, age and level of education, 2007–08

Age (years)	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Intermediate	Other/higher	Any level of education
MALE								
3	64.8	34.9	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	35.1
4	35.7	29.0	35.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	64.3
5	24.2	23.4	52.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	75.8
6	17.4	17.2	64.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	82.6
7	11.7	8.9	79.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	88.3
8	12.3	3.5	83.5	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.2	87.6
9	17.0	1.8	77.9	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.2	83.0
10	15.2	0.2	61.8	22.3	0.0	0.0	0.6	84.9
11	26.6	0.2	40.0	31.1	1.0	0.0	1.0	73.3
12	21.0	0.1	23.4	51.2	4.0	0.0	0.2	78.9
13	33.2	0.0	7.8	38.0	20.4	0.1	0.4	66.7
14	38.2	0.0	3.8	24.1	31.9	1.1	0.8	61.7
15	47.7	0.0	1.6	13.2	29.7	7.2	0.6	52.3
16	53.7	0.0	0.9	6.4	21.6	15.3	2.0	46.2
17	72.0	0.0	0.4	1.1	10.5	12.6	3.5	28.1
FEMALE								
3	69.9	28.9	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	30.1
4	47.8	22.7	29.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	52.2
5	28.4	18.6	53.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	71.6
6	22.8	14.9	62.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	77.2
7	18.4	9.6	71.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	81.7
8	16.9	4.7	78.2	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	83.0
9	24.0	2.2	68.6	4.6	0.0	0.0	0.6	76.0
10	22.2	0.2	55.0	22.3	0.0	0.0	0.3	77.8
11	28.7	1.3	35.4	33.8	0.6	0.0	0.1	71.2
12	36.0	0.1	17.4	42.5	4.0	0.0	0.0	64.0
13	41.1	0.2	6.8	33.3	18.3	0.0	0.2	58.8
14	49.9	0.0	2.7	20.0	25.4	1.6	0.5	50.2
15	59.1	0.0	0.6	7.7	22.6	8.8	1.2	40.9
16	58.9	0.0	1.0	3.9	12.6	17.6	6.0	41.1
17	74.7	0.0	0.6	1.7	4.8	10.9	7.2	25.2
TOTAL								
3	67.4	31.9	0.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	32.6
4	41.4	26.0	32.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	58.6
5	26.3	21.0	52.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	73.7
6	20.0	16.1	63.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	80.0
7	15.1	9.3	75.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	84.9
8	14.6	4.1	80.9	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.1	85.4
9	20.5	2.0	73.3	3.8	0.0	0.0	0.4	79.5
10	18.5	0.2	58.5	22.3	0.0	0.0	0.4	81.4
11	27.6	0.7	37.8	32.4	0.8	0.0	0.6	72.3
12	28.3	0.1	20.5	47.0	4.0	0.0	0.1	71.7
13	37.3	0.1	7.3	35.6	19.3	0.1	0.3	62.7
14	44.2	0.0	3.2	22.0	28.6	1.3	0.7	55.8
15	53.8	0.0	1.0	10.3	25.9	8.1	0.9	46.2
16	56.3	0.0	0.9	5.2	17.1	16.5	4.0	43.7
17	73.4	0.0	0.5	1.4	7.6	11.7	5.4	26.6

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A4.4: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary or primary education, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary-school-age children attending				
Pre-primary	11.0	10.0	10.5	0.91
Lower-secondary-school-age children attending				
Pre-primary	0.2	0.6	0.4	3.10
Primary	40.6	34.7	37.7	0.85

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A4.5: Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) by gender and level of education, with GPI, 2007–08

Level of education	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary	72.5	67.9	70.2	0.94
Lower secondary	37.5	35.3	36.4	0.94
Total	55.0	51.6	53.3	0.94

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age group for primary school is 5–9 years and for lower secondary is 10–12 years.

Table A4.6: Percentage and number of children out of school by gender and age group, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
DIMENSION 2						
Primary school age	27.5	1,464,192	32.1	1,677,984	29.8	3,142,176
DIMENSION 3						
Lower secondary school age	21.9	597,057	30.0	761,300	25.8	1,358,357

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A4.7: Primary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	52.4	523,828	53.0	520,034	52.7	1,043,862
6	65.5	762,823	62.3	679,156	63.9	1,441,979
7	79.4	897,794	72.0	841,056	75.7	1,738,850
8	84.2	760,609	78.3	710,190	81.3	1,470,799
9	81.1	906,271	73.8	792,542	77.5	1,698,813
Residence						
Urban	81.4	1,243,259	82.0	1,165,595	81.7	2,408,854
Rural	68.9	2,608,066	62.6	2,377,383	65.7	4,985,449
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	59.0	681,282	50.2	534,757	54.8	1,216,039
Second	64.3	751,017	53.7	559,559	59.3	1,310,576
Middle	75.5	831,128	69.5	840,448	72.4	1,671,576
Fourth	80.0	827,205	81.8	826,427	80.9	1,653,632
Richest	88.6	760,693	87.4	781,786	88.0	1,542,479
Language						
Urdu	82.2	981,370	79.0	915,413	80.6	1,896,783
Punjabi	75.7	2,323,895	73.1	2,241,372	74.4	4,565,267
Other	51.5	538,415	38.5	381,735	45.2	920,150
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	73.1	3,839,435	68.5	3,535,217	70.8	7,374,652
Child labourer	17.9	11,890	12.9	7,761	15.5	19,651

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are excluded.

Table A4.8: Lower secondary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	22.8	734,792	22.6	667,921	22.7	1,402,713
11	33.2	1,115,969	34.6	1,041,157	33.8	2,157,126
12	55.5	872,485	46.5	829,073	51.1	1,701,558
Residence						
Urban	42.6	875,751	51.1	769,760	46.6	1,645,511
Rural	35.1	1,847,495	28.4	1,768,391	31.8	3,615,886
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	21.3	495,069	21.8	400,114	21.5	895,183
Second	26.8	545,703	19.8	468,326	23.6	1,014,029
Middle	40.9	611,559	28.6	621,254	34.7	1,232,813
Fourth	41.4	538,925	40.6	584,756	41.0	1,123,681
Richest	55.8	531,989	64.9	463,702	60.0	995,691
Language						
Urdu	46.1	684,682	46.1	630,241	46.1	1,314,923
Punjabi	40.0	1,611,744	37.5	1,491,833	38.8	3,103,577
Sindhi	21.9	6,135	0.0	–	21.9	6,135
Other	14.2	419,178	11.2	414,571	12.7	833,749
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	40.8	2,433,545	39.0	2,276,647	40.0	4,710,192
Child labourer	9.7	289,701	3.0	261,505	6.5	551,206

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending primary school are excluded.

Table A4.9: Percentage of primary-school-age children out of school by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	47.6	475,658	47.0	461,213	47.3	936,871
6	34.5	402,312	37.7	411,758	36.1	814,070
7	20.6	232,597	28.0	326,700	24.3	559,297
8	15.8	142,951	21.7	196,276	18.7	339,227
9	18.9	210,674	26.3	282,037	22.5	492,711
Residence						
Urban	18.6	284,615	18.0	255,866	18.3	540,481
Rural	31.1	1,179,577	37.4	1,422,119	34.3	2,601,696
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	41.0	473,871	49.8	529,910	45.2	1,003,781
Second	35.7	417,475	46.3	481,721	40.7	899,196
Middle	24.5	269,103	30.5	368,746	27.6	637,849
Fourth	20.0	206,332	18.3	184,451	19.1	390,783
Richest	11.4	97,412	12.6	113,157	12.0	210,569
Language						
Urdu	17.8	212,161	21.0	243,510	19.4	455,671
Punjabi	24.3	744,865	26.9	825,113	25.6	1,569,978
Sindhi	100.0	6,638	100.0	4,458	100.0	11,096
Other	48.5	507,166	61.5	609,361	54.8	1,116,527
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	26.9	1,409,476	31.5	1,625,600	29.2	3,035,076
Child labourer	82.2	54,716	87.1	52,385	84.5	107,101

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are considered to be out of school.

Table A4.10: Percentage of lower-secondary-school-age children out of school, by age, gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	15.4	113,205	22.5	150,055	18.8	263,260
11	26.8	299,545	30.0	312,148	28.4	611,693
12	21.1	184,308	36.1	299,096	28.4	483,404
Residence						
Urban	18.5	161,909	17.2	132,080	17.9	293,989
Rural	23.6	435,149	35.6	629,220	29.4	1,064,369
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	38.2	188,881	51.3	205,240	44.0	394,121
Second	31.3	170,934	45.9	215,118	38.1	386,052
Middle	16.5	100,693	31.5	195,961	24.1	296,654
Fourth	16.6	89,708	17.6	103,007	17.2	192,715
Richest	8.8	46,841	9.1	41,973	8.9	88,814
Language						
Urdu	15.9	109,130	14.8	93,486	15.4	202,616
Punjabi	19.8	318,385	28.1	419,094	23.8	737,479
Pashto	–	–	100.0	1,507	50.0	1,507
Other	40.4	169,543	59.6	247,213	50.0	416,756
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	14.6	355,652	23.9	544,627	19.1	900,279
Child labourer	83.3	241,406	82.9	216,672	83.1	458,078

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary level are considered out of school children.

Table A4.11: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer		Child labourer		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
9	13.7	2,064,773	18.7	126,751	13.9	2,191,524
10	8.7	1,322,745	11.8	79,968	8.9	1,402,713
11	12.6	1,911,486	36.2	245,640	13.7	2,157,126
12	9.8	1,475,960	33.3	225,598	10.8	1,701,558
Gender						
Male	50.8	7,682,456	52.6	356,306	50.9	8,038,762
Female	49.2	7,437,464	47.4	321,650	49.1	7,759,114
Residence						
Urban	29.6	4,480,810	16.8	114,035	29.1	4,594,845
Rural	70.4	10,639,110	83.2	563,921	70.9	11,203,031
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	19.2	2,895,623	32.4	219,379	19.7	3,115,002
Second	19.9	3,009,152	31.7	214,648	20.4	3,223,800
Middle	22.4	3,392,456	22.1	149,781	22.4	3,542,237
Fourth	20.5	3,104,201	9.4	63,895	20.1	3,168,096
Richest	18.0	2,718,487	4.5	30,253	17.4	2,748,740
Language						
Urdu	23.7	3,581,428	12.7	85,949	23.2	3,667,377
Punjabi	58.8	8,895,005	50.7	343,818	58.5	9,238,823
Sindhi	0.1	17,230	0.0	0	0.1	17,230
Pashto	0.0	3,014	0.0	0	0.0	3,014
Balochi	0.0	1,008	0.0	0	0.0	1,008
Other	17.3	2,622,235	36.6	248,190	18.2	2,870,425
Total	100.0	15,119,920	100.0	677,957	100.0	15,797,877

