

## Africans endorse women's rights, and want institutions to do more to protect them

**Afrobarometer Dispatch No. 1195 | Anne Okello, Richard Adjadeh, and Maakwe Cumanzala**

### Summary

Gender equality and women's rights are central to Africa's development agenda. The African Union's Agenda 2063 outlines "full gender equality in all spheres of life" as a core goal. This includes equal rights in property ownership, inheritance, contracting, and access to financial services, as well as a reduction in violence against women (African Union, 2015). Similarly, the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) place gender equality at the heart of the global development agenda, both as a standalone goal (SDG No. 5) and as a priority that intersects with all other goals (United Nations, 2015). African governments have formally endorsed these commitments: Most countries have ratified the 2003 Maputo Protocol on the rights of women in Africa (African Union, 2003, 2023) and the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women.



But substantial gaps remain between these commitments and women's lived realities. Recent evidence suggests that progress has been uneven and, in some areas, reversed. The Africa Gender Index reports that the continent's economic gender equality score declined from 61.0% in 2019 to 58.2% in 2023, reflecting worsening economic conditions that have disproportionately affected women (African Development Bank Group & United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, 2024). Across the continent, women are more likely than men to work in vulnerable and informal employment, with lower earnings and poorer working conditions. They also continue to face unequal access to land, finance, agricultural inputs, and productive assets, despite their central role in food production.

Recent global estimates further indicate that progress toward gender equality remains far off track, with discriminatory norms, unequal care burdens, and weak institutional protections continuing to limit women's economic and political participation (UN Women, 2025). The 2026 Women, Business and the Law Index shows only gradual progress across the African continent, while the 2024 SDG Gender Index found that globally, no country is on track to achieve gender equality by 2030; most sub-Saharan African countries are classified as "poor" or "very poor" environments for women and girls (World Bank, 2026; Equal Measures 2030, 2024).

Afrobarometer Round 10 surveys, conducted in 38 African countries in 2024/2025, reflect this mixed picture. A majority of Africans support women's autonomy in marriage and childbearing, but women trail men in household financial decision making. Although more than half of citizens endorse gender equality in hiring, significant minorities report that husbands and families prevent women from taking employment.

Notable minorities also express concern about sexual harassment of women and girls in public spaces, including schools. While a majority of citizens are confident that victims of

discrimination or harassment who come forward will be believed, an even greater proportion demand stronger action from the police and courts to protect women and girls against such treatment.

These vulnerabilities extend beyond public safety and discrimination to other critical domains of well-being, including access to health care. Two-thirds of women say they or their families went without medical care once or more during the previous year, with rates rising above nine out of 10 in rural areas in some countries.

These findings point to persistent gaps between policy commitments and implementation. They also reveal a disconnect between broad public support for women's rights and the realities many women continue to face.

## Afrobarometer surveys

Afrobarometer is a pan-African, nonpartisan survey research network that provides reliable data on African experiences and evaluations of democracy, governance, and quality of life. Ten survey rounds in up to 45 countries have been completed since 1999. Round 10 surveys (2024/2025) cover 38 countries. (See Appendix Table A.1 for countries and fieldwork dates.)

Afrobarometer's National Partners conduct face-to-face interviews in the language of the respondent's choice that yield country-level results with margins of error of +/-2 to +/-3 percentage points at a 95% confidence level. This 38-country analysis is based on 50,961 interviews. The data are weighted to ensure nationally representative samples. When reporting multi-country averages, all countries are weighted equally (rather than in proportion to population size).

## Key findings

### Women's autonomy

- On average across 38 African countries, majorities support women's autonomy in marriage decisions (75%) and reproductive choices (62%).
  - But women are less likely than men to say they make household financial decisions themselves (36% vs. 44%).

### Economic barriers

- A majority (57%) of Africans endorse women's equal rights to jobs, though more than one-third (38%) say that men should have priority for scarce jobs.
  - Employer preference for hiring men and a lack of necessary education or skills are most often cited as the barriers preventing women from entering and advancing in the workforce, followed by a lack of childcare and remote or flexible work arrangements.
  - Nearly one-quarter (23%) of respondents say that women are "often" or "always" prevented from taking employment by their husbands or families.

### Discrimination and sexual harassment

- More than one in four respondents (27%) say schoolgirls "often" or "always" face discrimination, harassment, and requests for sexual favours from their teachers.
  - About the same proportion (28%) say that women "often" or "always" experience sexual harassment in public spaces, such as in markets, on the street, and in public transport.

### Justice-system responsiveness

- About two-thirds (65%) of citizens say women and girls are likely to be believed if they complain about discrimination or harassment.
  - However, more than three-fourths (78%) say the police and courts should do more to protect women and girls from such treatment.

### Health-care access

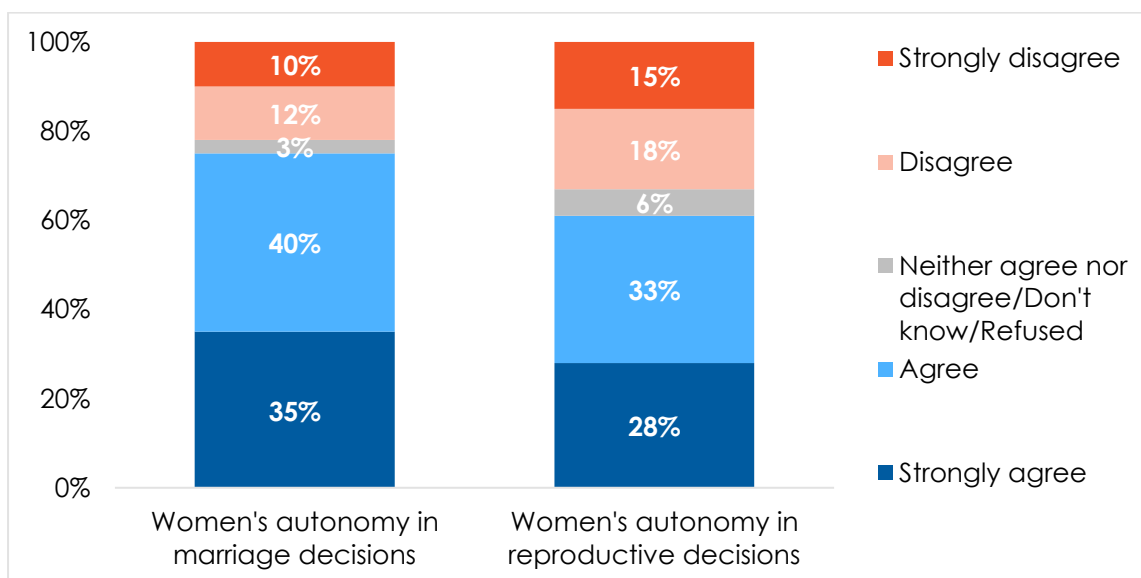
- Two-thirds (66%) of women say that they or a family member went without medicines or medical treatment at least once during the preceding year.
  - Rural women are more likely than urban women to go without medical care (72% vs. 59%).

## Women's autonomy and decision making

At the core of women's rights is a simple but fundamental question: To what extent do women exercise control over their own lives? This section focuses on three domains where autonomy is most consequential and often most contested: marriage, reproductive decision making, and control over household finances.

On average across 38 countries, a majority of Africans say that girls and women should decide for themselves whether and when to marry (75%) as well as when to have children and how many to have (62%) (Figure 1).<sup>1</sup> (For more detailed findings on women's autonomy in marriage and reproductive decisions, see Twum, Govender, & Asunka, 2026.)

**Figure 1: Women's autonomy in decisions about marriage and childbearing**  
| 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** For each of the following statements, please tell me whether you disagree or agree:

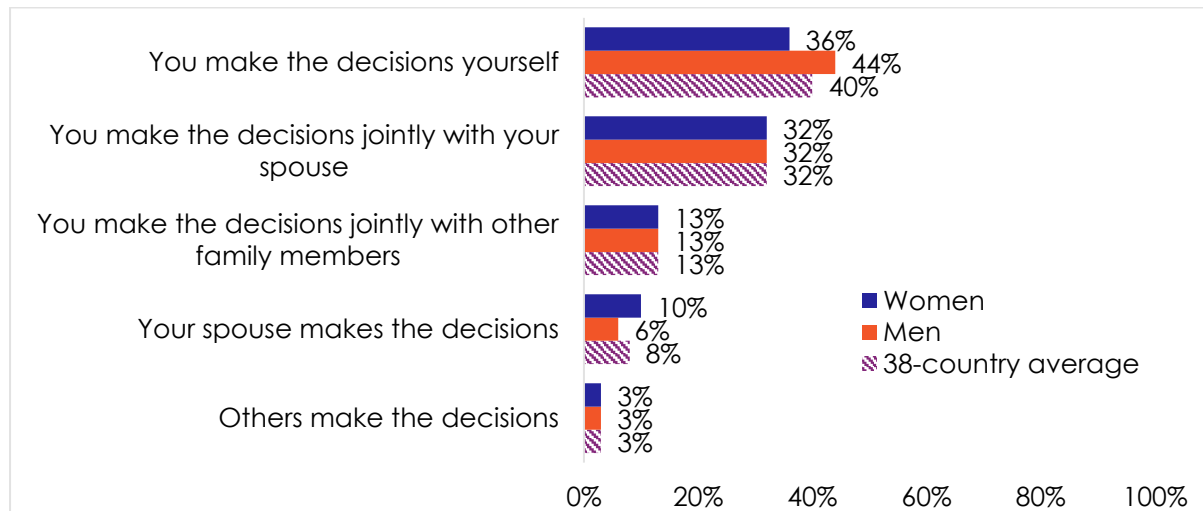
*Girls and women should decide for themselves whether and when they should marry.*

*Women should decide for themselves when and how many children they want to have.*

<sup>1</sup> Due to rounding, percentages for combined categories reported in the text may differ slightly from the sum of sub-categories shown in figures (e.g. 33% "agree" and 28% "strongly agree" sum to 62%).

While citizens broadly support women's rights to make decisions about marriage and childbearing, women's voice in household financial decisions is limited. Women are less likely than men to say that they make decisions themselves about how money is spent (36% vs. 44%) and more likely to say that their spouse makes financial decisions without consulting them (10% vs. 6%) (Figure 2).

**Figure 2: Who decides how money is used? | by gender | 38 countries | 2024/2025**



**Respondents were asked:** What is the main way that decisions are made about how to use any money that you have or earn, for example from a job, a business, selling things, or other activities?

### Women's economic rights and labour-market access

Normative support for women's autonomy is widespread, but it does not always translate into equal control in practice, especially in the economic sphere where day-to-day power is negotiated. Understanding women's rights therefore requires moving beyond personal decisions to examine women's position in the economy more broadly. Women's full participation in the economy is closely linked to broader development outcomes: Research shows that reducing barriers to women's economic participation boosts productivity and long-term economic growth (Petersson, Mariscal, & Ishi, 2017).

A majority of Africans oppose gender inequality in hiring: 57% "disagree" or "strongly disagree" with the idea that men should have more rights than women to jobs if work is scarce. However, 38% still support this form of gender discrimination (Figure 3).

