

# Lesotho Education Fact Sheets | 2021

Analyses for learning and equity  
using MICS data



**MICS-EAGLE**



## Acknowledgements

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## What is MICS?

UNICEF launched Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys (MICS) in 1995 to monitor the status of children around the world. Over the past twenty-five years, this household survey has become the largest source of statistically sound and internationally comparable data on women and children worldwide.

MICS surveys are conducted by trained fieldworkers who perform face-to-face interviews with household members on a variety of topics. More than 330 MICS surveys have been carried out in more than 115 countries. It is a major data source of information for the Millennium Development Goals indicators, and continues to inform more than 150 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators in support of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda.

MICS has been updated several times with new and improved questions. The current version, MICS6, was deployed in 2017 and is being implemented in 58 countries. MICS6 includes new modules that track SDG4 indicators related to education such as learning (SDG4.1.1), Early Childhood Development and Education (SDG4.2.1 and SDG4.2.2), information and communication technology skills (ICT—SDG4.4.1), and child functioning (child disability—SDG4.5.1) as well as parental involvement in education.

## What is MICS-EAGLE?

UNICEF launched the MICS-EAGLE (Education Analysis for Global Learning and Equity) Initiative in 2018. Its objective is to improve learning outcomes and equity issues in education by addressing two critical education data problems – gaps in key education indicators, and lack of effective data utilisation by governments and education stakeholders. MICS-EAGLE is designed to:

- support education sector situation analysis and sector plan development by building national capacity, and leveraging the vast wealth of education data collected by MICS6; and
- build on the global data foundation provided by MICS6 to yield insights at the national, regional, and global level about ways to ensure that each child can reach his or her full potential by reducing barriers to opportunities.

## What is profiling?

One of the characteristics of these fact sheets is profiling. Profiling illustrates the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of children in a certain category, and answers questions such as “What percentage of a key population group is male and what percentage is female?” or “What percentage of a key population group lives in rural area and what percentage lives in urban areas?” Because profiles examine all children within a key population group, the sum of various characteristics always adds up to 100 percent (although rounding may affect this).

For example, a profile of children not completing primary education will highlight some of the main characteristics of children in the target population group for this indicator. Primary completion rates look at children aged 3 – 5 years older than the entry age of children for the last grade of primary school, so the target population will be 15 – 17-year-olds who have not completed primary education.

In Lesotho, 20 per cent of children aged between 15 and 17 have not completed primary education. Among this, 20 percent who have not completed primary education, 80 percent are males, therefore 20 percent have to be females.

## How are fact sheets structured?

The MICS-EAGLE Initiative offers activities at the national, regional, and global level.

The seven topics listed below are analysed through an equity lens (gender, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, etc.):



### Access and completion



### Skills

(learning outcomes, ICT skills and literacy rate)



### Inclusive Education

(with a focus on disability)



### Early Learning



### Out-of-School Children



### Repetition and Dropouts

(internal efficiency)



### Child Protection

(child labour and child marriage)



### Remote Learning

## What are foundational learning skills?

Foundational learning skills in the MICS module are learning outcomes expected for Grades 2 and 3 in numeracy and reading. They are measured for children aged 7 to 14 years. This data can be used to calculate SDG4.1.1.a to measure the proportion of children in Grade 2/3 achieving minimum proficiency in (i) reading and (ii) numeracy, by sex. In Lesotho, foundational reading skills in English and Sesotho were assessed.

### Guiding questions

- 1 By which grade do most children acquire foundational learning skills?
- 2 What characteristics are linked to higher shares of reading and numeracy skills?
- 3 What percentage of each group of young people are literate, and what share have ICT skills?
- 4 What is the profile of children who are not learning?

## Foundational reading and numeracy skills (based on contents for Grades 2 and 3)

FIGURE 1 Share of children with foundational skills by grade

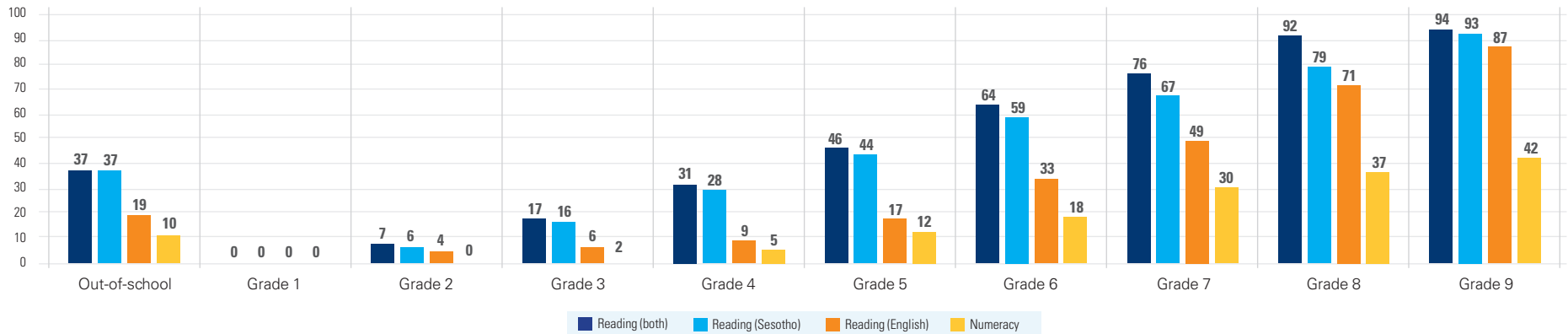


FIGURE 2 Share of children with foundational reading skills

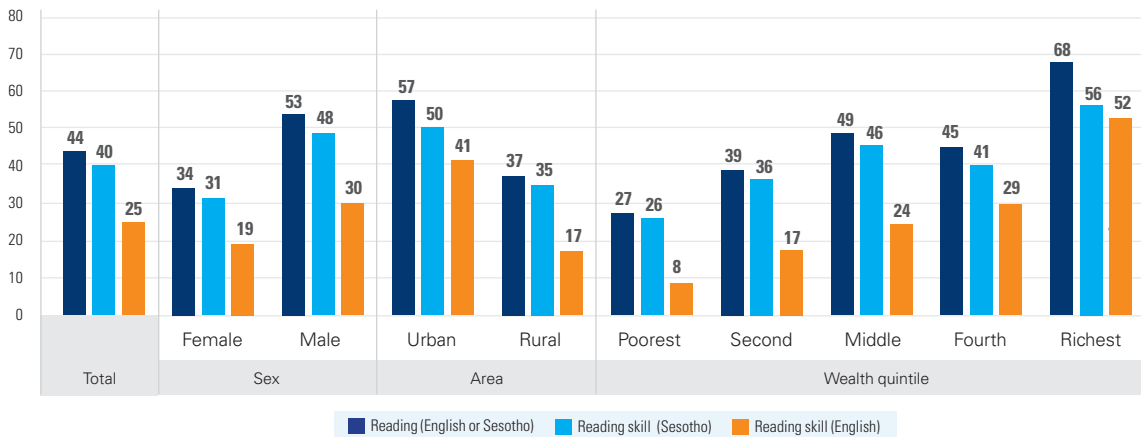
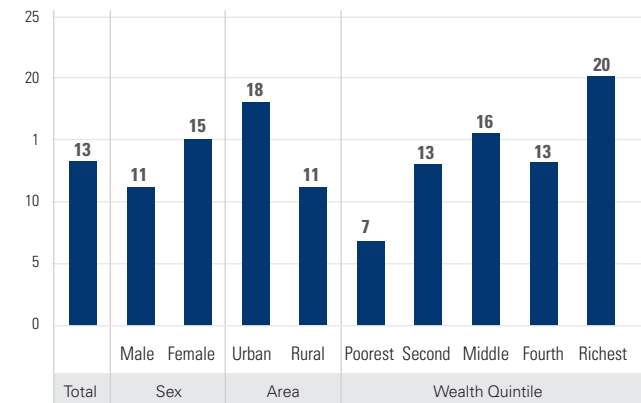


FIGURE 3 Share of children with foundational numeracy skills



## Map of Lesotho's districts (2018)



## Findings

The Foundational Learning Module assesses whether children aged 7 to 14 have Grade 2/3 level (SDG 4.1.1a) reading and numeracy skills.

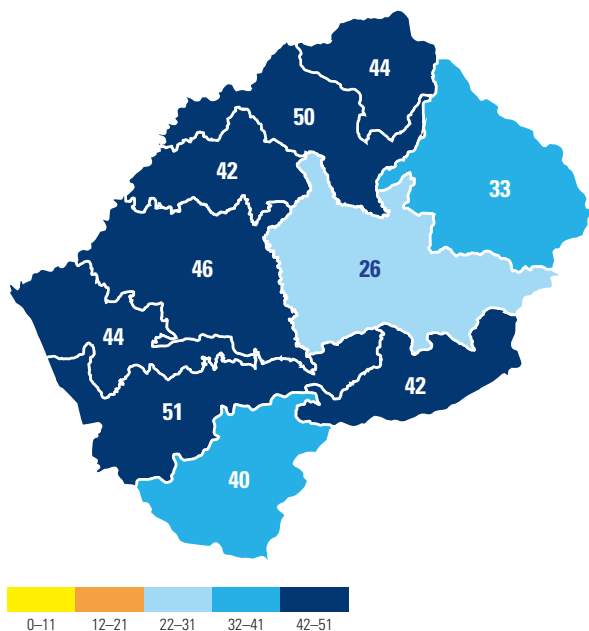
- For reading skills, children had the option to take the reading test in English or Sesotho. The findings indicate that only 17 percent of children in Grade 3 have the expected reading skills (either English or Sesotho). About 16 percent of children have the expected reading skills in Sesotho, whereas only 6 percent have the expected reading skills in English.
- The share of children with reading skills at Grade 2/3 level increases from 17 percent in Grade 3 to 94 percent in Grade 9.
- In Grades 2, 3 and 4, less than 10 percent have the expected numeracy skills at Grade 2/3 level. The share of children with numeracy skills at Grade 2/3 level increases from 2 percent in Grade 3 to 42 percent in Grade 9.
- In each grade the share of children with foundational reading skills in Sesotho is higher than in English. In terms of comparing Grade 9 and Grade 3 children, the share of children with foundational reading skills in English in Grade 9 is 14.5 times higher than Grade 3. For Sesotho, the share of children with foundational reading skills in Grade 9 is 6 times higher than in Grade 3. Until Grade 7, there is a 20-percentage point gap between reading skills in Sesotho and English, in favour of Sesotho.

The skills of out-of-school children are particularly low. Out-of-school children here include both, children who never attended school and those who did not attend school in the current year.

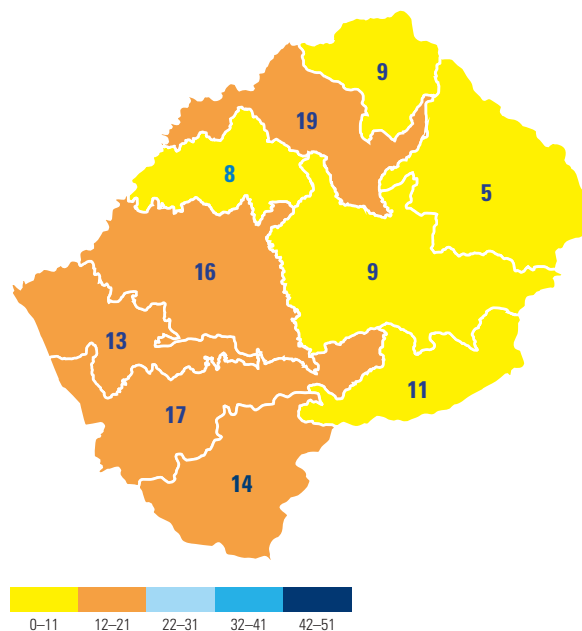
- The increase in share is higher in reading than numeracy. The data also indicates that children learn by staying in school.
- Only 10 percent of out-of-school children aged 7 to 14 had numeracy skills at Grade 2/3 level. This means that while they may be able to do one numeracy task, they were not able to do all four tasks that included: reading numbers, addition, discriminating between numbers, and recognising patterns. In contrast, 37 percent of out-of-school children aged 7 to 14 have foundational reading skills with only 19 percent having reading skills in English.
- Learning gaps along socio-economic lines exist in Lesotho. A higher share of urban children have foundational reading and numeracy skills.
- The learning gap by household wealth is the biggest. The share of children from the richest quintile with foundational numeracy skills is 7 times higher than the share of children from the poorest quintile. This gap is smaller in reading skills: the share of children from the richest quintile with foundational reading skills is 2.5 times higher than the share of children from the poorest quintile.

## Regional disaggregation – foundational learning skills

**FIGURE 4** Share of children aged 7 to 14 with foundational reading skills by district



**FIGURE 5** Share of children aged 7 to 14 with foundational numeracy skills by district



### Findings

- Learning gap by district is high.

#### Foundational reading skill by district

- Between districts, Mophale's Hoek and the Leribe districts have the highest share of children with foundational reading skills, whereas Mokhotlong and Thaba-Tseka have the lowest share of children with foundational reading skills.
- In terms of the learning gap between districts, the share of children with foundational reading skills in Mophale's Hoek is almost twice the share of children with foundational reading skills in Thaba-Tseka.

#### Foundational numeracy skills by district

- Across all districts, the share of children with foundational numeracy skills is much lower than the share with foundational reading skills.
- However, trends between districts is similar to foundational reading skills, i.e. Mophale's Hoek and Leribe have the highest share of children with foundational numeracy skills, whereas Mokhotlong, Berea, Butha-Buthe and Thaba-Tseka have the lowest share of children with foundational numeracy skills.

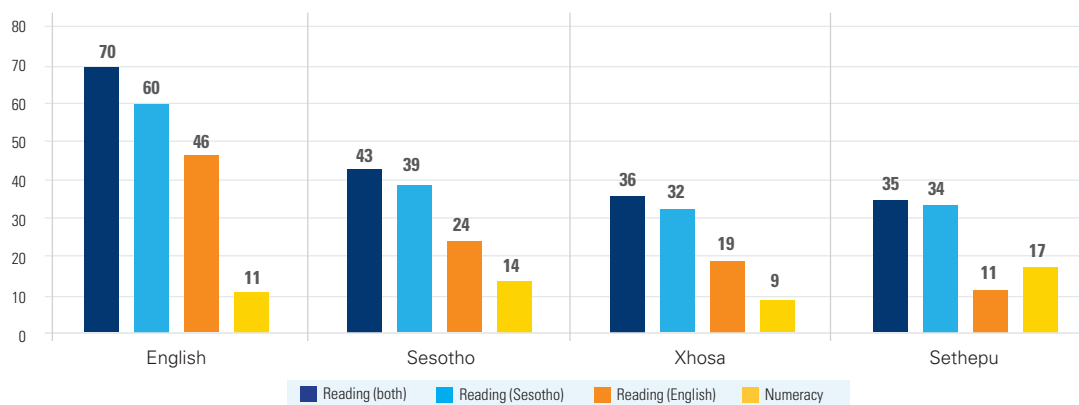




## Foundational reading among children aged 7 to 14 years, by language

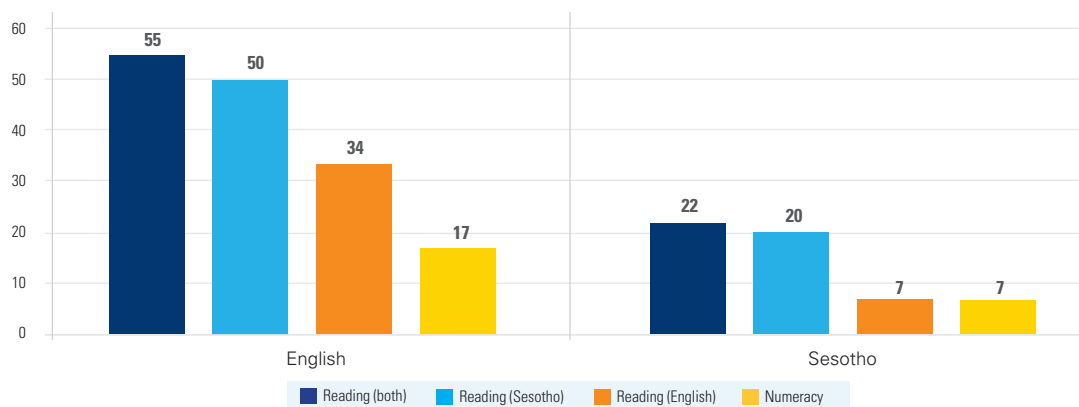
**FIGURE 6**

Share of children aged 7 to 14 with foundational skills by language spoken at home



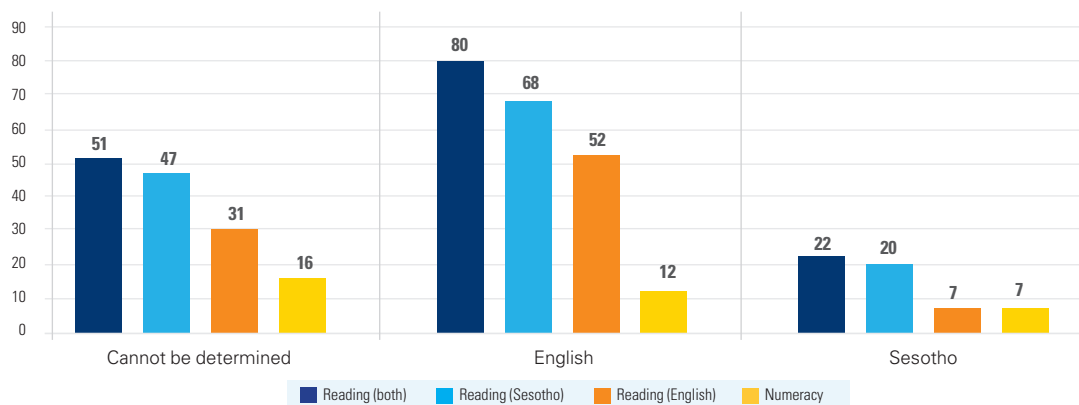
**FIGURE 7**

Share of children aged 7 to 14 with foundational skills by language teacher uses most often in class



**FIGURE 8**

Share of children aged 7 to 14 with foundational skills when language at home and instruction is the same



### Findings

- Large variations exist in the share of children with foundational reading and numeracy skills based on the language spoken at home. A higher share of children who speak English at home has foundational reading skills in any language. Children who speak Setsepu at home have foundational numeracy skills higher than children who speak other languages at home.
- This disparity gets particularly amplified in the language of instruction: the share of children whose teacher uses English as the language of instruction have a higher share of foundational skills than the share of children whose teacher uses Sesotho as the language of instruction. Twice as many children whose teacher used English rather than Sesotho as the main language of instruction have foundational reading and numeracy skills.
- Children who speak English at home and whose teacher uses English as the language of instruction have a higher share of foundational skills compared to those who speak Sesotho at home and whose language of instruction is Sesotho. The gap is particularly large for reading skills.



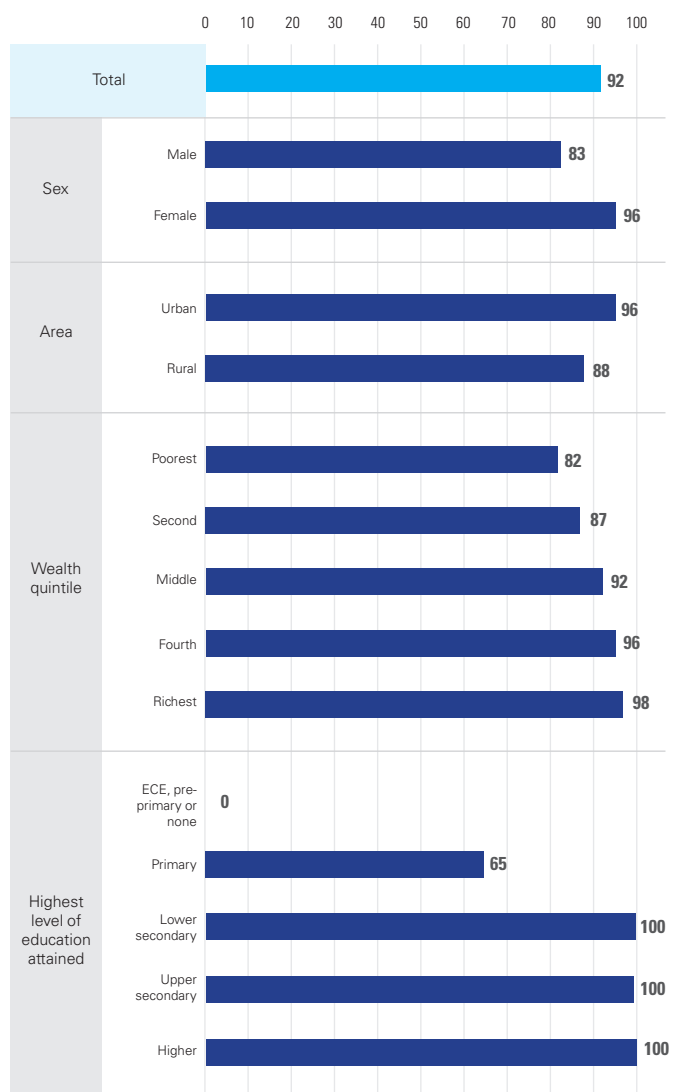
## Literacy and ICT skills among youth aged 15 to 24

### How were literacy and ICT skills measured?

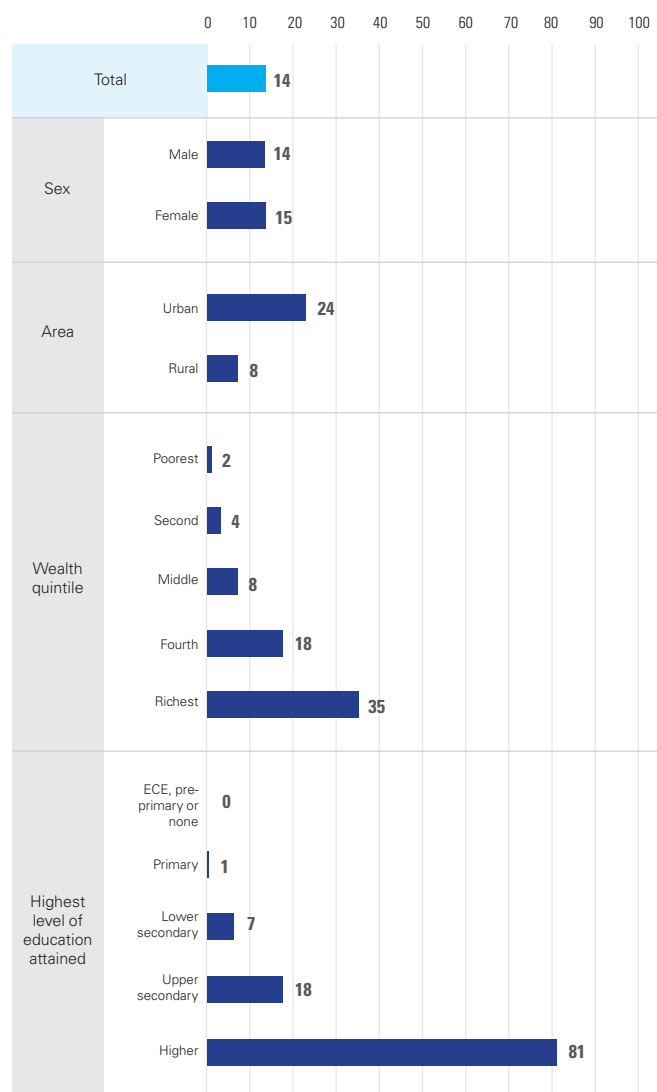
**ICT skills** ICT skills were based on the information of women and men age 15-49 about whether they carried out at least one of nine specific computer related activities in the last three months prior to the survey.

**Literacy** Literacy was assessed for women and men age 15-24 years on the ability to read a short simple statement or based on school attendance. Those who have ever attended lower secondary or higher education are immediately classified as literate, due to their education level and are therefore not asked to read the statement. All others who successfully read the statement are also classified as literate.

**FIGURE 9** Share of youth aged 15 to 24 that are literate



**FIGURE 10** Share of youth aged 15 to 24 that performed any ICT-related activity (ICT skills)

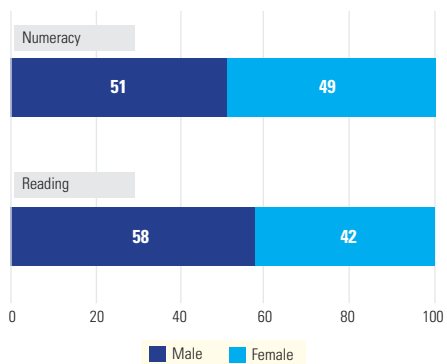


### Findings

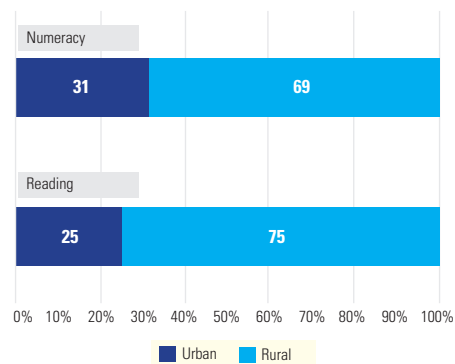
- About 92 percent of 15 – 24-year-olds are literate. However, only 65 percent of those whose highest level of education is primary were found to be literate. Female youth living in urban areas and youth in the richest wealth quintile, have higher shares of literacy when compared to their peers from the other socio-economic groupings.
- ICT skills is a new module included in MICS6. To assess the prevalence of ICT skills, the module collects information on the recent use of ICT skills by measuring certain activities. About 14 percent of 15 – 24-year-olds reported engaging in any ICT activity in the three months before the survey.
- The share of 15 – 24-year-olds from urban areas who engaged in any ICT-related activity was three times more than the share of 15 – 24-year-olds from rural areas. Only 2 percent of youth from the poorest quintile undertook any ICT-related activity whereas 35 percent from the richest quintile undertook any ICT-related activity.
- The biggest driver of ICT skills among youth is educational attainment. There is a large jump in the share of youth performing any ICT-related activity: from lower secondary (7 percent) to upper secondary (18 percent) to higher education (81 percent).

## Profile of children aged 7 to 14 years who are not learning

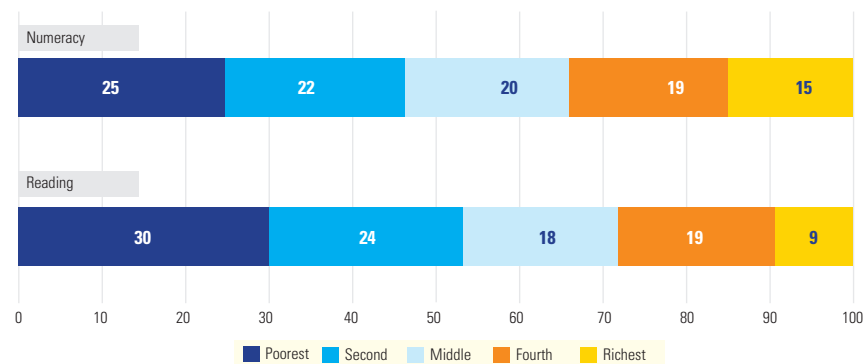
**FIGURE 11** Profiling of children who are not learning, by sex



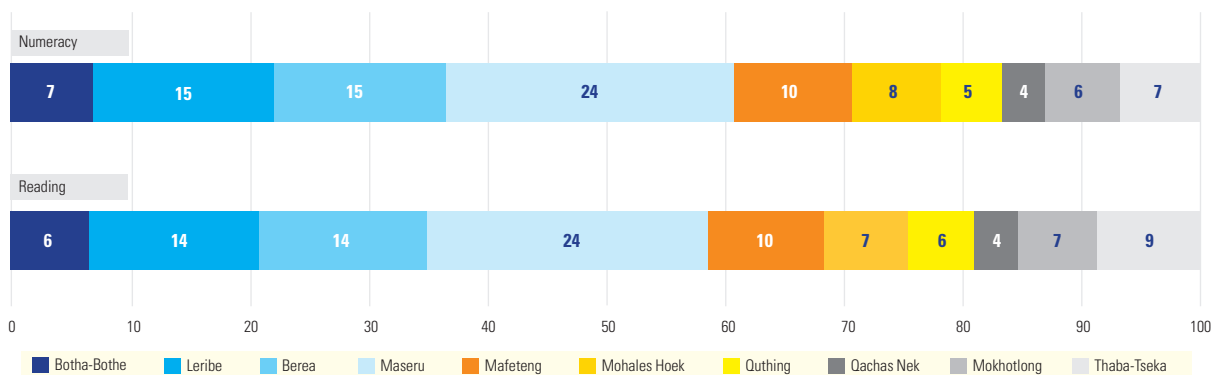
**FIGURE 12** Profiling of children who are not learning, by area



**FIGURE 13** Profiling of children who are not learning, by wealth quintile



**FIGURE 14** Profiling of children who are not learning, by district



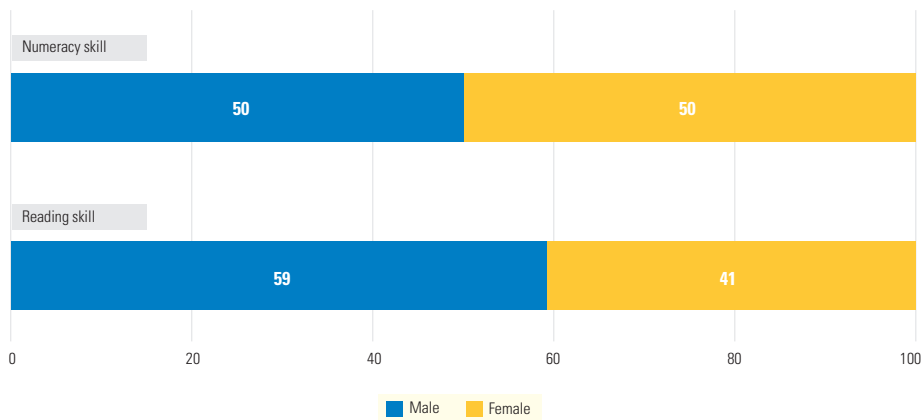
### Findings

- These profiles provide information on children aged 7 to 14 who are not learning according to the foundational learning module in MICS6. The information in these charts shows the profiling of the (a) 56 percent of 7 – 14-year-olds who are not learning in reading and (b) 87 percent of 7 – 14-year-olds who are not learning in numeracy.
- Among those who do not have foundational reading and numeracy skills, boys are more prevalent than girls.
- Most children who are not learning are in rural areas and from the poorest two wealth quintiles. 47 percent of children who do not have foundational numeracy skills and 54 percent of children who do not have foundational reading skills are from the bottom two-fifths of the country's wealth distribution.
- With respect to the district, children from the Mohale's Hoek are the most represented among those who do not have foundational reading or numeracy skills.