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A4.12: Percentage of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer	Child labourer	Total
Age (years)			
9	78.3	21.7	100.0
10	92.6	7.4	100.0
11	83.8	16.2	100.0
12	75.5	24.5	100.0
Gender			
Male	90.0	10.0	100.0
Female	90.8	9.2	100.0
Region			
Urban	92.2	7.8	100.0
Rural	89.9	10.1	100.0
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	87.7	12.3	100.0
Second	88.9	11.1	100.0
Middle	90.3	9.7	100.0
Fourth	94.4	5.6	100.0
Richest	95.2	4.8	100.0
Language			
Urdu	93.5	6.5	100.0
Punjabi	91.0	9.0	100.0
Sindhi	100.0	0.0	100.0
Pashto	100.0	0.0	100.0
Other	87.2	12.8	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A4.13: Number of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer	Child labourer	Total
Age (years)			
9	385,611	107,101	492,712
10	1,004,328	79,968	1,084,296
11	1,195,703	231,504	1,427,207
12	628,311	203,805	832,116
Gender			
Male	2,849,748	316,252	3,166,000
Female	3,013,670	306,125	3,319,795
Region			
Urban	1,308,984	110,214	1,419,198
Rural	4,554,434	512,163	5,066,597
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	1,497,052	209,423	1,706,475
Second	1,488,493	185,396	1,673,889
Middle	1,303,291	139,327	1,442,618
Fourth	994,942	59,257	1,054,199
Richest	579,640	28,975	608,615
Language			
Urdu	1,088,740	75,604	1,164,344
Punjabi	3,158,531	310,825	3,469,356
Sindhi	4,793	0	4,793
Pashto	3,014	0	3,014
Other	1,608,341	235,948	1,844,289

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A4.14: Percentage of primary- and lower secondary-aged child labourers who are out of school, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not in school	In school	Total
Age (years)			
9	15.5	84.5	100.0
10	0.0	100.0	100.0
11	5.8	94.2	100.0
12	9.7	90.3	100.0
Gender			
Male	11.2	88.8	100.0
Female	4.8	95.2	100.0
Region			
Urban	3.4	96.6	100.0
Rural	9.2	90.8	100.0
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	4.5	95.5	100.0
Second	13.6	86.4	100.0
Middle	7.0	93.0	100.0
Fourth	7.3	92.7	100.0
Richest	4.2	95.8	100.0
Language			
Urdu	12.0	88.0	100.0
Punjabi	9.6	90.4	100.0
Other	4.9	95.1	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A4.15: Number of primary- and lower secondary-aged child labourers who are out of school, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not in school	In school	Total
Age (years)			
9	19,650	107,101	126,751
10	0	79,968	79,968
11	14,136	231,504	245,640
12	21,793	203,805	225,598
Gender			
Male	40,054	316,252	356,306
Female	15,525	306,125	321,650
Region			
Urban	3,821	110,214	114,035
Rural	51,758	512,163	563,921
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	9,956	209,423	219,379
Second	29,252	185,396	214,648
Middle	10,454	139,327	149,781
Fourth	4,638	59,257	63,895
Richest	1,278	28,975	30,253
Language			
Urdu	10,345	75,604	85,949
Punjabi	32,993	310,825	343,818
Other	12,241	235,948	248,189

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A4.16: Percentage of primary- and lower secondary-aged out-of-school children at work in employment, household chores, or both, by sector, and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Self-employed (non-agri)	Paid employee	Unpaid family worker	Own cultivator	Livestock	Total
Age (years)						
9	0.0	30.2	69.8	0.0	0.0	100.0
10	0.0	17.2	78.4	0.0	4.3	100.0
11	1.5	34.2	61.6	0.6	2.1	100.0
12	0.9	31.1	65.9	0.0	2.2	100.0
Gender						
Male	1.7	40.1	53.8	0.4	4.0	100.0
Female	0.0	20.3	79.7	0.0	0.0	100.0
Region						
Urban	2.6	61.6	35.7	0.0	0.0	100.0
Rural	0.5	23.6	73.2	0.3	2.5	100.0
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	0.6	37.4	59.5	0.0	2.5	100.0
Second	0.0	27.8	69.5	0.7	1.9	100.0
Middle	1.2	22.3	76.5	0.0	0.0	100.0
Fourth	3.9	27.4	62.0	0.0	6.7	100.0
Richest	0.0	40.3	59.7	0.0	0.0	100.0
Language						
Urdu	0.0	44.2	51.8	1.8	2.2	100.0
Punjabi	0.4	33.0	64.6	0.0	2.0	100.0
Other	1.7	22.3	73.8	0.0	2.1	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A4.17: Percentage of new entrants in Grade 1 of primary education with no ECE experience, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Residence			
Urban	2.2	0.3	1.3
Rural	3.0	5.7	4.2
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	5.8	3.5	4.8
Second	0.7	7.3	3.6
Middle	1.8	3.7	2.8
Fourth	3.4	1.5	2.5
Richest	1.9	4.4	3.2
Language			
Urdu	1.2	4.7	2.9
Punjabi	3.6	3.2	3.4
Sindhi	0.0	100.0	100.0
Other	1.8	4.5	3.2

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A4.18: Repetition rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	1.6	5.1	3.2	2.2	1.7	1.9	1.4	0.8
Rural	2.1	3.3	2.4	4.2	2.7	3.6	0.5	0.2
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	2.0	2.4	3.4	4.3	3.3	4.4	0.0	0.0
Second	3.0	3.3	0.9	3.1	3.5	0.6	1.0	0.0
Middle	0.9	3.3	3.4	4.7	1.5	5.2	0.1	0.0
Fourth	2.2	5.5	2.2	3.2	1.7	1.6	0.8	0.4
Richest	2.1	4.6	3.0	2.6	2.6	3.6	1.7	1.0
Language								
Urdu	1.7	4.9	4.2	2.0	3.2	3.2	0.4	0.4
Punjabi	2.2	4.0	1.6	4.3	2.2	3.2	1.2	0.4
Other	1.6	1.3	5.3	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A4.19: Dropout rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	1.8	8.9	11.2	13.4	38.9	12.0	13.2	24.5
Rural	3.8	10.0	14.5	17.4	45.9	21.5	15.0	28.9
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	4.8	10.1	16.7	18.0	50.1	11.4	16.8	21.9
Second	5.1	13.2	14.4	22.4	49.8	28.9	20.5	22.8
Middle	3.5	9.4	15.9	16.4	48.9	22.9	19.5	33.1
Fourth	2.1	8.0	10.9	14.6	40.6	19.3	10.7	31.3
Richest	0.9	7.6	9.4	10.7	30.3	8.5	9.2	21.9
Language								
Urdu	1.1	7.4	8.7	10.6	37.8	12.5	12.8	25.2
Punjabi	4.1	9.3	13.6	16.9	44.8	18.6	14.7	27.6
Sindhi	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Pashto	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	3.0	14.3	22.7	24.3	49.9	33.5	19.4	33.2
Total	3.2	9.7	13.4	16.2	43.7	18.3	14.4	27.3

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A4.20: Transition rates from primary to lower secondary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Residence				
Urban	95.8	94.4	95.1	0.98
Rural	93.5	89.3	91.7	0.96
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	96.8	90.2	94.0	0.93
Second	93.5	93.6	93.6	1.00
Middle	94.3	87.3	91.1	0.93
Fourth	96.0	94.1	95.0	0.98
Richest	91.3	91.8	91.6	1.01
Language				
Urdu	89.0	95.2	92.3	1.07
Punjabi	95.4	88.7	92.3	0.93
Sindhi	100.0	0.0	100.0	0.00
Pashto	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Balochi	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Other	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A4.21: Percentage of households enjoying access to formal social protection, 2007–08

	Did not receive Zakat	Received Zakat	Total
Received Zakat from public sector only			
In school	99.7	0.3	100.0
Not in school	99.6	0.4	100.0
Received Zakat from private sector only (relatives/NGOs/Trusts)			
In school	99.8	0.2	100.0
Not in school	99.7	0.3	100.0
Received Zakat from public or private sector			
In school	99.6	0.4	100.0
Not in school	99.5	0.5	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

Table A4.22: Percentage of households enjoying access to credit, 2007–08

	Did not borrow	Received a loan	Total
In school	75.4	24.6	100.0
Not in school	70.0	30.0	100.0
Total	72.9	27.1	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

ANNEX 5: SINDH TABLES

Table A5.1: Attendance rates of 3–4-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	60.3	27.1	12.6	39.7
Rural	75.5	9.0	15.5	24.5
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	75.9	16.3	7.8	24.1
Second poorest	74.7	9.3	16.0	25.3
Middle	66.9	15.3	17.8	33.1
Second richest	60.8	21.5	17.7	39.2
Richest	55.9	29.0	15.1	44.1
Language				
Urdu	59.7	31.4	8.9	40.3
Punjabi	82.1	0.0	17.9	17.9
Sindhi	72.9	10.6	16.5	27.1
Pashto	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	69.2	16.5	14.3	30.8
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	62.3	24.2	13.5	37.7
Rural	83.7	3.7	12.6	16.3
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	83.1	8.5	8.5	16.9
Second poorest	81.3	6.6	12.1	18.7
Middle	67.5	14.2	18.3	32.5
Second richest	70.4	17.6	12.0	29.6
Richest	59.0	19.5	21.5	41.0
Language				
Urdu	68.3	23.2	8.4	31.7
Punjabi	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sindhi	78.9	5.9	15.2	21.1
Pashto	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	75.8	11.3	12.9	24.2
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	61.2	25.7	13.0	38.8
Rural	79.7	6.3	14.0	20.3
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	79.8	12.0	8.2	20.2
Second poorest	77.9	8.0	14.1	22.1
Middle	67.2	14.8	18.0	32.8
Second richest	65.2	19.7	15.1	34.8
Richest	57.3	24.5	18.1	42.7
Language				
Urdu	64.1	27.2	8.7	35.9
Punjabi	88.7	0.0	11.3	11.3
Sindhi	75.8	8.3	15.9	24.2
Pashto	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	72.5	13.9	13.6	27.5

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age of the children is adjusted due to the continuation of the survey for more than six months of official enrolment date.

Table A5.2: Attendance rates of four-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	44.9	34.1	21.1	55.1
Rural	63.5	10.7	25.8	36.5
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	63.3	23.5	13.2	36.7
Second poorest	63.5	8.2	28.3	36.5
Middle	48.9	20.1	31.0	51.1
Second richest	46.0	23.0	31.0	54.0
Richest	46.0	34.9	19.1	54.0
Language				
Urdu	42.8	41.3	15.9	57.2
Punjabi	47.4	0.0	52.6	52.6
Sindhi	61.5	11.5	27.0	38.5
Other	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	56.0	20.2	23.9	44.0
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	47.6	29.3	23.2	52.4
Rural	74.1	5.1	20.9	25.9
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	74.4	10.7	14.8	25.6
Second poorest	72.6	8.9	18.5	27.4
Middle	43.4	23.5	33.1	56.6
Second richest	58.5	21.0	20.5	41.5
Richest	48.9	17.5	33.6	51.1
Language				
Urdu	54.7	29.0	16.3	45.3
Punjabi	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sindhi	67.5	8.1	24.4	32.5
Other	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	63.9	14.4	21.7	36.1
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	46.1	31.8	22.0	53.9
Rural	68.7	7.9	23.3	31.3
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	69.0	17.0	14.0	31.0
Second poorest	68.1	8.5	23.3	31.9
Middle	46.3	21.7	32.0	53.7
Second richest	51.3	22.2	26.5	48.7
Richest	47.3	26.8	25.9	52.7
Language				
Urdu	48.6	35.3	16.1	51.4
Punjabi	70.8	0.0	29.2	29.2
Sindhi	64.4	9.9	25.7	35.6
Other	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	59.8	17.3	22.8	40.2

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age of the children is adjusted due to the continuation of the survey for more than six months of official enrolment date.

