Investigating the Effectiveness of The Re-Entry Policy of The Zambia’s Ministry of Education; The Case Study of Kasama Girls Secondary School.

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Abstract—Each year one in every three school girls drops out of school in Zambia due to pregnancy. Majority of these adolescent mothers are not able to go back to school after delivery. To address this issue, the Ministry of Education in 1996 released re-entry policy guidelines to ensure the smooth readmission of adolescent mothers after delivery. Years later, it was established that a significant majority of the adolescent mothers were still not attending school. This pointed to a gap or missing link between the stipulated re-entry policy and the actual practice on the ground. Investigating the effectiveness of the re-entry policy of the Ministry of Education in Zambia could help understand this missing link between the policy and the practice. The purpose of this research was to Investigating the effectiveness of the re-entry policy of the Ministry of Education Zambia.

The Re-entry Policy is a policy in Zambia that allows school girls who get pregnant to go back to school and continue learning after delivery. In the past, girls in the majority of African countries including Zambia faced permanent expulsion from school once found to be pregnant. Several of these countries including Zambia have now introduced policies of readmission that allows teenage mothers to re-enter and complete school. The essence of the Re-entry policy was to improve access, retention and progression of girls in schools. Once girls get pregnant, they face acute personal embarrassment that they prefer to stay away from school rather than experience the upset caused. Such situations include being teased or harassed by boys and some male teachers.

The objectives of the study were to investigate the level of awareness of the re-entry policy in secondary schools; identify the policy gaps; determine the factors that influence implementation of the re-entry policy and seek ways in which the re-entry policy can be improved to ensure successful implementation. The research was based on the rational system approaches and the functional process model. This was a descriptive research yielding both quantitative and qualitative data. The research was carried out in Kasama District. The study was involved 8 of these schools.

A sample size of 225 respondents was obtained using the systematic and purposive sampling techniques. The participants included the County Director of Education, Assistant Education Officers, head teachers, teachers, parents and students. The data collection instruments used included survey questionnaires and key informant interviews. The quantitative data was analyzed and presented in frequencies, tables, percentages and graphs while the qualitative data was organized into thematic categories according to the objectives of the study.

The research established that about half of the students were aware of the policy’s existence while the others were not. Electronic media was found to be the most effective method of disseminating information on the policy. The policy was not clearly stated and it lacked resources to help in its implementation. Shame and stigma were the most common reason given why girls do not go back to school followed by lack of support by their parents. The study concluded that the policy was difficult to implement because it lacked objectives, implementation and monitoring strategies, intended outcomes and the financial, human and legal resources to do so.

The research therefore recommended that the policy be formalized, legitimized and resourced to ensure successful implementation. Awareness campaigns using the media should also be held at school and national levels.

Keywords— Policy, Teen Mothers, Stakeholders, Stigmatization, Re-admission, Implementing
1. **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents the background of the study, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives and research questions. In addition, it presents the significance of the study, limitations and operational definitions.

1.1 Background to the study

Kasama District Education Board is run and headed by the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) on behalf of the Ministry of Education and the Republic of Zambia. He is deputized by the District Education Standards Officer (DESO). The DEBS reports to the Provincial Education Officer. In order to run the affairs of Education in the District efficiently and effectively, the DEBS is assisted by officers who are manning various sections. The Education Standards Section is headed by the DESO, Policy, Planning and Information which include, infrastructure headed by a Planning Officer, Human Resources and Management is headed by the Senior Human Resources Management Officer. (SHRMO). The District Resource Centre is run by the District Resource Centre Coordinator. (DRCC) and the Financial Management and audit is run by the Accounts Assistant Officer.

The structure of formal education in Kasama consists of three stages. The first stage is Middle Basic Education. It caters for pupils between the age of 7 and 10 years old. The second stage is Upper Basic Education. It lasts for 5 years and caters for pupils between the ages of 11 and 15 years and lasts for 5 years. The last stage is high school education. It lasts for 3 years and caters for pupils between the age of 16 and 19 years old. Teacher training college is one of the branches available for pupils completing high school education available for them before they either join the labour market or enter higher education. Teacher training college lasts for 3 years. (District Education Board Secretary Report 2007)

Girls’ education is a major human rights issue, and providing education to girls is the best investment a developing country can make (UNICEF, 1994:1)

However, more than four decades after the United Nations Universal Declaration on Human Rights was adopted, many countries including Zambia, are still a long way from achieving the education for all, including that of girls. (UNICEF, 2009)

In many developing countries, teenage pregnancy has been one of the major hindrances to the educational success of girls. Pregnancy among school girls is reaching crisis proportions in some African schools including Zambia. The Re-entry Policy is a policy that allows school girls who get pregnant to go back to school and continue learning after delivery. (MOE, 1996). The Re-entry policy was documented developed and disseminated throughout the country in 1977. This dissertation presents findings on the efficacy and outcomes of the Re-entry policy in the promotion of girls’ educational rights in some mentioned schools in Kasama where performance of the policy for girls seem to be improving at a slower pace than expected. In addition, gender disparities persist in favour of males in school enrolment in senior classes, completion rates and education attainments, most of which are in part as a result of teenage pregnancy. (MOE, 1996). Though the girls are allowed to return to school after becoming mothers, they face many challenges in trying to balance motherhood and the demands of schooling. The aim of the study was to assess the efficacy and outcomes of the Re-entry Policy which was put in place in 1977 and to review whether, Re-entry as a policy has played a part in promoting girl child education and advancement in schools, particularly in Kasama district.

Zambia’s education progression has been embedded in a policy document of 1996 namely “Educating our Future”. The key thrusts for the
Zambia Education Policy and implementation are Access and Participation, Quality and Relevance, Efficiency, Effectiveness and Equity. In the Ministry of Education teaching and learning services are provided through Provincial Education offices and District Education Boards at district level based on the Ministry of Education vision and mission. Despite its major strides, the progression in the education sector did not go without challenges especially on the girl child education. The ministry has continued to record reports of girls dropping out of school due to early pregnancies. This has slowed down the completion rate of girls compared that of boys. Failing to complete school further exacerbate the poverty levels among women (UNWOMEN). The ministry has put in measures by amending the education re-entry policy which entails that all girls falling pregnant while at school should be allowed to continue with their studies. However, debate has arose in the public circles as to whether this policy has really contributed positively towards the education of girls. It is from this same background that this research intends to investigate the usefulness of this policy.

However, in the recent past since the establishment of the above-mentioned initiatives government has been concerned towards improving girls' access, retention and performance. Though, the gender disparities are still wide. In the document produced by FAWEZA in 2010 indicates that there are more barriers for girls to surmount in order to access education. Some of the barriers include; school location, long walking distances that tire girls out and expose them to sexual abuse. This has resulted in a number of girls dropping out of schools or getting pregnant while still in school due to pressure of looking for money to buy few necessities especially for those from less well-off parents. On another front, research regarding the effectiveness of the re-entry policy for girls who fall pregnant and the moral implication of the policy has apparently not attracted much attention and this has made information on the above-mentioned issue scanty, yet the availability of such information is vital to progressive policy formulation within the education sector. This piece of writing therefore was an investigation of the effectiveness of the re-entry policy in Zambia at Ministry of education. The piece of writing was divided into three chapters. Chapter one comprises of an introduction, chapter two comprises of a literature review, chapter three which happens to be the last chapter comprises of the methodology.

Besides this aim, schools are seen as strong agents of social change in the communities where they are found and established. In line with the MOE thrust and mission, and numerous International Documents including the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Social Cultural Rights, the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and fifty-fifty enrolment policy among others. As a fulfillment of the above-mentioned Documents, Zambia alongside other stakeholders soon after the 1995 World Conference on Women launched a girl-child campaign called Programme for Advancement of Girl Education (PAGE) whose aim was to create girl friendly school and provide school requisites such aspens, books, pencils, and paying school fees. The government also introduced different cut-off points for boys and girls of which the cut-off point for girls is lower than that of boys. In addition, in 1997 the government went further to introduce the re-entry policy to allow girl-child who became pregnant to go back to school after six months of her delivery.
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1.2 Statement of the Problem

Zambia has a Re-entry policy in place to enable for the continued education of girls returning to school after giving birth. Despite the policy being implemented, many young girls continue dropping out of school because of falling pregnant. According to the 2009 Ministry of Education Statistical Bulletin, 15,497 girls got pregnant in 2009 but only 6,679 were readmitted in school and as such reducing the chances of nearly 9000 girls completing their education (MoE, 2009). The challenges that the girls face in secondary schools have not been fully pursued leading to several dropout cases among girls with teenage pregnancies. Though there is a Re-entry policy, the majority of the girls do not make use of it by returning to school after delivery. The policy might, therefore, not be effective. There was need for this study which sought to investigate the effectiveness of the Re-entry policy in government schools, from an educational management perspective.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of the Re-entry policy in government schools, from an educational management perspective, in Kasama District of Northern Province of Zambia.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were as follows:

a) 1.4.1 General objective

Investigating the effectiveness of the re-entry policy of the Zambia’s Ministry of education; the case study of Kasama Girls Secondary School.

b) 1.4.2 Specific objectives

To establish the role of the school management in the implementation of the Re-entry Policy in selected schools in Kasama District.

To investigate the level of awareness of the re-entry policy in Zambian schools.

To determine the factors and Challenges influencing the implementation of the re-entry policy.

1.5 Research Questions

1.5.1 General Research Question

What is the effectiveness of the Re-entry policy in government schools in Kasama District of Zambia, from an educational management perspective?

1.6. Specific Research Questions

I. What is the role of the school management in the implementation of the Re-entry policy in selected schools in Kasama District?

II. What are the awareness levels of learners about the Re-entry policy in selected government schools in Kasama District?

III. What factors and challenges influence the implementation of the re-entry policy?

1.7. Significance of the research

The importance of this study was that the findings of the study might be useful to policy makers when coming up with other policies related to the
education of girls in the MoGE, the schools in Zambia and in other countries. Additionally, the findings might be useful to stakeholders when evaluating the effectiveness of the Re-entry policy in government schools. This study might also help educational planners to mitigate the challenges that exist at school level in line with the implementation and management of the Re-entry policy. Finally, the study might provide information to the MoGE to strengthen the school management system if it is to effectively and efficiently implement this policy.