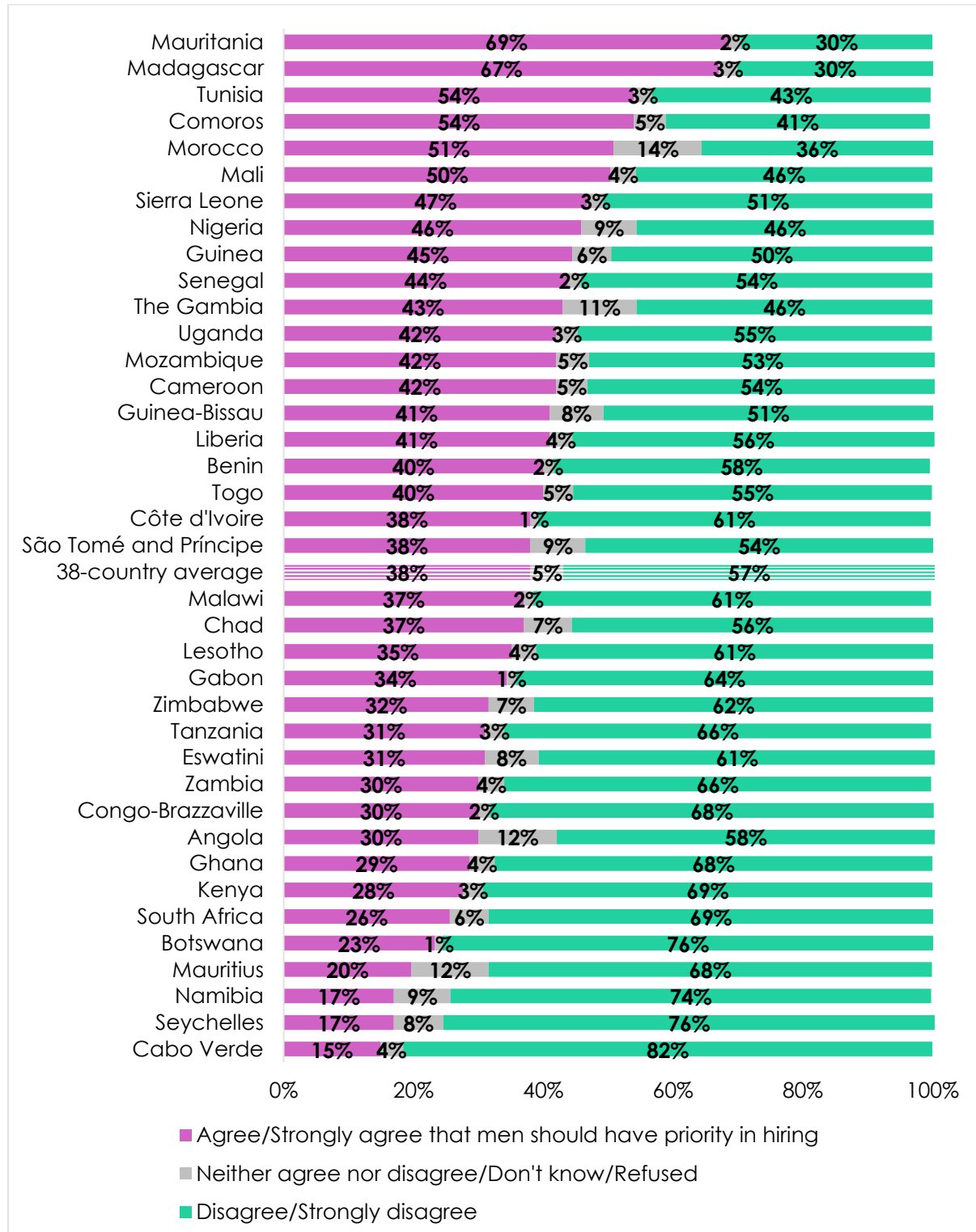
Support for equality in the workplace is highest in Cabo Verde (82%), Seychelles (76%), Botswana (76%), and Namibia (74%). In contrast, only three in 10 citizens endorse gender fairness in Mauritania (30%) and Madagascar (30%), while opinion is closely divided in Nigeria (46% agree that men should have priority vs. 46% disagree), and The Gambia (43% vs. 46%).

Women are more likely than men to insist on neutrality in hiring decisions (63% vs. 51%), as are urbanites compared to rural residents (61% vs. 54%) (Figure 4). Support for equality increases with educational attainment, from 47% among those with no formal schooling to 66% among degree holders, and with economic status, from 54% among the poorest respondents to 64% among those experiencing no lived poverty.<sup>2</sup> Citizens with full-time jobs (60%) are slightly

<sup>2</sup> Afrobarometer's Lived Poverty Index (LPI) measures respondents' levels of deprivation by asking how often they or their families went without basic necessities (enough food, enough water, medical care, enough cooking fuel, and a cash income) during the preceding year. For more on lived poverty, see Mattes and Lekalake (2025).

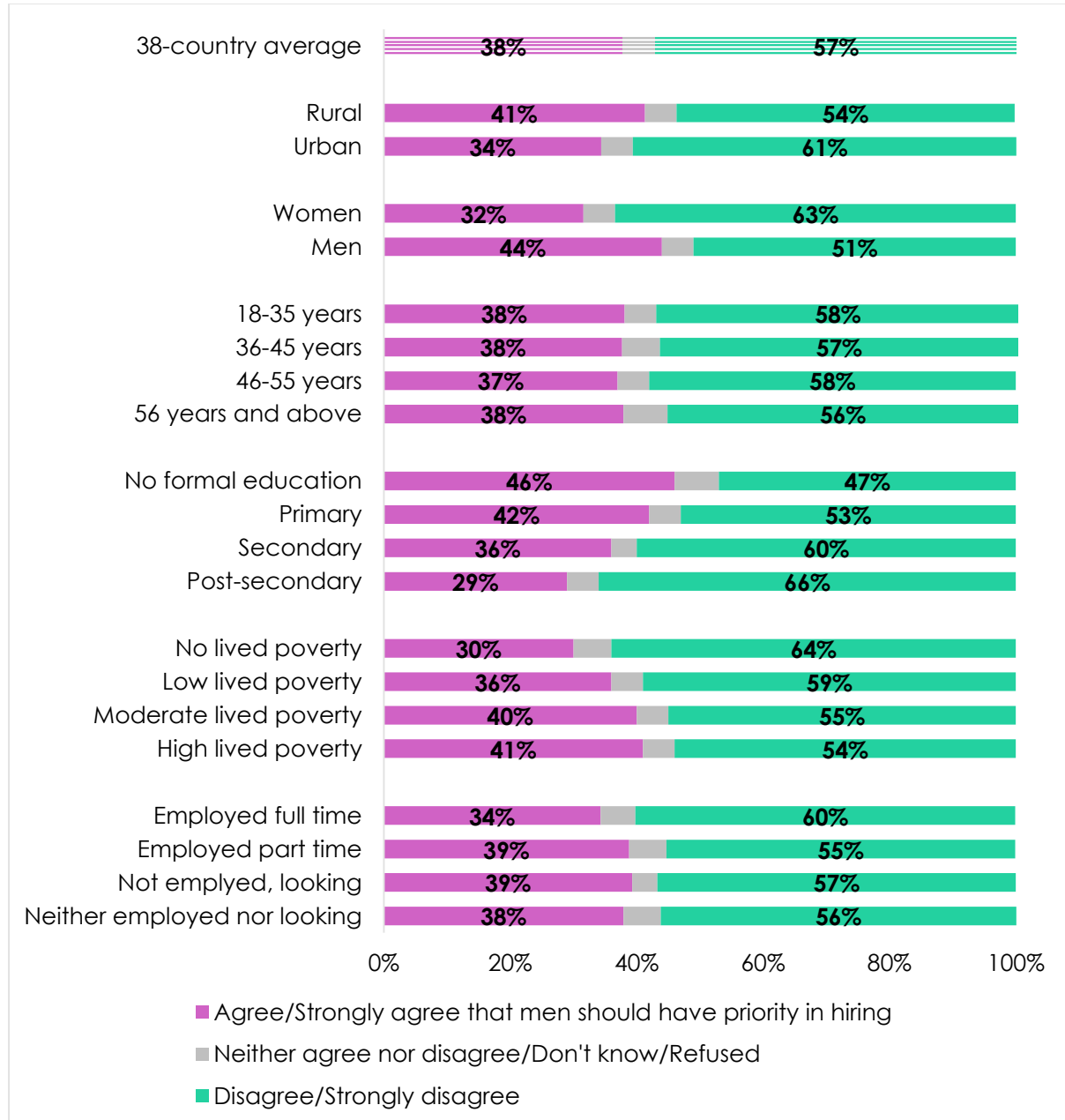
more likely to favour gender fairness in hiring than those with part-time jobs, the unemployed, and those outside the labour force (55%-57%).

**Figure 3: Should men have priority for scarce jobs?** | 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** For each of the following statements, please tell me whether you disagree or agree. When jobs are scarce, men should have more rights to a job than a woman.

**Figure 4: Should men have priority for scarce jobs? | by demographic group**  
 | 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** For each of the following statements, please tell me whether you disagree or agree. When jobs are scarce, men should have more rights to a job than a woman.

Across 31 countries surveyed by Afrobarometer in both 2016/2018 and 2024/2025, the share of citizens who support non-discrimination in hiring increased by 4 percentage points on average (Figure 5). Fourteen countries recorded significant gains (of more than 3 percentage points), led by Mauritius (+24 points), Mozambique (+22 points), and Lesotho (+18 points). Six countries, however, saw significant declines, with The Gambia (-10 points) and Togo (-9 points) recording the most substantial decreases.

