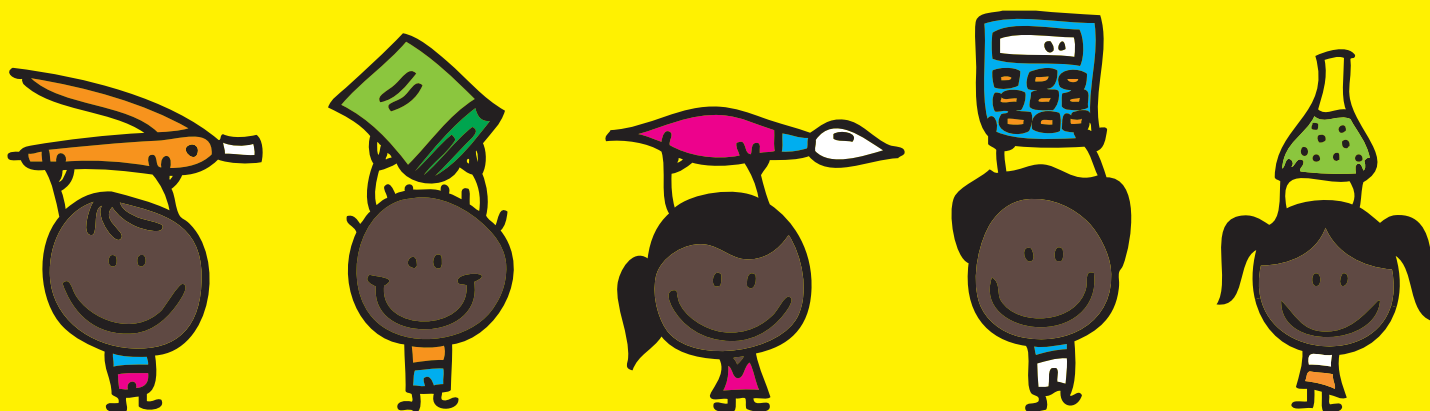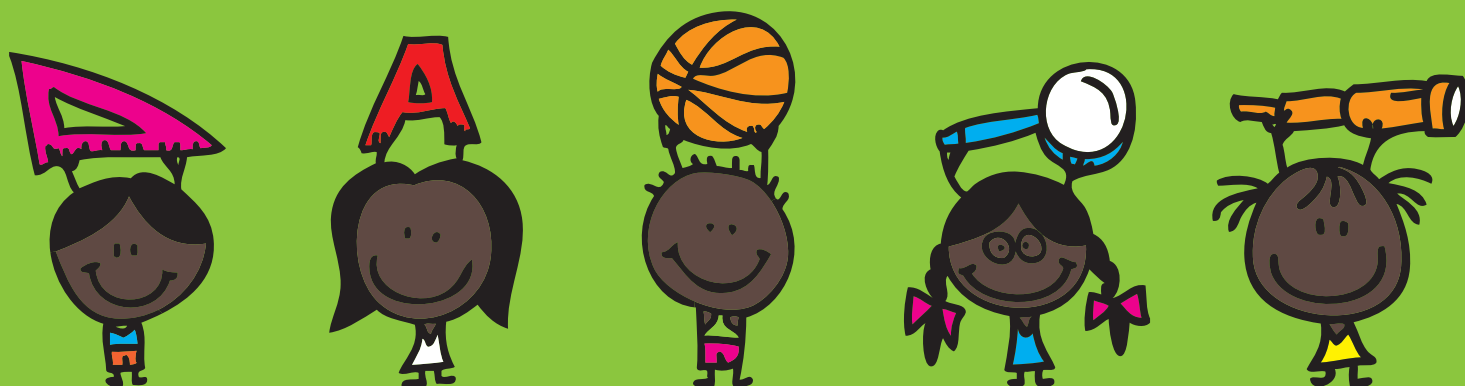# ALL CHILDREN IN SCHOOL BY 2015

Global initiative on out-of-school children

REGIONAL REPORT

WEST AND CENTRAL AFRICA

UNESCO
INSTITUTE
for
STATISTICS

United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

unicef

REGIONAL REPORT

WEST AND CENTRAL AFRICA

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Preface

With the 2015 target date for the Millennium Development Goals and Education For All fast approaching, the issue of out-of-school children is more important than ever for countries in West and Central Africa. Since 2000, the number of out-of-school children was on a downward trend, however, since 2008 these figures have not moved; the burden for countries in the region has increased dramatically for they are now home to more than a third of the world's out-of-school children. Based on the latest household surveys from 21 countries in the region, this study reports that there are nearly 32 million children of official school age who are not attending either primary or lower secondary school. A further 17 million school children who are at risk of dropping out could be added to this figure. These statistics, which show the magnitude of the situation, fail to take into account the hardships associated with this situation for families and the huge loss for the region and society as a whole.

This study aims to shed some light on the scale and mechanisms of exclusion in the region, and to bring to the fore a number of tools and resources that are available to promote the educational inclusion of all children. To enable all children, even the most marginalized, to have access to basic quality education, we need to think creatively and make use of all the resources at our disposal. It is imperative that the fight against all forms of exclusion is coordinated and concerted. Indeed, without mass mobilization of all stakeholders and a comprehensive strategy, it will not be possible to effectively address all forms of school exclusion. However, only a truly inclusive education system has the capacity to build a knowledge-based society, which the region urgently needs for its future. The international community has a decisive role to play in supporting the efforts of these countries to develop an inclusive education system.

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has a specific responsibility to encourage and help all children deprived of education. The main priority, in collaboration with all stakeholders, remains the enrolment of all out-of-school children as quickly as possible. There are just two years left for us to achieve the collective commitments to which we agreed in 2000; we must therefore have the strength and determination to take the most appropriate actions that will enable all children to fully exercise their right to a quality education.

Manuel Fontaine
Regional director for UNICEF, West and Central Africa

List of tables and figures

Acronyms

5DE	The 5 Dimensions of Exclusion
ANLCI	Agence Nationale de Lutte Contre l'Illettrisme (National Agency for the Fight Against Illiteracy)
CAR	Central African Republic
DE	Dimension of Exclusion
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
EFA	Education For All
ESA	East and Southern Africa
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
HBS	Household Budget Survey
HLSS	Household Living Standard Survey
IO	International Organisation
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
OOSC	Out-of-School Children
OOSCI	Out-of-School Children Initiative
PASEC	Programme for the Analysis of Educational Systems of CONFEMEN Countries
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PSIA	Poverty and Social Impact Analysis
QUIBB	Questionnaire des indicateurs de base de bien-être - Basic Welfare Indicators Questionnaire
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
STP	Sao Tome and Principe
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNDP	United National Development Programme

Executive summary

What is the regional context?

Enabling all children to access quality educational opportunities is a prerequisite for the development of all nations. However, despite significant progress, the region of West and Central Africa (WCA) has markedly the highest number of out-of-school children in the world. Indeed, the most recent data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) show that in 2010 this region had 36% of the world's out-of-school children whilst it only accounted for 22% in 1999. Even if WCA has seen a reduction in the number of out-of-school children, it has been less significant than in other regions of the world. Comprised of 24 countries with very high population growth, the region accounts for a population of 433.5 million, or 6.2% of the world's population. The educational context, as well as the economic and health situation in the region, remains a significant problem, and also explains why 19 countries in the region are classified as having a low Human Development Index (UNDP, 2011).

Even though the number of children enrolled in educational systems in WCA countries has risen sharply since the turn of the millennium, the region's difficult demographic and economic context means that it is still far behind the rest of the world in terms of school exclusion. Equity, based on place of residence, gender and income remains a significant problem. Nevertheless, more than half the countries in the region officially offer free and compulsory primary education. Parity between boys and girls in primary education in countries in the region averages 0.93; more than one tenth of students are repeaters and only 70% of children enrolled in primary school reach the fifth year[1]. The quality of educational opportunities and results, in terms of learning achievements, are relatively poor in the region. A primary school teacher in the region will teach, on average, classes of 41 students and less than two-thirds of teachers are trained in their profession. Even if a States' budgetary input for education is significant, low per capita GDP and high population growth mean that, in absolute terms, the amount allocated per student is still very low throughout WCA, compared to other parts of the world.

In order to specifically address the issue of out-of-school children, UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) launched a global initiative in favour of out-of-school children in 2010. Aimed at accelerating action towards universal primary education by 2015, the underlying principles of this global initiative are to improve information systems and the statistical analysis of out-of-school children, as well as to identify bottlenecks causing this situation and strategies available to address these issues. In this context and in addition to country studies carried out in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Nigeria, Ghana and Liberia, household surveys, available from 2005 to 2009 in 21 countries of the region, were used to analyze, at the regional level, who the out-of-school children are, why they do not go to school and the resources available to make a change.

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1. All the figures in this executive summary, like most others presented in this report, are simple averages made on the basis of available administrative and survey data. They may differ from those of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), which calculates regional averages weighted by population and makes estimates for missing data. It should also be noted that UNICEF's geographic zones are different from those of the UIS. UIS classifies Mauritania under 'Arab States' while UNICEF files it under the 'West and Central Africa' region. For the purpose of this report, UNICEF's regional classification was used.

Executive summary

What are the regional profiles of out-of-school children ?

The 5 dimensions of exclusion model (5DE) was developed based on the official age groups for school attendance and the current and projected educational situation of children in each country to quantify: children who are old enough to go to pre-school but who are excluded from any educational structure (DE1); children of primary school age but who are excluded from any educational structure (DE2); children old enough to enroll in lower secondary school but who are excluded from any educational structure (DE3); primary school students at risk of exclusion (DE4) and; students enrolled in lower secondary school at risk of exclusion (DE5). An analysis of those children excluded from preschool (DE1) however, could not be made due to the lack of reliable data for this level of education. The numbers of children excluded from primary school (DE2) and lower secondary school (DE3) are calculated as the ratio between the number of out-of-school children in the official age groups and the total number of children in the official age groups. To estimate a priori the schooling profile of a given cohort of students, leaving them enough time to complete their studies, the percentages of children at risk of exclusion from primary (DE4) and lower secondary education (DE5) are obtained by estimating the percentage of individuals who dropped out of primary school and lower secondary school out of a population of 23-24 year olds. The number of excluded children for each dimension is calculated by multiplying these different proportions by the number of children, according to the United Nations Development Programme's estimates (UNDP).

The results show that close to 38% of primary school-age children in WCA (DE2) are currently excluded, with the average for countries in the region, varying between 7% and 70% depending on the country. For lower secondary school (DE3), the exclusion rate is an average of 34% in the region, with a low of 6% and a high of 73% depending on the country. Based on past academic achievements, as captured through the schooling pathways of individuals who are currently 23-24 years old, it is possible to quantify that almost 37% of children currently enrolled in primary school are at risk of dropping out before completion (DE4). This average goes up to 38% for those having reached lower secondary school, but who are also at risk of dropping out (DE5). Strong correlations between DE2 and DE3 unite several groups of countries; Niger and Burkina Faso have the highest exclusion rates in primary and secondary schools in the region. Countries such as Mali, Senegal, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast and the Central African Republic (CAR) also have a higher than average percentage of school exclusion amongst countries in the region, for both primary and lower secondary education. In contrast, Gabon, Congo, Sao Tome and Principe have a smaller proportion of excluded children at both the primary and secondary levels. Liberia, which has the highest percentage of children excluded from primary school, has an exclusion rate for lower secondary school, which is below the average of all the other countries in the region.

By integrating children who enter later in the school system on the basis of an age of inflection, that is to say, the age at which the percentage of children who have not yet entered is minimal, it is possible to estimate, at country level, that those excluded account for 26% of children old enough to be in primary school, 34% of children old enough to be in lower secondary school and 49% of children old enough to be in upper secondary school. Even though the number of children dropping out of school is high and increases with school-going age, it should be noted that it is still lower than the percentage of children who have never been to school. Thus the majority of out-of-school children in the region have never been to school before and are not children who entered and later dropped out.

In quantitative terms, the region has 23.2 million primary school-age children (DE2) and 8.6 million children old enough to be in lower secondary school (DE2) who are currently out of school. A further 14.3 million children

who are at risk of being excluded from primary education (DE4) in the future and another 3 million children at risk of exclusion from lower secondary education (DE5), must be added to these figures. These children are mainly concentrated in just a few countries. Nigeria and the DRC account for nearly half of excluded children while a quarter of them are located in Niger, Burkina Faso, Ghana and Ivory Coast. It must also be kept in mind that these regional figures are underestimates as they do not take into account any excluded children in Cape Verde, Equatorial Guinea or Chad.

To complement the five-dimensional model for school exclusion, a model to follow the pattern of a child's schooling can also be developed. This model can be used to quantify exclusion levels at every stage of a child's schooling based on the age of inflection and past academic achievements of children aged 17-18 years. On this basis, it is estimated that school exclusion occurs mainly at access to primary education (25%) and during the primary school cycle (16%). Dropouts over the course of lower secondary education (5%) and during the transition from primary education to secondary education (5%) and from lower to upper secondary education (2%) are also problematic, but affect fewer students. Finally, it should be noted that even at 17-18 years of age, a large number of children in the region still appear to attend primary school (10%) or lower secondary education (24%). These country averages hide wide disparities between countries; for example, almost half of the children in Mali, Burkina Faso and Niger never enter school. More than half of the children attending primary school in CAR and Guinea-Bissau drop-out before last grade and nearly two thirds of children in CAR and Guinea who attend lower secondary school do not reach last grade.

Regional characteristics of exclusion show that the different proportions of out-of-school children are particularly significant between rural and urban areas, the poorest and richest households, and between girls and boys. A girl from a poor household, living in a rural area, (bottom three income quintiles) is twice as likely to be excluded from the education system than a boy from a rich, urban household (top two income quintiles). Econometric models of household surveys in some countries confirm the results obtained from descriptive statistics. By analyzing the different situations between categories of students at each step of the school exclusion process, it can be seen that school exclusion is significantly related to income, location, gender and the child's family circumstances.

What are the regional barriers to education ?

In countries of WCA educational barriers appear to come from a combination of the demand and supply rationales for education within an environment that leads to a process of school exclusion and inclusion. On the demand side, economic hardships related to family issues, child health problems, cultural factors and a poor perception of the value of education, partly explain the education exclusion phenomenon and generate worse phenomena such as differential treatment and attitudes of discrimination towards schooled children as well as child labour. On the supply side, the direct and indirect costs of education, lack of schools, teachers and equipment, as well as bad teaching practices and violence at school, result in poor academic achievements and account for a large part of the school exclusion phenomenon. Between the supply and demand, several factors can directly influence others, in particular economic hardship faced by households and the cost of education, as well as household perception of the value of education and poor academic achievements. Here, the quality and cost of schooling have a negative relationship, as reducing registration fees and parental contribution also reduces the ability to pay for good teachers or any investment in infrastructure. In terms of

the environment, political governance problems, conflict and insecurity, institutional capacity and efficiency, lack of funding and natural disasters also partly explain the scale of the school exclusion phenomena.

In most of the countries in the region, parents state household economic hardships as the main reason for non-attendance at school. Lack of nearby schools, family issues, child health problems, as well as the quality of educational opportunities available, are also frequently cited. Even if, officially, primary education is free in 14 of the 24 countries in the region, in reality it almost always constitutes a significant cost for households. With purchasing power parity and a fixed U.S. dollar rate (2004), the average cost for a household for one child schooling in a public primary school (Pôle de Dakar, 2012) varies between US $7.00 (Niger) and US $70.00 (Ivory Coast). For a place in the first year of a public secondary school it costs between US $24.00 (Niger) and US $300.00 (Cameroon). A considerable part of household income, even in the poorest households, is therefore put aside for the educational expenses of the children. The majority of this educational expenditure goes towards school registration fees. This may exceed two-thirds of a household's expenditure in countries such as Mali and Burkina Faso. Equipment and school supplies account for 40% of a household's expenditure on their children's schooling; only in Gabon is more than half of its expenditure on school supplies. In some countries, household financial contributions are ultimately higher than those of the State. As reported in the public expenditure records for education, household expenditure for one child represents between 6% (Niger) and 78% (Sierra Leone) of what the State spends for one student at primary school; for lower secondary school, household expenditure varies between 14% (Mali) and 146% (Benin) of the State's contributions.

What regional strategies are in place to reduce school exclusion ?

A large number of tools and strategies have been developed in the region to address the problems of supply and demand, as well as the educational environment in order to significantly reduce the number of out-of-school children. From the supply side, it is possible to address household economic hardships through resource transfers to households; scholarships awarded to students; educational vouchers; student loans or national social protection programmes. Feeding, nutrition and school health programmes, as well as support for disabilities enable issues related to child health to be addressed. It is possible to tackle the poor perception of the value of education through community advocacy and literacy programmes. From the supply and school intervention side, it is possible to address the cost of education through programmes to abolish school fees and transfer systems for school funds. The distribution of school kits, uniforms, textbooks and other school supplies as well as the installation of basic infrastructure to provide access to water, latrines or school canteens can improve the situation of exclusion in some schools. The lack of teachers can be overcome through recruitment campaigns, subsidies and teacher training, particularly for community teachers. For principals, teachers and students, training and mentoring programmes, the provision of teaching materials, as well as a review of the curricula and management models, can reduce bad practices that cause some children to leave school.

School and classroom construction programmes, boarding facilities or school transport can help to bring children closer to school and in this way improve the accessibility of schools. Finally, when it comes to the context, various national programmes to improve the situation of the country at the political, economic, social, health, and demographic level, can have a significant impact on demand factors such as the supply of

education. Increased budgets for education and capacity building of Ministries of Education at the national and local level clearly have high added value in the fight against school exclusion.

One of the main obstacles that parents face, which is hindering the expansion of education for all is financial. In 2005, UNICEF and the World Bank launched an international initiative for the abolition of school fees (School Fees Abolition Initiative). The key principles behind this initiative are: documentation of national experiences on the impact of the abolition of school fees; support for countries engaging in this initiative and encouragement of broad political dialogue to gain consensus on this issue. In practice, national programmes in Cameroon, Benin, Togo and Congo greatly reduced school fees and have actually shown that this has had a positive impact on the number of children entering the education system. In these countries, the implementation of a free education system was a real wake up call and has enabled hundreds of thousands of additional children to access education. Countries in WCA currently use a wide variety of tools aimed at reducing school fees for primary education. However, budgets allocated to schools to support the abolition of fees are rarely sufficient and primary education still remains expensive, especially for the poorest households.

What are the recommendations and future prospects for the region ?

This regional study puts forward several courses of action to achieve the inclusion of all children, at least until the end of lower secondary education. As a first step, it is necessary to have an overview of school exclusion, widespread mobilization and a comprehensive, funded strategy to effectively deal with exclusion in all its forms, in an in-depth manner. The idea would therefore be to set up formal prevention and reinsertion mechanisms in what could be national, multi-sectoral and multiparty plans to fight against school exclusion, to be included in the national Education for All (EFA) strategies. Given the importance and transversal nature of the issue, the creation of some kind of national office within the Ministries of Education to combat school exclusion, could help with the implementation of management strategies for inclusive education and bring together all government and non-governmental partners, in collaboration with responsibilities assigned to the issue at the national and local level. It is essential to promote a culture of inclusive education at both centralized and decentralized levels to foster diversity among students and endorse their right to return to school. An appropriate tool could then be the creation of a day or week of national action to combat school exclusion and awareness campaigns to challenge stereotypes and propose concrete actions.

A pro-vulnerability regulatory framework should be developed to put a stop to certain behaviour that leads to the exclusion of students from schools; a welcoming atmosphere should prevail in schools and all administrative bottlenecks to school attendance should be removed. To meet the needs of inclusive education in terms of quantity and diversity, it is essential to get support from NGOs and other existing private organisations. Expanded partnerships, to promote innovative programmes, need to be created. New public-private partnerships and a nationwide competition to explore new ideas for improving inclusive education could be developed. The organization of real inclusive pedagogy and training is required. Some ideas that could be used for inclusive education teaching and training include: training and tools for inclusive education and for combating exclusion for teachers, a quota of teachers who come from excluded groups, curriculum review, textbooks that are sensitive to all stereotypes, and a flexible curricula and certification for certain categories of children. The inclusion of all children in local schools should also be promoted. The inclusion of children who are stigmatized in local mainstream schools presents a number of obstacles and should therefore have its own awareness

campaigns and specific tools. Discriminated children could be given trial periods in a regular local school to assess whether they could be integrated in a regular classroom while awaiting additional support, if deemed necessary. A system of collecting disaggregated data should be set up to provide more accurate information on exclusion and its different forms. Advocacy efforts and interactions with staff responsible for statistics, as well as updated survey forms and statistics from the Ministry of Education should be developed. A platform for communication and information dissemination could be set up through a special website to create and source documents, support new initiatives and share best practices.

Ultimately, in this fight against school exclusion, it is essential to have a package of direct and targeted interventions, based on the different contexts. As far as households are concerned, financial transfers and in-kind contributions, in addition to local humanitarian assistance, and support and specific training for families whose children are particularly stigmatized, are all possibilities. Some of the activities that could be implemented in schools include: free comprehensive or targeted education; activities and support for out-of-school children by children who are already in school; contracts with institutions to promote academic success; parent associations focused on quality and inclusion; institutionalization of affirmative action; standardisation of community schools; the creation of infrastructures that are sensitive to gender and disabilities; canteens; school health programmes and peer mentoring. Outreach programmes, support for community initiatives, identification of excluded children and the creation of networks and support systems for parent associations are other activities that could be set up by communities.

Regional background

The state of children and education in the region

The goal of universal primary education remains a critical global issue and despite significant progress, West and Central Africa is the region that has the most school out-of-school children in the world. Enabling all children to access quality educational opportunities is a prerequisite for the development of all nations. Access to basic education for all children is a major global objective that is still far from being achieved for a certain number of countries. Even if the latest Education For All Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012) shows that the number of primary school-age children who are out-of-school has decreased significantly from 108 million in 1999 to 61 million in 2010, most of this decline occurred between 1999 and 2004 and the number of out-of-school children has been more or less the same since 2008. More specifically, the number of out-of-school children increased by 1.6 million between 2008 and 2010 in sub-Saharan Africa, with this region ultimately representing half of the global figures. Worldwide, there are still 31 countries with more than 15% of primary school-age children out of school; these countries only have a very small chance of achieving the goal of universal primary education by 2015. Late entry and dropouts continue to be major challenges. Twenty-four countries of the world have a net enrolment rate below 50% and in 2009 only 59% of those children who attended primary school in low-income countries reached last grade. For this goal of universal primary education, the region of West and Central Africa has the highest number of out-of-school children in the world. Based on the latest data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), the WCA region had 36% of the world's out-of-school children in 2010 whilst it only accounted for 22% in 1999. Compared to other regions of the world, WCA has experienced a much smaller decline in the number of out-of-school children.

Figure 1: Out-of-school children in West and Central Africa compared with the rest of the world, 1999 and 2010

Source: UIS (2013)

in millions of children

- Out-of-school children Rest of the world
- Out-of-school children West and Central Africa
- School children West and Central Africa
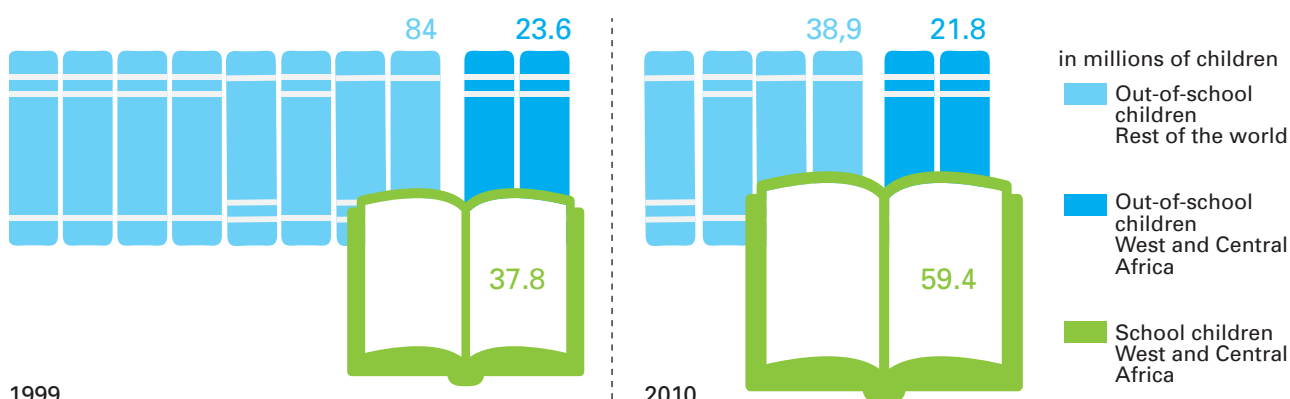
Despite their differences, countries in West and Central Africa have the world's highest population growth rates and the highest incidences of poverty. Made up of 24 countries[2], the population of the West and Central African region (WCA) was estimated at almost 433.5 million people in 2012 or 6.2% of the world's population (see Annexe A, Table A2). The region has some very large countries such as Nigeria (166 million)

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2. These countries are: Benin; Burkina Faso; Cameroon; Cape Verde; Congo; Côte d'Ivoire; Democratic Republic of Congo; Gabon; Gambia; Ghana; Guinea; Guinea-Bissau; Equatorial Guinea; Liberia; Mali; Mauritania; Niger; Nigeria; CAR; Sao Tome and Principe; Senegal; Sierra Leone; Chad; Togo.

and the Democratic Republic of Congo (69.6 million) and other countries with less than one million inhabitants (Sao Tome, Cape Verde, Equatorial Guinea). With an annual population growth rate of 2.4%, WCA, together with East and Southern Africa (ESA), has the fastest population growth rate in the world. Countries of West and Central Africa are mostly made up of young people and people living in rural areas. In terms of health, this region also boasts the highest infant and child mortality rates in the world and has an HIV prevalence rate among adults of nearly 2.6%. Life expectancy at birth in the region ranges from 48 years (Sierra Leone) to 74 years (Cape Verde) giving an average of 56 years, which is nearly 14 years younger than the global average. Levels of wealth also vary greatly throughout the region; the overall average of these countries once again, is still one of the lowest in the world (see Annexe A, Table A3). The annual GDP per capita in 2010, in current U.S. dollars, ranges between US $180 (DRC) and US $14,540 (Equatorial Guinea) with an average of US $2,344 for countries in the region. Nearly 42% of people in these countries nevertheless live below the poverty line, set at US $1.25 per day, this figure varying between 84% (Liberia) and 5% (Gabon). Literacy rates for over 15 year olds are still quite low with an average of 57%, with a low of 29% (Niger) and a high of 94% (Equatorial Guinea). It should also be noted that in addition to this already difficult situation, the WCA region is also particularly prone to crises and armed conflicts (EFA, 2011). Between 1999 and 2008, 8 countries were officially affected by armed conflict (CAR, Chad, DRC, Guinea, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Ivory Coast, Nigeria); Mali can also be added to this list as of 2012. Situations of high political and economic instability, climate vulnerability as well as religious and ethnic violence are also commonplace and have a major impact on levels of school exclusion. WCA is the world's least developed region in terms of human development. Indeed, 19 of the 46 countries classified as having a low human development index are in West and Central Africa[3] (Human Development Report, UNDP, 2011).

Despite a sharp increase in the number of children enrolled in educational systems in WCA since the 2000s, most countries in the region still have over a quarter of their primary school-age children out of school. WCA has made considerable progress in terms of access to education. According to the latest statistics available from the UIS, the number of children enrolled in primary school has increased by nearly 60% from 37.8 million children in 1999 to 59.4 million in 2010. Despite this considerable quantitative increase in enrolment, late registration and the region's high population growth mean that most WCA countries still have low enrolment rates. From pre-school to higher education, WCA is lagging far behind other areas of the world. With a regional weighted average[4] of 14.1% in 2010 for the gross enrolment rate (GER) at preschool, this phase is still restricted to a small proportion of the predominantly urban population (see Annexe A, Table A4). Universal primary education is still far from being achieved as more than a quarter of the population of the countries in the region were still excluded from school in 2010. Despite progress, the regional weighted average for the net enrolment rate (NER) in primary school was in fact only 66.3% in 2010 and 10 out of 19 countries in WCA had more than a quarter of primary school-age children out of school (see Annexe A, Table A4).

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3. Of the countries in WCA, only Ghana, Equatorial Guinea, Congo, Gabon and Cape Verde are classified as having 'medium human development'.
4. This report sometimes refers to 'regional averages'; this means that these figures were provided by the UIS and are weighted averages of the population of school-age children and include estimates for countries with missing data. Most of the time however, this study uses the 'averages of countries in the region', which are simple averages of country data and therefore there is no weighting by population. Unless otherwise indicated, the term 'average' in this study refers to the notion of simple average from country data available. It should also be noted that UNICEF's geographic zones are different from those of the UIS. UIS classifies Mauritania under 'Arab States' whereas UNICEF files it under the 'West and Central Africa' region. Apart from the regional weighted averages provided by the UIS for section 1.1, all other data in this report include Mauritania in averages for countries in the region.

Figure 2: Net enrolment rates for primary education, 2010 or most recent data available according to the UIS

Source: Authors, according to data from UNESCO (2012)

Legend:
- Between 100 et 90%
- Between 80 et 89,9%
- Between 70 et 79,9%
- Between 60 et 69,9%
- Less Than 60%
- No data

Countries labeled on map: Mauritania, Mali, Niger, Chad, Senegal, Gambia, Guinea-Bissau, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Burkina Faso, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Togo, Benin, Nigeria, RCA Central African Republic, STP Sao Tome and Principe, Equatorial Guinea, Cameroun, Gabon, Congo, DRC Democratic Republic of Congo

Note: Data from 2010 except for Chad (2003), Liberia (2009), DRC (1999) Gabon (2003). No data available for Sierra Leone.

