SYNTHESIS REPORT
CASE STUDIES ON
INCLUSIVE APPROACHES TO LEARNING IN AFRICA:
GIRLS AND WOMEN’S EDUCATION

Edited by Dr Rita Bissoonauth

May 2016
African Union International centre for Girls and Women’s Education
AU/CIEFFA
About AU/CIEFFA

The African Union - International Centre for the Education of Girls and Women in Africa (AU/CIEFFA) is a specialized institution of the African Union since 2004, dealing with women and girls’ education following Decision Assembly/AU/DEC.44 (III). The centre is located in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso.

AU/CIEFFA has been established under the Department of Human Resources Science and Technology at the African Union Commission to coordinate the promotion of girls and women’s education in Africa, with a view of achieving their economic, social and cultural empowerment.

The centre works closely with AU member States and government, civil society and international partners to implement its programme and activities and maintains specific working relationship with UNESCO to ensure a strong partnership in the implementation of its programs. AU/CIEFFA is also a UNESCO institution of Category 2.

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FOREWORD

Education is a basic human right and essential for the exercise of all other human rights. The African Union has declared the year 2016 as the “African Year of Human Rights with particular focus on the Rights of Women”. International legal obligations for the right to education have been endorsed by Member States. Governments have the obligation to fulfill these legal and political commitments and ensure not only access to education but also quality education. Yet millions of children and adults, especially girls and women remain deprived of educational opportunities.

Agenda 2063 envisions a people-centred development, gender equality and youth empowerment, which place the African people at the centre of all continental efforts to ensure their participation in the transformation of the continent, and to build caring and inclusive societies. Emphasis is placed on the fact that no society can reach its full potential, unless it empowers women and youth and removes all obstacles to women’s full participation in all areas of human endeavours. Africa must provide an enabling environment for its women, children and young people to flourish and reach their full potential.

Even though a lot of progress has been made in reducing gender disparities in educational systems, there still remains a lot of work to be done. Simply getting girls into primary school does not ensure that they complete their schooling. In many African countries, girls face a distinctive set of barriers to learning, especially when they reach post-primary levels of education.

This synthesis on the member states’ experiences on girls’ education outlines the fact that gender equality in education remains a serious issue of social justice. Gender equality is a more complex notion than gender parity and harder to measure. It requires moving beyond counting the numbers of boys and girls in school to exploring the quality of girls’ and boys’ experiences in the classroom and school community, their achievements in education institutions and their aspirations for the future.

It is my hope that you will find this synthesis of these case studies useful in promoting the concept of gender equality in your institutions.

Finally I would like to thank UNESCO for taking this initiative of best practice sharing of girls education and inclusive education in different regions of the world and especially in Africa.

H.E. Dr Martial De-Paul Ikounga
Commissioner
Human Resources, Science and Technology
PREFACE

This project is a collaboration between AU/CIEFFA and UNESCO. UNESCO has kindly provided AU/CIEFFA with funding to conduct five case studies in the African continent.

The African Union is divided up in five regions: North, South, East, West and Central. As Regional Economic Communities (RECs) are the implementing arms of the African Union Commission, it was through RECs that the countries were identified. The following criteria were used to identify countries in the regions:

- Gross Admission rates of girls in schools at pre-primary, primary and secondary
- Gross Enrolment Ratio girls in schools at pre-primary, primary and secondary
- Percentage of girls in the education system

The RECs identified the following countries in their regions:

1. North: Algeria (REC contacted: Community of Sahel-Saharan States - CENSAD)
2. East: Tanzania (REC contacted: Eastern African Community - EAC)
3. West: Côte d’Ivoire (Request made by Côte d’Ivoire to UNESCO office to be part of the project)
4. Central: Chad (REC contacted: Economic Community of Central African States- ECCAS)

Some RECs identified the consultants directly and some others requested Ministries to find the consultants. This was quite a lengthy process, especially when Ministries are involved.

The main purpose of this project was to prepare in-depth case studies of countries that are providing education to diverse groups of learners, with special emphasis on girls’ education. Two types of information were gathered: the available qualitative and quantitative research knowledge on inclusive/girls’ education and reports on the inclusive/girls’ education programmes and projects being carried out.

This case study compilation has contributed to bridging the gap amongst practice, research and policy in the area of girls and women’s education and will contribute to the global knowledge data base for inclusive approaches to teaching and learning.

The objectives of country specific case studies were to:

1. Provide opportunities for knowledge sharing and learning with other Member States
2. Strengthen the practice-policy-research connections
3. Inform teacher education institutions to rethink the way teachers are trained

Dr Rita Bissoonauth
AU/CIEFFA Coordinator
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- Ms Colette Benoudji, Chad
- Ms Rest Lasway, Tanzania
- Mr Joseph François Azoh, Ivory Coast
- Mr Lamine Kadi, Algeria

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- Dr. Abdularouf Abdulaal, CENSAD
- Ms Isabelle Boukinda, ECCAS
- Ms Grace Naburi, Ministry of Education, Tanzania
- Mr Ydo Yao, UNESCO, Ivory Coast

We would also like to recognize and thank the UNESCO office of Addis Ababa for their invaluable support to this project especially Ms Malebogo Bowe for her patience and commitment in ensuring that all the documents required and payment were sent within the time frame allocated.

I would also to thank Dr Raymonde Agossou and Dr Beatrice Njenga for their contributions in enriching this document with their valuable comments.

Final acknowledgements go Mrs Florence Migeon from UNESCO Paris for enabling AU/CIEFFA to be part of this international project on inclusive/girls’ education and her valuable editorial contributions to the synthesis and the different country reports.
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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AAU</td>
<td>Association of African Universities</td>
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<tr>
<td>AGEI</td>
<td>Africa Gender Equality Index</td>
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<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
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<td>ACAR</td>
<td>Annual Continental Activities Report</td>
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<td>ACCESS</td>
<td>Continental Education Strategy for Africa</td>
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<td>ADEA</td>
<td>Association for the Development of Education in Africa</td>
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<td>AfDB</td>
<td>African Development Bank</td>
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<td>ANAFE</td>
<td>African Network for Agriculture, Agroforestry and Natural Resources Education</td>
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<td>ANCEFA</td>
<td>African Network Campaign on Education for All</td>
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<td>APN</td>
<td>African Peacebuilding Network</td>
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<td>AQRM</td>
<td>African Quality Rating Mechanism</td>
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<td>AUC</td>
<td>African Union Commission</td>
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<td>AUF</td>
<td>Association of French-speaking Universities</td>
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<td>AWARD</td>
<td>African Women in Agricultural Research and Development</td>
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<td>CAMES</td>
<td>Higher Education Council for Africa and Madagascar</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAP</td>
<td>Common African Position</td>
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<tr>
<td>CESA 16-25</td>
<td>Continental Education Strategy for Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>CIEFFA</td>
<td>Centre for the Education of Girls and Women in Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>CSEEE</td>
<td>Certificate of Secondary Education Examination</td>
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<td>CSTVET</td>
<td>Continental Strategy for TVET</td>
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<td>DP</td>
<td>Development Partner</td>
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<td>ECCAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of Central African States</td>
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<td>ECCE</td>
<td>Early Childhood Care and Education</td>
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<td>ECOWAS</td>
<td>Economic Community of West African States</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>EI</td>
<td>Education International</td>
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<td>ESD</td>
<td>Education for sustainable development</td>
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<td>EST</td>
<td>Education, Science, and Technology</td>
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<td>FAWE</td>
<td>Forum for African Women Educationalists</td>
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<td>GCE</td>
<td>global citizenship education</td>
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<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrolment Ratio</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
<td>General Domestic Product</td>
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<tr>
<td>GMR</td>
<td>Global Monitoring Report</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
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<td>M&amp;E</td>
<td>Monitoring and Evaluation</td>
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<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MESVTEE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training, and Early Education</td>
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<td>MYS</td>
<td>Mean years of schooling</td>
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<td>NEPAD</td>
<td>New Partnership for Africa's Development</td>
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<td>NFET</td>
<td>Non-formal Education and Training</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPCA</td>
<td>NEPAD Partnership and Coordinating Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>NWP</td>
<td>North-West Province, Zambia</td>
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<tr>
<td>REC</td>
<td>Regional Economic Community or Communities</td>
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<td>SARUA</td>
<td>Southern African Regional Universities Association</td>
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<td>SSA</td>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
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<td>SDGs</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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<td>STC</td>
<td>Specialized Technical Committee</td>
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<td>STISA</td>
<td>Science, Technology, Innovation Strategy for Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
<td>Technical and Vocational Education</td>
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<td>TVSD</td>
<td>Technical and Vocational Skills Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNECA</td>
<td>United Nations Economic Commission for Africa</td>
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<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
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<td>WEF</td>
<td>World Education Forum</td>
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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This is a synthesis report on girls and women’s education in five countries representing each one of the five regions of Africa as defined by the African Union. This report is timely. It comes at a time when the African leadership, both in discourse and practice, is resolute on ensuring the involvement of Africa’s female population, which represents over half of the continent’s total population, in shaping the continent’s collective future as envisioned in the AU’s 2063 Agenda. This contribution, of course, can only be meaningful and sustainable if, and only if, all the barriers currently standing in the way of girls and women’s full participation in education are removed.

This synthesis report is an attempt to provide a snapshot of the current situation of girls and women’s education in Africa based on the five in-depth case studies contributed by Algeria (North Africa), Chad (Central Africa), Ivory Coast (West Africa), Tanzania (East Africa) and Zambia (Southern Africa) and additional research carried out to supplement the lack of data. In spite of the limitations inherent in extrapolating from a small sample of countries, the synthesis provides insights into issues that, by and large, are common across the continent even if contextual variables provide interesting outcomes in different countries and settings.