Table A5.3: Percentage of children attending school by gender, age and level of education, 2007–08

Age (years)	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Intermediate	Other/higher	Any level of education
MALE								
3	83.6	11.8	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	16.4
4	56.0	19.2	23.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	44.0
5	44.3	12.9	42.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	55.7
6	28.4	4.2	65.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	71.6
7	26.2	1.8	70.6	0.2	0.0	0.0	1.1	73.8
8	23.3	1.2	74.8	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.5	76.7
9	25.2	0.9	70.9	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.6	74.8
10	23.3	0.0	53.7	22.2	0.0	0.0	0.8	76.7
11	33.7	0.6	26.4	37.9	0.0	0.0	1.5	66.3
12	27.1	0.0	20.2	48.1	3.9	0.0	0.6	72.9
13	37.8	0.0	9.2	33.4	17.6	1.4	0.5	62.2
14	51.0	0.4	4.2	18.8	19.9	3.7	2.0	49.0
15	51.5	0.0	0.7	11.3	21.9	12.5	2.2	48.5
16	56.0	0.0	0.6	4.8	15.5	22.0	1.1	44.0
17	74.3	0.0	0.5	2.6	6.4	12.1	4.2	25.7
FEMALE								
3	87.8	8.1	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	12.2
4	63.9	14.4	21.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	36.1
5	55.8	9.6	33.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	44.2
6	42.5	5.3	52.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	57.5
7	38.5	0.9	59.5	0.2	0.0	0.0	1.0	61.5
8	31.8	1.5	66.3	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	68.2
9	41.2	0.9	53.9	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.4	58.8
10	34.5	0.0	44.4	21.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	65.5
11	48.3	0.3	25.3	26.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	51.7
12	47.3	0.0	11.6	36.3	4.0	0.0	0.7	52.7
13	59.5	0.0	6.2	19.5	14.9	0.0	0.0	40.5
14	60.3	0.0	2.1	13.0	20.6	3.4	0.5	39.7
15	69.3	0.0	1.3	4.0	17.7	7.7	0.0	30.7
16	64.7	0.0	0.0	0.9	13.2	18.1	3.1	35.3
17	84.0	0.0	0.3	1.2	3.4	8.5	2.6	16.0
TOTAL								
3	85.7	9.9	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	14.3
4	59.8	16.8	22.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	40.2
5	49.7	11.4	38.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	50.3
6	35.3	4.7	58.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	64.7
7	32.4	1.4	65.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	1.0	67.6
8	26.9	1.3	71.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.3	73.1
9	33.0	0.9	62.6	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	67.0
10	28.7	0.0	49.3	21.7	0.0	0.0	0.4	71.3
11	40.7	0.5	25.8	32.1	0.1	0.0	0.8	59.3
12	36.8	0.0	16.1	42.5	3.9	0.0	0.6	63.2
13	49.3	0.0	7.6	26.0	16.2	0.7	0.3	50.7
14	55.3	0.2	3.2	16.1	20.2	3.6	1.3	44.7
15	60.4	0.0	1.0	7.6	19.8	10.1	1.1	39.6
16	60.4	0.0	0.3	2.8	14.3	20.0	2.1	39.6
17	78.7	0.0	0.4	1.9	5.0	10.5	3.5	21.3

Source: PSLM-HIES-2007–08.

Table A5.4: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary or primary education, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary-school-age children attending				
Pre-primary	4.3	3.7	4.0	0.86
Lower-secondary-school-age children attending				
Pre-primary	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.67
Primary	31.1	25.8	28.5	0.83

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A5.5: Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) by gender and level of education, with GPI, 2007–08

Level of education	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary	65.9	53.8	60.1	0.82
Lower secondary	39.4	29.3	34.5	0.74
Total	52.6	41.5	47.3	0.79

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age group for primary school is 5–9 years and for lower secondary is 10–12 years.

Table A5.6: Percentage and number of children out of school by gender and age group, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
DIMENSION 2						
Primary school age	34.1	837,756	46.2	1,036,378	39.9	1,874,134
DIMENSION 3						
Lower secondary school age	29.6	320,384	44.9	449,624	36.9	770,008

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A5.7: Primary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	42.7	220,530	34.6	158,623	38.9	379,153
6	67.4	341,174	52.3	253,960	60.0	595,134
7	71.9	351,355	60.6	296,670	66.2	648,025
8	75.5	330,905	66.7	216,211	71.8	547,116
9	74.0	375,403	57.9	280,317	66.1	655,720
Residence						
Urban	74.9	754,474	75.0	698,177	75.0	1,452,651
Rural	59.6	864,894	38.7	507,605	49.7	1,372,499
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	51.8	349,689	39.5	234,883	46.1	584,572
Second	62.5	431,677	44.9	308,900	53.7	740,577
Middle	73.0	308,971	63.8	248,450	68.6	557,421
Fourth	78.3	294,233	71.1	229,706	75.0	523,939
Richest	80.2	234,798	74.2	183,842	77.4	418,640
Language						
Urdu	66.1	548,784	67.9	496,546	67.0	1,045,330
Punjabi	73.5	7,525	39.0	7,762	50.7	15,287
Sindhi	65.7	1,059,079	47.1	701,474	56.8	1,760,553
Other	100.0	1,668	0.0	0	44.9	1,668
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	66.5	1,610,410	54.0	1,198,931	60.6	2,809,341
Child labourer	24.0	8,958	30.2	6,850	26.4	15,808

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are excluded.

Table A5.8: Lower secondary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	22.98	258,555	21.07	235,960	22.07	494,515
11	39.32	504,660	26.12	470,790	32.95	975,450
12	52.60	320,544	41.05	294,467	47.07	615,011
Residence						
Urban	45.38	510,797	49.29	486,633	47.29	997,430
Rural	33.98	572,963	10.43	514,584	22.83	1,087,547
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	24.55	270,237	16.90	244,739	20.91	514,976
Second	30.31	302,156	11.63	281,094	21.31	583,250
Middle	46.95	165,672	35.83	163,062	41.43	328,734
Fourth	46.63	175,406	50.10	175,376	48.36	350,782
Richest	64.01	170,289	53.46	136,947	59.31	307,236
Language						
Urdu	39.00	389,261	43.60	374,408	41.25	763,669
Punjabi	32.97	12,029	0.00	4,933	23.38	16,962
Sindhi	39.74	679,376	20.98	621,109	30.78	1,300,485
Other	100.00	767	0.00	767	50.00	1,534
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	42.86	954,816	30.79	937,387	36.88	1,892,203
Child labourer	13.36	128,944	7.69	63,830	11.48	192,774

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending primary school are excluded.

Table A5.9: Percentage of primary-school-age children out of school by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	57.3	295,806	65.4	299,891	61.1	595,697
6	32.6	165,247	47.7	231,850	40.0	397,097
7	28.1	137,171	39.4	193,046	33.8	330,217
8	24.5	107,292	33.3	107,927	28.2	215,219
9	26.1	132,240	42.1	203,664	33.9	335,904
Residence						
Urban	25.1	252,477	25.0	232,542	25.0	485,019
Rural	40.4	585,279	61.3	803,837	50.3	1,389,116
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	48.2	324,790	60.5	359,146	53.9	683,936
Second	37.5	259,033	55.1	378,850	46.3	637,883
Middle	27.0	114,332	36.2	141,172	31.4	255,504
Fourth	21.7	81,460	28.9	93,199	25.0	174,659
Richest	19.9	58,141	25.8	64,012	22.6	122,153
Language						
Urdu	33.9	280,920	32.1	235,085	33.1	516,005
Punjabi	26.5	2,709	61.0	12,158	49.3	14,867
Sindhi	34.4	554,127	52.9	787,089	43.2	1,341,216
Other	0.0	0	100.0	2,047	55.1	2,047
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	33.5	809,447	46.0	1,020,519	39.4	1,829,966
Child labourer	76.0	28,308	69.8	15,859	73.6	44,167

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are considered to be out of school.

Table A5.10: Percentage of lower-secondary-school-age children out of school, by age, gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	23.3	60,295	34.5	81,451	28.7	141,746
11	34.3	173,070	48.6	228,853	41.2	401,923
12	27.1	87,018	47.3	139,320	36.8	226,338
Residence						
Urban	19.8	101,117	19.4	94,524	19.6	195,641
Rural	38.3	219,267	69.0	355,100	52.8	574,367
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	46.3	125,223	60.4	147,838	53.0	273,061
Second	37.2	112,329	64.4	180,949	50.3	293,278
Middle	21.4	35,466	36.9	60,134	29.1	95,600
Fourth	14.9	26,172	13.5	23,753	14.2	49,925
Richest	12.4	21,193	27.0	36,950	18.9	58,143
Language						
Urdu	24.8	96,698	26.8	100,474	25.8	197,172
Punjabi	20.4	2,455	84.5	4,166	39.0	6,621
Sindhi	32.6	221,230	55.5	344,984	43.5	566,214
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	24.8	96,698	26.8	100,474	25.8	197,172
Child labourer	20.4	2,455	84.5	4,166	39.0	6,621

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary level are considered out of school children.

Table A5.11: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer		Child labourer		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
9	14.3	931,649	23.7	59,975	14.6	991,624
10	7.2	471,434	9.1	23,081	7.3	494,515
11	13.3	871,386	41.2	104,064	14.4	975,450
12	8.4	549,383	26.0	65,629	9.1	615,012
Gender						
Male	51.7	3,374,674	65.8	166,210	52.2	3,540,884
Female	48.3	3,156,837	34.2	86,539	47.8	3,243,376
Residence						
Urban	44.2	2,886,029	19.4	49,070	43.3	2,935,099
Rural	55.8	3,645,482	80.6	203,679	56.7	3,849,161
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	26.0	1,697,352	34.1	86,132	26.3	1,783,484
Second	28.6	1,870,241	36.2	91,467	28.9	1,961,708
Middle	17.0	1,107,730	13.4	33,928	16.8	1,141,658
Fourth	15.8	1,030,494	7.5	18,887	15.5	1,049,381
Richest	12.6	825,694	8.8	22,335	12.5	848,029
Language						
Urdu	35.0	2,286,352	15.3	38,652	34.3	2,325,004
Punjabi	0.7	44,896	0.9	2,219	0.7	47,115
Sindhi	64.2	4,190,377	83.8	211,878	64.9	4,402,255
Pashto	0.0	2,311	0.0	0	0.0	2,311
Other	0.1	5,248	0.0	0	0.1	5,248
Total	100.0	6,529,184	100.0	252,749	100.0	6,781,933