**Figure 5: Change in support for gender equality in hiring | 31 countries | 2016-2025**

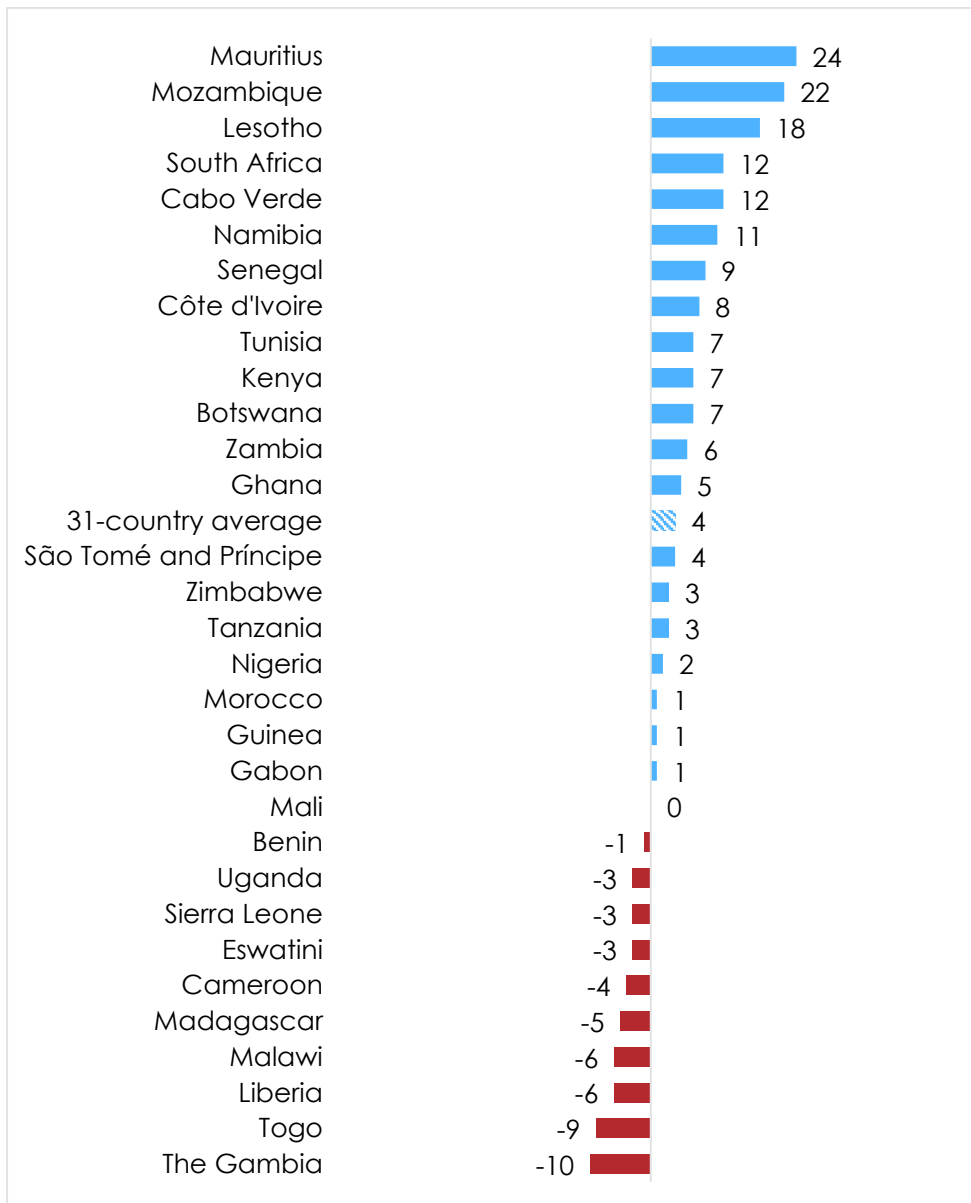
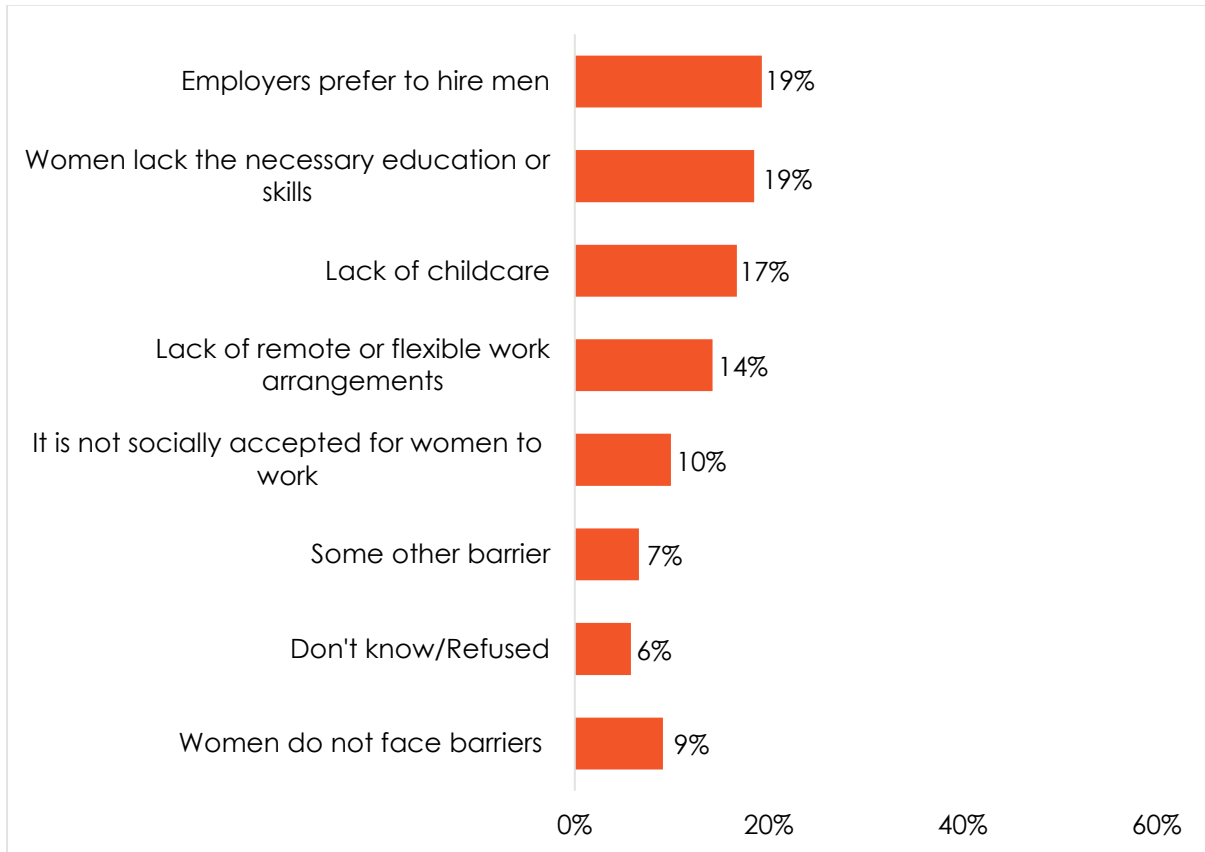


Figure shows change, in percentage points, between 2016/2018 and 2024/2025 in the proportion of respondents who “disagree” or “strongly disagree” with the following statement: When jobs are scarce, men should have more rights to a job than a woman.

Evidence shows that across Africa, women's labour-force participation continues to be constrained by discriminatory hiring practices, unequal care responsibilities, skills gaps, and restrictive social norms (World Bank, 2026; UN Women, 2025).

When asked what they see as the main barrier to women entering and advancing in the workforce, Africans most commonly point to an employer preference for hiring men (19%) and women's supposed lack of necessary education or skills (19%), followed by a lack of childcare (17%) and flexible work arrangements (14%) (Figure 6). One in 10 respondents (10%), on the other hand, blame a belief that it is not socially acceptable for women to hold paid jobs.

**Figure 6: Main barrier to women’s workplace entry and advancement**  
 | 38 countries | 2024/2025



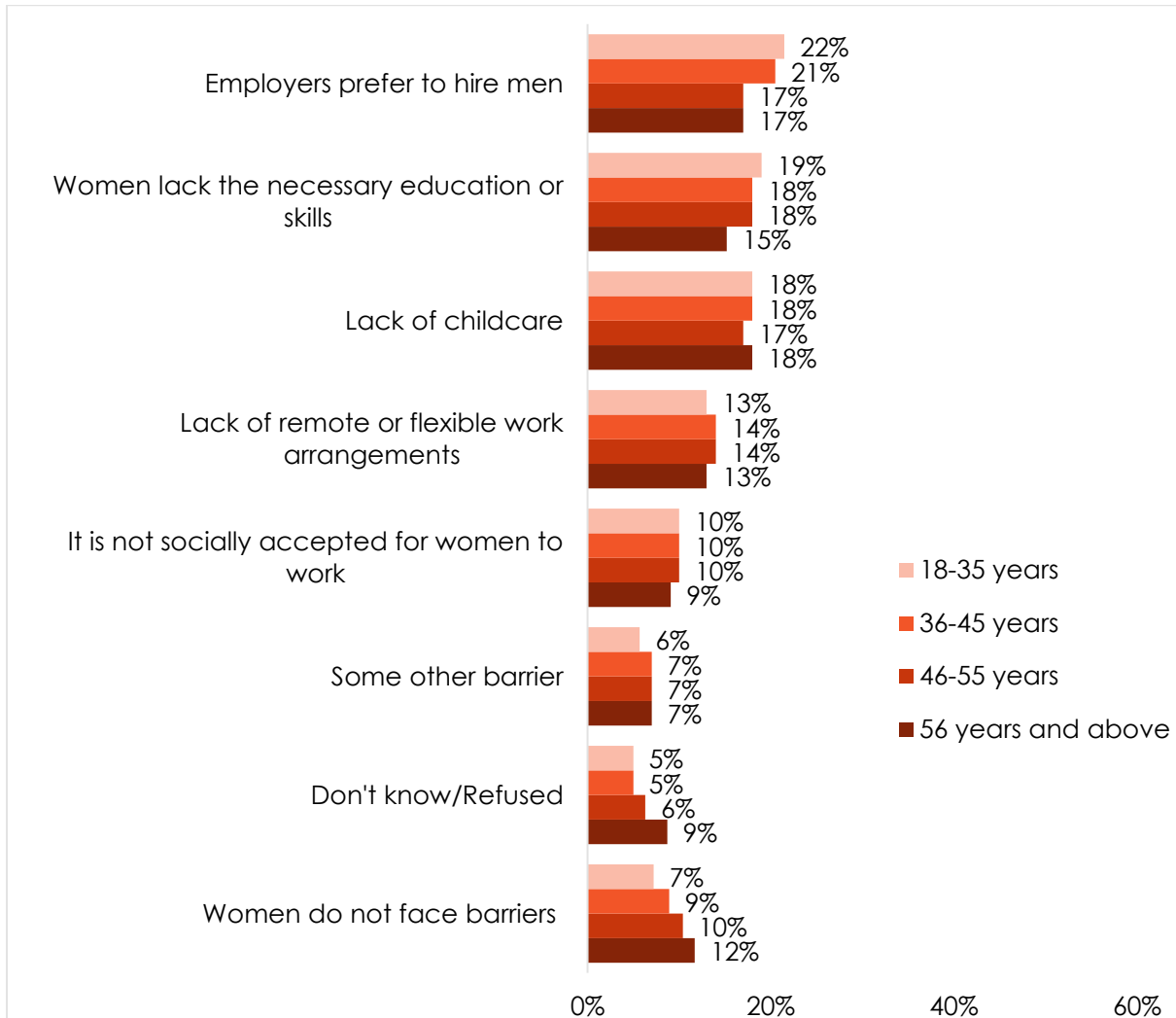
**Respondents were asked:** *In your opinion, which of the following is the main barrier to women entering and moving up in the workforce?*

Women differ little from men in their perceptions of these barriers. Young women aged 18-35 are more likely than women aged over 55 to mention an employer preference for hiring men (22% vs. 17%) and a lack of necessary education and skills (19% vs. 15%), while older women are more likely to say that women don't face any particular obstacles to employment (12% vs. 7%) (Figure 7).

Additionally, almost one in four Africans (23%) say that women in their communities are “often” or “always” prevented from taking paid employment by spouses or other relatives (Figure 8). Three-fourths (75%) of respondents say this “rarely” or “never” happens in their community. Perceptions that families often obstruct women's employment vary considerably across the continent, ranging from more than four in ten (44%) in Cameroon to fewer than one in ten in Sierra Leone (6%), Seychelles (4%), and Mauritius (2%).

This view is more prevalent among young adults than the elderly (25% vs. 18%) and among those experiencing high lived poverty compared to the wealthiest citizens (28% vs. 14%) (Figure 9).