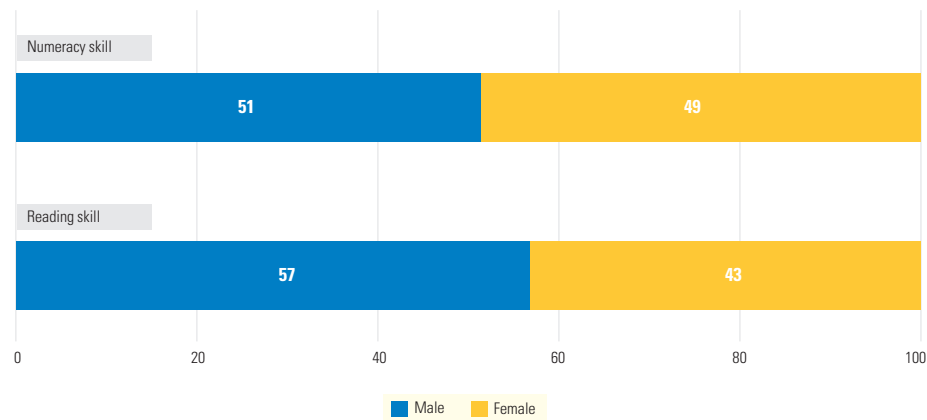


## Profiling by ecological regions/zones

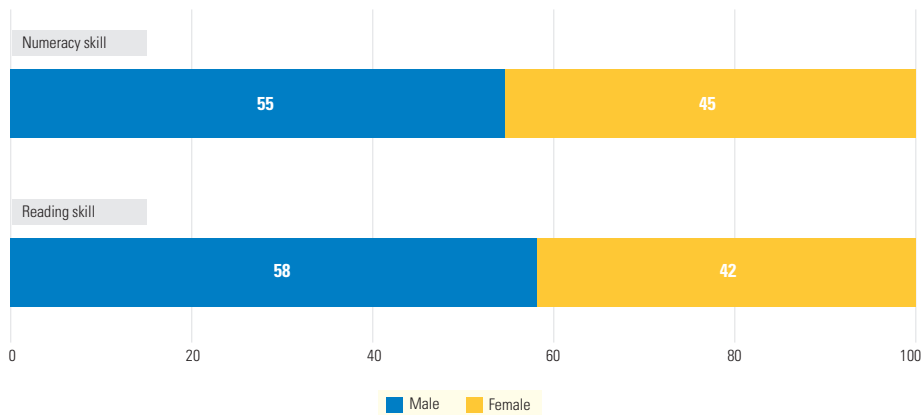
**FIGURE 15** Gender profiling of children not learning in Lowlands



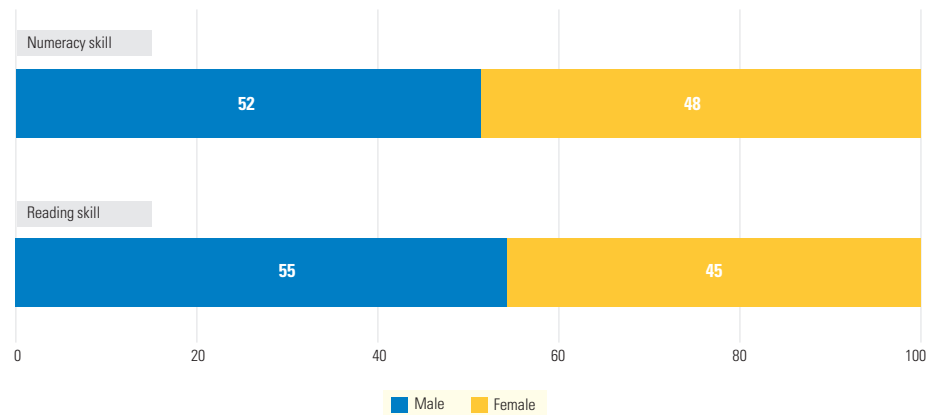
**FIGURE 16** Gender profiling of children not learning in Mountains



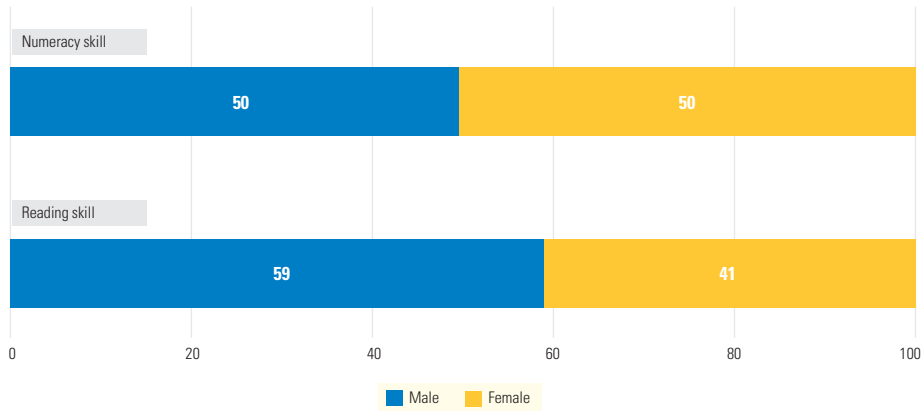
**FIGURE 17** Gender profiling of children not learning in Foothills



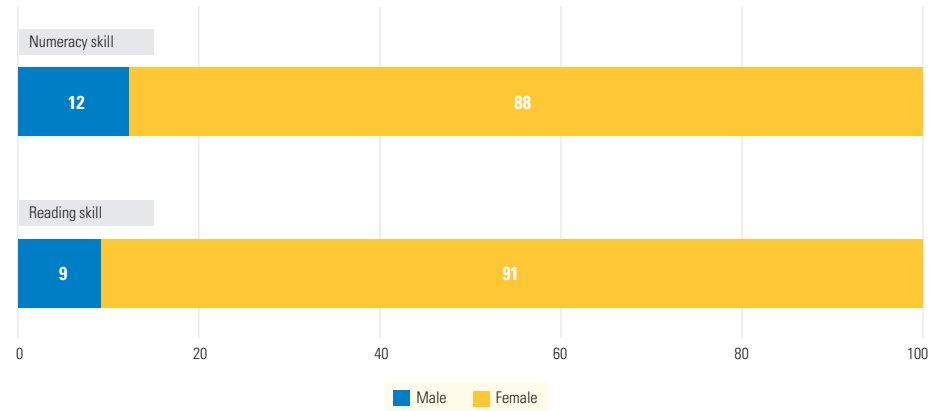
**FIGURE 18** Gender profiling of children not learning in Senqu River Valley



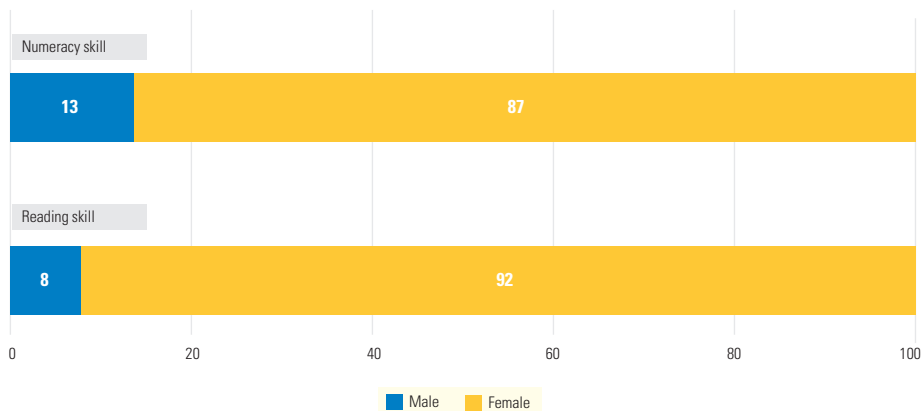
**FIGURE 19** Area profiling of children not learning in Lowland



**FIGURE 20** Area profiling of children not learning in Mountains



**FIGURE 21** Area profiling of children not learning in Senqu River Valley

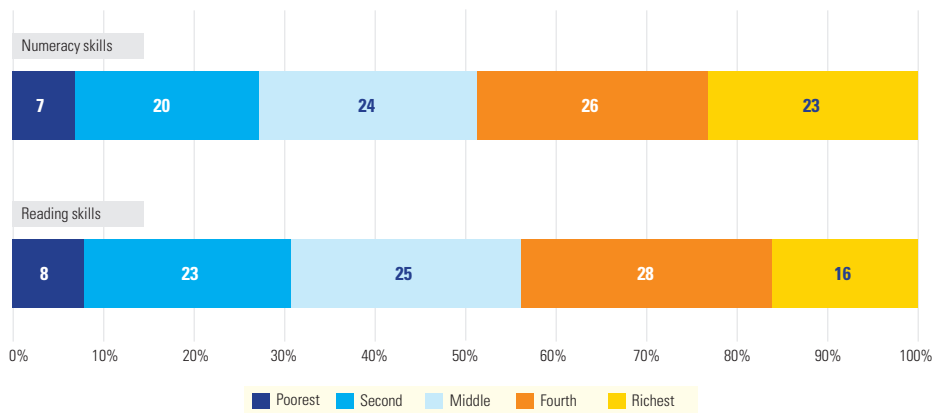


### Findings

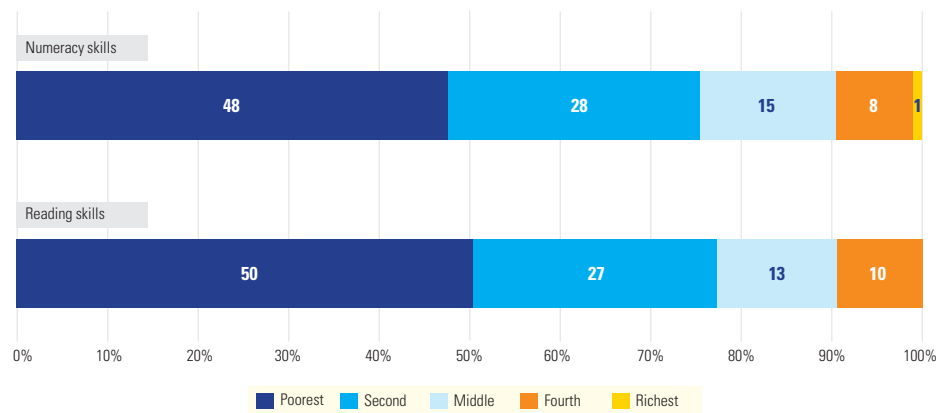
- There are more males than females in all the regions/zones in Lesotho for children who are not learning.
- There are no urban observations from the Foothills region/zone. There is an even split between urban-rural among children not learning in the Lowland region/zone. Rural children are over-represented in the Highlands (Mountain) and Senqu River Valley regions/zones. This could be because of the rural nature of these regions/zones, which means that there are more rural children in general in these regions/zones.
- The Lowlands region/zone is different from the Foothills, Highlands (Mountain) and Senqu River Valley regions/zones in terms of wealth profiling. Among children not learning in the Lowlands region/zone, there are very few poorest children – starkly opposite to other regions/zones. This could be attributed to the fact that most individuals living in the Lowlands region/zone are wealthier than individuals living in other regions. The poorest profile is thus under-represented in this part of the country.



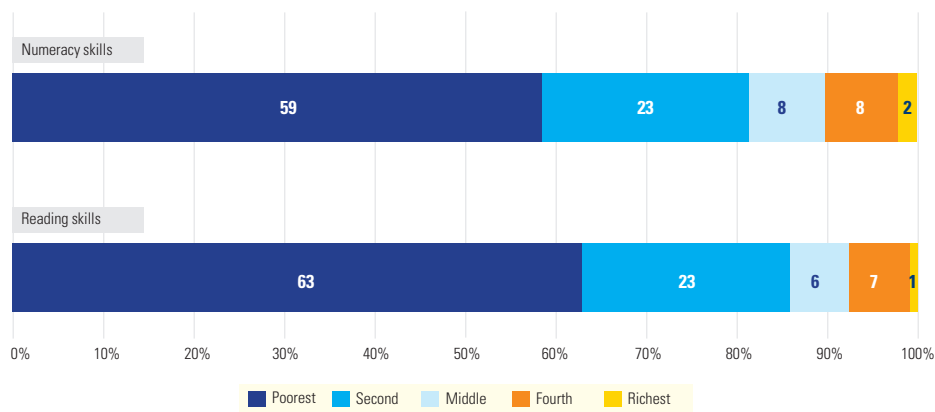
**FIGURE 22** Wealth profiling of children not learning in the Lowlands region/zone



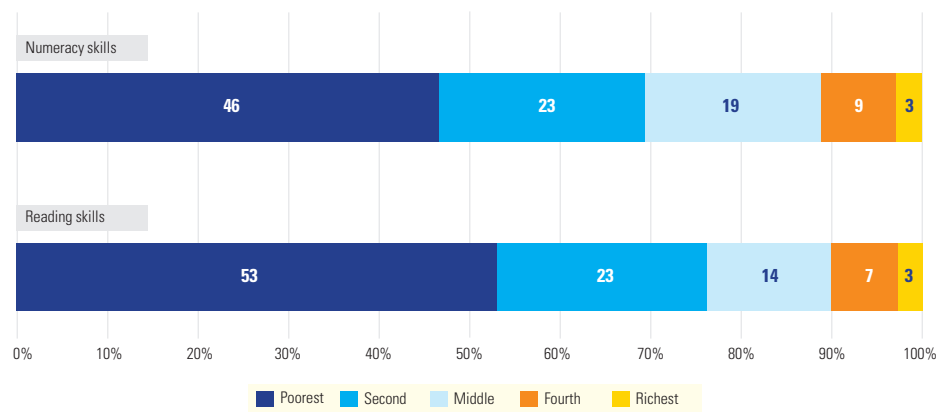
**FIGURE 23** Wealth profiling of children not learning in the Foothills region/zone



**FIGURE 24** Wealth profiling of children not learning in Highlands (Mountain) region/zone



**FIGURE 25** Wealth profiling of children not learning in the Senqu River Valley region/zone



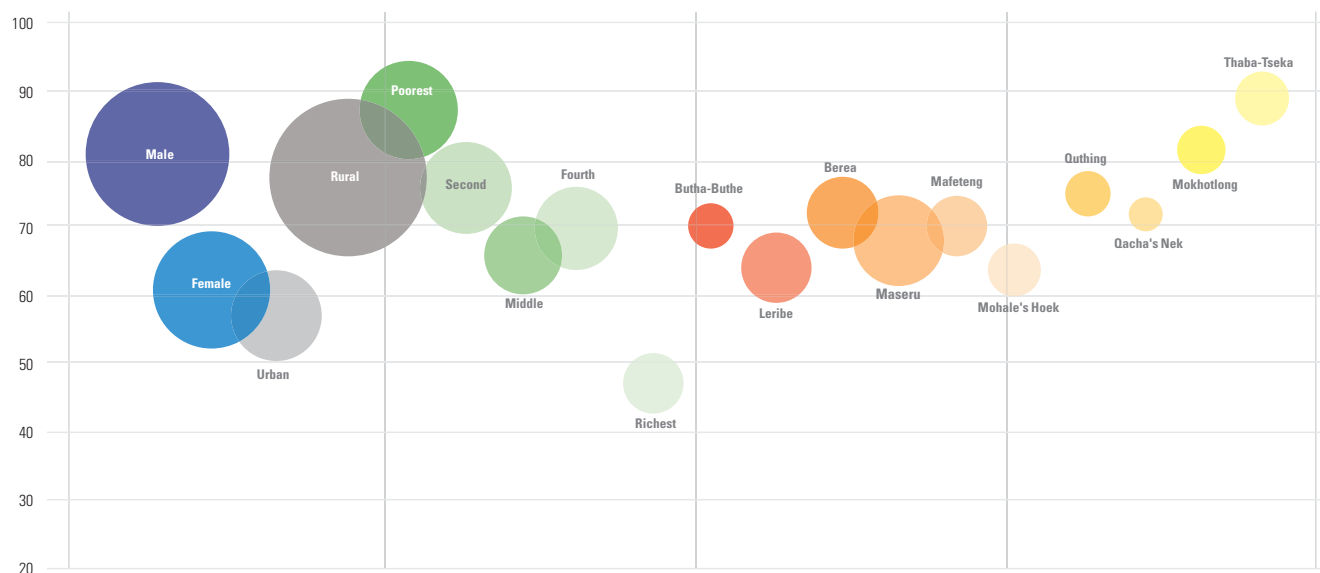
**TABLE 1: Foundational skills – Shares and headcounts of children aged 7 to 14 who are not learning, by various socioeconomic characteristics**

		Shares (%) (children aged 7 – 14 who are not learning)		Headcount* (children who are not learning)	
		Reading	Numeracy	Reading	Numeracy
	<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>184 200</b>	<b>283 600</b>
<b>Sex</b>	Male	66	89	107 200	143 500
	Female	47	85	77 000	140 100
<b>Area</b>	Urban	43	82	46 200	88 400
	Rural	63	89	138 000	195 200
<b>Wealth quintile</b>	Poorest	73	93	54 800	69 800
	Second	62	87	43 800	61 800
	Middle	51	84	33 800	55 400
	Fourth	55	87	34 500	54 100
	Richest	32	80	17 400	42 500
<b>District</b>	Butha-Buthe	56	91	11 800	19 200
	Leribe	50	81	26 400	43 100
	Berea	58	92	26 400	41 600
	Maseru	54	84	43 500	68 300
	Mafeteng	56	87	17 900	27 900
	Mohale's Hoek	50	83	13 000	21 800
	Quthing	60	86	10 200	14 400
	Quacha's Nek	58	89	6 700	10 400
	Mokhotlong	67	95	12 400	17 400
	Thaba-Tseka	74	91	15 900	19 300

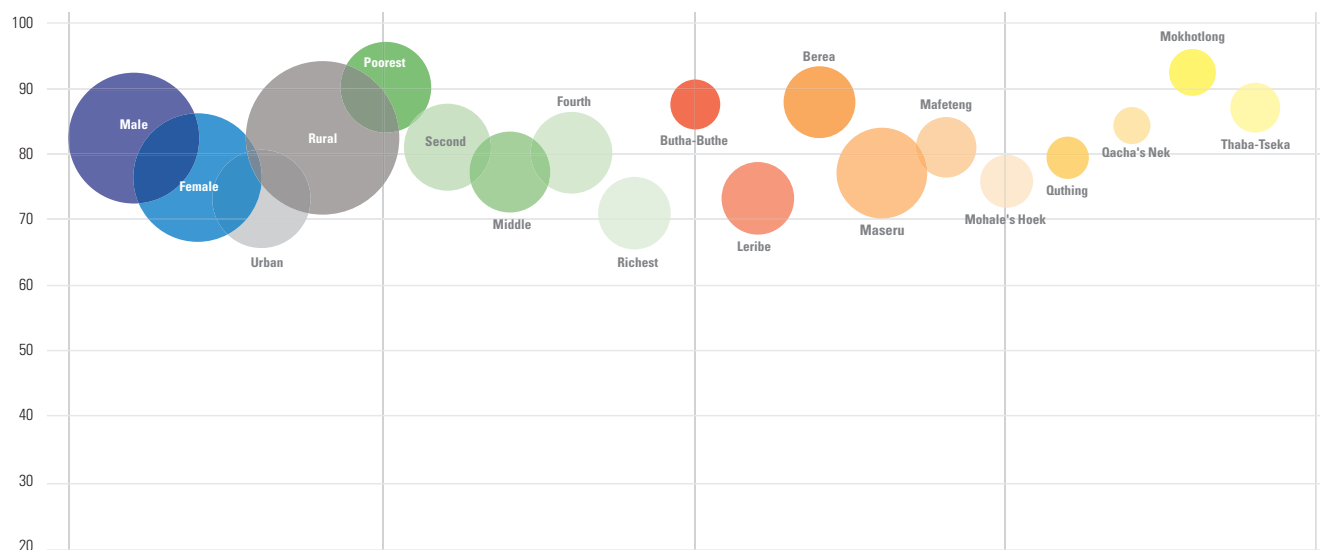
\*headcounts based on population data shared by CO

## Shares and headcounts of children aged 7 to 14 who are not learning, by various socioeconomic characteristics

**FIGURE 26** Share and headcount of children who do not have foundational reading skills



**FIGURE 27** Share and headcount of children who do not have foundational numeracy skills



### Findings

- These charts show the trade-off between shares of children aged 7 – 14-years-old who are not learning and population size. The population size is represented by the size of the bubble. The height of the bubble represents the share of children who do not have the foundational skills. The higher the bubble, the larger the share.
- These charts clearly show that rural areas have both a high share of children not learning, as well as a high headcount.

### Foundational reading skill

- The data indicates that children from the poorest wealth quintiles are the most disadvantaged. They have both a high share of children not learning reading and a larger headcount than other quintiles.
- Thaba-Tseka has the highest share of children not learning reading, whereas Maseru has the highest headcount of children not learning reading. This difference is as a result of Maseru having a higher population than Thaba-Tseka.

### Foundational numeracy skills

- Poorest, rural and male children have similar shares of children who are not learning numeracy skills. However, in terms of headcount, rural areas have the highest headcount for children who are not learning numeracy skills.
- Mokhotlong has a higher share of children not learning numeracy, whereas Maseru has the highest headcount of children not learning numeracy. This difference is as a result of Maseru having a higher population than Mokhotlong.





GDT = SS

1. Au
2. Commonwealth
3. Industries
4. Volleyball..

0-30% = Below Basic (BB)  
31-49% Basic (B)  
50-69% Proficient (P)  
70+ Advanced (A)

### What is completion rate?

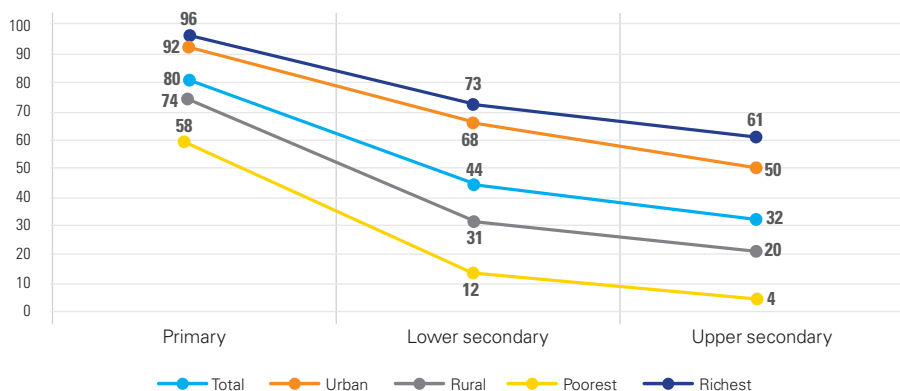
The completion rate reflects the percentage of a cohort of children or young people three to five years older than the intended age for the last grade of each level of education (primary, junior secondary, or senior secondary) who have completed that level of education. For example, if the official age of entry into primary education is 6 years, and primary school has seven grades, then the intended age for the last grade of primary education is 12 years. In this case, the reference age group for calculation of the primary completion rate would be 15–17 years ( $12 + 3 = 15$  and  $12 + 5 = 17$ ). This indicator is used to calculate SDG 4.1.2 – Completion rate (primary education, lower secondary education, upper secondary education).

#### Guiding questions

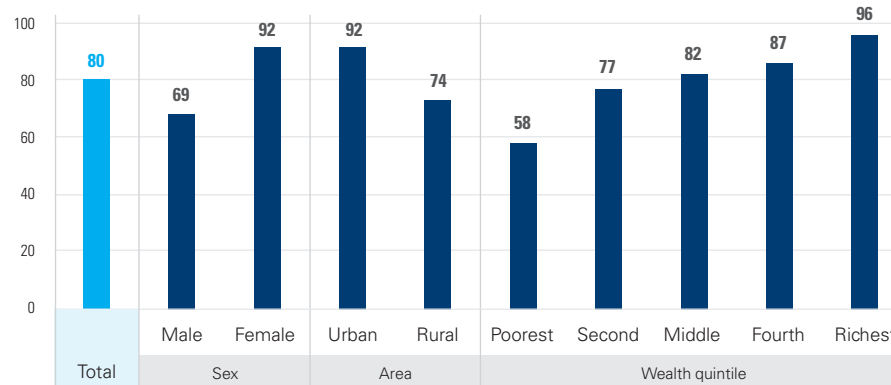
- 1 For which level of education is the completion rate the lowest?
- 2 What are the socioeconomic characteristics of children who do not complete each level of education?
- 3 What regions have the lowest completion rates at each level?
- 4 What is the profile of children who do not complete each level of education?

## Overview

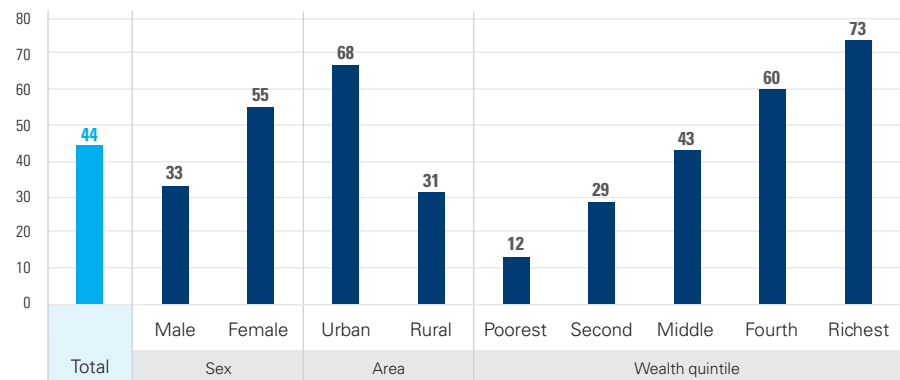
**FIGURE 28** Overview of completion rates



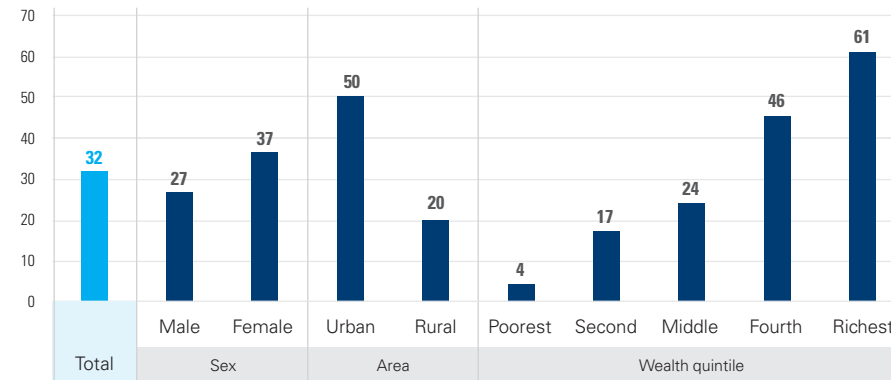
**FIGURE 29** Primary completion rate



**FIGURE 30** Lower secondary completion rate



**FIGURE 31** Upper secondary completion rate



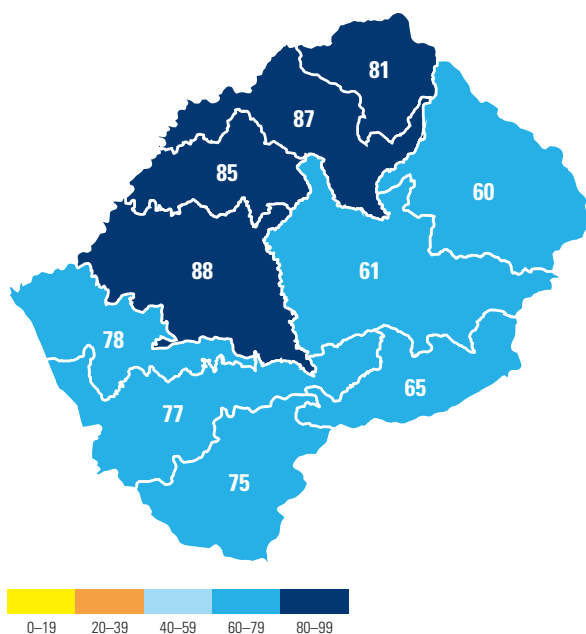
## Findings

- About 80 percent of children complete primary education. However, the completion rate declines steeply for lower and upper secondary education with only 33 percent completing lower secondary and 14 percent completing upper secondary.
- Declining completion rates can be attributed to dropout and repetition or delayed completion – this means that learners are more likely to drop out, repeat grades or experience delayed completion as they progress through the education system.
- Children belonging to the poorest quintile and those living in rural areas have particularly low completion rates. At all levels, rural and poor children complete below the national average whereas urban and richest children complete at a level higher than the national average.
- The gap between completion rates of children from the richest and poorest wealth quintiles widens starkly as they progress through the education system. While 61 percent of children from the richest wealth quintile complete upper secondary education, only 4 percent of children from the poorest wealth quintile complete upper secondary education.
- The share of the richest wealth quintile completing primary education is 1.6 times higher than the share of the poorest wealth quintile completing this level.
- At lower secondary level, the ratio is 5.5, that is, the share of the richest wealth quintile completing lower secondary education is 5.5 times higher than the share of the poorest wealth quintile completing this level. At the upper secondary level, the share of the richest wealth quintile completing is almost 31 times higher than the share of the poorest wealth quintile completing this level. This signifies an increasing gap along socio economic lines of children completing a level of education.
- There are also large differences in completion rates between boys and girls – in favour of the latter. The gap is particularly large at the primary level (23 percentage points) and decreases with each level: 22 percentage points in lower secondary and 10 percentage points in upper secondary.
- Rural children have a lower completion rate with a difference of more than 15 percentage points in each level.

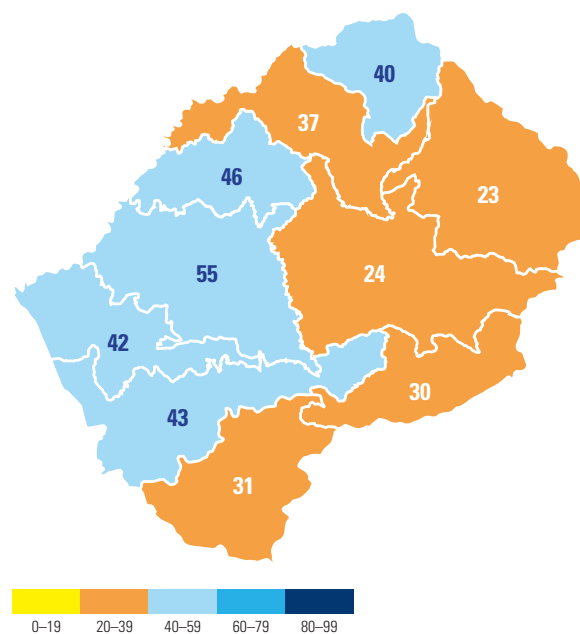


## Regional disaggregation – completion rate

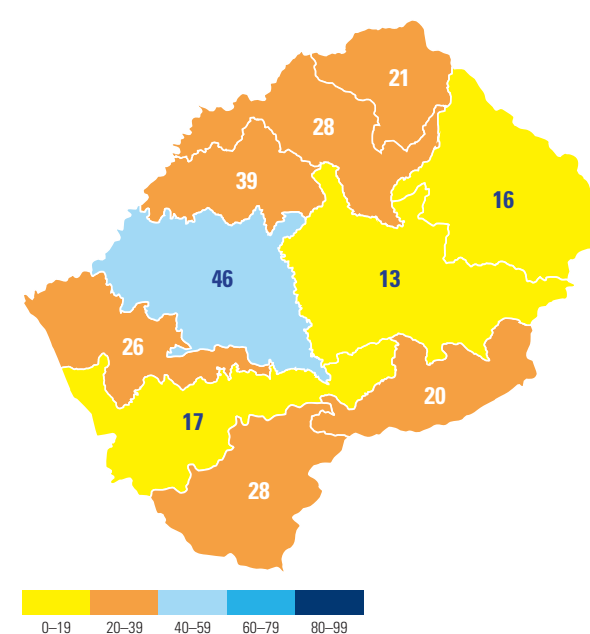
**FIGURE 32** Primary completion rate



**FIGURE 33** Lower secondary completion rate



**FIGURE 34** Upper secondary completion rate



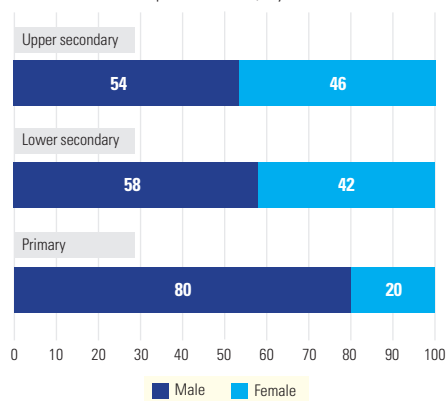
### Findings

- The regional disparity in completion rates is high and increases with each level.
- No district is close to achieving a universal completion rate. Districts in the east lag in completion rates, with the districts in the west displaying a concentration of higher completion rates.
- In particular, the completion rate in Maseru is 20 percentage points higher than Thaba Tseka.
- Thaba Tseka has the most drastic decline in completion rates from primary to upper secondary. 61 percent of children complete primary education in Thaba Tseka, which decreases to only 13 percent of children completing upper secondary in the district.

