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Extended Analysis of Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014: A Story of Inequality and Inequity in Zimbabwe



June 2016 • No. 3





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Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge the technical support provided by the MICS program and in particular the analytical support provided by the Chief of Social policy and Research, Samson Muradzikwa, The Zimbabwe National Statistics Office (ZIMSTAT) team, namely Taizivei Mungate, Evelyn Marima, Hendricks Chigiji, Lloyd Mahere, Lovemore Ziswa, Jacob Chitiyo, Tinashe Mwadiwa and Tidings Matangira (Team leaders in MICS 2014 in Zimbabwe) during extended analysis workshops in Zimbabwe in June 2016. The authors also thank Brian Hungwe, Ben Zwizwai and Rueben Musarandega for thorough content review during the paper writing process.

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The MICS 2014 Extended Analysis series is based on further analysis of data collected in the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey 2014. The full versions of the papers with all the tables used in the analysis is available on the website of UNICEF Zimbabwe, www.unicef.org/zimbabwe. The views expressed are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of UNICEF or the governments of Sweden or Zimbabwe.

Recommended citation:

UNICEF Zimbabwe (2016)
Extended Analysis of Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014: A Story of Inequality and Inequity in Zimbabwe
Harare: UNICEF

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List of Abbreviations

ANC	Antenatal Care
ANC4+	ANC visits
BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Module
CBR	Crude Birth Rate
CDR	Crude Death Rate
C-section	Caesarean – section
DHS	Demographic Health Survey
EBF	Exclusive breastfeeding
HSCT	Harmonised Social Cash Transfer
MEL	Monitoring, Evaluation and Learning
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MODA	Multiple Overlapping Deprivation Analysis
NAR	Net Attendance Rate
OPHI	Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative
PICES	Poverty Income Consumption and Expenditure Survey
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
ZDHS	Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey
ZimAsset	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMSTAT	Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency
ZUNDAF	Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework

Section 1:

Introduction

This paper on Inequality and inequity is part of a series of five Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2014 extended analysis reports that address different thematic areas. The other four papers are on Education; Religion; Child protection, Early marriage, Attitudes towards domestic violence; Health Nutrition, and Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (WASH). The purpose of the extended analysis is to examine more closely the MICS 2014 data, present results that complement the MICS report as well as informing and guiding policy and programming initiatives of Government and development partners. In particular, this analysis is aimed at informing the implementation of the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimAsset), the 2016 - 2020 Zimbabwe United Nations Development Assistance Framework (ZUNDAF) and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The MICS 2014 extended analysis was conducted by United Nations Children's Funds' (UNICEF) independent consultant, an expert in MICS and Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS), UNICEFs' local consultant and UNICEF sections in collaboration with Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency (ZIMSTAT), University of Zimbabwe, Ministries of Health and Child Care, and Primary and Secondary Education.

This paper consists of three sections, which are (i) introduction, (ii) results and discussion for each sub-theme, and (iii) conclusions and recommendations. It provides additional analysis of MICS 2014 population demography, urbanization and migration, poverty and deprivation and equity patterns and trends. It offers a story of inequality and inequity in Zimbabwe. Some of the issues highlighted in this paper are covered in detail in other thematic papers.

The data were collected based on a provincially representative sample. The results largely reflect descriptive statistics, and no inferential statistical analysis (bivariate or multivariate) was conducted to demonstrate the effect of variables and their significant influence. In addition, the results largely focused on household data, including head of the household and do not give us a picture on other household members. The paper is exploratory in nature, and unpacks important dimensions of equity and inequity in Zimbabwe. Within the identified limitations, it provides useful starting points and areas for further exploration to improve understanding of causality. Therefore, future studies should apply advanced statistical analysis including multi-level logistic regression to test and reveal the strengths of different causes.

Section 2:

Results and Discussions

2.1 Demography

Zimbabwe's Crude Birth Rate (CBR) increased from 30 live births per 1000 population (Census 2002) to 32 in Census 2012, and 34 in MICS 2014. Mortality peaked around 2001 with a Crude Death Rate (CDR) of 17 deaths per 1000 population and declined to 10 in Census 2012. This decline was possibly due to reduction in AIDS related mortality. These trends caused the rate of natural increase, which is the difference between CBR and CDR, to increase from 1% to 2% in 2012 (see Table 1). This increase has consequently reduced the doubling time for Zimbabwe's population to just 28 years (excluding emigration) in 2014.

Table 1: Fertility and mortality data in Zimbabwe, 2002-2012 based upon Census

Stratifier	Census 2002	Census 2012
Crude Birth Rate	30	32
Crude Death Rate	17	10
Rate of natural increase (%)	1	2

2.1.1 Population structure

Analysis of MICS 2014 on population structure and the sex ratio sheds light on the importance of urbanization and emigration. The trend data for the surveys, Census, MIMS and MICS, shown in Table 2 highlight that the proportion of children under-five years of age in Zimbabwe's population is on the rise. It increased from 14% in 2009 to 15% in 2014.

Table 2: Percentages of household youth population by age groups, Zimbabwe, 2002-2014

Age groups	Census 2002	MIMS 2009	ZDHS 2010/11	Census 2012	MICS 2014
<5	14	14	15	15	16
5-9	13	14	14	13	14
10-14	13	14	14	13	14
15-19	13	12	10	11	11
20-24	11	10	9	9	8
<15	41	42	43	41	44
<18	48	49	48	48	50
Youth (15 -24)	23	21	19	20	18

The data also show that child population (below 18 years) in Zimbabwe has increased from approximately 48% (ZDHS 2010/11, Census 2012) to approximately 50% (MICS 2014). The increase was due to differences in fertility rate and declining mortality. In contrast to the increasing trend for the population below age 15, the five surveys show a drop in proportion of youth (children

in age groups 15-19, and 20-24) particularly in MICS 2014. Tracking specific age cohorts through the survey years shows unexpected trends on the decline in proportions - 12% for the 15-19 age group in 2009 should approximately be 11% after factoring in the natural rate of increase for Zimbabwe in the 20-24 age group in 2014 (five years later for the same age group). However, the proportion of the 20-24 age group in MICS 2014 is 8%. The proportion of children age 10-14 was 14% in MIMS 2009 and 11% for those age 15-19 in MICS 2014 (five years later for the same age group).