1.8. Delimitations of the Study
This research study was intended to investigating the effectiveness of the re-entry policy of the ministry of education Zambia; the case of Kasama girls’ secondary school,

1.9. Theoretical Framework
This study was informed by the Stufflebeam's context-input-process-product (CIPP) model of programme evaluation in educational management. Dick and Carey (1996) assert that the task of the evaluator in the Stufflebeam's context-input-process-product model is to collect data, plan, analyse, prepare information, choose the alternative action and report it. Dick and Carey (1996) note that this model argues that the action can be done in four parts namely, the result of the environment (context), implementation (process) and result about input and product. According to Stufflebeam, every part of evaluation needs three types of activities which accumulate all the information together, organize the collection of all the information and analyze the information (Potter, 2006). The main purpose of this theory is to relate the information, context, input and process the programme product. It is also to indicate the availability of a good environment in order to achieve the goal and objective of the programme.

This model also enhances the growth of the programme and helps the leader to improve the process of the programme. Evaluation contexts also try to evaluate the premature conditions and needs in a situation. This will produce the issues, expose the problems and indicate the limits in the creation of a programme (Kerzner, 2003). Klistorin (2003) suggests that the merits of Stufflebeam's context-input-process-product model of evaluation is to measure, translate and authenticate the progress of the programme. Furthermore, the other merit of this evaluation is to identify the weak and the strong object such as the institution, the programme, population/individual target and to prepare the indicator for changes.

The results that have been produced will become the indicator to fix the mission that already exists and to indicate any changes. Input evaluation will measure the effort of the system and input from the strategies and the sources. This evaluation is used to arrange the results that will be used for guidance in choosing the program strategies and the changes that can be affected. Nathan (1999) argues that in real terms, the inputs of this evaluation model has the following factors which can be seen as merits of the model and these include; the entering ability of students, the learning skills of students, the motivation of students, the living conditions of students, and the students' existing knowledge. Additionally, Potter (2006) states that this evaluation model will also look at issues in the inputs such as what knowledge, skills and attitudes related to the subject the teachers have and how supportive the classroom environment is.

Kerzner (2003) suggests that in practical terms in the process of CIPP, some factors are considered of which these include: how well or actively students participate, problems related to teaching, problems related to learning, if there is effective two way communication, weather knowledge is only transferred to students, or do they use and apply it and problems which students face in
using/applying/analysing the knowledge and skills. According to Klastorin (2003), some other merits of this evaluation model can be seen through its methods used to evaluate the programme and here are some common ways; discussion with class, informal conversation or observation, individual student interviews, and evaluation forms. It can be argued that the other merit of this model is that at management and evaluation stage, the researcher will ensure the processes evaluation while the programme is still in progress. This evaluation will act as the monitoring for a program that is still in a progress. Potter (2006) argues that the information about achievement and also the summary of the programmer is very important while the program is still in progress and that the main objective which is also a merit of this model of evaluation in education management, is to ensure how far one program can fulfill the demand of a group. In this output evaluation phase. Potter (2006) farther contends that the main purpose is to correspond the information, contexts, input and process with the input of the programmer. Rossi and Freeman (2004) agree that this theory takes a holistic approach to evaluation as it has the potential to act in a formative as well as summative way. The demerit which is the risk, however, of this evaluation model is that it may be directed only by expertise or outsiders, and for this reason it is vital to identify ways in which various stakeholders can be meaning involved. Aubel (1999) suggests that when responsibility for programme evaluation is delegated to outside evaluation, they adopt a top down, doctor-patient relationship with programme staff Aubel (1999) further asserts that often the programme staff is excluded from the process and the aura of secrecy which this creates, can make them feel suspicious and uncomfortable. He also asserts that the use of sophisticated data collection and analysis techniques reinforces the idea that the programme should depend on an evaluation expert to carry out the exercise. Frequently, evaluation results are not easily understood by programme personnel, nor readily applicable to their work. Therefore, all these factors may lead to the programme staff being disinterest and even alienation from an evaluation activity. This theory was suitable for this study because it has a holistic approach in the way it views a programme success in educational management. The factors that the theory is concerned with for the success of the programme, are the context meaning the environment, the process meaning the implementation, the input meaning what goes into the system and the product which is the output. Therefore, the effective implementation of the Re-entry policy requires a holistic approach that involves a wide spectrum of stakeholders such as the head teachers, teachers, parents, pupils, Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and the church members. All these stakeholders are the inputs for effectiveness of the Re-entry policy so as to produce a good product in a conducive environment. The Re-entry policy is a programme that should have the good context, process, input and product.

1.10. Description of variables
1.11. Limitations of the study
During data collection, the researcher was required to travel to the selected study site for primary information; this process needed enough funding for transport. The other challenge of this research is the amount of time within which the research was undertaken. The researchers were likely to face difficulties as they undertook their research in that the research was being undertaken in a short period of time.
Respect. Informed consent was obtained from both the respondents and the people in charge of the places where the research was carried out and all the respondents were treated equally.

1.12. Definition of terms
**Education** - the process of facilitating learning or the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values, beliefs and habits.

**Policy** - a deliberate system of principles to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes. A policy is a statement of intent, and is implemented as a procedure or protocol.

**Pregnancy** - The time during which one or more offspring develops inside a woman. A multiple pregnancy involves more than one offspring, such as with twins. Pregnancy can occur by sexual intercourse or assisted reproductive technology.

**Family** - This refers to the mothers, fathers, and grandparents, guardians of teen mothers who serve as parental figures for the teen mothers and are responsible for the day to day care of these teen mothers and their babies. Primary Caregivers: Used interchangeably with family to refer to mothers, fathers, grandparents, guardians of teen mothers who serve as parental figures for teen mothers and are responsible for the day-to-day care of teen mothers and their babies.

**Teen Mothers** - Used interchangeably with girls with a baby to refer to mothers in school.

**Re-entry Policy** - A Policy that allows pregnant girls to return to school after delivery to complete their education despite their status.

**Government Schools**: Schools after the state, excluding mission and private schools.

**Effectiveness** - The degree to which the Re-entry policy is successful in producing desired results.

**Stakeholders**: Interested or affected individuals or organizations.

**Support system**: Deliberate measures including structures established to help a teen mother at school.

**Stigmatization**: Negative perception and attitudes towards teen mothers.

**Re-admission**: Being allowed back into school having left due to pregnancy.

**Implementing**: carrying out or fulfilling the Re-entry Policy and putting it into effect or action.

2. **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

2.0 Introduction
This chapter presented a review of relevant literature on the effectiveness of the re-entry policy as implemented by the ministry of education in Zambia.

2.1 Overview

Successful efforts in countries to achieve Universal Primary Education greatly reduced the number of out-of-school children and resulted in greater demand for secondary education. In 2009 for example, 88% of children enrolled in primary schools globally reached the last grade of this level of education. Secondary education was seen as critical because it not only linked initial education to higher education but also connected the school system to the labor market (FNBE, 2012; UIS 2010b; UIS 2011). One of the EFA goals was to achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality. In the period between 1999 and 2009 participation of girls improved globally with their total secondary enrolment growing from 43% to 48%. Although progress toward gender parity in education was particularly rapid in 2008 women still represented two-thirds of the world’s 759 million illiterates and 60% of countries were still yet to attain gender parity a goal that had been set for 2005.

2.2 Literature from the Global Perspective

2.2.1 Status of Education across the World

Education is not just a necessary means of individual advancement but also a way to build a country. It plays a very important role in creating healthy and cohesive societies and spurs economic growth. Most governments recognize the link between the knowledge and skills with which young people enter the workforce and long –term economic competitiveness. This gives education great prominence among governments and policy makers and means that learning, acquiring knowledge and skills is the responsibility for all and not just the individual (EIU, 2012; UIS 2011).

In the best school systems in the world, like Finland and South Korea, the central objective of education was to provide all citizens with equal opportunities. In these countries one of the basic principles of education was that all people had equal access to high quality education and training. The same opportunities to education were availed to all citizens irrespective of their ethnic origin, age, wealth or where they live. In these school systems, education was free at all levels from pre-primary to higher education. Even though the two school systems were very different one major similarity was that their societies were highly supportive of both the school system itself and of education in general. Finland and South Korea had both achieved universal primary and secondary education. In South Korea for example, nearly all adults born since the 1970s completed upper secondary education. (EIU, 2012; FNBE, 2012). Borrowing a leaf from these countries the United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000 challenged countries to provide basic education for all by 2015. The countries responded by launching several policies to improve access to quality of education. One such policy was the Education for All (EFA). The driving force of the policy was to ensure that all children had ‘free’ access to education in spite of their gender, social, cultural or economic backgrounds (CGG, 2006). The policy provided for the abolition of primary school tuition fees which was replaced with fee subsidy. With the introduction of fee subsidy in primary schools, many parents who previously were unable to pay school fees sent their children to school. The high enrollment rate in schools was unprecedented and was seen by many as an indicator of the success of the EFA Plan of Action (CGG, 2006).

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number of out-of-school children and resulted in greater demand for secondary education. In 2009 for example, 88% of children enrolled in primary schools globally reached the last grade of this level of education. Secondary education was seen as critical because it not only linked initial education to higher education but also connected the school system to the labour market (FNBE, 2012; UIS 2010b; UIS 2011). Governments responded to the increased demand for secondary education by expanding their secondary education systems capacity and making varying degrees of post-primary education compulsory. As a result, secondary school systems were able to accommodate 531 million students in 2009. Enrolment in secondary schools worldwide rose to represent 68% of the targeted school-age population. In sub-Saharan Africa, the gross enrolment ratio (GER) rose to 36% and the total enrolment grew to 39 million in 2009. The biggest increase took place in Nigeria, where the number of students enrolled grew to more than 6 million in 2007. Secondary education systems also expanded significantly in several countries like Ethiopia, Kenya, and the United Republic of Tanzania (UIS 2011; UIS, 2010b). One of the EFA goals was to achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality. In the period between 1999 and 2009 participation of Girls improved globally with their total secondary enrolment growing from 43% to 48%. Although progress toward gender parity in education was particularly rapid in 2008 women still represented two-thirds of the world’s 759 million illiterates and 60% of countries were still yet to attain gender parity – a goal that had been set for 2005. In Africa, the male GER increased from 22% - 31%, while the increase of the female GER was more modest (from 18% to 24%) in the period between 1999-2009. This may have been due to the fact that in countries with limited access to education, more priority is given to men (Ashoka et al., 2007; UIS 2010a; 2011).