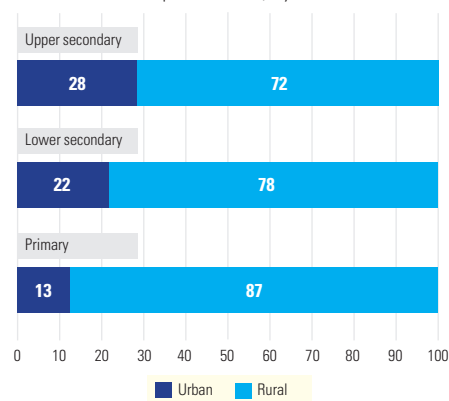


## Profiles of children who do not complete school

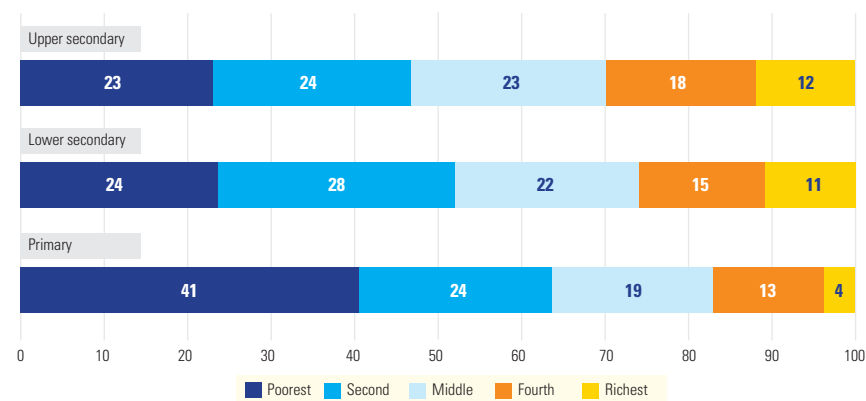
**FIGURE 35** Profiling of children who do not complete school, by sex



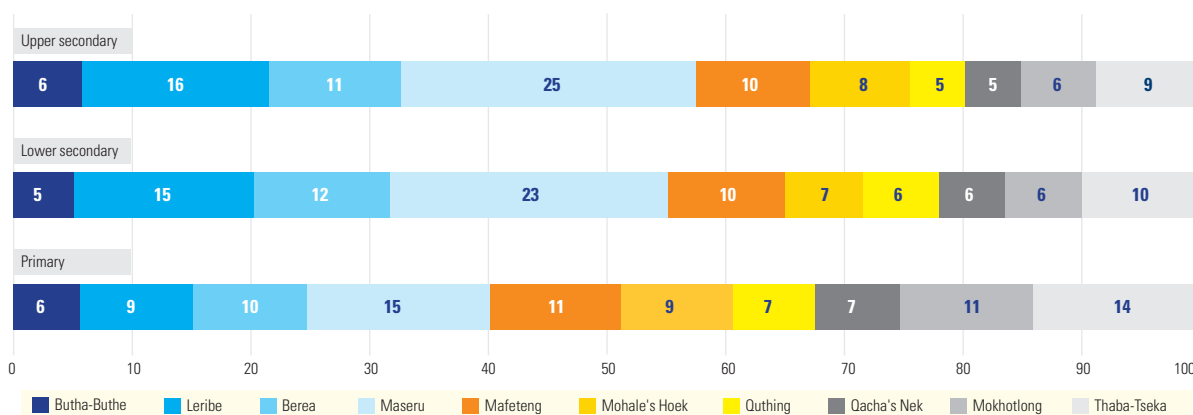
**FIGURE 36** Profiling of children who do not complete school, by area



**FIGURE 37** Profiling of children who do not complete school, by wealth quintile



**FIGURE 38** Profiling of children who do not complete school, by district



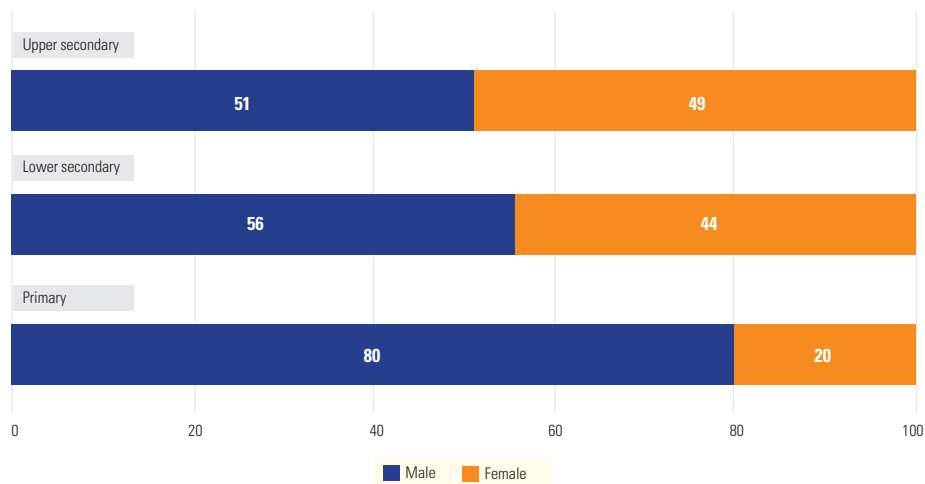
### Findings

- The profiles of children not completing school for each level of education is based on the share of children not completing a level of education. So, for example, of the 20 percent not completing the primary level, 58 percent are not completing lower secondary, and 68 percent are not completing upper secondary.
- Among those not completing their education, a higher share of boys do not complete across all levels. Boys are over-represented in the primary level by a large margin, but in the upper secondary level 51% of the children who do not complete are boys. Girls only make up 20 percent of those who do not complete the primary level, but this increases to 45 percent and 49 percent in lower and upper secondary levels, respectively.
- Most children not completing school live in rural areas. This can be attributed to the large rural population in the country. However, the trend of non-completion is increasing in urban areas when compared to primary and lower secondary levels – even though the rate of non-completion for rural children is still dominant.
- The poorest wealth quintiles make up over half of those who did not complete primary and lower secondary levels. The trend reverses in upper secondary as there are very few children from the poorest two quintiles in that level.
- The district of Maseru is over-represented across the three levels. For the primary level, Thaba-Tseka has the second highest share of children not completing the primary level, whereas Leribe has the second highest share of children not completing the lower and upper secondary levels.

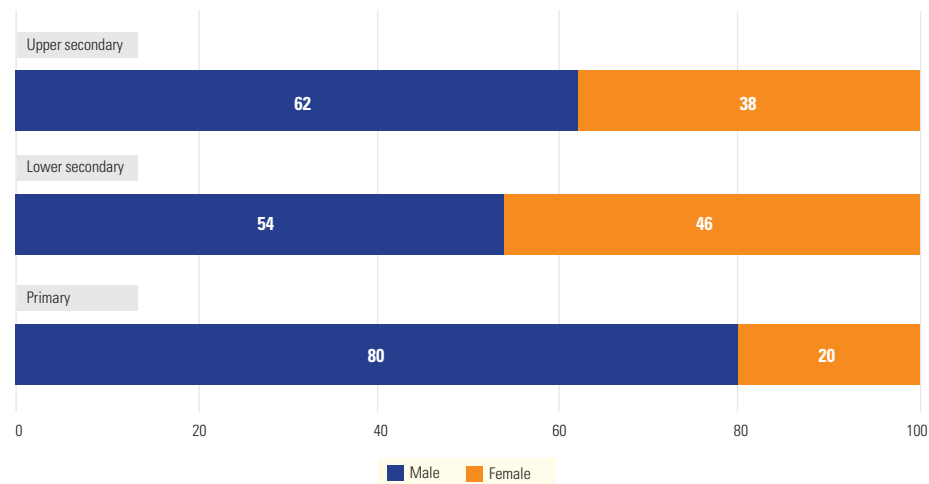


## Profiling by ecological regions/zones

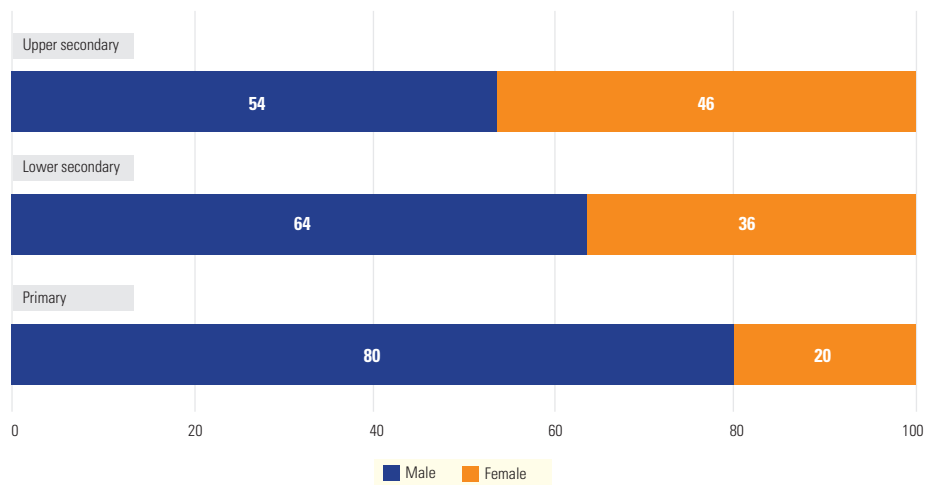
**FIGURE 39** Gender profiling of children not completing in the Lowlands region/zone



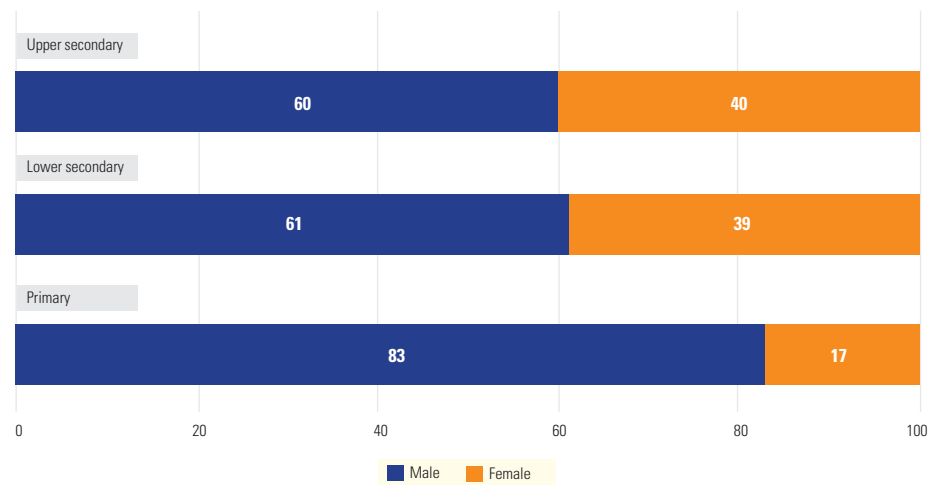
**FIGURE 40** Gender profiling of children not completing in the Foothills region/zone



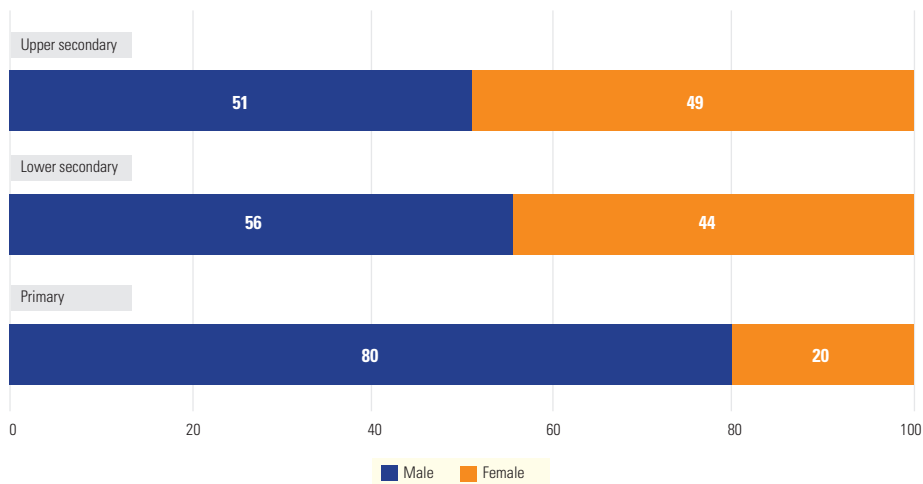
**FIGURE 41** Gender profiling of children not completing in the Mountain region/zone



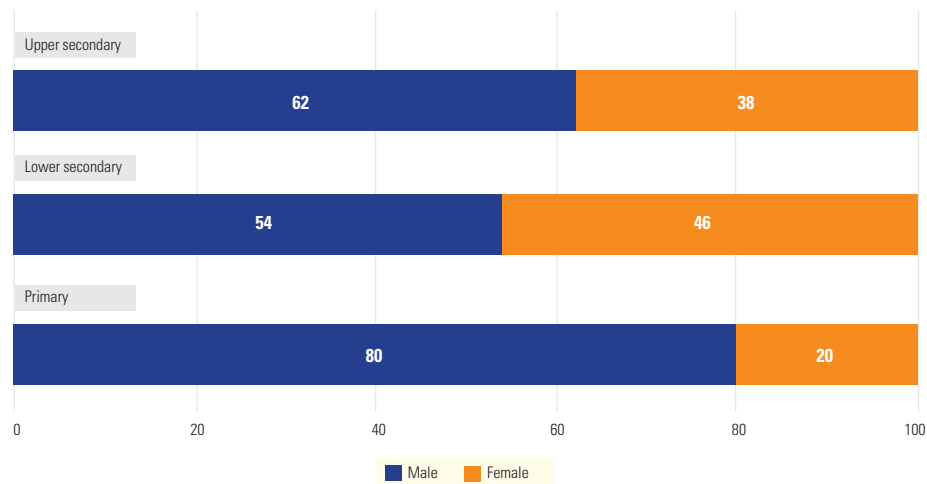
**FIGURE 42** Gender profiling of children not completing in the Senqu River Valley region/zone



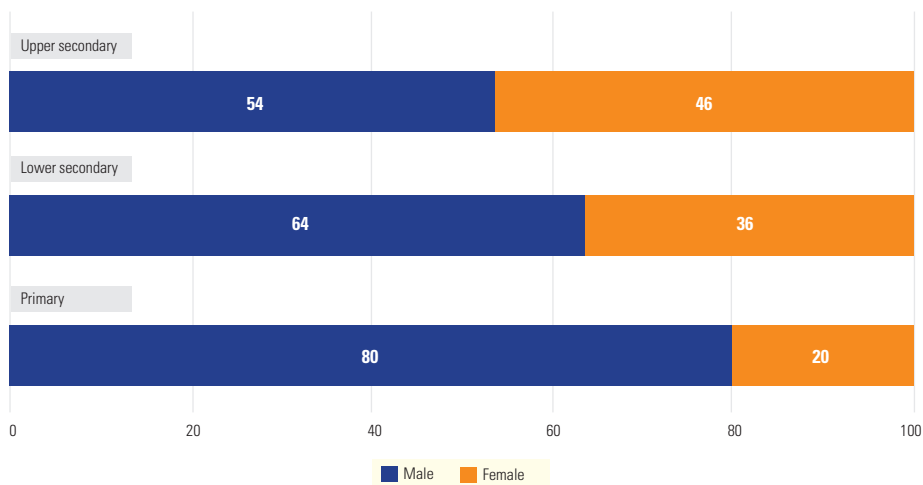
**FIGURE 43** Gender profiling of children not completing in the Lowlands region/zone



**FIGURE 44** Gender profiling of children not completing in the Foothills region/zone



**FIGURE 45** Gender profiling of children not completing in the Mountain region/zone

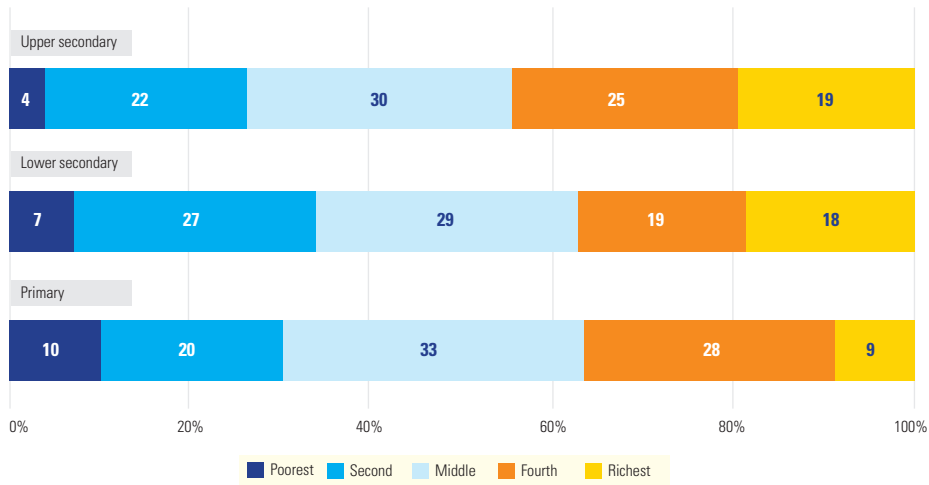


### Findings

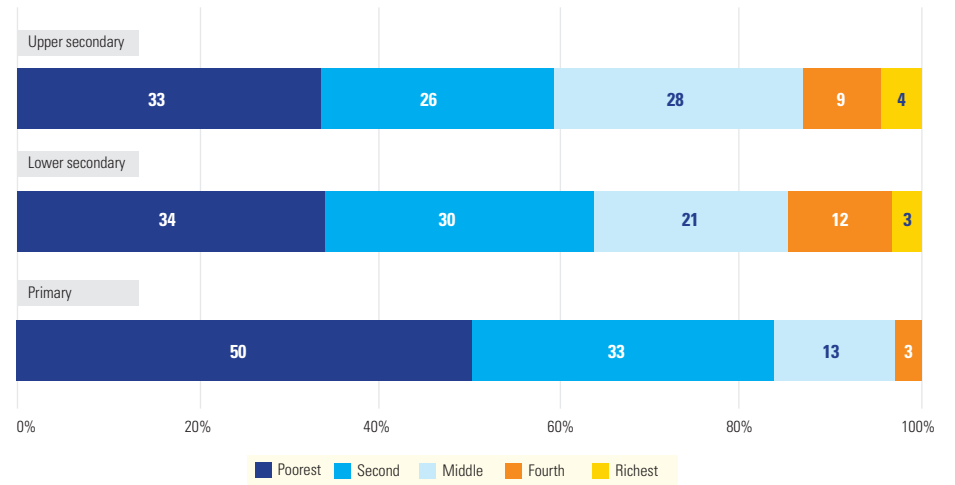
- Across all zones there are more males than females that do not complete the primary level. Although there are more males in all levels of education, their share declines with each level of education.
- In the Highlands (Mountains) and Senqu River Valley, rural children form the overwhelming majority among those not completing a level of education because these regions/zones are mostly rural. There is, however, an increase in the share of children not completing in urban areas with each level of education.
- In the Foothills, Highlands (Mountains) and Senqu River Valley regions/zones, the poorest two wealth quintiles form the majority of those not completing a level. This is again because people in these regions/zones are poorer than people in the Lowlands region/zone.



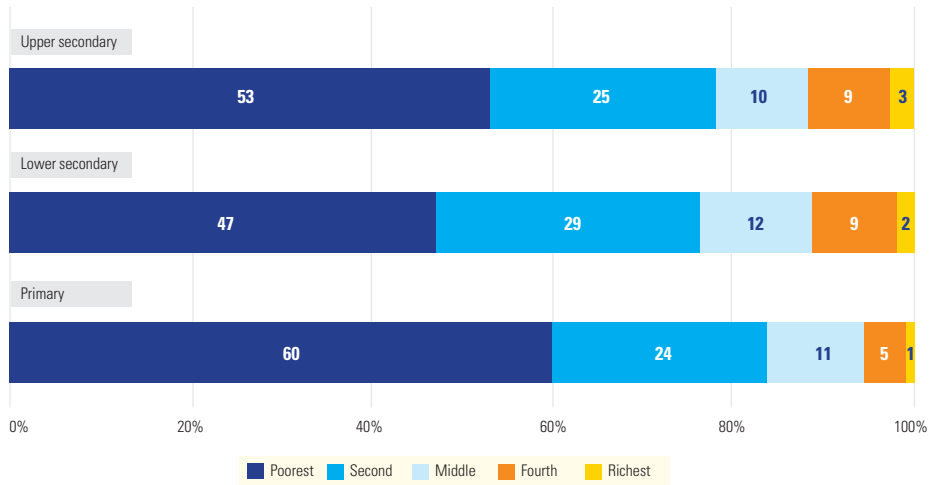
**FIGURE 46** Wealth profiling of children not completing in the Lowlands region/zone



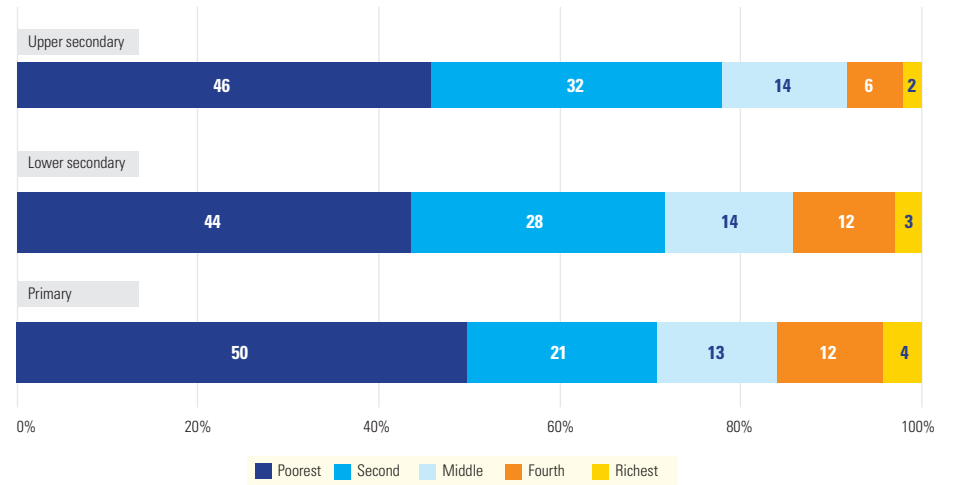
**FIGURE 47** Wealth profiling of children not completing in the Foothills region/zone



**FIGURE 48** Wealth profiling of children not completing in the Highlands (Mountains) region/zone



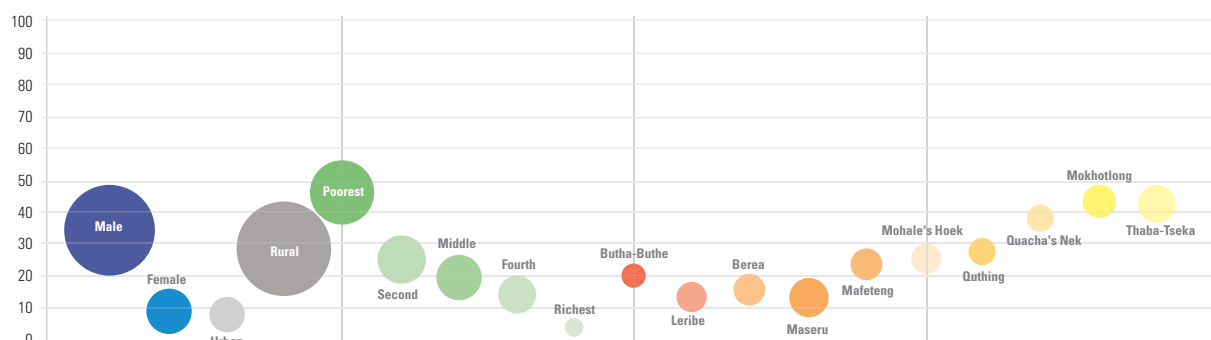
**FIGURE 49** Wealth profiling of children not completing in the Senqu River Valley region/zone



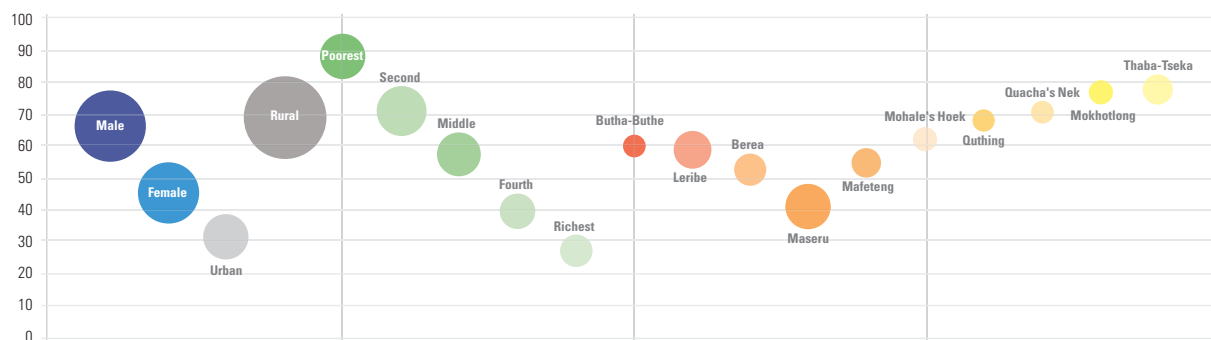


## Shares and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics

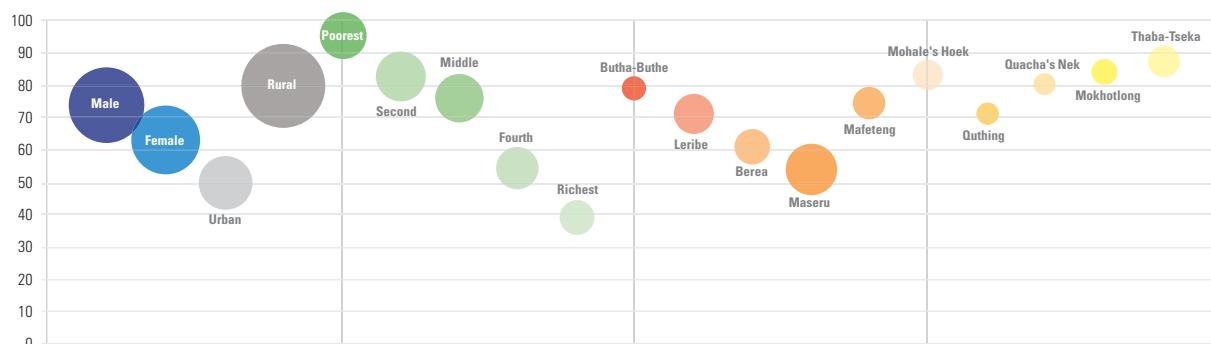
**FIGURE 50** Primary non-completion rates and headcount of children not completing



**FIGURE 51** Lower secondary non-completion rates and headcount of children not completing



**FIGURE 52** Upper secondary non-completion rates and headcount of children not completing



### Findings

- These charts show the trade-off between shares and population size, where the height of the bubble represents the share of children who have completed a level. The higher the bubble, the larger its share. Population size is represented by the size of the bubble.

#### • Trends across all three levels

The completion rate for rural areas is lower than the completion rate for urban areas for all three levels. This means that children living in urban areas are completing all levels of education at a higher rate than rural children. Headcounts of children who live in urban and rural areas that are not completing also reflect this discrepancy. This means that when we convert the shares to numbers using population estimates, the number of children living in rural areas who do not complete a level of education is larger than the number of children living in urban areas. This means that although urban areas are less populated, children who live in them tend to do better in terms of completing a level of education.

#### » Primary level

Maseru has the highest headcount of children not completing, followed by Leribe and Berea. This means that the number of children not completing a level is high in these districts. However, in terms of shares, these three districts have the highest rate of completion at the primary level. This presents a contradictory picture, where because of their high population, these districts not only have a high headcount but are also the best districts for children completing a level. On the contrary, Thaba-Tseka and Mokhotlong have extremely low completion rates but also a comparatively smaller headcount of children not completing.

#### » Lower secondary level

Maseru has the highest headcount of children not completing and the highest completion rate, whereas Mokhotlong has an extremely low completion rate but a low headcount of children not completing.

#### » Upper secondary level

Children from the lowest wealth quintile and Mokhotlong and Thaba-Tseka have extremely low completion rates (below 5 percent). However, the headcount of children not completing upper secondary is highest in Maseru and Leribe.

## Who are out-of-school children?

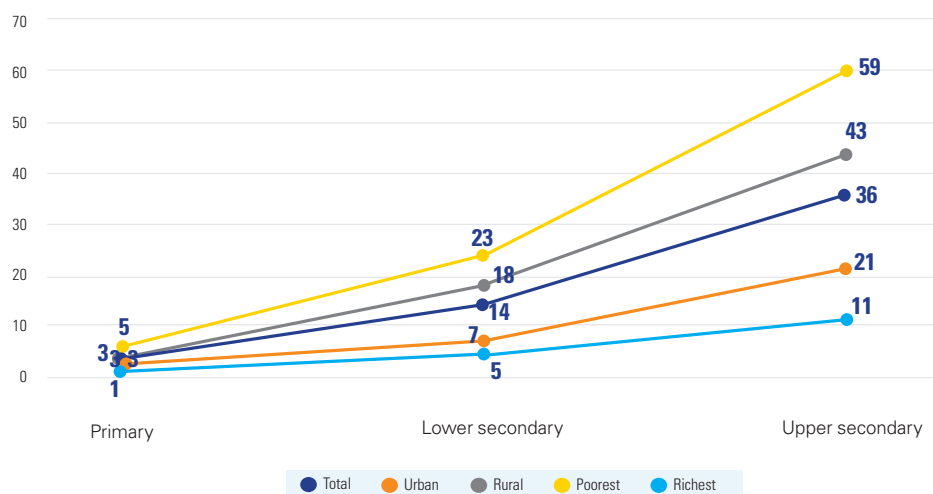
Out-of-school children are children and young people in the official age range for a given level of education who are not attending either pre-primary, primary, secondary or higher levels of education. The objective of the out-of-school children rate is to identify the part of the population in the official age range for a given level of education not attending school, in order to formulate targeted policies that can be put in place to ensure they have access to education. It is used to calculate SDG 4.1.4 – Out-of-school rate for different levels of education, including primary, lower secondary and upper secondary.

### Guiding questions

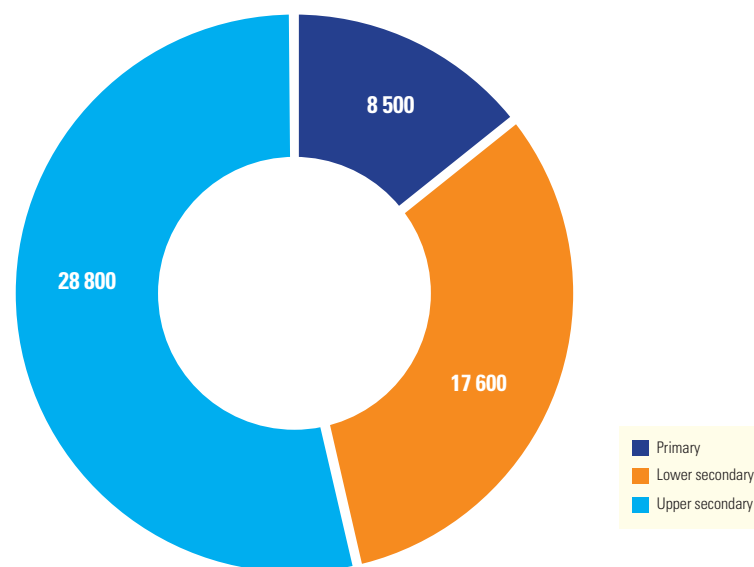
- 1 Which level of education has the highest out-of-school rate?
- 2 How many children are out of school?
- 3 Which regions have the highest out-of-school rates?
- 4 Where do most out-of-school children (OOSC) live and what is their background?

## Overview

**FIGURE 53** Overview of out-of-school rates



**FIGURE 54** Number of out-of-school children (estimates)

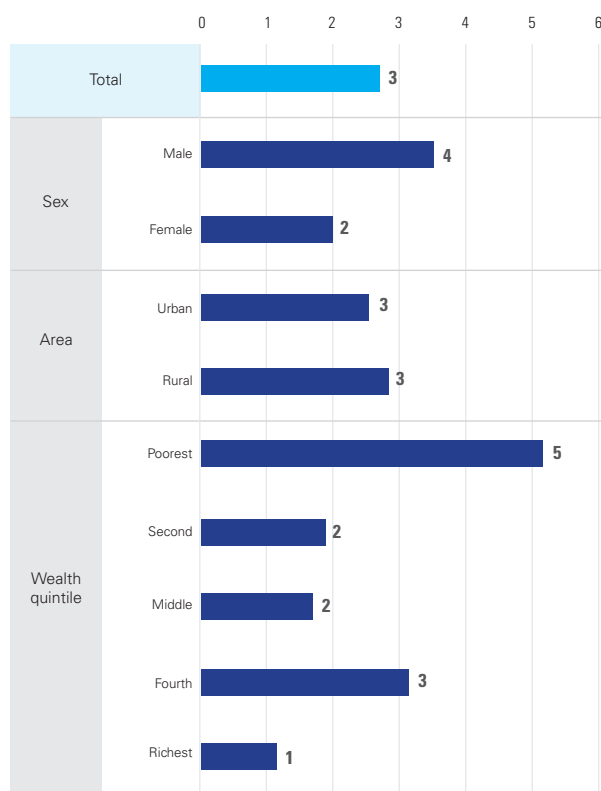


## Findings

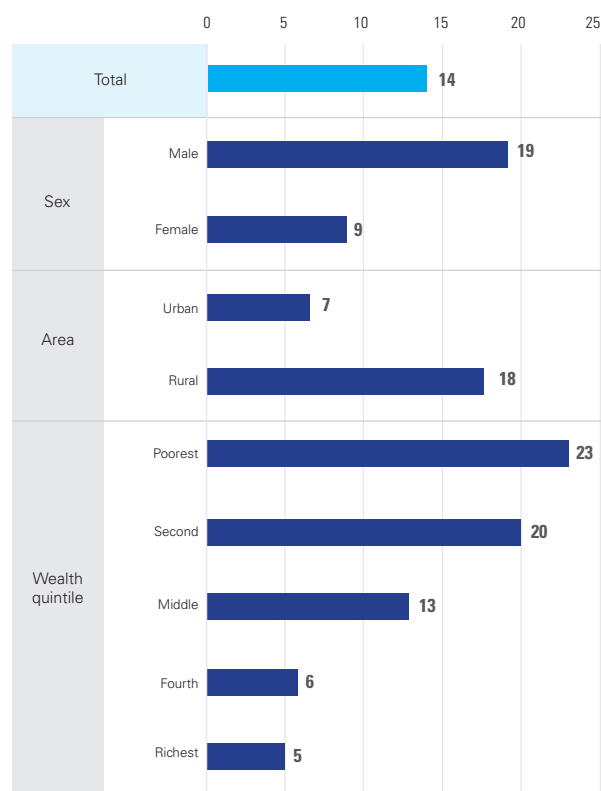
- Nationally, less than 3 percent of children who are primary school age are out of school at the primary level.
- Wealth inequity plays a big role. Only 1 percent of children from the richest wealth quintile are out of school in the primary level, while 5 percent of children from the poorest wealth quintile are out of school at the primary level. These figures increase to 11 percent for the richest wealth quintile and 59 percent for the poorest wealth quintile in upper secondary.
- When comparing the national average, children from the poorest wealth quintile have higher out-of-school rates at all levels. For the primary level, urban and rural out-of-school share are similar to the national average. However, this gap increases in lower and upper secondary, with higher shares in the rural areas.
- In total, about 8 302 children are out of school when they should be attending primary school, and 18 569 children are out of school when they should be attending lower secondary.
- The number of out-of-school children increases at the upper secondary level, with 31 068 children not attending school.