2.2 Youth urbanization

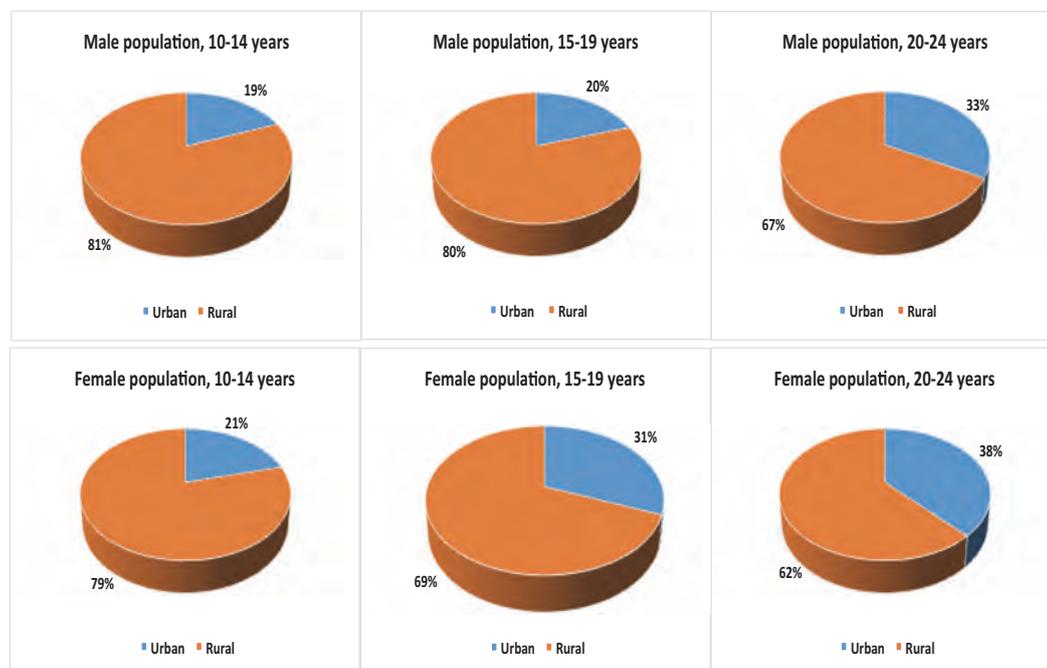
There have been relative changes in the proportion of male and female adolescents and gender differences in the youth population residing in rural and urban areas through the age groups 10-14 to 20-24 (see Table 3 and Figure 1).

Sex	Age groups	Urban	Rural	Total
Male	10-14	844,000	3,655,000	4,499,000
	15-19	718,000	2,813,000	3,531,000
	20-24	752,000	1,526,000	2,278,000
Female	10-14	947,000	3,511,000	4,458,000
	15-19	1,040,000	2,302,000	3,342,000
	20-24	1,038,000	1,687,000	2,725,000

Figure 1 shows that the proportion of urban male youth increased by 1% from age group 10-14 to age group 15-19, and drastically increased by 13% from age group 15-19 to age group 20-24. In comparison, 10% of female youth moved to urban areas from age group 10-14 to age group 15-19, and 7% more moved into urban areas at age group 20-24. More females moved to the urban areas at younger ages than their male counterparts.

In the age group 10-14, the urban-rural distribution is almost equal for both males and females compared with a large difference in the age group 20-24. Males in urban areas are 33% compared to 67% in rural areas. In contrast, females constitute 38% in urban areas and 62% in rural areas.

Figure 1: Youth urbanization by sex, MICS 2014



The evidence points to high rural-urban migration among both female and male youth population, most likely in search of employment and educational opportunities. However, the disparities in concentration of in-migration rates for males and females show possible inequalities in socio-economic opportunities. Lower secondary education opportunities and existence of menial jobs (e.g. housemaids) possibly explain urban migration peaking earlier for female youth age 15-19 than their male counterparts whose movement only peaks in the 20-24 age group. The migration dynamics have to be understood in the context of limited socio-economic opportunities in rural areas, and the attraction of urban areas. The overall lower proportion of urban males in the 20-24 age-group may indicate reduced urban employment opportunities for them given the low economic performance. In addition, emigration has contributed to lower male urbanization (see next section).

2.3 Emigration

Zimbabwe's population has experienced a fall in the sex ratio comparing the age group 10-14 with the age group 20-24 due to migration dynamics. Table 4 shows the youth sex ratio by age and area and confirms male dominated emigration especially from urban areas causing the urban sex ratio to go down to below 70 males per 100 females for the age group 20-24.

Table 4: Youth sex ratio by age and area, MICS 2014

Age groups	Urban	Rural	Total
10-14	97	104	102
20-24	69	90	82

The overall sex ratio for age group 20-24 is 82 (MICS 2014), and 83 in Census 2012. In the age group 10-14, the sex ratio is a normal 102 males for every 100 females (MICS 2014) and it drops to 82 for the age group 20-24. This indicates that approximately 20% more males than females emigrated.

2.3.1 Emigration estimates

Over the ten-year period, the total population in Zimbabwe grew yearly by 1.1% (average annual inter-censal population growth rate) to more than 13 million in 2012 (Census 2012). Therefore, the average rate of natural increase over the decade was 1.75% (MICS 2014) and not 1.1% (Census 2012).

Based on the 2012 CBR of 32 live births per 1000 population and CDR of 10 deaths per 1000 population, the natural population growth rate in 2012 was 2.2%, double the inter-census population growth rate. However, the natural growth rate was 1.3% in 2002, and the inter-census natural growth rate was on average 1.75%¹, 0.65% higher than the population growth registered by the inter-census growth. That means that one third of the natural growth (0.65%) has “disappeared”, in other words, migrated. Therefore, 84,000 people migrated annually, which is 840,000 in a decennium², between 2002 and 2012.

The sex ratio estimates MICS 2014 indicated a male surplus of 20% (or 120,000) in the transition from age group 15-19 to 20-24 over a five-year period. Most migrants are youth, and include females and those in the age groups 20-24 and 25-29. This possibly explains the large number of Zimbabweans in the service industry in South Africa, particularly in Johannesburg and Cape Town³.

2.4 Deprivation and poverty

The distribution of household population by wealth index quintiles provides a good starting point to analyze poverty⁴. However in order to get an accurate picture of well-being within the household, it is also important to look at child deprivation in several dimensions. According to UNICEF, deprivation is not having enough or adequate food, shelter, clothing and other basic necessities⁵. This was inspired by the Convention on the Rights of the Child which focuses on the *resources* children need to survive and grow into productive workers and/or a balanced adults. It can be measured using methods such as Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative (OPHI)⁶, Multiple Overlapping Deprivation Analysis (MODA)⁷ and Bristol⁸ methods. All these are based on DHS or MICS information, and are similar in a sense to our simple wealth index deprivation measure. A common method used to measure poverty is based on income or consumption levels. A person is considered poor if his or her consumption or income level falls below some minimum level necessary to meet basic needs. This minimum level is usually called the “poverty line”.

¹ $(1.30+2.2)/2$

² A decennium is a period of 10 years.

³ The dominance of youth is also confirmed by the Characteristics of Labour Migrants Report 2014.

⁴ According to Rowntree (1901), “Poverty is not having the financial resources necessary to support a person at the subsistence level of food, shelter, clothing and other necessities”.

⁵ Delamonica, E., Minujin, A., Davidziuk, A., I. & Gonzalez, E.D. (2006). Children living in poverty: Overview of definitions, measurements and policy. UNICEF Working paper. New York. www.unicef.org/policyanalysis/files/Children_Living_In_Poverty.pdf

⁶ OPHI developed the Multidimensional Poverty Index for the United Nations Development Programme's Human Development Report. It promotes the use of such measures for more effective poverty eradication efforts at the global, national and local levels.

⁷ MODA provides a comprehensive approach to multidimensional aspects of (child) poverty and deprivation. It was developed by UNICEF to facilitate the analysis of inequities and provide instruments to identify deprived children.

⁸ The Bristol methodology was developed by the University of Bristol, United Kingdom (Gordon et al) considers those who suffer 2 or more deprivations (from food, shelter, sanitation, health, education and information) as poor.

Section 2: Results and Discussions

The wealth index is a background characteristic that is used in MICS and DHS as a proxy for measuring long-term standard of living of the household. It is based on the data for household ownership of consumer goods; dwelling characteristics; source of drinking water; toilet facilities; and other characteristics related to the socioeconomic status of households. The standard numeration of the wealth index quintiles goes from 1-Poorest to 5-Richest.