A number of studies have been done concerning the Re-entry policy throughout the world.

There have been several measures and systems that have tried to address the plight of pregnant school girls. Teenage pregnancy is a worldwide problem which governments, the world over, are concerned about. Studies on teenage pregnancy reveal that teenage mothers were often themselves boom to teenage parents and were more likely to end up both as single parents and to bring their children up in poverty (Hall, 2001). Gardner (2004) showed that in the year 2002, 425,000 babies were boom to teenage mothers in the United States of America (USA) and Canada. Research findings by Levine and Brooks (1990) also indicated that teenagers accounted for 30 percent of non-marital births in America. According to Namunda and Mwenda (2010), gender differences in primary school enrolment were a major concern in Western Countries, South Asia and Middle East. This posed a great challenge to achieving gender equality by 2015. One of the major strategies aimed at maximizing opportunities for a girl child to attain basic education, involved instituting a policy of re-admitting school girls who fell pregnant after they had delivered their babies (UNDP, 2010).

Maynard (1996) notes that in the U S a teen mothers are disproportionately concentrated in poor communities characterized by inferior housing, high crime, poor schools and limited health services. To this effect, poverty is a great challenge to the teen mothers in schools and in the community in which they live. Furthermore, Wilson (1996) notes that teen mothers faced increased health problems decreased educational achievement and an increased chance
of living in poverty. Accordingly, Gallagher (1999) noted that separating pregnant school girls and teenage mothers whilst ensuring that they continued with school was best practice in the USA. A number of studies have been done in the USA to look at teenage parenting and schooling. One of the studies was done by Testa (1992). He wanted to find out the issues related to teenage parenting: challenges, interventions and programmes. The study established that girls between the ages of 10 and 14 years were the fastest growing group of parents, coupled with difficulties to cope with life when they gave birth. The study indicated that many adolescent mothers did not marry and were in poverty. The study further established that teen fathers lacked involvement with their children and with the mothers of their children (Testa, 1992).

Additionally, the study done by the Canadian Ministry of Education (1998) on the challenges and choices of keeping teenage mothers in schools revealed that fellow learners and teachers use judgmental glances or mean remarks, and that other teenage mothers quit school because of pressure from the school administration or teachers. London (1983), in a study conducted in the United Kingdom (UK), found that teenage mothers who returned to regular comprehensive schools continually faced obstacles and dilemmas as they had to make a social adjustment to their peers and teachers and cope with anonymity accompanied with attending school. London also asserted that the teenage mother also had to adjust her self-image to being a pupil six hours a day, daily experiencing conflict as she struggled with her dual development as an adolescent and a mother. According to Fitzgerald (2003), flexible educational arrangements had to be made available in England for girls who fell pregnant while at school. This form of re-entry and retention into school was to be enhanced by giving the 'adolescent' mother some form of payment by the government. Clearly, this policy in England revolved around the inclusion and re-integration of 'adolescent' mothers into the regular school system as opposed to adolescent mothers who were made to learn in separate schools (London, 1983). In the United Kingdom, the practice was to integrate teenage mothers in regular schools (Gallagher, 1999).

### 2.3 Literature on Africa

In recognizing the vital role that education plays in society, Kenya, in 2000, participated in the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal. The Kenyan government in distinguishing that Kenya’s main potential was in its people came up with the Vision 2030. The government’s overarching goal was to turn the country into a globally competitive and a prosperous nation by 2030. The education sector was seen as having the major responsibility of facilitating the process of developing the manpower necessary for transforming Kenya (CSA, 2008; MOE, 2012.)

Since 2000, Kenya has made remarkable progress towards the achievement of all the EFA goals. According to the Ministry of Education (2012) the enrolment in the ECDE increased from 1.91 million in 2009 to 2.37 million in 2011. At the primary school level, the Free Primary Education Programme saw an increase in enrollment from 8.8 million in 2010 to 9.86 million in 2011. The pupil completion rate remained above 75% during the period, although it declined from a high of 83.2% in 2009 to 74.6% in 2011. The decline in completion rates was attributed to school dropouts and repetitions among other reasons. Despite the commendable progress made, data shows that the world is still unlikely to fulfill one of the most modest commitments: to get every child in school by 2015. While access to education has been...
improving globally, there has been little progress in reducing the rate at which children leave school before completion. There were 131 million out of school children globally with 71 million adolescents of lower secondary school age, 26% of the total number of out of school children attended and dropped out of school (UIS 2013). Mechanisms to ensure the retention of pupils in schools do not seem to be yielding much fruits and this has led to alarming drop-out rate in some schools. Currently the global early school leaving rate is at 25% - the same level as it was in 2000. In order to achieve EFA, new interventions will be required to reduce this rate and ensure that every child attains, at a minimum, basic education. It is essential to focus more attention on what’s actually happening in schools and how this affects children’s chances of staying in school and progressing through the system (CGG, 2006; UIS, 2010b; UIS, 2012; UIS 2013). 27

In Kenya the most common reasons advanced by parents and teachers for high drop-out rates in schools are: lack of money, truancy, early marriage, pregnancy, and child labour. Combined with poverty, the HIV and AIDS pandemic has also had a grave impact on education. Many students are denied access to education as they fall sick and/or are orphaned and/or drop out of school to take care of their sick loved ones. The high rate of absenteeism from classes by pupils and teachers, occasioned by various health issues, subsequently leads to a high dropout rate (Achoka et al., 2007; CGG, 2006; MOE, 2006; Saitoti, 2004). The enrolment rate of the girl–child in schools is unprecedented and encouraging; however age-old cultural practices have perpetuated gender stereotypes and biases against women and continue to work against gender parity especially in more traditional societies. In particular, the cultural practice of early and forced marriage haunts many young girls as they are withdrawn from school and married to comparatively old men. Linked with these is the high dropout rate due to teenage pregnancies. The issues of early and forced marriage and teenage pregnancy are threats which (if not immediately and effectively addressed) could negate against girls’ chances of acquiring free basic education by 2015. The persistent expression of these issues highlights areas that public policy has yet to address in appropriate levels and forms (Achoka et al., 2007; CGG, 2006; FAWE, 2004; MOE, 2006; UIS, 2010b).

In Africa, the male GER increased from 22% - 31%, while the increase of the female GER was more modest (from 18% to 24%) in the period between 1999- 2009. This may have been due to the fact that in countries with limited access to education, more priority is given to men (Achoka et al., 2007; UIS 2010; 2011). According to a survey by the Centre for the Study of Adolescents conducted among secondary school students revealed that three in 10 adolescents begin childbearing by age 18. Generally, about 30% of all adolescent girls deal with issues of teenage pregnancy and school dropout. (Brown 2010; CSA, 2008). In a study by Murgor (1998), 93.2% of all respondents interviewed said that the pregnancy was not intended while only 6.3% were intended. The girl who gets pregnant is usually then forced to drop out due to the ridicule, stigma and hostility faced in school. In some cases, the girls seek marriage or are forced by their parents as a way of legitimizing the pregnancies and childbirth (Njau &Wamahiu, 1994; Okungu, 2003; UNICEF, 1998; Wekesa, 2010). Many educational policies have been made by presidential decrees while others have been part of election campaign promises. Many of these decisions have interfered with the running of education and have marginalized the role and contribution of professionals therefore impacting negatively on policy formulation and implementation. The directives have rarely been linked to any real tangible output, nor are they
embedded in strategic priorities (Boit, 2009; Penny & Poston, 2003).

**Awareness of the Re-entry Policy in Secondary Schools**

Successful policy implementation requires that the policy gains support from the very beginning. The best way to do this is to ensure that the policy is as visible as possible by creating awareness and disseminating it to all the stakeholders. Raising awareness is especially important in developing community support for the reentry policy. Unfortunately, studies revealed that awareness and perception of the re-entry policy varied within and across the regions. Many of the stakeholders were not aware of the policy's existence nor did they fully understand what the policy was all about. It was further revealed that many girls who dropped out of the school due to teenage pregnancies did not seek re-admission as they and their parents were not aware of the policy's existence (Brynard, 2009; Kodek 2012).

According to Bhuyan et al (2010), it is imperative for any policy that resulted in new programs, services, or operational guidelines to be circulated to and understood by the people responsible for implementing and using them. The public needs to be made aware of the changes if they are going to draw any services or benefits brought about by the policy. For this reason, the Ministry of Education needed to embark on an awareness campaign of the policy guidelines to all stakeholders. This should have been a joint, deliberate and concerted effort to create awareness in schools and in the communities. Literature shows that information including media coverage, campaigns and advocacy influences people’s level of awareness. The individual’s knowledge, awareness and understanding does eventually influence their behaviour and can help motivate changes in their attitude towards the re-entry policy.