I. Analysis of case studies and additional research

It is noteworthy that in addition to the data provided by the country case studies, the report relied on other sources of information to depict a more complete picture of national situations. This triangulation of sources shed a very useful light on how girls and women fare in all the sub-sectors of the education system as the country reports could not cover all of them. The following analytical lenses have been used to tease out key explanatory factors of achievement/progress or lack of it thereof in terms of:

a. Overall educational development as it relates to inclusive education in the five countries with special focus on girls and women’s education;

b. Gender parity in terms of access and completion at primary, secondary education, TVET and higher/tertiary education. To the extent possible, data on women’s participation in adult education was also included in the analysis.

c. Policies, legal frameworks and programs put in place to implement inclusive education with emphasis on girls and women’s education and their outcomes in terms of access, quality and relevance and equity.

a. Overall educational development and inclusive education

i. Building a conducive inclusive educational environment is determined by the level of educational development achieved by a country. In general, and all things being equal, a country’s wealth determines the educational opportunities made available to all; and girls and women benefit from this as in some cases the educational gains are in their favour. In Algeria,
which has achieved the highest level of educational development, girls at secondary and higher education outperform boys as they complete their schooling and pass exams more successfully.

ii. However, wealth isn’t enough. It needs to be coupled with sound policies and strategies. In one particular case, Tanzania, which does not have the wealth of Algeria, boasts of a gender gap that is less acute than Algeria as shown by its literacy rates (72% for women vs. 76% for men) and high Gender Development Index (GDI) (0.971), the highest of the five countries. This is explained by a strong political will and sound policymaking. However, being a wealthy country willing to invest in educating its population definitely helps in promoting inclusiveness as demonstrated by Algeria on all the indicators used.

iii. Wars and civil conflicts are a major impediment to girls and women’s education and well-being in general. In spite of an improvement of its per capita income in recent years thanks to the exploitation of an oil manna, Chad is still struggling to develop its education sector in order to provide more educational opportunities to all the segments of its population due to wars and internal strife. Similarly, Ivory Coast has lost momentum in its development due to the civil war that broke out between 2002 and 2011. Therefore, and for both countries, participation of girls and women in education is in general still low compared to Algeria, Tanzania and Zambia.

b. Gender parity in terms of access and completion at primary, secondary education, TVET, tertiary education and adult education

i. At primary level, an analysis of access indicators at the primary education levels reveals that Algeria, Cote d’Ivoire, Tanzania and Zambia have achieved quasi gender parity. Tanzania and Zambia have even made a more impressive progress than Algeria by achieving GPIs that show a trend slightly in favour of girls: 1.021 (2013) and 1.022 (2014) respectively. In contrast to the four countries mentioned above, Chad is far from achieving gender parity. GPI in primary education is 0.70 and large disparities exist between urban and rural areas.

ii. In terms of completion or survival in the primary education system, girls fare differently in the five countries. Girls are more at risk of dropping out in Zambia, Ivory Coast and Chad whereas in Algeria, and Tanzania it is the boys that drop out at higher rate. In Ivory Coast, 4 out of 10 children are unable to complete primary education. In Chad, the completion rate in primary education is estimated at 37.8% at national level and girls are the main victims of this state of affairs.

1 Education for All 2015 National Review, Tanzania.
2 Education for All 2015 National Review, Zambia
iii. **At the Secondary level**, with the exception of Algeria, the other four countries have not completely eliminated gender disparities in terms of access. However, Tanzania and Zambia have made significant progress in closing the gender gap (0.90).

iv. With respect to completion/transition at secondary level, Algeria reports that girls not only survive the system better than boys but they also outperform them significantly in learning achievements as recorded during national exams.

v. In Zambia, Ivory Coast and Chad the issue of completion is also a main concern. Completion at lower secondary level in Ivory Coast is 34.6\% in spite of the progress made to arrive at this between 2006 and 2014. Females have fared less well compared to boys with a completion rate of 29\% against 40\%. At the upper secondary, 24.8\% of boys complete their schooling compared to 18.7\% of girls.

vi. In Chad, repetition, a key determinant of failure at completing school, is rampant. It is 17.5\% at lower secondary and 24.3\% at upper secondary. Girls are the hardest-hit due to cultural practices such as early marriages and gender roles at home and society.

vii. **Technical and Vocational Education and Training** (TVET). Across the five countries, females are underrepresented due to sociocultural biases. Even though progress has been made to increase the representation of females in the sub-sector, the drive to equality is an uphill battle as most countries started from a very low base. For example, in Algeria, where girls represented 60\% of the enrolment in secondary education in 2007 only 34\% were in TVET institutions. The Gender Parity Index (GPI) in TVET institutions in Tanzania was 0.2 in 2006.

viii. **Higher/Tertiary Education.** In general, women, as students and faculty, are still a minority in African tertiary institutions. In terms of gross enrolment rates, only 4.8\% of women access this sub-sector against 7.3\% of men (UNESCO, 2010). However, it is important to note that the GPI improved during the 1990s and stood in 2000 at 0.68; but it has stagnated ever since. Women’s survival and success rates at this level is unfortunately not well documented statistically and qualitatively.

ix. **Literacy and Adult Basic Education and Training.** In the five countries, and on the whole, women and girls are more affected by illiteracy and lack of marketable skills. In Algeria, literacy rate for women in the 15-24 age bracket is 89.1\% compared to 94.1\% for men. In Chad, the other extreme, the rates are at 44\% for women against 53.8\% for men. Using the mean year of schooling (MYS) as a proxy indicator for levels of marketable skills and competences, girls and women do not have an equal access to and survival chances in education and training as men (4.8 for women to 7.8 in Algeria and 1 to 2.9 in Chad). In older age brackets (i.e. 24-45), illiteracy
becomes a serious concern, making participation in adult basic education and training a top priority for African countries. Unfortunately, the sub-sector is underfunded and relies mostly on donors and civil society for its development.

c. Policies, legal frameworks and programs

The key determinant of success in promoting the education and training of girls and women is political will coupled with innovative policy-making and planning/programming.

I. In Algeria government has since independence in 1962 placed education and training at the top of its development priorities. The country currently devotes 7% of its GDP to education and since 2003 it has been implementing reforms geared towards providing access to a large number of children. As a result, 10 million children and young people are currently in the system, representing 25% of the country’s population. In terms of laws and legal frameworks, the basic principles of an inclusive education system have been entrenched in the Algerian Constitution which stipulates that the right to education is guaranteed and education must be free of charge as provided by law.

II. The Zambian Constitution, unlike the Algerian one, does not make education compulsory. However, the country’s main legislation on education, the Education Act 2011, identifies each person’s rights to early childhood education, basic education and high school education.

III. Just like Zambia, Chad does not allocate a very important share of its GDP to education as it only stands at 2.6% in spite of its newfound wealth. However, the Constitution of Chad declares that a basic education of 10 years is free and compulsory without guaranteeing it in law.

IV. In Ivory Coast the share of the GDP devoted to education increased from 4.6% in 2011 to 5.3% in 2014. The current post-conflict government in Ivory Coast has made education one of the pillars of the reconstruction of the country. However, the country’s Constitution passed in 2000 does not have provisions for compulsory education and it is now being revised to include a provision for compulsory basic education up to the age of 16.

V. The Tanzanian Constitution guarantees all citizens equal access to health, education, culture, information, vocational training and employment. In 1999 Tanzania formulated a national vision (2025 Vision) geared towards improving the quality of life for all its population. Based on this vision, the Government has formulated many policies and strategies over the years, including the first overall Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP) which contributed to remarkable achievements.
II. Lessons learned

Three main lessons were learned: (i) political will and sound policy-making do make a difference; (ii) political stability and addressing poverty and negative cultural practices are paramount in fighting discrimination against girls and women; and (iii) weak financial and human capacity in ministries of education hampers the effective implementation of policies and programs.

III. Recommendations

a. The need for more and better research on inclusive education. Data, both quantitative and qualitative, are needed to guide policy-makers and practitioner. Sub-sectors such as TVET, Higher education and adult education are not well-researched and documented in terms of girls and women’s participation and survival.

b. The African Union Commission should engage governments and Regional Economic Communities (RECs) in policy dialogue on inclusive education and systematically monitor the way countries are making progress in achieving key targets as envisaged in CESA 16-25.

c. African countries, technical and funding partners and NGOs should:

i. Expand gender-friendly physical facilities at all levels of education including constructing hostels for community secondary schools for both boys and girls and instituting school-feeding programs in partnership with communities and local farmers.

ii. Train teachers systematically to become gender sensitive and equip them with competencies for guidance and counselling during pre and in-service training programs;

iii. Make advocacy for human rights a national priority and engage communities in addressing cultural practices that impinge on the rights of girls and women to education and training. Every country should establish and implement a nationwide community awareness campaign on the importance of education for the girl child.

iv. Set up school clubs to encourage boys and girls to interact and support each other in addressing challenges they face;

v. Reinstate the provision of bursary scheme for promoting girls’ participation in science and mathematics at all levels, more particularly at secondary and higher education levels;

vi. Expand funding for science camps and remedial programs for girls.
1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

It is important to underscore from the outset that this report is being written within a context of decades-long intensive strategic reflections on the future of Africa by Africans at the national, sub-regional and continental levels. Many African countries have now developed long to mid-term visions of what they want to become and how they see themselves transform into these brighter futures. This strategic soul-searching geared towards ending decades of poverty and other socioeconomic ills has been reflected at the levels of Africa’s Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and more particularly at that of the African Union (AU), the embodiment of the continent’s collective political will. The issue of eradicating discrimination in all its forms and manifestations, which is at the core of the concept of inclusiveness in different spheres of social and economic life, has been the object of policies and strategies devised by national, sub-regional and continental leaders. In the education arena, which is the concern of this report, strategies for redressing the glaring gender inequalities within education systems have characterized the two major initiatives launched and implemented by the AU from 1996 to 2005 (First Decade of Education for Africa) and 2006 to 2015 (Second Decade of Education for Africa).

In the Plan of Action of the Second Decade of Education for Africa\(^3\), the first area of focus was gender and culture, with focus on attaining full gender equality in primary and secondary education. The goal was [to] eliminate gender disparities and ensure gender equality, girls’ and women’s empowerment throughout the education system, while enriching the system with the positive aspects of African cultural values” (p.5). The idea was to mainstream gender in the other six strategic areas of focus (see Box 1).