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A5.12: Percentage of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer	Child labourer	Total
Age (years)			
9	86.9	13.2	100.0
10	94.0	6.0	100.0
11	85.2	14.8	100.0
12	84.5	15.5	100.0
Gender			
Male	90.6	9.4	100.0
Female	95.7	4.3	100.0
Region			
Urban	96.1	3.9	100.0
Rural	92.1	7.9	100.0
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	93.1	6.9	100.0
Second	92.2	7.8	100.0
Middle	94.9	5.1	100.0
Fourth	96.8	3.2	100.0
Richest	91.8	8.2	100.0
Language			
Urdu	96.9	3.1	100.0
Punjabi	92.0	8.0	100.0
Sindhi	91.9	8.1	100.0
Other	100.0	0.0	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A5.13: Number of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer	Child labourer	Total
Age (years)			
9	291,736	44,168	335,904
10	362,300	23,081	385,381
11	557,082	96,955	654,037
12	274,919	50,602	325,521
Gender			
Male	1,355,000	140,026	1,495,026
Female	1,669,268	74,779	1,744,047
Region			
Urban	971,155	39,591	1,010,746
Rural	2,053,113	175,215	2,228,328
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	1,016,390	74,826	1,091,216
Second	1,011,386	85,479	1,096,865
Middle	425,190	22,844	448,034
Fourth	344,492	11,300	355,792
Richest	226,809	20,357	247,166
Language			
Urdu	934,309	30,316	964,625
Punjabi	25,644	2,219	27,863
Sindhi	2,059,175	182,270	2,241,445
Other	2,813	0	2,813

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A5.14: Percentage of primary- and lower secondary-aged child labourers who are out of school, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not in school	In school	Total
Age (years)			
9	26.4	73.6	100.0
10	0.0	100.0	100.0
11	6.8	93.2	100.0
12	22.9	77.1	100.0
Gender			
Male	15.8	84.2	100.0
Female	13.6	86.4	100.0
Region			
Urban	19.3	80.7	100.0
Rural	14.0	86.0	100.0
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	13.1	86.9	100.0
Second	6.5	93.5	100.0
Middle	32.7	67.3	100.0
Fourth	40.2	59.8	100.0
Richest	8.9	91.1	100.0
Language			
Urdu	21.6	78.4	100.0
Punjabi	0.0	100.0	100.0
Sindhi	14.0	86.0	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A5.15: Number of primary- and lower secondary-aged child labourers who are out of school, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not in school	In school	Total
Age (years)			
9	15,808	44,168	59,976
10	0	23,081	23,081
11	7,109	96,955	104,064
12	15,027	50,602	65,629
Gender			
Male	26,183	140,026	166,209
Female	11,760	74,779	86,539
Region			
Urban	9,479	39,591	49,070
Rural	28,464	175,215	203,679
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	11,306	74,826	86,132
Second	5,989	85,479	91,468
Middle	11,084	22,844	33,928
Fourth	7,587	11,300	18,887
Richest	1,979	20,357	22,336
Language			
Urdu	8,336	30,316	38,652
Punjabi	0	2,219	2,219
Sindhi	29,608	182,270	211,878

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A5.16: Percentage of primary- and lower secondary-aged out-of-school children at work in employment, household chores, or both, by sector, and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Self-employed (non-agri)	Paid employee	Unpaid-family worker	Own cultivator	Livestock	Total
Age (years)						
9	0.0	18.7	81.3	0.0	0.0	100.0
10	0.0	9.7	90.3	0.0	0.0	100.0
11	0.0	19.6	79.1	1.3	0.0	100.0
12	0.0	24.8	75.2	0.0	0.0	100.0
Gender						
Male	0.0	22.7	76.4	0.9	0.0	100.0
Female	0.0	13.6	86.4	0.0	0.0	100.0
Region						
Urban	0.0	56.3	43.7	0.0	0.0	100.0
Rural	0.0	11.3	88.0	0.7	0.0	100.0
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	0.0	20.0	78.3	1.7	0.0	100.0
Second	0.0	14.2	85.8	0.0	0.0	100.0
Middle	0.0	27.0	73.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Fourth	0.0	41.5	58.5	0.0	0.0	100.0
Richest	0.0	19.8	80.2	0.0	0.0	100.0
Language						
Urdu	0.0	68.5	31.5	0.0	0.0	100.0
Punjabi	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Sindhi	0.0	11.7	87.6	0.7	0.0	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A5.17: Percentage of new entrants in Grade 1 of primary education with no ECE experience, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Residence			
Urban	27.1	27.2	27.1
Rural	43.5	51.2	46.5
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	29.1	34.8	31.5
Second	49.5	55.4	51.9
Middle	38.7	37.7	38.2
Fourth	26.7	23.6	25.5
Richest	30.2	32.4	31.3
Language			
Urdu	16.9	18.6	17.7
Punjabi	8.8	0.0	7.8
Sindhi	44.5	49.4	46.5
Other	100.0	0.0	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A5.18: Repetition rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	10.6	5.2	4.6	5.3	5.2	2.1	2.1	2.1
Rural	29.6	3.0	2.7	3.0	5.1	1.3	0.0	3.1
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	13.4	1.9	2.0	2.0	4.0	0.0	0.9	3.4
Second	27.5	3.2	3.1	3.2	8.3	2.2	0.0	0.0
Middle	17.7	9.5	4.3	7.9	3.9	4.6	3.5	5.7
Fourth	22.1	4.5	5.3	5.8	7.5	1.6	2.7	3.4
Richest	16.9	2.5	3.9	3.0	1.8	1.6	0.0	0.0
Language								
Urdu	7.5	3.6	4.2	4.4	6.5	3.1	2.0	3.0
Punjabi	0.0	68.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sindhi	28.1	4.3	3.5	3.5	4.3	0.8	1.0	1.7

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A5.19: Dropout rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	1.5	5.2	8.9	12.0	36.1	11.6	14.5	25.4
Rural	0.6	12.0	14.7	9.6	58.1	8.1	21.8	31.0
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	1.3	8.6	19.2	12.1	48.9	14.7	18.5	21.5
Second	1.8	12.5	12.5	14.8	58.2	10.4	17.8	39.4
Middle	0.5	6.1	10.0	10.3	53.7	11.1	23.8	31.0
Fourth	0.0	8.0	6.9	11.7	31.6	7.8	18.6	22.3
Richest	0.0	4.0	5.1	1.8	31.6	9.0	8.2	22.8
Language								
Urdu	1.3	4.2	9.7	11.3	34.0	14.9	14.3	27.9
Punjabi	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	48.5	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sindhi	0.8	11.4	12.8	10.8	55.0	7.1	19.3	26.7
Total	1.0	8.2	11.5	11.0	47.5	10.3	16.8	27.3

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A5.20: Transition rates from primary to lower secondary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Residence				
Urban	90.7	90.5	90.6	1.00
Rural	91.1	94.0	91.7	1.03
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	91.9	85.7	89.4	0.93
Second	92.1	90.6	91.7	0.98
Middle	93.4	89.6	91.5	0.96
Fourth	79.6	93.8	86.5	1.18
Richest	95.9	94.9	95.6	0.99
Language				
Urdu	88.4	88.3	88.3	1.00
Punjabi	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Sindhi	92.1	94.2	92.8	1.02
Pashto	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Balochi	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Other	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A5.21: Percentage of households enjoying access to formal social protection, 2007–08

	Did not receive Zakat	Received Zakat	Total
Received Zakat from public sector only			
In school	100.0	0.0	100.0
Not in school	100.0	0.0	100.0
Received Zakat from private sector only (relatives/NGOs/Trusts)			
In school	99.9	0.1	100.0
Not in school	100.0	0.0	100.0
Received Zakat from public or private sector			
In school	99.9	0.1	100.0
Not in school	100.0	0.0	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

Table A5.22: Percentage of households enjoying access to credit, 2007–08

	Did not borrow	Received a loan	Total
In school	87.2	12.8	100.0
Not in school	84.1	15.9	100.0
Total	85.4	14.6	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

ANNEX 6: KHYBER PAKHTUNKHWA TABLES

Table A6.1: Attendance rates of 3–4-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	70.1	23.2	6.7	29.9
Rural	75.8	21.1	3.1	24.2
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	82.3	15.8	1.8	100.0
Second poorest	82.8	15.0	2.1	17.2
Middle	80.6	17.9	1.5	19.4
Second richest	71.2	24.6	4.2	28.8
Richest	63.7	28.8	7.4	36.3
Language				
Urdu	82.3	15.8	1.8	17.7
Punjabi	82.8	15.0	2.1	17.2
Sindhi	80.6	17.9	1.5	19.4
Pashto	71.2	24.6	4.2	28.8
Other	63.7	28.8	7.4	36.3
Total	74.9	21.4	3.7	25.1
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	63.3	31.1	5.6	36.7
Rural	78.7	19.7	1.6	21.3
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	83.9	15.5	0.6	16.1
Second poorest	79.3	17.9	2.7	20.7
Middle	84.4	15.0	0.7	15.6
Second richest	72.5	24.9	2.6	27.5
Richest	69.3	27.4	3.3	30.7
Language				
Urdu	88.0	11.5	0.5	12.0
Punjabi	95.1	4.9	0.0	4.9
Pashto	80.1	17.8	2.1	19.9
Other	55.3	41.4	3.3	44.7
Total	76.8	21.1	2.1	23.2
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	67.1	26.7	6.2	32.9
Rural	77.3	20.4	2.3	22.7
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	83.1	15.7	1.3	16.9
Second poorest	80.8	16.7	2.5	19.2
Middle	82.4	16.5	1.1	17.6
Second richest	71.8	24.7	3.4	28.2
Richest	66.8	28.0	5.2	33.2

Table A6.1 Continued...

Language				
Urdu	80.3	15.5	4.2	19.7
Punjabi	95.7	4.3	0.0	4.3
Sindhi	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Pashto	80.1	17.2	2.7	19.9
Other	52.4	44.8	2.8	47.6
Total	75.9	21.3	2.9	24.1

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age of the children is adjusted due to the continuation of the survey for more than six months of official enrolment date.

Table A6.2: Attendance rates of four-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	55.6	30.1	14.2	44.4
Rural	65.8	28.6	5.6	34.2
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	72.7	24.0	3.3	27.3
Second poorest	72.4	23.7	3.9	27.6
Middle	76.6	20.7	2.7	23.4
Second richest	55.9	36.4	7.7	44.1
Richest	50.0	34.9	15.1	50.0
Language				
Urdu	59.7	18.9	21.4	40.3
Pashto	69.7	24.5	5.8	30.3
Other	30.3	64.8	5.0	69.7
Total	64.4	28.8	6.8	35.6
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	47.6	42.8	9.5	52.4
Rural	67.8	29.1	3.1	32.2
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	69.9	28.8	1.2	30.1
Second poorest	66.4	27.5	6.2	33.6
Middle	73.9	24.8	1.3	26.1
Second richest	59.9	35.0	5.1	40.1
Richest	59.7	34.6	5.8	40.3
Language				
Urdu	81.6	17.5	1.0	18.4
Punjabi	87.5	12.5	0.0	12.5
Pashto	68.1	27.9	4.0	31.9
Other	42.2	51.6	6.1	57.8
Total	65.0	31.0	4.0	35.0
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	51.7	36.5	11.9	48.3
Rural	66.8	28.8	4.4	33.2
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	71.4	26.2	2.4	28.6
Second poorest	69.3	25.7	5.1	30.7
Middle	75.3	22.6	2.1	24.7
Second richest	57.7	35.8	6.5	42.3
Richest	55.7	34.7	9.6	44.3
Language				
Urdu	72.6	18.0	9.4	27.4
Punjabi	87.5	12.5	0.0	12.5
Pashto	69.0	26.1	5.0	31.0
Other	37.4	56.9	5.7	62.6
Total	64.7	29.9	5.4	35.3

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age of the children is adjusted due to the continuation of the survey for more than six months of official enrolment date.