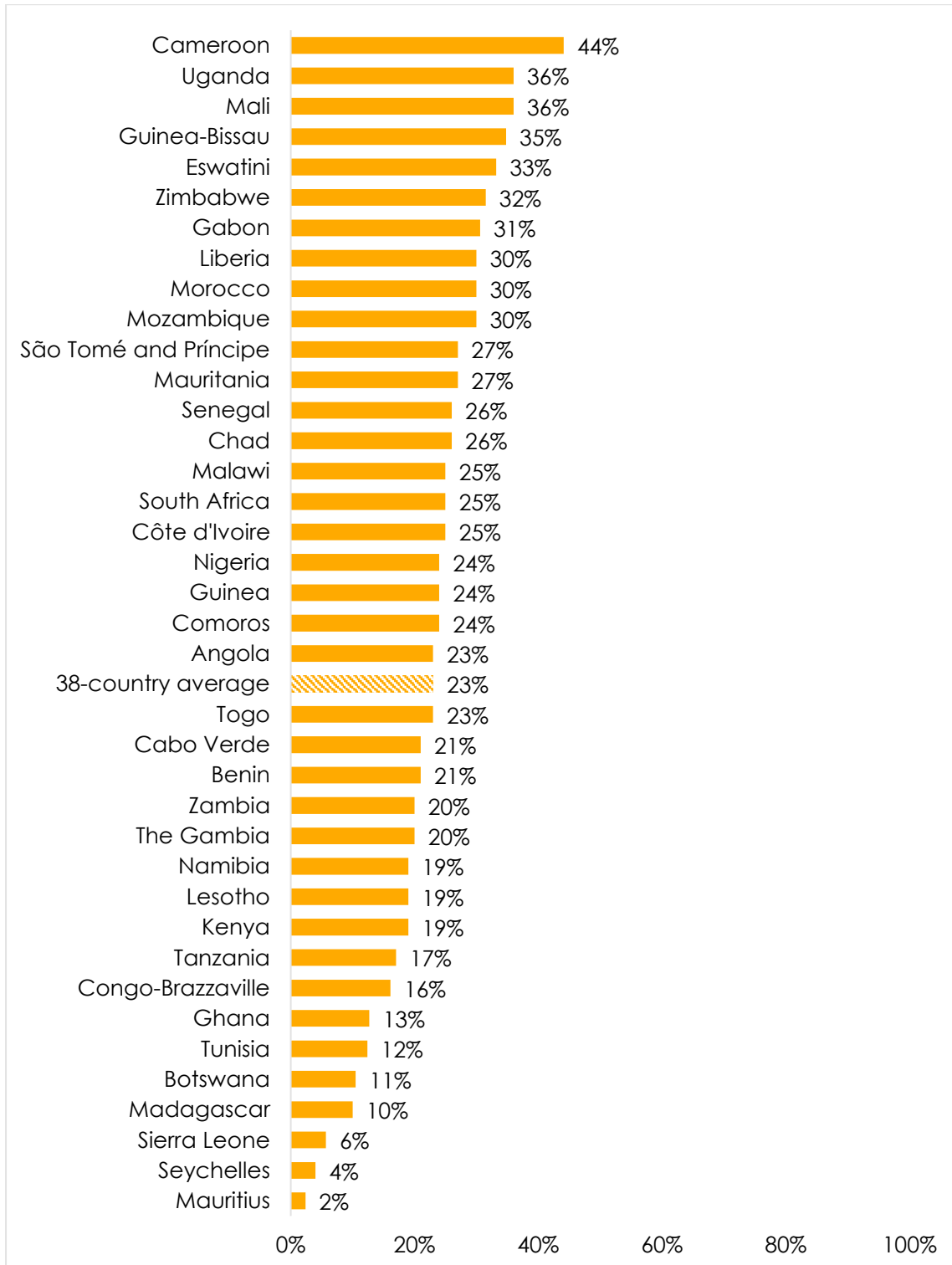
**Figure 7: Main barrier to women’s workplace entry and advancement** | women by age group | 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** In your opinion, which of the following is the main barrier to women entering and moving up in the workforce? (This analysis includes only women.)

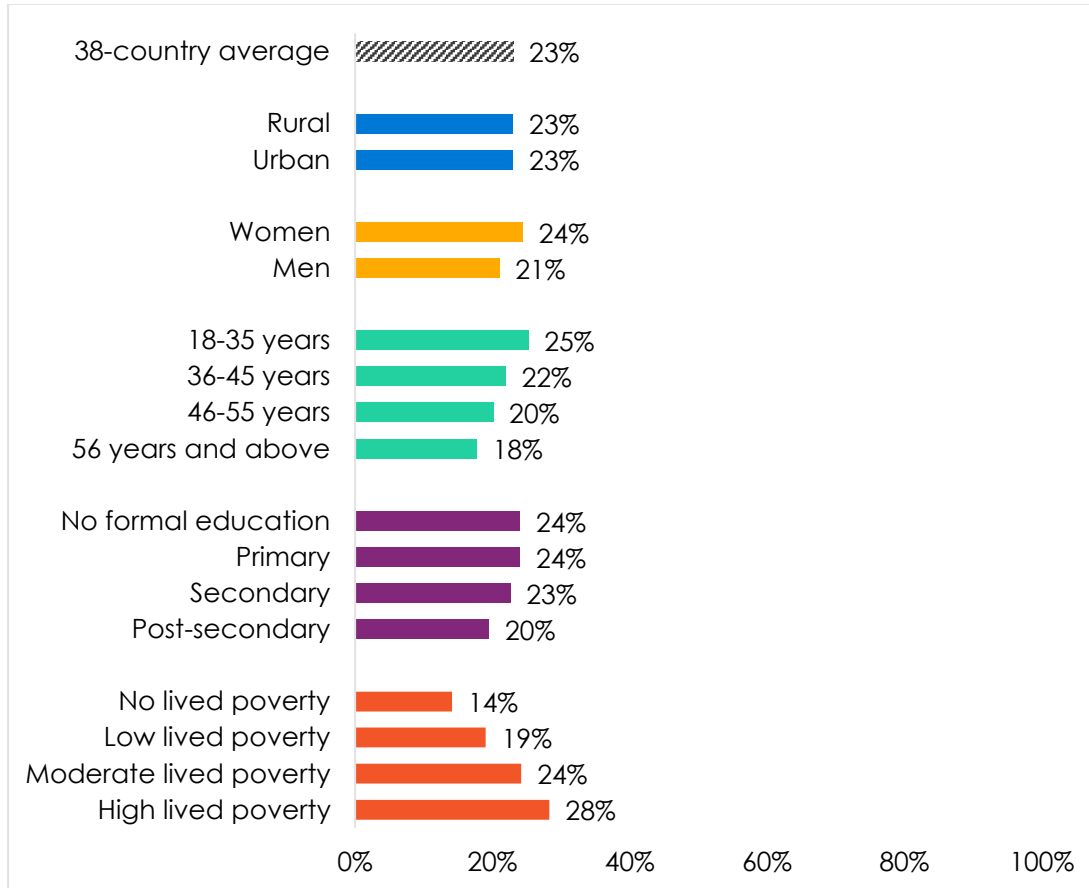
Do your own analysis of Afrobarometer data – on any question, for any country and survey round. It’s easy and free at [www.afrobarometer.org/online-data-analysis](http://www.afrobarometer.org/online-data-analysis).

**Figure 8: Women are barred from working by spouses/family | 38 countries**  
 | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** How frequently do the following things occur in your community: Women are prevented by their spouses or other family members from taking paid employment? (% who say “often” or “always”)

**Figure 9: Women are barred from working by spouses/family | by demographic group | 38 countries | 2024/2025**



**Respondents were asked:** How frequently do the following things occur in your community: Women are prevented by their spouses or other family members from taking paid employment? (% who say "often" or "always")

### Discrimination and sexual harassment

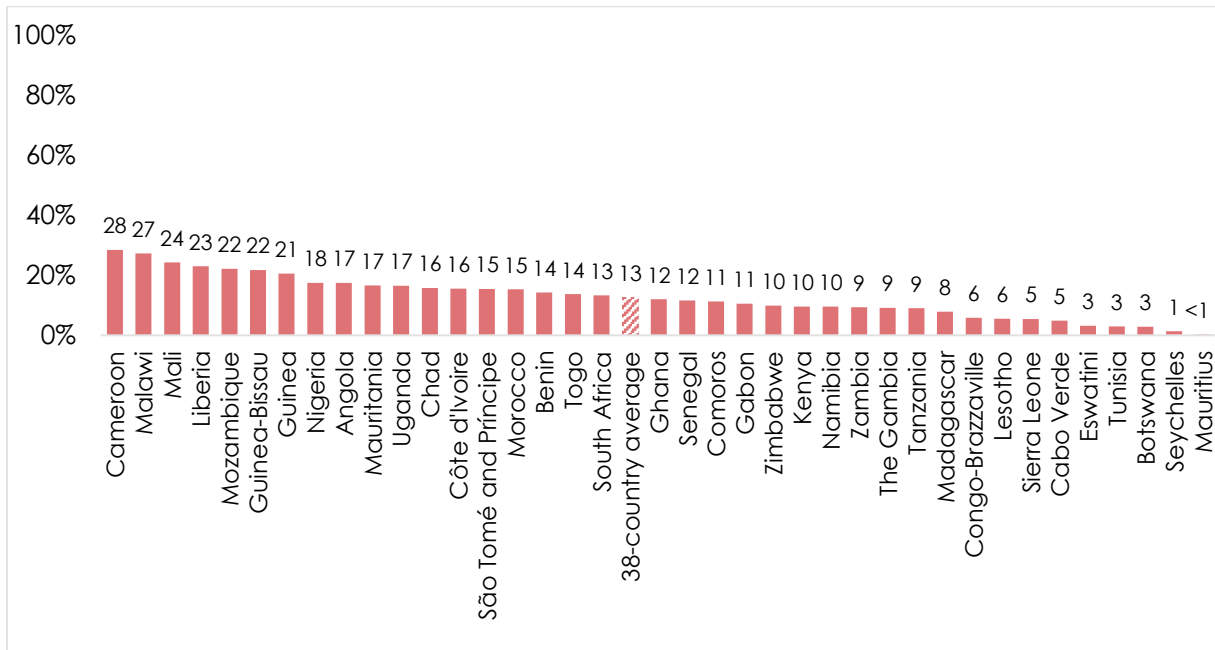
Women's economic participation faces multiple, interconnected barriers. At the most fundamental level, some girls are prevented from acquiring the education that would enable later economic opportunity.

On average across 38 African countries, women are less likely than men to have secondary or post-secondary education (54% vs. 62%) and are more likely to lack formal schooling (18% vs. 13%) (Mpako, Balongo, & Ghambi, 2026).

About one in eight citizens (13%) say girls in their community are "often" or "always" prevented from attending school because their families prioritise boys' education, although most respondents (86%) say this is rare or unheard of (Figure 10). Critically, rates vary sharply by country: from tiny minorities in Eswatini (3%), Tunisia (3%), Botswana (3%), Seychelles (1%), and Mauritius (<1%) to more than one in four citizens in Cameroon (28%) and Malawi (27%).

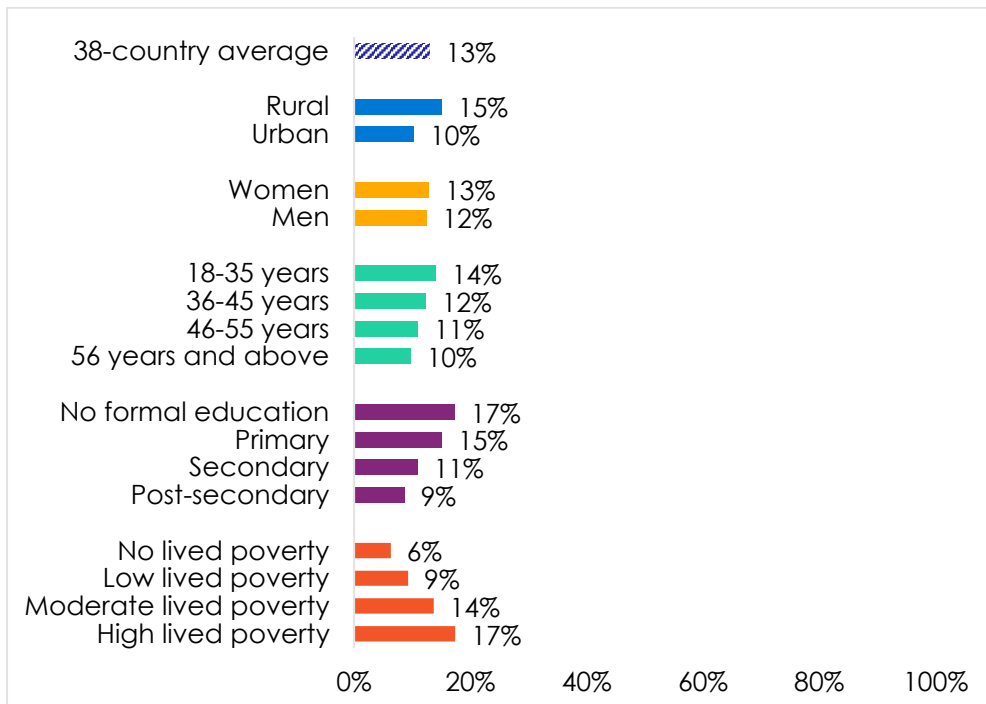
Perceptions that many families keep girls out of school are more prevalent among the less educated compared to those with post-secondary education (17% vs. 9%) and among those experiencing high lived poverty compared to the wealthiest citizens (17% vs. 6%) (Figure 11).