In Zambia for example, after a lot of campaigning there was an attitude change among the teachers towards the re-entry policy. In 2001, the percentage of teachers who were against the readmission of girls into school was 69% while those who were for it were just 31%. This changed drastically by 2004 where the number of the teachers who were against had dropped sharply to just 16% while the percentage of those who were for it had risen to 84% (FAWE, (2004, Ochieng 2014). Campaigns can also help education officers, students, their parents and other community members better understand and deal with issues of premature sexual activity, teenage pregnancy and re-entry. In England for example, long-term cultural attitude changes as well as educational factors like community-level programs using social networks and institutions (such as the media) and providing a supportive environment led to reductions in sexual risk behaviour as well as maintenance of low-risk behaviours over time (Macfarlane, 2005). There are a variety of communication and information strategies and it is important to ensure that the strategy developed for the implementation reflects, and is consistent with, the broader communication strategies and actions. In particular, policy makers should give careful regard to the appropriate mix and cost-effectiveness of selected strategies. Before launching an awareness, campaign there are several key components for an effective public awareness campaign that one needs to consider. The first element is understanding the target group. One cannot plan strategies without first identifying and understanding the target group or the stakeholders. They are the key to the success of the campaign and more specifically the implementation. The campaigns should be specific to the target group so one needs to gather information on their education, employment, awareness, culture, religion, gender and age. Information gathered will help understand their how best to reach them, current attitudes and level of awareness and will help monitor whether
their attitudes are changing. The information will also help one decide who should be targeted and on which level to base the campaign and messaging. Information should be gathered before, during and after the campaign. It is also extremely helpful to organize focus groups of the target audience as part of messaging development and implementation. If they are involved, there is a far greater chance that the information will reach the intended groups (Florida State University, n.d.; Marcfarlane, 2005). The second element is establishing a broad support system. The campaign must involve all stakeholders who should feel they “own” the campaign. Establishing a broad support helps garner and mobilize community support for a campaign. It is imperative that those engaging in public awareness campaigns develop partnerships with ethnic and community-based organizations. These local groups will help ensure that the message is crafted in ways that can reach the target audiences (Florida State University, n.d.; Marcfarlane, 2005). The third element is the use of diverse activities especially the media. Informing the public and motivating people to act remain a great challenge however the media has been an effective partner in disseminating messages. The education of the population, the duration over which the programmes are delivered and their intensity all appear to be important factors, as well as the credibility of the source of the information. There is however need to understand the medium and establish what works best. There is only anecdotal evidence that tells us what works best to make members of the public aware so that they change their behavior so the message should be relayed through a variety of means in an effort to reach the most people. Policy makers should leverage various media and opportunities such as the traditional media (radio, TV, print), blogosphere, social media (twitter, Facebook), interactive websites, educational events, public meetings, trainings, awareness events, concerts and dramas, research studies and personal testimonials (Florida State University, n.d.; Marcfarlane, 2005). The fourth element is having an accurate and concise message. Raising public awareness involves creating a specific messaging campaign about a particular issue, the key focus being the message. This means that the messaging campaigns need to be accurate, reliable, clear and simple and sustained over time. The message of a campaign must be powerful to mobilize people to action and must leave a lasting impression on the intended audience. Public awareness campaigns should prioritize the message that adolescent mothers still have the right to education and should be backed up with examples of girls who have made it in life after being given a second chance to go to school. The campaign should form part of a larger coordinated strategy to address the problem that is premature sexual behaviour and teenage pregnancy (Obonyo & Thinguri, 2015).

Education is a basic human right for all children. This was recognised 68 years ago in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, acknowledged and agreed to by many governments across the world. However, in Africa millions of children, particularly girls, are still denied the right to education and are unable to access the knowledge, skills and capabilities necessary to take an empowered and equal role in society. It is for this reason that the education system in Zambia has undergone some changes which have roots in the pre-colonial era. However, the passion that many Zambians had for education, as evident from the long distance they had to cover in order to get to school, made the government, after independence, to make strategic changes to the education sector. One of the major issues that the new government was faced with after independence was to make places in school to no longer being limited to the privileged few but to all children. As a consequence, many people, young and old yearned to learn and be in school.
2.4 Factors that Influence the Implementation of the Re-entry Policy.

According to Psacharopolous (1994), educational policy is proclaimed not for its own sake, but in order to serve a particular purpose. That purpose may be pedagogical, political, economic, or any other cause according to the judgment of the policy maker. Since independence Kenyan education intentions and practices have been guided by policy guidelines. Despite the progress made in the sector evidence shows that the practice is still far from reflecting the policies intentions. The question then remains: why is there such a gap between the national policy documents and objectives, and the reality and practice of education in Kenya? (Boit, 2009; Ngigi & Macharia, 2006). (Oduol 2006). One of the biggest factors of policy implementation is political uncertainty due to political interference or a lack of political will. Political uncertainty is an endemic condition in policymaking and implementation. It refers to the bad political culture, political regime change and institutional inefficiency that plagues many policies. At independence, Kenya placed high stakes and great value on education. These premiums have unfortunately been systematically eroded as political directives influence trends and patterns of educational growth and policy formulation (IPAR, 2008) Many educational policies have been made by presidential decrees while others have been part of election campaign promises. Many of this decision have interfered with the running of education and have marginalized the role and contribution of professionals therefore impacting negatively on policy formulation and implementation. The directives have rarely been linked to any real tangible output, nor are they embedded in strategic priorities (Boit, 2009; Ward, Bourne, Penny & Poston, 2003).

Another factor is the lack of stakeholder involvement in policy formulation and implementation. The “targets” of the policies may fail to behave in the ways that were anticipated by policy makers and that are necessary if the policy is to achieve its objectives. This usually happens when a policy is designed without meaningful stakeholder engagement and it becomes difficult to implement because it did not consider the needs of nor create ownership from those who will implement or benefit from the policy. Bringing in those responsible for implementing policies earlier achieves greater results and is likely to improve practical knowledge of what may work on the ground. Policy “stakeholders” include groups or individuals with the greatest knowledge or understanding of the issue, people most affected by the policy’s implementation (or lack of implementation), those who have an interest in the workability of the solution and those responsible for its implementation (Bhuyan et al 2010; Kodek 2012). The other cause of failure is the dearth of resources to implement the policies. Education has always been predominantly a government responsibility hence it has provided most of the resources required. Over the years, however, the resources have dwindled and the needs have increased exponentially. The test has been to keep up with the rapid population increase in a background of diminishing resources. A case in point is the FPE initiative that led to growth in schools while stretching the government’s capacity to provide education. FPE resource demands included an expanded teaching force, supply of textbooks and stationary, new classrooms and building of more schools. The provision of resources is an enormous challenge to the government as questions of sustainability become ever more pointed (Boit, 2009). Connected with this is poverty. In most cases the target group simply cannot afford to take their children to school. They then cannot access the benefits of the education
programmes. Poverty limits the enrolment and retention of students in schools this is because in spite of the free basic education policy, parents still have to provide uniforms, bags, books, and shoes for their children to go to school. They also usually have to pay the exorbitant extra school charges and incur other costs of maintaining their children in school. In Kenya, costs at the secondary education level are really high, which when coupled with the fact that about 50% of Kenyans live below the poverty level, means that most people neither access nor afford this education (Achoka et al., 2007; CGG, 2006; MOE, 2006; Saitoti, 2004).

Another reason for failure is that evidence-based approach to policy is not always practiced. Reliable and relevant data is needed to judge whether an intervention should be instituted and whether it has been effective. The content of the policies is usually based on an empirically unsupported theoretical relationship between instruments and outcomes. This could be because the evidence may fail to address the needs of the policy maker, or it may be too close to concerns of the opposing political side. On one hand the policy interpreters may fail to capture the spirit and relevance of current policy. While on the other, there may be a failure to achieve a critical mass among policy makers to effectively determine or establish relationships in policy. Another issue related to the genesis of the policy is that some policies are externally inspired and generated and not needs-based. They are usually not grounded or properly domesticated to the local scenario to help achieve the necessary support for growth and sustainability (Boit, 2009; Macfarlane 2009; Oduol (2006). The implementation of educational policy is often hampered by many factors that include inadequate legal provision, which limits the enforcement of reports, inadequacies in requisite skills, lack of definite staff development policy, few disgruntled and disempowered staff and inadequate budgetary allocations and tools. To address and enhance education policy implementation processes we should promote the culture of education sector planning and policy formulation based on research findings rather than political pronouncements. The formulation of concrete, feasible and implementable policies should be based on documented cause-effect relationships (IPAR, 2008).

Carmody (1999:100) acknowledges that, “education should be compulsory, free and not in any way be subject to the individual’s creed, colour or sex.” Thus, all those rules and regulations that prevented some children from accessing education were abolished. The government aimed at providing primary education to all children. It was no longer seen as a privilege to be educated but as each child’s right. More than ever, the right to education which is entrenched in international human rights treaties, and commitments to girls’ education have been made in a number of international and regional agreements and frameworks, ratified by the majority of African states.

Many African states have introduced national policies to enact their commitments to girls’ education under these international and regional frameworks. Policies aiming for the achievement of universal primary education and the removal of school fees are common across the continent. In some cases, girls’ education has been explicitly addressed in separate policies such as Kenya’s Gender Policy in Education and Liberia’s National Policy on Girls’ Education.

This call which came amidst the problem of teenage pregnancy among schoolgirls is a major concern in many countries and a constraint in the elimination of gender disparities in education. Furthermore, on a continent where the adage when you educate a woman you educate a nation holds so true, the repercussions of girls dropping out of
school due to pregnancy cannot be underestimated. To further this several studies conducted in Africa have shown that an investment in girls’ education is an investment in the family, community and nation, the centrality of women’s contribution to national development cannot also be taken too lightly. It improves overall quality of life (MOE 1996, Adetunde & Akensina 2008).

As such the policy initiative to allow girls who fall pregnant to be readmitted as a way to promote girls’ education which is grounded in the outcomes of the Beijing Conference of 1995, a conference at which the Women’s Movement drew up its own priorities and action plan. The conference demanded that girls who dropped out of school because of pregnancy should be readmitted. Despite the existence of such policies, Plan’s research shows public awareness of government policies and initiatives around girls’ education remains very low. In Ghana only 30% of parents surveyed were aware of government efforts to support girls’ secondary education, whilst in Liberia only 51% of parents knew of the government’s education policies and initiatives related to girls. This inevitably impacts on the efficacy of policies, particularly where entrenched community. Literature shows that after the Beijing Conference in 1995, and when the Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia (FAWEZA 2004) was established on 8 March 1996, it added its voice to the call for policy change concerning girls who got pregnant.

And in September 1997, a conference on girls’ education was held at Mulungushi International Conference Centre, Lusaka, at which the then Minister of Education, Dr. Syamukayambu Syamuja, announced that schoolgirls who became pregnant would no longer be expelled, and that those that had been expelled in 1997 should be allowed to return to school. In assessing the effectiveness and need for the policy to re-admit girls that fall pregnant into schools which is supported by several scholars who have pointed out that the education of this category is particularly associated with significant reductions in infant mortality and morbidity, improvement in family nutrition and health, lowering of fertility rates, improved chances of children’s education, and increased opportunities for income earning in both wage and non-wage sectors (Kelly 1999). The Demographic and Health Survey (2014) also revealed that the social benefits associated with secondary education of girls included lower fertility rates, later age of first marriage, greatly reduced infant and child mortality, reduced incidence of child malnutrition. Thus, the concern about improving the educational rights of girls who become pregnant is based in part on the knowledge that this will affect the fate of their children and future generations.