In Table 5, the data for the poorest two wealth quintiles (quintiles 1 and 2 which are the bottom quintiles). The bottom quintiles have been used to demonstrate a more robust picture. The results generally show a decrease in the proportion of household population in the bottom 40% across provinces with the exception of Masvingo which has shown an increase.

Table 5: Household population by wealth quintiles across provinces (2006- 2014)

Province	ZDHS 2006	MIMS 2009	ZDHS 2010/11	MICS 2014	General pattern
	Bottom 40%	Bottom 40%	Bottom 40%	Bottom 40%	Categories
Manicaland	38	39	39	34	Average
Mashonaland Central	56	59	55	50	Deprived
Mashonaland East	32	38	40	30	Average
Mashonaland West	45	44	43	38	Average
Matabeleland North	80	80	75	74	Very deprived
Matabeleland South	45	56	50	53	Deprived
Midlands	47	53	51	50	Deprived
Masvingo	61	53	60	60	Very deprived
Harare	0	0	2	0	Not deprived
Bulawayo	0	0	0	0	Not deprived
Total	40	40	40	40	

Key:

60 - 75 Very deprived
 45 - 59 Deprived
 30 - 44 Average
 0 - 29 Not deprived

The provincial results in the MICS 2014 show that Masvingo and Matabeleland North are “very deprived” while Matabeleland South, Mashonaland Central and Midlands are “deprived” (see Map 1).

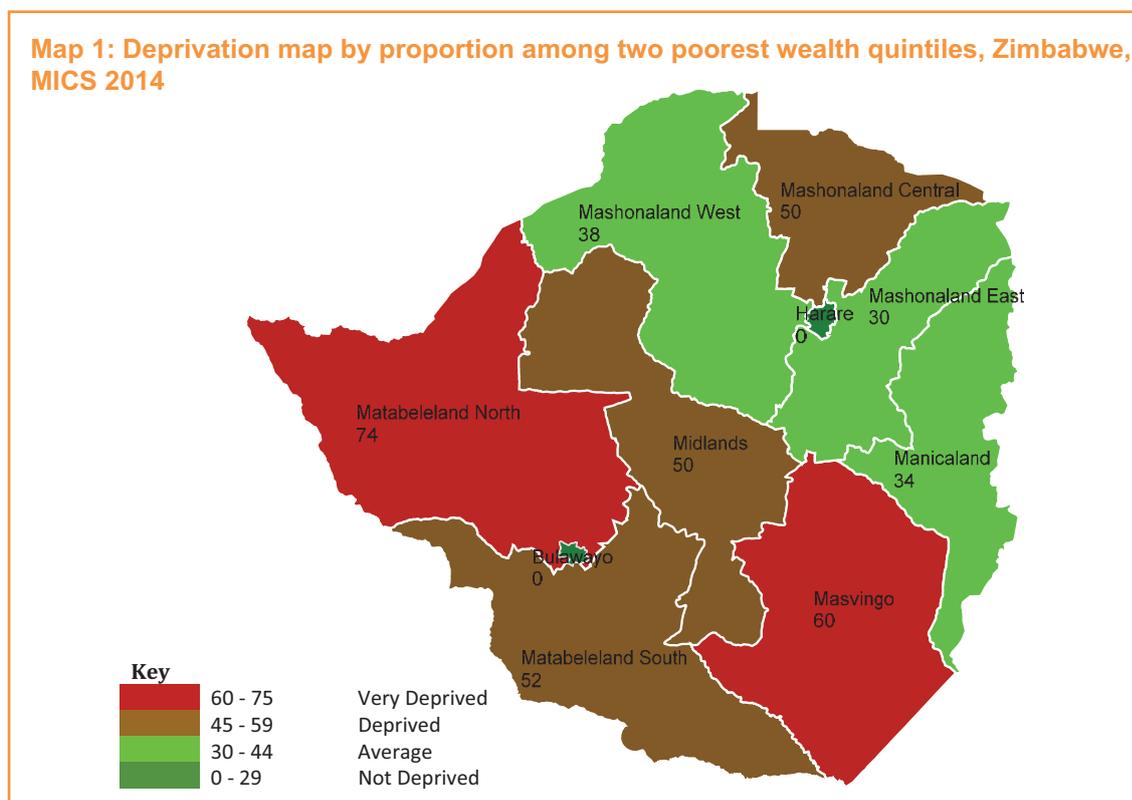


Table 6 shows that Matabeleland North is the poorest province while the metropolitan provinces, Harare and Bulawayo, are the least poor. Masvingo was ranked number two (i.e. is among the worst) in terms of deprivation (MICS 2014).

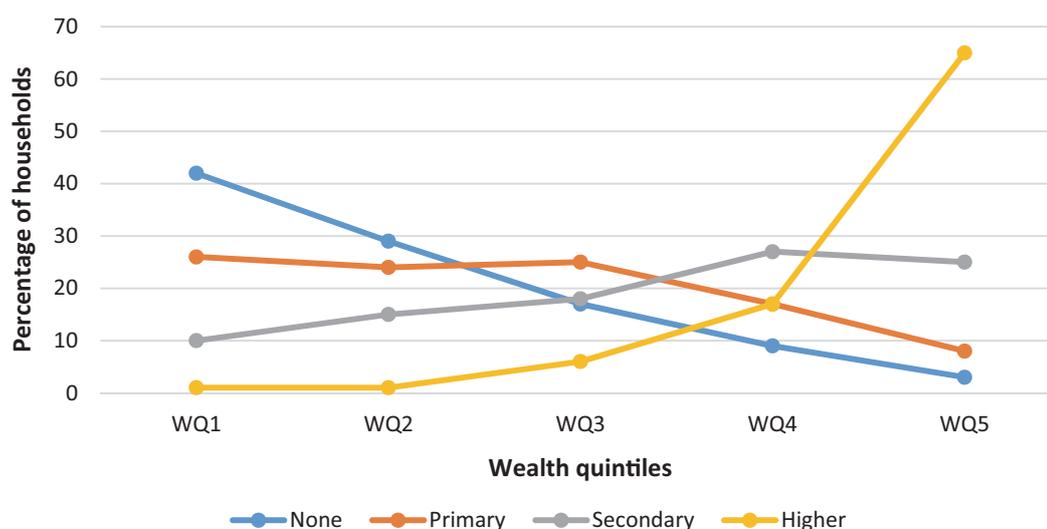
Table 6: Provincial comparison of deprivation and poverty levels, MICS 2014

Province	Bottom 40% Deprived households	Rank
Manicaland	34	7
Mashonaland Central	50	4
Mashonaland East	30	8
Mashonaland West	38	6
Matabeleland North	74	1
Matabeleland South	53	3
Midlands	50	5
Masvingo	60	2
Harare	0	9
Bulawayo	0	10

2.4.1 Education level of household head and wealth

All else held constant, if the level of education of the head of household had no significant impact on the wealth status of the household, there would be equal representation (20%) of educational level of heads of households in each wealth quintile. Figure 2 shows the distribution of the household population by wealth index quintiles according to education of the head of household. The majority of the heads of households without education are in the poorest quintile while those with secondary and higher education constitute the majority in the richest quintile. Therefore, educational attainment is one of the major determinants of wealth status in Zimbabwe.