## Out-of-school children by the level of education

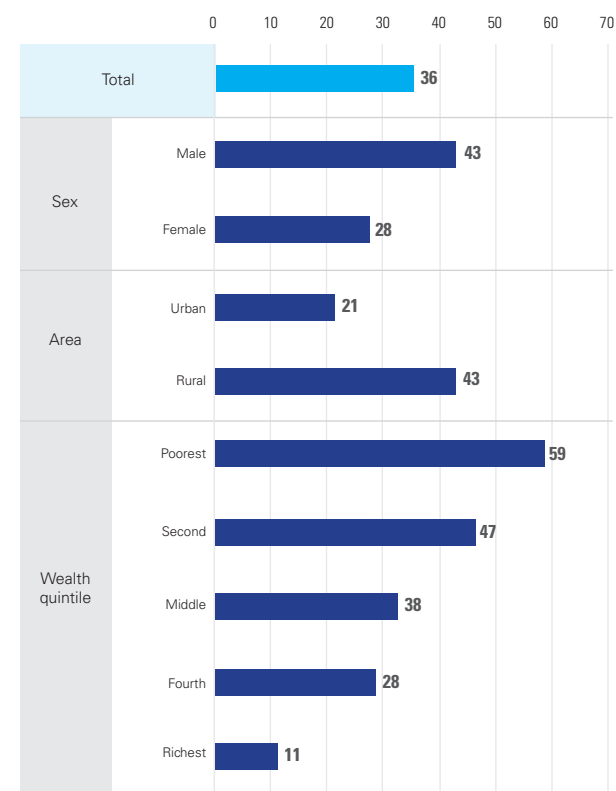
**FIGURE 55** Primary out-of-school rates



**FIGURE 56** Lower secondary out-of-school rates



**FIGURE 57** Upper secondary out-of-school rates



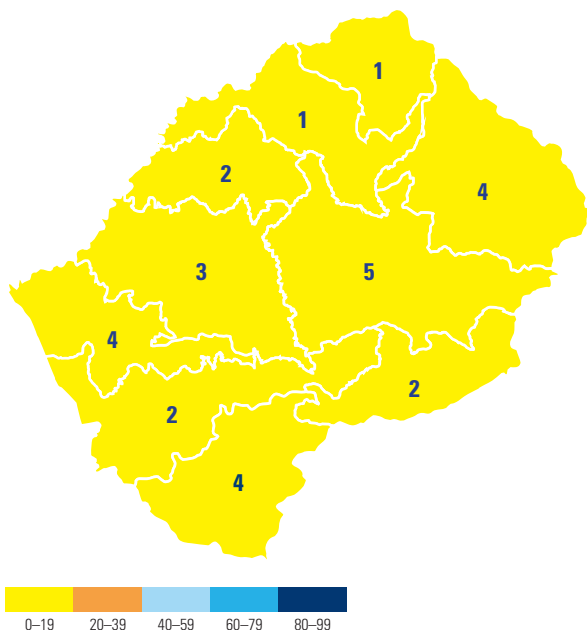
### Findings

- At the primary level, nearly 3 percent of children are out of school. Children from some groups have higher shares than others. For example, children from the poorest wealth quintile have a much higher share compared to their peers across all levels.
- At the lower secondary level, nearly 14 percent of children are out of school. For children who should be attending lower secondary education, the out-of-school rate for males is higher than for females, and the rate for rural areas is higher than for urban areas. The wealth disparity also increases with the share of out-of-school children from the poorest wealth quintile being two times higher than the national average.
- At the upper secondary level, the share of out-of-school children increases to nearly 36 percent. There is a higher share of boys who are out of school than girls, and the rate of out-of-school children from rural areas are two times higher than that of urban areas.

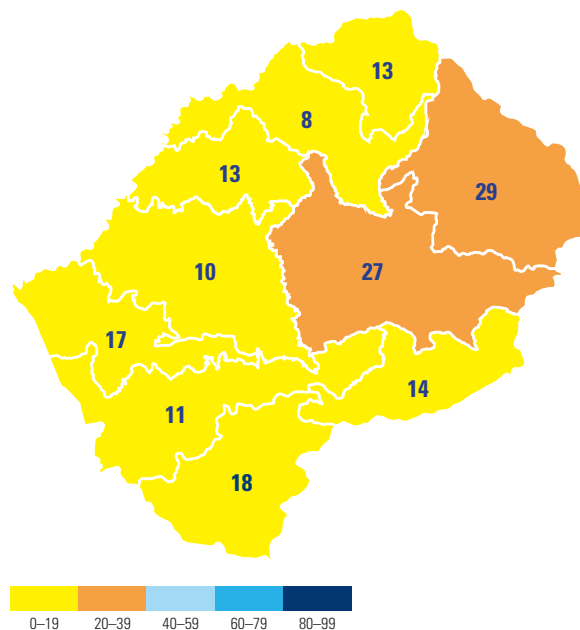


## Disaggregation by district – out-of-school rates

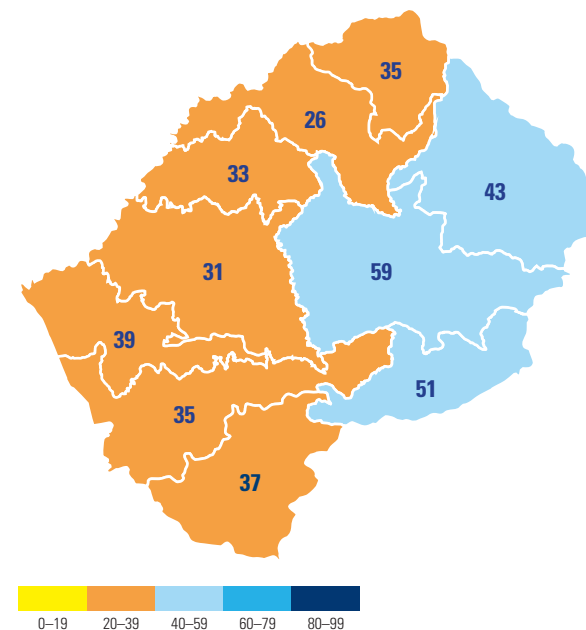
**FIGURE 58** Primary out-of-school rates



**FIGURE 59** Lower secondary out-of-school rates



**FIGURE 60** Upper secondary out-of-school rates



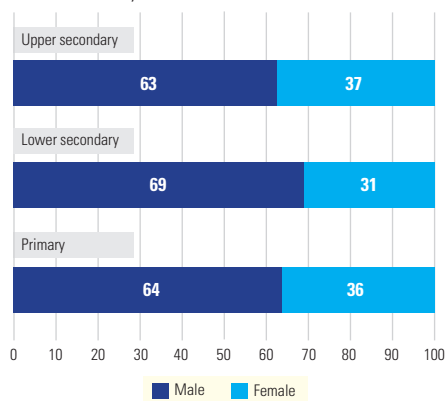
### Findings

- Most children are in school in the primary level, however, the rate of out-of-school children increases in the lower and upper secondary levels.
- Across all levels of education, the out-of-school rate is comparatively higher in the eastern districts.
- In lower secondary, most districts have an out of school rate of around 10 to 15 percent, but Thaba-Tseka and Mokhotlong's rates are almost double at 27 and 29 percent, respectively.
- In Thaba-Tseka, the out-of-school rate increases from 5 percent in the primary level to 59 percent in the upper secondary level.
- In Leribe and Butha-Buthe, the out-of-school rate increases from 1 percent in the primary level to 26 percent and 35 percent in the upper secondary level, respectively.

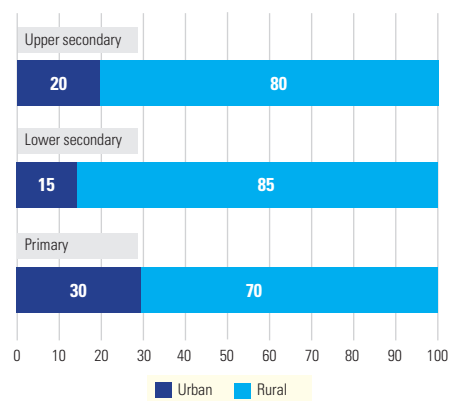


## Profiles of out-of-school children

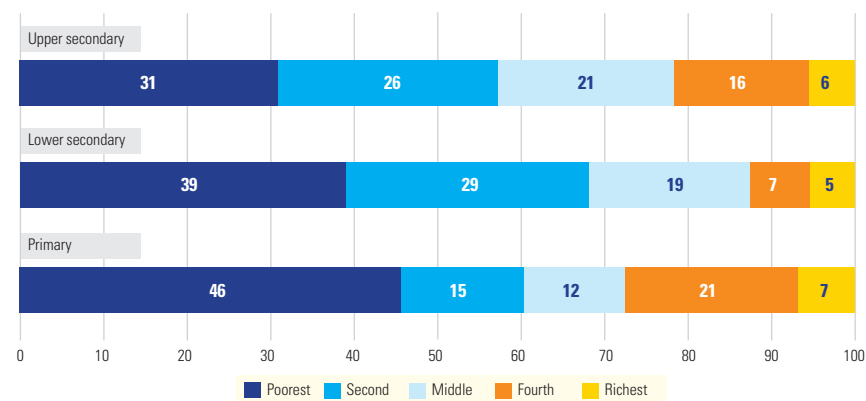
**FIGURE 61** Profiling of out-of-school children, by sex



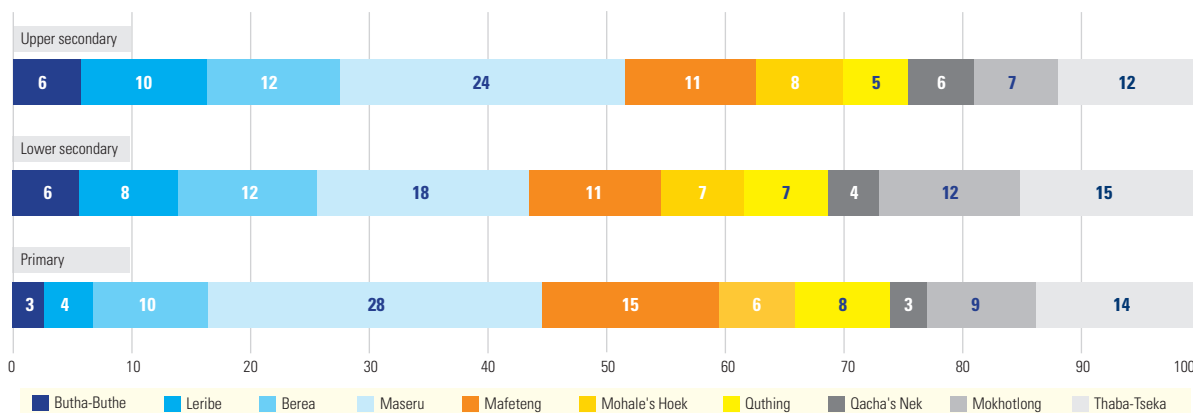
**FIGURE 62** Profiling of out-of-school children, by area



**FIGURE 63** Profiling of out-of-school children, by wealth quintile



**FIGURE 64** Profiling of out-of-school children, by district



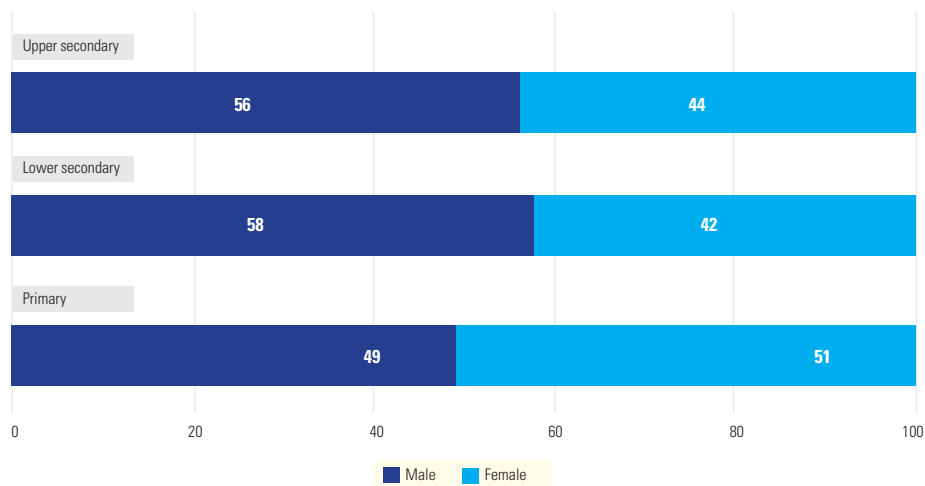
### Findings

- This profiling is based on the share of out-of-school children for each level of education: 3 percent in the primary level, 14 percent in the lower secondary level, and 36 percent in the upper secondary level.
- The majority of out-of-school children are males for all the levels. The share of out-of-school females is similar for all levels.
- There are more out-of-school children in rural areas than in urban areas for all the levels. Moreover, the number of out-of-school children in urban decreases with each level of education.
- Despite making up approximately 40 percent of the population, children in the two poorest wealth quintiles comprise the majority of out-of-school children at all levels. Of the out-of-school children in the primary level, 46 percent are from the poorest wealth quintile.
- Maseru is overrepresented at all levels of education for having the most out-of-school children but its relative share declines in upper secondary where other ethnic groups become more overrepresented. This is not because of the decline in out-of-school rates in Maseru, but rather because of the relative changes in the composition of out-of-school children from different ethnic groups.

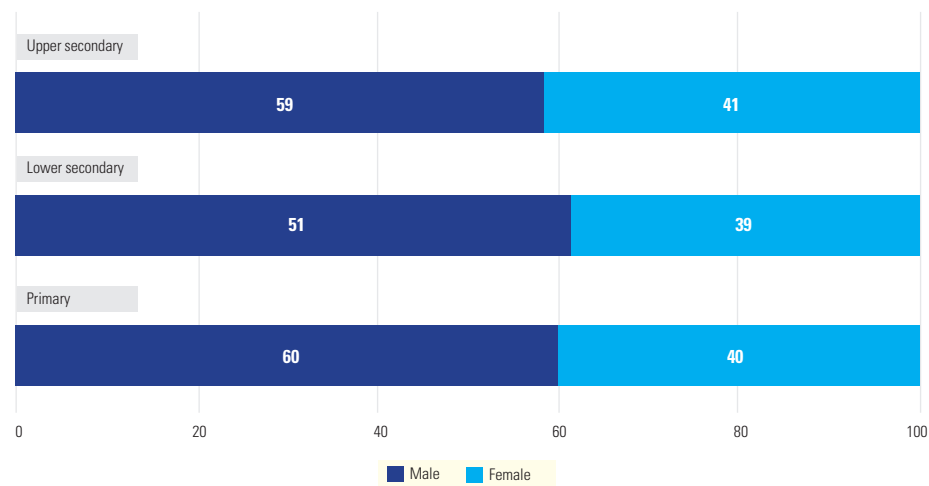


## Profiling by ecological regions/zones

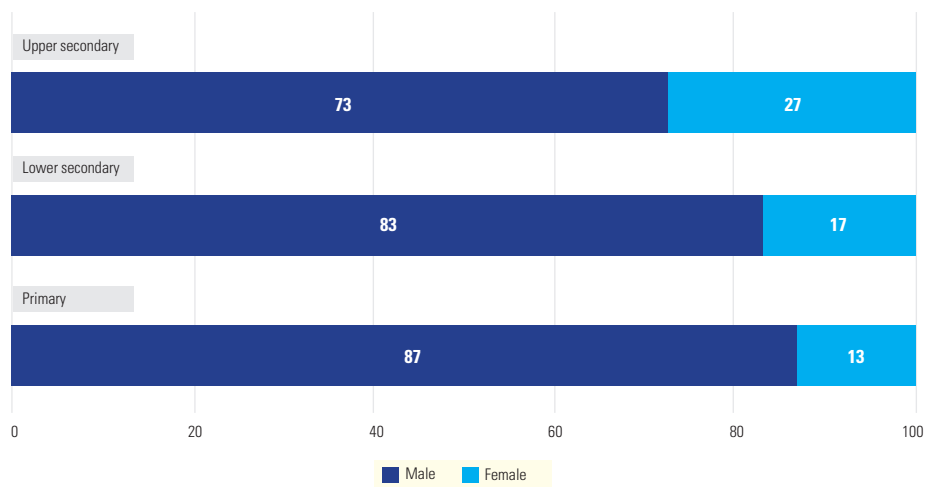
**FIGURE 65** Gender profiling of children out of school in the Lowlands region/zone



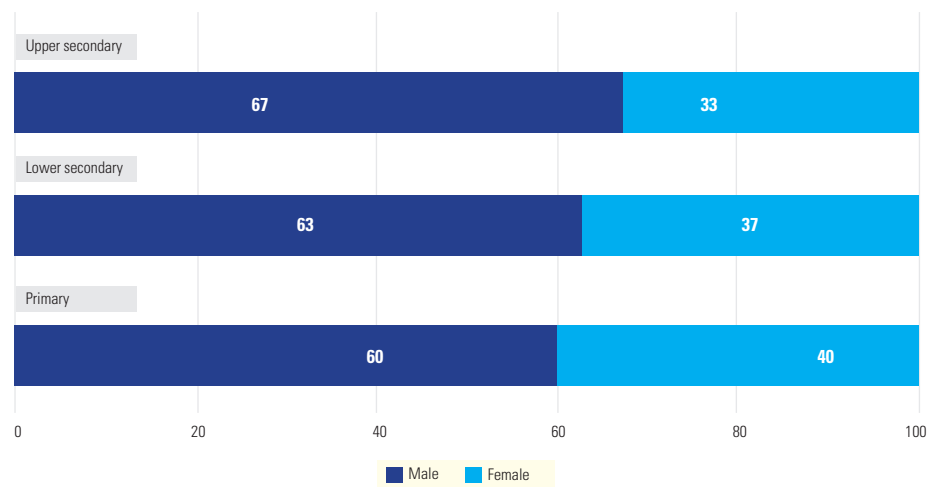
**FIGURE 66** Gender profiling of children out of school in the Foothills region/zone



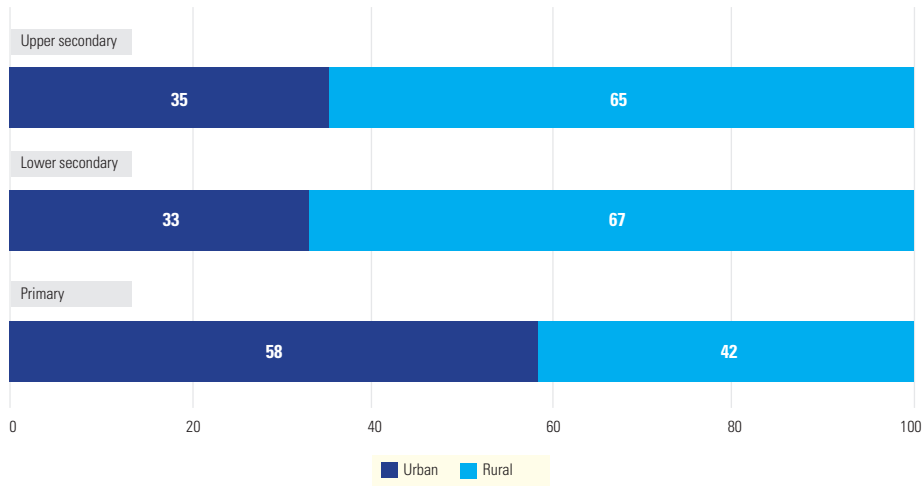
**FIGURE 67** Gender profiling of children out of school in the Mountain region/zone



**FIGURE 68** Gender profiling of children out of school in the Senqu Valley River region/zone



**FIGURE 69** Area profiling of children out of school in the Lowlands region/zone

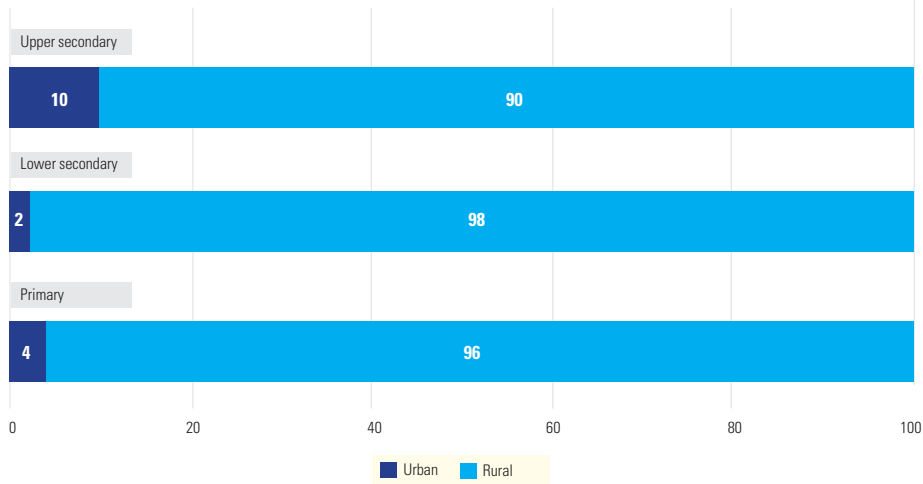


**Findings**

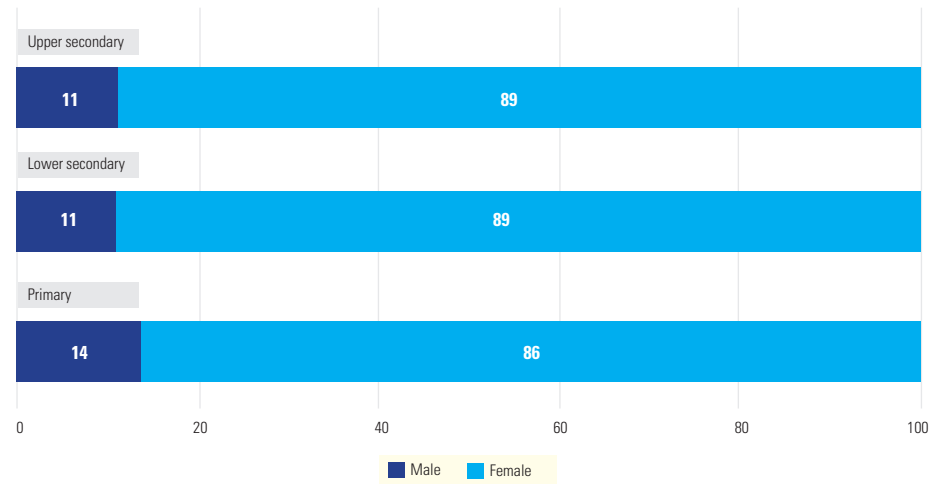
- Males are over-represented among out-of-school children in all regions/zones and across all levels of education. The only exception is the primary level in the Lowlands region/zone, where there are slightly more out-of-school females.
- Children from rural areas are over-represented among out-of-school children, particularly in the Highlands (Mountains) and Senqu River Valley regions/zones.
- In the Foothills, Highlands (Mountains) and Senqu River Valley regions/zones, the poorest two wealth quintiles make up the majority of out-of-school children.



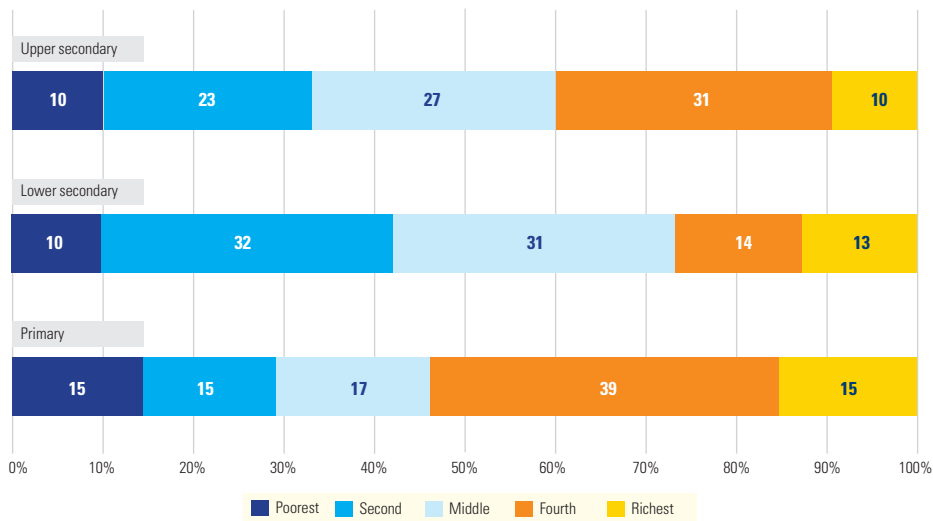
**FIGURE 70** Area profiling of children out of school in the Mountain region/zone



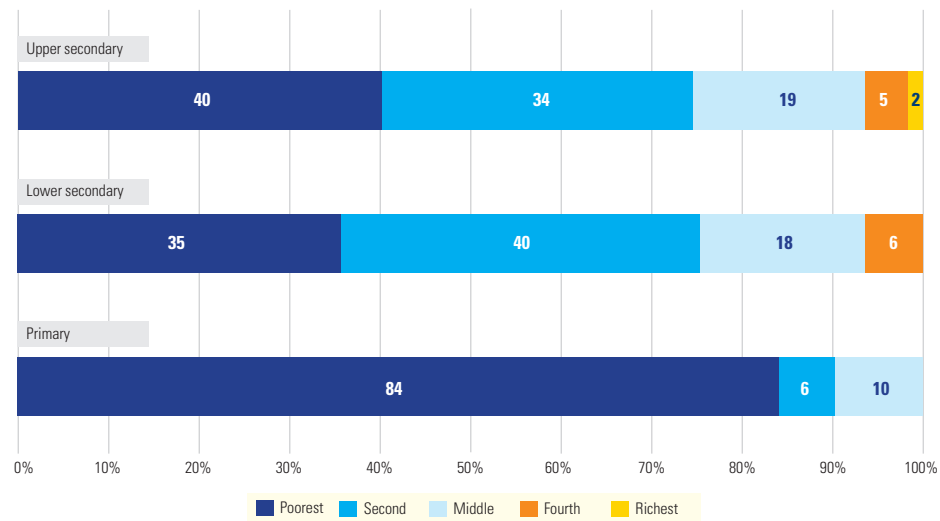
**FIGURE 71** Area profiling of children out of school in the Senqu Valley River region/zone



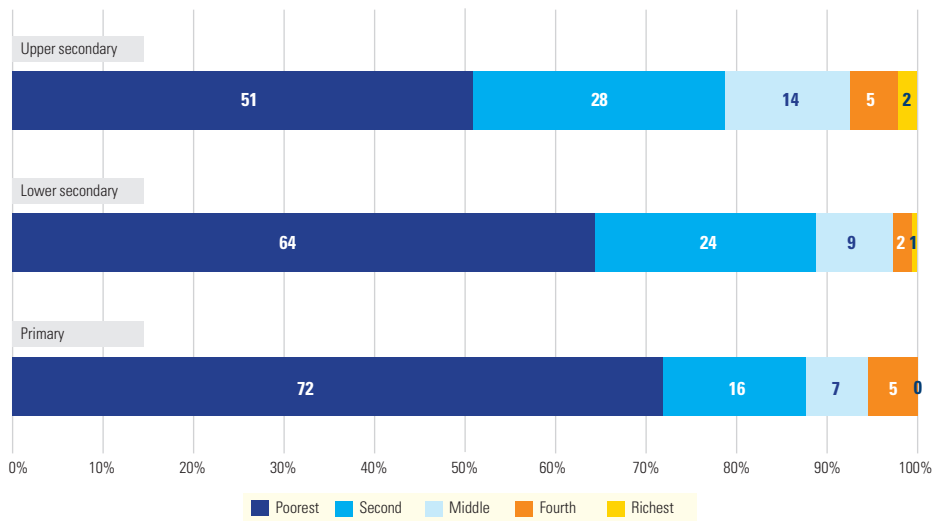
**FIGURE 72** Wealth profile of OOSC in Lowlands



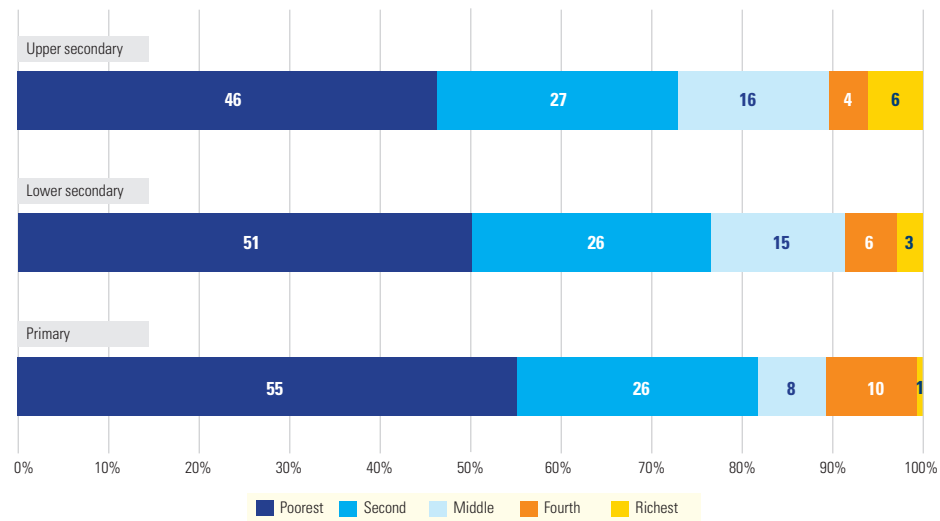
**FIGURE 73** Wealth profile of OOSC in Foothills



**FIGURE 74** Wealth profile of OOSC in Highlands (Mountains)



**FIGURE 75** Wealth profile of OOSC in Senqu River Valley





**TABLE 2: Out-of-school rates and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics**

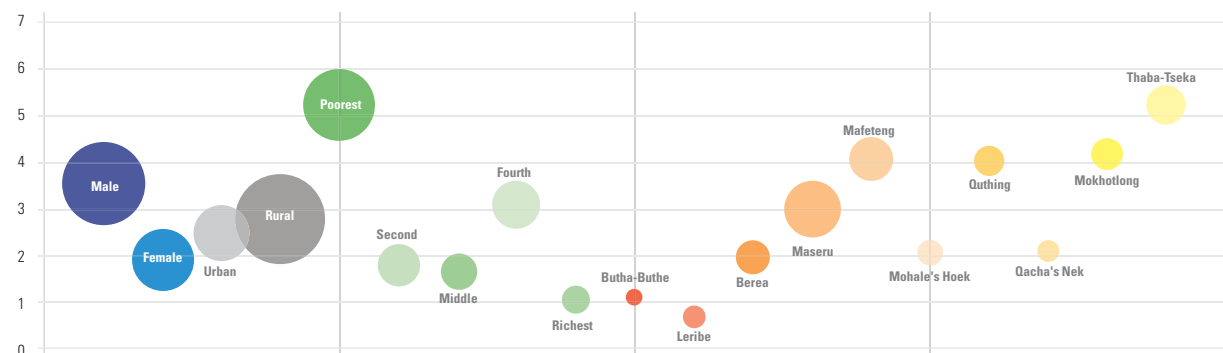
		Out-of-school rates (%) (children aged 7 – 14 not learning)			Headcount* (out-of-school children)		
		Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary
<b>Total</b>		<b>3</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>8 500</b>	<b>17 600</b>	<b>28 800</b>
<b>Sex</b>	Male	4	19	43	5 500	12 100	18 100
	Female	2	9	28	3 100	5 500	10 600
<b>Area</b>	Urban	3	7	21	2 500	2 600	5 500
	Rural	3	18	43	6 000	15 100	23 200
<b>Wealth quintile</b>	Poorest	5	23	59	3 900	6 800	9 000
	Second	2	20	47	1 300	5 100	7 600
	Middle	2	13	33	1 000	3 300	5 900
	Fourth	3	6	28	1 800	1 300	4 600
	Richest	1	5	11	600	1 000	1 600
<b>District</b>	Butha-Buthe	1	13	35	200	1 000	1 700
	Leribe	1	8	26	400	1 500	3 000
	Berea	2	13	33	800	2 100	3 300
	Maseru	3	10	31	2 400	3 100	6 700
	Mafeteng	4	17	39	1 300	1 900	3 200
	Mohale's Hoek	2	11	35	500	1 200	2 200
	Quthing	4	18	37	700	1 200	1 500
	Quacha's Nek	2	14	51	300	800	1 700
	Mokhotlong	4	29	43	800	2 100	2 000
	Thaba-Tseka	5	27	59	1 200	2 700	3 400

\* Headcount based on population data shared by CO.

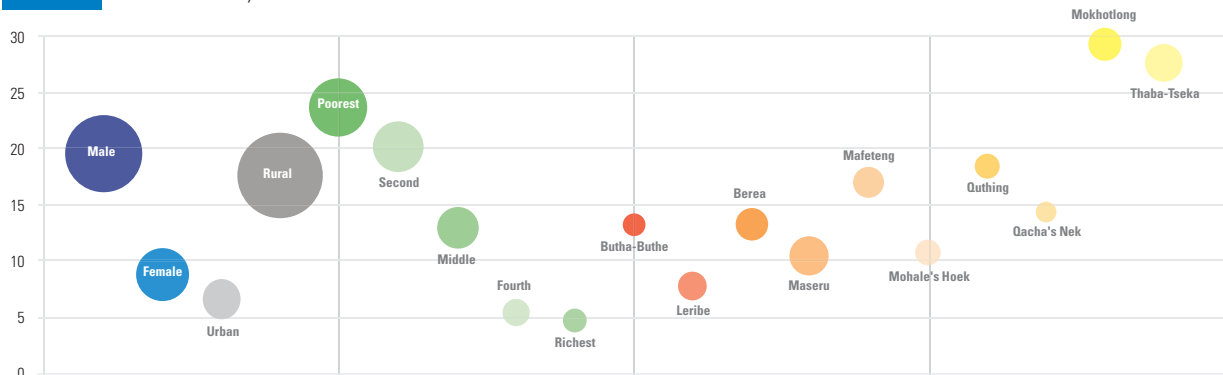
## Out-of-school rates and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics

Please note: The data range for the three graphs differ significantly, therefore the scale for these graphs are different.