However, for some time now, it has been noted that despite the efforts made in the education sector to give equal access to girls or to retain many of them in school for many years, there has been significant debate both in the media and public places on whether the policy re-admitting girls is achieving its intended purpose or its contributing to societies moral decay. Tjombonde (2003:49) points out that, “The Forum for African Women Educationalists in Namibia (FAWENA) has been advocating for the crafting and implementation of policies that address the issue of schoolgirl pregnancy.” The scholar further found that some young mothers experienced problems in returning to school in that some teachers did not want to accept teenage mothers, and other teachers refused to take back teenage mothers whose infants died after a few weeks. Other than the difficult of returning as per provision of the teachers complain of the behaviour of these returning young mothers and lamented how difficult it has become to provide the education in line with the aims of Secondary
School education and the general aims and objectives of education.

Furthermore, studies across Africa indicate that a cross section of society including parents, teachers, religious and civic leaders, traders and many other people have concerns that the policy to re-admit has not fully achieved its objectives in the different years that it has been in existence in countries like Kenya, Namibia, Ghana, Liberia and Zambia’s 19 years no exception. The stakeholders to the re-entry policy lament that there seems to be an aspect of promoting immorality, indiscipline and this may affect quality education delivery if this policy which is well-intended is not revisited to be made useful. close at home, many appreciate the policy especially in a Zambian society which has been characterized by inequality among men and women. The re-entry policy as a measure and recognition of the importance of addressing gender inequalities in national development and the need to narrow the gender gap in education. And quite a substantial number of girls in Zambian schools has benefited from the policy which was introduced on October 13, 1997 as (FAWEZA 2010) reports that it has scored a number of successes as some girls have gone back to school and successfully completed their secondary education, though some, older than the age they initially would have done so.

At the inception of the re-entry policy, in spite of, the United Nations Children’s Fund and most women’s non-government organizations being in full support of the policy, the church, the Zambia National Union of Teachers, some parents, teachers and some pupils, both boys and girls, opposed the move. This is evident from the finding of study by Zambia Association for Research and Development (ZARD) between October and December 1997 when it carried out an opinion poll on the re-admission of the pregnant child into school. The results confirmed the initial reactions. The church, parents, teachers and schoolboys were against the declaration fearing it will promote immorality.

In other studies, carried out in Namibia indicate that the pupils welcomed the call by the policy that where a pregnancy occurred, the focus is on support rather than punishment. But in the various consultation meetings, some people, pupil’s a part have favoured a punitive policy because they believe that a supportive approach ‘condones’ pregnancy amongst learners. But there is a difference between condoning learner pregnancy and addressing the problem of learner pregnancy. FAWENA in Tjombonde (2003) reported that the new policy acknowledges the reality in Namibia that teenagers and learners do give birth, and proposes new methods to deal with this situation. Thus, the study done on promoting girls’ education through the re-entry policy for adolescent mothers revealed that reentry of young mothers into schools is still a major problem in many Namibian schools. In another case of Namibia one pupil expressed on behalf of others how they view the policy when she asserted that, on the contrary, “the object of the policy is to punish young girls for making the grave mistake”, and that the result was to stigmatize such girls.

Caney (2005: 84) points out that, “various interventions have been undertaken to address the gender gaps in the education sector. Significant achievements have been scored through these initiatives towards improving girls’ access, retention and performance. However, the gender disparities are still wide. It is clear however, that unless quicker and strategic action is taken to address these gaps, EFA goals are unlikely to be achieved.” One strategy that is being proposed is to take successful interventions in order to ensure that a higher number of girls are reached. This has so far not been adequately undertaken. As a first step towards scaling up best practices, it is necessary to identify and document the most successful interventions in a way that can be taken up by education policy makers and other stakeholders.
To sum it up, this section was primarily concerned with answering the research objectives and research question. It has looked at on the development of education in Zambia and the re-entry policy. The review has shown an investment in girls’ education is an investment in the family, community and nation, the centrality of women’s contribution to national development as it improves overall quality of life for all. As such it is of significance to assess the effectiveness of re-entry policy which has brought about different viewpoints. Most methods used by scholars across the African continent on this topic are appreciated and adopted and the only gap identified is that the previous studies has less information on the behavior of young mothers when they re-enter school after giving birth which this study may explore in ascertaining the effectiveness of the policy wholly.

The Re-entry policy has continued receiving resistance both at community, faith-based schools and at government school levels. (Kelly, 2000). The last decade has however seen more liberal pregnancy policies in African countries, which act as a way to encourage teenage mothers to return to school. In addition, it is FAWEZA’s belief that the girls need a second chance to go back to school if they are to come out of the vicious cycle of poverty. (MOE,2000) Many girls have taken advantage of the re-entry policy and have gone back to school.

Mukamambo Girls High School is one of the many schools implementing the policy in full. Mukamambo Girls High School started implementing the Re-entry Policy in the year 2000 and they had the first nine (9) grade (12) pupils in 2002 to come back under the Re-entry Policy. Of the nine, eight got division one and one got division two results in the senior High School leaving examinations. One got enrolled at the University of Zambia whilst the others got enrolled in colleges.

- In 2003, they had 16 in grade 12.
- In 2004, they had 12 in grade 12.
- In 2005, they had 16 in grade 12.
- In 2006, they had 33 in grade 12.

From 2000 to 2006, the school had recorded 77 school leavers of the re-entry girls and most of them proved to be successful because they enrolled in various colleges. Some of them are working as teachers and nurses. (MOE, 2000)

Nevertheless, not all the re-entry cases come about because of pregnancies. (MOE, 1996) Some of them are delayed due to social, financial problems and others are due to early marriages.

However, girl’s education must be cherished by all citizens in every country. Tracing back girl’s education in the colonial era would help in linking the old and new in order to move forward as well as establish whether, the traditional perceptions of the role of women in society has had a major part in the slow development of girl’s education.

2.5. Girls education in the colonial era

One of the factors noted in the study of colonial education in Northern Rhodesia, (Zambia was called Northern Rhodesia when it was a colony of Britain) as elsewhere, was that there was gender imbalance.

Snelson, indicated, parents remained generally unconvinced of the value or relevance of education for their daughters. The girls themselves often saw little point in going to school, and preferred to stay at home helping their mothers and preparing themselves for marriage. (Snelson, 1970: 213.)

Some parents and grandparents genuinely feared that education would spoil their daughter’s chances of marriage. First, there was the danger that they might be abused by the teacher. Secondly, they might no longer be willing to accept women’s traditional place in society, and prove to be a disruptive influence. (MOE, 1996)
However, Mabel Shaw of Mbereshi, a female missionary tried hard to encourage girls to value education. Later, other mission boarding schools for girls were opened. During the 1930s, foundations were laid at Chipembi which enabled the first secondary school for girls to be opened there in 1946. It was Chipembi Girls Secondary School, which produced in 1931 the first two women in Northern Rhodesia to qualify as teachers. (Snelson, 1970: 215). As parents began to see that education could lead to useful and remunerative avenues of employment for their daughters, the number of girls applying for places in mission boarding schools multiplied. (MOE, 1996).

From such, it can be concluded that there were gender disparities in the Zambian education system even during colonial days. The African traditional structure therefore was found to instill stereotypical norms in girls that encouraged early marriages and a mentality of servitude to the males. This socialization also deprived girls of any negotiation skills which in short makes girls vulnerable to boys’ advances for sex. Carmody states that, however, the traditional perceptions of the role of women in society had a major part in the slow appearance of girls in the higher grades. (Carmody, 2004:18) Now the situation has been changing slowly for the better.

**Girls education after independence to date**

Statistics indicate that there is almost equal enrolment of boys and girls in grade 1, but as the level of education progresses there are fewer girls than boys. (Kelly,1996). Although there was no gender gap among seven-year-olds in primary school, among fifteen-year-olds it reached 10% in 1995. Between 1980 and 1994 there had been little progress in closing a persistent gender gap in secondary school enrolment, where boys continued to outnumber girls by a ratio of about 7:4 (Beyond Inequalities, 1990: 43).According to the Education Statistics Bulletin of 1994, there were 53 percent boys compared to 43 percent girls at grade five level and 56 percent boys compared to 44 percent girls at grade seven level (MOE, 1994)

However, Gross Enrolment Rates (GER) fell during the period between 1990 and 2000 due largely as a consequence of economic crises in most African countries and this included Zambia. A number of reasons explain this trend including parental considerations that children are too immature, increasing child labour and distance to school. Girls are somewhat less likely than boys to complete primary school. Girls drop out from school can be attributed to a number of economical, and social factor including initiation, early marriages and pregnancy. Kelly, observes that, at secondary school level there were 59 percent boys compared to 41 percent girls; 60 percent in grade nine to 40 percent female while in grade twelve there were 67 percent males compared to only 33 percent females. (Kelly, 1996)

As the proportion of children in school decreases, the likelihood is that gender gaps will also widen as boys are favoured in the increasing competition for school places. Girls are always in a majority among school dropouts, especially in rural schools, were boys out number girls. (Lungwangwa, e tail 1990) Looking at the current situation, girl’s education would help in minimizing girl’s problems. The problem of inequality is still vivid and yet the overarching aim of school education is;

To promote the full and well-rounded development of the physical, intellectual, social, affective, moral and spiritual qualities of all students that includes girls so that each can develop into a complete person, for his or her own personal fulfilment and the good of society (MOE, 1996:29).

**2.7. Causes of unwanted pregnancies/marriages and sex abuse**
According to Mbilinyi, the situation relating to pregnancy and schooling disturbances in African countries are inevitably associated with societal problems. These problems range from ignorance and moral collapse (Mbilinyi, M. 1969) to the sexual abuse of powerless female adolescents. (McGurk et al, 1993) lastly, public ignorance about educational policies. (Dakar, 2006)

Over again, in poorer nations, teen pregnancy has assumed endemic proportions. Children are pushed into premarital sexual activity by various factors peer pressure, poverty and to a certain extent, cultural practices.

Dakar, indicates that

In some cultures, when a girl comes of age (and today, puberty can happen as early as 10), she is already being tutored to be a mother and wife. By the time she is through with the “tutorials,” school almost automatically takes second place because she is thinking of the practical part of the lessons. When she gets to her mid-teens, she starts facing pressure to find a partner. (Dakar 2006; 12)

The other factor fuelling teenage pregnancy is the lack of reproductive health services and knowledge. Unless things are changing, young girls seeking sex education from a clinic are likely to attract more scorn than help. But the reality is that whether we like it or not, young people are having sex and turning them away from health clinics is killing them.