Table A6.3: Percentage of children attending school by gender, age and level of education, 2007–08

Age (years)	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Intermediate	Other/higher	Any level of education
MALE								
3	87.2	12.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.8
4	64.4	28.8	6.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	35.6
5	27.7	33.2	39.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	72.3
6	17.4	17.8	64.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	82.6
7	14.2	7.1	78.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	85.8
8	9.2	1.6	88.4	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.2	90.8
9	13.2	1.3	81.8	1.7	0.0	0.0	2.0	86.8
10	10.0	0.0	75.0	14.2	0.0	0.0	0.8	90.0
11	14.5	0.0	47.8	36.8	0.2	0.0	0.7	85.5
12	22.0	0.4	19.6	53.7	0.5	0.1	3.8	78.0
13	24.5	0.0	12.4	51.7	10.6	0.0	0.7	75.5
14	29.2	0.0	5.2	25.5	38.3	0.8	0.8	70.8
15	33.8	0.2	3.9	15.0	39.1	7.5	0.4	66.2
16	40.6	0.0	2.0	6.0	25.6	20.4	5.4	59.4
17	63.4	0.0	1.0	2.1	12.2	17.6	3.7	36.6
FEMALE								
3	89.7	10.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	10.3
4	65.0	31.0	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	35.0
5	43.3	29.0	27.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	56.7
6	32.4	12.7	54.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	67.6
7	32.9	5.7	60.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	67.1
8	28.1	0.8	70.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	71.9
9	38.7	0.5	58.7	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.5	61.3
10	41.2	0.5	48.7	9.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	58.8
11	51.1	0.0	25.7	22.3	0.0	0.0	0.9	48.9
12	49.7	0.0	16.2	32.6	0.5	0.0	1.0	50.3
13	55.2	0.0	8.9	24.2	10.0	0.1	1.6	44.8
14	61.9	0.0	3.6	17.4	14.2	0.9	2.0	38.1
15	70.9	0.0	0.7	4.6	21.1	1.8	0.8	29.1
16	68.1	0.0	1.2	2.6	9.8	15.2	3.0	31.9
17	83.8	0.0	0.7	1.2	3.4	9.1	1.8	16.2
TOTAL								
3	88.4	11.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	11.6
4	64.7	29.9	5.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	35.3
5	35.4	31.1	33.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	64.6
6	24.4	15.5	59.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	75.6
7	23.3	6.4	69.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	76.7
8	16.7	1.3	81.4	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.2	83.3
9	26.4	0.9	69.8	1.6	0.0	0.0	1.2	73.6
10	24.7	0.3	62.7	12.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	75.3
11	32.4	0.0	37.0	29.7	0.1	0.0	0.8	67.6
12	36.0	0.2	17.9	43.0	0.5	0.1	2.4	64.0
13	40.2	0.0	10.6	37.6	10.3	0.1	1.2	59.8
14	45.5	0.0	4.4	21.5	26.3	0.9	1.4	54.5
15	51.6	0.1	2.4	10.0	30.5	4.8	0.6	48.4
16	54.2	0.0	1.6	4.3	17.8	17.8	4.3	45.8
17	74.0	0.0	0.9	1.6	7.6	13.2	2.7	26.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08

Table A6.4: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary or primary education, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary-school-age children attending				
Pre-primary	12.5	10.3	11.5	0.82
Lower-secondary-school-age children attending				
Pre-primary	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.00
Primary	46.8	28.6	37.9	0.61

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A6.5: Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) by gender and level of education, with GPI, 2007–08

Level of education	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary	71.1	54.0	63.0	0.76
Lower secondary	37.5	23.2	30.5	0.62
Total	54.3	38.6	46.8	0.71

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age group for primary school is 5–9 years and for lower secondary is 10–12 years.

Table A6.6: Percentage and number of children out of school by gender and age group, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
DIMENSION 2						
Primary school age	28.9	448,714	46.0	643,056	37.0	1,091,770
DIMENSION 3						
Lower secondary school age	15.7	108,408	48.1	319,259	31.6	427,667

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A6.7: Primary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	39.1	122,823	27.6	83,580	33.5	206,403
6	64.8	211,429	54.9	156,126	60.2	367,555
7	78.7	253,814	61.4	188,388	70.3	442,202
8	89.2	273,777	71.0	142,190	82.1	415,967
9	85.5	241,342	60.8	185,153	72.7	426,495
Residence						
Urban	73.3	177,978	70.1	147,477	71.8	325,455
Rural	70.7	925,208	51.2	607,961	61.4	1,533,169
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	61.1	164,591	43.8	115,931	52.6	280,522
Second	67.9	130,165	42.5	74,866	55.8	205,031
Middle	73.2	252,579	50.4	153,332	62.5	405,911
Fourth	71.9	290,462	60.8	209,017	66.8	499,479
Richest	77.6	265,388	65.3	202,292	71.8	467,680
Language						
Urdu	62.9	103,745	42.8	51,415	54.4	155,160
Punjabi	87.7	5,666	29.5	1,386	63.2	7,052
Sindhi	0.0	0	100.0	216	33.4	216
Pashto	72.1	827,729	55.1	571,856	64.0	1,399,585
Other	71.3	166,046	55.6	130,565	63.4	296,611
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	71.3	1,099,257	54.3	752,114	63.3	1,851,371
Child labourer	39.4	3,929	22.9	3,324	29.6	7,253

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are excluded.

Table A6.8: Lower secondary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	15.0	200,223	9.5	177,432	12.4	377,655
11	37.6	272,280	23.2	261,312	30.6	533,592
12	58.1	218,336	34.1	224,726	45.9	443,062
Residence						
Urban	48.6	107,786	38.3	126,358	43.0	234,144
Rural	35.5	583,052	19.7	537,112	27.9	1,120,164
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	22.8	110,453	14.9	123,795	18.7	234,248
Second	31.3	78,410	13.9	80,352	22.5	158,762
Middle	38.7	148,580	16.3	151,841	27.4	300,421
Fourth	41.4	190,470	32.3	157,291	37.3	347,761
Richest	44.9	162,925	32.6	150,190	39.0	313,115
Language						
Urdu	40.8	62,678	29.5	63,373	35.1	126,051
Punjabi	44.3	4,019	82.6	1,927	56.7	5,946
Pashto	36.0	518,253	21.4	484,560	29.0	1,002,813
Other	43.8	103,277	26.6	113,610	34.8	216,887
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	39.0	635,639	24.3	627,622	31.7	1,263,261
Child labourer	20.8	55,200	5.3	35,848	14.7	91,048

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending primary school are excluded.

Table A6.9: Percentage of primary-school-age children out of school by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	60.9	191,186	72.4	218,720	66.5	409,906
6	35.2	115,044	45.1	128,339	39.8	243,383
7	21.3	68,621	38.6	118,534	29.7	187,155
8	10.8	33,022	29.0	57,973	18.0	90,995
9	14.5	40,840	39.2	119,490	27.3	160,330
Residence						
Urban	26.7	64,930	29.9	62,854	28.2	127,784
Rural	29.3	383,784	48.8	580,203	38.6	963,987
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	38.9	104,733	56.2	148,538	47.5	253,271
Second	32.1	61,497	57.5	101,130	44.2	162,627
Middle	26.8	92,514	49.6	151,079	37.5	243,593
Fourth	28.1	113,552	39.2	134,592	33.2	248,144
Richest	22.4	76,418	34.8	107,718	28.3	184,136
Language						
Urdu	37.1	61,092	57.2	68,749	45.6	129,841
Punjabi	12.3	795	70.5	3,309	36.8	4,104
Sindhi	100.0	431	0.0	0	66.6	431
Pashto	27.9	319,598	44.9	466,554	36.0	786,152
Other	28.7	66,798	44.4	104,444	36.6	171,242
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	28.7	442,671	45.7	631,857	36.7	1,074,528
Child labourer	60.6	6,043	77.1	11,199	70.4	17,242

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are considered to be out of school.

Table A6.10: Percentage of lower-secondary-school-age children out of school, by age, gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	10.0	20,055	41.7	74,025	24.9	94,080
11	14.5	39,546	51.1	133,583	32.4	173,129
12	22.4	48,806	49.7	111,651	36.2	160,457
Residence						
Urban	13.4	14,439	32.3	40,764	23.6	55,203
Rural	16.1	93,969	51.9	278,495	33.3	372,464
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	29.7	32,814	61.1	75,672	46.3	108,486
Second	23.9	18,712	59.4	47,698	41.8	66,410
Middle	15.9	23,578	53.8	81,741	35.1	105,319
Fourth	11.9	22,595	41.6	65,429	25.3	88,024
Richest	6.6	10,708	32.4	48,719	19.0	59,427
Language						
Urdu	25.6	16,044	50.1	31,777	37.9	47,821
Punjabi	0.0	0	17.4	335	5.6	335
Sindhi	8.3	216	0.0	0	8.3	216
Pashto	13.1	67,876	49.3	239,034	30.6	306,910
Other	23.5	24,272	42.3	48,113	33.4	72,385
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	12.3	78,195	46.5	291,534	29.3	369,729
Child labourer	54.7	30,212	77.3	27,725	63.6	57,937

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary level are considered out of school children.

Table A6.11: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer		Child labourer		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
9	13.4	562,331	21.2	24,495	13.6	586,826
10	8.7	362,919	12.8	14,736	8.8	377,655
11	12.0	504,621	25.1	28,971	12.4	533,592
12	9.4	395,721	41.0	47,341	10.3	443,062
Gender						
Male	52.0	2,177,566	56.4	65,171	52.1	2,242,737
Female	48.0	2,011,593	43.6	50,371	47.9	2,061,964
Residence						
Urban	16.3	680,884	5.6	6,498	16.0	687,382
Rural	83.7	3,508,275	94.4	109,045	84.0	3,617,320
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	17.5	734,315	29.2	33,727	17.8	768,042
Second	12.0	503,590	19.8	22,830	12.2	526,420
Middle	22.0	923,547	22.8	26,378	22.1	949,925
Fourth	25.6	1,071,437	20.7	23,947	25.4	1,095,384
Richest	22.8	956,270	7.5	8,661	22.4	964,931
Language						
Urdu	9.2	383,464	23.9	27,587	9.5	411,051
Punjabi	0.4	15,914	1.0	1,188	0.4	17,102
Sindhi	0.0	1,845	1.2	1,413	0.1	3,258
Pashto	75.1	3,144,805	37.9	43,745	74.1	3,188,550
Other	15.4	643,131	36.0	41,610	15.9	684,741
Total	100.0	4,189,159	100.0	115,543	100.0	4,304,702

