EFA Global Monitoring Report

2015

Education for All

EDUCATION FOR ALL 2000-2015:
ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES

United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

EDUCATION FOR ALL 2000-2015:

ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES

United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

UNESCO
Publishing

This Report is an independent publication commissioned by UNESCO on behalf of the international community. It is the product of a collaborative effort involving members of the Report Team and many other people, agencies, institutions and governments.

The designations employed and the presentation of the material in this publication do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of UNESCO concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area, or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

The EFA Global Monitoring Report team is responsible for the choice and the presentation of the facts contained in this book and for the opinions expressed therein, which are not necessarily those of UNESCO and do not commit the Organization. Overall responsibility for the views and opinions expressed in the Report is taken by its Director.

Second edition
Published in 2015 by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
7, Place de Fontenoy, 75352 Paris 07 SP, France

Graphic design by FHI 360
Layout by FHI 360

Library of Congress Cataloging in Publication Data
Data available
Typeset by UNESCO
ISBN 978-92-3-100085-0

Cover photos from left to right:
Karel Prinsloo
Mey Meng
UNICEF/NYHQ2004-0991/Pirozzi
Nguyen Thanh Tuan
UNICEF/NYHQ2005-1176/LeMoyne
Magali Corouge
Benavot
Eva-Lotta Jansson
BRAC/ShehzadNoorani
UNICEF/NYHQ2005-1194/LeMoyne
Karel Prinsloo
Magali Corouge
Tutu Mani Chakma
Benavot
Amima Sayeed

Foreword

In 2000, at the *World Education Forum* in Dakar, Senegal, 164 governments agreed on the *Dakar Framework for Action, Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments*, launching an ambitious agenda to reach six wide-ranging education goals by 2015. UNESCO initiated the *EFA Global Monitoring Reports* in response, to monitor progress, highlight remaining gaps and provide recommendations for the global sustainable development agenda to follow in 2015.

There has been tremendous progress across the world since 2000 – but we are not there yet. Despite all efforts by governments, civil society and the international community, the world has not achieved Education for All.

On the positive side, the number of children and adolescents who were out of school has fallen by almost half since 2000. An estimated 34 million more children will have attended school as a result of faster progress since Dakar. The greatest progress has been achieved in gender parity, particularly in primary education, although gender disparity remains in almost a third of the countries with data. Governments have also increased efforts to measure learning outcomes through national and international assessments, using these to ensure that all children receive the quality of education they were promised.

And yet, for all this progress, 15 years of monitoring shows sobering results.

There are still 58 million children out of school globally and around 100 million children who do not complete primary education. Inequality in education has increased, with the poorest and most disadvantaged shouldering the heaviest burden. The world's poorest children are four times more likely not to go to school than the world's richest children, and five times more likely not to complete primary school. Conflict remains a steep barrier, with a high and growing proportion of out-of-school children living in conflict zones. Overall, the poor quality of learning at primary level still has millions of children leaving school without basic skills.

What is more, education remains under-financed. Many governments have increased spending, but few have prioritized education in national budgets, and most fall short of allocating the recommended 20% needed to bridge funding gaps. The picture is similar with donors, who, after an initial boost in aid budgets, have reduced aid to education since 2010 and not sufficiently prioritized those countries most in need.

This Report draws on all of this experience, to make sharp recommendations for the place of education in the future global sustainable development agenda. The lessons are clear. New education targets must be specific, relevant and measurable. Marginalized and disadvantaged groups, hardest to reach and still not enjoying their

right to education, must be a priority. There must be stronger action on financing across the board. While the bulk of costs will be borne by governments, the international community must step up, to sustain and increase aid to education – especially in low and lower middle income countries where needs are greatest. The future agenda will also need ever-stronger monitoring efforts, including data collection, analysis and dissemination, to hold all stakeholders to account.

In the run-up to 2015, *EFA Global Monitoring Reports* have played a leading role in supporting countries, providing solid assessment and analysis to facilitate policy-making, along with a powerful advocacy tool for governments and civil society. This will continue as we turn to implementing the new Sustainable Development Goals. After 2015, the Reports will continue to provide a trusted and independent voice on the state of global education, producing useful recommendations to all countries and partners. So much has been achieved since 2000 – we need to do far more, to ensure quality education and lifelong learning for all. There is simply no more powerful or longer-lasting investment in human rights and dignity, in social inclusion and sustainable development. Experience since 2000 shows what can be done – we need to draw on this to do more.

Irina Bokova
Director-General of UNESCO

Acknowledgements

This report would not have been possible without the contributions of numerous people. The *EFA Global Monitoring Report* (GMR) team would like to acknowledge their support and thank them for their time and effort.

Invaluable input has been provided by the GMR Advisory Board. We wish to acknowledge the past chairpersons of the board – Anil Bordia, Ingemar Gustafsson, Marcela Gajardo and Amina J. Mohammed – as well as the current chairperson, Professor Jeffrey Sachs. Special thanks also go to the funders without whose financial support the GMR would not be possible.

We would like to acknowledge the role of UNESCO, both at headquarters and in the field, as well as the UNESCO institutes. We are very grateful to numerous individuals, divisions and units in the Organization, notably in the Education and External Relations Sectors, for facilitating our daily work. As always, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics has played a key role and we would like to thank its former director, Hendrik van der Pol, and his dedicated staff, including Redouane Assad, Sheena Bell, Manuel Cardoso, Ghania Djafri, Daniel Ejov, Katja Frostell, Amélie Gagnon, Friedrich Huebler, Alison Kennedy, Weixin Lu, Albert Motivans, Patrick Montjourides, Amy Otchet, Maya Prince, Pascale Ratovondrahona, Ioulia Sementchouk, Konstantin Soushko-Bortsov and Wendy Xiaodan Weng.

Sincere gratitude goes to Pauline Rose, the previous director of the GMR, who participated in the initial development of this report.

A group of experts, including Christopher Colclough, Suzanne Grant-Lewis and Michael Ward, also helped us during the initial phase of this GMR and we would like to thank them warmly.

The GMR team would also like to thank the researchers who produced a record number of background papers and provided other input that informed the GMR's analysis: Sulleiman Adediran, Hülya Kosar Altinyelken, Massimo Amadio, Daniela Araujo, Catherine Arnold, Rukmini Banerji, Bilal Barakat, Kathy Bartlett, Lesley Bartlett, Rae Blumberg, Daniela Bramwell, Michael Bruneforth, Aneela Channa, Amita Chudgar, Lisa Corrie, Richard Desjardins, Caroline Dyer, Peter Easton, Lorna Elliott, Moira Faul, Kathryn Fleming, Sandra Garcia, Vicente Garcia-Moreno, Peter Grimes, Ulrike Hanemann, Frank Hardman, Lingxin Hao, Sandra García-Jaramillo, Sarah Kabay, Vishnu Karki, Ana Lucia Kassouf, Manjeet Kaur, Faryal Khan, Nabil Khattab, Anne Kielland, Kalpana Kumar, Simon Lange, Nancy Law, Thomas Luschei, Matthew Martin, Suzanne McAllister, Carlos Milani, Riyana Miranti, Ruth Naylor, Susy Ndaruhutse, Susan Nicolai, Tserennadmid Nyamkhuu, Steve Packer, Jenny Parkes, Emma Pearson, Nishith Prakash, Gareth Price, Stephanie Psaki, Nirmala Rao, James Reilly, Clinton Robinson, Sahar Saeed, Aytuğ Şaşmaz, Sheldon Shaeffer, Shailendra Sharma, Iveta Silova, Nidhi Singal, Marieke Stevens, Jin Sun, Deependra Thapa, Tim Unwin, Denise Vaillant, Christine Van Keuren, Emily Vargas-Barón, Ramya Vivekanandan, Babette Wils, Hiro Yoshikawa and Xiao Yu.

We are also grateful to several institutions: the Aga Khan Foundation, Bundesinstitut für Bildungsforschung (BIFIE), Chatham House, CfBT Education Trust, Development Finance International, Fafo Foundation, the International Institute for Educational Planning, the Population Council, Pratham Education Foundation, RTI International, the UCL Institute of Education, Understanding Children's Work, the UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning, and UNESCO's Beirut and Santiago offices. We also thank the students from the London School of Economics who prepared a paper for the GMR as part of their Capstone Project.

A group of independent experts also reviewed GMR chapters and offered suggestions. For their input we thank David Archer, Pia Britto, Roy Carr-Hill, Jeung Yun Choi, Jaap Dronkers, Parfait M. Eloundou-Enyegue, Khadijaha Fancy, Kathleen Fincham, Deepa Grover, Philippa Lei, Leslie Limage, Joan Lombardi, Simon McGrath, Joshua Muskin, Chloe O'Gara, Susan Parker, Benjamin Piper, Abbie Raikes, Sobhi Tawil, Aleesha Taylor, Elaine Unterhalter and Yanhong Zhang. Special thanks go to Nicholas Burnett, Angela Little and Amy Stambach for reviewing the drafts of the full report. Thanks also to Ronald Inglehart, William Thorn and Alexandra Valerio for technical advice on the use of data from the World Values Survey, PIAAC and STEP, respectively.

Special thanks go to all those who worked tirelessly to support the production of the report, including Rebecca Brite, Erin Crum, FHI 360, Shannon Dyson, Imprimerie Faber, Melissa Johnston, Cara Read, Melanie Tingstrom and Jan Worrall. The report was edited by Andy Quan, and our thanks to Andrew Johnston for writing the summary. Thanks also to Sylvaine Baeyens, to whom we owe the original design and layout of the GMR. Many colleagues within and outside UNESCO were involved in the translation and production of the GMR and we would like to thank them all.

Several people played key roles in the GMR's communication and outreach work, including Ashley Baldwin, Rachel Bhatia, Glen Hertelendy and Felix Zimmermann. Thanks also to Hans and Ola Rosling, Oliver Swift, Laura Yates and Room 3. For the quotes from teachers and students used in the report, the GMR team has benefited from the support of Education International and VSO.

Finally, we would like to thank the interns who have supported the GMR team in various areas of its work: Selah Agaba, Jiayue Fan, Ratha Khuon and Sugata Sumida on research, and Ashley Monter and Victoria Krapivina on communications and production.

The 2015 EFA Global Monitoring Report team

Director: Aaron Benavot

Manos Antoninis, Madeleine Barry, Nicole Bella, Nihan Köseleci Blanchy, Emeline Brylinski, Erin Chemery, Marcos Delprato, Joanna Härmä, Cornelia Hauke, Catherine Jere, Andrew Johnston, Priyadarshani Joshi, Helen Longlands, Leila Loupis, Giorgia Magni, Alasdair McWilliam, Anissa Mechtar, Claudine Mukizwa, David Post, Judith Randrianatoavina, Kate Redman, Maria Rojnov, Martina Simeti, Emily Subden and Asma Zubairi.

Past team members

We would like to acknowledge the past GMR directors and team members who have made invaluable contributions to the report since 2002. Thanks to past directors Nicholas Burnett, Christopher Colclough, Pauline Rose and Kevin Watkins, and to past team members Carlos Aggio, Kwame Akyeampong, Samer Al-Samarrai, Marc Philippe Boua Liebnitz, Mariela Buonomo, Lene Buchert, Fadila Caillaud, Stuart Cameron, Vittoria Cavicchioni, Mariana Cifuentes-Montoya, Alison Clayson, Hans Cosson-Eide, Roser Cusso, Valérie Djioze, Simon Ellis, Ana Font-Giner, Jude Fransman, Catherine Ginisty, Cynthia Guttman, Anna Haas, Elizabeth Heen, Julia Heiss, Keith Hinchliffe, Diederick de Jongh, Alison Kennedy, Léna Krichewsky, François Leclercq, Elise Legault, Agneta Lind, Anaïs Loizillon, Patrick Montjourides, Karen Moore, Albert Motivans, Hilaire Mputu, Michelle J. Neuman, Delphine Nsengimana, Banday Nzomini, Steve Packer, Ulrika Peppler Barry, Michelle Phillips, Liliane Phuong, Pascale Pinceau, Paula Razquin, Isabelle Reullon, Riho Sakurai, Marisol Sanjines, Yusuf Sayed, Sophie Schlondorff, Céline Steer, Ramya Subrahmanian, Ikuko Suzuki, Jan Van Ravens, Suhad Varin, Peter Wallet and Edna Yahil.

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report* is an independent annual publication.
It is facilitated and supported by UNESCO.

For more information, please contact:
EFA Global Monitoring Report team
c/o UNESCO, 7, place de Fontenoy
75352 Paris 07 SP, France
Email: efareport@unesco.org
Tel.: +33 1 45 68 07 41
www.efareport.unesco.org
efareport.wordpress.com

Previous EFA Global Monitoring Reports

2013/4 Teaching and learning: Achieving quality for all
2012 Youth and skills: Putting education to work
2011 The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education
2010 Reaching the marginalized
2009 Overcoming inequality: Why governance matters
2008 Education for All by 2015: Will we make it?
2007 Strong foundations: Early childhood care and education
2006 Literacy for life
2005 Education for All: The quality imperative
2003/4 Gender and Education for All: The leap to equality
2002 Education for All: Is the world on track?

Any errors or omissions found subsequent to printing will be corrected in the online version at www.efareport.unesco.org.

Contents

List of figures, infographics, tables and text boxes

Figures

Tables

Text boxes

Executive Summary

The 2015 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* provides a complete assessment of progress towards the Education for All goals established in 2000 at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal. The report takes stock of whether the world achieved the EFA goals and whether EFA partners upheld their commitments. It also explains possible determinants of the pace of progress and identifies key lessons for shaping a post-2015 global education agenda.

Taking stock of progress towards EFA

Goal 1 – Early childhood care and education

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

- Despite a drop in child mortality rates of nearly 50%, 6.3 million children under the age of 5 died in 2013 from causes that are mostly preventable.
- Progress in improving child nutrition has been considerable. Yet globally, one in four children are still short for their age – a sign of chronic deficiency in essential nutrients.
- In 2012, 184 million children were enrolled in pre-primary education worldwide, an increase of nearly two-thirds since 1999.

Goal 2 – Universal primary education

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

- The primary school net enrolment ratio was 84% in 1999 and is estimated to reach 93% in 2015.
- Net enrolment ratios improved significantly, rising at least 20 percentage points from 1999 to 2012 in 17 countries, 11 of which were in sub-Saharan Africa.
- While some increases in enrolment ratios are evident, nearly 58 million children were out of school in 2012, and progress in reducing this number has stalled.
- Despite progress in access, dropout remains an issue: in 32 countries, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa, at least 20% of children enrolled are not expected to reach the last grade.
- By the 2015 deadline, one in six children in low and middle income countries – or almost 100 million – will not have completed primary school.

Goal 3 – Youth and adult skills

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

- Reflecting improved transition rates and higher retention rates, the lower secondary gross enrolment ratio increased from 71% in 1999 to 85% in 2012. Participation in lower secondary education has increased quickly since 1999. In Afghanistan, China, Ecuador, Mali and Morocco, the lower secondary gross enrolment ratio has increased by at least 25 percentage points.

- Inequality persists in the transition from primary to secondary school. For example, in the Philippines, just 69% of primary school graduates from the poorest families continued into lower secondary, compared with 94% from the richest households.

- A majority of the 94 low and middle income countries with information have legislated free lower secondary education since 1999. Of these, 66 have constitutional guarantees and 28 enacted other legal measures. As of 2015, only a few nations charge lower secondary school fees, including Botswana, Guinea, Papua New Guinea, South Africa and the United Republic of Tanzania.

Goal 4 – Adult literacy

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

- There are about 781 million illiterate adults. The rate of illiteracy dropped slightly, from 18% in 2000 to an estimated 14% in 2015, which means the Dakar target of halving illiteracy was not achieved.

- Only 17 out of the 73 countries with a literacy rate below 95% in 2000 had halved their illiteracy rate by 2015.

- Progress has been made towards gender parity in literacy but is not sufficient. All 43 countries where fewer than 90 women for every 100 men were literate in 2000 have moved towards parity, but none of them will have reached it by 2015.

Goal 5 – Gender equality

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

- At the primary level, 69% of the countries with data are expected to have reached gender parity by 2015. Progress is slower in secondary education, with 48% projected to be at gender parity in 2015.

- Progress in tackling severe gender disparity has been made. Between 1999 and 2012, the number of countries with fewer than 90 girls enrolled in primary school for every 100 boys fell from 33 to 16.

- Amongst out-of-school children, girls are more likely than boys never to enrol in school (48% compared with 37%), while boys are more likely to leave school (26% compared with 20%). Once enrolled, girls are more likely to reach the upper grades.

- In sub-Saharan Africa, the poorest girls remain the most likely to never attend primary school. In Guinea and Niger in 2010, over 70% of the poorest girls had never attended primary school, compared with less than 20% of the richest boys.

Goal 6 – Quality of education

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

- Pupil/teacher ratios declined in 83% of the 146 countries with data at the primary education level. In one-third of the countries with data, however, less than 75% of primary school teachers are trained up to national standards.

- At the lower secondary education level, 87 of the 105 countries with data have a pupil/teacher ratio below 30:1.

- In 1990, 12 learning assessments were conducted according to national standards, but by 2013 the number had increased to 101.

Financing education

- Many countries have increased spending on education. Between 1999 and 2012, 38 countries increased their spending by 1 percentage point or more of national income.

- Education is not a priority in many national budgets. As a share of government spending, expenditure on education has changed little since 1999 and at 13.7% in 2012, falls short of the recommended 15% to 20% target.

- Governments and donors have neglected to fund EFA goals outside of primary education. As a result, pre-primary education and adult literacy, in particular, remain underfunded.

- Donors have largely failed on their commitment to deliver aid more effectively, achieving just 1 of 13 aid effectiveness targets. Effective international coordination and distribution of aid to education have been almost entirely absent.

Were the 12 strategies from the Dakar Framework sufficient to contribute to the five key medium-term results expected of an effective EFA architecture? In assessing **whether political commitment to EFA was reaffirmed and sustained** throughout the period, it is clear that the EFA movement suffered once the MDGs became the dominant development agenda. The result was excessive emphasis on universal primary

education. UNESCO proved cautious in its approach to high-level political engagement, so the forum of choice for global policy actors in education shifted away from the High-Level Group. The assumption that global and regional conferences are powerful enough to hold countries and the international community to account has not proved to be valid.

Since 2000, **diverse types of knowledge, evidence and expertise have been communicated and used**. Much new evidence and many policy initiatives and research advances were not necessarily related to EFA activities, and too often came from outside the education sector. While some of the new evidence did reach EFA coordination meetings, it did not appear to be used for policy-making.

Since 2000, there has been no shortage of national education plans. However, it is less clear that new knowledge or tools have helped develop appropriate capacity for evidence-based national policy-making or that they have **strengthened national EFA policy and practice**.

A key expected result of the Dakar process was that credible plans would help **effectively mobilize financial resources for EFA**. The rise in domestic education spending in low income countries was promising, but its main cause was increased domestic resource mobilization. International aid expanded considerably in absolute terms, yet its volume fell well short of the assessed need.

The decision to introduce an **independent monitoring and reporting mechanism of progress towards the EFA goals** may have been critical in keeping EFA high on the agenda. But improved reporting was only possible thanks to major improvement in data quality and analysis, often supported by EFA partners.

Efforts since 2000 to advance education around the world became almost synonymous with ensuring that every child is in school. As this EFA – and MDG – target of universal access to primary education was more applicable to the poorest countries, other nations found it less relevant. Meanwhile, the focus on universal primary enrolment meant less attention to other crucial areas, such as education quality, early childhood care and education, and adult literacy.

Overall, not even the target of universal primary education was reached, let alone the more ambitious EFA goals, and the most disadvantaged continue to be the last to benefit. But there have been achievements that should not be underestimated. The world has advanced by 2015 beyond where it would have been if the trends of the 1990s had persisted. And monitoring education progress since Dakar has also improved and expanded.

In the end, the EFA movement can be characterized as a qualified success, even if EFA partners may have not collectively lived up to their commitments. But a lesson re-emerging over the past 15 years is that, while technical solutions are important, gaining political influence and traction is of even greater significance, particularly to realize the scale of reform and action required to achieve EFA at the national level. The current discussions on the post-2015 agenda may be offering just such a chance.

Education for All since 2000: A qualified success?

The Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989 and the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) in 1990 in Jomtien, Thailand, reaffirmed education as a human right and heralded a new environment of international cooperation. However, reality did not live up to the promise. The progress of the 1990s for education was seen as insufficient, especially in the countries furthest from reaching key education targets.

The international community assembled in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000 to set an agenda for making progress in education to 2015. At the World Education Forum, governments from 164 countries, together with representatives of regional groups, international organizations, donor agencies, non-government organizations (NGOs) and civil society, adopted a Framework for Action ('the Dakar Framework') to deliver EFA commitments. The Dakar Framework comprised two key elements: 6 goals, and associated targets, to be achieved by 2015,[1] and 12 strategies to which all stakeholders would contribute (**Box 0.1**).

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report* (GMR) has monitored progress on an almost annual basis towards the EFA goals, and the two education-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), since 2002. This GMR has particular significance as it provides a complete assessment of progress since Dakar towards the target date for reaching the Dakar Framework's goals. It has three objectives. First, it aims to *take stock* of whether the world achieved the EFA goals and stakeholders upheld their commitments to implement the agenda. Second, it intends to *explain* possible determinants of the pace of progress and whether a direct link can be established between the strategies' implementation and the achievement of the goals, or lack thereof. Finally, it hopes to *learn*, in particular to identify key messages for shaping a post-2015 global education agenda.

The chapter pursues these objectives in three ways. First, it provides an assessment of whether the world is on track to achieve the targets explicitly identified in EFA documents. As clear and measurable targets were not set for all the objectives embedded in each goal, the chapter selectively reviews progress by using indicators that capture relevant elements of the goals. By necessity, this exercise involves projections, since the most recent data refer to 2012 or earlier. A complementary analysis assesses the speed with which the world moved towards selected targets, comparing the record of the period since Dakar to that of the preceding decade. Overall, there are examples of considerable progress, even if the targets themselves were not met. This chapter focuses on the global level; detailed discussion of country-level progress is included in the goal-specific chapters that follow.

Second, the chapter explores possible drivers of change in relation to the EFA goals. Education systems may grow, or stagnate, even in the absence of international commitments. There are reasons to believe that events in recent years were more favourable overall to educational development than in the 1990s, which may help explain some of the progress observed.

This GMR aims to take stock, explain and learn

Third, the chapter asks whether the implementation of the Dakar-based EFA agenda may itself have contributed to global progress. It describes the global channels and processes that participants in the World Education Forum believed would help mobilize action at the national level, and reports on their application. It then assesses whether these processes and actions were necessary and sufficient to achieve the desired educational outcomes. It concludes that some notable breakthroughs may have contributed to overall progress at the global and regional levels, but that far less was done than promised in the key areas of coordination and financing.

1. A key target under the gender equality goal, parity at the primary and secondary education level, was to be achieved by 2005.

Box 0.1. The Dakar EFA goals and strategies

Goals

1. Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children
2. Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality
3. Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes
4. Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults
5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality
6. Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills

Strategies

1. Mobilize strong national and international political commitment for education for all, develop national action plans and enhance significantly investment in basic education
2. Promote EFA policies within a sustainable and well-integrated sector framework clearly linked to poverty elimination and development strategies
3. Ensure the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for educational development
4. Develop responsive, participatory and accountable systems of educational governance and management
5. Meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability, and conduct educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict
6. Implement integrated strategies for gender equality in education that recognize the need for change in attitudes, values and practices
7. Implement education programmes and actions to combat the HIV/AIDS pandemic as a matter of urgency
8. Create safe, healthy, inclusive and equitably resourced educational environments conducive to excellence in learning, with clearly defined levels of achievement for all
9. Enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers
10. Harness new information and communication technologies to help achieve EFA goals
11. Systematically monitor progress towards EFA goals and strategies at the national, regional and international levels
12. Build on existing mechanisms to accelerate progress towards education for all

Taking stock of progress towards EFA

The EFA goals tackled an ambitious set of challenges for global education. Since 2002, the GMRs have focused on targets indicative of progress towards each goal. Approaching the 2015 deadline, the following key messages emerge:

- While there has been some progress in universal access to education, compared to 1999 when there were 204 million out-of-school children and adolescents of primary and lower secondary school age (or 19% of the population), there were still 121 million out of school in 2012 (or 12% of the population).
- The second MDG and EFA goal 2 both envisaged all children completing a full cycle of primary education. Yet, in low and middle income countries in 2015, one in six children will not have completed primary school. In addition, one in three adolescents will not have completed lower secondary school.
- Although it is projected that by 2015 gender parity will be achieved, on average at the global level, in primary and secondary education, 3 in 10 countries at the primary level and 5 in 10 at the secondary level are projected not to achieve this target.
- The adult illiteracy rate will have fallen by only 23% since 2000, instead of the targeted 50%, and most of the decrease is due to the transition into adulthood of larger cohorts of better-educated children. At least 750 million adults, nearly two-thirds of them women, will not even have rudimentary literacy skills in 2015.

Progress on some indicators of educational development has accelerated since 2000, with more children entering school and completing their education. For example, it is expected that by 2015 some 20 million more children will have completed primary school in low and middle income countries than would have been the case if the pre-2000 rate of progress had been maintained.

However, the GMR also finds that educational development continues to be unequally shared. Disadvantaged children still lag behind their peers. For example, the probability that children from the poorest quintile of households in low and middle income countries would not attain primary school in 2010 was more than five times higher than the corresponding probability of children from the richest quintile, a ratio that has slightly increased compared to 2000.

There were 121 million out-of-school children and adolescents in 2012

Credit: Olivier Culmann/Tendance Floue

Were the EFA goals achieved?

Goal 1: Progress in early childhood care and education was rapid but from a low base and highly inequitable

Table 0.1: Key indicators for goal 1

	Care			Education					
	Under-5 mortality rate		Moderate or severe stunting (children under age 5)	Total enrolment		Gross enrolment ratio (GER)		Gender parity index of GER	
	2000 (1000 live births)	2013 (1000 live births)	2013 (%)	2012 (000)	Change since 1999 (%)	1999 (%)	2012 (%)	1999 (F/M)	2012 (F/M)
World	**76**	**46**	**25**	**183 604**	**64**	**33**	**54**	**0.97**	**1.00**
Low income countries	135	76	37	12 381	107	11	19	0.99	0.97
Lower middle income countries	93	59	35	70 748	131	23	50	0.94	1.01
Upper middle income countries	39	20	8	63 569	40	40	69	0.99	1.01
High income countries	10	6	...	36 907	22	72	86	0.98	0.99
Sub-Saharan Africa	158	93	38	14 114	149	11	20	0.96	1.00
Arab States	54	34	20	4 309	83	15	25	0.79	0.98
Central Asia	64	35	16	1 886	48	19	33	0.95	1.00
East Asia and the Pacific	39	18	11	53 344	45	38	68	0.98	0.90
South and West Asia	92	55	34	53 517	148	22	55	0.94	1.02
Latin America and the Caribbean	32	18	11	21 396	34	54	74	1.01	1.00
North America and Western Europe	7	5	3	22 866	20	76	89	0.98	0.98
Central and Eastern Europe	26	12	8	12 172	29	51	74	0.96	0.98

Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 3B (print); UIS database; IGME (2014); UNICEF et al. (2014).

The treatment of early childhood care and education in the Dakar Framework had its roots in the rights-based approach of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. Since 2000, there has been an increasing focus on early childhood, in both poor and rich countries, informed by evidence of its fundamental consequences for future individual well-being, with further research emerging of the importance of the first 1,000 days after conception (see Chapter 1).

The Dakar Framework did not set specific targets on early childhood care and education to be achieved by 2015. In their absence, the GMR monitored selected indicators that were deemed closest to key concepts related to goal 1, including survival, health and nutrition, and access to learning opportunities.

161 million children under five suffered from moderate or severe stunting in 2013

Regarding survival, progress has been made on the target associated with the fourth MDG to reduce under-5 child mortality by two-thirds between 1990 and 2015. By 2013, the target had been met by 53 countries among 192 with the relevant data. Between 1990 and 2000, the level of child mortality fell globally from 90 to 76 deaths per 1,000 live births, and by 2013 it had reached 46. However, the 2015 target of 30 deaths per 1,000 live births is unlikely to be met. East Asia and the Pacific and Latin America and the Caribbean are expected to do so, but sub-Saharan Africa is not, and its child mortality rate is expected to be above the global average, despite progress accelerating after 2000. Still, the total number of children dying before their fifth birthday has been halved, from 12.7 million in 1990 to 6.3 million in 2013 (IGME, 2014).

In terms of nutrition, progress has been made towards meeting the target associated with the first MDG on poverty and hunger, to halve the prevalence of underweight children between 1990 and 2015: underweight prevalence fell from 25% in 1990 to 15% in 2013, although the target will be missed (UNICEF et al., 2014).

A robust indicator of the cumulative effects of child malnutrition, as well as poor health in utero and during the first two years, is the prevalence of moderate or severe stunting, when children are short for their age. No concrete target was set at the global level. While the stunting rate fell from 40% in 1990 to 24.5% in 2013, the cognitive and physical development of about 161 million children under 5 remains at risk (UNICEF et al., 2014). As with child mortality, sub-Saharan Africa experienced a much slower rate of improvement: its stunting rate fell from

48% to 38%. By contrast, in South and West Asia and in East Asia and the Pacific the stunting rate fell by more than 25 percentage points (**Figure 0.1**).

Since 2000, early childhood education services have expanded considerably. Globally, pre-primary education enrolment increased by almost two-thirds, and it rose by almost two and a half times in sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia. The global pre-primary gross enrolment ratio increased from 27% in 1990 to 33% in 1999 and 54% in 2012 and, if it continued to rise at the 1999–2012 rate, would reach 58% by 2015 (**Figure 0.2**).

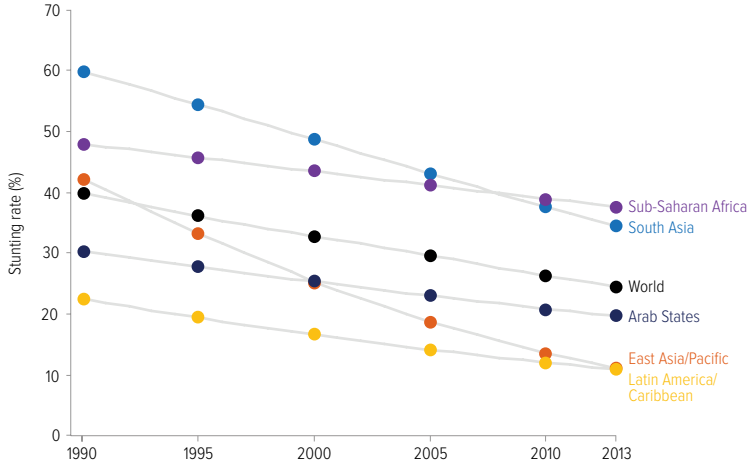
However, there are wide differences among regions. While the ratio was 74% in Latin America and the Caribbean and 89% in North America and Western Europe in 2012, it was only 20% in sub-Saharan Africa and 25% in the Arab States. Countries in transition returned to a positive trend after 1999 following a reduction of pre-primary education services during the 1990s. However, while enrolment levels were higher than in 1990 in Central and Eastern Europe, they remained well below that level in Central Asia.

While too few countries report information on the individual characteristics of children attending pre-school to allow a global estimate of inequality (see Chapter 1), gaps in pre-primary enrolment have continued to exist not only among but also within countries, especially between urban and rural areas. A key reason for such inequality is that many countries have yet to expand public provision of pre-primary education. The result is that many families still pay pre-school fees. The percentage of enrolment in private institutions increased from 28% in 1999 to 31% in 2012, which represents both a higher level and a bigger increase than in primary and secondary education. Evidence from household surveys suggests that the true extent of private provision may be underestimated in many countries where regulation of the sector is weak.

Chapter 1 discusses the increasing use of multisector, coordinated approaches to early childhood care and education, and also examines quality in provision, with a focus on the impact of educators who lack preparation, training and social status.

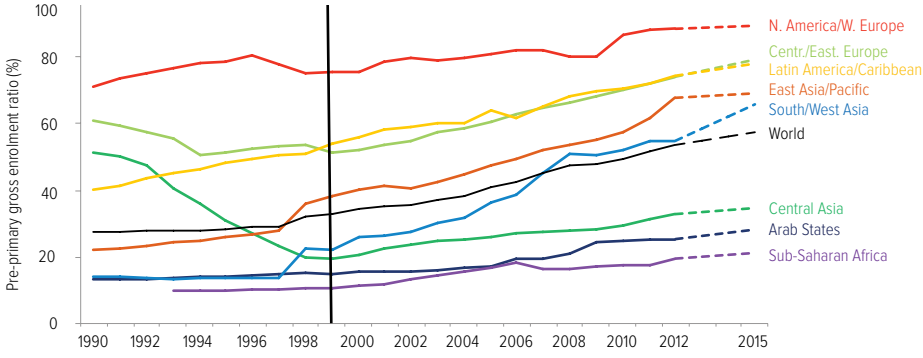
Many countries have yet to expand public provision of pre-primary education

Figure 0.1: Child malnutrition remained unacceptably high
Moderate or severe stunting rate, world and selected regions, 1990–2013



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on the Joint Malnutrition dataset of UNICEF, WHO and the World Bank and the corresponding syntax file for estimating regional averages.

Figure 0.2: Pre-primary enrolment rates are projected to have increased by three-quarters during the Dakar period
Pre-primary gross enrolment ratio, world and regions, 1990–2012 and 2015 (projection)



Source: UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

Goal 2: Universal primary education will not be reached by 2015

Table 0.2: Key indicators for goal 2

	Total primary enrolment		Primary adjusted net enrolment ratio		Out-of-school children			Survival rate to last grade of primary education	
	2012 (000)	Change since 1999 (%)	1999 (%)	2012 (%)	2012 (000)	Change since 1999 (%)	Female (%)	1999 (%)	2011 (%)
World	**705 103**	**8**	**84**	**91**	**57 788**	**-45**	**53**	**75**	**75**
Low income countries	130 721	75	60	83	20 746	-46	55	56	57
Lower middle income countries	291 582	21	80	90	26 333	-48	52	69	70
Upper middle income countries	203 032	-19	94	95	7 888	-42	53	85	88
High income countries	79 768	-6	96	96	2 821	-9	45	93	95
Sub-Saharan Africa	144 075	75	59	79	29 639	-30	56	58	58
Arab States	42 761	22	80	89	4 467	-43	58	82	83
Central Asia	5 479	-20	95	95	295	-22	52	97	98
East Asia and the Pacific	184 382	-18	95	96	6 923	-42	47	85	92
South and West Asia	192 650	24	78	94	9 814	-73	48	64	64
Latin America and the Caribbean	64 696	-8	93	94	3 763	-6	47	77	77
North America and Western Europe	51 349	-3	98	96	2 060	108	47	92	94
Central and Eastern Europe	19 712	-21	93	96	827	-53	48	96	95

Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 5 and 6; UIS database.

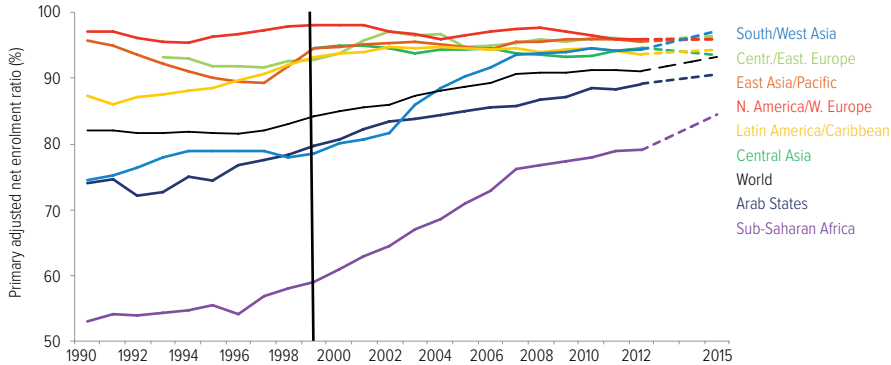
Just over half of all out-of-school children live in sub-Saharan Africa

The achievement of universal primary education has been considered the most important EFA indicator, despite its representing only part of the ambitions for global progress in education. This is at least partly because of the dominant role the second MDG played. Unfortunately, the target is still far from being met. Despite an increase in the global primary adjusted net enrolment ratio from 84% in 1999 to 91% in 2007, the indicator has since stagnated. At best, if earlier rates of progress resume, it will reach 93% by 2015 (**Figure 0.3**).

Across regions, the largest absolute increases in the primary adjusted net enrolment ratio were observed in sub-Saharan Africa (from 59% in 1999 to 79% in 2012) and South and West Asia (from 78% to 94%). Only in North America and Western Europe did the ratio decline (from 98% to 96%). This is due to the United States, where the population of homeschooled children doubled from 1999 to 2007 (Davis and Baumann, 2013).

As of 2012, almost 58 million children of primary school age were out of school, down from 106 million in 1999. Just over half of them live in sub-Saharan Africa, a considerable increase compared to 1999, when the region accounted for 40% of the total. By contrast,

Figure 0.3: The pace of growth in primary net enrolment rates picked up in the early 2000s but slowed after 2007
Primary adjusted net enrolment ratio, world and regions, 1990–2012 and 2015 (projection)

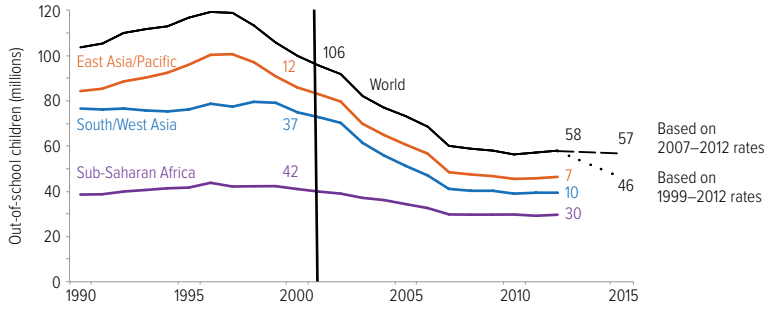


Sources: UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

South and West Asia, where 35% of the world's out-of-school children lived in 1999, accounted for 17% of the total in 2012 (**Figure 0.4**).

Projecting the number of out-of-school children to 2015 depends on the period used for reference. Based on the trends of the past five years, 57 million children would still be out of school in 2015. If the period is extended to reflect the rapid improvement of the first post-Dakar years, and it is assumed such progress resumes in the remainder of the period, the more optimistic projection is for the out-of-school population to fall to 46 million. In either scenario, the goal is not reached.

Figure 0.4: Tens of millions of children will still not be in school by 2015
Out-of-school children of primary school age, world and selected regions, 1990–2012 and 2015 (projection)

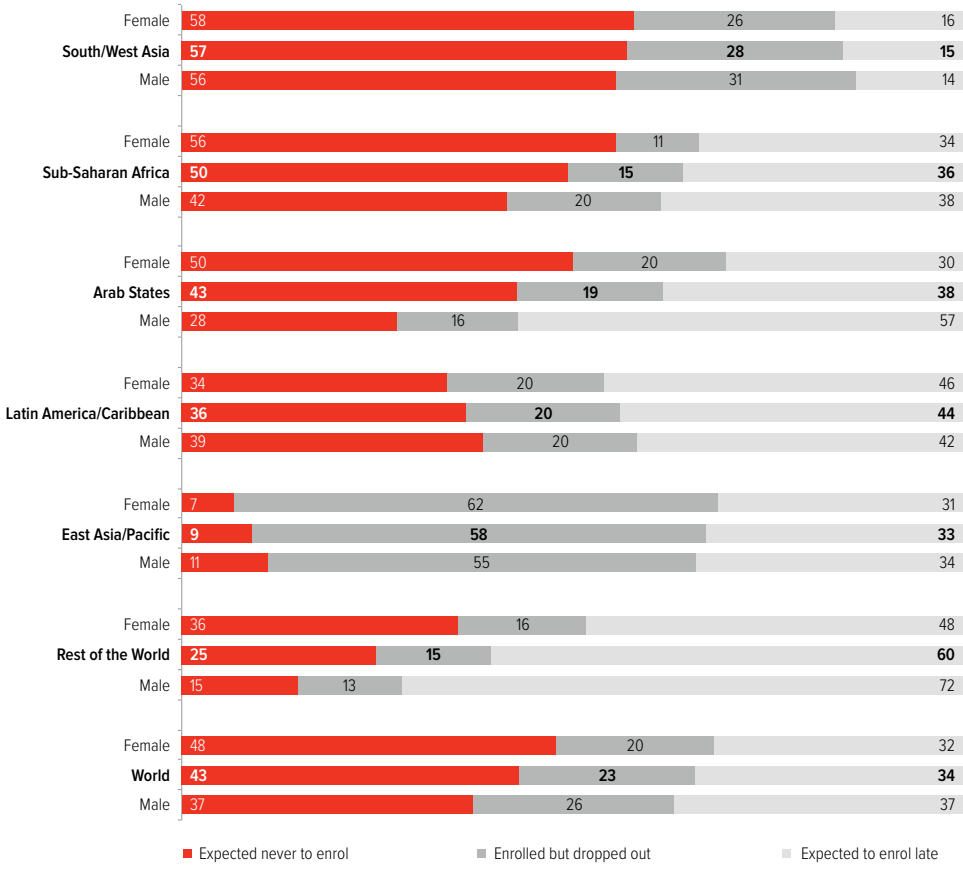


Sources: UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

There are three categories of out-of-school children: those who will eventually go to school; those who will never go; and those who were enrolled but left. Estimates for 2012 indicate that about 25 million, or 43% of out-of-school children, will never go to school; the rate is 50% in sub-Saharan Africa and 57% in South and West Asia. There is also considerable gender disparity, with girls more likely never to go to school (48% of the total, compared with 37% for boys), while boys are relatively more likely to leave school (**Figure 0.5**).

Based on recent trends, 57 children would still be out of school in 2015

Figure 0.5: Half the out-of-school children in sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia, and half the out-of-school girls in the Arab States, will never enrol
Distribution of out-of-school children by school exposure, world and selected regions, 2012



Source: UIS database.

The problem of out-of-school children is becoming increasingly concentrated in conflict-affected countries, where the proportion increased from 30% in 1999 to 36% in 2012. This trend is particularly strong in the Arab States (the proportion increased from 63% to 87%) and South and West Asia (from 21% to 42%). By contrast, there has been no change in sub-Saharan Africa, where the proportion remains about 35%.

Analysis of household surveys shows that major inequality exists regarding those who are out of school. Among 63 countries observed during 2008–2012, where an average of 14% of children were out of school, the rate was 22% for those in the poorest household quintile and 6% for those in the richest. Likewise, the average out-of-school rate was 16% in rural areas compared with 8% in urban areas (UIS and UNICEF, 2015).

One in six children in low and middle income countries will not complete primary school in 2015

Chapter 2 looks at the barriers faced by different groups of marginalized children and how governments have tried to respond to their needs. The groups include children belonging to ethnic and linguistic minorities or nomadic communities, children with disabilities, those living in slums, and those who work.

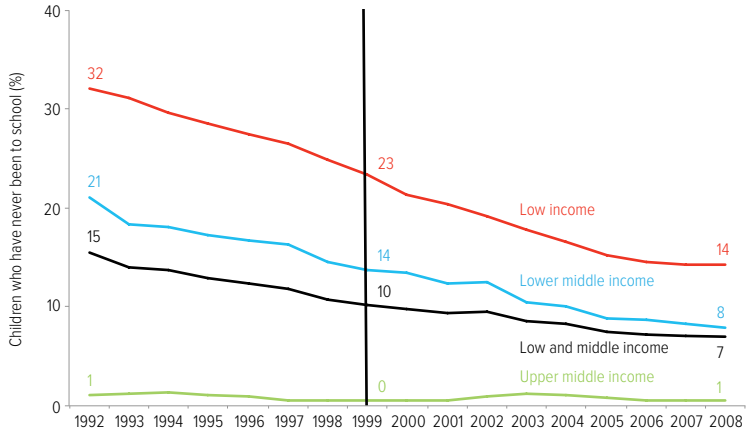
Goal 2 of the Dakar Framework aims to ensure that all children 'have access to and complete' primary education. It is therefore useful to look separately at the percentages of children who have never been to school and of those who manage to finish primary education.

Analysis by the GMR team of household surveys confirms significant gains in access to school in low and middle income countries. The percentage of children who had never been to school across all low and middle income countries fell from 10% in 1999 to 7% in 2008. In low income countries, the rate fell from 32% in 1992 to 23% in 1999 and 14% in 2008 (**Figure 0.6**). One in four children from the poorest quintile of households in low income countries had not been to school in 2008; the lack of access among the most disadvantaged is still too high.

The percentage of children in a cohort who reach the last grade of primary school continued to increase. But evidence from administrative data in low and middle income countries suggests that, of those who start school, the percentage who reach the last grade has hardly changed. For example, it was stagnant in sub-Saharan Africa at 58% and in South and West Asia at 64% between 1999 and 2011.

However, GMR team analysis of household surveys shows that as higher numbers entered school, the percentage of those who finished primary school in low and middle income countries increased, from 77% in 1999 to 81% in 2008 (**Figure 0.7**). It is expected to reach 84% in 2015. This means, nevertheless, that by the 2015 deadline, one in six children in those countries – or almost 100 million – will not have completed primary school. And more than one in three in low income countries will not have done so, despite acceleration in the primary attainment rate after 1999.

Figure 0.6: Access to school continued to improve
Percentage of children who have never been to school, low and middle income countries, 1992–2008



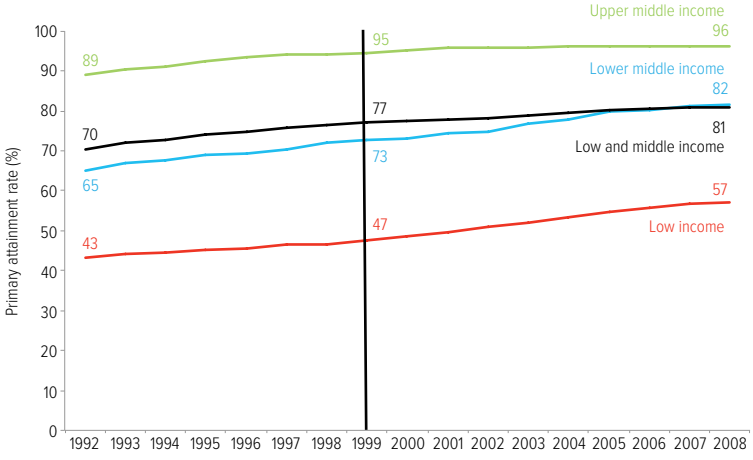
Note: The age group differs by country according to the official primary school entry age, but roughly corresponds to children aged 9–11. The analysis is based on 72 countries, which corresponds to 86% of the population of low and middle income countries. See the technical note on the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* website for further information.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on Demographic and Health Surveys, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys and other national household surveys.

The most disadvantaged are those still furthest from achieving universal primary completion. Analysis by the GMR team of household surveys in low and middle income countries suggests that inequality in primary school attainment remains high across different dimensions, but notably in terms of household wealth. The probability that children from the poorest quintile of households would not attain primary school in 2010 was more than five times higher than the corresponding probability of children from the richest quintile, a ratio that has slightly increased compared with 2000 (Figure 0.8).

Chapter 2 discusses policies implemented by countries since 2000 that aimed to increase the supply of schooling as well as to raise demand for education, by reducing costs through measures such as cash transfer and school feeding programmes.

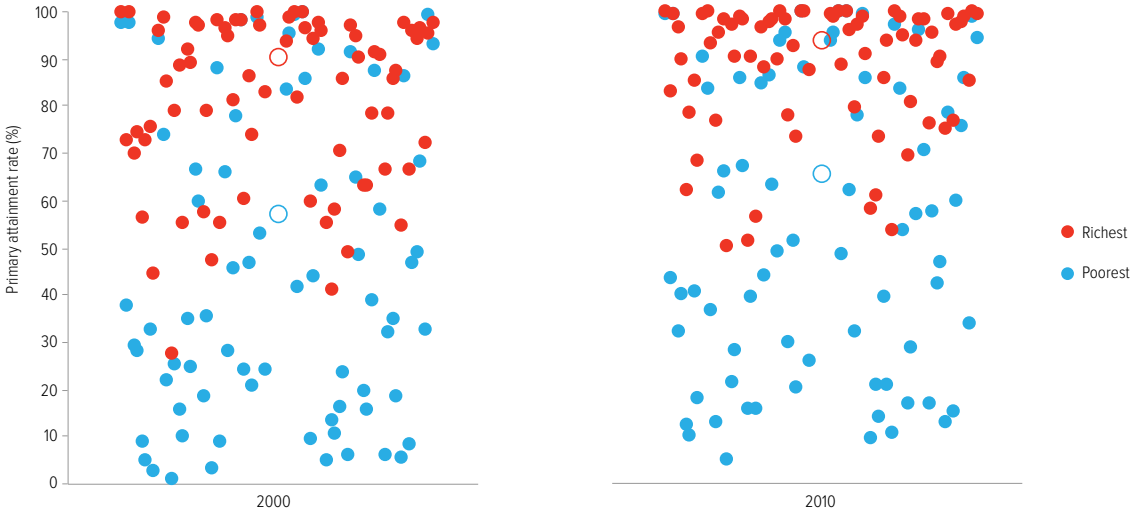
The most disadvantaged are those still furthest from achieving universal primary completion

Figure 0.7: Progress in attaining primary education strengthened in low income countries after 1999
Primary attainment rate, low and middle income countries, 1992–2008



Note: The age group differs by country according to the official age of entry into the last grade of primary school, but roughly corresponds to children aged 14–16. The analysis is based on 72 countries, which corresponds to 86% of the population of low and middle income countries. See technical note on the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* website for further information.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on Demographic and Health Surveys, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys and other national household surveys.

Figure 0.8: Inequalities in primary school attainment remain very large
Primary attainment rate, poorest and richest quintile, low and middle income countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Note: Each dot corresponds to a country. The circles correspond to the weighted average. See technical note on the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* website for further information.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on Demographic and Health Surveys, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys and other national household surveys.

Goal 3: More adolescents received secondary education but measuring skill acquisition among youth and adults remains limited

Table 0.3: Key indicators for goal 3

	Total secondary enrolment		Lower secondary gross enrolment ratio		Upper secondary gross enrolment ratio		Technical and vocational education as a share of secondary enrolment		Out-of-school adolescents of lower secondary school age		
	2012 (000)	Change since 1999 (%)	1999 (%)	2012 (%)	1999 (%)	2012 (%)	1999 (%)	2012 (%)	2012 (000)	Change since 1999 (%)	Female (%)
World	**551 686**	**27**	**71**	**85**	**45**	**62**	**11**	**10**	**62 893**	**-36**	**50**
Low income countries	51 659	92	36	55	22	32	5	5	18 471	-14	52
Lower middle income countries	209 109	55	61	79	32	52	5	5	35 903	-29	50
Upper middle income countries	195 230	16	83	101	49	76	13	16	6 877	-70	48
High income countries	95 688	-8	99	102	96	99	16	14	1 642	-58	47
Sub-Saharan Africa	48 628	125	29	50	20	32	7	6	21 098	-1	54
Arab States	31 329	40	75	89	45	58	14	9	2 949	...	58
Central Asia	10 056	9	86	96	82	104	7	13	403	...	55
East Asia and the Pacific	157 771	20	75	97	43	73	15	17	7 409	-71	46
South and West Asia	152 002	58	60	81	32	51	1	...	26 474	-30	48
Latin America and the Caribbean	60 466	14	95	98	63	76	10	10	2 821	-23	48
North America and Western Europe	61 158	1	101	103	97	98	14	13	888	-31	50
Central and Eastern Europe	30 276	-26	92	97	82	89	18	22	850	-76	49

Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 7 (print) and Statistical Table 8 (website); UIS database.

The third EFA goal aimed to ensure 'that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes'. There have been major changes in the way skills are conceptualized, and some countries have begun to measure them directly. However, these changes are coming too late and cannot provide evidence of the global *status* of skill acquisition, let alone evidence of global *trends*.

The GMR has focused mainly on progress in secondary education as a proxy for the foundational skills needed in work and life. Secondary education enrolment increased by 27% globally. The gross enrolment ratio rose in lower secondary education from 71% in 1999 to 85% in 2012, and in upper secondary from 45% to 62%.

East Asia and the Pacific account for more than half the decline in out-of-school adolescents

Wide disparity exists among regions: while the lower secondary gross enrolment ratio was above 95% in most regions in 2012, it was 89% in the Arab States, 81% in South and West Asia and 50% in sub-Saharan Africa. Inequality is more pronounced at the upper secondary level, where the gross enrolment ratio was around 100% in North America and Western Europe and in Central Asia, but 32% in sub-Saharan Africa.

While the gross enrolment ratio is a measure of participation based on those in school regardless of their age, another measure focuses on the age group. The lower secondary total net enrolment ratio, which shows the percentage of the population of lower secondary school age enrolled in secondary or still in primary school, increased from 74% in 1999 to 83% in 2012. It is projected to reach 86% by 2015 (**Figure 0.9**).

The lower secondary total net enrolment ratio is the basis for calculating the number of out-of-school adolescents. The increase in the ratio translates into a reduction in the number of out-of-school adolescents of lower secondary school age from 99 million in 1999 to 63 million in 2012. Progress in East Asia and the Pacific accounts for more than half the total decline. About 42% of out-of-school adolescents now live in South and West Asia. The number of out-of-school adolescents in sub-Saharan Africa remained 21 million throughout the period as a result of population growth, despite a decrease in the out-of-school rate from 46% to 33% (**Figure 0.10**).

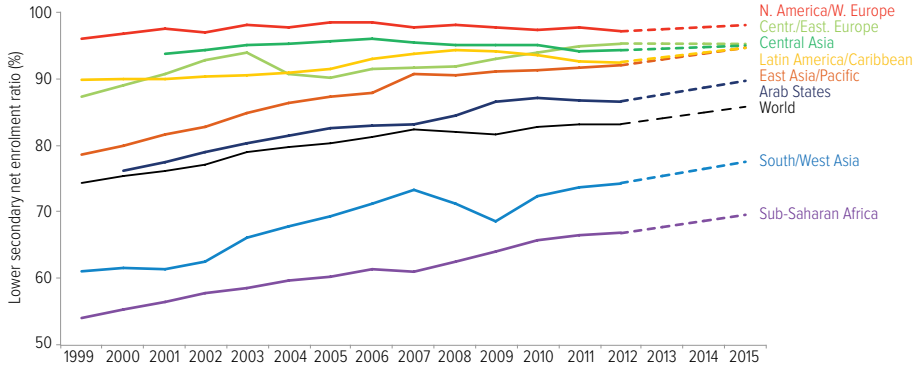
As with primary education, projecting the number of out-of-school adolescents to 2015 depends on the reference period. Between 2007

and 2012, the lower secondary total net enrolment ratio stagnated at about 82%. If those five years are used as the reference, 61 million adolescents would still be out of school by 2015. If the period is extended to reflect the rapid improvement of the early post-Dakar years, assuming progress resumes in the rest of the period, the out-of-school population would fall to 56 million by 2015 (Figure 0.10).

Measures of participation do not indicate the percentage of those who finish lower secondary school. Analysis by the GMR team of household surveys shows that the lower secondary attainment rate increased from 25% in 1999 to 31% in 2008 in low income countries, from 52% to 64% in lower middle income countries and from 81% to 85% in upper middle income countries (**Figure 0.11**). Overall, one in three individuals in low and middle income countries are projected not to have finished lower secondary school by 2015. In low income countries, three in five individuals would not have done so.

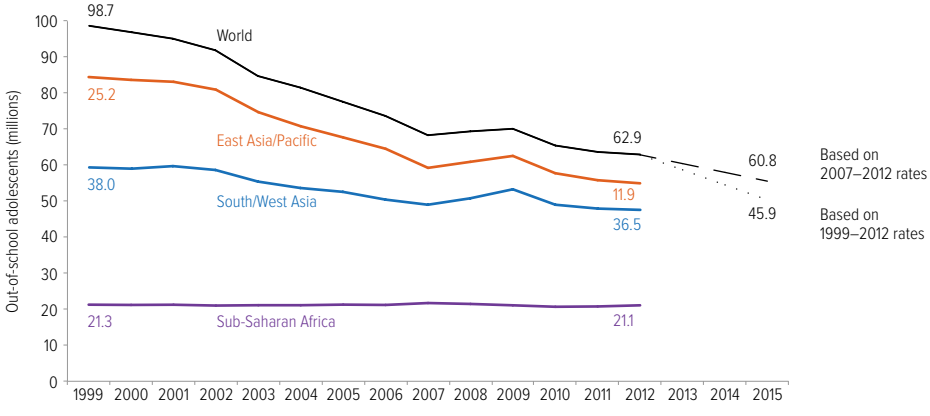
61 million adolescents would still be out of school by 2015

Figure 0.9: The proportion of adolescents in school increased by 12 percentage points during the Dakar period
Lower secondary total net enrolment ratio, world and regions, 1999–2012 and 2015 (projection)



Sources: UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

Figure 0.10: The number of out-of-school adolescents fell in all regions except sub-Saharan Africa
Out-of-school adolescents of lower secondary school age, world and selected regions, 1999–2012 and 2015 (projection)

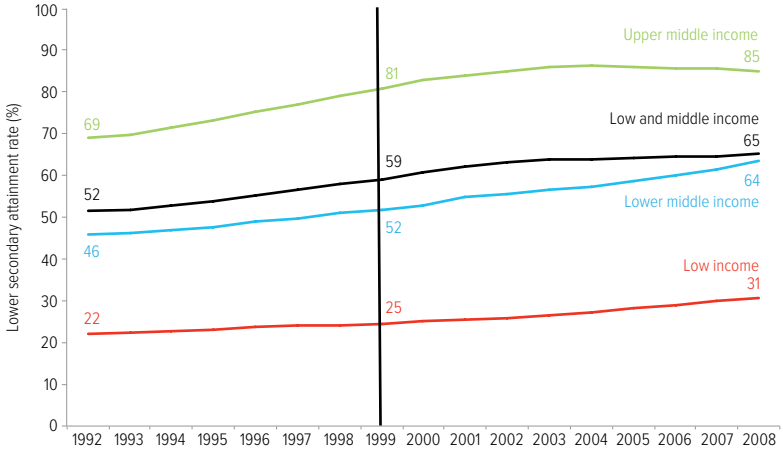


Sources: UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

The problem of inequality extends to future learning opportunities

Chapter 3 discusses in more detail inequality faced by particular groups, such as working adolescents and migrants, and documents the relatively limited scope of alternative, non-formal and other programmes that offer a second chance to complete schooling. It also notes that the problem of inequality extends to future learning opportunities: adults with secondary education have more chances to benefit from adult education programmes than those without.

Figure 0.11: Only two in three adolescents finish lower secondary school in low and middle income countries
Lower secondary attainment rate, low and middle income countries, 1992–2008



Note: The age group differs by country according to the official age of entry into the last grade of lower secondary school, but roughly corresponds to children aged 17–19. The analysis is based on 72 countries, which correspond to 86% of the population in low and middle income countries. See technical note on the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* website for further information.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on Demographic and Health Surveys, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys and other national household surveys.


Credit: Eva-Lotta Jansson

Goal 4: Progress in adult literacy was below the target

Table 0.4: Key indicators for goal 4

	Illiterate adults				Adult literacy rates				Youth literacy rates			
	Total		Women		Total		Gender parity index		Total		Gender parity index	
	2005–2012 (000)	Change since 1995–2004 (%)	1995–2004 (%)	2005–2012 (%)	1995–2004 (%)	2005–2012 (%)	1995–2004 (F/M)	2005–2012 (F/M)	1995–2004 (%)	2005–2012 (%)	1995–2004 (F/M)	2005–2012 (F/M)
World	**780 682**	**-1**	**64**	**64**	**82**	**84**	**0.89**	**0.91**	**87**	**89**	**0.93**	**0.94**
Low income countries	188 339	14	60	60	58	61	0.75	0.79	68	72	0.85	0.90
Lower middle income countries	465 197	5	64	64	68	71	0.76	0.78	79	83	0.85	0.88
Upper middle income countries	114 731	-29	68	67	90	94	0.92	0.96	97	99	0.99	1.00
High income countries	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sub-Saharan Africa	186 902	19	62	61	57	59	0.71	0.75	68	69	0.82	0.84
Arab States	51 774	-11	65	66	67	78	0.73	0.81	83	90	0.87	0.93
Central Asia	262	-46	72	64	99	100	0.99	1.00	100	100	1.00	1.00
East Asia and the Pacific	88 067	-31	70	70	92	95	0.93	0.96	98	99	0.99	1.00
South and West Asia	409 909	5	63	64	59	63	0.66	0.70	74	80	0.81	0.86
Latin America and the Caribbean	33 030	-14	55	55	90	92	0.98	0.99	96	98	1.01	1.00
North America and Western Europe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe	4 288	-50	80	78	97	99	0.97	0.99	99	100	0.99	1.00

Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 2; UIS database.

The goal 4 target was to halve the adult illiteracy rate between 2000 and 2015. While the rate fell from 24% to 18% between 1990 and 2000, the pace of decline then slowed. According to most recent estimates, the adult illiteracy rate has fallen to 16% and is projected to be 14% by 2015. Thus the projected fall in the adult illiteracy rate would be 23% between 2000 and 2015, well short of the target (**Figure 0.12a**).

An important reason for this is the increasing share of population in sub-Saharan Africa, the region with both the highest illiteracy rate (41%) and the slowest progress (a 13% decline between 2000 and 2015). However, assessment of the region's progress is complicated by changes in the source of literacy data in many countries. Where countries could not provide recent census data on literacy based on self-assessment, the UIS used household surveys containing direct assessments of literacy, which yielded lower estimates of how many adults could read. Thus estimates of adult literacy in sub-Saharan Africa for the most recent period may be more accurate but are not strictly comparable with the estimates for 2000 or for other regions.

Between 2000 and 2015, the adult illiteracy rate is projected to fall by 26% in South and West Asia, 36% in Latin America and the Caribbean, and 39% in the Arab States. The reduction will therefore fall short of the target. However, the target will be reached in Central and Eastern Europe (-52%), East Asia and the Pacific (-52%) and Central Asia (-65%).

Progress was uneven in the regions where women were lagging furthest behind. There was fast progress in the Arab States during the 2000s, as the female adult literacy rate increased from 56% in 2000 to 69% in 2010, while the gender parity index increased from 73 literate women for every 100 literate men to 81. However, this progress is expected to slow by 2015. By contrast, in South and West Asia, the adult female literacy rate increased from 47% in 2000 to 52% in 2010 and is expected to reach 60% by 2015, when the projected gender parity index will be 76 literate women for every 100 literate men. South and West Asia will remain the region with the biggest gender disparity, even if its female adult literacy rate is above that in sub-Saharan Africa (Figure 0.12a). Overall, 64% of illiterate adults will be female in 2015, a percentage that will not have changed since 2000.

In South and West Asia, there will be 76 literate women for every 100 literate men in 2015

The number of illiterate adults is projected to fall by 4% between 2000 and 2015, from 787 million to 751 million (note, however, the above caveat on comparability). Only Central Asia and Central and Eastern Europe are projected to halve their population of illiterate adults by 2015. Demographic developments mean the population of illiterate adults will likely remain constant in South and West Asia between 2000 and 2015 at 388 million (or 52% of the total)

and increase by 26% in sub-Saharan Africa at 197 million (with its share of the total rising from 20% to 26%).

Literacy skills are best developed in childhood through good quality education. They are sustained by continual practice in literate environments at work or in the community and through adult and continuing education. A review of 30 developing countries for this GMR shows that, since 2000, hardly any have been able to build broad-based frameworks for adult education that offer genuine opportunities for literacy acquisition. Moreover, the analysis shows that the literacy rate for a particular cohort of adults does not improve, or even falls as literacy skills are lost when not used (see Chapter 4).

The global youth literacy rate stands at 89%

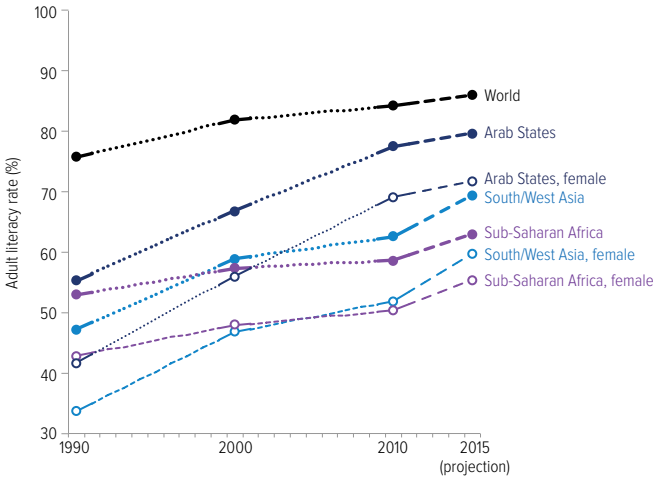
To move towards universal adult literacy, youth literacy rates need to improve. The most up-to-date global youth literacy rate stands at 89%, five percentage points higher than the adult literacy rate. The largest positive gaps are in South and West Asia (18 percentage points) and the Arab States (12 percentage points).

By 2015 in South and West Asia, the youth literacy rate is projected to be just 4 percentage points short of the global average, compared with 9 points in 2010 and 23 in 1990. For young women, the youth literacy rate is projected to be just 5 percentage points under the global average by 2015, compared with gaps of 12 points in 2010 and 30 in 1990 (**Figure 0.12b**).

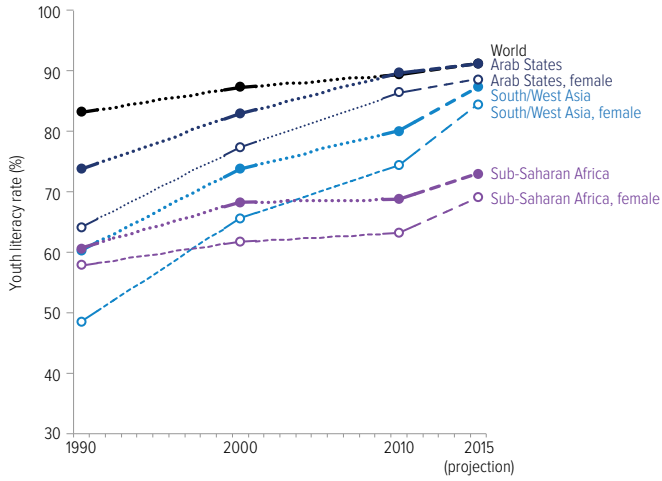
Chapter 4 discusses developments that may have contributed to a faster decline in illiteracy rates, such as renewed interest in literacy programmes, including those that promoted the use of mother tongue. Likewise, more potential opportunities appeared for the use of literacy skills. However, these factors seem to have had only a marginal influence so far on improving the literacy skills of the adult population.

Figure 0.12: The world has remained far from reaching literacy targets

a. Adult literacy rate, world and selected regions, 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2015 (projection)



b. Youth literacy rate, world and selected regions, 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2015 (projection)



Note: Literacy data are not collected annually. Regional and global data therefore refer to census decades. This figure refers to 1990 for data from the 1985–1994 census decade; to 2000 for data from the 1995–2004 census decade, and to 2010 for the most recent data from the period 2005–2012.
Source: UIS database.

Goal 5: Despite fast progress, many countries have not achieved gender parity and obstacles to equality remain

Table 0.5: Key indicators for goal 5

	Primary educatioin		Secondary education		Primary and secondary education			
	Gender parity achieved in 2011		Gender parity index (GPI) of		1999		2012	
	1999	2012	1999	2012	Countries with parity at both levels	Countries with data	Countries with parity at both levels	Countries with data
World	**0.92**	**0.97**	**0.91**	**0.97**	**36**	**165**	**46**	**152**
Low income countries	0.86	0.95	0.82	0.89	2	27	1	24
Lower middle income countries	0.86	0.98	0.80	0.94	7	37	5	38
Upper middle income countries	0.98	0.96	0.97	1.02	9	48	12	41
High income countries	1.00	1.00	1.01	0.99	18	53	28	49
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.85	0.92	0.82	0.84	1	35	0	31
Arab States	0.87	0.93	0.87	0.95	3	18	2	14
Central Asia	1.00	0.99	1.00	0.98	4	7	3	6
East Asia and the Pacific	0.99	0.99	0.94	1.01	5	26	7	18
South and West Asia	0.83	1.00	0.75	0.93	0	6	0	8
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.96	0.97	1.07	1.07	4	33	3	32
North America and Western Europe	1.01	0.99	1.02	0.99	8	23	18	24
Central and Eastern Europe	0.97	1.00	0.96	0.97	11	17	13	19

Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 5 and 7.

Among the EFA goals, the greatest progress has been achieved in gender parity. The third MDG, which included parity in education as one of its targets, was influential. However, it is less clear how much progress has been achieved towards actual equality.

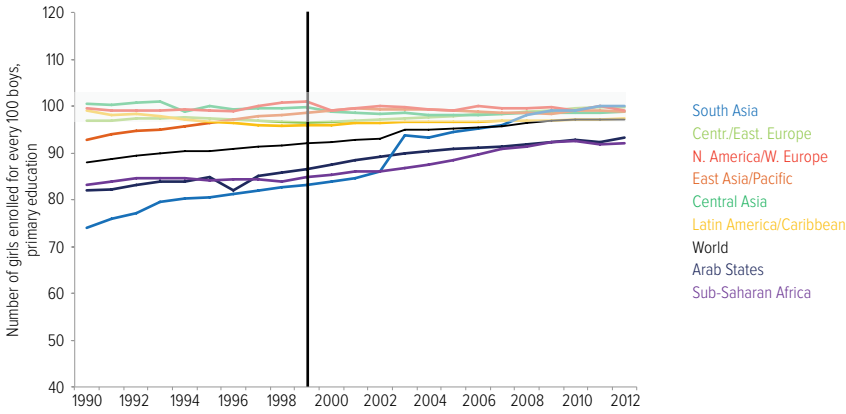
In primary education, there was considerable disparity in 1999 at the global level, with 92 girls enrolled for every 100 boys. By 2012, the global average had increased to 97, just above the threshold of parity. South and West Asia made the strongest progress, achieving parity from the lowest starting point: 83 girls enrolled for every 100 boys. Sub-Saharan Africa and the Arab States halved the parity gap but remained the regions furthest from the target at 92 and 93 girls, respectively, for every 100 boys (**Figure 0.13a**). Of the 16 countries with fewer than 90 girls for every 100 boys enrolled, 13 are in sub-Saharan Africa.

Among the EFA goals, the greatest progress has been achieved in gender parity

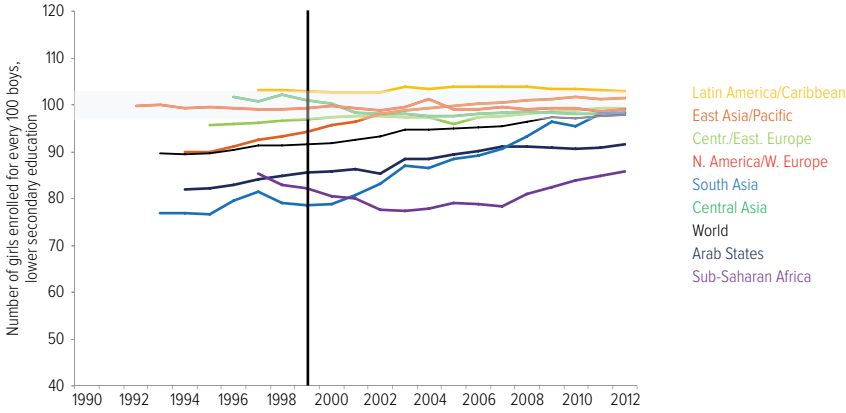
Credit: Darryl Evans/Agence VU

Figure 0.13: While regions converge towards parity in primary education, wide disparity remains in lower and upper secondary education
Gender parity index, by region, 1990–2012

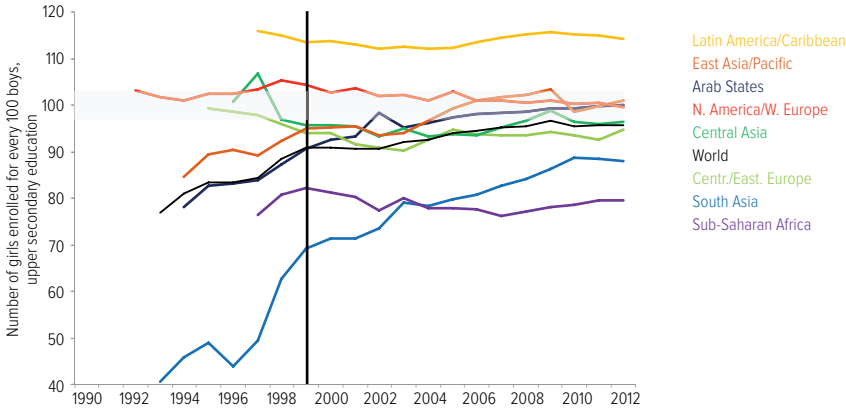
a. Primary education



b. Lower secondary education



c. Upper secondary education



Source: UIS database.

Secondary education was very similar. At the global level, the disparity in 1999 was 91 girls enrolled for every 100 boys. By 2012, the global average had increased to almost 97 girls, just below the threshold of parity. South and West Asia again made the strongest progress, from 75 girls enrolled for every 100 boys, the lowest starting point, to 93, with rapid progress at both the lower and upper secondary levels (**Figures 0.13b and 0.13c**). The Arab States made progress, too, as the number of girls enrolled for every 100 boys increased from 87 in 1999 to 95 in 2012. Sub-Saharan Africa was the region left furthest behind with the slowest progress towards parity, increasing from 82 to 84 girls for every 100 boys. East Asia and the Pacific reached parity, while Latin America and the Caribbean was the only region with disparity at the expense of boys: 93 boys enrolled for every 100 girls.

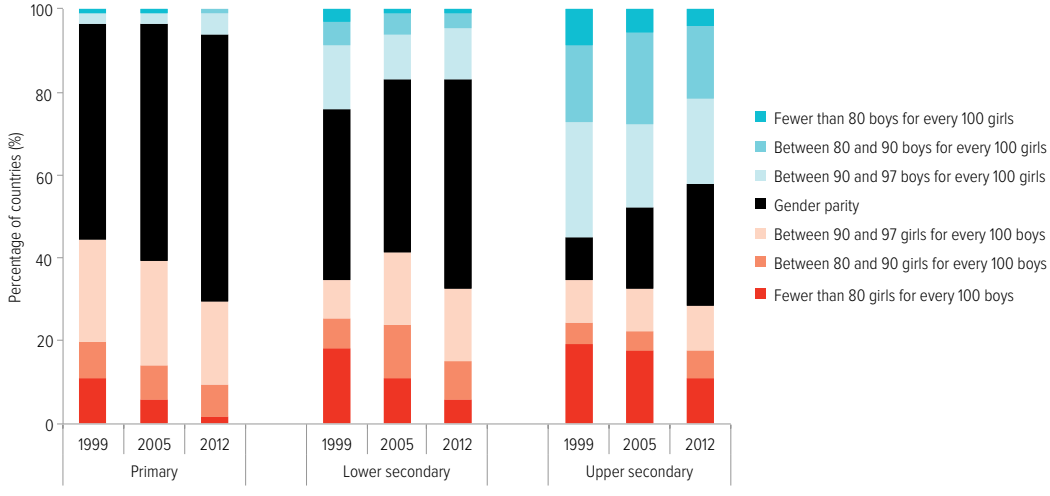
These averages mask considerable diversity. The percentage of countries that achieved parity in both primary and secondary education increased from 21% in 1999 to 30% in 2012. Of the 155 countries with three data points for primary education, 52% had already achieved parity in 1999. By 2005, the original target deadline, the share had only increased to 57%, and in 2012 it was still just 65%. Yet large disparities, with fewer than 80 girls for every 100 boys enrolled – or fewer than 80 boys for every 100 girls enrolled – tended to decline at all levels. For example, at the upper secondary level, the proportion of countries with large disparities at the expense of girls fell from 19% in 1999 to 11% in 2012, while those with large disparities at the expense of boys fell from 9% to 4% (**Figure 0.14**).

Measuring progress towards parity is necessary but is not sufficient to assess gender equality. Such assessment requires systematic analysis of whether countries have been able to address discriminatory social norms (for example, through legislation), remove gender bias from inputs such as textbooks, improve education processes and tackle unsafe learning environments. Chapter 5 looks at available evidence to assess whether schools and communities have successfully pursued the objective of gender equality.

If the gender gap in learning outcomes is used as a measure of progress towards gender equality, some evidence suggests the relative position of girls has been improving. The gap separating them from boys in mathematics and science has shrunk, although some caution is needed, as much of the more robust information over time comes from richer countries. On the other hand, the gap in favour of girls in language has increased (see Chapter 5).

In the Arab States, the number of girls enrolled for every 100 boys increased from 87 in 1999 to 95 in 2012

Figure 0.14: Average progress masks continuing disparity in many countries
Percentage of countries by level of gender parity index in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education, 1999, 2005 and 2012



Note: Only countries with data for each of the three years are included.
Source: UIS database.

Goal 6: There has been increased attention to issues of quality

Table 0.6: Key indicators for goal 6

	Pre-primary education				Primary education				Secondary education			
	Teaching staff		Pupil/teacher ratio		Teaching staff		Pupil/teacher ratio		Teaching staff		Pupil/teacher ratio	
	2012 (000)	Change since 1999 (%)	1999	2012	2012 (000)	Change since 1999 (%)	1999	2012	2012 (000)	Change since 1999 (%)	1999	2012
World	**8 900**	**62**	**20**	**21**	**29 091**	**17**	**26**	**24**	**32 296**	**32**	**18**	**17**
Low income countries	367	64	27	26	3 134	80	43	42	1 953	101	28	26
Lower middle income countries	...	...	25	...	9 865	28	31	30	9 455	65	23	22
Upper middle income countries	3 097	57	23	21	10 596	3	24	19	12 974	33	17	15
High income countries	2 826	38	15	13	5 495	7	16	15	7 913	-1	13	12
Sub-Saharan Africa	507	122	28	28	3 433	75	42	42	1 912	130	26	25
Arab States	215	83	20	20	2 267	49	23	19	...	...	16	m
Central Asia	174	36	10	11	340	4	21	16	838	6	12	12
East Asia and the Pacific	2 418	72	26	22	9 635	4	24	19	10 029	31	17	16
South and West Asia	...	...	32	m	5 470	26	36	35	6 017	100	32	25
Latin America and the Caribbean	1 193	59	21	18	3 099	14	26	21	3 863	36	19	16
North America and Western Europe	1 698	60	18	13	3 667	7	15	14	4 781	6	14	13
Central and Eastern Europe	1 158	3	8	11	1 179	-14	18	17	2 741	-22	12	11

Source: Annex, Statistical Table 8.

The quest for an education of good quality cuts across the Dakar Framework and the other five goals. The framework expresses concern over emerging evidence that a sizeable percentage of children were 'acquiring only a fraction of the knowledge and skills they are expected to master' while '[w]hat students are meant to learn has often not been clearly defined, well-taught or accurately assessed' (UNESCO, 2000).

Before Dakar, 34% of countries carried out at least one national learning assessment; this has since grown to 69%

In 2000, the task of monitoring quality was only conceivable in terms of measuring inputs. Now, learning outcomes are considered key for reviewing whether quality has improved, though they should not be the only criterion. Increasingly, information has been made available on outcomes. Since 2000, countries' interest in improving their understanding of education system outcomes has rapidly expanded. In the decade before Dakar, 34% of countries carried out at least one national learning assessment; between 2000 and 2013 the percentage grew to 69%. Particularly rapid improvement was observed in the Arab States, Central Asia, Central and Eastern Europe, and East Asia and the Pacific (**Figure 0.15**), a trend indicating active engagement by countries with the EFA agenda's quality imperative (Benavot and Köseleci, 2015).

However, the increasing use of learning assessments has not yet been translated into sufficient information. While the 2013/4 GMR noted that some 250 million children of primary school age were not reaching minimum learning standards in reading and mathematics, the world has not yet reached a stage where learning outcomes can be tracked over time and across a sizeable share of countries.

Among international and regional learning achievement surveys since 2000, the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) has the largest coverage across countries and over time, enabling a systematic review of trends. Of 38 countries where the mean score in reading can be compared over 2000–2009, 13 improved while 4 deteriorated. Also, 14 countries reduced the percentage falling below a minimum proficiency threshold, while in 7 the percentage increased (OECD, 2010b). Of 64 countries where the mean score in mathematics can be compared over 2003–2012, performance was 'broadly similar' overall, though on balance more countries recorded improvement than deterioration (OECD, 2014g).

Assessments only report the learning outcomes of children who were in school, and thus overestimate the learning achievement of the relevant population. An interesting exception is citizen-led assessments, like those conducted in South Asia and Eastern Africa, which also assess learning levels among out-of-school children.

Although they focus on a restricted set of outcomes, such assessments have become popular, since they enable local communities to hold their governments to account. This type of assessment is expanding to other countries.

The Dakar Framework clearly emphasized teachers and the elimination of gaps in teacher supply. In primary education, 1.4 million additional teachers were needed as of 2012 to achieve universal primary education by 2015 while ensuring that all primary school age children were in classes with no more than 40 pupils per teacher (UNESCO, 2014i). The global pupil/teacher ratio fell only slightly, from 26:1 in 1999 to 24:1 in 2012. In sub-Saharan Africa it grew from 42:1 in 1999 to 45:1 in 2008 before falling back to 42:1 by 2012, still well above levels suitable for disadvantaged learners (**Figure 0.16a**).

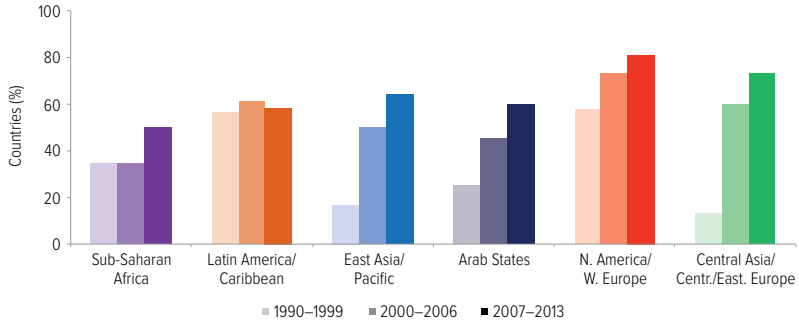
In secondary education, the global pupil/teacher ratio fell from 18:1 to 17:1 between 1999 and 2012. The largest decrease was in South and West Asia, from 32:1 to 25:1, suggesting that the region prioritized investment in teachers at the secondary more than the primary level, where the ratio stagnated at 35:1 (**Figure 0.16b**).

These ratios do not indicate teacher distribution within countries, and are silent on the quality of teachers and their professional training. Lacking a global consensus on a definition of trained teachers, the available indicators refer to national definitions. In primary education, it is possible to compare progress among 50 countries, where the average percentage of trained teachers increased from 77% to 90%, indicating that some progress has taken place.

The Dakar Framework identified a series of factors that contribute to education quality, ranging from facility conditions to participation in school management and from curricula to the language of instruction. Though systematic evidence is not available on global trends over time for many of these factors, Chapter 6 examines available sources to identify messages emerging from the discourse on education quality over the past 15 years.

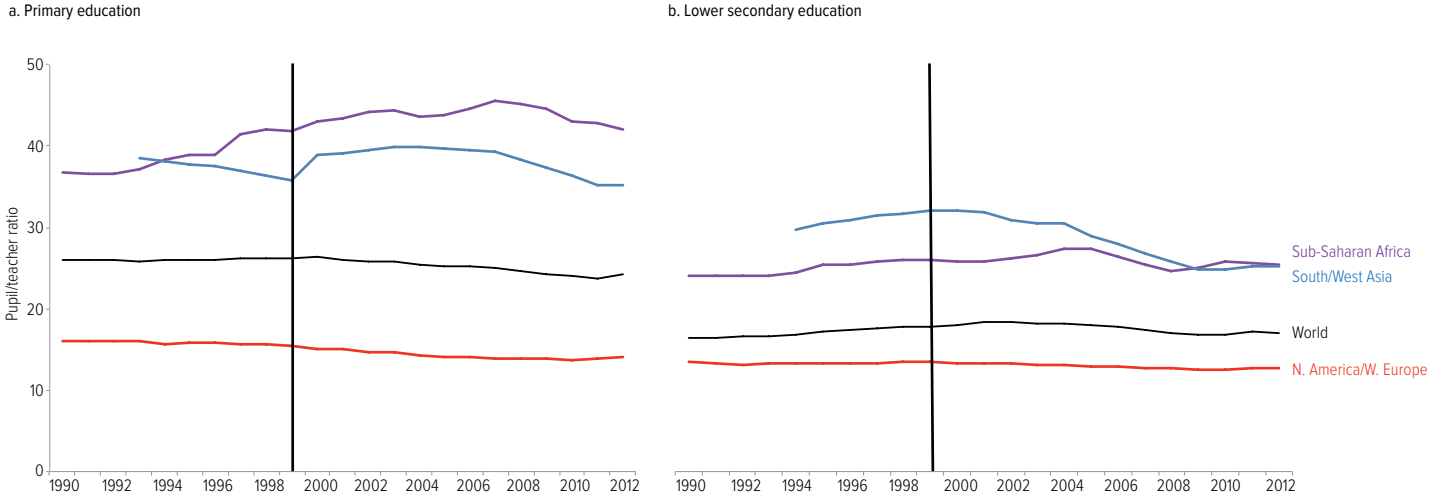
1.4 million additional primary teachers were needed to achieve UPE by 2015

Figure 0.15: Emphasis on learning assessments has increased across countries since 2000
Percentage of countries that have carried out at least one national learning assessment, by region, 1990–1999, 2000–2006 and 2007-2013



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2014) based on annex data on national learning assessments

Figure 0.16: Disparity in pupil/teacher ratios across regions has remained large
Pupil/teacher ratios, world and selected regions, 1990–2012



Source: UIS database.

Was progress faster after Dakar?

While the goals themselves may have been missed, progress needs to be fairly assessed in an additional way: by considering the pace of progress, and whether it accelerated after Dakar compared with the period immediately preceding it. This reveals whether the movement towards the progress embodied in the EFA goals gained momentum after 2000.

In sub-Saharan Africa, the primary net enrolment ratio would have been much lower at pre-Dakar trends

In terms of pace of progress, an analysis of growth rates in selected indicators comparing the periods 1990–1999 and 1999–2012 points to some improvement (Bruneforth, 2015). Progress accelerated in the pre-primary education gross enrolment ratio. Among the 90 countries with data, 63 were at least two years further ahead than if enrolments had continued to grow at the rate observed in the 1990s, and 21 countries were at least two years further behind. If enrolment had grown at the same rate as in the 1990s, the global pre-primary enrolment ratio would have reached 40% by 2015; instead, it is expected to be 58%. In South and West Asia, depending on the reference period used, the pre-primary gross enrolment ratio is projected to be either 61% or 66%; on pre-Dakar trends, it would have been 32%.

Evidence on progress towards universal primary education is less strong. Among the 52 countries with data on the primary net enrolment ratio, 26 accelerated and 24 countries slowed compared with the rate observed in the 1990s. The slowdown was observed mainly in countries close to the target, with acceleration mainly in countries far from the target. If enrolment had grown at the rate of the 1990s, the global primary net enrolment ratio would have reached 82% by 2015; instead, it may reach up to 91%. The region that exceeded the previously projected trend by the most is sub-Saharan Africa, where, depending on the reference period used, the primary net enrolment ratio is expected to be either 80% or 84%; pre-Dakar trends would have put it at 67%.

Evidence from 70 countries on the survival rate to the last grade of primary school suggests that some enrolment gains were at the cost of slower progression. Only in 23 countries did the survival rate accelerate; in 37, it slowed. The global survival rate is projected to reach, at most, 76% by 2015, while at the 1990s rate it would have reached 80%. In South and West Asia, the survival rate is projected to be 64% by 2015; following pre-Dakar trends it would have reached 77%.

Progress towards gender parity appears to have accelerated in primary education, although parity would have been achieved at the global level even on pre-Dakar trends. Accelerated improvement made a particular difference in the Arab States and sub-Saharan Africa.

The world will be closer to key targets than if previous trends had continued

Past research shows that the expansion of education systems has a dynamic of its own (Meyer et al., 1977; Meyer et al., 1992). Once the children of a country begin enrolling in and completing school, schooling begins to diffuse across the population more broadly. This diffusion process occurs at a relatively similar pace across countries. A study early in the Dakar period maintained that, starting from the year in which a country managed to enrol half of its children in school, and applying the average global speed at which education systems expand, 'we can predict roughly 90% of the variation in net primary enrolment in all countries for the entire post-war period' (Clemens, 2004).

Using this idea, new research for the GMR assumes that some progress in education would have been expected in the post-Dakar period (Lange, 2015). For two indicators – the percentage of children who have ever been to school and those who have attained primary education – the analysis used household data from 97 low and middle income countries to test the notion of EFA progress beyond what could have been expected. For both indicators, progress appears to have surpassed past trends, although the full effect of the Dakar period can be estimated only when all cohorts of children affected by changes since 2000 have gone through the education system.

The progress of the percentage of children who have ever been to school can be estimated with more confidence, since more cohorts of young children have been observed since 2000. Developments since Dakar have led to

an increase of two percentage points in the proportion of children who will have had access to school for the first time in low and middle income countries. Overall, it is estimated that 34 million more children born before 2010 will have had access to school for the first time by 2015, compared with what would have happened if the previous trend had persisted.

It is projected that by 2015, there will be an increase of fewer than two percentage points in the proportion of children who will have finished the primary education cycle, from 81% to 83%. Overall, it is estimated that 20 million more children born before 2005 will have completed primary school, compared with a projection based on pre-Dakar trends.

The claim made in the Dakar Framework that achieving EFA by 2015 was 'a realistic and achievable goal' may have been exaggerated, even if reduced to a narrow target such as universal primary education. Yet, while the global target itself was not reached, modest progress was achieved, which compares favourably to the historical record.

Credit: Poulomi Basu

Explaining progress towards EFA: A favourable international context

The world has remained far from achieving all the EFA targets set in Dakar and wide inequality remains. Still, key targets are projected to be closer to being achieved in 2015 than if the pre-2000 trends had continued. This section looks at aspects of the general international context that might have influenced EFA progress. It concludes that sustained economic growth in low and middle income countries created a favourable environment that enabled some of them to allocate more resources to education and overcome continuing challenges due to demography or conflict in some of the world's poorest countries.

20 million more children will have completed primary school than if past trends had continued

Demography remained an obstacle in sub-Saharan Africa

Demographic parameters can have a major impact on countries' ability to achieve education targets. Both the relative size of the school age population and its geographical dispersion determine the cost of achieving universal schooling.

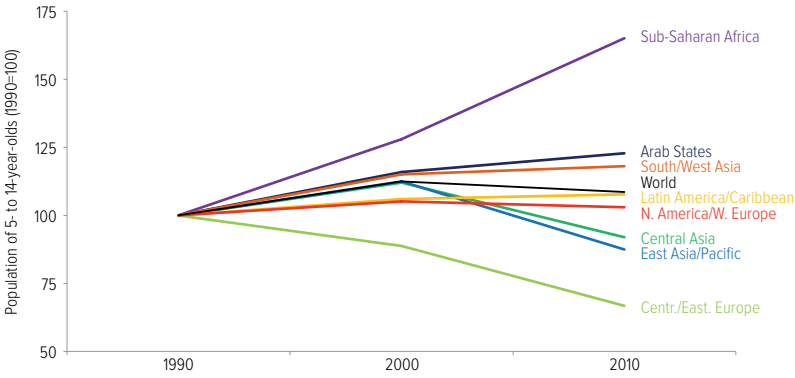
Over the past few years, sub-Saharan Africa has been on a different demographic path than the rest of the world. In absolute terms, compared with 1990, the cohort of children aged 5 to 14 in sub-Saharan Africa had increased by 28% in 2000 and by 65% in 2010. By contrast, in East Asia and the Pacific this cohort was 13% smaller in 2010 than in 1990 (**Figure 0.17a**).

In relative terms, the share of this cohort in the total population in sub-Saharan Africa not only remained the largest (at 27%) but was also constant between 1990 and 2010. By contrast, the cohort's share declined from 27% to 21% in the Arab States and from 25% to 21% in South and West Asia. This suggests that all other regions faced decreasing pressure to deliver education services to their young generation (**Figure 0.17b**).