Figure 2: Percent distribution of household population according to education of household head by wealth quintiles, MICS 2014



2.4.2 Educational level of male and female heads of households

Table 7 shows that indeed female-headed households have a significant lower educational level. Fifty-seven percent of female-headed households had primary and no education compared to 37% of the male-headed households. The proportion of male-headed households with secondary and higher educational levels was higher than that of female-headed households.

As previously stated, female-headed households were more deprived than male-headed households. Thus the question arises: are female-headed households more deprived because of lower educational attainment? The higher proportion of male-headed households with secondary and higher educational levels possibly translates to lower deprivation compared with female-headed households.

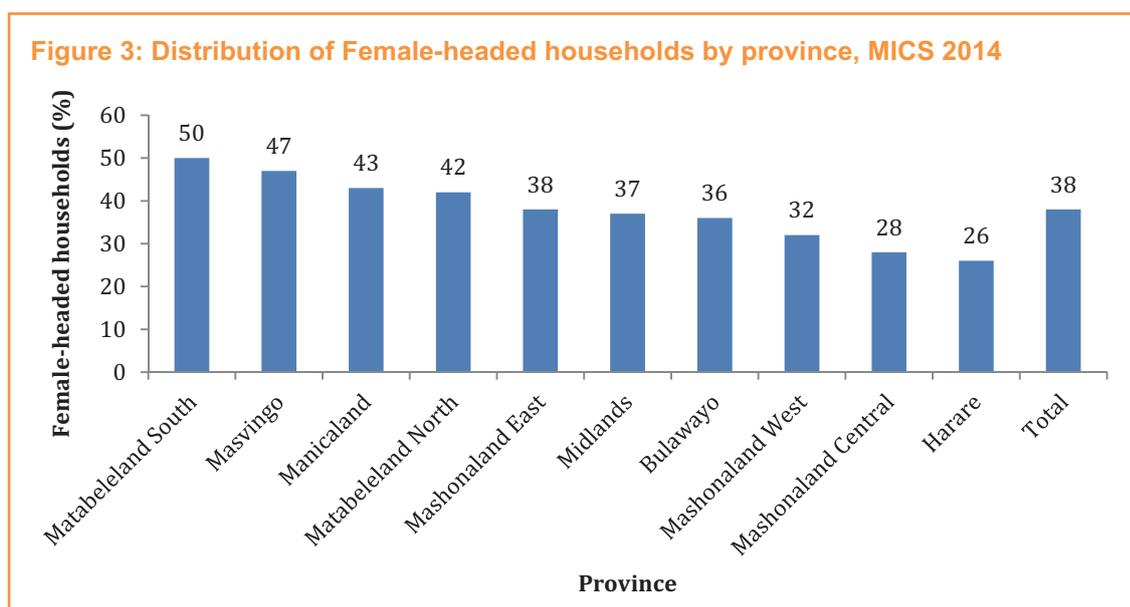
Table 7: Educational level of male and female heads of households, MICS 2014

Educational level	Female (%)	Male (%)	All (%)
None	14	4	8
Primary	43	33	37
Secondary	36	51	45
Higher	8	12	10

2.4.3 Sex of head of households and deprivation

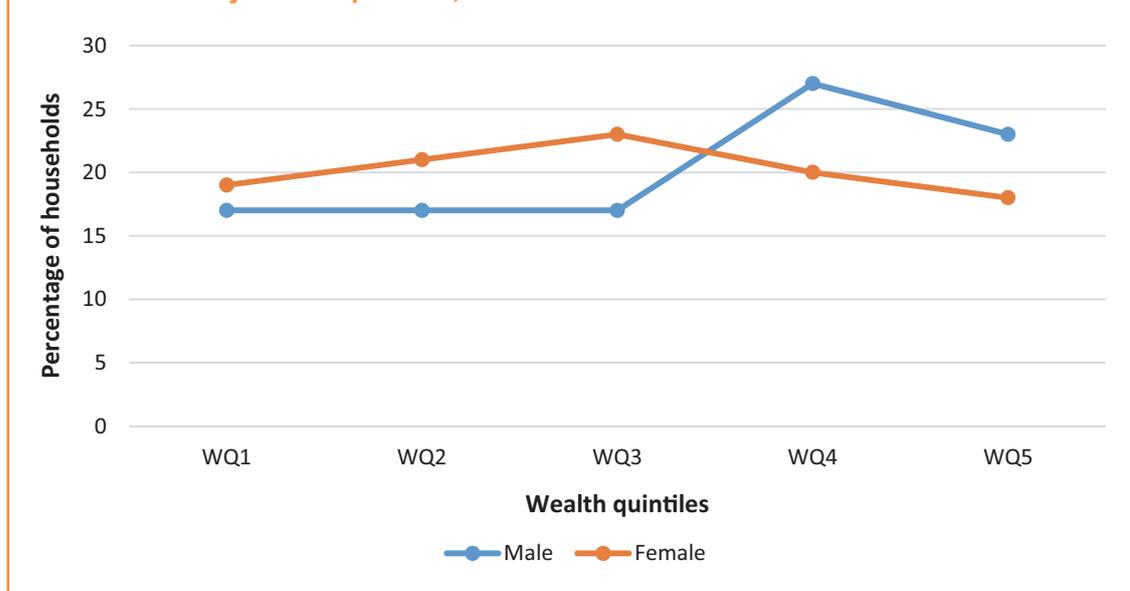
Analysis of household headship shows that 38% of households were female-headed in Zimbabwe (see Figure 3). Provinces with the highest proportions of female-headed households were Matabeleland South (50%), Masvingo (47%), Manicaland (43%) and Matabeleland North (42%).

Figure 3: Distribution of Female-headed households by province, MICS 2014



In addition, the analysis highlights a strong relationship between female-headed households and deprivations (see Figure 4). It shows that in Zimbabwe, female-headed households were associated with lower wealth while male-headed households dominated the higher wealth indices. Male-headed households were above 50% in the two richest quintiles and female-headed households were 38%. Therefore, female-headed households face greater deprivation in Zimbabwe.

Figure 4: Percent distribution of household population according to sex of the head of household by wealth quintiles, MICS 2014



2.5 Equity patterns and trends in Zimbabwe 2009-2014

According to UNICEF (2010), equity means that all individuals, in particular children, have an opportunity to survive, develop, and reach their full potential, without discrimination, bias, or favouritism. It states that inequities generally “arise when certain population groups are unfairly deprived of basic resources that are available to other groups”. UNICEF’s equity-based approach seeks to “understand and address the root causes of inequity so that all children, particularly those who suffer the worst deprivations in society, have access to education, health care, sanitation, clean water, protection, and other services necessary for their survival, growth, and development”⁹.

Overall, MICS 2014 reported important progress on most indicators. However, a decomposition of this progress across different wealth quintiles revealed whether or not this progress was fairly or equitably distributed. The equity patterns and trends from 2009 – 2014 were analyzed to determine the extent to which equity was achieved in Zimbabwe. The analysis recognizes that the focus on national averages often masks the negative trends of widening gaps and stagnation in progress for different social-economic groups.

The patterns and trends of child indicators in Zimbabwe were analyzed based upon the wealth index quintiles in three surveys: MIMS 2009, ZDHS 2010/11 and MICS 2014. In addition, Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) seek to address and monitor equity gaps across all goals and targets to ensure that all social groups enjoy progress, and the gaps narrow. SDG 10¹⁰ also states this explicitly.

