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# 4. EDUCATION

“Advance the goal of equal access to education by taking measures to eliminate discrimination in education at all levels on the basis of gender ...; ... provide universal access to basic education and ensure completion of primary education by at least 80 per cent of primary school-age children; close the gender gap in primary and secondary school education ...; provide universal primary education in all countries ...; Eliminate gender disparities in access to all areas of tertiary education ...; Increase enrolment and retention rates of girls by ... means to minimize the costs of girls’ education to their families and to facilitate parents’ ability to choose education for the girl child; Promote an educational setting that eliminates all barriers that impeded the schooling of pregnant adolescents and young mothers. ... Eliminate the gender gap in basic and functional literacy; ... Diversify vocational and technical training and improve access for and retention of girls and women in education and vocational training in such fields as science, mathematics, engineering, environmental sciences and technology, information technology and high technology, as well as management training.”<sup>1</sup> [*Beijing Platform for Action*]

The right to education is enshrined in the Universal Declaration on Human Rights<sup>2</sup> and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child<sup>3</sup>. In recognizing this right, the Convention recommends that governments make primary education compulsory and available free to all, make secondary and higher education accessible to all on the basis of capacity, and take measures to encourage regular attendance at schools and the reduction of drop-out rates<sup>4</sup>. In addition, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child called on governments to take “special measures in respect of female, gifted and disadvantaged children”<sup>5</sup>.

In addition to the human rights argument, since at least the adoption of the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995<sup>6</sup>, it is now widely recognised that the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women are also important for the achievement of sustainable economic development. Closing gender gaps in educational attainment impacts positively the productivity of current and future labour force and economic performance of a nation, as well as its social and political well-being.

One comprehensive review of studies on the private returns to investment in education concluded that, overall, females have a higher return to education than males – a return of 11.7 percent compared to 9.6 percent to another year of schooling<sup>7</sup>. The return to education is higher for females at primary, secondary and tertiary education. The review noted that returns to another year of schooling for females in Rwanda (24.4 percent) and South Africa (23.3 percent) were the highest for the 139 countries for which data was available.

The above economic effects of girls’ education may be supplemented by the potential effects of demographic changes. There is evidence that fertility is inversely related to female education in virtually all populations<sup>8</sup>. A decline in fertility reduces the youth dependency ratio<sup>9</sup>, increasing the share of the population of working age, and raising national income per capita<sup>10</sup>. Reduced fertility might also increase the amount of resources available to each child that will have long-term beneficial effects on economic growth when healthier and more educated children enter the labour force<sup>11</sup>.

In addition to higher economic returns, female schooling confers social and political benefits to society. Female education is associated with reduced child and maternal mortality, reduced incidence of HIV infection, reduced rates of child marriage, increased children’s schooling, and increased female political

<sup>1</sup> United Nations (1995: paragraphs 80 (a)-(c); 80(f)-(g); 81(c); and 81(e)).

<sup>2</sup> United Nations (1948: Article 26).

<sup>3</sup> United Nations (1989: Article 28(1)).

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>5</sup> Organization of African Unity (1990: Article 11(3)(e)).

<sup>6</sup> United Nations (1995; paragraph 69).

<sup>7</sup> Montenegro and Patrinos (2014).

<sup>8</sup> Schultz (2002).

<sup>9</sup> The ratio of people younger than 16 years to those aged 16-64 years.

<sup>10</sup> Canning and Shultz (2010).

<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*

participation<sup>12</sup>. A review of recent micro-level evidence concluded that: (a) mothers', as well as fathers' education are important for child mortality and other children outcomes; (b) income or assets in the hands of women is associated with larger improvements in children's health and larger relative expenditures on household nutrients, health and housing compared to income or assets in the hands of men; and (c) women leaders do a better job in meeting the needs of women than men<sup>13</sup>. Furthermore, Robert Barro found that democracy is negatively and significantly related to the gap between male and female primary attainment, and concluded that "expanded educational opportunity for females goes along with a social structure that is generally more participatory and, hence, more receptive to democracy"<sup>14</sup>.

The Beijing Platform for Action not only calls for universal access to basic education and closing the gender gap in primary and secondary education, but also for eliminating gender disparities in access to all areas of tertiary education, improving women's access to vocational training, science and technology, and continuing education, developing non-discriminatory education and training, and allocating appropriate budgetary resources that can eliminate barriers to education (see above quote). The *2030 Agenda on Sustainable Development* adopted in 2015 includes Sustainable Development Goal 4 'Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all' that reinforces the commitments in the Beijing Platform for Action. The gender-related targets in SDG 4 are summarized in Table 1.

**Table 1: Gender-related education targets in Sustainable Development Goal 4.**

Priority area	SDG 4 target for 2030
<b>All levels of education and vocational training</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training</li> <li>○ Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all</li> </ul>
<b>Pre-primary education</b>	Ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education
<b>Primary and secondary education</b>	Ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes
<b>Tertiary education</b>	Ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university
<b>Technical and vocational education</b>	Ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university
<b>Literacy</b>	Ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

This chapter looks at the Education component of the AGDI. The Education component of the AGDI is part of the Social Block of both the GSI and the AWPS. It consists of six indicators in the GSI – pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary enrollment rates, primary completion rate and literacy rate for 15-24 year olds. Policies to prevent female dropouts and human rights education are evaluated in the AWPS.

### BOX 1 GROSS AND NET ENROLLMENT RATIOS

Enrollment in education can be measured either on a gross basis of a net basis.

#### Gross enrollment ratio (GER)

<sup>12</sup> Sperling and Winthrop (2016).

<sup>13</sup> Duflo (2012).

<sup>14</sup> Barro (1999).

*Definition:* The number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education.

*Calculation:* GER = (number of students enrolled in a given level of education regardless of age / population of the age group which officially corresponds to the given level of education) x 100.

*Note:* GER can exceed 100% due to late entry and/or grade repetition.

### **Net enrollment ratio (NER)**

*Definition:* The total number of students in the theoretical age group for a given level of education enrolled in that level, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

*Calculation:* NER = (number of students enrolled who are of the official age group for a given level of education / population for the same age group) x 100

*Notes:* (a) Cannot in theory exceed 100%; (b) Not pertinent for tertiary education because of the difficulties in determining an appropriate age group due to the wide variations in the duration of programmes at this level of education.

**Source:** UNESCO Institute for Statistics Glossary. Available at: <http://uis.unesco.org/en/glossary>

## **Pre-primary education**

Access to quality early childhood education has a positive effect on children's primary education outcomes including increasing the likelihood of enrolment, avoiding repetition and dropout, and improving academic performance<sup>15</sup>. These effects are especially salient for disadvantaged children including those from low-income families. In addition to benefitting children directly, publicly financed quality early childhood education and care is an important way to redistribute unpaid work away from households to the public sphere<sup>16</sup>. Given that women and older siblings, more particularly girls, are the main providers of unpaid care for young children, access to quality early childhood education and care leave women and girls with more time that can be used to participate more effectively in education, the labour force and politics.

Calculating pre-primary education participation rates and comparing them across countries are very difficult. This is because the age groups and starting ages are not standardized and pre-primary education takes diverse forms in different countries<sup>17</sup>. UNESCO and UNICEF compile information on the participation rate in organized learning one year before the official primary entry age as part of SDG 4 Country Profiles and the Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys respectively. On these measures, pre-primary education enrolment rates ranged from below 20 percent in **Chad** and **Mauritania** to over 80 percent in **Liberia**, **Mauritius**, **Seychelles** and **South Africa** for both sexes (Chart 1a). Girls are at a severe disadvantage relative to boys in terms of enrolment in pre-primary education in **Chad** with a GSI score of 0.61 while there is a slight gender disparity at the expense of girls in **Guinea** and **Liberia** (Chart 1b). There is gender parity for **Guinea-Bissau**, **Niger**, **Mauritania**, **Rwanda** and **South Africa**, with GSI scores between 0.97 and 1.03. In **South Africa**, 45.3 percent of males and 46.1 percent of females under 4 years were attending early childhood development facilities in 2015<sup>18</sup> which translates into a GSI of 1.02. In the same year, 93.3 percent of girls attending Grade 1 attended Grade R (a pre-school year at

<sup>15</sup> UNESCO (2015a).