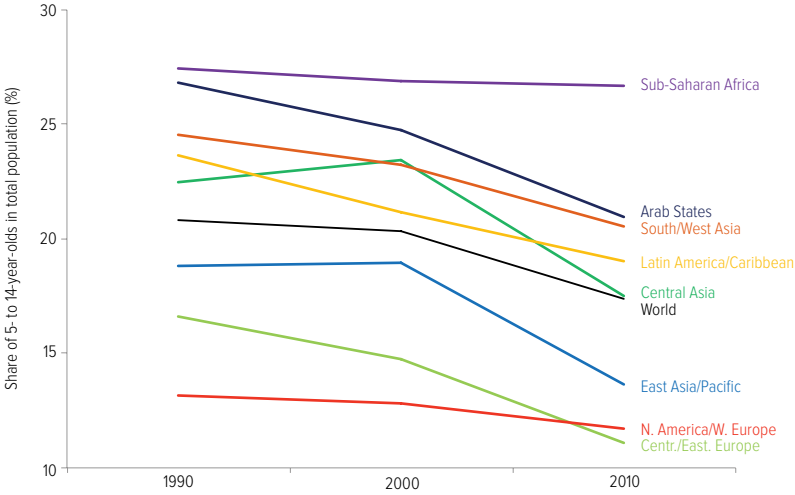
The total fertility rate declined globally from 3 children in 1990–1995 to 2.5 children in 2005–2010. In sub-Saharan Africa, despite a faster decline from 6.2 to 5.4 children over the

Figure 0.17: Sub-Saharan Africa faced greater demographic challenges than other regions
Population of 5- to 14-year-olds, by region, 1990, 2000 and 2010

a. Relative to 1990



b. As share in total population (%)



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations based on UNPD (2014a).

Urbanization has accelerated globally since 2000

period, fertility remains high (UNPD, 2014a). As a result, the region also has the highest child dependency ratio, with 73 children under age 15 per 100 persons of working age in 2015, close to double the global average (UNICEF, 2014b; UNPD, 2014a). Lower family size can be expected to result in increased household emphasis on education (Moav, 2005).

Increasing life expectancy has also been linked to higher levels of education attainment (Cervellati and Sunde, 2013; Cohen and Leker, 2014; Jayachandran and Lleras-Muney, 2009). Life expectancy at birth in less developed countries increased by 2 years between 1990 and 2000, but by 3.3 years between 2000 and 2010 (UNPD, 2014a). This acceleration, the result of progress in controlling the AIDS epidemic and a faster decline in child and maternal mortality, is likely to have increased demand for education.

Urbanization has accelerated globally since 2000. The percentage of the total population living in urban areas increased from 43% in 1990 to 47% in 2000 and 52% in 2010. This has largely been driven by rapid change in East Asia and the Pacific, where massive urbanization in China presented a major challenge to the education system (see Chapter 3) (**Figure 0.18**).

Education provision in urban areas tends to be less costly and more efficient, thus easier to expand. And despite problems of capacity in accommodating the influx of rural migrants to cities, who often move into unregulated slum areas, domestic migration facilitates access to public services. Analysis by the GMR team shows that even if primary attainment rates had remained constant in urban and rural areas in sub-Saharan Africa, the increase in the percentage of people living in high attainment urban areas would have been enough to raise the average primary attainment rate by 1.5 percentage points between 2000 and 2010.

Domestic revenue mobilization increased in developing countries

Economic growth can be a powerful factor in education development, but only if governments are able and willing to mobilize resources and direct them to education.

Developing countries have returned to sustained growth and have outperformed advanced economies over the past 15 years (**Figure 0.19a**) (IMF, 2014). While Asia had enjoyed growth since at least the 1980s and real per capita growth rates reached high levels in the 2000s, the 1980s and 1990s were disastrous for other regions. The Arab States and Latin America and the Caribbean experienced negative real per capita growth rates in the 1980s (-0.4% and -0.8%, respectively) and very slow growth in the 1990s. In Sub-Saharan Africa, which underwent a protracted period of structural adjustment programmes, the regional economy shrank by 1.0% in the 1980s and 0.5% in the 1990s. But all three regions returned to growth of about 2.5% after 2000 (Sundaram et al., 2011).

Low and middle income countries increased government revenue as a share of GDP from

23% in 2000 to 28% in 2012, accompanied by a commensurate increase in government expenditure as a share of GDP, from 25% to 30% (**Figure 0.19b**). It is mainly this increase that helps explain the growth in education expenditure in developing countries in terms of GDP, as education did not receive a higher share of the budget over this period (see Chapter 8).

Extreme poverty rates fell but barriers to education remained

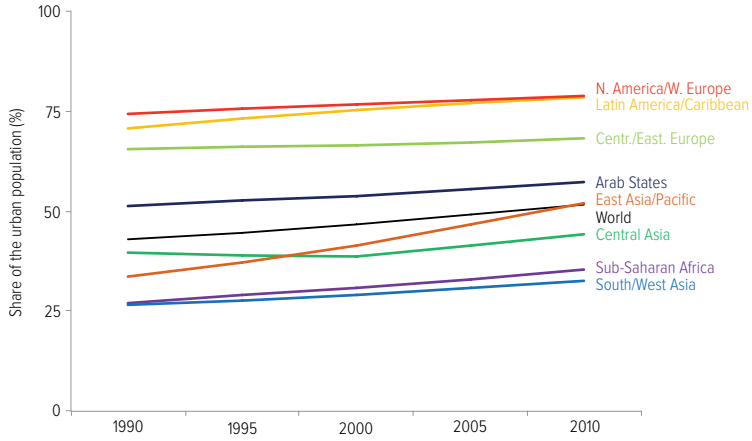
Economic growth can be a powerful factor in education development, provided it is sufficiently equitable to reduce poverty and raise household demand for education. In many countries, average prosperity has increased due to growing global demand for resources, energy and commodities. But such opportunities for wealth creation are not broad-based and may not benefit the poor if redistribution policies are lacking or not implemented.

Globally, the percentage of people in developing countries living on less than US$1.25 per day fell from 47% in 1990 to 22% in 2010. But economic growth has not led to the same degree of poverty reduction everywhere. While in East Asia and the Pacific, the share of those living in extreme poverty decreased from 45% in 1990 to 14% in 2010, the decline in sub-Saharan Africa was far more modest, from 56% to 48%. There will still be a billion extremely poor people in the world in 2015. One in eight people continue to suffer from chronic hunger (World Bank, 2014a).

Nevertheless, there have been improvements in global water and energy infrastructure that can have a direct impact on the education opportunities of the poorest. For example, children may be forced to spend less time fetching water or wood. The coverage of drinking water supply in the least developed countries increased gradually from 50% in 1990 to 67% in 2012 (UNICEF and WHO, 2014). The Energy Development Index showed notable improvement in access to electricity between 2002 and 2010 in East Asia and the Pacific and Latin America and the Caribbean, though far less in sub-Saharan Africa (International Energy Agency, 2012).

The global improvement in overall living conditions has also had an effect on children's lives in other ways that also affect their education. The number of 5- to 17-year-olds in child labour declined by

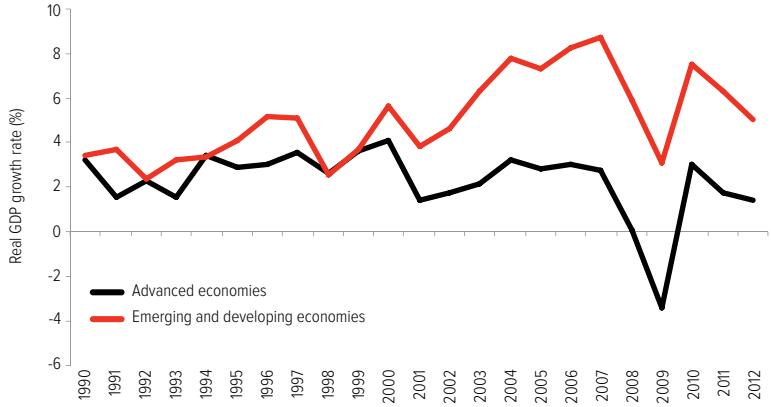
Figure 0.18: More than half the global population now lives in urban areas
Percentage of population residing in urban areas, selected regions, 1990–2010



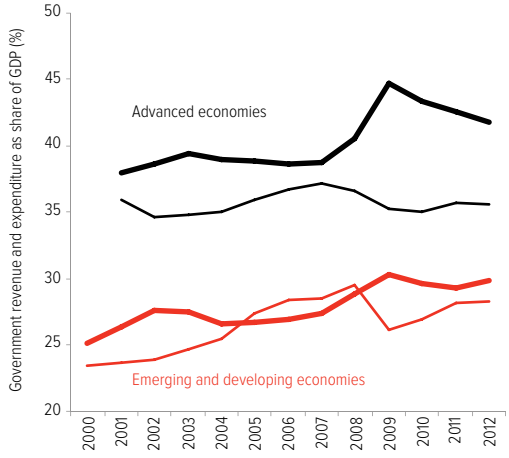
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations based on UNPD (2014b).

Figure 0.19: Developing country governments' revenue and expenditure have grown since 2000

a. Real GDP growth rate, advanced and emerging/developing economies, 1990–2012



b. Government revenue and expenditure as a share of GDP, advanced and emerging/developing economies, 2000–2012



Note: The country groups 'advanced' and 'emerging/developing' are used by the IMF and roughly correspond to 'high income' and 'low/middle income' as used in the GMR.
Source: IMF (2014).

one-third, from 246 million in 2000 to 168 million in 2012, while the number of these children engaged in hazardous work was halved from 171 million to 85 million (ILO, 2013b). Nevertheless, this remains a major, and unacceptable, problem.

In Latin America, 19% of the population was provided/ receiving cash transfers in 2010

Governments have increasingly emphasized social protection policies that can help vulnerable households overcome financial constraints on sending their children to school. Globally, public social protection and health care expenditure as a share of GDP increased from 5.8% in 1990 to 6.5% in 2000 and 8.6% in 2010 (ILO, 2014c). Middle income countries have expanded social protection systems since 2000. In Latin America, cash transfer policies increased their coverage of the population from 5.7% in 2000 to 19.3% in 2010 (ECLAC, 2010). Fewer low income countries have succeeded in introducing similar programmes, however, as governments face multiple challenges, including widespread poverty and weak capacity for implementation of complex policies (Andrews et al., 2012) (see Chapter 2).

Gender discrimination continues

Attempts to increase access to school for girls will be thwarted if social institutions, norms and practices continue to be discriminatory. This was the point of gender mainstreaming efforts, building on the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979) and the fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing (1995), to make 'women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes' to achieve gender equality (United Nations, 1997).

Globally, the female labour force participation rate, a potential barometer of empowerment, remained constant between 1990 and 2010 at about 52%. However, this masks regional differences. Participation increased in the Arab States of northern Africa and, particularly, in Latin America and the Caribbean. By contrast, it decreased in Central Asia and in East Asia (Elborgh-Woytek et al., 2013; UNSD, 2010). A review of 64 studies showed that gender wage gaps persisted, though varying widely across regions. Women earned 10% less than men in East Asia but 48% less in South Asia (Ñopo et al., 2011). While the gap is partly linked with the fact that more women work in low paying occupations, a large part is the result of discrimination (OECD, 2012c).

Another marker of progress is political representation by women: it remains very low, though some important improvements have occurred. The share of parliament seats held by women increased from 14% in 2000 to 22% in 2014, ranging from 3% in the Pacific to 26% in Latin America and the Caribbean. But the percentage of women in ministerial posts was 17% in 2014 and women are even less likely to be heads of government, parliament or state (United Nations, 2014a). A weak presence of women in the economic and political life of a nation sends the wrong signal regarding girls' educational opportunities.

Some progress for girls and women has been measured. The OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index, launched in 2009, monitors discriminatory social institutions and practices, ranging from unequal inheritance rights to restrictions on access to public space. It has captured signs of improvement (OECD, 2012a). However, the prevalence of early marriage and domestic violence remains unacceptably high (see Chapter 5).

Aid increased in absolute but not in relative terms

Various efforts were made in the 1990s to bring development to the top of the international agenda. These included major international conferences sponsored by the United Nations in fields ranging from education to environment and population, a campaign urging for debt relief, and a push by organizations like the OECD for a coherent set of development objectives (Hulme, 2009). These processes culminated in 2000 with the Millennium Summit and the Millennium Declaration, which put forward a global commitment to address key development challenges within a common framework, which in September 2001 led to the eight Millennium Development Goals.

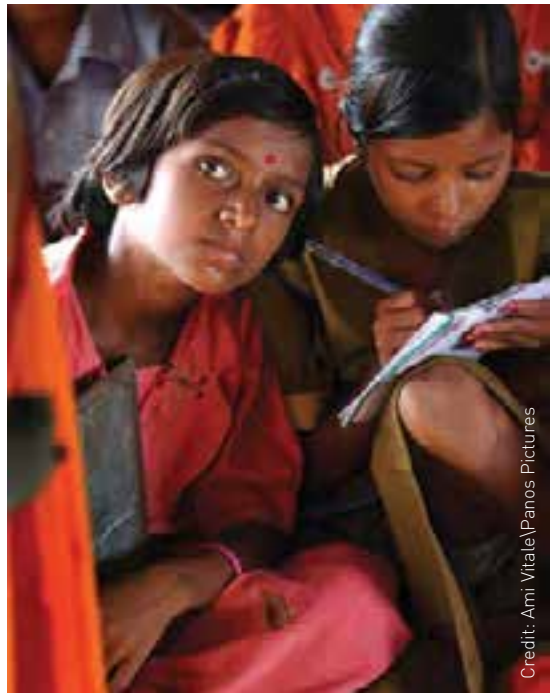
The eighth MDG, on developing a global development partnership, focused on aid and debt. Improving aid and relieving debt can have a direct effect on education. In 2001, aid

flows had fallen to 0.22% of the gross national income (GNI) of OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) member states, from 0.33% in 1992. The Monterrey International Conference on Financing for Development in 2002 led to a commitment to increase assistance, which had bounced back to 0.30% of GNI by 2013 but remained well below a target set by some countries to allocate 0.70% (**Figure 0.20a**). In real absolute terms, total aid volume almost doubled from a low in 1997 of US$71 billion to US$135 billion in 2013 (**Figure 0.20b**).

Between 2001–2002 and 2011–2012, the share of total aid going to the least developed and low income countries increased from 40% to 51% (OECD, 2014c). However, while the overall share of aid to social sectors increased in the 2000s, the share allocated to education fell from 10.2% in the 1990s to 8% in the 2000s (**Figure 0.20c**).

In terms of debt relief, international financial institutions had already launched the Highly Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative in 1996 to reduce the external debt of 39 countries to sustainable levels. This was followed in 2005 by the Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI), which has allowed the 36 countries that have 'graduated' from the HIPC Initiative process to get access to 100% relief on eligible debt held by the IMF, World Bank and African Development Fund. Overall, participating countries have had future debt payments reduced by US$57.3 billion (in end-2012 net present value terms) (United Nations, 2014c).

Debt relief through the HIPC Initiative and MDRI led, along with better debt management and more trade, to a reduction in the debt service-to-exports ratio of developing countries from 12% in 2000 to 3% in 2012 (United Nations, 2014c). Expenditure on health and education increased in HIPC countries (Prizzon and Mustapha, 2014). However, these developments cannot be clearly disentangled from the influence of other factors, such as growth in domestic resource mobilization for education.

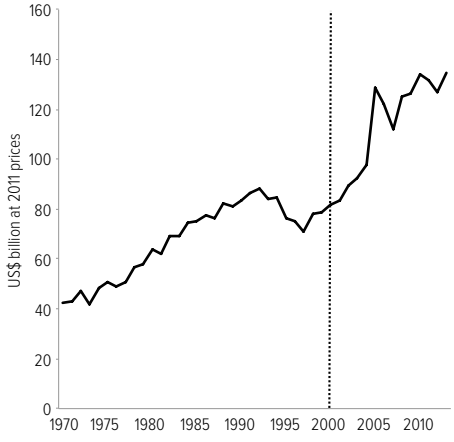

Credit: Ami Vitale\Panos Pictures

While the overall share of aid to social sectors increased in the 2000s, the share allocated to education continued to decline

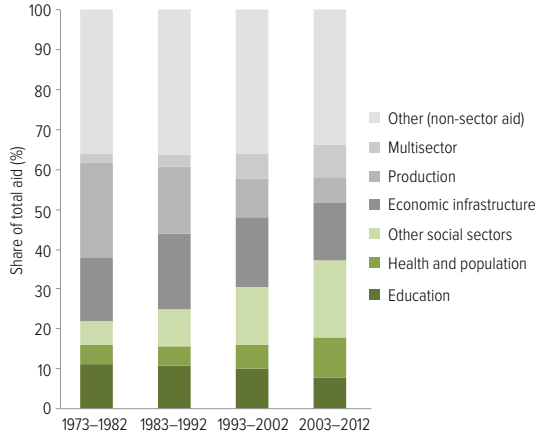
Figure 0.20: While absolute aid volume increased, the share for education declined

a. Total net aid disbursement as a share of GNI

b. Total net aid disbursement



c. Sector share of aid



Source: OECD (2014c).

Explaining progress towards EFA: Assessing the role of the EFA movement at the global level

With these key demographic, economic and social developments in perspective, one can turn to other key questions: In what ways did the pledges made at Dakar help achieve the EFA goals? Did EFA partners fulfil the pledges? To the extent that they did so, to what degree did this contribute to progress towards EFA after 2000? This section focuses on the actions of EFA partners at the global level. As more robust evaluation is not possible in the absence of extensive literature, the section offers an initial balance sheet as a basis for reflection. Analysis of goal-specific actions at the national level is found in the chapters that follow.

Global pledges made in the Dakar Framework were only partially fulfilled

Evidence suggests that global pledges made in the Dakar Framework were only partially fulfilled. The required scope of interventions may have exceeded the capacity of EFA partner organizations to significantly influence change at the national level. However, some of the envisaged mechanisms worked well, advancing the state of education from 2000. This is a source of optimism for a post-2015 global education framework.

The World Education Forum renewed commitment to EFA

To understand the Dakar goals and strategies, some context is necessary. The 1990 Jomtien World Conference on Education for All ushered in a new era of international cooperation in education. The realization that schooling rates were stagnant in many parts of the world, the belief that human development should be at the core of all development, and the optimism generated by the end of the Cold War led to an ambitious call to support EFA. The 'expanded vision' of Jomtien's World Declaration on Education for All succinctly expressed policy concerns on issues such as equity, learning and non-formal education provision which are valid to this day (Inter-Agency Commission, 1990; Unterhalter, 2014).

Nevertheless, progress remained sluggish during the 1990s. The forces that had led to stagnation, especially those related to structural adjustment policies in the poorest countries, were still exerting their influence (Hallak, 1991). Key indicators relating to participation in pre-primary and primary education barely improved, as the first part of this chapter showed. The Mid-Decade Meeting in Amman in 1996 revealed not only a lack of progress but also insufficient follow-up on the main actions agreed (Little and Miller, 2000).

By the late 1990s, there was a sense that the EFA agenda urgently needed putting back on track, as two developments in particular indicate. First, the International Consultative Forum, the inter-agency body responsible for EFA monitoring, advocacy and partnerships, set forth an ambitious process of national end-of-decade EFA assessments, with support from its Paris-based secretariat. With 180 countries participating in the process, a robust global update became available, which re-emphasized that EFA was a universal agenda; the process also helped build capacity in many countries that had not previously done a similar exercise. The results of the assessment were combined into a global synthesis and a statistical document (Skilbeck, 2000; UIS, 2000).

Second, frustration with the slow pace of progress increased external pressure on the international community to act. Civil society organizations raised their voice and lobbied strongly to be heard through an existing mechanism, the Collective Consultation of NGOs on Literacy and EFA, but also, notably, through new channels. International NGOs, in particular, set up campaigns demanding that donors increase aid. Eventually, ActionAid, Oxfam International and Education International joined with the Global March Against Child Labour to establish the Global Campaign for Education in October 1999 to 'mobilise public pressure on governments to fulfil their promises to provide free, quality education for all people, particularly for women' (Culey et al., 2007).

As a result, the World Education Forum took place in April 2000 in Dakar with a clearer sense of the state of education and under more scrutiny. The Dakar Framework for Action, not only re-affirmed the EFA goals and vision, but went a step further to better define the roles and mechanisms at the various levels (Torres, 2001).

What global processes did Dakar set in motion to bring about change?

The theory behind influencing national EFA policy

The Dakar Framework intended to bring positive change to global education through various mechanisms and processes, stating: 'The functions of these [national, regional and international] mechanisms will include, to varying degrees, advocacy, resource mobilization, monitoring, and EFA knowledge generation and sharing.'

But while the framework set principles, it also left many of its assumptions unwritten. To now assess the Dakar Framework's chances to succeed, it is necessary to spell out more clearly the relationships aimed at translating a global conference into change on the ground.

The Dakar Framework stated that the 'heart of EFA activity lies at the country level' yet called for donor action, as there was 'already evidence from many countries of what can be achieved through strong national strategies supported by effective development co-operation. Progress under these strategies could – and must – be accelerated through increased international support.'

For this purpose, then, the partners committed to 'strengthen accountable international and regional mechanisms to give clear expression to these commitments and to ensure that the Dakar Framework for Action is on the agenda of every international and regional organization, every national legislature and every local decision-making forum.'

This section maps and classifies the framework's proposed activities, analyses the rationale and assumptions behind them and describes how the EFA movement was expected to deliver change. Three types of global interventions were proposed to support countries (**Figure 0.21**):

- Coordination mechanisms, some of which already existed. Others were outlined for the first time in the Dakar Framework and subsequently modified.
- Campaigns, dedicated to particular aspects of EFA, such as adult literacy, or to particular challenges, such as conflict.
- Initiatives, some which were specified in the Dakar Framework. Others were created subsequently, drawing from its authority.

These interventions overlapped and interacted with one another but had individual organizational and management arrangements. It was hoped that, if successfully implemented, they would lead to short- to medium-term results which in turn would help speed up achievement of the EFA goals.

The first expected result was that these interventions would help **reaffirm and sustain political commitment to EFA**. While the Dakar Framework was not legally binding, it would confer international legitimacy to efforts to achieve the goals. This would provide sufficient support to stakeholders at the national level to push for necessary reforms and convince reluctant governments. Campaigns would keep EFA on top of the civil society agenda. EFA-wide or theme-specific initiatives would provide expertise to maintain momentum on key challenges.

But the main push would be provided by effective EFA coordination mechanisms, notably those involving the five EFA convening agencies: UNESCO, UNICEF, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the World Bank. These mechanisms would ensure regular oversight and would also provide accountability: countries would be aware that they were observed and that their actions risked being found lacking, raising questions at home and abroad.

The MDGs diluted the EFA message and narrowed its focus

The interventions were based on three implicit assumptions. First, there would be no competition with other agendas. In practice, though, the MDGs, which became the dominant development narrative, have diluted the EFA message and narrowed its focus. Second, the EFA convening agencies would collaborate effectively at the central and country levels. In practice, this did not happen. Political will to do so was weak, resources for coordination were limited and agencies had

other competing priorities. Third, EFA convening agencies would have the most authoritative voice in international education. But over time, new voices, such as that of the OECD, increasingly appealed to countries where the EFA agenda may have had less resonance (Bolívar, 2011; Sellar and Lingard, 2013).

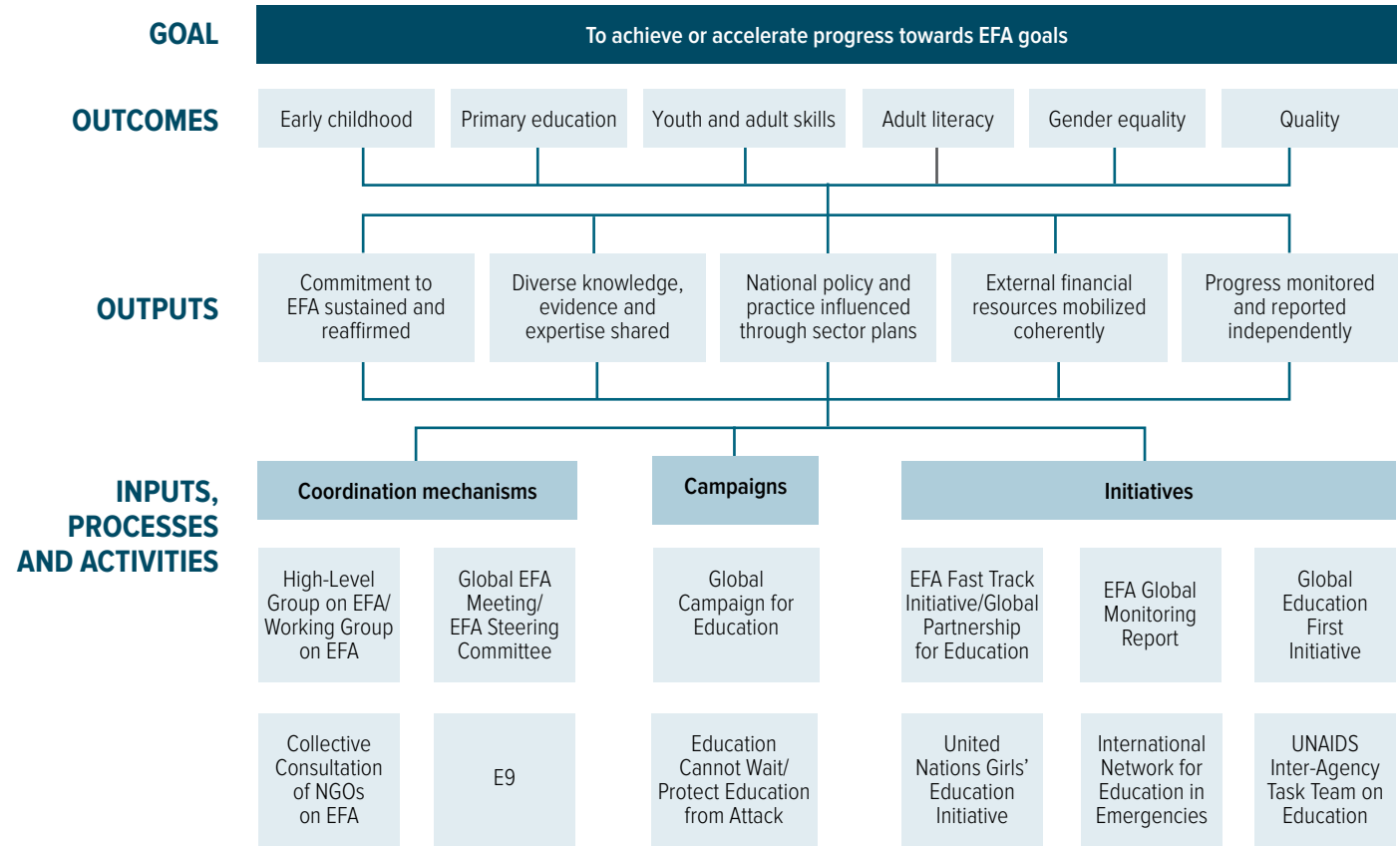
NGOs would come to be seen as key partners, especially in reaching the marginalized, and as a source of innovation and knowledge

The second expected result was that EFA mechanisms, initiatives and campaigns would **help diverse types of knowledge, evidence and expertise be communicated and used**. As the 2000 EFA assessment revealed, a lot could be learned from exchanges between EFA partners and the sharing of good practices. The Dakar interventions could facilitate such learning while also opening up a platform for other views, notably those from the grass-roots or outside the mainstream. NGOs would come to be seen as key partners, especially in reaching the marginalized, and as a source of innovation and knowledge.

The implicit assumption here was that policy-making was a technical exercise informed by evidence. While the concepts of evidence-based policies and results-based management did gain currency over the period, there also was growing realization of the role of politics (Grindle, 2004). Lack of action by national governments did not just reflect lack of information. In practice, even countries committed to EFA goals would require political support to build the national capacity to seek, absorb, interpret and apply external findings.

The third expected result was that various interventions would **influence and strengthen national EFA policy and practice**. A call for all countries to develop plans of action that would 'give substance and form to the goals and strategies set out in this Framework' aimed to align global and national priorities in an effective and timely manner. The international community pledged to support the preparation of plans for

Figure 0.21: Mechanisms, initiatives and campaigns at the global level were expected to mobilize EFA activities at the national level
Logical framework for the expected effect of the global EFA architecture



Note: The list of input processes and activities is indicative and not exhaustive.
Source: Adapted from Faul and Packer (2015).

'those countries with significant challenges, such as complex crises or natural disasters', and, critically, to 'work in a consistent, co-ordinated and coherent manner' to support these plans.

An implicit assumption was that countries could switch to an EFA plan of action without friction. In practice, many countries already had their own national mechanisms and planning cycles and their own stakeholders to consult with. They differed widely in how action plans were used for educational development. In some cases, the insistence on a separate plan outside the national process of planning and budgeting may have been counterproductive.

The fourth expected result was that **financial resources for EFA would be effectively mobilized**. The Dakar signatories believed that developing countries' efforts to raise more tax and prioritize basic education in their budgets would be insufficient to achieve EFA. It was estimated in the Dakar Framework that the additional financial support needed to achieve EFA was about $US8 billion annually.

The implicit assumption was that many countries were spending way below what would be needed to ensure universal access and the provision of good quality education, and that aid would be needed to make up the difference. In practice, the capacity of countries' financial and education systems to absorb rapid increases in external aid flows was not considered. Neither was the ability of countries to spend effectively. It was further assumed that, in a period of strong donor coordination and calls for debt relief, no significant shocks would affect aid disbursements – that the appeal to donors to essentially more than triple aid to basic education was ambitious but achievable. But financial crisis in donor countries later dampened these expectations.

The fifth expected result was the establishment of **independent monitoring and reporting of progress towards the EFA goals**. Regular and frequent reporting would draw attention to those countries or partners not fulfilling their pledges and enhance accountability. Results from monitoring activities would influence policy.

However, declarations are not legally binding and governments often choose not to adopt global targets as national targets. National processes may be considered more important and the degree of external influence limited (**Box 0.2**). Even if countries agree to global targets, monitoring can help accelerate progress only if there is a formal mechanism for accountability to note countries' underperformance. None exists. Moreover, a globally oriented monitoring mechanism (like the GMR) does not necessarily provide clear and convincing advice to individual countries as to the best direction for education policy reform.

The scope for global EFA architecture to influence national EFA policy increased since 2000

Box 0.2. The potential of international actors to influence national education policy

The Dakar Framework assumes that global action can directly influence national systems, even though external factors are only one influence, and likely not the most important. Views differ: is a system of global governance of education at work, with powerful state and non-state actors, or does country participation in global mechanisms have few implications for national policy change?

Even in countries of the European Union, where a process for structured policy dialogue exists in the form of the voluntary 'open method of coordination', education policy remains strictly a national preserve that treaties leave to the discretion of member states. The exception to this is technical vocational education and the 'European dimension' in which regional policy directives trump national ones. In general, though, countries may be influenced by other actors, but it is difficult to say if such influence is implicitly imposed or willingly adopted. In the case of loose coordination mechanisms, such as those of EFA, it is even more difficult to trace the subtle channels through which national policies adjust to proposed global norms.

However, globalization has increased the potential in recent years for global and regional actions to influence national education processes. In the richer countries, the OECD has had a growing role in national curricula as part of peer reviews and sharing of lessons learned, with a stronger influence on policy since the introduction of PISA. In poorer countries, receiving an education sector loan from a development bank entailed conditions such as ceilings on teacher salaries that reduced the degree of freedom in policy-making. Similarly, as aid programmes increased in volume and as aid agencies coordinated with one another and strengthened their negotiating position, countries may have endorsed policies that reflected donor preferences, in spite of the principle of national ownership.

Overall, it does appear that the scope for global EFA architecture to influence national EFA policy has increased since 2000, strengthening one of the underlying assumptions of the Dakar Framework.

Sources: Dale (1999); Little (2011); Rinne and Ozga (2011); Stone (2008).

The practice of influencing national EFA policy: the Dakar strategies

In order to assess whether the proposed interventions were sufficient, it is necessary to consider whether they were implemented as planned.

This section assesses the collective performance of EFA partners at the global level vis-à-vis the Dakar Framework's 12 strategies (Box 0.1) in relation to the 5 expected results described above. The goal-specific chapters address in more detail how countries took up the strategies.

Strategy 1: Significant investment in basic education

Low and lower middle income countries have allocated a higher percentage of GNP to education since 1999

Two developments characterize progress towards financing basic education, especially in the countries that were the furthest from the EFA goals and in the greatest need of support. First, low and lower middle income countries have allocated a higher percentage of GNP to education since 1999, although mainly more as a result of increased domestic resource mobilization than because of higher priority on education in budgets (see Chapter 8).

Second, aid to education more than doubled in real terms, although donors did not contribute equally to the effort. The Dakar Framework urged funding agencies to allocate 'a larger share of their resources to support primary and other forms of basic education.' Aid allocations as a share of high income countries' GNI have increased since 2000, though they have not reached the levels of the 1980s. But the shares of education and of basic education in total aid portfolios fell slightly. Aid declined as a share of total education spending in low income countries, as their economies grew at a relatively faster rate (see Chapter 8).

The important questions are whether EFA interventions at the global level led to higher public education expenditure and aid to education levels at the national level, and whether EFA mechanisms affected other aid-related objectives set out in the Dakar Framework, such as to make 'longer-term and more predictable commitments', to be 'more accountable and transparent' and to ensure 'regular reporting at regional and international levels.'

While the actual contributions of individual donors should be a major factor in assessing the success of this strategy, the focus here is on the EFA Fast Track Initiative (FTI), later renamed the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), as evidence of their commitment. Such a mechanism was envisaged in the Dakar Framework and its creation reflected the aspirations of the international community for a coherent means of supporting countries committed to achieving EFA.

The establishment of the FTI is an example of how independent initiatives emerged outside the formal global coordination of the High-Level Group on Education for All. The first attempts to launch a global initiative failed. Frustration led the Netherlands and other bilateral donors to ask the World Bank to play a stronger role. This resulted in an action plan in 2002 and a framework document in 2004. A key feature of the initiative was that it did not originally operate as a fund but instead placed the responsibility on donors to align their support behind endorsed education sector plans.

FTI operations in the 2000s were plagued by criticism: of its operational dependence on the World Bank; of its limited focus on primary education at the expense of other EFA goals; and of its exclusion of some countries in great need because they were fragile and conflict-affected or because they were unable to produce a solid plan (Cambridge Education et al., 2010). In line with the conclusions of a midterm evaluation, the FTI was transformed into the GPE to build a stronger and more balanced partnership among agencies and improve the fund's capacity to respond to country needs. This was indicated by a reformulation of its goals and objectives (**Box 0.3**), a theory of change, and important reforms in its governance and operational procedures. Gradually, the GPE has played a larger role. In the 39 countries which received programme implementation grants over 2004–12, the share of GPE in total aid disbursement to basic education increased from 4% in 2004–06 to 16% in 2010–12, according to GMR team calculations. Donors have responded to two GPE Fund replenishment appeals, even if the result was below the ambitious targets.

The key question remains whether the GPE had a catalytic effect on the commitments that low

income countries made to finance education. The evidence is meagre. During the early period of the FTI, the ability to influence country processes was very limited. It increased after 2010 with the strengthening of the GPE Secretariat. However, the monitoring and reporting processes do not yet generate sufficient information to link GPE action to higher government spending.

Two fallacies that have shaped GPE reporting are at least partly a result of donor demand for short-term results and evidence of quick wins. First, the FTI/GPE has tried to attribute progress in outcomes, such as enrolment rates, to its disbursements, even though the chain of events that lead from one to the other is much more complex, especially given that GPE has often been a minor partner. Second, the GPE has claimed 'increased' government pledges to its 2014 replenishment round on the basis of very weak evidence. To authentically measure success, the GPE needs to be far more meticulous in documenting steps taken to obtain stronger commitments from donors and governments to finance education. The latest monitoring report offers some promise that both concerns are beginning to be addressed (GPE, 2014c).

Even though its focus was almost exclusively on the second EFA goal, the establishment of the FTI/GPE was an innovation in line with the aims of the Dakar Framework to mobilize financial resources from a range of sources. This development must be attributed to the actions of EFA partners at the global level and should be considered a success.

The key question remains whether the GPE had a catalytic effect on financing education

Box 0.3: Goals and objectives of the Fast Track Initiative and Global Partnership for Education

FTI Framework, 2004

Goals

The FTI aims to accelerate universal primary completion by promoting:

- More efficient aid for primary education, through actions of development partners to maximize coordination, complementarities and harmonization in aid delivery and reduce transaction costs for FTI recipient countries;
- Sustained increases in aid for primary education, where countries demonstrate the ability to utilize it effectively;
- Sound sector policies in education, through systematic review and indicative benchmarking of recipient countries' education policies and performance;
- Adequate and sustainable domestic financing for education, within the framework of a country's national poverty reduction strategy, medium-term expenditure framework, or other country statements as appropriate;
- Increased accountability for sector results, through annual reporting on policy progress and key sector outcomes against a set of appropriate indicators in participating countries, and transparent sharing of results.

Globally, the FTI also aims to promote:

- Mutual learning on what works to improve primary education outcomes and advance EFA goals.

Sources: EFA-FTI (2004), GPE (2012c).

GPE Strategic Plan 2012–2015

Goals

- All children have access to a safe, adequately equipped space to receive an education with a skilled teacher;
- All children master basic literacy and numeracy skills by the early grades;
- National systems have the capacity and integrity to deliver, support and assess quality education for all;
- Resources are focused on the most marginalized children and those in fragile and conflict-affected states.

Objectives

- Fragile and conflict-affected states able to develop and implement their education plans;
- All girls in GPE-endorsed countries to successfully complete primary school and go on to secondary school in a safe, supportive learning environment;
- Dramatic increase in the number of children learning and demonstrating mastery of basic literacy and numeracy skills by grade 3;
- Improve teacher effectiveness by training, recruiting and retaining teachers and supporting them to provide a good quality education;
- Expand the volume, effectiveness, efficiency and equitable allocation of external and domestic funding and support to education in GPE-endorsed countries.

Overall, the EFA agenda was more popular in low income than in middle income countries

Strategy 2: EFA policies within well-integrated sector frameworks linked to poverty elimination

The Dakar Framework specified that national EFA plans were to be the main tool for turning commitment into action, and indicated that these plans should be prepared by 2002. The role of EFA partners at the global and regional levels in that process was twofold.

First, the international community provided a framework for the preparation of an overall development strategy, the poverty reduction strategy papers (PRSP), that were complementary to national education plans. In the late 1990s, as debt relief efforts were gaining traction, the World Bank and the IMF required countries to confirm their commitment to poverty reduction and increased social sector spending by drawing up PRSPs. This process generated huge interest across the entire development community and brought together national and international stakeholders in the early 2000s.

Research at the time was favourable to the idea of education fitting into this framework, even though PRSP and EFA action plan processes often ran in parallel (Caillods and Hallak, 2004). However, interest waned towards the end of the decade, once joint staff reviews of the PRSP ceased being a requirement for concessional World Bank and IMF lending. No study has attempted to assess how the PRSP initiative affected the credibility of education plans.

Second, EFA partners were urged to assist countries that lacked capacity to prepare EFA action plans. Several agencies responded to this call by providing support to national governments, including efforts to prepare plans for the GPE (UNESCO-IIEP and GPE, 2012). UNESCO spearheaded capacity-building efforts through the International Institute for Educational Planning, the Capacity Development for EFA Programme and tools such as simulation models and result-based planning handbooks (UNESCO, 2005b, 2006d). A multi-agency initiative recently produced the updated 'Education Sector Analysis: Methodological Guidelines', based on the experience of over 20 years of working on Country Status Reports (UNESCO-IIEP et al., 2014).

An early evaluation of UNESCO support to national planning found that technical support was of good quality. However, it raised questions about the targeting of support and going beyond training personnel to longer term organisational capacity-building (UNESCO, 2006c). A subsequent evaluation of support on sector-wide policy and planning found that country-level initiatives strengthened institutions and brought 'significant policy change and reform at national level', but that projects tended to be too small to effect change on a larger scale (UNESCO, 2009b).

A broader question is whether the emphasis of the Dakar Framework on national plans helped improve their focus on EFA and their quality. A comparison of two waves of national plans (around 2000 and after 2000) from 30 low and middle income countries, carried out for this GMR, looked at their objectives, monitoring and financing arrangements to assess whether the formulation of plans improved over time (UNESCO-IIEP, 2015).

The objectives of universal primary education and quality were present in both waves. In general, the second generation of plans aligned objectives more to the EFA agenda. Yet there were differences across goals and across country income groups. References to the adult literacy goal did not increase. References to the goal of gender parity and equality increased over time, but gender was still not included in one-third of the second wave plans. Overall, the EFA agenda was more popular in low income than in middle income countries, although references to EFA goals increased in both groups over the period.

The use of monitoring frameworks clearly increased. Between the two waves, the share of country plans containing a monitoring framework increased from 23% to 73%, with improvement stronger in low and lower middle income countries. Before Dakar, three-quarters of all plans had either an irrelevant monitoring framework (with less than half the objectives covered by indicators) or none at all. After Dakar, this was the case for just one-quarter of plans. In two-thirds of countries, the framework and objectives were in complete concordance. Learning outcome indicators were present in only one in three plans before Dakar but afterward appeared in almost three in four.

Monitoring of inequality is important. Plans that disaggregated indicators by sex became more prevalent, even if disaggregated targets were not systematically included. But very few plans disaggregated data by any other individual characteristics, such as socio-economic status, ethnicity or location.

Finally, with respect to financing frameworks, more than two-thirds of plans contained a cost framework in the post-Dakar period. However, these were mainly from low and lower middle income countries, which tend to need external assistance. Only one of the seven upper middle income countries had a cost framework for the most recent plan. The number of countries with a financing scenario increased over the period, as did the quality of the cost frameworks, if only slightly.

Overall, there are signs that the quality of national education plans improved over the period, although this assessment is limited to plans' technical features and not implementation. Plans that look good on paper may have been drafted with strong support by donor agencies but bear limited relationship to countries' political processes and education system realities.

Strategy 3: Engagement of civil society in strategies for educational development

The Dakar Framework encouraged the active participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of national development strategies and national EFA plans. In so doing it recognized the lack of openness in the EFA process before Dakar but also the role of civil society in maintaining EFA on top of the global development agenda.

EFA partners could promote the engagement of civil society in two ways. First, international organizations and government authorities could include civil society in policy-making processes. Two examples of formal representation of civil society stand out. UNESCO used the Collective Consultation of NGOs as its key mechanism for dialogue and partnerships and to help organize the selection of civil society representation in EFA coordination bodies. The GPE has reserved 3 of the 19 seats on its board for civil society organizations.

Second, global support could help civil society form and sustain national education coalitions. Such coalitions emerged in about 100 countries, although the impetus often came from international NGOs, with funding from donors. This raised questions on whether donors unduly determined coalitions' agenda and created conditions of dependency. In addition, there were more delicate questions related to the role some coalitions had in determining which organizations received funding (CEF, 2007, 2013). Coalitions were often more successful in countries where they did not rely on aid.

Nationally appropriate mechanisms have been used as alternatives to avoid the problems of incentives. The GPE financed a Civil Society Education Fund (CSEF), implemented by the Global Campaign for Education between 2009 and 2012. It strengthened the capacity of civil society in 45 countries for developing education sector programmes, carrying out advocacy activities and tracking government and donor progress in working towards the EFA goals. An evaluation found that its activities helped coalitions achieve political recognition but were less effective in building capacity for research and knowledge management (GPE, 2012b). A second phase, aiming to address these criticisms, began in 2013 in 54 countries.

The main question was whether governments would give civil society a seat at the table and a say in processes. National education coalitions in 35 out of 42 countries funded by the GPE reported being engaged with the government and donor coordination group (Global Campaign for Education, 2014a). However, by some accounts the role of civil society in policy or monitoring remained limited. Governments sometimes excluded important civil society organizations. The role of civil society in positions of substantial influence, such as in relation to parliamentary standing committees on education, had not been formalized (Mundy et al., 2010). In some cases, civil society was equated with NGOs and did not sufficiently include such key education stakeholders as teacher unions and parent associations.

An increase in civil society activity has been a major achievement since 2000

Overall, an increase in civil society activity has undoubtedly been a major achievement of the education landscape since 2000. International EFA partners have demonstrated a genuine

commitment to fulfil the relevant pledge made in Dakar. This support, however, has had only limited success in creating strong national education coalitions capable of effecting significant change. Some observers maintain that such an outcome is prevented by the political situation in many countries, where decisions are made based on gathering political support or on allegiance to ethnic or other identities (Devarajan et al., 2011).

Strategy 4: Accountability in governance and management

Support to civil society was a means to the more general objective of the Dakar Framework to improve the 'governance of education systems in terms of efficiency, accountability, transparency and flexibility so that they can respond more effectively to the diverse and continuously changing needs of learners.' EFA partners at the global level tried actively to promote local engagement and responsive service delivery, and to encourage countries to introduce broad public sector reform.

Long-term impact requires continuity, persistence and resources that exceed agency planning horizons

Local participation and empowerment, and decentralization, were considered key strategies for improving accountability. The World Bank in particular played an active role in advocating decentralization, notably through its 2004 World Development Report, emphasizing it as a route to accountability (World Bank, 2004). Work carried out under the Systems Approach for Better Education Results initiative aimed to shed light on differences across countries in school autonomy as a factor explaining student performance. Policy experiments on providing information to empower citizens were used to demonstrate conditions under which such interventions work (Bruns et al., 2011).

Several EFA partners invested in capacity-building programmes to complement decentralization and help local education officers, school leaders or community organizations benefit from their new authority. Democratic governance is a core pillar of the work of the UNDP, one of the EFA convening agencies, albeit not with an explicit education focus.

However, palpable results have been slow in coming, and long-term impact requires continuity, persistence and resources that exceed agency planning horizons (OECD, 2004). Moreover, the level of expertise agencies require to follow such reforms is considerable (European Commission, 2012). Thus such interventions' sustainability is in question (UNDP, 2010).

Credit: Philippe Body

Overall, promoting local participation in education and making schools responsive to the needs of the students, parents and communities they serve remain challenging issues, particularly for poor households with limited time for such engagement. Whether such results are best served through decentralization remains contested. Decentralization and school autonomy have been found to have either no impact or a detrimental one on student and system performance in poorer countries with weaker capacity (Chaudhary et al., 2012; Gallego, 2010; Hanushek et al., 2013). Experiments have also cast doubt 'on the current faith in participation as a panacea for the problems of service delivery', either because citizen capacity to respond to information is limited or because the balance of power in local education is not open to civil society influence (Banerjee et al., 2010) (see Chapter 6).

Strategy 5: Meeting the needs of education systems affected by conflict and instability

The ambition of this strategy was to build government capacity to assess educational needs in conflict situations, to restore learning opportunities in secure and friendly environments and to reconstruct damaged education systems. The 2011 GMR documented several actions taken since 2000 to fulfil this pledge at the global level.

First, violations of human rights in conflict situations are being followed more closely. The United Nations Security Council established a monitoring and reporting mechanism in 2007 to document and report abuses of children's rights, including attacks on schools. The Council authorized the Secretary-General in 2009 to publish the names of those who recruit child soldiers. However, violations are still under-reported, enforcement mechanisms remain weak and education-specific issues, including sexual violence, are not covered adequately.

Second, humanitarian aid has been used more to support education systems in conflict zones and after natural disasters than for longer-term humanitarian crises. The Inter-Agency Standing Committee Cluster for Education in Emergencies was established in 2005 as part of a broader reform of humanitarian aid. Co-led by UNICEF and Save the Children, the global education cluster supports country cluster operations, builds response capacity and implements standards to ensure that education is provided efficiently and equitably during crises. The cluster has helped raise the visibility of education and ensured that it was part of the wider humanitarian response in some cases (Steets et al., 2010). However, the increase in humanitarian aid for education has been limited (see Chapter 8). Attempts to build a bridge from humanitarian to long-term development assistance for education have thus far been unsuccessful.

Third, advocacy activities have helped maintain the place of conflict and emergency on the education agenda (see Chapter 2). The Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies is a major initiative that traces its establishment to Dakar. Despite its informal arrangements, it has played an important coordination role, notably through its Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies. The Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack was established in 2010 to highlight the incidence and impact of attacks and to fight impunity. Its global report, which followed on earlier reports published by UNESCO, has shed light on failures to respect and protect schools as sanctuaries and zones of peace, which was a Dakar commitment (GCPEA, 2014; UNESCO, 2010c).

Overall, compared with the strategy's ambitious aims, progress may appear limited. However, the challenges of delivering education in emergencies have received far more attention since 2000 and have helped generate lessons on how to respond quickly and effectively. This can be credited to partners fulfilling commitments made in Dakar.

The challenges of delivering education in emergencies have received far more attention

Strategy 6: Integrated strategies for gender equality

The most visible of all global mechanisms associated with gender equality has been the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI), a multistakeholder partnership established in Dakar in 2000. Its activities have included advocacy to raise awareness of the importance of girls' education and to influence policies and education sector plans; identification and dissemination of good practices; and institutional development of the

partnership approach at the global, regional and country levels.

An evaluation of UNGEI particularly acknowledged its contribution in global policy dialogue and advocacy, but less so at the regional level. At the country level, UNGEI has positioned itself as a valuable and strong player where robust national partnerships exist. Recognizing the challenge of translating globally agreed priorities into country-level activities, UNGEI has created stronger links with the GPE. The evaluation also praised UNGEI's role in coordination and priority-setting among its members. However, more could be done to build capacity in national partnerships by strengthening in-country training and promoting exchanges between partnerships to share experiences (UNGEI, 2012).

Many other initiatives also advocate for gender equality in education, ranging from the advocacy-focused United Nations Adolescent Girls Task Force, co-chaired by UNFPA and UNICEF, to more action-oriented approaches like the Girls' Education Challenge funded by the UK Department for International Development. This GMR offers multiple examples of interaction between global interventions and national processes (see Chapter 5). A tentative conclusion is that actions by EFA partners at the global level have helped keep gender equality high enough on the agenda to contribute to progress towards this goal.

Strategy 7: Actions to combat HIV and AIDS

At the time of Dakar, the AIDS epidemic was threatening the very foundations of education systems in southern and eastern Africa. There seemed a high risk the emergency would reach other parts of the world with disastrous consequences. Massive global mobilization over a very short period produced remarkable results, including a decreased infection rate and the availability of and access to new, more effective treatments. In 2015, while the battle is not yet won, the worst has been prevented.

While the battle against HIV and AIDS is not yet won, the worst has been prevented

Although the health sector took the lead and received the bulk of funding, the role of education was recognized as key. Education initiatives at the global level responded to the challenge with a strong sense of urgency, emphasizing two actions mentioned in the Dakar Framework: teacher training and curricula, and the policy mainstreaming of HIV and AIDS.

The UNAIDS Inter-Agency Task Team on Education (IATT) was established in 2002 to improve the sector's response. Convened by UNESCO, it has promoted and supported good practices and encouraged alignment and harmonization among agencies. The IATT has also strengthened the evidence base, notably through global surveys in 2004 and 2011/12, and prepared technical tools to guide mainstreaming of the issue in education at the national level (UNESCO, 2006a, 2013a).

Also led by UNESCO, the Global Initiative on Education and HIV and AIDS (EDUCAIDS), launched in March 2004 by the UNAIDS Committee of Cosponsoring Organizations, aims to prevent the spread of HIV through education and to protect the core functions of education systems from the worst effects of the epidemic. It has mobilized partnerships at the country level, helped build capacity and offered technical support, notably through briefs on five essential components of an education sector response to HIV and AIDS (UNESCO, 2008a).

These mechanisms have helped the global education response to HIV and AIDS evolve. From an exclusive focus on scientific knowledge of HIV, attention shifted to comprehensive sexuality education, including non-cognitive skills, and eventually to structural issues linked to sexuality and gender (UNESCO, 2014a). Many countries have taken steps to adopt this broader approach, which should be credited to global post-Dakar efforts.

However, implementation remains a problem. Levels of HIV knowledge remain unacceptably low (see Chapter 3), and challenges still exist with curricula, teacher training and teaching methodology to deliver a suitable curriculum. Without HIV education at primary level, which includes students older than primary age, a critical demographic will be missed because many children enter primary school late or leave school before they enrol in secondary school.

Strategy 8: Safe, healthy, inclusive and equitably resourced educational environments

The Dakar Framework stressed how the quality of the learning environment would contribute to the achievement of the gender equality and quality goals. A very broad range of factors contribute to making a school facility conducive to learning. The global initiatives described below demonstrate the variety of approaches followed (Nederveen, 2010).

The Child Friendly School has been a key approach advocated by UNICEF. It is grounded in three principles: child-centred education, democratic participation and inclusiveness. It has been implemented since 1999 in almost 100 countries, though its effective integration into national education plans varies widely. An evaluation found that the initiative provided national policy-makers with a useful framework to improve education and had the potential to start a process of school transformation. However, the study implicitly questioned its sustainability where governments or systems were not ready to support it (UNICEF, 2009b).

Focusing Resources on Effective School Health (FRESH) was launched in Dakar to advocate a holistic approach to improved health and nutrition. An inter-agency initiative on school health, it has four components: health-related school policies, provision of safe water and sanitation, skill-based health education, and school-based health and nutrition services. The initiative launched a guidance note on monitoring and evaluation of school health programmes (UNESCO, 2013c). However, FRESH has served more to coordinate partner activities than to directly improve uptake of relevant national policies.

Also in the area of school-based health and nutrition, the World Food Programme coordinates the Home Grown School Feeding initiative, established in 2003 and inspired by the United Nations Task Force on Hunger. The African Union has recommended the approach to its member states. At least 20 countries in the region implement relevant programmes, some partly supported by development partners and others fully government led. The partnership has been behind much of the recent evidence on the effects of school feeding, notably through the State of School Feeding Worldwide report (WFP, 2013) (see Chapter 2).

The strategy's grouping of such a disparate set of issues, from pedagogy to social protection to infrastructure, means it has lacked focus. The scope has been too wide to make assessment of initiatives possible. In addition, knowledge of key aspects of school conditions such as sanitation and safety has not improved at all since 2000. Nevertheless, it is clear that work at the global level has contributed little to help countries establish healthy learning environments.

Many factors contribute to making a school facility conducive to learning

Strategy 9: Teacher status, morale and professionalism

The Dakar Framework identified several approaches to support teachers, including adequate remuneration, strategies encouraging retention, access to training and professional development, and participation in decision-making, along with the suggestion that teachers, in turn, should be accountable to learners and communities.

The International Task Force on Teachers for EFA was established in 2008 to coordinate international efforts to fill the teacher gap, focusing on advocacy, policy dialogue and research. Its mandate covers only a subset of the issues identified as key teacher-related elements of an EFA strategy: policy; capacity, especially on data; and financing. An evaluation suggested that the task force was relevant, but that its objectives should be more closely related to country needs (Townsend, 2012). The task force has since carried out country studies following the methodological guide of the Teacher Training Initiative for sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2010b). However, the scope of its activities is limited.

The Joint ILO-UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the Recommendations Concerning Teaching Personnel, while not a product of EFA, is the only international body with a mandate to monitor the status of teachers and it also reports on EFA issues. The committee meets every three years to monitor the use of the recommendations, examining reports submitted by governments, national organizations representing teachers, intergovernmental organizations and NGOs.

It shares its findings with the ILO Governing Body and the UNESCO Executive Board, which transmit them to member states for appropriate action. In 2012, the committee concluded that teaching was becoming deprofessionalized and encouraged member states 'to precisely define the social status of teachers, and their professional dignity, especially in relation to other professions' (ILO, 2012a). However, the committee is not a strong mechanism for change. Since 2000, there has been no progress in monitoring the status of teachers. The few initiatives that are relevant have not come from EFA partners (see Chapter 6).

Strategy 10: Harnessing of information and communication technology

Harnessing ICT requires a shift in the education delivery paradigm

The Dakar Framework emphasized the potential of information and communication technology (ICT) to deliver EFA. The cost of ICT was expected to fall, and the framework suggested such technology could be deployed to improve access to education for disadvantaged communities, to support professional development and to communicate across classrooms and cultures. At the same time, it warned of the risk of ICT increasing disparity and said such technology should serve, rather than drive, education strategies.

While older technology continues to be used for education development, the ambition of the Dakar Framework to use modern ICT has been challenged by the slow progress in infrastructure in poorer countries and speed of technology diffusion. In the absence of any major global coordination of ICT related to education, the closest example has been the annual Global Symposium series on ICT and education hosted by the Republic of Korea and organized since 2007 by the World Bank in partnership with UNESCO (World Bank, 2014b).

These two organizations have collaborated in other areas as well, from indicators, as part of the Working Group on ICT Statistics in Education, to policy toolkits. The World Bank has developed policy guidance on ICT in education through its Systems Approach for Better Education Results initiative, while its influential blog series has addressed issues of policy relevance (Trucano, 2013). UNESCO and other partners have published in-depth regional studies of ICT use in education as part of the Partnership on Measuring ICT for Development (World Bank, 2014c).

As global coordination efforts have been relatively weak, however, it is hard to evaluate the effect they may have had at the national level. In practice, policy has often been distanced from implementation. Good examples often come from well-resourced contexts that cannot be replicated in poorer settings. Many questions have been raised about the relevance and effectiveness of ICT applications in education (see Chapter 6). More generally, some critics argue that harnessing ICT requires a shift in the education delivery paradigm (Daniel, 2010).

Strategy 11: Systematic monitoring of progress

The Dakar Framework urged improvement of monitoring at various levels. First, it called for robust and reliable education statistics. The work of the UIS has been instrumental, as an evaluation recognized, stressing that it had 'exceeded the expectations of most stakeholders in restoring the trust and confidence of Member States and the international community in the value of UNESCO's statistical function and the credibility of internationally comparable education statistics' (UNESCO, 2007b). Nevertheless, two concerns remain: timeliness, a problem also encountered in other sectors; and continuing gaps in several series of indicators (see Chapter 7 on missing data).

Second, the framework called for disaggregated education statistics. Since 2000, there has been a major increase in the availability of household survey data, notably from the Demographic and Health Surveys and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys, which have enabled monitoring of inequality in several dimensions. The GMR team used these data to launch its World Inequality Database on Education in 2010. The work of the International Household Survey Network has had a major effect on increasing the availability of surveys (Oxford Policy Management, 2013). However, two problems remain: the slow pace with which data sets are made available, and the lack of coordination across national and international survey programmes to set standards and provide a uniform set of core education-related questions (EPDC, 2009). Besides, at the national level, these data have

not been utilized sufficiently, as the limited use of disaggregated information in national education plans suggests.

Third, the Dakar Framework called for improved information on national and international budget allocations for basic education. On domestic finance, data series on public education expenditure continue to be incomplete and lacking in detail. In addition, unlike in the health sector, almost no progress has been made in providing a full picture of how governments and households share financing education. On external finance, there has been important and continuing improvement in how donors report expenditure, under the leadership of the OECD DAC. Yet classification problems continue to hamper long-term trend analysis (see Chapter 8).

The Dakar Framework also made a strong call for a monitoring report that would serve as an opportunity to 'hold the global community to account for commitments made in Dakar.' The final decision on an editorially independent GMR was taken at the 2001 High-Level Group meeting. According to the most recent evaluation, the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* is 'widely perceived to be a high quality report, based on robust research and analysis that has firmly established it as an important resource for the education sector' (EfC, 2014).

Overall, there has been clear improvement since 2000 in the way progress towards the EFA goals has been monitored and reported. However, in many ways the education sector lags behind health in quality of information. A notable example is the absence of information on a key indicator, the percentage of children who have mastered basic learning skills, one of the original EFA indicators. Literacy, another key outcome, has been imperfectly measured, despite some progress (see Chapter 4).

Progress at the global level is reflected in progress at the national level. Countries now report their administrative data more frequently. Some international initiatives, such as the education sector's Country Status Reports, a joint work of the World Bank and UNESCO, have helped build capacity. External funding has supported the emergence of influential citizen-led assessments, while national civil society initiatives have resulted in EFA education watch reports. However, countries have made less progress in producing comprehensive reviews of their own education sectors.

Strategy 12: Building on existing mechanisms

The final strategy stressed that activities should be 'based on existing organizations, networks and initiatives, augmented where necessary.' The role of the five EFA convening agencies has been touched on in the respective discussions of strategies, with a focus on their coordinating role. In addition, each agency played its own distinct role through programmatic activities, which have been independently evaluated, at least from the perspective of the agencies' objectives, if not that of EFA (UNICEF, 2014d; Independent Evaluation Group, 2006).

An important question was the extent to which any of the 'existing mechanisms' would have been sufficient to hold the international community to account. The global EFA coordination mechanisms, which are mentioned explicitly under this strategy and which are discussed in the next section, clearly could not play such a role. For the right to education, a fundamental dimension of EFA also enshrined in the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, a position of special rapporteur was established in 1998 to respond to information on alleged violations and engage governments in dialogue. Special rapporteurs are seen as having made contributions to the understanding and even implementation of rights, but rely heavily on governments' cooperation (Golay et al., 2011).

A new mechanism, the Universal Periodic Review, is a country peer review process established by the UN General Assembly in 2006 to examine countries' performance regarding human rights, including the right to free education. Despite its constraints, the process is seen as playing a constructive role in embedding human rights in governance (McMahon, 2012). Such a mechanism could have been used to review EFA progress with available monitoring information. Accountability was a missing link in the Dakar Framework, a way to turn monitoring into action, and remains an issue to be tackled after 2015.

Accountability was a missing link in the Dakar framework

The practice of influencing national EFA policy: Coordination

The analysis of how well EFA partners implemented the Dakar strategies at the global level is described above but also requires an overall assessment of agency coordination. The report card, unfortunately, is not positive.

The perceived loss of effectiveness led UNESCO to reform EFA coordination arrangements in 2011

The Dakar Framework did not establish a clear coordination mechanism for the five EFA convening agencies. In fact, the International Consultative Forum, the coordination mechanism that pre-dated Dakar, was abolished despite a recommendation to keep it (Little and Miller, 2000). Several key Dakar participants conveyed a sense that debate over leadership of the EFA process sidetracked substantive discussions on the best way to deliver EFA policies at the national level, thus squandering an opportunity to talk about effective implementation strategies.[2]

The Dakar Framework specified that UNESCO would 'continue its mandated role in co-ordinating EFA partners and maintaining their collaborative momentum' and 'convene annually a high-level, small and flexible group' to serve 'as a lever for political commitment and technical and financial resource mobilization.' This High-Level Group met annually between 2001 and 2011, supported by a working group set up partly in response to a commitment to involve 'working groups on each of the six goals'.

The decision in Dakar to assign full responsibility to UNESCO changed the arrangements of the Inter-Agency Commission that existed before 2000, in which agencies shared power and responsibilities. Concerns were raised about UNESCO's leadership of the initiative, as it was facing governance and financial issues at the time. Other agencies felt they could better lead the process or at least move it forward.

Meanwhile, the High-Level Group's membership, intended to be 'small and flexible', expanded to include representation from various agencies and bodies, arguably diluting the group's ability to advocate clearly and convincingly for education reforms. The need to accommodate a larger and ever-changing group, coupled with the way meetings were managed, made it more difficult for substantive dialogue to occur and concrete recommendations to be advanced. The meetings failed to play a strategic coordination role (Burnett, 2010) on issues such as resource mobilization.

This perceived loss of effectiveness led UNESCO to reform coordination arrangements in 2011. First it envisaged convening a new High-Level Forum of world leaders and education champions in the spirit of Dakar to increase commitment and mobilization. However, by the time the forum was established, it was too little and too late. The Forum practically never met.

Instead, other bodies have taken over the role of leading high-level advocacy, including the GPE and the secretary-general's Global Education First Initiative, established in 2012, which operates on the concept of champion countries. In recent years, new global education events, such as the World Innovation Summit for Education in Doha and the Education World Forum in London, have emerged and attracted high-level political representation and substantive dialogue in ways that the High-Level Group never achieved.

Second, the High-Level Group and the Working Group were succeeded by the annual Global EFA Meeting, held in two parts, one high-level and ministerial and the other for senior officials and technical officers. Two meetings took place, in 2012 and 2014. It is difficult to assess whether it managed to 'critically assess progress' and 'agree on tangible actions for follow-up'; its focus, with the 2015 deadline approaching fast, was on the post-2015 agenda.

Finally, a new body, the EFA Steering Committee, was set up in April 2012 to replace the International Advisory Panel that briefly met in 2007 and 2008 to provide strategic guidance on 'monitoring, research, global advocacy, knowledge-sharing and partnerships for specific issues such as financing' (UNESCO, 2011c). As with the Global EFA Meeting, after an initial focus on accelerating progress to 2015, its attention turned to the post-2015 agenda.

With respect to the other convening agencies, UNESCO made three attempts to clarify roles

2. A retrospective view of the EFA agenda and its implementation, with reflections from key participants involved in the World Education Forum in Dakar, can be found in the 'Lessons from Dakar' section of the EFA GMR World Education Blog at https://efareport.wordpress.com/2014/08/18/lessons-from-dakar.

and responsibilities in coordination plans: in 2001 with the Framework for Mutual Understanding, in 2002 with the International Strategy and in 2005/06 with the Global Action Plan. However, one commentator called the last plan 'little more than an inventory of what each organization already does. It gives us very little insight into the practical efforts that might allow UNESCO to indeed play a leadership role in the EFA movement' (Sutton, 2007). In the end, 'the dynamics and orientations of UNESCO and its EFA partners shifted, the Plan led to no specific steps, and the strategy discussions it had instigated fell out of sight' (Robinson, 2014). In 2009, UNESCO commissioned an evaluation of its performance on global leadership and coordination, one of its strategic programme objectives. The review found 'a lack of clarity about what successful global coordination and leadership look like' within the organization (UNESCO, 2009b). It would be unfair to not recognize the difficulty of the task of coordination and convincing agencies to spend time and effort to align activities they feel they do not stand to benefit from. At the same time, it is also the case that, as the other EFA convenors gained influence and finances for education development, they gradually distanced themselves from working with UNESCO.

Overall, the formal EFA coordination mechanism, led by UNESCO, did not rise to the challenge of ensuring continuous political commitment and had limited success in actively engaging other convening agencies and key stakeholders. Many of the most successful mechanisms, initiatives and campaigns reviewed in this section happened in spite of, rather than as a result of, attempts at global coordination. UNESCO still has important power in terms of convening: when it calls a conference, member states participate and often at the highest ministerial level. Member states place trust in UNESCO to lead and coordinate the international agenda in education; indeed, being an 'honest broker' is viewed by UNESCO as one of its key missions (Burnett, 2010). Nevertheless UNESCO's assignment as the sole EFA coordinator appears to have undermined the effectiveness with which tasks were carried out, and it had mixed success in leading global coordination. The forthcoming evaluation of the EFA global coordination mechanism by the UNESCO Internal Oversight Service is expected to shed considerable light on these issues.

Putting together the evidence

The implementation of the 12 strategies from the Dakar Framework was reviewed to assess whether EFA partners fulfilled their pledges at the global level. This was a prerequisite for examining whether the strategies were sufficient to contribute to the five key medium-term results expected of an effective EFA architecture.

In assessing **whether political commitment to EFA was reaffirmed and sustained** throughout the period, it is clear that the EFA movement suffered once the MDGs became the dominant development agenda. The result was excessive emphasis on universal primary education, a target that appealed to the poorest countries, which were furthest from it, and to the richest countries, which were prepared to support its achievement. This made the EFA agenda less attractive to many countries that had already or nearly achieved universal primary education. As their interest waned, so did the universal appeal of the EFA agenda.

The EFA agenda was less attractive to countries that had achieved universal primary education

UNESCO received a strong endorsement in Dakar to continue its mandated role in EFA coordination to maintain the partners' collaborative momentum. How did it perform? This role was easier to describe on paper than to interpret or implement. UNESCO made three attempts to prepare a global framework. They consumed a great deal of time, but attracted little interest and political support from the other EFA convening agencies, major international NGOs and bilateral development agencies. Largely because of lack of funds, UNESCO also had limited strength at country level to lead sector coordination efforts.

These limitations constrained political commitment on EFA, both within and beyond the international education community. The EFA High Level Group, which met annually for a decade, was designed to increase political commitment but left no clear evidence of success. Despite signs in 2000 that UNESCO might take a bold step in engaging with world leaders, it proved cautious in its approach to high level political engagement, emphasizing broad representation rather than political change. As it never gained political leverage, the forum of choice for global policy actors in education shifted away from the High-Level Group.

For example, as of 2015, the GPE is potentially much more influential politically, as its board membership demonstrates. By contrast, the assumption that global and regional conferences are powerful enough to hold countries and the international community to account has not proved in practice to be valid.

Since 2000, **diverse types of knowledge, evidence and expertise have been communicated and used**. The participation of non-state actors in formal coordination structures has enriched the debate. Foundations and civil society organizations have supported influential activities, such as early grade learning and tracking of public education expenditure. The past few years have seen a surge in attention to research on education system development, the political economy of education, and cross-cutting relationships between basic education and other development outcomes. EFA-related campaigns and initiatives have improved communication of their own strategic research-based messages.

However, much new evidence and many policy initiatives and research advances were not necessarily related to EFA activities, and too often came from outside the education sector. How evidence translates to change is difficult to track, yet while some of the new body of evidence did reach EFA coordination meetings, such as the working group, it did not appear to be used by the High-Level Group for policy-making.

Like overall aid, education aid remains highly fragmented

Since 2000, there has been no shortage of national education plans. The GPE cites planning documents for 59 countries, most of which have been appraised. As the review of plans prepared for this GMR suggests, national plans are likely more robust and sound than before. However, it is less clear that new knowledge or tools have helped develop appropriate capacity for evidence-based national policy-making or that they have **strengthened national EFA policy and practice**.

The evaluation of approaches to support planning concluded that some countries, at least initially, engaged in a parallel planning process, with a separate national EFA plan not integrated in overall national planning and budgeting (UNESCO, 2006c). A similar challenge characterized the GPE approach, with appraisals and donor requirements potentially undermining country ownership (Cambridge Education et al., 2010).

A key expected result of the Dakar process was that credible plans would help **effectively mobilize financial resources for EFA**. The rise in domestic education spending in low income countries was promising, but its main cause was increased domestic resource mobilization. There was a far smaller increase in the share of education in the budget. This puts into question the assumption that better plans were needed to increase financing.

International aid expanded considerably in absolute terms, yet its volume fell well short of the assessed need, was insufficiently targeted to the countries and education levels most in need, and declined as a share of recipient governments' budget in the years after Dakar.

The Dakar Framework made a point of mentioning not only the volume of aid delivery but also how to improve its delivery. However, the lack of medium-term aid predictability remains a problem. Donors do not routinely communicate information on future aid to individual governments (GPE, 2012a). Aid agencies are not well configured to provide reliable medium- and long-term assurances of aid and it is easier for them, politically and operationally, to keep their options open (OECD, 2012b).

The framework also called for more effective donor coordination and sector-wide approaches, at a time when both concepts were becoming more popular, yet little was accomplished. Efforts have been made in some countries to harmonize and coordinate education support through new mechanisms, including the GPE. However, like overall aid, education aid remains highly fragmented (Rose et al., 2013). Meanwhile, the sector-wide approach began falling out of favour among donor agencies around the middle of the Dakar period, partly due to a push to demonstrate short-term results and account for every dollar spent (see Chapter 8).

A positive trend over the last 15 years was the increased transparency of monitoring and reporting on developments in education worldwide. With hindsight, the decision to introduce an **independent monitoring and reporting mechanism of progress towards the EFA goals** may have been critical in keeping EFA high on the agenda when other mechanisms faltered. But improved reporting was only

possible thanks to major improvement in data quality and analysis, often supported by EFA partners. The richness and quality of information available in 2015 is superior in all respects to what was available in 2000, while new channels of communication have opened important opportunities to create change.

Conclusions

Efforts since 2000 to advance education around the world became almost synonymous with ensuring that every child is in school. As this EFA – and MDG – target of universal access to primary education was more applicable to the poorest countries, other nations found it less relevant. The agenda was not seen as broad or universal enough, and countries took less ownership. Meanwhile, the focus on universal primary enrolment meant less attention on other crucial issues, such as how children benefit from their schooling experience, the consequences for those that missed receiving a good education, the need for early childhood care and education, and the failure to significantly reduce adult literacy.

Overall, not even this target was reached, let alone the more ambitious EFA goals. The extent of progress was less than anticipated and insufficient to match the scale of ambition. With an unfinished agenda and, with inequality increasing in many cases, the most disadvantaged continue to be the last to benefit. But there have been achievements that should not be underestimated. There is evidence that the world will have advanced by 2015 beyond where it would have been if the trends of the 1990s had persisted. And the international community left the stagnation of the previous two decades well and truly behind.

This chapter placed post-Dakar achievements onto a broader canvas. It noted that some key economic, political and social conditions were more favourable than in the decade or two prior to Dakar. While the effect of these changes cannot be quantified, they certainly helped many of the nations furthest from EFA focus on development across sectors, including education.

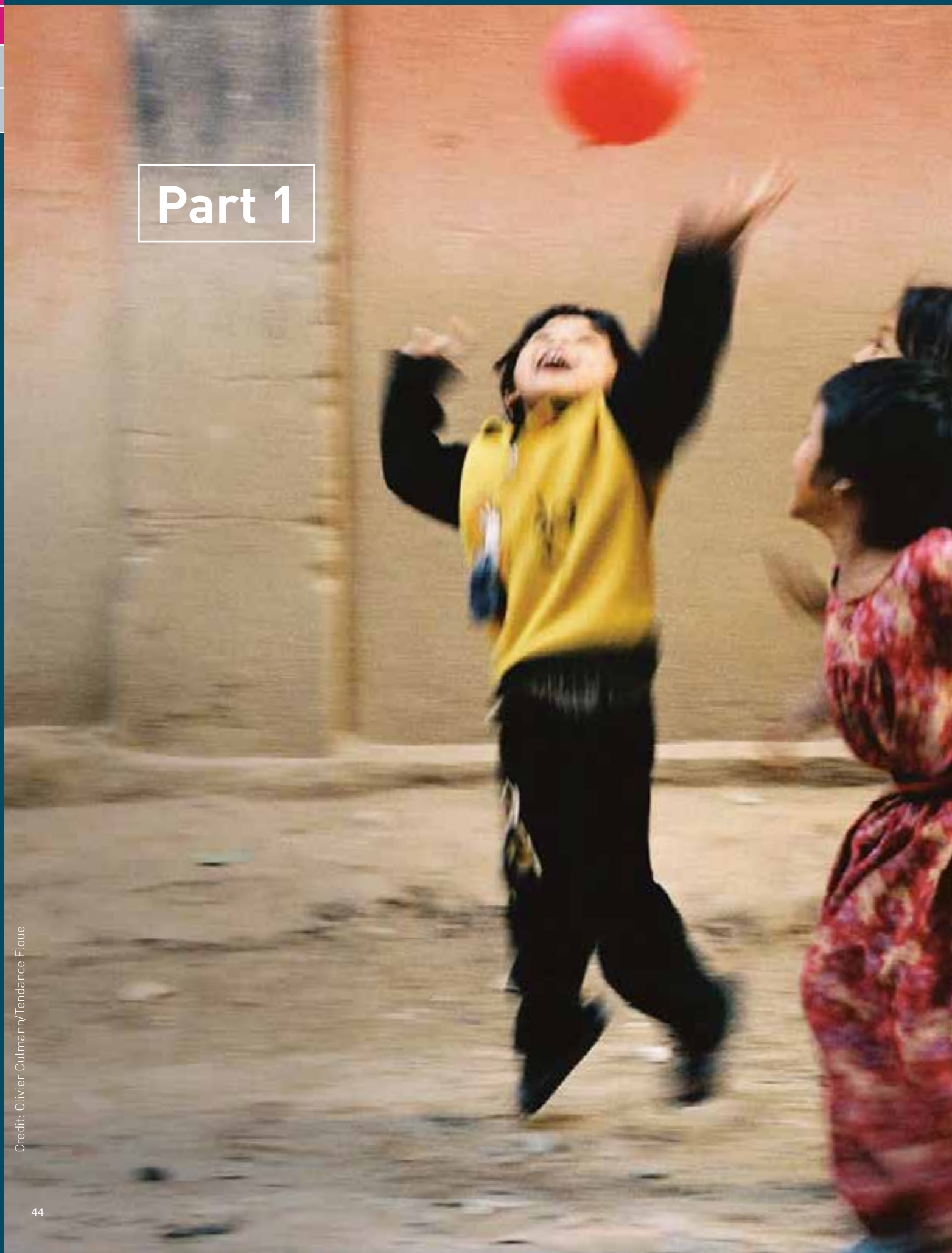
Was global mobilization in the aftermath of the World Education Forum effective? Areas of progress were characterized by a strong technical focus. The global mechanisms, initiatives and campaigns that have been relatively influential have had a clear set of objectives and dedicated strategic and technical capacity, are financed collectively and have overt political support and backing from influential bodies. They are evaluated regularly and in most cases have well-defined audiences for their work. Meanwhile, the potential for external influence on national educational policy and practice may not be as strong as the declaration's aspirations, but is likely to have increased over the period. Monitoring education progress since Dakar has also improved and expanded.

Areas of weakness were seen in interventions requiring coordination, political commitment and influence, which tended to be looser, voluntary mechanisms, technically competent but politically weak. The global coordination model, especially within the United Nations, has received relatively little scrutiny. Accountability for any global movement is inarguably a challenge, but in this case was absent and unaddressed.

To critically evaluate EFA advances, a better understanding is needed of how global mechanisms contribute to progress towards long-term goals. In this way, the international community can learn whether to put faith in pledges such as those made in Dakar. In the end, the EFA movement can be characterized as a qualified success, even if EFA partners may have not collectively lived up to their commitments. But a lesson re-emerging over the past 15 years is that, while technical solutions are important, gaining political influence and traction is of even greater significance, particularly to realize the scale of reform and action required to achieve EFA at the national level. The current discussions on the post-2015 agenda may be offering just such a chance.

While technical solutions are important, gaining political influence and traction is of even greater significance

Part 1



Credit: Olivier Culmann/Tendance Floue

CHAPTER 1

Goal 1: Early childhood care and education

Highlights

- Despite a drop in child mortality rates of nearly 50%, 6.3 million children under the age of 5 died in 2013 from causes that are mostly preventable.
- Progress in improving child nutrition has been considerable. Yet, globally, 1 in 4 children under 5 were stunted in 2013 - a sign of a chronic deficiency in essential nutrients.
- In 2012, nearly 184 million children were enrolled in pre-primary education worldwide, an increase of nearly two-thirds since 1999.
- Governments have committed to expand pre-primary education but private providers still account for more than 31% of all enrolled children in half of countries with data worldwide.
- By 2014, 40 countries had instituted compulsory pre-primary education. In several Latin American countries, this led to a steady improvement in the enrolment of pre-primary aged children.
- The quality of childcare for very young children remains a serious issue. The knowledge, skills, status and pay for early childhood teachers must be addressed.

The early childhood years set the foundation for life. They have enormous impact on children's readiness for primary school and transition to secondary education. This chapter reviews progress in survival, nutrition and care, and enrolment levels in pre-primary education. It describes the benefits of early cognitive development, parental leave and child care services. It expresses concern over the quality of care and teaching, and equitable access to ECCE services. The chapter encourages governments to ensure adequate public funding for ECCE.

> *"Major interventions to improve early childhood care and education have included the abolition of school fees; support for needy pupils; production and supply of teaching and learning materials, staff capacity-building; provision of school uniforms and meals; mainstreaming kindergarten, and stronger collaboration among ministries and between schools and communities."*
>
> Prof. Naana Jane Opoku-Agyemang,
> Hon. Minister for Education of the Republic of Ghana, Ghana

Goal 1 Early childhood care and education

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

The foundations of all learning are laid during the earliest years, when the basic building blocks of life are good health and nutrition, safety and support for emotional development in a caring home environment, and early and continuing cognitive stimulation through positive play and early learning. It is a basic human right for children to receive the support they need for their development. Getting the foundations right carries huge future benefits: better learning in school and higher educational attainment, which result in major social and economic gains for society. In addition, the efficiency of entire education systems can be increased by improving children's readiness to learn, resulting in less repetition and dropout.

The great importance of early childhood was recognized in 2000 at the World Education Forum in the elaboration on goal 1 of the Dakar Framework for Action: not only the importance of early childhood care and education (ECCE[1]), but also its influence on each of the other goals. Hence this chapter addresses the question of what progress has been made in achieving this Education for All (EFA) goal in terms of how well countries are facilitating the building blocks of a strong foundation for life. The focus is on national progress in relation to key aspects of care and education, as opposed to macro trends, which are addressed in the introduction of this *EFA Global Monitoring Report* (GMR).

Progress has been made in the number of children worldwide using ECCE services in a range of sectors. Pre-primary education[2] is expanding, with enrolment having increased 64% since 1999 to nearly 184 million children worldwide in 2012. Yet large numbers of children continue to miss out, and inequality in opportunity is increasing for the poorest, those living in rural areas or slums, and those marginalized by disability, ethnic origin, religion or language. There are still too many children worldwide who do not reach their fifth birthday or who suffer from malnutrition. Many children still miss out on early learning experiences and support for their socio-emotional development. A key thread through this chapter is that the poorest and most at risk have the most to gain from good quality ECCE services and that achieving equitable access to them can reduce inequality in society (Engle et al., 2011).

Getting the foundations right carries huge future benefits

The first half of the chapter examines issues regarding very young children, starting with key indicators of whether children's health, nutrition and quality of care are being addressed, and progress in improving survival rates and nutritional status for children under 5. The next sections look at how young children's cognitive and socio-emotional development can be supported both in the home and outside. The chapter then considers how a multisector approach can support ECCE delivery.

The second half of the chapter explores the uneven expansion of pre-primary provision and the rise in enrolment at this level. Lack in equity of access and poor quality of provision are major concerns. Also considered is the large role of the private sector, with some governments harnessing it to expand access and others relying on user fees for all financing of pre-primary education. Quality is a serious concern, especially the role of teachers, but also pedagogy, curricula and culture.

1. The term ECCE is adopted from the Dakar Framework for Action. As in the 2007 GMR, ECCE refers to a broad range of services, including support for children's and often mothers' or carers' health, nutrition and hygiene, as well as for cognitive and socio-emotional development. It also includes pre-primary schooling for children of the appropriate age, and other forms of care for children below the pre-primary school age.

2. Pre-primary education is formalized early learning immediately preceding primary school. Pre-primary schools can be attached to primary schools or entirely separate. Countries define the number of years pre-primary schooling lasts; it can vary from one to three years and cover ages ranging from 3 to 7.

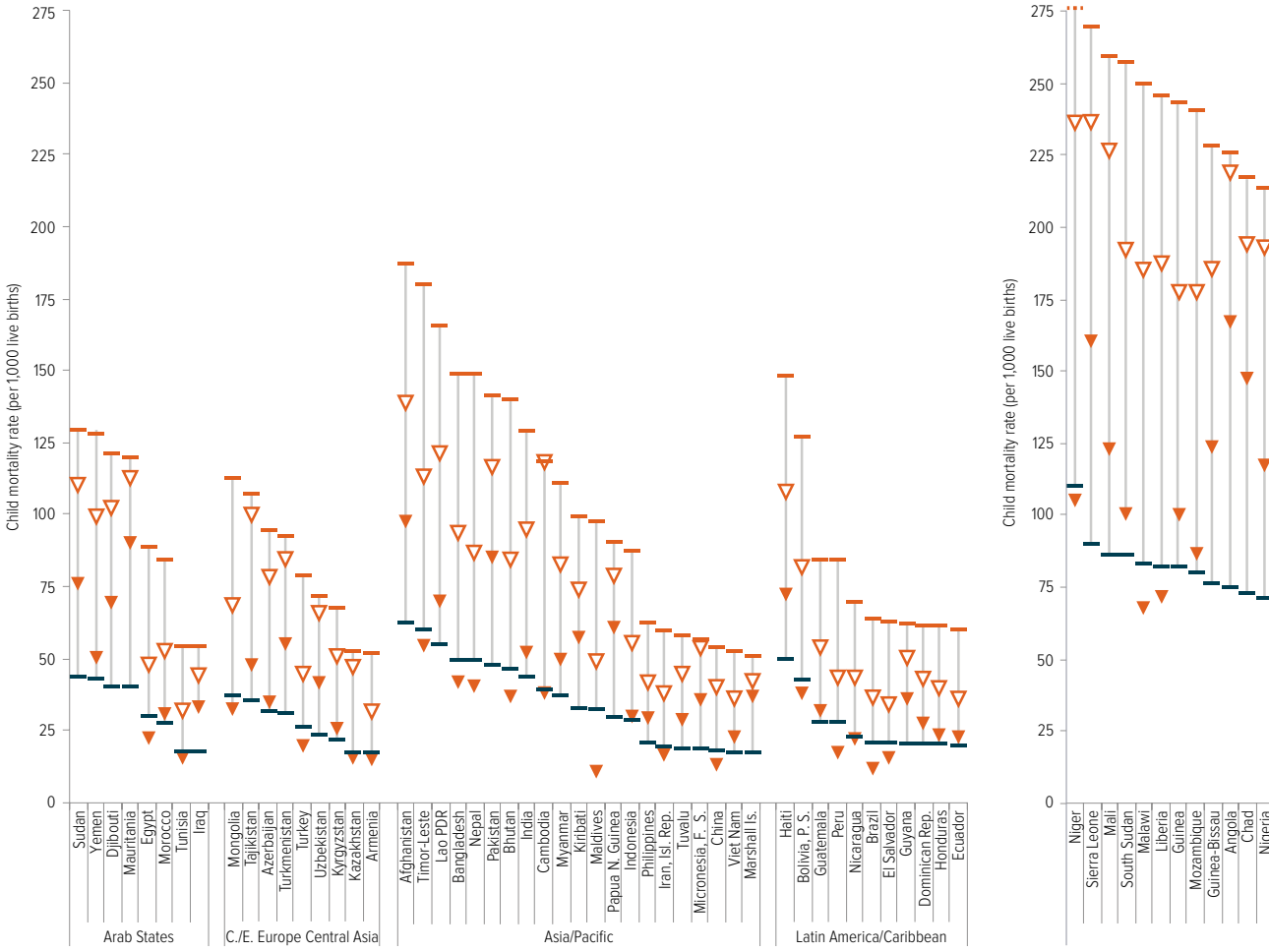
There is some progress in survival and nutrition, but care is still of poor quality

Brain development in the 1,000 days after conception makes this a time of great risk and opportunity (Engle et al., 2011; Engle et al., 2013; Walker et al., 2011). Undernutrition from a poor and unvaried diet can lead to delays in gross and fine motor development, and even increased risk of mortality (Britto et al., 2013). While health may appear to be the most pressing concern at this stage of life, education also has a major role to play. Good nutrition is not enough. Children who are not stimulated cognitively and are underdeveloped socio-emotionally are also at greater risk of malnutrition and, ultimately, diminished life chances (Grantham-McGregor et al., 2007). Cooperation among health, education and social protection services is needed to combat the mutually reinforcing risk factors associated with widespread poverty.

Measurement of children's development is complex and painstaking, and therefore not yet carried out on a large scale. The Dakar Framework did not establish any clear targets or indicators, although it did state: 'All young children must be nurtured in safe and caring environments that allow them to become healthy, alert and secure and be able to learn.'

In 2013, there were 162 million malnourished children under 5 in the world. The GMR's approach to monitoring goal 1 has developed over time, and has had to rely in many areas on proxy indicators. Up to the 2006 edition, pre-primary enrolment was treated as synonymous with ECCE and the care elements of the goal were not addressed. In 2007, the GMR's thematic

Figure 1.1: Many countries are unlikely to reach the MDG target for reducing child mortality
Under-5 child mortality rate, 1990, 2000 and 2013



Note: Countries shown are those with a child mortality rate above 50 per 1,000 live births in 1990.
Source: IGME (2014).

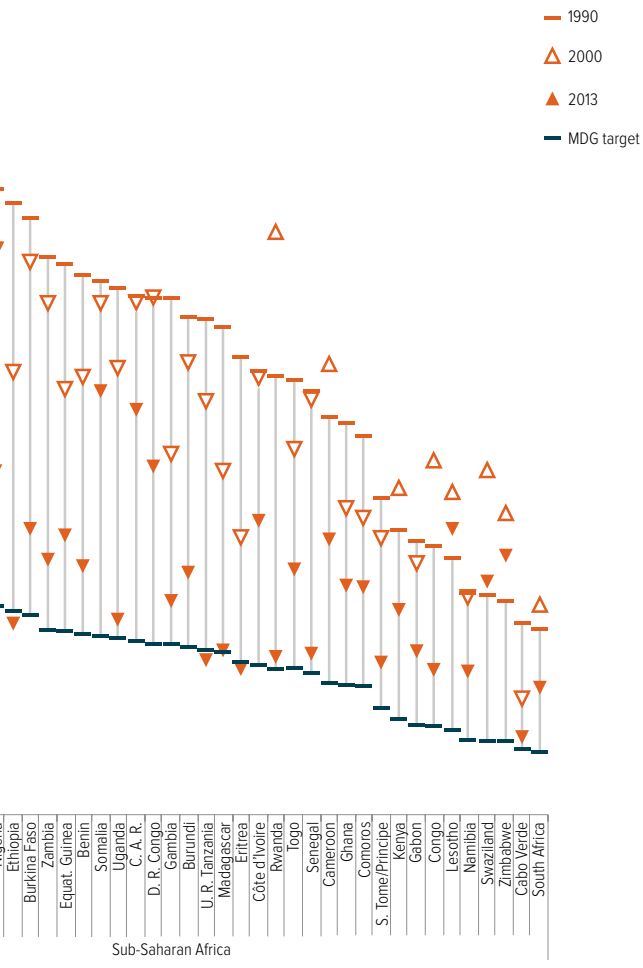
focus was ECCE, marking the start of efforts to monitor early childhood care. The GMR included statistics on underweight and stunted children, and the proportion of children immunized at age 1. Also reported was the under-5 mortality rate, a broad indicator of the state of children's health and care, and mention was made of the fourth Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target of reducing the rate by two-thirds, from 1990 levels, by 2015 (UNESCO, 2007a). In 2009, monitoring against the MDG target was adopted, a practice continued in all subsequent editions.

This GMR, in addition to reporting progress on ECCE against the MDG child mortality target, uses indicators of health and care such as the proportion of births with skilled attendants, the proportion of immunized children and the stunting rate. For all indicators, this chapter charts progress from 1999 where possible, and also discusses developments or issues for which data were not available on a large scale in 1999. The rate of stunting, meaning low height for age, is a key indicator of a lack of good care, early childhood health, well-being and development. It is a highly reliable predictor of poor school achievement and cognition (Grantham-McGregor et al., 2007). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), it is a strong indicator of chronic child malnutrition (de Onis and Blössner, 1997) and, by implication, of insufficient early childhood care. For this reason, the stunting rate is used in GMRs as an indicator of child nutrition and care, showing the extent of progress before and after 2000. Enrolment and attendance at pre-primary school are used to track growth in early childhood education.

Most countries have made progress in reducing child mortality

Child mortality has declined

Most countries have made progress in reducing child mortality, with some starting from very



high levels. However, the nearly 50% drop is insufficient to achieve the MDG target, set in 2000, of a two-thirds reduction from 1990 (**Figure 1.1**) (World Health Organization, 2013). Children continue to die – 6.3 million in 2013 (IGME, 2014) – from pneumonia, pre-term birth complications, birth asphyxia, diarrhoea, malaria and other causes, many of them preventable. Children are at greater risk if they are born in poverty, in a rural area and/or to an undereducated mother. Around 45% of all deaths are linked to malnutrition. Sub-Saharan African children are the most likely to suffer this, and are more than 15 times more likely to die before their fifth birthday than children in developed regions (World Health Organization, 2013).

Having a skilled birth attendant present during childbirth is critically important for both mother and child

To address child mortality, the political will of national and subnational governments is crucial, as is funding. Some of the countries struggling the most are some of the poorest, as well as being fragile and conflict-affected, such as Chad, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Mali, Sierra Leone and Somalia. Three countries have regressed since 1990: Lesotho, Swaziland and Zimbabwe, largely due to the impact of the AIDS pandemic. Encouragingly, many countries have made considerable progress since Dakar, including Malawi, Rwanda, Senegal and the United Republic of Tanzania. Child mortality is falling faster than at any other period in the last 20 years (IGME, 2014). Between 2005 and 2012, the annual rate of reduction in child mortality was more than triple that of 1990–1995 (United Nations, 2014a).