Equity according to place of residence, gender and income remains extremely problematic in countries of the region. These country averages hide wide disparities between different areas and populations within the individual countries. Rural, semi-urban and remote areas in particular are highly disadvantaged in terms of access to education as compared with urban areas. Children excluded from education systems in WCA are found to be from the most vulnerable groups of children: children from low-income households; those living in remote areas; girls; children from marginalized groups; children with disabilities; children who work; orphans; nomads; refugees and internally displaced persons (UNESCO, 2012). Gender parity indexes between girls and boys for primary education NER show that gender equality is still far from being achieved in most countries in the region. The average for countries in the region is 0.93, one of the lowest in the world, whilst 7 countries educate less than 90 girls for every 100 boys in school (see Annexe A, Table A4). A significant improvement, however, has been observed since 1999. It should also be noted that in countries such as Senegal, Mauritania and Gambia it is the boys who are disadvantaged in their access to primary school.

Introduction

Figure 3: Gender parity index for primary education net enrolment rates, 2010

----- Simple average for countries in the region
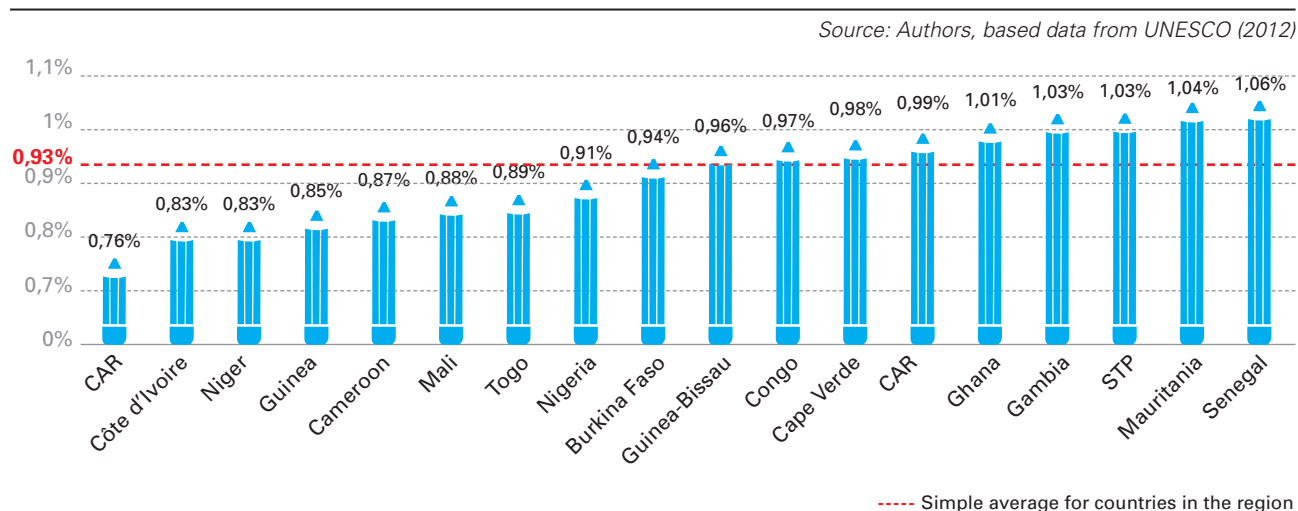
The majority of countries in the region officially offer free and compulsory primary education. On average, over one fifth of children in these countries are in private education, more than one tenth of students are repeaters and only 70% of children enrolling in primary school reach the fifth year. Education systems within WCA can vary significantly; the official age for primary school enrolment is 6 or 7 years (see Annexe A, Table A5) whereas education can be declared officially compulsory in the different countries from 4 years (Ghana) up to the age of 16 years (Cape Verde, Congo, Guinea, Liberia, Senegal and Chad). Free primary education is officially offered in 14 of the 24 countries in the region (see Annexe A, Table A5). Operators in the private education sector are key players in the education systems across the region. In 2010, 22.4% of students in primary education in WCA countries were enrolled in institutions controlled and managed by organizations other than the State; this figure is even higher for post-primary education (see Annexe A, Table A7). In 2010, the percentage of repeaters in primary education in WCA varied between 3.5% (Mauritania) and 22.6% (CAR), yielding an average of roughly 13% (see Annexe A, Table A6). Retention of children in primary school is still highly problematic; the survival rate is 71% for the region. In countries such as Benin, DRC, Liberia, the Central African Republic and in particular Chad, fewer than 60 children out of 100 enrolled in primary school are likely to reach their fifth year. School life expectancy varies between 4.9 years (Niger) and 12.7 years (Cape Verde) and is set at an average of 8.7 years for countries in the region.

Figure 4: Grade 5 survival rate, 2010

----- Simple average for countries in the region
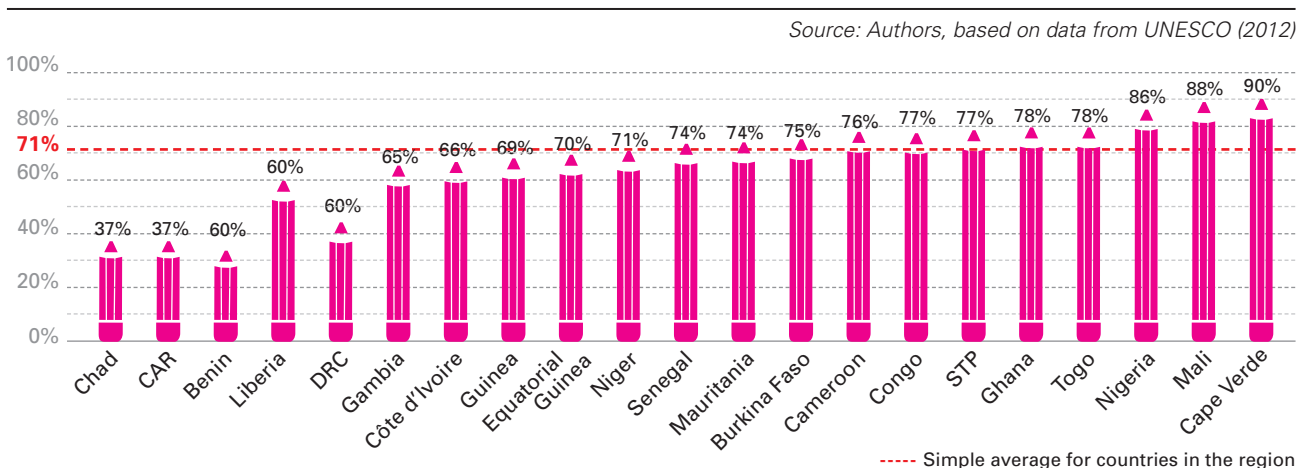
Box 1: Private education in WCA

Despite sharp increases in and diversification of the demand for education, the issue of private education is paramount and all countries in WCA have to seriously review their strengths and weaknesses given the severe budgetary, organisational and institutional constraints they all face. Indeed, private education is a key player in the educational scene of most countries in WCA. On average, more than half of the preschool students and more than a fifth of those in primary and secondary school are attending private school (d'Aiglepierre, 2013). Whilst private education has increased substantially over the last decade, it seems that private sector primary school has decreased significantly over the longer term. The boundary between public and private, in the field of education, is much more complex than it appears. Private education can be defined as any institution controlled and managed by a non-governmental institution, hereby leaving the door wide open for multiple combinations of public and private initiatives. Private educational institutions thus form a very heterogeneous group with considerable differences in terms of their vocation, their link to religion and State recognition. The provision of education therefore varies greatly according to the context and type of institution. Some private schools are able to educate children at a lower cost than public schools whilst others are specialized in giving students who failed in public institutions a second chance. Amongst the non-governmental institutions, there are social institutions founded by local communities, NGOs and charitable organizations to meet unfulfilled social needs. These institutions often respond to urgent needs and demands, especially in areas forgotten by public services. Community schools, in particular, are created by parents and local communities to complement public education efforts or to remedy shortcomings. It should also be noted that some institutions are specialized in the education of particularly vulnerable children (children with disabilities, orphans...) or the reinsertion of out-of-school children. The recent development of public-private partnerships ultimately represents a new field of action for education in WCA. Supply contracts for services, equipment, infrastructure and management or even education vouchers are all part of a wide variety of combinations where State and private operators can come together to provide educational services for out-of-school children or those who require a more specific approach.

Overall, the quality of educational opportunities and results, in terms of student academic achievements, are quite poor in the region. Strong concerns about the quality of education offered to children in WCA can be added to access and retention difficulties. Existing indexes on the quality of education and results in terms of academic achievements are in line with the overall relatively low level of quality in the region. If very few children in WCA actually complete primary school an even smaller number of them acquire solid and long-lasting basic skills in reading, writing and numeracy. The precise definition and measurement of the quality of education, however, are still complex issues (Altinok and Bourdon, 2012). A number of resource variables can give an idea of the quality of the student-learning context. In 2010, averages in WCA countries showed that primary school teachers had classes of 41 students, with this average increasing to more than 60 students in countries such as Chad and the CAR (see Annexe A, Table A6). At the primary school level, less than two-thirds of teachers are trained in their profession. In countries such as Benin, Guinea-Bissau, Equatorial Guinea, Liberia, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, more than half of primary school teachers are un-trained. However, these resource variables only give a very rough idea of the quality of education. For the last ten years or so, measurement of the quality of education has been greatly enriched by a growing number of national surveys on the quality of academic achievements. Surveys have also been carried out through the PASEC programme (Programme for the Analysis of Educational Systems of CONFEMEN countries) in countries in WCA. PASEC results show that on the whole, results are quite poor for French language and mathematics tests. Results of household surveys carried out in 13 countries estimate the literacy rate of the population aged 22 - 44 years, after 6 years of study, to be about 66%; some countries such as Niger, Chad, Burkina Faso and Mali, do not even reach 50% (UNESCO, 2011).

The funds allocated to the education of one child at primary school are still rather low. For the most part, education is covered by the different States in WCA and expenditure for education is often one of the highest budget items in terms of government spending. On average, for the period 2000-2009, States in sub-Saharan African (SSA) allocated 17% of public expenditure on education or 4.5% of their GDP (UNESCO, 2011). In fact, most countries have increased their education budgets. Annual growth in public spending on education in real terms has been fixed at 6.1% since 2000[5] (UNESCO, 2011). It should be noted here that some of the public expenditure allocated by SSA States for education comes from international aid and often targets primary education. An estimated 5.6% of public spending on education in SSA States comes from aid financing, but this amount can vary between 1 and 72%[6]. Even if relatively speaking, State financial efforts in education are high, the low per capita GDP and high population growth rates mean that, in absolute terms, the amount allocated per student is still somewhat low compared to other regions (see Annexe A, Table A7). In WCA, public expenditure per student attending primary school (unit cost), in U.S. $ (2009), varies between U.S. $9 (DRC) and U.S.$ 504 (Cape Verde) with an overall average of U.S. $98. The other source of funding for primary education comes from households. This amount is often highly significant and is even at times higher than that of the government (see section III.2).

The Global Out-of-School Initiative and its regional actions

By improving information systems and the statistical analysis of out-of-school children, as well as identifying bottlenecks that cause the situation and available strategies, a global initiative was developed to help gradually reduce numbers. In 2010, UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) launched the Global Initiative on Out-Of-School Children (OOSCI) to accelerate universal primary education interventions by 2015. This initiative is in line with the joint UIS/UNICEF report (2005) to develop a methodology to estimate the number of primary school-age children who are out of school (UIS). This initiative fits within the framework of Partnership in Statistics for Development in the 21st Century (PARIS21), the overall goal of which is to "develop a culture of evidence-based policymaking and implementation, which serves to improve governance and government effectiveness in reducing poverty and achieving the Millennium Development Goals"[7]. Indeed, this urgent challenge of getting out-of-school children into classrooms has been reflected in key policy commitments made since the international community adopted the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and Education For All (EFA). Statements emerging from the EFA High-Level Group meetings in Addis Ababa in February 2010 and in Jomtien in March 2011, call on governments to scale up efforts to address the problem of out-of-school children and to ensure equity in education. To this end, the OOSC Initiative aims to significantly reduce the number of out-of-school children by: (1) improving the statistical information and analysis regarding out-of-school children and developing complex profiles of these children that reflect the multiple deprivations and disparities they face in relation to education; and (2) identifying bottlenecks and analyzing existing interventions related to enhanced school participation alongside developing context-appropriate policies and strategies to accelerate the integration of out-of-school children. The OOSCI has country, regional and global dimensions and is designed to have capacity-development-related outputs. It has produced a methodology to address the problem of out-of-school children (see section II.1) and a number of national and regional studies. In 2011, 26 countries and 7 regions were engaged in this initiative. Country-led activities are undertaken by country teams comprising the diverse stakeholders in education and

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5. These figures are an estimate for the 26 countries of sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2011).
6. Bilateral and multilateral aid agencies cover more than half of public expenditure for education in countries such as Guinea, Mali or Liberia.
7. Partnership in Statistics for Development in the 21st Century (PARIS21), PARIS21 Annual Work Plan 2009-2010, Steering Committee Meeting, 5–6 June 2008.

led by government partners. These activities will contribute to the ongoing planning and reform efforts in the education sector as well as the annual sector and budget reviews. Advocacy activities accompany the work at country, regional and global levels, and conferences will be organized to share lessons learned and roll out the work in additional countries.

For this study, and in addition to country studies carried out in WCA, household surveys from 21 countries have been used to analyze who the out-of-school children are, why they do not go to school and to establish what resources are available to bring about change. The OOSCI's regional and country dimensions in particular, are aimed at strengthening national capacities for the collection and analysis of data concerning out-of-school children, information systems and the development of strategies to address this issue. Pilot studies have been launched in five countries in West and Central Africa. In 2012, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria, Ghana and Liberia were able to carry out an in-depth analysis to document the extent of the problem of out-of-school children, as well as disparities in terms of education[8]. From a regional perspective, these studies have been complemented by a country analysis of the household surveys available for 21 countries in the region to examine which children are not in school, for what reasons and to establish what resources are available to tackle the issue. By using specific data and methodologies, our results are complementary to those produced by the Education for All Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012).

Conceptual framework, data and methodology

The 5 dimensions of exclusion model

Based on the official age groups for school attendance and the current and projected educational situation of children in each country, it is possible to quantify 5 dimensions of school exclusion. A conceptual and methodological framework was developed by the OOSC Initiative in order to guide work at the national and regional level (UNICEF/UIS, 2011). This framework introduces a new approach for analysing the problem of out-of-school children. Based on a range of disparities and degrees of exposure to education, this approach uses the 5 Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE) to identify those children who are excluded or who are at risk of exclusion from pre-school to lower secondary school (see Annexe B, methodology used to quantify school exclusion). The 5DE model aims to provide a broader, more complex and equity-oriented view of school exclusion. Based on age and educational status, the five dimensions of exclusion are:

- DE1: **children not in pre-school:** children old enough to go to pre-school[9] but who are not yet attending either pre-school or primary school;

- DE2: **children not in primary school:** children old enough to go to primary school but who are not attending either primary or secondary school;

- DE3: **children not in lower secondary school:** children old enough to go to lower secondary school but who are not attending either primary or secondary school;

- DE4: **children at risk of dropping out of primary school:** children attending primary school, regardless of age, who are at risk of exclusion;

- DE5: **children at risk of dropping out of lower secondary school:** children attending lower secondary school, regardless of age, who are at risk of exclusion.

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8. See DRC (2012), Nigeria (2012), Ghana (2012) et Liberia (2012).
9. Pre-school consists of one or several years in a specialized educational facility set up to prepare young children for primary school.

For DE2 and DE3 the out-of-school children have either: (1) dropped out (2) started school late or (3) never attended school. Not all out-of-school children are permanently excluded from school. By generating data on out-of-school children who are old enough to go to pre-school, primary and lower secondary, this model emphasizes the importance of an approach that focuses on the different educational development needs at the various phases in a child's life. This model draws attention to patterns and forms of exposure to education of out-of-school children (those who have dropped out, will those who will enter later, those who will never attend school). By identifying those groups who are likely to be excluded, this model covers those children who are currently attending school, but who are at risk of not completing their studies. The principle of this framework is ultimately to rely on these 5 dimensions to identify the various forms of school exclusion, analyze the reasons for such situations and develop appropriate strategies to overcome them.

Figure 5: The 5 dimensions of exclusion

Source: UNICEF/UIS (2011)
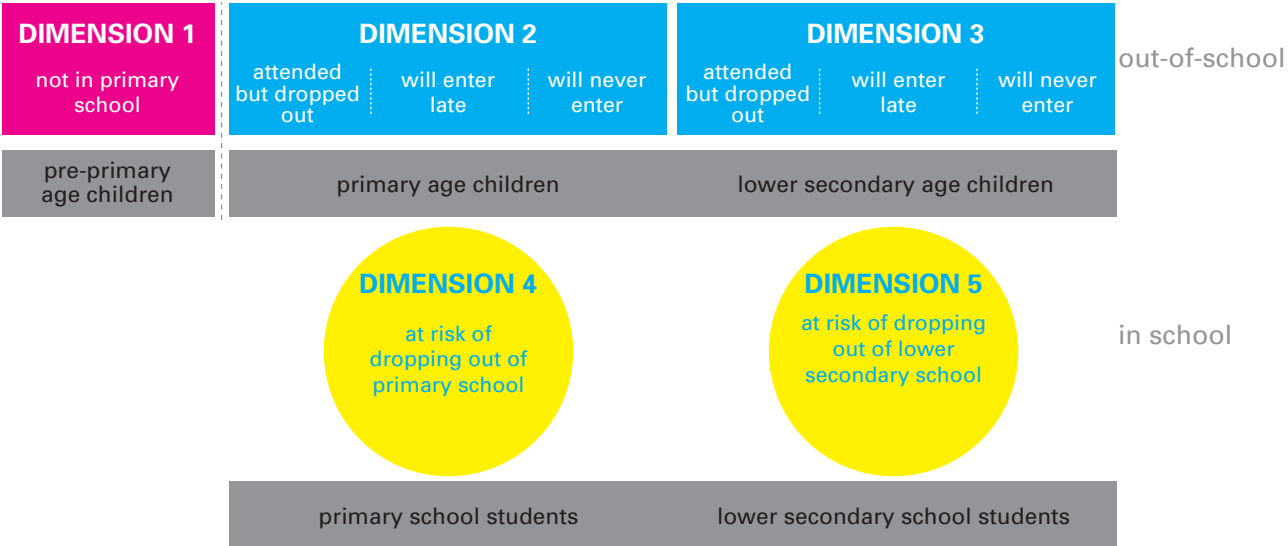
The most recent household surveys available for countries in the region were used to quantify and qualify the five dimensions of school exclusion in WCA. For this study, data from national household surveys (DHS, MICS, HBS...) carried out between 2005 and 2009 in 21 of the 24 countries in the region[10] were used (see Annexe A, Table A8). Unlike the administrative data for schools, the household surveys allow a more complete picture of all children, regardless of their schooling profile. However, data from the household surveys are not specifically centred on educational issues and a lot of useful information to determine factors relevant to school behaviour is missing (school entrance age, number of repetitions, level of motivation, external financial support, availability of school supplies, school characteristics...). This study starts by quantifying the percentage and thereafter, the number of children in each dimension. The analysis of children excluded from pre-school education (DE1) was not part of this study due to the lack of reliable data for this educational level (see Box 2 for information on 4 national surveys of WCA). Percentages of excluded primary (DE2) or lower secondary (DE3) school-age children are calculated by dividing the number of out-of-school children from either primary or lower secondary school by the total number of children of official primary (or

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10. Cape Verde, Chad and Equatorial Guinea where not included in this regional analysis, due to the lack of recent household survey data when the study was carried out.

lower secondary) school age. The number of children excluded from primary (DE2) and lower secondary (DE3) school is calculated by multiplying these percentages by UNDP's estimates (2010). Percentages of children at risk of exclusion from primary school (DE4) and lower secondary school (DE5) are obtained in the same manner by estimating the percentage of individuals who abandoned primary and lower secondary education out of a population aged 23-24 years. The number of children at risk of exclusion from primary (DE4) and lower secondary education (DE5) are calculated by multiplying the percentages by estimates from UNDP. The hypothesis put forward for this second method, based on the observation of schooling profile of an older group of individuals, is that it is a completely exhaustive means of calculating a realistic drop-out rate. The disadvantage of this method however, is that current schooling profile is based on an older group of individuals that were attending school in a previous educational system (see Annexe B for detailed methodology and underlying assumptions).

Box 2: Exclusion levels of pre-school children (DE1) taken from national surveys of DRC, Ghana, Liberia and Nigeria, 2012

The UIS weighted regional average gives an estimated gross enrolment rate (GER) of 14.1% for pre-school education in WCA in 2010 (see Annexe A, Table A4). Pre-school education essentially remains an urban reality. Access to education for girls is more or less the same as for boys. In the DRC, the gross rate of access to pre-school education was estimated at only 3.8% in 2009 (DRC, 2012). Out of a total of 3,311 kindergartens in the country, nearly half (45.5%) of them are located in the city and province of Kinshasa. In Nigeria, household data does not allow levels of access to pre-school education to be estimated (Nigeria, 2012). An approximation can be made from the levels of education (pre-school or primary) of 3-5 year olds; data from 2008 shows that only 15% of children within this age group are enrolled in an educational institution. A number of other countries seem to be more advanced on the subject of pre-school education. In Liberia, the 2010 household survey shows that nearly 49% of children old enough to be in pre-school are enrolled in pre-school institutions (Liberia, 2012). Large regional differences exist however, with the level of access to pre-school ranging from 27% (River Gee) to 67% (Gbarpolu). Ghana has seen levels of pre-school education increase substantially in recent years (Ghana, 2012). Data from their 2008 household survey estimates that 30% of 3 year olds, 53% of 4 year olds and 46% of children under 5 years are enrolled in pre-schools. A number of children also enroll in primary schools below the official age limit, thus approximately 70% of 4-6 year olds are enrolled in the Ghanaian primary educational system.

The age of inflection and the inclusion of late entrants

By observing the percentage of out-of-school children, those who have never been to school and dropouts for every age, it is possible to determine the age of inflection and thus take into account those children who enter the educational system late. One problem with previous data is that a significant number of children enter school late and therefore are above the official age limit. Thus information on school exclusion is not reliable for those children who will enter school later. To estimate the percentage of children who will never go to school, the 'age of inflection' was determined by each country: this is the age at which the percentage of children who have never been to school is the least, or the age after which the number of children attending primary school decreases, which means that the number of new entrants becomes non-significant. Indeed, the percentage of children who have never been to school is 100% in the first years of life and then decreases until a certain age before increasing again. Similarly, the percentage of children who are attending school increases and then decreases after a certain age. On the other hand, the percentage of

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out-of-school children increases to 100% as adulthood is reached. The age of inflection is therefore when the numbers of children at school and those out-of-school are at their highest. This age of inflection therefore shows the age at which access to education levels are highest (whether the child is still at school or has already dropped out) and the time when most children who enter primary school actually did so. The percentage of children who will never go to school can be shown by the percentage of children not attending school at the age of inflection (see Annexe B for more detailed information).

Schooling pathways model

Based on the age of inflection and the academic achievements of children aged 17–18 years, it is also possible to quantify exclusion levels throughout the entire schooling period. To complement the 5 dimensions of exclusion model, it would be useful to develop another methodology to carry out an analysis that could be based on the academic achievements of children over time. This model is based on academic profiles and uses a more classical approach towards access, retention and completion of a group of children with different levels of education. It is clear to see that this model shows a succession of educational phases by age. Thus between 3 and 25 years, the different situations possible for a child could be (1) never been to school, for a child who has not yet started school; (2) attending primary, lower or upper secondary school or higher; (3) out-of-school, for a child who was once entered school, but has dropped out or is no longer currently attending. To capture the percentage of children who will never go to school, the age of inflection method was used (see Section II.1.3.C). The percentage of children who will never go to school was then estimated as the percentage of children who have never been to school at the age of inflection (see Annexe B). Thereafter, the schooling pathways for each age are inferred based on the schooling pathways of a group of 17–18 year olds. This age is 4-5 years after entrance in lower secondary school and allows for the integration of children who started school late or who repeated classes several times. At this age, most children have already completed the first part of their school curriculum. In the same way as before, the household surveys from 2005 to 2009 from 21 countries were used to develop a schooling pathways for the region with the main analytical focus on primary and lower secondary education.

Profiles of excluded children

Profiles of children: 5 dimensions of exclusion

The percentage of out-of-school children

Almost 38% of primary school-age children from countries in the region are currently excluded. Based on the 5DE conceptual framework and calculations made from household surveys, it is possible to show by country and official age groups, the state of school exclusion. Country profiles have thus been drawn up for 21 countries throughout WCA; situations within the region vary greatly. Based on the latest available household surveys, the percentage of children in the region currently excluded from primary school is 38%; this average varies between 7% and 70% (see Annexe A, Table A9). In countries such as Liberia, Mali, Niger and Burkina Faso, more than half of primary school-age children have no access to primary school. Only small countries like Gabon and Sao Tome and Principe have managed to get DE2 below 10% for those children old enough to go to primary school.

Figure 6: Percentage of children excluded from primary school (DE2)

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

----- Simple average for countries in the region
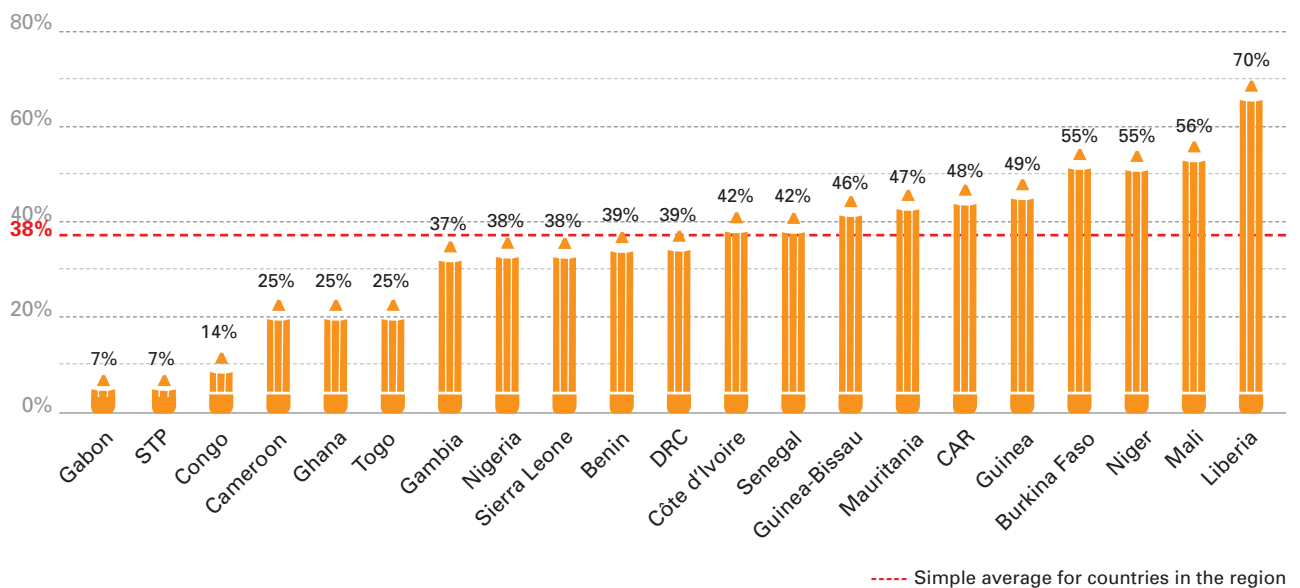
Thirty-four percent of children in the region are old enough to be in lower secondary school but are not attending. There is a high variability throughout the region with regard to those children who are old enough to be in lower secondary school but who are excluded from any educational facility. The percentage of children falling under DE3 varies between 6% and 73% with an average of 34% for the region (see Annexe A, Table A9). It should be noted that a large number of children who are old enough to be in lower secondary school are still in primary school due to repetition or having started school late. In countries such as Niger, Burkina Faso, Mali, Senegal and Guinea-Bissau, more than half of the children currently old enough to be in lower secondary school are excluded from any educational facility.