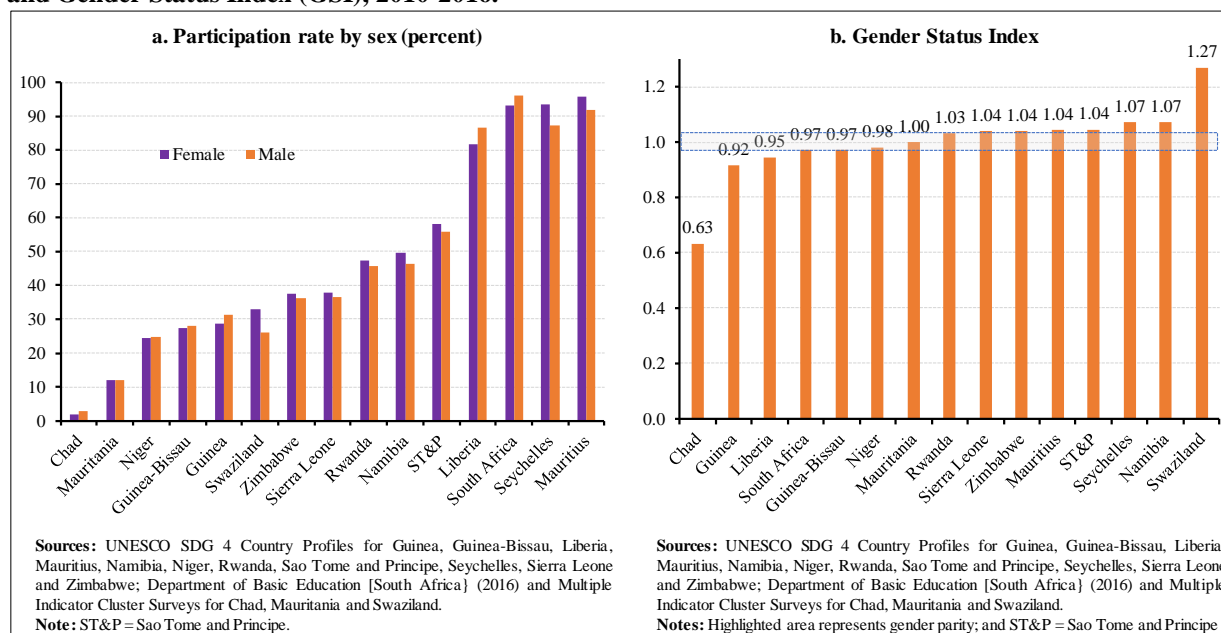
<sup>16</sup> Fontana and Elson (2014).

<sup>17</sup> UNESCO (2016).

<sup>18</sup> Department of Basic Education [South Africa] (2016).

primary school) compared to 96.1 percent of boys<sup>19</sup> giving a GSI of 0.97. Boys are at a significant disadvantage relative to girls in **Swaziland** with a GSI score of 1.27.

**Chart 1: Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official pre-primary entry age) by sex and Gender Status Index (GSI), 2010-2016.**



The average enrollment rate hides variations within countries. Young girls and boys from the rural areas, whose families are less wealthy and whose mothers have attained only primary education or lower tend to have reduced access to pre-primary education. In **Swaziland** where the Early Childhood Care and Education programme is mostly privately owned and with less than 1 percent of the budget of the Ministry of Education and Training going to that sector, 50 percent of enrollees in pre-primary education were from households in the wealthiest quintile compared to 21 percent from households in the poorest quintile<sup>20</sup>. Enrollment in pre-primary education for children from the wealthiest quintile in **Sierra Leone** was 42 percent compared to 5 percent for the poorest quintile<sup>21</sup>. Corresponding figures were 63 percent versus 21 percent in **Sao Tome and Principe**; 41 percent versus 2 percent for **Mauritania**; 34 percent versus 17 percent for **Zimbabwe**; and 16 percent versus 1 percent for **Chad**.

Furthermore, although 65 percent of children who entered Grade 1 had gone through pre-primary education in 2014 in **Swaziland**, about 40 percent and 35 percent of children from the predominantly-rural Lubombo and Shiselweni regions respectively had done so<sup>22</sup>. In **Sao Tome and Principe**, 52 percent of children age 36-59 months and whose mothers have secondary education or higher were attending an organised early childhood education programme as compared with 29 percent of children whose mothers have attained only primary education or lower<sup>23</sup>.

The quality of services also varies within countries. In **Seychelles**, a study carried out by the Institute for Early Childhood Development in 2013 revealed that informal, home-based child-minding facilities vary

<sup>19</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>20</sup> Ministry of Education and Training [Swaziland] (2015).

<sup>21</sup> UNICEF (2016).

<sup>22</sup> Ministry of Education and Training [Swaziland] (2014). The data is incomplete since pre-primary education institutions are not yet compelled to provide data to the Ministry as part of the annual census.

<sup>23</sup> National Institute of Statistics [Sao Tome and Principe] (2016).

widely in levels of quality<sup>24</sup>. Even when services are provided free by the state, access and quality of services may be insufficient as a result of limited awareness among parents, inadequate facilities and trained personnel, lack of standards, and weak enforcement of existing standards. Box 2 highlights the policies on Early Childhood Care and Education in **Namibia, Rwanda, Seychelles and Swaziland** aimed at promoting equitable and quality access.

#### **BOX 2 POLICIES ON EARLY CHILDHOOD CARE AND EDUCATION (ECCE) IN NAMIBIA, RWANDA, SEYCHELLES AND SWAZILAND**

According to UNESCO, early childhood education “provides learning and educational activities with a holistic approach to support children’s early cognitive, physical, social and emotional development and ... to prepare them for entry into primary education”. Early childhood education is only one component of ECCE.

**Namibia.** A survey undertaken by the Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture in 2015 recommended that the early childhood development (ECD) programme for children aged 0-4 years should be integrated into the formal education sector by linking an ECD centre to every primary school. Also a pre-primary class should be established in every primary school for children aged 5-6 years. All ECD centres and pre-primary should follow a formal curriculum, and all teachers should be properly trained to teach at these level and provided with the necessary teaching aids.

**Rwanda.** The *Early Childhood Policy, 2011* defines Early Child Development (ECD) as a range of processes and mechanisms by which children from pre-conception to 6 years grow and thrive physically, mentally, emotionally, morally and socially. Pre-primary education aims to enhance the school readiness of children aged 3-6 years. Most of pre-primary schools are community-based and located within public schools and, starting in the 2014 school year onwards; those schools have been classified as public. The school readiness programme avails a pre-primary classroom at every public and government aided primary school for one year before the child’s entry into primary education. The community provides salaries for teachers and the government offers teaching learning and play materials like ECD Kits, books and chalk. The number of public pre-primary schools increased from 2 in 2013 to 1,420 in 2014 while the number of private pre-primary schools fell from 2,074 in 2013 to 1,011 in 2014. Net enrolment rate in pre-primary education increased from 6.1 percent in 2010 to 13.3 percent in 2014.

**Seychelles.** Children from the ages of 3 years and 3 months up to 5 years and 3 months are catered for in crèches which correspond to the 2 years immediately prior to entry into primary schools. Crèche education is free in State run institutions and available in all districts. For children below the age of three, there are two main forms of structured education and care provision which are privately owned: Day Care Centres which are monitored by the Ministry of Education, and Child Minding services. In addition, many families leave their children with family members especially grandmothers or employ a person to look after the child in their own homes. Since 2015, all child-minding establishments are regulated by the Institute for Early Childhood Development, established by the *Institute for Early Childhood Development Act, 2014*. The main functions of the Institute are to: (a) advise the government on the development of policies, guidelines and standards to regulate the childminding service; (b) grant registration; (c) ensure that childminders comply with the guidelines and standards of childminding service and establishment prescribed by regulations; and (d) monitor and evaluate the childminding establishment and service provided by a childminder.

**Swaziland.** The Government has taken the following actions in order to address low enrolment rates and improve the quality of ECCE: (1) registration of ECCE centers starting in 2008 with a view to institute their regulation; (2) launch of the Early Learning and Development Standards in 2014; (3) strengthening of supervision and monitoring of ECCE centres at both the national and regional levels; (4) introduction of a 3-year part-time diploma programme for ECCE teachers at the Ngwane Teacher Training in 2013/2014; (5) regional awareness campaigns to create demand for the ECCE programme; and (6) establishment of an ECCE Panel to plan, coordinate, monitor and evaluate the provision and quality of ECCE services, standards and activities. The Government is planning to introduce grade 0 in every public primary schools across the country.

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<sup>24</sup> Ministry of Education [Seychelles] (2015).