Those knowledgeable about the sexual abuse of girls, and the girls themselves repeatedly describe abusers as uncles, stepfathers, fathers, cousins, taxi drivers, teachers and brothers. (MOE, 2006)

Apparently and seemingly, these abuses by relatives are often hidden by the family, and girls are widely silenced, some do not even attempt to disclose what is being done to them. In particular, orphans being cared for by relatives are acutely aware of their dependency, and fear loss of support and rejection if they reveal that they are being abused. Other girls who try to tell another adult family member about abuse they are suffering are often silenced and told not to bring shame upon the family. Dakar indicates that, in some cases, girls are threatened with physical abuse if they tell anyone. (Dakar, 2006) Shame and stigma come upon themselves.

In most cases girls suffer abuse in silence, it is a taboo to say a teacher or a man did this to me.

Chanda observes that, girls from all social strata are vulnerable to sexual abuse, subjugation, oppression and defeat. Danger factors include men's targeting for sex younger girls who are assumed to be HIV-negative, or based on the myth that sex with a virgin will cure AIDS. In Zambia, it is a criminal offense to have sex with any girl under the age of sixteen. (Chanda, 2002). The Penal Code stipulates such a crime as a felony with sentences up to life in prison. The provision ‘sentence to life in prison’ is rarely enforced. (GRZ, 1995) Girls made pregnant in such away suffer the consequences alone.

Apart from sexual abuse as the main cause of teenage pregnancies, prostitution is another cause of teenage pregnancy. Poverty has led growing numbers of women and girls into prostitution. This is believed to be the outcomes of the paucity of opportunities for income that are available for girls. Another factor is that girls are drawn into prostitution, either because they are orphans and they want to fend for themselves sometimes they sell their bodies to’ sugar daddies’ in exchange for very little money. Such girls do not practice prostitution openly, since it is not accepted culturally. (Chanda, 2002). In some cases, prostitution often takes the form of seeking payments for having sex with ‘boyfriends. Girls living in such difficult circumstances are specially threatened by HIV/AIDS. It is hard for them to say ‘no’ to sex or to persuade men or boys to practice ‘safe’ sex (GRZ, 1995)
Little wonder that unsafe abortions are on the rise. Most of the victims are young girls terrified of the reaction of their communities to teen pregnancy. There is a lot more acceptance of single mothers now but rejection is still common. (Dakar, 2006)

Nevertheless, girls can be saved from the trouble of going through dangerous abortions by giving them the information they need. No pressure should be put on them to get into marriages or relationships which just end up ruining their lives.

Given the high HIV prevalence in the Zambian population, sexual abuse carries a high risk of HIV transmission.

Bhana indicates that, girls are at risk of abuse and HIV transmission in various settings such as selling vegetables or other goods in markets or by the roadsides, they are subject to abuse by male customers and by simply playing on the streets in their communities, at school, even at church they can face risks. (Bhana, D 2009;7).

(Chanda 2002) also observes that also common and increasing is the sexual abuse of adolescent girls, including statutory rape by teachers and other male members of staff. (Chanda, 2002)

This tells that, in most African countries sex harassment and abuse is rife in institutions and this is the cause of some unplanned pregnancies.

Testimonies about cases of sexual abuse of girls in many environments outside the home (and even in the home) by strangers or by acquaintances, by boys as well as men are often told by girls

Dakar, indicates that, cases of incest (sexual intercourse between two people who are closely related) are rarely reported to the police for fear that the family would have to people imprisoned at one time. Since, it is obvious that, both of them would be arrested unless it can be shown that, the male person involved was below12 or 14 when the case was committed or if the girl was less than 16 years of age. (Dakar 2006:96).

Contrary to the above, in most cases of sexual offences, including rape and defilement, the accused person is at the mercy of the complainant. Should the complainant have mercy, the case can be withdrawn from the police at no cost at all. The law allows withdraw of cases from the police as long as there is a reason to do so, even if the reason is vague (Dakar, 2006). For example, if the family insists that they can deal with the case outside as a family or if they say the young man will marry the girl after she turns 16, so there is no need to prosecute him. Sometimes they say we are a family of Christians, so we have forgiven him

In addition, Kelly also observes that, effective protection mechanisms targeted at abuse against girls in the family are virtually non-existent. (Kelly, 1996) Therefore stakeholders should ensure that education on sex abuse is intensified. Families and communities should be made aware of the serious risks of sex abuse and early marriage for young girls. Law enforcers are committed to prohibiting early marriage and that services are available to counsel young girls who have been abused.

On the other hand, abstinence until marriage teaching in schools should be expected to encourage young school going children to abstain from sexual activity as the best and associated with possible HIV infection.

The clergy man has also emphasised on refraining from sexual intercourse until marriage as the safest choice to prevent unintended pregnancy to be encouraged. (Rev Lungu, 2009) The primary objective of abstinence only should be to delay the onset of sexual intercourse by providing information, changing attitudes about sex, and improving decision-making skills, exclusive purpose, teaching the social, psychological, and health gains to be realized by abstaining from sexual activity (Dakar, 2007)
Dakar observes that, abstinence education which, among other things, teaches that a mutually faithful monogamous relationship in the context of marriage is the expected standard of human sexual activity and that sexual activity outside of the context of marriage is likely to have only certain way to protect themselves from exposure to HIV and unwanted pregnancies (Dakar, 2007; 12).

Talking about sex, especially in an African society, certainly is not an easy task. Generally, a word like virginity is so special that most parents cannot manage to discuss it with their children. (Dakar, 2006). For this reason, parents prefer that nature teaches their children about sex, and surely the outcome of the lessons that nature gives are always disastrous, for instance premarital sex, pregnancies and abortions come about. Parents in particular have a critical role to play in shaping the lives of their children. Gone are the days when girls could fold their arms and wait to be married off to some rich husband. (Bhana, D 2009).

Despite having challenges the Re-entry policy has proved to be successful because most of the girls testify and educate other girls within the school on the dangers of premature sex. Without a good foundation, it is difficult for girls to have a bright future. If all these women who hold high positions in the country did not get the necessary support to get proper education, they would probably not be where they are today.

In addition, the Re-entry booklet states that schools can do a lot to improve the school environment and prevent pregnancies. All schools must have a counselling committee headed by trained counsellors, and should include in the timetable counselling on sexual and gender relations. Reproductive health education should be included to reduce incidences of teen pregnancies. The school administration should also ensure that the Re-entry Policy is disseminated at assembly on a regular basis. Sensitization must be done regularly on the consequences of pregnancy for both girls and boys. They should be told that they can both be sent on maternity /paternity leave if they get involved in a pregnancy. (MOE, 2006)

Furthermore, there is need for schools and administrators to respond to the challenges posed. Schools and administrators should strive to put an end to the practice of not implementing the Re-entry Policy and use preventive measures that can prevent pregnancies.

**2.8. Review of the Zambian Re-entry Policy Guideline booklet.**

The Re-entry Policy guidelines booklet is a booklet where one can learn about the Re-entry Policy guidelines and what actions the school can take to ensure that all children including young mothers can do to get their right to education fulfilled. The booklet is circulated in schools and every school is expected to own copies.

FAWEZA took it upon themselves to redistribute Re-entry booklets in schools on the Copperbelt. (MOE, 2006).

One of the guidelines in the booklet states that;

Health Centers should carry out routine general medical check-ups of all girls under the School Health and Nutrition (SHN) programme, on a term basis. When it is reported or rumoured that a girl is pregnant, a check-up involving several girls e.g thirty girls should be carried out to avoid stigmatization… (MOE 2006; 3)

Despite having these guidelines on how pregnancies can be detected in schools, this is not what is prevailing. The guidelines are not followed. Once a girl learns that she is pregnant, there are so many things that she can do. At times some she can even contemplate carrying out abortions. Sometimes she can press the pregnancy by tying around it to avoid it being seen and stay in school.
up to the end of a term without being detected. Many girls do this. They give birth during the holidays. These girls come back to school and their mothers keep the baby at home. Sometimes some girls meet their fates, it's either they are forced into early marriages or abort and this leads to a number of girls dying. If schools can follow the guidelines properly this can allow girls to use the proper channels including getting leave and then go back to school after delivery.

The other guideline talks about steps schools need to take after a pregnancy is detected. The booklet states that,

Once a pregnancy is detected in school, the school should inform the parents/guardians of the girl as soon as possible if they are not aware and that once a girl is confirmed pregnant she should be put on leave. The school should ensure that she has access to antenatal care….The girl should go on the mandatory leave at the end of seventh month of her pregnancy, or earlier. (MOE, 2006; 4)

Contrary with this guideline on what steps are required to be taken after the pregnancy has been detected. In most schools this is not done. What usually happens is that after the school and a girl learns that she is pregnant, she simply stops school or elopes with the man responsible for the pregnancy. In mission or some boarding schools, the girl is instantly expelled and sent home once discovered to be pregnant. This happens in most Catholic Mission schools, because these schools are still against the policy. The interpretation of the policy to them is that it encourages the girl child to get pregnant, because she knows that she shall be allowed to continue with school after giving birth.

The third guideline talks about documents which should be given to a pregnant girl before she goes on leave and it states that.

All schools should provide the pregnant girls with the following documents before sending them on leave; medical report confirming the pregnancy and health status, including physical and emotional conditions; … Letter documents of admission to school which states the date for resuming classes. (MOE, 2006; 6)

Contrary to the above, there are very few schools that follow the above procedures. Literature sourced from schools indicated that, a number of high schools did not have the above information of pupils discovered to have gone on leave. They were not given any documents. However, names of re-entry cases of girls were found written in a thick note book of course showing the dates when they started their leave and when they were expected re-enter school. This still shows that there is a lot to be done in terms of sensitization.

The other guideline talks about the commitment by male involved in the pregnancy: The male involved is expected to sign a commitment form, indicating his responsibility as the owner of the pregnancy.

The guideline elaborates that; if a schoolboy is responsible for the pregnancy, both he and his parents should sign a committal document to support the girl and the unborn child failure to do so will result in dismissal of a school boy. The boy responsible should be counselled by a trained counsellor about his responsibilities, together with the girl. This should include Voluntary Counselling and Testing (VCT) for HIV. Both should have a medical check and all documents must be kept in school. (MOE 2006; 9)

However, this guideline is not adhered to by the school authorities. There was no written literature to support the above statements that boys responsible at one time also went on leave or boys have either been dismissed from school because of failing to support the girl and the child. As earlier stated, these boys go scot free. In addition, some literature has shown that
sometimes parents of the pregnant girl are bribed as a result they forget about it.