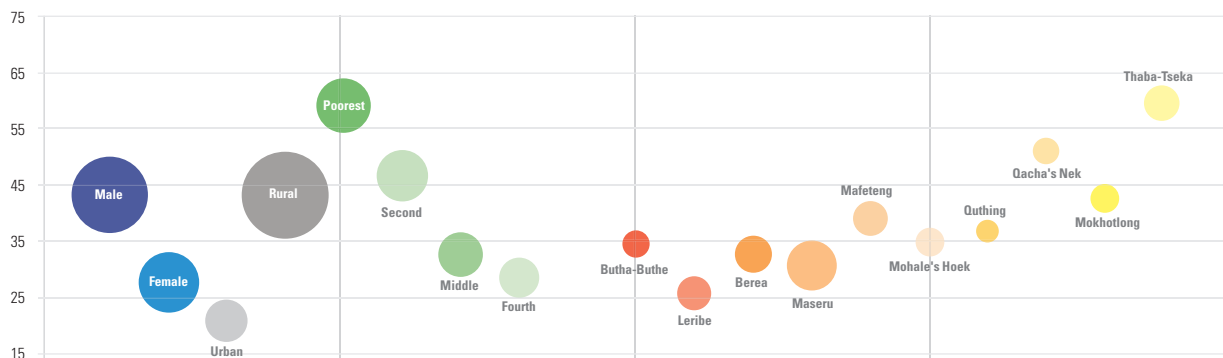
**FIGURE 76** Primary out-of-school rates and headcounts



**FIGURE 77** Lower secondary out-of-school rates and headcounts



**FIGURE 78** Upper secondary out-of-school rates and headcounts



### Findings

- These charts show the trade-off between shares and population size. The height of the bubble represents the share of out-of-school children at each level. The higher the bubble, the larger the share. Population size is represented by the size of the bubble.

### Across all three levels

- Rural areas have a higher headcount and share of out-of-school children than urban areas for all three levels.
- Out-of-school rates and headcounts are higher for males when compared to females.
- Out-of-school rates differ along socioeconomic lines. Although the poorest wealth quintile comprises 20 percent of the population, the headcount and share of out-of-school children is larger at all three levels when compared to out-of-school headcounts and shares of other wealth quintiles.

### Primary level

- Thaba-Tseka has the highest share of out-of-school children. However, Maseru has the highest headcount of out-of-school children. This is because Maseru has a higher population of children who fall within the primary level age group where lower shares translate to higher numbers.

### Lower secondary level

- Mohale's Hoek and Thaba-Tseka both have high shares and headcounts of out-of-school children.

### Upper secondary level

- Thaba-Tseka has the highest share of out-of-school children. However, Maseru has the highest headcount of out-of-school children at this level.



## What is Early Child Development Index (ECDI)?

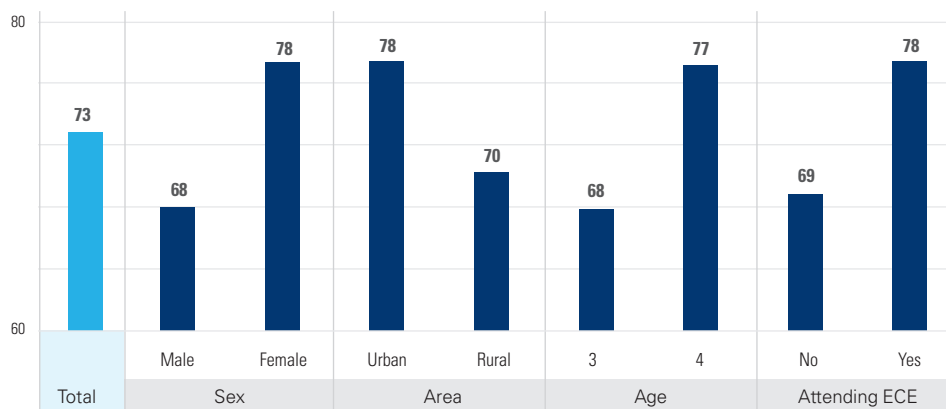
ECDI is a 10-item module which UNICEF developed to measure the percentage of children aged 3-4 who are developmentally on track in literacy-numeracy, physical, social-emotional, and learning domains.

### Guiding questions

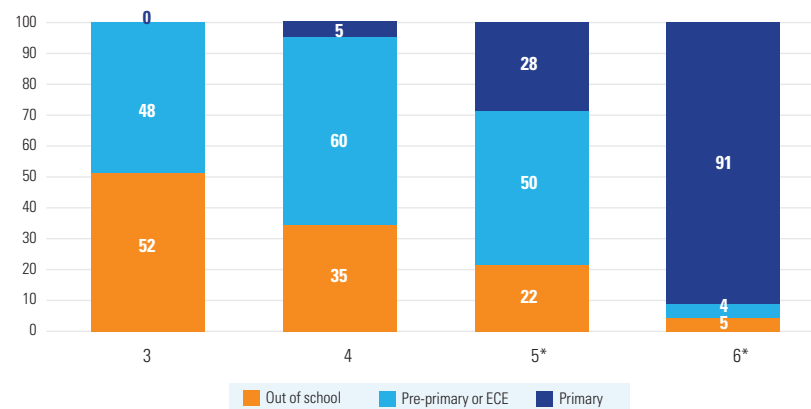
- 1 Which children are developmentally on track (measured by the Early Childhood Development Index (ECDI))?
- 2 Which level(s) of education do young children attend?
- 3 Do children attend Grade 1 at the right age?
- 4 What is the profile of children not attending early childhood education (ECE)?
- 5 What is the profile of children not developmentally on track (measured by ECDI)?

## Overview

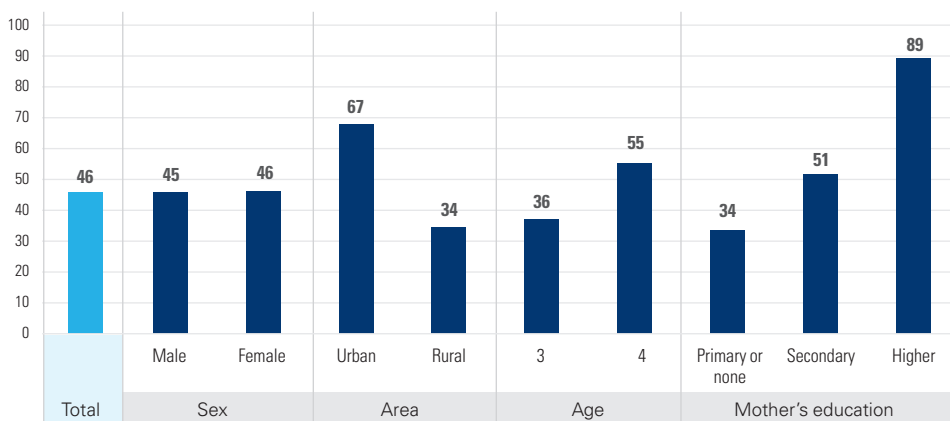
**FIGURE 79** Share of 3 to 4-year-olds who are developmentally on track using ECDI



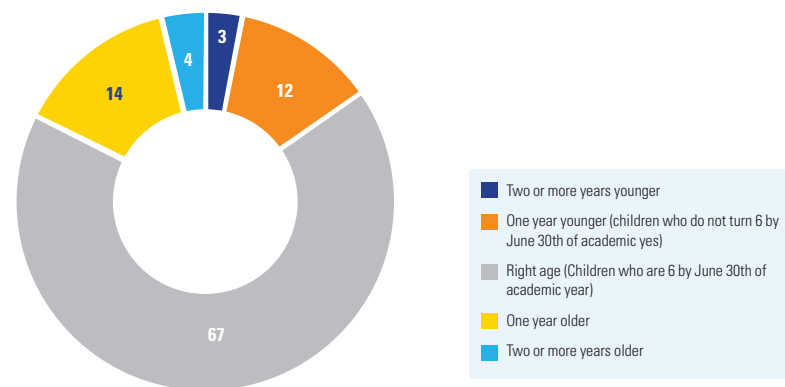
**FIGURE 80** Levels of education attended by age (%)



**FIGURE 81** Percentage of children aged 3 to 4 attending early childhood education



**FIGURE 82** Age distribution at Grade 1 of primary education



\* Children who are 5 but turn 6 before June 30th of the academic year are allowed to enter Primary Grade 1. Therefore, 5 year olds here are those who do not turn 6 by June 30, and age 6 includes those whose age at the beginning of school year was 5 but they turn 6 by June 30th.

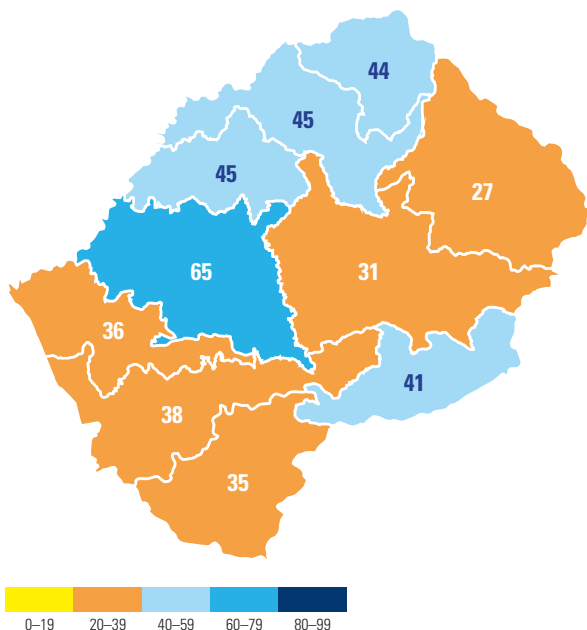
## Findings

- Based on the Early Childhood Development Index (ECDI), around 73 percent of 3 to 4-year-olds are developmentally on track.
- The share of children who are developmentally on track is higher for girls and urban children.
- The share of children attending ECE who are developmentally on track is about 10 percentage points higher than that of children not attending ECE. This is important because approximately 50 percent of 3 to 4-year-olds attend ECE nationwide.
- Gender parity exists in ECE attendance for 3 to 4-year-olds. ECE attendance is higher among urban children and 4-year-olds.
- ECE attendance is high (89 percent) for children whose mothers attended higher education, while it is only 34 percent for children whose mothers attended some primary or who have no education.
- The share of children attending ECE increases as children get older. While only 34 percent of 3-year-olds are in ECE, this percentage increases to 55 percent for 4-year-olds.
- The official starting age for primary in Lesotho is 6-years-old, and 93 percent of 6-year-olds attend primary. However, Lesotho allows 5-year-olds to join Grade 1 if they turn 6 by June 30th of the academic year. Therefore, the calculations here include those who turn 6 by June 30th as '6-year-olds'.
- Younger children, however, also attend primary. 5 percent 4-year-olds and 28 percent 5-year-olds (who do not turn 6 by June 30th) also attend primary.
- In Grade 1, the majority of children are at the official starting age. However, 33 percent of the children are not the right age with 14 percent being a year older and 12 percent being a year younger.

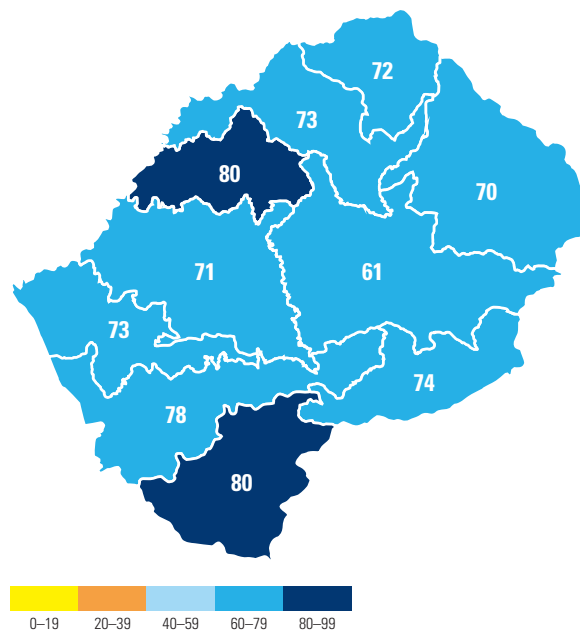


## Regional disaggregation

**FIGURE 83** Share of children aged 3 to 4 attending early childhood education by district



**FIGURE 84** Share of children aged 3 to 4 who are developmentally on track by district



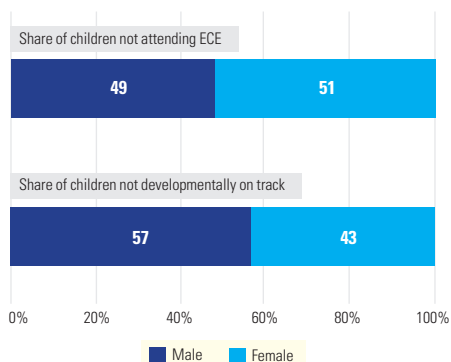
### Findings

- ECE attendance is particularly high in Maseru, followed by Berea. There is, however, a 20 percentage point difference in ECE attendance between the two districts in favour of Maseru.
- Mokhotlong has the lowest ECE attendance, less than half of Maseru's ECE attendance.
- Despite the difference in ECE attendance – which is the share of children who are developmentally on track on the ECDI in Mokhotlong is at 70 percent, which is on par with Maseru.
- The highest shares of children who are developmentally on track are in Berea and Quthing.

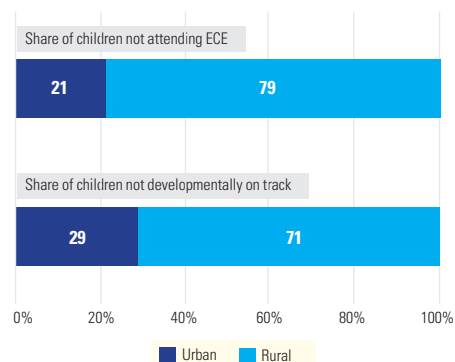


## Profile of children not developmentally on track or not attending ECE

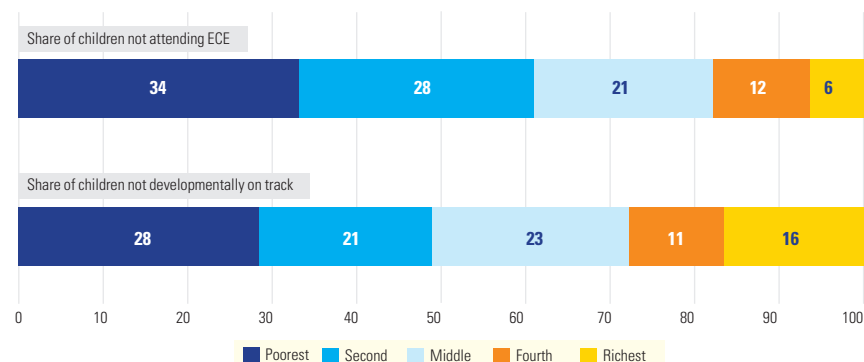
**FIGURE 85** Profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track, by sex



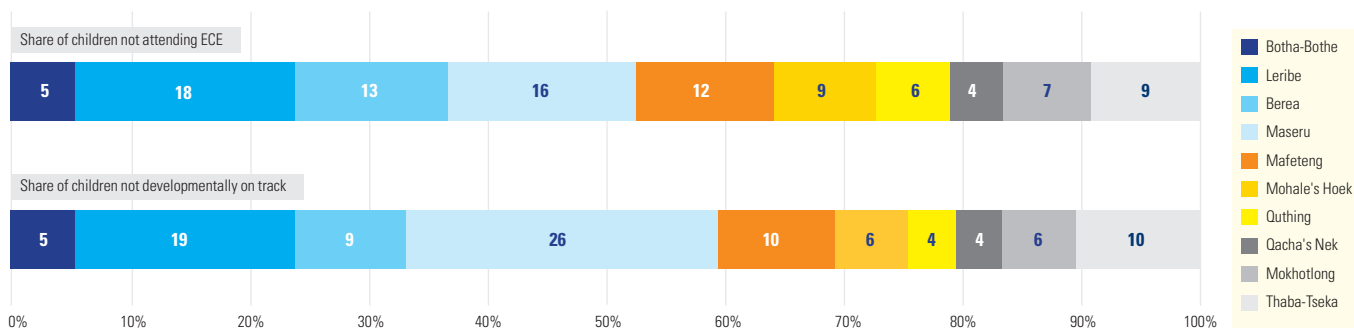
**FIGURE 86** Profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track, by area



**FIGURE 87** Profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track, by wealth quintile



**FIGURE 88** Profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track, by district



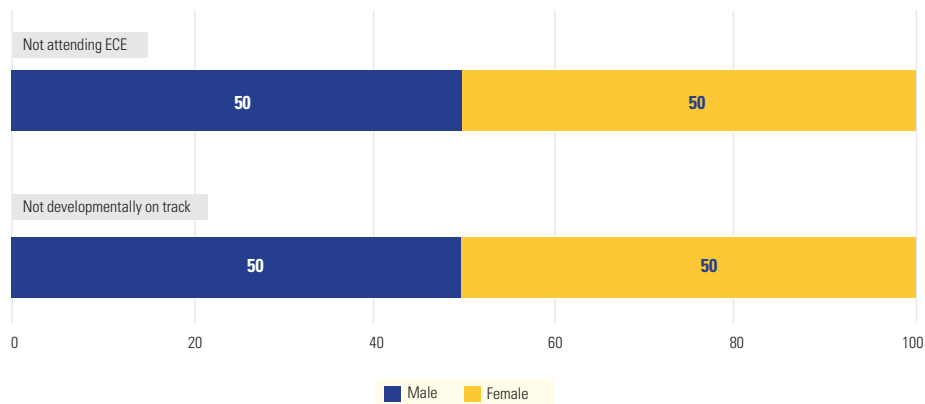
### Findings

- The profiles of children who are not learning provide information on 7 to 14-year-olds who are not learning according to the foundational learning module in MICS6. The information in these charts shows the profiling of the (a) 56 percent of 7 to 14-year olds who are not learning in reading, and (b) 87 percent of 7 to 14-year olds who are not learning in numeracy.
- Among those, who do not have foundational reading and numeracy skills, boys are more prevalent than girls.
- Most children who are not learning are from rural areas and from the poorest wealth quintiles. 47 percent of those who do not have foundational numeracy skills and 54 percent of those who do not have foundational reading skills come from the bottom two-fifths of the country's wealth distribution.
- Children from Mohale's Hoek are the most represented among those who do not have foundational reading or numeracy skills.

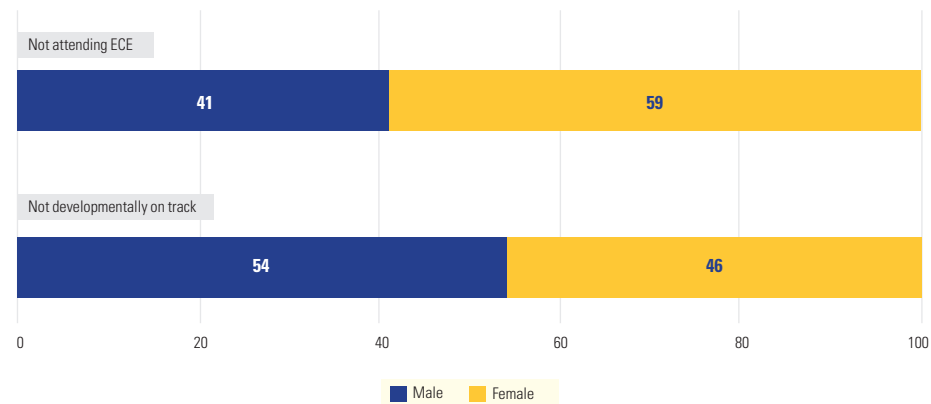


## Profiling by ecological zones

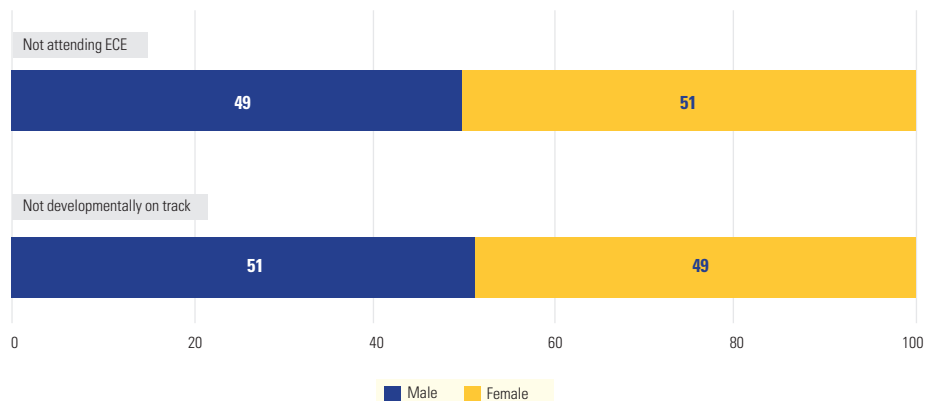
**FIGURE 89** Gender profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track in Lowland



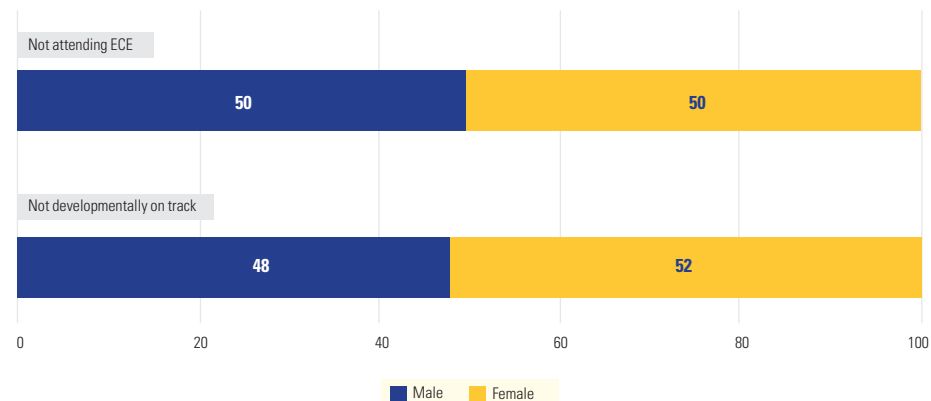
**FIGURE 90** Gender profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track in Foothills



**FIGURE 91** Gender profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track in Mountains

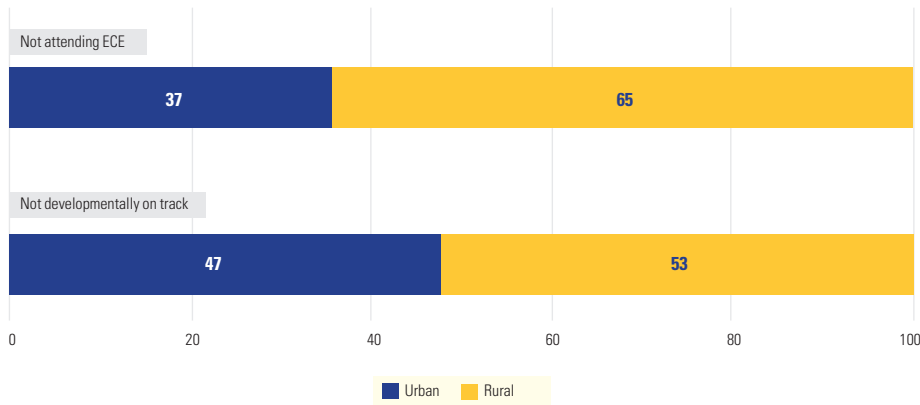


**FIGURE 92** Gender profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track in Senqu River Valley

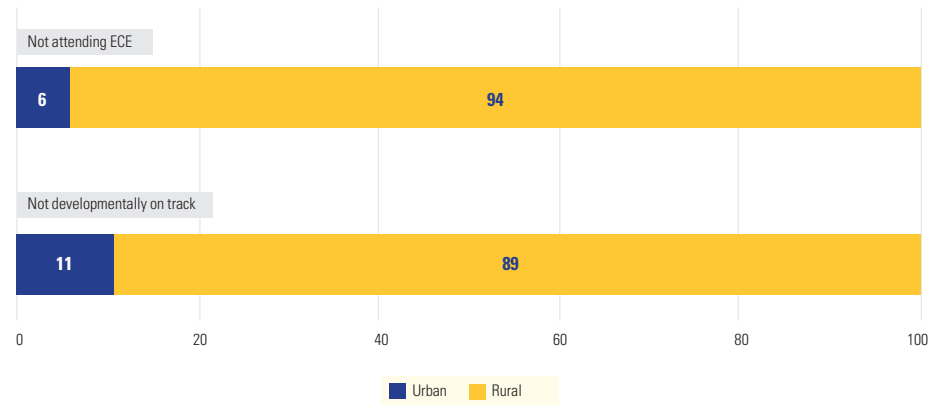




**FIGURE 93** Area profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track in Lowland



**FIGURE 94** Gender profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track in Mountains

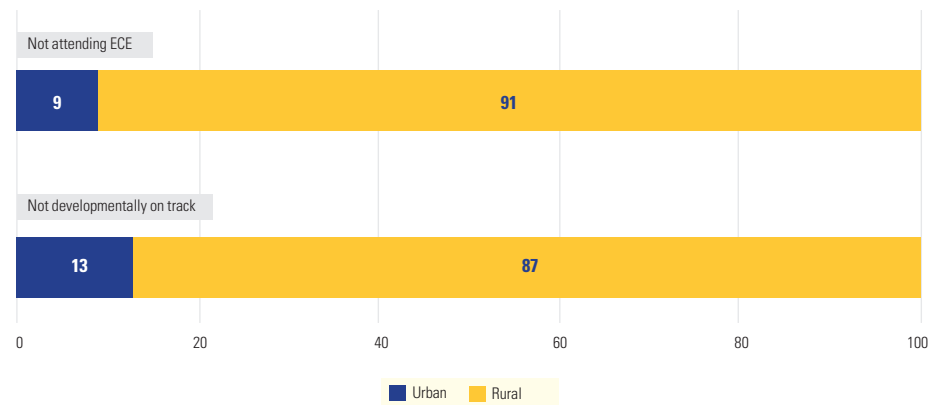


### Findings

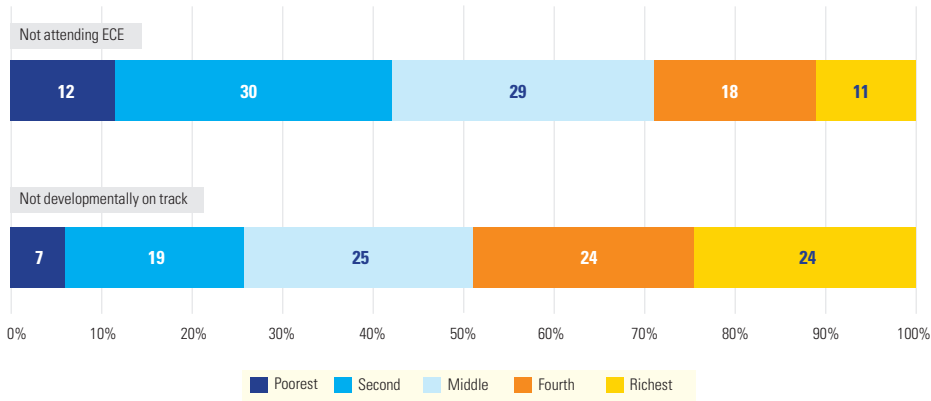
- In the Foothills region/zone, more girls than boys under 5 do not attend ECE, whereas more boys than girls are not developmentally on track.
- Children from rural areas are over-represented in all regions/zones among both children who are not developmentally on track and children who are not attending ECE.
- In the Highlands (Mountain) region/zone, there are more children from the poorest wealth quintile than from other wealth quintiles who are not attending ECE. This trend is opposite to what is seen in the Lowlands region/zone.