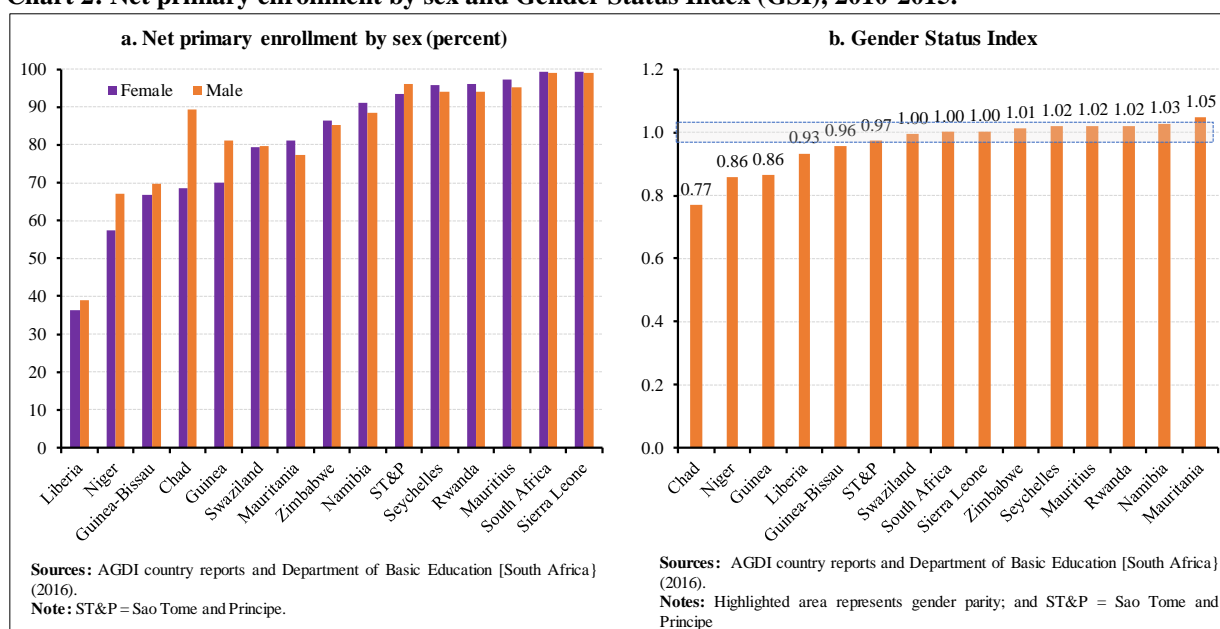
Sources: Ministry of Education [Seychelles] (2015), Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture [Namibia] (2016), (Ministry of Education and Training [Swaziland] (2015) and Ministry of Education [Rwanda] (2011).

## Primary education

### Enrollment

Net primary enrollment rates were above 90 percent for both sexes in **Mauritius, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Seychelles, Sierra Leone** and **South Africa**, and for females in **Namibia** (Chart 2a). In **Liberia**, net enrolment rates in 2015 were below 40 percent for both females and males, while the rate for females in Niger was below 60 percent. Mauritius, Namibia, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Seychelles, **Sierra Leone, South Africa, Swaziland** and **Zimbabwe** have achieved gender parity in net primary enrollment with GSI scores between 0.97 and 1.03 (Chart 2b). **Guinea** (20 percent), **Liberia** (20 percent) and **Niger** (25 percent) improved their GSI scores by at least 20 per cent between 1999/2000 and 2014/2015<sup>25</sup>. **Mauritania** had a slight gender disparity at the expense of boys in 2015 with 105 girls for every 100 boys enrolled in primary education. **Chad** had a GSI of 0.77, while **Guinea** and **Niger** had GSI scores of 0.86.

Chart 2: Net primary enrollment by sex and Gender Status Index (GSI), 2010-2015.



### Completion

In addition to enrollment, access to primary education should include progression and retention through primary school. In order to ensure that the measure of completion is comparable across the countries under review, Chart 3 uses data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics database where available<sup>26</sup>. Completion rates at the primary level were above 80 percent for both sexes in **Mauritius, Seychelles, South Africa** and **Zimbabwe**, and for females in **Namibia** (Chart 3a). Completion rates were below 40

<sup>25</sup> UNESCO Institute of Statistics database.

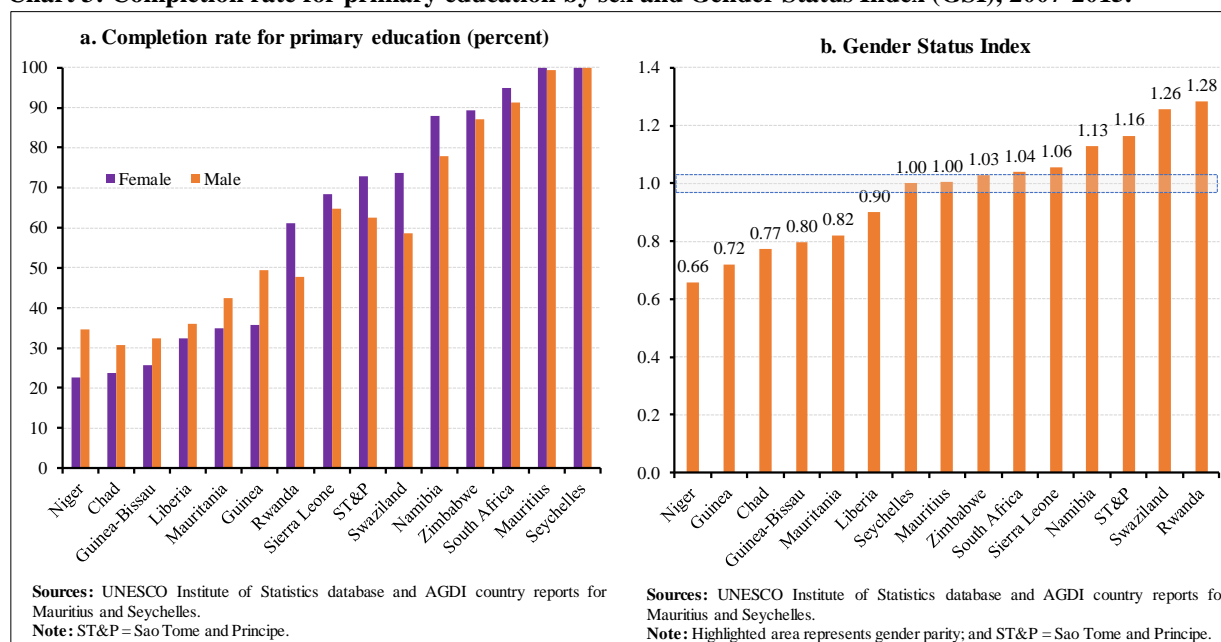
<sup>26</sup> The UNESCO Institute of Statistics defines the completion rate for primary education as the percentage of a cohort of children or young people aged 3-5 years above the intended age for the last grade of each level of education who have completed that grade.



percent in **Chad, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia** and **Niger** for both sexes, and for females in **Guinea** and **Mauritania**.

There is gender parity in completion rates in primary education in **Mauritius, Seychelles** and **Zimbabwe** with GSI scores of between 0.97 and 1.03 (Chart 3b). There is a significant gender disparity in favour of males in **Chad, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau** and **Niger**, with the GSI of the latter being 0.66. In **Namibia, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe** and **Swaziland** there is significant gender disparity favouring females. In **Guinea** with an overall GSI of 0.72, the GSI for completion rate for the poorest quintile was 0.42 compared to 0.84 for the richest quintile<sup>27</sup>.

**Chart 3: Completion rate for primary education by sex and Gender Status Index (GSI), 2007-2015.**



Both completion rates and GSI scores are relatively low for **Chad, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia** and **Niger** (Chart 3). Chart 2 highlights that this relationship is also the case for net enrollment rates. This means that in countries with low overall enrollment, girls are less likely to be enrolled and complete primary education than boys.

## Barriers to girls' education

Despite progress made in closing gender gaps in primary enrollment, significant barriers to girls' education remain. One of the barriers is poverty and marginalization. Poor children especially girls are at higher risk of not enrolling in primary school. In 2012, 5 percent of the richest boys had never attended school in **Guinea** compared to almost 65 percent of the poorest girls<sup>28</sup>. The corresponding figures were about 20 percent and 60 percent for **Chad** (for 2010) and 15 percent and 70 percent for **Niger**. In the latter, enrolment rates are disproportionately low for girls from rural areas and nomadic populations, and girls who are victims of slavery, descendants of slavery, and with disabilities<sup>29</sup>. In **Rwanda**, girls with

<sup>27</sup> UNESCO Institute of Statistics database.

<sup>28</sup> UNESCO (2015b).

<sup>29</sup> United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2017a: para. 28 (a)).



disabilities, Batwa girls and refugee girls experience societal, infrastructural and economic barriers to access education<sup>30</sup>.