Two of the interventions envisaged for achieving the goal consisted of ensuring, among other things, the promotion of cultural industries, along with functional literacy, for the economic empowerment of women and men and (ii) enhancing girls’ and women’s participation in science and technology education at all levels. (p.6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Box 1: The areas of focus of the AU’s Second Decade of Education (2006-2015)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i. Gender and culture</td>
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<tr>
<td>ii. Education management information systems</td>
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<tr>
<td>iii. Teacher development</td>
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<tr>
<td>iv. Tertiary education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. Technical and Vocational Education and training, including education in difficult situations</td>
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<td>vi. Curriculum, and teaching and learning materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vii. Quality management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a more comprehensive manner, the AU has now launched a more ambitious, forward-looking and articulated development framework called Agenda 2063\(^4\). The AU states that the Agenda is "[a] global strategy to optimize the use of Africa’s resources for the benefits of all Africans ....to encourage discussion among all stakeholders, “Agenda 2063” is an

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approach to how the continent should effectively learn from the lessons of the past, build on the progress now underway and strategically exploit all possible opportunities available in the short, medium and long term, so as to ensure positive socioeconomic transformation within the next 50 years.\(^5\)

In both its aspirations (see Box 2) and planned actions, Agenda 2063, makes inclusivity/inclusiveness in all the dimensions of social and economic life a key priority for Africa. Aspiration 6 that envisions the unleashing of the potential of women and youth is further buttressed by the declaration made by the African Heads of State who reaffirmed their commitments to:

*People-centered development, gender equality and youth empowerment, which places the African people at the center of all continental efforts, to ensure their participation in the transformation of the continent, and to build caring and inclusive societies. It recognizes that no society can reach its full potential, unless it empowers women and remove all obstacles to women’s full participation in all areas of human endeavors. Africa must provide an enabling environment for its children and young people to flourish and reach their full potential.*

**Box 2:** Our aspirations for the Africa we want

1. A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development
2. An integrated continent, politically united and based on the ideals of Pan Africanism and the vision of Africa’s Renaissance
3. An Africa of good governance, democracy, respect for human rights, justice and the rule of law
4. A peaceful and secure Africa
5. An Africa with a strong cultural identity, common heritage, values and ethics
6. An Africa where development is people-driven, **unleashing the potential of its women and youth**
7. Africa as a strong, united and influential global player and partner.

Among the twenty goals outlined in Agenda 2063, there is the following commitment on gender parity:

*Achieve Gender Parity in public and private institutions, and the removal of all forms of gender discrimination in the social, cultural, economic and political spheres. Mobilise a concerted drive towards immediately ending child marriages, female genital mutilation and other harmful cultural practices that discriminate against women. (p.17)*

In order to support the realization of Agenda 2063, the African Union Commission for Human Resources, Science and Technology (AUC/HRST), has developed sector-specific policies in education and other sub-sectors. The Continental Education Strategy for Africa\(^6\), (CESA 16-25), has been developed to match the framework of Agenda 2063 and meet the

\(^5\) [http://agenda2063.au.int/en/vision](http://agenda2063.au.int/en/vision)

Common African Position (CAP) on the Post-2015 Development Agenda. Its main goal is to “reorient Africa’s education and training systems to meet the knowledge, competencies, skills, innovation and creativity required to nurture African core values and promote sustainable development at the national, sub-regional and continental levels”. One of its pillars is Gender equity, equality and sensitivity throughout the education and training system.

The twelve Strategic Objectives (SOs) of CESA 16-25 (see Box 3) include one that is specifically devoted to gender equality: Accelerate processes leading to gender parity and equity. This objective has 5 action areas: (i) Scale up successful retention experiences in the service of at-risk gender groups (girls and boys) and enhance their performance; (ii) Ensure successful progression from one level to another throughout the system; (iii) Mobilize communities to become partners in ensuring that girls (and boys as appropriate) enroll, (iv) stay and achieve in schools; (v) Develop relevant interventions to address constraints of access and success at all levels (p.24).

**Box 3: Strategic Objectives of CESA 16 - 25**

1. Revitalize the teaching profession to ensure quality and relevance at all levels of education.
2. Build, rehabilitate, support education infrastructure and develop policies that ensure a permanent, healthy and conducive learning environment in all sub-sectors and for all, so as to expand access to quality education.
3. Harness the capacity of ICT to improve access, quality and management of education and training systems.
4. Ensure acquisition of requisite knowledge and skills as well as improved completion rates at all levels and groups through harmonization processes across all levels for national and regional integration.
5. Accelerate processes leading to gender parity and equity.
6. Launch comprehensive and effective literacy programmes across the continent to eradicate the scourge of illiteracy.
7. Strengthen the science and math curricula in youth training and disseminate scientific knowledge and culture in society.
8. Expand TVET opportunities at both secondary and tertiary levels and strengthen linkages between the world of work and education and training systems.
9. Revitalize and expand tertiary education, research and innovation to address continental challenges and promote global competitiveness.
10. Promote peace education and conflict prevention and resolution at all levels of education and for all age groups.
11. Improve management of education system as well build and enhance capacity for data collection, management, analysis, communication, and use.
12. Set up a coalition of stakeholders to facilitate and support activities resulting from the implementation of CESA 16-25.
CESA 16-25 recognizes the existence of policies and programs to promote gender equality on the continent and urges African countries to scale them up within a timeframe that will allow their full realizations in the next ten years.

In addition to CESA 16-25, AUC/HRST has also developed the Science, Technology, Innovation Strategy for Africa (STISA) and the Continental Strategy for TVET (CSTVET) which both include the concept of inclusiveness as articulated in their gender dimensions.

1.1 Definitions of Gender Concepts

At this juncture, it is important to provide definitions of a few gender concepts that have been alluded to in the foregoing presentation of the context so that there is clarity in the analysis of policies and strategies that will follow.

Gender Equity is defined by UNESCO (2015)\(^7\) as: “a stage or strategy in the process of achieving gender equality. Targeted measures are often needed to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise being equals. These measures, such as affirmative action, may require a different treatment of women and men in order to ensure an equal outcome.”(p.22)

The concept of Gender parity, which is derived from that of gender equity, is a strategy and an indicator for ensuring equal representation of females and males in the education system. The Gender Parity Index (GPI) is defined as: “a socioeconomic index usually designed to measure the relative access to education of males and females. In its simplest form, it is calculated as the quotient of the number of females by the number of males enrolled in a given stage of education (primary, secondary, etc.).”\(^8\)

The definition of gender equality goes beyond those two concepts mentioned above, as outlined in the EFA Global Monitoring Report (2015): “Gender equality is a more complex notion than gender parity and harder to measure. It requires moving beyond counting the numbers in school to exploring the quality of girls’ and boys’ experiences in the classroom and school community, their achievements in education institutions and their aspirations for the future”.

As we shall see throughout this analysis, gender equality is far from being achieved in the African context and, for that matter, also worldwide.

1.2 Inclusive education in historical perspective

Upon gaining independence many African countries inherited education systems that, by and large, did not promote social equality as one of their goals/missions. Unlike modern and development-oriented systems found elsewhere, the inherited colonial education systems in Africa entrenched the objectives for which they were initially created up until the early 1990s: selecting a few talented people to serve in the small modern public sector. Moreover, the relative poverty that characterized most of the emerging countries made it difficult and


\(^8\) https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender_Parity_Index
challenging to expand equal opportunities of access to education across all segments of society as a means of addressing glaring inequalities even if the political will existed. As a result, many inequities in terms of exclusion have been created within society based on gender, physical ability, socioeconomics, geographical location (urban or rural), lifestyle/occupational, ethnicity and sociolinguistics, etc.

With the advent of the Education for All (EFA) movement in the 1990s and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)\(^9\), policy frameworks and financing mechanisms have been put in place in almost every developing country with the support of the rich and industrialized countries through bilateral or multilateral technical and funding agencies as well as NGOs. The ambitious goal of EFA, as reflected by the name of the movement, is to provide equitable access to education for a greater number of people irrespective of their gender, social, economic and physical conditions. Initially the goal was to be achieved by 2000 but it was soon realized that that was not realistic and a new deadline, underpinned by a much stronger policy and implementation framework, was set for 2015. The 2000 Dakar Framework for Action, as it is known, formulated six goals (see Box 4) which specifically identified underserved and under-represented groups for whom equal opportunities of access, survival and outcomes in the education process had been hitherto denied or limited (see table 1).

![Box 4: The Dakar Goals](image)

(i) Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children;

(ii) Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality;

(iii) Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes;

(iv) Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;

(v) Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality;

(vi) Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills

By the end of 2015, the African Union Plan of Action for the Second Decade, EFA and MDGs’ declared deadline, Africa presented a contrasted picture in terms of achievement. While notable progress has been achieved in addressing inequities and inequalities in Africa through expansion of provision of educational opportunities, many children accessing

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\(^9\) Two MDGs out of the eight targeted inequities within and beyond the education system by promoting universal primary education and ensuring gender equality and empowerment of women. A third goal, to eradicate extreme poverty and hunger, addressed major economic and social inequities in general.
education do not take full advantage of it as their survival rate throughout the systems and learning outcomes leave a lot to be desired.

The 2015 Global Monitoring Report (GMR) provides the following situation in Sub-Saharan Africa:

- With regard to ECCE, GER in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) increased from 8 to 22% from 1999 to 2012. Even though children living in poor rural areas have benefitted from this increase, the gap between rural and urban areas is still very wide. Most of the opportunities for accessing ECCE are located in urban areas and are provided by the private sector. Poverty and marginalization are real impediments to access to pre-schooling. Moreover, the high increase in GER in this sub-sector is only relative to the low base from which African countries started and therefore does not translate in major gains in terms of a critical mass of children being enrolled. Also, the 22% rate hides large disparities as it ranges from the abysmally low (2% in Mali) to close to universal coverage (Ghana, Mauritius and Seychelles).