Niger made remarkable progress. Starting from an extremely high baseline in a challenging context of high poverty and fertility, it progressed faster than richer West African neighbours (Amouzou et al., 2012). Its success was due to a combination of insecticide-treated bed nets, improved nutrition, vitamin A supplementation, vaccination, treatment of diarrhoea with oral rehydration salts and zinc, and people seeking medical care for fevers, malaria and pneumonia. External support made an enormous impact: funding from the vaccine alliance GAVI, the Global Fund and other donors for effective interventions proved crucial (Amouzou et al., 2012).

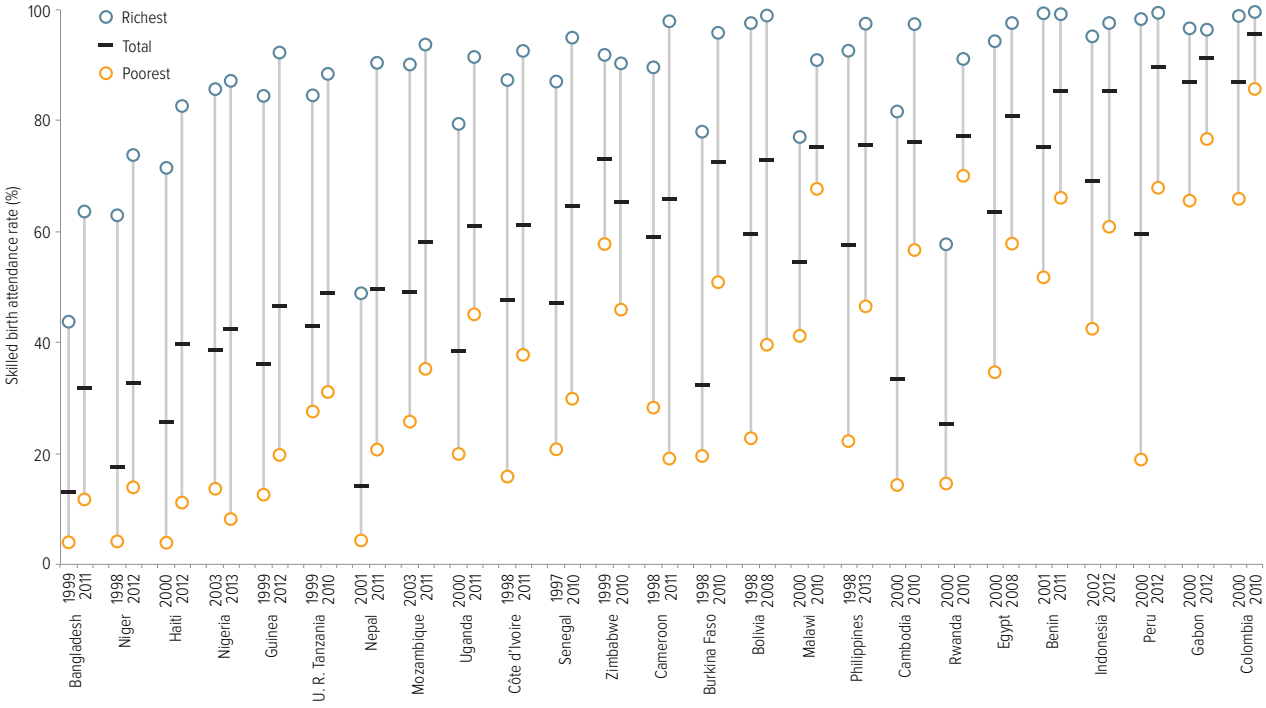
Having a skilled birth attendant present during childbirth is critically important for the survival and health of both mother and child and is considered a robust indicator of the state of a country's health care system. It is still common in many rural areas of developing countries for traditional birth attendants to be the only available help. An alarming degree of disparity in access between the poorest and richest women exists in many countries (**Figure 1.2**). However, since 2000 in countries including Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Nepal, Peru and Rwanda, great progress has been achieved in increasing the number of births aided by a skilled attendant. In Rwanda, the government instituted a policy in 2008 of retraining traditional birth attendants in the basics of modern nursing and midwifery (Twahirwa, 2010). In most countries, except Nigeria and Zimbabwe, considerable progress has been made at the average wealth level.

Immunizing children against common and preventable illnesses is important to their overall health, and therefore also to their readiness to learn and subsequent schooling. Progress in ensuring that all children are fully immunized has not been fast enough in most countries that started from a low base in 2000, such as Ethiopia, Guinea and Nigeria (**Figure 1.3**). The gaps between the richest and poorest households continue to be vast, a disparity particularly striking in Pakistan, which, like countries including Guinea and the Philippines, has seen little improvement in the total percentage of children fully immunized. By contrast, Bangladesh, Burkina Faso and Cambodia have made great progress. Cambodia's National Immunization Programme 2006–2010 brought together the Ministry of Health, Department of Planning and Health Information, and Departments of Planning and Finance, as well as WHO, PATH and UNICEF, with a stated goal of focusing on hard-to-reach groups (Cambodia Government, 2006). However, disparity in access to immunization services remains the salient issue in many contexts.

Child nutrition conditions have improved – but not enough

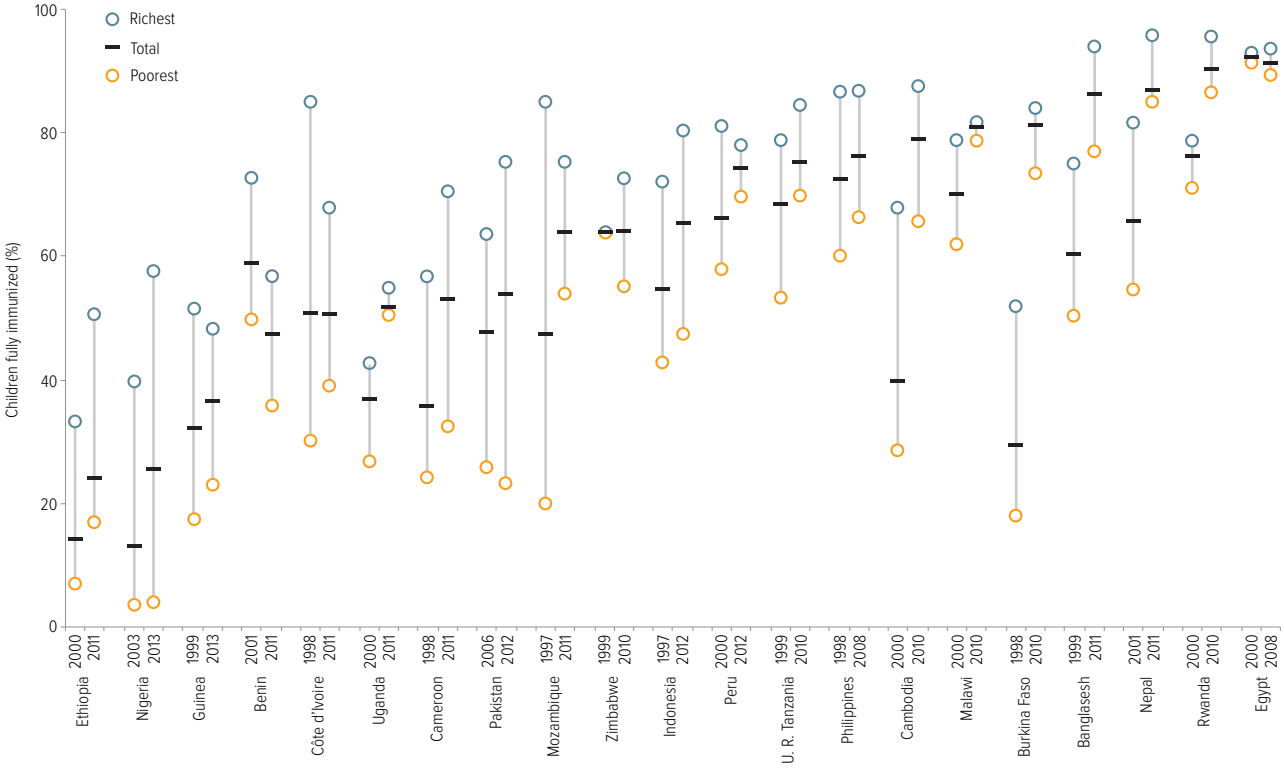
Poor nutrition is a global problem that is rooted in poverty. Nutrition is not just about food availability; it is also dependent on water, sanitation and health care services to which poor families often lack access (UNESCO, 2012b). As the Dakar Framework stated, 'Such programmes should be comprehensive, ... encompassing health, nutrition and hygiene'.

Figure 1.2: Skilled birth attendance rates have increased in most countries
Skilled birth attendance rate, by wealth, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Source: STATcompiler (2014).

Figure 1.3: Immunization of children is on the rise, but wealth gaps remain
Percentage of children fully immunized, by wealth, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



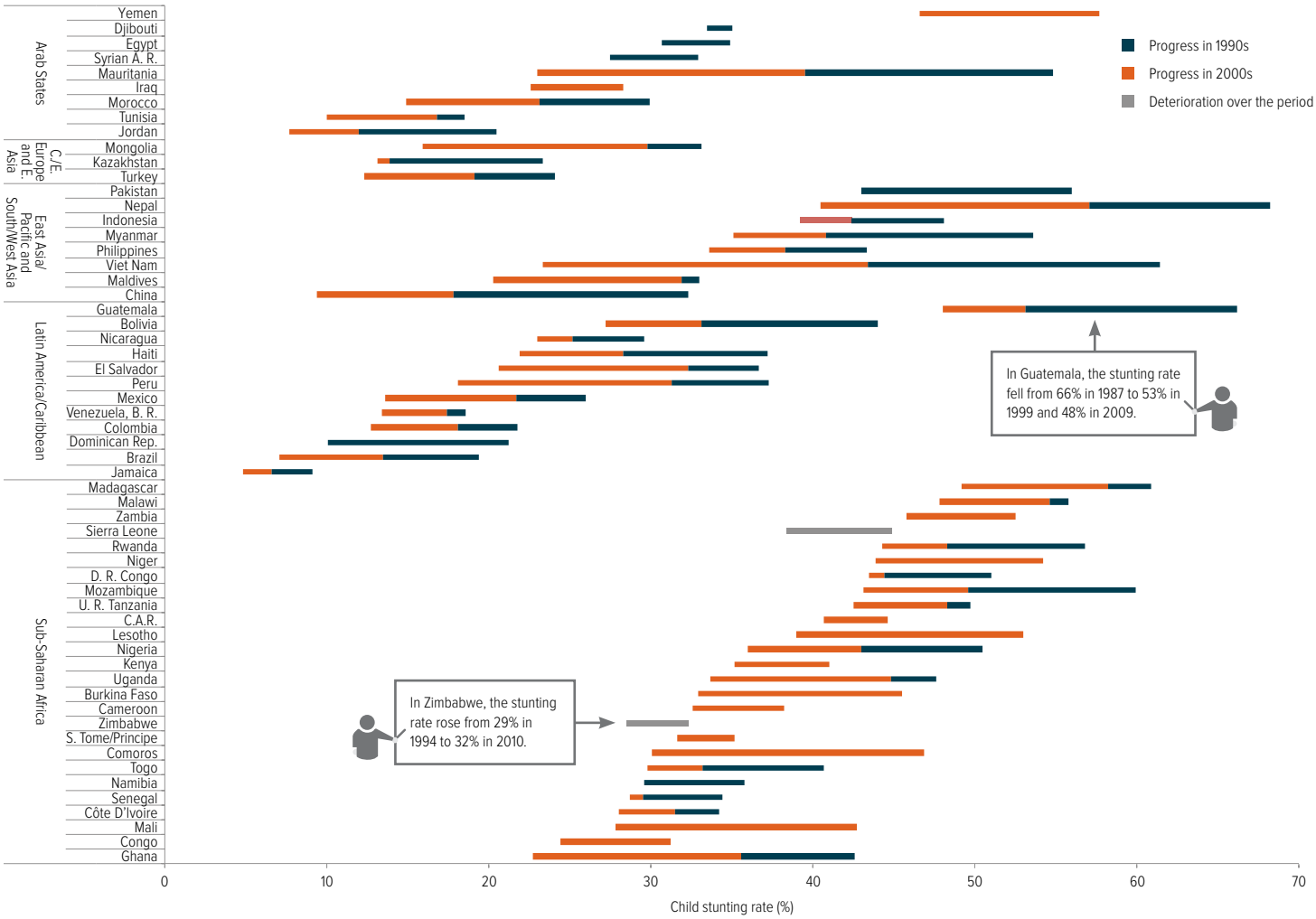
Source: STATcompiler (2014).

Low maternal education is also a factor in poor nutrition, as findings in Burkina Faso, Kenya, Malawi, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe have shown (Abuya et al., 2012; Maiga, 2012; Makoka, 2013). The process of stunting begins in utero or soon after birth, and the possibilities of catch-up growth are limited. Malnourished children attain fewer years of schooling and learn less while in school (Grantham-McGregor et al., 2007). Coordinated interventions combining nutritional support, responsive feeding and stimulation, and early learning can fight the effects of poor diet. Stimulation and learning can be as crucial as the right foods (Walker et al., 2011; Yousafzai et al., 2014).

In general, most countries have made progress in reducing the percentage of stunted children since the 1990s (**Figure 1.4**). Countries started from vastly different levels of stunting, and made different degrees of progress. Sub-Saharan Africa started with the largest challenge. Many of the region's countries, including Lesotho, Mali and Niger, have made noticeably strong progress since 2000, but the region still has by far the largest share of malnourished children, projected to reach 45% of the world total by 2020 (de Onis et al., 2012).

Viet Nam has made enormous and consistent progress since 1990 through widespread vitamin A supplementation, universal salt iodization, disease control and the Stunting Reduction Strategy 2011–2020, although malnutrition continues to be common (Viet Nam National Institute of Nutrition, 2013). In Guatemala,

Figure 1.4: Nutrition has improved in most countries
Moderate or severe stunting rate, selected countries, 1986–1995, 1996–2005 and 2006–2012



Source: UNICEF, WHO and World Bank joint child malnutrition database (2013).

strong political will made coordination of various ministries and agencies possible (World Health Organization, 2014), leading to significant progress, but indigenous communities continue to be the most affected by malnutrition (Hoddinott et al., 2013). In Sierra Leone and Zimbabwe, the stunting rate has worsened, and urgent efforts are needed.

Stimulating children's early cognitive development is a key building block

There is much more to early childhood care and education than keeping children safe and fed: children everywhere should be supported so that they thrive, not just survive (Myers, 1992). To achieve the goal of expanding and improving ECCE, the Dakar Framework recommended the 'education of parents and other caregivers in better child care, building on traditional practices'. Yet there have been few well-developed initiatives to measure and set targets for 'better child care' that includes cognitive and emotional stimulation. Plotting progress since 2000 towards this aspect of the goal is thus impossible.

What is known is that many less educated parents lack the resources and knowledge to boost their children's early cognitive development. Very young children need to interact with their caregivers and be spoken to as much as possible for verbal development (Britto et al., 2013). They also require stimulation through play and other responsive interactions. Parents in contexts across the world, especially less educated parents, could benefit from support to ensure that their children receive the needed stimulation and that their socio-emotional development is fostered.

Parenting can improve through programmes in or outside the home, in groups or individually. Home visiting programmes provide one-on-one support and tend to run anywhere from two weeks to three years, focusing on showing mothers age-appropriate activities fostering mother–child interaction using common items already in the home. Such programmes often also focus on nutrition, health care and child development, and tend to have wide-ranging positive effects (**Box 1.1**). These can include improvement in behaviour, height for weight, schooling outcomes and IQ, as well as in mothers' assessment of their own parenting practices, their knowledge about child development and even maternal depression levels.

In Pakistan, Lady Health Workers have provided home visiting services since 1994. A recent study compared the effects of two types of intervention delivered by these home visitors: nutrition education and supplementation, on the one hand, and, on the other, psychosocial stimulation that involved the visitors working with mothers individually and in groups to encourage them to engage in responsive play with their children. Separate groups received one or the other intervention while a third group received both. A fourth, the control group, received the standard home visiting programme covering health, hygiene and basic nutrition education. It was found that the largest impact came from psychosocial stimulation, with significantly higher scores for cognitive, language and motor

Box 1.1: Parenting support for psychosocial development proves more beneficial than improved nutrition

In Jamaica, improved quality of parenting has resulted in enormous benefits for children in households involved in a home-visiting programme aimed at improving mother–child interactions. Over a two-year period, health workers in Kingston made weekly visits to households living in poverty that had stunted children aged 9 months to 24 months. The purpose was to help the mothers spark their children's psychosocial development through positive play. Twenty years later, as young adults, the subjects had earnings that were 25% higher than those of a control group, a level at par with that of non-stunted peers. They were also less likely to have been involved in crime. There were no positive effects for children given nutritional supplementation alone.

These findings are backed up by a considerable body of evidence, drawn from many countries, showing that the effect of nutrition is important, but that stimulation of the child is consistently and significantly beneficial to child development. The positive effects in Jamaica were substantially larger than for children receiving similar interventions in the United States, indicating that such approaches may be more beneficial not only to the poor and marginalized in general, but especially to such groups living in poorer countries – a double win for early childhood development programming.

Sources: Gertler et al. (2014); Grantham-McGregor et al. (2014).

Children everywhere should be supported so that they thrive, not just survive

skill development at 12 and 24 months of age. Nutrition supplementation alone also had positive effects in these areas, but these were less enduring. The study found that delivering such interventions through home visits is a viable option for reaching the more than 200 million children worldwide who are not meeting their developmental potential (Yousafzai et al., 2014).

Parental leave and child care services can help families to support children's development

The presence and involvement of fathers is extremely important to child development

Very early childhood is thought of in markedly different ways in different cultural settings. In some cultures, it is felt that young children should be in the home (Shaeffer, 2015). In several Arab states, particularly for children up to around age 3, child care is viewed as a family responsibility (Faour, 2010). In such contexts, families, especially poor families, need to be supported to start the process of early cognitive development and learning for their children.

A large part of care in the earliest period of life is affected by cultural (and often gendered) views related to parents' opportunity to be home from work to care for and bond with the child. Maternity protection, in the form of leave from work with financial support, during the first weeks and months of a baby's life is essential to the health and well-being of mother and child. Though nearly all countries have legal provision for such leave, issues with enforcement remain: only 28% of employed women worldwide are likely to receive cash maternity benefits (ILO, 2014b).

The presence and involvement of fathers is extremely important to child development (O'Brien, 2009). Fathers who take time to be with their family immediately after the birth are more likely to be involved with their young children long term (Huerta et al., 2013). By 2013, paternal leave of some kind was provided in 78 out of 167 countries, with paid leave in 70; 'Parental leave' is a longer-term leave of absence from work, commencing after maternity leave. In some contexts, policies encourage fathers to share parental leave with mothers; in others, paternal leave is part of the parental leave entitlement. However, as payment is often lower or non-existent, men may be reluctant to take such leave (ILO, 2014b).

Despite increasing maternal and parental leave, reliance on child care services outside the home is growing, particularly in more developed contexts (OECD, 2006; Yoshikawa and Kabay, 2015). Countries are increasing participation in ECCE services in various ways (**Box 1.2**). Availability of organized child care can free women to enter paid employment to boost the economic prospects of families, increase gender equality and raise national productivity (OECD, 2006). It can also free older siblings to pursue their own education. However, too often child

Box 1.2: Countries have followed different paths to increase demand for and access to ECCE

While there is strong demand from some parents for ECCE services, demand is not uniform and the children most at risk are often the least likely to benefit. The cost to parents of these services is often an issue in poor communities. Certain countries are making efforts to boost demand for ECCE. Recognizing that financial incentives can spur participation, cash transfers that are conditional on participation in early childhood development programmes have been used in countries including Ecuador, Malaysia, Niger, the Philippines and Rwanda.

Programmes' lack of visibility or inability to adapt to families' needs also affects participation. In Indonesia, the government has tackled this issue aggressively by establishing ECCE centres in 65% of villages in the country and publicizing their existence, and there are further plans to provide centres in every village.

Thailand's National Scheme of Education 2002–2016 aims for all children up to age 5 to participate in a development programme that prepares them 'in all aspects' before they enter the formal schooling system. This policy built on growing interest in child development, which manifested as early as 1979 in the country's first child development plan. Yet despite a Long-Term Plan and Strategy for Early Childhood Care and Development 2007–2016, aimed at those up to age 5, few children aged 3 or under attend child care facilities.

Promotion of group child care activities in contexts where traditional cultures and languages are under threat can be both effective and popular. The 'language nest' model pioneered in Maori communities in New Zealand, where young children are immersed in their ancestral language with older community members, has also been used in indigenous communities in the Americas. A similar concept can be used in other types of ethnic and religious minority communities as a way to maintain and even revitalize culture.

Source: Shaeffer (2015).

care services aim simply at keeping children fed and safe while their parents are at work, rather than providing crucial cognitive and socio-emotional stimulation (Shonkoff and Philips, 2000; Yoshikawa and Kabay, 2015).

Quality of services is important even for very young children

Defining and measuring quality can be challenging. Ideally it should reflect local values and perspectives on young children's development as well as scientifically established predictors of their cognitive, language and socio-emotional development. No internationally comparable data are available on the quality of all types of care for very young children, so it is not possible to chart progress in this area since 2000.

There is broad consensus on certain 'domains' of quality considered important: space and furnishings; personal care routines; listening and talking; activities and interactions with children; programme structure; relationships with parents and staff; and response to staff professional development needs (Frank Porter Graham Child Development Institute, n.d.; Peralta, 2008). The staff members who look after children are of vital importance, including their education and their ability to form warm, responsive and enduring relationships (Gialamas et al., 2013; Mtahabwa and Rao, 2010). Use of the mother tongue, opportunities to learn through playful interactions with adults and other children, appropriate learning materials and a context where young children have space to be physically active are other important conditions for good quality ECCE (Mathers et al., 2014).

Poor quality care, whether in the home or in a centre, leads to poor outcomes in language, sociability and cognitive abilities (Penn, 2010). Education and training are necessary to ensure good quality care, but what level of education and training should be considered essential for early childhood carers? Research from low income countries is limited, making it difficult to draw conclusions across different contexts. However, it is clear that to promote children's development, ECCE professionals must be skilled in building relationships with children and families and possess a solid understanding of how young children develop.

Crucial for home visiting programmes are an ability to build enduring relationships of trust with families, due to the intimate nature of the role; and training in the skills and knowledge needed to do the job (van Ravens, 2014). Pakistan's Lady Health Workers have shown how effective such visitors can be, but also that they require extensive training to deliver multiple simultaneous interventions effectively (Yousafzai et al., 2014).

Visitors also need practice and training to work with mothers of all social classes, particularly in contexts such as India, where this is potentially difficult. An evaluation in India found that home visitors needed extensive training involving role play to practise the types of games and activities shared with mothers during visits. They also needed both theoretical and practical knowledge to convince mothers that simple games, such as banging together or stacking objects, were helpful to children's development (Fernandez-Rao et al., 2014).

For centre-based child care, staff training and qualifications are inconsistent across and within countries (Mathers et al., 2014), often resulting in the uneven provision of quality care (Centre for Early Childhood Education and Development, 2013; Karuppiah, 2014). It is agreed that ECCE professionals are more effective in supporting children's development if they have at least some specialized education and training (Mathers et al., 2014). In Australia, both the staff and directors of a child care centre felt that quality in infant care was related to affective dimensions such as love, care and attention, as well as specific activities for infants' learning and cognitive development. Staff expressed the view that training should have a strong practical focus to provide the necessary knowledge and skills for working with infants (Brownlee et al., 2009).

Relying on insufficiently trained staff can lead to disappointing results, as in Peru (**Box 1.3**). In general, the low pay and status of early childhood workers undermine the possibility of recruiting and retaining high-calibre staff (Karuppiah, 2014). High turnover damages the relationships which are so key to children's development (Gialamas et al., 2013; Mathers et al., 2014).

ECCE professionals are more effective in supporting children's development if they have at least some specialized training

Box 1.3: Peru's government day care: more and better training and support of staff are needed

Since 1993, the Peruvian government's Programa Nacional Wawa Wasi has provided community-based day care, targeting children aged 6 months to 4 years in slums. For a small fee, parents can leave their children in a safe home environment where a 'Mother Carer' looks after no more than eight children. The programme includes early learning, social and cultural identity development, healthy meals and teaching on nutrition, personal hygiene, training for parents on positive child-rearing practices, and government monitoring of height, weight and vaccination status.

Coverage has expanded from urban to rural areas, in a modified form of provision, although remote Andean villages and other poor communities are less extensively served. Mother Carers are selected and screened by the community and provided with training. They receive support from field coordinators, as well as further training ranging from weekly to twice yearly.

Several evaluations found implementation to be weak, however, indicating that staff need further training. Levels of performance of some activities were low: 46% of Mother Carers did not organize and conduct cognitive stimulation activities, only 38% of stipulated monitoring checks on height and weight were carried out, and 70% of parents did not report receiving education in positive child-rearing practices. Some studies found that levels of chronic malnutrition, anaemia and deficits in psychomotor development were the same as in non-participants. Staff development does not sufficiently cover cognitive stimulation. Because staff are not sufficiently skilled or trained to provide a comprehensive programme, many parents see Wawa Wasi as safe child care with nutritious food, rather than a programme of early learning.

Source: Cueto et al. (2009).

Many countries are on their way to a multisector approach to early childhood services

The Dakar Framework calls for national, multisector ECCE policies supported by adequate resources

In exhorting countries to expand and improve comprehensive ECCE, particularly for the poor and marginalized, the Dakar Framework for Action calls for national, multisector policies supported by adequate resources. Since 2000, many countries have developed such policies, along with legal frameworks (Neuman and Devercelli, 2012).

The idea of integrated early childhood services has received much attention in the academic literature in recent years. However, this is not the same as the multisector approach called for at Dakar. Both concepts could involve either a policy framework that coordinates policies among sectors or one unifying policy for all ministries and agencies concerned (Vargas-Barón, 2005). But a fully integrated policy would mean integrated budgets and tight coordination of service delivery at every level of government. Such coordination and sequencing of interventions across sectors is intended to create synergy resulting in an impact greater than the sum of the uncoordinated parts (van Ravens, 2014). Relevant sectors would include health care, nutrition, education, poverty alleviation, and social and child protection. Services could be aimed at pregnant women, at children from before birth to beyond the start of primary school, and at caregivers. Programmes might be carried out in households, child care and early education centres, pre-primary sections of primary schools, community centres, health centres and hospitals (Neuman and Devercelli, 2012).

While an integrated approach seems ideal, it is not practical (van Ravens, 2014), and virtually no large-scale implementation of highly coordinated policies currently exists (Black and Dewey, 2014). The high level of government capacity needed for planning and cooperation across departments and ministries makes such policies overly ambitious in many contexts (van Ravens, 2014). No developed country has taken a fully integrated approach to support ECCE. Rather, single sectors work alongside each other in cooperation, as in the Netherlands. Cuba has achieved a participation rate of 94% for children aged 3 to 5 years and pregnant women in a broad range of early childhood services (Annex, Statistical Table 3B), not integrated in a single policy framework but implemented via a range of separate laws, decrees and bylaws (Vargas-Barón, 2015).

A multisector approach, with varying combinations of services provided by separate sectors, will likely prove more realistic in most

contexts. Examples of early childhood policies provided separately by single sectors include the law that established the Colombian Institute of Family Welfare, as early as 1968, and the Philippines' Early Childhood Care and Education Act of 2000 (**Box 1.4**) (Vargas-Barón, 2015).

As of 2014, many countries had developed explicitly multisector policies, or policies that serve as umbrellas covering several sectors. Seventy-eight countries report having adopted multisector ECCE policy instruments[3] and 23 say they are preparing such instruments (Vargas-Barón, 2015).

The Arab States region is the furthest behind, with only Algeria, Jordan and Palestine developing policies. From a very low baseline in 2000, when only Ghana, Mauritius, Namibia and South Africa had developed ECCE policies, sub-Saharan Africa has made great strides: 30 countries have adopted such policies and 7 are developing them (Vargas-Barón, 2015); many of the rest are fragile or conflict-affected (Neuman and Devercelli, 2012).

Multisector approaches have proved successful in a range of contexts, as in Colombia (Box 1.4), but can also be effective in a particular context, such as that of disability (**Box 1.5**).

Various elements contribute to the success of multisector policies, including coordination, cooperation and agreed measurements of progress across ministries and agencies (DiGirolamo et al., 2014) and staff continuity (Vargas-Barón, 2015). The leadership function by a designated ministry is likely to be important in most contexts. Links should be formed across partner agencies, and the implementation capacity at the middle and lower levels of government are important to address and are often neglected (Britto et al., 2014). In China, the success of an early childhood programme was helped by strong commitment at the national government level, complemented by provincial and local-level collaboration (Engle et al., 2013).

In sub-Saharan Africa, development partners including UNICEF and UNESCO were influential in the development of ECCE policies, but continued support is necessary to ensure their implementation. Where policy development does not take place entirely within a specific context and involving key local stakeholders, crucial issues may be overlooked. A resulting lack of ownership may translate to insufficient political will for implementation. Extensive consultations can help achieve buy-in. In Brazil, it was felt that wide review of draft versions of the 2010 National Plan for Early Childhood, by government staff at all levels and civil society representatives, led to

Seventy-eight countries report having adopted multisector ECCE policy instruments

Box 1.4: Colombia reaches many of its most vulnerable under-5s

Every child under 5 has to attend pre-school. Early childhood education is a major priority.

– Martha Isabel Castano, Primary school teacher, Colombia

Since 1968, the Colombian government has been developing home- and centre-based child care and pre-primary schools to support vulnerable children. In 2006, the National Council on Economic and Social Policy approved a National Public Policy for Early Childhood. Major steps were taken towards coordination between the Ministry of Social Protection and the Ministry of Education, culminating in the National Development Plan for 2010–2014 and the 'From Zero to Forever' policy, creating a comprehensive system of early childhood development and targeting the poor and vulnerable in particular.

The policy goals, also codified in law in 2009, emphasize a priority on low income children, starting with care for expectant mothers. Children are guaranteed adequate nutrition, pre-primary education (including one compulsory year at age 5) and comprehensive health care. Implementation began within two years, supported by the necessary financing, an initial investment to reach the 2.1 million most vulnerable children. Six percent of education spending was dedicated to 'initial education' of children aged 4 and under. Large new centres were built in communities and staffed with teams drawn from social work, psychology and teaching.

Progress in reaching low income children under 5 has been considerable: 25% receive comprehensive ECCE services and 42% are enrolled in day care. However, decentralization provides both opportunities and obstacles. Some governors and mayors do not support the national policy as strongly as others, and the subcontracting of many aspects of service delivery to non-state providers presents a challenge in ensuring uniform standards of quality.

Sources: World Bank (2013b); Yoshikawa and Kabay (2015); Vargas-Barón (2015).

3. Ten of these policies could not be verified as it was not possible to obtain a copy.

Box 1.5: A multisector approach can address disability early and help both children and families

Disability is strongly linked with poverty and marginalization. Children with disabilities are among the world's most marginalized, excluded populations. A multisector approach is crucial for assessing and addressing disability in children. Addressing this issue early helps children and their families improve their potential life outcomes.

Disabled children are a significant proportion of those marginalized, so to reach a large number of marginalized children, policies must effectively target children with disabilities and the multitude of contexts in which they live. The earlier disability is diagnosed, the better for children and their families. Early childhood services provided by multiple sectors can be crucial for reaching children early and comprehensively. Children with disabilities are often kept at home, without access to opportunities other children might have. Home visiting programmes can reach these children when other types of services might not. They also have the important role of educating and supporting parents in positive interaction and supporting children's development in their first learning and care environment, the household.

Parents may lack the knowledge to assess children's development and require intervention from a health care or education professional. Some low and middle income countries are leading the way in this respect. Child assessment instruments have been developed and continue to evolve in India and China (among other countries). Such instruments require the involvement of both parents and professionals, particularly in contexts of low literacy. Widespread developmental screening of young children continues to be lacking in many low income countries, however.

Once their disability is assessed, affected children need support to do what other children do. It is now widely accepted that separating children from their peers or families is detrimental to their development and potential. In Central and Eastern Europe, where it has long been the practice to institutionalize disabled children, countries are moving away from that trend. Wherever possible, children living with disability should experience as normal a family life as possible and receive education in inclusive schools, with added support in terms of health care and learning.[1] Coordinated, multisector approaches can help achieve this goal. Jamaica is making a concerted effort to assess children's special needs, rolling out an assessment tool nationwide in the 2014/15 school year to aid pre-primary teachers in identifying children who require extra support.

Sources: Hines (2014); WHO (2012); WHO and UNICEF (2012).

1. See Chapter 2 for a discussion on inclusive education for children with disabilities versus segregation.

a sense of ownership by sector leaders and other stakeholders (Vargas-Barón, 2015).

An agreed policy document can be both a benefit and a liability. It can be used to claim progress, while its official adoption and implementation can be delayed indefinitely (Neuman and Devercelli, 2012). In Nigeria, the National Policy for Integrated Early Childhood Development was approved in 2007 but implementation has not yet started. Implementation plans have been drafted but not costed, and there is no financing provision (UNICEF, 2007; World Bank, 2013d). Shorter action plans and specific implementation plans are necessary to translate official policies into reality, but as of 2014, only 28 countries had developed the necessary strategic plans to guide implementation (Vargas-Barón, 2015).

Pre-primary education systems and enrolment levels have expanded rapidly in some countries

Access to good quality pre-primary education has a positive impact on a child's primary education outcomes

Access to good quality pre-primary education has an enormous impact on a child's primary education outcomes, with effects often lasting into later life (Berlinski et al., 2009). The Dakar Framework noted the role of national governments and stated that programmes should be appropriately designed and targeted: 'Governments … have the primary responsibility of formulating [ECCE] policies … and promoting flexible, adaptable programmes for young children that are appropriate to their age and not mere downward extensions of formal school systems.'

A review of studies from Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, India, Morocco, Peru and Turkey found that early interventions tended to have a positive effect on likelihood of enrolment, on avoiding repetition and dropout, and on achievement in the early primary school years. These effects can be very large, and tend to be much greater in the case of poor and marginalized children (Myers, 1992; Myers, 2004). Expanding pre-primary access, whether through formal or informal programmes, is therefore vital for improving children's life chances, increasing the efficiency

of the education system and resources, and reducing inequity in the broader society.

Enrolment has risen by 64% in little more than a decade, but with great inequality

The world has witnessed an increase of 64% in enrolment in pre-primary schooling, a considerable achievement, even though the baseline in 1999 was very low. Girls account for 49% of the increase and around half of total pre-primary enrolment in 2012. Certain countries have demonstrated progress with massive expansion of their public pre-primary systems. Kazakhstan in 1999 was the first country in Central Asia to make a year of pre-primary schooling compulsory, thus reducing the gap in participation between the richest and poorest. Viet Nam also hugely expanded government provision, leading to an increase in the gross enrolment ratio (GER) while private enrolment dropped (Shaeffer, 2015).

However, progress in access has been uneven, with considerable difference between urban and rural areas, rich and poor families and communities, and thriving and deprived regions within countries (Delprato et al. forthcoming). Considerable inequity also remains in families' access to good quality pre-primary education (Britto et al., 2014).

Many sub-Saharan African countries, as well as some Asian and Arab countries, started from extremely low baselines in 1999 to make progress in increasing pre-primary school enrolment ratios (**Figure 1.5**). Ghana is a striking exception: as school fees at this level had been abolished, participation started at a higher baseline yet still showed improvement. South Africa also made strong progress, providing one year of pre-primary education at primary schools. Nepal took action to expand pre-primary education in successive national development plans. Considerable effort was also made in Mongolia, whose Education Sector Master Plan (2006–2015) established culturally and context-appropriate mobile kindergartens housed in ger (yurts), which dramatically widened access (Mongolia Government, 2006).

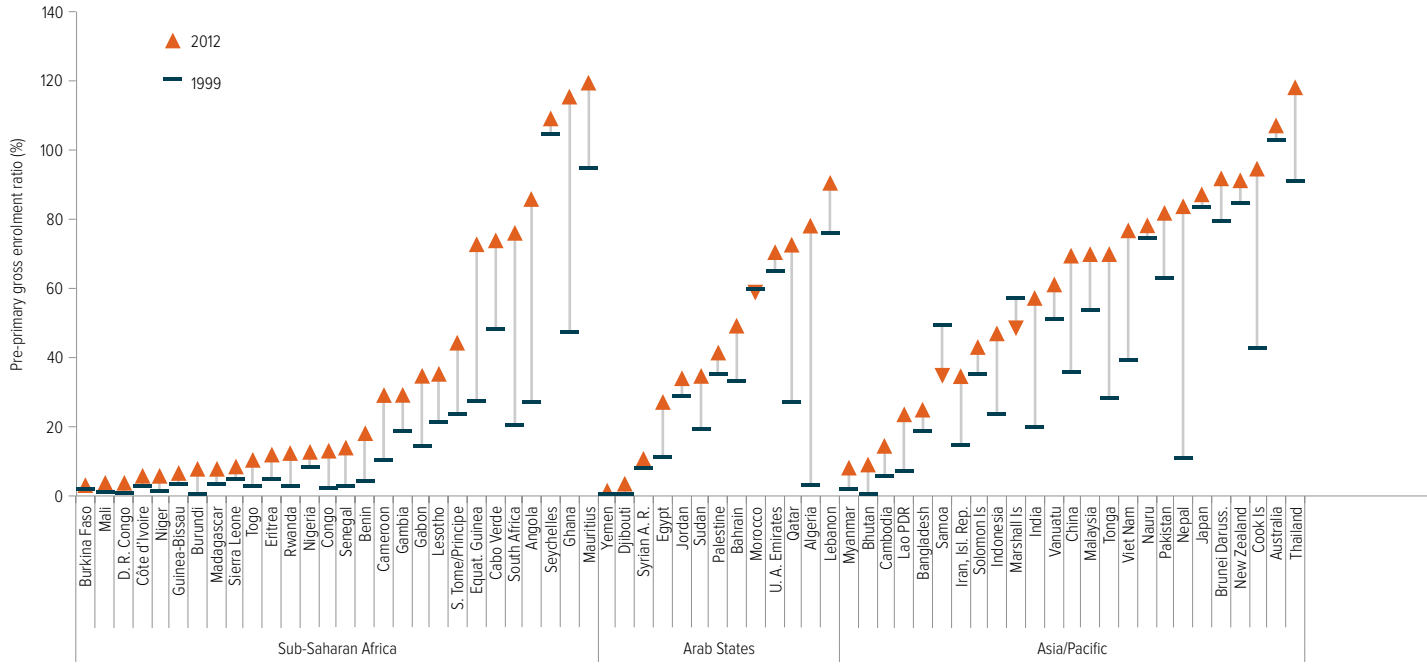
As with enrolment ratios, most sub-Saharan African and many Arab and Asian countries have not made huge strides since Dakar in increasing pre-primary school life expectancy, the average number of years a child stays in pre-primary education (**Figure 1.6**). South Africa's pre-primary school life expectancy of close to one year reflects the single 'reception year' provided by government. Thailand has progressed due to the government's concerted effort to expand access to and raise demand for child-friendly pre-primary schooling (Shaeffer, 2015), i.e. schooling that is suitable for young children and does not merely imitate primary school with desks, subject classes and books. Algeria's massive expansion of pre-primary provision has led to an increase from virtually no pre-primary school life expectancy to nearly one year.

Enrolment in pre-primary schooling rose by 64% since 1999

Living in a rural area can be a major obstacle to access (**Figure 1.7**). In some of the poorest countries, people living in rural areas and members of the poorest population group have an almost equally low chance of attending an early learning programme. Urban dwellers and the richest overall have a higher likelihood, yet participation is low even for them. With rising access come widening disparities, as the figure dramatically illustrates for the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Tunisia. Viet Nam made the most progress in raising the chance of early learning programmes for the very worst off, including children from minority language groups (UNESCO, 2014c).

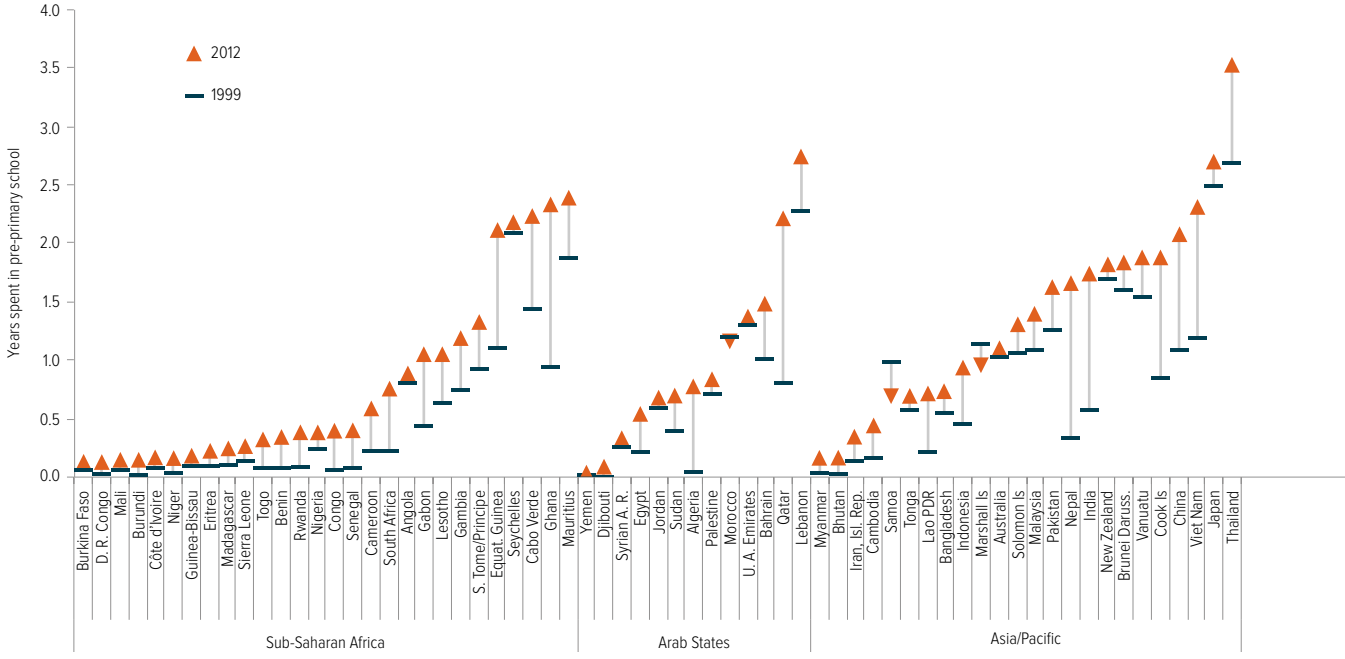
In Kenya, Mongolia, Tajikistan and Togo, living in a rural area and/or being poor and marginalized cuts a child's chances of attending early learning programmes. This is also true in Ghana and Kazakhstan, despite positive policy changes. Within-country inequality can be large: in the United Republic of Tanzania there are stark differences by wealth, as well as gaps between provinces as wide as 71 percentage points (World Bank, 2012c). Inequity between urban and rural areas can also be seen in the physical learning environment, the classroom process and teacher–child interactions (Mtahabwa and Rao, 2010). Nigeria and Uganda have some of the worst inequality in access by wealth (**Figure 1.8**), with southern Nigerian government schools much more likely to provide early learning programmes. There are other factors as well: in Thailand the generally strong national commitment to young children has let down non-Thai migrant and

Figure 1.5: In all but a few countries, the pre-primary gross enrolment ratio rose between 1999 and 2012
Pre-primary education gross enrolment ratio, 1990 and 2012



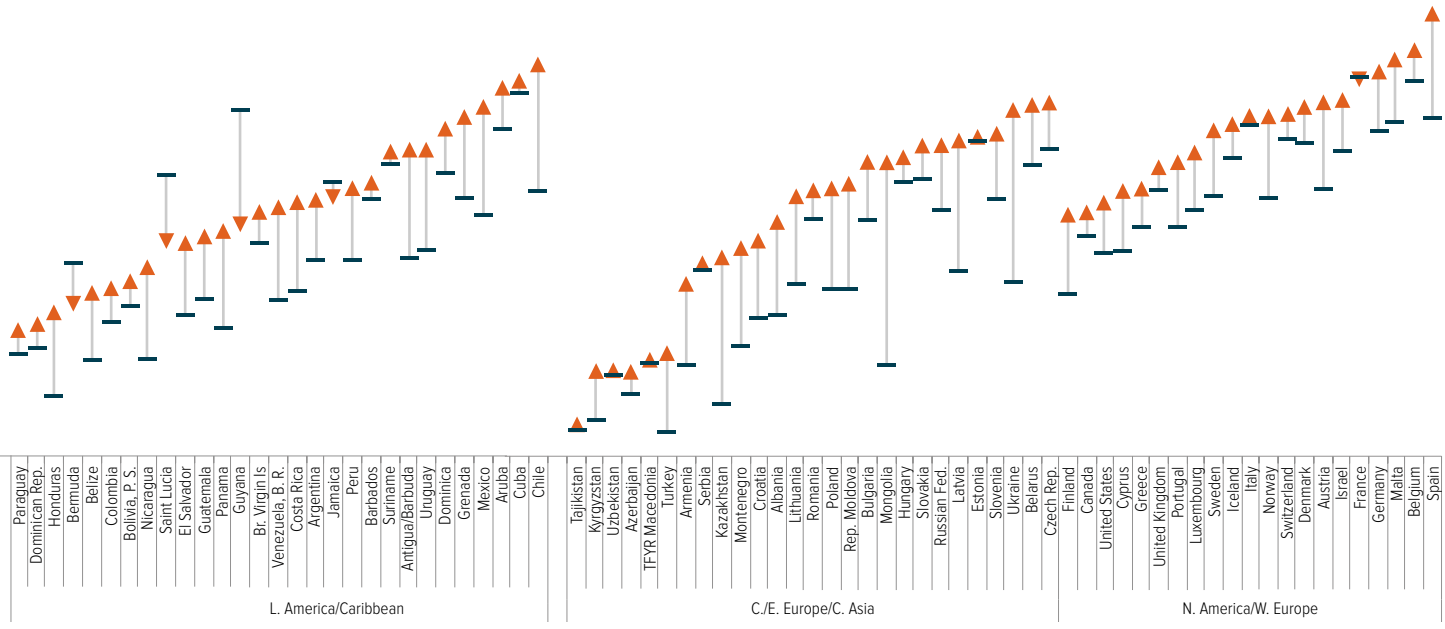
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 3B; UIS database.

Figure 1.6: Children are more likely to spend longer in pre-primary school
Pre-primary school life expectancy, 1999 and 2012



Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 3B (website); UIS database.

Pre-primary education systems and enrolment levels have expanded rapidly in some countries



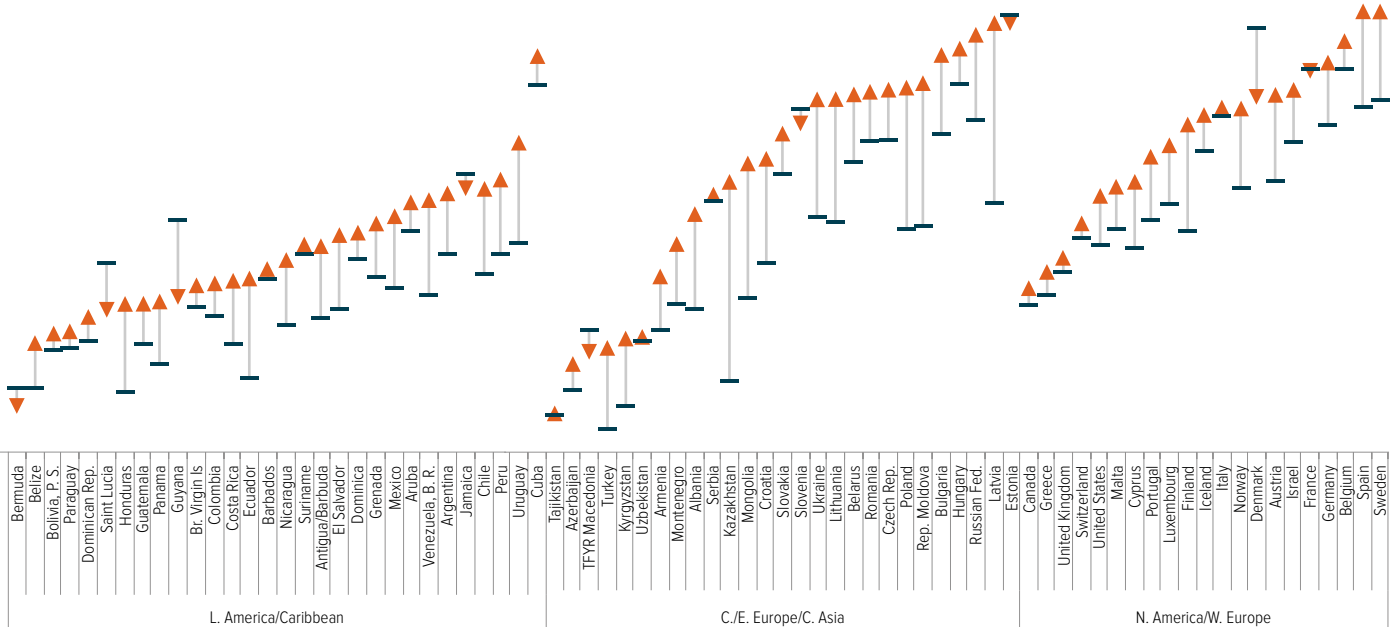
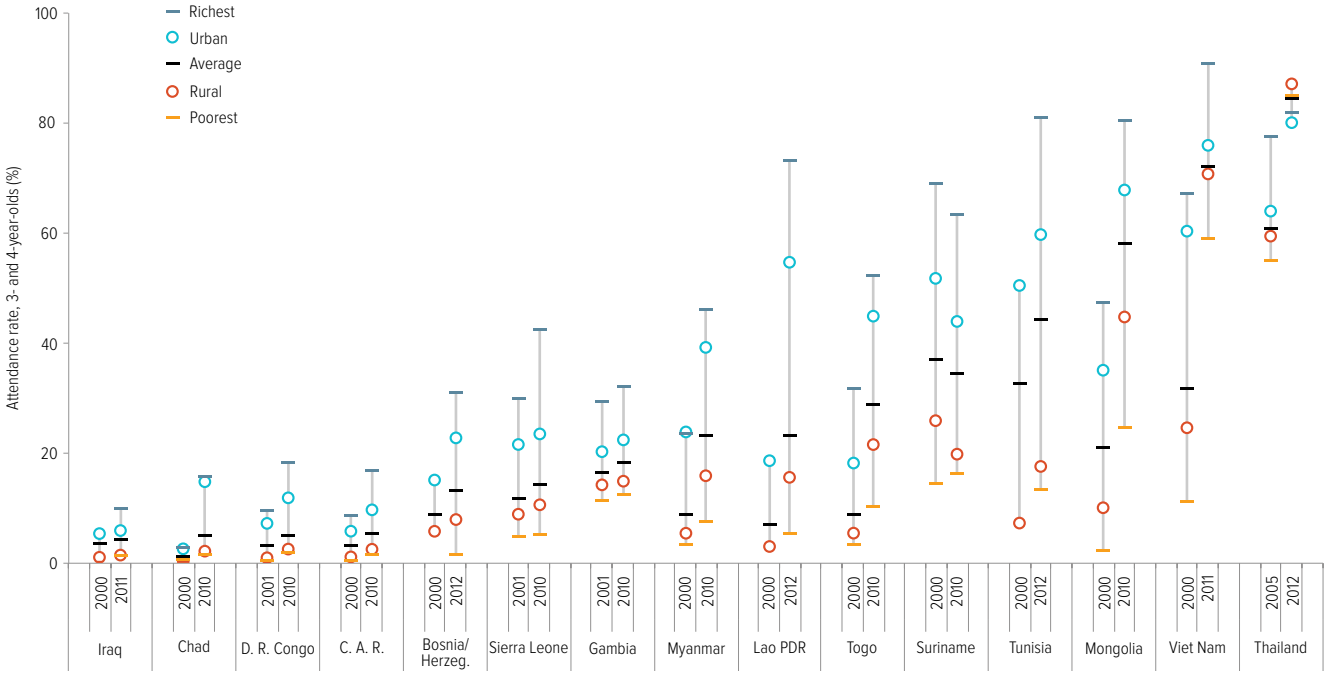
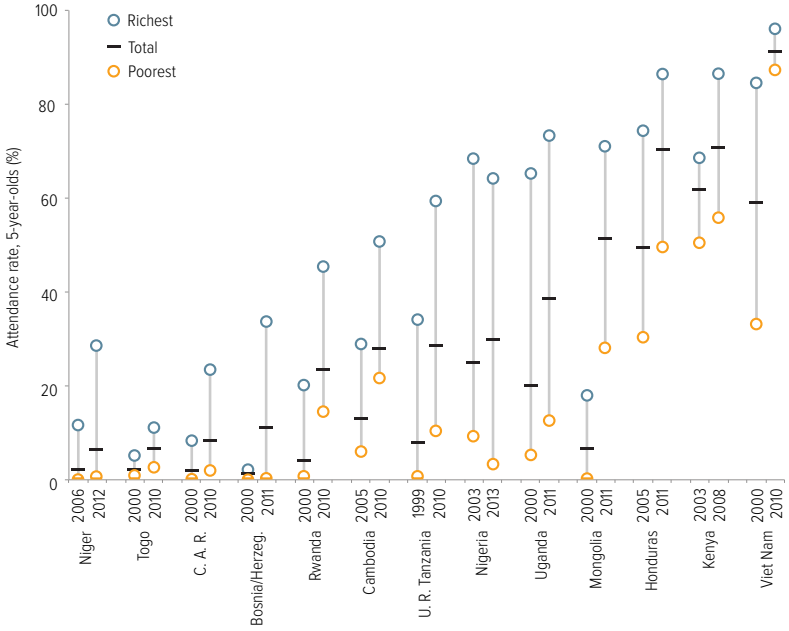


Figure 1.7: Inequality often increases as more children attend early learning programmes
Percentage of children aged 36–59 months who attended some form of organized early childhood education programme, by wealth and location, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Note: This indicator refers to children who may or may not be within the country's age range for official pre-primary school enrolment, and concerns any type of organized early learning programme outside the home, whether government-run or private.
Source: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey reports.

Figure 1.8: The poorest children are least likely to attend early learning programmes
Percentage of 5-year-olds who attended early childhood education programmes, by wealth, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Source: GMR team calculations (2015), based on Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey and Demographic and Health Survey data.

refugee children, only 55% of whom attend ECCE programmes, compared with 93% nationally (Shaeffer, 2015).

Based on progress to date, projections on pre-primary gross enrolment ratios by 2015 were possible for 148 countries. Seventy countries, or 47%, are likely to have high enrolment ratios, considered to be more than 80%. All EFA regions are included in this category, but the majority of these countries come from Central and Eastern Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, and North America and Western Europe. Twelve countries, or 8% would fall into the intermediate position with GERs of between 70% and 79%. Sixty-six countries would have either low (30-69%) or very low (below 30%) GER, accounting for 25% and 20% respectively of the projection sample. Almost half of the countries with very low GER would be from sub-Saharan Africa (Bruneforth, 2015).

There are several ways to spur greater expansion in enrolment

Governments can take action in a variety of ways to increase the number of children in pre-primary education, including laws, policies, public awareness campaigns, financial incentives and fee abolition. Laws can be used to mandate participation in pre-primary schooling. In 2001, Mexico made pre-primary schooling mandatory for children aged 4 to 5 (UNESCO-IBE, 2012); by 2012 the GER had risen to 101%, from 70% in 1999 (Annex, Statistical Table 3B). Peru made two years of pre-primary education free and compulsory in 2003 starting at age 3 (Peru Government, 2003). Ghana did the same in 2007 (Table 1). Myanmar recently mandated one year of compulsory pre-primary school (Shaeffer, 2015).

By 2014, 40 countries had instituted compulsory pre-primary education (**Table 1.1**). In several Latin American countries this trend has resulted in steady improvement in enrolment of children of pre-primary school age (Diawara, 2007). Central and Eastern Europe and Latin America and the Caribbean showed the strongest growth in enrolment ratios (Figure 1.5). They also have the most countries with compulsory pre-primary schooling. Argentina mandated pre-primary education as early as 1993, and its GER climbed from 57% in 1999 to 74% in 2012 (Annex, Statistical Table 3B).

Many countries have policies to include pre-primary education in the basic education cycle, but do not support them financially. In Kenya and the United Republic of Tanzania, laws require pre-primary sections to be attached to all primary schools, but in both countries fees are being charged. Because Tanzanian primary school capitation grants have been stretched to cover pre-primary pupils as well (World Bank, 2012c), pre-primary sections are under-resourced and terribly overcrowded, with an average pupil/teacher ratio of 57:1 in 2010 (Annex, Statistical Table 8).

Countries like Ghana that have abolished fees have seen major growth in pre-school participation

Cost is a major issue at the pre-primary level, with many governments charging fees (O'Gara, 2013). Countries like Ghana that have abolished fees have seen major growth in pre-school participation, although the government has struggled to find the resources necessary to maintain standards (Shaeffer, 2015). Brazil's government pre-schools do not charge fees, and serve 86% of all enrolled children (Bastos and Straume, 2013).

Financial incentives for enrolment can help. In rural China, an experimental programme provided families with a tuition waiver and a cash transfer conditional on an attendance rate of 80% or more. Children in participating families were 20% more likely to attend pre-primary school than non-participants (Wong et al., 2013).

It is not simply a matter of costs: pre-primary schooling needs to be appealing to parents and children. Ghana is making great efforts to sensitize people to the need for pre-primary education that is friendly to young children. Its New Education Strategic Plan 2010–2020 mandates an extensive multimedia public awareness campaign aimed at 'rebranding' kindergarten to make families and communities aware of the need for child-friendly pre-primary provision. The plan aims to further boost demand by addressing constraints on quality relating to teacher training, infrastructure, appropriate curriculum and support for special needs education (Shaeffer, 2015).

Thailand has shone a spotlight on ECCE through public awareness campaigns, including posters

Table 1.1: The 40 countries with compulsory pre-primary education laws

Country	Year law was enacted	Age at which compulsory education begins	Number of years of compulsory pre-primary education
Arab States			
Sudan	1992	4	...
Central and Eastern Europe			
Bosnia/Herzeg.	2007	5	1
Bulgaria	2002/2003	6	1
Hungary	1993	5	1
Latvia	2002	4	2
TFYR Macedonia	2005	6	1
Poland	2004	6	1
Rep. Moldova	...	5	1
Romania	...	6	1
Serbia	2003	5.5	1
Slovenia	2001	6	0
Central Asia			
Kazakhstan	1999	5	1
East Asia and the Pacific			
Brunei Daruss.	1979	5	1
DPR Korea	...	5	1
Macao, China	1995	5	1
Myanmar	...	5	1
Philippines	2012	5	1
Latin America and the Caribbean			
Argentina	1993	5	1
Colombia	1994	5	1
Costa Rica	1997	4 or 5	1 or 2
Dominican Rep.	1996	5	1
Ecuador	2008	5 to 6	1
El Salvador	1990	4	3
Guatemala	1985	6	1
Mexico	2001	5	1
Nicaragua	2006	5	1
Panama	1995	4	1
Paraguay	1998	5	1
Peru	2003	3	3
Uruguay	...	5	1
Venezuela, B. R.	1999	4	2
North America and Western Europe			
Cyprus	2004	4yrs 8mo	1
Denmark	...	6	1
Greece	2006		
Israel	1949	3	...
Luxembourg	1963	4	2
Switzerland	...	4	2
South and West Asia			
Iran, Isl. Rep	2004	5	1
Sri Lanka	1997	5	...
Sub-Saharan Africa			
Ghana	2007	4	2

Sources: European Commission (2014); Shaeffer (2015); UNESCO-IBE (2012).

and broadcast spots targeting parents, guardians, newlyweds, pregnant women, teachers, child care providers, medical staff, and community and local leaders. Extensive coverage through ECCE centres and more formal kindergartens in rural and urban areas has achieved attendance by nearly 93% of 4- and 5-year-olds (Shaeffer, 2015).

Private sector involvement remains high

Despite government commitment under EFA to expand ECCE 'especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged', private sector enrolment has been rising in a number of countries. This leads to two problems. Where access depends on paying fees, many of the poorest are left behind. And private providers are highly unlikely to locate to sparsely populated and remote areas, so reliance on private provision can reduce educational and social equity for poor and remote populations. For the 100 countries with data for both 1999 and 2012, the average percentage of private enrolment at the pre-primary level increased from 28% to almost 31%.[4]

'Private schools' make up a complicated and diverse sector, including purely private providers operating for profit or not for profit; NGOs and voluntary groups; and faith-based organizations (Ashley et al., 2014). In the Statistical Table in the Annex (3B), the distinction between public and private is based on whether a provider is government or privately owned. In reality, any private provider under this definition may receive funding from government or from philanthropic and faith-based groups, though most commonly charge user fees. Many governments have arrived at public–private partnerships, usually involving state funding for private provision, though often with some fees as well. But in many contexts, both provision and funding are left up to the non-state sector. This is the case in Ethiopia, Sierra Leone and many of the Arab States, where, as a result, pre-primary education tends to reach only more advantaged urban populations. Sierra Leone has a gross enrolment ratio of only 9% (Annex, Statistical Table 3B).

Some countries experienced great change in the share of private pre-primary provision between 1999 and 2012 (**Figure 1.9**). Several poorer countries made progress in increasing public provision, while richer countries generally appeared to be reducing it. However, a reduction or increase in involvement of the private sector did not dictate whether parents paid more or less for pre-primary schooling. Sweden's private enrolment rose as a result of a government school choice policy as indicated by enrolments by sector, yet parents pay no pre-primary fees (Sweden Government, 2012). The United Kingdom saw the most dramatic increase in private provision: sixfold growth over the period, to 37% of all enrolment in 2012 (Annex, Statistical Table 3B). The cost to parents could be substantial, though free, government funded places in early education were available to poor families (Mathers and Smees, 2014).

Governments have not done enough to expand access as they committed to do in 2000, but there is relatively high demand for private services. The private sector is extremely heterogeneous, ranging from the elite to low cost slum schools. In low and lower middle income countries, many low cost private schools operate in conditions so poor that they do not stand a chance of government registration. They often employ unqualified staff and never engage with the government for fear of closure over lack of compliance, as in Nigeria (Härmä, 2011). In the United Kingdom, many poor children are being failed by low quality, lower cost private pre-primary facilities that tend to cluster in areas of deprivation. Such centres were found to employ many fewer graduate and upper-secondary-educated staff, resulting in poorer learning outcomes, while centres serving more affluent areas were generally of better quality (Mathers and Smees, 2014).

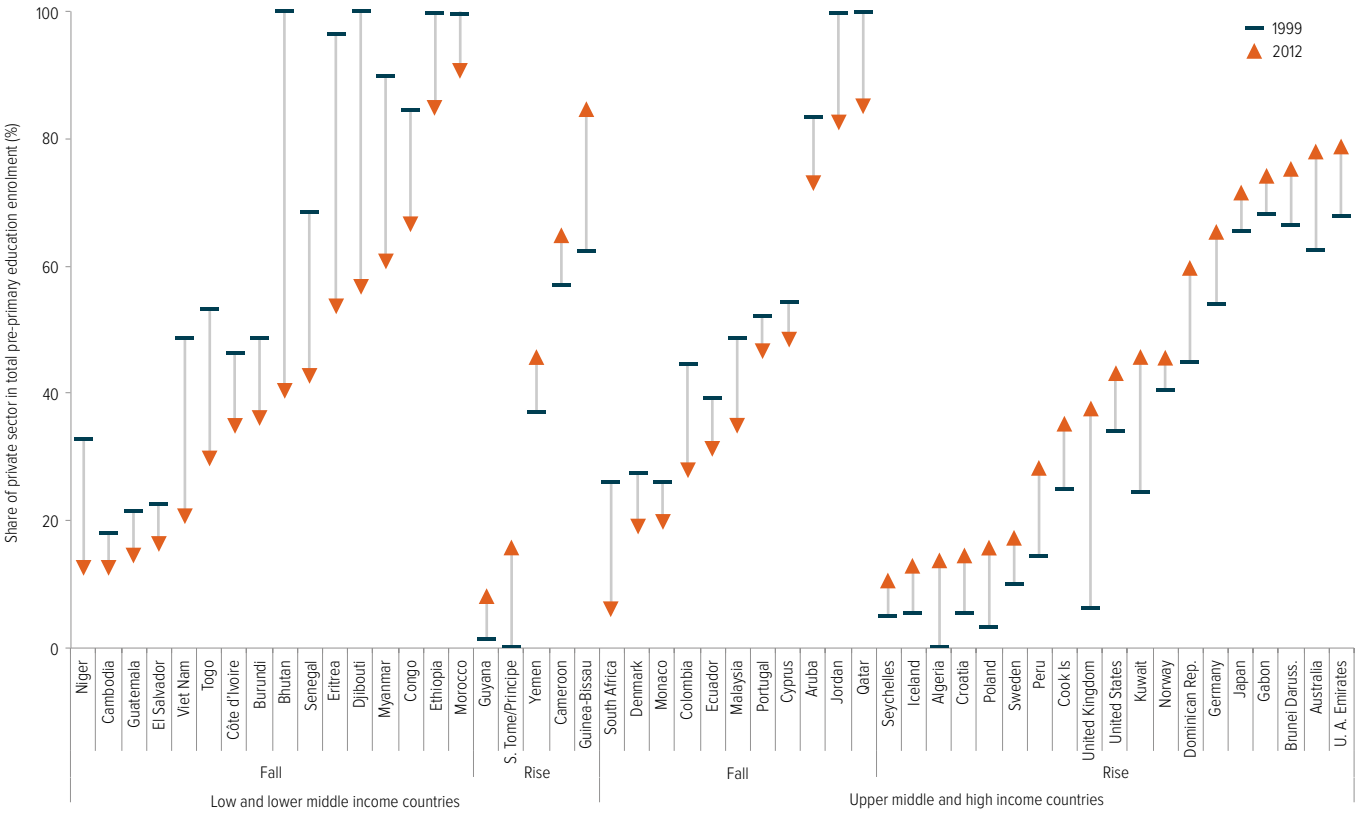
Where access depends on paying fees, many of the poorest are left behind

Public–private partnerships can expand access and may improve quality

In a time of budget constraints, many countries choose to engage with the private sector through partnerships where government pays all or part of the fee for a child to attend a non-government school. This can expand access and can put positive pressure on quality standards in areas where private schooling is viable, particularly urban areas. Partnering with private providers is

4. These numbers reflect only schools registered with the government. However, there are many unregistered private schools largely unaccounted for in official statistics or quality assurance (Woodhead and Streuli, 2013). This means official statistics in many countries under-represent actual enrolment, both overall and in the private sector.

Figure 1.9: Private provision is declining in some contexts and rising in others
Share of private sector in total pre-primary education enrolment, selected countries, by country income group, 1999 and 2012



Note: Countries shown are those where the share of the private sector increased or decreased by at least five percentage points.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 3B; UIS database.

not usually an option in very remote and sparsely populated areas where there are insufficient numbers of children.

Hong Kong (China) is encouraging improvement in the quality of ECCE teaching. All ECCE provision is private, but parents receive vouchers to use at non-profit centres. For a school to participate in the voucher programme, all its teachers must have a certificate in early childhood education, and all newly appointed principals must have an academic degree in early childhood education (Poon, 2008; Ying, 2013).

In other countries, both quality and participation are encouraged at the same time. In Mauritius, the government provides cash transfers conditional on children's enrolment at age 4, and it provides quality assurance for private centres (World Bank, 2012c). This has resulted in a gross enrolment ratio of 120% in 2012 from 94% in 1999 (Annex, Statistical Table 3B). In Singapore, the government provides assistance to low-income families (Karuppiah, n.d.). In South Africa the government pays for children to attend private centres; to boost both participation and quality, schools must be registered and join government monitoring and support systems, a requirement of which is that staff meet minimum qualifications (Biersteker, 2013). In Uganda, the government plans to introduce a small monthly per-child subsidy to ECCE centres, conditional on meeting minimum standards and complying with the curriculum (van Ravens, 2014), to support implementation of the Education Sector Early Childhood Development Policy 2007.

In some countries, such as Chile and Sweden, governments have an established history of providing pre-primary schooling and yet make the policy decision to introduce school choice

by providing the same payment per pupil to whatever school a parent chooses (Woodhead and Streuli, 2013). Such policies have run for 34 years in Chile and 22 years in Sweden, yet there is continuing debate on the effectiveness of school choice where government provision already exists.

Systems run in parallel, not in partnership

In some contexts, parallel pre-primary education systems have emerged: those privately provided alongside government ones (**Box 1.6**). A recent study following children in 362 villages in three Indian States showed that while 85% of children in Assam attend government Anganwadis, only 52% did in Andhra Pradesh and 20% in Rajasthan. Meanwhile, about 30% attend private schools in Andhra Pradesh and 40% in Rajasthan, reflecting the enormous growth in private pre-primary schools across rural, urban and tribal areas (Centre for Early Childhood Education and Development, 2013; Manji et al., 2015). In China, urban children take advantage of relatively well-equipped government centres staffed with trained teachers, while many rural communities rely on private kindergartens staffed by untrained local women (Rao et al., 2012b). In Brazil, private and government schools exist in parallel, although

In China, many rural communities rely on private kindergartens staffed by untrained local women

Box 1.6: Low cost private provision dominates in areas of sub-Saharan Africa

Demand in urban sub-Saharan Africa is strong, with 71% to 93% of 3- to 6-year-olds enrolled in four locations. Pre-primary schooling, whether government or private, is expensive, with total costs representing a considerable proportion of GDP per capita per month for each child in the household (Table 2). In sampled neighbourhoods of Accra, Lagos, Nairobi and Johannesburg, private schools cater to the vast majority of enrolled children. Parents are highly motivated and seek early learning opportunities rather than simple child minding.

The quality of provision is a concern. Pedagogy and subject content are often age-inappropriate. In Accra and Nairobi, schools are a downward extension of schooling, with rows of desks where children begin literacy and numeracy learning. Home languages are not often used or included as a lesson subject. In Nairobi, classes are teacher-led, children as young as 3 or 4 sit for exams, and ranked accordingly.

For high quality ECCE provision, teachers need a good general education, as well as specific early childhood training. In Nairobi and Lagos, most teachers tend to have some tertiary study and sometimes a full degree, and 61% in Lagos had some education-specific training. Only 40% of teachers in Accra, and none in Lagos, had specific early childhood training.

The case of South Africa stands out in several respects. The government provides one year of pre-primary education – the 'reception year' or 'Grade R'. Grade R provision has considerable reach, at least in urban Soweto, where 80% of children aged 5 to 6 are enrolled, 74% of them in government schools. However, access for younger children is only possible through private schools and is highly correlated with income levels, with only 60% of children aged 3 to 4 enrolled. Private centres are more child-friendly than in the other three countries – with small group settings, learning through play and use of home language. These examples show that the great demand in sub-Saharan Africa for ECCE is not being met by the meagre government supply.

Sources: Biersteker (2010); Innovations for Poverty Action (2013); Lowenstein and Ziswiler (2013); Bidwell and Watine (2014).

Table 1.2: Participation in pre-primary schooling across study sites and available schooling options

Children aged 3 to 6	Accra (Ashaiman)	Lagos (Agege)	Nairobi (Mukuru)	Johannesburg (Soweto)
% enrolled (all school types)	93	87	84	71
% of poorest quintile enrolled	84	73	77	52
% enrolled using private schools	91	83	94	56
% enrolled for learning (not child minding)	80	86	79	53
No. of options in walking distance	3.6	3.4	4.9	2.7
Total cost per child as % of GDP per capita per month	28	21	23	8
% of enrolments at primary level in private sector	77	65	79	11

Source: Bidwell and Watine (2014).

private schools have the minority share (Bastos and Straume, 2013). Despite Peru's free and compulsory pre-primary schooling, the private sector has developed in parallel, particularly in urban areas, and mainly serving better off families. Private growth in Peru has been substantial: in 1998 the ratio of public to private provision was 4:1, but ten years later it had become nearly equal at 1.5:1 (Woodhead and Streuli, 2013).

The quality of pre-primary schooling is crucial to ensure that children are ready for school

In other contexts, government is establishing systems where once only the private sector existed. Although Jordan had 4,127 private kindergartens as of 2010, it opened 532 public kindergartens between 2003 and 2010 as part of the 2003 Education Reform for the Knowledge Economy (Al-Hassan et al., 2010; UNICEF, 2008). Jordan's achievement is dwarfed by Algeria's expansion of its government provision, resulting in a 77 percentage point increase in GER to reach 79% by 2014 (Annex, Statistical Table 3B).

The quest for quality is yet to be meaningfully addressed

Improving access is not enough: the quality of pre-primary schooling is crucial to ensure that children develop to their potential and are ready for school (Yoshikawa and Kabay, 2015). Children who do not receive a good quality education are less likely to succeed in primary school (Barnett, 2008). While even relatively poor provision brings some benefits, the better the quality, the greater the gain. This has been found in Bangladesh and Cambodia (Rao et al., 2012a) and England (United Kingdom) (Sylva et al., 2011), in both urban and rural areas. In England (United Kingdom), the positive effects of attending a lower quality programme had begun to fade by age 11, while effects were enduring for children who attended higher quality programmes (Sylva et al., 2011). But defining quality is a challenging task, involving questions of curriculum, pedagogy, culture and, crucially, the skill of pre-primary teachers.

Curriculum, pedagogy and culture all influence the quality of pre-primary schooling

Quality is a relative, value-laden and dynamic concept. What the language of instruction should be – mother tongue versus a national or colonial language – and whether to accommodate cultural perceptions and religious practices are questions on which pedagogical and parental views may land on opposite sides (Shaeffer, 2015). A broad base of research suggests several crucial, mutually reinforcing factors in quality: inputs (including a safe and healthy environment), organization and management (strong leadership), the educational process (including opportunities for learning through experience), and warm and responsive relationships among educators and children, parents and the community (Myers, 2004).

Curriculum shapes what children should learn while pedagogy refers to how they are taught or their learning is facilitated; these aspects of education are closely linked (Sheridan et al., 2009), with curriculum helping shape pedagogy. In addition, parents' cultural perceptions may lead to pressure on schools to do things a certain way. Many countries recognize that the pre-primary classroom needs to be child-centred and developmentally appropriate in terms of both curriculum and culture, allowing much time for play. This need is also inextricably linked with the setting. The environment should support learning activities shaped by teachers, and include a safe space for children to play and explore, and materials and learning toys for children to interact with.

Many poor countries are far from being able to provide pre-primary schools with the necessary resources, making effective curricula and pedagogies such as HighScope, from the United States (HighScope, n.d.), highly challenging to replicate. UNICEF has devised a kit of basic materials for early childhood learning in crisis situations (UNICEF, 2013a). Similar tools could be developed for use in non-crisis but low-resource settings, to go with a set curriculum.

India, Jamaica, Kazakhstan and Tajikistan offer examples of how countries have improved curriculum and pedagogy for ECCE. India's new Early Childhood Education Curriculum Framework takes a developmental approach, with different activities for age groups 3 to 4 and 4 to 6. For the younger children, these include planned and free play and interactions: adult–child and child–child, individually and in small and large groups. Children have 'opportunities to listen to stories, learn rhymes, create, indulge in imaginative play, ask questions, do simple problem solving, experiment to promote active

and interactive learning and generally have a "feel good" experience for a positive self-image.' For the older group, there is an increasing ratio of adult-guided rather than free play activities and more large-group work. Achieving school readiness includes matching pictures with sounds, recognizing shapes, broadening vocabulary and developing affinity with reading through picture books and storytelling, as well as writing and learning arithmetic, including number and space concepts. The curriculum also includes activities to develop fine motor skills, physical coordination and fitness, as well as creativity through drama, music and more (India Government, 2012).

Jamaica similarly separates curriculum by age (0 to 3 and 4 to 5 years), with curricular elements broadly similar to India's (Jamaica Government and Dudley Grant Memorial Trust, 2008). Kazakhstan, like many other countries, has reformed its curriculum using the 'Step by Step' system to provide a more child-centred approach focusing on holistic development, including emotional and cognitive elements (UNESCO, 2005c). Tajikistan, with the support of UNICEF and the Aga Khan Foundation, approved a new curriculum for alternative or community-based early childhood provision in June 2013, also using child-centred approaches. The curriculum will be applied in classrooms with teachers trained in the new methods (UNICEF, 2013f).

Altering pre-primary models to suit the cultural context can boost demand. The success of this approach in Kenya, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania (Yoshikawa and Kabay, 2015) demonstrates that in education, no one size fits all. The East African Madrasa Early Childhood Programme has brought more children into school in countries where the religious aspect of life is considered of fundamental importance (Manji et al., 2015). In Cambodia, a home-based programme has proved responsive and adaptable to local cultural variation through relevant methods, language, materials and norms (Yoshikawa and Kabay, 2015).

In contrast to these approaches, parents' cultural expectation of schools may be that formal book learning should start at as early an age as possible (O'Gara, 2013). In Hong Kong (China), pre-schools tend to focus on how to prepare a child academically for primary school (Fung and Lam, 2012). In Thailand, parents feel pre-primary schools should provide an 'early primary education'; they do not fully understand the more child-friendly offering in pre-primary centres (Shaeffer, 2015). Similar misunderstanding took place in Jharkhand state, India, where a child-centred, play-based pre-primary curriculum was piloted (Pattanayak, 2012).

The response of the government in Thailand, and also in Ghana, was to use public sensitization campaigns to instil parental understanding of pedagogy friendly to young children. The state

Pre-primary schools and families should ensure that children are ready to make the transition to school

Box 1.7: Children and schools should be ready for each other

'School readiness' has several aspects: how prepared a child is to transition from the home or pre-primary environment to the formal primary school classroom, how well the family has been able to support the child's learning from birth (sometimes with assistance from home visiting programmes) and how ready schools are to help the child with a smooth transition.

The readiness of the child is perhaps the most important aspect of school readiness. Children should have basic behaviours and abilities, including pre-literacy and numeracy, the ability to follow directions, and the ability to focus on a particular learning activity for a given period. They also need a level of socio-emotional development which allows them to regulate their behaviour and emotions. It is the role of the pre-primary school, as well as the family, to ensure that children are ready to make the transition to school.

Due to a lack of coordinated planning across the primary and pre-primary levels, many programmes focus on readying children for primary school rather than providing and supporting a smooth transition between the two levels. Curricula and pedagogy should be jointly designed to eliminate disjuncture between the levels, with education planners cognisant of the definition of early childhood as lasting until age 8, meaning that early childhood pedagogy and curriculum approaches should be used in the first one to three years of primary school, depending on the start age for the primary level. While it may be accepted that more play-focused and learning-through-doing techniques are appropriate for pre-primary classrooms, when children enter the first grade classroom they are often expected immediately to sit at a desk and behave in a more constrained and formal manner.

Sources: UNESCO (2014c); UNICEF (2012).

Box 1.8: Culture shapes assessment of indigenous education in Mexico

An evaluation process being piloted in two states of Mexico to assess the quality of indigenous pre-primary education demonstrates the importance of culture in assessing quality of teaching. Working with school supervisors, community members reflect upon the world in which they want to live, then negotiate a definition of quality. Indicators of school and classroom quality are determined, and supervisors use them in observing classrooms, on the premise that a good quality pre-primary classroom and experience should be consistent with the reflection process. The supervisors provide evidence about the school and classroom process to the director and teachers. Then those involved reflect together on the evidence to identify actions to improve the quality of ECCE provision. Supervisors make periodic visits thereafter to monitor improvement.

What indigenous Mexicans consider important indicators of quality are reflected in the way they assess quality, with respect for how culture shapes education and a wish to ensure that indicators are relevant to culture and context. The process has reportedly resulted in improved quality, both in general and with respect to the added dimension of culture.

Source: Hacia una Cultura Democrática (2014).

Australia, New Zealand, Portugal and the United Kingdom are taking steps towards pay parity for teachers at all levels

government of Jharkhand engaged in more grass-roots efforts to convince parents of the importance of using age-appropriate pedagogy (Pattanayak, 2012). Despite such efforts, families and children may be ill-prepared for the abrupt transition from pre-primary to primary if coordination is lacking (**Box 1.7**).

Assessing good quality teaching is as complicated as defining it. Observation of the classroom process is best, but is painstaking and skill-intensive. Context is extremely important, and for an assessment to be used to improve quality of service provision, all key stakeholders should work collaboratively. A Mexican initiative shows how taking account of culture can have positive effects on the quality of ECCE provision when results are fed back into the education system (**Box 1.8**).

Teachers are the main determinants of quality, but many are inadequately prepared

Preparing pre-primary teachers is key to increasing quality in both classroom process and relationships. They are one of the biggest school-related factors (Sheridan et al., 2009), and their professional qualifications influence the quality of classroom interaction more than the physical setting and resourcing do (Mtahabwa and Rao, 2010).

These findings are generally not reflected in national practice, where many ECCE teachers are inadequately prepared. Poorly prepared teachers struggle to use the kind of curricula adopted by India and Jamaica, discussed above. In addition, as these curricula can prove material-intensive, teacher training needs to address the making and maintenance of materials from the local environment.

Hand in hand with lack of teacher preparation are poor working conditions of ECCE teachers. Young children are often assigned the least effective teachers due to the low status attached to this schooling level (O'Gara, 2013). Untrained and unqualified staff are often employed, and the low status and pay are linked with high staff turnover, damaging learning outcomes (Mathers et al., 2014). Lower status and pay of ECCE teachers are commonly built into salary scales (ILO, 2014a), so that the teachers' living conditions can be poor (Sun et al., 2015). The private sector in particular tends to pay teachers as little as possible to keep costs down (Sun et al., 2015). Teaching pre-primary and the lower primary grades is also widely feminized in both developed and developing countries (Kelleher, 2011), because traditionally the care of young children is seen as women's work. In many countries, this translates to lower pay and less professionalization and respect (Kelleher, 2011). All these factors make it difficult to attract highly qualified ECCE teachers.

However, it is possible to improve conditions: the Republic of Moldova doubled salaries between 2002 and 2008, while Australia, China and Singapore offer special incentives for ECCE teachers. Australia, New Zealand, Portugal and the United Kingdom are taking steps towards pay parity for teachers at all levels (ILO, 2012b).

Another issue concerning the quality of teaching is inequity between school locations. It is a challenge to get trained ECCE teachers to work in poor, rural and otherwise difficult-to-reach communities (Sun et al., 2015). These are

generally less attractive postings, but measures can be taken to address this issue. In Australia and China, teachers are given incentives to take rural hardship postings (Sun et al., 2015). In Brazil, large differences in opportunity for good quality ECCE are related to urban versus rural residence, community and ethnic divisions, and the unevenness of government commitment and investment in the sector (Sun et al., 2015). In response, the government initiated a public–private partnership with the Mauricio Sirotsky Sobrinha Foundation and UNESCO in 2003 to provide in-service training. It promotes and raises the status and self-esteem of teachers through professional support mechanisms, opportunities to learn from each other in communities of practice, and general awareness-raising on the importance of pre-primary schooling (Sun et al., 2015).

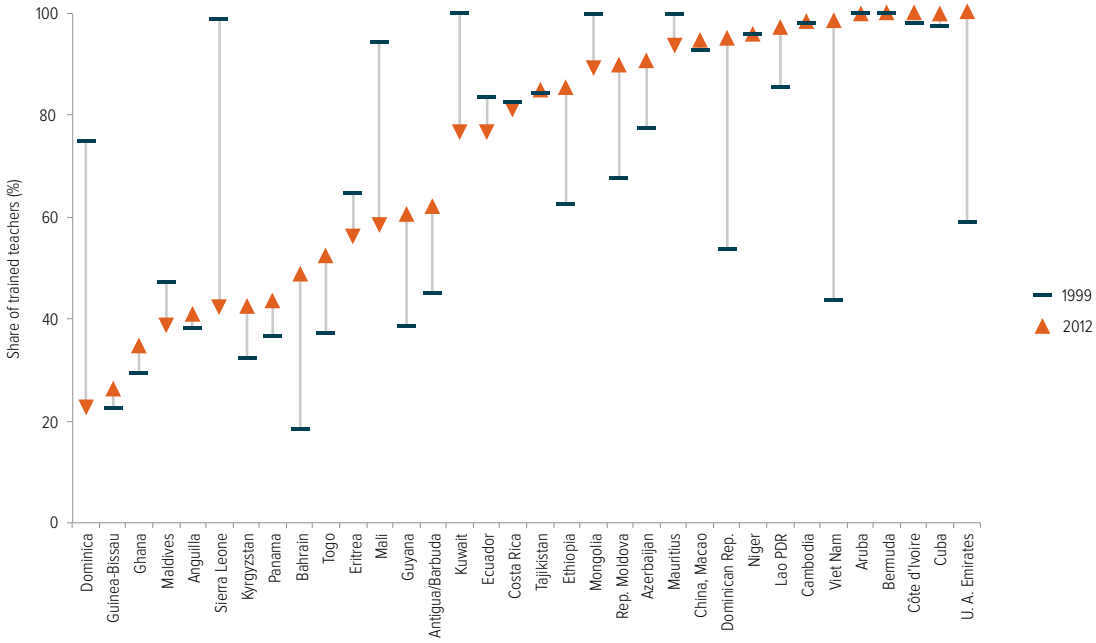
Many countries increased the share of trained teachers in pre-primary education between 1999 and 2012. Relatively few countries with data experienced a decline in their numbers. Being 'qualified' on paper does not guarantee that a teacher has actually had high quality professional development. Nevertheless, data on numbers of trained teachers and ratios of pupils to trained teachers are among the proxy measures of ECCE quality. Among countries with data, low income countries are less likely to have the resources to invest in training and therefore have a low share of trained teachers (**Figure 1.10**). In most middle income countries, a majority of pre-primary school teachers are trained. However, some countries have expanded their teaching force with untrained candidates. Several of the countries where the proportion of trained teachers has shrunk are poor, fragile and conflict-affected including Eritrea, Mali and Sierra Leone.

To achieve quality in ECCE, teachers must receive high quality training

Policies for teacher training and minimum qualifications are needed

To achieve quality in ECCE, teachers must receive the high quality training necessary to fulfil required qualifications, and the requirements must be adhered to. Countries are increasingly defining clear requirements for education and training for pre-primary teachers and have

Figure 1.10: Some countries have significantly increased their share of trained teachers in pre-primary education
Percentage of pre-primary education teachers who are trained, selected countries, 1999 and 2012



Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 10A; UIS database.

become considerably more stringent since 2000. However, many are yet to formalize minimum standards for pre-primary teachers. In Brazil, there is only a set of 'recommended' minimum qualifications (Bastos and Straume, 2013).

In Kenya, ECCE teachers used to be accepted even with incomplete primary school education, but now teachers must have passed lower secondary school examinations and have specific ECCE training. Private sector institutes have stepped in to fill the gap in terms of demand for this training, yet even they face difficulties in ensuring that their staff meets minimum requirements (Manji et al., 2015).

In the United Republic of Tanzania, required qualifications for teaching vary by children's ages. For the pre-primary level, teachers must complete secondary education as well as two years of full-time teacher training, though classroom practice is not incorporated (World Bank, 2012c). For those caring for children aged 2 to 4, a complete secondary education is required, as well as annual training of 40 hours, covering health and cognitive, social and emotional development (World Bank, 2012c). Nigeria has a similar scale of requirements (World Bank, 2013d).

Colombian regulations require teachers to have tertiary education as well as direct ECCE experience, while workers in family and home-based programmes are required to have a university degree as well as ECCE experience (World Bank, 2013b).

Singapore is a regional leader in training for early childhood professionals (Vargas-Barón, 2014). Its Preschool Qualification Accreditation Committee developed a framework for early childhood educator training and accredited training courses starting in 2001, and more stringent requirements were added in 2013 (Sun et al., 2015).

In-service professional development is an important adjunct to training, and the importance of teachers having regular opportunities for it cannot be overstated. Evidence from Kenya shows that older teachers lose skills over time due to lack of in-service training (Ngware et al., 2013).

China's planned approach (**Box 1.9**) offers a variety of strategies to meet the demand for trained ECCE teachers, particularly in rural and remote areas.

Box 1.9: China takes a planned approach to early childhood teacher development

Integrating early childhood education into the national development plan for education, China has worked hard at the national and regional levels to improve the quality of and access to pre-primary schooling, particularly in rural areas. It has focused on teachers' professional development, including redeployment and retraining. In 2008, there were more than twice as many pupils per qualified ECCE teacher in rural areas as there were in towns and cities. It was extremely difficult to recruit trained teachers for rural and remote postings because of low job status and low pay, among other reasons.

One strategy to address this was to retrain primary and secondary school teachers in early childhood education as demand for their previous training declined due to the long-term effects of a falling birth rate. Funds have been available since 2011 to provide in-service training to principals and teachers, including from the private sector, who formerly taught in primary and secondary schools. To meet increased need, more teacher training institutes are planned for most regions. Different types of training have been devised, including short-term intensive training, professional retraining and three month programmes of full-time and intensive training.

Teachers are also given incentives to work in remote rural areas, such as payment of their teacher training course fees as well as monetary incentives. In addition, national legislation has been enacted to raise ECCE teacher salaries. These moves will help raise the status of the profession and attract more new entrants.

Source: Sun et al. (2015).

Conclusions

Supporting children's development at the earliest stages has an enormous impact in terms of better educational and wider societal outcomes. The highest economic returns to investment in education are currently at the early childhood stage. The fact that less advantaged communities, particularly in poorer countries, gain even greater benefits is an additional key argument for investing heavily at this level. Increased social and economic equity can result from building stronger foundations. Since Dakar, progress has been achieved in the number of children worldwide accessing ECCE programmes through a range of services.

A key lesson is that children require more than a pre-primary education before they enter school. It is crucial that support to child development start at the earliest possible age. Multiple sectors need to be involved to support the health and nutrition, as well as the cognitive, social and emotional development of the young child. It is a great challenge to ensure that each of these sectors reaches each and every child, but countries in vastly different contexts are proving that it can be done.

Yet children from marginalized groups are still denied access due to lack of funds, structural inequity and lack of attention to issues of quality. In many countries, families must fund ECCE, particularly where it is left entirely to the private sector, translating to inequitable access and overall underprovision. This is because many poor families cannot afford to pay fees, meaning less demand for ECCE services. To increase demand and ensure equitable access, provision should be funded by government or families provided with a cash transfer to pay the necessary fees.

Not enough has been done to ensure that the quality of provision, particularly related to teachers and teaching, is improved along with access. Many of these issues mirror the challenges found in primary education, as the next chapter discusses. Lessons for ECCE can be learned from observing the challenges involved in expansion of primary education. And getting it right at the early childhood stage will lessen many of the issues related to having to 'catch up' that school systems and their stakeholders face at the primary level and far beyond.

Multiple sectors need to support the health, cognitive, social and emotional development of the young child

Credit: Giacomo Pirozzi/Panos Pictures

CHAPTER 2

Goal 2: Universal primary education

Highlights

- Primary adjusted net enrolment ratios improved significantly, rising at least 20 percentage points from 1999 to 2012 in 17 countries, 11 of which were from sub-Saharan Africa.
- While some increases in enrolment ratios are evident, nearly 58 million children were out of school in 2012, and progress in reducing this number has stalled since 2007.
- Despite progress, dropout remains an issue: in 32 countries, mostly in sub-Saharan Africa, at least 20% of children enrolled in primary school are not likely to reach the last grade.
- Even though disparities in education access have declined in most countries, millions of children continue to lack access to education because of disadvantages such as poverty, gender, location and ethnicity.
- Abolishing school fees was a politically popular initiative that helped attract students, yet families can still pay significant amounts for their children's education.
- So that all children can access education, major efforts must be made to prioritize disadvantaged and marginalized children in the next decade. This is particularly so for the millions of children with disabilities and those living in complex emergency situations, and more must be done to identify these children.

Improvements in access to education are one of the leading successes of the EFA movement. This chapter monitors progress in achieving the goal of universal primary education by 2015. It reviews policies to increase primary school access such as fee abolition, school construction and cash transfer programmes. However, millions of children are excluded from primary education due to factors such as poverty, ethnicity, language and disability. The chapter also describes the impact of complex emergencies and armed conflict on education.