A second important barrier is the costs involved in education children. The main cost of attending schools are school fees. There are no school fees for attending primary schools for all countries except for **South Africa**<sup>31</sup>. In the latter, there are no school fees at Quintile 1 to 3 schools and at public schools where a majority of parents has adopted a resolution not to charge fees<sup>32</sup>. Sixty-five percent of learners attending schools in 2015 were not paying school fees<sup>33</sup>. The removal of school fees usually leads to an increase in enrolment. In **Swaziland** for example, as a result of the enactment of the *Free Primary Education Act, 2010* total primary enrollment rose by 7 percent from 231, 555 in 2009 to an estimated 247, 717 in 2015<sup>34</sup>.

Countries have compulsory schooling laws to ensure that children enroll and attend primary school. Primary school attendance is compulsory for all children of primary school age for all countries covered by this report<sup>35</sup>. However, compulsory schooling laws may have limited effect on enrolment if they are not enforced. In **Seychelles**, the *Education Act, 2004* makes provision for a School Attendance Officer to ensure that children of compulsory age attend school. A parent who refuses to ensure that their children of school age attend school regularly is committing an offense and can be fined. No cases have been filed to date. In **Mauritius**, a Student Tracking System has been set up to reinforce compulsory attendance at school up to the age of 16.

Even when there are no direct school fees as a result of a no-fee policy, parents still face financial barriers in sending their children to school which may discourage attendance. These are indirect fees charged by schools, and indirect and opportunity costs of attending school (see Box 3). Whereas some of these costs are similar for boys and girls, others are higher for girls, including those that are related to ensuring that schools are safe for girls and cultural requirements are met, and to the opportunity costs of attending school in terms of the unpaid work that will not be performed by attending school.

### BOX 3 THE COSTS TO PARENTS FOR EDUCATING THEIR CHILDREN

A major barrier faced by poor parents in sending their children to school is the costs involved. There are four main costs that parents face in educating their children: (a) direct fees to attend school; (b) indirect fees to attend school; (c) indirect costs of attending school including transportation and clothing; and (d) opportunity costs of attending school including foregone contribution to household income and unpaid work. These are summarized in the table below.

**Table B1. Costs of schooling and their effects on girls**

Type of cost	Examples	Whether costs higher for girls than for boys
Direct fees	Tuition fees	✗
	Other fees, including for books, uniforms and pencils	✗
Indirect fees	Parent-teacher associations	✗
	To escort children to get to school	✓ if safety is an issue
	To supplement teacher salaries	✗
	To find secure housing for female teachers	✓ if female teachers are being used as role models for girls

<sup>30</sup> United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2017b).

<sup>31</sup> AGDI National Reports, ACPF (2016) and World Policy Centre Gender Database.

<sup>32</sup> Department of Basic Education [South Africa] (2016). In South Africa public schools are expected to supplement government spending by charging school fees. Each year the Minister of Basic Education determines the quintiles of public schools. Quintile 1 public schools are the poorest 20 percent of schools and quintile 5 the richest.

<sup>33</sup> Department of Basic Education [South Africa] (2016).

<sup>34</sup> Ministry of Education and Training [Swaziland] (2015).

<sup>35</sup> AGDI National Reports and World Policy Centre gender database.

Indirect costs	Transportation	✓ if safety is an issue
	Clothing	✓ cultural requirements
	Food	✗
Opportunity costs	Unpaid work including fetching water, collecting firewood, caring for elderly family members, the sick and younger siblings	✓ girls are traditionally more likely to perform these tasks compared to boys
	Contribution to household income	Depends depending on social norms

The cost of educating girls can be reduced by reducing or eliminating school fees; providing merit scholarships and stipends to girls that covers part or all of the direct and indirect costs of schooling, and/or that compensate for some of the opportunity costs of girls attending school; providing free uniforms, school meals and textbooks; building new schools closer to the homes of potential students and providing students with a means of transportation to school to reduce the time children spend commuting to school; providing school-based health programmes; and building school latrines.

**Sources:** Analysis based on Herz and Sperling (2004), Kremer and Holla (2009) and Ganimian and Murnane (2016).

In addition to cost and poverty, other barriers to girls' education are cultural and social norms, early marriage, low level of awareness of the importance of schools, insecurity on the way to and from schools, having to travel long distances to and from schools, low quality schools, school violence, lack of appropriate water and sanitation facilities, lack of female teachers, and the use of inappropriate pedagogical practices<sup>36</sup>. Practices such as early marriage, gender-based violence, preference for boys' education relative to girls' and gendered division of household labour are often manifestations of discriminatory gender norms<sup>37</sup>. In **Sierra Leone** most families chose to educate their males rather than their girls and women as they believe that by educating their boys they will support their own kin, whereas educating their girls they will benefit the families those girls marry into<sup>38</sup>. These gender norms can also be conveyed in learning resources.

These barriers are interdependent. For example, if as a result of poverty and/or income shocks parents face financial constraints that lead them to decide to withdraw their children from school, girls may be at a disadvantage relative to boys if there is preference for boys' education as a result of social norms about gender roles, if girls face higher burdens of household production, and there are security concerns combined with a lack of proximity to schools and safe transportation.

**Table 2: Barriers to girls' education mentioned in the education sector plans, selected countries.**

	Opportunity costs	Direct costs	Socio-cultural factors	Early marriage	Awareness*	Poverty/malnutrition	Insecurity on the way/from school	Distance from school	Low-quality schools	School violence	Lack of private latrine	Lack of water access points	Lack of female teachers	Inappropriate pedagogical practices
Guinea			●	●		●			●	●	●			
Niger	●		●	●		●							●	
Sierra Leone	●		●							●	●			
Zimbabwe	●	●	●	●	●		●			●	●	●		

**Source:** Global Partnership for Education (2017: Annex 3).

**Note:** \* low level of awareness of the importance of schools.

<sup>36</sup> Global Partnership for Education (2017).

<sup>37</sup> UNESCO (2015c).

<sup>38</sup> Ministry of Social Welfare, Gender and Children's Affairs [Sierra Leone] (2014).

Table 2 shows the key barriers to girls' education mentioned in the education sector plans for **Guinea, Niger, Sierra Leone** and **Zimbabwe**. Socio-cultural factors<sup>39</sup> are mentioned as a barrier in all 4 countries, while opportunity costs, early marriage, school violence and lack of private latrine are each mentioned in 3 of the national plans. Distance from school and inappropriate pedagogical practices were not mentioned as barriers.

## Secondary and tertiary education

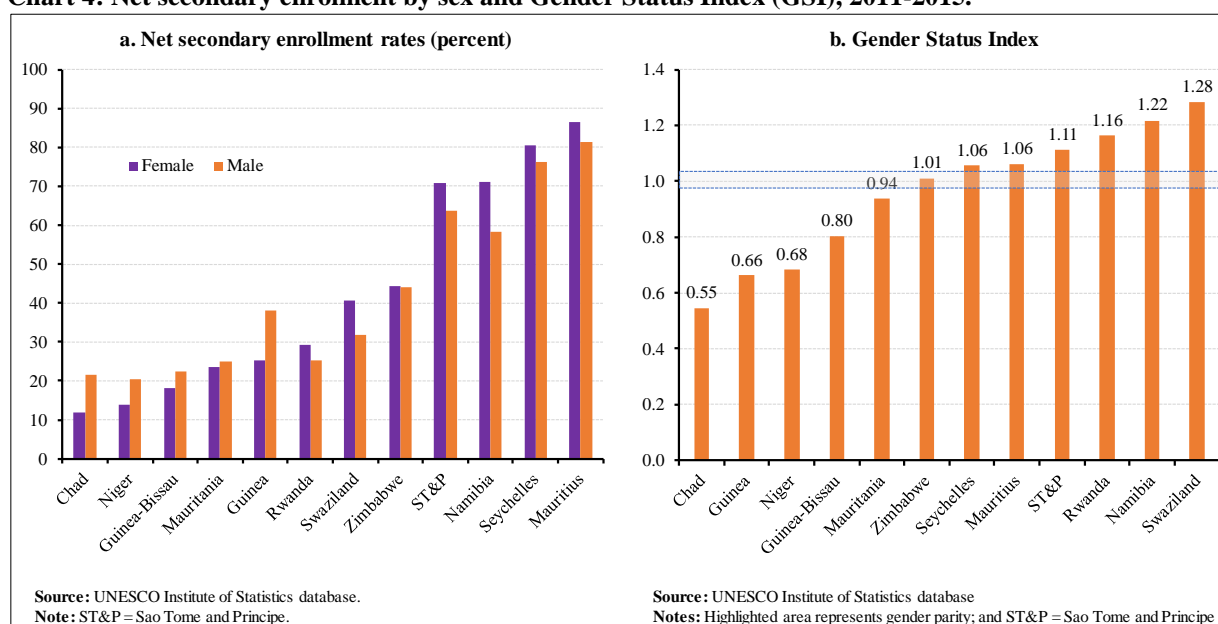
“States Parties shall take specific positive action to promote education and training for women at all levels and in all disciplines, particularly in the fields of science and technology”<sup>40</sup>.