Table 1: Underserved and Underrepresented groups by sub-sectors and types of equity identified under the six Dakar Goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-sectors</th>
<th>ECCE</th>
<th>Primary education</th>
<th>Secondary education</th>
<th>Continuing education (Non-formal education)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Types of Equity</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td>All children should access ECCE but emphasis is on vulnerable and</td>
<td>All school-age children but more specifically girls, children in difficult</td>
<td>More specifically girls; gender disparity in access was to be eliminated by 2005</td>
<td>All young (out-of-school) people and adults; and more specifically women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>disadvantaged children (rural and poor). ECCE includes health,</td>
<td>circumstances and those of ethnic minorities- Gender disparity in access was</td>
<td>and total equality reached in 2015</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nutrition, psychosocial and psychomotor development</td>
<td>to be eliminated by 2005 and total equality reached in 2015</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survival (completion)</td>
<td>2 to 3 years of ECCE (3-6-year-old children)</td>
<td>All of the groups listed above are expected to complete primary education;</td>
<td>All girls and boys should complete but emphasis is on girls and rural and</td>
<td>Completion of NFE and alternative schooling/education programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>emphasis is on completion by the 3 groups mentioned</td>
<td>disadvantaged children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcomes (learning)</td>
<td>All children from 0 to 6 should be ready for primary school and</td>
<td>All of the groups listed above are expected to acquire excellent literacy and</td>
<td>All girls and boys should acquire excellent competencies and essential life skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>have literacy and numeracy skills</td>
<td>numeracy competencies at the end of primary schooling</td>
<td>in preparation for higher education or vocational training</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
• Access to primary education also experienced a spectacular rise within a decade. Between 1999 and 2012 the average net enrolment rate (NER) in SSA increased from 59% to 79% and was characterized by a notable reduction of the gender gap as the Gender Parity Index (GPI) increased from 0.89 to 0.92. However, when it comes to completion (survival), approximately 42% of SSA’s children entering primary school drop out before reaching the last grade. Poverty plays a key role in this situation but there are other factors that lead to dropping out of school: being a girl, belonging to a lower caste or discriminated ethnic and linguistic groups, being of a different race, having a disability, residing in remote and underserved geographical locations and earning one’s livelihood in trades or occupations that are not mainstream (pastoralists, fishermen, etc.).

• Given the large proportion of children dropping out of primary schooling, access to secondary education and subsequently to higher education has been restricted to a few. In spite of a notable progress in GERs in lower and upper secondary education between 1999 and 2012 (24% to 50% and 22% to 32% respectively), SSA has one of the most unequal secondary education system. First of all, there is a significant gender gap when it comes to both access and completion. In SSA countries with the lowest per capita income, girls fare less well compared to boys; and when location is factored in, differentials in both access and completion are much starker between rural girls and urban boys: 21.5 % of the rural girls of the lowest 3 quintiles access lower secondary level compared to 71.1% for boys from the highest 2 quintiles (UNICEF). In general, urban students access and complete both lower and upper secondary education at a much higher rate than their rural counterparts. Even in urban areas, socioeconomic background is still a key determinant of successful access and completion at both levels as students with wealthier backgrounds have a net advantage over students coming from poorer socioeconomic backgrounds.

• Non-formal education (NFE) and other alternative forms of education targeting out-of-school children and youth as well as illiterate adults are far and between. Most African governments and the funding and technical partners who support them have yet to make NFE a key priority in spite of the growing number of these populations. On average, NFE’s share of the total education budget is still under 5% in Africa. It is estimated that out of the 59 million children of primary school age who were out of school in 2013 worldwide, 30 million lived in sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2015)\textsuperscript{10}. This situation will compound Africa’s educational problems as the continent holds the unenviable record for the highest illiteracy rate in the world (41%), and exacerbates the inequalities as 61% of those without basic literacy skills are women.

In view of the above, the agenda to promote inclusive education in Africa becomes all the more compelling. What is at the stake, as indicated by Agenda 2063, is Africa’s capacity to take charge of its own development by ensuring that a critical mass of its population in all of its diversity (girls and women, ethnic minorities, the disabled, etc.) has access to quality and transformative education. This has been captured by the African Development Bank (AfDB)

\textsuperscript{10} UNESCO (2015). A growing number of children and adolescents are out of school as aid fails to meet the mark. Policy paper 22 / fact sheet 31
which, in its rationale for creating its own Index (the Africa Gender Equality Index)\(^\text{11}\), states that:

**Women are more active as economic agents in Africa than anywhere else in the world. They perform the majority of agricultural activities, own a third of all firms and, in some countries, make up some 70% of employees. Over and above their income-earning activities, they are central to the household economy and the welfare of their families, and they play a vital — if sometimes unacknowledged — leadership role in their communities and nations. Yet across Africa women face an array of barriers to achieving their full potential, from restrictive cultural practices to discriminatory laws and highly segmented labour markets. Eliminating gender inequality and empowering women could raise the productive potential of one billion Africans, delivering a huge boost to the continent’s development potential (p.5).**

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**Box 5: Sustainable Development Goal 4 Targets**

4.1 By 2030, ensure that **all girls and boys** complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes

4.2 By 2030, 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

4.3 By 2030, ensure equal access for **all women and men** to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university

4.4 By 2030, substantially increase the number of **youth and adults** who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship

4.5 By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations

4.6 By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

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

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

4.b- By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and

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Furthermore, research has shown that educating girls has the following positive social outcomes:

1. Each year of additional schooling for girls reduces infant mortality by 5-10%.
2. The children of mothers with five years of primary education are 40% more likely to live beyond the age of five and 43% less likely to be malnourished.
3. Women with primary education have on average fewer children, use more productive farming methods and, as non-agricultural workers, receive higher wages\textsuperscript{12}.

The MDGs have now been replaced by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the deadline for achieving them has been set to 2030. Of the 17 SDGs adopted, only one is specifically on education: Goal 4. It seeks to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities. Inclusiveness and equity are thus at the core of SDG 4 and have been entrenched in the seven targets (see box 5) identified for this particular goal. The target groups to be included in the education process are, by and large, the same ones as in the EFA agenda: children in vulnerable situations, the poor, girls, persons with disability, indigenous peoples, ethnic minorities, etc.

1.3. Relevance of the case studies commissioned by AU/CIEFFA

In view of the above background, the case studies commissioned by AU/CIEFFA and UNESCO are timely. The idea of selecting one country in each of the five regions of the African Union (Algeria, Chad, Ivory Coast, Tanzania and Zambia) is an attempt not only to portray the implementation of inclusive education across the different sub-regions of the continent but also to facilitate experience/knowledge-sharing.

As stipulated by the terms of reference for the case studies, the main objective of the project is “to prepare in-depth case studies of countries that are providing education to diverse groups of learners, with special emphasis on girls’ education” and the overall expectation is to contribute to bridging the gap amongst practice, research and policy in this area and will contribute to the global knowledge data base for inclusive approaches to teaching and learning that UNESCO is developing, in collaboration with its partners, such as AU/CIEFFA.

1.4. Outline of the synthesis

This synthesis report takes a cross-national comparative approach as it will, to the extent possible, compare the five cases in order to highlight differences or similarities. It will be organized along the following outline:

i. Analysis of overall educational development relating to inclusive education in the five countries with special focus on girls and women’s education to underscore key explanatory factors in terms of achievements or lack of it thereof;

ii. Review of types of policies and programs put in place to implement inclusive education with emphasis on girls and women’s education and their outcomes in terms of access, quality and relevance and equity

iii. Lessons learned and recommendations

The rationale for choosing this three-pronged analytical approach stems from the observation that: (i) the analysis of a country’s educational development reveals the extent to which particular policy issues have (or have not) been made central by its leaders by portraying their values and agendas. Addressing the unequal treatment of girls and women in educational processes, for instance, requires not only coherent and relevant policies that deliberately seek to systematically and systemically redress past injustices but also substantial investment in terms of financial resources that are necessary to provide additional educational opportunities for them and (ii) taking stock of and analysing the policies and programs that have been devised and implemented by the countries ultimately lead to learning important lessons on good and problematic practices in the implementation of girls and women’s friendly education policies.

The analysis herein has also taken account of the limitations that the country case studies brought with them with regard to data availability and sometimes absence of policies on the ground. As a result, and to the extent possible, an effort has been made to look for additional data elsewhere to complement or fill in the gaps.

2. ANALYSIS OF OVERALL EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE FIVE COUNTRIES

2.1 Defining inclusive education

From the outset, it is very important to understand what the concept of inclusive education entails. In terms of definition, UNESCO\textsuperscript{13} (2009) offers the following: “inclusive education is a process of strengthening the capacity of the education system to reach out to all learners and can thus be understood as a key strategy to achieve EFA”.

Furthermore, UNESCO goes on to describe the implementation process of inclusive education: “Promoting inclusion means stimulating discussion, encouraging positive attitudes and improving educational and social frameworks to cope with new demands in

\textsuperscript{13} UNESCO (2009). Policy Guidelines on Inclusion in Education. UNESCO
education structures and governance. It involves improving inputs, processes and environments to foster learning both at the level of the learner in his/her learning environment and at the system level to support the entire learning experience. Its achievement rests on governments’ willingness and capacities to adopt pro-poor policies, addressing issues of equity in public expenditures on education, developing inter-sectoral linkages and approaching inclusive education as a constituent element of lifelong learning” (p.7)\textsuperscript{14}.