Meanwhile, the girl suffers the consequences alone, which is not fair. There is also no evidence to show that the boy responsible at one time was counselled by a trained counsellor about his responsibility and had gone for Voluntary Counselling and Testing (VCT). This shows how discriminatory policies, cultural suppression and family conditions deny girls an opportunity to fully realise their potential.

The other guidelines talk about steps which should be taken if an outsider or teacher is responsible for the pregnancy.

2.9. Summary of Literature Review and Identified Gaps

In the first instance, it is worth reiterating that generalizable and statistically significant conclusions cannot be derived from such 'short and sweet' research exercises. No claim is made for national representativeness. More data are needed to understand the effectiveness of the re-entry policy. With the current state of knowledge, it cannot be predicted with certainty what will be the most effective intervention mechanisms nor what outcomes will emerge from changing the set of opportunities and constraints.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

This chapter presented the methodology that was used in the study. It began with a description of the research design, study population, study sample, sampling procedure, and research instruments for data collection. It proceeded to describe problems encountered during data collection and how information collected was analyzed in order to answer the research questions. The last part of the chapter presents an ethical consideration of the research.

3.1. Research design

The study used a descriptive research design. This design was chosen because it helped to have an in-depth understanding of the effectiveness of the re-entry policy. In addition, because the study relies more on qualitative than quantitative research methods, the descriptive design was ideal.

3.2. Target population

The study population consisted of all teachers at Kasama Girls Secondary School as well as officials from the district education board secretary’s office.

3.3. Sample size

The sample consisted of fifty (50) respondents of which forty (40) were teachers at Kasama Girls Secondary School and the ten (10) were officials from the District Education Board Office. The sample size was randomly selected from the total population of 120 teachers working at Kasama Girls Secondary.

3.4. Sampling techniques

The study used purposive sampling technique in selecting the study sample because it considered the small population of variables which were the teen mothers, head teachers, guidance teachers, teachers, pupils and guardians to teen mothers. According to Palys (2008), Purposive sampling, also referred to as judgment, selective or subjective sampling, is a non-probability sampling method that is characterized by a deliberate effort to gain representative samples by including groups or typical areas in a sample. The researcher relies on his/her own judgment to select sample group members. Purposive sampling is mainly popular in qualitative studies. Palys (2008) further contends that purposive sampling is
virtually synonymous with qualitative research. Purposive sampling represents a group of different non-probability sampling techniques. It relies on the judgement of the researcher when it comes to selecting the units such as people, cases/organisations, events, or pieces of data that are to be studied. Palys (2008) also observes that in purposive sampling, the sample being investigated is quite small, especially when compared with probability sampling techniques. In the current study, the participants were selected using purposive sampling because of the nature of the study which was qualitative. Kasama Secondary schools were selected because they were located in the central part of the district.

3.5. Research instruments

Questionnaires were used to collect data from teachers. A questionnaire is an instrument that contains questions aimed at obtaining specific information on a variety of topics. A questionnaire has been chosen because it presented to each respondent in exactly the same way to minimize the role and influence of the interviewer. In addition, results obtained by a questionnaire could easily be objectively compared.

3.6. Data Collection procedures

This study was qualitative in nature. As such, it used the Focus Group Discussion (FGD), interview and document analysis as methods of collecting data. A Focus Group Discussion is a form of qualitative research method in which a group of people are asked about their perceptions, opinions, beliefs, and attitudes towards a product, service, concept, advertisement, idea, or packaging. Questions are asked in an interactive group setting where participants are free to talk with other group members (Couis, Jill; Hussey, Roger 2009). Schuh and Upcraft (2001) contend that a Focus Group Discussion will usually consist of 8-12 prescreened members and can last anywhere from 1-2 hours. With regard to interviews, Palys (2008) defines interviews as discussions, usually one-on-one between an interviewer and an individual, meant to gather information on a specific set of topics. Interviews can be conducted in personal.

The study also used document analysis. Document analysis is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic and analyzing documents, incorporates coding content into themes similar to how focus group or interview transcripts are analyzed (Administrative Methods, 2010). The interview method was used to collect data from the head teachers, guidance teachers, teachers and parents or guardians to teen mothers. The Focus Group Discussion was used to collect data from the pupils. The study also used document analysis to review documents.

The schools were using in relation to the re-entry process and these could be circulars, directives, policies, guidelines, reports on readmissions submitted to higher authorities and minutes of school meetings paying particular attention to school resolutions on school girl pregnancies.

3.7. Data analysis

The study used the convergent parallel mixed methods, a mixed methods strategy in which a researcher collects both quantitative and qualitative data, analyzes them separately, and then compares the results to see if the findings confirm or disconfirm each other (Creswell, 2014: 275).

Moreover, analysis of data is a process of inspecting, cleaning, transforming, and modelling data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making. Data analysis has
multiple facets and approaches, encompassing diverse techniques under a variety of names, in different business, science, and social science domains. (Saunders et al: 2000). In this study, data was analyzed using Statistical package for Social Sciences (SPSS). It is preferred in this study because it accurately analyzes data. It is also more valid in coming up with the findings and thus it will enhance easy analysis easy interpretations of the results of the research.

3.8. Validity

Before the study was conducted, the issue of validity of the instruments to be used was taken into consideration. According to Nitko (1996), validity of an instrument refers to the accuracy with which an instrument measures what it sets out to measure. Validity refers to the adequacy and appropriateness of the interpretations made from an instrument with regard to a particular use. Fisher (1991) explains that validity is the extent to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. The pre-testing of the instruments was done at Kasama Secondary School in Kasama District of Northern Province. The pretesting provided a chance to revise ambiguous questions in the interview guide and FGD guide.

3.9. Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations were taken into account in this study. All the data collected was strictly treated as confidential and not used for any purposes other than the intended one. Consent was sought from the respondents and the researcher ensured that the respondents voluntarily participated in this study and maintained an open and honest approach to the study. The names of the participants were protected and kept confidential and if the participant wished to withdraw; they were free to do so. The researcher also sought an introductory letter from the university so as to enable the researcher collect data. The researcher also got permission from the District Education Board Office so that the researcher could be allowed to collect data from the selected schools.

3.10. Conclusion

The above chapter comprised of a research design, target population, sample size, sampling techniques, research instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and Ethical considerations.

3. CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

4.0 Overview

This chapter presents the findings of the study using the specific research questions as follows: what is the role of school management in the implementation of the Re-entry policy in selected schools in Kasama District of Northern Province of Zambia? What are the awareness levels of pupils about the Re-entry policy in selected government schools in Kasama District of Northern province of Zambia? What are the challenges faced by girls who go back to school after delivery? And what are the mitigation measures taken to overcome the challenges faced by girls who go back to school after delivery?

In order to identify the participants in this study, the alphanumeric characters H T 1 (meaning head teacher number one), G T 1 (meaning Guidance teacher number one), S T 1 (subject teacher number one), and so forth are used as shown in Table 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of School</th>
<th>Symbols used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kasama Secondary School</td>
<td>H T 1 - Head teacher one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G T 1 - Guidance teacher one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S T 1 - Subject teacher one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ST2 - Subject teacher two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T M 1 - Teen mother one</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.1 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Background characteristics of the sample

Table 1.1: Gender Distribution for the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender Distribution for the respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male 18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female 32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Age distribution of the Sample

Source; Field Data 2019

Figure 4.1 Genders of the Respondents

Figure 4.1 shows the composition of respondents by sex, 32 percent were females and 18 percent were males.

4.3 Extent to which the re-entry policy has been effective

Source; Field Data 2019
Figure 4.3 Extent to which the re-entry policy has been effective

The effectiveness of the government intervention to ensure retention of girls in the education system such as re-entry policy was presented to the respondents to comment on. As indicated above, 50% of the respondents indicated that the policy has been effective to a lower extent. 30% indicated that it has been effective to a medium extent. 20% indicated that the policy has been effective to a larger extent.

4.4. What is the Role of the School Management in the Implementation of the Re-entry Policy?

In this section, the researcher presents the interview results as reflected by the questions responded to by head teachers, guidance teachers and teachers regarding the role of the school management in the implementation of the Re-entry policy.

4.4.1 Views of Head Teachers

From the responses by HT1, it was revealed that the role of school management in the implementation of the Re-entry policy was: to ensure that the teen mother was accepted back to school and counselled through the guidance and counselling office, to provide a conducive school learning environment for teen mothers to learn without any sort of segregation and discrimination, to ensure that the Re-entry policy guidelines and procedures were adhered to and to sensitize stakeholders such as pupils, teen mothers, teachers and the community through gatherings like the school briefings for members of staff, school assemblies and Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) meetings. Additionally, HT1 indicated that the school management had a role to make sure that it dealt with the challenges faced by the teachers who were teaching the teen mothers.

When HT1 was asked how the school management was implementing the Re-entry policy, he said the following:

“When a girl child is impregnated, she is accorded an opportunity to report back. The boy, girl and parents are called to the school. The boy and his parents are requested to sign the form to accept the responsibility of the unborn child and the mother. The boy and his parents sign the form as an indication to accept to financially and materially support the mother to be. Thereafter, the girl is allowed to attend lessons until such a time her maternity leave commences. If both are school going, they will be subjected to go on maternity leave for a period of one year.”

According to the findings gathered from HT1, in order for an effective implementation of the Re-entry policy to materialize, there should be a good relationship between the school management and the parents or guardians. The parents should be informed about the reentry policy guidelines so that the negative perception of some parents over their teen mothers could be reduced.

4.4.2 Views of Guidance teachers

With regard to Guidance and Counselling teachers, the findings indicated that one of the roles of the school management in the implementation of the Re-entry policy was to ensure that the majority of the teen mothers reported back to school after delivery. However, one of the guidance teachers had this to say:

“The majority of teen mothers do not report back to school because of poverty caused by the lack of funds to pay the school fees and to feed their babies.
Others fend for themselves and if the girl was on sponsorship by organizations such as FAWEZA, the Time to Learn, or social welfare, they stop supporting her without giving proper reasons. We had cases where some girls were removed from the sponsorship because they had fallen pregnant. They are accused of wanting to be mothers. Some parents or guardians refuse to continue sponsoring the girl child saying that she has chosen to be pregnant instead of going to school (GTI).”