Figure 7: Percentage of children excluded from lower secondary school (DE3)

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

----- Simple average for countries in the region
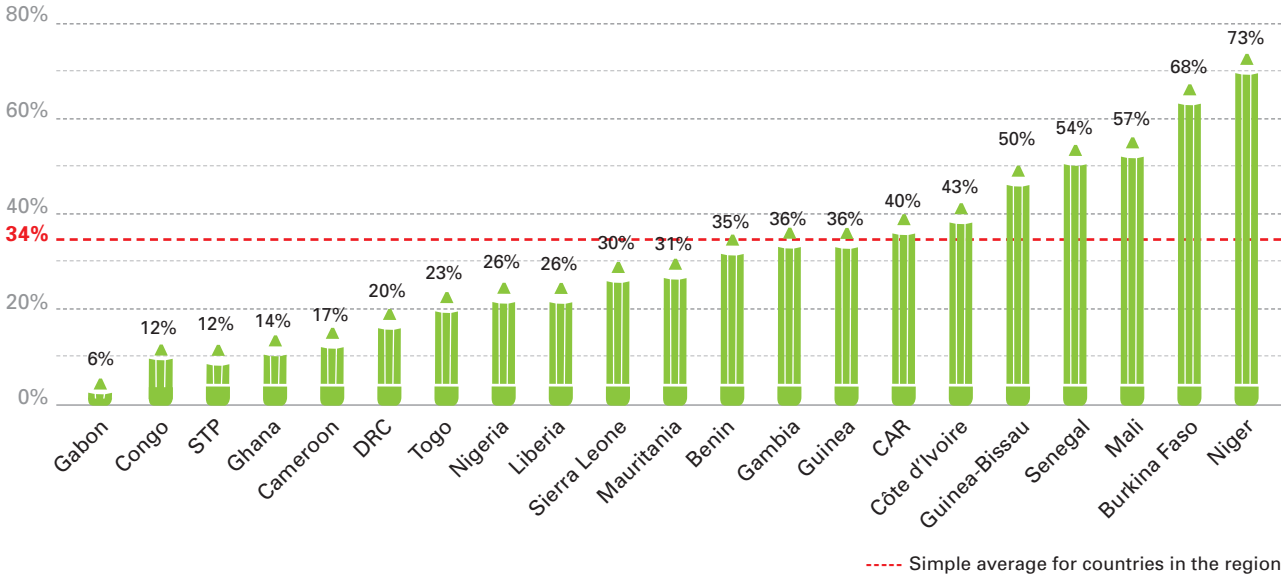
Thirty-seven percent of children in the region who are attending primary school are at risk of future exclusion. Based on past academic achievements as captured through the schooling pathways of individuals who are currently 23-24 years old, it is possible to quantify that almost 37% of children currently attending primary school are at risk of dropping out before completion. In countries such as CAR, Niger, Senegal and Sao Tome and Principe, more than half of primary school children are exposed to this risk of exclusion (see Annexe A, Table A9). The 4th dimension of exclusion does not affect countries like Nigeria, Ghana, Gabon and Sierra Leone to the same extent.

Figure 8: Percentage of children at risk of exclusion from primary school amongst those who are attending (DE4)

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys.

----- Simple average for countries in the region
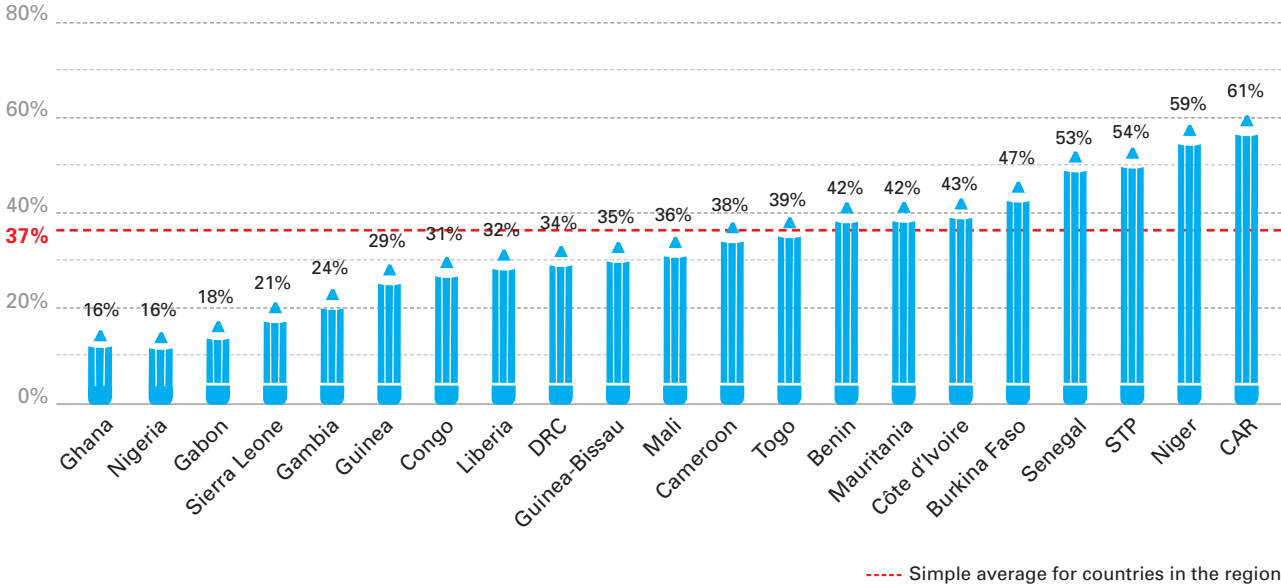
Thirty-eight percent of children in the region who are attending lower secondary school are at risk of future exclusion. By making projections from past schooling profile, it can be estimated that an average of 38% of children currently attending lower secondary school are at risk of dropping out before completion. The 5th dimension of exclusion affects more than half of the children who are attending lower secondary school in countries such as Niger, Burkina Faso, Congo, the Central African Republic and Togo (see Annexe A Table A9).

Figure 9: Percentage of children at risk of exclusion from lower secondary school amongst those who are at-
tending (DE5)

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

----- Simple average for countries in the region
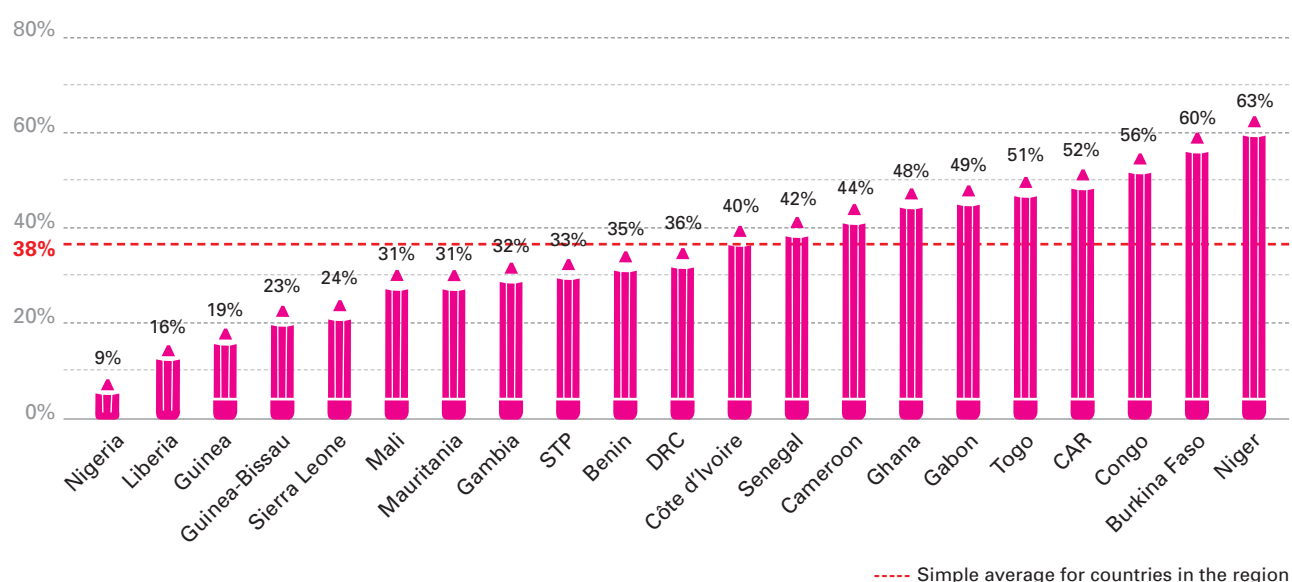
The correlation between DE2 and DE3 is very strong, but is less marked between DE4 and DE5. The correlation between the percentages of children who are victims of DE2 and DE3 in WCA countries is positive and meaningful. This relationship unites several groups of countries; Niger and Burkina Faso have the highest percentage of exclusion for both primary and secondary education in the region. Countries such as Mali, Senegal, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast and the Central African Republic also have higher than average percentages of school exclusion for both primary and lower secondary school. In contrast, Gabon, Congo, Sao Tome and Principe have only a small percentage of children excluded from primary and secondary school. Apart from Liberia, which has the highest percentage of children excluded from primary school, but which is below the regional average for secondary school, the relationship between the two dimensions is fairly clear. The correlation between the percentage of children at risk of exclusion from primary and lower secondary school however, is not so clear (see Annexe A, Figure 1). Countries such as Niger, Burkina Faso and the CAR have high percentages for both DE4 and DE5 whereas Nigeria has low levels for these two dimensions of exclusion.

Figure 10: Relationship between the numbers of children in DE2 and DE3

Primary school exclusion (DE2)

Lower secondary school exclusion (DE3)

----- Simple average for countries in the region
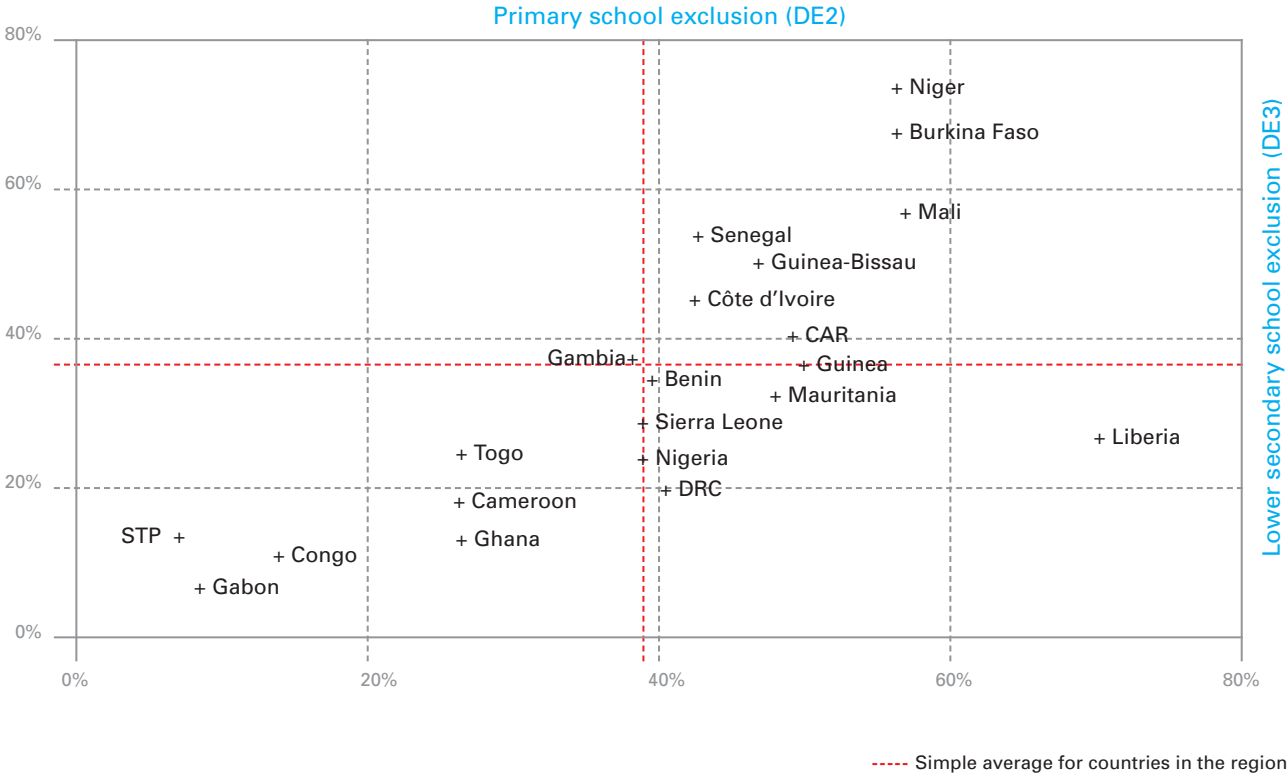
By integrating the children who start school on the basis of the age of inflection in data, it is possible to estimate that 26% of children old enough to be in primary school, 34% of children old enough to be in lower secondary school and 49% of children old enough to be in upper secondary school in the region, are excluded. The number of children who drop out of school is considerable and increases with age, however, most of the out-of-school children have never been to school. By incorporating the issue of late entry, country averages in the region can reflect the progression of school exclusion at country-level. With regard to primary school-age children: only 62% of these children are actually attending primary or secondary; 12% have not yet entered but will in the future; 22% will never enter school and; 4% entered but have already dropped out. Of those children old enough to go to lower secondary school: 66% are actually in school; only 18% of these are in secondary school; 24% will never enter and; 10% have dropped out. Finally, of those children old enough to go into upper secondary school: 52% of them are attending, of which 16% are still in primary school, 27% have never been to school and 22% have dropped out. While the number of children dropping out of school is significant and increases with age, it should be noted that it is still lower than the percentage of children not attending school. Thus, the majority of out-of-school children are those who have never been to school and are not children who entered and later dropped out. It goes without saying that these averages, from countries in the region, hide a wide range of situations.

Figure 11: Distribution of out-of-school children, average of 21 countries from WCA

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

official entrance age for

primary school — lower secondary — upper secondary — higher studies

Legend:
- will never enrolled
- was enrolled but dropped out
- Not yet enrolled but will be in the future
- enrolled in secondary
- enrolled in primary

Values:
- primary school: 22%, 4%, 12%, 1%, 61%
- lower secondary: 24%, 10%, 18%, 47%
- upper secondary/higher: 27%, 22%, 36%, 16%
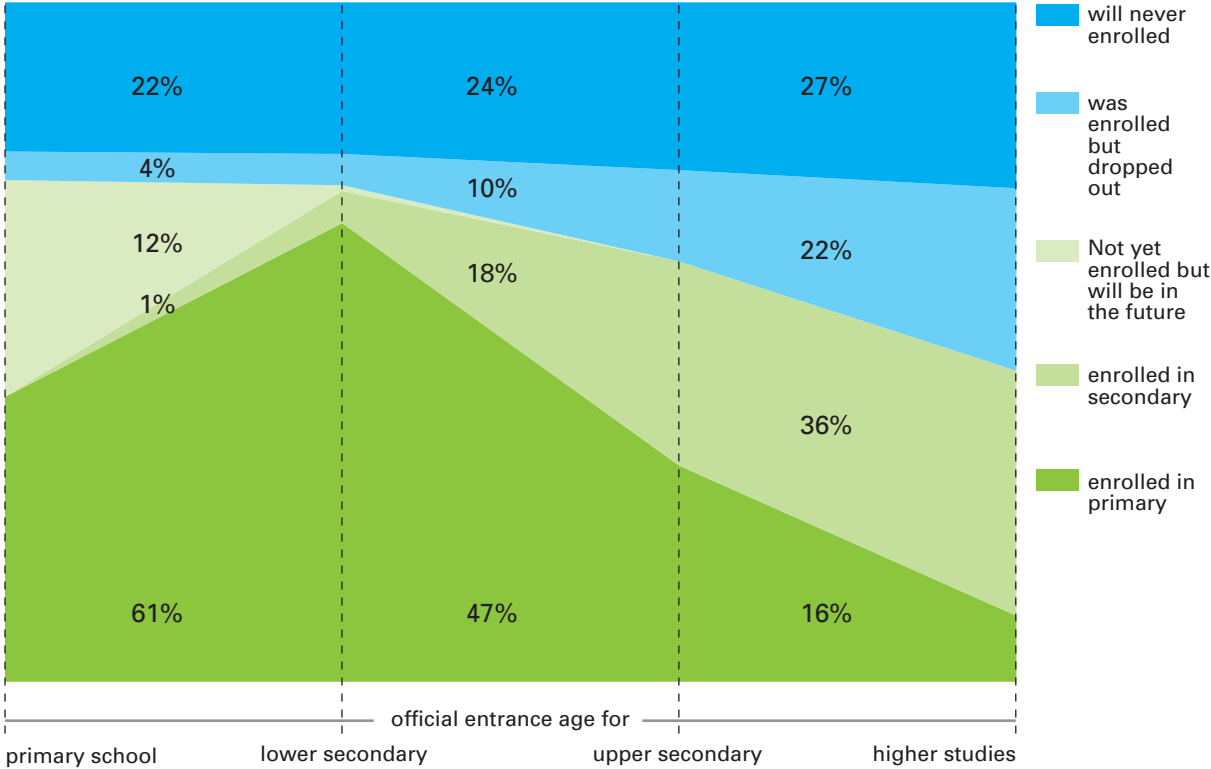
Note: Simple average for countries in the region

The number of out-of-school children

According to the analysis of household surveys from the region, there are at least 23.2 million primary school-age children and 8.6 million secondary school-age children currently out of school. A further 14.3 million children, who are at risk of being excluded from primary school and another 3 million who are at risk of being excluded from lower secondary school in the future, must be added to these figures. For 21 of the 24 countries in the region, it is possible to quantify the number of children affected by the various dimensions of school exclusion[11]. These country estimates, based on household surveys, show that 23.2 million primary school-age children and 8.6 million secondary school-age children are currently excluded from educational opportunities. In addition to these out-of-school children, there are those who are likely to be excluded in the future, namely 14.3 million children from primary school and 3 million from lower secondary school. In total, nearly 32 million children are currently excluded from schools and an additional 21 million may be in the future. These children are mainly concentrated in just a few countries. Nearly half of the out-of-school children can be found in Nigeria and the DRC, whilst a quarter of them are located in Niger, Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast and Ghana. As the numbers of out-of-school children from Cape Verde, Equatorial Guinea and Chad in particular, have not been taken into account, it must be kept in mind that these figures are underestimates.

11.For the 3 countries where the data is missing, it is more than likely that Cape Verde and Equatorial Guinea have quite a low number of out-of-school children. In contrast, Chad has a very high number of out-of-school children. Regional estimates in this section are therefore undervalued.

Profiles of excluded children

Table 1: Number of excluded children by dimension, according to data from the latest household surveys

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

DIMENSION OF EXCLUSION	DE2	DE3	DE4	DE5
DEFINITION	Excluded children, old enough to be in primary school	Excluded children, old enough to be in lower secondary school	Children at risk of exclusion from primary school	Children at risk of exclusion from lower secondary school
Benin	497 004	252 968	565 021	129 483
Burkina Faso	1 285 116	917 362	649 842	153 995
CAR	308 440	152 509	253 723	32 166
Côte d'Ivoire	1 233 479	764 764	1 010 968	225 857
Cameroon	682 666	297 002	1 152 919	230 144
RDC	4 084 835	608 698	3 019 918	493 985
Congo	83 632	39 962	210 432	116 604
Gabon	14 059	8 142	50 596	37 491
Gambia	92 102	38 029	49 441	21 686
Ghana	853 810	225 136	571 903	585 781
Guinea	694 286	295 204	344 784	59 695
Guinea-Bissau	98 135	47 177	93 680	8 098
Liberia	373 199	60 352	172 359	13 214
Mali	1 225 117	534 696	573 627	109 152
Mauritania	229 226	67 889	203 887	17 073
Niger	1 324 765	940 486	825 463	128 947
Nigeria	8 825 705	2 597 331	3 258 953	352 783
Senegal	735 021	558 717	770 014	131 997
Sierra Leone	335 555	114 619	113 818	20 424
STP	1 803	1 441	18 108	2 714
Togo	219 680	118 494	413 048	171 209
Total	23 197 633	8 640 977	14 322 504	3 042 500
Maximum	8 825 705	2 597 331	3 258 953	585 781
Minimum	1 803	1 441	18 108	2 714

Profiles of children: schooling pathways model

Based on the age of inflection and schooling of individuals aged 17-18 years, school exclusion occurs at the time of access to primary school (25%); during primary school (16%); during lower secondary school (5%); during the transition from primary to lower secondary (5%); and from lower secondary to upper secondary school (2%). A large number of older children (17-18 years) are still at school primary school (10%) or in lower secondary school (24%). Based on the household surveys, the age of inflection can be determined for the 21 countries. The age of inflection in Gabon is 8 years, 9 years in Benin, Congo, Ghana, Nigeria and Togo, 10 years in Cameroon and Sao Tome and Principe against 13 years in Guinea-Bissau and Liberia and 11 years in all the other countries. Once this age of inflection has been established, it is possible to show a profile of the average schooling pathways for 21 of the 24 countries in the region, based on the academic achievements of 17-18 year olds. Out of 100 children born in the WCA region, 25 of them will never go to school. Of the remaining 75 individuals aged 17-18 years who started school one day, 16 dropped out during the first 5 years of primary school and 6 are still there; 5 dropped out the last grade of primary school and 4 are still there; 5 dropped out during the first 3 years of lower secondary school and 15 are still there; 2 dropped out the last grade of lower secondary school and 9 are still there. Out of these one hundred 17-18 year olds, only 14 manage to reach upper secondary school whilst 45 fail to complete primary school. School exclusion therefore occurs in particular, at the time of access to primary school (25%) and during primary school (16%). Dropouts during the transition from primary to lower secondary school (5%) and during lower secondary school (5%) and from lower secondary to upper secondary school (2%) also appear to be problematic, but are less costly in terms of students. Lastly, it should be noted that even at 17-18 years, a large number of children in the region are still in primary (10%) or lower secondary (24%) school.

Figure 12: Schooling pathways of children aged 17–18 years - Averages for WCA countries
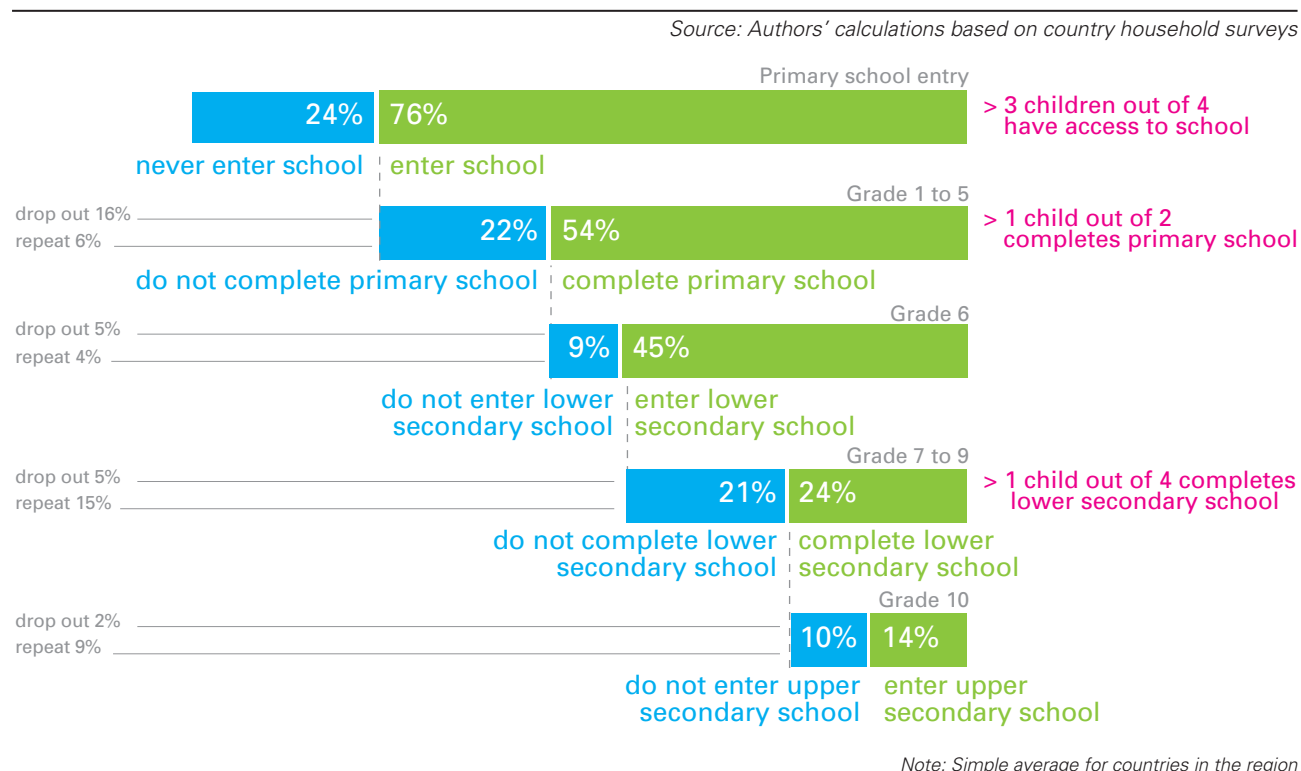
The age of inflection shows that a quarter of children from the region will never enter primary school; this figure is close to 50% in Mali, Burkina Faso and Niger. Using the percentage of children who have never been to school by the time they reach the age of inflection, results show that nearly 25% of children in the region never enter school. This average for countries in the region of course hides great disparities between countries (see Annexe A, Table A10). In countries such as Mali, Burkina Faso and Niger almost half of the children will never have the opportunity to go to school. Less than 5% of the children in Congo, Gabon and Sao Tome and Principe are faced with such a situation.

Figure 13: Percentage of school-age children who will never enter school

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

----- Simple average for countries in the region
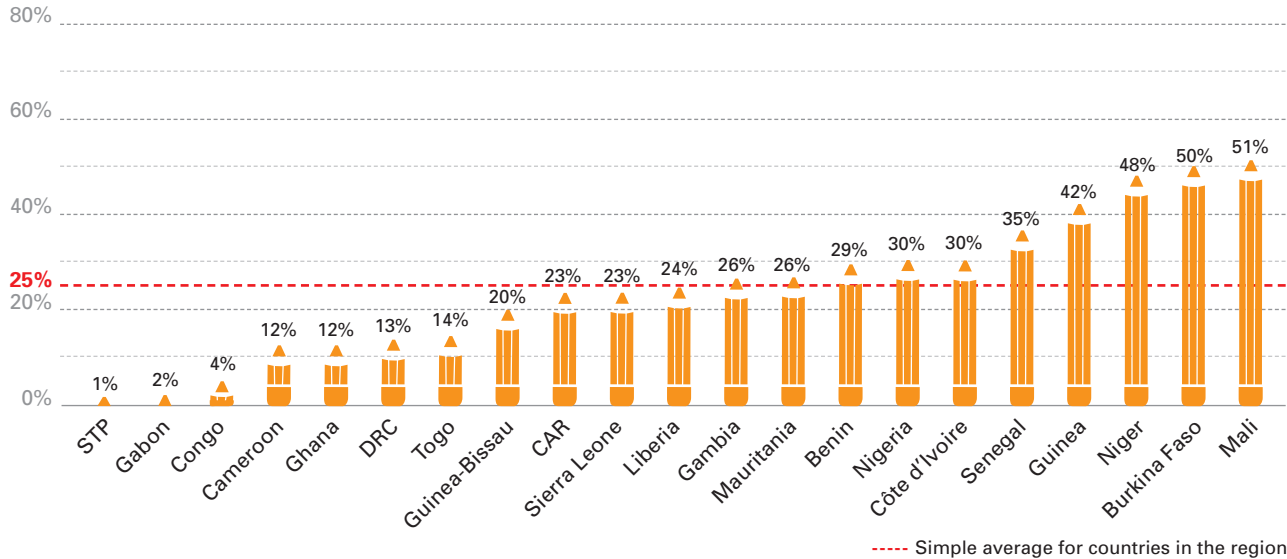
Based on the educational behaviour of 17-18 year olds, an average of 29% of students who entered primary school drop out before the last grade; in CAR and Guinea-Bissau this rate is considerably higher at 50%. Simply having access to primary school is a very important first step. However, based on the schooling of 17-18 year olds, it is possible to estimate that out of the 75% of those children who enter primary school, nearly 29% fail to complete the last grade (see Annexe A, Table A10). The majority of children in CAR and Guinea-Bissau fall into this category, whilst in Senegal, Niger, Mauritania and Liberia less than 60% of those who enter fail to complete last grade of primary school.

Figure 14: Percentage of 17-18 year olds who enter primary school but fail to complete last grade

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

----- Simple average for countries in the region
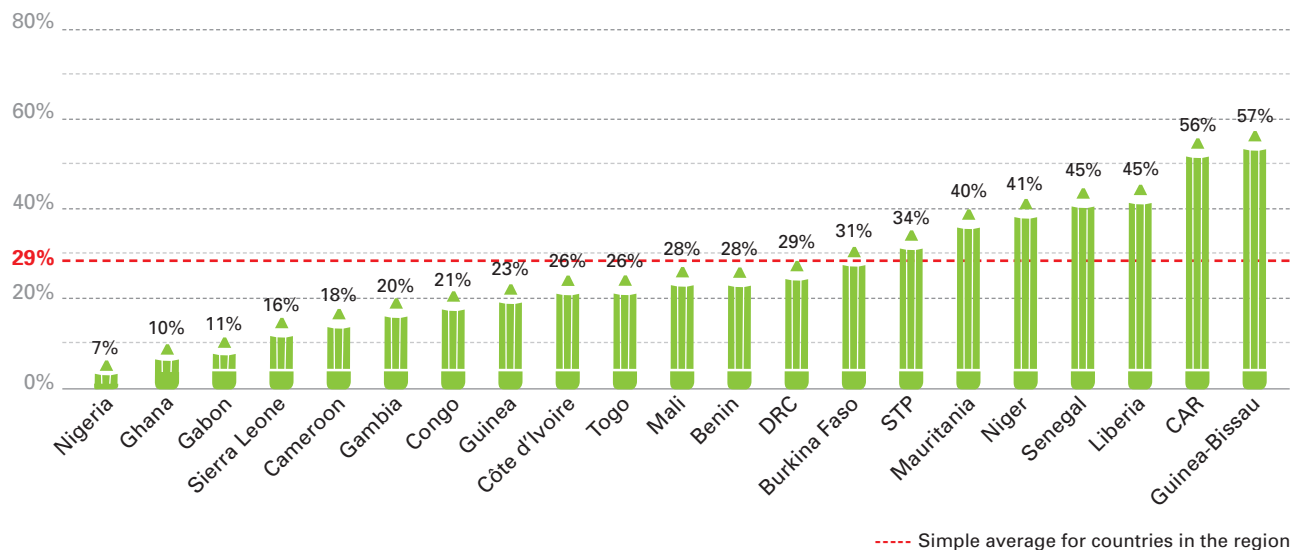
Completion of lower secondary school is also very problematic and on average 45% of 17-18 year olds who manage to reach this level do not complete last grade, with this figure amounting to more than two-thirds in CAR and Guinea. Finally, out of the small number of students who manage to enter primary school, complete it and attend lower secondary school, almost 45% do not complete their lower secondary school. In CAR, Guinea, Ghana, Burkina Faso, Benin and Niger, more than 60% of children who start lower secondary school fail to complete this educational level (see Annexe A, Table A10).