In terms of processes that need to be in place, UNESCO underscores the following:

\textit{Inclusive education is a process that involves the transformation of schools and other centres of learning to cater for all children – including boys and girls, students from ethnic and linguistic minorities, rural populations, those affected by HIV and AIDS, and those with disabilities and difficulties in learning and to provide learning opportunities for all youth and adults as well. Its aim is to eliminate exclusion that is a consequence of negative attitudes and a lack of response to diversity in race, economic status, social class, ethnicity, language, religion, gender, sexual orientation and ability. Education takes place in many contexts, both formal and non-formal, and within families and the wider community. Consequently, inclusive education is not a marginal issue but is central to the achievement of high quality education for all learners and the development of more inclusive societies.}\textsuperscript{15}

These definitions show the complexity of translating the concept of inclusive education into policies and the far-reaching systemic reforms necessary to implement it. But as this cannot be done all at once, there is one of the excluded groups that has drawn more policy and programming attention than any other in the world: girls and women. Eliminating gender disparity in terms of access, survival and outcome in the education process has been high on the agendas of leading multilateral and bilateral agencies as well as countries. EFA Goals 4 and 5, MDGs Goal 3 are good illustrations of the premium put on achieving gender equality. The ambitious goal of achieving gender parity at primary and secondary levels as envisaged in EFA Goal 5 by 2005 had unfortunately not materialized. But this ambition has had very good effects as many countries, above all in Africa, have made significant progress towards the goal. This was facilitated by the fact that most African countries and their technical and funding partners have made gender equality a key priority in their policies and strategies. This commitment was recently renewed within the post-2015 development agenda both at the continental level and internationally. It is prominently reflected within the African Union’s Common African Position (CAP)\textsuperscript{16} on the post-2015 Agenda in which it is stated under the heading “education and human capital development” that:

\textit{Enhancing equity will require: improving and sustaining progress on gender parity at all levels of education, with special emphasis on secondary and}

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\textsuperscript{14} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{15} Ibid.
tertiary education; creating a positive environment for girls and boys at school; increasing the representation of female teachers, especially in science and technology; and eliminating human trafficking and child labour, thus allowing children to benefit from educational facilities for their full development. (p.16)

The systemic nature of achieving gender equality is also captured by the CAP under the heading “Gender equality and women’s empowerment” where the following requirements have been put forth: “…enhancing women’s occupational mobility and eliminating gender-based wage inequality; ensuring their access to, and ownership of, land and other productive assets, credit and extension services and training; eradicating all forms of violence against women and children, and harmful practices such as female genital mutilation (FGM) and early marriage; and eliminating gender-based discrimination in political, economic and public decision-making processes.

We must provide adequate resources to strengthen women’s voices, and ensure full and equal participation of women in all decision-making bodies at the highest levels of government and in the governance structures of international organizations, including by eliminating gender stereotyping in appointments and promotions, and building women’s productive capacities as agents of change. The crucial role of women in conflict prevention and resolution, mediation and peace-building efforts, and in the rebuilding of post-conflict societies must be supported by strengthening their capacities, including leadership skills, and creating legal frameworks that protect their engagement in political and economic decision making.” (p.17)

The CAP was presented in Incheon, South Korea. In the Incheon Declaration, the international community, in line with CAP, renewed its commitment to finish the business of the fight for gender equality by stating that:

We recognize the importance of gender equality in achieving the right to education for all. We are therefore committed to supporting gender-sensitive policies, planning and learning environments; mainstreaming gender issues in teacher training and curricula; and eliminating gender-based discrimination and violence in schools.

One of the SDG’s -SDG5, was assigned to this commitment: to achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls. It is, therefore, very interesting and timely to take stock of the outcomes of the gender specific policies in Africa because they will not only provide a baseline on which future work can be built but also the knowledge base from which corrective measures could be derived.

The following is an analysis of the education policies of five countries in the African region.
2.2 Educational development in five countries

Educational development is to a large extent determined by the wealth of a nation. The five (5) countries that are the subjects of this synthesis can be categorized into three groups based on their per capita Gross National Product (GNP) and their ranks based on the Human Development Index (HDI) (see table 2).

Table 2: Level of educational development compared with wealth and impact on gender equality

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Countries</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>13,054</td>
<td>13,054</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>94.4</td>
<td>0.837</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>13,200</td>
<td>2,085</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>53.8</td>
<td>0.768</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivory Coast</td>
<td>21,295</td>
<td>3,171</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>0.810</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>52,291</td>
<td>2,411</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>0.938</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>15,520</td>
<td>3,734</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>70.3</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of educational achievements, Algeria has been put in the category of countries with high human development, Zambia in the medium and Chad, Ivory Coast and Tanzania in the lowest. Educational indicators of these countries support this categorization as both Algeria and Zambia have the highest primary GER, translating in the two countries moving steadily towards achieving universal primary education with NERs of 93% and 74% respectively. Furthermore, the two countries lead the other three countries in terms of mean years of schooling (MYS) achieved by both women and men. While the MYS indicators show that Algerians and Zambians are getting more education in general compared with the three other countries, a gender gap still persists as men are getting more schooling years than women. This observation is borne out by both the literacy rates and the Gender Development Index (GDI) which show that, in spite of its wealth, Algeria (0.837) has more difficulties educating and, most importantly, providing economic opportunities to women than both Tanzania (0.938) and Zambia (0.917). But overall, being a wealthy country definitely helps in promoting inclusiveness as demonstrated by Algeria in all the indicators used.

2.2.1 Level of educational development compared with wealth and role of and impact on gender equality

Educational development in the other three countries has been impeded by low economic development as illustrated by their HDI ranking. In spite of an improvement of its per capita

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17 Figures taken from country reports are in brackets as they differ from those of the 2015 UNDP HD Report.
income in recent years thanks to the exploitation of an oil manna, Chad is still struggling to develop its education sector in order to provide more opportunities to all the segments of its population. There is a notable progress with regard to GER (103%) as more schools are being built but gaps between genders in terms of access at all levels, literacy rates\(^{18}\), MYS are still very wide and would require more resources being invested in correcting the inequities. Ivory Coast, on the other hand, is just recovering from a decade of civil conflict which had wreaked havoc on its economic and social sectors. However, even prior to the conflict there had been important inequities within its education system as illustrated by the 20 percentage points difference in literacy rate between women and men and the low GDI.

Tanzania is a country that is emerging as an economic success story as it has been experiencing a steady growth of its economy (average of 6.5 % per annum for the last five years). However, it comes from a low base which explains why most of its economic and educational indicators are below those of Zambia and Algeria but better than those of Ivory Coast as illustrated by its ranking in HDI (151 compared to 172 and 185 for Ivory Coast and Chad respectively). Its large population is also a serious challenge. Unlike Algeria, Tanzania is not endowed with huge reserves of mineral resources such as oil or gas to support its development. In spite of these challenges, it is a country where the gender gap is less acute as shown by its literacy rates (72% for women vs. 76% for men) and high GDI (0.971), the highest of the five countries.

### 2.2.2 Gender parity and completion at primary education

An analysis of access and completion indicators at the primary education levels reveals that Algeria, Cote d’Ivoire, Tanzania and Zambia have achieved quasi gender parity. In Algeria, girls’ GER rose from 93.08% to 97.16% between the periods 1999-2000 and 2013-2014 and the GPI from 0.88 to 0.91\(^{19}\) for the same periods.

Tanzania and Zambia have even made a more impressive progress than Algeria by achieving GPIs that show a trend slightly in favour of girls: 1.02\(^{20}\) (2013) and 1.0\(^{21}\) (2014) respectively. Furthermore, Tanzania can in fact be said to have achieved a GPI that shows a female’s advantage\(^{22}\) in the system. Ivory Coast also made good progress in closing the gender gap within primary education (Chart 1).

In contrast to the four countries mentioned above, Chad is far from achieving gender parity. GPI in primary education is 0.70 and large disparities exist between urban and rural areas. N’Djamena, the capital city of Chad, has a GPI of 0.67 whereas Salamat, a remote region, has 0.22.

\(^{18}\) There is a significant difference between the literacy rates mentioned in the 2015 HDI Report and the report sent by Chad. The latter provides the following figures (total: 67% broken down into 56% for men and 78% for women). This could be due to the fact the HDI Report gives literacy figures for the age bracket 15-24 years

\(^{19}\) Algeria report for this study

\(^{20}\) Education for All 2015 National Review, Tanzania.

\(^{21}\) Education for All 2015 National Review, Zambia

\(^{22}\) According to UIS, GPI can be categorized as follows: GPI of 0.97 to 1.03 -> Parity achieved; GPI > 1.03 -> Female’s advantage ; GPI < 0.97 -> Male’s advantage
2.2.3 Completion/transition

In terms of completion/survival in the primary education system, girls fare differently in the five countries. In Zambia, the National EFA review in 2015 states that:

...the Gender Parity Index (GPI) shows that for the most part, girls are entering the school system in equal numbers with boys. The challenge, however, is ensuring that girls stay in school. For example, the MESVTEE’s data shows in the 2013 statistical bulletin that while boys and girls start off with equal opportunity to enter the school system, girls start to drop off most notably by the fifth grade. (p.26)

In Tanzania and Algeria, it is the reverse phenomenon that is observed: girls survive and complete primary education at a higher rate than boys: 89.8 % compared to 82.3% in Tanzania (see Table 3). In Ivory Coast, and on the whole, the completion rate in primary has improved markedly. It rose from 43.4% in 2000 to 60.4% in 2014, a gain of 17 points. During that period, girls had gained more than 20 percentage points with a completion rate of 54.2% in 2014. Despite this significant evolution of the completion rate, 4 out of 10 children are unable to complete their cycle.

The completion rate in primary education in Chad is estimated at 37.8% at national level. However, severe regional disparities related to access and completion of primary education exist. This is due to the high repetition rate which is very high: 24.8%. Girls are the main victims of this state of affairs.

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23 Ministère de l’éducation de la Cote d’Ivoire (2014). “Examen national 2015 de l’Éducation pour tous : Côte d’Ivoire (efa2015reviews@unesco.org)
2.2.4 Gender parity and completion/transition at secondary education

A developed secondary education is a hallmark of a well-developed education system as it has been shown in most of the industrialized countries. It is the sub-system where “marketable” skills and competencies are imparted for socioeconomic development. Girls at this level have much gain as education and training acquired at this level will determine their fate in the workforce and whether or not they fall into poverty.

Algeria is by far the most successful country in building a secondary system that displays a GER of 98%. One can argue that the state has been able to use its huge oil and gas revenues to build a first class post-primary system whereas Tanzania, Zambia, Ivory Coast and Chad are yet to develop their secondary sub-systems which present gross enrolment rates are well below the SSA’s average of 50% (see Table 2).