Achieving gender parity at the primary level provides a good opportunity for boys and girls to attend secondary and tertiary institutions and acquire skills that will enable them to participate effectively in the formal labour market. Data on enrollment in secondary and tertiary education in the countries covered by this report is more limited compared to primary enrollment.

### Secondary education

Of the 12 countries having data on net enrollment in secondary education during the period 2010-2015, only **Zimbabwe** had achieved parity (Chart 4b). Six countries – **Mauritius, Namibia, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Seychelles** and **Swaziland** – had a GSI of above 1.03, meaning that boys are at a disadvantage. In **Mauritius**, girls are more likely than boys to be enrolled at the secondary level as they generally perform better than boys at the Certificate of Primary Education examinations at the end of primary schooling. In 2014, the pass rate for girls was nearly 80 percent against 67 percent for boys. In **Namibia** (GSI of 1.22) and **Swaziland** (GSI of 1.26) boys are at a severe disadvantage. Females in **Mauritius, Namibia, Sao Tome and Principe** and **Seychelles** had net enrollment rates of above 80 percent (Chart 4a).

**Chart 4: Net secondary enrolment by sex and Gender Status Index (GSI), 2011-2015.**



<sup>39</sup> The plans are not explicit as what are the socio-cultural factors.

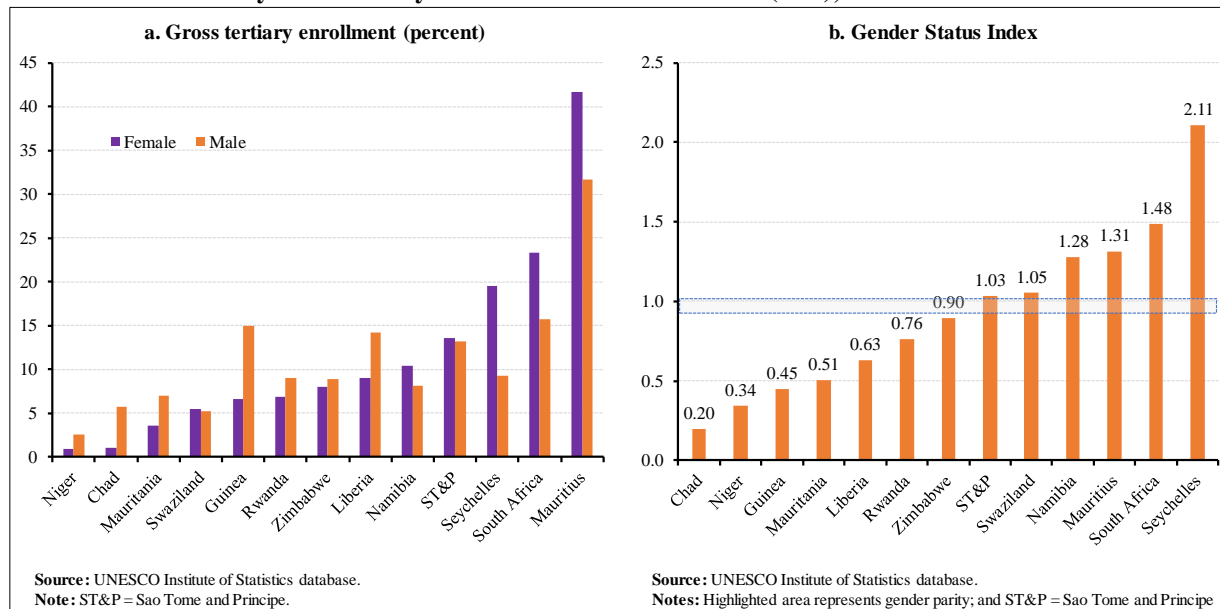
<sup>40</sup> African Union (2003: Article 12 (2)(b)).

Girls are at a severe advantage in **Chad** (GSI of 0.55), **Guinea** (GSI of 0.66), **Niger** (GSI of 0.68) and **Guinea-Bissau** (GSI of 0.80). As for primary education, these 4 countries along with **Mauritania** have some of the lowest net enrollment rates overall. Net enrollment rates for females in these countries are below 30 percent.

### Tertiary education

Calculating net enrollment rates for tertiary education is not appropriate because of the difficulties in determining an appropriate age group due to the wide variations in the duration of programmes at this level of education (see Box 1). Gross tertiary enrollment rates for females ranged from below 5 percent in **Chad**, **Mauritania** and **Niger** to 42 percent in **Mauritius** (Chart 5a). As is the case for net primary and secondary enrollment, low overall enrollment at the tertiary level is associated with gender disparity in favour of males in **Chad**, **Guinea**, **Mauritania** and **Niger**. There are severe gender disparities in favour of males in **Chad**, **Guinea**, **Liberia**, **Mauritania** and **Niger** with GSI scores below 0.70, and in favour of females in **Mauritius**, **Namibia**, **Seychelles** and **South Africa** (Chart 5b).

**Chart 5: Gross tertiary enrolment by sex and Gender Status Index (GSI), 2008-2015.**



The **Rwanda** AGDI Report noted that the relatively low GSI score of 0.76 for tertiary education can be explained by the limited number of females who obtains the required cut-off points during national examinations to access public tertiary education. In turn, the poor performance can be attributed to social expectations including the need to get married in their early twenties, that compel young women to spend a significant amount of time to respond to them leaving inadequate time for them to focus on their studies.

For those young women who make it to post-secondary educational institutions, a minority enroll in science, technology, engineering and mathematics programmes even in countries where tertiary education enrolment rates are biased in favour of girls. Young women tend to study social sciences and humanities subjects, while young men tend to focus on courses in science, engineering and computer sciences. This state of affairs leaves young women relatively unprepared for the world of work since employment opportunities are increasingly more limited in the social sciences and humanities, than in the science, engineering and technological fields.

**Table 3: Gross enrolment rates in tertiary institutions in Swaziland, 2014.**

Tertiary education institution	Gross enrollment			Percent enrolled (%)	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Manzini Industrial Training Centre	185	26	211	87.7	12.3
Nhlangano Industrial Training Centre	81	21	102	79.4	20.6
Siteki Industrial Training Centre	71	36	107	66.4	33.6
Gwamile Vocational and Commercial Training Institute	127	37	164	77.4	22.6
Swaziland College of Technology	562	268	830	67.7	32.3
Limkokwing University of Technology	1,327	1,044	2,371	56.0	44.0
Southern Africa Nazarene University	502	719	1,221	41.1	58.9
Ngwane Teacher Training College	171	324	495	34.5	65.5
William Pitcher College	200	186	386	51.8	48.2
Swaziland Christian University	133	162	295	45.1	54.9
University of Swaziland	2,809	3,090	5,899	47.6	52.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>6,168</b>	<b>5,913</b>	<b>12,081</b>	<b>51.1</b>	<b>48.9</b>

**Source:** Annual Education Census Report, 2014.

**Note:** Institutions that offer part-time courses, the police and correctional services have not yet been include although they offer opportunities for enrolment in tertiary education.

In **Swaziland**, females are disadvantaged in terms of enrollment in tertiary institutions offering technical and vocational subjects (the first 5 universities listed in Table 3) while the opposite is true for those institutions that offer health sciences and teacher training, save for William Pitcher College (Table 3). In **Mauritius** of all enrollees in science- and technology-related courses in 2015, 61.5 percent were males despite a higher number of females enrolled overall in tertiary education than males (Table 4). On an encouraging note, more females than males studied mathematics, medicine and the sciences. The number of females enrolled in education and social science courses were 3 and 4 times those of males' respectively.