> *"India has successfully moved towards reaching the EFA goals, especially in ensuring near Universal Elementary Education and enrolment of girls. India's efforts have been backed by the Right of Children to Free and Compulsory Education Act, 2009 and the national Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan programme. To ensure continued participation of girls in education, Beti Bachao Beti Padhao (Save the Girl, Educate the Girl) initiative has recently been launched in India."*
>
> Minister Smriti Zubin Irani, Minister of Human Resource Development, India

Goal 2 Universal primary education

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

Universal primary education was the most prominent of the Education for All (EFA) goals, as reflected by its inclusion in the Millennium Development Goals. It has been well funded, politically supported and extensively monitored; the popular appeal of providing access to education for all is clear. Despite this, it will not be realized by 2015.

What have countries achieved since the World Education Forum in 2000 and the resulting Dakar Framework for Action? This chapter addresses four questions to examine what progress has been made towards the achievement of the goal, what has been done to accomplish this progress, which countries or populations have been successful or left behind, and why.

A stocktaking of country achievements since Dakar shows significant increases in the number of children who entered and participated in primary school, accompanied by a reduction in the percentage of children who have never been to school, though success has varied in reducing the rural–urban gap for these children. Challenges to reach universal primary education include large out-of-school populations; primary completion, especially for their poorest people; and better progression through the primary school cycle.

Key factors contributing to universal primary education include abolishing school fees; increasing demand for education through initiatives such as cash transfers, school feeding programmes and take-home rations; and increasing the supply of schools and classrooms, as well as investing in health and infrastructure.

The first part of this chapter of the *EFA Global Monitoring Report (GMR)* provides an overall assessment of success towards universal primary education before examining how the factors described above of increasing both the demand and supply of education support this goal. An important supply-side development since Dakar has been the proliferation of education programmes provided by the private sector and by community, non-formal and religious schools that meet the demands for education provision as well as desires of parents.

The second part of the chapter describes the key theme of reaching the marginalized. Without success in this area, universal primary education will never be possible. Improvements are needed to reach the poorest populations, ethnic and linguistic minorities, working children, nomadic communities, children affected by HIV and AIDS, slum dwellers and children with disabilities. The chapter ends with an examination of the evolving challenge of providing education in complex emergencies, an issue that has taken on greater visibility and mobilization in recent years and for which challenges remain.

Monitoring progress

Despite significant progress, the goal of universal primary education by 2015 has not been met and even the limited aspiration of getting all children into school is unfulfilled. In 2012, nearly 58 million children of primary school age (typically between 6 and 11 years of age) were not enrolled in school. The reasons include demographic pressures, conflict situations, and a lack of adequate commitment in certain countries with large out-of-school populations, such as Nigeria and Pakistan. The marginalization of certain socio-economic groups also plays a part.

In 2012, nearly 58 million children of primary school age were not enrolled in school

The closer countries get to reaching the goal, the harder it becomes to make substantial additional progress without addressing the key structural barriers that prevent children from

attending school. Even relatively well-targeted programmes, such as Brazil's Bolsa Familia, do not fully cover the extremely poor and therefore do not address their challenges (Garcia-Jaramillo and Maranti, 2015).

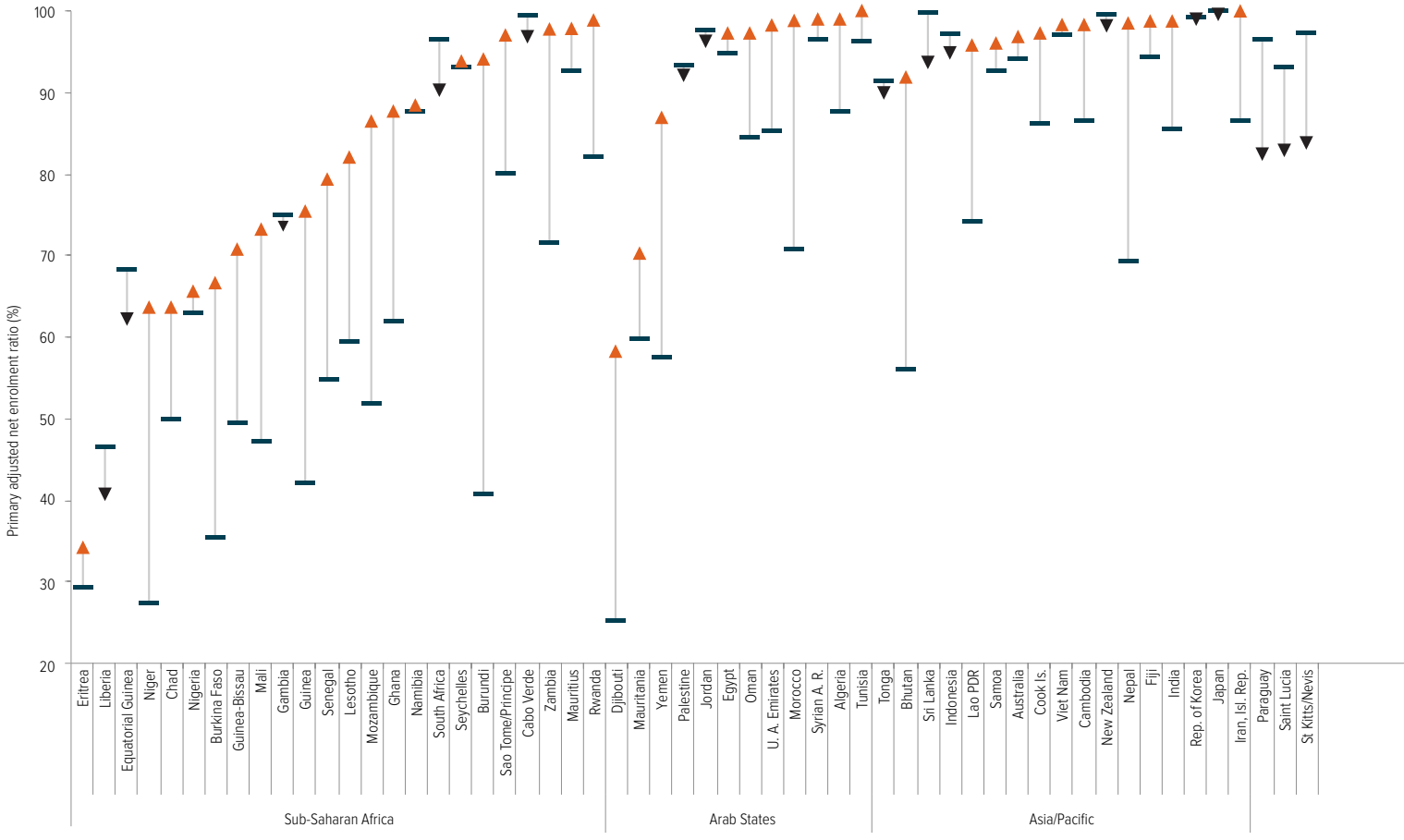
While school entry and enrolment are a continued priority, efforts to address the issues of quality, age-appropriate entry and schooling costs have not matched need. As a result, significant problems persist with dropout, progression and completion levels.

Official recognition of the millions of children living with disabilities and in complex emergencies remains an issue. The paucity of data concerning these children means the scale of the challenge is likely underestimated.

In spite of these challenges, some countries have clearly improved their education performance since Dakar. With a strong commitment to universalizing education, countries including Burundi, Ethiopia, Morocco, Mozambique, Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania achieved substantial, albeit uneven, progress on several indicators of primary schooling such as reducing gender and income disparities in school access, net enrolment ratios and primary attainment rates.

The experiences of Nepal, Rwanda and Sierra Leone suggest that countries can rise from conflict situations and greatly improve their education systems. Sierra Leone began its slow climb out of an 11 year political conflict and saw substantial improvement in education after 2005.

Figure 2.1: Significant progress has been achieved towards universal primary education
Primary education adjusted net enrolment ratio, by region, 1999 and 2012



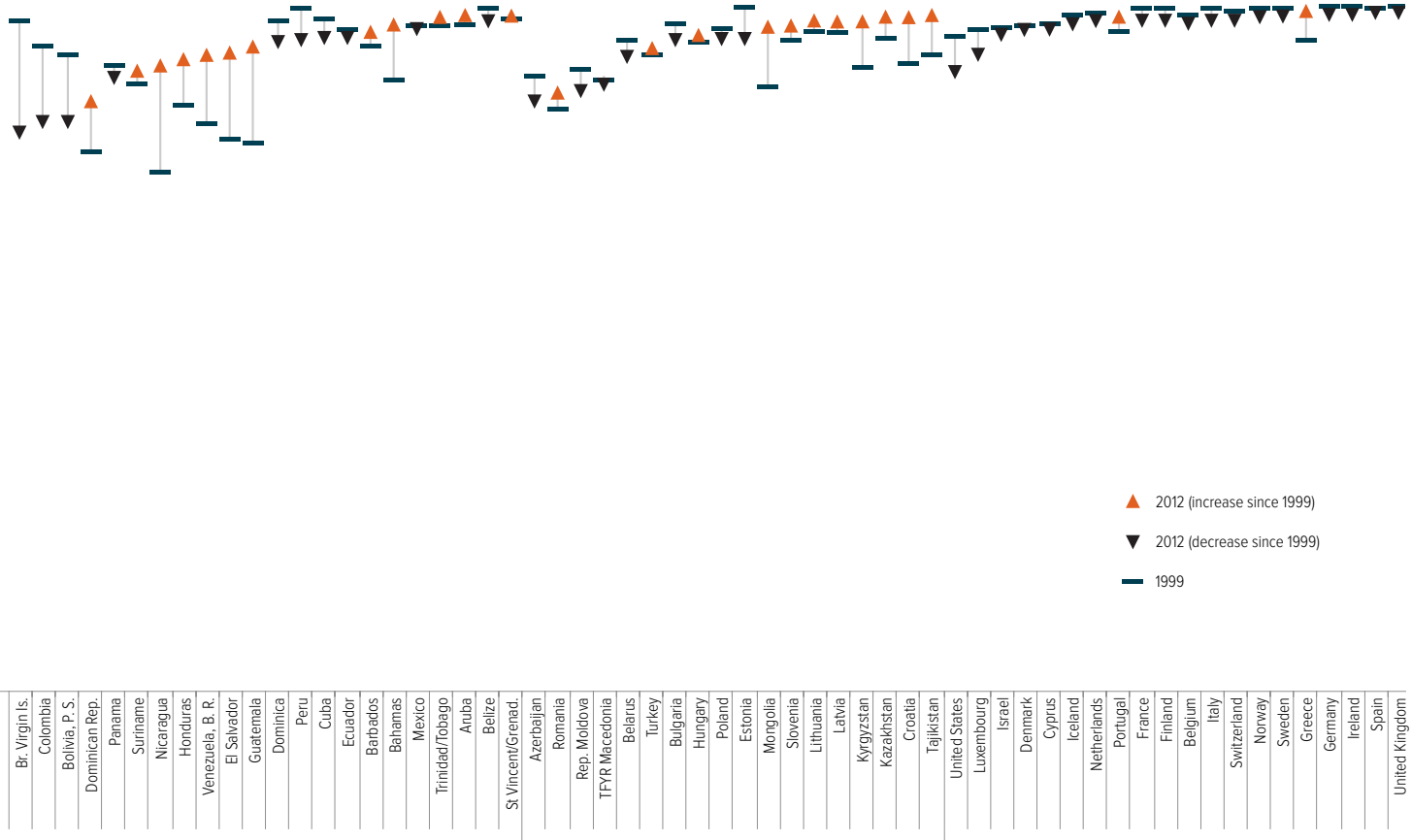
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 5; UIS database.

Latin American countries, such as the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Guatemala, Nicaragua and Suriname, have made tremendous progress in reducing the number of poor children who have never been to school.

As discussed in the chapter, different policies to achieve progress included increasing education expenditure while abolishing fees, investing in school construction and improving their emphasis on equity. Especially in Latin American countries, improvements are likely attributable to school incentive programmes, including cash transfers, as well as curricular reforms targeted to indigenous populations. Many countries have also introduced reforms of governance, curriculum and teaching to enhance education quality (see Chapter 6) which may have helped completion rates.

There were substantial improvements in net enrolment ratios

Primary adjusted net enrolment, a key indicator to monitor universal primary education, has remained relatively high for many high income countries in North America and Western Europe, East Asia and the Pacific, and Central and Eastern Europe and Central Asia in the years since Dakar. Among the countries with data, 17 increased net enrolment ratios by over 20 percentage points between 1999 and 2012 (**Figure 2.1**). In the Arab States, Morocco's net enrolment ratio increased from 71% in 1999 to universal primary enrolment (99%) in 2013, a gain due to a long-term emphasis on school construction in rural areas and gender equity reforms (World Bank, 2005, 2013). Bhutan, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Nepal provide examples of stellar improvement



Burundi increased its net enrolment rate from 41% in 2000 to 94 % in 2010

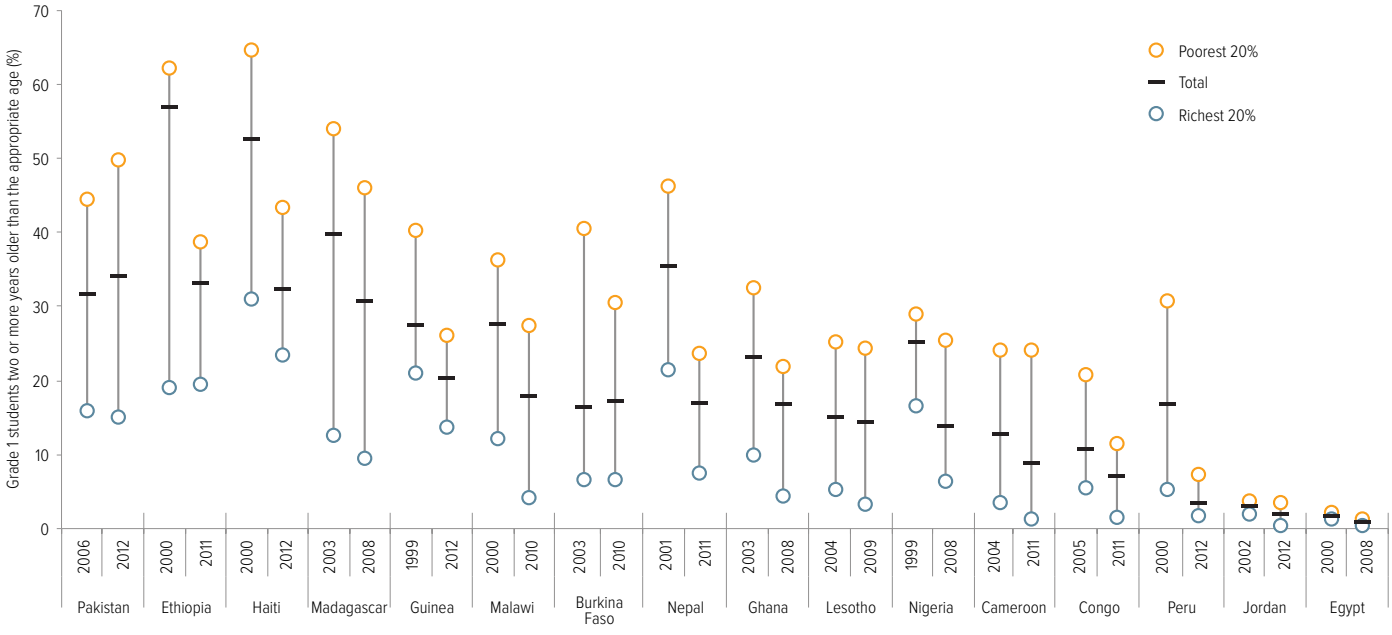
in net enrolment ratios in Asia. In Latin America, El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua increased their net enrolment ratios by over 10 percentage points. Other countries, mainly in sub-Saharan Africa, achieved considerable progress even if primary enrolment is still far from universal. Burundi stands out: its net enrolment ratio increased from less than 41% in 2000 to 94% in 2010. Net enrolment ratios increased from 27% to almost 64% in Niger and from 42% to 76% in Guinea. A significant accomplishment is demonstrated by steady increases in net enrolment ratios even in some countries that experienced significant population growth. For example, in Burkina Faso and Mozambique the school age population grew by 50% or more between 1999 and 2012, and net enrolment ratios simultaneously increased by over 66%.

Trend projections, with further details in Chapter 7, Projections, indicate that of the 140 countries with available data, only 73 countries will achieve universal primary enrolment (that is, adjusted net enrolment ratios of at least 97%) by 2015. Most of these countries are located in North America and Western Europe and Latin America and the Caribbean. Among the 67 countries that will not reach the target, 13, mainly from sub-Saharan Africa, will be far from the goal with net enrolment ratios below 80%.

Enrolling a child at the appropriate age at the beginning of primary education is another measure of progress. Over-age students face pressure to begin working and generating income, which can lead to dropout. They can also create difficult multi-age learning situations for teachers and other students (Lloyd, 2011; Wang, 2011). Late entry is a problem of equity as well, as it has a greater effect on disadvantaged children (UNESCO, 2012b). In Pakistan in 2012, 50% of students from the poorest households and 15% from the richest, were two or more years older than the appropriate age in grade 1.

There has been some progress in enrolment of students at the appropriate age. The percentage of the grade 1 population two or more years above the appropriate age declined by over 20 percentage points in Ethiopia and Haiti, and fell to a very low level in Peru (**Figure 2.2**). Age-appropriate entry is likely to have been incentivized by various policies, including the increase in early childhood development programmes (Engle et al., 2007), and cash transfer programs (Maluccio and Flores, 2005).

Figure 2.2: Fewer children are entering primary school late
Percentage of grade 1 students who are two or more years older than the appropriate age, by wealth, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Note: For further information on the construction of the wealth index, see Glossary.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team analysis (2015), based on Demographic and Health Survey data.

For example, pre-primary gross enrolment ratios increased strikingly from 11% in 1999 to 84% in 2013 in Nepal (see Chapter 1). These improvements in age-appropriate entry contribute substantial improvements to net primary enrolment ratios.

Fewer children have never been to school

Along with improvement in net enrolment ratios, the percentage of children who have never been to school fell in the vast majority of countries. Among countries where at least 20% of children did not go to school in 2000, 10 – Bangladesh, Burundi, Cambodia, the Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Haiti, Mozambique, Sierra Leone, Nepal and the United Republic of Tanzania – had more than halved the percentage by 2010. The percentage of children who had never been to school decreased by remarkable rates in Ethiopia (from 67% in 2000 to 28% in 2011) and the United Republic of Tanzania (from 47% in 1999 to 12% in 2010) (**Figure 2.3**). Haiti made a significant recovery from a severe earthquake, food crisis and floods, more than halving the number of children who had never been to school between 2000 and 2012. Improvements in going to school were particularly impressive in countries with continued and significant school age population growth, such as Burkina Faso, Mozambique and Sierra Leone, where it is harder to maintain the effort to bring all children into schools.

Evaluating progress is not simple. A focus only on younger children may overestimate the percentage of children who never go to school, since many countries have significant over-age entry. In Zambia, 13% of those aged 9 to 12 had never been to school, but this was true of only 3.5% of those aged 12 to 15. Also, an evaluation of a country's average progress masks internal disparities, such as the gap in rural and urban access to education.

Progress in reducing the rural–urban gap varies, though rural access to education generally improved as many countries reduced the distance to education in rural areas. Sierra Leone is an example where average progress in schooling intake was accompanied by a substantial reduction in rural disadvantage: the rural–urban gap in the percentage of children who had never been to school declined from about 31 percentage points (59% in rural areas, 27% in urban areas) in 2000 to about 8 percentage points (19% in rural areas, 11% in urban areas) in 2010. In other countries, the rural–urban gap persisted in spite of average improvements. Guinea saw only a slight reduction, from about 41 percentage points in 1999 (66% in rural areas, 25% in urban areas) to about 35 percentage points in 2012 (48% in rural areas, 13% in urban areas). In the worst example, rural access in Nigeria worsened between 2003 and 2013, increasing rural–urban inequality.

Large out-of-school populations remain in some countries

The high-population countries, which had the largest numbers of out-of-school children in 1999, continued to have very high out-of-school populations in 2012 (UNESCO, 2014g). Some of the smaller countries that have more than 800,000 children out of school, such as Burkina Faso, Niger, South Sudan and Sudan, are affected by conflict or are extremely poor.

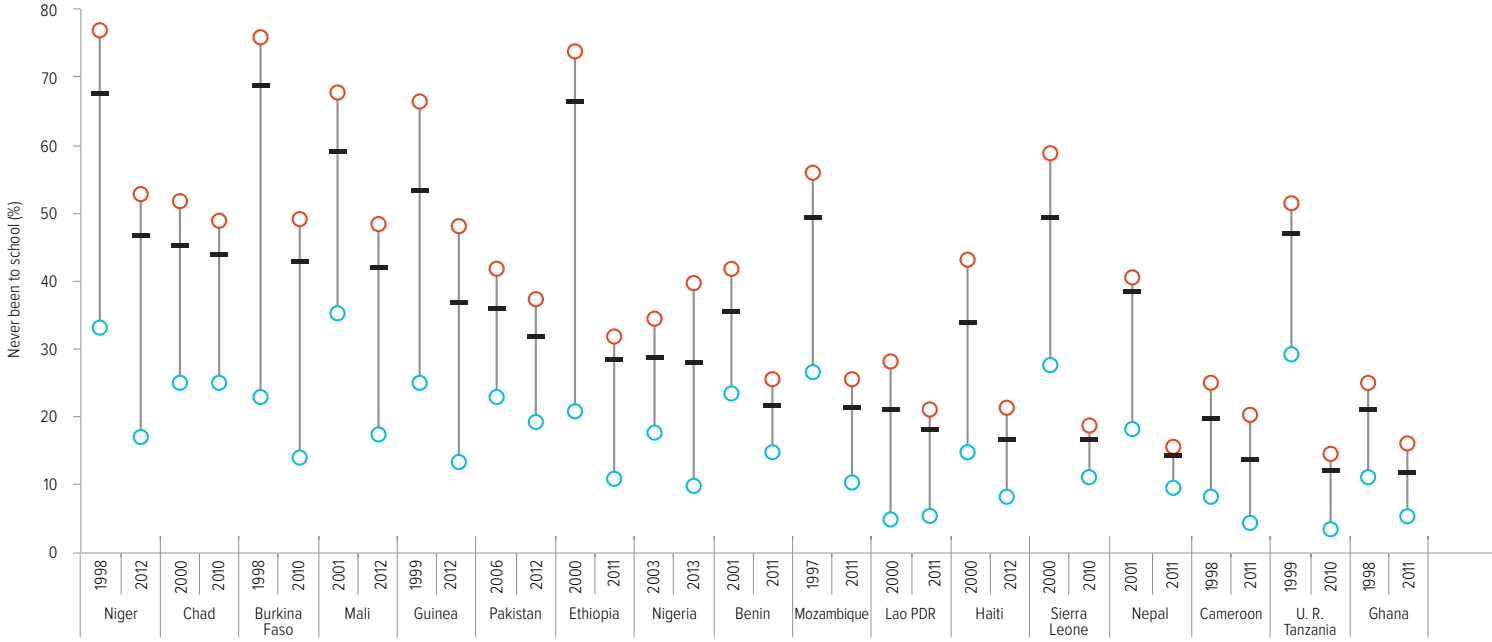
India increased its net enrolment ratio as GNP per capita improved, suggesting a more equitable distribution of economic gains

The progress in the large countries has been quite different. India made marked progress, increasing its net enrolment ratio significantly as GNP per capita improved, suggesting a more equitable distribution of economic gains. By contrast, Nigeria and Pakistan have made far less progress than would be expected given their initial starting points on enrolment ratios and current per capita income. Nigeria has lacked progress in nearly all education indicators. And between 1999 and 2012, even though Nigeria's GNP per capita grew substantially, the progress in its adjusted net enrolment ratio and out-of-school population nearly stalled. In Pakistan, despite some reduction in the percentage of out-of-school children, household survey data suggest entrenched inequalities.

What sets Nigeria and Pakistan apart from other post-colonial countries is their size, their geopolitical importance and the complexity and frequency of ethnic and religious strife. Democracy is also weak. Neither country has been able to develop a unified voice of civil society, with organizations instead divided along ethnic, kinship or religious lines (Ejiogu, 2011; Ukiwo, 2003; Wilkinson, 2000). The political leadership, civilian or military, has been identified as corrupt, stealing the vast oil wealth in Nigeria or pilfering public funds and post-9/11 aid funds in Pakistan (Agbiboa, 2012; Khan,

Figure 2.3: The chances of going to school have improved in most countries

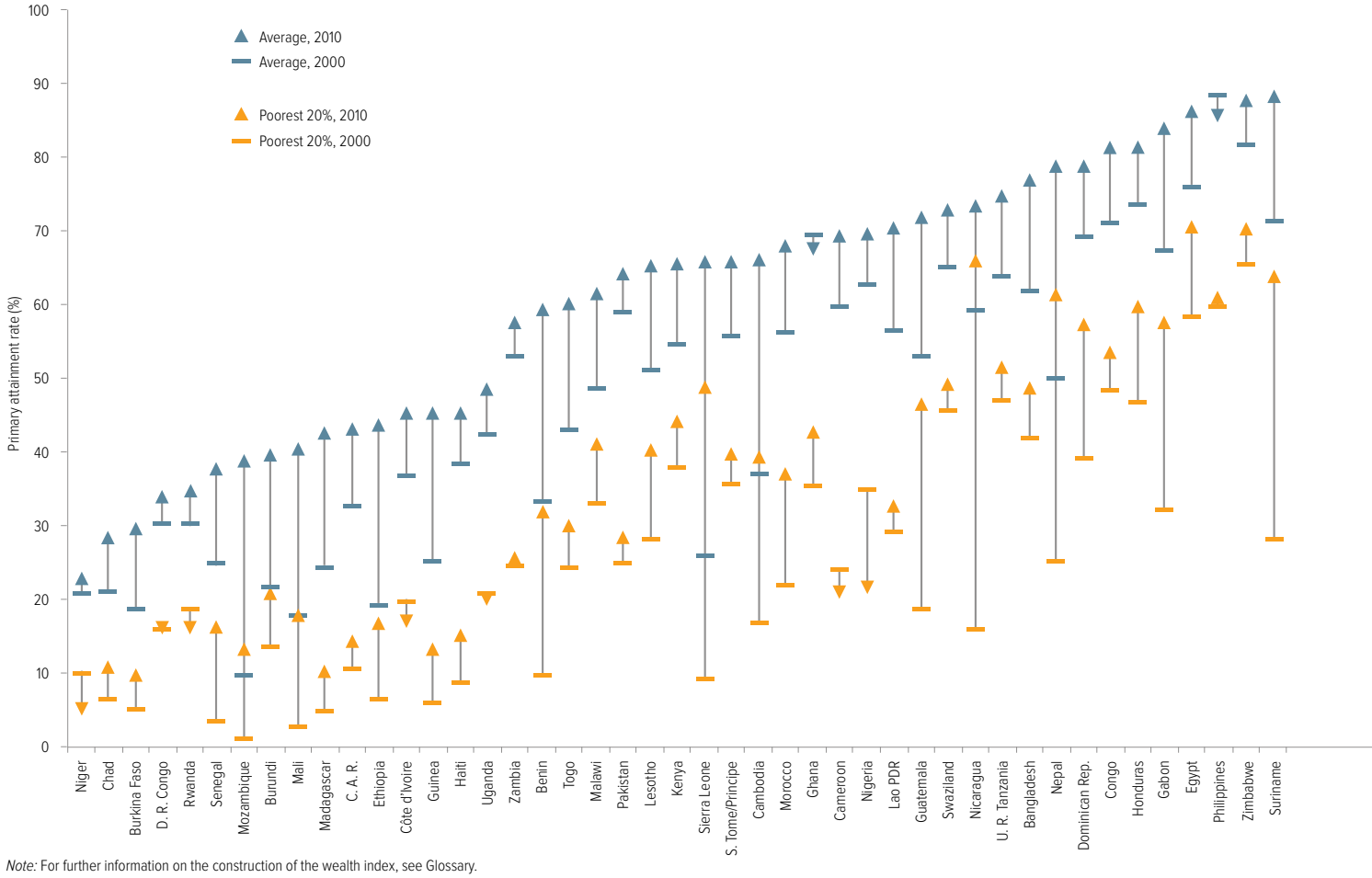
Percentage of children who had never been to school, by location, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team analysis (2015), based on Demographic and Health Survey, Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys and national household survey data.

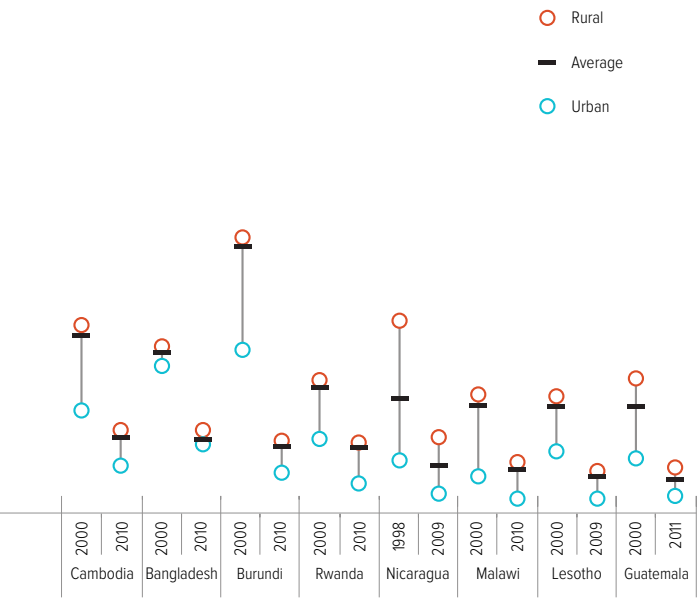
Figure 2.4: Primary school completion has broadly improved in most countries

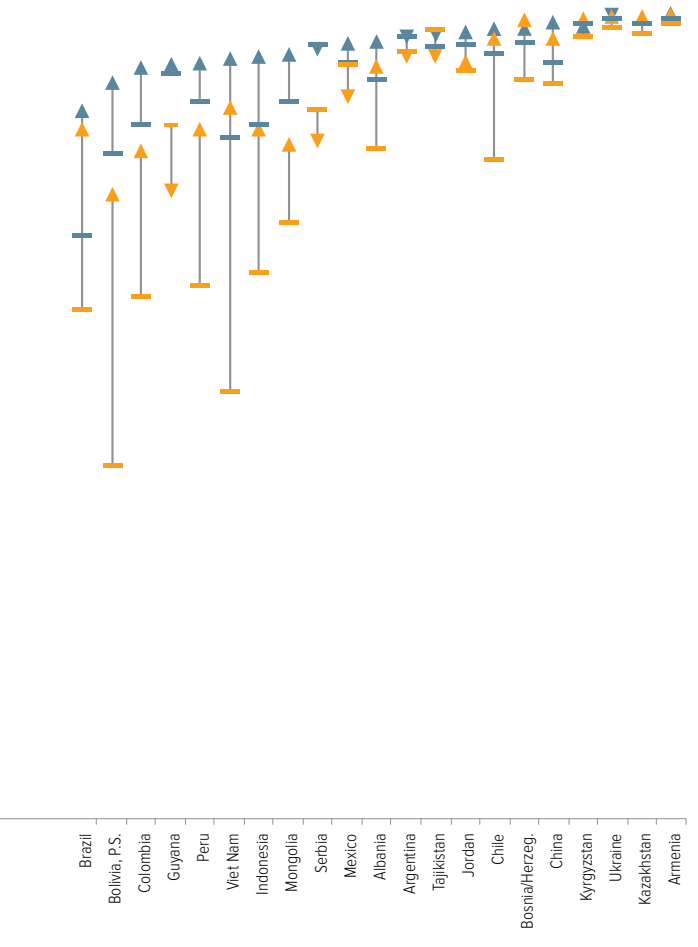
Primary education attainment rate, mean and poorest quintile, circa 2000 and 2010



Note: For further information on the construction of the wealth index, see Glossary.

Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team analysis (2015) based on Demographic and Health Survey, Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey and national household survey data.





2007). This state of affairs has led to persistent social inequality and poor access to education.

Most countries have a long way to go on primary completion, especially for the poorest people

Primary school completion increased in the vast majority of countries between 2000 and 2010 (**Figure 2.4**). Eight of the countries with available data increased primary attainment rates by over 20 percentage points: Benin, Cambodia, Ethiopia, Guinea, Mali, Mozambique, Nepal and Sierra Leone. But progress has been far from adequate, especially for the worst-performing countries, signalling enduring issues of affordability and of the quality or relevance of the education.

Poverty affects primary attainment. Some countries, especially in Latin America, have made significant progress in access to schooling for the very poor. In Nicaragua, the primary attainment rate among children in the poorest households increased from 16% to 66% over the decade. The attainment rates of children from the poorest households also increased sizeably in other Latin American countries, such as the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Brazil, Guatemala, Peru and Suriname, as well as in Benin, Cambodia, Nepal, Sierra Leone and Viet Nam. In Albania and Mongolia, average primary school attainment rates improved by over 4 percentage points, and attainment rates improved significantly more among the very poor.

However, while primary attainment rates have improved in most countries, the gaps between the poor and the average population have also increased in some. This suggests policy reforms have benefited wealthier households more substantially. In Nigeria, primary attainment among the poorest households actually fell, from 35% in 2003 to 22% in 2013, with the gap between the average and poorest households increasing by about 20 percentage points.

In Nigeria, primary attainment among the poorest households fell from 35% in 2003 to 22% in 2013

Progression through the cycle varies among countries

As previous GMRs have emphasized (UNESCO, 2012b), dropout is a serious problem in low-income countries, especially among late entrants and poor children. Since Dakar, positive trends in survival to the last grade and its counterpart, reduced likelihood of early dropout, indicate progress by countries

in providing relevant education of good quality throughout the primary cycle and reducing the cost to government of high dropout and low retention rates.

Trend projections show that of the 139 countries with sufficient data, in 54 countries, mostly from Central Asia, Central and Eastern Europe, and Western Europe, almost all children enrolled in primary school would reach the last grade by 2015. At the other end of the spectrum, in 32 countries, mostly from sub-Saharan Africa, at least 20% of children are likely to drop out early and to not reach the last grade. Projections based on cohort analysis, which combines intake and survival rates, show an even bleaker picture – only 13 out of 106 countries are likely to have at least 97% of children entering school and reaching the last grade (see Chapter 7, Projections, for further discussion).

Comparison of primary adjusted net enrolment and survival rate to grade 5 shows that many countries, including Burkina Faso, El Salvador, Ghana, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Morocco and Niger have been able to increase both at the same time (**Figure 2.5**). Burundi and Mali have achieved substantial growth in net enrolment while survival rates did not decrease substantially, suggesting relative success at absorbing students. By contrast, in Chad net enrolment increased by nearly 14 percentage points, but survival to grade 5 decreased by over 9 percentage points.

In sub-Saharan Africa, 15 countries have abolished school fees since 2000

High repetition is a sign of inefficiency in the education system, and poses significant financial and education costs. As noted in Chapter 1, high repetition in early primary grades indicates that while early childhood education promotes primary school readiness, there has been an evident lack of access to it. The percentage of repeaters throughout the primary cycle decreased by over 10 percentage points in at least 14 countries (**Figure 2.6**). In Mauritania and Senegal, the percentage of repeaters fell from more than 14% to less than 4% between 1999 and 2012, and in Brazil, the percentage of repeaters declined from 24% to 9% in 2011.

It is difficult to evaluate the reasons for changes in the extent of repetition. Improved rates could signal increased efficiency and quality, but could also be due to the adoption of automatic promotion policies that reduce repetition without necessarily improving learning. In Brazil, where repetition has long been considered a central policy challenge for education, reductions in the percentage of repeaters are at least partly a result of extensive reforms to improve early childhood education access, increase remedial education and accelerated learning programmes, and alleviate schooling costs (Bruns et al., 2012; Schwartz, 2012). In Burundi, the fact that the percentage of repeaters increased substantially may signal that increases in enrolment were not accompanied by adequate efforts to respond to new entrants' needs.

Substantial progress was made in user fee abolition

At the Dakar Forum in 2000, states committed themselves to offering 'free and compulsory primary education in accordance with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and other international commitments.' The goal of free, compulsory, universal primary education actually predates the EFA movement (Bruns et al., 2012; Morgan et al., 2012; Somerset, 2009; World Bank and UNICEF, 2009), but momentum has increased since the movement was launched in 1990. Most countries now have, in principle, schooling free of tuition. Based on GMR team research, progress has been particularly impressive in sub-Saharan Africa, where 15 countries have adopted legislation abolishing school fees since 2000. Seven have done so through constitutional guarantees and eight through other forms of legislation. An additional eight adopted free primary education through non-legislative policy measures.

A focus on how to benefit the poor through finance has supported goal 2's aspirations for universal primary education. Development partners, such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, developed growth strategies in the early 2000s that benefited the poor, considering whether interventions had positive social impact on them and whether wealth was distributed more equally (World Bank, 2002, 2014b). The household burden caused by school fees and indirect costs were prominently highlighted as a form of unjust,

regressive tax (Hillman and Jenkner, 2004). The Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Initiative and Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative, as well as the establishment of the Global Partnership for Education, may have helped increase resources for education and other priority areas.

Free education became politically appealing

One of the major reforms since 2000 is the policy where every child must go to school. This has assisted every person to taste the fruits of education. It may have robbed the farmers of their labour force, but it has given them the seeds for a better life in the future.

– Sonam, teacher in Bhutan

The significant uptake of user fee abolition policies was also motivated by domestic politics. Fee abolition is a popular election agenda in low income African countries. A study of African elections and education policies noted 16 instances of user fee abolition in sub-Saharan Africa between 1990 and 2007: 11 countries were found to have abolished school fees immediately after elections, and in 8 of those instances, a new national leader had been elected (Harding and Stasavage, 2014).

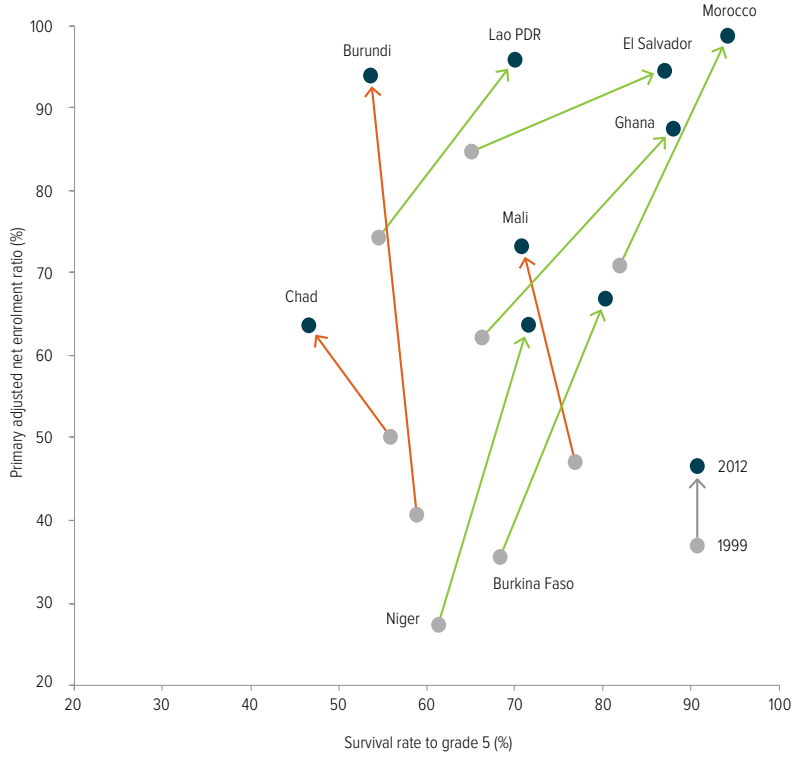
Abolishing school fees is a popular campaign position that has seeped into national political discourse and public consciousness. When it is implemented, the results are seen and felt by the population, and credit is likely given to the political leader responsible. In Uganda's 1996 election, emphasis on universal primary education was seen as popular with the electorate and increased throughout the electoral campaign. After the elections, President Museveni reportedly attributed his victory to it (Stasavage, 2005). Leaders in countries emerging from conflict have viewed school fee abolition as a symbolic fresh start. Liberia, after 14 years of conflict with extremely poor human development indicators, abolished school fees in 2006 (World Bank, 2010c).

Regional political momentum has also prompted adoption of the policy. Mozambique suspended school fees to keep pace with developments in Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi and Uganda (World Bank and UNICEF, 2009). The 2009 Right to Education (RTE) Act of India, a key legislative advance, was monitored by neighbouring Pakistan as it prepared its own RTE Act, passed in 2012 (Chopra, 2012; Jagmag, 2012).

The additional benefits of the policy for building capacity of the education system have contributed to its appeal. Abolishing school fees encouraged governments to decentralize financial resources and mobilize other stakeholders, which has indirectly built administrative capacity to meet the EFA goals. In Ghana, a capitation grant programme used audits to determine national needs for teachers, infrastructure and classrooms. This built national momentum for fee abolition, which received support from faith-based organizations and the private sector. In Kenya, the government decided to release funds directly to individual school accounts, and commercial banks entered into partnership with the government to offer services at a reduced rate to all 18,000 public primary schools (World Bank and UNICEF, 2009).

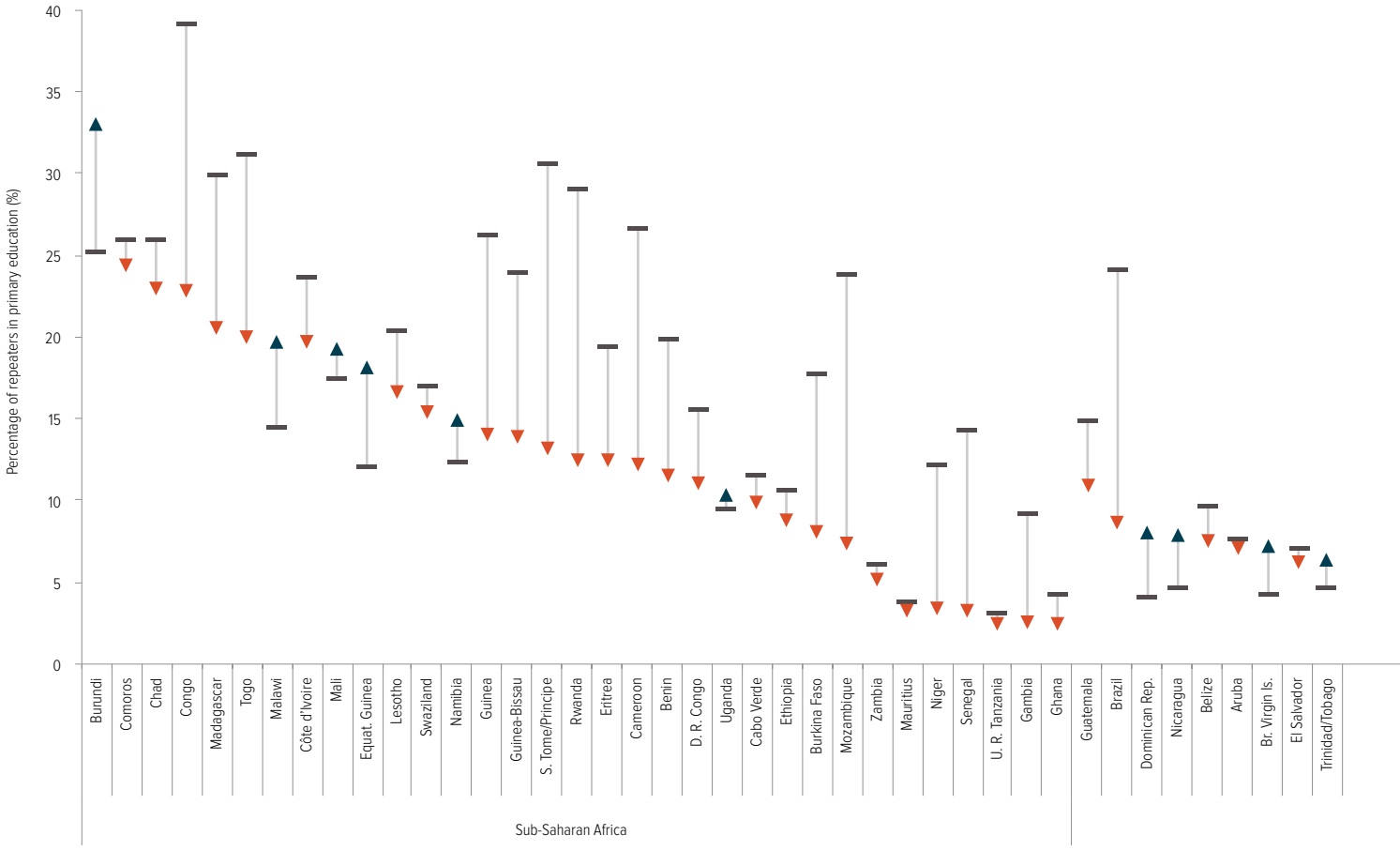
Leaders in countries emerging from conflict have viewed school fee abolition as a symbolic fresh start

Figure 2.5: Countries vary in progress on the relationship between increased enrolment and survival to grade 5
Primary education adjusted net enrolment ratio and survival rate to grade 5, selected countries, 1999 and 2012



Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 5 and 7 (website); UIS database.

Figure 2.6: The percentage of repeaters has declined in most countries
Percentage of repeaters in primary education, 1999 and 2012



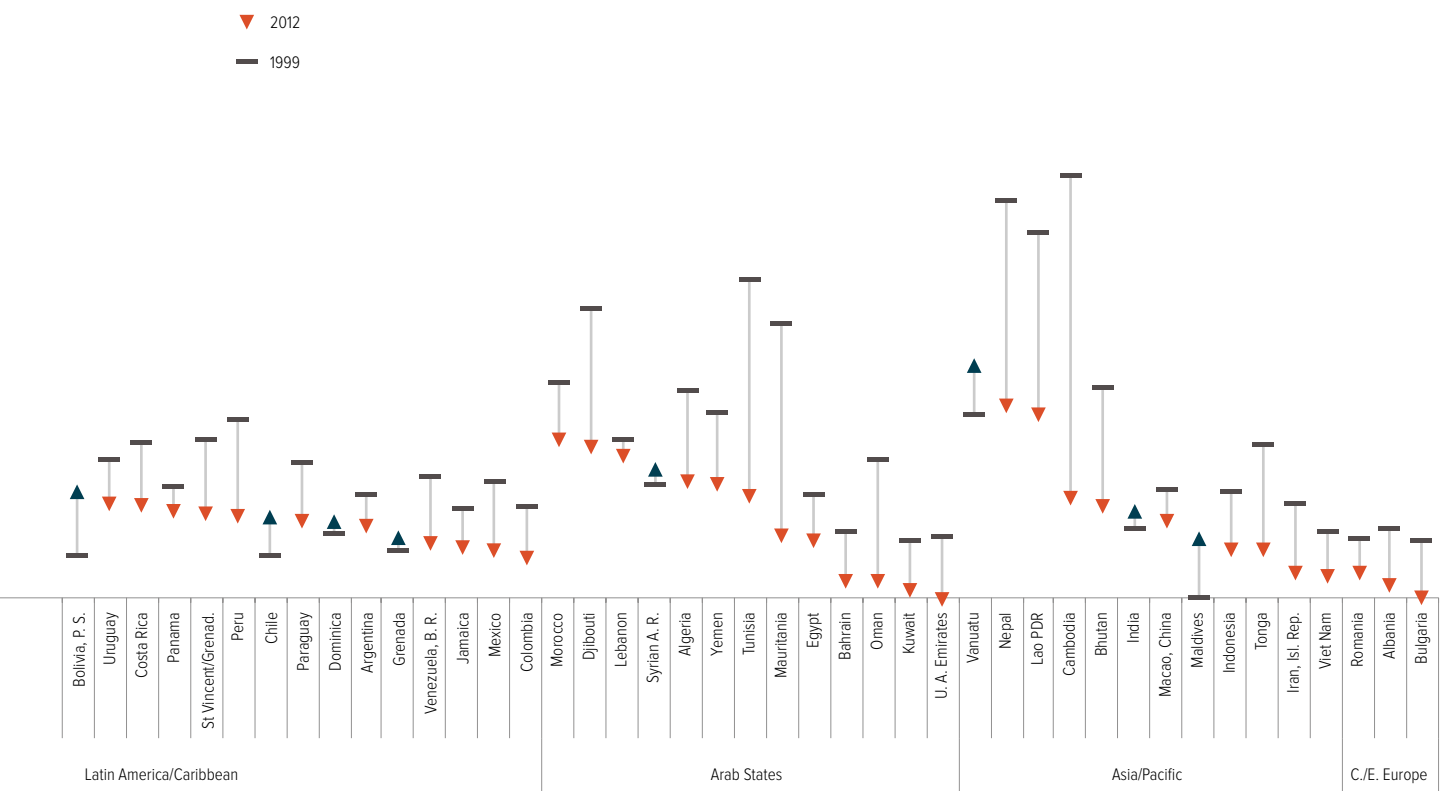
Note: The graph plots all countries where the percentage of repeaters was above 3% in 1999 or 2012.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 6; UIS database.

Variations were seen in rollout and financing

Some countries, including Ethiopia, Malawi and Uganda, initiated the reform all at once throughout the education system. Others phased in reforms in different districts, grades and levels, or through targeted exemptions for vulnerable populations (Morgan et al., 2012; World Bank and UNICEF, 2009). The sudden expansion of enrolment following user fee abolition can strain the primary education system. This occurred following Malawi's 'big bang' approach in 1994 (World Bank and UNICEF, 2009). As a result, most countries have used a sequenced approach. Lesotho government officials visited Malawi and Uganda to learn about their experience abolishing school fees, then decided to roll out free primary education one grade at a time starting in 2002 (Liang et al., 2005). In Benin, school fees were initially abolished in the mid-1990s for girls in rural areas with limited education access before the policy was expanded nationally in 2006 (Tomasevski, 2006). In Ghana, a pilot phase of a capitation grant programme targeted 40 poor districts before civil society pressures prompted a quick nationwide expansion (World Bank and UNICEF, 2009).

Since the early 2000s, countries have used capitation grants, based on the number of students and other criteria, to finance school needs beyond teacher salaries. While some countries use enrolment data alone as the basis for capitation, others account for disadvantages faced by schools and families. Kenya's US$14 per student capitation grant was to be used

Substantial progress was made in user fee abolition



for textbooks, instructional materials and other costs, with a higher amount available for children with disabilities (Tomasevski, 2006). In the United Republic of Tanzania, 40% of the US$10 per student grant was supposed to be spent on textbooks; the government also provided development grants for sanitation and clean water supply (Bentaouet-Kattan and Burnett, 2004).

Fee abolition attracted students

Fee abolition had a strong positive impact on enrolment in the years after its implementation, confirming that school fees are a cost that deters access (UNESCO, 2003, 2012b). Analysis of experiences in countries such as Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, the United Republic of Tanzania and Uganda found that fee abolition increased the likelihood of students enrolling in school (Alloush, 2010; Deininger, 2003; Morgan et al., 2012; Muyanga et al., 2010). Fee abolition in 2005 in Burundi was associated with a sharp reduction in the percentage of children of primary school age that had never been to school. By contrast, in the neighbouring Democratic Republic of the Congo, there was no evidence of similar progress, since fees were only formally abolished in 2010 and there has been no study since of the policy's impact (UNESCO, 2014g).

Importantly, eliminating school fees increased enrolment of disadvantaged groups such as girls and orphans in countries including Kenya, Malawi, Timor-Leste, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia (Al-Samarrai and Zaman, 2007; Grogan, 2009;

Bentaouet-Kattan, 2006; Nicola, 2010; World Bank and UNICEF, 2009). Uganda has been particularly successful: studies found that fee abolition for primary education reduced delayed entry into schooling, incentivized enrolment and reduced dropout, particularly for girls and for children in rural areas (Deininger, 2003; Grogan, 2009; Nishimura et al., 2009).

Many countries lacked adequate and timely financing

Capitation grants provided through fee abolition initiatives to expand education systems were often insufficient, poorly delivered and inadequately targeted. The amount of capitation was usually lower than what schools in most sub-Saharan African countries had collected from parents, forcing them to manage more students with fewer resources (Bentaouet-Kattan, 2006; Nishimura et al., 2009; Tomasevski, 2006). In most countries, grants were not indexed to inflation, and lost significant value in real terms over time. In Sierra Leone, the subsidy amount of US$2.20 per student per year was set in 2010 and even then deemed too low to cover schools' regular operating costs. This and payment delays led to reinstituting school fees (Pôle de Dakar et al., 2013). Recent qualitative research from Lesotho recorded stakeholders arguing that the per capita allocation per pupil was not appropriate as it did not account for schools' differing needs (Lefoka et al., 2014).

Delivery of grants has been at times inadequate. In India, monitoring of financing allocations and funding delivery to implement the RTE found that funds were not allocated on time because of banking delays, and did not always reach schools. There were significant regional disparities in funding delivery: in 2011/12, 75% of all schools received the mandatory grants, but only 26% did in Meghalaya state (Accountability Initiative, 2013). In South Africa, a no-fee policy targeted to the poorest schools was expanded to cover 60% of schools in 2008 and 2009. But significant implementation lags left many poor households still paying fees and the frequency of non-attendance attributable to school fees increased (Nordstrum, 2012). Another substantial problem was well-documented corruption in capitation grant programmes, including in Kenya and Uganda (Bold et al., 2010).

Some approaches succeeded by increasing demand

Schooling is rarely free despite legislative and policy commitments to fee abolition; there are many other costs to families. The Dakar Framework stated that, 'Wider social policies, interventions and incentives should be used to mitigate indirect opportunity costs of attending school.' Initiatives to increase family demand for primary schooling need to reduce direct and indirect financial burdens such as transport, examination papers, school lunch and extra tuition (Bentaouet-Kattan and Burnett, 2004; UNESCO, 2012b). It has been shown that providing school uniforms decreases dropout, reduces absenteeism and encourages grade progression (Duflo et al., 2006; Evans et al., 2009).

Social protection programmes include demand-side measures for improving education, such as cash transfer and school feeding programmes. Scholarships, stipends and bursaries are popular ways to reduce costs for vulnerable groups, especially girls, as discussed in Chapter 5. An analysis of 146 social protection interventions aimed at improving education outcomes conducted for this GMR found that over two-thirds of the programmes were conditional or unconditional cash transfers, 17% were focused on school feeding and take-home rations, and the remainder were fee waiver or family allowance programmes. Over half targeted primary education (Bruns et al., 2012; Evans et al., 2009; Garcia-Jaramillo and Maranti, 2015).

Food for education initiatives are the most widespread social protection programmes

School feeding programmes and take-home rations

Food for education initiatives are the most widespread social protection programmes, and have reached 368 million children in 169 countries (WFP, 2013). School feeding programmes help ensure that children who attend school remain healthy. Initially expanded as the most effective means of reaching hungry children, they were galvanized by the consequences of severe food and financial crises, and the realization that the policy could be scaled up fairly rapidly (Bundy et al., 2009; Lister et al., 2011; WFP, 2013). Popular demand is clear. In El Salvador, school feeding is fully incorporated into national planning and was a

flagship programme of the last two presidential campaigns. Public officials argue that, given the high public demand, it would be extremely damaging politically to remove or reduce the size of school feeding programmes (Bundy et al., 2009).

Existing evidence, though limited, suggests that school feeding programme participants have consistently better enrolment and attendance than non-participants (Behrman et al., 2013; Lister et al., 2011). Midday meals and school feeding programmes in rural India have had a sizeable impact on girls' enrolment (Afridi, 2011; Dreze and Kingdon, 2001). A meta-analytical review of the Food for Education programme in 32 sub-Saharan African countries found that providing on-site meals increased girls' and boys' enrolment by 28% and 22% respectively in the first year of the programme, and that effects were sustained if the programme also provided take-home rations (Gelli et al., 2007). Such rations, another incentive for children to stay in school, are likely to have a significant positive effect for very poor households. In Guyana, an evaluation of community-based school feeding programmes between 2007 and 2009 found that enrolment increased by 16% at participating schools and attendance by 4.3% (Ismail et al., 2012). A recent analysis of 12 rigorously evaluated studies of school feeding and take-home ration programmes from Bangladesh, Burkina Faso, Chile, Jamaica, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Peru, the Philippines and Uganda found a positive impact on enrolment ranging from 6 to 26 percentage points for a number of countries, with larger effects for girls. The impact on school progression was mixed. Bangladesh's take-home ration programme reduced dropout by 9% and Uganda's school feeding programme reduced boys' repetition by 20 percentage points, while Chile's school feeding programme and Uganda's take-home rations had no impact on any indicators of school progression (Behrman et al., 2013).

Cash transfer programmes

Cash transfers to vulnerable households, pioneered in Latin America and extensively analysed for their impact, have expanded in middle and low income Asian and African countries (Barrientos et al., 2010; Garcia and Moore, 2012), with significant coverage in middle income countries. Flagship programmes in Brazil (Bolsa Familia), Colombia (Familias en Acción) and Mexico (Oportunidades) now reach over 50% of poor households (Stampini and Tornarolli, 2012). The Philippines began a pilot programme in 2008 that was quickly expanded to reach 3 million households by May 2012, equal to over 60% of the poorest households (Chaudhury et al., 2013; Fernandez and Olfindo, 2011). Cash transfer programmes in low income countries have taken on distinctly different dimensions, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, given the region's diversity, lower resources and unique challenges such as food insecurity and HIV (Garcia and Moore, 2012). In sub-Saharan Africa, 21 countries had some form of unconditional cash transfer in 2010, almost doubling to 37 by 2013 (Garcia and Moore, 2012; Gentilini et al., 2014). However, cash transfers have not been scaled up in many low income countries.

Cash transfers incentivized universal primary education, particularly in Latin America

Most cash transfer programmes have had a positive impact on enrolment, attendance and dropout

Most cash transfer programmes have had a positive impact on enrolment, attendance and dropout. Many have targeted children with specific vulnerabilities, such as extreme poverty, remoteness, caste and gender, or indigenous populations (Independent Evaluation Group, 2011b). Nicaragua's short-lived Red de Protección Social (2000–2006) included two cash transfer programmes that had particularly major effects for primary schooling. An impact evaluation showed the programme was well targeted, with the largest impact in enrolment and attendance on extremely poor households (Maluccio and Flores, 2005). In Mexico, the impact of Oportunidades was calculated to be largest for the children with the lowest propensity to enrol in pre-school programmes (Behrman et al., 2005).

However, cash transfers do not always improve the education outcomes of vulnerable groups, possibly because of failures of implementation. An evaluation of Indonesia's Program Keluarga Harapan found it did not draw more children into the education system or keep them in primary school, attributing the lack of impact to quarterly cash transfers that were likely too limited and delivered too late to help with parental costs (World Bank, 2012b).

Lower income countries have paid little attention to scaling up cash transfer programmes

National support was crucial for success

The cash transfer movement has been framed as a 'development revolution from the Global South' (Hanlon et al., 2012) because of the experiences of pioneering Latin American countries such as Brazil and Mexico. Importantly, such measures gave politicians a chance to push for programmes likely to reach the poor. Mexico's Progresa, the forerunner of Oportunidades, was globally influential with its focus on health and education, its approach based on conditionality and its involvement of influential development partners (Coady and Parker, 2004; Fiszbein et al., 2009). The positive effects of its initial cash transfers from 1997 to 1999 arguably enabled its continuation despite a change in government (Levy and Rodriguez, 2005; Lustig, 2011). Such programmes have galvanized political support for left- and right-leaning governments alike. Voters in Brazil and Mexico have mobilized in greater numbers for incumbents who supported cash transfers, irrespective of party affiliation (De La O, 2012; Zucco, 2013).

Conditional cash transfer programmes emerged in global policy due to the influence of development partners such as the World Bank (Independent Evaluation Group, 2011c). Analyses of the experiences of lower income countries such as Kenya, Malawi and Zambia suggest that these programmes are still viewed as donor-led rather than domestic initiatives. While governments have accepted external funds to pilot cash transfer programmes, they have expressed a desire for sustainability, preferring to limit dependence on cash transfers and paying little attention to scaling up programmes (McCord, 2009). Also contributing may be the fear of increased social divisiveness if one income group perceives it as unfair that another group receives cash transfers (Ellis, 2012). A telling example is Nicaragua's Red de Protección Social, globally acclaimed for its impact but discontinued because of a lack of broad national support (Moore, 2009).

Conditional approaches have been more effective

There is debate about whether transfers should be made conditional on certain behaviour such as enrolment or attendance, or whether they should be provided free of conditions. The key rationale for conditions is to convey to households the value of the transfer: that education is important and that education costs. Programmes may also more easily find political support if they are conditioned on good behaviour and targeted towards improving the life chances of future generations (Fiszbein et al., 2009). On the other hand, others argue that poverty is the main educational constraint for families, and parents will spend any additional cash on education even without conditions (Hanlon et al., 2012). Conditionality can be costly to monitor for low income countries and may exclude those who need cash transfers the most (Garcia and Moore, 2012).

Evidence suggests that conditional cash transfers (CCTs), in which cash transfers depend on attendance, have greater an impact on education than unconditional cash transfers (UCTs). A meta-analysis of 25 studies found that CCTs and UCTs both improve enrolment, but CCTs increased the likelihood of a child being enrolled by 41% while UCTs increased it by 23% (Baird et al., 2013).

However, UCTs do not always perform worse and may have particular benefits. With a recent cash transfer pilot programme in Morocco, adding conditionality was found not to make a difference in student participation (Baird et al., 2013; Benhassine et al., 2013). In Zambia, an unconditional cash grant programme had modest effects on a range of education indicators, and seemed to have encouraged less educated mothers to enrol their children in school (Handa et al., 2014). A direct comparison of CCTs and UCTs in Malawi found that while CCTs outperformed UCTs in improving attendance and enrolment, UCTs were much more effective in preventing teen pregnancy and early marriage, since girls who dropped out of school and thus lost their CCT payments were more likely to marry (Baird et al., 2011).

Programmes must be more effective at reaching beneficiaries

Effective targeting requires identifying potential beneficiaries and the best methods to reach them. Criteria used for targeting include means testing, geographical location and assessments by community leaders; in some cases targets are self-selected. Some programmes are better targeted than others, usually where there are better infrastructure and capacity for programme administration and improvement, and better

systems to verify household income (Baird et al., 2011; Garcia-Jaramillo and Maranti, 2015). In general, targeted programmes often do not reach all of their intended populations. Key large-scale programmes, including Brazil's Bolsa Familia, Colombia's Familias en Acción, Indonesia's Program Keluarga Harapan and South Africa's Child Support Grant, have been shown to exclude a large proportion of eligible people (Garcia-Jaramillo and Maranti, 2015). Recent estimates suggest that only 55% of those with incomes below $US2.50 a day participate in Brazil's Bolsa Escola programme (Stampini and Tornarolli, 2012).

Demand-side approaches are popular but may not be cost-effective

Analysis has shown that cash transfer and school feeding programmes are not very cost-effective interventions for improving education attainment. The Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action Lab (J-PAL) cost-effectiveness analysis[1] compared programmes and found that providing families with deworming medication and information on improving earnings through education were the most cost-effective means of increasing school participation, and that Mexico's Oportunidades programme was the least cost-effective (Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action Lab, 2014). For school feeding programmes, the costs of transporting, storing and providing food have been estimated as comparable, per capita, to primary school unit costs (Bundy et al., 2009). However, such findings have had limited influence on education policy, as the programmes have objectives beyond cost-effectiveness and comparable data for other interventions are limited. For example, CCTs may not be as cost-effective for education access as deworming but have multiple benefits, affecting poverty, education, health and future outcomes. School feeding programmes are also promoted as providing long-term, multiple benefits. Take-home rations provide economic benefits to poor households (WFP, 2013).

There is some evidence that cost-effectiveness may be higher where programmes provide larger transfers and make adequate improvements on the supply side. Major improvements in enrolment in Nicaragua were associated with the largest transfer sizes – 17% of total annual expenditure of the household – in Latin America (Fiszbein et al., 2009; Maluccio and Flores, 2005). Such evidence suggests that maximizing cost-effectiveness may be a more relevant metric for designing social assistance programmes than minimizing costs, which is often the default focus in resource-constrained contexts (Maluccio and Flores, 2005; Saavedra and Garcia, 2013).

More extensive analysis is needed on whether demand-side approaches should be scaled up

To what extent should cash transfer and school feeding programmes be used to improve education quality? Recent evidence on whether such programmes improve learning outcomes is mixed (Alderman and Bundy, 2012; Behrman et al., 2011; Bundy et al., 2009; Fiszbein et al., 2009; Krishnaratne et al., 2013). This is not entirely surprising, since most evaluated programmes were not initiated with the specific aim of improving completion and learning outcomes. Findings on low cost-effectiveness and difficulties in targeting and conditionality need to be supplemented with critical analysis of the opportunity costs of funding CCT and school feeding programmes compared with those of other essential education sector reforms (Reimers et al., 2006).

For cash transfer and feeding programmes to be scaled up, they must be simplified, including by limiting the number of conditions and specificity of targets. In cash transfer programmes in middle income countries, conditionality is common and the programmes are often monitored for non-compliance. The Philippines' Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program provides cash transfers conditional on health and education compliance, utilizing a sophisticated set of geographical and household targeting methods (Chaudhury et al., 2013). However, conditions have been hard to enforce in many countries, including Ecuador (Bono de Desarrollo Humano) and South Africa (Child Support Grant) (Garcia-Jaramillo and Maranti, 2015; Schady and Araujo, 2008). Given that even middle income countries have difficulty with effective targeting and conditionality, it would be enormously challenging for capacity-constrained low income countries to do the same.

The Philippines' cash transfer programme utilizes a sophisticated set of geographical and household targeting methods

1. The J-PAL methodology computed cost-effectiveness in terms of number of increased years of education per US$100 spent (Dhaliwal et al., 2011). The interventions compared, drawn exclusively from J-PAL research, were parent information, deworming, school uniforms, merit scholarships, monitoring of teacher attendance, computer-assisted learning and CCTs.

Supply-side interventions have helped increase primary school access

Investment in infrastructure is often the largest educational expenditure after teacher salaries. Since 2000, school and classroom construction has become a priority because of growth in enrolment resulting from fee abolition and other demand-side incentives. Health interventions have also increased and can have vital effects on education outcomes. Some researchers argue that increasing supply would not substantially increase enrolment without complementary demand-side strategies and improvement in quality (Filmer, 2007; Glewwe and Kremer, 2006). However, more recent evidence has found that infrastructure projects such as school and road construction have had some of the largest impacts on indicators on education access (Petrosino et al., 2012). Finally, non-government institutions such as private schools, community and non-formal schools are increasingly providing education alongside public schools.

School and classroom construction

In Mozambique, the number of primary and secondary schools tripled between 1992 and 2010

Emphasis on constructing schools is predictable: the availability of a school building is often considered the first step to ensure children are able to attend school. In Mozambique, the number of primary and secondary schools tripled between 1992 and 2010 (Fox et al., 2012; UNICEF, n.d.) and the construction of new schools and classrooms continues (Naudeau, 2014). Together with the effort to abolish user fees, school construction allowed Mozambique to substantially reduce the number of students who had never been to school, and to increase its net enrolment ratio by almost 35 percentage points. In Morocco, education access was expanded with the National Education and Training Charter, which declared 2000 to 2009 the 'decade for education' with a key focus on improving equity. Significant investment in school infrastructure in rural areas led to impressive progress in primary education access, including for rural girls (World Bank, 2005, 2013), an ongoing emphasis (Braham, 2014). In Afghanistan, the addition of village-based community schools in 2007 increased enrolment by 42 percentage points in sample villages (Burde and Linden, 2012).

Infrastructure and health sector improvements

Many countries have made significant efforts to improve roads, electricity and water infrastructure. At the community level, these factors positively affect schooling access. Easily accessible schools and infrastructure improvements can be particularly important in increasing access for girls who have time-intensive daily chores, as detailed in Chapter 5. Girls' enrolment is particularly sensitive to distance to school; in Afghanistan, it fell by 19 percentage points per mile from school (Burde and Linden, 2012).

Ease of access to schools has improved significantly, particularly in rural, underserved areas. Rural India saw substantial improvement in nearly all aspects of school facilities and infrastructure between 2003 and 2010. The share of schools with electricity more than doubled, from 20% to 45%. The availability of paved roads increased, so that 78% of schools had a road within 1 kilometre in 2010 compared with 69% in 2003 (Muralidharan et al., 2014). Improved electrification increases education outcomes. In Bangladesh, rural households with electricity were found to have better school enrolment than households without electricity (Barkat et al., 2002), and in India electrification had a long-term positive impact on girls' and boys' education (van de Walle et al., 2013). Similarly, an analysis of 16 African countries between 1971 and 2010 finds a strong relationship between electricity consumption and education; evidence suggested that higher per capita electricity consumption caused positive primary school enrolment effects in Ethiopia, Kenya and South Africa (Ben Abdelkarim et al., 2014). Availability of water-related infrastructure also improves enrolment. A reduction in time by one hour for collecting water increased girls' enrolment rates by about 8-9% in Yemen and 18-19% in Pakistan (Koolwal and van de Walle, 2010). Similarly, access to piped drinking water at home was associated with significantly higher test score performance in urban Brazil (Barde and Walkiewicz, 2014).

Large-scale malaria eradication programmes, funded extensively by the Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria, have led to substantial increases in numbers of years

of primary schooling and reduced age of entry in a majority of countries. A study of 22 sub-Saharan African countries found significant primary education improvements in 14 due to large-scale malaria interventions. The study argues for more targeted attention to areas where malaria prevalence is highest and education quality is lowest to ensure a higher education return on investment for health (Kuecken et al., 2013).

Private and other non-government institutions have become important education providers

The GMR uses the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) definition of private schooling[2] to provide statistics on the role of the private sector in education provision. However, the definition of what it means to be a private, public or non-government school varies around the world, and for-profit, non-profit, management or financing categories do not fully capture the evolving nature of most education systems. This lack of clarity about types of non-state schools is especially salient when comparing schools in developing and developed countries. The lines between community, non-formal or other non-government programmes are also blurry because of a lack of clear, consistent definitions (Aga Khan Foundation Team, 2008; Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder, 2002). Consequently, there is a lack of systematic data to monitor and evaluate the global trends of these various subsectors.

The private sector has grown due to inadequate supply, parents' desires and a perception of higher quality

The role of private schooling in education has grown over the past two decades. In Lagos, Nigeria, private schools accounted for as much as 70% of the pre-primary and primary levels in the 2010/11 school year (Härmä, 2011). The private sector in South Asia has grown explosively, with approximately one-third of 6- to 18-year-olds attending private schools (Dahal and Nguyen, 2014). UIS estimates show at least a doubling of the private share in primary enrolment in a wide range of countries in the Arab States, Central and Eastern Europe and sub-Saharan Africa (**Figure 2.7**). While available UIS data suggest that the private share of primary education is below 20% for most low and lower middle income countries, this may be an underestimate due to undercounting of private schooling in official statistics (Dahal and Nguyen, 2014; Tooley and Dixon, 2005).

The reasons for and the merits of the expansion of the private sector's role for the overall education system are a subject of much debate. Do private schools complement public education by improving supply and quality? Or in contrast, do they primarily perpetuate inequality by extracting students from wealthier and more motivated households who would otherwise have stayed in the public system (Chubb and Moe, 1990; Hsieh and Urquiola, 2006; Nechyba, 2009)?

Private schools have likely aided school supply in at least two ways. First, where public sector supply of schools, classrooms and teachers has not kept pace with population growth, private schools may have filled a gap, providing education for mainstream populations. Second, where public schools have failed to provide education access to disadvantaged populations, such as slum children, low-fee private schools have entered the market.

In many contexts, parental preferences have increased demand for private schools. This may be due to perceptions of their higher quality, closer proximity to the household and the connotation of higher social status (Joshi, 2014; Schneider et al., 2006). Parental demand for private schools also reflects families' gendered schooling decision-making: in India and Pakistan, girls are more likely to enrol in public schools and sons are more likely to be sent to private schools, perpetuating gender inequity (Aslam, 2009; Azam and Kingdon, 2013; Maitra et al., 2011).

In India and Pakistan, girls are more likely to enrol in public schools and sons are more likely to be sent to private schools

Community, non-formal and religious schools may provide more relevant, flexible education to meet particular demands

Very different types of schools are labelled as 'community schools': schools that have been created and primarily financed by communities, such as the *écoles spontanées* in Chad

2. The UIS defines private institutions as those that are not operated by public authorities but are controlled and managed, whether for profit or not, by private bodies such as non-government organizations (NGOs), religious bodies, special interest groups, foundations and businesses.

(Hillman and Jenkner, 2004); schools located in communities and funded and operated by local or international NGOs and multilateral partners; and schools where education policy has emphasized strengthening community authority, such as through school-based management reforms (Barrera-Osorio et al., 2009). Community schools have often been found to be more relevant to local needs, adaptable, cost-effective and student-centric than government schools (DeStefano et al., 2007; Glassman et al., 2007). Many provide schooling to areas underserved by the government, such as in sub-Saharan African countries including Ghana, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia (Glassman et al., 2007).

Non-formal education centres offer diverse education services outside the formal system. Many provide flexible, accelerated learning programmes as bridges for students into the formal system or to address the needs of young children who have missed schooling altogether (Mwalimu, 2010). As several past GMRs have noted, non-formal education is uniquely important in Bangladesh (UNESCO, 2010a, 2011b, 2012, 2014a), where the BRAC system operates thousands of non-formal schools and has been credited with increasing girls' primary enrolment (Sukontamarn, 2005). The success of non-formal education has influenced government policy to create learning centres inspired by non-formal models to reach out-of-school children (Dang et al., 2011).

In Bangladesh, the BRAC system operates thousands of non-formal schools and has been credited with increasing girls' primary enrolment

Religious schools fill a niche for many parents. In Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Indonesia and Pakistan, Islamic schools, called madrasas, have long played an important role in providing primary and secondary education to underprivileged groups. Over 40,000 of these schools educate the poor in Indonesia; almost 90% of the schools are run as private institutions, and were established by foundations (Hafidz, 2014). The number of madrasas that follow government and traditional curricula and provide formal education to children has steadily increased, especially in Bangladesh (Bano, 2010). The Jesuit network Fe y Alegría, which operates schools in most of Latin America with support from government and international agencies, has helped increase enrolment, serving, by recent estimates, over 1 million children in 17 countries (Osorio and Wodon, 2014).

Reaching the marginalized is essential for universal primary education

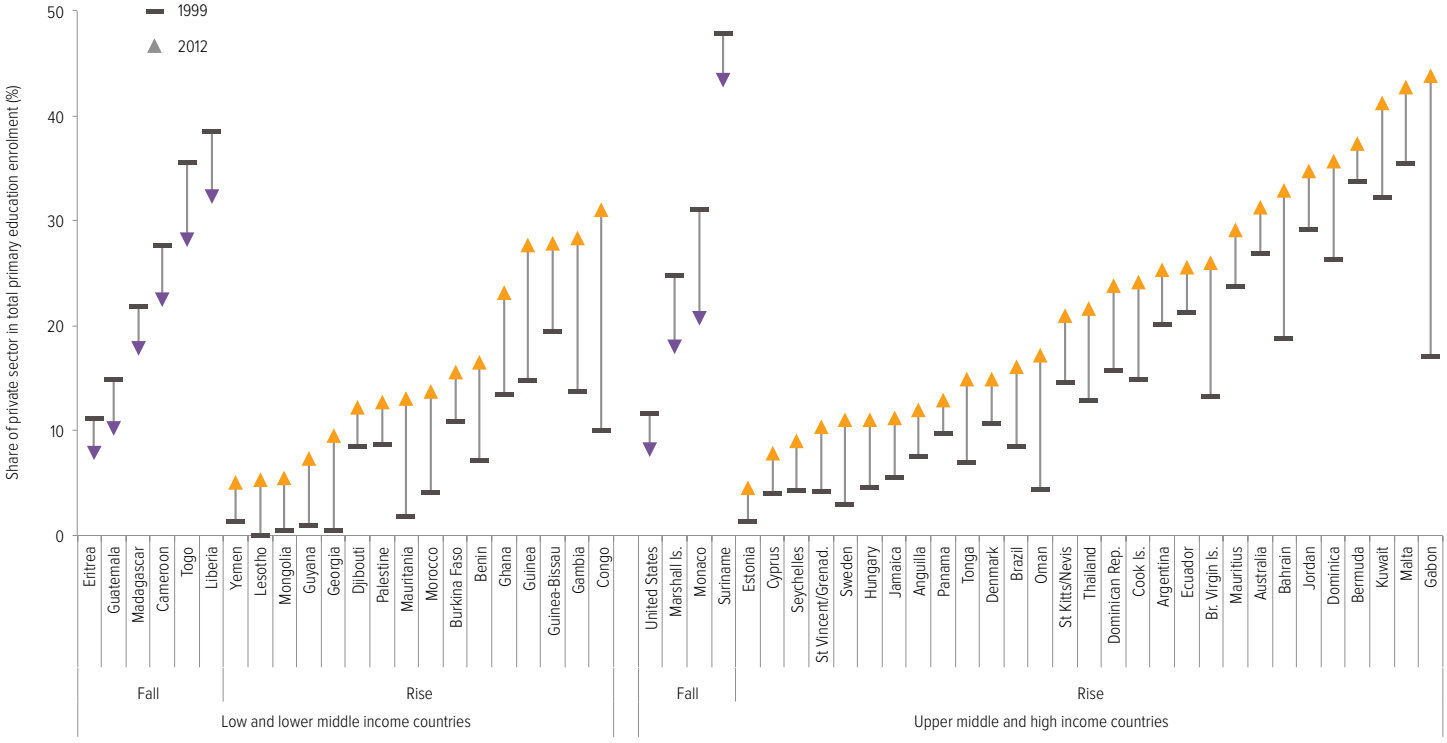
The Dakar Framework stated that 'the inclusion of children with special needs, from disadvantaged ethnic minorities and migrant populations, from remote and isolated communities and from urban slums, and others excluded from education, must be an integral part of strategies to achieve UPE by 2015.'

Poverty is perhaps the foremost constraint on education access. Comparing changes in primary school completion rates between 2000 and 2010 for children from the poorest quintile with those for the second-poorest quintile shows the enduring nature of marginalization based on poverty (**Figure 2.8**): less than one-third, or 15, of the 52 countries with available data experienced improvement in reducing the gap between the two poorest quintiles. For example, progress for the poorest is much lower than for children from second quintile households in countries including Bangladesh and Cambodia.

Latin American countries (Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Nicaragua and Suriname) and Viet Nam saw the most substantial gains among children from the poorest households compared with those from less poor households. Two possible explanations are that in Latin America, social protection programmes and curricular reforms may be reaching at least some of the extreme poor, and that children from the second-poorest quintile already had very high completion rates in 2000. Similarly, the success of Viet Nam can be attributed to far-reaching reforms to improve education quality, for instance in early childhood education, as discussed in Chapter 1. By contrast, it is not surprising to find limited improvement among the poorest quintile in Nigeria, as the country has made very limited education progress in general.

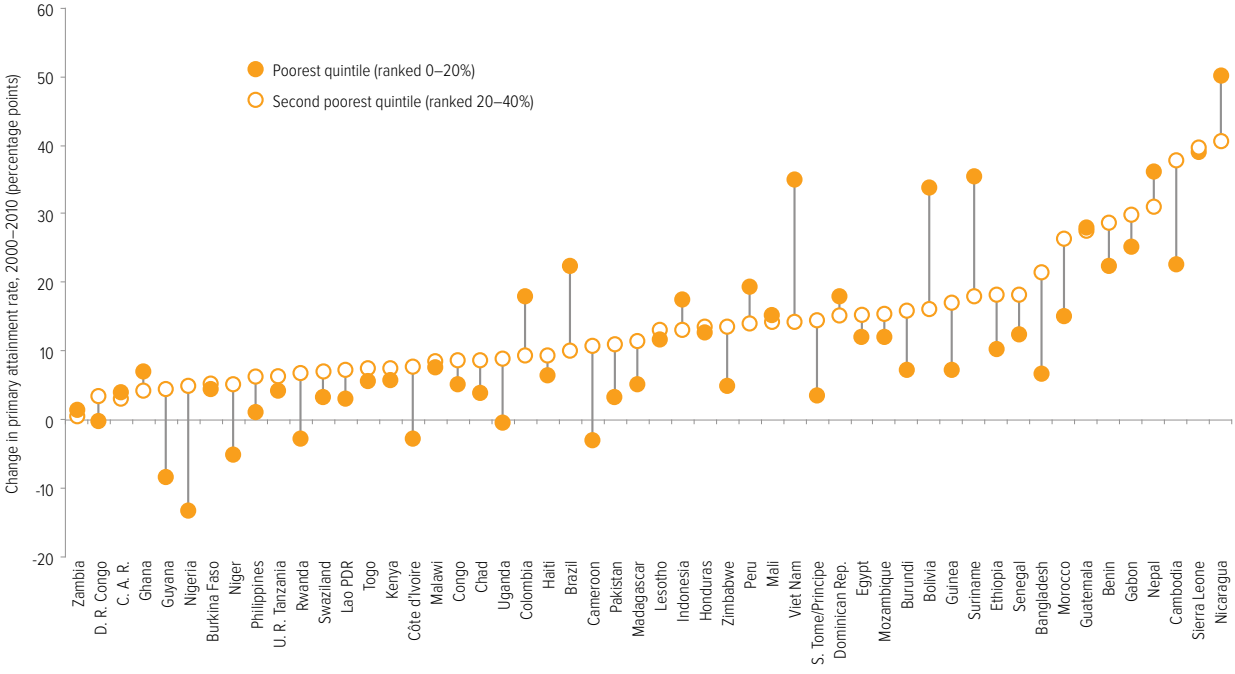
In addition to poverty, barriers to education can include children's gender, caste, ethnic and linguistic background, race, disability, geographical location and livelihood. Marginalized children often suffer from multiple disadvantages that are mutually reinforcing, leading to acute education deprivation in

Figure 2.7: The proportion of children going to private schools has increased in many countries
Enrolment in private institutions as percentage of total primary enrolment by direction of change and country income group, 1999 and 2012



Note: The graph plots all countries with private sector education provision of more than 3% and less than 50% in 1999 or 2012; and where there was a change of more than 3 percentage points between 1999 and 2012.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 5; UIS database.

Figure 2.8: Children from the poorest households have made less progress in completion rates than those from slightly wealthier households
Change in the primary education attainment rate among children in the two lowest wealth quintiles, circa 2000 and 2010



Notes: Countries included are those with two rounds of household survey data and primary education attainment rates below 95% in 2010. For further information on the construction of the wealth index from which the quintiles are derived, see the Glossary.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team analysis (2015), based on Demographic and Health Survey; Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey data and National Household Survey data.

particular populations (UNESCO, 2010a). Education progress is often slower for these groups since they lack the political voice to mobilize national action.

Legislative and policy progress for many disadvantaged groups since the inception of the EFA movement has led to increased primary school participation. Yet many key barriers to education for marginalized groups remain inadequately addressed. Sluggish rates of progress reflect deep-rooted practices of social exclusion.

Ethnic and linguistic minorities

Discrimination on the basis of ethnicity or language spoken at home is a long-standing problem in many countries of different ethno-linguistic composition and migration experiences (UNESCO, 2010a). Multicountry analyses have found wide gaps in education participation and attainment between the elite or majority population, which often speaks the dominant language, and ethnic minority or disadvantaged indigenous groups that speak other languages (Smits et al., 2009). As previous GMRs have extensively shown, several ethnic groups, such as Q'eqchi' speakers in Guatemala, Hausa speakers in Nigeria and Kurdish speakers in Turkey, are significantly more likely to be economically and educationally deprived (UNESCO, 2010a, 2014c).

Trends in education progress among such groups is mixed, as the contrasting cases of Guatemala and Nigeria show. While inequality by ethnicity and gender largely persisted in Nigeria between 2003 and 2013, in Guatemala the gaps between Q'eqchi' children and non-indigenous children narrowed substantially between 2000 and 2011 (**Figure 2.9**). In Guatemala, reforms included the National Languages Law in 2003, which demanded respect for indigenous languages, and the establishment of a Vice-Ministry of Bilingual Intercultural Education, also in 2003, which set up bilingual teacher training colleges and primary-level bilingual education. These measures had a major impact in a context where initial levels of initial education attainment were low and many indigenous people did not speak the dominant language (Lopez, 2010).

In Guatemala, the gaps between Q'eqchi' children and non-indigenous children narrowed substantially

A growing movement to reduce the mismatch between languages spoken at home and at school credits mother tongue and bilingual instruction with helping preserve culture, empowering parents in educational contexts and improving education access for ethno-linguistic minorities (Lopez, 2010; Smits et al., 2009). However, as Chapter 6 shows, serious questions remain about the quality of education provided through bilingual or other schools based on language policy.

While Latin America has a long tradition of intercultural and bilingual education, international aid supporting such programmes has grown particularly since the 1990s (Ferrão Candau, 2010). A key role of these programmes is to increase the visibility of linguistic minorities by alleviating language barriers, which enables them to fight for their right to education and increase their overall political participation (Lopez, 2010).

In Europe, policies on mother tongue instruction vary substantially, which may indicate varying degrees of acceptance of immigrant or indigenous populations. Sweden's 2010 Language Act stipulates that if a municipality has at least five students who speak a language other than Swedish, then those students have a right to native language instruction. In the Netherlands, children from non-Dutch backgrounds may be taught in languages other than Dutch in grades 1 to 4 to facilitate their learning in all subjects. In Finland, the law places special emphasis on maintaining a student's cultural and linguistic identity, and allows mother tongue instruction (in Finnish or Swedish) up to upper secondary levels (Bartlett, 2015; UNESCO-IBE, 2011a, 2011b).

In Europe, the Roma people, a diverse group with a population of 10 to 12 million, experience substantial social exclusion. While primary school attendance is compulsory in all EU member states, primary attainment rates for the Roma are very low. A 2011 survey administered to over 20,000 Roma in 11 countries found that at least 10% of the 7- to 15-year-olds surveyed were not enrolled in primary grades. The out-of-school proportion was highest in Greece, where more than 35% of Roma children were not attending school (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights and UNDP, 2012).

Policies to address this issue have had mixed success. The Roma have long been segregated from the rest of the population and over-represented in special needs schools and remedial education, and suffer from high dropout rates (Council of Europe, 2011; European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights and UNDP, 2012). In response, a multinational, interagency initiative, The Decade for Roma Inclusion, was launched in 2005 to support their integration. In Bulgaria, outreach, extracurricular activities and financial incentives helped increase attendance and retention (Themelis and Foster, 2013). However, in much of Europe, discriminatory practices continue and a lack of data on population and exclusion hampers efforts.

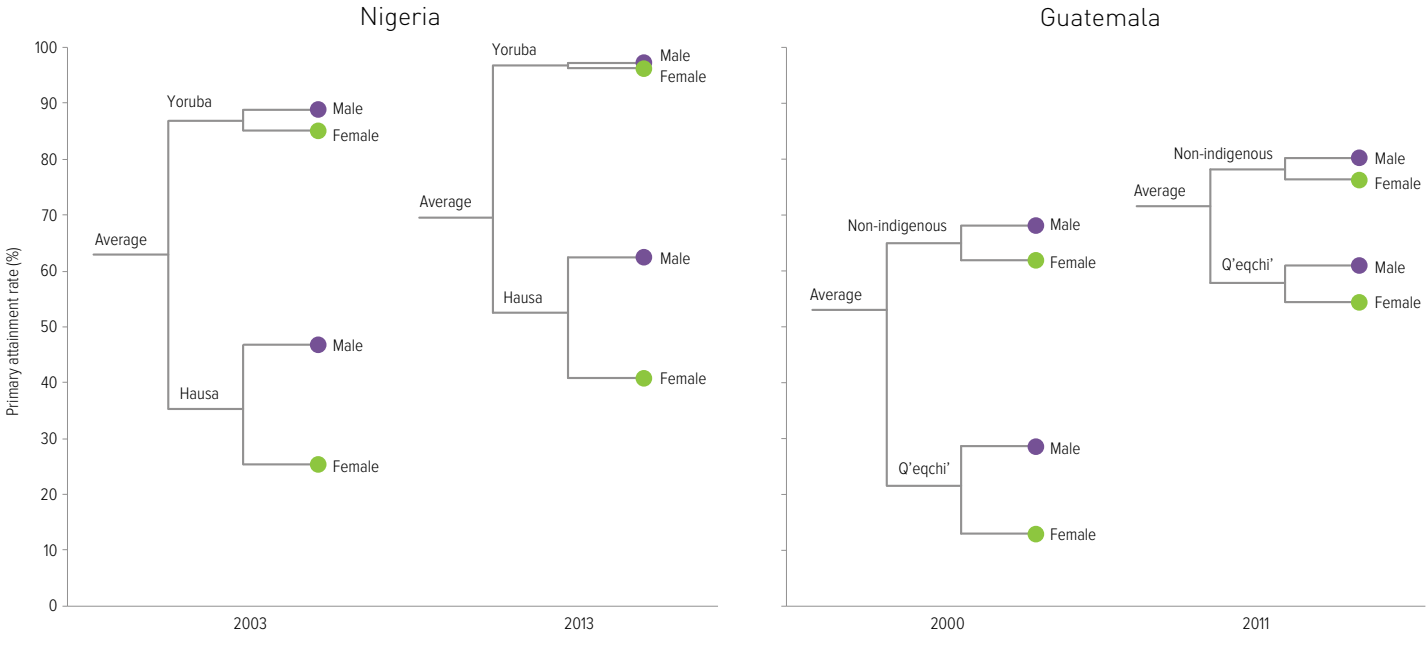
Working children

Child labour affects educational attainment and achievement, as Chapter 3 notes in greater detail. The availability of education and the enforcement of education legislation can reduce child labour, thus improving education outcomes and reducing poverty. Significant global progress in legislation to reduce child labour includes 167 countries having ratified the 1973 Minimum Age Convention of the International Labour Organization (ILO) and 179 countries having ratified the 1999 ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention. Child labour trends indicate the number of children aged 5 to 11 in the labour force fell to 73 million in 2012, a drop of 66 million compared to 2000. Unsurprisingly, the incidence of child labour is still highest in poorer countries: in 2012, 23% of children in low income countries worked, compared with 6% in upper middle income countries (ILO, 2013b).

Analysis of household surveys confirms reductions in childhood employment in several developing countries, with Burundi, Ecuador, Guatemala, Malawi, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo and Viet Nam witnessing substantial declines in the number of children between 7 and 11 years old in employment in the past decade (**Figure 2.10**). Sierra Leone had exceptional success: the percentage of children who were exclusively employed dropped from 39.2% in 2000 to 7.9% in 2010. Sometimes, a decline in the percentage of children who were only employed can mean an increase in children who were both employed and in school, as occurred in Burundi (Understanding Children's Work, 2015).

In 2012, 23% of children in low income countries worked, compared with 6% in upper middle income countries

Figure 2.9: In primary education attainment among disadvantaged ethnic groups, Guatemala was more successful than Nigeria
Primary education attainment rate, by gender and ethnicity, Nigeria 2003–2013 and Guatemala 2000–2011



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team analysis (2015), based on data from the Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey and Guatemala's National Survey on Living Conditions.

Combining work and school, while an improvement over not going to school at all, still hurts education outcomes. Average grade-for-age data show that children who work and attend school lag behind their non-working peers, in terms of grade progression, at age 13 in almost all countries, likely due to repetition arising from poorer performance, higher incidence of late entry and higher absenteeism (Understanding Children's Work, 2015).