In terms of gender parity at this level, and with the exception of Algeria (see Table 3), the other four countries have not completely eliminated gender disparities in terms of access and completion. However, they have made significant progress in closing the gender gap.

**Table 3: Algeria: evolution of GPI per level of education (1999 - 2014) (source: MoE, p.13)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Secondary</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Secondary</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tanzania, for example, has experienced a steady and notable improvement of its Gender Parity Index (GPI) and achieved parity at the lower secondary education as illustrated in Tables 4 and 5. GER for females at this level also rose from 19.3% in 2006 to 48.8% in 2012 while keeping the GPI at a steady 0.90. The same trend is also seen at the upper secondary level, albeit at a slower pace than the junior level.

**Table 4: Tanzania: Targets, Actual Achievement and Gaps, NER and Completion Rate in Primary Education by 2012**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Baseline 2000</th>
<th>Target for 2012</th>
<th>Actual</th>
<th>Achievement/gaps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary NER</td>
<td>NER 100%</td>
<td>Primary NER 91.4% Male 92.5% Female</td>
<td>Gap 8.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(58.6% Male, 59.1% Female)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary completion rates</td>
<td>Male 93.1%</td>
<td>PCR Male 82.3% Female 89.8%</td>
<td>Gap 10.9% Female 7.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 5: Tanzania: Secondary Education GER, NER and GPI, 2006 - 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2012</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>GPI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 1-4</td>
<td>GER</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NER</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 5-6</td>
<td>GER</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NER</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form 1-6</td>
<td>GER</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NER</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Zambia has also made a notable progress in closing the gender gap at the both lower and upper secondary levels as illustrated in the Table 6.

Table 6: Zambia: Gender Parity Index and achievements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female Enrolled as Percentage of Total Enrolment</td>
<td>48.4% for Grades 1-9</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>49.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Teachers as Percentage of Total Number of Teachers</td>
<td>47.8% for Grades 1-9</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Goal 5: Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

Gender Parity Index for:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GPI</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2015</th>
<th>2014</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grd 1-4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>Grd 1-4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grd 1-7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>Grd 1-7</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grd 1-9</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>Grd 1-9</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grd 10-12</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>Grd 10-12</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In contrast, Chad is among the 15 African countries where GPI has been estimated at 0.50, meaning that there are 50 girls enrolled per 100 boys in secondary education.

2.2.5 Completion/transition

With respect to completion/transition at secondary level, Algeria reports that girls not only survive the system better than boys but they also outperform them significantly in learning achievements as recorded during national exams (Table 7).
Table 7: Evolution of success Rate (%) at the Baccalaureat exam in Algeria (1999 - 2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24.98</td>
<td>32.62</td>
<td>60.06</td>
<td>44.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>24.24</td>
<td>31.51</td>
<td>63.26</td>
<td>67.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>25.99</td>
<td>34.36</td>
<td>55.10</td>
<td>32.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Tanzania, however, the success rate in the Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (CSEE) which determines whether one advances to the upper secondary education level has been very low. For example, it declined from as high as 28 per cent in 2000 to 11 per cent in 2012. Gross and net completion rates have also been low at the lower secondary. As illustrated by Chart 2, gross completion was below 50 per cent while net completion was 11 and 12 per cent in in 2011 and 2012. The Tanzania’s EFA 2015 Review reports states that:

*The proportion of both male and female students who are of the official secondary school-going age in advanced secondary students remains under 3 per cent in 2013 implying that few students will not only have access to tertiary education opportunities, but may also face limited employment options that may require skilled graduates with a secondary level of education.*

(p.60)

Chart 2: Gross and Net Completion Rates, Secondary Education in Tanzania

In Zambia, the issue of completion is also a main concern. The EFA 2015 Review Report indicates that: “only 20 per cent of all children who enter the school system go on to complete secondary education. From these, only a small number go on to complete tertiary education.”

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[efa2015reviews@unesco.org]
education. Given the fact that basic education in Zambia has failed to provide the practical skills envisioned to children exiting at the ninth grade”. (p.30)

With regard to Cote d’Ivoire, completion at secondary level has become a serious challenge as illustrated in the table below. On the whole, completion/transition rate at lower secondary level is still at 34.6% in spite of the progress made to arrive at this between 2006/2007 and 2013/2014. Females have fared less well compared to boys with a completion rate of 29% against 40%. At the upper secondary, boys complete at 24.8% compared to 18.7% for girls (Table 8).

**Table 8**: Evolution of Completion Rate - Lower secondary - 2006/2007 - 2013/2014 (Ivory Coast)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lower Secondary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>36.9</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>40.5</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Upper Secondary</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Chad, repetition, a key determinant in failure at completion, is rampant. It is 17.5% at lower secondary and 24.3% at upper secondary level. Girls are the hardest-hit due to cultural practices such as early marriages.

2.2.6. Gender parity and completion/transition in Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET).

To begin with, TVET is a neglected policy in general as the continental GER stands on average at 7%. It is also the sub-sector where females are underrepresented due to sociocultural biases. Even though progress has been made to increase the representation of females, the drive to equality is still an uphill battle as most countries need to overcome major constraints ranging from political, financial and cultural hurdles.

For example, in Algeria where girls represented 60% of the enrolment in secondary education in 2007 only 34% were in TVET institutions. In Zambia the proportion of girls and women involved in TVET is estimated at around 40%27. The Gender Parity Index (GPI) in TVET institutions in Tanzania was 0.2 in Tanzania in 2006 (see Chart 3).

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26 Ministère de l'éducation de la Côte d’ivoire (2014). “Examen national 2015 de l’Éducation pour tous : Côte d’Ivoire (efa2015reviews@unesco.org)

Chart 3: Enrolment and Graduates in Folk and Vocational Education and Training in Tanzania (disaggregated by gender and graduation rates)

In Cote d’Ivoire, total enrolment in TVET is 5.5% and girls represent an estimated 48.3% which is the highest proportion of the five countries under study. However, female graduates are confronted with a labour market integration due to gender biases by employers and have to resort to using their social networks to secure a job.

2.2.7. Gender parity in Higher Education

Of all the world regions, Sub-Saharan Africa has the lowest GER in higher education. In 2008, it stood at only 6%, an improvement compared to what it was in 1970: 1%. Variations in GER between countries range from as low as 0.17% in Chad to 25.9% in Mauritius. In general, women, as students and faculty, are still a minority in African tertiary institutions. In terms of access, gross enrolment rates in sub-Saharan Africa are 4.8% for women against 7.3% for men. However, it is important to note that the GPI improved over the years during the 1990s and stood in 2000 at 0.68; but it has stagnated ever since. Chad, as indicated above, has the lowest GPI of the five countries under study with 0.17. Algeria, which belongs to the Middle East and North Africa region (MENA) countries, is the only exception as women outnumber men in higher education as they represent 60% of the enrolment. This is due to a growing trend whereby more girls are successfully completing secondary education and passing tertiary education admission exams than boys (e.g. Algeria and

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29 EHUI Prisca Justine & al. (2011). La trajectoire des filles diplômées de l’enseignement technique et de la formation professionnelle en Côte d’Ivoire. Réseau Ouest et Centre Africain de Recherche en Education (ROCARE)
30 ibid.
32 ibid.
Tanzania). Their survival and success rates are unfortunately not well documented statistically and qualitatively.

It is worth noting that women are less visible in scientific and technological streams.

2.2.8. Gender parity and success in Literacy and Adult Education

This sub-sector provides alternative education and training opportunities for the poorly trained, school dropouts and illiterate youth and adults. For girls and women who represent the majority of the illiterate and uneducated, literacy and adult basic education and training programs are important avenues for acquiring the competencies and skills they need to contribute to the well-being of the families and the development of their communities and countries.

In the five countries under study, women and girls are more affected by illiteracy and lack of marketable skills. In Algeria, literacy rate for women in the 15-24 age bracket is 89.1% compared to 94.1% for men. In Chad, the other extreme of the five cases, the rates are 44% for women against 53.8% for men.

As mentioned earlier on, Tanzania has made the most remarkable progress in literacy. In 2007-2008, it set out to reach 3,800,000 illiterate adults through basic adult education by 2015. Even though it did not fully hit the target as planned, the government was able to achieve 77.9 per cent of the goal. This was achieved through a strategy that focused on educating out of school children and youth instead of revamping adult basic and post literacy programmes. Given the youth bulge in Africa, this strategy of worth noting.

Furthermore, using the mean year of schooling (MYS) as a proxy indicator for levels of skills and competences, girls and women do not have an equal access to and take advantage of educational opportunities as men. In older age brackets (24-45), illiteracy is a serious concern, making participation of a critical mass of youth in adult basic education and training a top priority for African countries.

Unfortunately, the sub-sector is underfunded and relies mostly on donors and civil society for its development. Aware of this situation, the CONFITEA VI held in 2009 in Belem, Brazil, made a statement that Africa should heed/recognize and reflect in their policies. “The education of young people and adults enables individuals, especially women, to cope with multiple social, economic and political crises, and climate change. Therefore, we recognise the key role of adult learning and education in the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), Education for All (EFA) and the UN agenda for sustainable human, social, economic, cultural and environmental”.

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3. CONDUCIVE AND PROBLEMATIC POLICIES, LEGAL FRAMEWORKS AND PROGRAMS

Even though wealth is a key determinant of a well-developed system, a strong and committed political will from leaders to formulate and implement relevant policies is paramount.

In the Algerian case study, it is said the Algerian government has since independence in 1962 placed education and training at the top of its development priorities. The country currently devotes 7% of its GDP to education and since 2003 it has been implementing reforms geared towards providing access to a large number of children. As a result, 10 million children and young people are currently in the system, representing 25% of the country’s population. Also, and since 2008, the government has promulgated and been implementing what is called an Orientation Law for the education system with the view to reorganizing education institutions, modernizing the learning and teaching approaches, revising the curricula and deploying a number of strategies that promote inclusion.