**Table 4: Gross enrolment rates in tertiary institutions by field of study in Mauritius, 2015.**

Field of study	Gross enrollment			Percent enrolled (%)	
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
<b>Science and technology-related</b>	<b>5,270</b>	<b>3,294</b>	<b>8,564</b>	<b>61.5</b>	<b>38.5</b>
Engineering	1,682	403	2,085	80.7	19.3
Health Sciences	246	366	612	40.2	59.8
Information Technology	2,205	1,011	3,216	68.6	31.4
Mathematics	245	347	592	41.4	58.6
Medicine	481	568	1,049	45.9	54.1
Science	165	253	418	39.5	60.5
Other	246	346	592	41.6	58.4
<b>Others</b>	<b>8,613</b>	<b>15,023</b>	<b>23,636</b>	<b>36.4</b>	<b>63.6</b>
Accounting	2,562	3,602	6,164	41.6	58.4
Administration/Management	2,126	3,189	5,315	40.0	60.0
Banking/Finance	822	1,214	2,036	40.4	59.6
Business/Commerce/Marketing	509	797	1,306	39.0	61.0
Economics	188	342	530	35.5	64.5
Education	603	1,602	2,205	27.3	72.7
Languages	191	944	1,135	16.8	83.2
Law	531	881	1,412	37.6	62.4
Social Science	120	456	576	20.8	79.2
Travel/Hotel/Tourism	501	669	1,170	42.8	57.2
Other	460	1,327	1,787	25.7	74.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>14,095</b>	<b>18,493</b>	<b>32,588</b>	<b>43.3</b>	<b>56.7</b>

**Source:** Technical Education Commission [Mauritius] (2016).

**Note:** Enrolment in public and private institutions, excluding self-studies through distance learning and overseas students.

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Although accounting for 58 percent of those enrolled in tertiary education in **South Africa** in 2013, women accounted for 40 percent in Science, Engineering and Technology subjects, and above 70 percent in Humanities and social sciences, Education and Health and clinical sciences<sup>41</sup>. The percentage of students enrolled at the University of **Namibia** in 2012 according to selected faculties were as follows: Faculty of Humanities and Social Science (30 percent males and 70 percent females); School of Nursing and Public Health (19 percent males and 81 percent females); and Engineering and Information Technology (76 percent males and 24 percent females)<sup>42</sup>.

## Policies to improve girls' education

“States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure to them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the reduction of female student drop-out rates and the organization of programmes for girls and women who have left school prematurely.”<sup>43</sup>

As discussed above, the returns on investment in closing the gender gap and promoting girls' education are clear. In order for countries to reap the economic, political and social benefits of increased female education, governments need to identify the root causes of gender disparities, and invest in policies and programmes to address them, and ensure that girls enroll, attend, remain and succeed in schools.

Gross and net enrollment ratios may conceal high drop-out from the education system. In general, drop-out rates remain high at both primary and lower secondary levels in the countries under review.

In addition to the barriers that prevent girls from enrolling in primary schools discussed above, teenage pregnancy also contributes to girls either not enrolling or dropping out of secondary school. In some countries, girls are excluded from school for a period after pregnancy while others exclude girls from returning to the same school after pregnancy. In **Niger**, Decision No. 65/MEN/DEST/EX (1998) temporarily excludes girls who become pregnant from school and definitively excludes them in case they get married<sup>44</sup>. In **Rwanda**, girls who become pregnant are suspended for one year<sup>45</sup>. In March 2015, the Ministry of Education of **Sierra Leone** instituted a policy barring “visibly pregnant girls” from attending school and sitting their Basic Education Certificate Examination<sup>46</sup>.

Even where ‘re-entry policies’ do exist, harsh social sanctions and cost considerations may make it difficult for pregnant and parenting learners to return to school. In **Swaziland**, although government policy dictates that girls can return to school after pregnancy, in practice, adolescent mothers do not return to the same school as the communities and schools often resist this<sup>47</sup>. In **South Africa**, as a result of negative attitudes and practices from teachers and peers, only about one in three pregnant girls return to school after childbirth although the law allows them to do so<sup>48</sup>. In **Seychelles**, the *Pregnancy Policy, 2008* makes provision for students who are pregnant to reintegrate into the school system. However, a review of the policy revealed that only a small percentage of pregnant girls returned to school after delivery mainly because of financial problems and a lack of affordable child care facilities.

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<sup>41</sup> South Africa AGDI report, 2016.

<sup>42</sup> Ministry of Gender Equality and Child Welfare [Namibia] (2014).

<sup>43</sup> United Nations (1979: Article 10 (f)).

<sup>44</sup> United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2017a: para. 29 (b)).

<sup>45</sup> United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2017b).

<sup>46</sup> United Nations, CRC Committee (2016).

<sup>47</sup> Ministry of Education and Training [Swaziland] (2015).

<sup>48</sup> UNESCO (2015c: p. 28).

Other important contributors to girls dropping out of school include gender-based violence in, or on the way to and from school by community members including teachers and the lack of female teachers to act as role models for adolescent girls. In **Swaziland**, 1 in 3 girls have experienced some form of sexual violence by age 18<sup>49</sup>. Almost a third of reported cases of girls being forced or coerced into sex in **Sierra Leone** is perpetuated by male teachers<sup>50</sup>. In **Chad** and **Guinea** less than 12 percent of secondary teachers were females in 2012<sup>51</sup>.

The fact that some students cannot adapt well to a strictly academic curriculum can also lead them to be absent from school and ultimately drop out of school altogether. In order to deal with this, all secondary schools in **Seychelles** since 2011 offers a Technical and Vocational Education and Training programme in partnership with post-secondary training institutions and workplaces that take students on attachment. Students can opt to join this programme for the final two years of secondary schooling. The large majority of students choosing this option are boys, although the number of girls is gradually increasing – from a ratio of 1:7 in 2011 to 1:3 in 2014<sup>52</sup>. In **Mauritius**, boys accounted for two-thirds of total enrolment in the schools offering pre-vocational education in 2016. In 2013, 4.2 percent of females undertook vocational training in **Sierra Leone** compared to 7.1 percent of males, with women favouring studies in catering, hairdressing, and gara tie dyeing while the main common courses for males were carpentry, masonry, and automobile mechanics<sup>53</sup>.

Other factors driving drop-outs are the value placed on education and the need to contribute to household economic activities. In the General Household Survey undertaken in **South Africa** in 2015, 7.6 percent of 7 to 15 year olds and 9.5 percent of 16 to 18 year olds stated that the reason for not attending is because they regard education as being useless<sup>54</sup>. The *Education for All Monitoring Report 2015* for Sub-Saharan Africa reported that in **Namibia**, boys are taken out of school to herd cattle<sup>55</sup>. In **Liberia**, girls drop out of school and are recruited into the Sande secret society<sup>56</sup>.

Besides reducing the costs of attending school (see Box 3) and compulsory schooling laws, governments can undertake other cost-effective interventions likely to increase enrollment and retention of boys and girls in the formal educational system. These include: increased construction of schools in proximity of the populations; recruitment of teachers; increasing the quantity and quality of educational resources at schools which are appropriate to the particular setting; providing school grants; expanding instructional time; ensuring that school curricula are relevant and prepare children with skills for the labour market and further education; informing families of the long-term benefits of schooling; and increased parents' involvement in school management<sup>57</sup>.

**South Africa** introduced the National School Nutrition Programme in 1994 which reached 9.5 million learners in the 2015/16 academic year, while the Accelerated School Infrastructure Delivery Initiative Provincial School Build Programme have contributed to increase the proportion of children with access to schoolroom facilities that meet basic safety norms and standards<sup>58</sup>. In addition to introducing a school feeding programme, **Namibia** introduced mobile schools to ensure that children from nomadic communities remain in school and complete compulsory primary education, and gives allowances to schools where San learners are enrolled for transport and other logistical expenses incurred<sup>59</sup>. In **Rwanda**,

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<sup>49</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>50</sup> UNESCO (2015b).

<sup>51</sup> UNESCO (2015b).

<sup>52</sup> Ministry of Education [Seychelles] (2014).

<sup>53</sup> Statistics Sierra Leone (2015).

<sup>54</sup> Department of Basic Education [South Africa] (2016).

<sup>55</sup> UNESCO (2015b: p. 6).

<sup>56</sup> United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2015: para. 35 (a)).

<sup>57</sup> Ganimian and Murnane (2016).

<sup>58</sup> United Nations, Human Rights Council (2017).

<sup>59</sup> United Nations, Human Rights Council (2015a).



in addition to completely removing school fees, school stipends, school feeding and cash transfer schemes are provided by the government on a means testing basis to students from households that cannot afford other costs of education such as uniforms and learning materials<sup>60</sup>.

In terms of interventions specifically addressed to increase girls' enrolment and retention in schools, these include addressing biased cultural and social norms that impede girls' educational achievement, through education awareness programmes at school, at community level and in the media and making schools more "girl-friendly". The latter include the following<sup>61</sup>:

- Building conveniently located schools close to girl's homes;
- Providing sex segregated sanitation facilities especially for pubescent students;
- Ensuring that school environments are healthy, safe and free of gender-based violence;
- Providing gender-sensitive curriculum and textbooks, free of gender stereotypes;
- Provide more female teachers; and
- Ensuring that teacher recruitment, deployment and training are gender-sensitive.