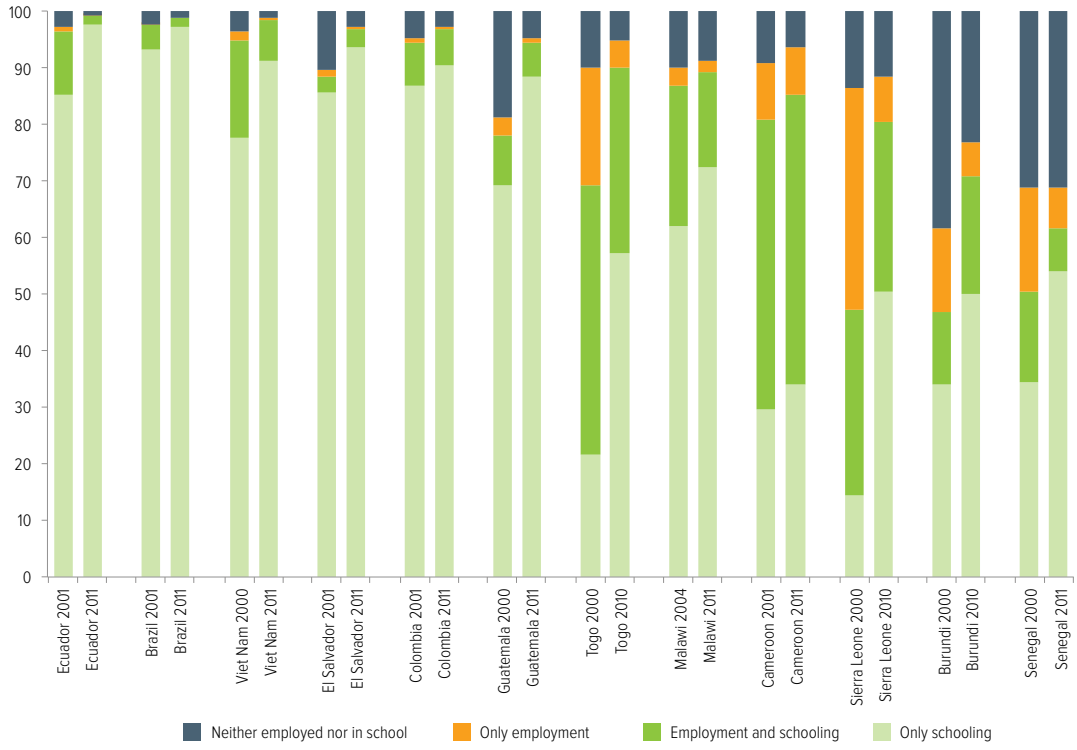
Combining paid employment and household chores leaves children doubly disadvantaged and at greater risk of repeating grades or dropping out of school. The gendered dimensions of child labour are also important to note: girls undertake the majority of routine domestic chores, such as household labour and caregiving, which take up considerable time and interfere with schooling (Lyon et al., 2013).

Pastoralist populations remain among the most underserved by education globally

Nomadic communities

Around the late 1990s, nomadic pastoralist communities were routinely omitted from national population counts and ignored in education planning (Carr-Hill, 2012; Dyer, 2015). Nomadic children had difficulty accessing schools, and formal education was often not highly relevant or compatible with their lifestyles (Krätli, 2001; Ruto et al., 2009). The result was low demand and poor retention for much of the past decade. Only recently have pastoralists begun to acknowledge education as a means out of poverty and a way to diversify livelihoods, and even as a complement to pastoralist knowledge. Today, pastoralist populations remain among the most underserved by education globally. Even in countries in eastern Africa, where nomadic groups make up at least 20% of the population, infrastructure and other investments for the

Figure 2.10: Fewer children now work exclusively, but many continue to work and go to school
Percentage of 7- to 11-year-olds by schooling and employment status, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Note: Information on children's activities is based on surveys where the household head states whether the child works, attends school, or does both or neither. Columns do not add up to 100% because some children were neither in school nor economically active. These children may work in non-economic household activities.
Source: Understanding Children's Work, (2015).

educational needs of nomadic children remain extremely limited (Dyer, 2015).

Since 2000, the visibility of this issue has increased in countries with substantial pastoralist populations. Support for flexible learning frameworks, which offer students choices of when, where and how they learn, has been significant from international agencies and governments, particularly UNICEF and Save the Children, with workshops and Commonwealth-supported forums (Dyer, 2015). Nomad-specific education plans have emerged in Ethiopia, Nigeria, Sudan and the United Republic of Tanzania. Kenya's experience with pastoralist groups in arid and semi-arid lands is one of the most developed, albeit underfunded, initiatives for nomadic communities.

But policy measures may not have increased enrolment of nomads. The 2003 abolition of school fees in Kenya largely failed to catalyse enrolment of nomads in arid and semi-arid lands. Capitation grants that take fixed schools as their reference point have not been useful for attracting mobile learners (Dyer, 2015). Commitment to explore or expand open and distance learning, potentially a useful model for nomadic communities, has been limited (Dyer, 2015). Alternative basic education packages that were expected to serve mobile communities better, with flexible curricula and respect for community values (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2006; Dyer, 2015), have mostly helped populations with more predictable mobility patterns. In India, for example, seasonal labourers have been easier to reach than pastoralists (Dyer, 2014).

The vulnerability of nomadic groups is growing due to factors beyond their control. Natural hazards, droughts and conflicts have decreased the resilience of pastoralists and forcibly displaced nomadic groups in countries such as Kenya. While this threatens their lifestyle, it may force them to settle in rural or peri-urban areas, intensifying demand for their inclusion in regular formal schooling (Schrepfer and Caterina, 2014). In India, mobile pastoralism is rapidly losing ground to agricultural and industrial expansion (Dyer, 2015).

Children affected by HIV and AIDS

In 2000, the potential spread of HIV/AIDS was perhaps the highest visible challenge for education systems and livelihoods in sub-Saharan Africa (see Introduction and Chapter 3 for further discussion). The number of children orphaned and vulnerable because of AIDS is expected to dip slightly to about 15 million by 2020, with the overwhelming majority remaining in sub-Saharan Africa (UNICEF, 2013h). Children who have lost one or both parents are especially likely to drop out of school (Case et al., 2004). While recent quantitative analysis suggests the ratio of orphans' school attendance is at near parity with that of non-orphans (Smiley et al., 2012; UNICEF, 2013h), qualitative research reports that orphans face particular barriers to education, including caregiving responsibilities for sick relatives, stigma and frequent migration (Goldberg and Short, 2012; van Blerk and Ansell, 2006). In Durban, South Africa, teachers and other school support helped vulnerable children stay in school (Unterhalter et al., 2008). Studies of children's emotional experiences of HIV caregiving report emotional distress and worry that can affect their schooling (Casale et al., 2014; Cluver et al., 2011).

HIV/AIDS orphans face particular barriers to education, including caregiving responsibilities for sick relatives, stigma and frequent migration

Since Dakar, the growth in financing, policies and support services related to children affected by HIV and AIDS has focused primarily on their care, treatment and social welfare, and has not prioritized education (Fleming, 2015; Global Fund, 2014). The first policies to address education access for orphaned and vulnerable children emerged around the mid-2000s. Numerous countries in sub-Saharan Africa and in South and West Asia have since created national action plans for such children (Fleming, 2015).

Broad and specific strategies have been used to improve education for orphaned and vulnerable children. To support retention, Tamil Nadu state in India used welfare programmes to reduce the disparity between orphaned and vulnerable children and non-orphans, such as providing textbooks, uniforms, bus passes and financial assistance to children who have lost a breadwinning parent. In Zambia, a multisector strategy has been frequently updated over the

last 15 years to reflect the changing needs, environment and demographics of HIV- and AIDS-affected and vulnerable children. Community schools also support education access for orphans and vulnerable children (Fleming, 2015).

Urban slum children

At the time of Dakar in 2000, most national governments were ambivalent about providing education and other services in informal urban settlements and slum areas. Since then, the issue of slum dwellers has become more critical, with poverty urbanizing at a rapid rate due to substantial migration from rural areas. By 2012, 863 million people in developing countries, or about one-third of the urban population, were living in slums (Kielland, 2015).

Low-fee private schools have proliferated in urban slums in India, Kenya and Nigeria

In the absence of adequate government policy and planning, NGOs and the private sector have played a significant role in providing education to slum dwellers. Low-fee private schools have proliferated in urban slums in India, Kenya and Nigeria (Srivastava, 2006; Tooley and Dixon, 2003; Walford, 2013), as well as in other countries (**Box 2.1**).

The establishment of NGO and civil society networks in poor urban settlements has raised awareness and increased lobbying efforts around the difficulties of slum dwellers in access to education. Shack/Slum Dwellers International, a network of community-based organizations in 33 countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, South and West Asia and sub-Saharan Africa, has helped count slum populations and map local development needs (Shack/Slum Dwellers International, 2014). Recently, some governments have increased attention to the education of children in slums. For example, Bangladesh has highlighted the need to add slums to its long-standing focus on rural children, and to discuss the special challenges of Dhaka's slums (Vawda and Sarr, 2013).

Problems in educating slum children include authorities' belief that improving conditions within such settlements may further accelerate migration into the cities. In Haiti, after a temporary drive to keep urban earthquake-affected and displaced children in school, rural areas appeared to recapture the focus of the government and its partners (Kielland, 2015). Another challenge is that many settlements are illegal, and as such not typically recognized in government plans for education provision. Slum children may lack documentation such as birth certificates or residential papers necessary for local school admission. Moreover, extreme violence and substance abuse may add to the challenges they face (Kielland, 2015).

Children with disabilities

Marginalization is higher for children with disabilities, and disability is common. The OECD states that almost one-fifth of students may develop a special educational need during their schooling years (OECD, 1999). The disadvantages of disability are often magnified by social status, gender and health conditions. While data are limited, the most recent global estimate of disability prevalence is that between

Box 2.1: Private schooling in slums

Private schools in urban slums typically have low fees, are not aided by the government and may be invisible in official records. They are usually underfinanced, have difficulty collecting funds from parents and lack resources to meet expensive regulations.

Large-scale data collection in slum areas found that only 35% of children from low income families in Hyderabad, India, and 25% of slum children in Lagos, Nigeria, attended government schools. In Kenya, more recent data suggested that over 40% of the poorest students in slums attended private schools, and that this number increased steadily after user fee abolition in 2003. Similarly, a study of a Lagos slum found only 3 public primary schools, all in the same building on the periphery of the area, but 35 private schools, of which only 4 were government approved.

In many of the vast slums in Kenya and Nigeria, the nearest public schools are on the areas' fringes. This indicates that a lack of stable, government-provided schools forces parents to choose private schools. Consistent with the broader debate on non-government provision, other experts have argued that low-cost private schools are desired because they are conveniently located, have smaller class sizes, hire teachers who are more aware of the needs of slum dwellers and may produce better academic outcomes.

Sources: Adelabu and Rose (2004), Dixon et al. (2013), Härmä (2011), Härmä and Adefisayo (2013), Oketch et al. (2010), Tooley and Dixon (2005).

93 million and 150 million children live with disability (World Health Organization (WHO) and World Bank, 2011).

Disability status increases the risk of educational exclusion. In developing countries, disability status has been found to be highly correlated with poverty (Banks and Polack, 2014; Mitra et al., 2013), and even more predictive of non-enrolment than socio-economic status, rural location or gender (Filmer, 2008). Girls with disabilities can be especially marginalized. Recent research from western Africa found that girls with disabilities faced increased isolation, stigmatization and discrimination; experienced a lack of schooling and other opportunities to participate in communal life; and were at particular risk of abuse, including forms of sexual violence (Coe, 2013). Children with disabilities who attend school are more likely to be excluded in the classroom and to drop out. Aggregated analysis from 51 countries found a 10 percentage point gap in primary completion rates between people with and without disability, a likely underestimate given the undercounting of people with disabilities (WHO and World Bank, 2011).

A recent analysis conducted across 30 countries hosting Plan International sponsorship programmes confirms earlier findings. The study found that children with disabilities were far less likely to attend school, had less accumulated schooling and were more likely to report a serious illness in the last year. Children with hearing or visual impairments had better schooling outcomes compared with children with learning or communication impairments (Kuper et al., 2014).

Various barriers by governments, schools, communities and families limit disabled children's access to schooling (Banks and Polack, 2014; Global Campaign for Education, 2014c; WHO and World Bank, 2011). These include a lack of understanding about forms of disability and disabled children's needs; insufficient resources to accommodate diverse needs, including a lack of teacher training and physical facilities; discriminatory attitudes towards disability and difference; and poor data on which to build policy (WHO and World Bank, 2011).

Significant success has been achieved in raising visibility since Dakar

International declarations, such as the Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, have facilitated policy and advocacy for educating children with disabilities. Global agencies and NGOs have developed inclusive education models **(Box 2.2)** and incorporated them into their education programming (Booth and Ainscow, 2002, 1998), with the broader goal of promoting inclusive societies. Several high-profile declarations in the past decade signalled growing regional interest in providing access to education for children with disabilities (Sarr and Dube, 2010; Schriner, 2003;

Disability status increases the risk of educational exclusion

Box 2.2: Challenges in defining 'inclusive education'

There is no universal agreement on what constitutes inclusive education. Broadly, its provision requires governments to take responsibility for and educate all children regardless of their needs. More ambitious approaches to inclusion are commonly grounded in a rights-based approach that aims to empower learners, celebrate diversity and combat discrimination. It suggests that, with adequate support, all children, irrespective of their different needs, should be able to learn together in mainstream classrooms in their local communities.

Historically, disability has been understood using a medical model, which defines disabilities in terms of categorization of impairment, such as being blind, deaf or mute, or physically or mentally handicapped. This model has often led to social segregation of children with disabilities in education systems, stigmatizing them as abnormal, and physical segregation through placement in separate special needs schools away from mainstream education, which provides access to education but can further perpetuate negative attitudes and discrimination, and thus cannot be considered 'inclusion'.

The past decade of education policy-making has been marked by growing awareness and understanding of disability from a social perspective, 'as arising from the interaction of a person's functional status with the physical, cultural, and policy environments'. The social model of disability as related to education implies including children with disabilities in mainstream education rather than segregating them in separate institutions. However, this is still difficult to achieve in practice, and segregation tends to be the dominant practice in many countries.

Sources: Grimes et al. (2015), UNESCO (2010a), WHO (2001), WHO and World Bank (2011).

UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 2012). The UK Department for International Development (DFID), a prominent funder in international education, has now committed to prioritizing disability-related programming and research, and the Global Partnership for Education has pledged to make disability a priority financing area in education planning (Global Campaign for Education, 2014c).

An ongoing and much-needed major initiative is the improvement of data collection on disability. Only 21 countries have living standard surveys that collect data on chronic illness and disability (World Bank, 2014d). The UNICEF Ten Questions screen, a large set of comparable data on disability issues for low income countries, set up in 2005, provides only an indication of disability risk and may overestimate the number of children actually living with disabilities (UNESCO, 2014c). Collection of comparable data is further complicated by variation in cultural interpretations of disability and what is considered 'normal' functioning. As a result, initiatives are under way to improve data collection definitions, modules and processes (UNICEF, 2014c), and to develop national-level disaggregated data systems on disability (Global Campaign for Education, 2014c).

Varied strategies are used to improve inclusion

Countries have begun transitioning to the social model of inclusive education

The majority of countries have begun transitioning to the social model of disability and inclusive education, although some still favour segregation. In Europe, while Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta, Norway and Portugal strongly encourage inclusive education, Germany and Belgium still rely on special education infrastructure (WHO and World Bank, 2011). In practice, most countries have hybrid policies and are improving their inclusionary practices incrementally.

Some countries provide excellent models. Finland has a holistic approach to improve inclusion. Through its education reforms, the number of elementary students in special education decreased from an already low 2.0% in 2000 to 1.3% in 2009 (Official Statistics of Finland, 2009). Its ambitious multisector policy programme, VAMPO (2010–2015), aims for major structural changes and initiatives that improve the overall context for addressing disabilities. In education, comprehensive reform takes a lifelong learning perspective with goals to improve the equity and accessibility of study materials, improve transition rates between primary and secondary education, and further support vocational and higher education (Finland Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, 2012).

Viet Nam has shown prolonged, profound commitment to inclusive education by gradually developing adequately resourced, large-scale programmes, including strategies for curriculum reform and teacher training. Rural and urban pilot projects in the early 1990s offered relatively cost-effective teacher training and technical assistance for inclusion. While disability status is still linked significantly to poverty and reduced education outcomes in Viet Nam (Mont and Cuong, 2011), the success of the pilot programmes helped policy-makers see new possibilities for disability-related inclusion, and encouraged the adoption of new laws and policies (WHO and World Bank, 2011). However, a persistent challenge to policy implementation has been lack of clarity over the interpretation of and strategies for inclusive education (**Box 2.3**).

In India, the RTE and the main EFA programme, Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, created opportunities for people with disabilities to be included in mainstream schools. National estimates of

Box 2.3: Interpreting 'inclusive education' in Viet Nam

The Viet Nam government has not made a clear choice between the social and medical models of education provision for children with disabilities. On one hand, the government has developed a comprehensive set of policies and guidelines on inclusive education. International NGOs working in Viet Nam have successfully implemented inclusive education projects, including teacher training, awareness-raising and community participation using a rights-based approach. On the other hand, policies and programmes are rooted in the medical model. As a result, inclusive education, special education and semi-integrated education coexist and policies are contradictory. The Government of Vietnam 2010 Disability Law states that inclusive education should be the main mode of education for children with disabilities, and a multiministry decree on supporting inclusive education calls for the transition of specialized schools into Inclusive Education Resource Centres. However, the government's Education Strategy 2011–2020 commits to more investment in specialized education for children with disabilities.

Source: Grimes et al. (2015).

enrolment of children with special needs show a sharp increase, from 566,921 in 2002/03 to 2.16 million in 2007/08, and the percentage of schools with ramps increased from 1.5% in 2004 to 55% in 2012/13. However, a large share of children with disabilities still remains out of school. In 2012/13, it was estimated that, nationally, almost half the children with mental disabilities were out of school. Still, the advances represent major progress and reflect emerging political attention to children with disabilities (Singal, 2015).

Several inclusive policies have been piloted in sub-Saharan African countries with international support, especially from DFID. In Rwanda, two projects funded through the Innovation for Education Fund are trying to develop standards and norms for inclusive education, and increase ownership at the local and community level to increase education access. Some education projects in Ethiopia, Malawi and the United Republic of Tanzania provide needs-based support, build schools adapted for disabled children, support teacher training, develop textbooks in Braille and carry out awareness campaigns on inclusion (Global Campaign for Education, 2014c).

Community involvement can help alleviate societal barriers

A major challenge in improving education for children with disabilities is that cultural discrimination can exacerbate undercounting of disabled children, their lack of access to education and other opportunities to lead a fulfilling life (Grimes et al., 2015; Singal, 2015). Along with efforts to improve national-level data collection, approaches that involve the community, parents and the children themselves need to be encouraged, as they are more likely to provide sustainable, locally relevant solutions and foster a social model of inclusion. The Oriang Project in Kenya aimed to change the way of thinking of teachers, parents and the wider community by training them about the principle of inclusion. Participative approaches to data collection, such as listening to personal stories of children with disabilities using audiovisual methods, as was done in a refugee programme in Jhapa, Nepal, have also been shown to help integrate children into schooling (WHO and World Bank, 2011).

Education in complex emergencies is an evolving problem

As defined by WHO, complex emergencies are situations of disrupted livelihoods and threats to life produced by warfare, civil disturbance and large-scale movements of people, in which any emergency response has to be conducted in a difficult political and security environment (Wisner and Adams, 2002). Education in complex emergencies is an evolving problem, and a serious one.

The number of refugees and internally displaced persons grew to 51.2 million in 2013, the highest number since the Second World War

The number of refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs) grew to 51.2 million in 2013, the highest number since the Second World War. Half of these forcibly displaced people are children (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b; UNHCR, 2013). More than 172 million people globally were estimated to be affected by conflict in 2012 (Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters, 2013). Conflict-affected countries account for one-third of people living in extreme poverty and over half of global child mortality (Nicolai, 2015). Emergency situations exacerbate marginalization, as poverty, social exclusion, conflict, natural disasters and climate change interact to compound vulnerability (Climate Change and African Political Stability, 2013; Harris et al., 2013; UN Secretary-General, 2013).

A major challenge in addressing or analysing education in emergency situations is a lack of evidence on the educational and economic costs of disruption of school-age populations at the country level (Nicolai et al., 2014). Yet it is clear that education systems are disrupted. The proportion of out-of-school children living in conflict-affected countries increased from 30% in 1999 to 36% in 2012, and increased substantially in the Arab States and in South and West Asia (see Introduction). Research on natural disasters is more limited, but recent estimates suggest that 175 million children are likely to be affected by natural disasters annually (UN Office for Disaster Risk Reduction, 2012). Improved data are leading to growing visibility and recognition of education concerns for internally displaced populations. In Nigeria, data on displacement were produced for the

first time in 2013 and, at 3.3 million people, far exceeded earlier estimates of the scale of the problem (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b).

Emergency situations lead to a high number of incidents of school attacks, rape and sexual violence

Emergency situations weaken the social compact and lead to a high number of incidents of school attacks, rape and sexual violence, further marginalizing already disadvantaged groups (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2014). Boys and girls are both at risk of being forcibly recruited, sometimes from their classrooms, and exploited as front-line soldiers or used as spies, suicide bombers and sexual slaves (Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers, 2008). Girls have additional vulnerabilities in conflict situations: more than 200 Nigerian schoolgirls were kidnapped in April 2014 just because they were in school (Abubakar, 2014), and at the height of the Afghanistan war, girls' schools were disproportionately targeted for violent attacks (Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack, 2014). The current situation in the Syrian Arab Republic is the largest displacement crisis in the world (**Box 2.4**). Natural disasters also result in deterioration of infrastructure and resources, which can lead to permanent loss of human capital, increased prevalence of child labour and setbacks in health and employment opportunities (Baez et al., 2010).

Policy has changed since Dakar

I left because of the things that were happening, with the rebels. They destroyed our school, we couldn't go any more. They didn't like the way some of the girls were dressed. They yelled at us, saying that what we were wearing wasn't good. They broke our school desks, destroyed our school books and our things. School is supposed to be a place where we learn things.

– Sita, student in Nigeria

In the 1990s, global humanitarian assistance more than doubled (Randal and German, 2002), reflecting growing awareness of civil wars, ethnic confrontations and regional conflicts such as the Balkan wars and the Rwandan genocide (Stockholm International Peace Research Institute, 2000). Despite increased attention to humanitarian crises, there was limited emphasis on education (Boothby, 1992; Nicolai, 2015). UNHCR created its first set of educational field guidelines in the 1990s (Nicolai, 2015); UNESCO's Teacher Emergency Package was first used in Mogadishu in 1993; UNICEF began using kits to provide educational and recreational materials in emergencies in 1991, and initiated 'child-friendly spaces' from around 1999 (Sinclair, 2001). International NGOs, such as CARE, Catholic Relief Services, Christian Children's Fund (now ChildFund International), the International Rescue Committee and Save the Children, began playing an important role in the education response (Nicolai and Tripplehorn, 2003).

Box 2.4: Education in a situation of dramatic displacement: Syrian Arab Republic

What are the long-term ramifications of the Syrian crisis? Some believe the crisis will lead to a 'lost generation', with the majority of Syrian children lacking fundamental necessities and unable to gain an education. In 2013 alone, over 9,500 people a day fled their homes as the Syrian Arab Republic entered its third year of conflict. As of December 2013, of the 4.8 million school-age Syrian children, some 2.2 million inside the country were out of school, as were a half-million refugee children in Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey. The Syrian Network for Human Rights alleges that the government has turned a thousand schools into detention and torture centres, and numerous schools have been converted into barracks. Two-thirds of the refugee children are out of school, and this group now faces lower enrolment ratios than those found in Afghanistan, a country with a much longer history of conflict and a poorer tradition of education. The sheer numbers of refugee children are overwhelming education systems in neighbouring countries.

The multinational nature of the Syrian crisis is recognized, with separate coordination groups working in each country. In the Syrian Arab Republic, a working group on education focusing on a coordinating role is hosted by Save the Children. A Syria Regional Response Plan examines education activities in Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon and Turkey. A high-level regional conference on education and the Syrian refugee crisis has been held. Activities include providing school kits, rehabilitating schools and learning spaces, and running summer learning programmes. Child-friendly spaces have been set up in at least 16 camps.

However, meeting the education needs of this diverse population will remain a key challenge, given country capacities and ongoing tensions. Despite major pledges by most wealthy nations, humanitarian aid has trickled in slowly over the past four years. The need for education financing remains underserved.

Sources: Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack (2014), Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies (2014), Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (2014a, 2014b, 2014c), Nicolai (2015), UNHCR (2014), Watkins (2013).

The field of education in emergencies struggled in the late 1990s with conceptual hurdles including how to define the duration of an emergency, whether non-formal schooling was acceptable education and whether education in emergencies was its own humanitarian sector, as it fell between emergency humanitarian responses that did not prioritize education and development work on education where actors rarely worked in crisis situations. Unsurprisingly, key humanitarian agencies had limited capacity to provide education in emergency situations (Nicolai, 2015).

Since 2000, education in situations of crisis and emergency has been consolidated as a new field, recognized as one of the six areas of concern at Dakar, and developed since then (World Education Forum, 2000). The UN and international NGOs that attended Dakar formed the Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE), which has grown into a vast network of organizations and individuals working in over 170 countries.

Establishing minimum standards for education in emergencies was a key advance, developed through a year-long process in 2003 with contributions from over 2,250 individuals and more than 50 countries (Anderson, 2004; Nicolai, 2015). The standards have since been used extensively in both conflict and natural disaster settings, most frequently for preparing for emergencies, but also for advocacy and coordination (INEE, 2012). Global reports such as the Education Under Attack series and the 2011 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* brought widespread attention to the field and the scale of the challenges facing it. A further development is growing financial commitment for fragile states by the Global Partnership for Education (Nicolai, 2015), as this GMR's finance chapter shows.

A new cluster approach has helped mainstream the response

One of the most significant developments for education in emergency has been the cluster approach of the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC). It ensures a holistic response where the education cluster is one of 11 main sectors of humanitarian action such as health, water sanitation and logistics. The approach entails designating a lead agency and assigning groups of humanitarian organizations to each sector.

At the global level, the Education Cluster Unit and the Education Cluster Working Group focus on strengthening capacity to prepare for, respond to and recover from emergencies. At the country level, Education Clusters have been activated in over 40 countries. An education cluster is activated in a country for a given humanitarian crisis's full duration, either short term or, where crises are protracted, for years. At the time of writing, 20 country-level education clusters were active. The cluster approach, as adapted to education, has been used extensively for policy planning, advocacy, programming and capacity-building, led by UNICEF in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and by Save the Children in Haiti (Lattimer, 2012; Nicolai, 2015).

In the Democratic Republic of the Congo, conflict since 1996 has left more than 5 million people dead (Nicolai, 2015) and displaced as many as 3 million (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b). In 2006, the country became one of the pilot countries for the IASC Education Cluster approach. Cluster activities included setting up emergency classrooms, distributing education kits, providing teacher training and accelerated learning programmes, and developing risk reduction plans. As a result of one-year bridging courses, over 126,000 children were able to reintegrate into school in 2013 (Nicolai, 2015).

Establishing minimum standards for education in emergencies was a key advance

In Haiti, a massive earthquake in 2010 left over 220,000 dead and 2.3 million homeless. It was followed the same year by a cholera epidemic and Hurricane Tomas. About 80% of the schools in Haiti were damaged or destroyed as a result of the earthquake (Nicolai, 2015). In the months following, the cluster coordinated the work of more than 100 organizations. In the first year of response, nearly 200,000 children benefited from temporary learning spaces and over 500,000 children received basic learning materials (Lattimer and Berther, 2010).

Challenges remain

Despite major advances, persistent challenges remain in addressing education in emergencies. In long-term conflict situations, such as in

the Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria and Pakistan, the length and intensity of the situation have had severe impacts beyond conflict-affected regions, through broader collateral damage, as well as indirect impacts such as forced displacements, reduced foreign investment and increased health problems (Jones and Naylor, 2014).

Furthermore, it is unclear when 'displacement' and 'emergencies' end. Even after displaced populations return, there are problems. In Pakistan, registered IDPs began returning to federally administered tribal areas at the end of military operations in 2009, but the more than 1.4 million who have returned are still struggling to recover their livelihoods, and sorely lack access to schooling (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b). The transience of displaced people also complicates the delivery of education. In 22 countries monitored in 2013, more than 60% of IDPs were living outside camps. In some countries, the children of such IDPs may be less likely to attend school than those living in camps where free education is provided (Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, 2014b).

Multilateral institutions and civil society advocates cannot compensate for a lack of involvement by national governments

Arguably the most important point is that, with education considered a less immediate concern in an emergency, the lack of funding for education within humanitarian aid budgeting remains a huge problem (see Finance chapter).

Conclusions

National and international commitments to primary education have led to considerable progress in many low income countries since 2000. Gains achieved through both demand- and supply-side initiatives are impressive, especially considering the challenges faced by many countries in this period, from economic crises and natural disasters to conflict and population growth.

Progress towards universal primary education appears related to legitimacy and power: whether initiatives have political and community support and whether marginalized groups are considered worthy of access to education. The proliferation of non-government education providers, a development mostly unanticipated at the time of the World Education Forum in Dakar, is indicative of this situation, showing a lack of adequate government attention to marginalized groups, and the fact that these providers are better able to meet different types of parental desires, including quality and stratification.

Government and civil society must work together in a concerted way to promote universal primary education for the larger population, and to increase community ownership as well as understanding of the major benefits for everyone in society of improved education and development outcomes for marginalized groups. Multilateral institutions and civil society advocates that work on these issues globally, regionally and locally cannot compensate for a lack of involvement by national governments. Policies recommended at the global level to improve access to education are unlikely to 'trickle down' to the national level, overcome structural barriers and address specific contextual needs.

Finally, the commitment to education access must be equalled by a focus on learning and relevance, as discussed in more detail in Chapter 6 on quality. This will allow progression through the primary school cycle and advancement to further education. Focusing on quality will also ensure that public education can become a vehicle for social mobility for disadvantaged populations.

Credit: Eva-Lotta Jansson

CHAPTER 3

Goal 3: Youth and adult skills

Highlights

- As a result of increasing transition rates and higher retention rates, participation in lower and upper secondary education has increased since 1999. In Afghanistan, China, Ecuador, Mali and Morocco, the lower secondary gross enrolment ratio has increased by at least 27 percentage points.
- Inequality persists in the transition from primary to secondary school. In the Philippines, just 69% of primary school graduates from the poorest families continued into lower secondary, compared with 94% of adolescents from the richest households.
- Two out of three countries where lower secondary education was not compulsory in 2000 had changed their legislation by 2012, including India, Indonesia, Nigeria and Pakistan.
- Over 1.7 million displaced children and young people are denied access to education. More must be done to address education access and achievement for migrant students, including policies on language, legal status and finance.
- Adult education programmes in high income countries appear to have mostly served those who completed secondary education rather than adults who lack basic skills.
- Contemporary society requires citizens with skills for civic engagement, living a healthy life and sustainable development. New measurements and broader definitions for "skills" will become increasingly important after 2015.

Many young people lack the skills they need for decent jobs. Global efforts are required to build the foundational skills for entering the workforce and actively participating in society. This chapter describes progress in access to secondary education, as well as barriers for marginalized groups. It examines skills and values that matter for social progress, and calls for education alternatives for those no longer in school. Finally, the chapter reviews the changing discourse on technical and vocational skills, and examples of adult education.

> *"In Vietnam, in addition to the formal curriculum, students participate in extracurricular activities and attend seminars on the environment, health and peace. Educating and providing children and adults with the skills they need to thrive in society is an important part of implementing the education development goals in the 21st century."*
>
> H.E. Mr. Pham Vu Luan, Minister of Education, Viet Nam

Goal 3 Youth and adult skills

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

The third Education for All (EFA) goal focused on youth and adults, and was to be reached not merely through formal education in schools but also through experiences outside the school, such as on-the-job training or other opportunities over the life course. The wide focus of goal 3 came at the cost of clarity: it lacks a clear measurable target and refers to an outcome – life skills – that can be understood in a diversity of ways.[1] Despite such ambiguities, this chapter addresses the following questions: What type of access to what types of skills increased since Dakar? What changes in opportunity are evident for marginalized groups? What advances have been made in the monitoring of life skills, policies affecting access to skills programmes, and the discourse around skills? This chapter considers three types of skills – foundational, transferable and vocational – and beyond skills for livelihoods, this chapter also discusses skills that matter for other outcomes.

The most important indicator of progress in opportunities to acquire foundation skills is access to secondary school. The chapter describes policies supporting secondary school access as well as socio-economic inequality. Particular attention is given to two disadvantaged marginalized groups, working adolescents and migrant youth.

To examine attainment of transferable skills, this chapter reviews progress in knowledge on health and changes in values. An assessment of changes in the provision of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and adult education is not possible due to the lack of systemic information at the global level. Developments in these areas are therefore described mainly using case studies.

Finally, the chapter points to new directions for a post-2015 framework based on direct measurement of transferable skills. Studies like the OECD's 2012 Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) and the World Bank's Skills Toward Employment and Productivity (STEP) framework gauge the importance of cognitive and non-cognitive skills that matter to adults' livelihoods, well-being and citizenship. Although direct skill assessments cannot yet be compared over time, programmes like STEP and PIAAC could make it possible to monitor equitable skill attainment in many countries in the future. Direct measures could begin to supplement indicators of the provision of skills and lifelong learning.

Defining skills

What are 'skills'? Many languages distinguish between capabilities that are innate and competencies that are acquired through experience in schools and non-school settings. English uses the words 'intelligence' and 'talent' to refer to capabilities that are inborn or acquired early in childhood. The Dakar Framework for Action used the English word 'skills' to refer to competencies that can be gained from experiences during and after childhood, especially through education.

The most important indicator of progress in opportunities to acquire foundation skills is access to secondary school

Skills are understood by the EFA movement to originate from deliberate and intentional experiences offered by formal, non-formal, employer-based or other lifelong learning opportunities. As used in this chapter, 'skills' is more specific than general 'knowledge' because skills are intended to yield economic, social, developmental or political consequences.

The Dakar Framework referred to 'life skills', advocating not only the capability of generating or adding value to an economic product (what economists term 'human capital'), but also the skills individuals need for a fulfilling and healthy life and full participation in society. Understandings of life skills evolved after Dakar. For example, the World Health Organization (WHO) described life skills as

1. These have been discussed extensively in the previous 2002, 2006, 2007 and 2012 *EFA Global Monitoring Reports*.

'a group of psychosocial competencies and interpersonal skills that help people make informed decisions, solve problems, think critically and creatively, communicate effectively, build healthy relationships, empathise with others and cope with and manage their lives in a healthy and productive manner' (WHO, 2003). The Interagency Working Group on Life Skills in EFA stated that life skills are 'cross-cutting applications of knowledge, values, attitudes and skills that are important in the process of individual development and lifelong learning (UNESCO, 2004). In short, life skills were perceived as necessary to promote good health in oneself and one's family, and to maximize one's contributions as a citizen, beyond just earning a livelihood.

Foundation skills obtained in secondary school are essential for career advancement, active citizenship, and safe choices about personal health

The 2012 GMR, subtitled 'Youth and Skills: Putting Education to Work', focused on skills for employment – sometimes also called 'livelihood skills' – that could be considered 'foundation', 'transferable' or 'technical and vocational'. Foundation skills, as they relate to employment, are those needed to obtain work or continued training and include literacy and numeracy skills. Transferable skills are the broader range of skills that can be transferred and adapted to different work environments, and allow people to retain employment. They also include the capabilities to analyse problems, reach creative solutions, communicate ideas, and exercise collaboration, leadership and entrepreneurship. Skills include what are sometimes called 'socio-emotional' and non-cognitive competencies that can be acquired both through experience and education. In one sense, TVET skills are the specific technical know-how related to particular work activities, whether growing vegetables, using a sewing machine, engaging in bricklaying or carpentry, or working on a computer in an office. In a broader sense, such skills also can be seen as life skills.

Foundation skills: Participation in secondary education has increased

Foundation skills include the literacy and numeracy skills necessary for decent work that pays enough to meet daily needs. These foundation skills are also needed to obtain further education and training. People who cannot read, write and do basic arithmetic have fewer opportunities for gainful employment, entrepreneurial activity or civic participation. Foundation skills obtained in secondary school can also be considered essential for career advancement, active citizenship and safe choices about personal health. These are important reasons why many countries have enacted policies or laws making both primary education and lower secondary education free and compulsory (Benavot and Resnick, 2006).

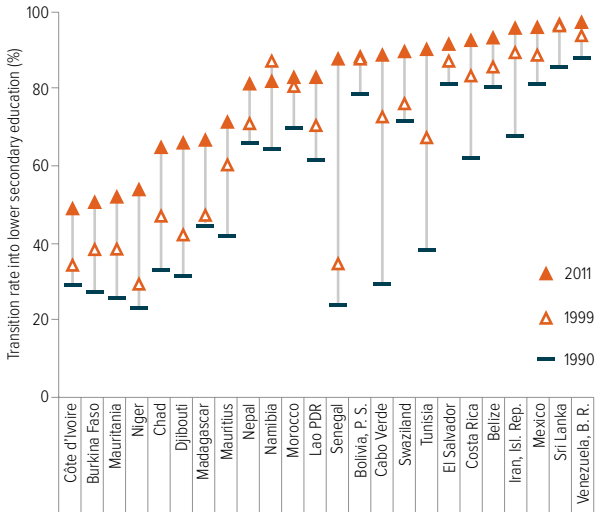
Although there has been some progress in directly assessing foundation skills, there is currently no such global measure. In light of this, an important proxy indicator of progress on goal 3 is access to secondary education. Those who gain access to secondary schooling are also more likely to participate in adult education and lifelong learning programmes.

It is also essential to monitor access to secondary education because equitable access would fulfil an EFA commitment to marginalized people who have difficulty accessing good learning environments or obtaining skills outside school. This may be partly because they lack the personal connections to do so and, if they live in rural areas, they may be farther away from opportunities for employment.

An increasing number of adolescents who reach the end of the primary school cycle have made the transition into lower secondary school. Some countries made rapid gains before Dakar. For example, in Cabo Verde and Tunisia, the transition rate into secondary school increased from less than 40% of primary school graduates in 1990 to about 70% by 1999. However, for many countries such as Djibouti, Senegal and Nepal, progress was far faster after 2000 (**Figure 3.1**).

As a result of increasing transition rates and higher retention rates, participation in lower and upper secondary education has increased fast since 1999, particularly in poorer countries. The lower secondary education gross enrolment ratio has increased by at least 27 percentage points in Afghanistan, China, Ecuador, Mali and Morocco. In Mozambique, enrolment increased by almost five times from 7% in 1999 to 34% in 2012. Large increases have also been observed in upper secondary education participation.

Figure 3.1: More primary school graduates have continued to lower secondary
Primary to lower secondary transition rates in 1990, 1999 and 2011, selected countries



Note: Countries are ordered by transition rate in 2011.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 7.

The gross enrolment ratio increased from 6% to 28% in Guinea and to 50% in Bhutan between 1999 and 2012. It almost doubled from about 40% to about 75% in Indonesia and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela over the period (**Figure 3.2**).

As over-age enrolment and repetition rates in primary education have declined since 2000, more of those lower secondary school age adolescents who are in school are in fact enrolled in lower secondary school and not over-age primary school students. In El Salvador, where the total lower secondary school net enrolment ratio increased from 77% to 91%, the proportion of those adolescents enrolled in primary school fell from 32% to 26% between 2000 and 2012.

Many countries have expanded basic education to include lower secondary

Several factors contributed to the expansion of lower secondary enrolment. The abolition of school fees at this level – as earlier with primary school fees – led more children to access secondary schools. This was accompanied in some countries by changes in the legal frameworks to assure basic education. Analysis of documents in the UNESCO Right to Education Database indicates that 94 out of the 107 low and middle income countries have legislated free lower secondary education (UNESCO, 2014d). Of these, 66 have constitutional guarantees and 28 enacted other legal measures. As of 2015, only a few nations charge lower secondary school fees, including Botswana, Guinea, Papua New Guinea, South Africa and the United Republic of Tanzania.

In addition to suspending lower secondary school fees, two out of three countries where lower secondary education was not compulsory in 2000 had changed their legislation by 2012. Among those countries that legislated compulsory lower secondary education since Dakar were India, Indonesia, Nigeria and Pakistan. As of 2012, only 25 countries have no legal requirement for lower secondary attendance, including Iraq, Malaysia and Nicaragua.

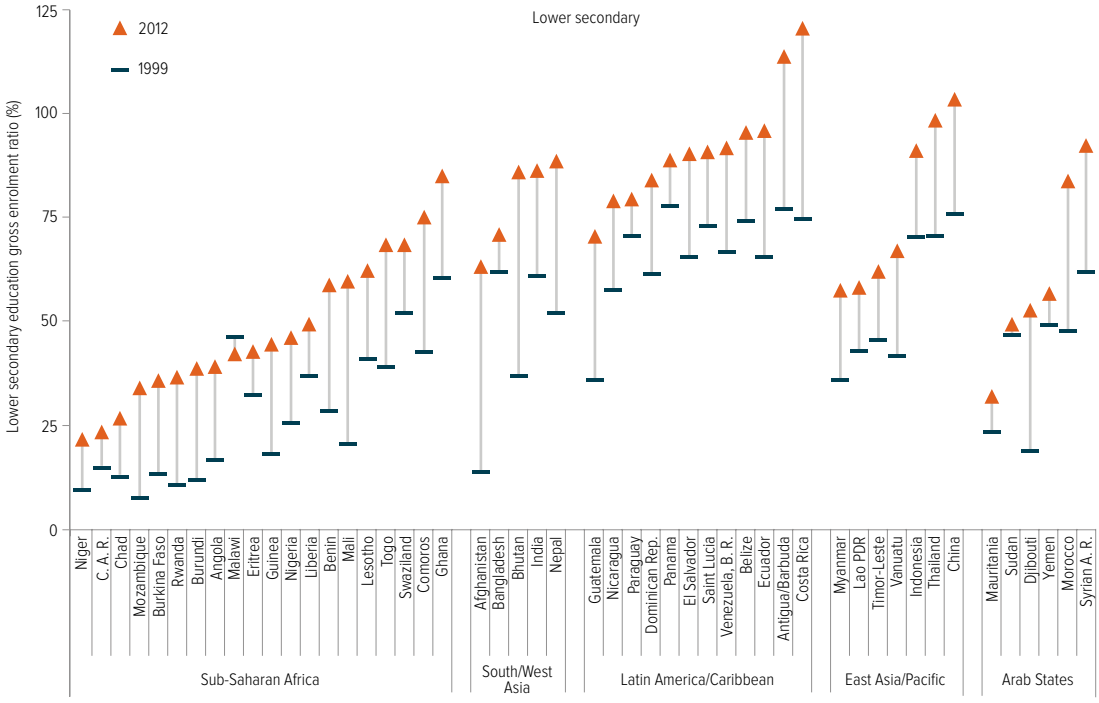
Two out of three countries where lower secondary education was not compulsory in 2000 had changed their legislation by 2012

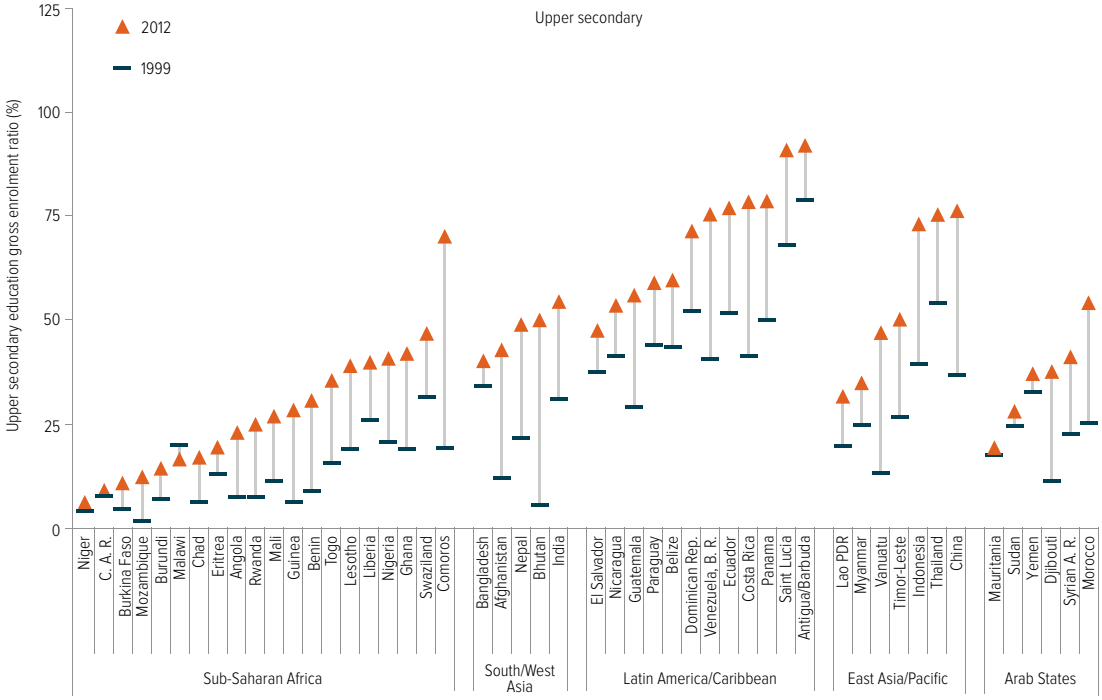
Along with establishing extended basic education as a legal norm, more countries suspended primary school leaving examinations that determined whether a child could continue schooling and in which track. However, some countries still retain them. In Asia, Indonesia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Mongolia, Sri Lanka and Thailand have such examinations (Hill, 2013).

Among the most significant factors behind the increased demand for secondary schooling was the rising rate of primary education completion in many countries, thus enabling larger cohorts to become eligible for continued study. In Thailand, which extended compulsory education in its 1999 National Education Act and 2003 Compulsory Education Act, the achievement of compulsory universal primary education eventually led to increased pressure on the government to greatly expand access to the lower secondary level.

The slow growth of publicly provided secondary education likely spurred a heightened demand for and interest in private alternatives. Between 1999 and 2012, the percentage of enrolments in private secondary institutions rose from 15% to 17% in developing countries; increases were especially pronounced in the Arab States and East Asia. And, as private schools sought students, they further accelerated the public's demand for secondary schooling.

Figure 3.2: Countries have expanded lower and upper secondary enrolment since Dakar
Gross enrolment ratios in lower secondary and upper secondary education, 1999 and 2012





Notes: Countries selected had gross enrolment ratio data in or around 1999 and 2012, and a lower secondary gross enrolment ratio of less than 75% in 1999.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 7 (print) and 8 (GMR website); UIS database.

The Dakar Framework for Action may have also helped establish and legitimize domestic institutions and civil society organizations that promoted the right to lower secondary education. Senegal, as shown in Figure 3.2, had the most notable change in the transition rate from primary to lower secondary. Its transition rate was only 24% in 1990 and 35% in 1999. But by 2011 it had reached 88%. This change should not be surprising, given that Senegal hosted the World Education Forum in 2000, and in 2004 extended free and compulsory education to include lower secondary. The Dakar Framework was also influential in encouraging dialogue with traditional religious actors who had been resistant to what they viewed as Western forms of education. Increased dialogue helped generate support for legal reforms in 2004 and facilitate the incorporation of religious schools in the formal education system, thus maximizing the enrolment of lower secondary school-aged children (Villalón and Bodian, 2012).

Inequality persists in lower secondary education

Along with expanding access to secondary education, it is necessary to examine the equity of its distribution. As access to secondary schooling becomes gradually universal, it is usually obtained first by advantaged groups and only later by the marginalized and poor (Buchmann and Hannum, 2001; Foster, 1977; Hout and DiPrete, 2006; Kelley and Klein, 1977; Shavit and Blossfeld, 1993).

Even when low income, minority language or other marginalized groups achieve access to lower secondary education, further differentiation is likely between higher and lower quality schools, sometimes through the emergence of private schools. Further differentiation will also likely appear in the transition to the next level: unequal access to lower secondary means upper secondary remains or becomes a source of inequality. This pattern is found even in countries that promise educational opportunity to children irrespective of ability to pay.

Analysis of household survey data reveals differences between children from the richest and poorest households in low and middle income countries in the likelihood of transitioning from primary to lower secondary and from lower secondary to upper secondary school (**Figure 3.3**). In some countries, like Colombia, Malawi, Pakistan and the Philippines, gaps between wealth groups did not change very noticeably. In the Philippines, only 69% of adolescents from the poorest households who reached the end of primary school continued into lower secondary school in 2008 compared with 94% of adolescents from the richest households, a situation hardly different relative to 2003.

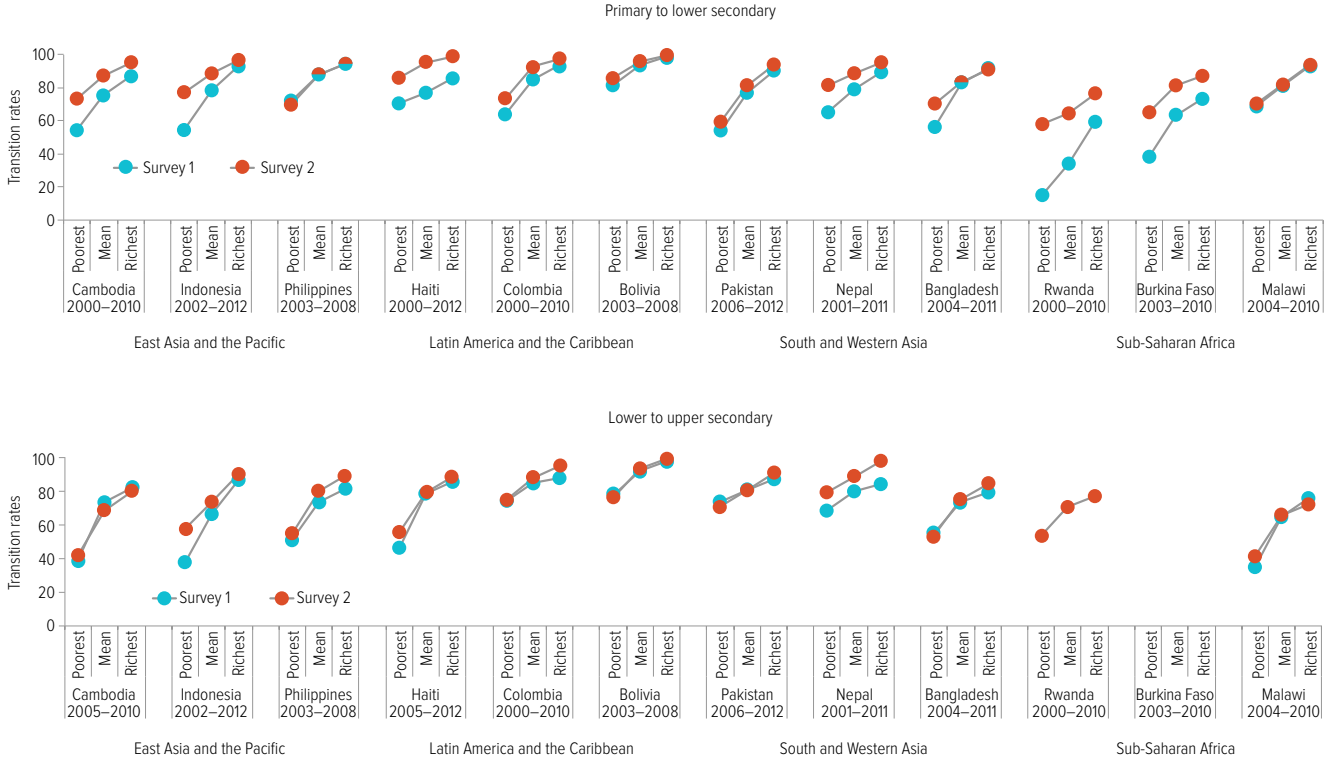
In a few countries, however, including Indonesia and Rwanda, the gap in transition between children from wealthier and poorer households obviously closed. In Rwanda, the poorest adolescents who reached the end of primary school and made the transition into lower secondary school increased from just 15% in 2000 to 58% in 2010, more than halving the gap separating them from their wealthiest peers.

Inequalities also remain in the attainment of lower secondary education, for example according to where adolescents live. In a few countries the rural–urban gap in lower secondary school attainment has substantially reduced. In Nepal, there was a gap in attainment rate of about 35 percentage points in 2001 with only 27% of adolescents graduating from lower secondary school in rural areas. By 2011, the gap had fallen to about 20 percentage points with 58% of adolescents graduating from lower secondary school in rural areas.

In other countries, inequalities remained or even increased, as urban children advanced faster than did rural children in terms of lower secondary attainment. In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the rural–urban lower secondary education attainment gap increased from 29 to 42 percentage points between 2000 and 2011. In 2011, just 23% of rural adolescents graduated from lower secondary school compared with 65% of urban ones (**Figure 3.4**).

As secondary schooling becomes universal, it is obtained first by advantaged groups and only later by the marginalized and poor

Figure 3.3: Wealth gaps in secondary school transition rates have remained in many countries
Transition rate to lower and upper secondary education, by wealth, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Source: EFA GMR team calculations (2015) based on household survey data from various years.

Access to secondary school has been an issue for marginalized groups

Goal 3 affirms that education opportunities for skill acquisition must be equitable. Like the hard-to-reach groups discussed in Chapter 2, working children and migrants are two important groups whose access to secondary education and acquisition of skills can be monitored.

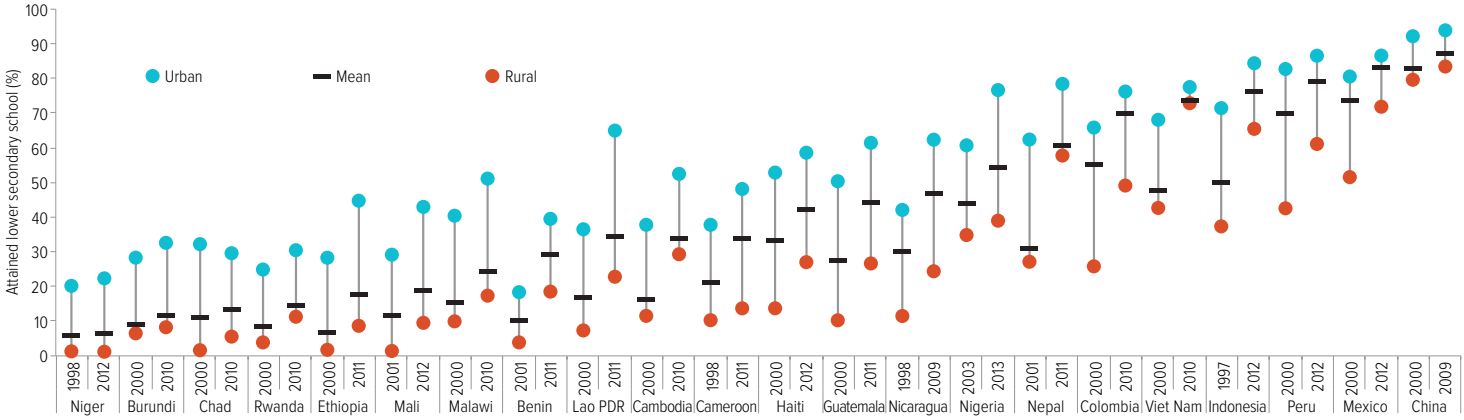
Working adolescents have continued to face major challenges

In some rich economies, many young students work for fun, learning or discretionary income. However, in most of the world, work by children and adolescents is associated with household poverty and the lack of disposable income. Since the adoption of the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention in 1999 (No. 182), the International Labour Organization (ILO) and its International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour have focused on the most intolerable forms of child labour rather than holding countries to the stringent demands of the ILO Minimum Age Convention of 1973 (No. 138), which effectively prohibits most work during the ages when schooling is compulsory.

As compulsory education became institutionalized, and as opportunities for low-skill work declined, there was a global shift of children's activity from jobs and into school. However, universalizing attendance will not necessarily reduce the need to or the reality of work for many young people. Many children who continue their studies past primary education do not do so exclusively, and increased lower secondary school participation rates do not necessarily reduce children's economic activity correspondingly.

Analysis of survey data shows that even as countries increased school coverage, many saw persisting rates of part-time work by students. Substantial proportions of adolescents of secondary school age continued to work outside of school in most of the 16 countries analysed

Figure 3.4: Gaps between rural and urban areas in lower secondary school attainment remain
Lower secondary attainment rate, by location, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Note: Countries are ordered by the most recent mean attainment rate.
Source: EFA GMR team calculations (2015) based on household survey data from various years.

(**Figure 3.5**). Many young people worked exclusively and many others combined work with schooling, though patterns differ across countries. In Cameroon, about 70% of students aged 12 to 14 worked in 2001 with little change observed by 2011.[2] By contrast, the percentage of working students aged 12 to 14 fell from 80% to 47% over the same period in Togo. Likewise, in Senegal there was a decline in the proportion of students who worked, even as school participation increased. The more hours children work per week, the less likely they are to attend school, and those who do attend are more likely to lag in the years of schooling they attain (Understanding Children's Work, 2015).

The percentages of students who must work while studying are likely to be underestimated. Parents, who usually provide information about children's activities, may be reluctant to tell interviewers that children are working, especially if it is considered illegal by international standards. Student self-reports of their employment status are higher. GMR analysis of the 2007 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) for Indonesia found that 30% of grade 8 students stated that they worked for pay during the school week, well above the estimate based on parents' responses shown in Figure 3.5.

2. The term 'work', as used here, does not include the many domestic responsibilities and tasks at home, often done by girls, since this is considered 'non-economic activity' in labour force surveys. Other types of surveys that report domestic responsibilities typically find more children who are working, especially girls, than are included in Figure 3.5 under the 'employment' category.

Working students lag in acquiring foundation skills

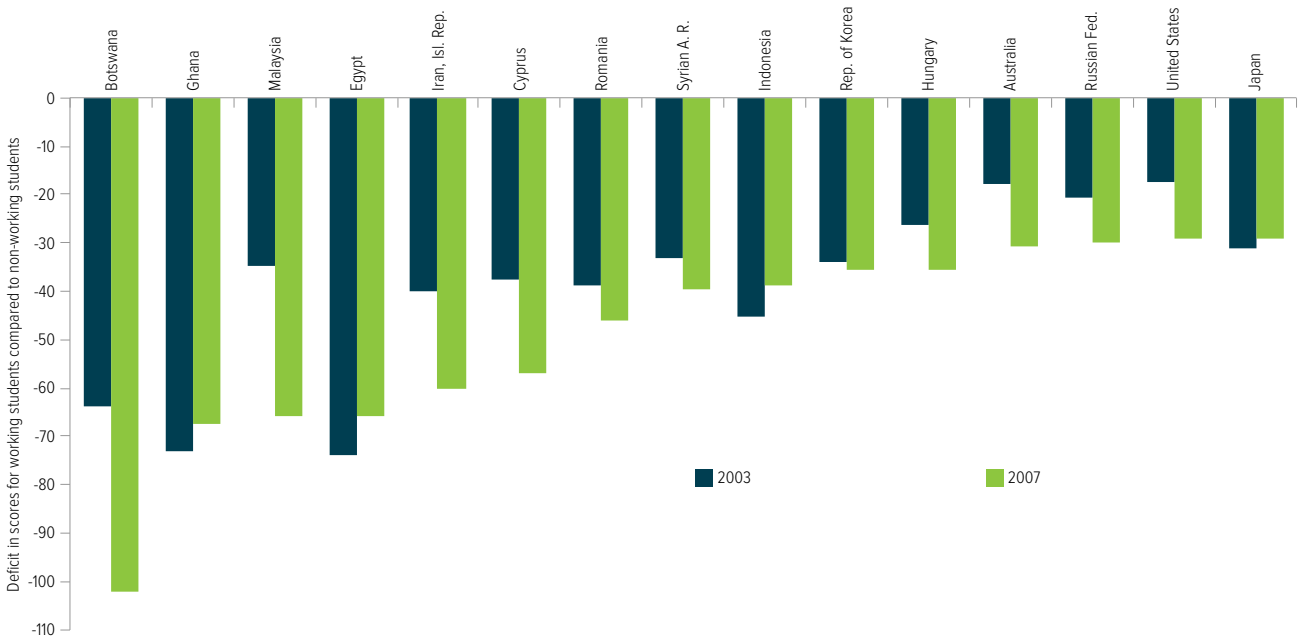
Working students lag in acquiring foundation skills. For example, as part of the 2003 and 2007 TIMSS, working grade 8 students in Egypt scored about 70 points below their non-working peers in science proficiency (**Figure 3.6**). Policies can soften the impact: the negative association between student employment and academic performance is smaller among students whose countries had ratified the ILO Minimum Age Convention by the year they began their schooling, probably because of labour protections in these countries (Byun et al., 2014).

Other differences between working and non-working students, apart from whether they work, complicate interpretation of differences in cognitive skills. Weaker students may voluntarily work, or weaker students might be pushed to find work by the economic circumstances of their family (Post and Pong, 2009a). It was found in the United States that intensive employment in itself reduces measurable cognitive skills (Greenberger and Steinberg, 1986; Marsh, 1991; Marsh and Kleitman, 2005; McNeal, 1997). Yet, negative effects of working while at school for skills acquisition were found even after controlling for family resources (Gunnarsson et al., 2006; Heady, 2000). Working students' skills increase less in secondary school than those of full-time students, even if prior skill levels are taken into account (Post and Pong, 2000, 2009b).

Figure 3.5: Many adolescents continue to work either during their studies or instead of studying
Time allocation of 12- to 14-year-olds and 15- to 17-year-olds, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010

Source: Understanding Children's Work (2015).

Figure 3.6: Students who work for pay while in school score lower than non-working students
Science proficiency score gap between non-working and working grade 8 students, selected countries, 2003 and 2007



Note: An analysis of mathematics proficiency produced nearly identical findings. Effects persist even after taking demographic and school-related factors into account.
Sources: Estimates based on TIMSS data from the 2003 survey (Byun et al., 2014) and the 2007 survey (GMR team calculations).

Migrant youth need equitable access to skills

Increasingly, the world is witness to unprecedented human mobility: in 2010, an estimated 214 million people migrated internationally (World Bank, 2011b). About three-quarters of international migrants originate in the Global South; an estimated 147 million to 174 million migrants were born in developing countries (International Organization for Migration (IOM), 2013). Labour demand, economic crises, urbanization, entrenched poverty, political instability and conflict have contributed to migration since Dakar (Bartlett 2015).

Addressing the needs of migrants and providing them with basic skills have become pressing concerns in all regions (see **Box 3.1**). International migrants, in particular, face more challenges than their native-born peers in obtaining equitable access to learning opportunities and life skills. Several systemic factors – for example, legal status, segregation, school finance and language policy – affect access to both formal and non-formal education (Bartlett, 2015).

Young people and families with young children have been particularly mobile, both across and within nations, especially from less developed to more developed regions. In more affluent countries, UN estimations show 15.7% of people under age 20 were immigrants in 1990, and the share had increased to 18.9% by 2013 (United Nations, 2013). Access to education is not always guaranteed to migrant youth, especially those with irregular legal status. A survey of migration policies in 28 countries, including 14 developed countries with high rates of human development and 14 developing countries with lower human development scores, found that 40% of the former and more than 50% of the latter did not allow children with irregular status access to schooling (Klugman and Pereira, 2009). In addition to formal restrictions, migrants with irregular status may avoid formal schooling for fear of detention or deportation (Bartlett, 2015). It is difficult to determine how many displaced children and youth are denied access to schooling, but estimates from 2004 suggested at least 27 million children and young people affected by armed conflict were not in school, the vast majority of whom were internally displaced (Ferris and Winthrop, 2010)

Moreover, deportation policies adversely affect migrants and their education opportunities. Several countries have expanded the number of offences that result in deportation and have

Deportation policies adversely affect migrants and their education opportunities

Box 3.1: Contrasting approaches to south–south migrants in Ecuador and the Dominican Republic

Due to an internal economic crisis and intensification of armed conflict in Colombia, between 1999 and 2004 Ecuador experienced increased immigration. Nearly 60,000 Colombians were living in Ecuador by 2013, leading to policy challenges including separated families, children without parental care and growing numbers of asylum seekers. Ecuador addressed these through its 2008 constitution, which, taking a human rights approach, incorporated notions of universal citizenship, free circulation of people, and migrants as deserving full access to services provided by the state. Since 2012, migrant children and youth in Ecuador have no longer been defined as foreigners, but rather as 'vulnerable', with special needs related to 'human mobility'. Under the new constitution, Ecuador is committed to guarantee that private, public and religious schools will provide support and adapt the learning environment to satisfy the needs of this population.

The Dominican Republic and Haiti share the island of Hispaniola and a 380 kilometre border. The Dominican Republic faces pressures because the politically influential members of the Dominican economic elite rely upon (and therefore tolerate) Haitian immigrant labour, but anti-Haitian sentiment flares regularly. In 2005, the Inter-American Human Rights Court ruled that the Dominican Republic had to comply with its 2002 constitution, which guaranteed access to education for all children, regardless of immigration status. Since that ruling, the government has generally encouraged primary schools to allow all children to register. Nevertheless, birth certificates are required for secondary school students, cutting short the education of thousands of children. Until 2010, Article 11 of the Dominican constitution guaranteed citizenship to almost anyone born on its territory. Then the constitution was changed so that citizenship is reserved for children born in the country to at least one parent who is a 'legal resident'. In 2013, a Dominican high court denationalized unauthorized people of Haitian descent born in the Dominican Republic since 1929. The denial of birth certificates and national identification cards has led to the denial of other rights, including the right to basic education.

Source: Bartlett, (2015).

significantly increased the number of migrants deported. Detention and deportation disrupt the schooling of children, not only if the children themselves are subject but if their parents are instead (Chaudry et al., 2010).

Meeting the specific needs of migrant students requires extra financial resources that are put to effective use (Brind et al., 2008). In the Netherlands, the Educational Priority Policy provided additional funding for poorer and ethnic minority students (Karsten, 2006). The British Excellence in Cities programme, for students living in disadvantaged urban areas where many migrants reside, provides support for teaching and learning, mentors, and information and communication technology (ICT), with some positive results (Kendall et al., 2005).

Language education policies and support for language learning is essential for the education of immigrant youth and their future engagement with the labour market (Christensen and Stanat, 2007). According to the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), in most countries, immigrants who speak the language of instruction at home maintain an estimated half a grade level advantage on average in mathematics over those who speak a different language at home, with an even greater gap in reading (Christensen and Stanat, 2007; Schnepf, 2004). This partly accounts for the fact that in most OECD countries, except Australia and Canada, first-generation migrants trail on average their native-born peers by about 1.5 school years in PISA assessments (Nusche, 2009).

Monitoring goal 3 requires information on values, attitudes and non-academic skills

Many institutional factors affect the education of immigrant youth, including support for early childhood education; age of school entry; the prominence, timing and consequences of ability grouping or tracking; school quality; rigour; diversity and responsiveness of curricula and pedagogies; and openness to cultural and religious diversity (Crul and Holdaway, 2009). A project that compared second-generation Turkish and Moroccan immigrants in six European countries showed that institutional arrangements, including the starting age for compulsory schooling, contact hours in primary school, timing of tracking, and apprenticeships made critical differences for immigrant students (Crul and Holdaway, 2009; Crul and Vermeulen, 2003).

The challenges facing domestic migrants have often been seen in the context of poor education provision in urban slum areas. Their education needs have received somewhat less attention, perhaps partly because the intensity of internal migration is slightly declining across the globe (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2013). However, unprecedented rates of domestic migration in China, which had already taken place during the 1990s, created enormous pressure on the Chinese education system to respond (**Box 3.2**).

Transferable skills: Skills and values that matter for social progress

In addition to goal 3's pledge to make sure youth and adults received equitable opportunities for learning and life skills, the Dakar Framework for Action stated: 'All young people and adults must be given the opportunity to gain the knowledge and develop the values, attitudes and skills that will enable them to develop their capacities to work, to participate fully in their society, to take control of their own lives and to continue learning.'

Monitoring this broad goal requires information on values, attitudes and non-academic skills that are neither internationally assessed nor reported by national education systems.

First, with support from the Republic of Korea, UNESCO has attempted to identify the type of life skills necessary for global citizenship. Core elements of an education to develop global citizenship include: (1) knowledge and understanding of specific global issues and trends, and knowledge of and respect for key universal values (e.g. peace, human rights, diversity, justice, democracy, caring, non-discrimination, tolerance); (2) cognitive skills for critical, creative and innovative thinking, problem-solving and decision-making; (3) non-cognitive skills such as empathy, openness to experiences and other perspectives, interpersonal and communication skills, and

Box 3.2: Rural–urban migration: The policy challenge to schooling and China's response

The largest migration in human history has occurred since Dakar, involving hundreds of millions of Chinese people moving from the rural interior to China's cities (Chan, 2013). The scale of this movement has had profound implications for equitable opportunities for rural children. At the time of the Dakar Forum, rural migrants faced severe challenges due to China's household registration system (*hukou*), but the country has taken steps to promote their schooling in recent years. These policy reforms contributed to global progress on goal 3 because of the large numbers of migrant youth affected. Established in the 1950s, the *hukou* system binds Chinese citizens' rights with their *hukou* registration place (Chan and Zhang, 1999). Until the mid-1980s, internal migration of rural citizens was not allowed, and there were grave educational consequences for the children of parents who migrated illegally. However, China then gradually relaxed its migration prohibitions, as the vast wave of rural–urban migration unfolded (Hao, 2012). The historical implications for migration and education policies are vast (**Table 3.1**).

At the time of the Dakar meeting, restrictions on public education for those without *hukou* status created a market of substandard private schools serving rural migrant children in cities. In 2000, these schools were profit-driven, had poor infrastructure and offered very low quality education (Han, 2004), thus reinforcing the rural–urban educational divide. Children whom migrant parents left behind attended inferior rural schools, and children who accompanied their parents to urban areas faced either high guest fees in urban public schools or low quality education in substandard private schools serving migrant children.

Table 3.1: Evolution of China's national policies on migration and the education of migrant children

China's National Policies on the Education of Children of Rural–Urban Migrants

1986	1996, 1998	Year 2000	2001	2003	2004	2006	2008	2010	2012
The Compulsory Education Law (1986)	• Provisional Regulations on Schooling for Children of Migrant Populations in Cities and Townships (1996) • Provisional Regulations on Schooling for Migrant Children (1998)		State Council's Decision on Basic Education Reform and Development (2001)	State Council's Guidelines on Further Improving Compulsory Education for Rural–Urban Migrant Children (2003)	Guidelines on Promoting the National "One Overall Fee" for Compulsory Education (2004)	On the Implementation of "Guidelines on Solving the Problems of Rural Migrant Labors" (2006); Amendment to the Compulsory Education Law (2006)	State Council's Notice on the Exemption of Tuitions and Fees in Urban Compulsory Education (2008)	National Mid- to Long-Term Educational Reform and Development Plan, 2010–2020 (2010)	• Guidelines on Taking College Entrance Exam in the Locality of Receiving Compulsory Education for Migrant Children (2012) • State Council's Guidelines on Further Promoting Well-Rounded Compulsory Education (2012)

1997, 1998	2001	2006	2010, 2011	2014
• Notice on Hukou Reform in Experimental Sites of Small Cities and Townships and on Improving the Administration of Rural Hukou (1997) • Guidelines on Solving Urgent Problems in Hukou Administration (1998)	Guidelines on Promoting Reform of Hukou-Administration in Small Cities and Townships (2001)	State Council's Several Guidelines on Solving the Problems of Rural Migrant Workers (2006)	State Council's Notice on the Gradual, Stable Reform of the Hukou Administration (2011)	State Council's Guidelines on Further Reforming Hukou-Registration System (2014)

China's National Policies on the *Hukou* System

Source: Hao and Yu (2015).

Box 3.2 (continued)

A national policy in 2001 was a turning point in the central government's approach to serving children of rural–urban migrants. The policy transferred the responsibility for financing the education of migrants from the government of the locality where the children had originated to that of the locality where they arrived.

A 2006 amendment to the 1986 Compulsory Education law stated that local governments should provide migrant children living out of their *hukou* with equal conditions in compulsory education. This amendment facilitated a central government policy of 2008 that explicitly abolished fees at public schools for rural migrant children.

With public financing shifted to receiving areas, innovative policy measures were developed to help existing urban schools with limited enrolment capacity to absorb the ever-growing migrant student body. In recent years, the central government has set aside funds for the schooling of migrant children to support local governments bearing the receiving responsibility. In addition, policies of 2006 and 2008 specified that local governments should fund public education according to the actual number of students (including migrant students) rather than the past criterion of students from the local *hukou*.

Like urban-born students, an overwhelming majority of rural migrant children now attend urban public schools with sufficient facilities and manageable class sizes. The reform seems to be enabling migrant children to experience relative success in urban schools compared with their peers in rural schools. China thus has moved closer to offering equitable opportunities in its urban areas. A nationally representative sample of over 22,000 students in 112 schools showed migrant children performing below their non-migrant peers in urban schools. Nevertheless, they scored about one-third higher than their rural peers, especially those left behind in villages when their parents had migrated to work in urban areas.

Of even greater concern is the performance of rural students overall, which lags far behind that of urban students, even including those who originated from rural areas and were from similar social backgrounds. There are still large differences in quality between rural and urban schools, but rural migrant children to China's cities are now benefiting from equitable finance laws that enable them to attend good schools.

Source: Hao and Yu, (2015).

Rural migrant children to China's cities are now benefiting from equitable finance laws that enable them to attend good schools

aptitude for networking and interacting with people of different backgrounds and origins; and (4) behavioural capacity to launch and engage in proactive actions (UNESCO, 2013b).

A second attempt to expand the concept of skills beyond cognitive or livelihood skills was launched by the OECD (2014k) as part of its three year Education for Social Progress project. The OECD used longitudinal data collected in 11 countries to identify the causal effects of skills on a variety of measures of individuals' life success. It concluded that 'social and emotional skills such as perseverance, sociability and self-confidence drive numerous measures of social outcome including cognitive skills, health and well-being. Social and emotional skills are malleable, and there are roles for policy-makers, teachers and parents to play in improving the learning environment.' The OECD is planning a cross-national longitudinal study that will one day allow social and emotional skills to be measured directly and assessed for their impact on an individual's lifetime success including individual well-being, active citizenship and employment.

While it is not possible to monitor the range of characteristics covered by goal 3, this section sheds light on two types of life skills that are relevant to health and society. It also examines two attempts to improve understanding of life skills, which demonstrate how such skills are formulated and what a monitoring framework might entail.

Knowledge on HIV and AIDS has increased but is far from universal

In Dakar, WHO called for a goal centred on life skills, which it defined (WHO, 2003) as 'abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.' WHO further supported skills that help youth make informed decisions, communicate effectively and manage their lives in a healthy way. Since the 2013/14 GMR, further evidence has emerged that secondary education confers more advantages than primary education when it comes to life skills.

AIDS was a grave and growing danger when the convenors of the Dakar Forum pressed for greater emphasis on life skills. The next year, the United Nations General Assembly Special Session (UNGASS) adopted a Declaration of Commitment on HIV/AIDS and established

a core indicator (indicator 11) for monitoring life skills based on HIV education in schools. (UNESCO, 2014a).

The UNGASS goal was that, by 2010, at least 95% of men and women aged 15 to 24 would have access to the information, youth-specific HIV education and services necessary to develop the life skills required to reduce their vulnerability to HIV.

It is now possible to look at progress in 17 countries where, in two waves of household surveys, young people took a brief test of knowledge regarding two ways to prevent HIV infection and whether they believed three prevalent misconceptions. Since the first wave, the most recent surveys indicate improvements in HIV and AIDS knowledge among young men in 9 countries and among young women in 13 countries (**Figure 3.7**). This change suggests countries succeeded in a concerted effort over a relatively short time. The countries showing the greatest improvement appear to be those where HIV was most prevalent. It is likely that schools have taken HIV education more seriously in these countries, and that life skills education has played a role. In recent years, most countries have reported that their schools offered at least 30 hours of life skills programmes, although it is not possible to determine how often schools specifically offered HIV education (Clarke and Aggleton, 2012).

Comprehensive sexuality education has gained widespread support as a platform for HIV prevention. The new emphasis is on healthy sexuality rather than the risks associated with sex, an evolution from moralistic earlier approaches that were based on fear and considered learners as passive recipients of information (UNESCO, 2014a).

Attitudes towards gender equality have not consistently improved

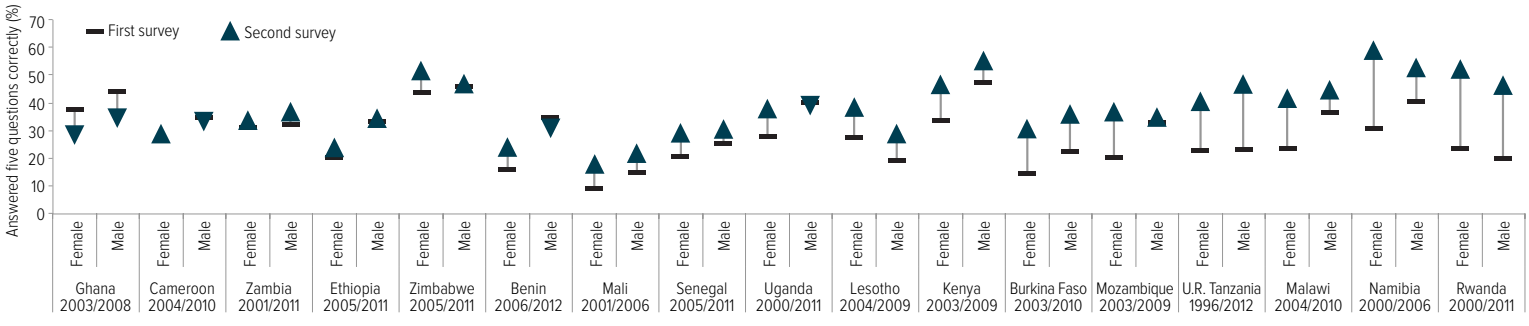
Goal 3 is not only about skills but also about the values and attitudes that improve individual lives and social cohesion. One of the values that EFA prioritizes is gender equality. For over 20 years, the World Values Survey (WVS) has included a question that indirectly allows an analysis of adult attitudes to gender equality across countries and over time. In particular, respondents have been asked whether they agree with the statement that 'a university education is more important for men than for women.'

Recent surveys indicate improvements in HIV and AIDS knowledge among young men in 9 countries and among young women in 13 countries

Comparing responses over time shows that there is no consistent global trend (**Figure 3.8**). In some countries, respondents in recent years were more likely reveal positive attitudes towards gender equality. In Ukraine, the percentage of those with positive attitudes increased from 64% in 1996 to 83% in 2011. But in other countries, there was no change, and in still others attitudes towards gender equality deteriorated. In Pakistan, the percentage of those with positive attitudes decreased from 77% in 2001 to just 48% in 2012.

Further analysis of the WVS data for this GMR also offers a provocative look at the relation between public attitudes towards higher

Figure 3.7: Knowledge about HIV and AIDS has increased among youth, especially women, in sub-Saharan Africa
Percentages of women and men aged 15 to 24 who answered all questions correctly in two survey years, selected countries



Note: Respondents who correctly answered two questions about how to prevent HIV, and who also rejected three misconceptions. Countries are ordered by the size of the increase in knowledge over time.
Source: EFA GMR team analysis (2015) of DHS data available at http://hivdata.measuredhs.com/

education and respondents' gender and level of education. Women were more likely than men to disagree with the statement in most countries. And people with secondary education were more egalitarian towards higher education for women than people with less than secondary education.

Stronger evidence of link between education and political efficacy

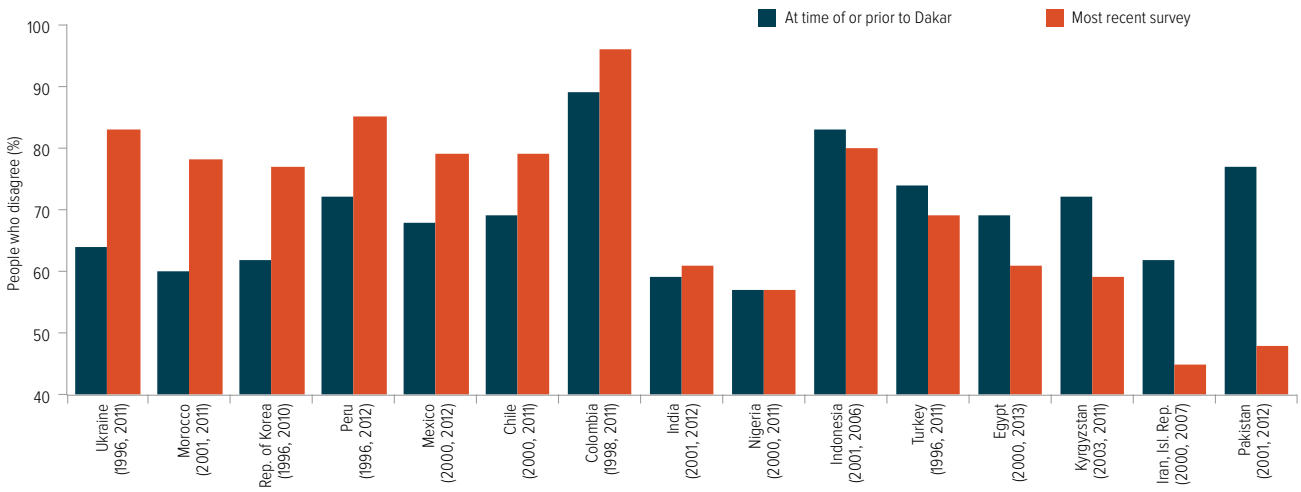
The 2013/14 GMR reported evidence of the positive impact of secondary education attainment on other important attitudes and values – for example, tolerance for diversity and support for democratic institutions. Recent evidence from PIAAC showed that literacy and educational attainment each have independent effects on political efficacy and civic engagement (OECD, 2013b). In OECD countries, people who completed at least secondary education were also more likely to report they were much more likely to engage in volunteer activities in their communities. The survey shows that higher skill levels and more education each had positive independent effects on adults' willingness to engage in the political process. Adults who completed more schooling and who responded to the PIAAC survey were less likely to agree that 'people like me don't have any say about what the government does' and likely to disagree that 'there are only a few people you can trust completely' (OECD, 2013b).

Education alternatives are needed for youth and adults who are no longer in school

Beyond the expansion of formal schooling, goal 3 is a reminder that countries have committed themselves to meeting the education needs of out-of-school youth and of adults whose formal education opportunities were cut short. An array of alternative, 'second chance' and non-formal programmes can be cited as examples of progress in this area (Duke and Hinzen, 2008). Prominent examples can also be seen in Bangladesh, India and Thailand (Banerji, 2015).

In Bangladesh, BRAC programmes aim to bring out-of-school children into the primary education system and prepare them for the secondary level. More than 97% of BRAC primary school graduates continue to formal secondary school. However, many BRAC graduates cannot complete their secondary education due to poverty. Therefore, BRAC representatives conduct regular follow-up meetings with children, guardians, teachers

Figure 3.8: Public values about women's education have changed since Dakar, but not in the same direction
Percentages of respondents disagreeing with statement that 'A university education is more important for men than for women', by survey year



Note: Countries are ordered by their growth in support for women's higher education.
Source: EFA GMR team analysis (2015) of WVS, various years.

and school committee members, and BRAC provides financial support to poor primary school graduates. BRAC graduates are encouraged to join clubs where they have opportunities for reading, sports and cultural activities, and where they receive life skill and livelihood training. BRAC also has a new initiative, Skills Training for Advancing Resources, in which adolescents who dropped out of school are helped to gain skills and enter the job market.

In India, the National Institute of Open Schooling (NIOS) was established in 1990 with 'authority to register, examine and certify students registered with it up to pre-degree courses.' NIOS offers 'open basic education programmes' for those aged 14 and older. Courses and certification are geared for levels that are equivalent to grades 3, 5 and 8 in the formal system (Banerji, 2015). Learners also have access to vocational courses and life enrichment programmes that lead to secondary and higher secondary certification examinations. For senior and secondary levels, NIOS allows choices of academic and vocational courses and flexibility in sitting examinations, with up to nine chances over five years. For academic courses beyond the basic level, there are close to 4,000 study centres run by accredited institutions and just under 2,000 accredited vocational institutions. Enrolment figures and the number of certified learners have risen steadily over the years. As of 2011, NIOS statistics indicate a cumulative total of 2.2 million students. Since 2007, the number of females has been significantly higher than that of males. NIOS is often called the world's largest open school.

Also in India, the Pratham Open School of Education (POSE) aims to reach young girls and women who have been marginalized from the mainstream education system and give them a second chance to complete their schooling. Started in 2011 as a residential programme, today it has expanded to seven states and provides a three month condensed foundation course to bridge the gap between basic concepts and the secondary school curriculum. This is followed by an examination to shortlist candidates for the second phase of classes, where students prepare for the state board exams. POSE also addresses aspects like personality development and focuses on enhancing soft skills such as articulation, confidence and self-expression. The larger goal is to better equip students to enter the workforce and be well placed in society. POSE leverages its students to increase its outreach, requiring them to teach basic math and language to children at the primary level in their villages and communities. So far, POSE students have taught 20,000 primary school children.

Thailand produced a National EFA Action Plan to run parallel to the National Education Plan (2002–2016). EFA goals 3 and 4 were combined into a composite goal focusing on adult literacy and on basic and continuing education for all adults. This created an alternative not only for the disadvantaged, but for all people not in a position to attend formal schooling, such as prison inmates, street children and Thai nationals living abroad. Moreover, it expanded from literacy and primary education to an extensive network of education provision, including secondary education, vocational training, life skills through distance learning, workplace and community learning centres, and the joint sharing of resources with the formal school system. Skill-related programmes are planned and implemented in collaboration with other sector ministries (Hoppers, 2008).

Unfortunately, little systematic assessment of these non-formal education alternatives for out-of-school adolescents and youth has been carried out, either immediate outcomes or long-term impact. The task is made more difficult by the fact that much monitoring and evaluation work is controlled by the sponsoring agencies, and the assessments they produce may not be relevant for policy and planning.

An example of good practice can be found in the rigorous evaluation of Ishraq ('sunrise'), a second-chance programme for adolescent girls in Upper Egypt (Population Council, 2013). Ishraq was launched in 2001 in four villages in Egypt's Menya governorate, ranked second to last among 27 on the Human Development Index. The programme included literacy training for out-of-school girls aged 12 to 15, as well as a curriculum of life skills developed by the Center for Development and Population Activities and other NGOs.

By 2008, the programme had succeeded in preparing most girls for Egypt's Adult Education Agency exam (with an 81% pass rate) and encouraging them to enter or re-enter formal schools. To assess the long-term impact of Ishraq on life skills, the Population Council matched

In India, the Pratham Open School of Education aims to reach young girls and women who have been marginalized from the education system

There is no global storehouse of information about training taking place outside the authority of education ministries

past participants with young women who did not participate but were similar in important background characteristics, including income level and formal education. The young women who participated in Ishraq were found to have acquired greater self-esteem, locus of control, and confidence in decision-making than peers who did not participate. Ishraq's graduates also developed different attitudes than non-participants towards desired family size and were more likely to want to delay marriage until at least age 18.

Technical and vocational skills: Approaches are evolving

Secondary school helped me explore my areas of interest and it did impact what I do today, though not substantially. On-the-job training, rather than academic institutions, helped me acquire the skills I have today.

Naim Keruwala (26), Student, India

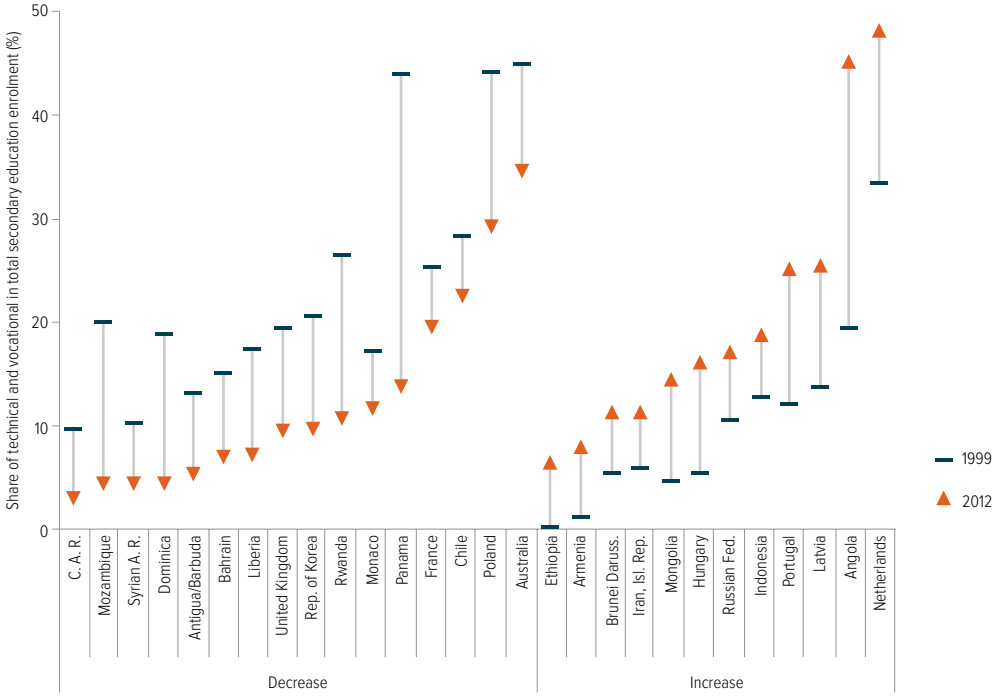
Technical and vocational skills can be acquired through work placement programmes linked to secondary schooling and formal technical and vocational education, or through work-based training, including traditional apprenticeships and training through agricultural cooperatives. However, as yet there is no global storehouse of information about training taking place outside the authority of education ministries.

In the absence of such comprehensive information, the school-related data given to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) make it at least possible to take stock of change inside nations' secondary schools. There are 28 countries that show substantial gains or declines in the percentages of students enrolled in vocational tracks as opposed to general tracks relative to total secondary enrolment: in 12 of these the share increased, and in 16 it decreased. There appears to be no regional pattern in these changes (**Figure 3.9**).

It is also useful to recall that the origin of the EFA movement in Jomtien coincided with a

Figure 3.9: While enrolments in technical and vocational secondary education increased in some countries since Dakar, in others it declined

Percentage of secondary students enrolled in technical and vocational education, selected countries, 1999 and 2012



Note: Countries presented are those with data for 1999 and 2012 in which there was a change of at least five percentage points between the two years.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 7 (print) and 8 (GMR website); UIS database.

critical review of TVET by one of the conference's conveners, the World Bank (Middleton et al., 1991). This review convinced many countries and donors that skill training prior to labour force entry would yield positive returns only if training was tied to demand. Skill training alone did not create jobs. The emphasis on basic skills in EFA prompted a rethinking of TVET's purposes. Many countries downsized this part of the sector, especially as TVET models in former Socialist countries became less influential after the Cold War ended.

Thus, at the time of the Dakar conference, there were few advocates of technical and vocational skills (King, 2011, 2013). In retrospect, it is surprising that in the entire Dakar Framework for Action, no reference or mention can be found of either the 1989 Convention on Technical and Vocational Education or the 1999 Recommendations of the Second International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education in Seoul.[3] After Dakar, no efforts were made to delegate responsibility for the collection of information on the many public and private providers of TVET, on skills learned outside the education system, or on non-formal or continuing adult education experiences on the job.

However, there has been much greater attention to TVET in recent years. In the European Union, a focus on training since 1994 was accelerated after 2008, led by the European Training Foundation (ETF) in Turin, Italy. In 2010, the ETF launched the Torino Process, including a review of vocational education and training policies and systems in all its partner countries.

Another important driver of change has been the OECD, which from 2007 to 2010 conducted Learning for Jobs, a review of initial vocational education and training in 17 countries (OECD, 2010a). This was followed by Skills Beyond School, an OECD policy review that is analysing information on post-secondary vocational education and training, and assessing the preparation of youth and adults for technical and professional jobs. It considers international differences in factors such as responsiveness to labour market needs, inclusion, career guidance, finance, governance, teaching quality and workplace learning.

3. It is also noteworthy that UNESCO's Revised Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education (2001) makes no reference to the EFA movement or the EFA goals adopted just one year earlier.

A third impetus for renewed focus on skills came from the ILO, which in 2004 adopted Recommendation 195, a broader and less institutionalized view of human resource development than that seen in the ILO Vocational Training Recommendations of 1962 and 1975. The new recommendation considers education, training and lifelong learning, defining the last as encompassing 'all learning activities undertaken throughout life for the development of competencies and qualifications'. This recommendation, in force for most of the period since 2000, has widened the focus of skill development. Independent of the EFA movement, it calls on countries to 'formulate, apply and review national human resources development, education, training and lifelong learning policies which are consistent with economic, fiscal and social policies.'

Yet another reason for the greater attention to skills since Dakar is that the very definition of skills has widened beyond those concerned with livelihood. In 2012, a new and much broader understanding of skill objectives emerged from the Third International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education and Training in Shanghai, China, leading to a declaration, the Shanghai Consensus (UNESCO, 2012d), and consultation for new UN recommendations on TVET and adult education (King, 2013).