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A6.12: Percentage of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer	Child labourer	Total
Age (years)			
9	89.3	10.8	100.0
10	95.5	4.5	100.0
11	93.4	6.6	100.0
12	83.9	16.1	100.0
Gender			
Male	94.3	5.7	100.0
Female	96.1	3.9	100.0
Region			
Urban	97.8	2.2	100.0
Rural	95.0	5.0	100.0
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	93.4	6.7	100.0
Second	92.7	7.3	100.0
Middle	95.3	4.7	100.0
Fourth	96.5	3.5	100.0
Richest	98.2	1.8	100.0
Language			
Urdu	87.9	12.2	100.0
Punjabi	100.0	0.0	100.0
Sindhi	53.6	46.5	100.0
Pashto	97.8	2.3	100.0
Other	89.1	10.9	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A6.13: Number of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer	Child labourer	Total
Age (years)			
9	143,088	17,242	160,330
10	315,988	14,736	330,724
11	346,136	24,331	370,467
12	201,031	38,625	239,656
Gender			
Male	830,471	49,782	880,253
Female	1,107,212	45,151	1,152,363
Region			
Urban	255,540	5,635	261,175
Rural	1,682,143	89,299	1,771,442
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	414,321	29,514	443,835
Second	264,690	20,968	285,658
Middle	440,234	21,587	461,821
Fourth	449,870	16,235	466,105
Richest	368,566	6,630	375,196
Language			
Urdu	185,916	25,724	211,640
Punjabi	6,678	0	6,678
Sindhi	1,629	1,413	3,042
Pashto	1,464,902	33,738	1,498,640
Other	278,557	34,058	312,615

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A6.14: Percentage of primary- and lower secondary-aged child labourers who are out of school, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not in school	In school	Total
Age (years)			
9	29.6	70.4	100.0
10	0.0	100.0	100.0
11	16.0	84.0	100.0
12	18.4	81.6	100.0
Gender			
Male	23.6	76.4	100.0
Female	10.4	89.6	100.0
Region			
Urban	13.3	86.7	100.0
Rural	18.1	81.9	100.0
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	12.5	87.5	100.0
Second	8.2	91.8	100.0
Middle	18.2	81.8	100.0
Fourth	32.2	67.8	100.0
Richest	23.4	76.6	100.0
Language			
Urdu	6.8	93.2	100.0
Punjabi	100.0	0.0	100.0
Sindhi	0.0	100.0	100.0
Pashto	22.9	77.1	100.0
Other	18.1	81.9	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A6.15: Number of primary- and lower secondary-aged child labourers who are out of school, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not in school	In school	Total
Age (years)			
9	7,253	17,242	24,495
10	0	14,736	14,736
11	4,640	24,331	28,971
12	8,716	38,625	47,341
Gender			
Male	15,389	49,782	65,171
Female	5,220	45,151	50,371
Region			
Urban	863	5,635	6,498
Rural	19,746	89,299	109,045
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	4,213	29,514	33,727
Second	1,862	20,968	22,830
Middle	4,791	21,587	26,378
Fourth	7,712	16,235	23,947
Richest	2,031	6,630	8,661
Language			
Urdu	1,863	25,724	27,587
Punjabi	1,188	0	1,188
Sindhi	0	1,413	1,413
Pashto	10,006	33,738	43,744
Other	7,552	34,058	41,610

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A6.16: Percentage of primary- and lower secondary-aged out-of-school children at work in employment, household chores, or both, by sector, and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Self-employed (non-agri)	Paid employee	Unpaid-family worker	Own cultivator	Livestock	Total
Age (years)						
9	0.0	0.0	99.4	0.0	0.6	100.0
10	6.9	5.8	85.0	0.0	2.4	100.0
11	1.5	21.8	72.4	0.0	4.3	100.0
12	4.2	10.2	82.9	0.0	2.7	100.0
Gender						
Male	6.1	20.3	68.5	0.0	5.1	100.0
Female	0.0	0.0	100.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Region						
Urban	0.0	41.5	58.5	0.0	0.0	100.0
Rural	3.4	8.7	85.1	0.0	2.9	100.0
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	6.8	8.1	76.8	0.0	8.3	100.0
Second	0.0	3.9	95.6	0.0	0.5	100.0
Middle	0.0	7.4	92.6	0.0	0.0	100.0
Fourth	6.2	16.7	77.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Richest	0.0	38.7	61.3	0.0	0.0	100.0
Language						
Urdu	0.0	2.7	97.3	0.0	0.0	100.0
Sindhi	0.0	15.3	84.7	0.0	0.0	100.0
Pashto	8.9	25.2	64.9	0.0	1.0	100.0
Other	0.0	2.0	91.5	0.0	6.5	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A6.17: Percentage of new entrants in Grade 1 of primary education with no ECE experience, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Residence			
Urban	3.2	2.0	2.7
Rural	1.1	4.7	2.5
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	0.0	2.2	1.0
Second	0.0	2.6	1.0
Middle	2.0	2.7	2.3
Fourth	0.0	8.0	3.5
Richest	3.9	3.1	3.6
Language			
Pashto	1.4	3.9	2.4
Other	2.3	6.9	4.7
Total	1.4	4.2	2.6

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A6.18: Repetition rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	3.0	4.2	3.4	1.5	2.1	0.7	0.4	0.0
Rural	3.7	7.2	4.9	5.3	1.7	3.6	2.6	1.2
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	6.2	11.3	6.4	0.6	1.2	6.2	0.0	0.0
Second	1.9	3.8	4.8	22.2	2.6	0.0	0.0	0.0
Middle	4.2	4.3	5.4	3.5	5.4	0.0	2.2	2.7
Fourth	1.3	7.3	4.6	3.9	0.5	3.8	2.5	0.0
Richest	4.6	5.6	3.2	2.3	0.5	3.5	2.8	1.0
Language								
Urdu	1.2	9.3	5.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0
Punjabi	4.1	7.4	3.9	3.8	1.8	3.0	2.3	1.2
Sindhi	2.5	1.9	8.5	10.0	2.9	3.7	0.0	0.0
Total	3.6	6.7	4.7	4.6	1.8	3.7	2.1	0.9

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A6.19: Dropout rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	1.7	5.2	15.3	19.3	24.1	20.7	11.6	14.9
Rural	1.8	6.9	11.7	21.6	32.6	16.3	9.6	21.6
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	0.9	8.4	9.6	20.1	26.2	25.4	13.5	30.5
Second	5.3	8.7	16.0	16.2	45.2	21.3	11.4	27.7
Middle	1.3	8.1	12.0	24.2	42.0	20.1	11.4	10.8
Fourth	1.8	5.9	12.9	25.7	30.0	12.9	11.1	20.9
Richest	0.8	3.4	12.1	16.5	18.5	13.1	5.8	17.5
Language								
Urdu	4.9	8.8	7.2	16.2	11.7	21.6	7.4	15.1
Punjabi	0.0	0.0	5.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	55.8	0.0
Pashto	0.7	5.5	12.8	20.5	28.6	18.1	11.5	19.7
Sindhi	5.9	10.9	12.9	27.1	46.1	9.7	3.3	28.0
Total	1.8	6.6	12.4	21.3	31.0	17.2	10.1	20.1

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A6.20: Transition rates from primary to lower secondary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Residence				
Urban	97.1	92.3	94.6	0.95
Rural	95.3	93.7	94.8	0.98
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	94.2	90.9	93.0	0.96
Second	100.0	93.8	97.4	0.94
Middle	95.1	93.6	94.6	0.98
Fourth	96.7	89.7	94.3	0.93
Richest	93.5	97.1	95.1	1.04
Language				
Urdu	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Punjabi	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Sindhi	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Pashto	94.9	94.7	94.8	1.00
Balochi	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Other	98.5	84.4	91.4	0.86
Total	95.6	93.3	94.8	0.98

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A6.21: Percentage of households enjoying access to formal social protection, 2007–08

	Did not receive Zakat	Received Zakat	Total
Received Zakat from public sector only			
In school	99.3	0.7	100.0
Not in school	99.2	0.8	100.0
Received Zakat from private sector only (relatives/NGOs/Trusts)			
In school	99.1	0.9	100.0
Not in school	98.3	1.7	100.0
Received Zakat from public or private sector			
In school	98.4	1.6	100.0
Not in school	97.6	2.4	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

Table A6.22: Percentage of households enjoying access to credit, 2007–08

	Did not borrow	Received a loan	Total
In school	50.4	49.6	100.0
Not in school	46.1	53.9	100.0
Total	48.1	51.9	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

ANNEX 7: Balochistan Tables

Table A7.1: Attendance rates of 3–4-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	70.9	14.2	14.9	29.1
Rural	85.5	5.2	9.3	14.5
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	87.3	5.1	7.6	12.7
Second poorest	91.8	2.8	5.4	8.2
Middle	69.8	14.1	16.1	30.2
Second richest	67.1	11.8	21.1	32.9
Richest	58.8	18.3	22.9	41.2
Language				
Urdu	78.2	10.2	11.6	21.8
Punjabi	31.2	0.0	68.8	68.8
Sindhi	90.5	0.0	9.5	9.5
Pashto	87.0	13.0	0.0	13.0
Balochi	87.5	2.8	9.7	12.5
Other	92.4	1.3	6.3	7.6
Total	82.2	7.2	10.5	17.8
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	80.9	9.5	9.6	19.1
Rural	88.0	4.2	7.8	12.0
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	88.0	5.6	6.5	12.0
Second poorest	87.4	4.3	8.4	12.6
Middle	87.1	3.7	9.2	12.9
Second richest	77.6	11.1	11.3	22.4
Richest	82.4	7.3	10.3	17.6
Language				
Urdu	85.4	7.1	7.6	14.6
Punjabi	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sindhi	77.3	3.5	19.3	22.7
Pashto	86.0	14.0	0.0	14.0
Balochi	92.4	3.3	4.3	7.6
Other	90.7	0.0	9.3	9.3
Total	86.2	5.5	8.3	13.8
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	76.0	11.8	12.2	24.0
Rural	86.7	4.7	8.6	13.3
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	87.6	5.3	7.0	12.4
Second poorest	89.7	3.5	6.8	10.3
Middle	78.3	9.0	12.7	21.7
Second richest	72.1	11.4	16.5	27.9
Richest	69.7	13.2	17.0	30.3

Table A7.1 Continued...

Language				
Urdu	81.7	8.7	9.6	18.3
Punjabi	49.0	0.0	51.0	51.0
Sindhi	85.2	1.4	13.4	14.8
Pashto	86.6	13.4	0.0	13.4
Balochi	90.3	3.0	6.7	9.7
Other	91.6	0.7	7.7	8.4
Total	84.1	6.4	9.4	15.9

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age of the children is adjusted due to the continuation of the survey for more than six months of official enrolment date.