The analyses in this section cover static patterns for 28 child indicators (MICS 2014) and trends for 19 indicators, which are shown below. The number of indicators is based upon availability and usefulness of the indicators.

⁹ UNICEF (2010) Re-focusing on Equity: Questions and Answers, New York: UNICEF HQ, November 2010.

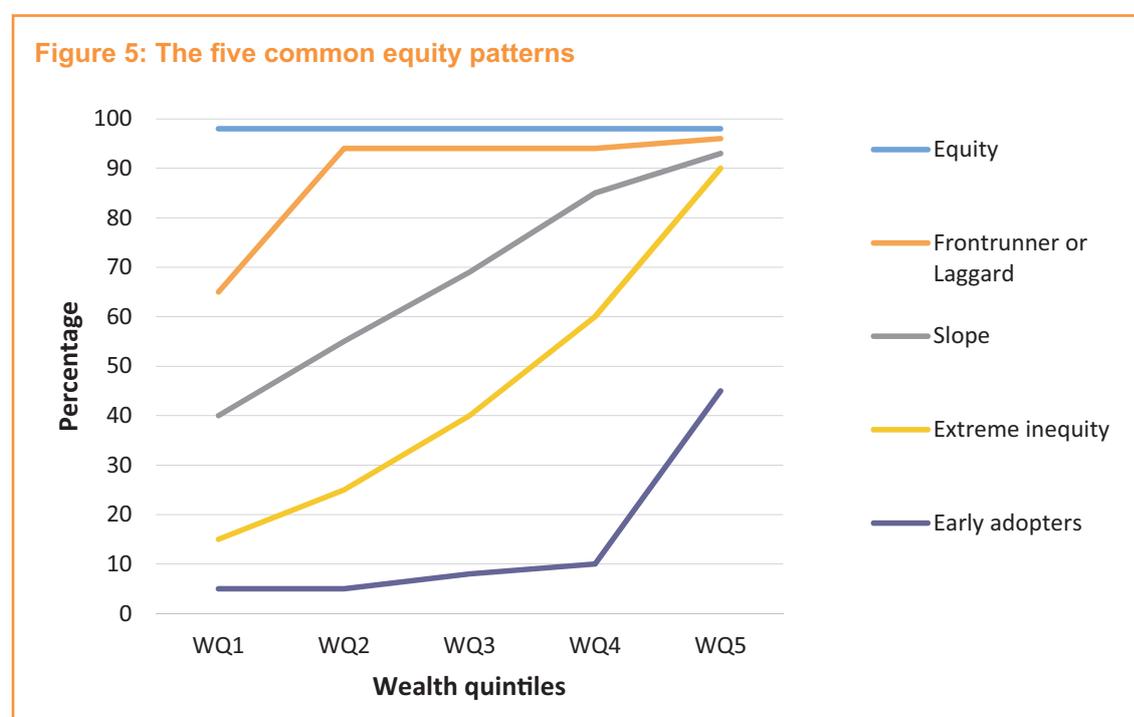
¹⁰ Reduce inequality within and among countries.

2.5.1 Equity patterns in Zimbabwe (2014)

The five common equity patterns (see Figure 5) include:

1. **Equity**, the five wealth quintiles have similar values.
2. **Frontrunner or Laggard**¹¹: Four wealth quintiles have almost similar levels except for one quintile with lower or higher values.
3. The linear increase or the **slope** as a reflection of inequity: a gradual increase or decrease for the value of indicators from poorest to richest. Ratio is up to 5 times. The steeper the slope the more the inequity.
4. The steep slope, **extreme inequity** situation (ratio of poorest to richest is > 5).
5. **Early adopters**¹² is a pattern that shows few differences between the first quintiles but a huge difference with the richest wealth quintile.

As a measure of inequity, the “ratio of richest to poorest” is used although this relative measure is largely influenced by the level of the poorest.



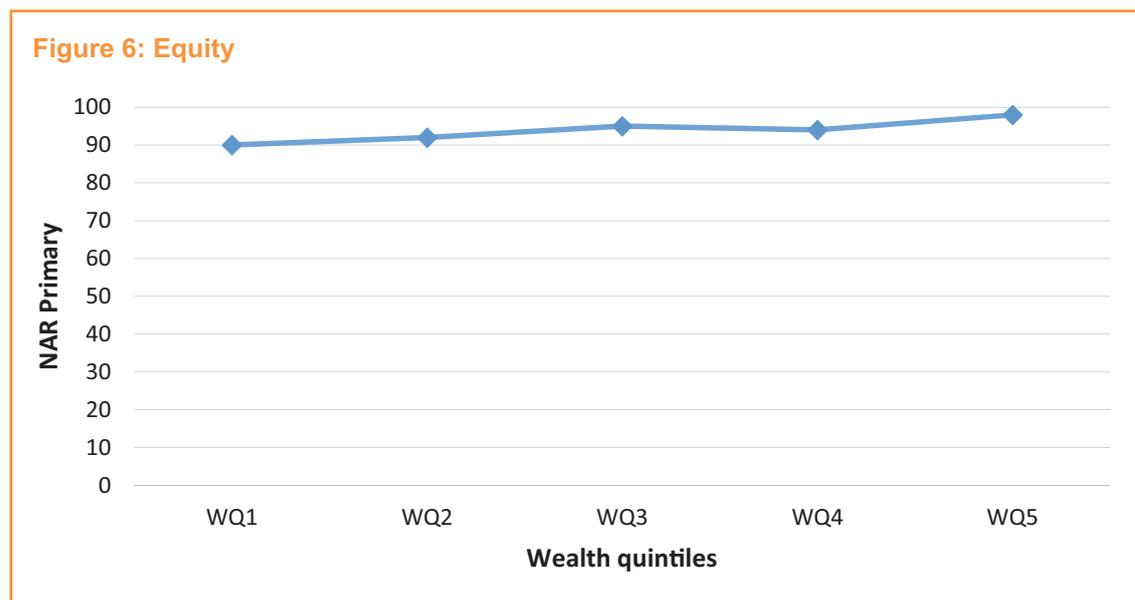
¹¹ Frontrunner refers to the person that is leading in a race or other completion whilst the laggard is one who makes slow progress and falls behind others.

¹² An early adopter is an individual who uses a new products or technology before others.

Section 2: Results and Discussions

Pattern 1

The following indicators have the “Equity” pattern: Net Attendance Rate (NAR) Primary education, Demand for contraception satisfied, Exclusive breastfeeding (EBF), Antenatal Care (ANC), Full vaccination, School readiness and Child discipline.