Most advocates today see skill training not as separate from but as an integral part of general education, offering foundation and transferable skills at the same time as job and life skills (Tikly, 2013). The discourse has thus shifted beyond the exclusive focus on economic production that historically supported TVET (Anderson, 2009). A future foundation for TVET may emerge from a new approach and perspective where the goal of TVET is work experience that not only generates income but also is meaningful and enhances workers' capacity for future growth (McGrath, 2012).

The goal of TVET is work that not only generates income but also is meaningful and enhances workers' capacity for future growth

With the increased attention to TVET, as well as clearer understanding and definitions of the skills involved, it is surprising that systematic data for monitoring and evaluating effective TVET programmes are lacking. International calls have been made to expand data collection in this area, such as the ILO's 2004 recommendation calling on countries to collect TVET-related information, and the Shanghai Consensus, which

Rigorous evidence to inform TVET policy has been scarce

calls for 'frameworks and instruments to improve collection of quantitative and qualitative evidence relevant to the formulation of the national policy agenda ... and its monitoring and evaluation' (UNESCO, 2012d).

Despite this, rigorous evidence to inform TVET policy has been scarce, and monitoring and evaluation have been given low priority at the national level (Veal, 2013). In the largest meta-analysis of TVET programmes ever attempted (Tripney et al., 2013), over 8,000 research reports were screened on the effect of different models of TVET interventions on employment and employability outcomes in low and middle income countries. But very few of these studies (only 26 out of the 8,000) had the necessary rigour to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention. Furthermore, the programmes reviewed in the few rigorous studies found effect sizes that were 'small, or even negligible'. Comprehensive regional reviews in Latin America also found little information available on measuring skill development in marginalized populations or on assessment of the outputs and impact of relevant policies and programmes (Jacinto, 2012, 2010).

These findings set a challenging agenda on technical and vocational skills to be addressed post-2015. If vocational curricula do not confer essential skills today, such a finding would be consistent with a large body of sociological and education policy research that finds a trade-off between the efficacy of job matching and equality of opportunity (Bol and Werfhorst, 2013). In other words, it is not clear whether vocational programmes provide skills to workers who are then allocated to a fixed number of positions, or whether the programmes truly increase the stock of capabilities in the economy, so that new jobs are created.

Continuing and adult education: Four contrasting cases

Skills being taught in formal education do not meet the expectations of the actual working world. It is heartbreaking to see someone who has expertise in a field working in something far from their skills.
– Audry Maulana (20), Student, Indonesia

Goal 3 commits societies to equitable skill development for adults who are beyond the age of formal schooling. It is therefore important to ask who has access to continuing and adult education. Answering this question requires survey data that so far exist only in few cases.

From the OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) data, it is possible to confirm the findings of previous investigations on this question (Badescu et al., 2013). New research commissioned for this GMR finds that, in nearly every country participating in PIAAC, the odds of receiving some type of adult education within the previous 12 months are much lower for adults who did not complete secondary school than for adults with secondary education (**Figure 3.10**) (Desjardins, 2015). For example, Cypriots with secondary education were nearly 3 times as likely to have obtained adult education than were those without secondary; Norwegians were about 1.5 times more likely.

This is at least partly because adult education tends to be offered by firms to employed, rather than to unemployed or underemployed, adults. Further analysis shows that women are less likely to have received adult education than men. The odds of receiving adult education were also far higher for adults whose parents had attained higher levels of formal schooling. Targeted government support may be able to reach the adults most in need, but only if funds are earmarked and complemented with outreach activities. Unless support is carefully designed, adult education opportunities tend be taken up by adults who have already benefited from formal schooling.

Many governments seek to correct for market failures and to level social inequality through supporting public and private employer programmes. As with opportunities for technical and vocational skills, employers and other diverse providers of continuing and adult education do not report participant numbers or outcomes. It is nevertheless useful to highlight the diverse experiences of four countries in recent years trying to address equality of opportunity in adult education (Desjardins, 2015).

Brazil's Education of Youth and Adults (EJA) skill programme is aimed at people aged 15 and older who did not complete formal education.

EJA is flexible, providing in-person day or night classes or distance education in private and public institutions. In 2012, over 3 million students were registered in EJA, including migrants, rural workers and people from poor backgrounds or working-class families. EJA has increased its presence in remote and needy areas of the country, though it is far from able to meet the needs of all. However, the quality of education obtained via EJA is deficient and dropout rates are high, making it difficult for adults to expand their educational opportunities and mobility. Despite being integrated into the overall education system, EJA remains in practice a weak pathway back to formal education.

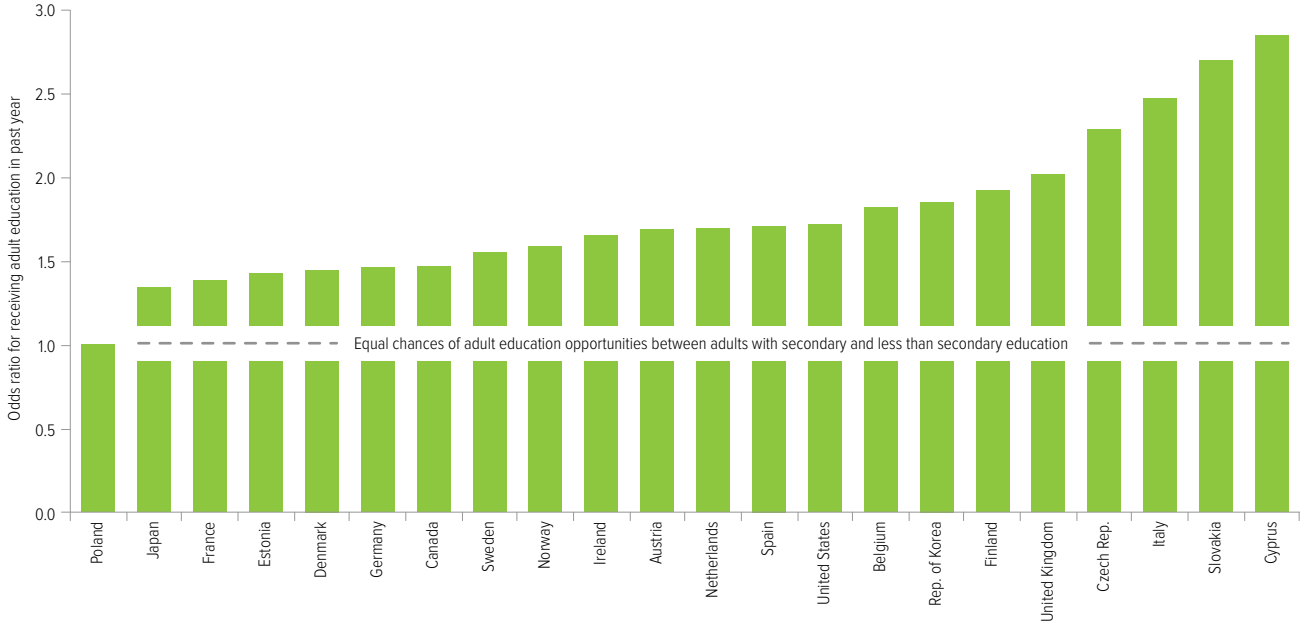
In the 1990s, Norway strengthened its already strong adult education system with reforms that boosted the level and distribution of adult education. In 2006, the government promoted a major initiative that channelled funds to employers for courses for employees with low levels of general skills in literacy, numeracy, ICT and oral communication. After a major increase in funds, from NOK 14 million to NOK 105 million, the initiative reached nearly 700 firms. The country's adult education system is diverse: in addition to the work-focused initiative, programmes outside the formal system include 'folk' high schools, education associations, language training centres for immigrants, and distance education. The focus is not just on skills used in the workplace but also includes culture, family and personal development. Key skills useful for the economy, such as non-routine cognition and non-routine communication, are not distinguished from similar skills used in civil society.

In 2007, the Republic of Korea revised its adult education system

In 2007, the Republic of Korea revised the coordination, development and implementation of its adult education system, including its National Institute for Lifelong Education, Regional Institutes for Lifelong Education and Local Lifelong Learning Centres. Many activities were redesigned to mobilize stakeholders, such as a campaign to select and develop lifelong learning cities (Republic of Korea Ministry of Education, Science and Technology MEST, 2013). National data reveal steadily increasing participation

Figure 3.10: In most countries, those completing secondary school are more likely to benefit from opportunities for adult education than those without secondary

Relative odds that adults who attained secondary education received training in the previous 12 months (advantage over adults without secondary)



Note: Bars show the advantage of those who finished secondary school in obtaining adult education during the previous 12 months. For example, Swedish adults with secondary education were about 1.5 times more likely to have obtained adult education than were those without secondary. The results are based on logistical regressions using PIAAC data and control for the effects of age, gender, literacy proficiency and parents' educational attainment.

Source: Desjardins, (2015).

rates, from about 26% in 2008 to about 36% in 2012. The government created four initiatives to promote job-related skills for employees of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs):

- The SME Training Consortium Programme, introduced in 2003, was renamed the Consortium for HRD Ability Magnified Programme (CHAMP) in 2012. As of 2013, 159 training consortiums (CHAMP, 2014) were receiving subsidies for facilities and personnel, covering over 271,000 employees and nearly 115,000 SMEs (Republic of Korea Ministry of Employment and Labor MOEL, 2013).
- The government subsidized advanced training programmes. Employees who qualify are trained free of charge at vocational training institutions with state-of-the-art facilities and equipment, and their employers receive part of their labour costs. Participation doubled from 2006 to 2012.
- Since 2006, the government has subsidized organized study within SMEs. Support is available for up to three years, depending on results.
- The government provides subsidies for self-directed learning through its Job Upgrading and Maturing Programme for SME employees and non-regular workers.

New types of measurement, along with attention to a broader definition of 'skills' will be increasingly important after 2015

In Viet Nam, a 2005 amendment to the national education law made non-formal adult education and adult literacy training a major component of the overall education system. This measure included provisions for skill advancement in the workplace, second-chance opportunities linked to the formal education system, and the development of people as citizens and essential participants in communities. Programmes are now diverse and aspire to serve many different needs of the population, for example through programmes that focus on HIV prevention, peace and human rights, gender, health care for mothers and children, prevention of drug use, nutrition, and the environment. Participation rates in adult education have risen in recent years: there were almost 10 million participants in adult learning and non-formal education programmes in 2008, compared with just over half a million in 1999. Community Learning Centres are the most important platform for access to adult education opportunities; there were nearly 10,000 centres in 2010. They play a critical role in connecting organizations and communities, and coordinate formerly separate programmes. By bringing together individuals and agencies from various sectors in addition to education, Viet Nam's programmes greatly expand the scope of educational activities in those sectors.

Direct measures of hard and soft skills are emerging in many countries

Much of this chapter focused on pathways to skill acquisition. This is partly because direct measures of skills are still under development. However, direct measures of cognitive ('hard') and socio-emotional ('soft') skills are being advanced. New types of measurement, along with attention to a broader definition of 'skills' than in the past, will be increasingly important after 2015. Experts including Nobel laureate James Heckman (Heckman and Kautz, 2012) have shown that socio-emotional skills are not immutable but can be learned through positive school experiences and may be as important as cognitive skills in obtaining good employment.

Two examples of current direct measures of hard and soft skills are the OECD's Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC), conducted from 2008 to 2013, and the World Bank's ongoing Skills Toward Employment and Productivity study (STEP). Their results can and should be used to answer key questions about how different types of education relate to what kinds of skills and learning, and how these skills contribute to an individual's employment opportunities and civic engagement.

PIACC

PIAAC offers direct measures of learning and skills acquisition that are considered important for progress towards goal 3. The PIAAC survey interviewed representative national samples of adults, aged 16 to 65, assessing literacy and numeracy skills and the ability to solve problems in technology-rich environments. It also collected information about how skills were used at work, in the home and in the community.

Measures of adult competencies, through PIACC, support the idea that learning takes place over the life course and not only during childhood or within schools. National differences in skill levels among young adults relate only loosely to the national skill levels of 15-year-old students 10 years earlier as evidenced by the OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Most cross-national differences in adult literacy and numeracy are not accounted for by national differences in student proficiencies (OECD, 2013c). One interpretation of the low association between national averages of PISA and PIAAC is that skills can be learned after individuals leave school, and can be lost if the skills are not used regularly. The workplace is an important context for skill acquisition and retention.

Findings from PIAAC also show that curricular focus can impact skill acquisition: there are clear differences in numeracy and literacy scores between adults who had previously studied in vocational programmes and general education, whose last completed level of schooling was upper secondary.[4] In the United States, for example, older cohorts with vocational training had greater numeracy skills than did adults having general education. However, for younger people there was no such advantage. On the other hand, in Estonia, Germany, the Netherlands, Poland and the Republic of Korea, differences were wider in recent cohorts (ages 16 to 29) than in older ones (ages 30 to 65) (**Figure 3.11**). In such settings, the evidence suggests that skill acquisition in vocational programmes is more limited than in general programmes, and this negative effect has become more salient among younger cohorts.[5]

Measures of adult competencies support the idea that learning takes place throughout life

Certainly the observed skill gap between those who completed general education vs vocational programmes, and whether it has widened in recent years, deserves further scrutiny and longitudinal research. Of greater significance is identifying other settings and learning frameworks – for example, distance and open education, non-formal education, on-the-job training and adult education – that may significantly augment skill acquisition among adults over the life course.

STEP

The World Bank's STEP study is another strategy to measure, and potentially match, the skill sets of individuals and companies in the same area. It is based on samples of households and enterprises in mainly urban areas of middle

Figure 3.11: A skills gap exists between adults whose final education was in a vocational rather than general secondary track, and the gap widened among young people in some countries

Numeracy of persons aged 16 to 29 and 30 to 65 whose final education level was upper secondary, by curricular track

Note: Countries are ordered by size of vocational-general gap in the 16 to 29 age group.
Source: OECD (2013c).

4. A recent PISA assessment found that low achievers and students from lower socio-economic backgrounds were more likely to enrol (or be channeled) into vocational programmes, and that their tested skill levels are lower (Altinok, 2012). The preponderance of weaker, male and less advantaged students in such programmes would provide a clear explanation of the difference in PIACC scores. However, in 19 of the 22 countries studied, the negative impact of vocation education on skill acquisition remained, even after controlling for gender, socio-economic status and motivation.

5. This finding, if corroborated, would supplement research that raises doubts about the effectiveness of vocational programmes for skill acquisition, as well as post-secondary attainment and earnings (Ayalon and Shavit, 2004; Carbonaro, 2005; Plank et al., 2008). It would also add to policy-oriented research that finds a trade-off between the efficacy of job matching in the short term and greater inequality of opportunity in the long term (Bol and Werfhorst, 2013).

income countries. STEP was conducted in a first wave of eight countries in 2012 (Bolivia, China's Yunnan province, Colombia, Ghana, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Sri Lanka, Ukraine and Viet Nam) and a second wave of five countries in 2013 (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kenya and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia). In general, the STEP surveys reveal the adult skills used and rewarded in early employment, and the skills associated with TVET curricula and other training.

STEP measured three areas: reading proficiency (which is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4); self-reported information on personality, behaviour, and time and risk preferences; and task-specific skills that the respondent possessed or used both in and outside of work, including numeracy and computer use.

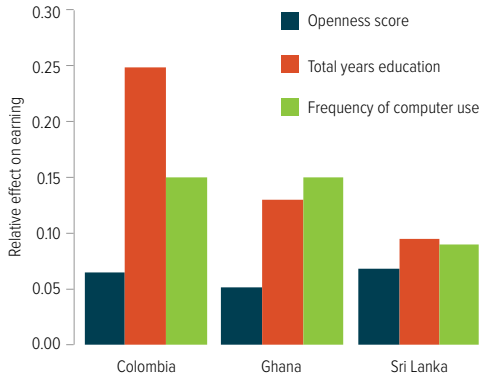
STEP confirmed the value of soft skills in general, and more specifically found that 'openness' has positive effects on earnings

One of STEP's innovations was to develop measurements for soft skills such as social adjustment, openness to learning, confidence and sense of security.[6] STEP attempted to create a cross-culturally valid set of indicators for non-cognitive socio-emotional skills that matter for other outcomes. After extensive pilot testing, the survey included a self-report of personality traits and behaviour that were transferable and could be considered non-cognitive or soft skills. STEP confirmed the value of soft skills in general, and more specifically found that 'openness' has positive effects on earnings, even when the positive effect of years of education is taken into account. ICT skills, measured by frequency of computer use, were shown to have a similar positive effect (**Box 3.3**).

Box 3.3: Effects of soft skills, formal education, and technical skills on earnings in Colombia, Ghana and Sri Lanka

Economists have always known that school years are just a crude indicator of the abilities that come from education. In STEP, the World Bank created indicators for the soft skill of openness and for the technical skills associated with computer use. 'Openness' was measured by responses to three questions often used by psychologists in personality tests. Computing skill was indicated by self-reported frequency of computer use on the job and off. Analyses of STEP surveys show that all three indicators affect the earnings of workers in Colombia, Ghana and Sri Lanka (**Figure 3.12**).

Figure 3.12: Wages are affected not only by years of schooling but also by soft skills and technical skills
Standardized coefficients of three factors affecting earnings in Colombia, Ghana and Sri Lanka



Note: Effects are statistically significant, and show the association between change in the independent variables and the log of hourly wages, all measured in units of a standard deviation. Regressions also control for age, gender and urban/rural residence in Sri Lanka. Colombia and Ghana samples are urban areas only, while Sri Lankan results are for rural as well as urban adults aged 16 to 65. 'Openness' is the average of responses to three questions that measure openness to new experience.
Source: EFA GMR team analysis (2015) of STEP data provided by World Bank.

6. This builds on earlier research on 'individual modernization' and orientations such as 'openness to new experience' which are related to education (Inkeles and Smith, 1974).

Conclusions

The progress towards universal primary education since Dakar, discussed in the previous chapter, has made the need for equitable opportunities for secondary education and post-primary skills even more urgent. Although there has been major progress in expanding access to the lower secondary and even upper secondary levels, inequality in terms of income and location persists. Working children, while increasingly included in school, often must continue to work, and their academic success is likely to be harmed. Migrant children are at risk of being further marginalized unless countries take steps to integrate them.

Monitoring skills will be easier in the future because of the emergence of direct assessments of adults' non-cognitive and cognitive skills. Direct assessments can also be helpful in gauging changes in orientations that facilitate learning, such as 'openness', an indicator measured by STEP. These outcomes now go beyond foundation skills and include other skills important for work and citizenship.

Assessments of knowledge in specific areas, such as HIV and AIDS, have indicated positive change since Dakar. Apart from knowledge, assessments of attitudes or values show change in some areas, including with regard to women's educational opportunities. These assessments have emerged at the same time that the concept of 'skills' has been broadened beyond livelihood skills to include those needed for citizenship and, perhaps in the future, for sustainable development.

Advocates for lifelong learning and leaders of basic education should help each other specify which skills will be monitored with future instruments, and collaborate on the frameworks which will establish standards and guide their promotion and monitoring. Although goal 3 was criticized as being out of step with the UN norms guiding adult education and TVET, standard-setting frameworks now being developed will define the aims and programmes to be monitored after 2015. At the same time, UNESCO has led the articulation of skills that are foundational for global citizenship and sustainability. Advocates of basic education and lifelong learning are integrating global citizenship and sustainability into a broad skill framework.

One conclusion from the GMR's monitoring of goal 3 is that better coordination and cooperation are needed among stakeholders: ministries, civil society organizations, advocates of lifelong learning and schooling, enterprises and providers of education and training, whether or not they are based in schools. In line with ILO Recommendation 195 and the Shanghai Consensus, greater information on skill provision outside school, and its outcomes, will make future monitoring possible for this essential dimension of education.

Credit: Juan Manuel Castro Prieto/Agence Vu

CHAPTER 4

Goal 4: Adult literacy

Highlights

- There are about 781 million illiterate adults. The rate of illiteracy is likely to have dropped slightly from 18% in 2000 to 14% in 2015, which means that the Dakar target of halving illiteracy has not been achieved.
- Only 17 out of 73 countries with a literacy rate below 95% in 2000 halved their illiteracy rate by 2015.
- Progress has been made towards gender parity in literacy. All countries where fewer than 90 women for every 100 men were literate in 2000 have moved towards parity, but none of them will reach parity by 2015.
- Progress in adult literacy rates may be the consequence of younger, better educated people replacing older, less educated ones and not due to the implementation of effective literacy programmes.
- Since 2000, there have been major innovations in the assessment of literacy skills which are aligned with a concept of literacy as a continuum. More needs to be done to extend the use of such assessment tools around the world.
- While changes in daily life such as mobile technology may increase demand for the acquisition of literacy skills, their impact on literacy outcomes has not yet been shown.

Literacy is fundamental for participating in society. However, the goal of halving global illiteracy rates by 2015 has been missed. While progress has been made, some positive trends were not the result of concerted programmatic efforts but instead more schooled populations entering adulthood. This chapter explores factors that help explain limited progress in adult literacy. It describes how assessments of literacy are improving and expanding, and recommends more sophisticated targets and strong support for adult literacy strategies and literate environments.

> *"Literacy is more than the personal ability to read and write. It is a powerful vehicle to empower people and help them obtain the adequate life skills and entrepreneurship capacities to tackle contemporary challenges and optimize opportunities for sustainable development. It is for this reason that our government made investing in literacy a priority through the successful National Literacy Campaign Programme."*
>
> Chitra Lekha Yadav, Minister for Education of the Democratic Republic of Nepal

Goal 4 Adult literacy

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

Since 2000, progress towards EFA's fourth goal has been slower than improvements in other goals, including in primary school access and completion. This slow progress leads to three important questions: How pervasive is the phenomenon of low literacy skills among adults today? Why does it persist? And what are countries and international agencies doing to monitor and improve literacy? Addressing these questions is the purpose of this chapter.

As the introduction to this Education for All (EFA) *Global Monitoring Report* (GMR) underlines, nearly 781 million adults are deficient in literacy skills. Judging from recent direct assessments of adults' reading ability, a more accurate estimate would be considerably higher. This chapter shows that since 2000, few low-literacy countries have reduced the illiteracy rate by 50%.[1]

It is a concern that the adult literacy goal has not been met, because the benefits of literacy and numeracy go beyond individuals. While UNESCO's 1950s definition of 'literacy' was merely an ability to 'read and write, with understanding, a short, simple statement about everyday life', by 1990 literacy was more recognized as a skill that contributes to individual well-being. More recently, UNESCO (2005a) considered literacy as the ability to 'identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute using printed and written materials' associated with varied contexts. Today, literacy is seen as a continuum of skills that enables individuals to achieve their goals in work and life and participate fully in society, a point confirmed by the international community in the 2009 Belém Framework for Action (UIL, 2010). The spread of literacy and literate environments also develops a web of active social relations and contributes to communities and social institutions (Benavot, forthcoming).

This chapter assesses country progress towards the adult literacy targets drawing first upon indirect assessments of literacy skills. It then elaborates how countries are increasingly conducting direct assessments of literacy, which are both more accurate and context-specific.

However, the chapter also shows that most of the reductions in adult illiteracy rates reflect the entry of younger, more educated, cohorts into adulthood, rather than improvement within cohorts of adults who were past school age. Accordingly, it focuses on four factors that could have enabled improvement of adult literacy since 2000, but have not had major impact: global commitment to adult literacy, literacy campaigns and programmes, policies on multilingualism, and demand for literacy through environments requiring better skills.

Most countries are still far from goal 4

The Mobilization and recruitment of learners through awareness campaigns is crucial for the success of all large-scale literacy programs. Most of Nepal's literacy graduates encouraged others to participate in literacy classes.

– Vishnu Karki
Room to Read, Nepal

Monitoring adult literacy requires consistent information to allow comparisons. But obtaining such information can be sometimes challenging because definitions of literacy have evolved since 2000 (**Box 4.1**). Focusing on countries with a literacy rate below 95% in the 1995–2004 period and where information was consistently based on self-declarations, only 17 out of 73 countries are projected to at least halve their adult illiteracy rate by 2015 (**Figure 4.1**).

Today, literacy is seen as a continuum of skills that enables individuals to achieve their goals in work and life

The lowest rate of illiteracy decline was 1% in Guinea; the highest was 83% in Kuwait. In general, wealthier countries experienced the fastest declines in illiteracy, such as China, Saudi Arabia and Singapore. By contrast, mainly poor countries, such as Cambodia, Chad and Mozambique, continued to be furthest from achieving the target.

1. Since 2006, the GMR has interpreted the goal as implying 50% reduction in *illiteracy* rates.

Box 4.1 Consistent definitions of literacy are needed for global comparisons

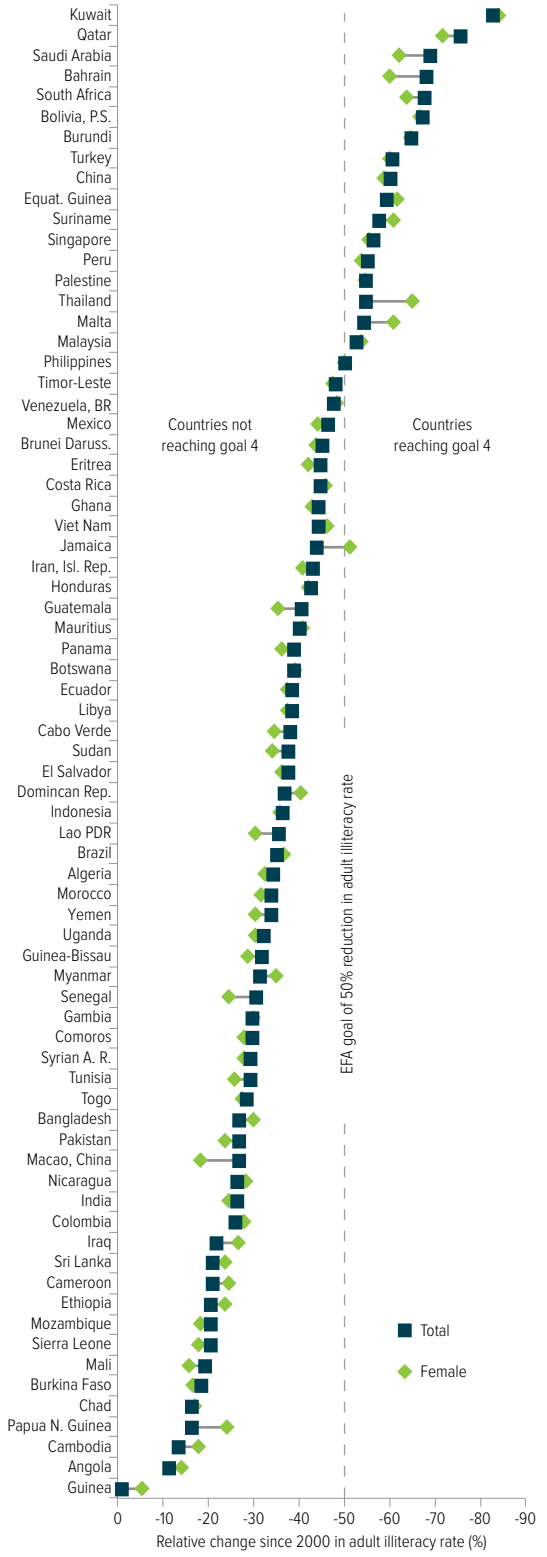
Countries and policy-makers recognize the need for better and more nuanced information on literacy than what currently exists. However, changes to definitions can hamper global assessment of progress over time.

Until recently, almost all estimates reported by the UIS were based on declarations by the household head or other household members on whether they could read or write, with some countries presuming literacy for those who had completed primary school. In recent years, in the absence of up-to-date traditional sources, the UIS has been obliged to use sources that rely on direct assessment. Changes in measurement methods are recorded, but the implications of these changes are not always well understood.

However, the problems with comparison over time go beyond a lack of comparable data sources. Another problem is that national definitions of literacy have even changed in countries where literacy rates are based on the same sources and methods. Malaysia used school attendance to define literacy in 2010 but not in previous years. At the time of the Dakar Framework, China defined literacy differently in rural and urban areas; its definitions were made consistent only in the 2010 census. Country definitions can also even change over a short period. In 2007, to be 'literate' in the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela meant being able to read and write at least a paragraph in any language, but in 2009 it meant only that survey respondents said they could read and write.

Source: UIS (2014b).

Figure 4.1: Too many countries will fail to reach the target of halving their 2000 adult illiteracy rate by 2015
Projected change in total and female adult literacy rates between circa 2000 and 2015



Note: Countries included are those where the adult literacy rate estimated in the period 1995–2004 was lower than 95%, and where both the baseline estimates and the 2015 projections are based on the method of self-declaration or declaration on behalf of others.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 2; UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) database

The Dakar Framework made explicit reference for the goal to be reached 'especially for women'. The record is mixed. Of the 73 countries compared above, the projected change by 2015 is faster for females than for the average population.

All countries where fewer than 90 women for every 100 men were literate in or around 2000 have moved towards parity

Undoubtedly, there has been progress. All countries where fewer than 90 women for every 100 men were literate in or around 2000, have moved towards parity. For example, in Timor-Leste, for every 100 literate men, there were only 66 literate women in 2001 but 83 in 2010; the ratio is projected to increase to 89 by 2015 (**Figure 4.2**). Global improvement since 2000 appears to extend a move towards gender parity that began earlier, judging from countries such as Bangladesh, Burundi, Chad and Yemen, which also made substantial progress between 1990 and 2000. But none of these countries will have reached parity by 2015.

International and national surveys facilitate direct assessment of literacy

The problems with measuring literacy from self-declarations or declarations on behalf of others have led to efforts to conduct direct literacy assessments through household surveys. Despite additional insights from this approach, most standard household surveys that assess literacy skills directly are based on a simple binary division between literacy and illiteracy.

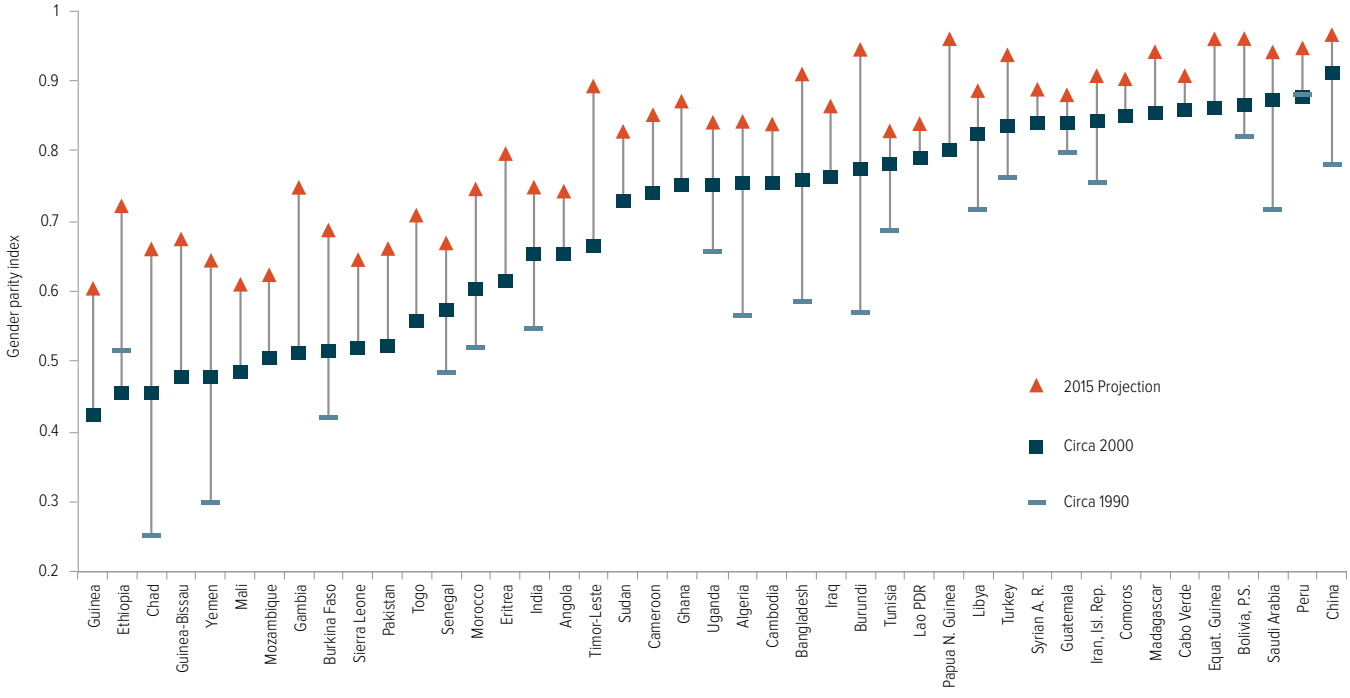
Since Dakar, however, literacy has increasingly been seen not as a single but as a plural concept; as an action by actors who are differently placed in various social, cultural, political, economic and historical contexts, and who each have different purposes in reading and writing various types of texts. Literacy takes different shapes as a continuum of skills used for communication. Literacy researchers today ask how people use their literacy, what use it has in their lives, and what implications it carries for their interpersonal relationships (Bartlett, 2008; Prins, 2009; Street, 2003).

Countries and international agencies have therefore begun to conduct more sophisticated investigations to gauge not only whether adults are 'literate' or 'illiterate' but also their level of literacy and the consequences for individuals and societies (Ahmed, 2011; Esposito et al., 2014; Guadalupe and Cardoso, 2011).

DHS and MICS

Since 2000, the two main international household survey programmes, the Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) and the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), have attempted to assess literacy directly by asking household respondents to read a sentence from a card. Adults who had continued to secondary school were not given this test because they were presumed literate. Despite the limitations of this simple technique, used in a survey designed for a different purpose, the resulting measurements are more accurate than self-declarations and have made a

Figure 4.2: Many countries are projected to make substantial gains towards gender parity in adult literacy by 2015
Gender parity index of the adult literacy rate, selected countries, circa 1990, 2000 and 2015 (projection)



Note: The selected countries had a gender parity index lower than 0.90 in or around 2000 according to data derived from the method of self-declaration or declaration on behalf of others.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 2, UIS database.

considerable contribution to our understanding of literacy levels.

Based on direct assessment, the world is even further from universal adult literacy than official estimates suggest

In recent years, the UIS has selectively used the information from these surveys when no other recent traditional source of information on literacy based on self-assessment was available. This switch in source allows a comparison between earlier projections based on self-assessment and the latest projections based on direct assessment for 20 countries, mostly sub-Saharan African (**Figure 4.3**). Substantial differences between the two are often apparent. When estimates are based on direct assessment, even more adults appear to be deficient in reading skills than when estimates are derived from self-declarations. The average difference for these 20 countries is about eight percentage points, which means that the world is even further from universal adult literacy than official estimates suggest.

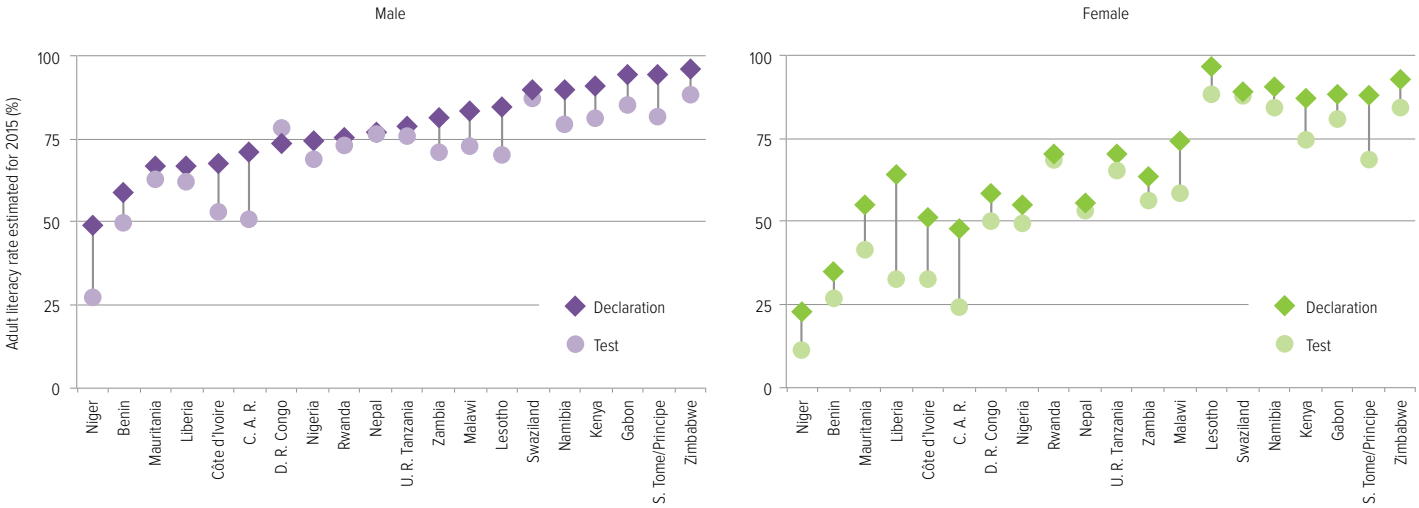
PIAAC

The OECD developed the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC), a study in 25 highly literate societies that sampled 166,000 persons aged 16 to 65. It extends the literacy domains originally covered in the International Adult Literacy Survey of the 1990s, and builds on the Adult Literacy and Life Skills Survey administered in the period 2003–2007 in 13 countries with highly literate populations.

As with its predecessors, the scaled levels and scores of PIAAC can be compared across countries, education attainment levels and types of employment. This direct assessment shows that, even in high income countries, a notable minority of adults have only very low levels of proficiency in reading (OECD, 2013c).

PIAAC defines six levels of proficiency: level 1, and levels 1 through 5. Individuals proficient at level 1 can read brief texts on familiar topics and 'locate a single piece of information that is identical to or synonymous with the information given in the question or directive' (OECD, 2013c). Around 3% of adults read below level 1 in PIAAC participant countries and a further 12% read at level 1 but no higher. The results imply that about as many as one in seven adults either never became proficient readers while they were in school, or their reading abilities atrophied because they were not being used. In countries such as France, Italy and Spain, more than one in four adults had low literacy skills (OECD, 2013c).

Figure 4.3: Projected 2015 literacy rates based on direct assessments are lower than those based on household declarations
Adult literacy rate, by gender and estimation method, selected countries, 2015 (projection)



Note: The diamond markers show UIS projections made in 2011, which are based on self-reported literacy skills; the circle markers show the most recent UIS projections, which are based on direct assessments of literacy.
Source: UIS database.

International differences in adult literacy are not only related to differences in education attainment. Adults continue to learn and adapt to the needs of their occupations. Not only do more literate adults work in jobs that demand literacy skills, but skilled occupations also help develop reading proficiency. In such occupations, the reading environment is more conducive to retaining literacy skills than in jobs requiring little reading. The results of PIAAC show wide gaps within countries between the reading abilities of workers in different occupations, with adults in occupations classified by the OECD as 'skilled' scoring much higher in literacy than those in elementary occupations. These gaps are wider in some OECD countries than in others. For example, the reading score gap between the two occupation types was almost twice as high in Norway as it was in Slovakia (**Figure 4.4**).

STEP

The World Bank launched the Skills towards Employment and Productivity (STEP) surveys of adult skills, including literacy, in 13 middle income countries in 2010 (World Bank, 2014g). The study uses the same definition of literacy and the same six levels of literacy proficiency as PIAAC.

STEP surveys have been carried out among populations possessing relatively lower literacy skills, despite the fact that in most cases only urban areas have been sampled. For that reason, respondents were first screened using eight questions to determine whether a full assessment was possible.

Among countries where data have been released, the lowest rate of passing the initial screen was in urban Ghana, where about 66% of men and 38% of women in urban areas went on to take the full assessment in English. By contrast, in Sri Lanka, where the assessment was administered in either Sinhalese or Tamil, the percentage of respondents passing the initial screen was far higher, 81%, with no gender disparity.

This large gap goes beyond what we know already regarding differences in schooling attainment and self-reported literacy skills between the two countries. For example, according to UIS data, the adult literacy rate in 2010 was 71% in Ghana and 91% in Sri Lanka. This is not surprising given that in 2010, 30% of the adult population in Ghana had no schooling compared with only 4% in Sri Lanka (Barro and Lee, 2013). The gap revealed by STEP may also reflect, at least partly, differences in the quality of schooling. However, the assessment in Ghana was administered in English, the home language of less than 2% of sampled adults. Among the small number who used English, 90% passed the initial screening. In Sri Lanka, the vast majority of adults had the opportunity to take the assessment in their mother tongue.

Skilled occupations also help develop reading proficiency

In the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Colombia, Ghana and Viet Nam, the surveys showed clear relationships between reading proficiency and the amount of reading required by the respondents' occupation, as in PIAAC countries (**Figure 4.5**). Adults whose jobs demanded more reading had higher proficiency levels. The scores for urban workers in reading-intensive jobs in Viet Nam were similar to scores in France, Italy and Spain.

Figure 4.4: Reading abilities vary widely within countries depending on the type of occupation
Reading comprehension scores of adults aged 16 to 65, by type of occupation

Note: Skilled occupations include managers, professionals, senior officials and technicians. Unskilled or elementary occupations include labourers and production workers.
Source: OECD (2013c).

LAMP

The UIS initiated the Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP) to highlight the multiple dimensions of literacy as measured in prose reading, document reading and numeracy (UIS, 2009).

One advantage of national assessments is increasing the numbers of national stakeholders and experts dedicated to adult literacy

LAMP sampled adults from both rural and urban areas in Jordan, Mongolia, Palestine and Paraguay. Its complexity, along with changes in UIS administration, delayed LAMP's development and any release of official reports or data (Guadalupe, 2014). This may be why some countries initially willing to participate found alternative approaches. For example, Kenya developed its own literacy survey, while Viet Nam joined STEP.

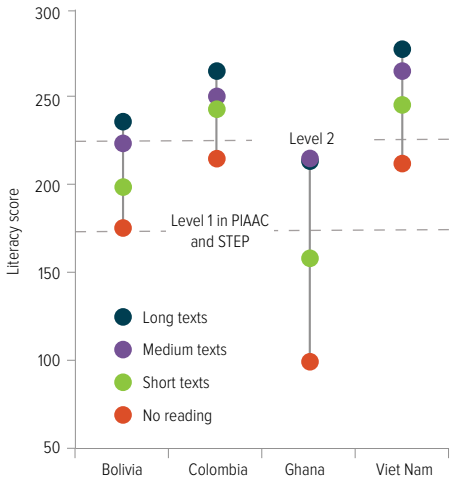
LAMP defined three levels of literacy attainment. Results from Paraguay show that adults in rural areas have lower prose reading skills than urban dwellers, although there was no such gap between rural and urban areas in terms of numeracy skills (**Figure 4.6**). Only 9% of rural adults achieved the highest level in prose reading skills (level 3) compared with 20% of urban adults. A possible reason for the gap is that fewer rural than urban residents identify Spanish as a mother tongue (Zarza et al., 2014).

National adult literacy assessments

Many lower literacy countries began to use literacy assessments in the 1980s. Some included them in larger household surveys, a cost-effective strategy with many advantages (Venkatraman, 2008). Others used surveys specifically focused on adult literacy. The Kenya National Adult Literacy Survey of 2006, administered in 18 local languages in addition to English and Kiswahili, found wide urban–rural differences and adult national literacy rates of 59% for women and 64% for men (UNESCO, 2008b). The estimate for women was 13 points below the rate that UIS estimated based on self-declarations of ability to read, while the estimate for men was 15 points lower.

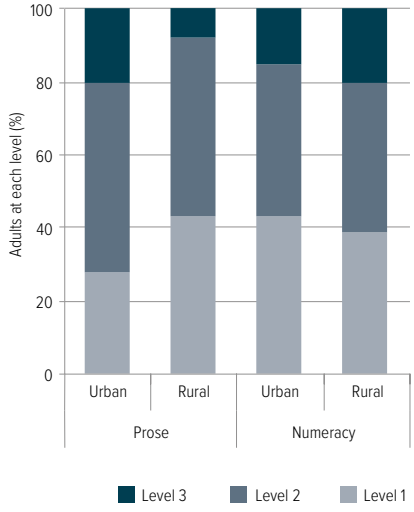
Since 2008, the Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics has drawn a random national sample of households to test for levels of literacy and numeracy. The second national literacy survey, conducted in 2011 in several languages, defined four levels of literacy and estimated the distribution of males and females aged 11 to 45 by each level. These estimates give a different picture of literacy than what is seen through self- or proxy-declaration estimates. In 2011, the census declaration method led to adult literacy rate estimates of 64% for men and 58% for

Figure 4.5: Reading proficiency is higher among adults whose jobs require more reading
Literacy scores, by amount of reading required at work, adults living in urban areas, 2011



Note: The level 1 and level 2 definitions are identical to those of PIAAC.
Source: World Bank STEP team calculations based on the 2011 data of STEP surveys.

Figure 4.6: In Paraguay, rural adults have lower levels of reading proficiency skills, but not numeracy skills
Distribution of respondents' levels in prose literacy and numeracy, by location, Paraguay, 2011



Note: For a description of proficiency levels in prose reading and numeracy skills, see UIS (2013b).
Source: Zarza et al. (2014).

women in this age group (Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2013). But the literacy survey of the same year, a direct assessment, showed that only 57% of men and 50% of women were functionally literate (**Table 4.1**).

One advantage of national assessments is increasing the numbers of national stakeholders and experts dedicated to adult literacy. One disadvantage is that external monitoring may become more difficult because national agencies have a conflict of interest, being responsible for monitoring literacy and reducing illiteracy rates at the same time. This dual role can create pressure to show progress or to restrict access to data by independent assessors.

Comparing cohorts shows almost no real gains in adult literacy since 2000

Since 2000, there have been considerable improvements in the approaches taken to assess literacy skills in adult populations. Although these methods have not yet been widely enough adopted to give a global picture, evidence suggests that traditional measures of literacy have been narrow in scope and have not captured the extent to which adults possess skills that allow them to participate fully in society.

However, there is another major gap in our knowledge. Literacy programmes are premised on the notion that adults can improve their literacy skills. Unfortunately, the utility of the adult literacy rate for assessing the success of literacy programmes is hampered by the fact that this indicator is based on a different adult population at different points in time. As a result, even if not a single adult changes their literacy status, the adult literacy rate may increase or decline, purely through composition effects. The most obvious case is that of cohort replacement: young individuals with higher education attainment and literacy skills cross into the adult age bracket, while older individuals with lower education attainment and literacy skills depart. This could lead to an improvement in the adult literacy rate that is real, but achieved without a single illiterate adult becoming literate at the individual level.

As a result, the trajectory of adult literacy may differ substantially depending on whether we look, for example, at a group of people aged 20–30 years in 2000 and 2010 or a group of people aged 20–30 years in 2000 and 30–40 years in 2010. Any change we observe in the latter case will not be due to changing schooling but literacy skill acquisition through literacy programmes or other opportunities in life. Analysing literacy trends using this latter cohort approach provides an important complementary perspective to understand changes in adult literacy and their possible causes. Yet such a perspective has been rarely applied outside of studies of lifelong learning in industrialized countries.

New analysis for this GMR has followed precisely this latter approach. Ideally, this would involve monitoring the literacy skills of a particular group of individuals over time. However, such studies are extremely rare. What is possible instead is to use DHS data and follow the literacy status of a given birth cohort as it ages. Two to three waves of DHS from 30 countries were used (Barakat, 2015a). The analysis focused on the female samples of these surveys, which are larger and therefore more robust.

Since 2000, there have been considerable improvements in the approaches taken to assess literacy skills in adult populations

Table 4.1: Distribution of adult population by literacy skill levels in Bangladesh

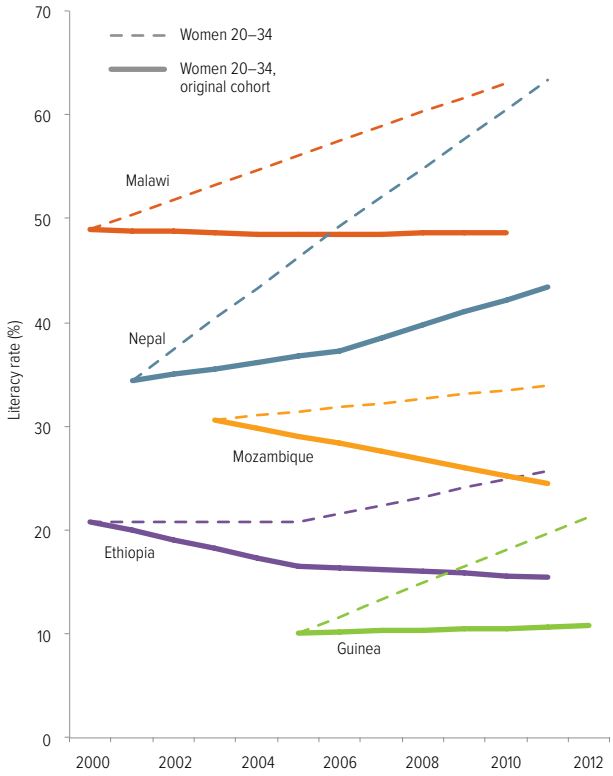
Level of literacy	Skills in numeracy and literacy tested directly	Male	Female
Non-literate	Lack of ability to decode alphabet, recognize words/numbers and count money/objects	36%	41%
Semi-literate	Ability to recognize and write some words, to count objects and numbers at a very basic level	7%	9%
Literate at initial level	Ability to read and write simple sentences in a familiar context; possess four basic rules of arithmetic; limited use of these abilities and skills in a familiar context in life situations	13%	14%
Literate advanced level	Ability to read and write with fluency in varying contexts; competency of four arithmetic rules and mathematical reasoning; ability to use these skills in everyday life and future learning	44%	36%

Source: Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics (2013), Tables 2.3 and 3.2.

The central result is that most countries are on a trajectory of slow but definite improvement in the literacy rates of young female adults over time (**Figure 4.7**; dashed lines); but these apparent gains disappear from a cohort perspective (**Figure 4.7**; continuous thick lines). For example, in Malawi the literacy rate of women aged 20–34 years was 49% in 2000 and 63% in 2010. However, the literacy rate of the cohort of women who were aged 20–34 years in 2000 and 30–44 years in 2010 remained constant at 49%. In Ethiopia, the literacy rate of the cohort of women who were aged 20–34 years in 2000 had fallen from 21% to 16% eleven years later when these women were aged 31–45 years.

While the results for only a few countries are shown, they are representative of the 30 countries included in the analysis. In most countries, literacy among a particular cohort stagnated or even declined over time as skills were underutilized. This does not contradict the increase in overall adult literacy. However, this increase is driven almost entirely by the replacement of older women with low literacy skills by younger women with higher literacy skills that enter into the age group. The results hold true even if taking into account that people with higher literacy skills have a lower probability of early death or a higher probability of migration.

Figure 4.7: In developing countries, the literacy skills of adults have rarely improved
Female literacy rate, selected countries and age groups, circa 2000 and 2010



Notes: 1. Literacy was assessed directly. 2. For every country, the continuous line follows over time women who were aged 20–34 at the first observation point; for example, the continuous line in Malawi follows women aged 20–34 in 2000 who were aged 30–44 by 2010. The dashed line follows the same age group; for example, the dashed line in Malawi follows women aged 20–34 in 2000 and 2010. 3. In 2001, the Nepal Demographic and Health Survey sampled only married women, but in 2006 and 2011, it sampled all women.
Source: Barakat (2015) and EFA GMR team, based on Demographic and Health Survey data analysis.

Further analysis focusing on subgroups of women by education level shows that even the limited gains mostly concern women who had at least begun primary school. The gains disappear among women who never attended school as children. In other words, adults who improved their literacy are more likely to have had at least some formal schooling (Barakat, 2015b).

In the figures above, Nepal is an outlier. Not only did it post the most rapid improvement in the adult literacy of women aged 20-34 among the countries analysed but is also the only country where a sustained improvement is confirmed at the cohort level over three survey waves. While the 2001 survey was restricted to ever-married women, the 2006 and 2011 surveys included all women in the target population. One reason for this positive performance could be the success of the government's investment of US$35 million in the 2008–2012 National Literacy Campaign Programme (Nepal National Planning Commission, 2013), which received UNESCO's Confucius Literacy Prize in 2010.

Explaining limited progress in adult literacy

If the literacy skills of adults who were above school age did not improve in most developing countries, then considerable doubt is cast on the impact of efforts to improve the literacy skills of adult populations since 2000. The remainder of the chapter assesses four factors that may help explain why progress was not achieved. These include the extent of global political commitment, the effectiveness of literacy campaigns and programmes, the scope of attempts to promote mother tongue literacy

programmes, and the influence of demand for literacy. While there has not been an assessment of their relative importance, evidence since 2000 suggests that national literacy policies should take all four factors into account.

The global commitment to adult literacy was ambiguous

World literacy rates grew fastest during the 1970s and illiteracy was reduced by more than half from 1950 to around 2000 (Carr-Hill, 2008). Even from 1970 to 2000, literacy increased from 28% to 60% in sub-Saharan Africa and from 29% to 63% in the Arab States (UNESCO, 2006b). Encouraged by this progress, the international community has repeatedly made declarations to promote adult literacy over the past quarter-century. Declared targets have raised expectations that illiteracy would follow a path like that of polio and could be 'eradicated'. The UNESCO-stimulated Plan of Action for the Eradication of Illiteracy by the Year 2000 was adopted in 1989. The 1990 World Declaration on Education for All in Jomtien emphasized that literacy was 'a necessary skill in itself and the foundation of other life skills'. The 2000 Dakar Framework for Action also set a specific target for improving literacy.

Unlike the EFA Declaration, however, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) included no specific reference to adult learning or literacy. The implicit assumption was that universal primary education of good quality would eventually lead to adult literacy. The MDGs both reflected and helped shape development aims and assistance. Some argue that as a consequence, adult literacy has slipped down both international and national agendas (Wagner, 2010). An analysis for this GMR compared two national education plans – one drafted around 2000 and the other since 2007 – from 30 countries. It confirmed that adult literacy was neglected compared with other EFA goals (IIEP, 2015).

What has advanced is *thinking* about literacy. The United Nations declared 2003–2012 as the UN Literacy Decade (UNLD). In 2006, UNESCO created the Literacy Initiative for Empowerment (LIFE) as the global framework for implementing the UNLD when it became apparent that existing efforts would be insufficient to achieve the targets by 2015. The aim was to encourage governments, non-government organizations (NGOs), the private sector and development agencies to revitalize and advance literacy efforts. LIFE focused on 35 countries in which 85% of the world's non-literate adults resided and promoted a broader concept of literacy.

Another important response to adult illiteracy was the Belém Framework for Action, a result of UNESCO's Sixth International Conference on Adult Education (CONFINTEA VI) in December 2009 in Belém, Brazil. The framework was consistent with a holistic view of literacy (Oxenham, 2008), placing it at the centre of adult education and as a point of departure for lifelong learning and development goals. It helped reframe literacy within the UN system; the UIL was asked to lead policy responses (UIL, 2010).

The *2nd Global Report on Adult Learning and Education: Rethinking Literacy*, known as GRALE2 (UIL, 2013), showed messages from the Belém Framework integrated into national debates and policy reform. It offered a comprehensive account of national literacy policies and progress from analysing 129 submitted national progress reports.

Despite laudable global initiatives to reconceptualise adult literacy since 2000 and initiate literacy programmes that embrace these principles, these programmes were not very effective in practice. The midterm evaluation of LIFE found that it had been difficult to create a common understanding of the initiative. While significant changes were initiated in literacy programmes, in the context of the CapEFA LIFE programmes, these were found to be lacking a long-term vision in line with national education strategies (UIL, 2012; MDF, 2013).

Adult literacy has been neglected compared with other EFA goals

Literacy campaigns and programmes have changed, but their impact is elusive

Governments initiated mass adult literacy campaigns in the 1970s and 1980s, in some cases following radical social reform. But in the 1990s, such campaigns became less common as a result of an international shift in focus to universal primary education (Robinson-Pant, 2010). This was reinforced by political reasons as well as a critique of the way campaigns understood how literacy is acquired (Boughton, 2010).

Nevertheless, interest by regional organisations and governments in launching literacy campaigns has increased since 2000, especially in Latin America (**Table 4.2**). Most of the campaigns set ambitious targets, but the deadlines have already passed in some cases with targets unmet. Some scholars have argued that campaigns had failed almost everywhere (Rogers, 2003; Wagner, 2013).

Interest by regional organisations and governments in launching literacy campaigns has increased since 2000

Table 4.2: National literacy campaigns since Dakar

Country	Name of campaign or programme	Year of launch	Number of illiterate persons at launch (thousands)	Target number (thousands) or % of illiterate persons by campaign's end
Afghanistan	National Literacy Action Plan (various programmes)	2010	9,500	3,600 by 2014 Increase from 26% to 60% by 2020
Argentina	Encuentro	2006	730 (2006)	Illiteracy-free in 2010
Bangladesh	National Action Plan (various programmes)	2010	49,036 (2005–2009)	37,000 (11–45 age group) 100% literacy rate by 2014
Bolivia, P. S.	Programa Nacional de Alfabetización 'Yo Sí Puedo'	2006	1,200 (2006)	Illiteracy-free by 2008
Brazil	Programa Brasil Alfabetizado	2003	15,090 (1994–2004)	Illiteracy-free in 2010 (2,000 per year)
Burkina Faso	Programme Nationale d'Accéleration de l'Alphabétisation	2010	5,646 (2005–2009)	4,000 increase from 28.3% (2007) to 60% in 2015
Chile	Campaña de Alfabetización 'Contigo Aprendo'	2003	480 (2006)	20,000 per year
China	Guidance Opinion on Further Enhancing Literacy	2007	64,604 (2005–2009)	Reduce the adult illiteracy rate to below 6% by 2015
Colombia	Programa Nacional de Alfabetización y Educación Básica de Jóvenes y Adultos	2007	2,475 (2006)	Illiteracy-free by 2015
Dominican Republic	Red Nacional de Alfabetización	2005	737 (2006)	200 in 3 years
Ecuador	Manuela Sáenz	2006	672 (2006)	Reduce illiteracy to 2% by 2015
Egypt	National Literacy Campaign	2011	17,816 (2005–2009)	Reach a literacy rate of less than 10% by 2020
El Salvador	Plan Nacional de Educación 2021	2007	1,006 (2006)	360 in 3 years
England (United Kingdom)	Skills for Life	2001	5,200 (16%) have literacy skills below level 1	Improvement of basic skill levels of 2,250 adults between 2001 and 2010
Ghana	National Functional Literacy Programme	2000 Phase 2	5,290 (2000–2004)	1,000 by 2006
Guatemala	Estrategia Nacional de Alfabetización Integral	2005	1,818 (2006)	863 in 3 years
India	Saakshar Bharat Mission	2009	283,105 (2005–2009)	70,000 (60,000 women) by 2017; 80% literacy rate by 2017
Indonesia	AKRAB!	2006	12,858 (2005–2009)	8,500; 96% adult literacy by 2014
Mexico	Modelo Educación para la Vida y el Trabajo	1997	5,942 (2006)	Reduce illiteracy rate from 4.7% to 3.5% by 2015
Namibia	National Literacy Programme	1992	316,268 (2007)	Achieve a total youth and adult literacy rate of 90% by 2015
Nepal	National Literacy Campaign Programme	2008	7,604 (2005–2009)	100% literacy rate by 2011
Nicaragua	La Campaña Nacional de Alfabetización 'De Martí a Fidel'	2007	1,095 (2006)	Reduce illiteracy to less than 3% by 2009
Pakistan	NCHD Literacy Programme	2002/03	46,625 (1994–2004)	85% literacy rate by 2015
Panama	Proyecto de Alfabetización 'Muévete por Panamá'	2005	168 (2006)	90 in 5 years
Paraguay	Plan Nacional de Alfabetización 'Por un Paraguay Alfabetizado'	2005	192 (2006)	156 to overcome absolute illiteracy and 100 to overcome functional illiteracy
Peru	Programa Nacional de Movilización por la Alfabetización	2006	1,465 (2006)	Reduce illiteracy rate to 2.5% by 2015
South Africa	Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Programme	2008	9,600 (2006)	4,700 (2008–2012)
Timor-Leste	National Literacy Campaign 'Yo Sí Puedo'	2007	252 (2005–2011)	Eradicate illiteracy by 2011
Venezuela, B. R.	Misión Robinson	2003	1,008 (2001)	Illiteracy-free in 2006

Source: Based on Hanemann (2015).

Major campaigns carry risks. They can raise unrealistic expectations. They do not always cater to diversity, using a centrally designed 'one size fits all' approach with a prescribed curriculum, objectives and materials. Some countries have targeted specific populations, such as prison inmates in Pakistan, people with disabilities in Ecuador, or indigenous communities in Nicaragua (Hanemann, 2015).

The language of campaigns often portrays illiteracy as a 'social illness' which can be 'eradicated' with the right intervention, as found in the Plurinational State of Bolivia and in Timor-Leste. This can stigmatize illiteracy, demotivate those with low literacy skills and lead them to hide their problems, particularly if political leaders declare the country to be 'illiteracy-free'.

Monitoring and evaluation systems to assess success have been lacking. The inherently complex features of adult literacy education, which demand strong capacity and coordination mechanisms, may have prevented such progress (UIL, 2012). One exception is the South Africa national literacy campaign (**Box 4.2**).

Campaigns often portray illiteracy as a 'social illness' which can be 'eradicated'

The status of adult literacy educators remains low. Teacher recruitment and training is considered

Box 4.2 Adult literacy campaigns and programmes often lack research on their effectiveness

Although literacy campaigns set ambitious targets, there are often no monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to track progress and report results.

The literacy campaign model Yo Sí Puedo (Yes I Can) was developed in 2001 at the Institute of Pedagogy for Latin America and the Caribbean, based in Havana. The campaign initially provided mass literacy programmes via radio, and later through audiovisual programmes delivered via television or DVD. Between 2003 and 2013, more than 7 million people in 30 countries – mainly in Latin America and the Caribbean and sub-Saharan Africa – learned to read and write using this literacy model. The three month course is divided into three phases: training, teaching of reading and writing, and consolidation. In 2004, when the regional alliance known as ALBA (formerly Alianza Bolivariana para los Pueblos de Nuestra América) was created, it promoted Yo Sí Puedo. Three ALBA countries have declared themselves 'illiteracy-free' since – the Plurinational State of Bolivia (2009), Ecuador (2009) and Nicaragua (2011). Some governments see Yo Sí Puedo as 'a low-cost method of reaching very large numbers of people in a fairly short period of time'. However, despite its wide adoption, there have been no independent evaluations of its cost-effectiveness or its capacity to achieve sustainable reading skills on a large scale.

Saakshar Bharat Mission, India's nationwide, government-sponsored literacy programme, was launched in 2009. Public awareness and acceptance of it have been raised through extensive use of the mass media. The programme aims to achieve the government target of an 80% national adult literacy rate, and to provide functional literacy to 70 million people, of whom 60 million are women. Women's literacy skills are linked 'with empowerment of women' and thus 'inclusive growth in the sociocultural, economic and political spheres.' Saakshar Bharat also aims to reach 1.5 million adults with a basic education programme and the same number with a vocational skills development programme. As with other such campaigns, its cost-effectiveness and capacity to promote sustainable reading skills on a large scale have not been evaluated independently.

South Africa's Kha Ri Gude Mass Literacy Programme, launched in April 2008, aimed to make 4.7 million adults literate by the end of 2012. Most participants have been women. The learning materials follow an integrated approach to acquiring literacy, drawing on 'language experience' and 'whole word' concepts and including recent findings of neuro-cognitive research. Materials are highly structured, with built-in sequenced activities to teach reading and writing, including learning games that help learners develop the required reading speed to read with understanding and acquire sustainable literacy skill levels. The curriculum is organized around eight themes which are relevant to learners' motivation. Instead of a final exam, assessment is based on internal evidence in the form of a standardized assessment tool (all learners perform the same tasks and are marked against the same criteria). Learners are tested continuously through a Learner Assessment Portfolio of 10 literacy assessment activities in their mother tongue and 10 numeracy activities. The activities are competence-based and time-linked to the stages of the learning process. The portfolios are marked by the facilitator, moderated by supervisors and controlled by coordinators, then returned to the campaign head office where final marking is verified by the South African Qualifications Authority. The available data would have allowed longitudinal evaluations of the programme's effectiveness, but such research has not yet been conducted.

Sources: Boughton (2010); Hanemann (2014); Ministry of Human Resource Development of India (2010).

the weakest point in literacy programmes. Many systems continue to rely on volunteers, such as the Brasil Alfabetizado programme or the National Literacy Programme in Ghana.

Overall, despite the renewed interest of governments and the ambition that characterised approaches to literacy campaigns after 2000, they have not had a major global impact on improving literacy skills.

Progress in recognizing the importance of the mother tongue

Many leaders have been ambivalent about the feasibility of multilingual approaches

The Dakar Framework for Action stressed 'the importance of local languages for initial literacy'. After Dakar, there were increasing calls for adult literacy based on the mother tongue, supported by research on multilingual education in formal and non-formal settings. However, many leaders, while recognizing the educational benefits of using learners' first language, have been ambivalent about the feasibility of multilingual approaches, fearing division or conflict in situations of linguistic diversity.

The impact of this hesitation by leaders has rarely been spelled out for the conduct of adult literacy programmes. Multilingual approaches have greater credibility today than at the start of the EFA period, but are only slowly being translated into tangible benefits. Even countries with a relatively long history of these approaches rely on non-state actors and specialized institutes rather than mainstreaming efforts into national planning and budgeting.

The closer practitioners come to the realities of communities speaking non-dominant languages, the better they understand that the language of learning is a barrier when it is not the local language. Conversely, the more leaders set their sights on the global arena, market and connections, the less attention they appear to give to local realities and community needs.

In Mexico's most recent (2010) census, speakers of indigenous languages represented about 6.6 million people, some 6.5% of the population (INEGI, 2012). A government initiative, Modelo Educación para la Vida y el Trabajo (Learning Model for Life and Work), launched in 2000, was designed to address indigenous groups through their own language, with the possibility of learning and using Spanish as well. Two learning tracks were developed for indigenous communities: one for bilingual speakers and one for those initially monolingual in an indigenous language (Robinson, 2015). Since 2007, stronger government emphasis on marginalized groups, particularly indigenous populations, has led to the use of more languages – now 45 of them – in learning literacy, and the development of learning materials in each (Gobierno de México, 2012). However, while the current national education plan identifies indigenous populations as facing a particular literacy challenge, it proposes no specific actions, only referring to a need for contextually appropriate programmes. Also, it proposes no strategies for adult literacy (Robinson, 2015).

In Morocco, the only government-sanctioned languages were modern standard Arabic and French until the mid-1990s. The use, let alone promotion, of Amazigh was discouraged. The change of language policy is evidenced by constitutional reform. The 1996 constitution designated Arabic as the official language. The 2011 constitution refers to 'protection of the languages and cultural expressions practised in Morocco', gives language a separate clause, and designates both Arabic and Amazigh as official languages. Neither constitution mentions French. Under the new constitution, public offices increasingly display their titles in both Arabic and Amazigh, but there is almost no daily written use of Amazigh. In 2005–2008, a joint project between the Ministry of Education's Department for the Struggle against Illiteracy and USAID introduced the approach of using a 'language bridge' in female adult literacy programmes, designed to inform them of the new family legal framework. This approach taught adult women to first write in their mother tongues before bridging to broader literacy skills in Arabic (Robinson, 2015).

Papua New Guinea has 838 languages, the most of any country in the world (Lewis et al., 2013). English is the official language, while the pidgin languages Tok Pisin and Hiri Motu are both recognised as lingua francas for wider communication. Papua New Guinea's 1975 constitution includes a clause on promoting literacy and exhorts all persons and governmental bodies to endeavour to achieve universal literacy in Tok Pisin, Hiri Motu or English, and in local

languages. An adult literacy policy published in 2000 clearly linked literacy acquisition with linguistic context. Four of its five goals for literacy are related to language choice, the intent clearly being to make literacy accessible in the languages people speak. A report on adult education notes an increase in the use of Tok Pisin and lists a further 13 languages that serve as regional lingua francas (Papua New Guinea National Department of Education, 2008). However, strong commitments by non-state actors in adult literacy resulted in disengagement by the government and a consequent lack of public investment in adult literacy. The most recent assessments show there is a long way to go, even in Tok Pisin (Robinson, 2015).

Since 2000, conditions have been more favourable in many low literacy countries for increasing focus on the use of mother tongue as the medium of instruction in adult literacy programmes. However, either because of logistical constraints or because of ambivalent attitudes by political leaders, they have not yet made a major contribution to improving adult literacy skills on a sufficiently large scale.

Changes in daily life have not led to a strong increase in the demand for literacy

Parents that have faced the hardships of not being able to write letters, use mobile phones or ATMs do all they can to provide their children with an education so they don't ever become excluded due to illiteracy.

– Omovigho Rani Ebireri,
University of Maiduguri, Nigeria

It is unlikely that literacy skills can ever be promoted among adults unless demand for literacy is also increased. Literacy requires not only a better supply of learning opportunities but also more opportunities to use, improve and retain literacy skills.

Such opportunities have been growing since 2000. Favourable contexts have emerged in which a strong literate environment contributes to acquisition and retention of literacy skills through collaboration at the community level, for example in agricultural marketing, public health interventions, microfinance initiatives or water management investments (Easton, 2015). In addition, rapid changes in communication technology have brought with them new opportunities to use literacy. However, despite a growing recognition that literacy programmes need to be attached to these opportunities, the impact on literacy skill acquisition has not yet been perceptible.

Projects related to agricultural marketing and livelihood development have involved building literacy skills. In Cameroon, Mali and Mozambique, community-level management skills and capacities, including literacy, were successfully developed through cooperative strategies to improve opportunities for small farmers to benefit from market participation, where previously this had been a source of exploitation (Bingen, Serrano et al., 2003). Participatory action research has been used in Latin America to help farmers understand the full cycle from their fields to consumers' tables, and to identify where they could intervene more productively, what they needed to learn to do so, and how to fulfil these learning needs, including better literacy skills (Ashby et al., 2009).

Local organization and management of new health services has also been linked with literacy. Among indigenous Ayta communities of Luzon in the Philippines, an essential part of the training of new village health workers was involvement in animated discussions of the meanings of personal, family and community health and their socio-political implications (Estacio, 2013). In Gnagna and Koulpeologo provinces of Burkina Faso, a reproductive health initiative supported by an international NGO led to training in gynaecology and long-term contraceptive measures that incorporated literacy into public health interventions (Lankoande and McKaig, 2005).

Microfinance initiatives have continued to be used as a lever to help households escape poverty but have also created opportunities to use literacy and numeracy skills, in the context of growing monetization and more frequent market exchanges. As part of such initiatives, cooperatives have trained community leaders in simple accounting, loan management and assessment of creditworthiness. Community members have been encouraged to apply for credit in writing. Leaders of local institutions gradually trained themselves to carry out formal assessments of the feasibility of proposed loans

Literacy requires not only a better supply of learning opportunities but also more opportunities to use, improve and retain literacy skills

and provide potential borrowers with technical assistance to ensure the creditworthiness of their ventures (Easton, 2015). An NGO-sponsored initiative to establish a microfinance institution in six villages in Karnataka state, India, created an innovative model of community mobilization. Rather than enrolling only educated clients or training poorer and less literate ones, the institution's officers bridged the gap. They created self-help groups in which literate participants could explain management issues to those initially less capable (Brook et al., 2008).

Common resource management initiatives also create opportunities where literacy skills are needed. At the non-formal Farmer Water School in Kurnool district of Andhra Pradesh state, India, trainees valued literacy as an important skill for decision-making on water management and crop choices (Chavva and Smith, 2012). However, literacy skills, while valued, were not necessary for all farmers to improve their groundwater and crop management. This suggests that despite many changes in rural economies and society, the relatively slow pace of change may have often not been fast enough for adults to need literacy skills. Combined with the small scale of interventions that have tried to match community development with literacy skill acquisition, this may help explain why demand for literacy has grown less than expected, and literacy outcomes have not improved among adults.

The potential of mobile phones to increase demand for literacy skills may become apparent in coming years

However, another change, the rapid expansion of communication technologies, holds considerable promise. It is easy to underestimate the pace of transformation. The Jomtien EFA Declaration made no mention of 'computer' or 'internet'. While these words appear in the 2000 Dakar Framework, they occur only twice in the 78 page document, and then only in relation to what schools should do to promote equitable learning. In the meantime, mobile phone use has grown exponentially even in low literacy societies. Could mobile devices change the literacy environment?

Internet access still remains low in much of sub-Saharan Africa, but it may be possible to take advantage of the universality of mobile phones to promote stronger literacy environments and reading practices. People already use mobile devices for banking, bill paying and social communication. They even participate in democratic practices, such as engaging with political leaders via SMS (Asino et al., 2011). A recent comparative survey of the use of mobile devices, completed by over 4,000 people in seven countries (Ethiopia, Ghana, India, Kenya, Nigeria, Pakistan and Zimbabwe), found that while more men read books on mobile phones than women, women spent many more hours reading than men did. The Worldreader's mobile application also demonstrates how technology helps create a literacy environment and encourages reading. In 2013, 334,000 unique users per month accessed books and stories for free in English as well as other languages including Hindi, Kiswahili, Twi and Yoruba (West and Chew, 2014). Educational exercises on mobile phones, when added to an adult education programme in Niger, improved reading and numeracy outcomes significantly more than in programmes without mobile phones (Aker et al., 2012).

The potential of mobile phones to increase demand for literacy skills may become apparent in coming years. Using mobile phones to text and email enhances the use of text as communication. But clear evidence is lacking of their impact on improving literacy skills.

Conclusions

Many positive developments must be acknowledged in approaches to adult literacy since 2000. There has been a clear trend towards measuring literacy skills on a continuum as opposed to either/or assessments. Resources developed by LAMP, PIAAC and STEP will be valuable for the development of national monitoring. Some of these conceptualizations have influenced policy and programme development in many countries.

However, very few countries met the EFA literacy target of halving their 2000 adult illiteracy rate by 2015. Moreover, adults whose literacy is estimated in later years received more schooling than the adults whose literacy was estimated in earlier years. When it is possible to follow a cohort over time, there are few countries where women increased their literacy rates as adults. Thus even the limited progress in women's adult literacy

rates may therefore have been the consequence of younger, better educated women replacing older, less educated ones.

Four factors may help explain this poor record. First of all, global commitment was weak. Calls for action to focus on a more holistic view of literacy at the global level were not matched by a willingness to adequately fund programmes at the national level. Second, large, nationally owned literacy campaigns and programmes re-emerged after a relative decline in the 1990s, but the lack of coordination and capacity appear to have prevented them from making a visible impact. This is also true of genuine attempts to introduce mother tongue as a medium of instruction in adult literacy programmes. Finally, despite apparently favourable conditions that could increase the demand for literacy among individuals in developing countries, programmes have not been sufficiently linked to such opportunities.

Credit: Darryl Evans/Agence VU

CHAPTER 5

Goal 5: Gender parity and equality

Highlights

- At the primary level, 69% of countries with data have achieved or are likely to reach gender parity by 2015. Progress is slower in secondary enrolment with fewer than half projected to reach gender parity by 2015.
- Progress in tackling severe gender disparity has been made. Between 1999 and 2012, the number of countries with fewer than 90 girls enrolled for every 100 boys fell from 33 to just 16.
- In sub-Saharan Africa, the poorest girls remain most likely to never attend primary school. In Guinea and Niger in 2012, approximatively 70% of the poorest girls had never attended primary school, compared with less than 20% of the richest boys.
- The recruitment of female teachers at all levels of education, textbook and curriculum reform, and training in gender-sensitive teaching are critical to improving gender equality in schools.
- Global and national advocacy has led to improvements in girls' education and progress in reducing gender gaps. However, policies that tackle child marriage and school-related gender-based violence need to be strengthened.
- Boys experience disparities in secondary education. Although gaps have narrowed or closed in many rich countries, they have widened in others, and the problem is emerging in some poorer countries.

There has been strong movement worldwide towards greater gender parity, particularly in primary education. This chapter reviews global progress towards gender parity and equality since Dakar. It reviews policies and practices that have successfully increased the demand for girls' education, ranging from gender mainstreaming and policy reform to improving school infrastructure, reducing early marriage and adolescent pregnancy, and creating equitable school and classroom environments. However, many challenges remain, and this chapter also calls attention to persistent gender disparity in educational attainment.

> *"Morocco has mobilized significant human and financial resources to develop a strategy to fight against disparities between girls and boys, having achieved significant results in terms of parity. This strategy is based on the implementation of a new adapted model of community schools, social support to reduce the impact of socioeconomic factors, and the development of non-formal education."*
>
> Ministry of National Education and Professional Training, Morocco

Goal 5 Gender parity and equality

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

For a combination of reasons – many of which have a gendered dimension – millions of girls and boys around the world still face considerable difficulty in getting access to, attending and progressing through school, and learning well while there. This chapter of the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* (GMR) looks retrospectively at policies and programmes relating to achieving gender parity and equality in education, with the central understanding that all children – girls and boys – have a basic right to education opportunities to enable them to reach their full potential in life. It explores progress towards the realization of goal 5, as well as barriers that continue to prevent it.

The realization of gender equality in education remains a serious issue of social justice. Gender equality is a more complex notion than gender parity and harder to measure. It requires moving beyond counting the numbers of boys and girls in school to exploring the quality of girls' and boys' experiences in the classroom and school community, their achievements in education institutions and their aspirations for the future.

Since the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, uneven progress has been made towards realizing gender parity in primary education. Although the target of reaching gender parity in primary enrolment by 2005 was missed, trend projections made for this GMR indicate that 69% of countries with data will have achieved it by 2015. Progress towards eliminating gender disparities in secondary education has been much less marked; only 48% of countries will have reached parity by 2015 (Bruneforth, 2015).

Goal 5 calls for eliminating disparities in both primary and secondary education. Of 145 countries with data for both levels, less than half, 43%, have achieved gender parity in enrolments for both primary and secondary, or are likely to do so by 2015. Just over one-quarter, 27%, are likely to reach gender parity in primary education, but not in secondary education. But progress has been made, and accelerated, over the last fifteen years: analysis of trend projections detailed elsewhere in this GMR show that the number of countries at parity in both primary and secondary will be 62 by 2015, whereas if trends for 1990–1999 had continued at the same pace, this number would have stood at only 25 (Bruneforth, 2015).

Following an overview of progress towards gender parity in primary and secondary education, this chapter discusses efforts by government and civil society to build support for gender equality. Framed by consideration of children's rights to, within and through education, the rest of the chapter examines policies to address economic and social barriers to girls' and boys' education, including supply-side interventions to improve accessibility and school infrastructure, and measures to enhance gender equality within schools. A final section highlights the gender dimensions of learning outcomes and subject choice.

Progress towards gender parity

Progress has been made in primary education, but more needs to be done

Gender disparity in primary enrolment has been substantially reduced since 1999, but not eliminated. Among the 161 countries with data for 1999 and 2012, the number at parity – measured by a gender parity index (GPI) of between 0.97 and 1.03 – rose from 83 in 1999 to 104 in 2012. The number of countries with a GPI under 0.97 – with fewer girls enrolled relative to boys – dropped from 73 to 48. Of countries yet to achieve parity by 2012, a majority had disparities at the expense of girls and only nine at the expense of boys.

69% of countries will achieve gender parity in primary education by 2015

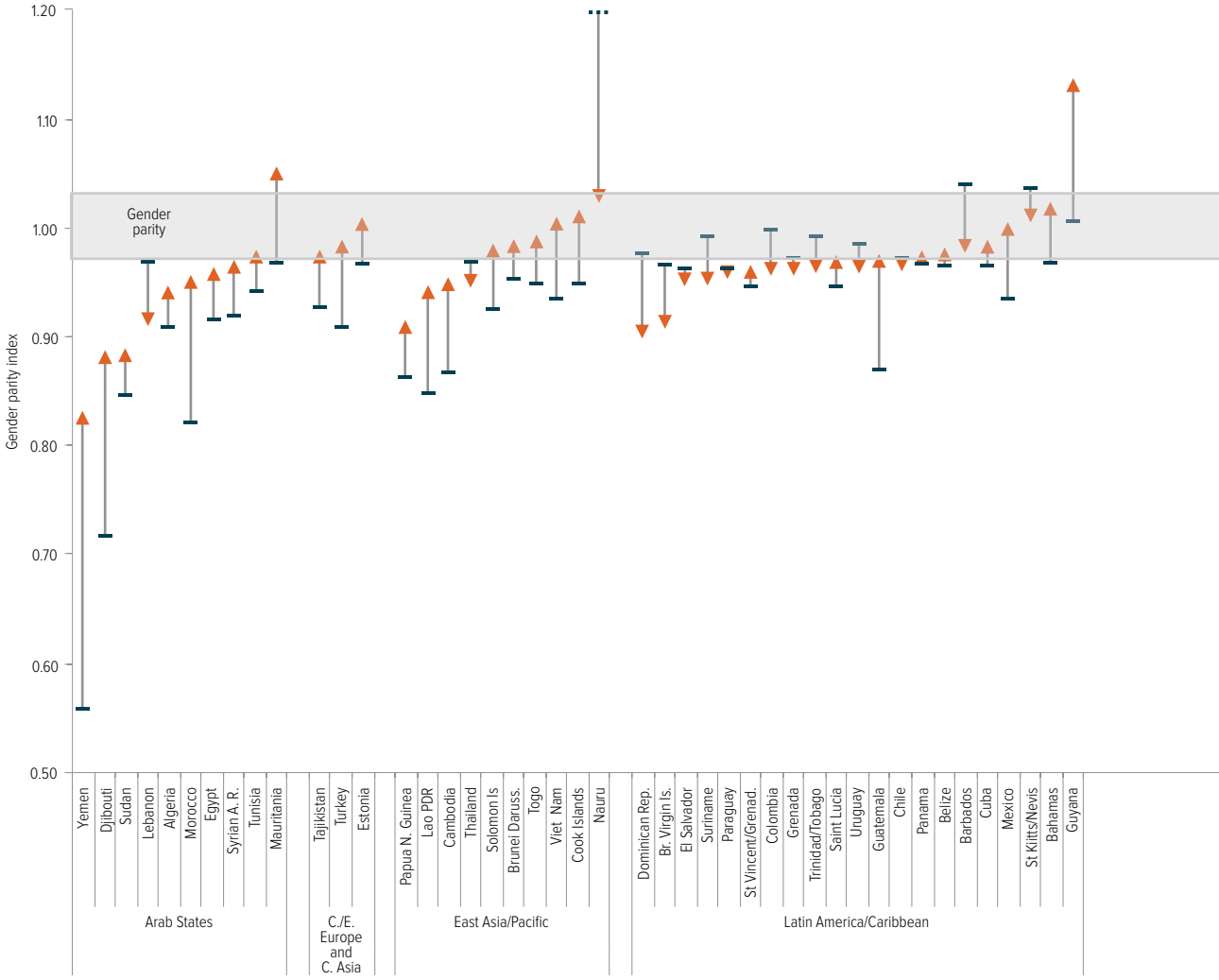
There was particular improvement in reducing gender disparity in primary enrolment in South and West Asia, where the regional GPI increased from 0.83 in 1999 to parity in 2012. Regional averages mask wide variation among countries, however. Only four of the

eight countries with data over the period achieved parity: Bhutan, India, the Islamic Republic of Iran and Sri Lanka. Despite considerable progress in getting girls into school, Afghanistan had just 72 girls enrolled for every 100 boys. In Nepal, previous gender gaps have been reversed, with more girls than boys enrolled in primary education in 2012.

The regional GPIs for primary enrolment in the Arab States, 0.93 in 2012, and sub-Saharan Africa, 0.92, represent improvement but not parity. There has been a clear trend of reducing gender disparity in the primary gross enrolment ratio for a majority of countries in these two regions, often starting from a point of severe disadvantage for girls (**Figure 5.1**). Burundi was far from parity in 1999, with 79 girls enrolled for every 100 boys, but it had eliminated this gender gap by 2012. Other countries, including Benin, Burkina Faso and Morocco, while not achieving parity, made notable progress.

Countries where gender gaps have been reversed underline the dynamic nature of achieving gender parity. Careful analysis of these trends is needed to inform future policy. In Gambia, Nepal and Senegal, increases in the ratio of girls' enrolment relative to boys' reflect not only a slight advantage in girls' enrolment at

Figure 5.1: Gender disparity in primary enrolment has been reduced, but wide gaps remain in several countries
Gender parity index of the primary gross enrolment ratio, selected countries, 1999 and 2012



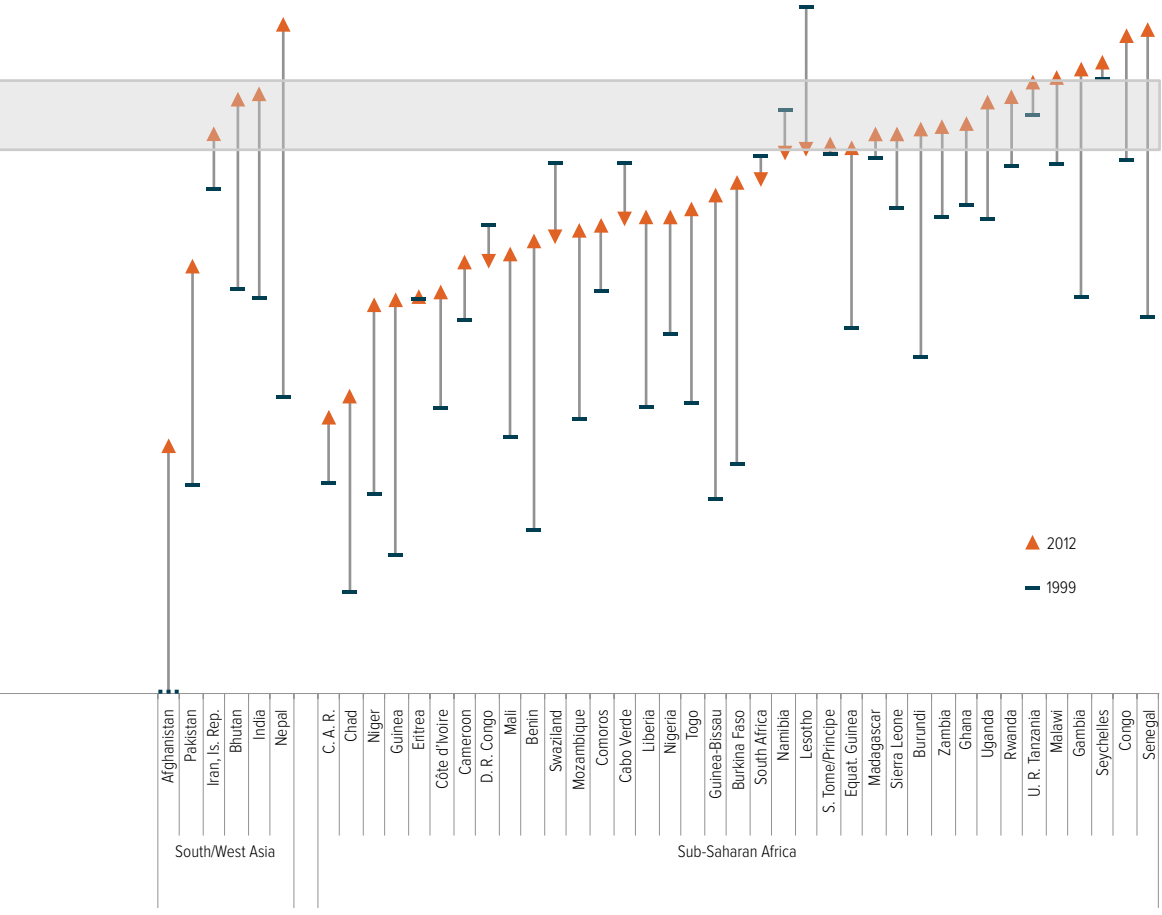
Notes: The figure excludes countries at gender parity in both years. A GPI below 0.97 denotes disparity at the expense of females while one above 1.03 denotes disparity at the expense of males.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 5; UIS database.

entry to primary school, but also more boys dropping out of school. In Senegal in 1999, 81 boys were leaving primary school for every 100 girls. By 2011, the situation was reversed: 113 boys dropped out for every 100 girls. Caution is needed, therefore, in understanding changes in gender parity, which might reflect undesirable developments in the education system.

Progress in countries where girls faced the greatest disadvantage

Since 1999, important progress has been made in reducing gender gaps in primary enrolment in many of the countries where girls faced the worst disadvantage. Of the 161 countries with data for both 1999 and 2012, 33 – including 20 in sub-Saharan Africa – had severe disparities at the expense of girls in 1999, with fewer than 90 girls enrolled for every 100 boys; by 2012 the number had fallen to 16. Afghanistan, the lowest ranking country in 1999, has overcome immense obstacles to raise its estimated primary gross enrolment ratio for girls from less than 4% in 1999 to 87% in 2012, resulting in its GPI increasing from 0.08 to 0.72.

Figure 5.2 compares progress in countries with data for 1990, 1999 and 2012. Among the 28 countries with GPIs below 0.90 in 1999, 16 had passed this threshold by 2012. Of these, Bhutan, Burundi and India achieved gender parity,

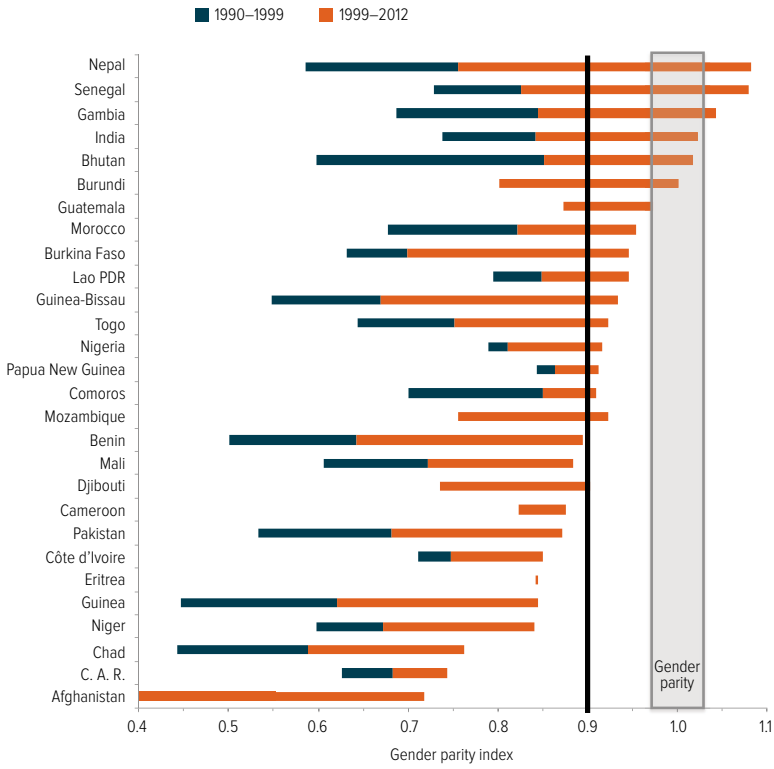


and in some countries that had not reached gender parity, the index still increased dramatically. Benin, Burkina Faso, Guinea-Bissau and Senegal progressed faster in 1999–2012 than in 1990–1999. Comoros, Morocco and Pakistan built on progress from the 1990s to move towards gender parity after Dakar.

In Ethiopia and Senegal, education policies targeting girls reduced the gender gap

Countries such as Guatemala and Morocco, close to the goal of gender parity and with high overall enrolment, need to increase efforts to address obstacles to schooling faced by the most marginalized girls. Djibouti, Eritrea and Niger, all of which had a gross enrolment ratio of less than 80% in 2012, face the dual challenge of increasing the number of children in school while continuing efforts to reduce severe gender disparity.

Figure 5.2: Progress has been made in reducing severe gender disparity, but girls still face difficulty getting into primary school in several countries
Gender parity index of the primary gross enrolment ratio, countries with GPIs below 0.90 in 1999, 1990–1999 and 1999–2012



Note: Only countries with data for 1990, 1999 and 2012 are plotted. If there was no information for a particular year, information from up to two years before or after was used.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 5; UIS database.