Table A7.2: Attendance rates of four-year-olds in pre-primary or primary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary
MALE				
Region				
Urban	51.7	20.5	27.9	48.3
Rural	79.0	7.0	14.0	21.0
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	81.6	5.7	12.6	18.4
Second poorest	86.7	5.2	8.1	13.3
Middle	53.0	20.3	26.7	47.0
Second richest	52.5	13.7	33.8	47.5
Richest	41.1	24.4	34.5	58.9
Language				
Urdu	68.8	13.9	17.3	31.2
Punjabi	0.0	0.0	100	100.0
Sindhi	82.9	0.0	17.1	17.1
Pashto	84.1	15.9	0.0	15.9
Balochi	77.9	4.9	17.2	22.1
Other	88.2	0.0	11.8	11.8
Total	73.2	9.8	17.0	26.8
FEMALE				
Region				
Urban	70.4	10.1	19.5	29.6
Rural	80.9	7.3	11.8	19.1
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	81.1	8.6	10.3	18.9
Second poorest	77.8	7.6	14.7	22.2
Middle	80.5	5.1	14.4	19.5
Second richest	75.4	8.1	16.5	24.6
Richest	69.1	12.8	18.0	30.9
Language				
Urdu	78.8	9.3	11.9	21.2
Punjabi	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sindhi	64.7	6.3	29.0	35.3
Pashto	63.5	36.5	0.0	36.5
Balochi	85.6	6.2	8.2	14.4
Other	80.7	0.0	19.3	19.3
Total	78.5	8.0	13.5	21.5
TOTAL				
Region				
Urban	60.8	15.4	23.8	39.2
Rural	79.9	7.1	13.0	20.1
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	81.4	7.1	11.6	18.6
Second poorest	82.4	6.3	11.2	17.6
Middle	65.8	13.2	21.0	34.2
Second richest	63.0	11.1	25.9	37.0
Richest	53.1	19.5	27.5	46.9

Table A7.2 Continued...

Language				
Urdu	73.5	11.7	14.8	26.5
Punjabi	13.7	0.0	86.3	86.3
Sindhi	75.8	2.5	21.7	24.2
Pashto	75.2	24.8	0.0	24.8
Balochi	82.1	5.6	12.3	17.9
Other	84.7	0.0	15.3	15.3
Total	75.7	9.0	15.4	24.3

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age of the children is adjusted due to the continuation of the survey for more than six months of official enrolment date.

Table A7.3: Percentage of children attending school by gender, age and level of education, 2007–08

Age (years)	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Intermediate	Other/higher	Any level of education
MALE								
3	94.1	3.8	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.9
4	73.2	9.4	17.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	26.8
5	58.0	5.3	36.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	42.0
6	39.8	1.6	58.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	60.2
7	38.9	0.2	59.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	61.1
8	34.4	0.0	65.2	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.2	65.6
9	27.0	0.0	67.8	3.9	0.0	0.0	1.2	73.0
10	13.9	0.0	69.4	14.9	0.0	0.3	1.5	86.1
11	30.1	0.0	42.7	24.5	0.3	0.2	2.3	69.9
12	33.5	0.0	22.3	40.8	0.0	0.0	3.3	66.5
13	38.3	0.0	10.4	38.7	11.7	0.0	0.8	61.7
14	53.1	0.0	6.7	20.1	17.9	0.5	1.8	46.9
15	57.6	0.0	3.3	10.7	21.2	4.2	3.1	42.4
16	57.9	0.0	3.1	9.7	18.9	7.8	2.6	42.1
17	74.0	0.0	0.9	2.2	13.4	7.9	1.7	26.0
FEMALE								
	Female							
3	95.3	2.7	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.7
4	78.5	8.0	13.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	21.5
5	61.4	3.4	35.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	38.6
6	58.9	2.5	38.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	41.1
7	53.7	0.0	45.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	46.3
8	51.5	0.0	47.6	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	48.5
9	50.7	0.8	43.2	4.3	0.0	0.0	1.0	49.3
10	54.5	0.0	35.4	10.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	45.5
11	60.3	0.0	20.2	18.3	0.2	0.0	0.9	39.7
12	67.4	0.0	10.3	21.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	32.6
13	76.6	0.0	5.1	12.0	6.1	0.0	0.3	23.4
14	80.9	0.0	2.4	7.6	9.0	0.0	0.0	19.1
15	80.1	0.0	2.5	6.5	9.3	1.3	0.3	19.9
16	85.4	0.0	0.5	4.3	7.4	2.4	0.0	14.6
17	92.2	0.0	0.0	1.9	1.4	2.2	2.2	7.8
TOTAL								
	Total							
3	94.7	3.3	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.3
4	75.7	8.7	15.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	24.3
5	59.6	4.4	35.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	40.4
6	48.5	2.0	49.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	51.5
7	46.1	0.1	52.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9	53.9
8	40.8	0.0	58.6	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.1	59.2
9	38.0	0.4	56.3	4.1	0.0	0.0	1.1	62.0
10	32.7	0.0	53.6	12.7	0.0	0.2	0.8	67.3
11	43.4	0.0	32.7	21.8	0.2	0.1	1.7	56.6
12	49.6	0.0	16.6	31.4	0.6	0.0	1.7	50.4
13	56.7	0.0	7.9	25.8	9.0	0.0	0.6	43.3
14	64.4	0.0	4.9	15.0	14.3	0.3	1.0	35.6
15	69.1	0.0	2.9	8.6	15.1	2.7	1.7	30.9
16	69.6	0.0	2.0	7.4	14.0	5.5	1.5	30.4
17	82.0	0.0	0.5	2.1	8.1	5.4	1.9	18.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A7.4: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary or primary education, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary-school-age children attending				
Pre-primary	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.00
Lower-secondary-school-age children attending				
Primary	43.7	21.2	33.4	0.49

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A7.5: Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) by gender and level of education, with GPI, 2007–08

Level of education	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Primary	59.6	43.4	52.2	0.73
Lower secondary	29.3	17.9	24.1	0.69
Total	44.4	30.7	38.2	0.69

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Age group for primary school is 5–9 years and for lower secondary is 10–12 years.

Table A7.6: Percentage and number of children out of school by gender and age group, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
DIMENSION 2						
Primary school age	40.4	241,203	56.6	282,655	47.8	523,858
DIMENSION 3						
Lower secondary school age	27.1	70,970	60.9	134,143	42.5	205,113

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A7.7: Primary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	36.6	41,982	35.2	35,395	35.9	77,377
6	58.5	66,867	38.6	36,945	49.5	103,812
7	60.9	73,085	46.3	52,879	53.8	125,964
8	65.6	64,779	48.5	28,318	59.2	93,097
9	73.0	109,047	48.5	63,499	61.6	172,546
Residence						
Urban	74.4	106,029	63.7	84,137	69.3	190,166
Rural	55.0	249,732	36.1	132,899	46.5	382,631
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	47.4	94,026	30.7	47,183	40.1	141,209
Second	57.8	117,947	45.6	81,173	52.1	199,120
Middle	73.0	72,065	48.2	36,761	62.2	108,826
Fourth	68.0	40,701	49.9	28,184	59.2	68,885
Richest	86.4	31,022	67.4	23,735	77.0	54,757
Language						
Urdu	59.5	229,088	41.3	132,499	51.2	361,587
Punjabi	69.2	2,164	84.3	3,323	77.7	5,487
Sindhi	62.2	42,497	31.8	17,349	48.7	59,846
Pashto	56.3	5,902	41.0	4,163	48.8	10,065
Balochi	58.2	43,496	49.0	32,199	53.9	75,695
Other	59.1	32,613	61.8	27,503	60.3	60,116
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	60.4	355,569	43.6	216,416	52.7	571,985
Child labourer	2.3	192	18.6	620	7.0	812

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are excluded.

Table A7.8: Lower secondary ANAR by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	16.7	64,023	10.1	55,243	13.7	119,266
11	27.3	127,370	19.4	100,894	23.8	228,264
12	44.2	70,918	22.3	64,093	33.8	135,011
Residence						
Urban	44.2	75,920	35.6	63,396	40.3	139,316
Rural	23.2	186,391	10.8	156,834	17.5	343,225
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	24.4	79,389	8.2	61,051	17.4	140,440
Second	26.4	80,718	19.0	74,922	22.8	155,640
Middle	35.3	49,866	25.7	40,767	31.0	90,633
Fourth	34.6	35,416	10.7	24,015	24.9	59,431
Richest	36.9	16,922	37.0	19,474	37.0	36,396
Language						
Urdu	27.5	185,292	17.1	149,695	22.9	334,987
Sindhi	24.8	20,302	7.2	16,021	17.0	36,323
Pashto	25.3	6,706	0.0	4,633	15.0	11,339
Balochi	37.9	28,672	30.9	27,800	34.4	56,472
Other	39.4	20,995	18.9	21,859	28.9	42,854
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	33.3	229,762	18.4	214,857	26.1	444,619
Child labourer	0.6	32,550	0.0	5,373	0.5	37,923

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending primary school are excluded.

Table A7.9: Percentage of primary-school-age children out of school by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
5	63.4	72,656	64.8	65,215	64.1	137,871
6	41.5	47,366	61.4	58,752	50.6	106,118
7	39.1	46,945	53.7	61,267	46.2	108,212
8	34.4	33,930	51.6	30,124	40.8	64,054
9	27.0	40,307	51.5	67,297	38.4	107,604
Residence						
Urban	25.6	36,474	36.3	47,843	30.7	84,317
Rural	45.1	204,729	63.9	234,812	53.5	439,541
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	52.6	104,311	69.3	106,499	59.9	210,810
Second	42.2	86,182	54.4	96,816	47.9	182,998
Middle	27.0	26,623	51.8	39,555	37.8	66,178
Fourth	32.0	19,187	50.1	28,289	40.8	47,476
Richest	13.6	4,900	32.6	11,497	23.0	16,397
Language						
Urdu	40.5	156,024	58.7	188,290	48.8	344,314
Punjabi	30.8	962	15.7	617	22.4	1,579
Sindhi	37.8	25,814	68.2	37,262	51.3	63,076
Pashto	43.7	4,578	59.0	5,993	51.2	10,571
Balochi	41.8	31,295	51.0	33,522	46.1	64,817
Other	40.9	22,530	38.2	16,970	39.7	39,500
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	39.6	233,052	56.4	279,946	47.3	512,998
Child labourer	97.7	8,151	81.4	2,709	93.0	10,860

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Primary-school-age children attending pre-primary school are considered to be out of school.

Table A7.10: Percentage of lower-secondary-school-age children out of school, by age, gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male		Female		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
10	13.9	8,923	54.5	30,084	32.7	39,007
11	30.1	38,285	60.3	60,882	43.4	99,167
12	33.5	23,761	67.4	43,177	49.6	66,938
Residence						
Urban	15.0	11,386	41.0	25,978	26.8	37,364
Rural	32.0	59,584	69.0	108,165	48.9	167,749
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	38.9	30,872	68.9	42,054	51.9	72,926
Second	25.4	20,538	59.6	44,617	41.9	65,155
Middle	20.1	10,003	57.7	23,531	37.0	33,534
Fourth	17.9	6,326	58.1	13,958	34.1	20,284
Richest	19.1	3,230	51.3	9,982	36.3	13,212
Language						
Urdu	25.2	46,759	64.7	96,901	42.9	143,660
Sindhi	39.7	8,063	74.9	11,996	55.2	20,059
Pashto	42.7	2,861	91.5	4,237	62.6	7,098
Balochi	33.6	9,646	37.5	10,429	35.5	20,075
Other	17.3	3,641	48.4	10,579	33.2	14,220
Child labour status						
Not child labourer	17.1	39,250	59.9	128,770	37.8	168,020
Child labourer	97.5	31,720	100.0	5,373	97.8	37,093

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Lower-secondary-school-age children attending pre-primary level are considered out of school children.