Box 4 summarises the impact of "girl-friendly" schools on girls' enrolment in primary schools in **Burkina Faso**.

#### **BOX 4 THE EFFECTS OF "GIRL-FRIENDLY SCHOOLS ON PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT IN BURKINA FASO**

In 2005, the Government of Burkina Faso instituted the Burkinabe Response to Improve Girls' Chances to Succeed (BRIGHT) programme financed by the Millennium Challenge Corporation. The aim of the programme was to increase the enrolment of girls in primary schools by implementing a package of integrated education interventions in 132 rural villages. One component of the programme consisted of the construction of well-resourced schools, which included classrooms, desks, chairs, offices, housing for teachers, separate latrines for boys and girls, and clean water. Complementary interventions included free school meals, school kits and textbooks, take-home rations for girls based on attendance, information campaigns on the benefits of girls' education, placement of more female teachers, and gender-sensitivity training for teachers and school officials. The programme increased overall enrollment by 19 per cent, and increased girls' enrolment by almost 5 per cent more than that of boys.

**Source:** Kazianga et al. (2013).

The countries covered by this report have undertaken a number of these policies to prevent and protect female drop-outs. Table 5 highlights the interventions planned in the education sector plans of **Chad, Guinea, Niger, Sierra Leone and Zimbabwe**. The most popular interventions planned by the 5 countries were incentive measures for girls followed by awareness-raising campaigns, gender-sensitive curriculum and construction of private latrines. Incentive measures include school kits (**Chad and Guinea**), rations (**Chad**) and performance-based awards and scholarships (**Niger**).

**Table 5: Strategies to improve girls' education identified in the education sector plans, selected countries.**

<sup>60</sup> United Nations, Human Rights Council (2015b).

<sup>61</sup> Clarke (2011); Herz and Sperling (2004); Kremer and Holla (2009).

Country	Awareness-raising campaign	Recruitment of female teachers	Incentive measures for girls	Girls' schools/boarding schools	Support to communities	Capacity building*	School grants	Gender-sensitive curriculum	Gender training for teachers	Girls' clubs	Support courses for girls	Fight against violence	Construction of private latrines	Construction of water access points
Chad			●											
Guinea	●		●			●		●	●			●	●	●
Niger	●	●	●			●		●	●				●	
Sierra Leone	●		●								●		●	
Zimbabwe								●				●		

Source: Global Partnership for Education (2017: Annex 4).

Note: \* = Capacity building of management committees or women's associations.

A number of countries has re-entry and/or continuation policies for pregnant learners. **Namibia, Rwanda, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, South Africa** and **Swaziland** have policies that makes provision for girls who become pregnant to go back to school once they deliver safely<sup>62</sup>. The policies in **Namibia** and **Rwanda** advocates for a one-year waiting period, while **South Africa** pregnant learners have a two-year waiting period, before girls can return to school in the interest of the rights of the child. The policy in **South Africa** has been challenged in a court case in 2013 where the Court held that it violates pregnant learners' constitutional rights and have to be reviewed<sup>63</sup>. In **Namibia**, although the one-year absent rule also apply to schoolboys who impregnate girls, they are rarely identified<sup>64</sup>. In **Seychelles**, the policy is being revised to ensure that pregnant learners and young mothers are better supported psychologically and financially to continue their studies. Pregnant and parenting learners in **South Africa** have access to unconditional cash transfers so that they can continue their studies<sup>65</sup>. Although there is no policy yet in **Mauritius**, pregnant girls are allowed to return to school to pursue their education after giving birth of their baby.

In **Rwanda**, the Imbuto Foundation rewards the best performing girls in different school cycles under the Promotion of Girls' Education Campaign launched in 2005 under the leadership of the First Lady<sup>66</sup>. **Liberia** offers special scholarships for girls specializing in education and natural sciences<sup>67</sup>. **Chad, Guinea, Liberia, Niger** and **Rwanda** have developed policies on girls' education<sup>68</sup>, while units dedicated to the promotion of girls' enrollment in schools have been set up in the ministry responsible for education in **Liberia** (Gender Education Unit) and **Niger** (Directorate for the Promotion of Girls' School Enrolment). **Sierra Leone** has a Code of Conduct for Teachers and Other Education Personnel (2009) to, among others, ensure that sexual abuse and harassment in schools are addressed and punished. Box 5 summarizes the objective and key actions identified in the policy on girls' education for **Rwanda**.

#### BOX 5 PLANNED INTERVENTIONS IN THE GIRLS' EDUCATION POLICY, 2008 OF RWANDA

The overall objective of the Policy is to guide and promote sustainable action aimed at the progressive elimination of gender disparities in education and training as well as in management structures.

<sup>62</sup> Respectively, Policy for the Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy in the Education Sector (2009), Pregnancy Policy (2008), Education Act (2004) and Prevention and Management of Learner Pregnancy (2007).

<sup>63</sup> United Nations, Human Rights Council (2017: para. 79).

<sup>64</sup> Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture [Namibia] (2016).

<sup>65</sup> UNESCO note on early and unintended pregnancy.

<sup>66</sup> Imbuto Foundation website (2017). Available at: <http://imbutofoundation.org/>

<sup>67</sup> United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2014).

<sup>68</sup> Global Partnership for Education (2017), Ministry of Social Welfare, Gender and Children's Affairs [Sierra Leone] (2014) and Rwanda AGDI Report.

Some of the key actions envisioned by the Policy include:

- Mainstream gender disaggregation and analysis in all reporting, data collection and research by developing a tracking system for all school pupils;
- Provide alternative non formal means of education for children (catch up centres) who are unable to attend formal school and introduce means of moving between the two systems;
- Strengthen sex and family life education in the school curriculum;
- Establish and increase numbers of technical schools in each Province to offer a diversified education programme for girls and boys;
- Provide separate facilities for boys and girls, particularly sanitation and playgrounds;
- Provide subsidies and scholarships for areas where retention and completion rates are low; and
- Develop laws, codes of conduct for teachers and pupils to protect special needs children, especially girls, from sexual, physical and mental abuse.

The affirmative actions to increase girls' access to and participation in secondary and higher education:

- Review teaching methods and assessments of learning achievement at secondary schools and higher educational institutions to ensure girls' participation is not inhibited;
- Provide remedial courses for girls who are at risk of failing or dropping out of secondary or higher education and place special emphasis for re-entry for girls who become pregnant during their education;
- Provide intensive remedial holiday courses for girls who wish to enter male dominated fields;
- Provide fee free tuition for 20 girls a year who qualify for science and/or technology training and education;
- Sensitise families and local communities through Parents-Teachers Associations about the importance of girls completing formal education;
- Consider supplementary points to girls or use a lower cut-off point for their entry into higher education;
- Set 5 year binding targets (50:50) for the enrolment of girls and boys into institutions where girls are underrepresented;
- Build more girls only boarding schools and establish them as centres of excellence for demonstrating girls' achievements in schooling;
- Work towards 50:50 balances of appointments of females and males as head teachers and Principals; and
- Identify and train women with potential at entry and middle management levels and fast track them into education management positions.

**Source:** Ministry of Education [Rwanda] (2008).

**[To update]** Table A1 measures how far governments have met the regional and global commitments to prevent and protect female drop-outs in the countries covered by this report. Countries scored themselves highly on institutional mechanism and policy commitment. Weak areas were research and budget. **Mauritius** and **Seychelles** scored themselves above 80 percent on this indicator, while **Guinea** and **South Africa** scored below 60 percent. Some of the policies taken by **Liberia** to promote the education of girls are highlighted in Box 6.

#### **BOX 6 SELECTED INTERVENTIONS TO IMPROVE GIRLS' EDUCATION IN LIBERIA**

- The Girls' Education Policy (2006) approved.
- The Education Reform Act adopted in 2011. In terms of advancing girls' education at all levels, the Act aims at:
  - i. Free and compulsory education for all students of primary school nationally.
  - ii. Recruiting and training more female teachers;
  - iii. Providing counseling in schools for girls;
  - iv. Effecting appropriate sanctions against teachers who commit sexual abuse and assault of students;
  - v. Offering life skills at school to raise the self-esteem of girls; and
  - vi. Increasing the availability of school scholarships for girls.

- The Policy on Girls’ Education revised in 2013 to align with the Education Reform Act.
- The Gender Education Unit of the Ministry of Education raises awareness to promote the reporting, investigation and prosecution of gender-based violence.