**Figure 10: Girls prevented from attending school (%) | 38 countries | 2024/2025**



**Respondents were asked:** How frequently do the following things occur in your community: Girls are prevented from attending school because their families prioritise the education of boys? (% who say “often” or “always”)

**Figure 11: Girls prevented from attending school | by demographic group | 38 countries | 2024/2025**



**Respondents were asked:** How frequently do the following things occur in your community: Girls are prevented from attending school because their families prioritise the education of boys? (% who say “often” or “always”)

Supporting women's rights in principle is distinct from ensuring women's fair treatment and safety in everyday life. Sexual harassment, which constitutes one form of gender-based violence (GBV), remains a persistent concern in schools and public spaces across many contexts, though comparable cross-national data on its prevalence are limited. More broadly, global evidence suggests that violence against young women remains widespread: About one in four women worldwide have experienced intimate partner violence by age 24 (UNESCO, 2023). (For more findings on GBV, see M'Cormack-Hale, Patel, & Ndiaye Diouf, 2023.)

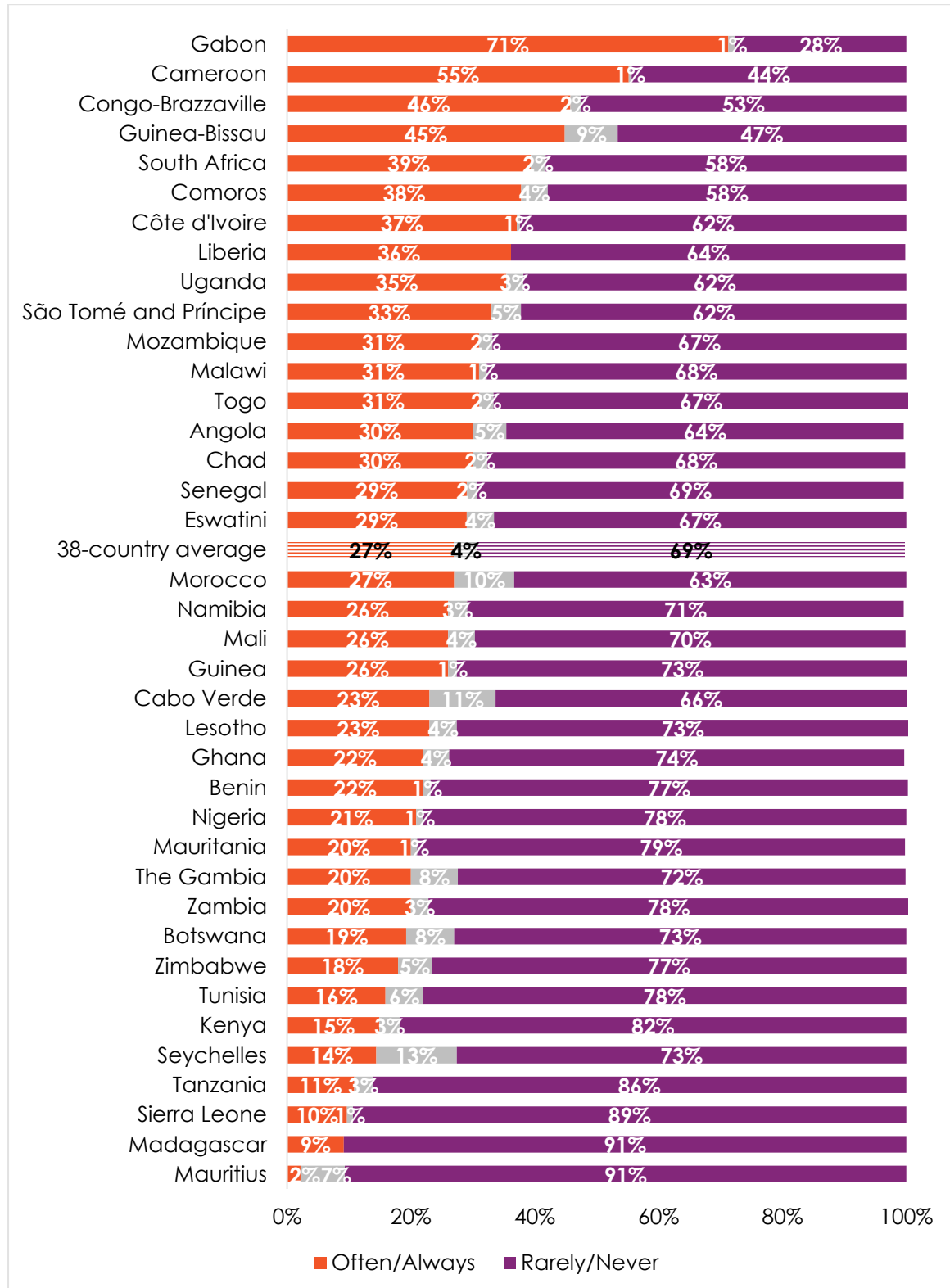
Across 38 African countries, more than one in four citizens (27%) say that schoolgirls are "often" or "always" discriminated against, harassed, or harangued for sexual favours by teachers, while 69% of respondents say this "rarely" or "never" happens (Figure 12). Reports of such discrimination and harassment vary widely across countries, from fewer than one in 10 respondents in Madagascar (9%) and Mauritius (2%) to majorities in Gabon (71%) and Cameroon (55%).

Harassment extends beyond schools into public spaces. Nearly three in 10 respondents (28%) say women "often" or "always" experience sexual harassment in public spaces, such as in markets, on the street, and in public transport (Figure 13). As with school-based harassment, rates vary dramatically by country, including majorities in Gabon (57%) and Guinea-Bissau (55%).

The demographic patterns are similar for perceived discrimination and harassment of girls in schools and sexual harassment of women in public spaces (Figure 14). Both are more widely perceived by urban residents, youth, the most educated citizens, and poor respondents than their various counterparts.

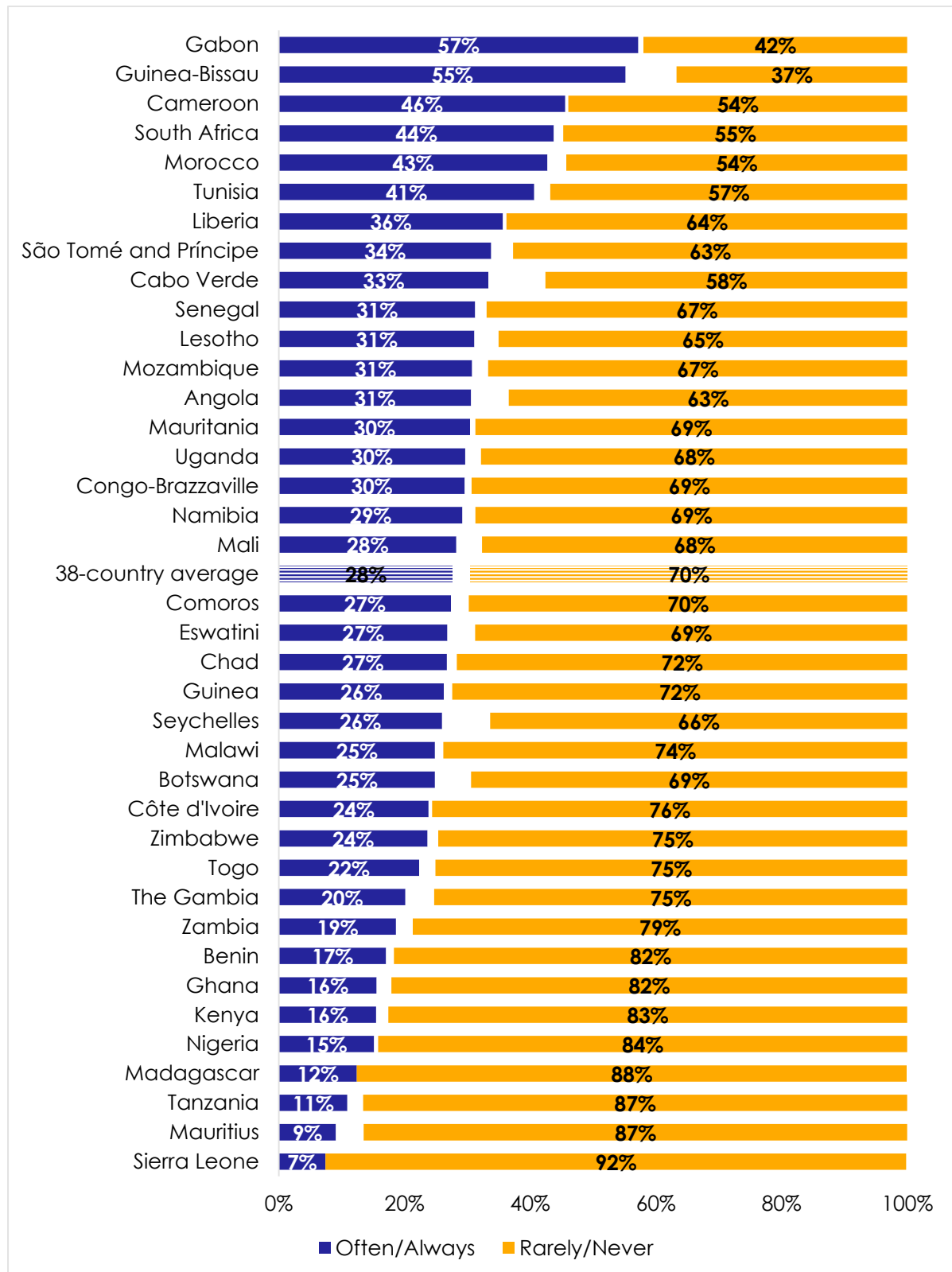
For instance, urbanites are 9-11 percentage points more likely than rural residents to report both forms of abuse as frequent occurrences (32% vs. 23% for discrimination and harassment of girls in schools, and 33% vs. 22% for sexual harassment of women in public spaces). Only 19% of well-off respondents report frequent discrimination/harassment of girls by teachers compared to 32% of those experiencing high lived poverty, and the poor are more likely than the affluent to perceive sexual harassment in public spaces as a common occurrence (31% vs. 25%).