Table A7.11: Percentage of primary- and lower-secondary-school-age children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer		Child labourer		Total	
	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number
Age (years)						
9	17.6	268,479	23.5	11,672	17.7	280,151
10	7.5	114,688	9.2	4,578	7.6	119,266
11	13.8	210,502	35.8	17,763	14.5	228,265
12	7.8	119,429	31.4	15,582	8.5	135,011
Gender						
Male	53.5	818,383	82.5	40,893	54.4	859,276
Female	46.5	711,220	17.5	8,701	45.6	719,921
Residence						
Urban	26.5	405,620	16.5	8,180	26.2	413,800
Rural	73.5	1,123,983	83.5	41,415	73.8	1,165,398
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	30.3	463,448	58.5	29,011	31.2	492,459
Second	34.6	528,829	18.0	8,930	34.1	537,759
Middle	17.1	261,579	8.2	4,059	16.8	265,638
Fourth	11.1	169,691	12.3	6,100	11.1	175,791
Richest	6.9	106,056	3.0	1,495	6.8	107,551
Language						
Urdu	66.8	1,021,698	38.7	19,190	65.9	1,040,888
Punjabi	0.5	7,631	0.0	0	0.5	7,631
Sindhi	9.1	139,852	39.1	19,394	10.1	159,246
Pashto	2.0	30,801	2.4	1,175	2.0	31,976
Balochi	12.4	189,740	14.6	7,245	12.5	196,985
Other	9.1	139,881	5.2	2,590	9.0	142,471
Total	100.0	1,529,603	100.0	49,594	100.0	1,579,197

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A7.12: Percentage of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer	Child labourer	Total
Age (years)			
9	89.9	10.1	100.0
10	95.6	4.5	100.0
11	89.8	10.2	100.0
12	82.8	17.2	100.0
Gender			
Male	90.5	9.5	100.0
Female	98.3	1.7	100.0
Region			
Urban	95.2	4.8	100.0
Rural	94.4	5.6	100.0
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	91.3	8.7	100.0
Second	97.1	3.0	100.0
Middle	97.2	2.9	100.0
Fourth	93.4	6.6	100.0
Richest	96.2	3.8	100.0
Language			
Urdu	96.9	3.2	100.0
Punjabi	100.0	0.0	100.0
Sindhi	80.1	19.9	100.0
Pashto	94.2	5.8	100.0
Balochi	92.9	7.1	100.0
Other	96.3	3.7	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A7.13: Number of out-of-school primary- and lower secondary-aged children who are involved in child labour, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not child labourer	Child labourer	Total
Age (years)			
9	96,745	10,860	107,605
10	98,407	4,578	102,985
11	156,155	17,763	173,918
12	74,003	15,379	89,382
Gender			
Male	386,253	40,498	426,751
Female	455,311	8,081	463,392
Region			
Urban	159,540	7,977	167,517
Rural	682,023	40,602	722,625
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	298,464	28,391	326,855
Second	294,218	8,930	303,148
Middle	125,044	3,664	128,708
Fourth	85,999	6,100	92,099
Richest	37,839	1,495	39,334
Language			
Urdu	583,753	18,998	602,751
Punjabi	2,144	0	2,144
Sindhi	74,643	18,571	93,214
Pashto	19,040	1,175	20,215
Balochi	94,611	7,245	101,856
Other	67,372	2,590	69,962

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A7.14: Percentage of primary- and lower secondary-aged child labourers who are out of school, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not in school	In school	Total
Age (years)			
9	7.0	93.0	100.0
10	0.0	100.0	100.0
11	0.0	100.0	100.0
12	1.3	98.7	100.0
Gender			
Male	1.0	99.0	100.0
Female	7.1	92.9	100.0
Region			
Urban	2.5	97.5	100.0
Rural	2.0	98.0	100.0
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	2.1	97.9	100.0
Second	0.0	100.0	100.0
Middle	9.7	90.3	100.0
Fourth	0.0	100.0	100.0
Richest	0.0	100.0	100.0
Language			
Urdu	1.0	99.0	100.0
Sindhi	4.2	95.8	100.0
Pashto	0.0	100.0	100.0
Balochi	0.0	100.0	100.0
Other	0.0	100.0	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A7.15: Number of primary- and lower secondary-aged child labourers who are out of school, by individual and household characteristics, 2007–08

	Not in school	In school	Total
Age (years)			
9	812	10,860	11,672
10	0	4,578	4,578
11	0	17,763	17,763
12	203	15,379	15,582
Gender			
Male	395	40,498	40,893
Female	620	8,081	8,701
Region			
Urban	203	7,977	8,180
Rural	812	40,602	41,414
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	620	28,391	29,011
Second	0	8,930	8,930
Middle	395	3,664	4,059
Fourth	0	6,100	6,100
Richest	0	1,495	1,495
Language			
Urdu	192	18,998	19,190
Sindhi	823	18,571	19,394
Pashto	0	1,175	1,175
Balochi	0	7,245	7,245
Other	0	2,590	2,590

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A7.16: Percentage of primary- and lower secondary-aged out-of-school children at work in employment, household chores, or both, by sector, and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Self-employed (non-agri)	Paid employee	Unpaid family worker	Own cultivator	Livestock	Total
Age (years)						
9	0.0	13.7	82.1	0.0	4.2	100.0
10	0.0	23.4	74.3	0.0	2.4	100.0
11	1.4	28.9	69.8	0.0	0.0	100.0
12	0.4	20.3	77.2	0.0	2.1	100.0
Gender						
Male	0.5	23.9	73.1	0.0	2.5	100.0
Female	0.0	2.4	97.6	0.0	0.0	100.0
Region						
Urban	2.6	67.2	27.5	0.0	2.6	100.0
Rural	0.0	11.1	86.9	0.0	2.0	100.0
Wealth index quintile						
Poorest	0.0	9.1	88.7	0.0	2.2	100.0
Second	2.4	24.7	68.4	0.0	4.5	100.0
Middle	0.0	40.5	59.5	0.0	0.0	100.0
Fourth	0.0	37.5	62.5	0.0	0.0	100.0
Richest	0.0	86.4	13.6	0.0	0.0	100.0
Language						
Urdu	0.0	30.5	67.4	0.0	2.0	100.0
Punjabi	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Sindhi	1.1	10.0	87.7	0.0	1.1	100.0
Pashto	0.0	25.0	75.0	0.0	0.0	100.0
Balochi	0.0	13.7	80.5	0.0	5.8	100.0
Other	0.0	35.6	64.4	0.0	0.0	100.0

Source: LFS 2007–08.

Table A7.17: Percentage of new entrants in Grade 1 of primary education with no ECE experience, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total
Residence			
Urban	40.0	40.5	40.2
Rural	44.8	49.8	46.6
Wealth index quintile			
Poorest	20.8	25.5	22.4
Second	42.7	41.4	42.2
Middle	46.8	50.4	47.9
Fourth	65.4	75.4	69.2
Richest	63.9	69.3	65.9
Language			
Urdu	53.2	56.5	54.4
Punjabi	0.0	21.2	12.3
Sindhi	51.1	65.2	57.2
Pashto	0.0	35.3	15.3
Balochi	4.1	0.0	2.4
Other	3.2	0.0	2.2
Total	43.5	47.1	44.8

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A7.18: Repetition rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	5.6	3.5	4.7	1.8	2.6	0.9	0.0	2.0
Rural	10.6	2.6	1.1	1.5	4.7	1.6	0.0	0.0
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	14.5	5.2	2.3	1.8	10.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
Second	7.9	2.4	2.7	1.9	1.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
Middle	5.5	3.7	1.2	1.3	1.8	4.3	0.0	4.2
Fourth	6.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1	1.5	0.0	0.0
Richest	7.5	0.0	3.1	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Language								
Urdu	2.7	1.6	1.6	1.5	2.6	1.9	0.0	0.4
Punjabi	24.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Sindhi	60.9	0.0	4.5	7.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Balochi	0.0	8.8	2.4	0.0	3.4	0.0	0.0	0.0
Other	0.0	5.8	2.7	0.0	10.7	0.0	0.0	9.5
Total	9.0	2.9	2.1	1.6	3.7	1.3	0.0	1.2

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A7.19: Dropout rates at primary and lower secondary level by grade and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8
Residence								
Urban	1.5	5.1	15.3	15.3	27.2	7.2	9.1	24.9
Rural	2.4	6.9	12.4	13.0	43.1	12.6	16.0	40.2
Wealth index quintile								
Poorest	1.4	5.8	7.4	15.0	41.0	13.0	19.3	29.3
Second	4.9	3.8	13.5	11.9	41.7	13.1	16.7	49.9
Middle	0.6	8.8	17.2	20.0	42.7	4.5	5.1	28.8
Fourth	0.0	7.1	16.8	7.9	26.5	4.5	7.8	21.6
Richest	1.0	10.2	13.4	11.8	16.8	14.3	11.1	19.3
Language								
Urdu	2.7	6.9	14.8	14.4	36.9	9.4	11.8	28.8
Punjabi	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	36.6	0.0	0.0	90.8
Sindhi	2.4	15.9	13.3	11.1	51.3	25.1	14.3	26.5
Pashto	0.0	14.6	52.3	21.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Balochi	0.0	3.8	6.5	12.0	45.1	7.2	15.9	44.0
Other	0.0	0.0	5.4	15.7	34.1	12.8	18.5	62.8
Total	2.2	6.3	13.4	13.7	38.3	10.1	12.9	33.2

Table A7.20: Transition rates from primary to lower secondary education by gender and other characteristics, 2007–08

	Male	Female	Total	GPI
Residence				
Urban	95.7	90.7	93.2	0.95
Rural	95.8	84.1	92.7	0.88
Wealth index quintile				
Poorest	92.8	77.4	87.8	0.83
Second	98.3	94.0	96.6	0.96
Middle	99.2	75.5	90.7	0.76
Fourth	92.2	98.1	94.2	1.06
Richest	84.7	96.8	93.5	1.14
Language				
Urdu	94.6	87.9	92.4	0.93
Punjabi	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Sindhi	100.0	51.7	94.6	0.52
Pashto	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00
Balochi	100.0	94.4	96.6	0.94
Other	95.8	80.7	89.3	0.84
Total	95.8	88.4	93.0	0.92

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Table A7.21: Percentage of households enjoying access to formal social protection, 2007–08

	Did not receive Zakat	Received Zakat	Total
Received Zakat from public sector only			
In school	100.0	0.0	100.0
Not in school	100.0	0.0	100.0
Received Zakat from private sector only (relatives/NGOs/Trusts)			
In school	99.6	0.4	100.0
Not in school	98.9	1.1	100.0
Received Zakat from public or private sector			
In school	99.5	0.5	100.0
Not in school	98.8	1.2	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

Table A7.22: Percentage of households enjoying access to credit, 2007–08

	Did not borrow	Received a loan	Total
In school	90.3	9.7	100.0
Not in school	88.1	11.9	100.0
Total	88.9	11.1	100.0

Source: PSLM-HIES 2007–08.

Note: Children aged 3–17 years are included.

For more information:
Visit our Website: www.unicef.org

United Nations Children's Fund
Pakistan Country Office
P.O. Box 1063, Islamabad
Tel: +92-51-209-7700
Fax: +92-51-209-7899
www.unicef.org/pakistan