Figure 15: Percentage of 17-18 year olds who start lower secondary school but fail to complete last grade

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

----- Simple average for countries in the region
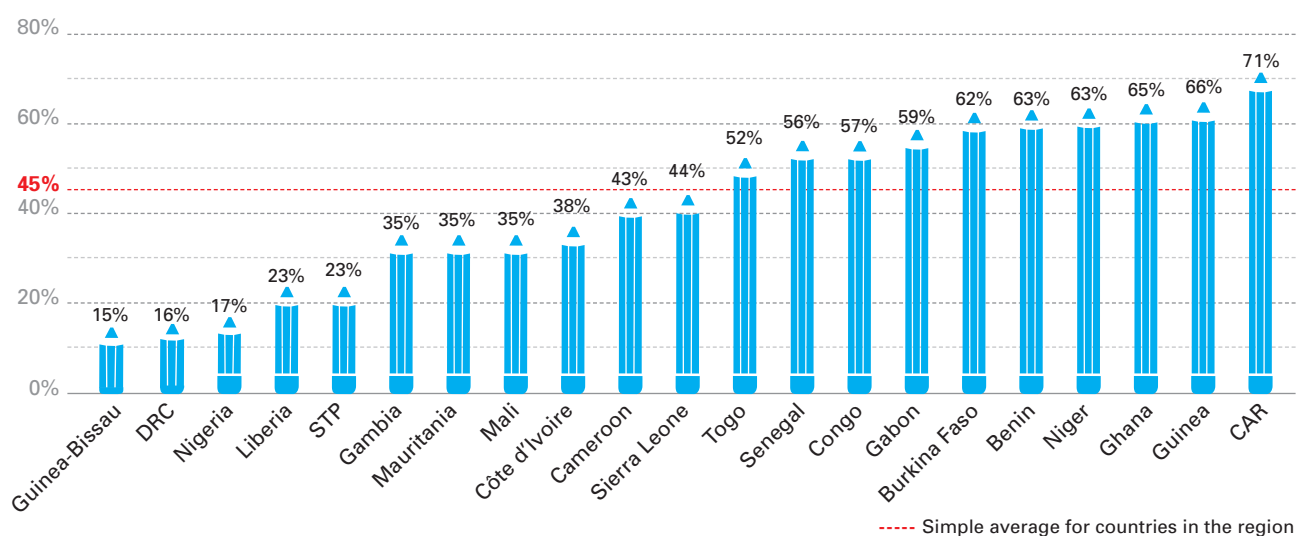
Regional characteristics of out-of-school children

Differences according to gender, financial status and location

Regional characteristics of exclusion show that for out-of-school children, significant disparities exist between girls and boys, rural and urban areas, and the poorest and richest households. To develop a profile of out-of-school children, simple descriptive statistics were first used and then complemented with a more thorough econometric analysis of some countries. As a first step, it is possible to compare the schooling profile of a child according to three main characteristics: gender, financial status of the family and place of residence. An analysis of the percentage of out-of-school girls in the region shows that this average is higher than that of boys. This disadvantage experienced by girls is heavily influenced by the fact that there are a lot more girls who never enter school; the difference in the number of dropouts between girls and boys, on the other hand, is very slight. Exclusion levels also vary greatly according to where a child lives. The percentage of children who will never enter primary school in rural areas is far greater than in urban areas, unlike the percentage of dropouts, which is slightly higher in urban areas. A similar comparison, but of greater significance, is to be noted between the richest households (top two income quintiles) and the poorest (bottom three income quintiles), the latter being far more likely to be excluded from the education system. Disparities in the level of school exclusion widen when these three factors are combined. A girl from a poor rural household is twice as likely to be excluded from the education system than a boy from a rich, urban household (see Annexe A, Table A11).

Figure 16: Percentage of out-of-school children in countries in WCA, according to gender, financial status and location

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys
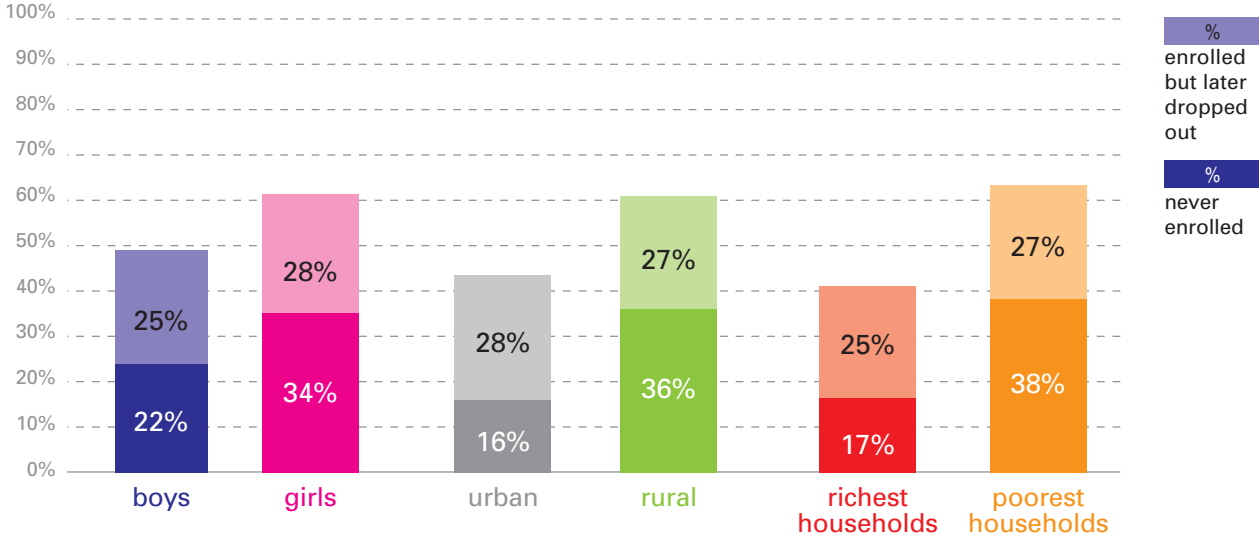
Note: Simple average for countries in the region

The category 'rich' includes households in the top two income quintiles; the category 'poor' is for households in the bottom three income quintiles.

Econometric analysis of school exclusion factors

The differences between the groups of students at each stage of school exclusion can be explained through econometric models of the household surveys from some of the countries. To integrate several potential explanatory variables of the school exclusion phenomenon, a number of econometric models had to be developed. Models were based on the population of children aged 17–24 years, and a number of explanatory variables were tested to find out the probability of a child belonging to a specific group of children excluded from school. In a first model, the issue of never going to school rather than going to school for one day is explained (Model: never attending school, see Annexe A, Table A12). For those who started school, the issue of not completing primary school versus completion is then explained (Model: failure to complete primary school, see Annexe A, Table A13). A third model looks at why some children who completed primary school do not enter lower secondary whilst others do (Model: never enter lower secondary school, see Annexe A, Table A14). A final model looks at those children who attend lower secondary school to find out why some children fail to complete this cycle while others succeed (Model: failure to complete lower secondary school, see Annexe A, Table A15). For each of these four models, binomial logit models on weighted data were used, in order to be representative of the population. The first model on children who never go to school was run in Mali, Guinea, Senegal, Benin, Nigeria, Ghana and Sao Tome and Principe[12]. These seven countries are ranked according to the percentage of children who will never enter school out of the total population of children. The other three models were run on a sub-sample of countries according to the data available. The coefficients shown in the tables express the percentage change in the probability of being in the state tested after the change of one independent variable.

School exclusion is related to income, location, gender and the child's family situation. According to the econometric models made for these 7 countries and as shown through descriptive statistics, low household income, living in a rural area and being a girl are somewhat related to the issue of never attending school (see Annexe A, Table A12). Some family situations are also directly related to the fact that a child ill never enter school; namely the fact that the child is the head of his own household (that is to say, he is no longer dependent on any adult); he is not the natural child of the head of the household; the household is composed primarily of women and out-of-school children; or that the head of household is male, a young individual or illiterate. Income, location, gender and the child's family situation also explain, to a large extent, school exclusion behaviour such as the non-completion of primary school (see Annexe A, Table A13), the non-attendance in lower secondary school (see Annexe A, Table A14) and the non-completion of lower secondary school (see Annexe A, Table A15). However, it must be understood here that the data in the household surveys are not specifically focused on educational issues, therefore a lot of the sociocultural information useful in determining the relevant factors that influence non-attendance at school cannot be analyzed within the scope of this study (health and child labour, perception of the value of education, parental support for education, family problems, direct and indirect costs of education, distance between the home and the school, educational quality, teaching practices...).

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12. These countries were chosen to represent the different types of countries according to their situations in terms of access, drop-out and completion rates. The availability and quality of data, according to the variables used for this study, also contributed to the country selection criteria.
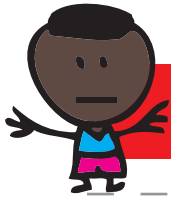
Regional factors that hamper education

Barriers to schooling in countries in the region are a combination of the demand and supply factors for education within a context, which creates the school exclusion and inclusion process. By analyzing school exclusion in the countries of WCA, in particular using the country surveys of the Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria, Ghana and Liberia carried out in 2012, it is possible to structure the analysis according to two rationale: supply and demand. These two factors combine in a context to form the process of school exclusion and inclusion. The demand rationale assumes that household members are the primary decision-makers when it comes to education. A number of choices and strategies are brought into play for the children's education depending on objectives, internal household constraints, as well as social and cultural values. The stakeholders of demand are, for the most part, the parents (or equivalent) and the children. The supply rationale considers the school to be crucial for issues relating to access, retention, quality and educational equity. As a complex collective entity, upholding norms and values, the school is a key player in these matters. Depending on the activities being implemented, resources available, its own constraints or the attitudes and behaviour of its staff, the school has considerable leverage on the degree of accessibility and retention. Supply stakeholders thus include the school principal, teachers and students. These two rationales interact within a context made up of the community, the State, private schools, NGOs and international organisations all working in the field of education. It is within this environment that some of the human, material and financial resources can be found to address educational supply and demand strategies. Indeed, these stakeholders external to households and schools come together to collaborate and raise funds for education. It is essential to grasp the attitudes and activities created within this environment in order to understand school exclusion. The rationales of educational supply and demand interact within their own context and combine to create a process of exclusion and inclusion. Inclusion and exclusion can therefore be seen as a dynamic and fluctuating process. Exclusion is not a fixed state but occurs in phases and moments that need to be identified. The different steps in the process of shifting from inclusion to exclusion or vice versa need to be identified along with the weight of the decisions and actions of each stakeholder. This combination of supply and demand within a particular context leads to three specific situations: a child who will never enter school; a child who attends school but later drops out and; a child who is not yet enrolled in school. On this basis, it is possible to better understand the regional barriers to education.

Figure 17: Overview of the barriers to education

Source: Authors' calculations based on country household surveys

DEMAND FACTORS

SUPPLY FACTORS

Family problems

Child has to work

Economic difficultes

Faible valorisation des études

Child's health problems

Child is treated differently in terms of education

Cultural factors

Distance and accesibility

Absenteeism and motivation

Lack of schools

Cost of education

Poor academic achievement

Lack of teachers

Lack of equipment

Bad practices

Discrimination, violence

Repetition
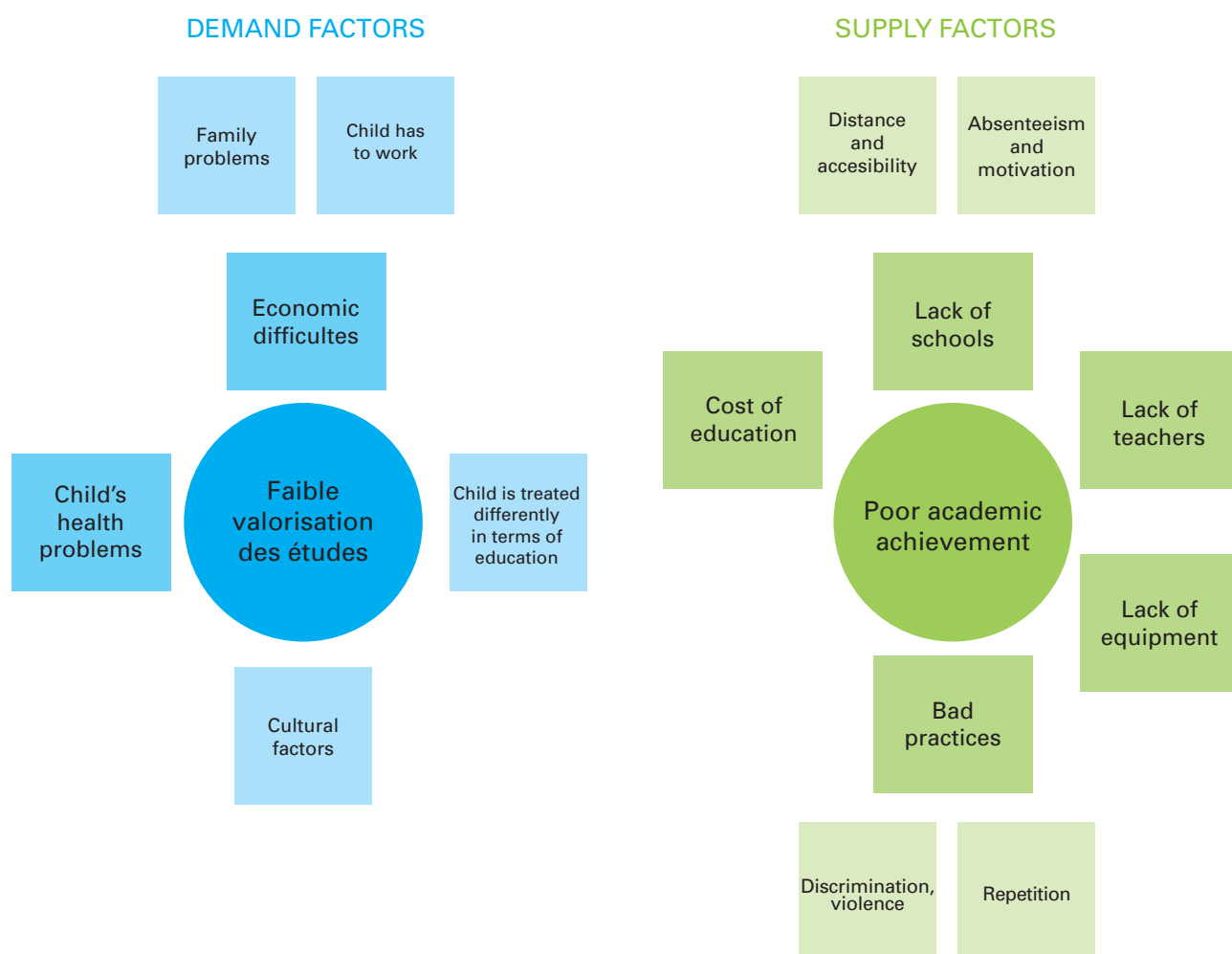
Context: political, economical, social, health, démographic, insecurity

Barriers and bottlenecks

On the demand side economic problems (low levels of income, adverse wealth and negative income shocks, migration...) associated with family issues (death, absence, illness of one or both parents, number of children in the household...), problems of child health (illness, disability, malnutrition, fatigue...), cultural factors (early marriage, early pregnancy, religion, language...) and a poor perception of the value of education (because of integration in the workforce or its effect on traditional values...), partly explain the phenomenon of school exclusion and generate other phenomena such as differential treatment and discriminatory attitudes among children who go to school (birth order, gender, disability, level of academic achievement, the number of children already in school...) and those who work (domestic work, income support).

On the supply side, the direct and indirect costs of education (registration fees, school fees, parent association contributions, contributions for teachers' salaries, school supplies, uniforms, transportation...), a lack of schools (which leads to problems of accessibility, discontinuity and distance which is further aggravated by insecurity), a lack of teachers (exacerbated by absenteeism and lack of motivation) and inadequate equipment (textbooks, desks, blackboards, toilets, canteens...) and some bad teaching practices (repetition, violence and discrimination in the classroom, teachers' level of education, language of instruction, class management, learning methods...), cause poor academic results and explain a large part of the school exclusion phenomenon.

The quality and cost of schooling have a negative relationship here as reducing registration fees and parental contributions, also reduces the ability to pay for good teachers or any investment in infrastructure. Some factors directly influence others such as household economic hardships and the cost of education or the poor perception of the value of education and poor academic results. It should also be noted that some causes of exclusion may also be the result; this is notably the case when it comes to child labour.

In terms of the context, political governance issues (weak and slow decision-making, poor coordination, no attempt to fight against school exclusion, trade-offs between educational objectives of access and quality), conflict and insecurity (threat of danger when going to school, indoctrination of students and teachers), institutional capacity and efficiency (poor decentralization of funds and decision making, low capacity at decentralized levels, availability, quality, use of information, poor management, supervision and evaluation of educational activities, lack of birth certificates...), the ability to finance activities (inability to raise funds, inefficiency, delays, inequity in the allocation of funds, inadequate amounts, corruption...), natural climatic disasters (cyclones, floods, drought) and health issues (pandemics, malnutrition...), also partly explain the extent of school exclusion phenomena.

Table 2: Exclusion factors identified in country surveys in DRC, Ghana, Liberia and Nigeria, carried out in 2012

	EXCLUSION FACTORS IDENTIFIED	DRC	GHANA	LIBERIA	NIGERIA	COMMENTS
DEMAND	Low household income	●	●	●	●	*Correlation in all countries between the poorest quintiles and non-schooling or dropping out of school*
	Child labour (domestic or income support)	●	●	●	●	*Direct related to poverty. Children work to help support their families and contribute to school expenses*
	Size of the family	●	●	●	●	*In DRC this is only an urban factor; in Ghana, this factor is more significant for pre-school-age children; in Nigeria girls' education is more at risk in larger families*
	Early marriage and pregnancy	●	●	●	●	*Linked to transactional sex*
	Disabled children	●	●	●	●	*Frequent discrimination and stigma*
	Parents' level of education	●	●	●	●	*Correlation in all countries between the parents' level of education and whether they send their children to school and keep them there*
	Parental roles	●	●	●	●	*Indifference, lack of authority, scared to send very young children to school, no commitment to the value of education*
	Death of one/both of the parents	●	●	●		
	Children lack motivation	●	●	●	●	*Low quality of education offered and attracted to workforce to gain independence*
	Children of divorced couples, children in care	●	●			*Affects girls more, varies according to ethnic groups and religions*
	Gender of the head household	●	●			*Positive impact of women and mothers on the education of their children*
	Discrimination against women and girls	●	●		●	*Influenced by religion and patriarchal systems*
	Children accused of witchcraft				●	
	Indigenous children	●				*Pygmies in DRC*
	Religion of the head of household	●			●	*Catholic in DRC, Muslim in Nigeria*
	Violence at home, in the community	●	●			*On the way to school and in crisis areas*
	Adolescence	●	●			*Adolescents treated as adults at the expense of certain phases of childhood development. Difference between boys and girls in terms of social, economic and sexual expectations*
	Initiation and secret societies			●		*Apprenticeships in local secret societies might be preferred over formal education*
SUPPLY	School fees (legal and illegal)	●	●	●	●	*Fees remain a problem in all countries*
	Lack of infrastructures	●	●	●	●	*In particular in DRC and Nigeria at pre-school level, in Ghana lack of water and sanitation facilities contribute to the exclusion of girls*

SUPPLY	Lack of teachers	•	•	•	•	*Inappropriate deployment according to needs, lack of trained teachers, correlation between retention levels and teachers' educational level in Ghana*
	Distance of the school from home	•	•	•	•	*Negative impact on girls attendance and children aged 6-7 years in most countries*
	Lack of school textbooks	•		•	•	*Notably in DRC*
	Violence at school, in particular sexual harassment and sexual violence		•	•	•	*Negative impact especially on girls' schooling*
	Educational programmes et practices		•		•	*Mentioned in Ghana and Nigeria as causes of dropout*
	Language of instruction		•			
CONTEXT	Lack of capacities and poor management	•	•	•	•	*At all levels*
	Poor implementation of texts and reforms	•	•	•	•	
	Insecurity, crises and conflicts	•			•	
	Poor partnerships with civil society		•			
	Insufficient budgetary funds		•		•	
	Lack of equity in allocation of funds		•			

In DRC, as in most countries of the region, the reason of household economic hardship appears to be the parents' main reason to justify not sending their children to school; lack of schools nearby, family issues, child health and quality of education are also frequently mentioned. Many interrelated factors are put forward by individual countries to explain the number of out-of-school children. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, households were asked directly about the question of exclusion (DRC, 2012). Answers to justify the non-schooling of a child or reasons for their dropout may be split into the factors of demand, supply and context. Economic hardships are the main cause of non-attendance at school according to two thirds of the respondents. Nevertheless, this justification of lack of money is equally to do with low household income, as it is to do with the costs associated with education. In what we call the households, child labour is sometimes mentioned as a reason, particularly when it comes to domestic work for girls. On the demand side, other causes of non-attendance are family issues (family constraints, death or illness of a family member) and problems with the child's health (illness, disability, nutritional status). Moving house and changing institutions are also frequently mentioned. Marriage and pregnancy justify a large proportion of female dropouts. On the supply side, the lack of nearby schools, which accounts for most of the cases in the 'other reasons' category, is the second main cause of non-schooling. Disinterest in school, difficulties in understanding, poor academic performance, lack of discipline and abuse at school are other common reasons given by parents. In terms of context, insecurity and conflict are cited.

Table 3: Distribution of children aged 6-17 years who have never been to school and those who dropped out of school according to reasons put forward by households, DRC survey, 2011

Source: DRC (2012)

	REASONS FOR NOT ENTERING SCHOOL			REASONS FOR DROPPING OUT OF SCHOOL		
	Boy	Girl	Both	Boy	Girl	Both
Lack of money	67.30%	69.90%	68.70%	74.20%	67.20%	70.30%
Family constraints	13.20%	16.10%	14.80%	16.00%	16.50%	16.30%
Child's disinterest	8.30%	7.70%	7.90%	6.50%	9.60%	8.30%
Difficulties understanding	5.30%	7.00%	6.20%	3.20%	3.40%	3.30%
Death of one member of the household	5.40%	6.30%	5.90%	8.70%	7.60%	8.10%
Child's health	5.00%	6.00%	5.50%	6.10%	7.10%	6.70%
Insecurity / conflicts	3.90%	5.10%	4.60%	4.90%	2.20%	3.40%
Sick member (s) of the household	3.30%	5.00%	4.20%	5.40%	7.20%	6.40%
Domestic work	1.10%	5.90%	3.70%	2.10%	5.30%	3.90%
Moving house	2.60%	2.40%	2.50%	7.40%	6.80%	7.10%
Lack of discipline	1.80%	1.20%	1.50%	3.50%	3.90%	3.70%
Child's disability	1.60%	1.10%	1.30%	0.80%	0.30%	0.50%
Nutritional status	1.00%	0.90%	1.00%	0.50%	0.20%	0.40%
Abuse at school	0.60%	1.00%	0.80%	2.10%	2.00%	2.10%
Abuse at home	0.60%	0.40%	0.50%	0.70%	1.80%	1.30%
Paid work	0.40%	0.30%	0.30%	0.70%	0.60%	0.60%
Marriage	0.00%	0.60%	0.30%	0.60%	4.90%	3.00%
Pregnancy	0.00%	0.60%	0.30%	0.80%	6.20%	3.80%
Change of institution	nc	nc	nc	2.00%	1.30%	1.60%
Poor academic results	nc	nc	nc	5.30%	7.80%	6.70%
Other reasons	34.9%	32.9%	33.8%	18.3%	15.0%	16.4%

The cost-barrier to education

Even if primary education is officially free in most WCA countries, in reality it almost always constitutes a significant cost for households. Financial issues related to household economic hardships and educational costs are regularly cited in countries in WCA as the main reason for not sending children to school. In fact, schooling involves a number of direct, indirect and opportunity costs that may have a marked effect on a household and constrain their educational choices. Direct costs are those related to school enrolment (registration fees, school fees, parent association contributions); indirect costs are other expenses related

to being at school (school supplies, clothing, transport, food, insecurity risks); whilst the opportunity cost of sending a child to school is the value of child labour which the household waives by sending him to school. Even if it is difficult to quantify the opportunity cost, direct and indirect costs can be inferred from certain household surveys. In the 2012 Pole de Dakar, household spending on education is analyzed in 15 African countries, 11 of which are in WCA. Depending on the country, data are available for one year ranging from 2001 to 2008. Free primary education is officially offered by 14 of the 24 countries in the region (see Annexe A, Table A5), however, in reality it almost always constitutes a substantial cost for households. The unit cost per student for a household is, on average, higher in the private sector than the public, however, even in the public sector, education comes at a significant cost to households (see Annexe A, Table A16). Using purchasing power parity and U.S. $ for 2004, the unit cost of education for one child in a public primary school varies between U.S. $7 (Niger) and $70 (Côte d'Ivoire). A place in a public secondary school will cost between U.S. $24 (Niger) and U.S. $300 (Cameroon). Even for public institutions, the cost of education still remains high for households. In most countries, the cost also increases with the level of education.

Figure 18: Average household expenditure for a place in a public primary or lower secondary school, US$ PPP, 2004

Source: Pôle de Dakar (2012)
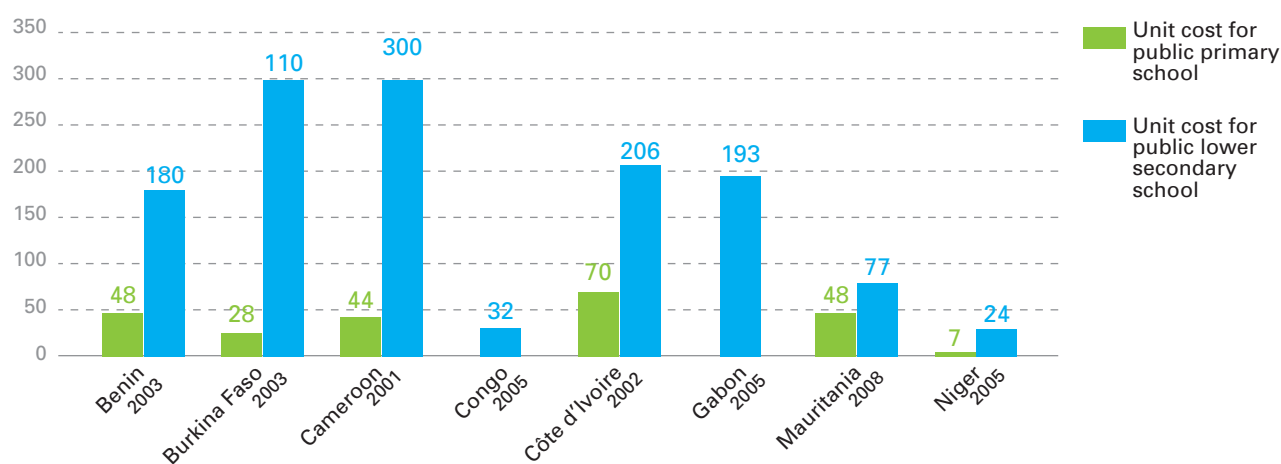
The majority of household expenditure on education goes towards to school fees related to enrolment. When analyzing the distribution of household expenditure for education, it should be noted that more than half of it goes towards costs directly related to enrolment such as school fees and parent association contributions (see Annexe A, Table A19). The proportion of household expenditure on education is more than two-thirds in countries such as Mali and Burkina Faso. Forty percent of the household's education expenditure is on equipment and school supplies, increasing to more than 50% in Gabon. Finally, other expenses such as transportation costs, food and refresher classes represent, on average, 10% of expenditure, but are double this in Côte d'Ivoire and Sierra Leone.