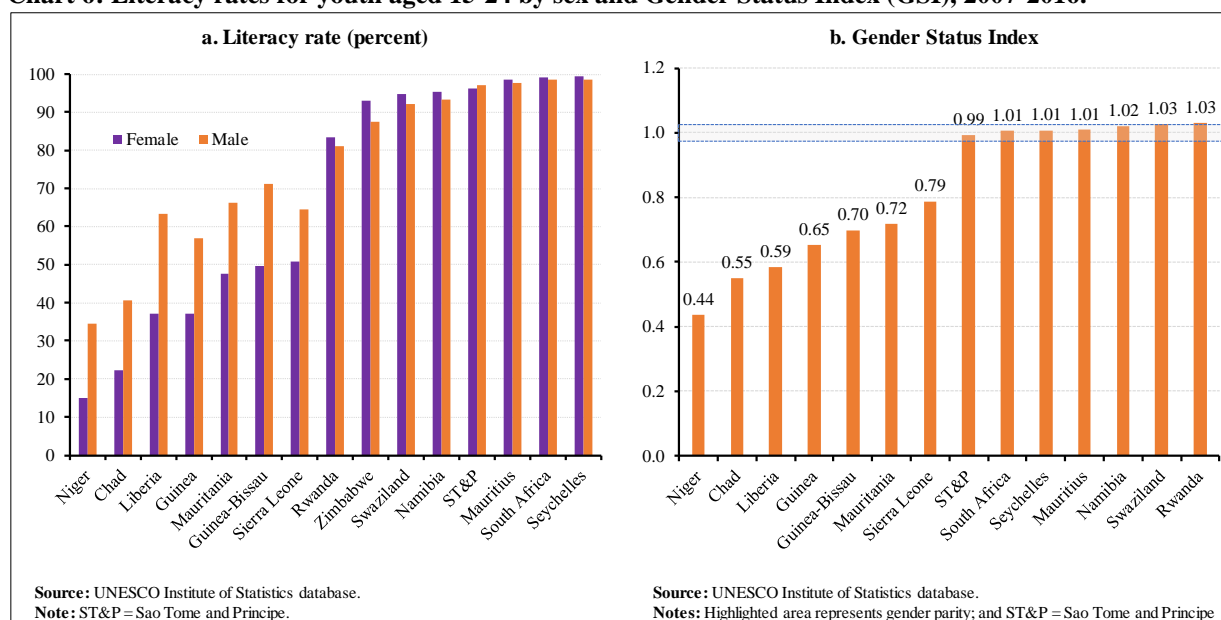
**Source:** United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2014).

## Literacy rate

“States Parties shall take specific positive action to promote literacy among women.”<sup>69</sup>

Participation in formal education is important to ensure that men and women participate fully in the economic and political life of their communities, and to improve their health outcomes and social welfare level as well as for their children.

**Chart 6: Literacy rates for youth aged 15-24 by sex and Gender Status Index (GSI), 2007-2016.**



The literacy rates of youth aged 15 to 24-year-old were above 80 percent for both sexes and there is gender parity in literacy rates in **Rwanda**, the **Small Island Developing States** and **Southern African countries** covered by this report (Chart 6). Except for **Sao Tome and Principe**, literacy rates for young women are also higher than that of young men for these countries. For the other countries in **Central and West Africa**, literacy rates for young women are below 51 percent and there are severe gender disparities at the expense of girls with respect to literacy rates, in particular in **Chad**, **Liberia** and **Niger**. Box 7 highlights the efforts of **Liberia**, **Seychelles**, **Sierra Leone** and **Swaziland** to improve literacy.

### BOX 7 LITERACY PROGRAMMES IN LIBERIA, SEYCHELLES, SIERRA LEONE AND SWAZILAND

Seychelles and Swaziland have attained gender parity in youth literacy rates with rates of above 90 percent for both sexes (Chart 7). Young women in Liberia and Sierra Leone are at a disadvantage in terms of literacy rate.

<sup>69</sup> African Union (2003: Article 12(2)(a)).

**Liberia.** Adopted in 2011, the Alternative Basic Education is a non-formal education program targeting overage youth and adults of both sexes who have not attended school. It incorporates family planning, HIV and AIDS, computer and livelihoods in its curriculum. In addition, the Special Girls' Education Initiative is a night school programme designed for pregnant teenage girls, dropouts and mothers in two of Liberia's fifteen counties.

**Seychelles.** The Adult Learning and Distance Education Centre offers district-based adult literacy programmes free of charge. The programme starts with literacy in Kreol and then moves to English and French, and basic numeracy. Courses are offered at three progressive levels, and each level may last one to two years. An average of 120 participants per year successfully completed the programme over the past ten years, the large majority of whom are women – over 80% - who also tend to remain on the programme for longer.

**Sierra Leone.** In 1992, the government established the Non-Formal Education Programme targeting school age girls, of 14 years and above, in peri-urban communities and remote villages with little or no formal schooling. Features and incentives included free tuition, placement/enrolment in schools with close proximity to pupils' homes, flexible and shorter school hours. These encouraged communities to release girls who are typically engaged in household chores and street hawking, to attend these less conventional schools.

**Swaziland.** As part of the government's aim of reducing illiteracy, Sebenta National Institute within the Ministry of Education and Training runs 3 general education and training programmes. These are: (a) Basic Literacy, a 9-month course in reading, writing and arithmetic with some focus on encouraging awareness of social and economic development; (b) Basic and Post-basic English and Numeracy, a 2-year course that reaches a Grade 4 equivalence and includes an internal examination; and (c) Non-formal Upper Primary Education, a 2-year programme in primary school subjects, with an external examination at the Grade 7 level.

**Sources:** United Nations, CEDAW Committee (2014), Ministry of Education [Seychelles] (2015), Ministry of Education and Training [Swaziland] (2015), and Ministry of Social Welfare, Gender and Children's Affairs [Sierra Leone] (2014).

## Education on human rights

“States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to integrate gender sensitisation and human rights education at all levels of education curricula including teacher training”<sup>70</sup>.

[To update] Table A2 measures how far governments have met the regional and global commitments to integrate human rights education at all levels of the education system. in the countries covered by this report. Countries scored themselves highly on policy commitment, institutional mechanism and involvement of civil society. The weakest area overall was research. **Niger** scored itself highest on this indicator followed by **Rwanda**, while **Swaziland** scored itself lowest.

In **Guinea-Bissau**, the Ministry of Education introduced the "Education for Citizenship" in the school curriculum starting in the academic year 2014/2015 to address issues related to human rights<sup>71</sup>. In **Mauritius**, a Human Rights Curriculum has been developed as part of Social Studies for Lower Secondary. In **Seychelles**, Secondary School students are taught their rights and duties as citizens under the Constitution<sup>72</sup>. Citizenship Education has also been incorporated into Primary School Curriculums, which touches upon human rights issues. In **South Africa**, a booklet entitled *The Constitution Made Easy for Learners* has been distributed to learners throughout the country<sup>73</sup>.

<sup>70</sup> African Union (2003: Article 12(1)(e)).

<sup>71</sup> United Nations, Human Rights Council (2015c).

<sup>72</sup> United Nations, Human Rights Council (2015d).

<sup>73</sup> United Nations, Human Rights Council (2017).

# Annex

**Table A1: Scores for policies to prevent and protect female dropout.**

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and evaluation	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad															26	
Guinea	0	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	15	26	58
Guinea-Bissau															26	
Liberia															26	
Mauritania															26	
Mauritius	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	0	1	2	2	2	1	21	26	81
Namibia	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	19	26	73
Niger	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	19	26	73
Rwanda	1	2	0	0	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	19	26	73
Sao Tome and Principe															26	
Seychelles	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	26	26	100
Sierra Leone															26	
South Africa	1	1	2	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	15	26	58
Swaziland	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	19	26	73
Zimbabwe															26	

Source: AGDI National Reports.

**Table A2: Scores for education on human/ women's rights.**

	Law	Policy commitment	Development of a plan	Targets	Institutional mechanism	Budget	Human resources	Research	Involvement of civil society	Information and dissemination	Monitoring and evaluation	Capacity enhancement	Accountability/transparency	Total	Maximum score	Percentage (%)
Chad															26	
Guinea	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	19	26	73
Guinea-Bissau															26	
Liberia															26	
Mauritania															26	
Mauritius	1	2	2	1	2	2	2	0	2	2	1	2	1	20	26	77
Namibia	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	20	26	77
Niger	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	24	26	92
Rwanda	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	0	2	2	2	1	2	21	26	82
Sao Tome and Principe															26	
Seychelles	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	13	26	50
Sierra Leone															26	
South Africa	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	18	26	69
Swaziland	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	10	26	38
Zimbabwe															26	

Source: AGDI National Reports.



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