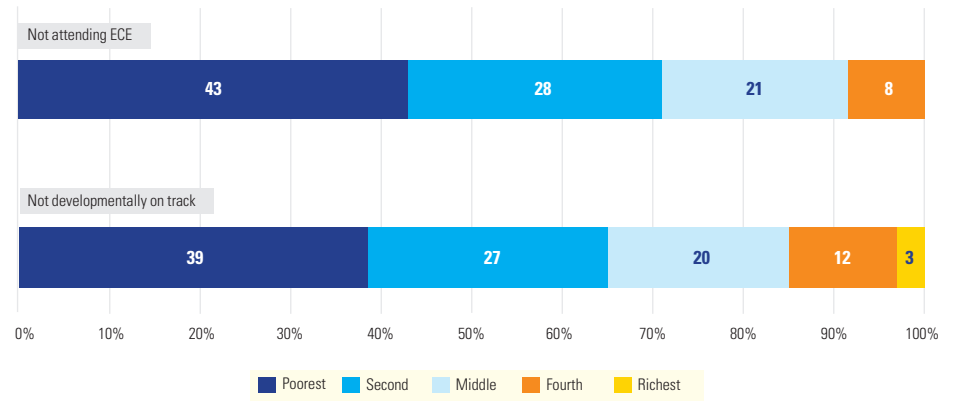
**FIGURE 95** Gender profiling of young children aged 3 to 4 not attending ECE or not developmentally on track in Senqu River Valley



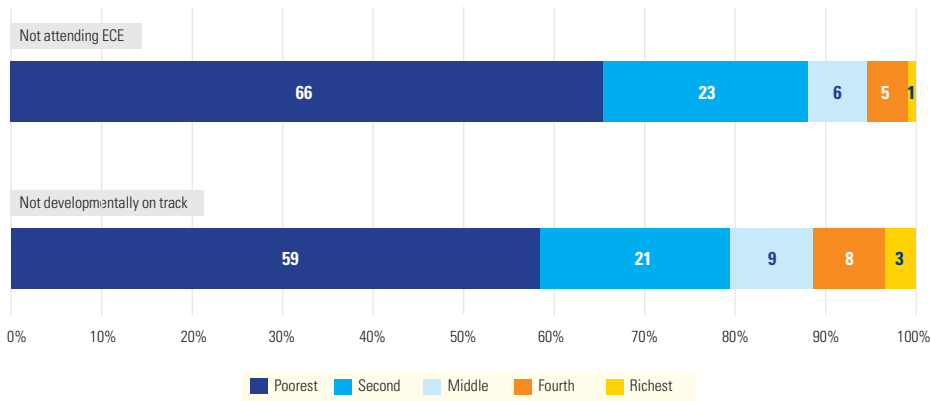
**FIGURE 96** Wealth profiling of children not on track on ECDI and not attending ECE in the Lowlands region/zone



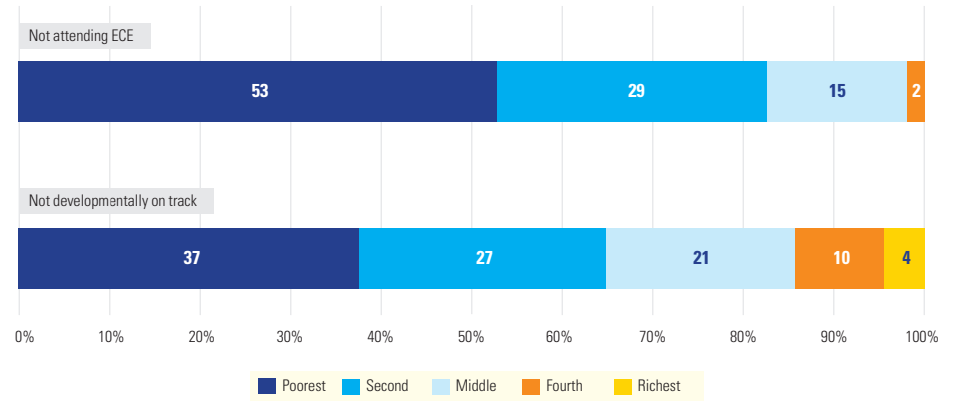
**FIGURE 97** Wealth profiling of children not on track on ECDI and not attending ECE in the Foothills region/zone



**FIGURE 98** Wealth profiling of children not on track on ECDI and not attending ECE in the Highlands (Mountains) region/zone



**FIGURE 99** Wealth profiling of children not on track on ECDI and not attending ECE in the Senqu River Valley region/zone



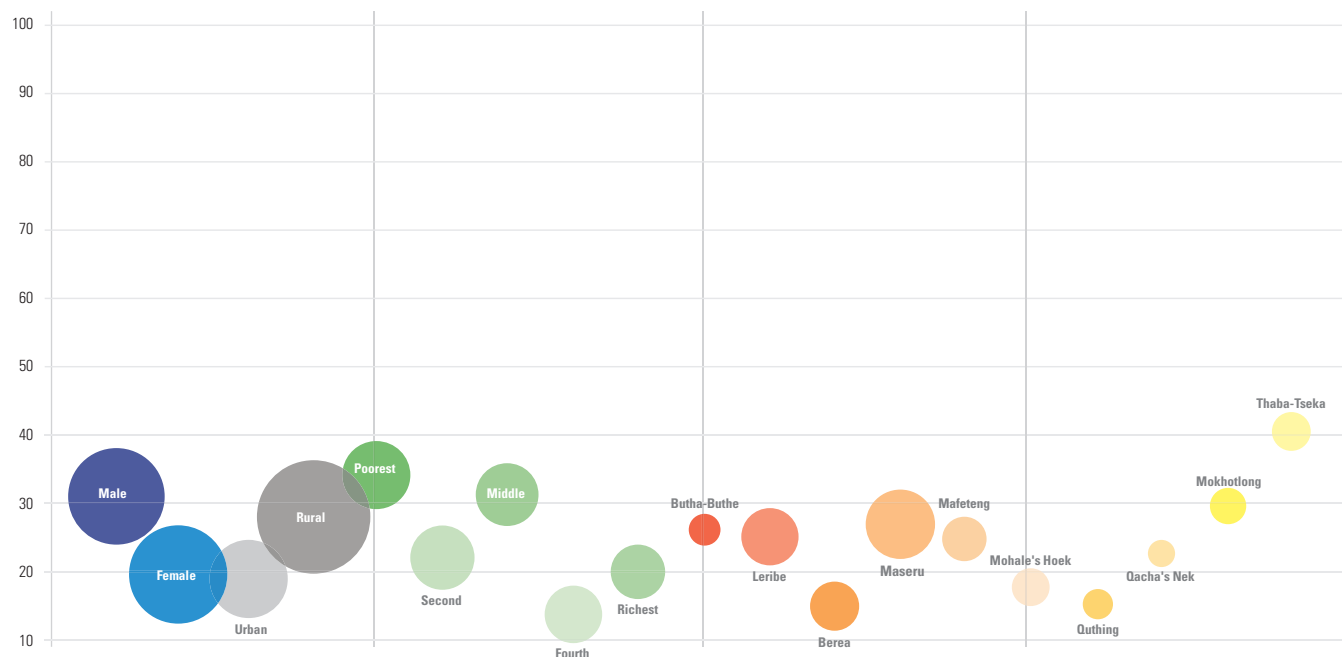
**TABLE 3: Early learning – Shares and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics**

		Shares (%) (children aged 3 – 4)		Headcount* (children)	
		Not on track on ECDI	Not attending ECE	Not on track on ECDI	Not attending ECE
	<b>Total</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>137 400</b>	<b>46 500</b>
<b>Sex</b>	Male	32	55	70 000	22 600
	Female	22	54	67 400	23 900
<b>Area</b>	Urban	22	33	43 800	9 900
	Rural	30	66	93 700	36 600
<b>Wealth quintile</b>	Poorest	34	80	32 500	15 500
	Second	25	69	29 100	13 000
	Middle	32	56	28 900	9 600
	Fourth	18	38	25 000	5 500
	Richest	24	17	21 900	2 900
<b>District</b>	Butha-Buthe	28	56	7 400	2 500
	Leribe	28	55	22 600	8 600
	Berea	20	55	17 000	6 000
	Maseru	29	35	35 300	7 300
	Mafeteng	27	64	14 000	5 400
	Mohale's Hoek	22	62	10 800	4 100
	Quthing	20	65	6 700	2 800
	Quacha's Nek	26	59	4 800	2 100
	Mokhotlong	30	73	7 800	3 400
	Thaba-Tseka	39	69	11 100	4 200

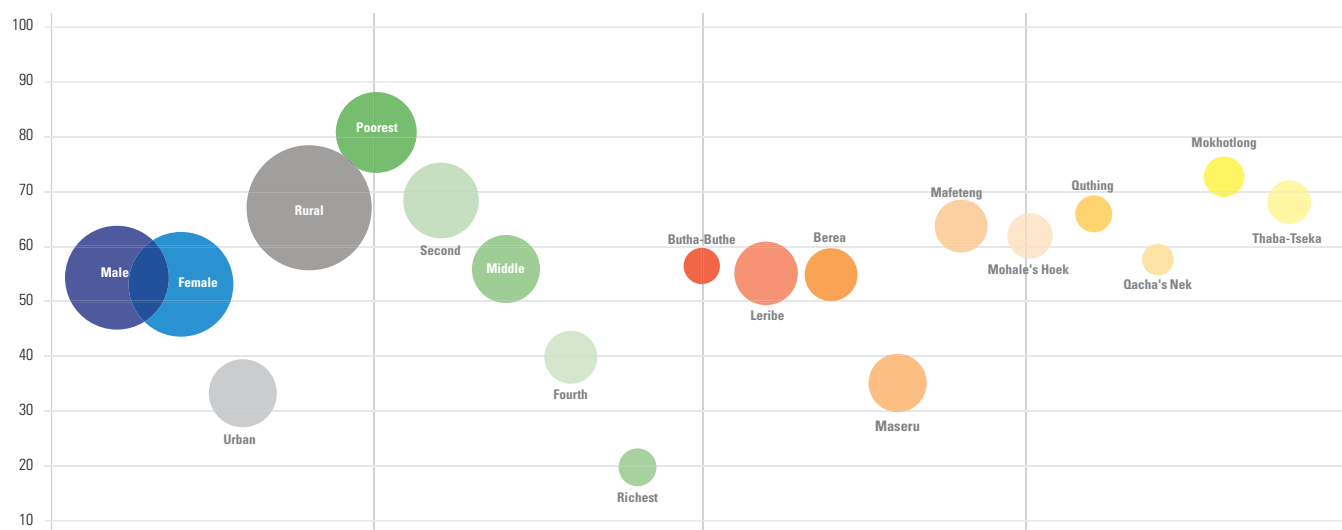
\*Headcounts based on population data shared by CO.

## Shares and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics

**FIGURE 100** Share and headcount of children who are not on track on ECDI



**FIGURE 101** Share and headcount of children who are not attending ECE



### Findings

- These charts show the trade-off between shares and population size. The height of the bubble represents the share of children who are not on track on ECDI (top) and who are not attending ECE (bottom), meaning the higher the bubble, the larger is the share. Population size is represented by the size of the bubble.
- For children not on track on the ECDI, the share for children from Thaba-Tseka is the highest. However, the headcount of children from Maseru is more. This is because it has a bigger population of 3 to 4-year-olds, which results in lower shares being translated to higher numbers than Thaba-Tseka.
- ECE attendance is along socio-economic lines with the share of children not attending ECE from the poorest wealth quintile almost 5 times higher than the share of children not attending ECE from the richest wealth quintile.
- The share of children who are not attending ECE is high for Mokhotlong and Thaba-Tseka, but the headcount of children who are not attending ECE is more for Leribe.





### What is repetition rate?

The repetition rate measures the share of children in a given grade in a given school year who repeated that grade as a percentage of total number of children who attended the grade in the previous year.

### What is dropout rate?

The dropout rate measures the proportion of children from a cohort attending a given grade in a given school year who are no longer attending school in the following year. It is worth clarifying that children who repeat are still considered to be

in school and are therefore not included in the calculation for dropout rate.

### Who is a non-transitioner?

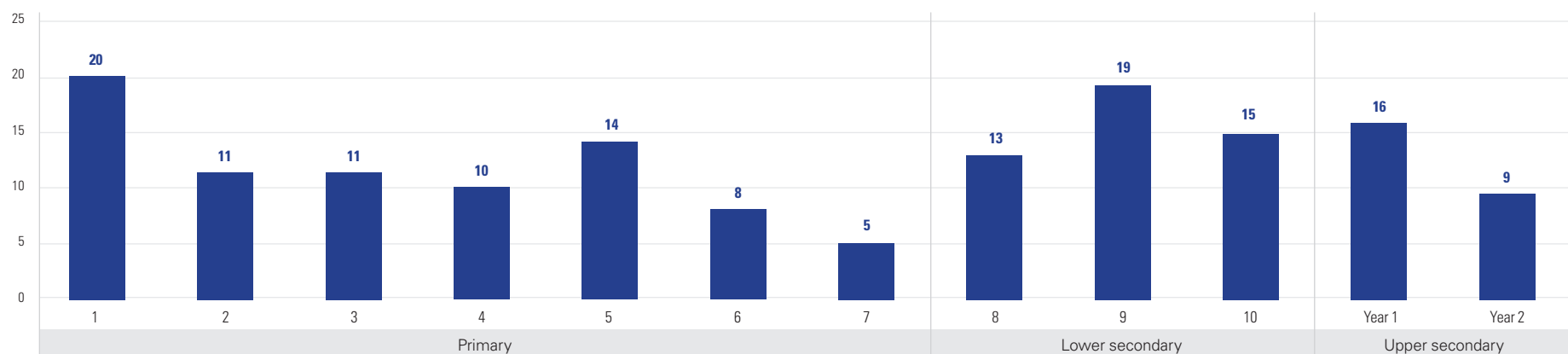
Non-transitioners refer to those children who attended the last grade of a level but did not continue to the next level.

#### Guiding questions

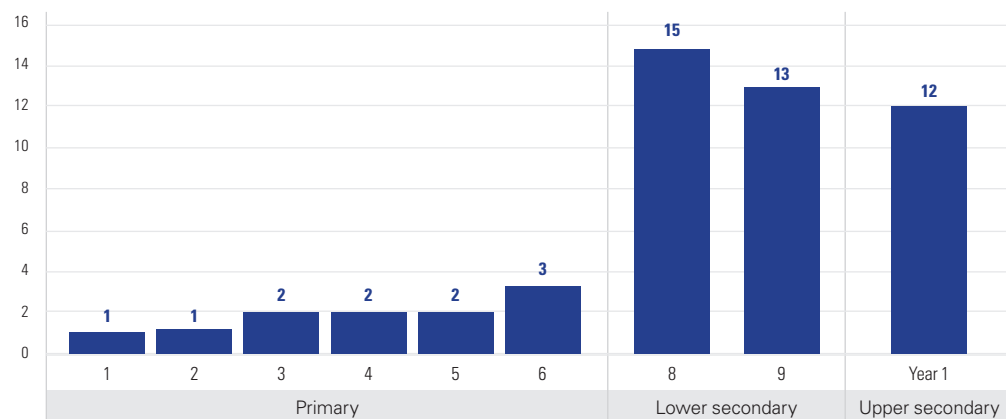
- 1 Which level or grade has the highest rates of repetition, dropouts and non-transitions?
- 2 What is the profile of children who repeat a grade?
- 3 What is the profile of children who drop out of school?
- 4 What is the profile of children who do not transition to the next level of education?

## Overview

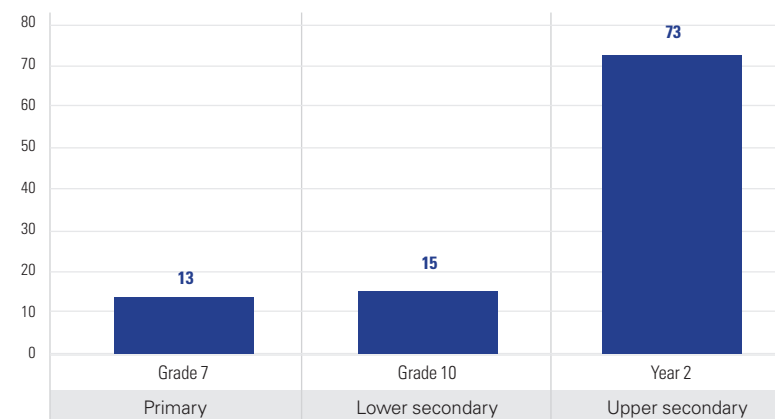
**FIGURE 102** Repetition by grade



**FIGURE 103** Dropout rate by grade

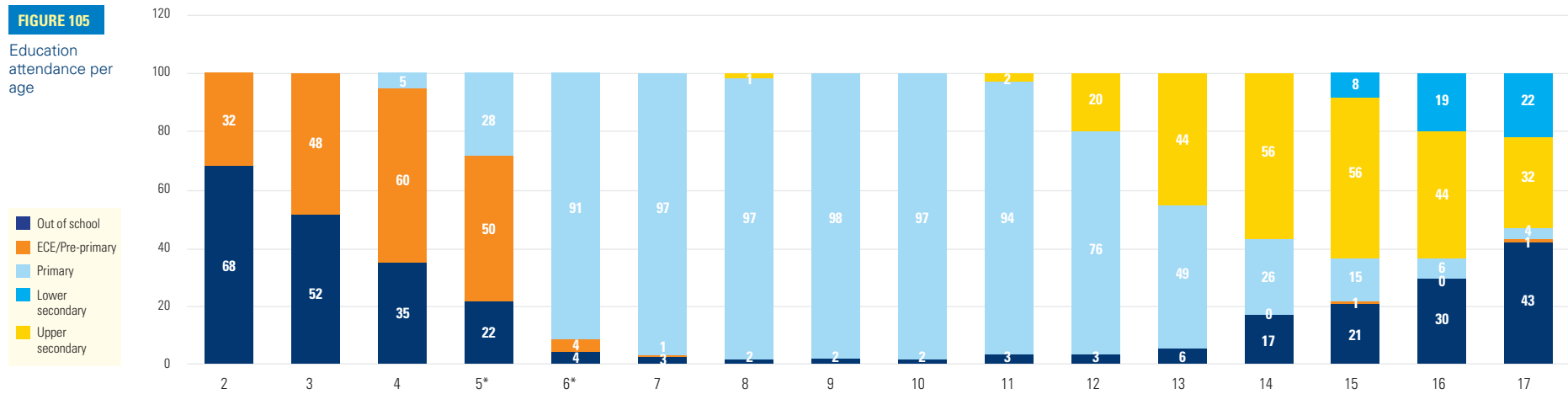


**FIGURE 104** Share of non-transitioners from the last grade of a level to a higher level



**FIGURE 105**

Education attendance per age



\*Children who are 5 but turn 6 before June 30th of the academic year are allowed to enter primary education. Therefore, 5-year-olds here are also those who do not turn 6 by June 30th, and age 6 includes those who are 5 at the beginning of the year but turn 6 by June 30th.

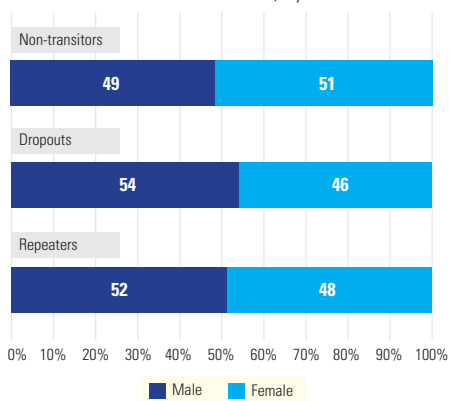
### Findings

- Repetition rates vary widely for each grade of primary and secondary education.
- Lesotho has a high repetition rate in the early grades of primary education. In Grade 1 the repetition rate is at 20 percent.
- One explanation for this could be early entry. 5 percent of 4-year olds and 28 percent of 5-year olds (who do not turn 6 by June 30th of the academic year) attend primary education, even though the starting age for primary education is 6.
- Dropout rates in primary education is low but increases in lower and upper secondary education.
- Non-transitioners refer to those children who attended the last grade of a level but do not continue to the next level. In primary and lower secondary education, the non-transition rate is 13 and 15 percent, respectively. However, in upper secondary, it increases to 73 percent. This means that most children do not continue education after attending the last grade of upper secondary.
- The prescribed age for primary learners in Lesotho is 6 to 12, for lower secondary learners is 13 to 15, and for upper secondary learners is 16 and 17. Most 6 to 12-year-olds are in primary but some (20 percent) 12-year-olds have already progressed to lower secondary when they should have been in primary.
- Of the lower secondary age group, the majority of 13-year-olds, 26 percent of 14-year-olds, 15 percent of 15-year-olds, and some 16 and 17-year-olds continue to attend primary.
- Among 12 to 17-year-olds, the share of children who are out of school increases substantially. This shows that most children in Lesotho have attended some education.

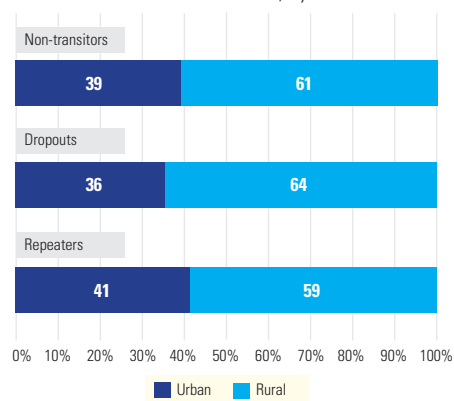


## Profile of repeaters, dropouts and non-transitioners

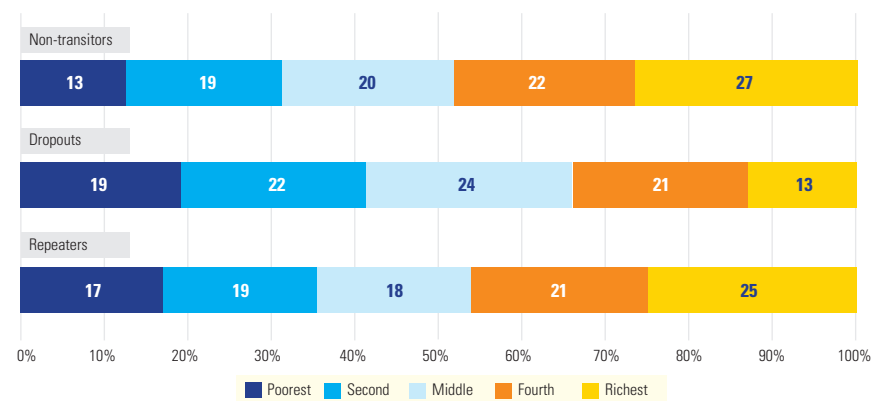
**FIGURE 106** Profiling of repeaters, dropouts and non-transitioners, by sex



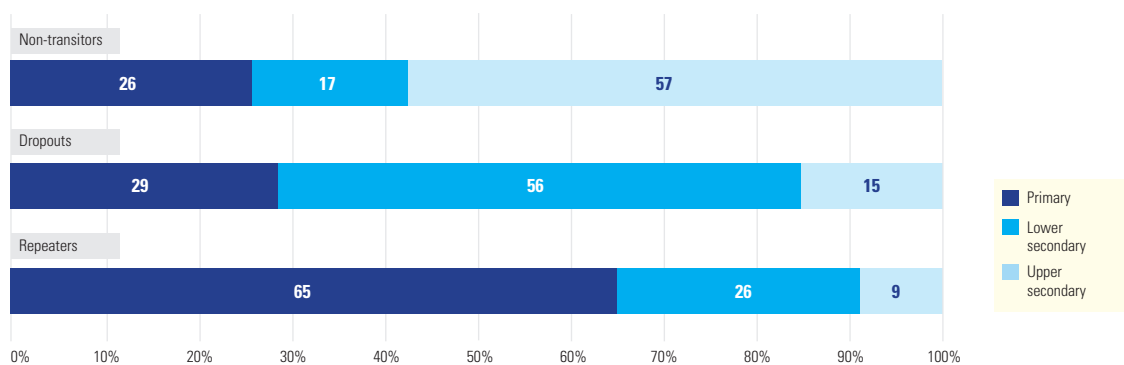
**FIGURE 107** Profiling of repeaters, dropouts and non-transitioners, by area



**FIGURE 108** Profiling of repeaters, dropouts and non-transitioners, by wealth quintile



**FIGURE 109** Profiling of repeaters, dropouts and non-transitioners, by level of education



### Findings

- These findings are based on the share of children who repeat, dropout or don't transition to the next level, i.e., 13 percent of repeaters, 5 percent of dropouts, and 5 percent of non-transitioners.
- Non-transitioners are almost evenly split between girls and boys, with 51 percent being girls. However, of those who repeat and those who drop out, boys are over-represented.
- For repeaters, dropouts and non-transitioners, children from rural area form the majority. This means that more rural children repeat, drop out, and are unable to transition from the last grade of a level to another level of education.
- The share representing children of the poorest wealth quintile is lower than in other indicators. The shares for the bottom 20 percent of the poorest children are 19 percent for dropouts, 17 percent for repeaters, and 13 percent for non-transitioners.
- In terms of the level of education, most repeaters repeat a grade of primary education, with 65 percent of repeaters at the primary level. Most dropouts are in lower secondary, and most non-transitioners are in upper secondary.





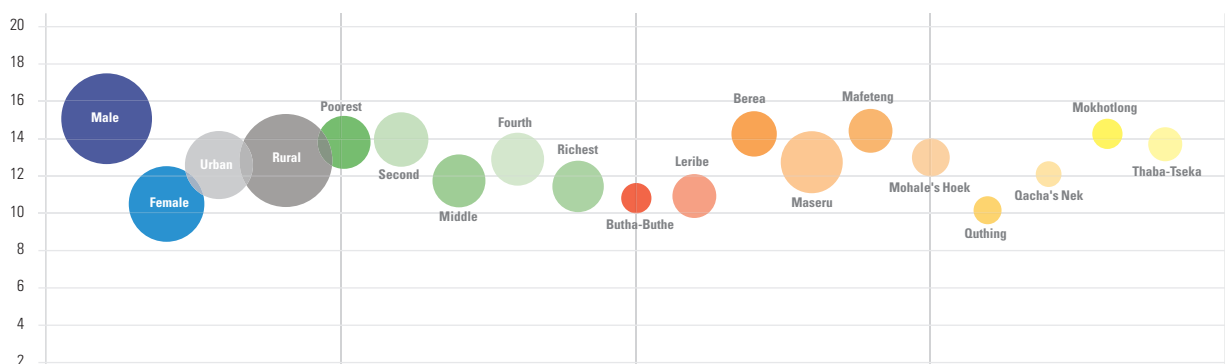
**TABLE 4: Repetition, dropouts and non-transitioners – Shares and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics**

		Rate (%)			Headcount* (children)		
		Repetition	Dropout	Non-transition	Repeat	Dropout	Non-transitioners
<b>Total</b>		<b>13</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>68 000</b>	<b>24 400</b>	<b>27 000</b>
<b>Sex</b>	Male	15	6	28	38 600	13 700	13 100
	Female	11	5	24	29 400	10 700	13 700
<b>Area</b>	Urban	13	5	24	23 900	8 200	10 400
	Rural	13	6	28	44 100	16 200	16 400
<b>Wealth quintile</b>	Poorest	14	5	28	14 100	4 700	3 400
	Second	14	6	27	14 800	5 500	4 900
	Middle	12	7	24	12 700	5 900	5 500
	Fourth	13	6	25	14 200	5 000	5 700
	Richest	11	4	27	12 100	3 400	7 200
<b>District</b>	Butha-Buthe	11	5	26	3 500	1 400	1 600
	Leribe	11	5	23	8 700	3 200	3 700
	Berea	14	6	30	10 400	3 700	4 300
	Maseru	13	5	25	18,44	6 400	7 900
	Mafeteng	14	5	25	7 300	2 100	2 200
	Mohale's Hoek	13	5	22	5 600	1 700	1 900
	Quthing	10	6	26	2 800	1 500	1 200
	Quacha's Nek	12	6	27	2 600	1 000	1 000
	Mokhotlong	14	6	32	4 000	1 500	1 300
	Thaba-Tseka	14	6	36	4 700	1 800	1 700

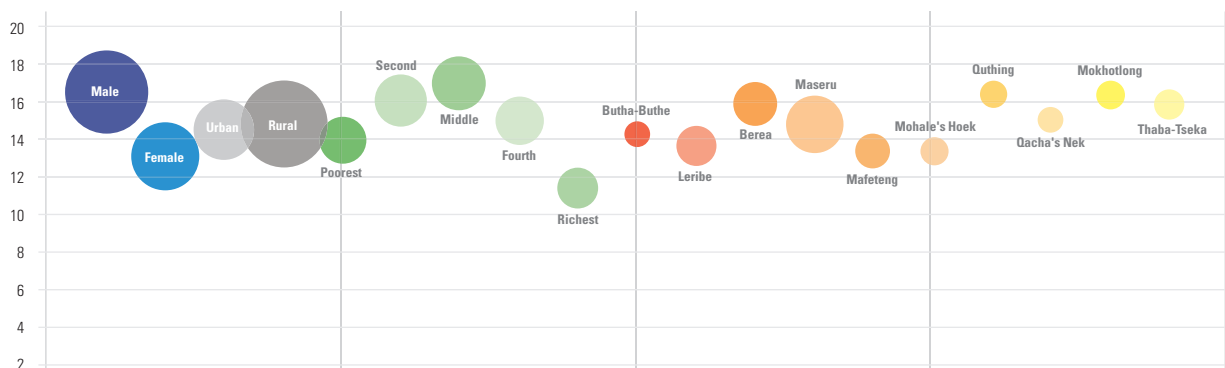
\*Headcounts are based on UNSD statistics, which can be calculated using other data sources if the country requests.

## Shares and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics

**FIGURE 110** Share and headcount of repeaters

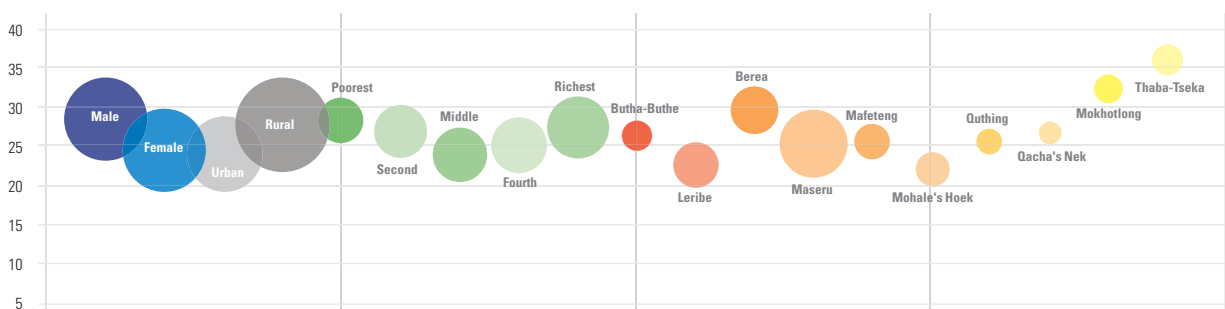


**FIGURE 111** Share and headcount of dropouts



Please note: The data range for the three graphs differ significantly, therefore the scale for this graph is different.

**FIGURE 112** Share and headcount of non-transitioners



### Findings

- These charts show the trade-off between shares and population size. The height of the bubble represents the share of children who are repeaters (top) and dropouts (bottom). The higher the bubble, the larger the share. Population size is represented by the size of the bubble.

### Repetition rate

- The share of repeaters is similar across groups. However, there are big differences in terms of headcounts. Although Thaba-Tseka and Maseru have similar shares, the headcount of children repeating in Maseru is much bigger.

### Dropout rate

- Most groups have similar shares of dropouts. However, the richest wealth quintile has a comparatively lower dropout rate.
- While there is not much variation in shares, there are differences in headcount by the district. The headcount for Maseru is larger than other districts despite similar shares of dropout rate.

### Non-transitioners

- All groups, except the richest wealth quintile, have a similar share of non-transitioners. The richest wealth quintile has a higher share of non-transitioners when compared to all other groups. One explanation for this is that most non-transitioners are those who attend upper secondary but do not pursue higher education, and in Lesotho, children from the richest wealth quintile attend upper secondary in greater numbers than other wealth quintiles, which in turn makes them the group with the biggest impact in non-transitioners.



**What is child marriage?**

Child Marriage is a marriage of a girl or boy before the age of 18 and refers to both formal marriages and informal unions in which children under the age of 18 live with a partner as if married.

**What is child labour?**

In the MICS module, children are considered to be in child labour if they engage in at least one of three categories: economic activities, household chores and hazardous conditions. For each category, there is a time threshold based on different age groups. .

**Guiding questions**

1 Which groups have higher rates of early marriage and how does it impact literacy and ICT skills?

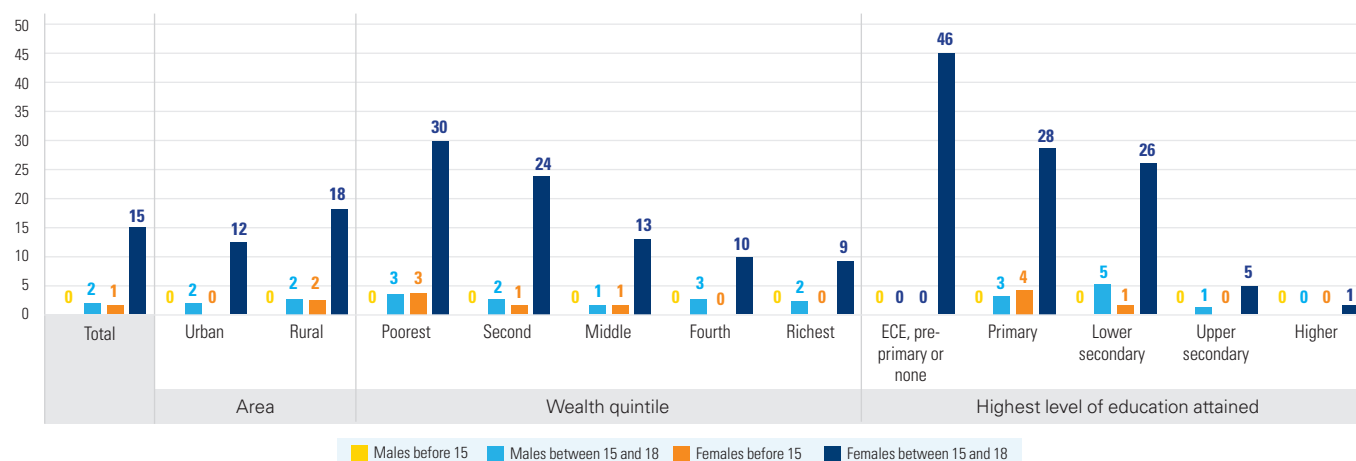
2 Which groups of children are more frequently involved in child labour?

3 How is child labour linked to education attendance and foundational learning skills?

4 How does child labour explain the profile of children who are out of school or not learning in school?

**Overview**

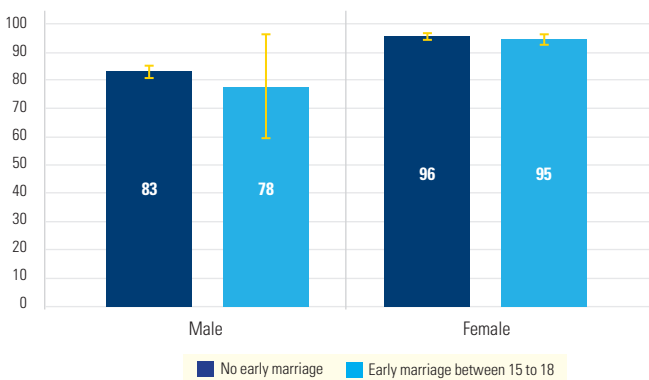
**FIGURE 113** Prevalence of child marriage among youth aged 20 to 24 years



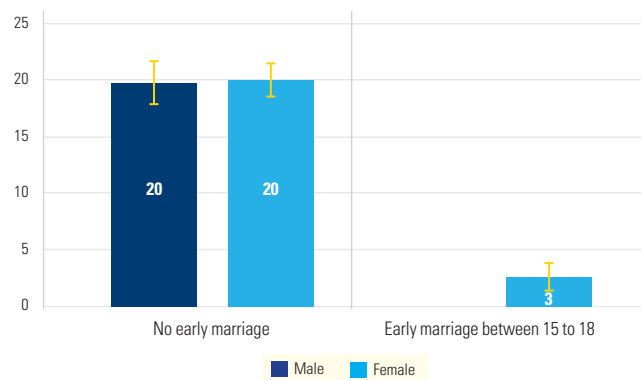
**Findings**

- The prevalence of child marriage is higher for women than for men. While no men were married before 15, 1 percent of 20 to 24-year-old women were married before their 15th birthday.
- The prevalence of marriage for 15 to 18-year-old women is higher than for men in the same age group. Only 2 percent of 20 to 24-year-old men were married at 15 to 18, while about 6 times more females were married for the same reference years.
- Education is strongly associated with early marriage. Among youth who attended higher education, no 20 to 24-year-olds reported entering a union or marriage before 15, and only 1 percent reported entering a union or marriage between 15 to 18. In stark contrast, a quarter of the youth whose highest education is primary or lower secondary, were married before the age of 18.
- There is a statistically significant difference for ICT skills between women who married early and those who did not. Among those who did not marry early, men and women have a similar share of performing ICT-related activities.
- There is a statistically significant difference among boys and girls for literacy skills – in favour of that latter – among those who did not marry early.