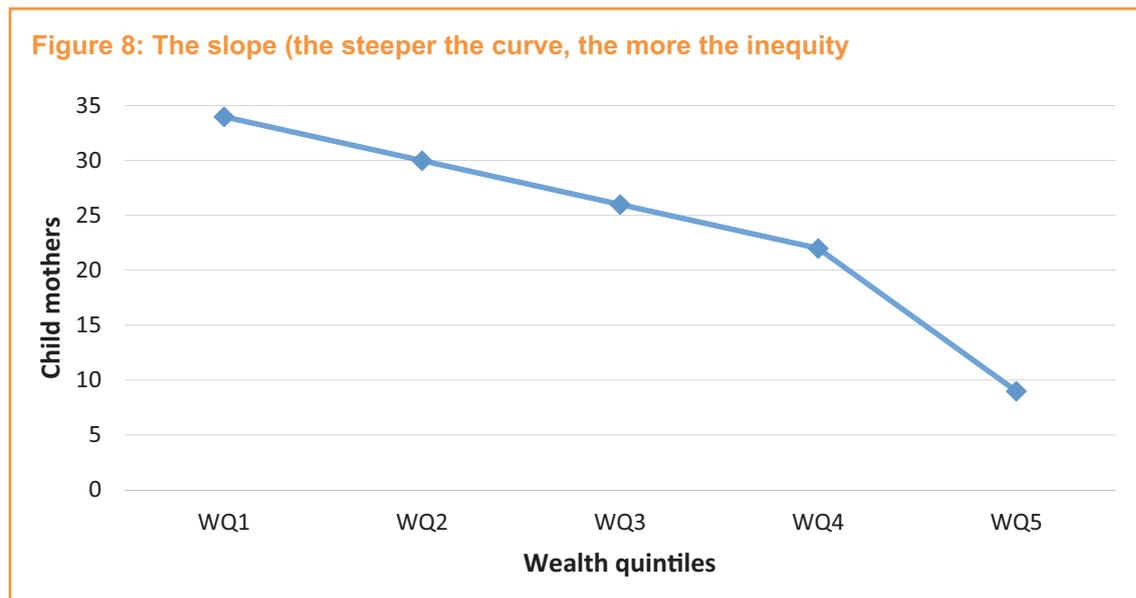
Pattern 2

The following indicators have the “Laggard” or “Frontrunner” pattern: Use of radio, Female teenage marriage, Under-five mortality rate (U5MR), 4+ANC visits, Tetanus protection and Stunting.



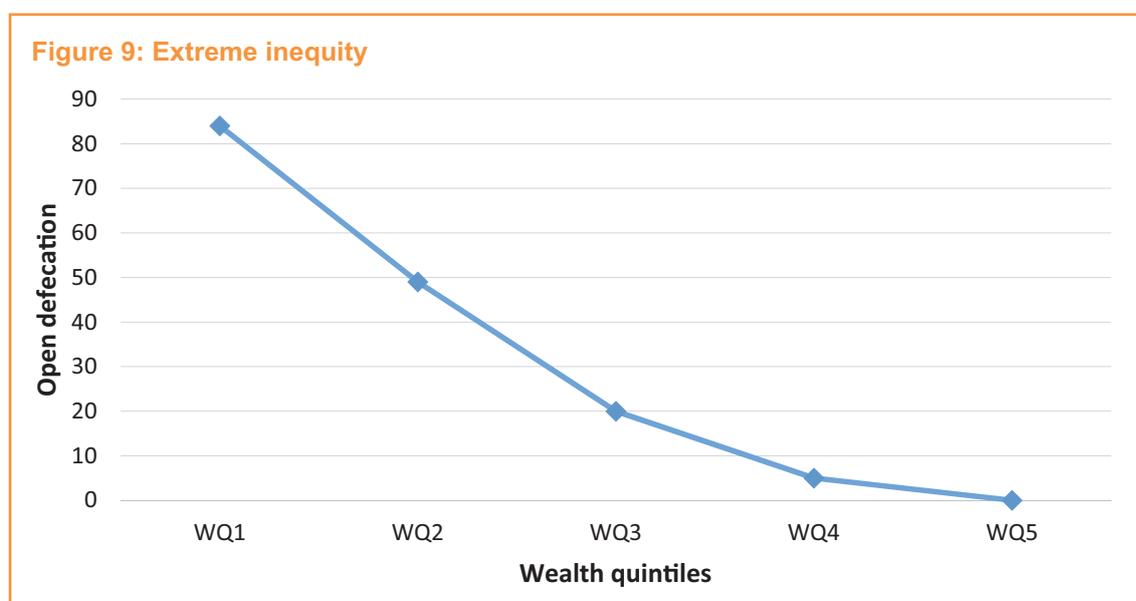
Pattern 3

The following indicators have the “Slope” pattern: Youth literacy for women, ANC, Urine sample taken, NAR Secondary education, Comprehensive HIV knowledge, Early marriage (below 18), Youth literacy for women, Use of learning materials, Teenage fertility and Birth registration.



Pattern 4

The following indicators have the “Extreme inequity” pattern: Open defecation, Time spent to collect water (>30 minutes), Youth active use of internet, and Access to TV.



Pattern 5

Only one indicator: Caesarean section (C-section) follows the “Early adapters” pattern, which is mainly associated with the richest wealth quintile.



Based upon the analysis of the 28 indicators from the MICS 2014, Zimbabwe has achieved a fair distribution for approximately 25% of the indicators. This indicates a good result in the international context. Twenty one percent of the indicators have equity and similar values for four wealth quintiles except for one quintile with lower or higher values (see Table 8).

Pattern	Number of indicators	Percentage
1. Equity	7	25
2. Frontrunner/Laggard	6	21
3. Slope	10	36
4. Extreme inequity	4	14
5. The early adapters	1	4
Total	28	100

Nevertheless, the largest group is the “Slope” with more than one third of the indicators while the more extreme patterns (“Extreme inequity” and “Early adapters”) have fewer indicators.

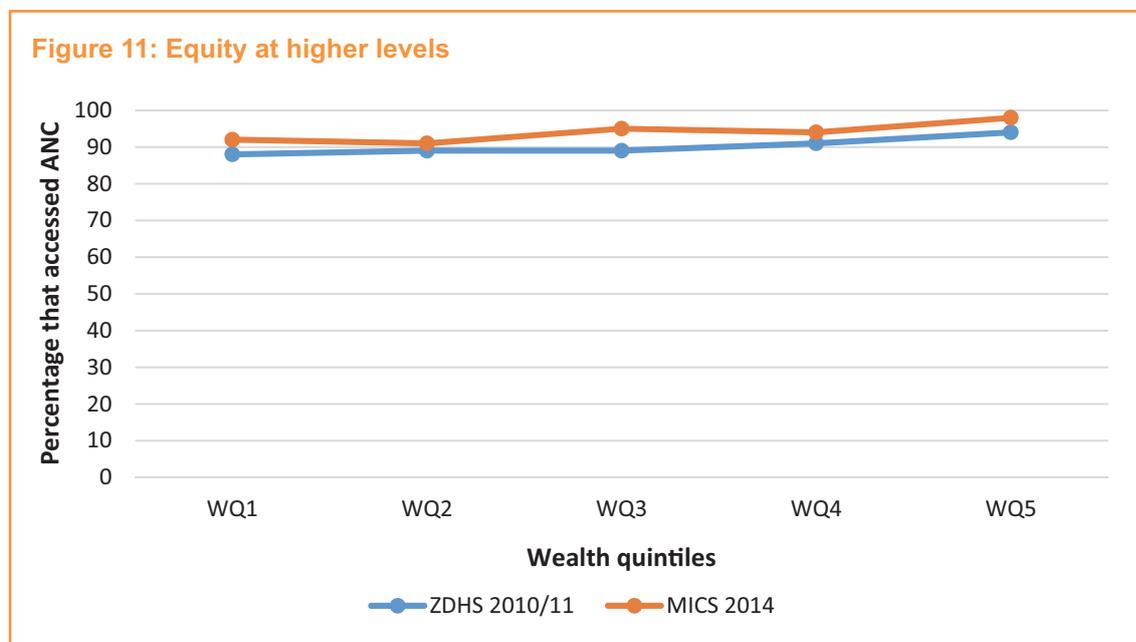
The patterns are also stages in development. It is normal for an innovation (socio-economic indicator) to have the “Early adapters” distribution followed by “Extreme inequity”. Over time, the

pattern will move to equity when the right efforts and conditions are met. However, to ensure equity, countries should aim to achieve progress simultaneously among the poorest groups and the rest of the population.