Figure 19: Division of household expenditure for education
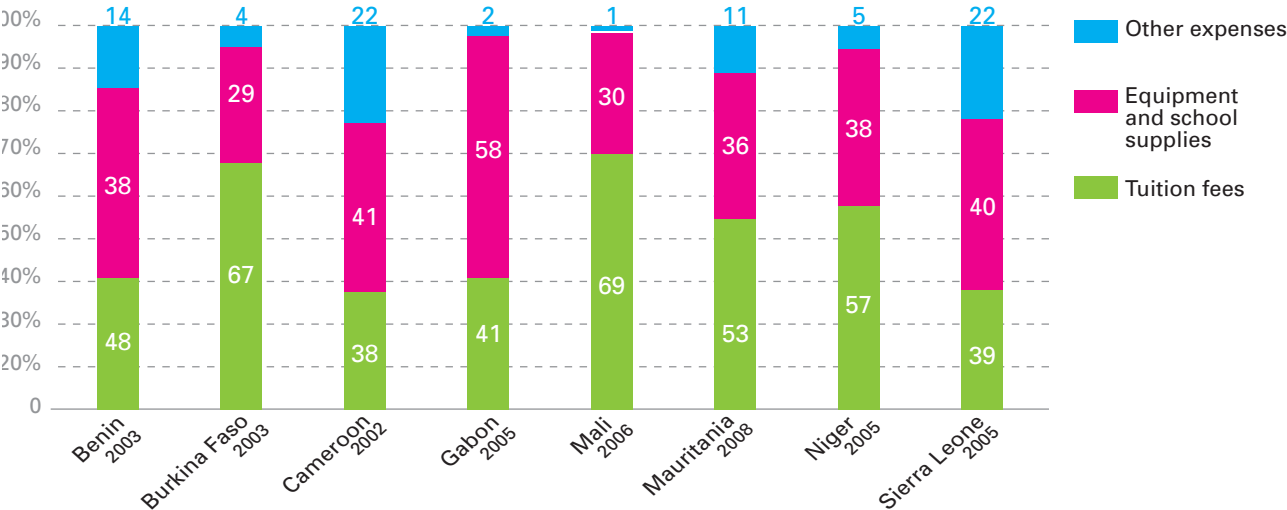
A large part of household income, even for the poorest households, is devoted to educational expenses. In some countries, household financial participation is often even greater than that of the State. Educational spending represents a considerable proportion of household expenditure (see Annexe A, Table A17). Whilst in some countries such as Niger, Chad and Mali, this share is slightly over 1%, in other countries such as Sierra Leone, Côte d'Ivoire and Benin, more than 5% of household expenditure is allocated to education. The percentage of educational expenditure is higher for those who have chosen the private sector and for households in the richest income quintiles. According to reported public spending on education, the amount households pay for one child represents between 6% (Niger) and 78% (Sierra Leone) of what the State spends for one student in primary school (see Annexe A, Table A18). For lower secondary education, household spending is between 14% (Mali) and 146% (Benin) of what the State pays for a place in lower secondary school.

Figure 20: Percentage of household expenditure allocated to education
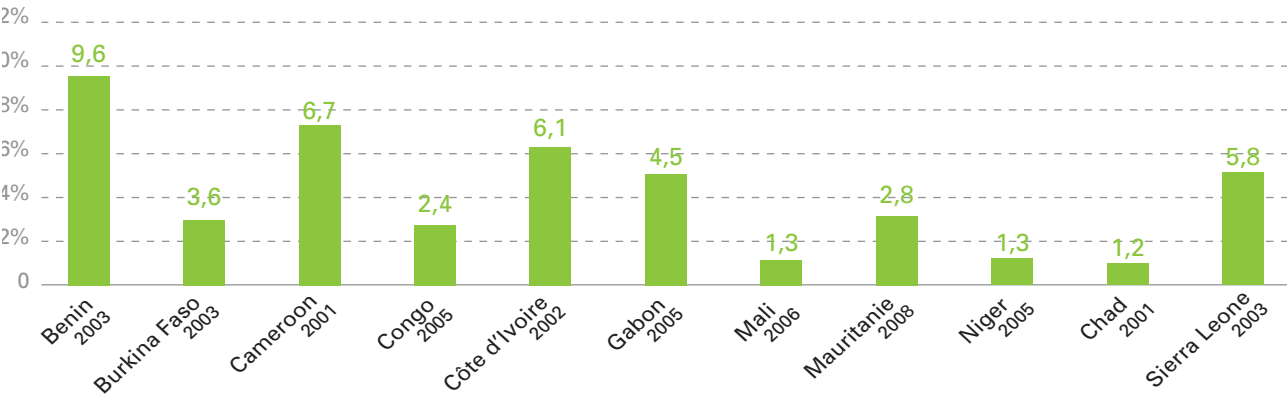
Barriers and bottlenecks

Box 3: Prevalence of community teachers and educational costs for households

Community teachers have been an economical option, used by many of the countries in the region, to cope with the rapid increase in the demand for primary education and the recruitment freeze in the civil service (CAR and Sierra Leone in the early 2000s), to overcome structural adjustments in 1980-1990 (Congo), or to compensate for a lack of qualified teachers in regions in crisis (Côte d'Ivoire). Countries emerging from conflict or a major crisis have made use of this option. These community teachers, who are recruited for both community and State schools, have provided education to millions of children, particularly in Chad and the CAR, where the proportion of them is greatest (60% in CAR[13] and 50% in Chad[14]). Recognition of the status of community teachers or their integration into the general teaching body has been initiated in several countries. This process is more easily done in those countries that already have several administrative categories of teachers, such as contract teachers. Many countries in the region, such as Chad, CAR, Sierra Leone, Togo, Congo and Côte d'Ivoire have also committed to training this mass of teachers in recent years (Antonowicz, 2011). The high prevalence of community teachers in a region is dependent on its location (rural, urban), the poverty rate and the degree of conflict or crisis. These teachers work in community schools, but also in State schools, and mission schools under contract. Whilst community teachers can sometimes be found in towns, they are particularly active in border areas, conflict zones and regions where insecurity prevails, remote and isolated areas and rural areas with a high population density. In fact, they are also numerous in camps for refugees and internally displaced people. In most cases, community teachers are paid in cash and in-kind, by families and communities. Thus, to have access to education, the poorest people are often those who, despite policies to abolish school fees, must cover their children's teachers' salary. This situation comes about due to a lack of consistency in the deployment of qualified teachers to any given territory, the reluctance of teachers to teach in remote or dangerous areas and from delays in paying qualified and contractual teachers, which therefore requires communities to contribute to their subsistence. Thus the total annual cost of community teachers per child can be significant. In-kind contributions often have to be added to these financial costs (food, housing, students working the teachers' land and carrying out other domestic chores).

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13. Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education and Literacy (2011). National Policy Document for the Training of National Personnel, Central African Republic, September 2011.
14. According to a questionnaire completed by the Ministry of Education as part of a study on community teachers commissioned by UNICEF WCARO (Antonowicz, 2011)

Policies and strategies

Possible regional strategies to reduce school exclusion

A large number of tools are being developed in the region to address the problems of supply and demand per context and thus greatly reduce the number of out-of-school children. Literature reviews and country studies under the OOSC Initiative allow for a review of the main tools used in WCA to address, directly or indirectly, the problem of school exclusion. Some programmes use one or more of the tools listed below. Indeed, some of these tools are intended to be used together or sequentially[15].

Figure 21: Overview of tools available to reduce the number of out-of-school children

TOOLS FOR THE DEMAND

TOOLS FOR THE SUPPLY

Resource transfers to households		Cost of education	Abolition of school fees
Student scholarships	Economic hardships		Transfer funds to schools
Education vouchers		Lack of equipment	School kits, textbooks, ...
Back to school loans			Provision of water, electricity, sanitation facilities, libraries, ...
Social protection mechanisms			
Nutrition programmes		Lack of teachers	Subsidies for teachers
Health programmes	Child's health problems		Teacher recruitment drivers
Programmes for disabled children		Bad practices	Management models, training supervision and teaching materials
Awareness activities	Poor perception of the value of education	Lack of schools	Construction of schools and classroom
Literacy programmes			School transports and boarding facilities
		Poor academic achievement	Educational reform programmes

------- Tools according to the context: political, economical, social, health, demographic, insecurity -------

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15. Given the number of tried and tested tools, this overview is obviously not exhaustive.

Policies and strategies

On the demand side, a number of tools enable households to benefit directly from different initiatives. Resource transfers, student scholarships, vouchers for education and student loans are the main tools that directly target families. They aim to counteract the negative effects of household economic hardships, and offset the cost of education. Resource transfers are direct subsidies, with or without conditions, paid directly to households. Scholarships are financial transfers specifically for students with educational conditions, whereas educational vouchers cover student school fees without the need for the student to actually handle any money, and irrespective of their choice of educational institution. Student loans provide households with the necessary funds for education in exchange for future repayment, whilst the creation of income-generating activities can improve future household income. Large social welfare programmes may also exist to improve household living conditions. To promote enrolment and retention in school, programmes offering support in food, nutrition and health are also frequently used. Outreach activities and literacy programmes may also offer significant added value to improve household perception of the value of education valuation and to encourage them to enroll their children in school.

On the supply side and through interventions in schools, a large number of tools can also be used to reduce the number of out-of-school children. As will be seen in the following section, programmes to abolish school fees can be put in place; these are based on cash transfers to schools. In the same way that resource transfers are given to households, these funds are transferred directly to schools and may or may not have links to conditions and/or specific expenses. Programmes for the distribution of school kits, uniforms, textbooks and other school supplies can also reduce the indirect costs of education for households whilst at the same time address the lack of equipment. Latrines, libraries, access to water and electricity, tables and benches, school canteens and school gardens are just some of the facilities that can be set up to encourage households to enroll their children in school and reduce drop-out rates. The lack of teachers can be overcome by programmes to recruit new teachers, together with the provision of subsidies and training for those teachers who are normally funded by parents (community teachers). A number of other financial incentives can be developed to improve motivation levels of teachers and reduce absenteeism. For principals and teachers, and even students, training programmes (local or remote), supervision and teaching materials can reduce bad practices that lead to some children dropping out of school. Curricula revision may also be a way to add value by presenting a positive image of certain categories of marginalized children (girls, disabled children, orphans, ethnic or religious minorities...) and using specific methods to better address their differences. Programmes to improve school management in order to take better account of equity issues, to improve the involvement of parents and communities as well as to reduce violence and discrimination in schools have also been tried and tested. Finally, programmes to build schools and classrooms can help to bring schools closer to children and thus improve their access to education. Boarding accommodation or transportation programmes are other ideas that have already been put in place to improve access to schools.

In terms of the context, some national programmes set up to improve the situation of the country at the political, economic, social, health, and demographic level, can have a huge impact on demand factors, such as the provision of education. Amongst these, specific programmes to combat child health and malnutrition issues, to fight against violence, insecurity and conflict directly affecting children and programmes to combat corruption and damage caused by natural climatic disasters can all have a positive impact on school exclusion. Obviously, increased budgets for education and capacity building of Ministries of Education can also greatly reduce the number of children who are victims of school exclusion.

Table 4: Policies and tools identified in country surveys for DRC, Ghana, Liberia and Nigeria, carried out in 2012

Source: Country reports produced - Global initative on out-of-school children

TRIED AND TESTED POLICIES AND STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE SCHOOL INCLUSION		DRC	GHANA	LIBERIA	NIGERIA	COMMENTS
DEMAND	Scholarships	•	•		•	*For girls or vulnerable children in particular*
	Cash transfers (conditional or unconditional)			•	•	*Transfers are unconditional with additional packages for each child attending school (Liberia), conditional transfers (Nigeria)*
	In-kind transfers (in particular food)		•	•		*Rations to take home for secondary school girls (Ghana)*
	Income generating activities		•			*Microcredit programme for groups of mothers (Ghana)*
SUPPLY	Free education (full or partial)	•	•	•	•	*Partial in DRC*
	Student grants		•	•		*Currently being introduced in Liberia*
	School canteens/meals at school		•		•	
	Programmes for children who have dropped out of school		•		•	
	Introduction of pre-school		•		•	*Two years compulsory now in Ghana*
	Scholarships and teacher training		•		•	
	Integration of formal curricula and religious programmes				•	
	Gender training for teachers		•			
	Integration of disabled children and support for schools and teachers for inclusive education		•			
CONTEXT	Change in legislation to promote girls education	•	•	•	•	Liberia: punishment for sexual harassment at school
	Campaigns/programmes for girls education					
	Action plan for vulnerable children	•	•	•	•	
	Outreach activities for religious leaders					*To facilitate girls education in particular*

Regional initiatives to reduce financial barriers to education

School Fees Abolition Initiative

As one of the main obstacles that parents face which is hindering the expansion of education for is financial, an international initiative to abolish school fees was launched (School Fees Abolition Initiative). This initiative, launched in 2005 by UNICEF and the World Bank, aims to tackle head-on the issues related to school fees and school exclusion to accelerate the achievement of Education for All (EFA). In WCA in particular, the initiative for the abolition of school fees has boomed thanks to the participation of many partners and local stakeholders. This initiative has several goals. Firstly it aims to document national experiences on the impact of the abolition of school fees including methodology, tools implemented and real impacts. The idea then is to examine, analyze and harness knowledge and experience pertaining to the impact of school fee abolition and how countries cope with the fallout from such a bold policy decision. Secondly, the goal is to use this knowledge and experience as a basis for providing guidance and support other countries that have decided to undertake the bold initiative to abolish school fees. Finally, the idea is to foster broad political dialogue and bring about international consensus on these issues. A number of international meetings have been held in this regard to facilitate exchanges between countries on these issues and to share tools and best practices. A workshop in Nairobi, entitled "Building on What We Know and Defining Sustainable Support", was held over three days in April 2006 and was aimed at consolidating knowledge on issues of abolition of school fees and improving partnerships between countries[16]. Ghana, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mozambique and Tanzania had an opportunity to share their experiences and lessons learned. One year later, a new international conference aimed at planning for quality and financial sustainability under the framework of a programme for the abolition of school fees was held in Bamako, Mali[17] .

Recommendations made for the region of WCA at this conference are to:

- Organise inter-ministerial meetings; such consultations should bring together the Ministries of Education, Finance, Social Development and local Government.

- Involve communities and set up school management committees; establish parent associations for greater efficiency in decision-making at the local level; develop efficient and transparent management systems.

- Train school management committees.

- Reduce or bridge gaps between schools; countries should aim towards nationalizing community schools, focus on excluded children, set standards for public and private schools, and streamline the distribution of teachers.

- Strengthen the capacity of Education Management Information Systems (EMIS).

- Plan and implement scholarship programmes.

- Plan and implement incentive programmes to motivate teachers.

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16. School Fee Abolition Initiative (SFAI) Workshop Building on What We Know and Defining Sustained Support, organized by UNICEF and the World Bank, 5-7 April 2006, Nairobi, Kenya
17. Conférence internationale « abolition des frais scolaires: planifier la qualité et la pérennité financière » organisée par l'Association pour le Développement de l'Éducation en Afrique (ADEA), l'UNICEF et la Banque Mondiale à Bamako du 19 au 22 Juin

- Plan and implement school feeding programmes to promote access and improve student retention.
- Plan and implement policies to print and distribute textbooks.
- Harmonize procedures, content, and costs for training.

In terms of implementation, **proposed strategies** from this conference aim to encourage countries to:

- Create partnerships and form networks with bilateral and multilateral agencies as well as other actors and stakeholders.
- Strategically plan to progressively introduce the abolition of fees over time.
- Conduct studies and assessments on out-of-school children, the different costs involved and on partnerships and resources at a local level.
- Conduct meetings, workshops and seminars on the abolition of school fees.
- Establish a communication strategy to mobilize and inform the general public.

As part of this initiative, **an operational framework** was developed a few years later to support countries in their process to abolish school fees (World Bank, 2009). These steps, which are not necessarily sequential, aim to:

- Define a leadership and management mechanism that is mandated at the highest level, supported by a national consensus, and backed by the best technical expertise available.
- Carry out an in-depth analysis of school fees and other related private costs, the student population and all available resources.
- Identify and sequentially prioritize the types of fees to eliminate first according to geographic area, grade, age, as well as socioeconomic characteristics and health.
- Estimate the costs related to the range of policy options and identify sources of national and international financing.
- Maintain a specific focus on quality.
- Strengthen the governance and accountability of schools.

Measures to overcome financial barriers to education

Tried and tested national programmes in Cameroon, Benin, Togo and Congo have shown that reduced school fees have a very strong impact on the number of children enrolling in education systems. As seen in Section III.2, most WCA countries have officially declared primary, or even secondary education, as free and compulsory. In reality however, education still remains expensive for households, especially the most vulnerable, in most countries. Despite this, a number of WCA countries have started to set up national programmes to reduce parental financial contributions. In 2000, Cameroon and Benin put in place several measures to make public primary education free. In Benin, but particularly in Cameroon, these measures had

a very strong effect on the number of children enrolling in the education system. In Cameroon, between 1996 and 2000 the average number of additional children starting primary school each year was 110,000; however in 2001, when free education was introduced, 450,000 more children enrolled in primary school. Thus, almost 340,000 more children took the plunge and enrolled in schools after drastic cost cuttings. In Benin, the annual increase in primary school enrolment was 50,000 children before it was free compared to 120,000 children in the year free schooling was introduced. More recently, in 2008, Togo and Congo introduced free primary education. Such measures have also had a significant effect in terms of enrolment. In Togo, the number of additional students enrolling in primary school each year increased from 15,000 between 2001 and 2008 to nearly 170,000 in 2009 when free education was actually introduced. Similarly in Congo, primary education saw 18,000 more students per year before free education was introduced versus nearly 43,000 the year it was put in place. Even low school fees proved to be a huge barrier to education for many children. The introduction of measures for free education was a real wake up call, which in turn has enabled hundreds of thousands of children to access education.

Figure 22: Primary school enrolment rates, before and after the introduction of free education in 2008, Togo and Congo

Source: Authors, based on data from the UIS
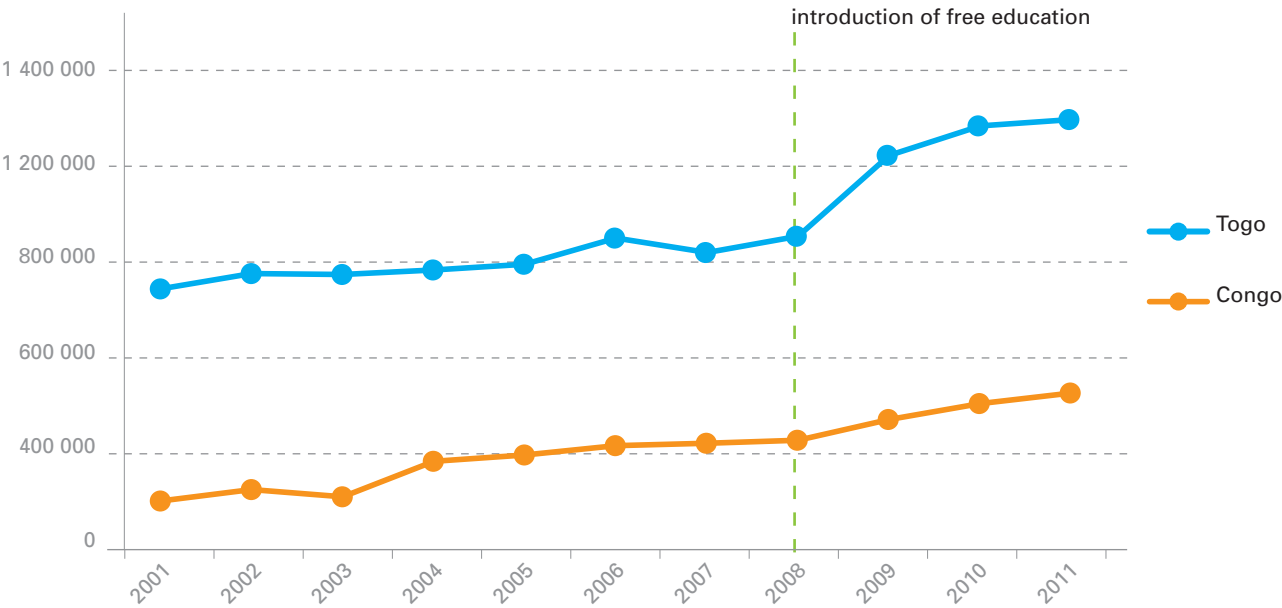
Figure 23: Primary school enrolment rates, before and after the introduction of free education in 2000, Cameroon and Benin
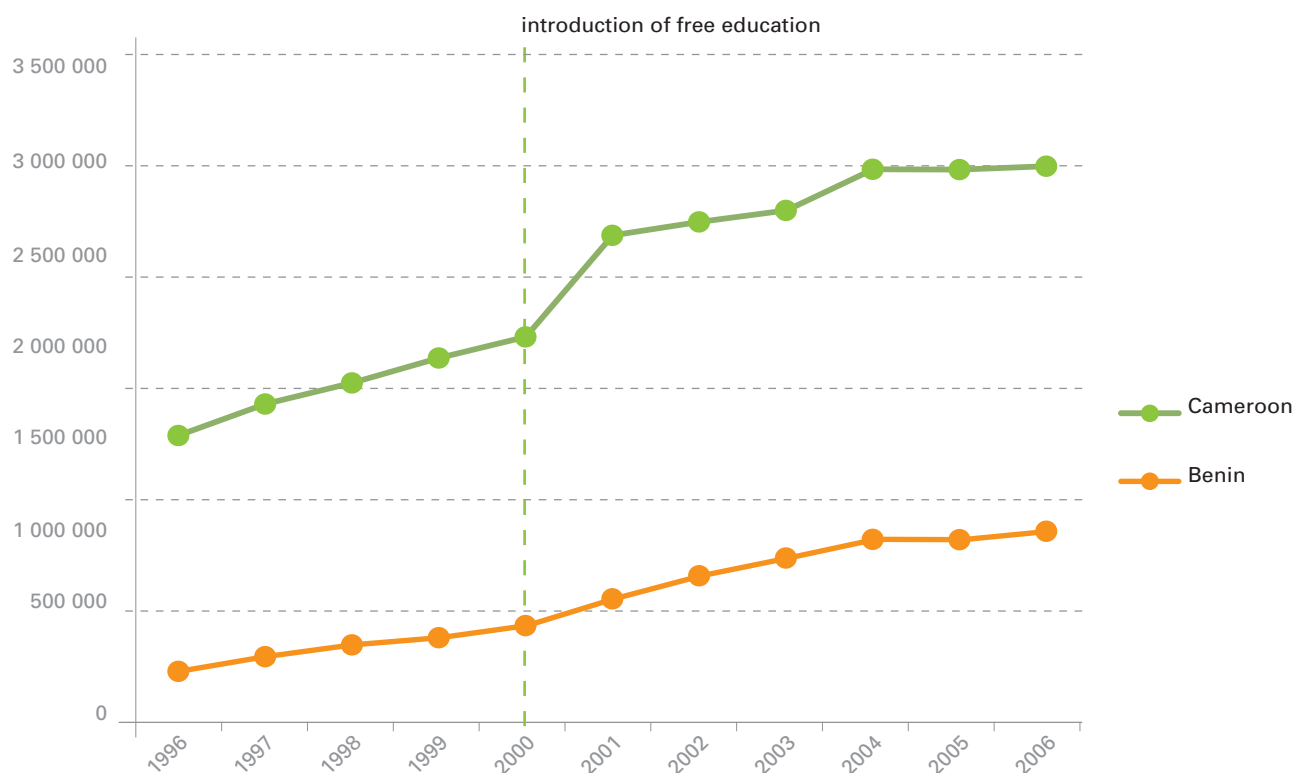
A wide variety of tools are currently used by countries in WCA to try to significantly reduce school fees for primary education. Budgets allocated to schools to support the abolition of school fees however are rarely sufficient and primary education still remains costly for households, especially the poorest. Measures taken by countries in WCA to abolish school fees, or at least to reduce them, vary depending on the country. In Benin, the government is working to allocate budgets directly to schools and to cover the salaries of community teachers. In Liberia, school funds were set up to compensate for financial losses resulting from the abolition of school fees. In Cape Verde, different mechanisms have been developed to cover the costs of school supplies, textbooks, uniforms, transportation and food for students from the most vulnerable households. The Government of Cape Verde created a foundation to manage these programmes, with funds coming from both the public and private sector. In Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Niger and Sao Tome and Principe, students receive free textbooks to help households reduce their educational expenses. In most WCA countries, and despite all the policy measures taken, primary education still seems to be a non-negligible cost for households, particularly the poorest. Budgets allocated to schools to support the abolition of school fees are rarely sufficient and are often much lower than the funds previously collected from parents. Despite being free, parents still have to cover many hidden costs for their children's education.

Conclusion

Recommendations and future prospects for the region

This regional study enables a number of possible actions, to improve the inclusion of all children in educational systems in WCA to be put forward. These ideas are intended to initiate debate and should not be implemented without an open national debate and strong local ownership by all stakeholders in the field..

Table 5: Overview of possible actions to reduce the number of out-of-school children

OBJECTIVES	IMPLEMENTATION
An overview of school exclusion	*National, multiparty and multi-sectoral, plans against school exclusion to be included in national EFA strategies. The aim is not to focus on each sub-category of exclusion but to turn it into a real national priority*
Widespread mobilisation against school exclusion	
A comprehensive, funded strategy	
An operational and transversal steering committee	*A national office for the fight against school exclusion and responsibilities assigned to the issue at both national and local level*
Promotion of a culture of inclusive education	*A day or week of national action to combat school exclusion and specific awareness campaigns to challenge social norms concerning all types of exclusion*
A pro-vulnerability regulatory framework	*Put a stop to school exclusions related to administrative bottlenecks, enforce a welcoming atmosphere in schools*
Expanded partnerships to promote innovative programmes	*Innovative public-private partnerships and a nationwide competition to explore new ideas and tools*
Organisation of inclusive pedagogy and training	*Training and tools for inclusive education and for combatting exclusion for teachers; a quota of teachers who come from excluded groups; curriculum review; textbooks that are sensitive to all stereotypes and a flexible curricula and certification for certain categories of children*
Inclusion of all children in local schools	*Awareness campaigns and specific tools, trial periods in regular classes in local mainstream schools for particular cases*
A system to collect disaggregated data	*Advocacy efforts and interactions with staff responsible for statistics, capacity building in terms of statistics*
A platform for communication and information dissemination	*A website to source relevant documents, support new initiatives and share best practices*
A package of direct and targeted interventions	*Household: financial and in-kind transfers in addition to local humanitarian assistance, support and training for families with stigmatized children*
	School: free comprehensive or targeted education, actions to identify and support excluded children, contracts for academic success, parents associations focused on inclusion and quality, institutionalizing affirmative action, standardization of community schools, infrastructures sensitive to gender and disabilities, canteens, school health programmes, peer mentoring
	Community: outreach programmes, support for community initiatives, identification of excluded children, networks and support systems

An overview of school exclusion

First of all, it is necessary to have an overall view of school exclusion in order to be able to address it effectively in all its forms. This vision should be shared by all stakeholders in order to put an end to the many, often-contradictory messages, and to establish a common discourse on the issue of school exclusion. Despite their differences and contrary to what is generally observed, it seems to be inefficient to treat each form of school exclusion separately (girls, disability, poverty, child labour, rural areas...). Indeed, the various forms of exclusion have a tendency to add up and a number of underlying factors are common to all forms of exclusion. Similarly, some tools can be combined to promote the inclusion of all categories of excluded children. Obviously, the details of each type of exclusion should not be forgotten; to deal with this problem, it is necessary to start, wherever possible, from the overall problem of school exclusion and later move towards its more specific forms.

Widespread mobilization against school exclusion

The States of WCA and their partners do not yet appear to have fully internalised the severity of the problem of school exclusion. Similarly, discouragement and indifference to situations of school exclusion are observed in certain communities. This waste of financial and human resources jeopardizes the future of many children and will have negative consequences for the development of the region. Having clearly demonstrated the extent of the problem and its negative effects, it is imperative to actively engage and empower all stakeholders against school exclusion. It is particularly necessary to raise a lot more funds for this issue in order to adequately tackle the scale of the problem. Finally, the fight against school exclusion should be a high priority for the Ministries of Education and their partners. The aim of this mobilization should be the reduction of all forms of disparity to access and retention in order to achieve quality basic education for all as quickly as possible.

A comprehensive, funded strategy to fight against school exclusion

Based on this overall vision and widespread mobilization against school exclusion, a comprehensive, operational and funded strategy must emerge to tackle all forms of school exclusion in an efficient and coordinated manner. This strategy, formalized in what could be a 'national plan to fight against school exclusion' should also be part of EFA plans as well as all other national strategies promoting education. These national plans should be based on a sound analysis of the situation and should take into consideration the way certain inequalities overlap for some children; they should also take into consideration regional differences for each

Conclusion

child profile. These strategies should cover aspects of prevention and response to school exclusion as well as provide special allowances for youth who have never been to school or who dropped out at some point. The implementation and financing of these national plans should be the main priority. A multi-sectoral framework involving various ministries, IOs, NGOs and private organisations could be put into action. These national plans should: integrate a system of operational management; promote a culture of inclusive education; include a pro-vulnerability regulatory framework; develop expanded partnerships promoting innovative programmes; include inclusive pedagogy and training; ensure the inclusion of all children in local schools; provide a system for collecting detailed information; include a platform for information dissemination and communication, as well as a package of direct and targeted actions for households, schools and communities. Actions to prevent exclusion and encourage school retention should be well differentiated. Different strategies should be funded and a certain degree of predictability in allocated financial flows should be sought in order to get to the root of the causes of exclusion. Interventions from the different stakeholders should be coordinated in terms of timing and regions. Despite searching for cost-effective strategies, the plight of the most difficult and most costly children to educate should be addressed directly.