The poorest girls remain the least likely to enrol

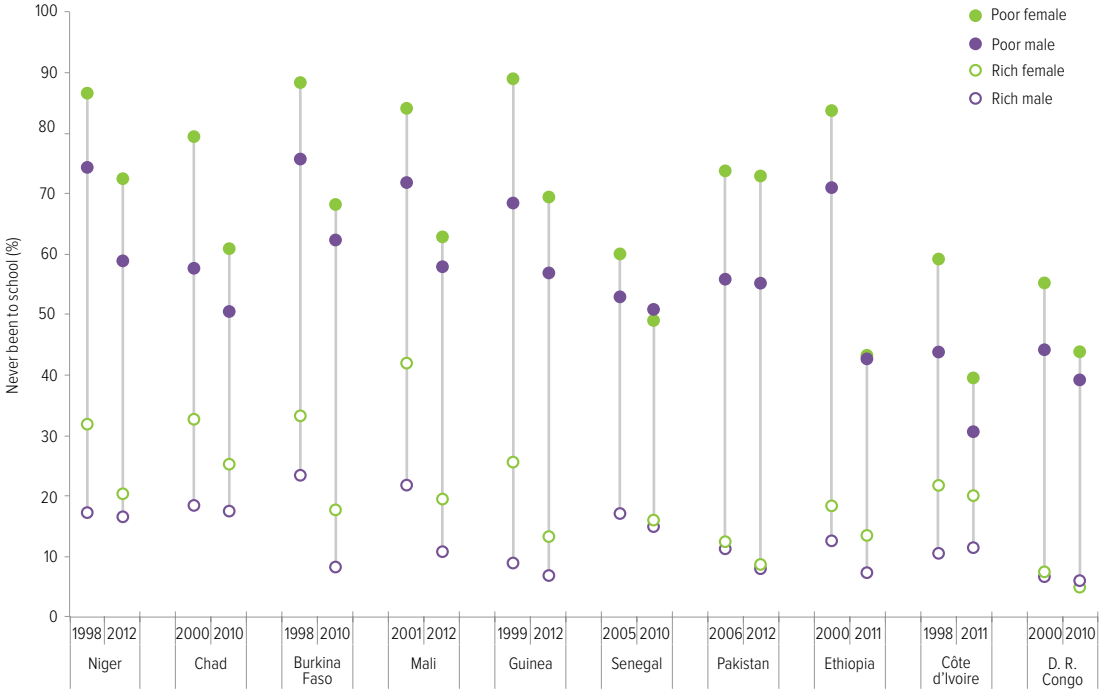
Understanding the patterns behind gender differences in school enrolment is important, particularly in countries still struggling to increase enrolment overall. Do children enter school and then drop out? Do they fail to enrol in the first place? About 43% of the world's out-of-school children will never go to school. Considerable gender disparity exists: 48% of girls are likely never to enrol, compared with 37% of boys. But boys are more likely to leave school early: 26%, compared with 20% of girls (see Figure 0.5, in the Overview). Analysis of household survey data from low and middle income countries shows that in countries with large populations of primary-age children who have never attended school, girls are still less likely than boys to go to school, particularly among the poorest children.

During the 2000s, 9 of 10 countries with the highest percentages of children who had never attended school were in sub-Saharan Africa (**Figure 5.3**). While the overall proportion of children who had never attended school fell, gender disparity remained in most of these countries. The poorest girls continued to be most likely never to have attended. In Niger and Guinea, approximately 70% of the poorest girls had never attended school – notably higher than the share of the poorest boys – compared with less than 20% of the richest boys.

In Ethiopia and Senegal, education policies targeting girls supported progress to reduce the gender gap between the poorest girls and boys, although large numbers of both still missed out on school. In Pakistan, between 2006 and 2012, little progress was made in reducing the proportion of the poorest children who had never attended and in reducing the gender gap of 18 percentage points between the poorest girls and boys. By contrast, among the richest children, little gender disparity existed in either year.

Figure 5.3: In most countries with high numbers of children out of school, the poorest girls continue to be most likely never to have attended

Percentage of boys and girls who never attended school, by wealth, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Note: The countries selected were those with the highest percentages of children who had never attended school.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2014) using data from Demographic and Health Surveys and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys.

Once in school, girls progress alongside boys

When enrolled, girls stand an equal or better chance than boys of continuing to the upper grades of primary school: survival rates to grade 5 for girls have consistently been equal to or higher than those of boys in many countries. Of 68 countries with data for both years, 57 had either parity in grade 5 survival rates or disparity at the expense of boys in 1999, and 58 in 2011.

Even in countries where girls are severely disadvantaged at the point of initial intake, survival rates to grade 5 among enrolled children generally show narrower gender gaps or none at all. In Cameroon and Côte d'Ivoire, countries with a GPI of less than 0.90 for gross intake rates, survival rates for girls and boys are at parity (**Figure 5.4**).

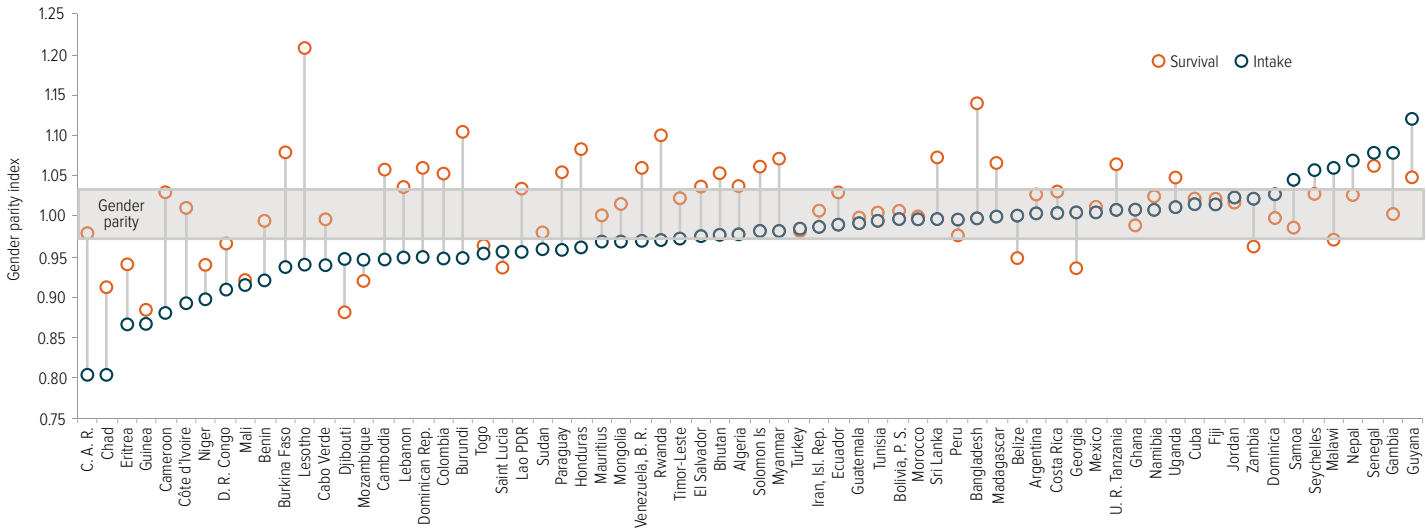
In the few countries where boys are disadvantaged at the point of intake, including Gambia, Malawi and Nepal, gross enrolment ratios are lower for boys than for girls. In countries where no gender gap exists in intake rates but boys are disadvantaged in terms of survival to grade 5, such as Bangladesh, Myanmar and the United Republic of Tanzania, boys are at higher risk of dropout.

Poverty deepens gender disparities in primary education completion

Using a measure of school completion – the primary attainment rate – that includes all school-age children in a population rather than just those enrolled, gender disparity in completion of primary schooling has often remained far wider among the poorest children than the richest (**Figure 5.5**). Despite overall progress in reducing gender disparity in primary attainment since 2000, the poorest girls still face severe disadvantage in entering and completing primary education. In countries such as the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mozambique and Uganda, where gender parity in primary attainment has been achieved since 2000 for the richest girls, the poorest girls still lag far behind the poorest boys. In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, among the

When enrolled, girls stand an equal or better chance than boys of continuing to the upper grades of primary school

Figure 5.4: While girls are less likely to enrol in school, boys are more likely to leave early
Gender parity index of the primary gross intake rate and survival rate to grade 5 of primary school, 2011 and 2012



Notes: The figure excludes high income countries. A GPI below 0.97 denotes disparity at the expense of females while one above 1.03 denotes disparity at the expense of males.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 4 and 7 (GMR website); UIS database.

Gender disparity is found in a greater number of countries in secondary education than in primary

richest children the proportion of girls who attained full primary education rose from 88 per 100 boys in 2000 to parity in 2010, while among the poorest children it fell from 77 to 70 girls per 100 boys.

Countries including Brazil, the Dominican Republic and Nicaragua have seen gender disparity in primary attainment at the expense of the poorest boys improve since 2000, while in countries including Haiti and Zimbabwe, wide disparities have emerged, with the poorest boys now less likely to complete primary education. Strategies to address the emergence of low primary attainment among poorer boys need to tackle why boys leave school early. Getting more girls, particularly those who are poor and disadvantaged, into school in the first place remains a necessary goal for countries seeking to improve overall attainment for girls. But careful examination of patterns at entry point and in subsequent grades is also required to ensure equitable participation and completion of primary education for both girls and boys.

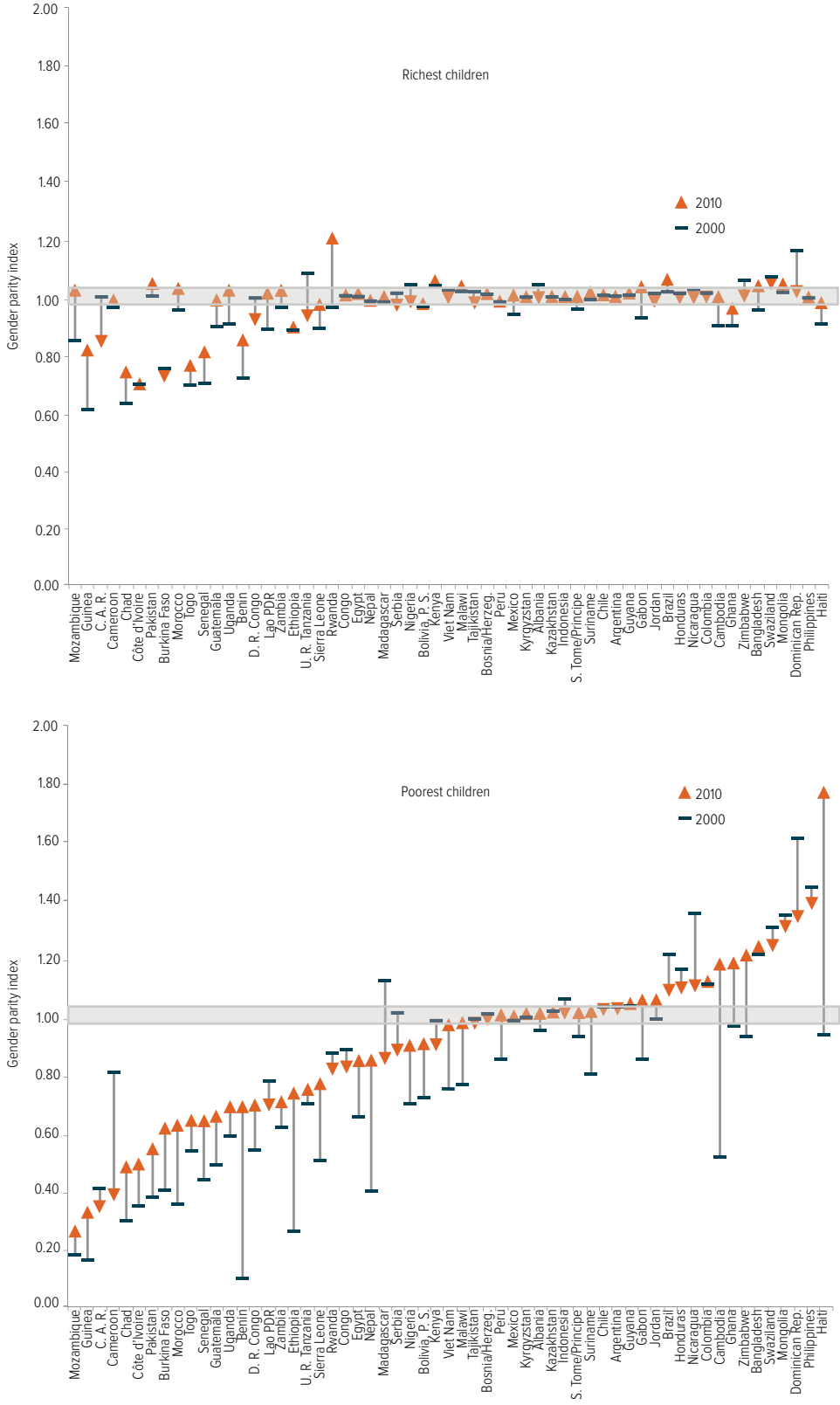
Gender disparity is wider and more varied in secondary education

Gender disparity is found in a greater number of countries in secondary education than it is in primary. By 2012, 63% of countries with data had yet to achieve gender parity in secondary enrolment. The numbers of countries with disparities at the expense of boys and of girls were equal: in nearly 32%, fewer than 97 girls were enrolled for every 100 boys; in the same share, girls outpaced boys.

The picture varies by region. In sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia, girls continue to be more disadvantaged in secondary enrolment. In sub-Saharan Africa, the average number of girls enrolled relative to boys has only risen slightly since 1999, to 84 for every 100 boys in 2012. In South and West Asia, despite greater progress, 93 girls on average were enrolled for every 100 boys in 2012. In Latin America and the Caribbean, by contrast, a GPI of 1.07 in 2012, unchanged from 1999, reflects fewer boys than girls enrolled in a majority of countries – on average, 93 boys for every 100 girls.

Figure 5.5: While progress has been made, gender disparity in attaining a primary education is widest among the poorest children

Gender parity index of the primary attainment rate, by wealth, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



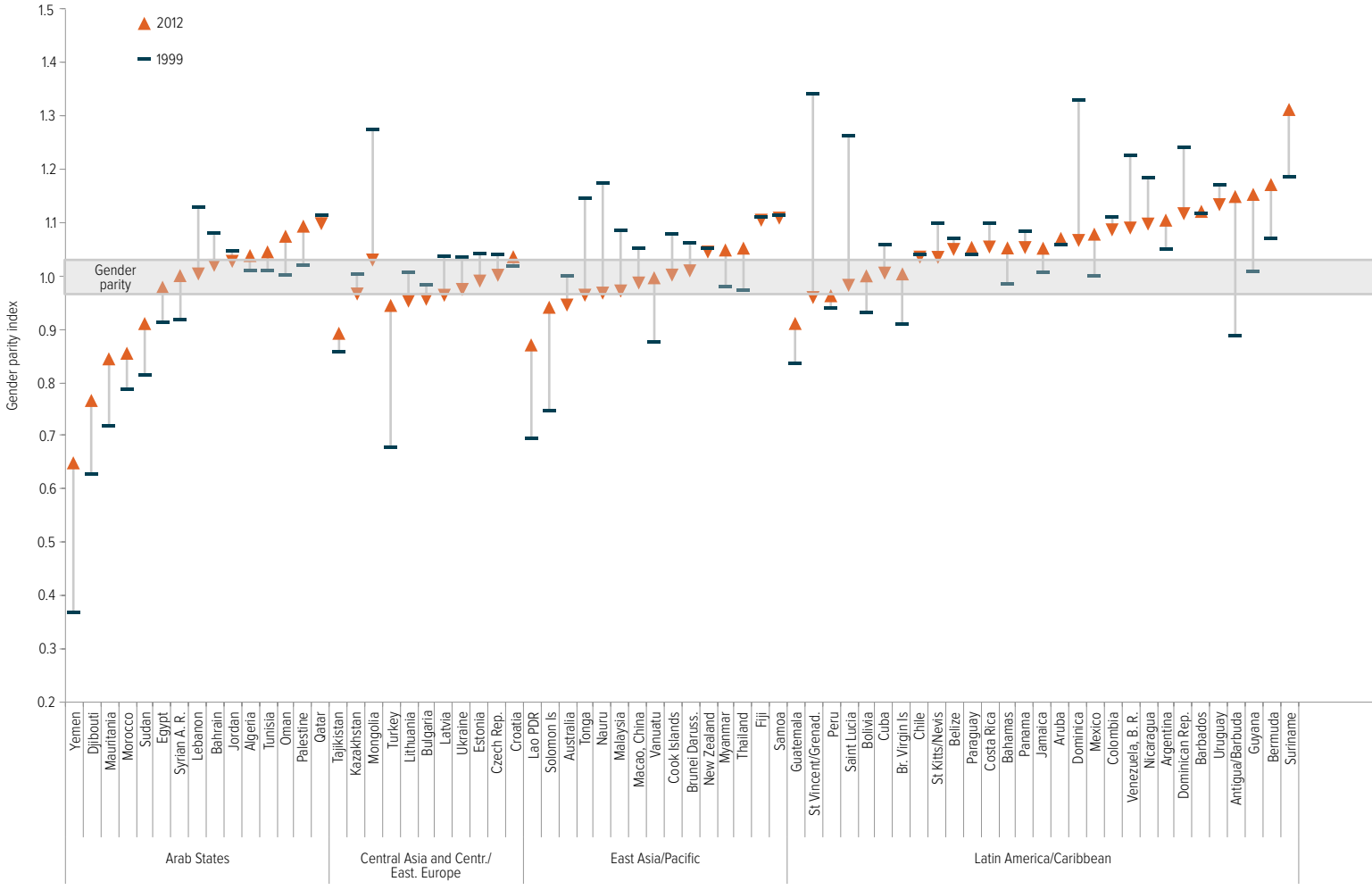
Note: A GPI below 0.97 denotes disparity at the expense of females while one above 1.03 denotes disparity at the expense of males.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2014) using data from Demographic and Health Surveys and Multiple Indicator Cluster Surveys.

Overall, gender disparities are narrowing. Of 133 countries with data in both years, 30 had a GPI of less than 0.90 in 1999, indicating severe disadvantage for girls. By 2012, this was the case for just 19 countries, of which the majority were in the Arab States or sub-Saharan Africa. The number of countries where boys faced severe disadvantage – a GPI of greater than 1.11 – declined from 18 to 9 over the period (**Figure 5.6**).

The most extreme cases of disparity are still at girls' expense. Despite progress since 1999, in 2012, 13 countries had fewer than 80 girls enrolled in secondary education for every 100 boys. In Angola, the situation actually worsened, from 76 girls per 100 boys in 1999 to 65 in 2012. In Central African Republic and Chad, both recently affected by conflict, approximately half as many girls as boys were enrolled in secondary school in 2012.

Changes in the pattern of boys' disadvantage in secondary education have varied since 1999. In a number of middle and high income countries with high levels of secondary enrolment overall, persistent gender gaps at the expense of boys have narrowed, closing in all Western European countries except Finland and Luxembourg by 2012. In Mongolia and South Africa, strong progress in reducing disparities saw both countries close to achieving gender parity. In some richer countries such as Argentina, Suriname and several Caribbean countries, gender gaps in secondary enrolment have

Figure 5.6: Gender gaps in secondary education have improved, but remain wide in some regions
Gender parity index of the secondary gross enrolment ratio, by region, 1999 and 2012



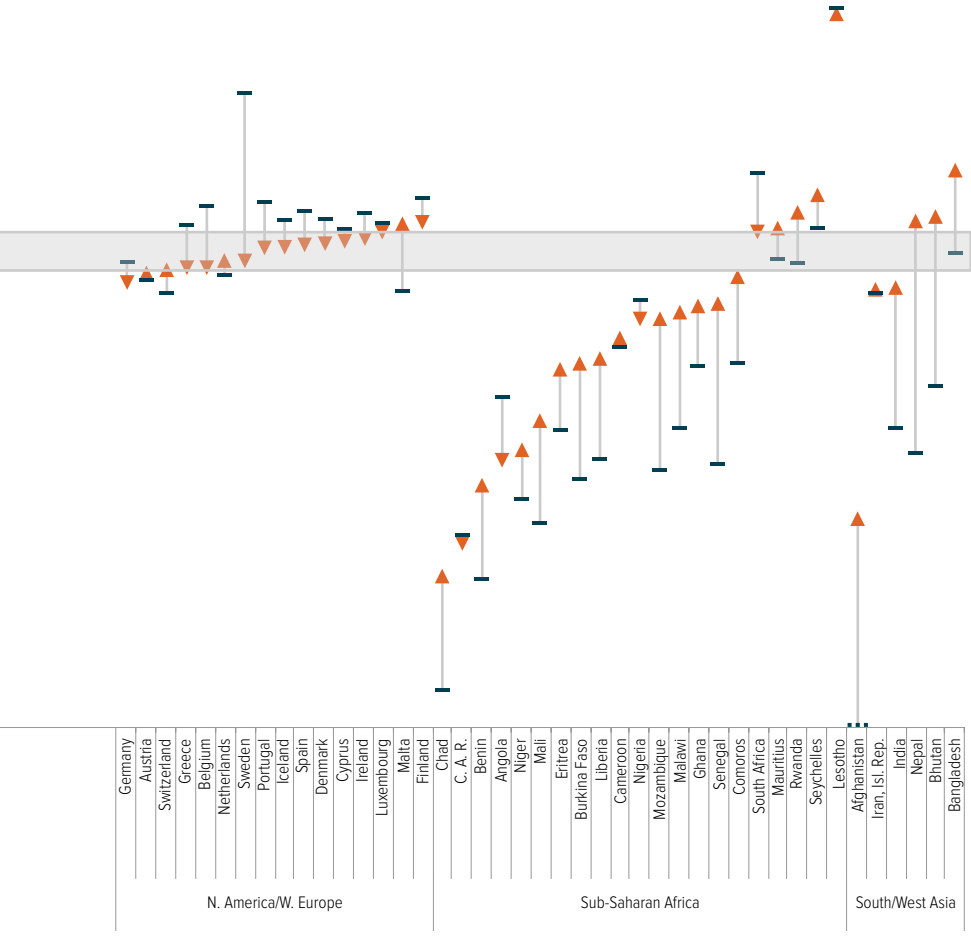
Note: A GPI below 0.97 denotes disparity at the expense of females while one above 1.03 denotes disparity at the expense of males.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 7 (Print) and 8 (GMR website).

widened, and have emerged in a few poorer countries including Bangladesh, Myanmar and Rwanda. In Lesotho, only 71 boys were enrolled for every 100 girls in 2012, a ratio unchanged since 1999.

Poor primary attainment and dropout from secondary education reinforce disparity

Gender disparity in the numbers of children entering and completing lower secondary schooling has narrowed, although parity has yet to be achieved in many countries. Analysis of household survey data from 78 countries for this GMR shows that, on average, the number of girls attaining lower secondary increased from 81 per 100 boys in 2000 to 93 in 2010. Most disparity in lower secondary attainment in these countries is accounted for by initial disparity in primary attainment. While enrolled boys and girls made the transition from the final primary grade into lower secondary in equal numbers, the average number of girls reaching that final primary grade was 93 for every 100 boys in 2010, leaving greater numbers of girls behind.

However, the group average masks considerable differences. In poorer countries where girls have historically been disadvantaged, gender disparity in lower secondary attainment remains a serious issue, though progress has been made. In richer countries, a rise in disparity at the expense of boys is observed.

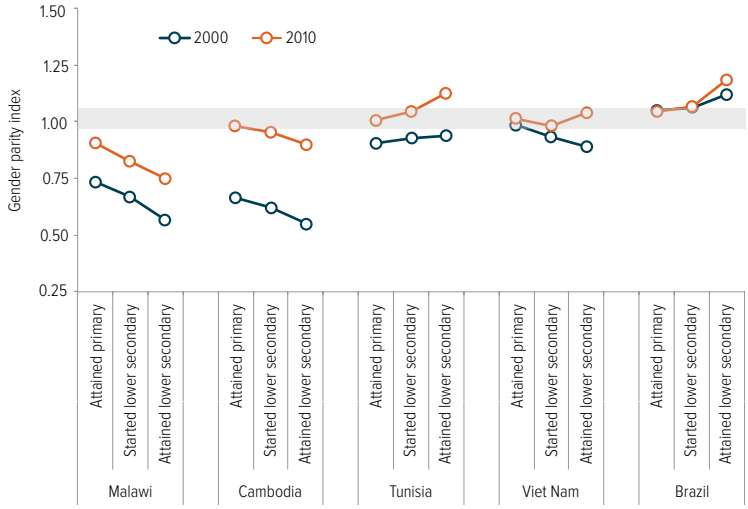


Some poorer countries, such as Malawi and Cambodia, have seen considerable progress towards parity in lower secondary attainment, driven almost exclusively by progress in reducing disparity in primary attainment. Cambodia, where only 66 girls attained a primary education for every 100 boys in 2000, achieved parity within 10 years. This contributed to its progress towards parity in lower secondary, achieving a GPI of 0.90 in 2010. Malawi made a strong move towards parity in primary attainment. But disparity remained at all three points: in 2010 for every 100 boys, 90 girls attained primary, 82 made the transition to lower secondary and only 75 survived through to the end of lower secondary. In both countries, disparities increase at entry to and completion of lower secondary, indicating important bottlenecks (**Figure 5.7**).

In Brazil and Tunisia, disparity has widened at the expense of boys, with increasing dropout among boys

In the richer countries of Brazil and Tunisia, disparity in lower secondary attainment has widened at the expense of boys, primarily as a result of increasing dropout among boys. In Brazil, the GPI for lower secondary attainment rose from 1.12 in 2000 to 1.18 in 2010. In Tunisia, parity in primary attainment and entry to lower secondary, previously at the expense of girls, was achieved by 2010, but fewer boys than girls now persist to the last grade of lower secondary. In Viet Nam, a previous gender gap has largely disappeared.

Figure 5.7: Gender disparities are perpetuated and widen throughout lower secondary
Gender parity index of the primary attainment, transition to lower secondary and lower secondary attainment rates, selected countries, circa 2000 and 2010



Note: A GPI below 0.97 denotes disparity at the expense of females while a GPI above 1.03 denotes disparity at the expense of males.
Source: *EFA Global Monitoring Report* team calculations (2014) using household survey data.

Boys are even more likely than girls to drop out in upper secondary. For the 78 countries with data, only 95 boys for every 100 girls survived to the end of upper secondary in 2010, with little change since 2000. In countries where boys were already disadvantaged in lower secondary attainment, such as Brazil, this widened disparity still further.

Completion rates for adolescent boys have been a growing concern in many OECD countries, where in 2011 on average 73% of girls completed upper secondary education on time but only 63% of boys did. Girls' graduation rates from upper secondary school exceed those of boys in all OECD countries except Germany. The gaps were widest in Iceland and Portugal, where graduation rates among girls exceeded those of boys by 20% or more (OECD, 2012c).

Promoting an enabling environment

Sustained global advocacy has led to unprecedented government and civil society support for gender parity and equality in education in recent years, particularly for girls' access to schooling (see Overview). In 2000, the Dakar Framework for Action and the UN Millennium Development Goals directed the international community to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education. In addition, the Dakar Framework laid out key strategies to achieve gender equality by 2015. Also launched in 2000, the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) was the first global partnership to specifically promote girls' education and raise awareness of gender equality issues in education.

Governments, in turn, have implemented legislative and policy reform; mainstreamed gender into education institutional structures, planning and budgeting; and built a critical mass of support within societies. Civil society action has brought increased awareness of the importance of girls' education. While the goal of gender parity in education by 2005 was not met, and significant obstacles to achieving both parity and equality remain, there has been increased engagement with gender issues in education since 2000.

Gender mainstreaming and budgeting provide a focus

Gender mainstreaming aims to make gender equality a central ideal reflected in the structures and practices of institutions and society as a whole rather than a separate issue or sector. The Dakar Framework calls for government commitment to mainstreaming gender throughout education systems.

The Beijing Platform for Action, agreed at the 1995 World Conference on Women in Beijing, endorsed gender mainstreaming as a crucial tool for achieving commitment to gender equality (UNESCO and UN Women, 2014). A key aim was to integrate a gender perspective in policy, programming and budgeting across ministries (UN, 1995).

During the two decades since Beijing, policies towards gender mainstreaming in the education sector have been widely adopted (Unterhalter et al., 2010). In Burkina Faso, the government's education plan for 2001–2010 put in place strategies to strengthen the Directorate for the Promotion of Girls' Education, part of the Ministry of Basic Education and Literacy (UNESCO, 2008b). In Yemen, the Community Participation Unit was set up in 2003 and the Girls' Education Sector was established in 2006, both created within the Ministry of Education to enact the National Girls' Education Strategy (Kefaya, 2007). In Burkina Faso, girls' primary gross enrolment ratio increased by 47% between 1999 and 2005; in Yemen, it increased by 46%.

The UN Development Fund for Women, now UN Women, promotes gender responsive budgeting in over 60 countries worldwide (UN Women, 2012b). The approach scrutinizes government budgetary practices for their differing effects on men and women, girls and boys (Unterhalter, 2007). It also enables civil society groups to hold governments accountable for their commitment to gender equality (Global Campaign for Education and RESULTS Education Fund, 2011). In the United Republic of Tanzania, the Gender Budgeting Initiative has helped recognize and reduce girls' household labour time by providing better community water facilities (Plan International, 2012; UN Women, 2012a).

Research suggests that investing adequate resources throughout the education system for gender mainstreaming strategies helps ensure gender equality in educational institutions (Unterhalter et al., 2014). Yet, in many countries, gender mainstreaming initiatives have faced constraints. Achieving transformative change in institutional settings remains an enormous challenge. Resources to effect change have been inadequate, gender units marginalized within institutions, advocacy support insufficient, and implementation limited by entrenched forms of discrimination (Subrahmanian, 2006; Unterhalter et al., 2010). The success of the Shiksha Karmi Project in Rajasthan, India, which aimed to involve men and women from remote communities in improving children's access to education, was undermined by persistent discriminatory attitudes towards women among some project leaders (Jain, 2003).

Legislation and policy reform underpin progress

Progress towards greater equity in education has been supported by legal and policy commitments. In UNESCO's recent overview of measures supporting the right to education, 40 of the 59 reporting member states refer explicitly to guaranteeing girls' and women's right to education or to forbidding gender-based discrimination in national constitutions, legislation or specific policies (UNESCO and UN Women, 2014).

The OECD's 2012 Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) shows that since 2009 many non-OECD countries have made promising progress in tackling discrimination against women and girls. The number of countries with specific legislation to combat domestic violence more than doubled, from 21 in 2009 to 53 in 2012, and 29 countries established quotas for women's political participation (OECD, 2012d).

Despite positive steps, discriminatory social institutions continue to undermine gender equality

Much more can be done. Despite positive steps, discriminatory social institutions continue to undermine gender equality. In 86 out of 121 countries in the 2012 SIGI, discriminatory inheritance laws or practices persist. Although many countries have strengthened legislation banning early marriage, its prevalence across countries in 2012, at an average of 17% of women married between 15 and 19 years of age, remains unacceptably high (OECD, 2012d).

Several countries that reduced wide gender gaps in education, including Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Ghana and Morocco, integrated a gender perspective into national education plans, strategic plans or policies, including the promotion of girls' right to education and targeted responses to girls' low enrolment (UNESCO and UN Women, 2014).

Analysis of education sector plans in 30 countries, carried out for this GMR, found that countries that included a gender goal in their plans in both 2000 and 2012 made substantial gains towards gender parity in primary enrolment. Such countries include Burkina Faso, Mozambique and Sierra Leone. In the Gambia, Mauritania and Senegal, girls' enrolment rose during this period to over half of total primary enrolment, effectively reversing the gender gap (UNESCO-IIEP, 2014).

Comprehensive policy frameworks have supported progress in countries with large gender gaps in participation

Effective policies to improve gender parity address barriers through multiple strategies. Countries that have made substantial progress on reducing wide gender gaps in education have in place comprehensive policy frameworks, underpinned by legislative reform, that combine a variety of measures to improve education access, especially for girls.

India and Turkey have closed gender gaps in primary and lower secondary education

India and Turkey have closed gender gaps in primary and lower secondary education. In India, multiple strategies helped improve the accessibility and quality of girls' schooling. They included free textbooks for all girls, back-to-school camps and bridging courses, recruitment of female teachers, and national programmes to increase demand for schooling among rural and disadvantaged girls (Govinda, 2008). In Turkey, legislative reform and school construction to expand participation in primary and lower secondary education were complemented by incentives for girls from poor households and a national awareness campaign to increase girls' enrolment (Sasmaz, 2014).

Burundi and Ethiopia have significantly improved gender parity at the primary level while making rapid progress on overall enrolment. Both countries provided incentives for girls' enrolment in grade 1 at the official age to allow for primary education completion before puberty; in Burundi, parental contributions were waived for girls in the first year of primary school. Interventions to promote girls' education included mothers' groups in Burundi (Vachon, 2007) and community sensitization campaigns in Ethiopia (Bines, 2007). Legislative change to reduce child marriage has supported an enabling policy environment (Psaki, 2015).

Policies addressing gender disparity at the expense of boys, however, remain scarce and rarely form the comprehensive, multilevel frameworks developed for girls' education. Often the focus is on boys' poor achievement and disengagement from schooling. Countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, including Belize, El Salvador, Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago, have introduced several stand-alone policies and interventions since 2000. These include strategies to mainstream technical and vocational subjects into the curriculum, school and community-based programmes to tackle youth crime and violence, and mentoring initiatives (Jha et al., 2012; Jha and Kelleher, 2006).

Increasing demand and supporting rights to education

The following section examines ways in which governments, non-government organizations (NGOs) and civil society have sought to overcome economic and sociocultural barriers to schooling and reduce gender gaps, and where there is evidence of progress. Three key areas of action are: promoting positive values and attitudes to girls' education through community mobilization and advocacy campaigns, providing incentives to offset school and opportunity costs, and tackling early marriage and adolescent pregnancy.

Changing attitudes and mobilizing support for girls' education

Social institutions – formal and informal laws, and social and cultural norms and practices – can help explain why gender parity and equality in education have not been achieved in some countries. Policy interventions that do not account for discriminatory social institutions fail to tackle the drivers of gender inequality (OECD, 2012a). Analysis based on the 2012 SIGI found that countries with higher levels of discrimination against women generally

performed worse on a range of development indicators, including education (OECD, 2012d).

Entrenched discriminatory social norms and attitudes to wider gender equality negatively affect demand for girls' education and restrict the benefits of girls' improved access to education. These norms are reflected in practices such as early marriage, traditional seclusion practices, the favouring of boys in families' education investment and the gendered division of household labour (OECD, 2012d). In many countries, for example, women and girls take on the bulk of domestic work (Lyon et al., 2013), including collecting fuel wood, hauling water and caring for younger siblings – all of which can limit children's ability to attend school (Dreibelbis et al., 2013; Keilland, 2015; Nankhuni and Findeis, 2004). However, girls' domestic work is nearly invisible, unlikely to be reached by child labour laws, and receives little attention from policy-makers (UNESCO, 2008b).

Conversely, promoting the importance of education as a human right and increasing demand for schooling, particularly for girls, is linked with improving awareness of education's economic and sociocultural value to individuals, families, communities and societies. National advocacy and community mobilization campaigns have been used as part of wider policy frameworks to change parental attitudes and build a groundswell of support for girls' education.

Early, large-scale social mobilization campaigns in the 1990s in Burkina Faso (Hickson et al., 2003), Ethiopia (Bines, 2007) and Malawi (Rugh, 2000) helped build extensive community support for girls' education. Tajikistan's National Strategy for Education Development (NSED) 2015 included television and radio campaigns to promote girls' education. The more recent NSED 2020 continues the use of media campaigns, but aims specifically at improving the particularly low enrolment of girls in post-compulsory secondary education (UNICEF, 2013b), 90 girls for every 100 boys in 2012.

National education coalitions, representing civil society in political forums, can support advocacy for girls' education and gender equality. The Global Campaign for Education, established in the lead-up to the Dakar conference, works with over 80 national education coalitions that represent civil society voices in political forums (Global Campaign for Education, 2014; Verger and Novelli, 2012). Its 'Make It Right' campaign calls for robust government plans to be drawn up in collaboration with civil society and backed by resources to achieve gender equality in education (Global Campaign for Education and RESULTS Education Fund, 2011). One of its members, the Ghana National Education Coalition Campaign, obtained a pledge by the Ministry of Education to develop a gender education policy, as part of the government agenda for 2012 (Global Campaign for Education, 2012), to address gender disparity at the secondary level, where 91 girls were enrolled for every 100 boys.[1]

Community mobilization strategies have also been integrated into many non-government programmes and small-scale projects supporting girls' education. In Burkina Faso, community mobilization activities were part of a project to provide quality, girl-friendly schools (Kazianga et al., 2012). In India, the District Primary Education Programme supported early initiatives to increase girls' enrolment by mobilizing and organizing women through a women's advocacy project (Unterhalter, 2007).

National advocacy and community mobilization campaigns have built a groundswell of support for girls' education

Campaigns that have proved particularly effective engage partners from multiple sectors, are supported by national planning and policy, and directly involve grass-roots organizations and communities (Parkes and Heslop, 2013). In Turkey, the inclusion of multiple stakeholders in a national campaign to promote girls' education resulted in increased enrolments in the targeted districts (**Box 5.1**). However, the example also underlines the challenges described above of entrenched social discrimination. Despite increased levels of schooling among young women, supported by this campaign, attitudes towards gender equality have not improved more broadly (Dincer et al., 2014). Women's rights are still not fully protected in Turkey's constitution and penal code. High levels of domestic violence against women persist and women's participation in the political arena and the labour market remains poor (Pasali, 2013).

1. Ghana achieved gender parity in primary education in 2012.

Box 5.1: Multiple stakeholders support campaign to promote girls' education in Turkey

The 'Hey Girls, Let's Go to School!' campaign, initiated by UNICEF Turkey and carried out in collaboration with the Ministry of National Education, supported government efforts to expand access to education and increase girls' enrolment. The campaign was launched in 2003 in the 10 Turkish provinces with the most gender disparity in access to basic education.

Since the ministry lacked accurate information on out-of-school children, a steering committee sent consultants to the 10 provinces to assess needs and inform local stakeholders about the campaign. This met with limited success due to the hierarchical structure of the Turkish education system: consultants were perceived as inspectors, and uptake of the campaign was poor.

Following a shift in approach, the campaign established a new model of relationships among a wide range of central and provincial stakeholders: officials met frequently to solve problems local teams faced. Both state officials and teachers were heavily involved in home visits – an effective strategy in persuading families to send girls to school. And local civil society organizations were made part of the campaign.

The 10 provinces selected at the beginning of the campaign made better progress than the other Turkish provinces in closing gender gaps in enrolment. It is estimated that up to 350,000 children were enrolled in school during the four years of the campaign.

Sources: Sasmaz (2014); Beleli (2012).

Reducing costs of schooling

Throughout the Education for All era, global attention has been directed towards redressing gender disparities in enrolment and attainment by lowering school-related costs, which can disproportionately affect girls. In countries with low female enrolment and completion, strategies to increase parental demand through incentives have included targeted fee waivers and scholarships to offset direct school costs and cash stipends to reduce additional costs of schooling to families.

One commitment in Benin's EFA national assessment plan in 2000 was to eliminate school fees for all girls in public primary schools in rural areas (Benin Ministry of Education and Scientific Research, 2000). Combined with community mobilization strategies to increase demand for girls' education, this saw gender gaps at primary level reduced substantially, with the GPI increasing from 0.64 in 1999 to 0.89 in 2012. In 2006, Yemen introduced a school fee and uniform waiver for all primary girls.

In Cambodia, scholarships helped increase girls' enrolment by between 22 and 32 percentage points

Scholarships and stipends can help girls continue in education. In Cambodia, scholarships for girls to make the transition from primary to secondary, conditional on regular attendance and grade progression, helped increase girls' enrolment by between 22 and 32 percentage points (Filmer and Schady, 2008). In Punjab province in Pakistan, the Female School Stipend Programme was established in 2003, targeting girls in grades 6 to 8 in government schools in districts with the lowest literacy rates. This led to increased enrolment rates ranging from 11% to 32% for all cohorts during the first four years of the programme (Independent Evaluation Group, 2011a).

Nevertheless, issues of equity remain a concern. In Bangladesh, despite the acclaimed success of a secondary school stipend programme for rural girls in increasing girls' enrolment, data suggest girls from wealthier, landowning households benefited disproportionately (Khandker et al., 2003). In Nepal, scholarships were not always sufficient to cover all school costs, such as educational materials, and failed to provide incentives for the poorest families to send girls to school (Ridley and Bista, 2004).

Furthermore, while attempting to redress disparities in access, scholarships and stipends may lead to other forms of gender inequity. A primary education stipend programme in Bangladesh had a negative impact on grade progression for boys from poor households, who were ineligible to receive the stipends available to girls at the secondary level (Baulch, 2011). In Pakistan, evidence shows that in families where girls are eligible for stipends restricted to government schools, boys are more likely to be enrolled in private schools, which often afford a better quality of education (Independent Evaluation Group, 2011a).

Early marriage and adolescent pregnancy

Early entry into marriage and pregnancy limits adolescent girls' access to and continuation in education. School attendance is often incompatible with the responsibilities and expectations of marriage and motherhood in many cultures (Mensch et al., 2005). The relationship between early marriage, child-bearing and girls' education is complex, however. As the 2013/14 GMR noted, a strong body of evidence indicates girls' participation in formal education is itself an important factor in delaying marriage and child-bearing (UNESCO, 2014c). Decisions about education, age of marriage and pregnancy can be a result of combined underlying factors, such as poverty, discriminatory social norms and household composition, as well as accessibility and quality of education provision (Psaki, 2015). Conflict and humanitarian crises also exacerbate girls' vulnerability to early marriage (Lemmon, 2014).

Legislation on child marriage has been strengthened, but is not sufficient to eliminate the practice

International human rights law forbids child marriage. In the Programme of Action adopted at the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development, signatories agreed to enforce laws against child marriage. Regional treaties, including the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights and the African Protocol on the Rights of Women (2004), also commit governments to prevent child marriage. Of 55 developing countries with data, the legal age of marriage increased between 1990 and 2000 for women in 23 countries and for men in 20. As of 2010, 158 countries had laws setting 18 as the legal age of marriage for girls without parental consent (Loaiza and Wong, 2012).

Progress towards eliminating child marriage globally has been slow. Household survey data for 2000–2011 indicated that in 41 countries, 30% or more of women aged 20 to 24 were married or in union by the age of 18 (Loaiza and Wong, 2012). And there is insufficient evidence whether legislation alone is an effective deterrent to this practice (Psaki, 2015). In Bangladesh, where the prevalence of child marriage at an estimated 66% is among the highest in the world, legislation limits the age of marriage to 18, although the law allows for exceptions (Brown, 2012; Loaiza and Wong, 2012). An evaluation of the 1974 National Marriage Act in Indonesia found no significant departure from the trend in child marriage following the act's introduction (Lee-Rife et al., 2012). In Yemen, a 2009 law set the minimum age for marriage at 17, but conservative parliament members and clerics objected and the law was not implemented (AlAmodi, 2013).

The incidence of child marriage has been reduced substantially in some countries, however, including Bolivia, Ethiopia and Nepal. In Ethiopia, where education attainment levels also improved, it is estimated that the prevalence of early marriage fell by over 20% between 2005 and 2011 (Loaiza and Wong, 2012). This was achieved through a comprehensive framework of legislative change, advocacy and community mobilization campaigns (**Box 5.2**).

Early entry into marriage and pregnancy limits adolescent girls' access to and continuation in education

Box 5.2: Tackling child marriage in Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, it is currently estimated that 41% of women aged 20 to 24 were married or in union before age 18. Advocacy campaigns, community mobilization and girls' clubs have shown positive effects in tackling child marriage.

The Ethiopian Constitution of 1995 emphasizes the importance of addressing traditional attitudes and discrimination against women. This commitment was reinforced in additional policies and four education sector development programmes. The 2000 Revised Family Proclamation set the legal age of marriage at 18 for boys and girls. Uptake was slow, but by 2008, six of the nine regional governments had enacted corresponding laws.

The Ministry of Women, Children and Youth Affairs is finalizing a policy on harmful traditional practices, including early marriage, and leading the national Alliance to End Child Marriage, formed in 2013. Government campaigns have been particularly prominent in the Amhara region, where rates of child marriage, although still extremely high, fell from 74% to 56% between 2005 and 2011. Documented community actions include fines imposed on families arranging underage marriages and school clubs reporting planned weddings.

NGOs have also played a role, albeit a smaller one. The Population Council's Berhane Hewan programme, which combined community mobilization and financial incentives to delay marriage, found that participating girls aged 10 to 14 were 3 times more likely to remain in school and 10 times less likely to marry in comparison with peers in a control group.

Sources: Boyden et al. (2013); Loaiza and Wong (2012); Mekonnen and Aspen (2009); Psaki (2015).

Adolescent mothers face challenges in continuing their education

Programmes in Angola and Malawi helped adolescent mothers by allowing them to bring their children to class

While adolescent pregnancy and early child-bearing is a concern for both developed and developing countries, rates are higher in middle and low income countries. In 2010, 36.4 million women in developing countries aged 20 to 24 reported having given birth before age 18, and 2 million before age 15 (UNFPA, 2013b).

An estimated 90% of adolescent pregnancies in the developing world are to girls who are married (UNFPA, 2013b). Married girls face higher exposure to sex and lower probability of using contraception than their unmarried peers, along with pressure to conceive quickly after marriage (Presler-Marshall and Jones, 2012). Thus, reducing adolescent pregnancy can be addressed through effective policies and programmes to delay marriage. Globally, however, the risk of early and unintended pregnancy outside marriage has increased (Hindin and Fatusi, 2009; Mensch et al., 2006; Presler-Marshall and Jones, 2012). While the prevalence of child marriage declined in sub-Saharan Africa between 1994 and 2004, the prevalence of premarital sex before age 18 increased in 19 out of 27 countries analysed (Mensch et al., 2006).

Pregnancy has been identified as a key driver of dropout and exclusion among female secondary school students in sub-Saharan African countries (Makamare, 2014), including Cameroon (Eloundou-Enyegue, 2004) and South Africa (Geisler et al., 2009). In Latin American countries, the high rate of pregnancy among adolescents is a serious concern for public policy. In Chile, being a mother reduces the likelihood of secondary education completion by 24% to 37% (Kruger et al., 2009).

Since the late 1990s, several sub-Saharan African countries have introduced policies supporting the readmission of girls following the birth of a child (Makamare, 2014). But even where policies exist, uptake is often limited, with education providers and communities unaware of re-entry policies or unsupportive of girls' return. In schools, stigma and discrimination against pregnant girls and adolescent mothers are common (UNESCO, 2014b). In South Africa, legislation forbids schools from excluding pregnant girls, but only about one in three return after childbirth. Those who do return often face negative attitudes and practices from teachers and peers (Bhana et al., 2010).

Alternative education can support out-of-school adolescent mothers. Non-formal second-chance programmes in Angola and Malawi have created opportunities for adolescent mothers to attend classes by allowing them to bring their children with them (Jere, 2012; Save the Children, 2012). In Jamaica, a government-funded programme provided continuing education to adolescent mothers who, until a change in legislation in 2013, were excluded from school when pregnant. The programme has been effective in reintegrating girls into formal education and reducing further pregnancies (UNFPA, 2013a, 2013b).

Programmes working directly with young people have positive effects

Programmes working directly with girls are particularly successful (Lee-Rife et al., 2012) The Abriendo Oportunidades project for indigenous girls in Guatemala had reached 3,500 girls by 2011 and had a positive impact. A 2010 evaluation found that all participants had completed sixth grade, compared with less than 82% of their peers nationally, and that 97% remained childless during the programme, compared with 78% of non-participants (Catino et al., 2013).

In Kenya, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia, the Young Men as Equal Partners project (2005–2009) worked with teachers, community leaders, health service providers and peer educators to encourage young men and women aged 10 to 24 to engage in responsible sexual behaviour, and to strengthen gender equality in decision-making regarding sexual and reproductive health. Activities included sexuality education, gender awareness training, provision of youth-friendly health services, counselling and condom distribution (RFSU, 2009). Pregnancy rates in targeted areas fell during the project period. In Kenya, it was reported that pregnancies in targeted schools dropped from 1 in 29 girls in 2006 to 1 in 97 girls in 2009 (RFSU, 2011).

Expanding and improving school infrastructure

The goals of gender parity and equality have also been both directly and indirectly supported by policies to increase the availability and adequacy of school infrastructure. Increasing the supply of schools, including girls-only schools, and improving school facilities can, in some contexts, have a disproportionate benefit for girls. This section examines the impact of increased availability and accessibility of schools, as well as water and sanitation, as strategies to improve girls' attendance at school.

Reducing distances to school

Girls' enrolment and attendance are particularly sensitive to distances to school. This is especially true in contexts where parents are concerned for girls' security to and from school, such as slums in Nairobi (Mudege et al., 2008), or where traditional gendered seclusion practices are in place, such as Pakistan (Andrabi et al., 2007; Jacoby and Mansuri, 2011). In Chad, a study of 179 villages in 2002–2003 found that children's enrolment dropped dramatically when schools were in a village other than their own, and that as distances increased, girls' enrolment fell more quickly than boys' (Lehman, 2003).

Building schools in underserved communities has helped overcome barriers to girls' education related to distance. A study in Ghor province in Afghanistan, where villages were randomly selected to receive a primary school building, found that overall enrolment increased by 42 percentage points and that girls' enrolment increased by 17 percentage points more than that of boys, eliminating an existing gender gap (Burde and Linden, 2012).

Policy measures increasing the availability of schools can result in greater enrolment gains for girls (Glick, 2008). In Egypt, the Education Enhancement Programme, initiated in the late 1990s, included massive investment in new schools, targeting deprived rural areas, where girls' enrolment was traditionally low. It made significant progress in raising the primary enrolment ratios of girls and reducing the enrolment gap with boys (Iqbal and Riad, 2004). In 1990, 84 girls for every 100 boys were enrolled in primary education in Egypt. The figure rose to 92 in 1999 and had reached 96 by 2012.

Governments facing declining school-age populations have made policy decisions to reduce the numbers of schools in remote areas. Such decisions need to be considered in light of their unintended effects on gender disparity. In China, where fewer girls than boys achieve a secondary education, a policy to merge rural primary schools reduced the numbers of rural schools from 440,000 in 2000 to 253,000 in 2008. However, a study of 102 rural communities in 7 provinces found that the presence of a local primary school increased girls' completion of lower secondary by 17 percentage points (Li and Liu, 2014).

The availability of post-primary schools can influence the effectiveness of other strategies to improve gender parity at primary and secondary levels (Unterhalter et al., 2014). A longitudinal study in Pakistan found a strong positive relationship between the availability of post-primary schooling and girls' retention in primary school (Lloyd and Young, 2009). And in Bangladesh, where stipends for girls have driven enormous growth in secondary enrolment, the government's action a decade earlier to bring Islamic schools into the formal sector increased the availability of places (Asadullah and Chaudhury, 2009).

Improving water and sanitation facilities

The Dakar Framework for Action highlights the provision of safe and separate sanitation facilities for girls as a key strategy in improving school attendance for girls and promoting more equitable school environments. Also launched in Dakar, a task force called Focusing Resources on Effective School Health advocated for adequate water, hygiene and toilet facilities in schools as particularly relevant to girls (Joerger and Hoffmann, 2002). In recent years, the WASH in Schools global partnership has continued to champion these efforts. Critical to the push for improved sanitation has been the understanding that adolescent girls' concerns over privacy, particularly during menstruation, influence their education decisions and can act as an obstacle to school attendance (Adukia, 2014).

In Egypt, investment in new schools helped raise girls' primary enrolment

School water and sanitation provision in many developing countries has improved over the past decade, but progress has been slow: of 126 countries with data, the average percentage of primary schools with adequate sanitation coverage rose from 59% in 2008 to 68% in 2012; in 52 of the least developed and other low income countries, the share rose from 35% to 50% (UNICEF, 2013g).

In a study for the 2010 GMR, a review of 44 national education plans for developing and transition countries from 2005 to 2009 found that 25 included strategies to improve water and sanitation in schools, with 11 specifically linked to gender-related objectives. Initiatives included building separate latrines for girls and boys (UNESCO-IIEP, 2009). In 2012, 60% of the funds in the Punjab Education Sector Reforms Programme in Pakistan were earmarked for improving facilities in girls' schools, with provision of toilets a top priority (ASER Pakistan, 2014).

In India, girls' enrolment increased after a school latrine construction effort in the early 2000s

Data are limited on the extent of separate facilities for girls and whether they are well maintained or even functional. Government monitoring of minimum standards often deals only with basic coverage indicators. Funding from international agencies to improve data collection has highlighted continued poor conditions, in some cases prompting government response. In the United Republic of Tanzania, school census data showed that, as of 2010, all primary and lower secondary schools had single-sex latrines. Yet a 2010 mapping exercise by SNV, WaterAid and UNICEF found that only 11% of schools surveyed met the minimum standards of 20 students per girls' latrine and 25 per boys' latrine, 52% of girls' latrines lacked doors, and 92% of schools lacked functional handwashing facilities (SNV/WaterAid/UNICEF, 2010). This information led to the development of an integrated national strategic plan to improve water and sanitation facilities in schools, which included key objectives addressing the specific needs of adolescent girls (United Republic of Tanzania Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2012).

Surprisingly little evidence is available on the impact of single-sex toilets on girls' enrolment and completion, and how effective they are as a stand-alone strategy to improve girls' attendance (Birdthistle et al., 2011). Available evidence presents a mixed picture. Evidence from Kenya indicates that the quality of primary school toilets, in terms of cleanliness and maintenance, may be more important than quantity in improving attendance (Dreibelbis et al., 2013). In Malawi, a longitudinal study of adolescents found no association between single-sex toilet availability and girls' school attendance. Furthermore, menstruation accounted for only a small proportion of girls' absenteeism, insufficient to create a gender gap in attendance (Grant et al., 2013).

In India, however, after a school latrine construction effort in the early 2000s, girls' enrolment increased more than that of boys' in schools with latrines. At younger ages, girls and boys both benefited substantially from latrines, whether sex-specific or not, but separate latrines were a critical factor in adolescent girls' enrolment, which increased substantially after separate latrines were installed. This differential impact on older girls suggests that privacy and menstruation issues may indeed be a key factor in girls' attendance in India. The construction of single-sex toilets also had a positive impact on the share of female teachers at schools, suggesting another possible route by which girls can benefit (Adukia, 2014).

More research is needed to assess the impact of toilet availability within interventions that combine infrastructure with training, outreach and hygiene education, including menstrual hygiene management. Whether a significant factor in girls' attainment or not, access to better facilities and support is likely to have positive effects on girls' dignity and the overall quality of their school experience (Unterhalter et al., 2014).

Policies to improve boys' participation are also needed

The needs of millions of boys around the world are not adequately met by formal education systems, a fact sometimes overlooked in light of the overall disproportionate disadvantage girls continue to face. While girls remain less likely than boys to enter school in the first place, in many countries boys are at higher risk of failing to progress and complete a cycle of education. It is important to note that a disadvantage for boys does not necessarily transpose to an advantage for girls. Distinct policies for girls and boys are needed to support the enrolment and completion of both.

In addition to human rights implications for boys who, for whatever reason, suffer from inadequate access to education, high dropout rates among boys have broader repercussions for gender relations. Research from the International Men and Gender Equality Survey, conducted in 2009 and 2010 in Brazil, Chile, Croatia, India, Mexico and Rwanda, found that men with less education expressed discriminatory gender views, were more likely to be violent in the home and were less likely to be involved in child care if they were fathers. Men with secondary education demonstrated more gender-equitable attitudes and practices (Barker et al., 2011).

Several factors increase boys' risk of leaving school

Significant numbers of boys leave school early due to poverty and the obligation or desire to work (Barker et al., 2012), often combined with late entry, poor performance and a subsequent lack of interest in school, as well as factors such as ethnicity and other forms of marginalization (Hunt, 2008; Jha et al., 2012).

In southern African countries, including Botswana, Lesotho and Namibia, boys are taken out of school to herd cattle (Jha and Kelleher, 2006). In Mongolia, boys in poor herder families have historically experienced high rates of dropout and continue to be the most educationally disadvantaged rural group (Steiner-Khamsi and Gerebnaa, 2008). In Brazil and Jamaica, boys in low income urban settings often drop out to work in manual labour, construction or other semi-skilled jobs that do not require completion of secondary education because they see education as offering no guarantee of future employment (Barker et al., 2012).

Boys from poorer households or minority groups are often at higher risk of dropout. Families may respond to economic shocks by withdrawing boys from school to work. In Brazil, the likelihood of boys from poor households dropping out of school following a sudden fall in family income was 46% higher than for boys from non-poor households (Duryea et al., 2007). Economic hardship also enhances susceptibility to gang membership and violence, often underpinned by a lack of educated male role models and perceptions of schooling as unmanly, for example in the Caribbean (Barker et al., 2012; Smith and Green, 2007). In OECD countries, boys frequently leave school because of poor academic performance throughout their schooling, with those from low income backgrounds or minority groups at the highest risk (OECD, 2012c).

Gender stereotyping and entrenched violence in schools compound the problem. Boys are often perceived as tough and undisciplined, and consequently are more likely to experience corporal punishment than girls. A recent case study in Mongolia links the higher likelihood of violence against boys in schools with increased likelihood of dropout, especially for those boys from low income and migrant families already disadvantaged by economic pressures (Hepworth, 2013).

Policies to address boys' school leaving are limited

Developing countries' education policies often pay little attention to improving boys' enrolment in and completion of primary or secondary education, even in countries with severe gender disparity at boys' expense (Jha et al., 2012). For example, no strategies to reduce the gender gap and tackle barriers to boys' attainment are evident in policy documents in Lesotho or Swaziland (Lesotho Ministry of Education, 2002; Swaziland Ministry of Education and Training, 2011). Yet Lesotho's extreme gender disparity at the secondary level, with more than 140 girls enrolled for every 100 boys, is largely unchanged since 1999. In the Philippines and Thailand, where disparity in enrolment at the expense of boys emerges in secondary education, gender equality mechanisms and policies focus largely on women and girls (Hepworth, 2013).

Developing countries' education policies often overlook boys' enrolment and completion

Mongolia, where the gender gap at the expense of boys in secondary enrolment has been reduced substantially since 1999, provides a rare example of policy supporting boys' access to education. Government policy issued in 2004 explicitly targeted high male dropout rates. However, this appears to have been reversed in the most recent education action plan, which makes no specific reference to boys or other disadvantaged groups (Hepworth, 2013).

The share of women in the primary teaching force has increased since 1999, from 58% to 63%

In Jamaica, a government programme providing education grants to vulnerable households introduced higher payments for boys enrolled in secondary school as a response to boys' lower attainment, thus benefiting boys from poorer households who are at greater risk of leaving school (Fiszbein and Schady, 2009). Through regional conferences, Caribbean countries have been active in sharing strategies and interventions such as mentoring, second-chance initiatives, training and community dialogue that are aimed at responding to school dropout (World Bank and Commonwealth Secretariat, 2009).

Equitable school and classroom environments

Gender equality in education requires not only equality of access, but also equality in the learning process, in educational outcomes and in external results. The Dakar Framework highlights school-related factors that can constrain the achievement of equality and calls for schools to be safe and gender-sensitive learning environments.

The 2008 GMR identified three sets of provisions essential to improving the quality of learning in schools in general, but for girls in particular: enhancing the number and quality of teachers, including female teachers; reforming curricula and textbooks to remove gender bias; and making classroom practices more gender-sensitive through training (UNESCO, 2008b). Recent years have seen a growing focus on gender-based violence in the wider school environment.

Recruiting female teachers

The proportion of female teachers is an important indicator of progress towards gender equality. Increasing the presence of female teachers has been shown to have a positive effect in countries where girls face disadvantage in participation in education.

Globally, the share of women in the primary teaching force has increased since 1999, from 58% to 63% in 2012. They are a substantial majority in many countries, particularly in Central Asia, Central and Eastern Europe, and North America and Western Europe. In secondary education, the global average remains unchanged at 52%. In several countries in the Arab States, South and West Asia and much of sub-Saharan Africa, female teachers remain in the minority at both the primary and secondary levels. Overall, women made up 43% of primary teachers in sub-Saharan Africa in 2012 and 31% of secondary teachers.

In countries including Afghanistan, Benin, Burkina Faso, Ethiopia, Morocco, Mozambique, Nepal and Niger, recruitment of female teachers has been a prominent strategy in national education plans over the past decade, linked to strategies to encourage girls' enrolment and retention (UNESCO-IIEP, 2009). In Afghanistan, where conservative communities do not allow girls to be taught by men, two national plans have included clear targets on female teacher recruitment to address low levels of girls' enrolment. These included strategies to increase the number of female primary and secondary teachers by 50% by 2010 (Afghanstan Ministry of Education, 2007) and to recruit and train 50,000 grade 12 graduates, of whom 45% were to be women (Afghanstan Ministry of Education, 2014). Between 1999 and 2012, the percentage of female teachers in Afghanistan rose from an extremely low 10% to 31% in primary education.

Over the same period, substantial progress was made towards achieving a gender balance in the teaching force in several countries where women were a minority. In Nepal, which had explicit policies for female recruitment, the share of

female primary teachers rose from 23% in 1999 to 42% in 2012. Similarly in Morocco, the share rose from 39% to 54% (**Figure 5.8**).

The proportion of women among new entrants into primary teaching in countries including Bhutan, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Mozambique and Nepal reflects genuine effort: they now make up a majority of new teachers. On average between 2009 and 2012, 60% of new teachers in Nepal and 62% in Mozambique were women. With more women entering the profession, the chance of achieving gender balance among primary teachers by 2015 is greatly improved.

By contrast, in Ethiopia, strategies to increase the proportion of women in primary teaching are unlikely to be sustained unless action is taken to boost the share of new teachers who are women, which averaged 28% between 2009 and 2012.

In countries where a large majority of primary teachers are women, patterns of new recruitment over the period continued to favour them. They accounted for 87% of all new teachers in France and Germany, although the proportion was notably lower in some countries, such as the Czech Republic and Ukraine. In contrast, in Brazil, less than half of new teachers were women (Figure 5.8).

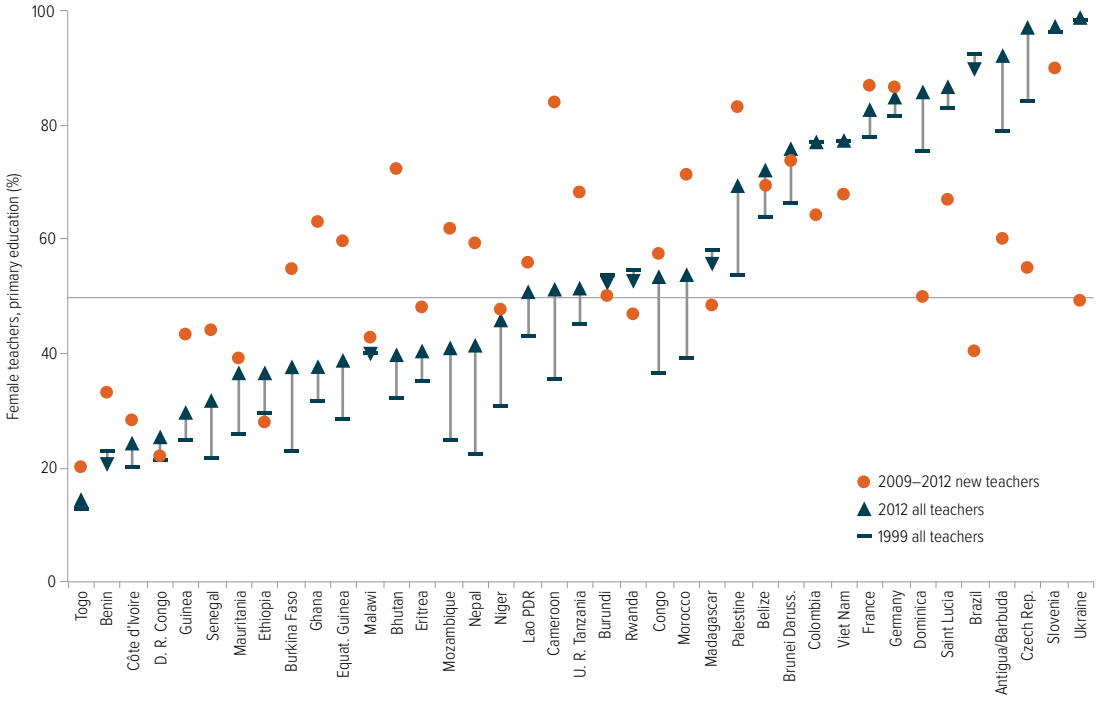
Female representation in the teaching force falls as the level of education rises. On average across OECD countries, two-thirds of teachers are women, but the proportion decreases as the level of education increases: from 97% at the pre-primary level to 82% at the primary level, 68% at the lower secondary level and 56% at the upper secondary level (OECD, 2013a).

Female representation in the teaching force falls as the level of education rises

In Ghana, where gender gaps in secondary enrolment remain despite achieving parity at the primary level, women made up less than one-quarter of secondary teaching staff in 2013. In Central African Republic, Chad, Guinea and Mali, which have severe gender disparities in education, less than 12% of secondary teachers were women in 2012, denying adolescent girls important role models.

Figure 5.8: Since 1999, women's share of the primary teaching force has increased, and they make up a substantial proportion of new entrants in several countries

Percentage of female teachers in primary education, 1999 and 2012; percentage of female teachers as new entrants 2009–2012



Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 8 (Print) and 10A (GMR website); *EFA Global Monitoring Report* team calculations (2014) using data from UIS database.

Increasing influence by non-state providers has been an important international trend in teacher recruitment. Growth in non-formal schooling and private provision has expanded female recruitment. In low income countries where women's mobility has traditionally been restricted, this has produced alternative routes for women to become teachers, particularly in rural areas. In Afghanistan, the NGO BRAC hired mainly married women recruited locally and trained them to teach lower primary grades (Anwar and Islam, 2013). In Pakistan, low-fee private primary schools employ young, untrained, unmarried women from local communities (Andrabi et al., 2008). But issues of gender equality remain a concern. A recent study in Jordan, where women represent 88% of the workforce in private schools, found that female teachers employed in private schools earned 42% less than their male counterparts (ILO, 2013c).

Leadership opportunities for female teachers

A considerable bias in favour of promoting male teachers to school managerial positions was shown in data from 12 countries surveyed in the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) III project. In Kenya and the United Republic of Tanzania, while almost half of all primary teachers were female, women made up less than 20% of school principals (UNESCO-IIEP, 2011). Even where a majority of teachers are women, proportionally fewer women than men ascend to leadership positions. In OECD countries, men are more likely to be school principals than be regular teachers. In Portugal and the Republic of Korea, less than one-third of regular lower secondary teachers are male, but men make up 61% and 87%, respectively, of school principals (OECD, 2014l).

The presence of female teachers can allay parents' fears of security issues and help increase demand for girls' schooling

The impact of teacher gender

The presence of female teachers can allay parents' fears of security issues and help increase demand for girls' schooling, particularly in countries where cultural and social barriers to girls' enrolment exist. A study in 30 developing countries found that increasing the proportion of female teachers in a district increased girls' access and retention in education, particularly in rural areas (Huisman and Smits, 2009a; Huisman and Smits, 2009b). In some contexts, recruitment of female teachers can have a beneficial effect on girls' performance and continuation in secondary education (Aslam and Kingdon, 2007; UIS, 2010). In Tunisia, where gender parity in primary enrolment was achieved in 2012, the greater numbers of female teachers in schools in recent years was positively associated both with girls' grade averages and scores on primary school leaving examinations (Baliamoune, 2011; Lockheed and Mete, 2007).

A study in five Indian states found that while female teachers were more likely than male teachers to view all children as equally capable of learning, recent training received by teachers was a more important factor than teacher gender for student achievement (Chudgar and Sankar, 2008). Other studies have shown that factors of similarity between teachers and students, such as ethnicity, caste and religion, can be as important for learning outcomes as gender is, if not more so, particularly for boys (Rawal and Kingdon, 2010). Student concerns about teachers may relate more to individual teachers' abilities than to whether they are female or male, as was found in the United Kingdom (Francis et al., 2008).

Research has failed to find any causal link between boys' underachievement or low participation in school and the gender of their teacher (Kelleher, 2011). Wider gender norms, however, can lead to some boys disengaging from school and dropping out (Cobbett and Younger, 2012; Kelleher, 2011).

Gender-sensitive training for classroom practice

Teachers play a critical part in forming students' understanding of gender roles. Teachers' attitudes, practices and differential expectations of boys and girls in class can reproduce gender stereotypes and affect girls' and boys' motivation, participation and learning outcomes. In many settings, classroom observations show teachers of both sexes interacting more often with boys, thus encouraging passivity among girls (Eurydice, 2010). Research in the Republic of Korea found male students dominating interactions with teachers by being called on more often by teachers or calling out in class (Jung and Chung, 2006).

Initial and ongoing teacher education regarding inclusion, gender-sensitive pedagogy and classroom management can reduce teacher bias and build more supportive school environments. Gender-sensitive training that equips teachers to improve diversity in teaching and assessment styles can help ensure that girls and boys participate equally in class (Postles, 2013). Research indicates learner-centred, collaborative teaching methods can help improve learning for both boys and girls (Jha et al., 2012; Oloyede et al., 2012).

Integrating gender-sensitive training into teacher education

Before 2000, education reform relating to classroom practice tended to concentrate on improving teaching methods for subject-related student performance. Relatively little attention was paid to gender-sensitive training, even in countries that made efforts to address gender inequality more widely, such as Belgium, France and Switzerland (Baudino, 2007).

Change has been slow. A 2010 review found that gender-sensitive teaching as a class management tool had been implemented in about one-third of European countries (Eurydice, 2010). A separate review of education policy in 40 developing countries indicated that policies to integrate gender training into teacher education remained scarce (Hunt, 2013).

Gender-sensitive training in developing countries has been largely funded by donors or international NGOs, either as add-on programmes or as part of wider sector reforms. The Gender-Responsive Pedagogy model is an example of a well-established add-on training model. Developed by the Forum for African Women Educationalists, training has reached over 6,600 teachers since 2005 (FAWE, 2013). In Indonesia, under the USAID-supported Decentralized Basic Education reform, gender-sensitive training was introduced as a strategy to improve the quality of education (USAID, 2008). The Commonwealth of Learning, in partnership with UNICEF, supports mainstreaming of gender-sensitive, child-friendly schooling approaches in pre-service and in-service teacher education in Botswana, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Rwanda, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Trinidad and Tobago, and Zambia (Umar et al., 2012).

Some governments have made efforts to include gender training in formal teacher education policy and programmes. A 12 month certificate of education course for teachers in Bangladesh includes a unit on gender issues, which gives teachers ways to explore their own practice and develop more inclusive approaches (Heijnen-Maathuis, 2008). Kenya's Education Sector Support Programme 2005–2010 included explicit strategies for gender-sensitive teacher training (Kenya Government, 2005). Mexico's 2013–2018 national education plan promotes a gender-sensitive approach to teacher education (Mexico Government, 2007); in-service programmes can support gender-sensitive classroom practices, but are optional. Papua New Guinea's 2009–2014 Gender Equity Strategic Plan calls for gender equity to inform all pre-service and in-service teacher education (Papua New Guinea Department of Education, 2009).

Policies to integrate gender training into teacher education remain scarce

Even where such policies exist, however, a lack of clear strategies, poor implementation and supervision, and inadequate evaluation of outcomes frequently limit their effectiveness, as in Cameroon (**Box 5.3**). In addition, there is still a lack of knowledge about the extent to which teachers and teacher trainers draw on training in gender issues and how learners respond to it (Unterhalter et al., 2014).

Box 5.3: Greater efforts to implement policy on gender-sensitive training are needed in Cameroon

Cameroon's 2006–2015 Education Sector Strategy and 2010–2020 Growth and Employment Strategy Paper refer to implementation of teaching approaches that are sensitive to gender through initial and ongoing primary and secondary teacher training, along with gender training for school managers and advisers. However, research conducted in 2012, involving 313 stakeholders and 109 teachers from 10 primary and secondary schools in 4 regions, highlights the gap between policy and practice. During discussions, teachers demonstrated a lack of awareness of, or unfamiliarity with, gender-responsive pedagogy. In spite of the government policies, they reported that gender issues had figured in training only informally, such as during discussions about other aspects of teaching. Furthermore, stereotypical views of gender among teachers were common, curriculum materials did not promote gender equality and high pupil/teacher ratios impeded the use of a diversity of teaching methods.

Sources: Cameroon Government (2006); Cameroon Government (2009); Daoust (2012).

Curriculum and textbook reform to promote gender equality

In the classroom, gender-responsive teaching is guided not only by pedagogic approaches but also by curriculum content, textbooks and other learning materials, which serve as vehicles for socialization (Brugeilles and Cromer, 2009). Schools can be a powerful entry point for promoting equitable gender relations and diverse possibilities for male and female roles. Curricula can encourage children to question gender stereotypes and promote equitable behaviour. Conversely, discriminatory gender norms conveyed in textbooks can damage children's self-esteem, lower their engagement and limit their expectations (Esplen, 2009). The Dakar Framework of Action highlights the need for learning content and materials to encourage and support equality and respect between genders. In 2010, UNGEI reiterated the importance of eliminating gender bias in school teaching and learning materials and called for greater attention to this policy issue (UNGEI, 2010).

Despite attempts to provide greater gender balance, bias in textbooks remains pervasive in many countries

Eliminating gender bias in textbooks

Gender bias is rife in textbooks. Despite prior widespread revisions, textbooks worldwide around 2000 continued to show distinct patterns of gender bias: females were often under-represented or absent, and depictions of males and females in both the professional and domestic spheres relied on traditional gender stereotypes (Blumberg, 2007). Women were depicted in half as many images as men in Spanish language and literature textbooks (González and Entonado, 2004). Social studies texts used in China in 2000 showed all scientists as male (Yi, 2002).

The EFA movement provided new impetus for donors and governments to address gender bias in education. One of three strategies in Pakistan's 2001–2015 EFA action plan to improve gender parity and equality was a call for curricula and textbooks to be free of gender bias (Mirza, 2004). International agencies have promoted policies and initiatives to tackle gender bias in textbooks in low income countries. Between 1998 and 2005, the World Bank shifted the focus of its expenditure on girls' education interventions towards improving the quality of educational resources, including eliminating gender bias. Several large education initiatives – including in Bangladesh, Chad, Ghana, Guinea and Nepal – had explicit components aimed at eliminating gender bias from curricula and/or textbooks (Blumberg, 2007). UNESCO has funded gender audits of textbooks, including in Jordan (Alayan and Al-Khalidi, 2010) and Pakistan (Mirza, 2004). In China, the Ford Foundation funded research to investigate gender bias in textbooks and supported the development of education plans, activities and reference materials to promote gender equality (Blumberg, 2007).

Recent studies show, however, that despite attempts to provide greater gender balance, bias in textbooks remains pervasive in many countries, including Georgia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Nigeria and Pakistan (Asatoorian et al., 2011; Foroutan, 2012; Mustapha, 2012; Shah, 2012) and some high income countries such as Australia (Lee and Collins, 2009). A lack of political will and support within wider society limits enactment of policy reform to eliminate gender bias in education resources. In some instances, policy recommendations from the global level have failed to find sufficient national support, resulting in slow progress. While the findings of the Ford Foundation research were widely disseminated in China, some stakeholders were sceptical about the importance of advocating for change (Blumberg, 2007). In Pakistan, resistance within institutions responsible for curriculum reform and textbook production has contributed to the low political priority given to textbook revision, reinforced by a lack of public support (Blumberg, 2015). Another challenge, as found in Georgia, is that key professionals responsible for providing guidelines for textbook production and approving textbooks for use lack adequate knowledge regarding gender sensitivity (Asatoorian et al., 2011; Blumberg, 2007).

Inclusion of gender in curricula

Gender reviews of curricula have helped raise awareness and supported change towards more gender-responsive content and resources. In the United Republic of Tanzania, the national secondary school syllabuses, revised in 2010, contain gender-related topics. In civics, nearly 25% of form 2 lessons are devoted to gender; form 4 includes gender in the study of culture; and the 2010 civics exam included questions on gender inequality (Miske, 2013).

Gender-responsive curricula that develop transferable skills have potential to support learning and promote positive gender relations. Gender Equity Movement in Schools, a project in Mumbai, India, developed an add-on curriculum including content on gender roles, violence, and sexual and reproductive health for standard 6 and 7 children. Graduates demonstrated greater problem-solving skills and self-confidence, alongside improved attitudes and gender awareness (Achyut et al., 2011). An interdisciplinary curriculum developed for the Sistema de Aprendizaje Tutorial, a secondary school programme for rural girls in Honduras including those who are indigenous, uses student-centred and inquiry-based learning that emphasizes dialogue. Its content questions dominant power structures and challenges gender stereotypes (Miske, 2013).

Comprehensive sex education is a critical curriculum area for promoting greater gender equality. Yet sex education programmes may fail to deal with the gender dynamics that accompany sexual and reproductive health (Stromquist, 2007). Inadequate treatment of human rights and gender equality in curricula has been identified as a problem in educational responses to HIV (UNAIDS Inter-agency Task Team on Education, 2006). A review of school sex education curricula in 10 countries in eastern and southern Africa showed all but 2 had moderate to serious gaps in topics relating to gender. Discussion of gender-based violence was overlooked in many curricula, and the overall approach to gender was considered weak and sometimes contradictory (UNICEF, 2013b). Sweden, by contrast, has a long established curriculum that teaches sexuality in the context of its psychological, ethical and social dimensions and personal relationships, and supports equally sharing of sexual decision-making by girls and boys (Stromquist, 2007).

Tackling gender-based violence in schools

The Dakar Framework for Action calls on governments to make comprehensive efforts to eliminate gender bias and discrimination. It requires stakeholders to ensure students' personal security, and notes girls are especially vulnerable to abuse and harassment, both at school and on the journey there and back.

School-related gender-based violence is defined as acts or threats of sexual, physical or psychological violence occurring in and around schools and educational settings as a result of gender norms and stereotypes and unequal power dynamics (Greene et al., 2013). It includes, but is not limited to, threats or acts of physical violence and bullying, non-consensual touching, sexual harassment, assault and rape (Leach et al., 2014). It also refers to differences between girls' and boys' experiences of violence in school settings, such as corporal punishment (Humphreys, 2008).

Often boys are more likely to experience frequent and severe physical violence, while girls are more often subject to sexual harassment and abuse, perpetrated to varying degrees by male students and teachers (Pinheiro, 2006; UNICEF, 2014c). Yet these distinctions are not clear-cut; girls also commit violent acts (Bhana, 2008) and boys also experience sexual abuse (Nandita et al., 2014). Homophobic bullying and harassment and cyberbullying[2] are increasingly being recognized as areas of concern (Fancy and Fraser, 2014; UNESCO, 2012a).

Boys are more likely to experience physical violence in schools, while girls are more often subject to sexual harassment and abuse

School-related gender-based violence is more and more a global concern

School-related gender-based violence is one of the worst manifestations of gender discrimination and seriously undermines attempts to achieve gender equality in education (Leach et al., 2012). Gender-based violence has short- and long-term consequences for both boys and girls. In addition to physical and psychological trauma, gender-based violence has long-lasting health and social consequences. Unsafe and violent school experiences have been shown to have a negative impact on boys' and girls' achievement and attainment (Mullis et al., 2012; UNESCO, 2008b).

Since 2000, a growing body of research has emerged of widespread gender-based violence in school settings, much of it focused on sexual violence against girls and predominantly in sub-Saharan Africa (Burton, 2005; Dunne et al., 2005; Human Rights Watch, 2001; Leach et al., 2003; Parkes and Heslop, 2013). There is

2. Bullying occurs on a number of bases, including the perceived or actual homosexuality of the victim. Cyberbullying refers to bullying using the internet or mobile devices.

evidence that sexual violence is entrenched in authoritarian and highly gendered school environments (Dunne et al., 2005). Older male students take advantage of their position to abuse female students. In Cameroon, 30% of sexual violence experienced by girls going to school was committed by male students (Devers et al., 2012). Teachers also commit sexual abuse and exploitation, often with impunity. In Malawi, 20% of teachers surveyed reported being aware of colleagues forcing or coercing female students into sexual acts (Burton, 2005). In Sierra Leone, male teachers had perpetrated almost one-third of reported cases of girls being forced or coerced into sex in exchange for money, goods or grades (ACPF, 2010).

In Latin America and the Caribbean, studies have largely focused on physical violence, including the spillover effects of gang violence in schools (Jones et al., 2008). Yet broad social tolerance for family and community violence, especially against women, provides the social context for sexual violence against girls by male students and teachers (Leach et al., 2014). A study concerning female adolescent victims of sexual violence in Ecuador found that 37% of perpetrators were teachers (Jones et al., 2008). Social taboos make researching gender-based violence difficult in Asian countries and incidences of abuse are often unreported. Yet small-scale studies in South and West Asia report sexualized behaviour by teachers towards girls (Pawlak, 2014). Findings from a recent study of five countries in Asia highlight incidences of sexual violence against both boys and girls. In Viet Nam, 21% of girls and 17% of boys aged 12–17 reported experiencing sexual violence at school (Nandita et al., 2014).

In Kenya, there are mechanisms for reporting sexual violence and ensuring that guilty teachers are discharged, not transferred to other schools

Physical violence, including corporal punishment, also has gendered dimensions (Parkes, 2015). In Indonesia, 27% of boys aged 12–17 reported having been physically punished by a teacher in the previous six months, compared with 9% of girls (Nandita et al., 2014). In Thailand, research found 56% of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender students had reported being bullied in the past month (UNESCO, 2014f).

Gender-based violence is not confined to poorer countries. At the time of Dakar, a survey of over 2,000 secondary students across the United States revealed that over 80% had experienced sexual harassment at school (Harris Interactive, 2001). A recent study in the Netherlands found 27% of students had been sexually harassed by school personnel (Mncube and Harber, 2013). In countries such as Japan and New Zealand, access to online technology is driving new forms of school-related gender-based violence, including cyberbullying (Pawlak, 2014).

Policy and programming responses to school-related gender-based violence

Over the past decade, there has been a marked increase in policy and action to tackle violence in schools. The 2006 UN World Report on Violence Against Children documented violence against children – including in school settings – as a global phenomenon (Pinheiro, 2006); after its publication, there was an acceleration of global and regional initiatives to address this violence.

Regional initiatives that specifically address gender-related violence include Plan International's 'Learn Without Fear' campaign, launched in 2008, and the Council of Europe's 'One in Five' campaign, begun in 2010 (Leach et al., 2014).

Countries in sub-Saharan Africa have been at the forefront of policy development in recent years to tackle gender-based violence, especially sexual violence. Liberia, a country emerging from conflict, advocates the development of a syllabus on gender-based violence for use by trained educators in schools (Antonowicz, 2010). In South Africa, strategies to address gender-based violence are supported by a strong legal and policy framework, and by guidelines for schools on preventing sexual harassment and abuse (Parkes, 2015).

In several sub-Saharan African countries, international NGOs have worked with governments to strengthen legislation and guidelines on tackling gender-based violence in schools (Parkes, 2015). The Kenyan government and ActionAid collaborated with teachers' unions to draft a bill to reinforce mechanisms for reporting sexual violence and ensuring that guilty teachers are discharged, not transferred to other schools (Leach et al., 2014). In Ghana and Malawi, the Safe Schools project used national advocacy networks to lobby for revisions to the Teachers' Code of Conduct and

to call for stronger enforcement of regulations relating to teacher misconduct (DevTech Systems, Inc., 2008).

Programmes promoting non-violence among men and boys, such as ReproSalud in Peru, demonstrate positive shifts in attitudes (OECD, 2012a). In Brazil, India and the Balkans, Instituto Promundo and its partners have implemented promising programmes that use trained teacher and student facilitators to work with boys and young men from secondary schools to promote non-violence and reflect on gender norms (Barker et al., 2012).

Girls clubs have the potential to address school-related gender-based violence. An evaluation of ActionAid's Stop Violence Against Girls in School project found that girls clubs had positive effects on girls' knowledge, attitudes and practices in identifying violations and managing violence. Crucially, clubs worked with communities and schools to improve relationships among boys, girls, teachers, parents and other community members, and ensure that channels were in place to report incidences of discrimination and violence (Parkes and Heslop, 2013). In the United Republic of Tanzania, girls who had been members of clubs were more likely to report incidences of discrimination and violence than girls who had not (Unterhalter and Heslop, 2012).

Overall, however, there is little evidence that increased awareness of the prevalence of school-related gender-based violence over the last decade is translating into effective action to change behaviour and reduce levels of violence. Enforcement of laws is often poor, reporting and referral systems weak, and policy implementation patchy, partly because of deep-seated social and gender norms at the district, community and school level (Parkes, 2015). In South Africa, for example, policy enactment has been limited (Bhana et al., 2009); a recent national survey found that 7.6% of girls had experienced severe assault or rape at secondary school (Burton and Leoschut, 2013).

Interventions are usually small, short-term projects that prove difficult to sustain and scale up. And there remains a lack of knowledge about what works in reducing the prevalence of gender-based violence in schools (Leach and Dunne, 2014). More research is also needed to understand how other factors – such as conflict (Kirk, 2007; UNESCO, 2011b) and disability (UNICEF, 2013e) – intersect with gender to exacerbate children's vulnerability to violence. Research shows disabled children are less able to fend off attacks and are less likely to be believed when reporting incidences of violence (Jones et al., 2008).

Programmes promoting non-violence among men and boys demonstrate positive shifts in attitudes

Supporting equality in learning outcomes

Achieving gender equality in education requires not only that girls and boys have an equal chance to participate in education, but also that there are minimal disparities in outcomes, including those reflected by measures of achievement.

Learning assessments highlight gender differences in subject performance

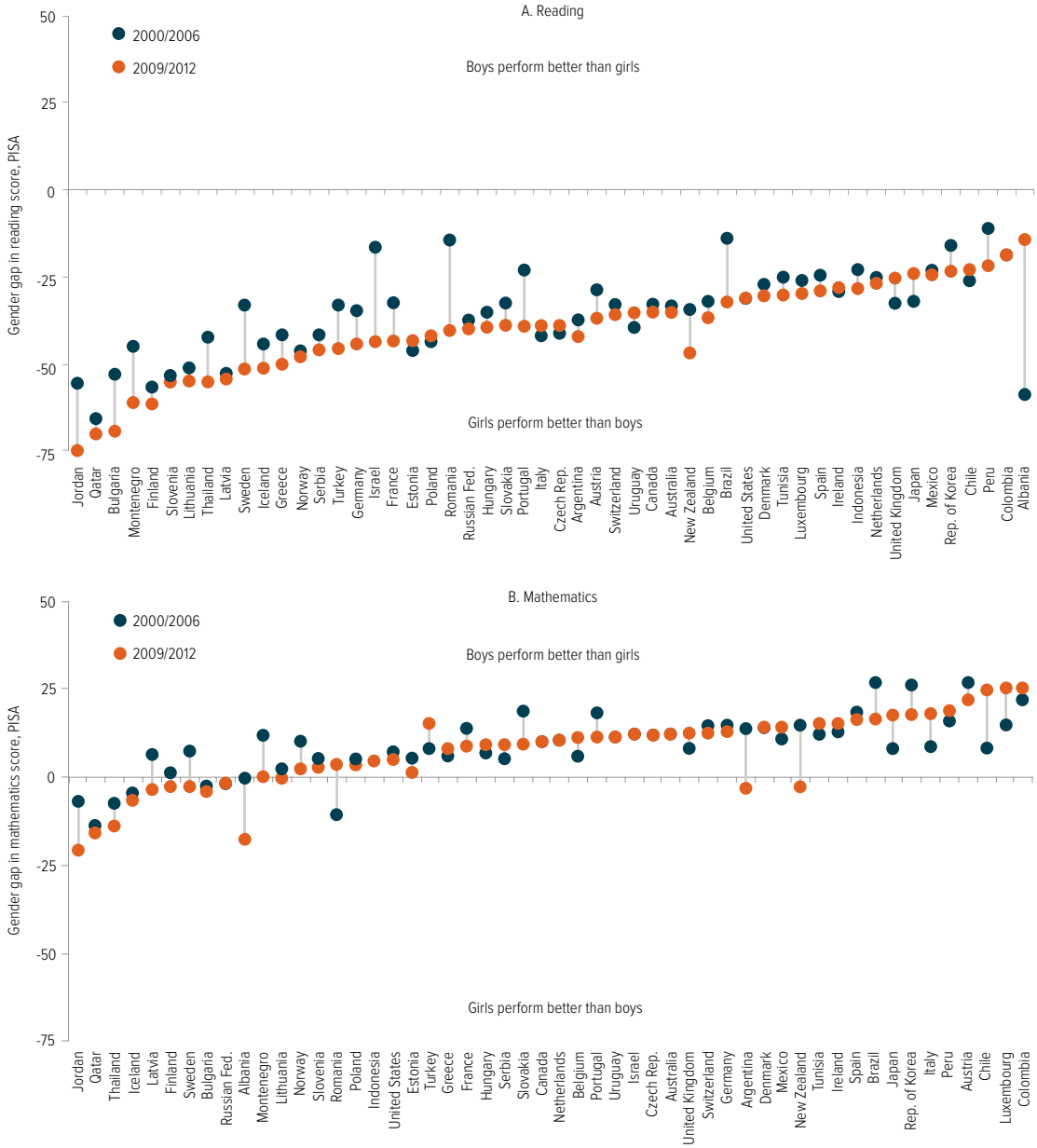
Regional and international learning assessments at primary and secondary level, including PISA, TIMSS, SACMEQ and SERCE,[3] indicate variation in subject-specific achievement by gender. Analysis presented in the 2012 GMR shows that girls overall performed better in reading, and that boys performed better in mathematics in most countries, although that gap was narrowing. Performance in science was more varied, with no significant difference between boys and girls in many countries (UNESCO, 2012b).

PISA surveys, which assess the performance of 15-year-old students, show a widening gap in reading, with girls performing significantly better than boys in all locations surveyed (**Figure 5.9A**). A comparison of the subset of locations that took part in both the 2000 and 2012 surveys shows that the gender gap in reading widened in 11 countries, including Bulgaria, France, Iceland, Israel, Portugal and Romania, largely due to a decline in boys' performance. Low-performing boys face a particularly large disadvantage, as they are heavily over-represented among those who failed to show basic levels of reading literacy (OECD, 2013f).

3. The OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment, the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study, the survey by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality and the Second Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study of the Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education.

The PISA results also show gender differences in mathematics, with boys performing better than girls in the majority of locations, although the gap has narrowed in several countries, including Montenegro, Norway and Slovakia (**Figure 5.9B**). In the 2012 PISA survey, girls in OECD countries underperformed boys by an average of 11 points. The data show that girls were under-represented among the highest achievers in most locations, a possible challenge to achieving equal participation in science, technology, engineering and mathematics occupations in the future (OECD, 2014f).

Figure 5.9: Although learning gender gaps are narrowing, boys outperform girls in mathematics, while girls increasingly outperform boys in reading, by a wider margin
Gender gap in scores, reading and mathematics, PISA, 2000/2006 and 2009/2012



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2014) using PISA data.

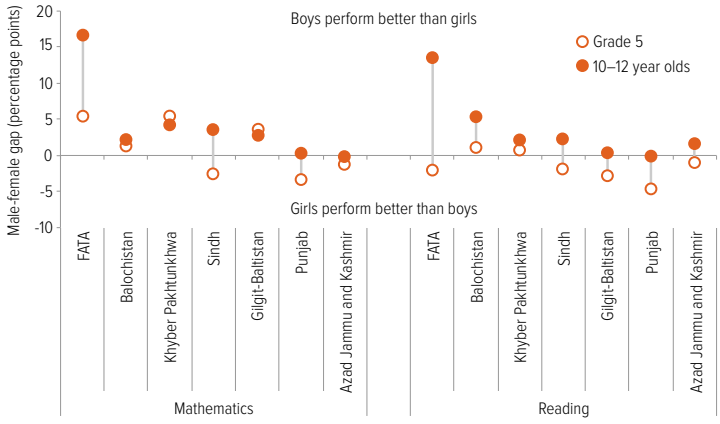
In poorer settings, girls continue to face disadvantage in achievement

In some poorer countries where girls have historically faced barriers to equal participation in education, they continue to face disadvantage in obtaining important foundation skills.

Gender disparities in learning can be underestimated when assessments only include children attending school. Analysis of the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) 2014 Survey in rural Pakistan shows that gender gaps are small among grade 5 students, sometimes favouring girls. However, girls' relative performance is worse among children aged 10–12 years, whether they are in school or not, particularly in poorer, less developed provinces and territories. In Balochistan, the percentage of girls in grade 5 who can read a passage in Urdu, Sindhi or Pashto was, on average, almost the same as for boys, but among all children aged 10–12 years, girls underperformed boys by 5 percentage points; in the Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA), girls underperformed by 14 percentage points in reading (**Figure 5.10**).