**FIGURE 114** Literacy rate by early marriage status

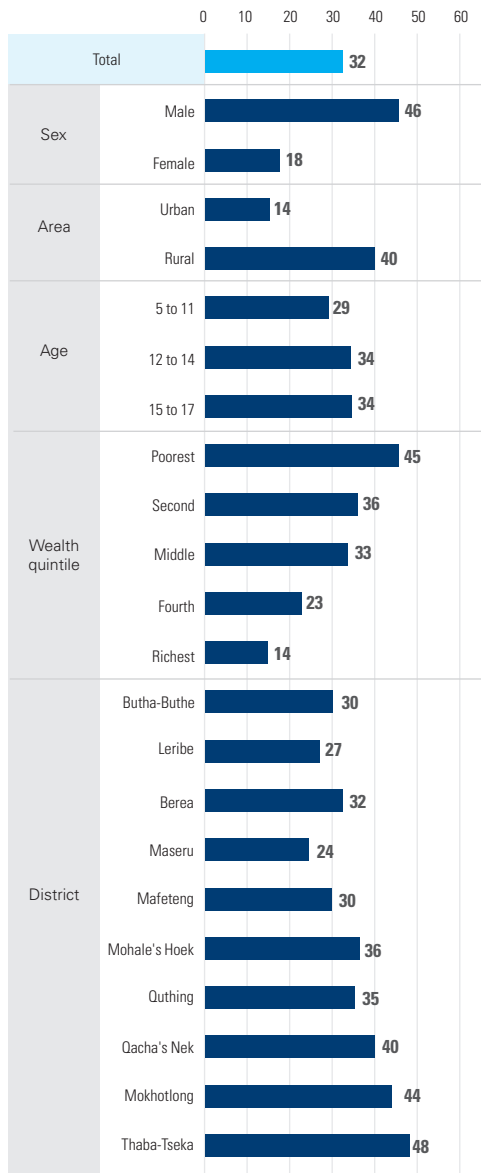


**FIGURE 115** ICT skills by early marriage status



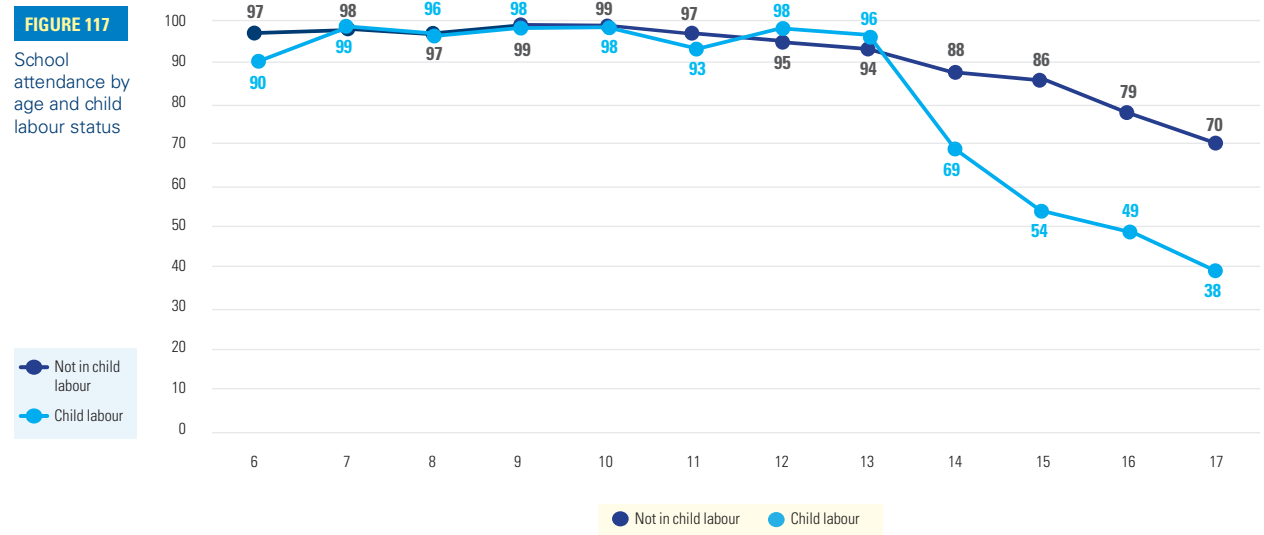
## Overview of child labour and education

**FIGURE 116** Prevalence of child labour for children aged 5 to 17 years



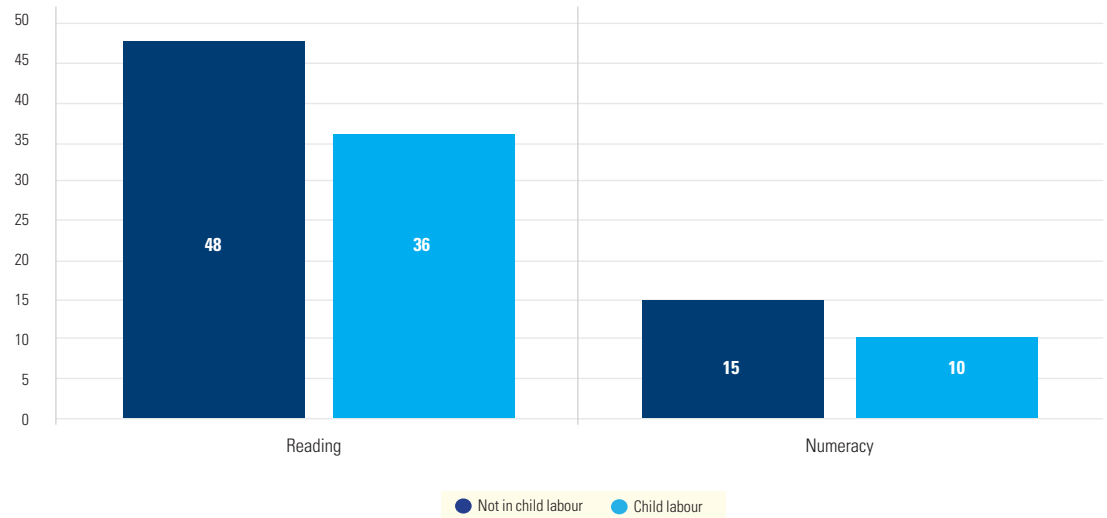
**FIGURE 117**

School attendance by age and child labour status



**FIGURE 118**

Foundational skills by child labour status (children aged 7 to 14)



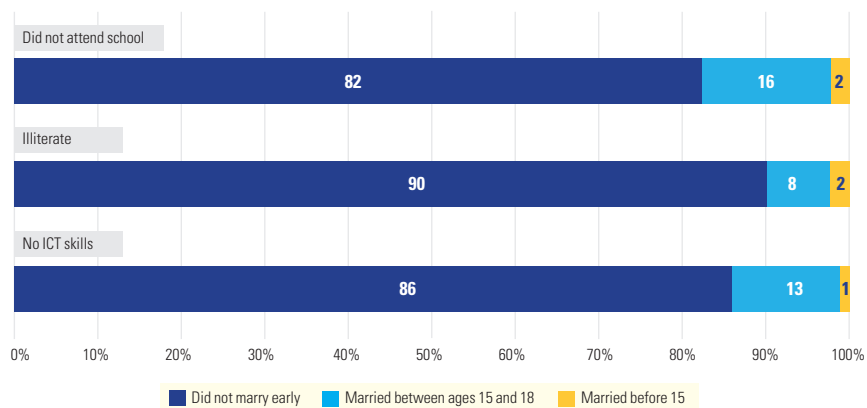
## Findings

- About 22 percent of 5 to 17-year-old children are engaged in some form of child labour. More males are involved in child labour than females. The share of child labour in rural areas is twice that of urban areas. Older children, children from the poorest backgrounds, and those in Thaba-Tseka and Mokhotlong work in greater shares than those from other socio-economic groups.
- From 13 onwards, school attendance of children who are not working is higher than those who are in child labour.
- At the end of primary school age, there is a steep decline in school attendance for both children who are in child labour and those who are not. However, attendance declines at a faster rate for children who are in child labour.
- In both foundational reading and numeracy skills, children who are not in child labour have marginally higher shares of reading and numeracy skills than children who are in child labour.

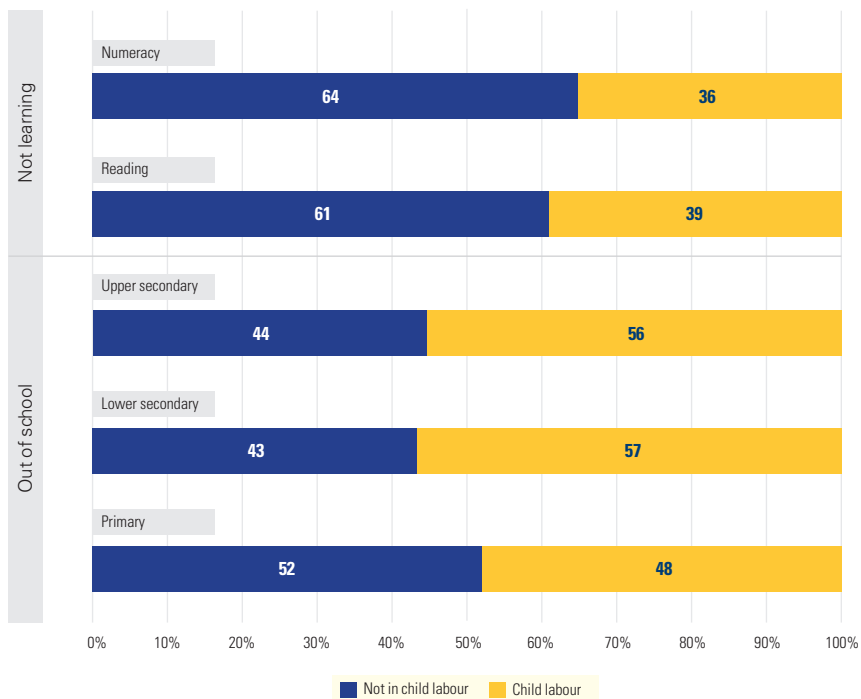


## Profile of children not learning and out of school by child labour and uneducated or unskilled youth by early marriage

**FIGURE 119** Profile of youth who did not attend school, are illiterate, lack ICT skills (20 – 24-year-olds) by early marriage



**FIGURE 120** Profile of children out of school or learning by child labour status



### Findings

- Young people who did not marry early are overrepresented in all three groupings (did not attend school, illiterate, and no ICT skills). This is because of their larger population size. However, relative to the share of youth who married at 20 to 24-years-old (around 8 percent), they are over-represented in the profiling for each group. This means that despite their smaller share in the profiling, those who get married early are more relatively more likely to not attend school, be illiterate, or have no ICT skills.
- 22 percent of 5 to 17-year-old children are in child labour. The share of children not learning who are in child labour is similar to their share of the total population.
- The majority of children who are out of school in all levels of education indicate that they could be dropping out to pursue work rather than continue education.



**Guiding questions**

- 1 Which groups of children have higher rates of disability?
- 2 What are the most common disabilities among children?
- 3 How is disability linked to school attendance and learning?
- 4 How is disability linked to repetition and dropout?
- 5 How do disabilities explain the profile of children who are out of school or not learning in school?

## Children with disabilities

**FUNCTIONAL DIFFICULTIES**

Examples include a child who has gradually lost vision and cannot see well, or a child who is blind.



**UNACCOMMODATING ENVIRONMENT**

Glasses are not available to the child who has difficulty seeing distant objects. Learning material is not made available in braille to the child who is blind.



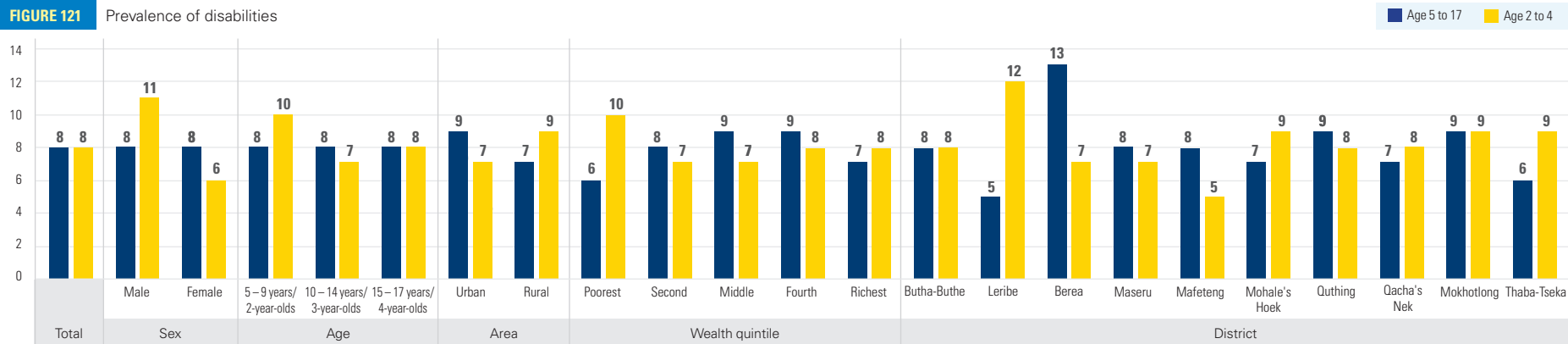
**DISABILITY**

These children are likely to experience limited participation and their right to education may be compromised as a result of unaccommodating environments.

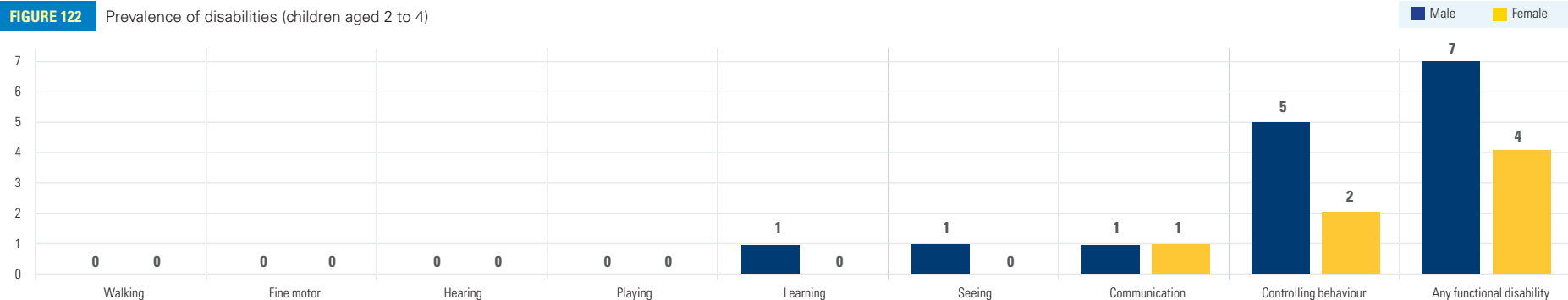
**What are functional difficulties?**

MICS collected data on child functioning for all children under 18 through either the questionnaire for children under 5 or the questionnaire for children aged 5–17 years. In the case of children under 5, data on functional difficulties are collected on the following functional domains: seeing, hearing, walking, fine motor, communication, learning, playing, and controlling behaviour. For children aged 5–17 years, data on functional difficulties are collected on the following functional domains: seeing, hearing, walking, self-care, communication, learning, remembering, concentrating, accepting change, controlling behaviour, making friends, and affect (or children with difficulties controlling their emotions, which is calculated using metrics for anxiety and depression).

**FIGURE 121** Prevalence of disabilities

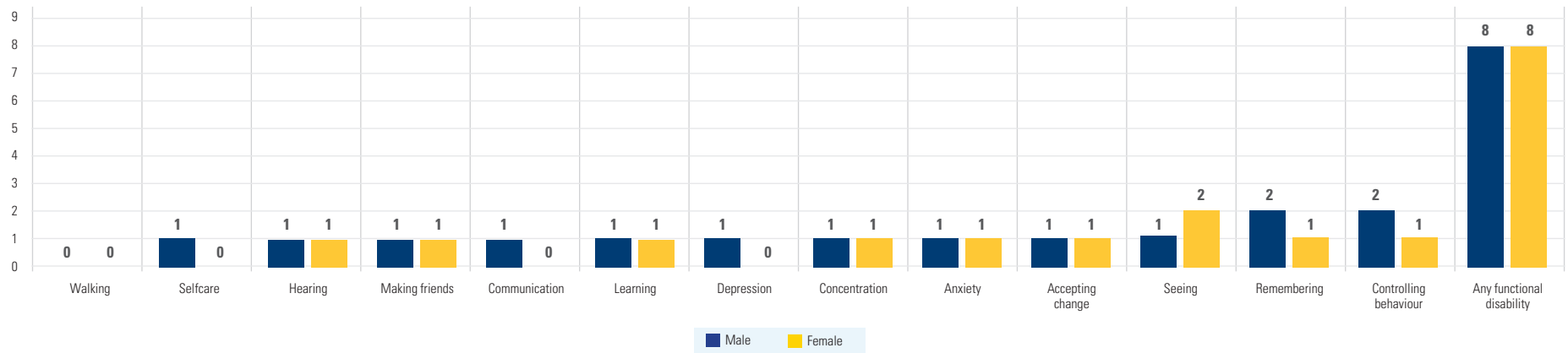


**FIGURE 122** Prevalence of disabilities (children aged 2 to 4)





**FIGURE 123** Prevalence of types of disabilities (children aged 5 to 17)



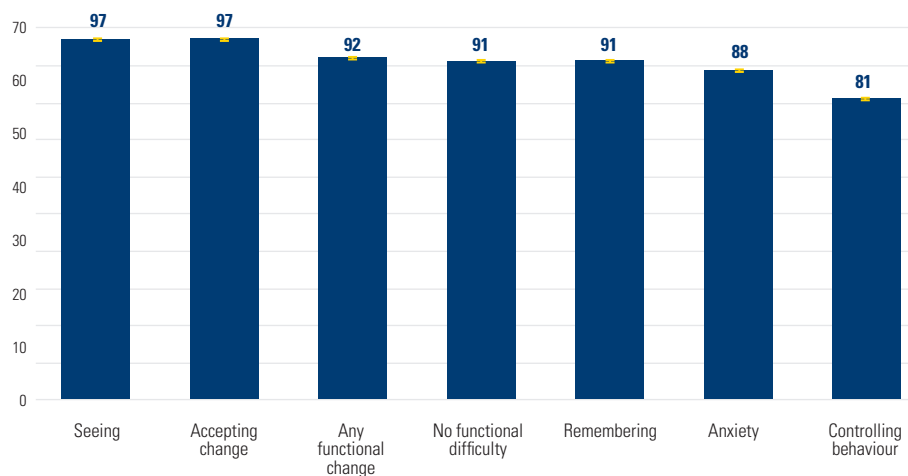
### Findings

- Across the country, 8 percent of 5 to 17-year-old children have at least one functional difficulty. The prevalence of any functional difficulty is similar by gender, age group, and area. There are wide disparities in prevalence by district with the Berea having a higher prevalence than others.
- Among 5 to 17-year-olds, the most common functional difficulties are associated with behavioural and cognitive challenges which includes controlling behaviour, accepting change, seeing, remembering, and anxiety.
- Among 2 to 4-year-olds, functional difficulties associated with controlling behaviour are more prevalent than other functional difficulties.

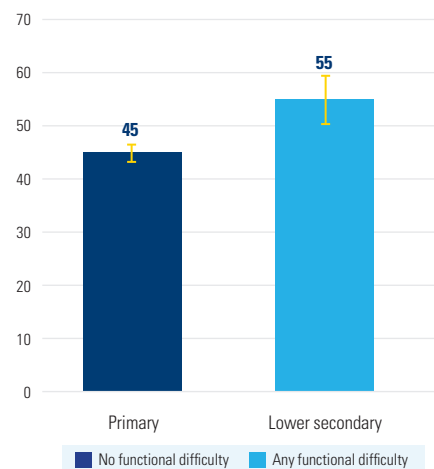


## Inclusive education (2 to 17-year-olds)

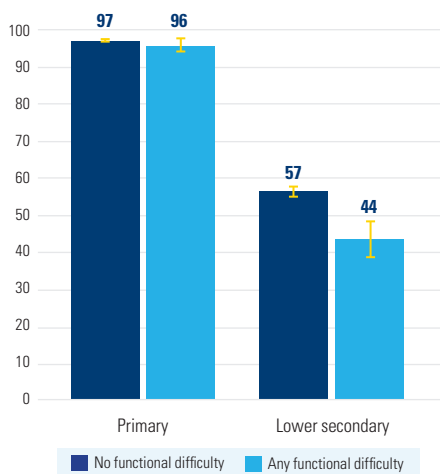
**FIGURE 124** Current school attendance by functional difficulty (5 to 17-year-olds)



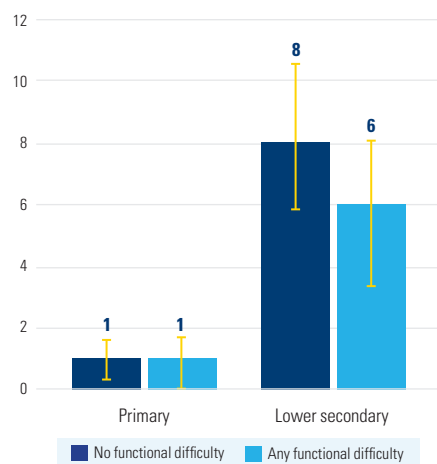
**FIGURE 125** ECE attendance by functional difficulty status



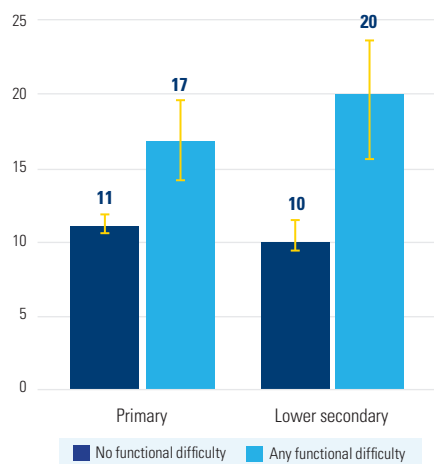
**FIGURE 126** Adjusted net attendance rates (ANAR) by functional difficulty status



**FIGURE 127** Dropout rate by functional difficulty (includes dropouts and non-transitioners)



**FIGURE 128** Repetition rate by disability status



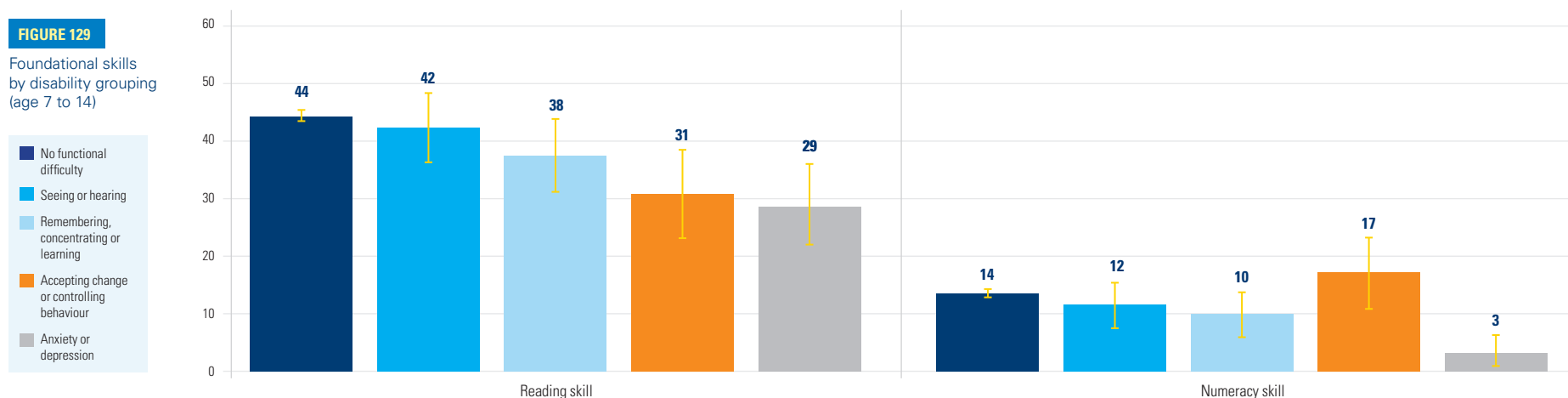
### Findings

- Figure 124 uses the information of whether the child attended any level of education and disaggregates the information by disability. The difference is statistically significant between children who have issues controlling their behaviour and those with no functional difficulty or any functional difficulty, with the former attending on lower levels. Conversely, children who had hearing functional difficulties attend schools at higher levels than those who do not have functional difficulties. This difference is statistically significant.
- There is a statistically significant difference between ECE attendance by functional difficulty status, in favour of those who do not have any functional difficulty. This means that in the early years children who had any functional disability have ECE attendance higher than those that did not.
- Even though there are differences in current school attendance by disability, these are not statistically significant because of overlapping confidence intervals at primary level, but they are statistically significant at lower secondary level.
- There is a similar share of children with and without functional difficulty in dropout rate at primary level. In lower secondary, the share of children who have no functional difficulty and drop out, is higher. However, this difference is not statistically significant.
- In both primary and lower secondary, a higher share of children with any disability repeat. The difference is statistically significant at both levels.

## Foundational Learning Skills and disabilities (age 7 to 14)

**FIGURE 129**

Foundational skills by disability grouping (age 7 to 14)



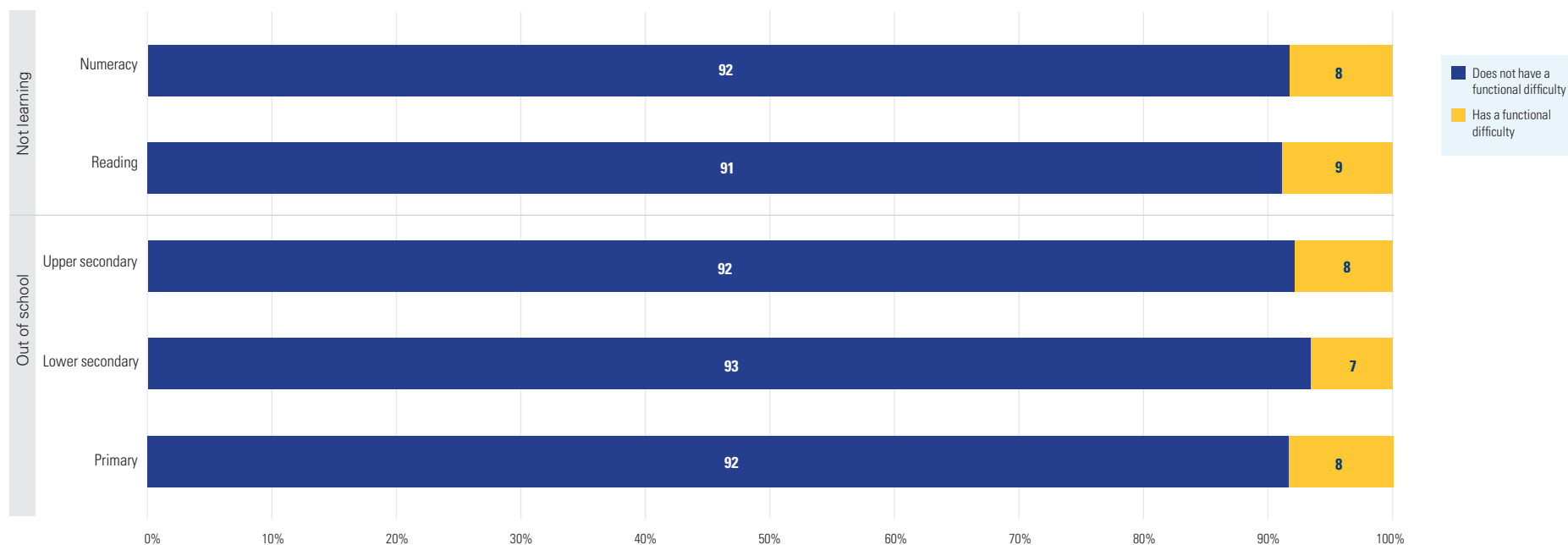
### Findings

- There are differences in the share of children with the skills based on the disability grouping for both foundational reading and numeracy skills,
- Children with no functional difficulty and those with cognitive challenges such as accepting change, controlling behaviour, and difficulty making friends, have similar shares of foundational reading skills. Children who have difficulty remembering, concentrating, or learning, have a comparatively low share of foundational reading skills. These differences are statistically significant.
- Children who have anxiety or depression and those with no functional difficulty, have similar shares of foundational numeracy skills.
- The difference between the foundational numeracy skill of children with no functional difficulty and those with remembering or concentrating or learning is statistically significant. Low shares of children with remembering or concentrating or learning functional difficulty have foundational numeracy skills.



## Profile of children not learning or out of school, by disability

**FIGURE 130** Current school attendance by functional difficulty (5 to 17-year-olds)



### Findings

- 8 percent of children in Lesotho have a functional difficulty. They are proportionally represented among children not learning and out of school across all levels of education.



**TABLE 5: Shares and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics**

	<b>Headcount*</b> (children with disabilities aged 5 to 17)					
	<b>Out of school</b>			<b>In school</b>		
	<b>5 – 9</b>	<b>10 – 14</b>	<b>15 – 17</b>	<b>5 – 9</b>	<b>10 – 14</b>	<b>15 – 17</b>
<b>Total</b>						
Any disability	1 500	700	3 300	16 900	15 800	8 600
Accepting change	100	200	200	2 800	2 400	800
Anxiety	–	200	900	2 900	1 900	1 700
Communication	400	200	400	1 400	400	300
Concentrating	800	200	200	1 400	2 600	1 100
Controlling behaviour	300	200	1 300	3 000	2 000	1 000
Depression	–	100	100	1 500	1 500	200
Hearing	200	–	40	2 100	1 600	700
Learning	200	300	100	1 200	2 100	1 700
Making friends	200	200	400	1 300	1 100	1 300
Remembering	200	300	400	1 400	2 900	1 900
Seeing	100	40	100	2 800	3 100	2 200
Selfcare	300	200	100	1 000	400	50
Walking	30	200	300	500	800	200

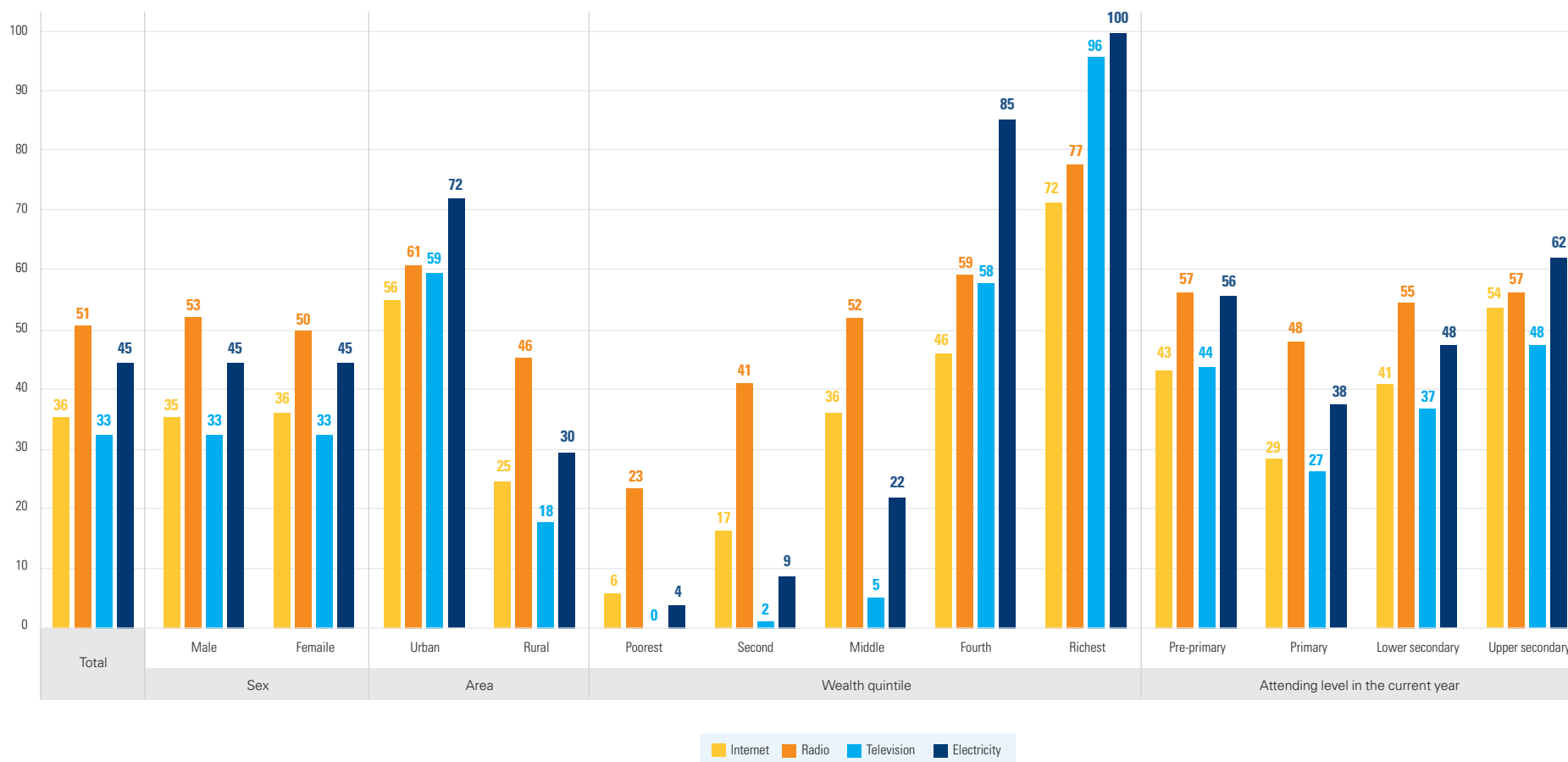
	<b>Headcount</b> (children with disabilities aged 2 to 14)	
	<b>Out of school</b>	<b>In school</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>2 – 4</b>	<b>2 – 4</b>
Any disability	8 600	–
Communication	1 300	500
Controlling	5 200	2 100
Hearing	500	300
Learning	800	200
Fine motor	200	–
Playing	600	200
Seeing	900	800
Walking	1 000	800

**Guiding questions**

- 1 What share of children live in households with access to remote learning tools?
- 2 How is remote learning associated with foundational learning?
- 3 What are the profiles of children who do not have access to remote learning tools?