A system of operational and transversal management

Since the Ministries of Education must be responsible for the leadership of national plans to combat school exclusion, they must therefore have the means to implement them and be able to ensure adequate follow-up. Responsibility for matters relating to the problem of exclusion and inclusive education should be entrusted to a supervisory structure at the central level, as well as to officials at the decentralized level. Given the importance and the transversal nature of this issue, the creation of a national office to combat school exclusion with the Ministries of Education could help implement the management of these national plans to fight against school exclusion[18]. This structure should have sufficient means to manoeuver and not be limited by lack of funds, authority or capacity. A multi-sectoral administrative committee for this structure could be created to bring together all government partners (MOE and other Ministries active in this field) and non-governmental organisations (NGOs, IOs, private). This structure, mandated to promote inclusive education and fight against exclusion, would be responsible for overseeing the implementation of all activities in a national plan to fight against school exclusion. In addition to developing general policies for inclusive education, standardisation of sites and tools and the design of inclusive pedagogy modules, this national office would be in charge of: identifying activities and resources; provision of tools; capacity building of stakeholders; identification of new partnerships and; support for field initiatives, aiming for synergy between actors. An annual meeting to evaluate and take stock of the issue of school exclusion could be organised. At the decentralised level, responsibility for the fight against school exclusion could be assigned to a focal point that would be responsible for all activities related to inclusive education and the fight against exclusion. At the local level, a teacher could be given the responsibility and trained to manage activities to prevent school dropouts and improve retention rates.

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18. Similar structures have been established in Zanzibar, Uganda and even in Laos. The National Agency for the Fight against Illiteracy (ANLCI), established in France in 2000, is also an interesting case. Its mission is to identify, prioritize existing resources and organise the synergistic implementation of actions by public authorities and other stakeholders in the fight against illiteracy.

Promotion of a culture of inclusive education

At the central and local levels, it is essential to create a culture of inclusive education. The objective would therefore be to value both the differences between students and the right to re-schooling. The benefits of taking into account diverse educational needs of all children in local schools should be explained as well as making use of theses differences to enhance learning. A key message should be that all actions that benefit the most vulnerable children also benefit all the others. Interventions related to the quality of schools that benefit girls or children with disabilities directly benefit boys and non-disabled children. States, households, schools and communities should also understand the right to a second chance. Thus dropping out of school should not be considered irreversible and returning to school should be seen as a right and the normal thing to do. The positive effects of interventions on excluded children from an economic and social standpoint should also be highlighted as well as the negative effects of school exclusion on health or insecurity in communities. School exclusion should therefore be considered as everyone's business across all levels. The difference between equity and equality should be well communicated at the household, school and community level. These groups have a tendency to prefer equal treatment for all children and often take a dim view of interventions targeting a specific group of children. Equity, however, compensates certain children for their particular vulnerability. These affirmative actions must be understood at the local level in order to attract the support of all concerned and not cause feelings of injustice.

A way to bring this issue to light and to encourage both central and local levels to commit to the issue could be to set up a national day or week of action against school exclusion[19]. Local and national events and awareness campaigns in the media could be organised to challenge collective stereotypes and perceptions and to propose concrete actions. To identify out-of-school children and help them reconnect with school, a community census of these children could be carried out during these events, which should ideally take place when the children go back to school after the holidays. Success stories of children in the face of diversity or related to them returning to school could be used. People who have experienced school exclusion could act as ambassadors to increase visibility and the credibility of activities, while encouraging other citizens to get involved. Specific awareness campaigns, to change social norms on all forms of exclusion should be carried out at regular intervals. Activities to fight against school exclusion could be organised throughout the year based on elements emanating from this event.

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19. In France, every September 23 since 2008, UNICEF supports a "Day for the Eradication of School Failure". In Europe, 2010 was established as the "European Year Against Poverty and Social Exclusion" by the European Union.

Conclusion

A pro-vulnerability regulatory framework

The regulatory framework should be adapted to promote inclusion activities and prohibit exclusive attitudes towards students. Some restrictions could be announced and communicated to school officials, for example, a ban on excluding or denying access to school for pregnant girls, young mothers, disabled children, children who have not paid their registration fees, children who are too old, children who have not registered their civil status, etc.. Any school exclusion or denied registration should be justified and approved by a local official, in addition to school staff. All school fees should be lifted for the most vulnerable households. All administrative bottlenecks that hamper school enrolment (school fees, birth certificates) should be permanently lifted and an obligation to welcome all children could be formalized. Thus, in the case of refusal due to lack of space, a solution for transfer to another school nearby should be offered by school principals. If there are no other realistic educational alternatives, the child should be allowed to stay in school. The objective therefore would be to develop a legislation to ensure the inclusion of all children in the public school nearest their home and promote affirmative action for the most vulnerable children.

Expanded partnerships to promote innovative programmes

To meet the quantity and diversity of inclusive education needs, it is essential to rely on NGOs as well as private organisations, including private schools and religious or secular organisations for vocational training. The private sector and NGOs should be mobilized and involved at all levels. Through innovative public-private partnerships, the idea would be to initiate new programmes in difficult locations (rural, isolated), for all categories of excluded children and with different objectives (support for the transition between school cycles, assistance at the start of the school year, and identification of activities for children at risk...). Subsidized programmes based on performance, scholarships or educational vouchers could then be introduced to best utilize the special skills of some NGOs and private organisations. A national competition could be set up to help research new ideas and initiatives to maximize the cost-benefit ratio. Guides, tools or even a special team could be created to support the implementation of such partnerships.

Organisation of inclusive pedagogy and training

Problems related to school curricula, teaching materials, the training of teachers and principals, teaching methods as well as the methods to assess student learning, are central to improving exclusion. School exclusion in all its forms should be taken into consideration and fully integrated in both initial and continuous training for teachers and MOE education officials. Reinsertion in school after dropping out, and positive perception of student diversity should also be taken into consideration as well as the different nature of

teaching required for certain categories of children (girls, disabled children, slow learners, victims of violence, children who work…). Continued training and a support system between teachers will help them deal with difficult students; they could also receive support from teacher networks. Early identification guides and activities for children at high risk of exclusion could be developed to encourage teaching staff at each school to act swiftly. It is important to take into account that teachers represent successful role models; therefore, it would seem relevant to increase the participation of teachers who come from vulnerable backgrounds who have experienced some form of exclusion themselves. Such people could take advantage of special criteria in order to become teachers, receive specific support or be part of a quota system for entry into the public service. The Ministries of Education could also create a system of incentives to promote their return to their home communities.

In terms of curricula, the academic calendar should be revised so that the long, summer holidays fall when the school drop-out rates are the highest. It would be better that children do not have to go to school at the hottest time of the year, when food and water are scarce or when schools are not accessible due to severe weather conditions or insecurity. Textbooks should also be revised so that they are sensitive to all general stereotypes. Women, the disabled, and people from rural areas should be presented more positively in illustrations and examples in textbooks. These manuals should truly reflect the diversity of populations and show the positive side of being different. Victims of school exclusion could be involved in textbook reviews. Some flexibility should be allowed with respect to curricula and certification of children at high risk of exclusion. The number of preschools should be significantly increased, especially in rural areas. School support groups and peer support networks could also be developed in all schools.

The inclusion of all children in local schools

Parents, schools and communities put up a certain resistance towards the inclusion of stigmatized children (disabled, street children, HIV positive, ethnic or religious minorities) in local mainstream schools. Special awareness-raising activities and appropriate tools should be developed so that inclusion of these children becomes the norm. However, if theoretically the approach is that all children should have access to the local primary school, it appears that some of them would benefit from a spell in a specialist structure. The question of knowing which children can go directly into a mainstream primary school, which would benefit from additional academic support and those who should go into special classes or special schools, should be resolved on a case by case basis according to the needs and opportunities available. The inclusion of such children in mainstream schools should be considered as a short or medium-term objective. One solution might be for them to have a trial period in a regular local school to assess whether they could be integrated in a regular classroom and pinpoint any additional needs. This measure should obviously only be considered if the child's health and the safety of the school permit it. For the provision of additional support, special classes and schools, the child's situation could be reassessed with the teacher after a few months of observation. While waiting for the placement of the child in a more suitable class or school he/she should however remain in a regular school.

Conclusion

A system for collecting disaggregated data

The existing information systems, whether at the MOE level or demographic surveys, do not take into account the issue of school exclusion very well. Advocacy work and communication with those responsible for statistics is necessary, for a better consideration of the various forms of exclusion in school and demographic statistics. Population census should be able to address these particular issues. In terms of the survey questionnaires from the MOEs, data such as the number of children with disabilities, the number of children sent away at the start of the school year, the number of children excluded by the school, the number of children absent per trimester, the number of children who dropped out during the school year, the cost of school fees and contributions from parents or even the percentage of students who receive free enrolment could be collected annually from each school and broken down by grade, age and gender. The number of children who dropped out over the course of the year and the number of children who do not register from one year to the next, would enable schools to think a bit more about school exclusion. So as not to distort statistics given by the principals, it would be best not to publicly use this data to avoid stigmatizing certain schools or to come to the wrong conclusions about the performance of others. In order to track these data special support measures could be put in place. In terms of national school statistics, contextual differences and type of institution should be highlighted, as well as the allocation of civil service teachers and new classrooms and equipment. At the community level, a census of all school dropouts should be encouraged and carried out by the MOE. In order to do this, MOEs should receive appropriate training on data collection.

A platform for information dissemination and communication

Collecting literature and information on the diverse questions and existing programmes related to school exclusion in the countries of WCA was a long and difficult process. It is therefore very important to have a source of documentation and a platform for information dissemination. The idea would therefore be to capitalize on knowledge in the region, to exchange tools and information and better document pilot projects and experiments on the subject. This platform could also be used to support new initiatives against school exclusion. A number of tools could then be made available so that the same studies are not repeated and best practices are shared. An annual, regional monitoring report of school exclusion could be produced for the national days of action against school exclusion. Developments in inclusive education and the effectiveness of inclusion could also be presented and assessed, on the basis of a certain indicators, which would have to be defined.

A package of direct and targeted actions

In this fight against school exclusion, it is essential that interventions are multiple, targeted and direct. A package of actions should be put in place to respond to the different actors and their needs. Moreover, this set of synergistic activities should be adapted to the various locations and corresponding issues, and structured according to the issues of prevention, response and compensation of school exclusion. It is therefore important to target actions and resources so that they are not just sprinkled over a wide range of objectives, actors and locations. Actions concerning primary education should focus primarily on the fight against school exclusion and on improving the educational quality of excluded children and those living in areas where exclusion rates are high. Target indicators and monitoring procedures should be developed. To ensure rapid and effective interventions, when possible, actions should be carried out directly with local stakeholders who have to deal with exclusion, namely parents, schools and communities. Human resources at the MOE at both national and local levels should be available to provide support, supervision and to monitor activities.

Actions at the household level:un
It is essential to directly address the financial constraints of the most vulnerable households. To do this, financial transfers (scholarships, resource transfers) and/or in-kind support (school kits, nutritional support, health care) targeting the poorest families appear to be suitable tools. This would involve clarification of the regulatory framework, including eligibility and selection criteria as well as a monitoring system. These transfers should build on local humanitarian support especially for orphans and children having to live alone in order to study. A number of outreach activities should also be put in place to promote education as a means to achieve certain objectives and ensure independence, to reduce child labour and promote access to or even reinsertion in school. It is therefore essential to disseminate the idea that five years of primary school education is the bare minimum that a child should have so that he/she does not lose all of his/her acquired skills. Special support and training could be given to the families of stigmatized children (disabled, street children, HIV positive, ethnic or religious minorities) so that they can cope more effectively with their situation.

Actions at the school level:
At the school level, registration fees and parent association contributions have to be reduced. To do this, greater involvement of the State, through direct financial support or in-kind support, is essential. The ideal situation would, of course, be that education is completely free, provided by the State through subsidies for community teachers and the provision of sufficient school funds. If a country's budget would not allow for this, a cheaper alternative solution would be free education for certain categories of children whose school fees and contributions would be paid for by school funds. Eligibility criteria and selection methods of such students would then be critical. Similarly, if the allocation of school supplies is not possible for all students, vulnerable children, according to specific criteria, should be prioritized. All administrative obstacles to primary school enrolment should be eliminated; the principle should be to first put the child in school and sort out administrative and financial matters later. Overall, it would be a good idea to hold discussions at the school level as to the obstacles to school enrolment and the causes of dropouts. It also seems that it would be appropriate to develop mechanisms to identify excluded children and implement actions targeting excluded children through specific events and activities. School contract programmes, specifically targeting the quality and level of inclusiveness, also appear to be important tools. The objectives of 'zero enrolment refusals' and 'zero dropouts' could be formalized, as well as actions against degrading violence at school. The principle of 'child friendly schools' and the School Contracts for Success Programme, formalized by UNICEF, deserve to

be taken over by the MOE and implemented within all schools. The management system and local monitoring should be further strengthened. Affirmative actions and compliance with the pro-vulnerability regulatory framework should also be encouraged. Community schools should be made into mainstream public schools and should receive special support to be able to do this. Wherever possible, equipment and infrastructure should be gender-sensitive, and also suitable for disabled children. School feeding during the lean seasons, accessible sanitation facilities for girls and disabled children, a library, as well as school health programmes, could all have significant effects on absenteeism and dropouts. Sharing information on children at the local level should be systemized, especially between the school and the local healthcare centre; joint training could thus be arranged. School, principal and teacher networks should be supported to share best practices and provide mutual support. Within classes, peer-mentoring programmes could be developed to help newcomers adjust to the school environment. Timely awareness campaigns should be established so that diversity and differences are welcomed in the classroom.

Actions at the community level:
A number of actions should be carried out at the community level. Aspects of social mobilization against exclusion and the culture of inclusion should be well communicated to the community. Community initiatives to combat school exclusion should be supported, together with an annual census of out-of-school children in the community. Sensitization on disability should be organised with health centres in order to show that disabilities are not contagious. Work with traditional and religious leaders to encourage the education of girls and disabled children is important. Furthermore, it is important to ensure that people have a trusting relationship with the school; community management entities should be set up in all schools where they are not yet in place. The management of funds should be transparent at all levels. A structure for school retention that specializes in reinsertion could be developed in partnership with associations and local partners. A network and a support and training system could be organised for the head of parent associations and community leaders to improve their capacity and efficiency. Community strategies for natural disasters or periods of high insecurity could also be developed.

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ANNEXES

Table A1: Number of children enrolled in primary school, number of out-of-school children, total number and percentage of girls, 1999 and 2010, according to the EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2012

Variables	Number of children enrolled in primary school	Number of children enrolled in primary school	Total number of out-of-school children	Girls as % of total out-of-school children	Total number of out-of-school children	Girls as % of total out-of-school children
Year						
Benin	9.352	2.7	57	1		
Burkina Faso	17.482	3.0	56	1	1 022	51.9%
Cameroon	20.469	2.1	52	5	179	...
Cape Verde	505	0.9	74	...	4	58.2%
CAR	4.576	2.0	50	5	56	57.8%
Chad	11.831	2.6	50	3	1 161	57.2%
Congo	4.233	2.2	58	3	...	...
Côte d'Ivoire	20.595	2.2	56	3	85	47.9%
DRC	69.575	2.6	49	...	567	47.5%
Equatorial Guinea	740	2.7	52	5	355	63.0%
Gabon	1.564	1.9	63	5	57	53.3%
Gambia	1.825	2.7	59	2	43	50.1%
Ghana	25.546	2.3	65	2	...	...
Guinea	10.481	2.5	55	1	850	55.8%
Guinea-Bissau	1.580	2.1	49	3	134	46.0%
Liberia	4.245	2.6	58	2	1 012	56.2%
Mali	16.319	3.0	52	1	10 542	52.1%
Mauritania	3.623	2.2	59	0.7	214	65.5%
Niger	16.644	3.5	55	0.8	...	...
Nigeria	166.629	2.5	53	4	0.4	...
STP	172	2.0	65	...	429	44.6%
Senegal	13.108	2.6	60	0.9	...	...
Sierra Leone	6.126	2.1	48	2	...	...
Togo	6.283	2.0	58	3	51	...
West and Central Africa	37 773	60 199	21 548	53.9%*	16 851*	51.9%*
East and Southern Africa	32 685	63 746	16 281	52.4%*	6 045	53.9%*
Sub-Saharan Africa	82 053	132 809	42 174	53.6%	30 641	53.1%
Latin America and the Caribbean	69 978	66 413	3 607	54.8%	2 652	50.5%
Central Asia	6 838	5 461	439	51.7%	317	54.4%
East Asia and the Pacific	224 574	185 304	10 344	50.7%	6 579	44.5%
West and Southern Asia	155 075	188 366	40 081	64.1%	13 261	55.2%
Arab States	35 024	41 741	8 423	58.6%	5 036	60.8%
World	651 249	690 665	107 614	57.7%	60 684	52.9%

Note: the data used here are taken from the statistical annexes of the EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012).
* Simple averages for Country in the sub-region, other averages per region are figures from the UIS (with weighting by population and imputation for missing data)

Table A2: Demographic indicators

Variables		Total Population (in thousands)	Average annual growth rate of the total population (%)	Life Expectancy at Birth	HIV prevalence rate of adults aged 15 – 49 years (%)
Year		2012	2010-2015	2010-2015	2009
West and Central African Countries	Benin	9.352	2.7	57	1
	Burkina Faso	17.482	3.0	56	1
	Cameroon	20.469	2.1	52	5
	Cape Verde	505	0.9	74	...
	CAR	4.576	2.0	50	5
	Chad	11.831	2.6	50	3
	Congo	4.233	2.2	58	3
	Côte d'Ivoire	20.595	2.2	56	3
	DRC	69.575	2.6	49	...
	Equatorial Guinea	740	2.7	52	5
	Gabon	1.564	1.9	63	5
	Gambia	1.825	2.7	59	2
	Ghana	25.546	2.3	65	2
	Guinea	10.481	2.5	55	1
	Guinea-Bissau	1.580	2.1	49	3
	Liberia	4.245	2.6	58	2
	Mali	16.319	3.0	52	1
	Mauritania	3.623	2.2	59	0.7
	Niger	16.644	3.5	55	0.8
	Nigeria	166.629	2.5	53	4
	STP	172	2.0	65	...
	Senegal	13.108	2.6	60	0.9
	Sierra Leone	6.126	2.1	48	2
	Togo	6.283	2.0	58	3
Simple Averages for Countries in West and Central Africa	Average*		2.4	56.3	2.6
	Minimum		1	48	1
	Maximum		4	74	5
	Standard deviation		0.50	6.21	1.56
Simple Averages for Countries in East and Southern Africa	Average*		2	56	9
	Standard deviation		1	6	9

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Weighted averages per region					
	Sub-Saharan Africa		2.4	55	5.0
	Latin America and the Caribbean		1.1	75	...
	Central Asia		1.0	69	...
	East Asia and the Pacific		0.6	74	...
	West and Southern Asia		1.4	66	...
	Arab States		1.9	71	...
	World		1.1	70	0.8

Note: the data used here are taken from the statistical annexes of the EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012).
* Averages simples des pays de la sous-région, les autres Averages par régions sont des chiffres fournis par l'UIS (avec pondération par la population et imputation pour les données manquantes).

Table A3: Socio-economic indicators

Variables		GDP per capita, US$ current rate	GDP per capita, US$ PPP	% of the population living on less than $1.25 per day	Literacy rate (15 years and above)
Année		2010	2010	2000-2009	2005-2010
West and Central African Countries	Benin	780	1.590	47	42
	Burkina Faso	550	1.250	57	29
	Cameroon	1.180	2.270	10	71
	Cape Verde	3.270	3.820	21	84
	CAR	470	790	63	56
	Chad	620	1.220	62	34
	Congo	2.150	3.220	54	...
	Côte d'Ivoire	1.160	1.810	24	56
	DRC	180	320	59	67
	Equatorial Guinea	14.540	23.750	...	94
	Gabon	7.740	13.170	5	88
	Gambia	450	1.300	34	50
	Ghana	1.230	1.660	30	67
	Guinea	400	1.020	43	41
	Guinea-Bissau	590	1.180	49	54
	Liberia	200	340	84	61
	Mali	600	1.030	51	31
	Mauritania	1.030	1.960	21	58
	Niger	370	720	43	29
	Nigeria	1.180	2.170	64	61
	STP	1.200	1.920	29	89
	Senegal	1.090	1.910	34	50
	Sierra Leone	340	830	53	42
	Togo	490	890	39	57

Simple Averages for Countries in West and Central Africa	Average*	1742.1	2922.5	42.4	57.1
	Minimum	180	320	5	29
	Maximum	14 540	23 750	84	94
	Standard deviation	3 137	5 100	19.21	19.23
Simple Averages for Countries in East and Southern Africa	Average*	2 344	4 528	50	76
	Standard deviation	2 924	5 814	24	14
Weighted averages per region	Afrique subsaharienne	685	1 380	48	63
	Amérique latine et Caraïbes	6 430	10 205	...	91
	Asie central	2 690	4 990	8	99
	Asie de l'Est et Pacifique	3 000	4 235	...	94
	Asie du Sud et de l'Ouest	1 330	3 170	24	63
	États arabes	2 800	5 460	...	75
	Monde	3 960	6 965	16	84

Note: the data used here are taken from the statistical annexes of the EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012).
* Simple averages for countries in the sub-region, other averages per region are figures from the UIS (with weighting by population and imputation for missing data)

Table A4: Enrolment in primary school and gender parity indicators

Variables		Gross enrolment rate in preprimary school	Net enrolment rate in primary school	Net enrolment rate in primary school	Gender parity index for primary NER	Gender parity index for primary NER
Year		2010	1999	2010	1999	2010
West and Central African Countries	Benin	18	...	94	...	...
	Burkina Faso	3	33	63	0.70	0.94
	Cameroon	28	...	92	...	0.87
	Cape Verde	70	99	93	...	0.98
	CAR	6	...	69	...	0.76
	Chad	2	52	...	0.62	...
	Congo	13	...	91	...	0.97
	Côte d'Ivoire	4	56	61	0.75	0.83
	DRC	3	33	...	0.95	...
	Equatorial Guinea	55	72	56	...	0.99
	Gabon	42	...	...	...	...
	Gambia	30	69	66	0.87	1.03

West and Central African Countries	Ghana	69	61	84	0.97	1.01
	Guinea	14	43	77	0.69	0.85
	Guinea-Bissau	7	50	74	0.71	0.96
	Liberia	...	46	...	0.78	...
	Mali	3	42	63	0.73	0.88
	Mauritania	...	61	74	0.97	1.04
	Niger	6	26	62	0.68	0.83
	Nigeria	14	61	58	0.84	0.91
	STP	62	88	98	0.99	1.03
	Senegal	13	57	75	0.84	1.06
	Sierra Leone	7	...	...	...	...
	Togo	9	85	92	0.79	0.89
Simple Averages for Countries in West and Central Africa	Average*	21.7	57.5	75.9	0.8	0.93
	Minimum	2	26	56	1	1
	Maximum	70	99	98	1	1
	Standard deviation	23	19.68	14.04	0	0
Simple Averages for Countries in East and Southern Africa	Average*	38	67	85	1	1
	Standard deviation	35	21	15	0	0
Weighted averages per region	Sub-Saharan Africa	17	58	76	0.87	0.95
	Latin America and the Caribbean	70	92	94	0.98	0.99
	Central Asia	30	91	90	0.99	0.98
	East Asia and the Pacific	57	94	95	0.99	1.00
	West and Southern Asia	48	74	88	0.83	0.98
	Arab States	22	77	86	0.90	0.94
	World	48	82	89	0.93	0.98

Note: the data used here are taken from the statistical annexes of the EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012).
* Simple averages for countries in the sub-region, other averages per region are figures from the UIS (with weighting by population and imputation for missing data)

Table A5: Indicators of the legal context of primary education

Country	Compulsory education (age groups)	Free basic education officially guaranteed by law	Official age of primary school enrolment
Benin	6-11	No	6
Burkina Faso	6-16	No	6
Cameroon	6-11	No	6
Cape Verde	6-16	No	6
CAR	6-15	No	6
Chad	6-16	Yes	6
Congo	6-16	Yes	6
Côte d'Ivoire	6-15	No	6
DRC	6-15	Yes	6
Equatorial Guinea	7-11	Yes	7
Gabon	6-16	Yes	6
Gambia	6-15	Yes	7
Ghana	4-15	Yes	6
Guinea	7-16	No	7
Guinea-Bissau	7-13	Yes	7
Liberia	6-16	No	6
Mali	6-15	Yes	7
Mauritania	6-14	Yes	6
Niger	4-16	Yes	7
Nigeria	6-15	Yes	6
STP	6-11	Yes	6
Senegal	6-16	Yes	7
Sierra Leone	6-15	No	6
Togo	6-15	No	6

Note: the data used here are taken from the statistical annexes of the EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012)., ces chiffres diffèrent de ceux de l'UIS.

Table A6: State of primary education indicators

Variables		School-life expectancy	Survival rate to Grade 5	% of repeaters in primary	No. of students per teacher in primary	% of teachers who have been trained
Year		2010	2010	2010	2010	2010
West and Central African Country	Benin	...	60	13.4	46	43
	Burkina Faso	6.9	75	10.1	48	86
	Cameroon	10.9	76	13.1	46	57
	Cape Verde	12.7	90	9.6	24	90
	CAR	6.8	55	22.6	81	57
	Chad	7.4	37	22.4	62	70
	Congo	...	77	19.1	49	87
	Côte d'Ivoire	...	66	16.6	49	100
	DRC	8.5	60	14.1	37	92
	Equatorial Guinea	...	70	20.2	27	45
	Gabon	...	...	...	25	...
	Gambia	8.7	65	5.5	37	...
	Ghana	11.4	78	2.5	31	51
	Guinea	8.8	69	16.5	42	65
	Guinea-Bissau	...	...	14.1	52	39
	Liberia	...	60	6.7	24	40
	Mali	7.5	88	12.9	48	50
	Mauritania	8.1	74	3.5	37	100
	Niger	4.9	71	3.7	39	96
	Nigeria	...	86	...	36	66
	STP	10.8	77	12.4	30	40
	Senegal	8.2	74	6.3	34	48
	Sierra Leone	...	...	15.6	31	48
	Togo	...	78	22.1	41	77
Simple Averages for Country in West and Central Africa	Average*	8.7	70.8	12.9	40.7	65.8
	Minimum	5	37	3	24	39
	Maximum	13	90	23	81	100
	Standard deviation	2.12	12.19	6.31	13.12	21.54

| Simple Averages for Country in East and Southern Africa | Average* | 11 | 70 | 13.30 | 42 | **85.88** |
| | Standard deviation | 3 | 22 | 8.48 | 16 | **17.01** |

Weighted averages per region		Weighted average	Median	Weighted average	Weighted average	Median
	Sub-Saharan Africa	9.1	71	13.3	43	80
	Latin America and the Caribbean	13.7	92	3.7	22	84
	Central Asia	12.5	.	0.1	17	96
	East Asia and the Pacific	12.2	87	0.4	18	...
	West and Southern Asia	10.3	66	4.1	39	82
	Arab States	11.0	95	3.6	21	...
	World	11.5	...	2.5	24	...