**Figure 12: Girls face discrimination and harassment in school | 38 countries**  
 | 2024/2025



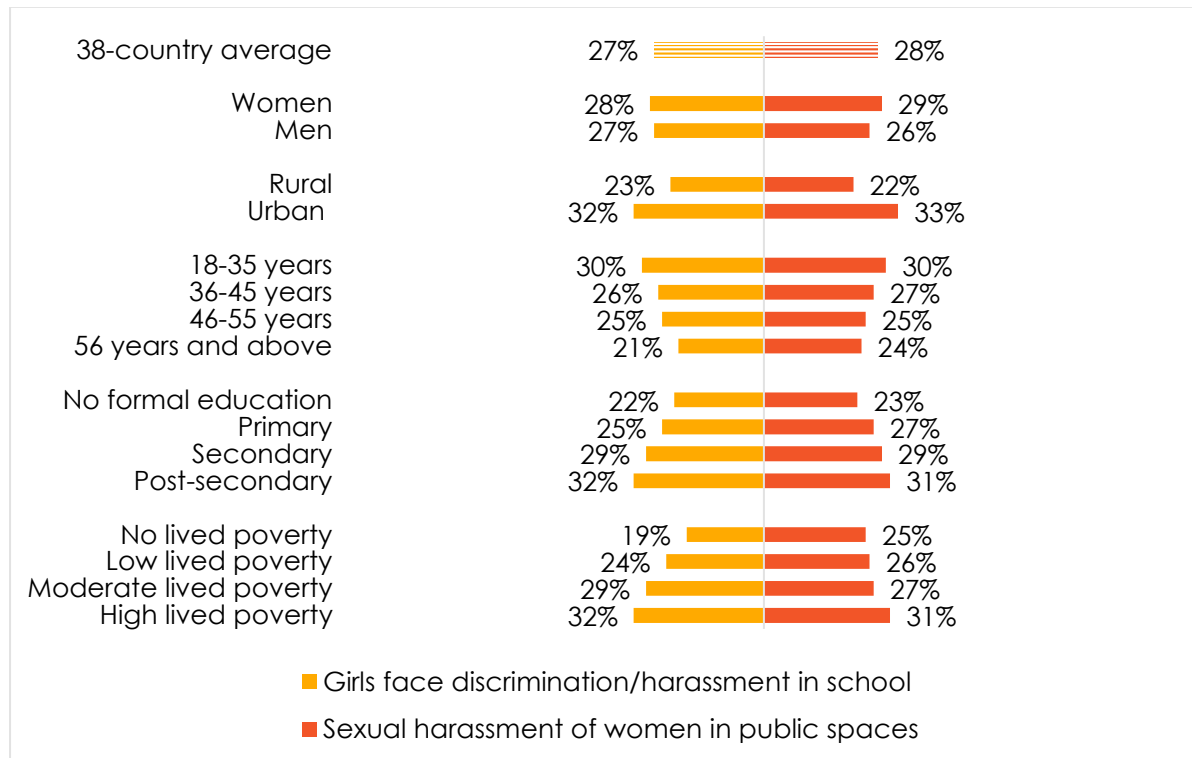
**Respondents were asked:** How frequently do the following things occur in your community: Girl students face discrimination, harassment, or requests for sexual favours from their teachers?

**Figure 13: Sexual harassment of women in public spaces** | 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** How frequently do the following things occur in your community: Women are sexually harassed in public places such as in markets, on the streets, or in public transport?

**Figure 14: Discrimination and sexual harassment of girls and women**  
 | by demographic group | 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** How frequently do the following things occur in your community:  
 Women are sexually harassed in public places such as in markets, on the streets, or in public transport?  
 Girl students face discrimination, harassment, or requests for sexual favours from their teachers?  
 (% who say "often" or "always")

### Responsiveness of the justice system

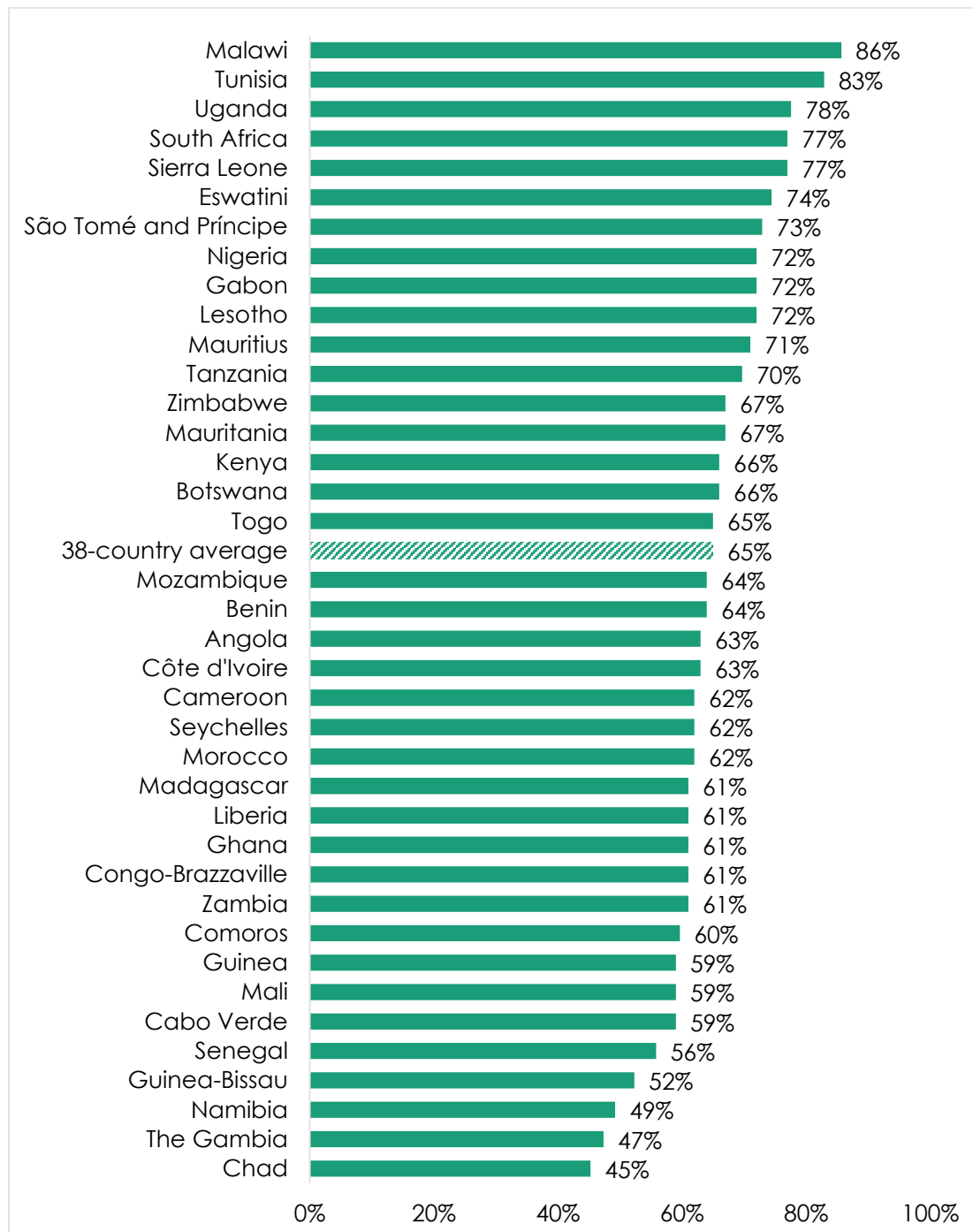
The effectiveness of laws and policies protecting women depends heavily on whether victims can seek redress and authorities respond appropriately. If women and girls complain of discrimination and harassment in public spaces, such as workplaces and schools, about two-thirds (65%) of Africans think that they are "somewhat likely" (34%) or "very likely" (31%) to be believed (Figure 15). More than eight in 10 citizens agree in Malawi (86%) and Tunisia (83%). Namibia (49%), The Gambia (47%), and Chad (45%), are the only surveyed countries where fewer than half of citizens express confidence in society's view of women's credibility.

While a majority of Africans consider it likely that women and girls will be believed if they complain about discrimination and harassment, many still perceive significant shortcomings in institutional protection. Fully half (50%) say that the police and courts need to do "much more" to protect them from such treatment, while an additional 28% say these institutions need to do "somewhat more" (Figure 16). Only one-fifth (19%) think they are doing enough. The gap reveals a paradox in institutional form – people trust that women's complaints will be heard, but they don't trust that authorities will act on those complaints.

Demand for greater protection by the police and courts is a majority position in all surveyed countries, dropping no lower than about two-thirds of citizens in Zambia (65%) and Madagascar (67%). It is particularly pronounced in Gabon (95% "somewhat more" or "much more") and Cameroon (91%) – two countries that also report extremely high levels of sexual harassment in schools and public spaces (see figures 12 and 13 above).

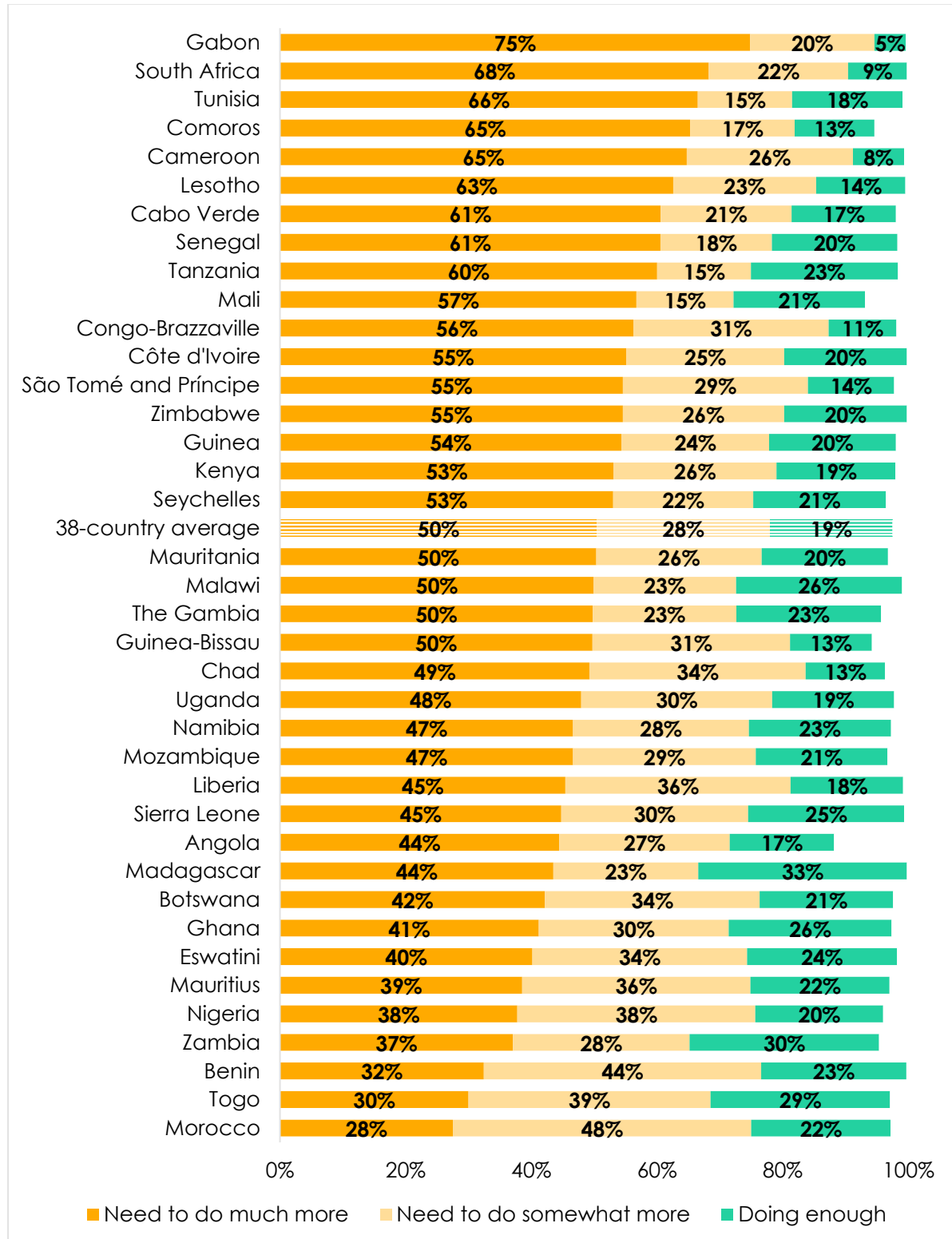
This call for stronger institutional responses is also loud and clear across key demographic groups, particularly among urban residents (81%) and the most educated citizens (82%) (Figure 17). It suggests a persistent gap between formal legal commitments and effective enforcement of protections for women's safety.