4.5. Level of awareness of the re-entry policy

This section presents the views of the pupils with regard to their awareness levels about the Re-entry policy.

The issue is that the school management only comes in when one is pregnant. They only put posters of the Re-entry policy in their offices and not in class rooms. Therefore, very few pupils are aware of the Re-entry Policy.

The Re-entry policy is a good policy because access to education is given back to the teen mothers. The policy does not hinder the right to life as it prevents teen mothers from terminating the pregnancy. Poverty levels tend to reduce in that after the teen mother gets the desired form of education, she may know how to take care of her baby. The problem is that there is limited information concerning the policy.

4.7 Factors influencing the implementation of the re-entry policy

The graph above shows that 50% of the respondents indicated that promotion of girl child education is the factor influencing the implementation of the re-entry policy. 30% of the respondents indicated that, factor influencing the implementation of the re-entry policy is the

Source: Field Data 2019

Figure 4.5 Factors influencing the implementation of the re-entry policy

Source: Field Data 2019

Figure 4.4 Level of awareness of the re-entry policy

As shown in figure 2.0, majority of the respondents indicated that they are aware of the re-entry policy. 10% indicated that they are not aware of the policy. 30% of the respondents indicated that, they are a bit aware.
empowerment of women. 20% indicated that, the quest to reduce early marriages is the influencing factor.

4. CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

5.0 Effectiveness of the re-entry policy

To ensure successful implementation, re-entry would be improved by disseminating the policy widely since many people don’t know about. We should create awareness or sensitize the students, parents, teachers and society at large through the media, seminars and workshops about the importance of re-entry and the existence of the policy. We could also create awareness by using public barazas and other public forums and meetings e.g. churches. There is need to especially sensitize the parents on the importance of re-entry because its’ success really depends on their willingness and support. Another way of improving re-entry is by providing schools with clear policy guidelines on the implementation. The government should come out clearly on the re-entry policy and ensure there are no conditions or bottlenecks for re-admission so the girls can get back to school after delivery. The policy should have objectives, goals and implementation and evaluation strategies clearly stipulated. We should not only come up with the policy but we should ensure that it is properly implemented and evaluated to ensure compliance. Re-entry could also be improved by treating it as an emerging issue and incorporating it in the syllabus / curriculum. Since the Guidance and Counseling departments in the school play a key role in dropout and re-entry they should be strengthened and expanded. Adolescent mothers need a lot of support, and encouragement so they should be counseled, to help them cope with their new status and to handle stigma, shame and rejection. The parents should be counseled to handle the changes and to support their daughters. The rest of the school community should be counseled and sensitized on how to treat the adolescent mothers positively; this can help them change their attitudes towards the girls.

The findings show that the policy is far from being effective especially in terms of excellence and moral uprightness as well as moral training. In this research, it was found that 50% of the respondents who rated the policy as ineffective based on the fact that it was not helping pupils to develop morally and keeping to societal norms which require one to be married to have a child.

In addition, the above findings attest to the survey carried out by FAWEZA (2009) that a section of society who were against the policy in its current form held that it is contributing to society’s moral decay and encourages immorality. Just like 33.3% of the proportion for parents in another study conducted by Tjombonde (2003) believed that pregnant girls or young mothers returning and staying in school will encourage other girls to get pregnant as he made reference a second daughter who is on maternity leave at the time the study was being undertaken. For this percentage of parent pregnant girls a re a bad example to the rest this collates with the observations Tjombonde (2003) expressed as the literature reviewed indicated.

Finally, proper records on all drop outs should be kept by the schools and at the County Education office. All students should be required to apply for 'leave of absence" from their schools and to inform the AEO’s office before they leave the school. The school and AEOs should then follow up on the girls.
who drop out to check on their progress and ensure that they go back to school or facilitate them to transfer to other schools.

b) 5.1 Level of awareness of the policy

Discussion around the policy revealed that while some of the participants were aware of the policy, there was confusion among them on what constitutes the official policy and on how it should be implemented. There was also no common understanding of the policy among the participants. This meant that the officials and the head teachers were faced with challenges when implementing the policy. Furthermore, it soon became clear that, far from being a single event, pregnancy was a process with decisions needed about how to handle each stage: discovery, treatment of pregnant students, cessation of studies, follow up, possible re-entry, support and repositioning of the young mothers.

The lack of knowledge among the officials about the policy was likely to spill over to the head teachers whom they are meant to give professional advice and guidance since they acknowledged the fact that most stakeholders are unaware of the policy. The findings in this study are consistent with studies in other countries (Bhana et al., 2010; Centre for Study of Adolescence, 2008; ElimuYetu Coalition, 2005; Riordan, 2002 & Social Exclusion Unit on teenage pregnancy, 1999) which have noted that there were no specific guidelines for schools on how best to support pregnant teenagers and teenage mothers. These studies also revealed that some school authorities could use this absence of guidelines to discreetly or openly discourage pregnant school girls from continuing in school, particularly during pregnancy. They presented that the response by a school to a pupils’ pregnancy plays a significant part in determining the extent and nature of the pupils’ involvement in mainstream education. Therefore, they recommended that the Government must acknowledge the important role that teachers play and provide them with more professional development around policy and develop specific guidelines to assist pregnant teenagers and teenage mothers.

5.2. Factors influencing the implementation of the re-entry-policy

The graph above shows that 50% of the respondents indicated that promotion of girl child education is the factor influencing the implementation of the re-entry policy. 30% of the respondents indicated that the factor influencing the implementation of the re-entry policy is the empowerment of women. 20% indicated that the quest to reduce early marriages is the influencing factor.

5.2.1 Overview

Generally, this study brought to the fore a number of issues that needed to be addressed if the Re-entry policy was to be effectively implemented at school level. In order to examine the effectiveness of the Re-entry policy in government schools, from an educational management perspective, this study focused on achieving the following objectives: the role of the school management in the implementation of the Re-entry policy, the awareness levels of pupils about the Re-entry policy, challenges faced by girls who went back to school after delivery and the mitigation measures taken to overcome the challenges faced by girls who went back to school after delivery.

5.3 CONCLUSION
This research has come to the following conclusions. In order to achieve the purpose of this study the researcher was guided by the following objectives: Based on the findings that half the students had not heard about the re-entry policy and that the head teachers did not talk about re-entry in the schools it is logical to conclude that there are adolescent mothers who have failed to go back to school because of ignorance. As the head teachers knowingly refuse to create awareness on the re-entry policy, there is a strong and urgent need to change strategy and instead launch nationwide awareness campaigns. This way the information can reach as many people as possible. This can be done through word of mouth; electronic and print media which were the main way through which respondents heard about the policy.

Secondly, the research concluded that the re-entry policy was going to be difficult to implement and monitor from the very beginning. This is based on the findings that the policy objectives were not clearly stated; there were no guidelines and procedures nor implementation strategies. The available financial or human resource is inadequate and not specific to the implementation of the policy. The policy did not provide any legal redress nor were there any resources directed towards its implementation, monitoring and evaluation. As seen in the study since there were no outlined procedures the head teachers handled pregnancy, drop-out and re-entry on a case by case basis. The procedures varied from one head teacher to another and which meant that re-entry was at the head teacher’s discretion Based on the findings that the lack of support from parents’ and / or lacking someone to take care of their baby prevented the girl from going back to school, this research concludes that parents are the key to re-entry. It is they who 'make or break' the policy. Whether or not they have the means, they are the ones who determine if or not the girl will return to school or not. They are the key stakeholders in re-entry and they should therefore be sensitized on the policy and practice of re-entry. The fourth conclusion is that the institutional environment is important in ensuring re-entry. The rights of the adolescent mothers are better in a different/ alternative school when they return to school. This is based on the findings that shame, stigma and fear which were the leading reason why adolescent mothers did not go back to school. Findings also reveal that the girls face negative attitude and stigmatization by the teachers and fellow students if they know or find out about the child. In most cases members of the school community did not know about the pregnancy so treated the girls the way they would treat a new student. Their attitude towards the adolescent mothers was generally positive. The findings reveal how crucial counselling is for the parties concerned. The guidance and counseling teachers play a major role in preventing school dropouts and in facilitating re-entry. Therefore, this study concludes that in order to ensure successful implementation of the re-entry policy there is need to strengthen and expand the guidance and counseling departments in schools. There is also need to follow up and provide guidance and counseling for all parties concerned especially the adolescent mother and her parents. Considering the circumstances, factors and challenges facing re-entry in the County a lot more, needs to be done so that, “having a child does not automatically mean the end of one's education and dreams” as one adolescent mother put it. The onus is on the MOE; the schools and school communities; the adolescent mothers and their parents to do all they can to resolve and reverse drop out trends and ensure re-entry into the schools not only in this County but in the entire nation as well (CSA 2008, Wekesa, 2010)

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS
The Study Makes the Following Recommendations;
Government should partner with other stakeholders such as Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and communities to carry out awareness in the district which could effectively deal with misconceptions that the Re-entry policy promotes promiscuity among young girls by promoting the benefits of the policy on both the individual and improving ability of girls to progress to higher levels of education.

The study recommends that counseling services be made available to girls to provide them with guidance and that these guidance and counseling sessions should be clearly indicated on the school time table where life matters should be addressed among others aspects.

Schools should take the re-entry policy seriously and make sure that every girl child who falls pregnant re-enters.

Ensure that students have a strong mutual relationship with at least one adult in the school. The education system needs to have well trained teachers who could be a focal point for pupils to talk to about personal problems. Most of respondents expressed on the need to do more to help students with problems outside of class.

The study recommends improved communication between parents and schools. The target group interviewed felt that one of the keys to keeping pupils in school and preventing pregnancies or when they occur to ensure girls benefited from re-entry policy was to have better communication between the parents and the school, and increasing parental involvement in their child’s education.

There is need to increase supervision in school and more classroom discipline. Many respondents felt their schools did not do enough to help girls make sense out of their daily living. The school environment should be one that reminds the learner that education is one of the most powerful tools to enable girls to avoid pregnancies and fulfill their potential.

The study recommends teacher re-orientation and training so that they can handle issues of pregnancy and re-entry in school appropriately.

5. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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6. REFERENCES