Note: the data used here are taken from the statistical annexes of the EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012).
* Simple averages for Country in the sub-region, other averages per region are figures from the UIS (with weighting by population and imputation for missing data)

Table A7: Public expenditure on primary education and the state of private education

Variables		Public expenditure per primary student (unit cost) (US$ 2009)	Public expenditure per primary student (unit cost) (PPP US$ 2009)	% of primary school students enrolled in private institutions
Year		2010	2010	2000-2009
West and Central African Country	Benin	97	197	13
	Burkina Faso	83	191	14
	Cameroon	69	134	23
	Cap-Vert	504	590	0,4
	Congo	...	...	36
	Côte d'Ivoire	...	...	14
	Gabon	...	...	44
	Gambia	48	152	26
	Ghana	125	173	19
	Guinea	30	77	27
	Guinea-Bissau	...	...	28
	Guinea équatoriale	...	...	50
	Liberia	...	...	30
	Mali	62	107	35
	Mauritania	103	216	11

West and Central African Country	Niger	70	136	4
	Nigeria	...	...	8
	CAR	20	34	14
	RDC	9	18	83
	STP	...	...	0,5
	Senegal	162	292	14
	Sierra Leone	...	...	3
	Chad	44	94	8
	Togo	50	91	34
Simple Averages for Country in West and Central Africa	Average*	98,4	166,8	22,4
	Minimum	9	18	0
	Maximum	504	590	83
	Standard deviation	119,14	137,18	18,66
Simple Averages for Country in East and Southern Africa	Average*	258,37	483,03	7,27
	Standard deviation	324,17	573,82	7,25
Weighted averages per region		Median	Median	Weighted average
	Sub-Saharan Africa	62	134	12
	Latin America and the Caribbean	846	1 167	18
	Central Asia	...	...	0,9
	East Asia and the Pacific	...	...	13
	West and Southern Asia	101	263	7
	Arab States	...	...	12
	World	...	...	9

Note: the data used here are taken from the statistical annexes of the EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2012).
* Simple averages for Country in the sub-region, other averages per region are figures from the UIS (with weighting by population and imputation for missing data)

Table A8: Sources and year of household surveys used

Country	Survey	Year
Benin	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2006
Burkina Faso	MICS (Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey)	2006
Cameroon	MICS (Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey)	2006
CAR	MICS (Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey)	2006
Congo	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2005
Côte d'Ivoire	HLSS (Household Living Standards Survey)	2008
DRC	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2007
Gabon	QUIBB (Questionnaire on basic wellbeing indicators)	2005
Gambia	PSIA (Poverty and Social Impact Analysis)	2009
Ghana	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2008
Guinea	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2005
Guinea-Bissau	MICS (Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey)	2006
Liberia	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2007
Mali	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2006
Mauritania	HLSS (Household Living Standards Survey)	2008
Niger	HBS (Household Budget Survey)	2008
Nigeria	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2008
STP	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2009
Senegal	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2005
Sierra Leone	DHS (Demographic and Health Survey)	2008
Togo	MICS (Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey)	2006

Table A9: Percentage of children under the 5 dimensions of exclusion

Source: Authors' calculations based on national household surveys

Country	DE2	DE3	DE4	DE5
Benin	39%	35%	42%	35%
Burkina Faso	55%	68%	47%	60%
Cameroon	25%	17%	38%	44%
CAR	48%	40%	61%	52%
Congo	14%	12%	31%	56%
Côte d'Ivoire	42%	43%	43%	40%
DRC	39%	20%	34%	36%
Gabon	7%	6%	18%	49%
Gambia	37%	36%	24%	32%
Ghana	25%	14%	16%	48%
Guinea	49%	36%	29%	19%

Guinea-Bissau	46%	50%	35%	23%
Liberia	70%	26%	32%	16%
Mali	56%	57%	36%	31%
Mauritania	47%	31%	42%	31%
Niger	55%	73%	59%	63%
Nigeria	37%	26%	16%	9%
Senegal	42%	54%	53%	42%
Sierra Leone	38%	30%	21%	24%
STP	7%	12%	54%	33%
Togo	25%	23%	39%	51%
Average	38%	34%	37%	38%

Table A10: Percentage of children who never entered school, not completing primary school or lower secondary school

Source: Authors' calculations based on national household surveys

Country	Proportion of children who never entered school	Proportion of children who don't achieve primary school amoung thouse who enter school	Proportion of children who don't achieve secondary school among those who enter this cycle
Benin	25%	28%	63%
Burkina faso	50%	31%	62%
Côte d'Ivoire	25%	26%	38%
Cameroon	12%	18%	43%
Congo	4%	21%	57%
Gabon	3%	11%	59%
Gambia	26%	20%	35%
Ghana	12%	10%	65%
Guinea	42%	23%	66%
Guinea-Bissau	20%	57%	16%
Liberia	24%	45%	55%
Mali	51%	28%	35%
Mauritania	26%	40%	35%
Niger	48%	41%	63%
Nigeria	30%	7%	17%
Car	24%	56%	71%
Drc	13%	29%	16%
Stp	1%	34%	23%
Senegal	35%	45%	56%
Sierra leone	23%	16%	45%
Togo	14%	26%	52%
WCAR (Average)	24%	29%	46%

Table A11: Percentage of 17/18 years old out-of-school children in WCA countries by gender, financial status and location

Source: Authors' calculations based on national household surveys

Educational situation of children	Boy	Girl	Urban	Rural	Richest households	Poorest households
Never enter school	22%	34%	16%	36%	17%	38%
Attended but dropped out	25%	28%	28%	27%	25%	27%

Table A12: Logistic Regression Model: Never enter school versus enter school

Logit: child has never been to school = 1; other = 0	Mali	Guinea	Senegal	Benin	Nigeria	Ghana	STP
The poorest quintiles (Q1-Q3)	39%	53%	21%	59%	190%	107%	
Rural area	COLL	COLL	55%	23%	COLL	60%	
Girls	21%	63%	22%	84%	58%	54%	
Child is head of household			32%			125%	
One of the grandparents is the head of household							
Is not the natural child of the head of household		22%	29%	30%		73%	
No. of women in household	13%	15%	20%	34%	90%	81%	70%
No. of boys <17 years in household, who attended primary school	-12%	-8%	-12%	-15%		-13%	
No. of girls <17 years in household, who attended primary school	-21%	-15%	-12%	-20%	-79%		
No. of boys <17 years in household, who attended secondary school	-16%	-34%	-20%	-16%	-96%	-58%	-154%
No. of girls <17 years in household, who attended secondary school	-28%	-27%	-19%	-28%	-53%	-71%	-201%
Death of at least one parent							
Female head of household			-11%	-32%	-84%	-86%	
Head of household < 35 years			17%				
Head of household between 45 and 55 years	-12%			-26%	-50%		
Head of household > 56 years	-25%	-13%		-25%	-95%		
Literate head of household	-35%	-33%	-40%	-51%	-98%	-85%	
Literate mother in household					-91%		
PSEUDO R²	25%	26%	24%	32%	38%	8%	9%

Note: models from Mali, Guinea and Nigeria incorporate region-fixed effects; 'COLL' means there is a problem of collinearity between the income level and rural areas, which meant it was necessary to remove this last variable from the regressions; all educational data from household surveys is included in the models, apart from correlated variables, which were removed during the modeling process i.e. after verification for multi-collinearity using the 'vif' command in Stata. The variables were set up in such a way as to ensure representation from within the national population and for each variable; a reference category exists that, in fact, is not included in the model.

Tables

Table A13: Logistic Regression Model: failure to complete primary school versus completing it

Logit: child attends primary school but does not complete it =1; other = 0	Senegal	Benin	Nigeria	Ghana	STP
The poorest quintiles (Q1-Q3)	20%	31%	135%	95%	99%
Rural area	COLL		31%		
Girls	30%	62%	21%	35%	-24%
Child is head of household	40%		33%	59%	
One of the grandparents is the head of household					
Is not the natural child of the head of household					
No. of women in household	16%	14%	44%	29%	
No. of boys <17 years in household, who attended primary school	5%			21%	
No. of girls <17 years in household, who attended primary school				17%	20%
No. of boys <17 years in household, who attended secondary school	-45%	-60%	-112%	-105%	-124%
No. of girls <17 years in household, who attended secondary school	-51%	-58%	-106%	-109%	-120%
Death of at least one parent			233%		
Female head of household		-33%	-39%		
Head of household < 35 years					
Head of household between 45 and 55 years		-28%	-31%	-39%	
Head of household > 56 years		-30%	-38%	-41%	-34%
Literate head of household		-33%	-73%	-57%	-22%
Literate mother in household					
PSEUDO R²	10%	17%	15%	16%	21%

Note: model from Senegal incorporate region-fixed effects; 'COLL' means there is a problem of collinearity between the income level and rural areas, which meant it was necessary to remove this last variable from the regressions; all educational data from household surveys is included in the models, apart from correlated variables, which were removed during the modeling process i.e. after verification for multi-collinearity using the 'vif' command in Stata. The variables were set up in such a way as to ensure representation from within the national population and for each variable; a reference category exists that, in fact, is not included in the model.

Table A14: Logistic Regression Model: never enter lower secondary versus enter

Logit: child completes primary school but does not enter lower secondary = 1; other = 0	Benin	Nigeria	Ghana	STP
The poorest quintiles (Q1-Q3)	51%	104%	97%	77%
Rural area		19%		39%
Girls	63%	29%	27%	

	Benin	Nigeria	Ghana	STP
Child is head of household	56%	99%		79%
One of the grandparents is the head of household				-54%
Is not the natural child of the head of household		49%	96%	
No. of women in household		47%		
No. of boys <17 years in household, who attended primary school			25%	23%
No. of girls <17 years in household, who attended primary school				
No. of boys <17 years in household, who attended secondary school	-43%	-82%	-125%	-81%
No. of girls <17 years in household, who attended secondary school	-88%	-90%	-74%	-76%
Death of at least one parent		104%		
Female head of household		-32%		
Head of household < 35 years				
Head of household between 45 and 55 years		-24%		
Head of household > 56 years		-36%	-35%	
Literate head of household		-75%	-68%	
Literate mother in household				
PSEUDO R²	9%	11%	17%	10%

Note: all educational data from household surveys is included in the models, apart from correlated variables, which were removed during the modeling process i.e. after verification for multi-collinearity using the 'vif' command in Stata. The variables were set up in such a way as to ensure representation from within the national population and for each variable; a reference category exists that, in fact, is not included in the model.

Table A15: Logistic regression model: failure to complete lower secondary school versus achieving it

Logit: child starts lower secondary school but does not complete it =1; other=0	Benin	Nigeria	Ghana	STP
The poorest quintiles (Q1-Q3)	43%	98%	42%	17%
Rural area	20%	17%	18%	
Girls	35%		16%	
Child is head of household			21%	
One of the grandparents is the head of household			20%	
Is not the natural child of the head of household		20%	22%	21%
No. of women in household	9%	29%		
No. of boys <17 years in household, who attended primary school			5%	

No. of girls <17 years in household, who attended primary school	10%			
No. of boys <17 years in household, who attended secondary school		-8%	-10%	
No. of girls <17 years in household, who attended secondary school	-12%	-22%	-9%	
Death of at least one parent	66%	151%	38%	22%
Female head of household	17%	20%		
Head of household < 35 years				
Head of household between 45 and 55 years	-15%	-19%	-16%	
Head of household > 56 years		-29%	-12%	
Literate head of household		-24%	-23%	
Literate mother in household		51%		
PSEUDO R²	10%	11%	8%	7%

Note: all educational data from household surveys is included in the models, apart from correlated variables, which were removed during the modeling process i.e. after verification for multi-collinearity using the 'vif' command in Stata. The variables were set up in such a way as to ensure representation from within the national population and for each variable; a reference category exists that, in fact, is not included in the model.

Table A16: Average expenditure per educational cycle and status of institution, across a sample of countries: 11 countries in Africa, year of survey, U.S. Dollars, PPP from 2004

Source: Pôle de Dakar (2012), data from national household surveys and the IMF.

Country	Primary		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary		All of Secondary *		Higher	
	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private	Public	Private
Benin (2003)	48	301	180	651	p.c.	p.c.	p.c.	p.c.	458	1 285
Burkina Faso (2003)	28	215	110	460	p.c.	p.c.	128	507	367	1 927
Cameroon (2001)	44	165	300	593	430	850	n.e.	n.e.	597	1 732
Congo (2005)	p.c.	p.c.	32	280	p.c.	p.c.	38	292	p.c.	p.c.
Côte d'Ivoire (2002)	70	280	206	589	304	919	n.e.	n.e.	p.c.	p.c.
Gabon (2005)	p.c.	p.c.	193	545	308	742	n.e.	n.e.	210	757
Mali (2006)	p.c.	p.c.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	p.c.	p.c.	102	417
Mauritania (2008)	48	236	77	464	74	517	n.e.	n.e.	183	2 503
Niger (2005)	7	241	24	386	p.c.	p.c.	34	450	213	925

n.d.: public/private distinction impossible from household survey.
p.c.: partial unit costs are not consistent with the average unit cost
n.e.: not estimated because partial estimates appear to be consistent for lower and upper secondary

Note: Subsidized private institutions are considered here as public institutions. Estimates expressed as a percentage of GDP per capita in the year of the survey are shown in Annexe A, Table A3.
* Estimates for the whole of secondary are presented only for countries where any distinction between the two secondary cycles is impossible (Mali) or when the partial unit costs for one or the other were not coherent (Benin, Burkina Faso, Congo and Niger).

Table A17: Share of household budget spent on education per income quintile

Country	Year of Survey	Ratio for Education Budget					Total
		Q1 (poorest 20%)	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5 (richest 20%)	
Benin	2003	6.5	7.2	8.1	10.4	12.3	9.6
Burkina Faso	2003	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.6	4.4	3.6
Cameroon	2001	4.7	5.8	6.5	7.4	7.7	6.7
Congo	2005	0.7	1	1.6	2.3	4.1	2.4
Côte d'Ivoire	2002	2.9	2.9	4.1	5.9	7.4	6.1
Gabon	2005	4.9	5	4.8	4.2	3.8	4.5
Mali	2006	0.9	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.9	1.3
Mauritania	2008	1.6	2.7	2.3	2.5	3.4	2.8
Niger	2005	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.7	2.6	1.3
Chad	2001	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.2
Sierra Leone	2003	2.2	2.8	3.2	4.8	8.2	5.8
Average		2.6	2.9	3.2	3.9	4.9	4.0

Table A18: Household expenditure for education per cycle, adjusted to 2004 as a percentage of public expenditure on education

	Primary	Secondary 1	Secondary 2	Higher
Benin	43	146	132	41
Burkina Faso	21	130	54	14
Cameroon	69	96	147	50
Congo	29	56	20	5
Côte d'Ivoire	37	74	79	31
Gabon	22	31	24	3
Mali	27	14	14	9
Mauritania	28	26	32	16
Niger	6	18	31	10
Chad	23	24	23	8
Sierra Leone	78	141	235	24
Average	35	69	72	19

Tables

Table A19: Division of household expenditure on education

Source: Pôle de Dakar (2012)

	School fees	Equipment and school supplies	Other expenses
Benin (2003)	48	38	14
Burkina Faso (2003)	67	29	4
Côte d'Ivoire (2002)	38	41	22
Gabon (2005)	41	58	2
Mali (2006)	69	30	1
Mauritania (2008)	53	36	11
Niger (2005)	57	38	5
Sierra Leone (2003)	39	40	22
Average	51	39	10

Figure A1: Relationship between children under DE4 and DE5

Source: Authors, based on national surveys

At risk of exclusion for primary school (DE4)

At risk of exclusion for lowersecondary school (DE5)

---- Average simple des pays de la région
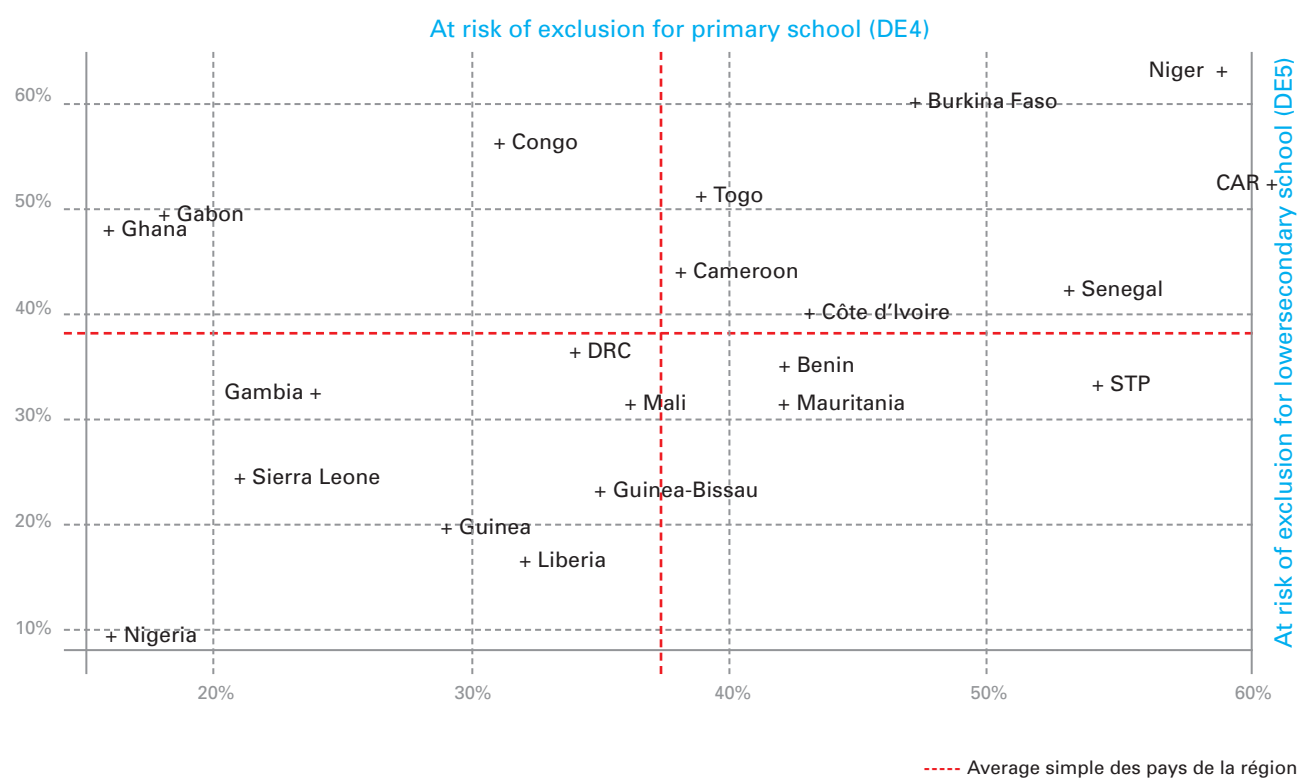
Methodology to quantify school exclusion

Overview of methods use

The 5 dimensions of exclusion method

In this study, two methodologies were applied successively. The first one, 'The 5 Dimensions of Exclusion Method' was developed according to the official age groups for school attendance by UIS and UNICEF based on the observation of a population of children at a specific time t. This method first aims to determine the percentage and number of out-of-school children for each 'official' school-age group (dimension of exclusion DE2 and DE3). Moreover, the UIS/UNICEF concept gives an idea of the schooling profile of children over time: on the one hand, for out-of-school children at time t but who will start school late (over-aged children) and on the other hand, for those children who are currently in school at time t but who are at risk of dropping out in the future (DE4 and DE5). To account for the children belonging to these two categories, it was necessary to observe the behaviour of school children over time and make appropriate assumptions to establish a priori calculation methods:

(i) The first involves finding an age of inflection after which the number of children who will enter school later is no longer significant, i.e. an age after which the number of children entering primary school begins to fall. The hypothesis put forward by this method is that the proportion of children in school at the age of inflection sets the top margin of the proportion of younger children who are not in school, but who will enter in years to come. By subtracting this high margin from the proportion of children already in school at time t, the percentage of children (per age) who will enter school later can be found.

(ii) The second calculation method is related to the percentage of students 'at risk' of dropping out of either primary or lower secondary school (DE4 and DE5). Calculating the percentage of students who drop out of school by using those who have just passed the enrolment age for primary or lower secondary school as a reference, would lead to an under-estimation of the percentage of dropouts. The vast majority of students in WCA are over-age, meaning that at the official age they would not yet have had the time to drop out of school, having only just entered school. Thus they should be allowed time to enroll in school late if necessary, but they should also be allowed to drop out of primary or secondary school. The hypothesis put forward for this second method, based on the observation of the schooling profile of individuals aged 23 – 24 years, is that it is fully exhaustive to calculate a priori realistic drop-out rates.

The UIS/UNICEF methodology does have some limitations that should be taken into consideration. These are to do with the so-called 'a priori' methods of calculation; drawbacks relate to the use of an older cohort, which has been subject to other policies, to estimate the behaviour of another, younger cohort. This may affect the rates obtained, especially given the efforts of some countries over the last decade in terms of enrolment and retention. In addition, birth registrations are very approximate and are rarely systematic in a number of countries in the region, so it can be dangerous to refer to specific age groups to analyze the behaviour of a population, particularly around certain ages (10, 15, 20 years) for which population peaks are indicative of existing differences between reported age and actual age. Furthermore, the UIS/UNICEF methodology, by studying the entire population by school-age groups at time t, only gives approximate numbers of students who will enroll later in school from amongst those who are out-of-school, and of students who will drop out of school in the future, of those who are already at school.

The schooling pathways method

The second method, proposed by the authors, is based on the observation of the pattern of a child's schooling over time to calculate the percentage of children who do not have access to school, those who drop out (by grade) and those who do not complete an academic year. This method uses several complementary methods in order to take into account:

(i)**Access**: the aforementioned age of inflection is used to calculate the percentage of children who will never go to school. In practice, the calculation is made on the population of students who have never been to school at the age of inflection as well

(ii)**Retention/completion:** to do this, it was agreed to infer that the behaviour of school children in the age group 17-18 years was representative of the entire population of school-age children. The assumption then is that the schooling profile of the 17-18 years age group is comprehensive enough and close enough in time to the year of measurement to determine the schooling profile of the child population. Those children who are not going to complete primary and secondary school can thus be found and from this the percentage of dropouts can be calculated. Of those children who have completed an academic cycle, the percentage of those who did not move up a year can also be determined.

This methodology has a risk of projection errors that do not take into account new policy measures that are applied to new generations. However, by using the 17-18 years age group, the age of reference is lower compared to the 5 dimensions method, which calculates DE4 and DE5 from individuals aged 23-24 years. Limitations related to reported age and approximate calculations per category of children according to their schooling profile are fewer here due to the transversal nature of the methodology used.

Implementation of methods used

The 5 dimensions of exclusion method

This first UIS/UNICEF method involves measuring the schooling profile of children in the survey year (time *t*), according to the official age groups for school attendance.

a) Data:

To calculate the number of children in the different categories defined in the UIS/UNICEF methodology, it was necessary to extract the relevant data from household surveys (between 2005 and 2009 depending on the country):

- Age of children (data available for the range 5 – 24 years in household surveys)

- School status (in school or out-of-school at time *t*)

- In which grade at time t (if the child is at school)

- Dropped out of which grade (if the child is out-of-school at time *t*)

b) School status by age :

Based on this data, it is possible to calculate the percentage of students by age and school status at time *t*.

Ex: For Benin, schooling by age can be shown by the following diagram:
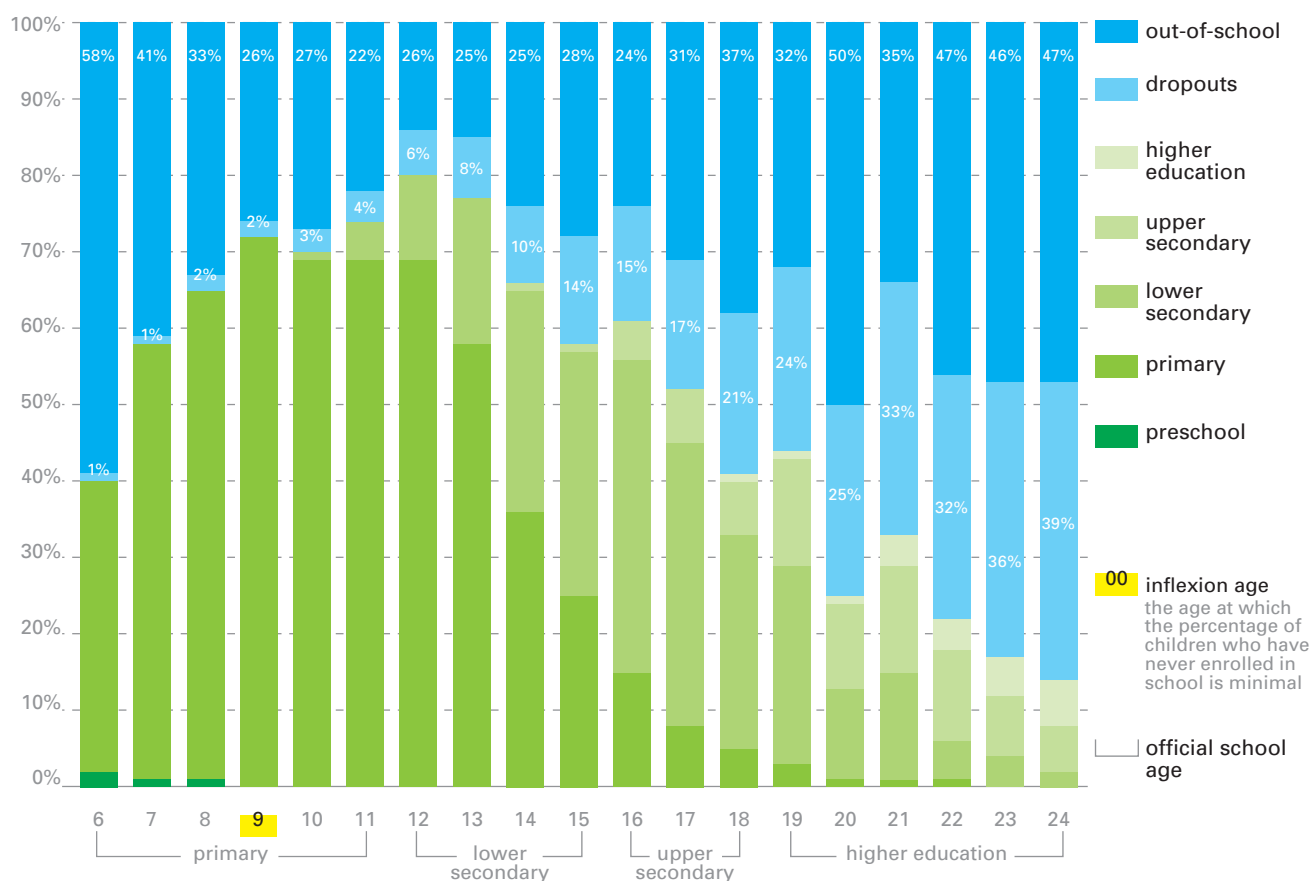
late entry
9% of 6-11 years enter school late

over-aged students in primary school
29% are at least 3 years older than the official age for their grade

over-aged students in final year of primary school
25% are at least 3 years older than the official age for their grade

over-age adolescents
3% of primary school students are over 15 years

c) Dimensions of exclusion

To find the percentage of children belonging to each of the defined dimensions, a change was made to the reference population; it was changed from 'age' to 'age groups'. It was then possible to calculate the following dimensions of exclusion:

- **DE2**: These are the children who are meant to be in primary school but who are not (they are not in secondary school either). In practice, it is a question of subtracting the number of children who are either in primary or secondary school from the total number of children of official primary school age. By comparing this figure to the total number of children for this age group, the percentage of children under DE2 can be found.

- **DE3:** These are the children who are meant to be in lower secondary school but are neither in primary nor secondary school. In practice, the number of children who are in either primary or secondary school is subtracted from the total number of children in the official age group for lower secondary school. By comparing this figure with the total number of children for this age group, the percentage of children under DE3 can be found.

- **DE4:** These are the children who are attending primary school but are 'at risk' of dropping out. In practice, the percentage of students who dropped out of primary school amongst those children aged 23-24 years was calculated and compared with the group of children attending primary school at time *t*, i.e. at the time of the survey.

- **DE5:** These are the children who are attending in lower secondary school but are 'at risk' of dropping out. In practice, the percentage of students who dropped out of lower secondary school amongst those children aged 23-24 years was calculated and compared with the group of children attending lower secondary school at time t, i.e. at the time of the survey.

To ascertain the corresponding number of children in the total population, the percentage of students affected by exclusion, calculated on the basis of samples from household surveys, was compared with the populations of children per reference category according to data from the UNDP.

Ex: Thus, for Benin, the percentage and number of children corresponding to the first two dimensions of exclusion are as follows:

number of out-of-school children	**497 004**	**252 968**
dimensions of exclusion	**DE2** children old enough to go to primary school who are not enrolled	**DE3** children old enough to go to lower secondary school who are not enrolled
% excluded amongst age reference population	39%	35%
regional average	38% min 7% - max 70%	34% min 6% - max 73%
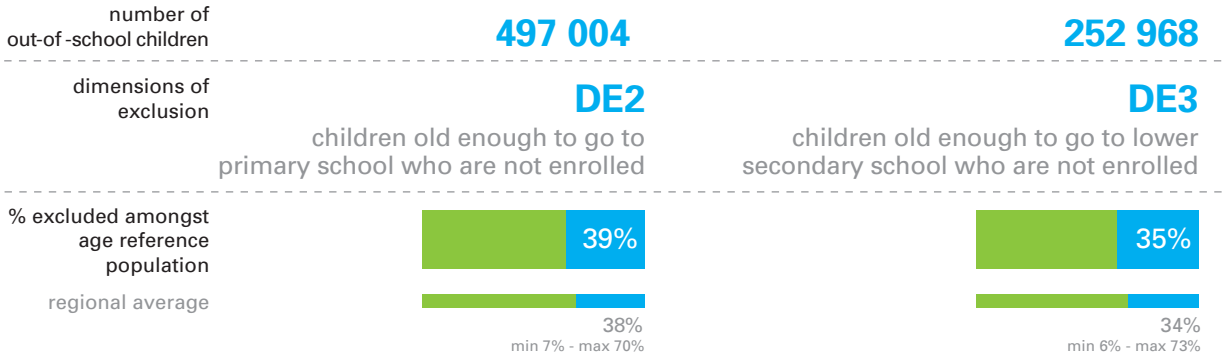
d) Projection of the number children who will enter school later, based on the age of inflection

Of those children who are out-of-school, and in particular those who fall within the official age category for primary school, a certain percentage of them will enter school in the years t+1, t+2, t+3, etc. Data at time t does not allow this phenomenon to be predicted directly. The evolution of attendance was observed to estimate the age after which the number of late entry becomes negligible or the age after which the number of dropouts or the number of students moving up a year exceeds the number of entrants; this is characterized essentially by a drop in the percentage of primary school-age children compared with the previous age. This specific age is known as the age of inflection. After the age of inflection, it is estimated that there are no more, or almost no more, primary school entrants. The percentage of students at this age corresponds with the percentage of children already in school, as well as with those who will enter later for the younger age groups. This makes it possible to calculate, for each year preceding the age of inflection, the percentage of children who will enter school later, and thus it is also possible to calculate, for the population of children of official primary school age, the percentage of children who will enter school later.