**Figure 15: Likely that women and girls will be believed if they complain of discrimination or harassment** | 38 countries | 2024/2025



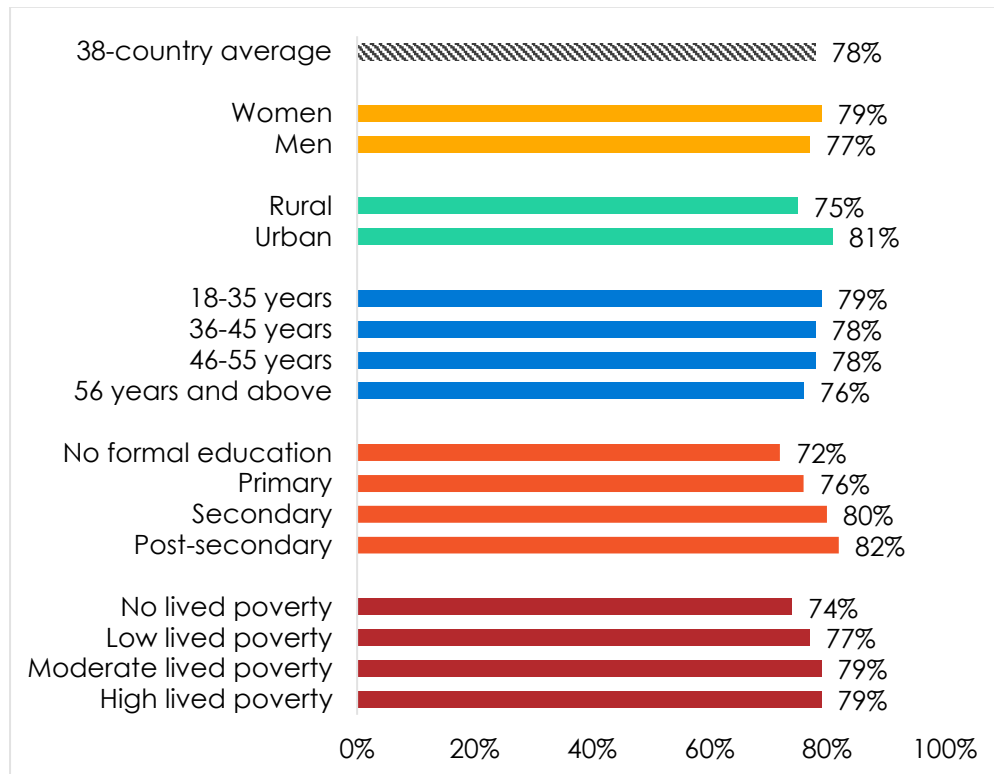
**Respondents were asked:** In your community, how likely is it that people will believe women or girls if they complain about being discriminated against or harassed in schools, workplaces, or other public spaces? (% who say "somewhat likely," or "very likely")

**Figure 16: Are police and courts doing enough to protect women and girls?**  
 | 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** Do you think the police and courts in this country are doing enough to protect women and girls from discrimination and harassment in schools, workplaces, and public spaces, or do they need to do more?

**Figure 17: Police and courts need to do more to protect women and girls**  
 | by demographic group | 38 countries | 2024/2025



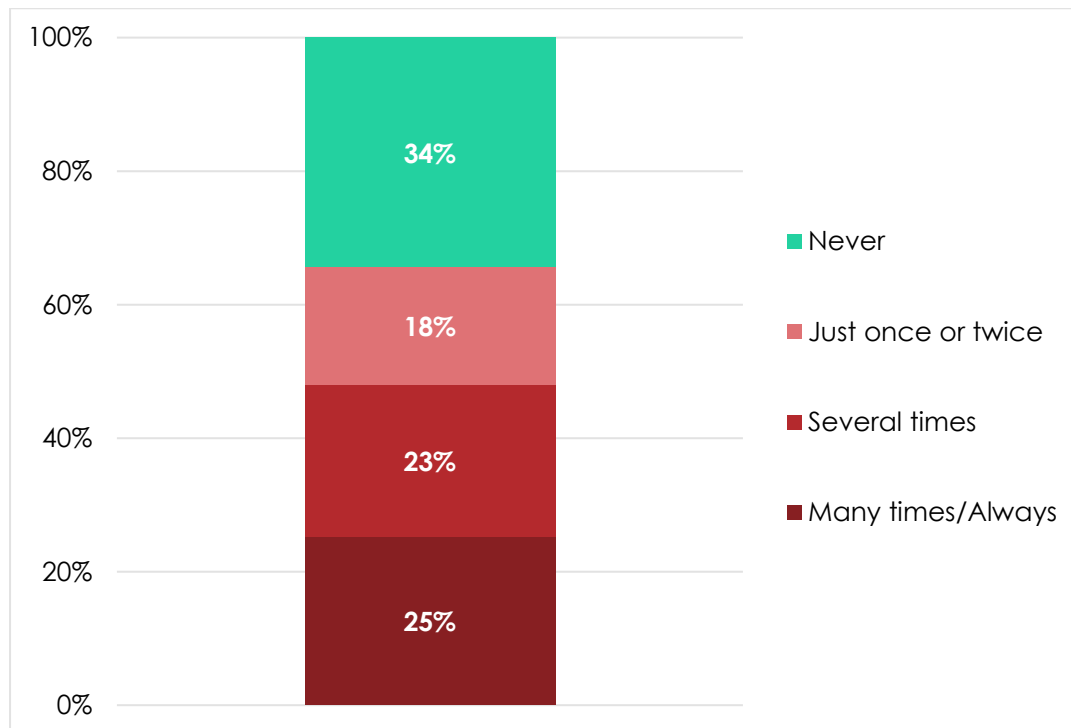
**Respondents were asked:** Do you think the police and courts in this country are doing enough to protect women and girls from discrimination and harassment in schools, workplaces, and public spaces, or do they need to do more? (% who say “need to do somewhat more” or “need to do much more”)

### Health-care access and gender

Rights are only meaningful if accompanied by the capacity to exercise them. Access to health care, including reproductive-health and family-planning services, enables women's participation in education, work, and economic life (Canning & Schultz, 2012; Sully et al., 2020). Afrobarometer data show that about two-thirds (65%) of women say they had contact with a public health facility during the previous year, compared to 56% of men. (For more findings on health care, see Asunka, Dulani, & Yakubu, 2026). Women tend to interact with health systems more frequently because of their reproductive and maternal health needs (Sully et al., 2020) and because they often bear primary responsibility for family caregiving and health-seeking (Nembot, Kum, & Ntoubia, 2026).

Yet significant portions of African populations continue to struggle to obtain needed medical care. On average across 38 countries, two-thirds of women (66%) and men (64%) say that they or someone in their family went without medicines or medical treatment at least once during the preceding year, including one-quarter (25%-26%) who say this happened “many times” or “always” (Figure 18).

**Figure 18: Went without medical care** | women | 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** Over the past year, how often, if ever, have you or anyone in your family gone without medicines or medical treatment? (This analysis includes only women.)

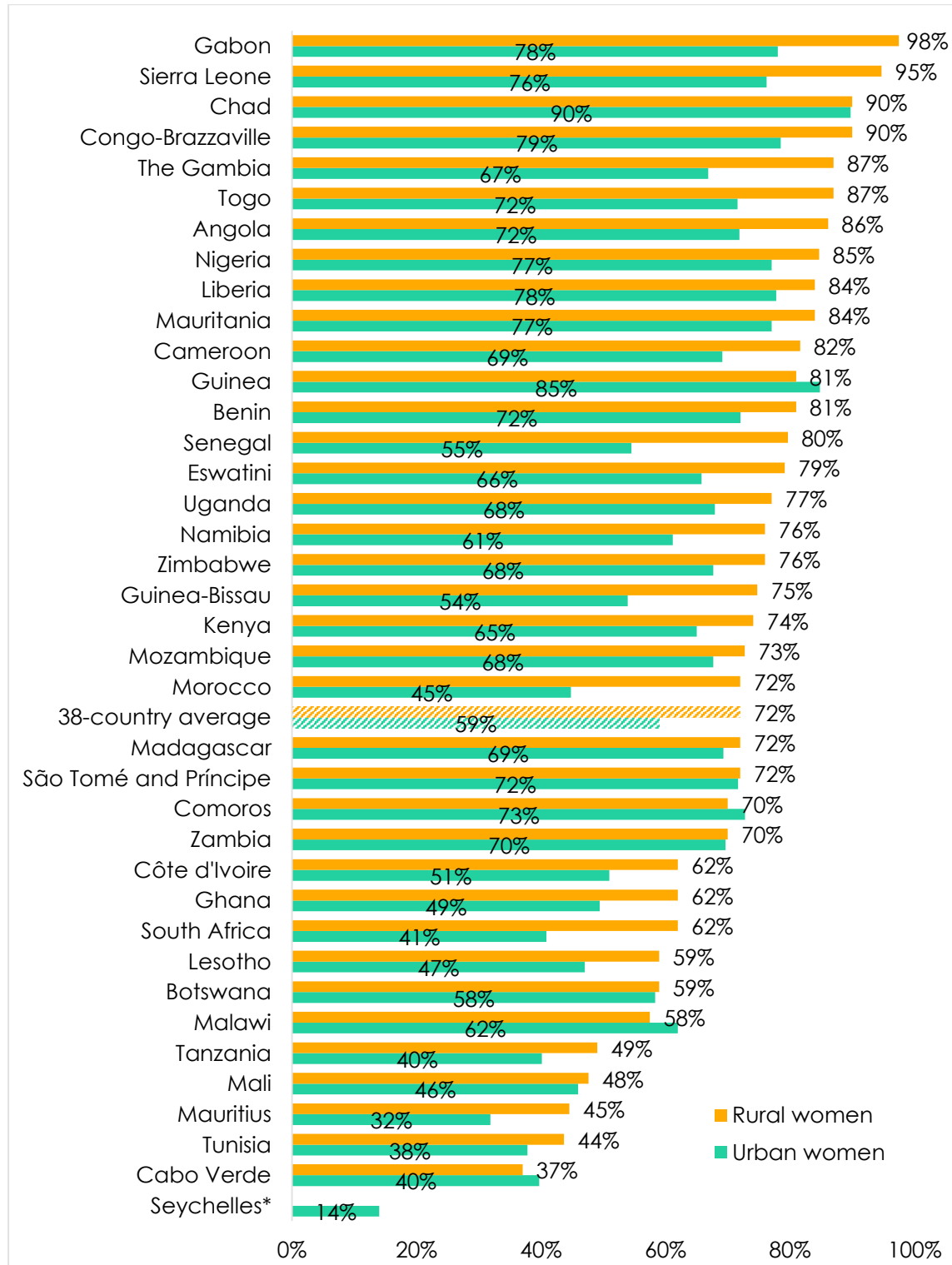
On average, rural women are more likely than urban women to go without medicine or medical treatment (72% vs. 59%), perhaps reflecting a deficit of health-care infrastructure in rural areas (Amzat & Razum, 2018), with associated higher transportation and other costs.