In terms of laws and legal frameworks, the basic principles of an inclusive education system have been entrenched in the Algerian Constitution which stipulates that the right to education is guaranteed and education must be free of charge as provided by law. The Education Orientation Law also states that the State guarantees the right to education for all without any discrimination on the basis of sex, social or geographical origin. Furthermore, the law provides for the fundamental guarantee of equality of opportunity in terms of schooling and further education after basic education.

In Algeria, education is compulsory for all girls and boys aged 6 to 16 years of age. However, the duration of compulsory education can be extended for two (2) additional years, as necessary, in favor of students with disabilities. Free education is extended from primary to higher education in all public institutions under the government-funded system. In addition, the State supports the education of students from low socioeconomic backgrounds by providing grants, scholarships, textbooks and school supplies, food, shelter, transportation, and healthcare. The State also ensures that children with special needs have access to education. Special education institutions have been created to accommodate the academic integration of students with disabilities and the chronically ill.

In terms of laws and legal frameworks, the Zambian Constitution, unlike the Algerian one, does not make education compulsory. However, the country’s main legislation on education, the Education Act 2011, identifies each person’s rights to early childhood education, basic education and high school education. A new Constitution was under review in 2012, but constitutional analysts remarked that “the draft constitution has a number of shortcomings that should be addressed. In particular, it does not clearly spell out the State’s obligation under international law to fulfil human rights to the maximum of its available resources and its immediate obligation to fulfil certain elements of the right to education such as the immediate obligation to provide free basic education”35.

However, the Zambian EFA 2015 Review states that education is a key national priority as the government devotes approximately 20% of its total national budget to education. However, the share of GDP allocated to the sector is the lowest of the five countries as it only stands at 1.3%. The explanation for this seemingly low commitment to education in terms of the GDP lies in fact that the country relies heavily on (i) the financial and in-kind support provided by local communities to supplement government’s efforts and on (ii) donors’ contributions to the sector. This has allowed the country to expand access to basic education to more than 1.2 million children and enact relevant policy initiatives to stimulate demand for and participation in education from disadvantaged and marginalized groups.

Government policies have also enabled the government to expand underserved sub-sectors such as early childhood care and education (ECCE), TVET, Adult education and secondary education as well as in addressing inclusiveness throughout the system. Among these policies, the following can be cited: Educating Our Future (1996), the Basic Education Subsector Investment Programme (BESSIP- 1998), the Education Sector Plan (2003 - 2007), the Fifth National Development Plan Education Chapter (2006), the Second Education National Implementation Plan (NIF II -2008), the Sixth National Development Plan for 2011 and the revised Education Act of 2011. The Zambian report states that “the 1996 policy document “Educating our Future” and other supporting documents such as the Education Sector Plan, clearly identify that “a Principal foundation on which the education system in Zambia rests is that it should promote equality of access, participating on, and benefit for all.”36 (p.1)

Just like Zambia, Chad does not allocate a very important share of its GDP to education as it only stands at 2.6% in spite of its newfound wealth. However, the Constitution of Chad declares that public education is free and basic education (10 years consisting of 6 years of primary and 4 years of lower secondary education) is compulsory. It is worth noting that nowhere in the constitution is there mention of the State guaranteeing the right to education for all without any discrimination on the basis of sex, social or geographical origin. Nor is there mention of providing a guarantee for equality of opportunity in terms of schooling.

According to the report submitted, key policies are in place for educational development with specific focus on inclusive education. Inclusive education figures prominently in strategic documents such as the National Poverty Reduction Strategy (NPRS), the Growth Strategy Paper and Poverty Reduction Paper (PRSP), the National Development Plan (NDP) 2013-2015 and more specifically in the Interim Strategy for Education and Literacy (SIPEA in French).

Ivory Coast is legally guided by the Constitution passed in 2000 which stipulates that “the State guarantees all citizens equal access to health, education, culture, information, vocational training and employment” (Article 7).

However, it does not have provisions for compulsory education but the current post-conflict government in Ivory Coast has made education one of the pillars of the reconstruction of the country. The share of the GDP devoted to education increased from 4.6% in 2011 to 5.3% in 2013.

2014. The Head of State has also issued his “*programme présidentiel d’urgence (PPU)*” (Presidential Emergency Program) which lists education as one of the five key priority areas (clean water, health, education, electricity and urban sanitation). The program is endowed with a 45 billion CFA budget (approximately 69 million Euros). It will supplement the education budget to extend coverage of ECCE to children in rural areas. In terms of policies, it is worth noting that the country does not have a national education policy yet. It is in the pipeline. However, the following documents exist: An *Orientation Law* of 2015, a white Policy Paper (June 2010), which articulates a vision for education within a sectoral Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PSRP), the National Development Plan (NDP) 2012-2015, which is part of the extension of the Education and Training Sector National Development Plan (PNDEF in French) formulated for the 1998-2010 period. Inclusivity/inclusiveness is embedded in all them.

The Tanzanian Constitution guarantees all citizens equal access to health, education, culture, information, vocational training and employment. In 1999 Tanzania formulated a national vision (2025 Vision37) geared towards improving the quality of life of the population. In it the government recognizes the pivotal and enabling role of education in equipping all learners with skills and competencies capable of making them meaningful contributors to national development. Based on this vision, the Government has formulated many policies and strategies over the years, including the first overall Education Sector Development Plan (ESDP) which was launched in 2001 and provided the mission and objectives of education in the Vision and defined institutional arrangements for its implementation. In addition to the ESDP, a 1995 policy called the “Education and Training Policy 2014” (ETP 2014) was revised and launched in February 2015. Its objectives are: (i) to promote the acquisition and appropriate use of literacy, social, scientific, vocational, technological, professional and other forms of knowledge, skills and understanding for the development and improvement of the society” and (ii) to develop and promote self-confidence and an inquiring mind, an understanding and respect for human dignity and human rights and a readiness to work hard for personal self-advancement and national improvement.

But more importantly, Tanzania is the only country with a specific and dedicated policy on inclusive education, the *National Strategy on Inclusive Education (NSIE, 2009-2017)*. The policy is underpinned by the following principles:

- **a.** “Prioritisation: ensuring that targeted support reach the [neediest], vulnerable people
- **b.** A range of interventions that address elements of poverty and vulnerability but facilitate empowerment of all people
- **c.** Community participation and inclusion so that new systems are inclusive and address issues of power relations

37 By the year 2025, Tanzania is expected to move from a least developed country to a middle income one by attaining the following: (i) a high quality livelihood; (ii) peace, stability and national unity; (iii) good governance; (iv) a well-educated and learning society imbued with an ambition to develop; and (v) a competitive economy capable of producing sustainable growth and shared benefit. *Source: Ministry of Education of the United Republic of Tanzania (2014) “Education for All 2015 National Review Report: United Republic of Tanzania (efa2015reviews@unesco.org)"*
d. *Strengthening the capacity of local government and non-state actors to effectively facilitate the identification of the [neediest] and vulnerable persons so as to support them*

e. *Universality of access. (p.13)”*

In terms of objectives of the NSIE, they are captured in Table 9:

**Table 9**: Strategies and objectives of the Tanzania’s National Strategy on inclusive Education (NSIE, 2009 - 2017)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Objectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Education Policies and Programmes are informed by inclusive values and practices</td>
<td>1.1 Reinforce presence, participation and learning of all learners in inclusive setting through legislation and policies 1.2 Strengthen institutional arrangements for effective implementations inclusive education 1.3 Review and redesign resourcing and financing for inclusion and educational support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Teaching and Learning Respond to the diverse needs of learners</td>
<td>2.1 Develop Curricula and learning materials that promote differentiation and support learning 2.2 Develop an inclusive assessment and evaluation system for learners and teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Education Support is available for all learners</td>
<td>3.1 Develop institutional-based education support 3.2 Introduce educational support need assessment and develop effective intervention mechanisms for increasing participation of vulnerable learners 3.3 Establish educational support resource centres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Professional Capabilities for inclusive education are widened and strengthened</td>
<td>4.1 Revise Teacher Education curricula and diversity teacher education provision to promote inclusive education 4.2 Strengthen capacities of teachers” colleges to provide training on inclusive education 4.3 Provide opportunities for professional development for education administrators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Community Ownership of and participation in inclusive education are enhanced</td>
<td>5.1 Carry out awareness raising on inclusive education 5.2 Use whole school Development Planning approach to inculcate inclusive education in school communities 5.3 Identify and mobilise community resources for inclusive education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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With respect to SEDP I and SEDP II, they have been instrumental in Tanzania closing the gender gap in secondary education. It is reported that SEDP II has done the following: improving girls’ participation and performance; improving access to secondary education for nomads, marginalized groups and disabled learners; expansion of Form 5 and Open and Distance Learning program and completing construction of sanitation facilities which started during SEDP I to enhance girls ‘attendance and participation; as well as constructing new structures, where required.

4.0 LESSONS LEARNED AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Lessons learned

Lesson 1: Political will and sound policy-making make a difference

Following from the above, it is clear that Africa as a continent has come a long way in addressing inequities within the education systems. In most African countries, governments are putting in place policies to redress some of the injustices suffered by disadvantaged and marginalized groups. In many cases, education budgets have been increasing in spite of the pressure put by the current international economic crisis that is robbing African countries of much-needed financial resources as commodities’ prices have come tumbling down, exposing in the process Africa’s vulnerability to its over dependence on trading raw minerals and materials. Tanzania, for instance, has almost doubled the share of its GDP that goes to education within a decade, from 3.8 % in 2002-2003 to 6.5% in 2012/2013 and most of it has been used to combat discrimination and exclusion of all sorts but more prominently against gender disparities.