2.5.2 Equity trends (2009-2014)

Trend 1

In this Trend 1, “Equity at higher levels”, all wealth quintiles achieved slight progress, while the pattern was already one of equity. The indicators with this positive trend are Access to ANC and NAR Primary education.



Trend 2

In Trend 2, “Road to Equity”, there is great progress and sharp increase in indicated values related to Delivery in health facility, Low Birth Weight, Breast feeding, Polio 3, Female youth literacy and Access to water indicators mostly in the lowest wealth quintiles. This allows those in the lowest wealth quintile to progressively catch up with those in the richest wealth quintiles, thereby reducing inequity. This indicates a very positive trend.

Figure 12: Road to equity



Trend 3

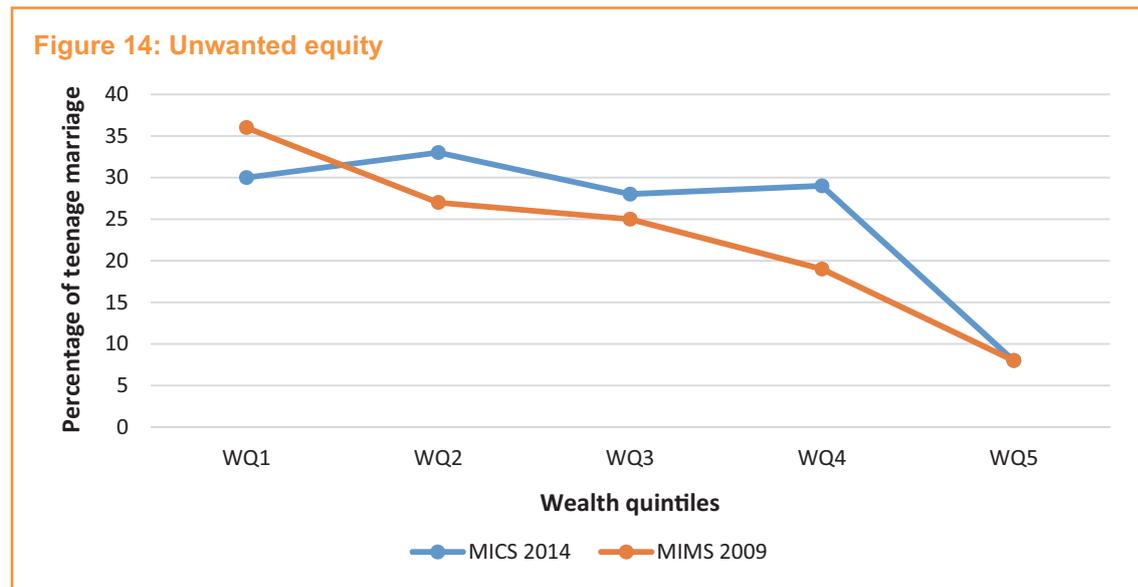
In Trend 3, “Unfair Progress”, the indicators registered progress although with increasing inequity. The indicators in this trend are Early childhood education, NAR Secondary, Stunting and C-section, which progressed mostly among the richest wealth quintiles.

Figure 13: Unfair Progress



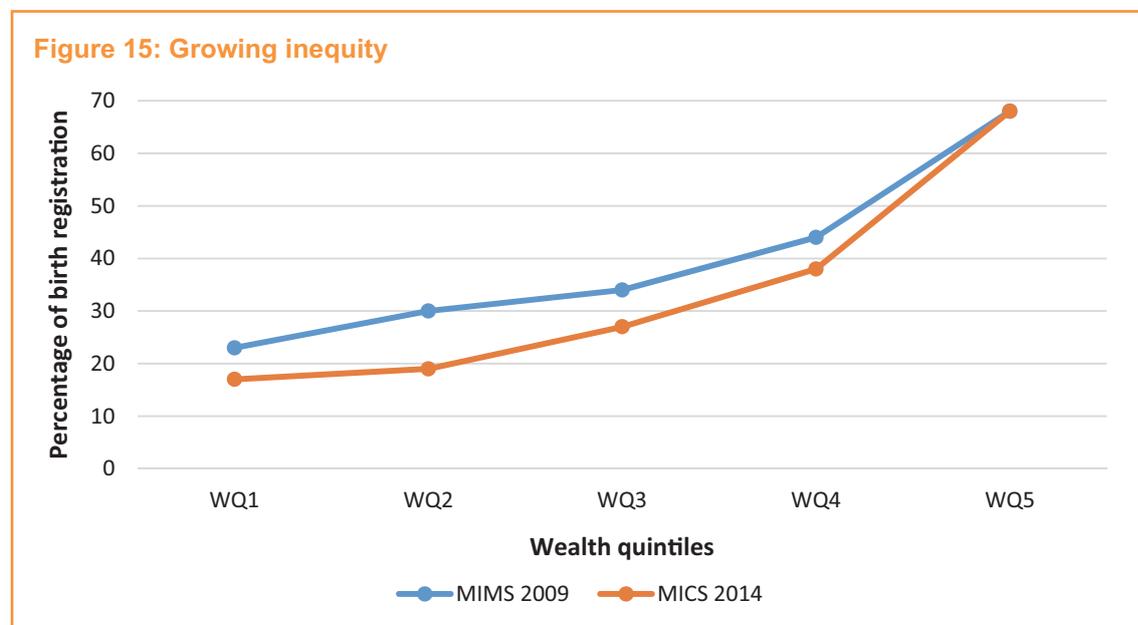
Trend 4

In Trend 4, “Unwanted equity”, the indicator Teenage marriage showed an improvement in the poorest wealth index quintile but regressed for most wealth quintiles resulting in unwanted equity (sliding back).