At least nine in 10 rural women report having gone without medical care during the previous year in Gabon (98%), Sierra Leone (95%), Chad (90%), and Congo-Brazzaville (90%) (Figure 19). Among urban women, Chad (90%) and Guinea (85%) are the two countries that come close to those levels of deprivation.

Morocco records the great rural-urban difference: 72% of rural women went without medical care during the previous year, vs. 45% of urban women, a 27-percentage-point gap. Massive gaps were also registered in Senegal (25 points), Guinea-Bissau (21 points), South Africa (21 points), and The Gambia (20 points).

Interestingly, among respondents who sought care at a public health facility, urban women are slightly more likely than rural women to say it was “difficult” or “very difficult” to obtain the services they needed (52% vs. 49%), with particularly large gaps in Zimbabwe (76% among urban women vs. 43% among rural women), (Madagascar (78% vs. 53%), and Malawi (76% vs. 55%) (Figure 20).

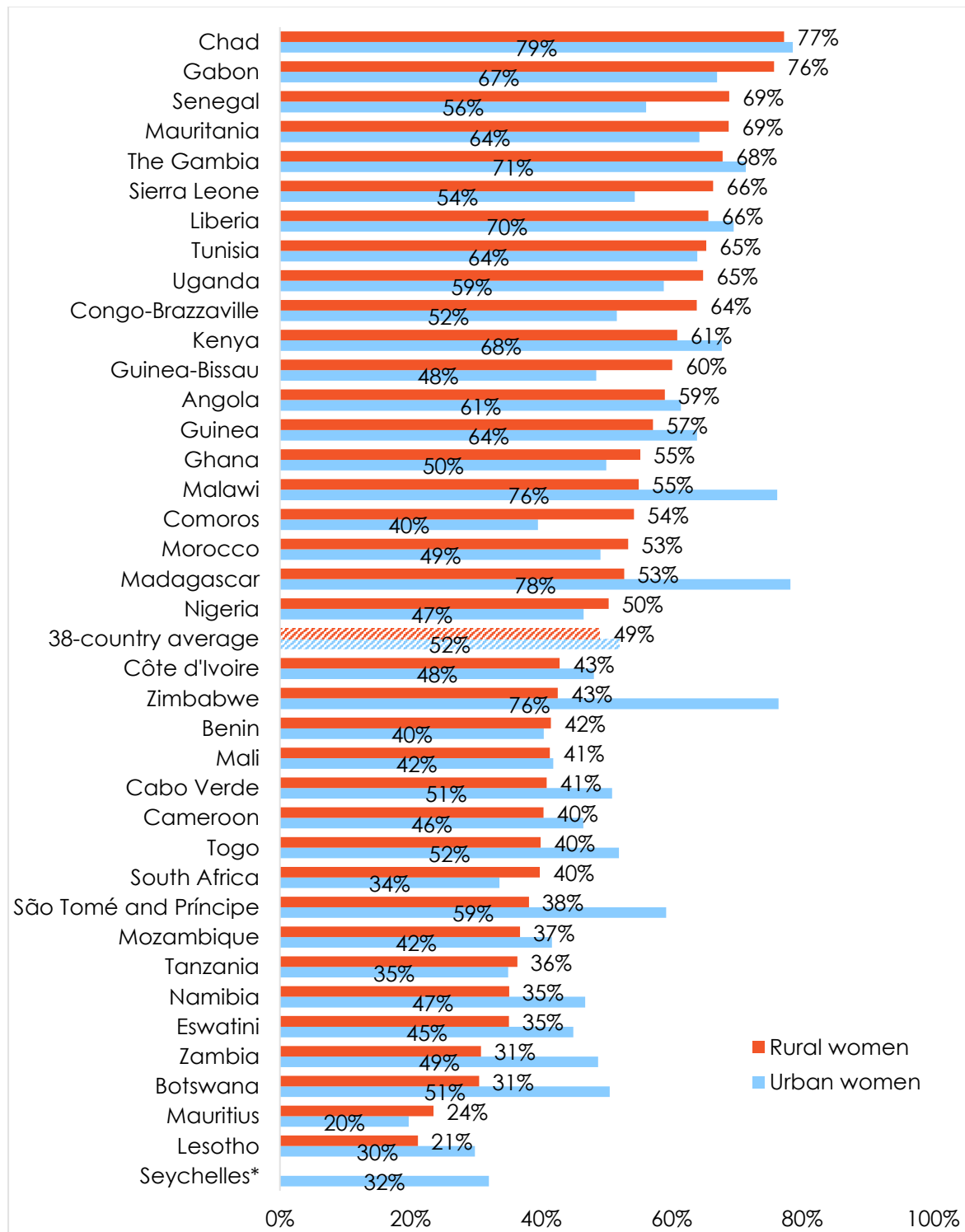
**Figure 19: Went without medicine or medical treatment | rural vs. urban women**  
 | 38 countries | 2024/2025



**Respondents were asked:** Over the past year, how often, if ever, have you or anyone in your family gone without medicines or medical treatment? (% who say “just once or twice,” “several times,” “many times,” or “always”)

\*In Seychelles, all surveyed enumeration areas are considered urban.

**Figure 20: Difficulty in obtaining medical care | rural vs. urban women | 38 countries | 2024/2025**



**Respondents who had contact with a public clinic or hospital were asked:** How easy or difficult was it to obtain the medical care or services you needed? (% who say "difficult," or "very difficult")  
 (Respondents who didn't have contact with a public clinic or hospital are excluded.)  
 \*In Seychelles, all surveyed enumeration areas are considered urban.

## Conclusion

The latest Afrobarometer findings point to a continent navigating two realities. Across 38 countries, large majorities express support for women's autonomy in fundamental life decisions, recognise women's economic rights, and endorse equal access to education and opportunity. Yet these commitments are not consistently reflected in women's experiences. Sexual harassment in schools and public spaces, gaps in health-care access, and economic barriers limit women's full participation "in all spheres of life." Perhaps most striking, nearly eight in 10 Africans say that the police and courts are not doing enough to protect women's rights. The public appears ready for greater equality and want their institutions to keep pace.

For policy makers and civil society organisations, these findings point to several priorities. First, strengthening justice-system responses to discrimination and harassment will call for not only improving laws but also ensuring effective enforcement. Second, expanding economic opportunities will require addressing multiple barriers simultaneously: educational access for girls, childcare support, anti-discrimination enforcement in hiring and promotion, and support for women entrepreneurs. Third, health-care systems must work to eliminate barriers to accessing care, particularly for women living in rural areas.

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## Appendix

**Table A.1: Afrobarometer Round 10 fieldwork dates and previous survey rounds**

| Country               | Round 10 fieldwork  | Previous survey rounds                               |
|-----------------------|---------------------|--|
| Algeria               | N/A                 | 2013, 2015   |
| Angola                | March-April 2024    | 2019, 2022   |
| Benin                 | Jan.-Feb. 2024      | 2005, 2008, 2011, 2014, 2017, 2020, 2022             |
| Botswana              | July 2024           | 1999, 2003, 2005, 2008, 2012, 2014, 2017, 2019, 2022 |
| Burkina Faso          | N/A                 | 2008, 2012, 2015, 2017, 2019, 2022                   |
| Burundi               | N/A                 | 2012, 2014   |
| Cabo Verde            | Aug.-Sept. 2024     | 2002, 2005, 2008, 2011, 2014, 2017, 2019, 2022       |
| Cameroon              | Feb.-March 2024     | 2013, 2015, 2018, 2021, 2022                         |
| Chad                  | Feb.-April 2025     | N/A  |
| Comoros               | May-June 2025       | N/A  |
| Congo-Brazzaville     | Sept.-Oct. 2024     | 2023   |
| Côte d'Ivoire         | Jan. 2024           | 2013, 2014, 2017, 2019, 2021                         |
| Egypt                 | N/A                 | 2013, 2015   |
| Eswatini              | April-May 2025      | 2013, 2015, 2018, 2021, 2022                         |
| Ethiopia              | N/A                 | 2013, 2020, 2023                                     |
| Gabon                 | April-May 2024      | 2015, 2017, 2020, 2021                               |
| Gambia, The           | April-May 2024      | 2018, 2021, 2022                                     |
| Ghana                 | Aug. 2024           | 1999, 2002, 2005, 2008, 2012, 2014, 2017, 2019, 2022 |
| Guinea                | May-June 2024       | 2013, 2015, 2017, 2019, 2022                         |
| Guinea-Bissau         | July-Sept. 2025     | N/A  |
| Kenya                 | April-May 2024      | 2003, 2005, 2008, 2011, 2014, 2016, 2019, 2021       |
| Lesotho               | March 2024          | 2000, 2003, 2005, 2008, 2012, 2014, 2017, 2020, 2022 |
| Liberia               | July-Aug. 2024      | 2008, 2012, 2015, 2018, 2020, 2022                   |
| Madagascar            | Oct.-Nov. 2024      | 2005, 2008, 2013, 2015, 2018, 2022                   |
| Malawi                | Aug. 2024           | 1999, 2003, 2005, 2008, 2012, 2014, 2017, 2019, 2022 |
| Mali                  | Oct.-Nov. 2024      | 2001, 2002, 2005, 2008, 2013, 2014, 2017, 2020, 2022 |
| Mauritania            | Dec. 2024-Jan. 2025 | 2022   |
| Mauritius             | April-May 2024      | 2012, 2014, 2017, 2020, 2022                         |
| Morocco               | Feb.-March 2024     | 2013, 2015, 2018, 2021, 2022                         |
| Mozambique            | July-Sept. 2025     | 2002, 2005, 2008, 2012, 2015, 2018, 2021, 2022       |
| Namibia               | March 2024          | 1999, 2003, 2006, 2008, 2012, 2014, 2017, 2019, 2021 |
| Niger                 | N/A                 | 2013, 2015, 2018, 2020, 2021                         |
| Nigeria               | June-July 2024      | 2000, 2003, 2005, 2008, 2013, 2015, 2017, 2020, 2022 |
| São Tomé and Príncipe | Sept.-Nov. 2024     | 2015, 2018, 2022                                     |
| Senegal               | Feb.-March 2025     | 2002, 2005, 2008, 2013, 2014, 2017, 2021, 2022       |
| Seychelles            | Aug. 2024           | 2022   |
| Sierra Leone          | March-April 2025    | 2012, 2015, 2018, 2020, 2022                         |
| South Africa          | June-Aug. 2025      | 2000, 2002, 2006, 2008, 2011, 2015, 2018, 2021, 2022 |
| Sudan                 | N/A                 | 2013, 2015, 2018, 2021, 2022                         |
| Tanzania              | June-July 2024      | 2001, 2003, 2005, 2008, 2012, 2014, 2017, 2021, 2022 |
| Togo                  | July 2024           | 2012, 2014, 2017, 2021, 2022                         |
| Tunisia               | Feb.-March 2024     | 2013, 2015, 2018, 2020, 2022                         |
| Uganda                | Jan.-Feb. 2024      | 2000, 2002, 2005, 2008, 2012, 2015, 2017, 2019, 2022 |
| Zambia                | July 2024           | 1999, 2003, 2005, 2009, 2013, 2014, 2017, 2020, 2022 |
| Zimbabwe              | June 2024           | 1999, 2004, 2005, 2009, 2012, 2014, 2017, 2021, 2022 |

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