The analysis of the Tanzanian education policies shows a systematic and genuine attempt to tackle head-on the existing inequities. For the period 2004-2015, for example, the government set the following gender equity related priorities in secondary education:

i. Improve girls’ access to secondary education;
ii. Improve performance of girls in mathematics and science;
iii. Increase retention and completion rates for girls;
iv. Improve life skills and support for girls’ education;
v. Eliminate gender stereotypes in teaching and learning materials;
vi. Improve teaching and learning environment to be gender responsive;
vii. Apply of gender responsive pedagogy and adopt competence based curricula

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39 Education for All 2015 National Review, Tanzania Mainland
By and large, these priorities were achieved through concrete programs such as the FAWE-initiated “TUSEME” which seeks to improve retention and achievement of girls in secondary schools. In addition to TUSEME, the government also set up bursary schemes for girls coming from low income families, provided extra school materials to support girls’ education and built facilities such as toilets, science laboratories, assembly halls, etc. Instead of experimenting with these programs in a few schools, the Tanzanian government took the bold step of scaling up them up. In the case of TUSEME, 163 secondary schools were reached and 483 teachers were trained by 2009 at the end of the SEDP 1. The goal was to institutionalize the program activities in all government secondary schools by 2009.

Algeria has also demonstrated the importance of having a combination of a strong political will and an intelligent approach to policy-making which has paid dividends as demonstrated above.

Lesson 2: Political stability and addressing poverty and negative cultural practices are paramount in fighting discrimination against girls and women.

Chad and to a lesser extent Ivory Coast have emerged as countries that are facing serious challenges in closing the gender gap and a host of other inequities. As such, they are, to a large degree, representatives of many relatively poor African countries who are emerging from civil strife and trying to rebuild their social sectors in very volatile national and international contexts.

The Chadian report has identified 3 types of challenges to inclusive education in the country: political, economic and sociocultural. Under the political obstacles, the recurrent military conflicts and the ensuing political instability have diverted the political leaders’ attention away from socioeconomic development.

With respect to the economic barriers, and also linked to the political obstacles, the Chadian state does not devote enough resources compared to other countries with the same level of economic development and income. But the explanation is very simple. Most of the resources are being invested in military expenditures to secure the country from many external and internal threats. At the same time, the country is also faced with a rapid demographic growth rate (3.1%) brought about by a very high fertility rate as a woman of childbearing age produces on average 6.6 children.

With regard to sociocultural barriers, the report lists quite a few: (i) illiteracy/ lack of education which leads parents to force their children to dropout from school as they are faced with immediate survival needs such as tending to farms in a subsistence agriculture, herding, wood and water fetching, cooking, childcare, housework, children drover, etc.); (ii) Household poverty. This is the most cited factor for dropping out of school by students. In a country where people have large families, school fees and the indirect cost of education can be stifling.

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Lesson 3: Weak financial and human capacity in ministries of education hampers the effective implementation of policies and programs.

For a policy to be effectively implemented the following ingredients are needed: a requisite financial capacity, a critical mass of competent cadre in management at key implementation levels and an empowering leadership style.

In Ivory Coast, for instance, the report admits that the provision of inclusive education is faced with the challenge of infrastructure and programs as these are still rare and those that exist are not effective and therefore not sustainable. This is an indication that key programs are either not receiving sufficient financial resources to run effectively or/and the human capacity to manage them is lacking.

In Zambia, one of the success stories is that of the North-West Province (NWP) which used to do poorly in implementation of educational programs and was turned around through training of its managers (capacity development) and change in the decision-making process. This involved shifting from a top-down to bottom-up approach to leadership and management. The Zambian EFA 2015 Review Report states that:

> In the past, ideas about governance through decentralization have focused more on efficiency arguments rather than putting the capability of problem solving in the hands of lower level management units. Consequently, education management is top-down in orientation. Decision makers in provinces, districts and schools are looking for solutions to come from the top. In contrast, NWP’s transformation depended on the provincial, district and school management teams taking responsibility and ownership of the challenges they faced. NWP’s experience also shows that it is not just a matter of providing training for education managers. It is, more crucially, the ability to stimulate leadership. Key in this regard is how leadership practice at multiple levels (province, district, and school level) creates incentives to motivate others to improve performance. (p.37)

This advice is worth heeding as African governments are faced with the need to create/develop more and more programs in order to cope with a staggering number of disadvantaged and marginalized populations due to wars, pandemics and other ills. The current institutional and human capacity in poorer countries needs to be beefed up. The Zambian report identifies the following areas for capacity development/ performance improvement:

1. Leadership, management and supervision;
2. Teacher preparedness;
3. Assessment;
4. Supporting learners;
5. Policy development and implementation; and
6. Monitoring of teaching and learning
4.2 Recommendations

- The first recommendation that comes to mind after reviewing the reports is the need for more and better research on inclusive education. Data, both quantitative and qualitative, is needed to guide policy-makers and practitioners. Documenting good practices and building databases of relevant and effective instruments and tools for implementing should be encouraged. Research agendas should be formulated and implemented using all available resources and African universities should be involved in this endeavour. Sub-sectors such as TVET, Higher education and adult education are not well-researched and documented in terms of girls and women’s participation and survival.

- Secondly, and for the African Union, it is important to engage governments and Regional Economic Communities (RECs) in policy dialogue on inclusive education and the way countries are making progress on achieving it. This has already been planned within the framework of the monitoring of the Comprehensive Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 2016-2025).

- From the Tanzanian context, African countries, technical and funding partners and NGOs should do the following:
  
  i. Expand gender-friendly physical facilities at all levels of education including constructing hostels for community secondary schools for both boys and girls and instituting school-feeding programs in partnership with communities and local farmers.
  
  ii. Train teachers systematically to become gender sensitive and equip them with competencies for guidance and counselling during pre and in-service training programs;
  
  iii. Make advocacy for human rights a national priority and engage communities in addressing cultural practices that impinge on the rights of girls and women to education and training. Every country should establish and implement a nationwide community awareness campaign on the importance of education for the girl child.
  
  iv. Set up school clubs to encourage boys and girls to interact and support each other in addressing challenges they face;
  
  v. Reinstate the provision of bursary scheme for promoting girls’ participation in science and mathematics at all levels, more particularly at secondary and higher education levels;
  
  vi. Expand funding for science camps and remedial programs for girls.
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APPENDIX 1: TANZANIA’S COMMITMENT TO PROMOTE GENDER EQUALITY

In line with national priorities, consistent with Millennium Development Goal 3 and three out of the six Dakar Framework EFA Goals (Goals 2, 4 and 5 respectively), the government has developed several policies and strategies to support gender parity and equity in education.

The Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) 1997 was developed to implement The Education and Training Policy (ETP), 1995 and to address the issue of fragmented educational interventions. It identified gender, HIV/AIDS, guidance and counselling and environment as important cross-cutting issues. The ETP forms the policy framework within which all education planning is developed. Among the ETP issues under discussion is the reentry of pregnant school girls, which once approved, will enhance participation and completion of basic education for all girls.

The Ministry of Community Development, Gender and Children (MCDGC) developed the Women and Gender Development Policy (WGD) in 2000 and The National Strategy for Gender Development (NSGD) in 2005. The WGD states that by improving the existing situation in gender parity, education should be used to eliminate all forms of discrimination in the society. To implement NSGD the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) has established the gender desk and appointed a gender focal person (GFP) who is responsible for ensuring that gender issues are mainstreamed in MoEVT’s policies, programmes and plans.

The MoEVT gender section developed the Medium Term Strategic Plan for Gender Mainstreaming (SPGM) for the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training for (2010/11–2014/15) in order to address the challenges of gender inequality in education.

The Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Policy paper of 1993, stipulated the overseeing of equity in access to Vocational Education Training to disadvantaged groups including girls and women. Similarly the Technical Education and Vocational Training Policy (1996) and the National Higher Education policy (1999) were directed to improve access and equity and quality of education at these levels. The Directorate of TVET is in the initial stages of developing the Technical and Vocational Education and Training Development Programme (TVETDP) which will aim among others, to address issues of access and equity with a perspective on gender. The higher Education Development Programme (2010 – 2015) envisages addressing issues of access and equity of women in higher education in relation to increased enrolment of female students especially in science and technology programmes, to provide friendly physical learning environments, loans, grants and scholarships.

Source: Ministry of Education of Tanzania Mainland (2014). Education for All 2015 National Review Report: Tanzania (efa2015reviews@unesco.org) (p.81)
APPENDIX 2: STRUCTURE OF THE GENDER EQUALITY INDEX OF THE AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT BANK

The Africa Gender Equality Index measures gender equality across three separate dimensions: equality in economic opportunities, equality in human development and equality in law and institutions. Each dimension draws on a series of indicators listed below. Together they provide answers to six questions: 1. Do women and men have equal opportunities in business and employment? 2. Do girls and boys have equal opportunities at school? 3. Do women have access to reproductive health services? 4. Are women and men equally well represented in institutions? 5. Do women and men have the same legal rights? 6. Do women and men have the same household rights?

AFRICA GENDER EQUALITY INDEX

1. EQUALITY IN ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITIES
   - Do women and men have equal opportunities in business and employment?
     - Labor participation rate
     - Wage and salary workers
     - Wage equality
     - Estimated earned income
     - Loan from a financial institution in the past year

2. EQUALITY IN HUMAN DEVELOPMENT
   - Do girls and boys have equal opportunities at school?
     - Literacy rate
     - School enrollment, primary
     - School enrollment, secondary
     - School enrollment, tertiary

3. EQUALITY IN LAW & INSTITUTIONS
   - Are women and men equally well represented in institutions?
     - Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments
     - Proportion of women in ministerial-level positions
     - Number of justices on the constitutional court who are women
   - Do women and men have the same legal rights?
     - This component of the Index measures the degree to which women and men have the same legal rights. The score is based on the answers to 11 questions such as:
       - Is there a non-discrimination clause in the constitution?
       - Do women and men have the same rights to access credit and bank loans?
       - Do women and men have equal legal rights to own and administer property other than land?
       - etc.

   - Do women and men have the same household rights?
     - This component of the Index measures the degree to which women and men have the same household rights. The score is based on the answers to 11 questions such as:
       - Are married women required by law to obey their husbands?
       - Can a married woman be “head of household” or “head of family” in the same way as a man?
       - Do daughters and their male counterparts have equal rights as heirs?
       - etc.
APPENDIX 3: RESULTS OF RESULTS OF THE AFRICA GENDER EQUALITY INDEX 2015