Ex: In Benin, the percentage of children who enter primary school decreases after age 9; this is therefore the age of inflection at which 72% of students are in school (primary or secondary school). Some 6, 7, and 8 year olds, who are considered to be out of school at time t (dark blue part of graph p.83), will eventually enter school in the coming years. If reference is made to projections, 72% of 6-8 year olds at time t will enter in the future (t+3, t+2 et t+1). Thus the percentage of children who will enter later is the difference between those already entered at each age and the 72% of children entered in reference to the age of inflection (34% of 6 year olds, 15% of 7 year olds and 8% of 8 year olds). Finally, the percentage of children of official primary school age in Benin (6-11 years) who will enter school later is obtained by dividing the number of children in the corresponding percentages for ages 6 - 8 years, by the total number of children in the official age group (6-11 years) in the sample. The percentage of children who will enter school later in Benin is 10%. The graph below shows these late entrants (light green part):
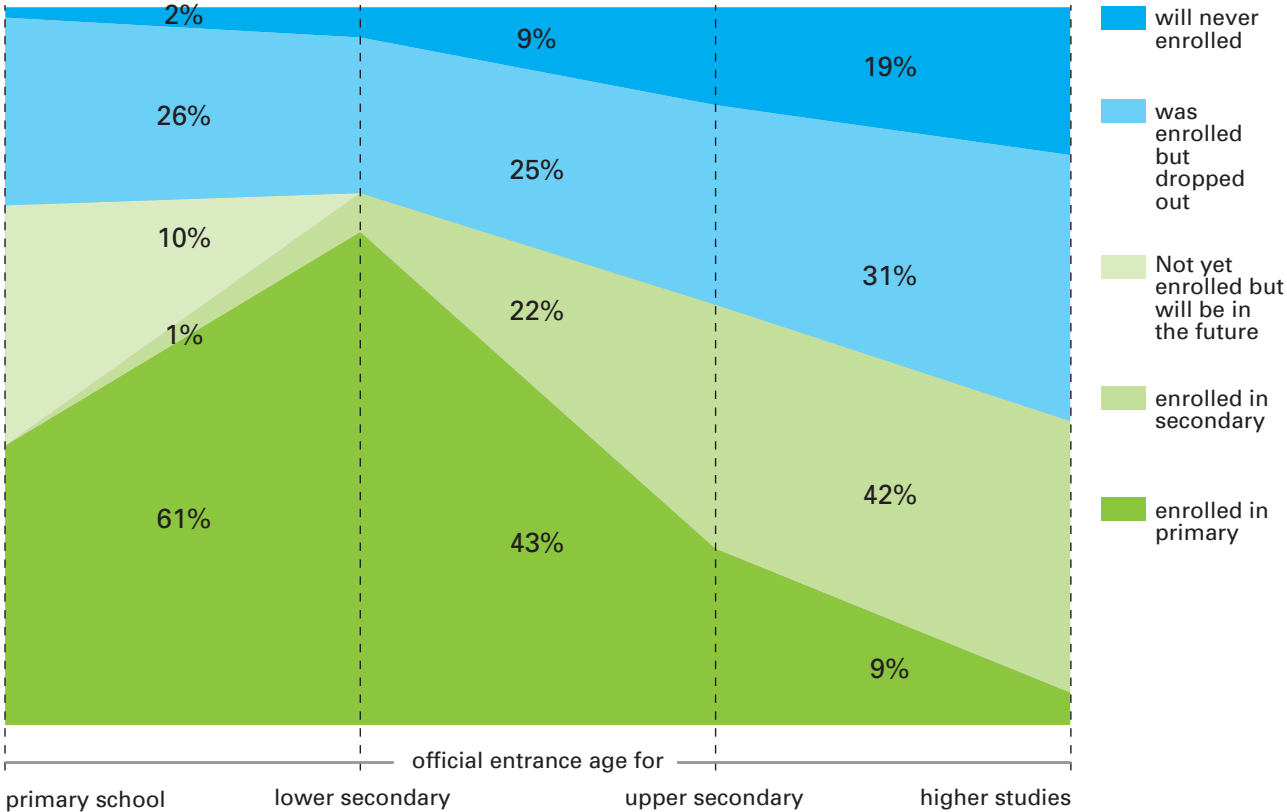
e) Projection of children who are at risk of dropping out of school based on individuals aged 23-24 years

As explained above, the assumption for this a priori estimate is that the behaviour of 23-24 year olds is a completely exhaustive means of calculating the percentage of children who will drop out of school (primary or lower secondary school). In reality, the calculation is very simple. It is just a question of finding out if the children in a particular age group are in school or not; if they are not in school, finding out if they have never been or if they have dropped out, whether from primary, secondary or a higher level of education.

Methodology to quantify school exclusion

Ex: In Benin, of the 23-24 year olds, 42% dropped out of primary school, and 35% dropped out of lower secondary school. It is therefore estimated by the a priori method of observation that 42% of children enter primary school at time t will drop out of this cycle in the coming years (DE4) and 35% of children enter lower secondary school at time t will abandon this cycle in the future (DE5).

number of out-of -school children	**565 021**	**129 483**
dimensions of exclusion	**DE4** primary students at risk of dropping out of primary school	**DE5** secondary students at risk of dropping out of secondary school
% excluded amongst age reference population	42%	35%
regional average	37% min 16% - max 61%	38% min 9% - max 63%
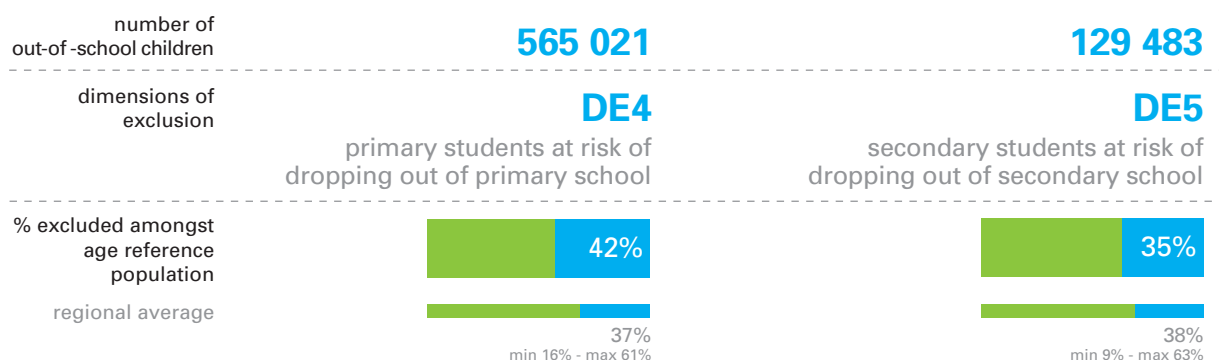
The schooling pathways method

For the second methodology, it is a question of looking at the child's schooling pathways at a specific age.

a) Access

The percentage of school-age children who will never go to school is calculated by using data from the household surveys at ages around the age of inflection (-1, 0 and +1).

Ex: The age of inflection in Benin is 9 years. The percentage of 8,9 and 10 year olds who have never been to school in Benin is 29%.

b) Retention/Completion

In practice, it is possible to estimate - based on the population of 17-18 year olds from a national sample taken from the household survey – from amongst the children who will one day go to school, the percentage of children who:
- Will not complete primary school
    - Out of these, the percentage who will drop out
    - and those who will continue their primary school for several years (multiple repetitions)
- Will complete primary school but will not reach secondary school
- Will reach secondary school but will not complete the lower secondary level
- Will complete lower secondary school but will not reach the upper secondary level

NB: These percentages are estimated for all school-age children.

Ex: The diagram below shows percentages according to the schooling pathways observed in Benin.

Primary school entry

25% | 75%

> 3 children out of 4 have access to school

never enter school | enter school

Grade 1 to 5

drop out 17%
repeat 4%

21% | 54%

> 1 child out of 2 completes primary school

do not complete primary school | complete primary school

Grade 6

drop out 2%
repeat 3%

5% | 49%

> do not enter lower secondary school | enter lower secondary school

Grade 7 to 9

drop out 2%
repeat 29%

31% | 18%

> 1 child out of 5 completes lower secondary school

do not complete lower secondary school | complete lower secondary school

Grade 10

drop out 0%
repeat 9%

9% | 9%

do not enter upper secondary school | enter upper secondary school

This diagram provides an overview of schooling in Benin and categorizes school-age children as follows:

1. Children who will never go to school (25%) and those who will (75%)

2. Children who do not complete primary school (either they drop out before Grade 6 or they are still attending Grades 1- 5: 20%) and those who do complete it (54%)

3. Children who do not reach the secondary level (either they drop out of Grade 6 or they are still in Grade 6: 5%) and those who do complete it (49%)

4. Children who do not complete secondary school (either they drop out before Grade 10 or they are still attending Grades 7 – 9: 29%) and those who do (18%)

5. Children who do not reach upper secondary school (9%) and those who continue their studies beyond lower secondary school (9%)
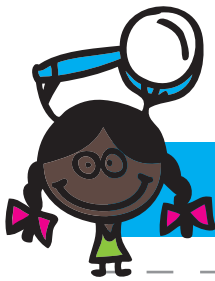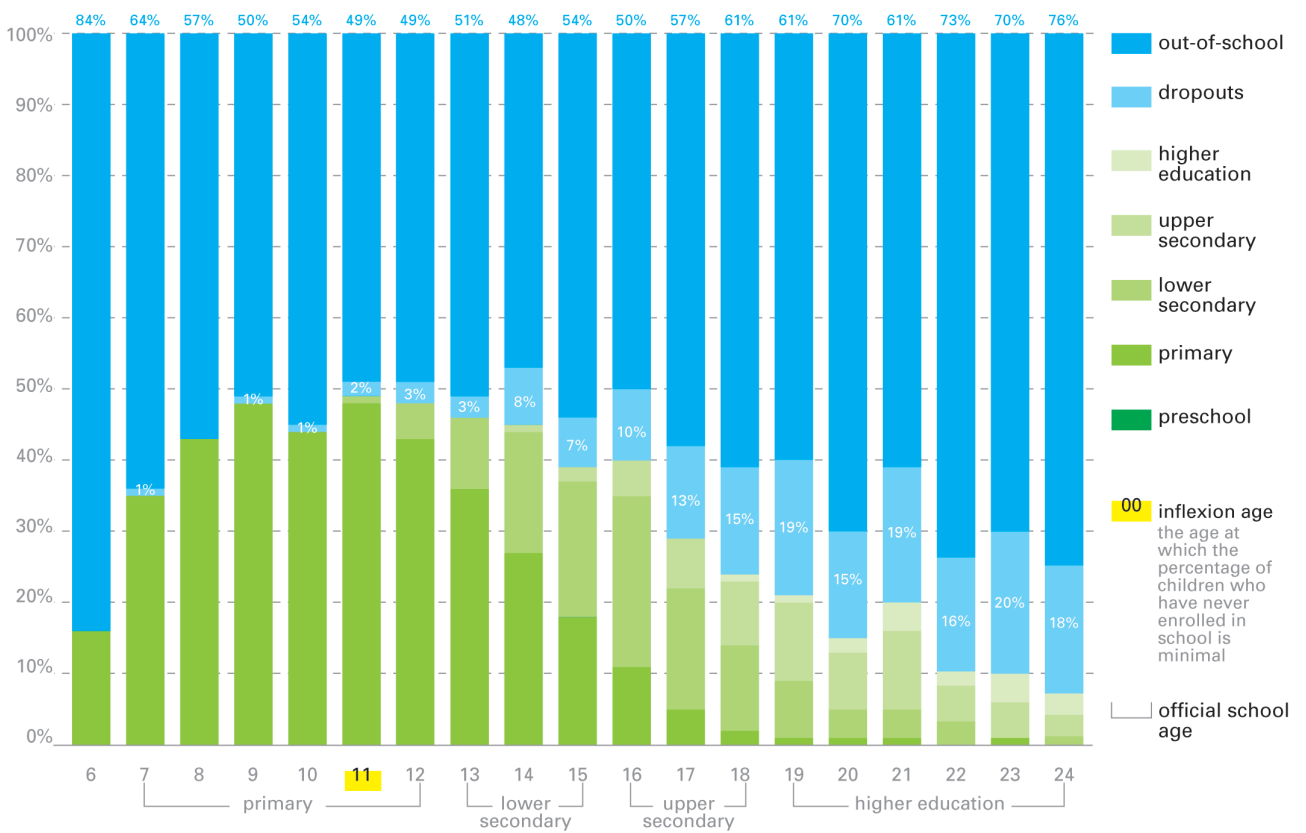
21 country profiles and a regional one were developed. They give an overview of data presented in this report ad facilitate the comparison between countries and regarding the regional situation.

Exemple: Mali sheet

Source: Name and year of household survey used

1. Schooling profile by age

1. Schooling profile by age

late entry

5% of 7-12 years enter school late

over-aged students in primary school

19% are at least 3 years older than the official age for their grade

over-aged students in final year of primary school

29% are at least 3 years older than the official age for their grade

over-age adolescents

4% of primary school students are over 15 years

Graph of the educational status of children at different phases of their lives (6 to 24 years), the following situations are illustrated (% of children per age group):

- Children who have never been to school
- Children who entered school but later dropped out
- Children attending school (in preschool, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary school or higher education)

Inflection age: The age at which the level of access to school has reached its maximum (including children who are still in school and those who have already dropped out), i.e., the age at which most children who should enrol in primary education actually did.
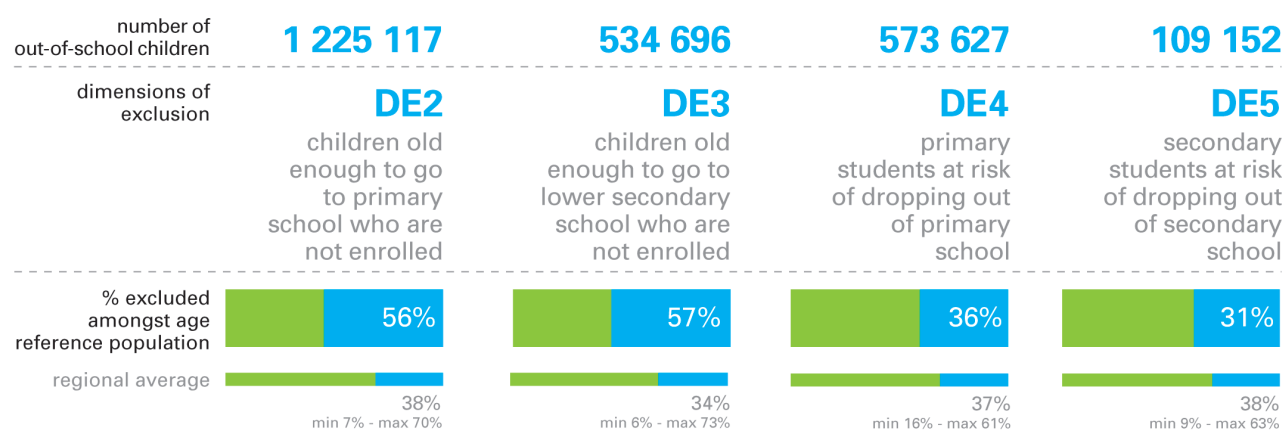
Late entry: The percentage of children of primary school age who are out-of-school in year n, but who will enter school later (year n+1, n+2, n+3). Inflection age corresponds with a 'threshold' age above which, only a limited number of children will enter primary school. We can therefore consider that at this age, children who have not yet entered school never will. This invariable proportion of children who will never go to school, calculated from the inflection age, can therefore be preassigned in the age group of younger children. For each age group, the proportion of children who will start school late can therefore be estimated as (i) this invariable proportion of children who will never go to school, minus (ii) the proportion, known and variable, of children who have never been to school. An average for all official primary school age groups can then be calculated to find the overall proportion of late entrants in a particular country.

Over-age students: Students over the official age for a particular grade. This refers to (1) the proportion of children in primary school who are at least three years older than the official age of the class they are in, (2) the proportion of students in the final year of primary school who are at least three years older than the official age for this year and (3) the proportion of children in primary school who are older than 15 years and who should therefore attend post-primary education.

Official school age: Official age for compulsory education (UNESCO, year of survey). Number of years per educational cycle: primary, lower secondary, upper secondary (UNESCO, year of survey)

2. Dimensions of exclusion (Calculation methodology developed by the OOSC Initiative)

2. The 4 dimensions to consider

number of out-of-school children	**1 225 117**	**534 696**	**573 627**	**109 152**
dimensions of exclusion	**DE2** children old enough to go to primary school who are not enrolled	**DE3** children old enough to go to lower secondary school who are not enrolled	**DE4** primary students at risk of dropping out of primary school	**DE5** secondary students at risk of dropping out of secondary school
% excluded amongst age reference population	56%	57%	36%	31%
regional average	38% min 7% - max 70%	34% min 6% - max 73%	37% min 16% - max 61%	38% min 9% - max 63%

Graph of the absolute number and percentage of out-of-school children according to the conceptual framework of the OOSC Initiative (see section II.1 and Annexe B). The proportion of out-of-school children is compared to the average, minimum and maximum figures in the region. Due to a lack of reliable data, the dimension of exclusion 1 (DE1) (pre-school age children who are not attending school) has not been analysed.
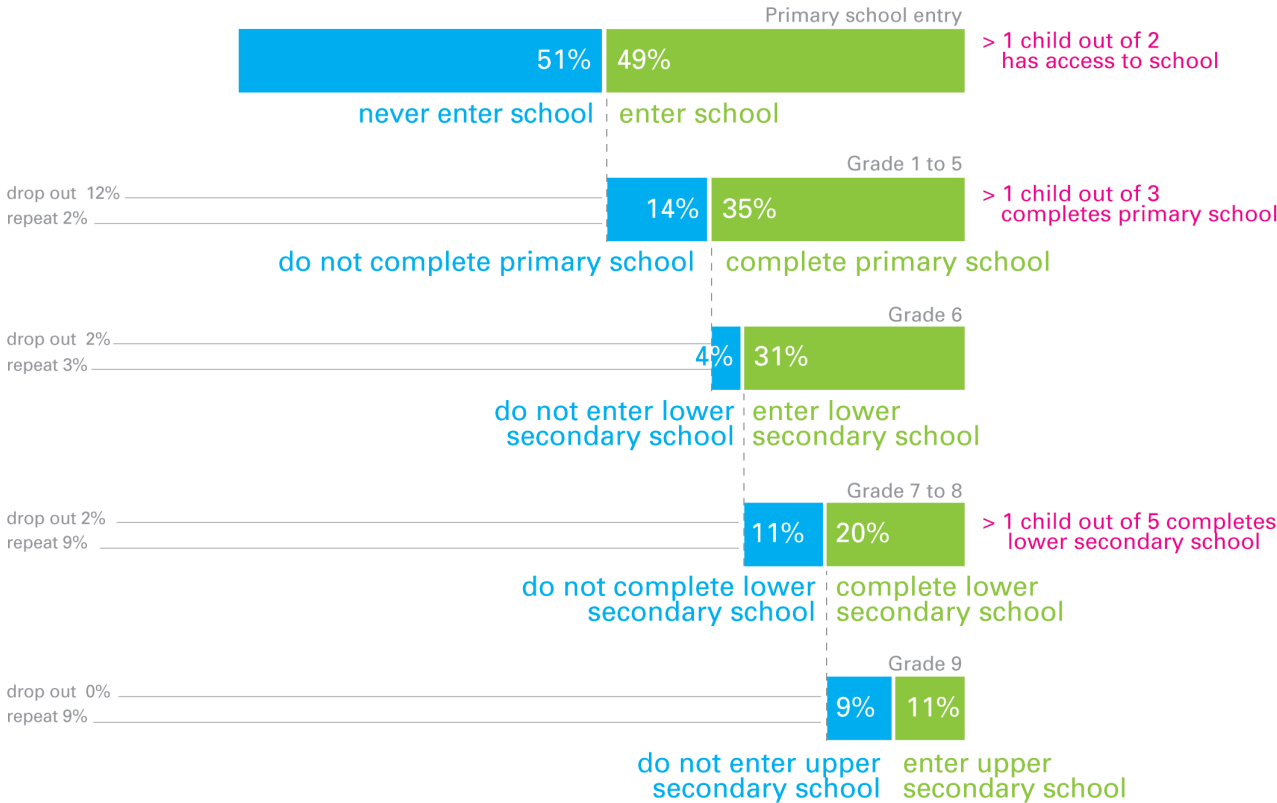
- **DE2**: children not in primary school, i.e. children old enough to go to primary school but who are not attending either primary or secondary school;

- **DE3:** children not in lower secondary school, i.e. children old enough to go to lower secondary school but who are not attending either primary or secondary school;

- **DE4**: children at risk of dropping out of primary school, i.e. children attending primary school, regardless of age, but who are at a high risk of exclusion;

- **DE5**: children at risk of dropping out of lower secondary school, i.e. children attending lower secondary school, regardless of age, who are at a high risk of exclusion.

3. Schooling pathways of 17/18 year olds (Calculation methodology developed by the UNICEF WCAR office)

3. Schooling pathways of school aged children

Reference population: 17-18 years olds

Primary school entry

| 51% | 49% |

> 1 child out of 2
has access to school

never enter school | enter school

Grade 1 to 5

drop out 12%
repeat 2%

| 14% | 35% |

> 1 child out of 3
completes primary school

do not complete primary school | complete primary school

Grade 6

drop out 2%
repeat 3%

| 4% | 31% |

do not enter lower secondary school | enter lower secondary school

Grade 7 to 8

drop out 2%
repeat 9%

| 11% | 20% |

> 1 child out of 5 completes
lower secondary school

do not complete lower secondary school | complete lower secondary school

Grade 9

drop out 0%
repeat 9%

| 9% | 11% |

do not enter upper secondary school | enter upper secondary school
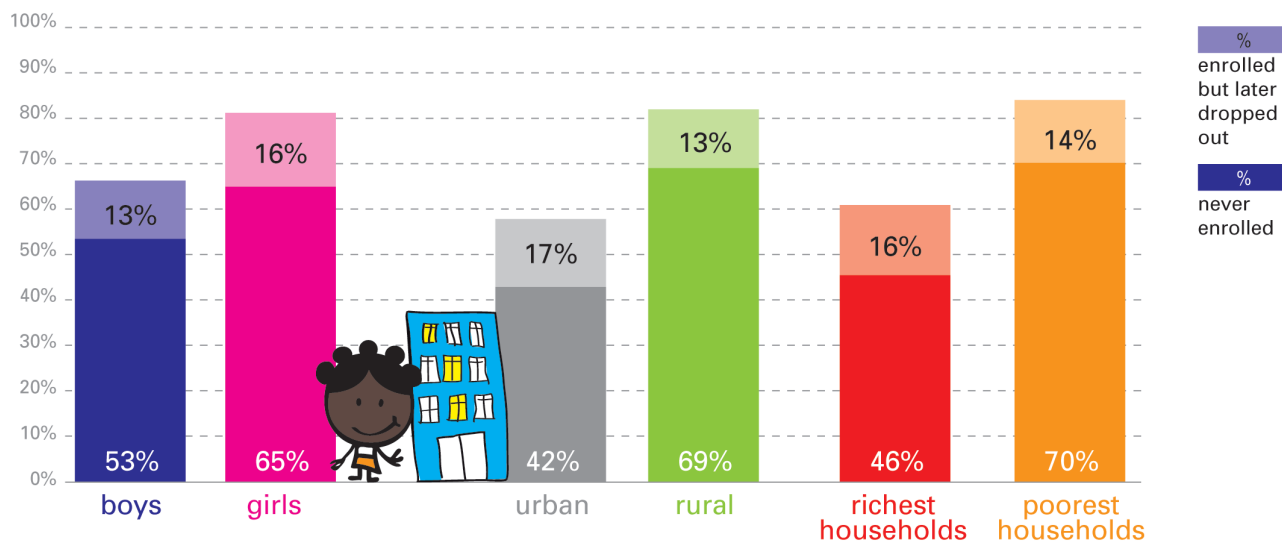
Graph of the schooling profile of children aged 17/18 years showing the proportion of those who do not have access to school, those who drop out (per level) and those who do not achieve an educational cycle. The proportion of children who will never enter school can be calculated by the percentage of children who have never been to school at the inflexion age (see section II.2 and Annexe B).

# 4. Out-of-school children according to gender, location and standard of living

4. Main factors of school exclusion

Reference population: 17-18 years olds

Legend:
- **%** enrolled but later dropped out
- **%** never enrolled

| Category	enrolled but later dropped out	never enrolled
boys	13%	53%
girls	16%	65%
urban	17%	42%
rural	13%	69%
richest households	16%	46%
poorest households	14%	70%

Graph of the schooling profile of 17/18 year olds who attend school, never went to school, and dropped out according to gender (girl, boy), location (rural, urban) and standard of living (out of 60 % of the poorest households or 40 % of the richest households).

The country profiles
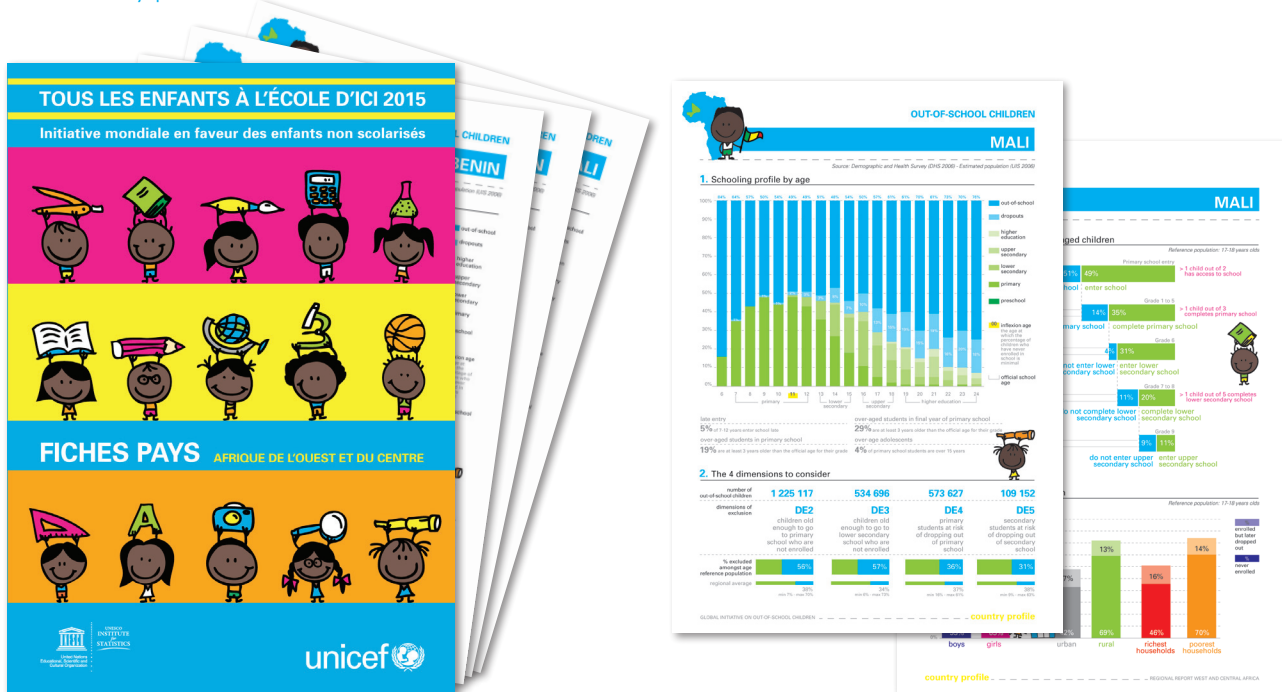
Graphic design: Jenny Gatien
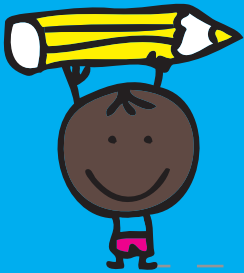
OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN IN WEST AND CENTRAL AFRICA

Who are they, why are they not in school and what to do about it?

Enabling all children access to quality education opportunities is a prerequisite for the development of all nations. However, even though the number of children enrolled in education systems in countries of West and Central Africa has risen sharply since the 2000s, the region's demographic and economic context means that it is still far behind the rest of the world in terms of school exclusion. Data compiled on the basis of household surveys, carried out between 2005 and 2009 in 21 countries in the region, show that nearly 23.2 million primary school-age children are excluded. Nearly 8.6 million children are old enough to be in lower secondary education but are not. A further 14.3 million primary school pupils and 3 million others from lower secondary education are at risk of dropping out. On average, in countries in the region, excluded children represent 26% of the children who are old enough to be in primary school, 34% of children old enough to be in lower secondary education and 49% of children of upper secondary age. Thus, the majority of out-of-school children are children who have never been to school and not children who enrolled in school and later dropped out. Econometric analysis shows that situations of school exclusion are largely related to income, location, gender and the child's family circumstances.

Barriers to education are found to be the combination of the demand and supply rationales of education within a context that encourages a school exclusion and inclusion process. Within this process, household economic hardships are the parent's main explanation to justify non-attendance at school; a lack of schools nearby, family issues, child health and the provision of quality education are also frequently mentioned. Even if primary education is officially free in most countries of the region, in reality school fees almost always constitute a significant share of household income. On both the supply and demand side, many tools have been developed at the regional level to reduce the overall number of out-of-school children. To counteract financial barriers to education, an international initiative and national programmes have been successfully launched to lead towards the abolition of school fees, and it is possible to develop a number of ways to significantly reduce the number of out-of-school children in the region.

March 2014
UNICEF, West and Central Africa Regional Office
Rohen d'Aiglepierre and Odile Simon

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