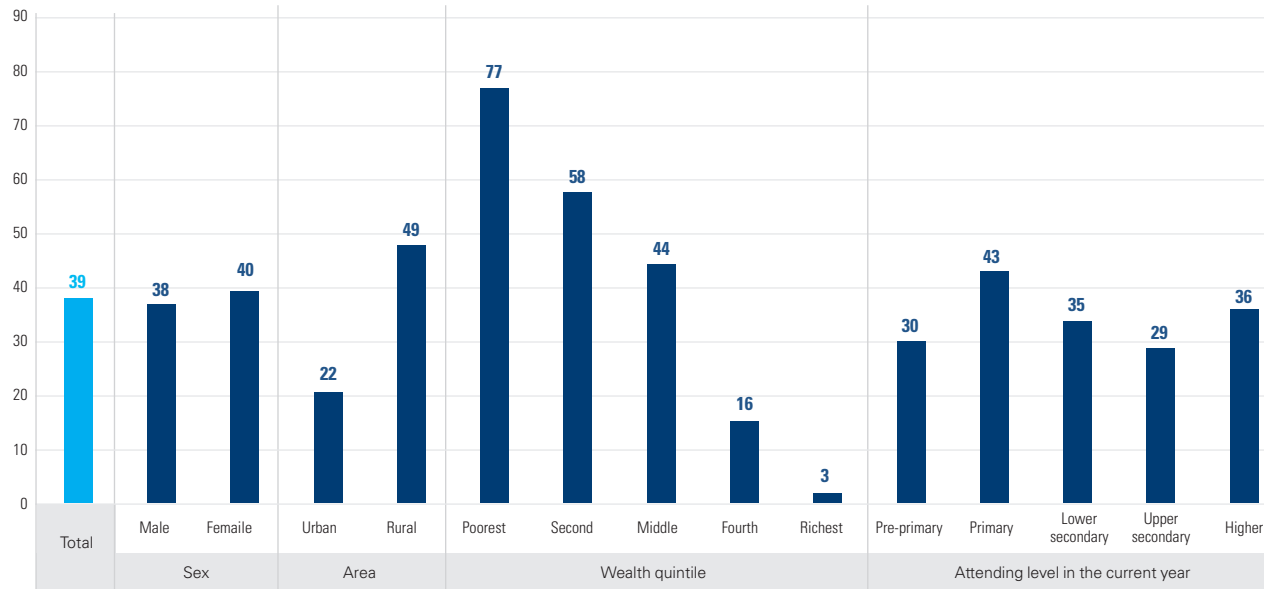
## Access to remote learning tools for children aged 3 to 24

**FIGURE 131** Share of children with access to remote learning tools



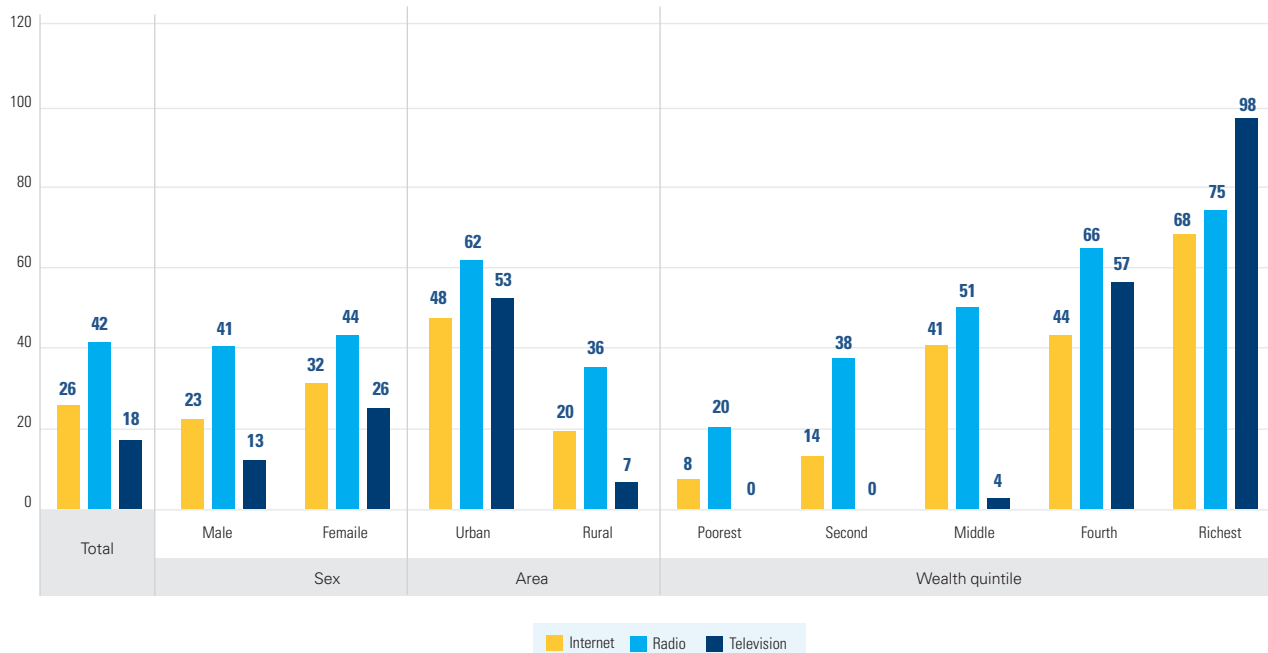
**FIGURE 132**

Share of children with neither TV nor radio in the household



**FIGURE 133**

Share of children not attending school but with access to remote learning tools (3 to 17-year-olds)



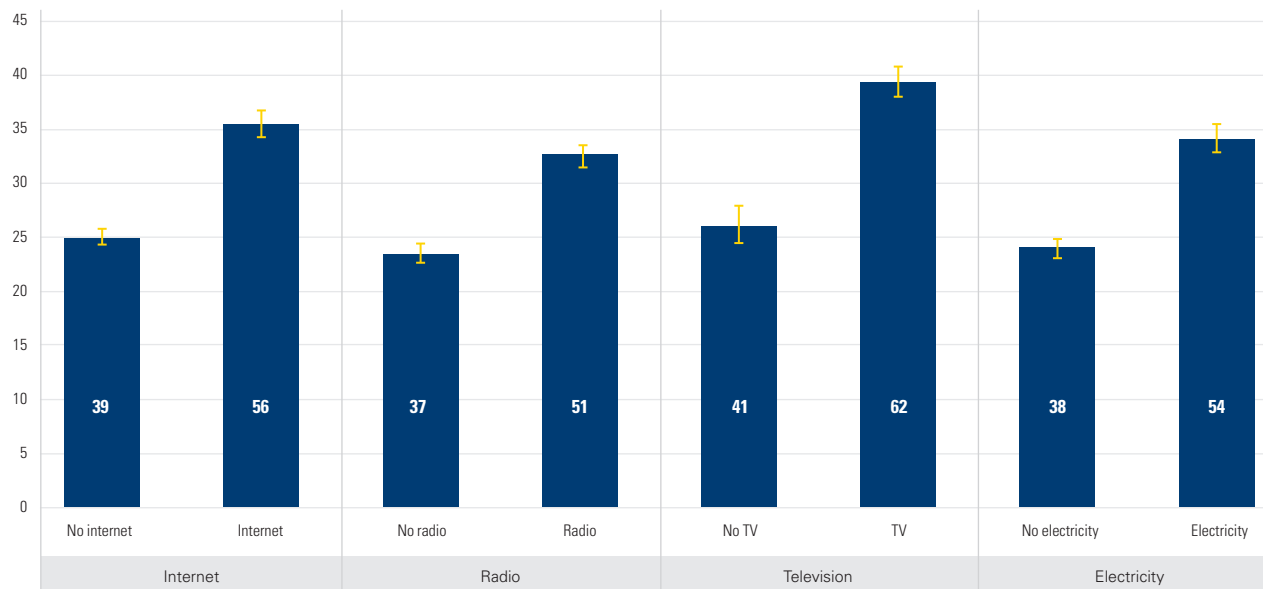
### Findings

- Nationally, only 36 percent of 3 to 24-year-old children who are in school live in households with internet connectivity.
- Data suggests that children belonging to the poorest wealth quintile have extremely low access to remote learning tools at home. Only 6 percent live in households with access to the internet and 23 percent live in households with access to a radio.
- Radio has the largest prevalence in the country.
- No children belonging to the poorest wealth quintile have access to television in their household.
- Access to electricity is a critical issue for the two poorest wealth quintiles. Remote technologies may rely on access to electricity for efficient functioning.
- 39 percent of children attending school have neither access to a TV nor radio. This means that these children cannot access remote learning by either TV or radio.
- 18 percent of children who are not attending school have access to a TV in their household, and 42 percent have access to a radio.
- Children who are not attending school at any level of education may benefit from remote learning programs during school closures.

## Profiles of children with no access to remote learning tools

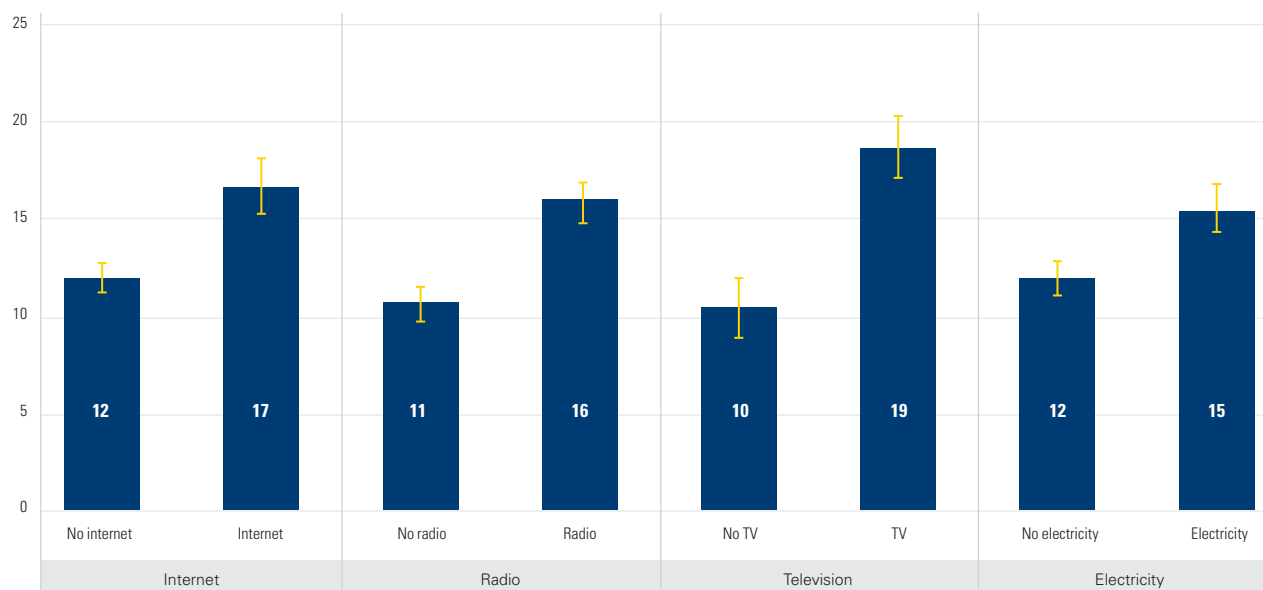
**FIGURE 134**

Foundational reading skill by remote learning tools



**FIGURE 135**

Foundational numeracy skill by remote learning tools



### Findings

- Among all remote learning tools, access is associated with a higher share of children who have foundational reading skills. This difference is statistically significant.
- For foundational numeracy, access to remote learning tools is also associated with a higher share of children who have foundational numeracy skills. However, the difference is statically significant for radio and TV only. This means that the share of children with foundational numeracy skills is higher for children who have access to TV or radio than those who do not.

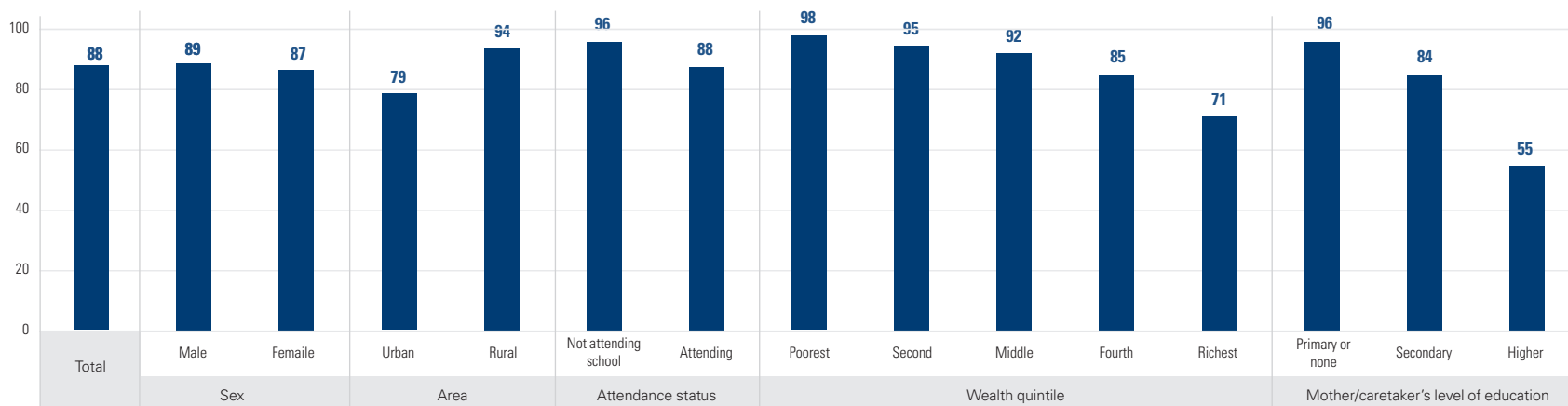




## Learning environment at home for children aged 7 to 14

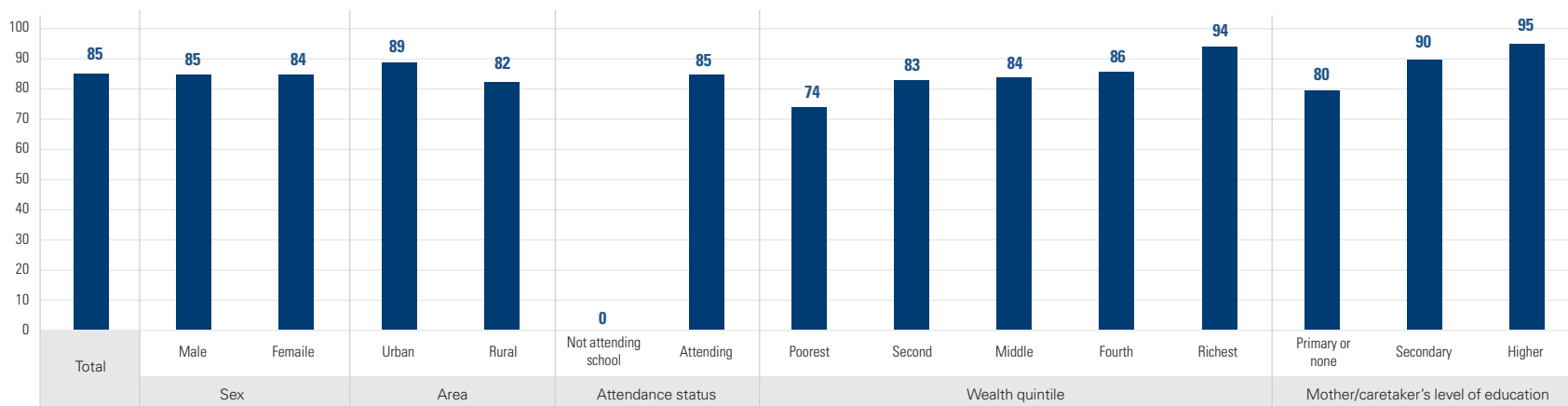
**FIGURE 136**

Share of children with no child-oriented book in the household



**FIGURE 137**

Share of students with parent or caretaker helping with homework



### Findings

- 88% of children live in households where there are no child-oriented books. Child-oriented books refer to books that are suitable for children to read and do not include school books and religious texts. Children who are not attending school, the poorest children, and children whose mothers have only primary or no education have higher shares

of no child-oriented books in the household. The absence of books signals a divide in society of children who can practice reading at home using age-specific books.

- 85% of children receive help with their homework. Gaps, however, prevail along socioeconomic lines in favour of children belonging to the richest wealth quintiles, and those whose mothers are more educated.

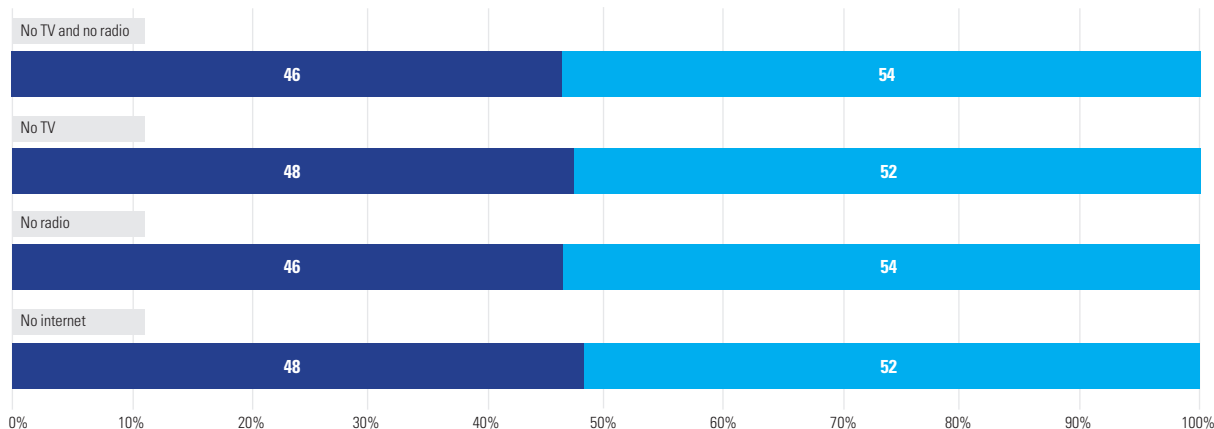


## Profiles of children with no access to remote learning tools

**FIGURE 138**

Profiling of children with no access to remote learning tools, by sex

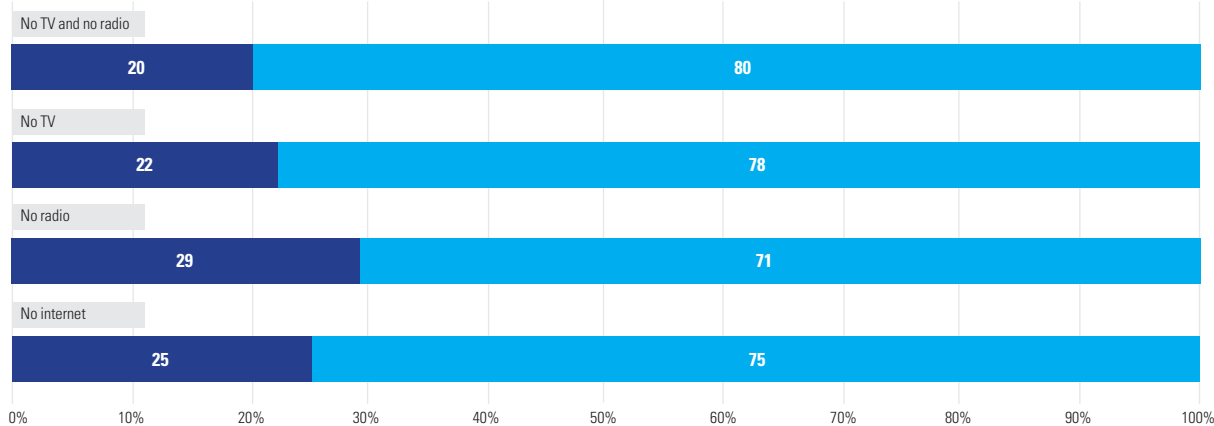
■ Male  
■ Female



**FIGURE 139**

Profiling of children with no access to remote learning tools, by area

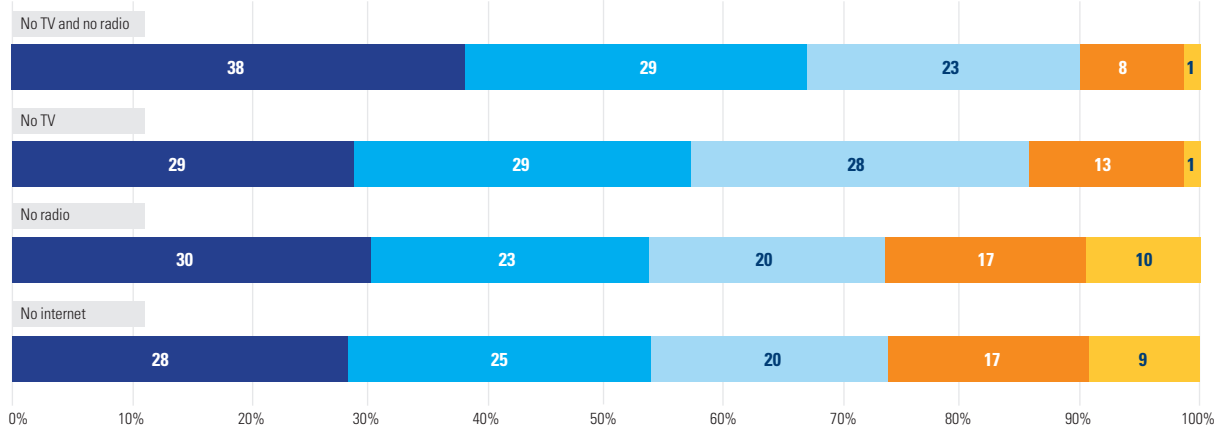
■ Urban  
■ Rural



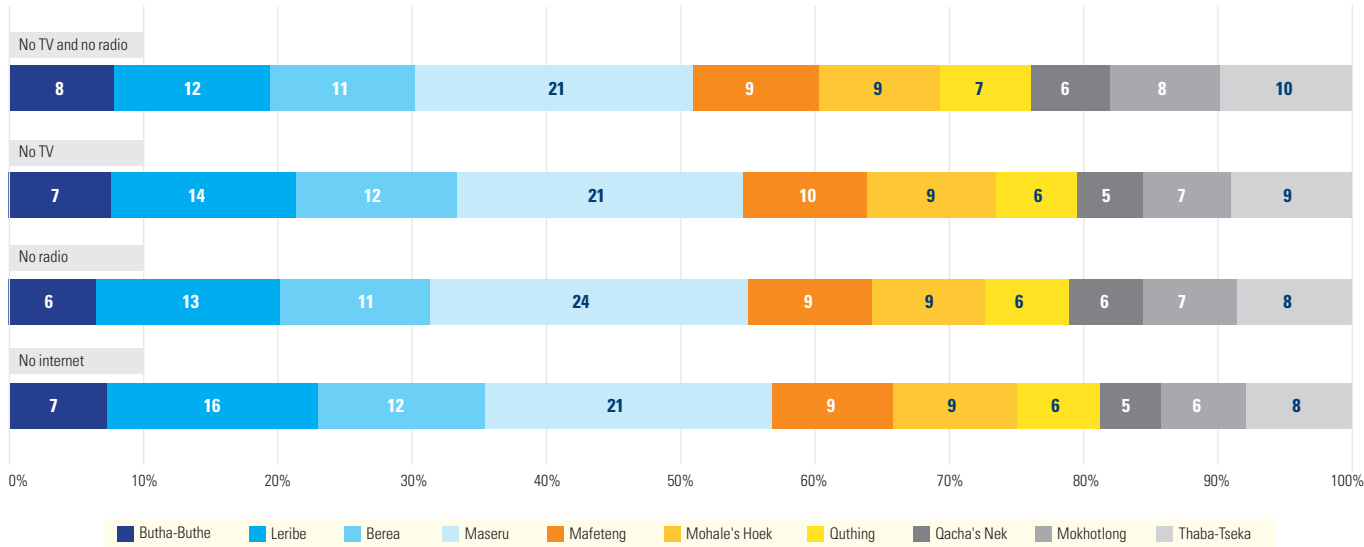
**FIGURE 140**

Profiling of children with no access to remote learning tools, by wealth quintile

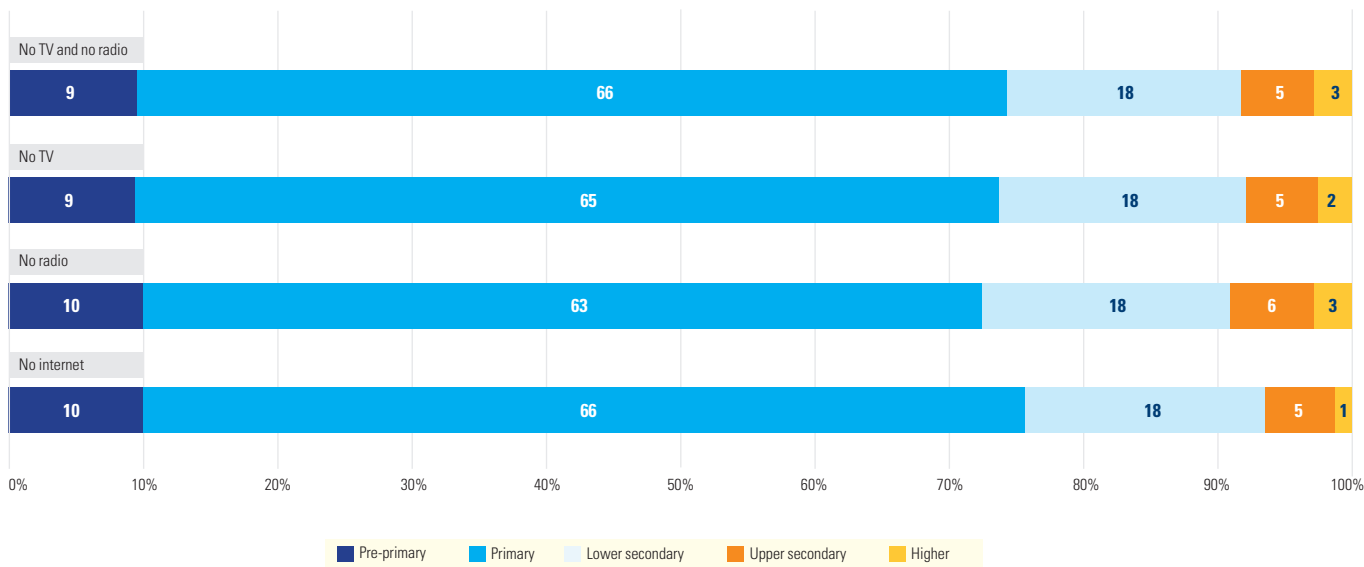
■ Poorest  
■ Second  
■ Middle  
■ Fourth  
■ Richest



**FIGURE 141** Profiling of children with no access to remote learning tools, by district



**FIGURE 142** Profiling of households with no access to remote learning tools, by the level of education, attended



### Findings

- This profiling is based on the data collected from households with regard to their access to the internet, tv, and radio. This means the profiling is for: the 65 percent of children who do not have access to the internet, 49 percent of children who do not have access to radios, 27 percent of children who do not have access to TVs, and 7 percent of children who do not have access to a radio nor a TV.
- More girls than boys live in households that have no access to remote learning technologies.
- Rural areas are overrepresented for areas that lack access to remote technologies, particularly those areas that do not have access to the internet or whose access is very low.
- The two poorest wealth quintiles make up the majority of those who do not have access to a radio or the internet, even though they only make up two-fifths of the population.
- Maseru is over-represented in all four categories, and is followed by Leribe.
- Households where a child attends primary school are over-represented for all remote technologies. This is because of the higher share and number of children attending the primary level compared to other levels.

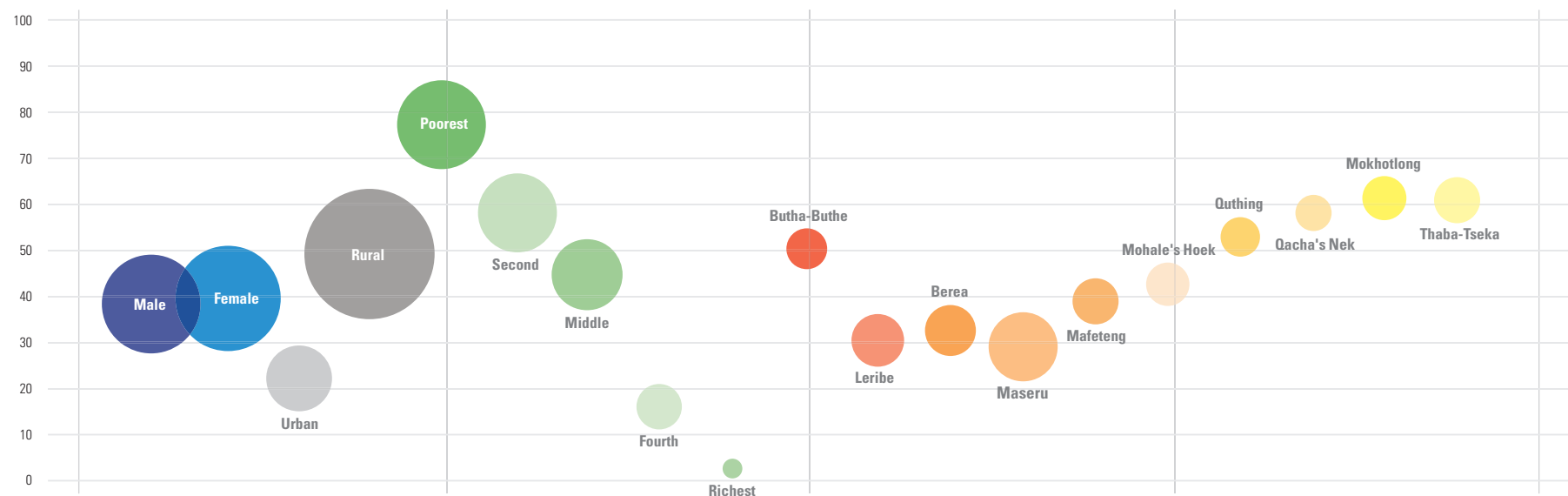


**TABLE 6: Shares and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics**

		Share (%) of 3 to 24-year-old children who have				Headcount of 3 to 24-year-old children			
		No internet	No radio	No TV	No radio or TV	No internet	No radio	No TV	No radio or TV
	<b>Total</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>49</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>391 100</b>	<b>298 500</b>	<b>410 000</b>	<b>237 300</b>
<b>Sex</b>	Male	65	47	67	38	188 000	138 000	195 100	110 200
	Female	64	50	67	40	203 100	160 500	214 900	127 100
<b>Area</b>	Urban	44	39	41	22	99 000	86 700	91 100	48 300
	Rural	75	54	82	49	292 000	211 800	318 900	188 900
<b>Wealth quintile</b>	Poorest	94	77	100	77	110 100	90 000	117 500	90 100
	Second	83	59	98	58	99 400	69 900	117 400	68 700
	Middle	64	48	95	44	78 300	59 100	116 600	54 900
	Fourth	54	41	42	16	67 300	50 700	52 700	20 100
	Richest	28	23	4	3	36 000	28 800	5 700	3 500
<b>District</b>	Butha-Buthe	78	54	85	50	28 100	19 200	30 600	17 900
	Leribe	67	43	61	30	61 500	39 800	56 000	27 800
	Berea	61	43	63	32	48 900	34 300	50 200	26 000
	Maseru	50	42	51	29	84 100	71 600	87 300	49 600
	Mafeteng	61	46	67	38	35 800	27 000	39 000	22 500
	Mohale's Hoek	72	51	78	42	36 000	25 700	38 800	21 000
	Quthing	78	59	83	52	24 100	18 200	25 500	16 100
	Quacha's Nek	72	68	80	58	17 600	16 800	19 700	14 100
	Mokhotlong	81	67	88	61	25 100	21 000	27 300	18 900
	Thaba-Tseka	77	64	92	60	23 400	24 900	35 700	23 400

## Shares and headcounts by various socioeconomic characteristics

**FIGURE 143** Share and headcount of children who lack access to radio or TV



### Findings

- These charts show the trade-off between shares and population size. The height of the bubble represents the share of children who do not have access to a radio or a TV. The higher the bubble, the larger the share. Population size is represented by the size of the bubble.
- Qacha's Nek has the highest share of children who do not have access to either a radio or a TV, whereas Butha-Buthe has the lowest share of children who do not have access to either a radio or a TV.
- However, in terms of headcount, Maseru has the largest headcount of children who do not have access to either a radio or a TV. These differences are because of the differences in population size between the districts.
- The richest and poorest wealth quintile have similar shares of children who do not have access to either a radio or a TV. This could be because households may have access to one of these tools but not the other. For example, if a household has access to a radio, they may not have access to a TV, or vice versa. However, households in the middle wealth quintile have a larger share of children who do not have access to a radio or TV.









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