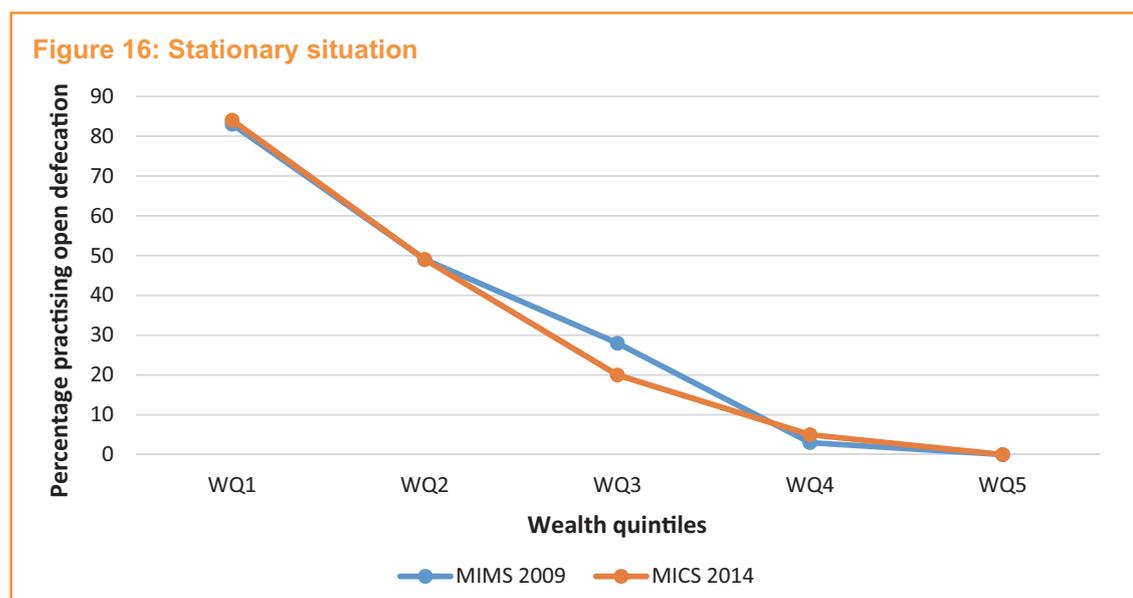
Trend 5

In Trend 5, “Growing inequity”, the indicator Birth registration showed regression for all groups, and even more so among the poorest, resulting in more inequity.



Trend 6

In Trend 6, the “Stationary situation”, the indicators Open defecation and Early childbearing showed almost no change for all wealth quintiles.



2.5.3 Summary of trends

Zimbabwe achieved extraordinary progress for most indicators in the period 2009-2014 due to investments, including Transition Funds in the health and education sectors.

Of the 19 indicators analyzed:

- Ten improved and had more equity
- Five improved but had less equity
- One indicator deteriorated and had less equity
- One indicator deteriorated but had more equity
- Two indicators were stable and did not change at all

Table 9: Equity and progress assessment of 19 indicators from 2009 – 2014

Level of equity	Indicator		Total
	Deterioration (-)	Improvement (+)	
More equity	1	10	11
Less equity	1	5	6
Total	2	15	17

Out of these 19 indicators, 15 improved and only 2 deteriorated. A total of 11 indicators showed more equity whilst 6 showed less equity.

Overall, there has been positive development in Zimbabwe with trends and patterns showing that the country was on the right track in the period 2009 – 2014.

Section 3:

Conclusions and Recommendations

This section provides concluding remarks and recommendations based on the extended analysis. Overall, the extended analysis highlighted an increase in the proportion of children in Zimbabwe as well as shifts in youth urbanization, migration and emigration trends. It also revealed the disparities in deprivation and poverty in urban and rural areas as well as across provinces. The results showed the interface between educational attainment and deprivation, gendered, economic deprivation and educational level of head of household.

Based on the extended analysis of 28 child indicators in MICS 2014 five Equity patterns emerged. The six Equity trends (2009 – 2014) emerged from the analysis of 19 indicators from three surveys namely MIMS 2009, ZDHS 2010/11 and MICS 2014. The key results of the extended analysis are summarized below:

- ***Increasing proportion of children in Zimbabwe's population***

The increase in proportion of children in the population translates to an increase in the dependency ratio. With approximately 76% of households already poor and having limited access to services, access disparities are observed. Therefore, the state has a huge burden to provide services against a backdrop of low earnings and low tax collection efficiencies. Improving the situation of children calls for strengthening the quality and effectiveness of public expenditure, promoting equity based budget allocation, encouraging public expenditure reviews and pro-poor interventions. The likelihood of the population doubling in 28 years creates an urgency in improving incomes and investments in children to reduce the reproduction of poverty. The provision of basic social services including education and health will increase public expenditure on basic social services for children.

- ***Youth urbanization trends***

MICS 2014 shows high rural-urban migration in the youth population as they search for socio-economic opportunities. There are also gender and age disparities in migration, with more females than males (age 15-19 years) searching for opportunities particularly menial jobs in urban areas.

- ***Youth emigration trends***

The analysis of youth sex ratio and additional Census information shows the magnitude of emigration in Zimbabwe, which requires further exploration of the drivers of youth emigration.

- ***Provincial deprivation and poverty levels***

The provincial analysis of deprivation and poverty using the wealth index quintiles shows that Matabeleland North (75% in poorest 2 quintiles) and Masvingo (60% in poorest 2 quintiles) are most deprived. The metropolitan provinces, Harare and Bulawayo are the least poor. The high levels of deprivation and poverty in Matabeleland North and Masvingo provinces require concerted efforts and multi-sectoral approaches to tackle drivers of poverty in these provinces.

● ***Urban and rural deprivation***

Rural areas are more deprived than urban areas as measured by distribution of household wealth index by area of residence. The trend has remained relatively the same based on the three surveys mentioned above. This may indicate continued economic challenges in rural areas in Zimbabwe as well as rural-urban disparities in socio-economic opportunities. Such disparities drive rural-urban migration, and thus put pressure on resources and social services in the urban areas. Rural-urban migration undermines sustainable economic and agricultural productivity, and increases poverty levels in rural areas by denying rural areas of the productive age groups that migrates to urban areas. Reversing the trend of rural-urban migration requires strategies that address the drivers (push factors), and creating opportunities (pull factors) found in urban areas in rural areas.

● ***Educational attainment and deprivation***

Most households whose head had no education were in the poorest wealth quintile while those with the head of household with higher education were in the richest wealth quintile. This shows the importance of education in addressing child deprivation. A broader strategy of addressing child deprivation has to focus on improving household wealth and promoting educational levels within households given the demonstrated link between wealth quintile, education and investments in child well-being.

● ***Economic deprivation and household headship***

The data reveal that female-headed households were associated with lower wealth quintile while male-headed households dominated the higher wealth quintiles in Zimbabwe. Improving educational levels and socio-economic empowerment of women create opportunities for addressing deprivation and poverty in female-headed households as well as reduce the greater risks of deprivation faced by women in the country.

● ***Equity patterns and trends***

The equity patterns and trends of child deprivation in Zimbabwe highlight the importance of monitoring equity gaps and ensuring that all groups enjoy progress, and the gaps narrow. The distribution of child deprivation indicators across households were examined using the wealth index quintile, as a proxy for household cumulative living standard. Data for dwelling characteristics, source of drinking water, toilet facilities and other characteristics related to the socio-economic status of households were analyzed. Static patterns were analyzed for 27 child indicators (MICS 2014) while trends were analyzed for 19 indicators. Based on the data, there seems to be an overall positive development (progress) in Zimbabwe across most social indicators in the period 2009 -2014. This may be attributed to investments in health and education sectors. However, only two indicators showed deterioration while six indicators showed less equity. As much as the country has shown positive progress, it needs to focus on progress with fairness or equitable progress.

3.1 Recommendations

- Improve public budgetary allocation for social services and investments that benefit children in poor households.
- Strengthen flagship social protection programs (e.g., BEAM, HSCT) to reach and benefit all children in poor households.
- Create an enabling environment for investment, sustainable economic growth, and progress with equity so that young people participate meaningfully in the economy.
- Strengthen monitoring, evaluation and learning (MEL) frameworks to determine equity and progress in SDGs, and address equity gaps across all SDGs and targets to ensure that all groups enjoy progress and the gaps narrow.
- Strengthen evidence-generation and disaggregated data analysis along equity dimensions – wealth, gender, urban-rural location, disability, social minorities, religion etc.

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