Although limited, research suggests that in some poorer countries, girls face greater disadvantage in national examinations than boys, raising obstacles to their continued schooling. Even though girls in grade 6 scored higher than boys in the 2007 SACMEQ III learning assessment, girls' pass rates in national examinations in Kenya and Zimbabwe were significantly lower than boys' (Mukhopondhyay et al., 2012). National examinations at the end of the primary cycle can form part of high-stakes selection processes in which failure to pass or perform well prevents transition to lower secondary. In Kenya and Malawi, for example, performance in exams for primary school leaving certificates determines entry into state-funded secondary schools (Mukhopondhyay et al., 2012). More research is needed to understand factors affecting gender gaps in performance across subjects and at key stages in the education cycle.

Figure 5.10: In Pakistan, the disadvantage of girls in learning outcomes is underestimated if we consider only those children in school
Gender gap in two learning indicators, grade 5 students and children aged 10–12 years, rural Pakistan, 2014



Notes: The indicator in mathematics is the percentage of children who could do a division; the indicator in reading is the percentage of children who could read a story in Urdu, Sindhi or Pashto. Both indicators have been calculated over two groups: (i) all students who were in grade 5 and (ii) all children aged 10–12 years.
Source: ASER Pakistan team calculations based on the 2014 ASER survey.

Tackling boys' underachievement

Concern over boys' underachievement in learning outcomes, particularly reading and languages, has grown since 2000. Yet only a few countries with marked gender gaps have comprehensive policy frameworks to address this concern. European countries and economies, such as the Flemish Community of Belgium, Ireland and the United Kingdom, have made reducing boys' underachievement a policy priority. Government concerns have largely been driven by results of national and international assessment tests, such as PISA, which have highlighted the widening gender gap in reading skills and have received significant media attention in some countries. The 'PISA shock' in 2000, for example, led to Austria mainstreaming initiatives that promote reading and boys' achievement (Eurydice, 2010; OECD, 2012a). In England (United Kingdom), a series of projects has targeted gender-related performance in schools (**Box 5.4**).

Strategies and small-scale interventions in teaching and learning that have potential to tackle boys' low achievement include a

Box 5.4: Raising boys' achievement in reading in the United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, there is a persistent gap between the achievement of boys and girls in English, particularly in reading skills. In England, several school-based programmes have been implemented since 2000 to address this. The Raising Boys' Achievements project ran from 2000 to 2004 in primary and secondary schools. Building on its results, the Gender Agenda project aimed to improve performance among groups of underperforming boys and girls. It included a guidance document for teachers; a publication to dispel myths about gender and education; and 'Gap Busters', a research project on schools that had consistently closed or narrowed the gender gap in English. Key features of such schools included the use of speaking and listening in lessons to prepare pupils for writing and exploring texts, modelling of both reading and writing to improve pupils' understanding and skills, the use of ICT to engage pupils, and individual help for preparing for tests. The schools also had an ethos that valued respect for others, rewarded effort and maintained a strong emphasis on listening to pupils' views.

Another initiative, Premier League Reading Stars, uses footballers as role models to engage students in literacy activities. Promotions and awards promote participation. In 2012, over 34,000 children, of whom 75% were boys, took part. The programme typically lasts 10 weeks; in the 2012 programme, 56% of the pupils made half a year's progress in reading and 17% made a year's progress.

Sources: Batho (2009); Eurydice (2010); National Literacy Trust (2012).

Gender stereotyping and societal expectations lead girls to be less confident than boys in mathematics ability

transferable skills emphasis, classroom approaches that foster active learning, individual mentoring and target-setting, and a school ethos promoting respect and cooperation (Jha et al., 2012). In Seychelles, the very large gender differences in reading performance in the SACMEQ II and III assessments – boys underperformed girls by 48 points in SACMEQ III – were attributed to 'within-school streaming' (Hungi, 2011), a practice said to negatively label those in lower classes and reinforce poor performance (Leste et al., 2005). Efforts to 'de-stream' classes so student groupings were of mixed ability and gender-balanced were reported to have met with some initial success (Reid, 2011). A recent study from the United States indicates that both boys and girls achieve better in classrooms where more girls are present (DiPrete and Buchmann, 2013).

Girls' participation and performance in mathematics and science

A global agenda to enhance gender equality in education and labour market opportunities has improved the focus on increasing girls' achievement and participation in mathematics and science. With gender gaps in mathematics performance declining in international assessments and those in science largely eliminated, a key challenge since 2000 has been to address girls' motivation and subject choice. PISA 2012 results show that even when girls perform as well as boys in mathematics, they tend to report less motivation to learn mathematics, less belief in their ability and greater anxiety about the subject. They are also more likely than boys to attribute failure in mathematics to themselves rather than to external factors (OECD, 2014f).

This phenomenon appears to stem from cultural norms and discriminatory practices present from an early age. A cross-country analysis of mathematics test scores in 10 low and middle income countries found evidence of a clear gender gap in mathematics performance favouring boys, and the gap nearly doubled when comparing fourth and eighth grade students. Lower performance was strongly associated with girls' self-reported expectations of their abilities in mathematics – they were more pessimistic than boys. Gender stereotyping and societal expectations lead girls to be less confident in their own mathematics ability, which in turn affects learning outcomes (Bharadwaj et al., 2012). A study of girls in grades 1 to 5 in the United States found anxiety about mathematics could be reduced if female teachers received more training in teaching mathematics and addressed stereotypical beliefs about gender differences in students' ability (Antecol et al., 2012).

In South Africa, the National Strategy in Mathematics and Science, launched in 2001, was dedicated to increasing participation and performance in grade 12 examinations in these subjects, focusing on female students. Incentives for girls included preferential access to schools dedicated to good quality teaching of mathematics and science (South Africa Department of Education, 2001). In three years, achievement in participating schools increased by 30% in physical science and 22% in mathematics (South Africa Department of Education, 2004).

International agencies and NGOs have supported initiatives to improve girls' participation and performance in mathematics and science in several developing countries. The Capacity Building in Scientific and Technological Literacy programme in Nepal, supported by UNESCO, aimed to raise awareness and promote gender-inclusive approaches to teaching mathematics and science (Koirala and Acharya, 2005). Several smaller programmes have also been implemented, such as the USAID-funded 2006 Girls Science Camp in Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania, in partnership with the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and the Aga Khan Foundation (USAID, 2008). Information regarding the uptake and impact of such initiatives, however, remains scarce.

Subject choice can limit labour market opportunities

Lower achievement and negative aspirations and career expectations may help explain the continued under-representation of women enrolled in science and mathematics-related subjects in post-secondary education, including subjects in great demand in the labour market such as computing and engineering.

Between 2000 and 2009, the proportion of female computer science graduates fell in most OECD countries. This was most pronounced in Ireland, the Republic of Korea and Sweden, where the proportion of female computer science graduates fell from around 40% to under one-quarter of total graduates (OECD, 2012a). This is reflected in prevailing gender gaps in the labour market. In the United States, in 2011 less than one-quarter of workers in science, technology, engineering and mathematics-related employment were women. Female under-representation exacerbates gender gaps in income, as workers in these fields earn significantly more than counterparts in other fields (Beede et al., 2011).

Providing vocational guidance with a gender perspective can challenge gender stereotyping in school cultures, and among students and employers regarding study and career options. Making provision for work-related learning at secondary school can build students' interest in particular subjects (Rolfe and Crowley, 2008).

Conclusion

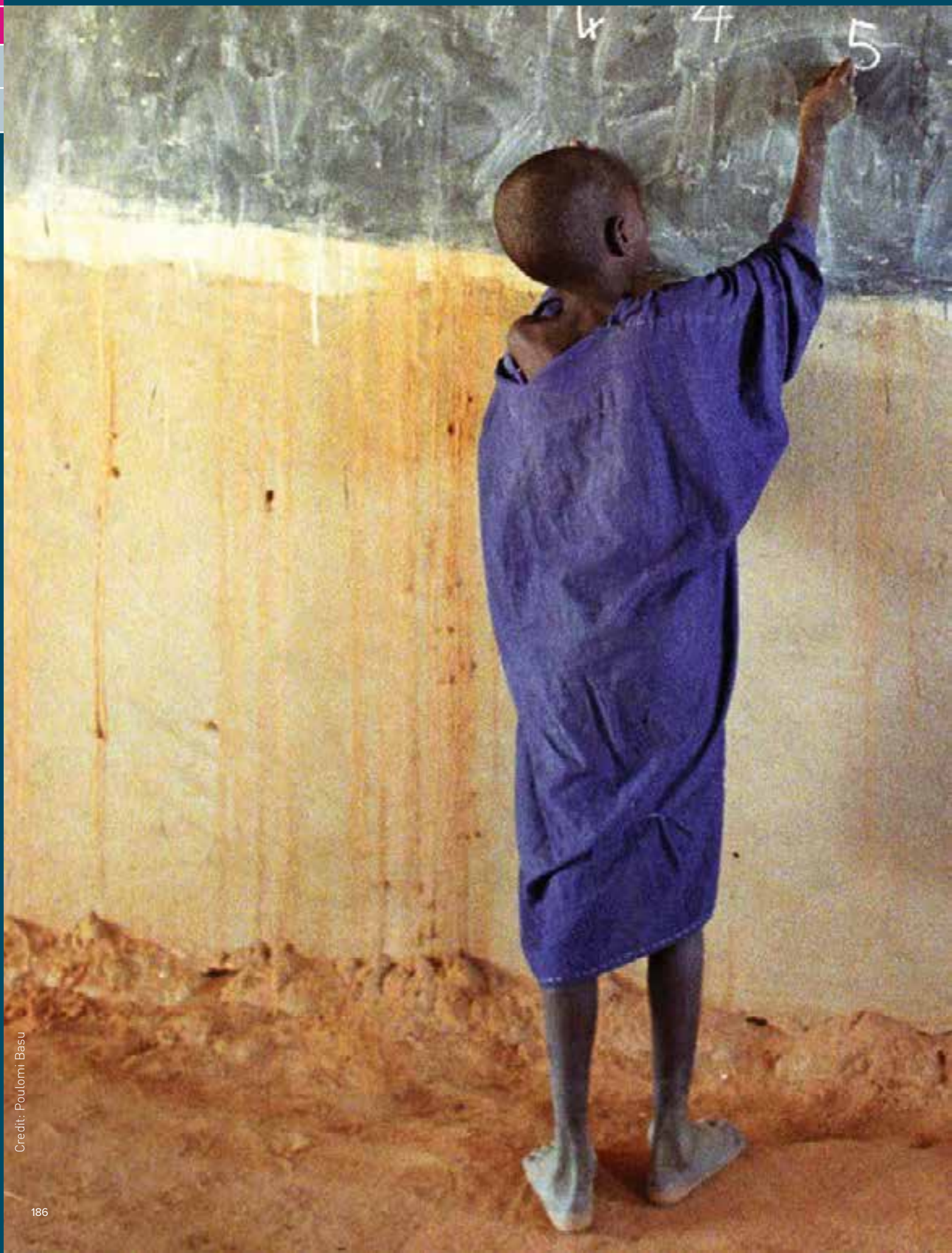
Evidence reviewed in this chapter demonstrates progress since 2000 towards gender parity and equality in education around the world. This is crucial to ensure the rights of all children to a good quality education, one which provides the foundations for the rest of their lives. Progress has been supported by mainstreaming gender in education institutions, civil society support and advocacy, and community mobilization, as well as by government policy, legal and policy frameworks, and the resources to ensure that these are implemented at the district, school and community levels.

Gender must be addressed in interconnected private and public arenas, including educational institutions. Gender-based violence and discrimination in schools and classrooms negate positive schooling experiences and outcomes, and perpetuate inequality in gender relations. Even in countries where girls and boys achieve equally well and gain similar levels of education, women are still under-represented and face disproportionate disadvantage in political, economic and civic life.

Women are still under-represented in political, economic and civic life

Increasing the availability and accessibility of education by reducing school costs and improving infrastructure has helped expand girls' enrolment and reduce gender gaps. Serious disparity in educational attainment remains, however, and, in the case of boys' disadvantage, continues to emerge.

Achieving gender equality in education and society requires cooperation and involvement of men, women, boys and girls, from the community level to the national and international levels. Everyone has much to gain from gender equality and a gender-just society.



Credit: Poulomi Basu

CHAPTER 6

Goal 6: Quality of education

Highlights

- Pupil/teacher ratios declined in about 83% of the 146 countries with data at the primary education level. However, more progress is needed, particularly in making sure teachers are properly trained – the ratio of pupils to trained teachers is higher than 100:1 in Central African Republic, Chad, Guinea-Bissau and South Sudan.
- At the lower secondary education level, 87 out of 105 countries with data have a pupil/teacher ratio below 30:1.
- Despite rapid increases in teacher recruitment, in one-third of the 91 countries with data for 2012, less than 75% of primary school teachers were trained according to national standards.
- Since 1990, countries' interest in improving education quality through assessing learning achievements has risen significantly. In 1990, only 12 learning assessments were conducted according to national standards; this increased to 101 assessments in 2013.
- Expanding opportunity for education does not necessarily impact quality: In Kenya, the proportion of children reaching the end of primary school increased from 42% in 2000 to 62% in 2007, while at the same time, learning outcomes for children from both poor and rich households also improved.
- The quality and availability of teacher training, scarcity of textbooks and resources, and class size remain serious challenges affecting education quality.

All of the EFA goals share the quest for good quality education. This chapter makes the case that it is possible to expand access to education while improving teaching and learning. It underscores the importance of investing in teachers, instructional materials, curriculum development, effective pedagogy, teaching in mother tongue languages and using appropriate technology. It describes increased country efforts to measure learning outcomes through the use of national and international assessments.

> *"Education is compulsory in Mexico for all children from pre-school to secondary school levels. The government has implemented programs to ensure educational quality across the board, with a particular focus on gender, marginalized groups and indigenous groups. Efforts have been made to improve digital literacy and the systematic evaluation of learning in order to guide educational policy. The country has also improved adult literacy and education programs."*
>
> Emilio Chuayffet Chemor
> Secretario de Educación Pública, México

Goal 6 Quality of education

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

In 1990, the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) committed countries to improving quality of education. The declaration identified quality as a prerequisite for achieving the fundamental goal of equity. It recognized that expanding access alone would be insufficient for education to contribute fully to the development of individuals and society.

A decade later, the Dakar Framework for Action declared that access to an education of good quality was the right of every child. It affirmed that quality was the heart of education, a fundamental determinant of enrolment, retention and achievement. It expanded the definition of quality to address desirable characteristics of learners, processes, facilities, learning materials, content, governance and management, and learning outcomes.

Even though good quality education has been at the core of EFA goals, international attention has focused until recently on universal primary education: effective policies and sustained national investment in education have resulted in far fewer children in developing countries being out of school (see Chapter 2).

While many countries have made impressive gains in access to education since Dakar, improvement in quality has not always kept pace. A discernible shift in emphasis towards quality and learning is likely to become more central to the post-2015 global framework, since, as the *2013/14 EFA Global Monitoring Report* (GMR) showed, 250 million children have not had the chance to learn the basics – and 130 million of them have spent at least four years in school.

This chapter reviews progress to show that it is possible to improve access and education quality at the same time, then discusses how monitoring has emerged as a central theme now that concern has shifted in many countries towards education quality. It provides an overview of the role of national, regional and international assessments in better monitoring of education quality as measured by learning outcomes. The chapter then covers four areas key to improving quality: teachers, textbooks and other instructional materials and facilities, teaching and learning processes, and governance (including both decentralization and private schooling). Each section aims to provide a systematic assessment of progress since Dakar. The chapter also discusses government reform initiatives to achieve the goal of improving quality of education, and highlights the challenges encountered.

It is possible to improve access and equitable learning simultaneously

Has the expansion of education gone hand in hand with progress towards better learning? New populations entering the school system are more likely to come from marginalized groups, have disabilities and be affected by malnutrition and poverty. And they are less likely to come from households with literate parents or where an official language is spoken. As these background characteristics are associated with lower learning achievement, a decline in quality could be expected to accompany increased enrolment. Yet findings from regional and international learning assessments do not bear this out.

New populations entering the school system are more likely to come from marginalized groups

Analysis presented in the 2013/14 EFA GMR shows that, in some countries in sub-Saharan Africa, the number of children entering and completing school rose between the 2000 and 2007 surveys of the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ). At the same time, learning outcomes improved or were maintained. Kenya increased the proportion of children reaching the end of primary school from 42% in 2000 to 62% in 2007. Over these years, learning also improved with the proportion of children who were both in school and achieving the minimum learning standard in mathematics rising from

25% to 39%. Children from both poor and rich households benefited from this progress.

In Ghana, learning disparities narrowed across regions as access rose

In secondary education, too, access and equitable learning can increase side by side. In Ghana, the secondary net enrolment ratio rose from 36% in 2003 to 46% in 2009, with greater access across the country, especially in rural areas. New analysis by the GMR team of data from the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), moreover, shows learning disparity across regions narrowing (**Figure 6.1**). The gaps in grade 8 mathematics scores between Greater Accra and other regions were smaller in 2011 than in 2003. This equalizing trend occurred as the mean score increased from 286 to 328 points.

In Mexico, enrolment of 15-year-olds increased by almost 12 percentage points between 2003 and 2012 while the mean scores in mathematics in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) increased from 385 to 413 points. The most disadvantaged students witnessed the largest increases. As a result, the gap in scores between advantaged and disadvantaged students narrowed from 60 to 38 points (OECD, 2012e). Policies were aimed at improving performance of low achieving schools and students by allocating more resources to the regions and schools most in need.

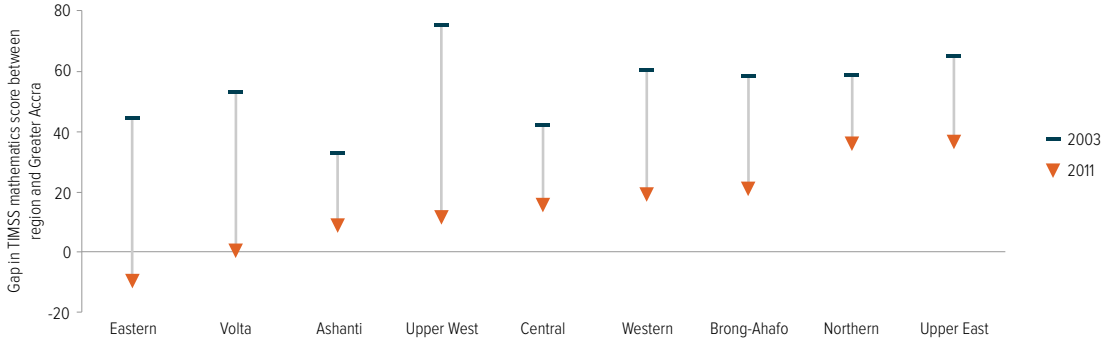
Progress in learning outcomes should be monitored

The Dakar Framework, by placing quality at the heart of EFA, emphasizes the need for effective strategies to assess and monitor knowledge and skills and demonstrate measurable learning outcomes. This section discusses a distinct element of such strategies: large-scale learning assessments based on sample surveys that provide information on education systems as a whole.

More countries are conducting national assessments

More and more countries are carrying out national assessments[1] that provide countrywide information about learning outcomes according to nationally defined standards.[2] In the past 25 years, the number of national assessments has grown sharply, increasing from 12 in 1990 to 101 in 2013 (Benavot and Köseleci, 2015). The trend occurred not only among more affluent countries, but also among poorer ones (**Figure 6.2**). In developing countries, 8 national assessments were conducted in 1990, 35 in 1999 and 64 in 2013. As a result, global disparity in participation in assessments has narrowed (see Overview).

Figure 6.1: Ghana reduced regional inequality while improving learning outcomes
Gap in grade 8 TIMSS mathematics score between region and Greater Accra, 2003 and 2011

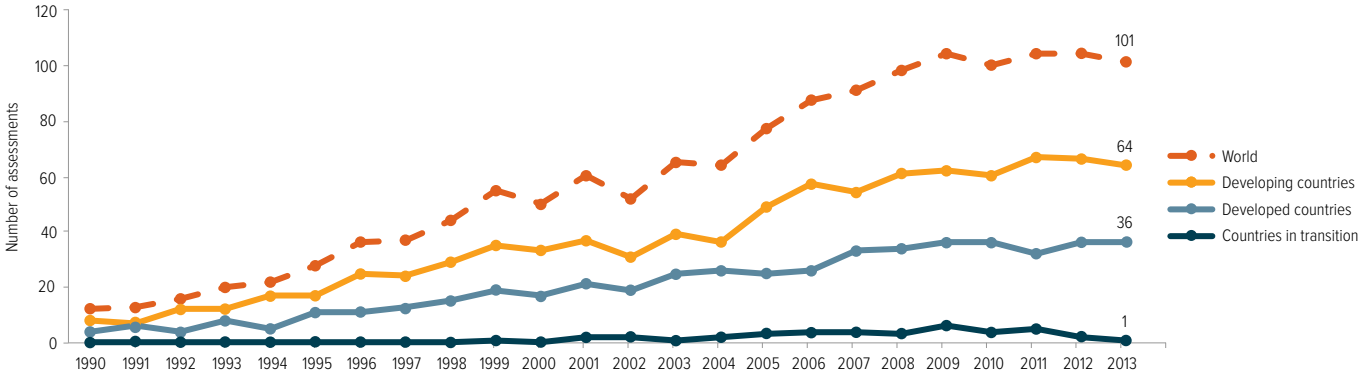


Note: Scores are conditional means, and control for the effects of gender, language spoken at home, parents' education, age and books at home.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on 2003 and 2011 TIMSS data.

1. National learning assessments evaluate learning outcomes on the basis of criteria and expectations set by national education authorities. Also called system assessments or assessments of learning outcomes, they can be defined as exercises designed to describe the level of achievements not of individual students but of an education system or a clearly defined part of it (e.g. fourth grade pupils or 11-year-olds).

2. A global overview of national assessment and evaluation activities can be found in the annex. It does not attempt to evaluate the scientific rigour or technical soundness of the assessments listed.

Figure 6.2: Participation in national student assessments has grown sharply
Number of national learning assessments, by development status, 1990–2013



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on annex data on national learning assessments.

National assessments focus more on grades 4–6 than grades 1–3 and 7–9. Between 2007 and 2013, a cumulative total of 118 countries conducted at least one national assessment of learning outcomes in grades 4–6. There were also 68 assessments for grades 1–3 and 84 for grades 7–9. The number of countries with at least one national learning assessment at the lower secondary level significantly increased, particularly during the second half of the post-Dakar period.

National assessments are predominantly curriculum-based and subject-oriented. Language (100%) and mathematics (98%) are by far the predominant subjects. More than half the countries that conducted assessments between 2000 and 2013 assessed learning outcomes in science, almost two-fifths (36%) in the social sciences, 33% in foreign languages and 20% in other subjects, including art, physical education, problem solving, life skills, visual literacy, cognitive behaviour and music. A closer look at results between 1990 and 2013 shows foreign languages gaining prominence, from 21% before Dakar to 29% in 2000–2006 and 34% in 2007–2013.

Though they differ in assessment methods and scales, sample designs and methodological rigour, most national assessments call on education authorities to improve student knowledge levels and competencies. They often highlight the extent to which student learning objectives are achieved, differences in achievement levels by subgroups and, if background data are collected, the strength of associations between the quality of learning and various school- and system-level factors (Greaney and Kellaghan, 2008).

A systematic review of 54 studies shows that the range of education policies resulting from the use of national assessment data is wide, from curriculum reform and textbook revision to teacher education and ongoing training, instructional material development, parent engagement, performance standards and allocation of resources to support poorly performing schools (Best et al., 2013). In Brazil, the Prova Brasil national assessment system was used to build an Index of Basic Education Development, combining measurements of students' learning and progress, including repetition, grade progression and graduation rates (Bruns et al 2012). In Chile, data from the national assessment were used to analyse the impact of monetary incentives on school performance (Mizala and Urquiola, 2013).

National assessments call on authorities to improve student knowledge competencies

Citizen-led assessments gain ground

Increasing use of assessments is supported by a wider movement towards evidence-informed policy and practice in education and in other fields (Wiseman, 2010). Academic and media freedom, the development of civil society and the stability and openness of political systems are important factors in whether, and how much, evidence can be gathered, assessed and communicated to influence policy-making (Sutcliffe and Court, 2005). Research restrictions

are increasingly being overcome in some countries, leading to more evidence-based policy in the education sector (Best et al., 2013).

Government action has not been the only route to effective assessment systems for informing national policy. Citizen-led, household-based assessment initiatives began in India in 2005 and have been adapted in Pakistan (since 2008), Kenya, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania (2009), Mali (2011) and Senegal (2012). Together, they reached more than a million children in 2012 (ASER Centre, 2014a).

In India, ASER reported wide disparities in students' achievement of basic skills across states

Civil society organizations in these countries have initiated assessments of children's basic reading and arithmetic abilities. In India, the Annual Status of Education Report (ASER) reported that, while India's education system succeeded at enrolling many more children, there were wide disparities in students' achievement of basic skills across states, a finding validated in the official National Achievement Survey of grade 3 students (Indian Ministry of Human Resource Development, 2014). ASER further noted a small decline in reading outcomes in recent years, and a larger one in mathematics (ASER Centre, 2014b).[3] The ASER findings have been used to inform policy. For example, they were cited in the education chapter of the government's 12th five-year plan, which emphasized basic learning as an explicit objective of primary education as well as the need for regular learning assessments to make sure quality goals are met (Banerjee et al., 2013).

Recent ASER results in rural Pakistan provide a stark illustration of the challenge to equitably enable all children to acquire basic skills (**Figure 6.3**). In 2014 in Balochistan province, only 33% of grade 5 students could read a story in Urdu, Sindhi or Pashto, whereas in the wealthier province of Punjab, 63% could do so. In Balochistan, only 24% of fifth-graders could do a division exercise, compared with 50% in Punjab.

3. For details on ASER results over time and by population subgroups, see the World Inequality Database on Education: www.education-inequalities.org.

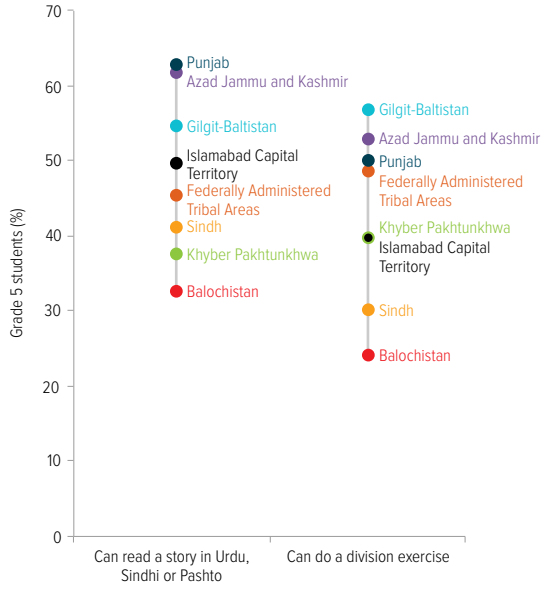
Assessments are used to take the pulse of early grade learning

Very poor levels of learning in lower primary grades are resulting in millions of children leaving education before acquiring basic skills. Children who do not learn to read a text or do basic calculations in the lower grades are likely to struggle throughout their school careers, their commitment to education is likely to diminish and they are more likely to drop out.

USAID, with the support of UNICEF, the World Bank and several bilateral donors, promotes early grade reading assessments (EGRAs) and early grade mathematics assessments (EGMAs). Between 2007 and mid-2014, more than 60 countries carried out one or more EGRAs. In several countries, EGRAs covered a nationally representative sample.[4] By mid-2014, more than 20 countries had conducted EGMAs.

The EGRAs paint an alarming picture: many children spend two or three years in school

Figure 6.3: In Pakistan, learning disparity is associated with geography
Percentage of students enrolled in grade 5 able to do division and read a story in Urdu, Sindhi or Pashto, provinces of rural Pakistan, 2014



Source: Analysis by the 2014 ASER Pakistan survey team.

4. They include Egypt (2013), Gambia (2007, 2009), Ghana (2013), Jordan (2012), Liberia (2008, 2009, 2010), Malawi (2010, 2011), Mali (2009), Nicaragua (2008, 2009), the Philippines (2013), Rwanda (2011), Timor-Leste (2009), Tonga (2009), the United Republic of Tanzania (2013) and Vanuatu (2010).

without learning to read a single word. In the United Republic of Tanzania, 40% of second-graders could not read a word of Kiswahili. In Ghana, 80% of grade 2 students were unable to respond correctly to questions about a passage read aloud to them in English (RTI International, 2015).

In several countries, even when the language of instruction is what most pupils speak at home, children perform poorly. In Malawi, 94% of second-graders could not respond correctly to a single question about a story they read in Chichewa, the national language. In Iraq, 25% of third-graders were unable to tell the sound of a letter in Arabic (RTI International, 2015).

Many schools do not teach students the basics of arithmetic in their early years. In Nicaragua in 2011, around 60% of second-graders could not identify numbers correctly and more than 90% were unable to answer a subtraction question. Even in grade 4, almost 20% and 70%, respectively, failed at these tasks (**Figure 6.4**).

EGRA results have prompted governments and donors to rethink policies so that students achieve minimum learning standards in reading and mathematics (RTI International, 2015).

Regional and international assessments are crucial for measuring equity in learning

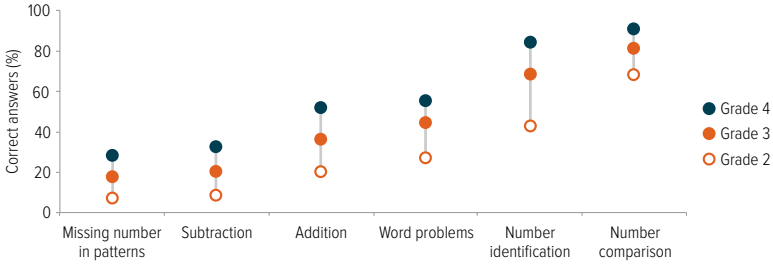
In addition to the growing use of national assessments, countries have increasingly joined cross-national and cross-system comparisons of student achievement. Cross-national testing originated in the 1960s with the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement studies and expanded in the 1990s to include more countries in mathematics, science, reading literacy and civic education. By estimating consistent and repeated measures of proficiency, cross-national assessments make it possible to compare progress across various socio-political environments.

Two important studies, from the Latin American Laboratory for Education Evaluation and Quality (LLECE) and the OECD, permit measurement of progress and inequality in learning outcomes of cross-national assessments. LLECE, founded in 1994, conducted its First Regional Comparative and Evaluation Study (PERCE) in 1997, the second cross-national study (SERCE) in 2006 and the third study, TERCE, in 2013. TERCE, reaching 15 countries and one Mexican state, assessed mathematics, reading, written expression and science. The resulting data allow assessment of organizational, curricular and family-background components of students' academic proficiency, and of overall national progress, including towards the elimination of inequality, showing for example that many countries – most notably Ecuador – made significant improvement in national mean scores.

SERCE and TERCE comparisons reveal that the rural–urban gap has been reduced overall. In 2006, most countries showed very large gaps in reading proficiency between urban and rural students. Although some gaps persisted in 2013, it is encouraging that, in all but three countries, the urban–rural gap substantially

An increasing number of countries are participating in cross-national and cross-system comparisons of student achievement

Figure 6.4: In Nicaragua, many schools are not teaching students basic mathematics in their early years
Percentage of correct answers in mathematics, by grade and assessment subtask, 2011



Notes: The chart shows EGMA subtasks: 'Missing number in patterns' requires identifying a missing number in a complicated pattern; 'Subtraction' and 'Addition' are sums involving one and two digit numbers; 'Word problems' require complicated addition, subtraction, multiplication and division; 'Number identification' means identifying numerals over 100; and 'Number comparison' requires distinguishing the larger of two numbers greater than 100.
Source: RTI International (2015).

Evidence from Latin America shows that it is possible to improve quality while increasing equity

narrowed (**Figure 6.5**). This reduction of inequality occurred over the same period that mean achievement increased, similar to the experience shown previously in the case of Ghana (Figure 6.1). In Latin America, there is also evidence that it is possible to improve quality while simultaneously increasing equity.

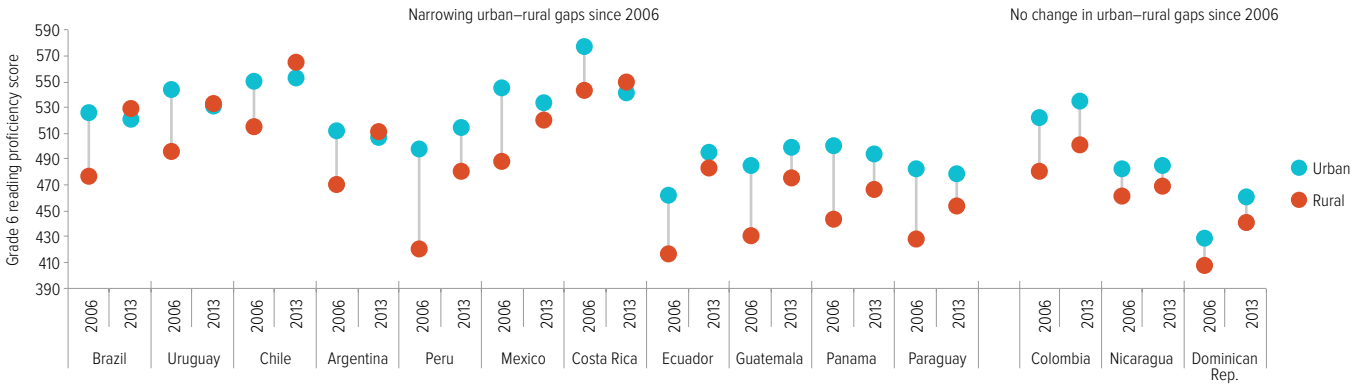
The OECD launched the Programme for International Student Assessment in 2000. PISA focused on 15-year-olds, regardless of their school year, and collected information from students that made it possible to relate inequality in social origin to their literacy and numeracy. The PISA methodology included an index of family economic and socio-cultural status (ESCS) and allowed comparisons in each country between the reading scores of students in the most-advantaged quintile of students on the ESCS index with the least-advantaged students in the bottom quintile. Gaps narrowed considerably in many countries between 2000 and 2012. Only in two countries did it widen substantially, one of which – Peru – was also the country with the widest rural–urban gap in LLECE studies (**Figure 6.6**).

Regional and international assessments affect policy discourse ...

Regional and international assessments have become essential to reviewing and supporting education policy design. A majority of OECD countries have initiated policy reform and initiatives in direct response to PISA results (Breakspear, 2012). In Germany, the mediocre student performance in PISA 2000 came as a shock to teachers, researchers and policy-makers. It triggered sustained public debate and resulted in significant reform, such as the adoption of national standards and increased support for disadvantaged students, especially those from immigrant backgrounds (Ertl, 2006). In Mauritius and Seychelles, SACMEQ assessments catalysed widespread public debate about the extent of grade repetition and private tutoring (Murimba, 2005). In Seychelles, the discovery of wide learning disparity among schools prompted a policy change away from streaming by ability (Leste, 2005).

In low and middle income countries, PISA participation has helped build national capacity for using data through the drafting of national reports, analysis of results and assessment of a wider range of skills (Bloem, 2013). Similarly, interviews with developing country officials and national research coordinators for TIMSS 2007 showed how national participation had strengthened and enhanced technical knowledge and skills for assessment (Lockheed, 2010).

Figure 6.5: Some countries of Latin America reduced their urban–rural gap in reading proficiency between 2006 and 2013
Grade 6 reading scores by area of residence, selected countries, SERCE (2006) and TERCE (2013)



Note: Schools that were classified as 'rural' in 2006 may have been reclassified as 'urban' in 2013. Sampling weights and restrictions were used to create comparable student samples.
Countries are ordered by the size of the reduction in the urban–rural gap.
Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on 2006 SERCE and LLECE estimates for 2013 TERCE data.

Learning assessments have also influenced curricular and instructional reform in many countries. Of the 18 developing countries that participated in TIMSS-Repeat in 1999, 8 changed classroom instructions to emphasize methods such as activity-based learning, problem-solving in mathematics and more critical thinking in science (Elley, 2005). In Kyrgyzstan, educational reform in response to PISA 2006 results included a reorganization of instructional time and improvement to teaching standards and performance (Shamatov and Sainazarov, 2010).

... but they also pose their own challenges

Despite their positive impact, the challenges of using regional and international assessments are acknowledged. Data can be inappropriately used. Publishing comparisons of participating countries can discourage participation by poorer countries where few children are learning the basics. The cost of participation in a large-scale assessment can be substantial for many developing countries, which are likely to require support from international aid agencies. The need for cross-country comparability may mean countries are asked to assess unfamiliar curriculum areas; countries may reorient education systems accordingly but in ways that do not suit their circumstances. An important issue is that the assessments do not include information on children out of school, something PISA surveys aim to address (**Box 6.1**).

Box 6.1: PISA for Development

A recent initiative, at the pilot stage, is PISA for Development, which began in 2013. It has three objectives: First, as the experience of low income countries participating in 2009 showed, PISA instruments could not accurately measure the performance of students scoring at the lower end of the performance range. The project will try to increase the instruments' sensitivity yet still produce results consistent with the international PISA scales.

Second, unlike citizen-led household assessments of learning outcomes, such as ASER – which survey the learning achievement of all children, whether in school or not – regional and international learning assessments only test children in school. The assessment process is too complex to organize easily elsewhere. However, this leaves a big gap in the knowledge of children who have been to school but have left, especially in poorer countries with large proportions of out-of-school youth. The project will try to identify ways to assess the skills of 15-year-olds who are not in school and raise their profile among education policy-makers.

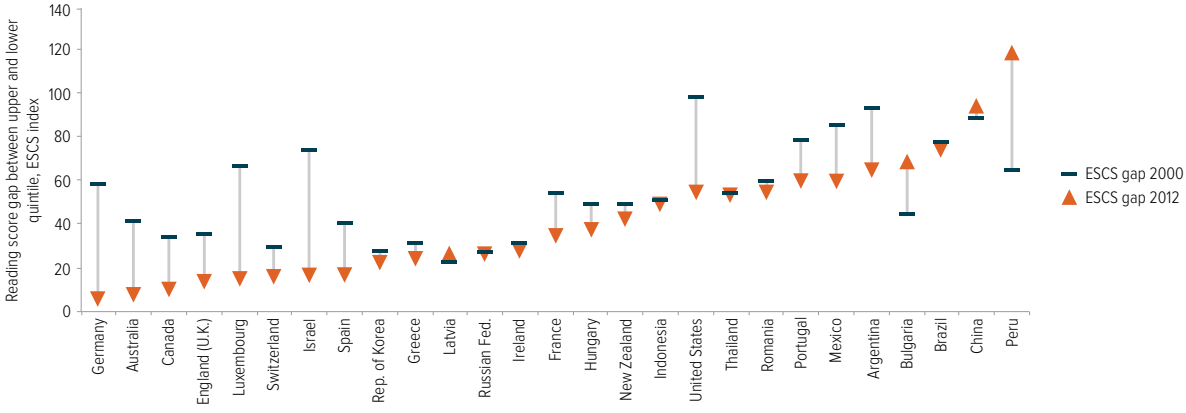
Third, background questionnaires will need to be adjusted to capture the characteristics of youth in poorer countries who may be out of school.

The countries currently expected to take part are Cambodia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Senegal, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zambia. Results are to be published by the end of 2017.

Source: OECD (2014l).

Learning assessments have influenced curricular and instructional reform in many countries

Figure 6.6: Learning gaps between the most and least advantaged students narrowed in most PISA countries
Advantage of highest quintile over lowest quintile students in PISA index of ESCS, selected countries, 2000 and 2012



Notes: The ESCS index is based on students' reports about their parents' education levels and occupations, family wealth and household possessions. The difference between the PISA reading scores of students in the top and bottom quintiles of the ESCS are shown in each year. The figure includes all countries participating in the 2000 and 2012 PISA that had at least a 20 point gap in 2000.
Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2015) based on 2000 and 2012 PISA data.

Investing in teachers is essential

The Dakar Framework recognized the pre-eminent role of teachers in providing basic education of good quality. It stressed that, to achieve EFA, governments need to enhance the status, morale and professionalism of teachers and enable them to participate in actions affecting their professional lives and teaching environments. To attract and retain good teachers, policy-makers need to improve teacher education, deploy teachers more fairly, provide incentives in the form of appropriate salaries, and create attractive career paths (UNESCO, 2014c).

This section examines progress in the quantity, quality and distribution of the teaching force, highlights national efforts to improve the availability and deployment of skilled and motivated teachers, and reviews the challenges involved in hiring contract teachers and improving the status of the teaching profession.

Equatorial Guinea, Gabon and Timor-Leste dramatically reduced the pupil/teacher ratio

Despite progress, teacher shortages remain a serious concern

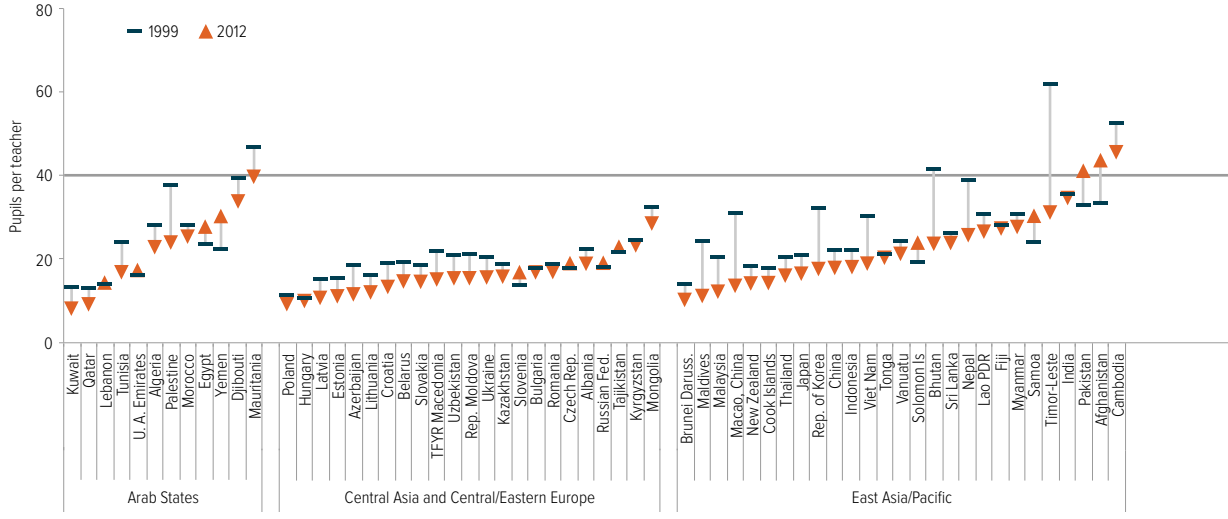
The pupil/teacher ratio measures the number of teachers in relation to the number of pupils. As of 2012, 29 of the 161 countries with data had pupil/teacher ratios in primary education exceeding 40:1. Of these, 24 were in sub-Saharan Africa, where the highest ratio is that of the Central African Republic, 80:1.

Several country trends since Dakar are notable (**Figure 6.7**). Primary pupil/teacher ratios declined in 121 (83%) of the 146 countries with data for both 1999 and 2012. Many of the improvements occurred in countries that already had pupil/teacher ratios below 40:1.

In seven countries, including the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Pakistan and Yemen, the pupil/teacher ratio increased by 24% or more. In Afghanistan, it increased by 31%, from 33:1 in 1999 to 44:1 in 2011. An almost fivefold rise in the teaching force was not enough to meet the almost sevenfold rise in primary enrolment. By contrast, the ratio decreased by at least 20% in 63 countries. Congo and Mali more than doubled their primary school enrolment while reducing their pupil/teacher ratios by 16 and about 14 pupils per teachers, respectively.

Of the 30 countries with a pupil/teacher ratio above 40:1 at the time of Dakar, 8 managed to bring it below 40:1 by 2012. Equatorial Guinea, Gabon and Timor-Leste dramatically reduced the ratio, by nearly 50% or more. But in Malawi it increased by 17% to 74:1 in 2012, from an already high level of 63:1 in 1999.

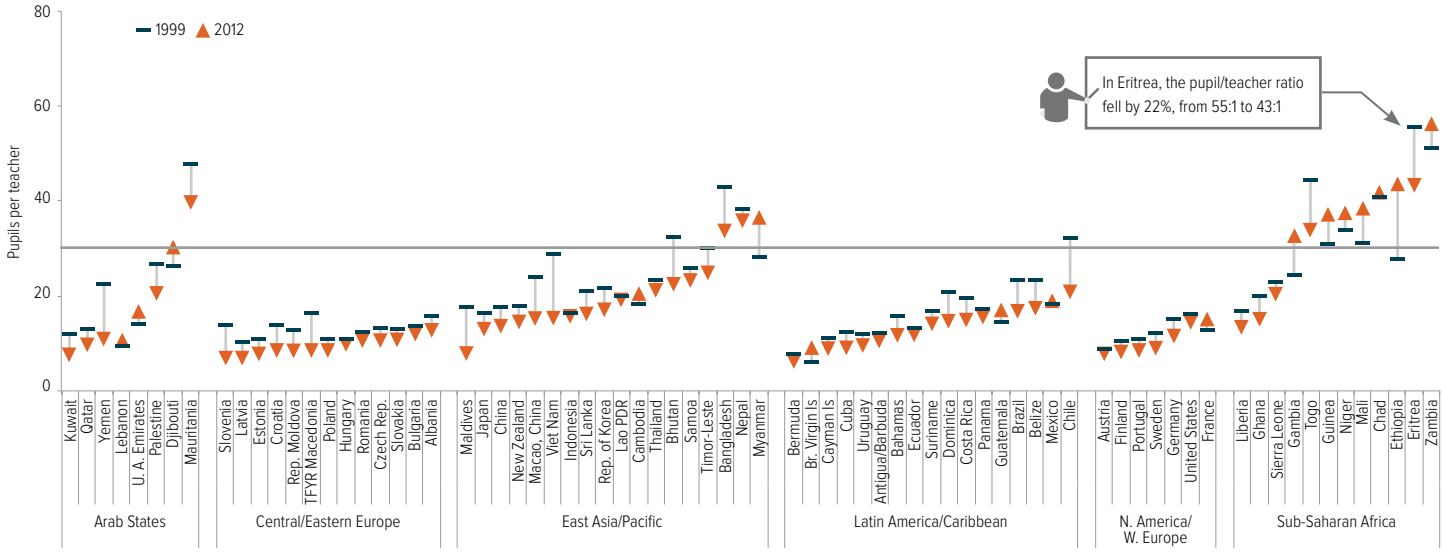
Figure 6.7: The number of pupils per teacher is decreasing but remains high in several countries
Pupils per teacher in primary education, by region, selected countries, 1999 and 2012



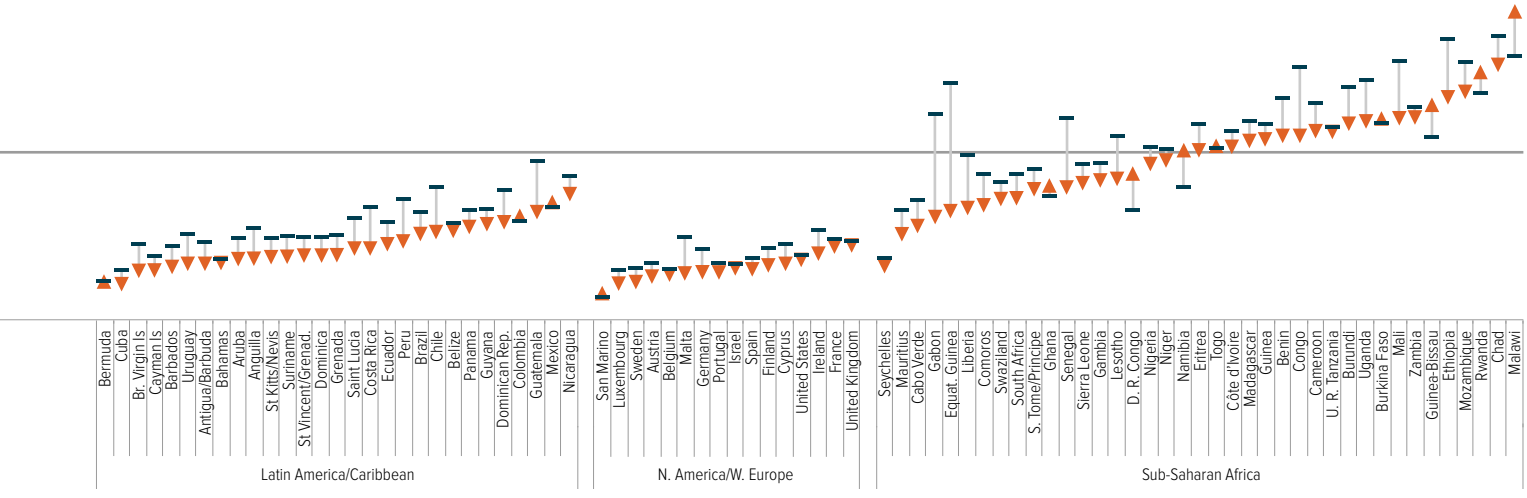
Source: Annex, Statistical Tables 8 (print) and 10 A (GMR website); UIS database.

At the lower secondary level, where 105 countries had data for 2012, 18 had ratios above 30:1, including Bangladesh, Chad, Mauritania and Zambia. Between 1999 and 2012, the ratios grew by more than six pupils per teacher in Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guinea, Mali and Myanmar (**Figure 6.8**). Each experienced a significant rise in the gross enrolment ratio, far outstripping any increase in teacher numbers and raising serious concern for education quality in these countries. Yet some countries with growing lower secondary enrolment improved their pupil/teacher ratios significantly. In Togo, the gross enrolment ratio rose from nearly 39% in 1999 to 68% in 2011 while the pupil/teacher ratio fell from 44:1 to 34:1.

Figure 6.8: Sub-Saharan Africa has far more pupils per teacher than other regions
Pupils per teacher in lower secondary education, selected countries, 1999 and 2012



Source: Annex, Statistical Table 8 (print) and 10 B (GMR website); UIS database.



Improving the quantity of teachers will not be enough; quality needs improvement too

At the upper secondary level, out of 97 countries with data for 2012, only Bangladesh, the Dominican Republic, Eritrea, Nigeria and Yemen had ratios above 30:1. Upper secondary pupil/teacher ratios stayed constant or decreased in most countries over the last decade, markedly so in Eritrea (from 45:1 to 31:1). However, this analysis includes only 13% of countries in sub-Saharan Africa, the region that suffers the worst teacher shortages at the upper secondary level.

How many primary school teachers were needed to reach universal primary education by 2015?

Future teacher recruitment needs are determined by current deficits and a complex mix of demographics, enrolment trends and numbers of children out of school. Recent analysis by the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) and the GMR team showed that, between 2012 and 2015, around 4 million primary school teachers would need to be recruited of which (UNESCO, 2014i): 2.6 million to replace teachers who retired, changed occupations, died or left due to illness, and 1.4 million to make up shortfalls, address expanding enrolment and underwrite quality by keeping pupil/teacher ratios below 40:1. Thus, around 450,000 additional teachers would be needed each year to have sufficient teachers by 2015.

Some regions and countries would need many more additional primary school teachers than others. The region facing the greatest challenge, by a large margin, was sub-Saharan Africa, accounting for well over half (63%) of the additional teachers needed to achieve UPE by 2015. An assessment by country showed that the biggest challenge remained in Nigeria, with 220,000 additional primary school teachers needed between 2012 and 2015 – 15% of the global total. All but 1 of the 10 developing countries needing the most additional primary teachers were in sub-Saharan Africa; the exception, Pakistan, needed around 86,000 teachers (UIS, 2014c).

Have countries proved able to recruit enough teachers by 2015? It is unlikely, particularly for those with the widest gaps. Among the 93 countries needing to recruit additional primary school teachers, only 29 (31%) were on track to do so by 2015, leaving 64 with shortfalls. The implication is that hopes of achieving UPE by 2015 will turn out to have been thwarted by continuing teacher shortages (UNESCO, 2014i).

Trained teachers: The most severe shortages

Improving the quantity of teachers will not be enough; quality needs improvement, too, with teachers well trained and motivated. Many countries have expanded teacher numbers rapidly by hiring people without the proper qualifications and training. Among the 91 countries with 2012 data, the percentage of trained primary school teachers according to national standards national standards ranged from 39% in Guinea-Bissau to more than 95% in 31 countries.

More than half the 50 countries with data for 1999 and 2012 increased the percentage of trained teachers, in some cases by wide margins. Kyrgyzstan, Malawi, Myanmar, Nepal, Rwanda and Togo raised the share by more than 50%. Others, including Benin, Kuwait, Ghana and Swaziland, moved in the opposite direction, with percentages of trained teachers declining significantly.

Ratios of pupils to trained teachers are above 100:1 in 2012 in Central African Republic, Chad, Guinea-Bissau and South Sudan, and above 40:1 in 38 other countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Countries with no severe shortage of total teachers may have shortages of trained teachers. In Bangladesh, there was a wide gap in 2011 between the number of pupils per teacher (40:1) and per trained teacher (70:1).

Between 1999 and 2012, pupil/trained teacher ratios declined in 44 out of 50 countries with data (**Figure 6.9**). In Nepal, the decrease was from 260:1 in 1999 to 28:1 in 2013, a huge improvement due to a policy of upgrading teacher qualifications to require additional training (Dundar et al., 2014).

Projections made for 46 countries with data shows that 12 of them, including Belize, Lesotho and Nicaragua, will have less than 75% of their primary school teaching workforce trained according to national standards by 2015. Half of the other 34 countries will have made strong progress, increasing the percentage of

trained teachers by at least 20% since 1999 (Bruneforth, 2015).

Many countries are not training enough secondary school teachers. Projections to 2015 indicate that, of the 24 countries with data, 7, including Myanmar and the United Arab Emirates, will have made strong progress, increasing the share of trained teachers in secondary education by at least 20% (Bruneforth, 2015).

Equity gaps in teacher deployment need tackling

Total teacher numbers and average pupil/teacher ratios can conceal unequal distributions of teachers within countries, raising equity concerns. Imbalances can be associated with school type, geographical location and teacher training. There is generally a marked and sustained gap between government and non-government providers. Analysis by the GMR team of data from the UIS database showed that, in several countries, including Congo, Rwanda and Uganda, the pupil/teacher ratio of public primary schools exceeds that of private schools by nearly 30 pupils or more. Regional differences can add inequality. Although average primary pupil/teacher ratios have improved in recent years, geographical variations persist in India, from 41:1 in Uttar Pradesh and 38:1 in Bihar to 23:1 in Andhra Pradesh in 2013/14 (NUEPA, 2014).

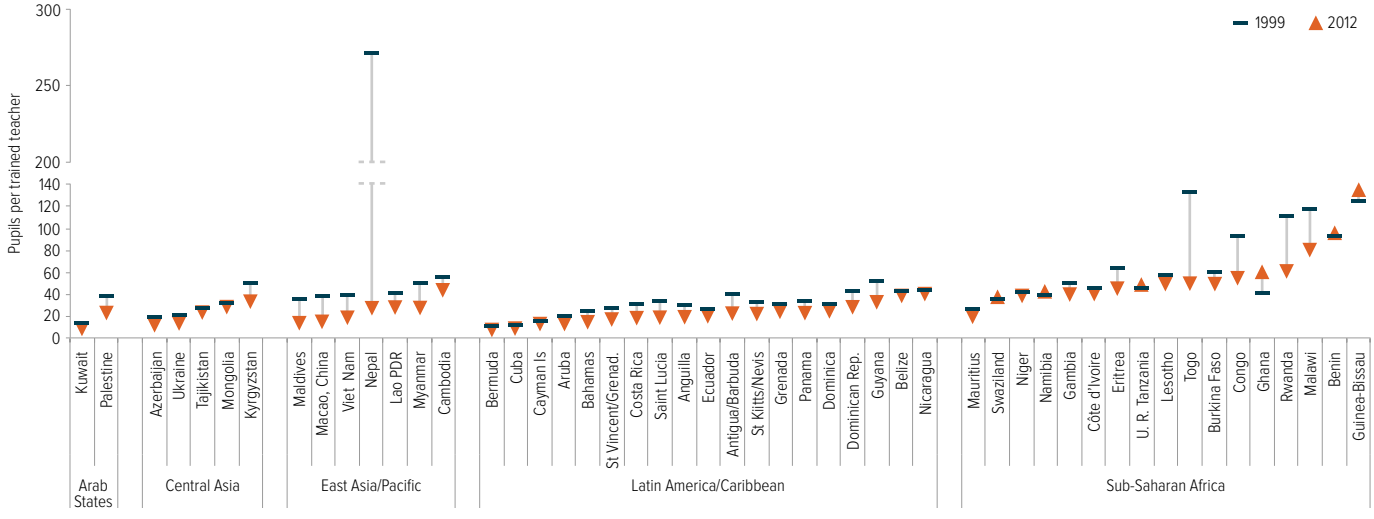
Students in disadvantaged schools are often taught by teachers with less preparation than those in wealthier ones. In Mongolia, mathematics teachers' preparedness levels are 10 to 19 points higher if they teach affluent children who report speaking the test language at home (Chudgar et al., 2013). In South Africa, teachers with good knowledge of mathematics and reading are more commonly deployed to urban and better-resourced schools (Altinok, 2013a).

Inequality in trained teacher deployment is not confined to developing countries. In the United States, high attrition underlies many schools' problems staffing classrooms with qualified teachers. Attrition, especially among ethnic minority teachers, undermines efforts to recruit new teachers in disadvantaged schools and to diversify the teaching force (Auguste et al., 2010; Ingersoll et al., 2014).

Over the past decade, governments have tried to address challenges to teacher deployment in various ways, including centralized deployment; incentives such as housing, financial benefits and accelerated promotion; and local recruitment (Chudgar and Luschei, 2015).

In the United States, high attrition underlies many schools' problems staffing classrooms with qualified teachers

Figure 6.9: Trained teachers remain in short supply in many countries
Changes in the ratio of pupils to trained teachers in primary education, selected countries, 1999 and 2012



Note: Countries are listed in ascending order of the pupil/trained teacher ratio in 2012.
Source: Annex, Statistical Tables 8 (print) and 10 A (GMR website); UIS database, *EFA Global Monitoring Report* team calculations (2014).

Centralized and planned deployment systems have had varying results. In Eritrea, the government assigns teachers to one of six regions and to specific schools, strictly depending on student numbers. By 2004/05, teachers were more equitably distributed where they were most needed (Mulkeen, 2010). By contrast, in the United Republic of Tanzania, centralized deployment has not addressed wide variations in pupil/teacher ratios and disadvantaged areas are left with the least experienced teachers (Chudgar and Luschei, 2015). Such systems also risk demotivating teachers or having teachers trade the assigned post internally or subcontract it to someone who is not qualified (Steiner-Khamsi, 2015).

In the Republic of Korea, teachers in disadvantaged schools benefit from incentives

Incentive programmes attract teachers with better pay and working conditions. In the Republic of Korea, teachers in disadvantaged schools benefit from incentives such as an additional stipend, smaller class size, less teaching time, the chance to choose their next school after teaching in a difficult area and greater promotion opportunities (Kang and Hong, 2008). As a result, 77% of teachers in villages have a higher qualification than a bachelor's degree, compared with 32% in large cities (Luschei et al., 2013).

Another approach to counter attrition and other challenges is recruiting teachers from within the communities to be served. It has been argued that closer social distance, in terms of gender and cultural and/or religious background, between locally recruited teachers and their students has a positive impact on learning (Rawal and Kingdon, 2010). A need for increased accountability has also driven local recruitment policies, particularly in countries where teacher absenteeism raised concern. However, local recruitment has also brought challenges, such as disadvantaged communities lacking competent applicants and having to rely on untrained teachers (UNESCO, 2014c).

Teach for America (TFA) is a programme that sends top college graduates to disadvantaged schools, partly to reduce teacher shortages but also to inspire good teaching and educational leadership. It expanded rapidly, from 500 teachers in 1999 to 10,000 in 2012/13. It has been found that, after gaining some experience, TFA teachers improve mathematics and science achievement in higher grade levels (Glazerman et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2009). However, they comprise only a tiny fraction of teachers in the United States, and just 28% of them remain in the profession after five years, compared with 50% of other teachers (Heilig and Jez, 2014). TFA cannot be seen as a long-term or sustainable solution, though it has expanded in developing countries, including Chile, India, Nepal, China and Peru.

Improved data and transparent management can help in implementing teacher deployment policies. Since 2003, the Rainbow Spectrum initiative in the Philippines has used a system of colour coding linked to pupil/teacher ratios to make disparity more visible: blue districts have ratios below 25:1, red indicates a ratio over 50:1 and black signals a dire teacher shortage. The initiative has raised awareness of teacher deployment issues by making information more readily available and easily understandable. Between 2009 and 2011, over 60% of new teacher allocation went to black and red areas (Albert, 2012).

The use of contract teachers is increasing, but with concerns

To respond to the need for teachers arising from increased enrolment, governments in some developing countries launched large-scale recruitment programmes involving widespread appointment of contract teachers. This approach often coincided with structural adjustment demands from international financial institutions requiring reductions in public sector spending (De Koning, 2013). These issues are further discussed in Chapter 8 on finance.

Trends in the composition of teaching forces show that by the late 2000s, some countries had far more teachers on temporary contracts than civil service teachers (**Figure 6.10**). In Niger, the percentage of contract teachers increased from 55% in 2002 to almost 80% in 2008. This trend has enabled the countries with the largest teacher shortages, including Benin and Mali, to significantly reduce pupil/teacher ratios.

In India, contract teacher recruitment has expanded rapidly since 2002, though with prominent variations among states. In 2013/14, 47% of teachers in Jharkhand were on temporary contracts, compared with less than

2% in Karnataka (NUEPA, 2014). Proportions of contract teachers are also high in some Latin American countries, such as Chile, where until recently 20% of all teachers were contract teachers[5] (Kingdon et al., 2013).

Contract teachers have poorer working conditions, job security and salaries than permanent teachers. They are more likely than civil servant teachers to have either no training or less than one month of training. In India, while regular teachers have to complete two years of initial teacher education, contract teachers are only required to undertake a short induction programme (Kingdon et al., 2013).

The stratification of teacher labour markets affects the way contract teachers are perceived and how they perceive themselves, leading to low morale, dissatisfaction and often high attrition (Chudgar et al., 2014). Benin implemented a policy to integrate contract teachers and regular teachers into one career stream (Pôle de Dakar and République du Bénin, 2011).

Can contract teachers be as effective as civil servant teachers? In Niger and Togo, contract teachers had an overall negative or mixed impact on learning achievement in grade 5 French and mathematics, though in Mali it was positive (Bourdon et al., 2010). In India, learning outcomes did not differ overall between contract and regular teachers, and sometimes children taught by contract teachers did better (Atherton and Kingdon, 2010). Guinea shows that good management makes a difference: under a policy developed by the government and teacher unions, contract teachers received 18 months of training; their students generally outperformed those of regular teachers, and the teachers were significantly more qualified (Chudgar, forthcoming).

Contract teachers tend to be most effective when parental or community involvement is greater. In Kenya, positive effects from hiring contract teachers were observed only in communities where parents were trained to monitor teacher absenteeism and time on task, and relatives of local civil service teachers were prevented from being hired as contract teachers (Duflo et al., 2012). In Mali, language and mathematics scores of grade 2 and 5 students were consistently higher under contract teachers closely monitored by the local community (Bourdon et al., 2010).

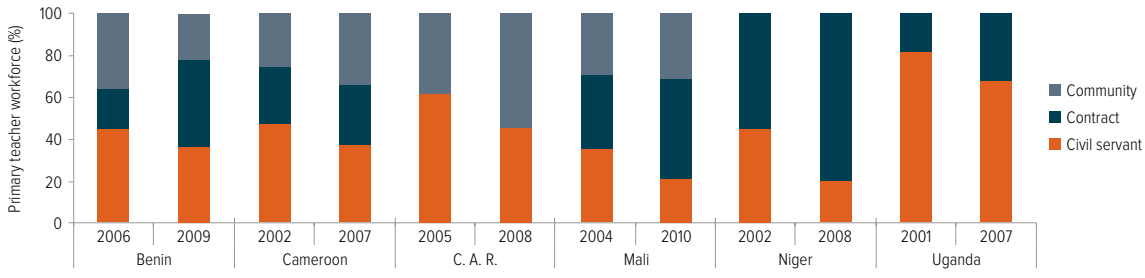
Contract teachers have poorer working conditions, job security and salaries

How can the status of teaching as a profession be improved?

When the teaching profession is of low status, this leads to difficulties in recruitment and retention. Improving the status of teaching is associated with better motivation and job satisfaction, which increases teacher retention and performance as well as student learning.

The 2013 Global Teacher Status Index illustrates stark differences across 21 countries. Teachers in China, Egypt, the Republic of Korea, Singapore and Turkey had higher status than those in countries of North America and Western Europe (except Greece). Less than 20% of people in Germany would encourage their child to become a teacher, compared with almost 40% in Turkey and 50% in China. Cultural issues explain some cross-country differences: teaching seems to

Figure 6.10: In the 2000s, the share of community and contract teachers increased
Distribution of teaching workforce by type of contract, selected sub-Saharan African countries, 2001–2006 and 2007–2010



Source: Pôle de Dakar, forthcoming.

5. Community teachers are contract teachers recruited by communities. Other contract teachers are recruited directly by the government. Both are paid less than civil servant teachers.

be treated with more reverence in some Asian societies (Dolton et al., 2013).

The status of teaching as a profession has declined (Keuren et al., 2014). Across 15 countries that participated in the Teaching and Learning International Survey, less than 33% of lower secondary teachers believed teaching to be a valued profession in society in 2013, a substantial decrease from 60% in 2008 (OECD, 2014l).

Salaries have a direct impact on the attractiveness and prestige of teaching. In several sub-Saharan African countries, including Central African Republic, Guinea-Bissau and Liberia, teachers do not earn enough to lift their families above the poverty line (IIEP-Pôle de Dakar database). Over the past three decades, already low teacher pay declined across sub-Saharan Africa, with the sharpest declines in Francophone Africa (Pôle de Dakar, 2009). When salaries are too low, teachers often need to take on additional work – including private tutoring (**Box 6.2**) – which can reduce their commitment to their regular teaching jobs and lead to absenteeism.

Teachers are paid less than people in professions requiring similar qualifications

Teachers are paid less than people in professions requiring similar qualifications. In 2012, primary school teachers in OECD countries earned 85% of the average for other full-time workers aged 25 to 64 with tertiary education, and lower secondary school teachers earned 88% (OECD, 2014d). In Peru, other professionals of similar qualification and background earned 50% more than pre-school and primary school teachers (Mizala and Ñopo, 2012). Teacher salaries were adversely affected by the global economic downturn in late 2008 – their average across OECD countries dropped by around 5% at all levels of education between 2009 and 2012 (OECD, 2014d).

Some countries have taken steps to raise the status of the teaching profession. In Indonesia, under the 2005 Teacher Law, teachers are required to acquire a four year degree and be certified. Teachers who obtain certification then receive a professional allowance that doubles their salaries. Between 2006 and 2011, the percentage of primary teachers with a four year degree increased by 176%. The fivefold increase in enrolment in university education programmes, from 200,000 in 2005 to 1 million in 2010, suggests that certification and higher income might have increased the attractiveness of the profession (Chang et al., 2014).

In high performing East Asian countries, induction programmes have been introduced to help new teachers cope with the practicalities of teaching, managing groups and adjusting to the school environment. Most programmes provide classroom release time[6] for new teachers to participate in induction activities and allow for the training of mentor teachers. In Singapore, new primary teachers attend formal induction

Box 6.2: The increase in private tutoring: What are the implications for policy-makers?

Private tutoring, long ingrained in East Asian countries, is now increasingly evident worldwide. In Azerbaijan and Georgia, over 80% of students report receiving some type of private tutoring in the last year of secondary school.

Private tutoring is generally associated with income-generation activities among teachers seeking to supplement low salaries. In Cambodia, private tutoring is a common second occupation among primary and lower secondary teachers, especially in urban areas. Earnings from private tutoring can equal around two-thirds of the monthly average base salary with basic allowances.

Supplementary tutoring may interfere with the dynamics of teaching and learning, lead to the distortion of curriculum delivery and exacerbate inequality in student achievement. In Cambodia and Egypt, teachers are reported to withhold curriculum content during the school day, forcing students to attend tutorials where omitted subjects are covered.

Once private tutoring becomes widespread, it is very difficult to reverse with punitive measures. However, measures can be taken. In Bhutan, teachers were prohibited from providing supplementary tuition. China introduced penalties for teachers doing paid tutoring. Governments can reduce the high-stakes nature of assessment systems, which plays a role in driving demand for tutoring. Alternatively, they can improve supervision mechanisms to ensure that teachers cover the curriculum as expected. However, few countries have good data on this topic, and governments should increase the availability of data sources to allow the situation to be assessed and addressed.

Sources: Benveniste et al. (2008); Bray and Kwo (2014); Bray and Lykins (2012); Dawson (2009); Hartman (2013); Silova (2010).

6. Classroom release time is when teachers are given time out of the classroom to do other work, such as planning, reporting and professional development, while another teacher covers their class.

programmes at both the national and the school levels and receive guidance from experienced mentors or senior teachers during their first two years (OECD, 2014l).

The success of teaching and learning is linked to available resources

The Dakar Framework identified the availability of textbooks and other instructional materials and facilities as key to improving education quality. This section focuses on three factors that support good quality teaching and learning: the supply, distribution and use of learning materials; a secure, accessible physical environment with appropriate facilities; and time spent in the classroom.

Widening the use of appropriate teaching and learning materials

Research on school effectiveness highlights the importance of appropriate textbooks in improving the quality of education. In developing countries with limited resources and constrained budgets, making textbooks available has been shown to be cost-effective (Boissiere, 2004; Scheerens, 2004).

Availability of textbooks remains severely limited

The pupil/textbook ratio is a significant measure of textbook availability. In 2012, Cameroon had only 1 reading textbook for every 12 grade 2 students and only 1 mathematics textbook per 14 students, with no progress over time (UIS database). In secondary education, textbooks are also scarce. In an analysis of 19 sub-Saharan African countries, only Botswana had adequate textbook provision, close to a 1:1 ratio for all subjects and all grades. In the other 18 countries, including Lesotho, Mozambique and Zambia, secondary textbooks, particular in non-core subjects, were in very short supply (World Bank, 2008c).

There is marked variation by location. In Liberia in 2013, the pupil/textbook ratio in Margibi county was nearly 7:1, more than double the national average (Liberia Ministry of Education, 2013). In South Sudan, the ratio ranged from 2:1 in Central Equatoria state to 11:1 in Unity state (South Sudan Ministry of General Education and Instruction, 2012).

In several countries, textbook shortages have even become more acute over the past decade. Between 2000 and 2007, Kenya, Malawi, Namibia and Zimbabwe registered an increase of at least 10 percentage points in the proportion of students who either had no textbook or had to share with at least two other pupils. Swaziland, by contrast, witnessed an increase from 74% to 99% in the percentage of students having sole use of a reading textbook, while accommodating an increase of around 20% in grade 6 enrolment rates (SACMEQ, 2010).

The availability of textbooks does not necessarily mean that they are used in the classroom

The availability of textbooks does not necessarily mean that they are used in the classroom. Textbooks may be kept in storage units for fear of damage or loss if they are turned over to students. In Malawi, it was reported that teachers were reluctant to let children use books because of lack of care or the risk that students would go absent or drop out (World Bank, 2012b). In Sierra Leone, uncertainty over future supplies has led to hoarding and non-use of textbooks (Sabarwal et al., 2013).

Textbook provision must be sustainable

A growing body of evidence confirming the critical role of textbooks in improving student achievement has influenced education policies. Swaziland has provided free textbooks to all primary school pupils since 2003 (SACMEQ, 2011). The international community plays an important role in supporting textbook development and distribution in many developing countries. In Ethiopia, a project funded by the World Bank and assisted by USAID sought to improve the pupil/textbook ratio by distributing 78 million textbooks to schools as well as textbooks and teacher guides in the seven mother tongues spoken by about 75% of primary students (World Bank, 2013c).

In the 2000s, to make books more widely available, countries liberalized textbook provision and moved away from centralized procurement and distribution systems. A few sub-Saharan African countries, including Malawi and Zimbabwe, still depend entirely on state agencies to produce textbooks, but such systems are increasingly being replaced by public–private partnerships, with a shift in most countries towards local private sector involvement and marked growth of local, African-owned publishers (Read and Bontoux, 2014).[7] Corruption and malpractice in textbook provision and distribution, which contribute to inefficiency, are being addressed by civil society organizations, as Chapter 8 shows for the Philippines.

Several countries, including Nicaragua, Thailand and Uganda, have adopted a child-friendly school model

Textbook content has been expanded and updated

Textbooks, the most accessible part of the curriculum, reflect broad educational emphases and changes in them over time (Heyneman, 2006). Thus, updating textbooks is important so they are aligned with the latest developments in education and subject areas.

Analyses of over 500 lower and upper secondary social science textbooks produced from 1970 to 2008 in around 70 countries show interrelated trends. Discussion of human rights increased: about 20% of the textbooks before 1995 devoted a section or more to human rights, rising to 44% between 1995 and 2008, suggesting the impact of UN Decade for Human Rights Education (Meyer et al., 2010). In addition, textbooks became more student-centred by including child-friendly pictures, illustrative figures, open-ended discussion questions and role-playing exercises, a shift associated with the focus on children's empowerment in global human rights treaties and organizations (Bromley et al., 2011a). Finally, under the influence of broad global cultural and environmental changes, the proportion of textbooks discussing environmental topics rose from 24% in 1970–1984 to 52% in 1995–2008 (Bromley et al., 2011b).

Textbooks increasingly discuss the fact that women, children, immigrants and refugees, indigenous peoples and other minorities experience social discrimination, marginalization or exclusion. In addition to portraying social inequality, textbooks depict groups as having rights. Yet, despite this general trend towards representing the rights of marginalized groups, there is much to be done, particularly in some regions such as the Arab States concerning issues related to sexual orientation and workers' rights (Terra and Bromley, 2012).

Fostering child-friendly school environments

One of the most important requirements for better quality in education is an improved learning environment, encompassing the physical school infrastructure and interaction between children and teachers. Many children go to school in conditions that are not conducive to learning – lacking potable water, handwashing facilities and safe, clean toilets. Children may also face discrimination, harassment and even violence.

In the past 15 years, several countries, including Nicaragua, Thailand and Uganda, have adopted a child-friendly school model that owes much to the work of United Nations bodies, especially UNICEF. The model, drawing its authority from the Convention on the Rights of the Child, emphasizes the school as a place that provides learning opportunities relevant to life and livelihood, in a healthy, safe environment that is inclusive and protective, is sensitive to gender equity and equality and involves the participation of students, families and communities (UNICEF, 2009a).

The model has offered an entry point for overcoming disadvantage and enhancing equity, as in the case of indigenous children in Belize and ethnic minorities in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (UNICEF, 2013c). In the Lao People's Democratic Republic, the Schools of Quality approach, adopted by at least 20% of primary schools by 2011, led to higher enrolment and retention and lower repetition rates, particularly in underserved rural areas (McLaughlin, 2011).

Evaluation of child-friendly schools based on site visits in Guyana, Nicaragua, Nigeria, the Philippines, South Africa and Thailand highlighted challenges to effective implementation of the model. Poor school infrastructure and lack of maintenance are major problems. In the Philippines, only 32% of schools were in good physical condition – without broken windows or

7. The UK Department for International Development has also been active in textbook sector decentralization in Kenya, Rwanda, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania (DFID, 2011).

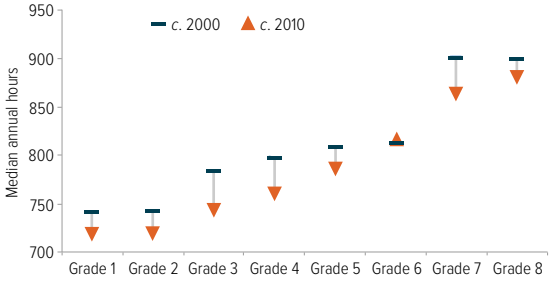
peeling paint. In Thailand, in 61% of schools, buildings and classrooms were not adequate to serve students with physical disabilities and in fewer than one-third of schools were teachers trained to work with students with learning and physical disabilities. Moreover, school heads and teachers found the shift to child-centred pedagogical approaches demanding due to a lack of training (UNICEF, 2009b).

Making every minute count in the classroom

While the Dakar Framework does not explicitly refer to it, instructional time has been shown to enhance learners' exposure to knowledge and result in significant learning gains. In Chile, where the government gradually lengthened the school day, high school students under a full school day regime had higher achievement levels in language and mathematics than their peers under a shorter regime (Bellei, 2009). In Ethiopia, a longer school day (changed in 2005 from four to six hours) improved writing and mathematics scores of 8-year-olds (though not in reading), with a larger impact for girls than boys – albeit leading to increased learning gaps between poorer and wealthier students (Orkin, 2013).

International agencies and reports have recommended that primary schools operate between 850 and 1,000 hours per year, or about 200 days, assuming a five-day school week (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991). In 2014 in OECD countries, intended instruction time for primary students averaged almost 800 hours per year and ranged from less than 700 hours in Hungary to around 1,000 hours in Chile and Portugal (OECD, 2014d).

Figure 6.11: Global annual intended instructional time has decreased since Dakar
Median yearly instructional time by grade, *c.* 2000 and 2010



Sources: (1) Median annual hours *c.* 2000: Benavot (2004). (2) Median annual hours *c.* 2010: *EFA Global Monitoring Report* team calculations (2014) based on UIS database and World Database on Education, 7th edition.

The time allocated for classroom instruction in primary and lower secondary education worldwide has slightly declined over the past decade and is below 1,000 hours, a new GMR team analysis shows (**Figure 6.11**). In the late 2000s, countries mandated an average of 720 hours of instructional time per year in the early primary grades, increasing in subsequent grades to reach about 900 hours in grade 8. Significant increases in instructional time tend to occur from grade 2 to 3, and again from grade 6 to 7, when the transition between primary and lower secondary education typically takes place.

Analysis of the most recent data available for 125 countries shows that in the early grades of primary education, the median number of instructional hours is higher in North America and Western Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, East Asia and the Pacific, and South and West Asia, and lower in the Arab States, Central Asia, Central and Eastern Europe and, to a lesser extent, sub-Saharan Africa. Wide regional differences in intended instructional time during the early grades are less evident in later grades. There is comparatively little regional variation by the lower secondary level (**Figure 6.12**).

Official intended instructional time is not the same as actual learning time

Teacher absenteeism takes a toll on student learning

In many countries, especially in schools in poor communities, schools days are lost due to late teacher postings, in-service teacher training, strikes and armed conflict (Benavot and Gad, 2004). In Brazil (Pernambuco state), Ghana, Morocco and Tunisia, instructional time losses ranged from 39% to 78% of the official intended instructional time (Abadzi, 2007).

Teacher absenteeism takes a toll on student learning by reducing the number of hours that children are actually taught. One-third of pupils in Argentina, Paraguay and the Philippines reported problems with teachers' late arrival, absenteeism and skipping class (UIS, 2008). Estimates for 21 countries for 2004–2011 indicate that the teacher absenteeism rate in primary education exceeded 20% in Ghana, India, Kenya, Senegal and Uganda (Patrinos, 2013).

The actual time available for instruction is further shaped by how teachers and students use time during class. In Ethiopia's Oromo region, classroom observations in lower primary

schools showed that around two-thirds of students were not actively engaged in learning (DeStefano and Elaheebocus, 2010). In Uganda, with primary teacher absenteeism of 27%, many teachers who were in the classroom were not actually teaching (Chaudhury et al., 2006).

Loss of instructional time and its inefficient use are indications of poor education quality, making private schooling more attractive to parents than government schools in many countries (see Chapter 2). Quality school time in which teachers and pupils are actively engaged in learning activities needs to be maximized by improving central and regional supervision, documenting the prevalence of ghost teachers, giving teachers and principals training and feedback on the use of time, and empowering communities to monitor teacher activities better.

A good quality education depends on not just inputs, but also on processes

Teaching and learning processes matter for learning

A good quality education depends on not just inputs, but also on processes. The Dakar Framework urged improvement of teaching and learning practices. There are four aspects involved: a curriculum that is relevant and inclusive; an effective and appropriate pedagogical approach; the use of children's mother tongues; and the use of appropriate technology.

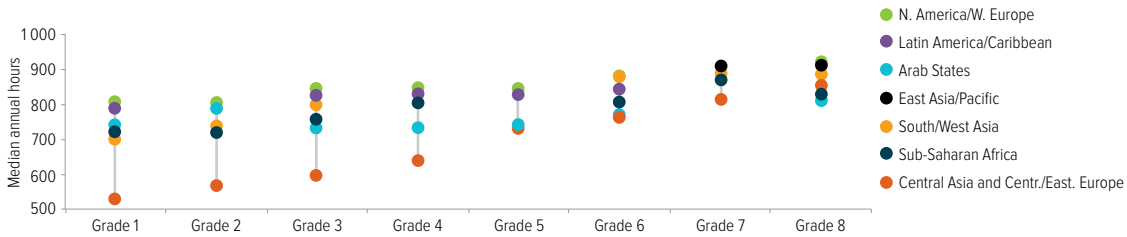
Developing a relevant curriculum

Curriculum reform has both global and local influences. The Dakar Framework influenced the New Curriculum Reform in China, launched in 2001 and implemented in 2005 (China Government, 2003); national EFA strategies included reform in sub-Saharan African countries, including Angola, Botswana, Burundi, Congo, Mauritius, Mozambique and South Africa (Georgescu et al., 2009). In Turkey, the primary education curriculum was revised in 2004 to respond to changes in the labour market; also, as a candidate for European Union membership, Turkey had a clear political motive in its adoption of EU standards and educational perspective (Altinyelken and Akkaymak, 2012).

Curriculum reform has also been legitimized by growing pressure to improve economic competitiveness. Consequently, there has been increasing convergence in the ways governments have reformed curricula (Fiala, 2007), often with less focus on content knowledge and more on skills and competencies (Rosenmund, 2007).

Another aspect of curriculum reform has been a drive to make content more relevant to the contemporary needs of individuals, communities and societies (Barrett et al., 2007). International discourse and priorities, especially regarding sustainable development and environmental protection, have been influential. Analysis of official timetables between the 1980s and 2000s indicates that environment-related topics, such as pollution, depletion of natural resources and the ozone layer, have formed a new subject area, particularly in primary grades. The prevalence of subjects related to computers and technology also substantially increased: they were found in 25% of timetables in primary grades and 40% in lower secondary grades (Benavot, 2004). A recent rapid assessment found that among 88 countries analysed, 51 emphasized technology use in their national curricula (Amadio, 2014).

Figure 6.12: Instructional time varies more in the early grades than in the upper grades
Median yearly instructional time, by region and grade



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations (2014) based on UIS database and World Database on Education, 7th edition.

Emphasizing skills and competencies

In the early 2000s, curriculum was content-driven, often criticized as too theoretical, out of date and overloaded. After Dakar, a shift in education policies towards the development of competencies and skills was pervasive (Westbrook et al., 2013). In China, where science education traditionally focused on transmitting and acquiring knowledge, the 2001 curriculum required students to develop inquiry, creativity, problem solving, critical thinking and the ability to apply science to real-life situations (Guo et al., 2013). In Turkey, the 2004 curriculum adopted a competency-based approach instead of the traditional knowledge-based curriculum, emphasizing skills such as communication, inquiry, entrepreneurship and the use of information technology (Altinyelken and Akkaymak, 2012).

The move towards competency-based curricula generally occurred in lower primary grades, with the secondary level moving to more structured learning. In Uganda's 2007 thematic curriculum, knowledge and competencies were organized around themes for the lower three grades while a subject-based curriculum was adopted in upper grades (NCDC, 2006).

Countries diversified secondary education curricula to make them more relevant to the world of work (see Chapter 3). Botswana, Ghana and South Africa reformed their education systems to offer a core lower secondary curriculum to all learners (Afeti et al., 2008; World Bank, 2008b), allowing schools to focus on core skills, including literacy and numeracy, while offering extracurricular activities to meet students' wider needs and interests.

At the upper secondary level, many developing countries moved quickly to make technical and vocational subjects a key curriculum component. Colombia revised its secondary school curriculum so rural youth could gain knowledge in agriculture, animal husbandry and other rural activities through traditional subjects, such as mathematics and sciences, in ways that made sense to them (IFAD, 2010).

Some countries decentralized curriculum design to enable inclusion of activities and knowledge seen as useful and appropriate to the lives of particular groups of children. In 2004, Mozambique implemented a new basic education curriculum adjusted to local needs, with 20% of the content designed by schools and communities (Alderuccio, 2010; Chachuaio and Dhorsan, 2008). The Plurinational State of Bolivia introduced a new national (60%), regional (30%) and local (10–20%) curriculum in 2010 that aimed to fully include indigenous people in the education system and improve their educational outcomes, and where regional and local curriculum cater to specific regional and local contexts including indigenous culture (Altinyelken, 2015).

Curriculum reform was not always successful in meeting its goals

Implementation of curriculum reform varied widely around the world (Anderson-Levitt, 2003). It was influenced by resources, including the availability of textbooks and well-trained teachers, and the support of teachers. In several countries, curriculum implementation was expected to automatically follow the processes of curriculum design and writing (Georgescu et al., 2009). Serious setbacks are encountered if curriculum reform contradicts existing policy. In Turkey, examination practices were not aligned with curriculum objectives, entrenching the perception that schooling was not enough to guarantee educational success and leading to increased demand for private tutoring (Altinyelken, 2013).

In some curriculum reforms, skills or competencies were considered to be in opposition to knowledge. In China, while the previous curriculum was felt to be overloaded with facts and subjects, the revised one was criticized as too light, omitting significant information. As a result, teachers supplemented it with information from other sources, increasing their workload (Dello-Iacovo, 2009). In rural secondary schools in Peru, teachers understood a new emphasis on outcomes to indicate that content was no longer important, leading to students missing out on key concepts (Balarin and Benavides, 2010).

In many cases, teachers were not involved in curriculum planning, leaving them disempowered by a top-down process. They lacked an understanding of the reforms'

Implementation of curriculum reform was influenced by the availability of textbooks and well-trained teachers, and the support of teachers

Teaching strategies are central in improving education quality

intentions, and the reforms lacked grounding in classroom reality (Al-Daami and Wallace, 2007). In Ghana, Kenya, Mali, Senegal, Uganda and the United Republic of Tanzania, teachers often did not understand the objectives of the curricula, partly due to a mismatch with teacher training and a lack of support mechanisms in the classroom (Pryor et al., 2012).

Adopting effective teaching strategies

Teaching strategies are increasingly recognized as central in improving education quality. A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses of pedagogy in high income countries identified interactive classroom strategies, such as reciprocal teaching, peer tutoring, student verbalization and feedback, as the factors most likely to help children learn (Hattie, 2012). A systematic review of 489 studies and an in-depth study of 54 empirical studies in low and middle income countries highlighted various effective pedagogic strategies: group and pair work, informative feedback, student questioning, use of local languages, the planning and varying of lesson sequences and use of a range of learning materials (Westbrook et al., 2013).

Specific pedagogic practices were linked with positive student achievement. In rural India, child-friendly practices, such as asking questions, using local examples to explain lessons and working in small groups, were positively correlated with test scores in standards 2 and 4 (Bhattacharjea et al., 2011). In Pakistan, a school-based survey in Lahore district of Punjab province in 2002/03 found that lesson planning and interactive teaching increased language and mathematics achievement, especially in private schools (Aslam and Kingdon, 2011).

Moving towards a learner-centred pedagogy

In many developing countries, teaching practices follow a rigid chalk-and-talk, teacher-dominated, lecture-driven and rote-learning pedagogy, as noted in classroom observations in Bangladesh (World Bank, 2013a), Lesotho (Moloi et al., 2008), Myanmar (Lall, 2011) and Nigeria (Hardman et al., 2008). Such pedagogy places students in a passive role, limiting their activity to memorizing facts and reciting them to the teacher.

The past decade has seen a move away from teacher-dominated instructional practices to learner-centred pedagogy.[8] This approach promotes critical thinking, with teachers expected to help students actively construct knowledge through activities, group work and reflection. It emerged partly from the view, shared by some international organizations and national policy-makers, that such an approach would help promote democracy, civic engagement and economic development – for example, in Botswana (Tabulawa, 2003), Egypt (Ginsburg and Megahed, 2008), Guatemala (De Baessa et al., 2002), India (Sriprakash, 2010) and Namibia (O'Sullivan, 2004).

Challenges in effective implementation in classrooms

A range of issues makes implementation of learner-centred pedagogy in classrooms difficult and challenging. A review of 72 articles published between 1981 and 2010 on learner-centred pedagogy identified challenges related to a lack of supportive environment, teacher training and preparation, textbooks, teaching materials, class size and furniture (Schweisfurth, 2011).

In Turkey, in primary schools in Ankara province, a lack of resources in classes of over 30 students impeded implementation (Altinyelken, 2011). In Uganda, primary school teachers in Kampala changed classroom layouts in response to promotion of learner-centred pedagogy in the new curriculum, but most found it difficult to place students in groups in overcrowded classrooms or to carry out meaningful pair or group activities (Altinyelken, 2010).

The move towards learner-centred pedagogy has significant implications for initial teacher education and ongoing training (see **Box 6.3**). Without sustained and coherent support, teachers largely teach the way they were taught. In Central Asia,[9] many teachers were unprepared or ill-prepared to overcome the challenges

8. Among countries adopting such pedagogical approaches were Cambodia and China in East Asia and the Pacific; the Russian Federation in Central and Eastern Europe; Botswana, Ethiopia, Guinea, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa and the United Republic of Tanzania in sub-Saharan Africa; Egypt and Jordan in the Arab States; and Brazil, El Salvador, Guatemala and Nicaragua in Latin America and the Caribbean (Altinyelken, 2015).

9. The study covered Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan.

of learner-centred pedagogy (Chapman et al., 2005).

Another challenge in implementation is the unintended consequences of high-stakes examinations: their 'backwash effect'[10] (Altinyelken, 2015). Where national examination results determine pupils' life chances and schools' and teachers' reputations, and examinations test learners' ability to recall or recognize factual knowledge, this drives teacher practice and parental and pupil expectations. Formative assessments need to be supplemented by other forms of evaluations that recognize lessons from learner-centred pedagogy (Akyeampong et al., 2006).

In Chinese secondary schools, teachers perceived examination preparation to be their primary responsibility; few were willing to experiment with new approaches (Fang and Clarke, 2014). In Jordan, teachers received in-service training to promote critical thinking and problem solving by encouraging students' active participation. Yet only limited change occurred, partly because the Tawjihi, the secondary school graduation examination on which admission to university depends, still emphasized rote learning (Dakkak, 2011; World Bank, 2011a).

Formative, "high-stakes" assessments need to be supplemented by other forms of learner-centred evaluations

Cultural factors provide another explanation for failure to implement learner-centred approaches. In sub-Saharan African countries, including Ethiopia and Namibia, the basic tenets of learner-centred pedagogy may conflict with local understanding of authority structures, obedience and teacher–student relationships (O'Sullivan, 2004; Serbessa, 2006). In East Asian countries, teacher-dominated pedagogy prevails, as it is considered compatible with societies that value respect for authority (Nguyen et al., 2006).

Yet by adapting new teaching strategies to local contexts, teachers can create a learner-centred environment even in adverse circumstances. In the United Republic of Tanzania, primary school teachers adapted pedagogy to the needs of various groups by using a mix of traditional and reform-oriented practices, even in large classes (Barrett, 2007).

A range of teaching practices exists, and planners and policy-makers should be cautious about setting up a rigid dichotomy between teacher-centred and learner-centred pedagogy, since teachers rarely use one approach to the exclusion of the other. Teachers vary their practices throughout their careers as well as in daily work, where a single lesson may include both direct, teacher-led instruction and more learner-centred approaches (Vavrus et al., 2011).

Box 6.3: Flexible school-based teacher training helped improve pedagogical practices in Kenya

Kenya has made great strides in the number of children entering and completing primary school while also improving learning outcomes. This progress may have been facilitated by programmes helping teachers adopt effective pedagogic approaches.

A school-based development programme ran from 2001–2006 for 47,000 primary school teachers in English, mathematics and science, combining six months of self-study, based on distance-learning materials, with school-based professional development. Three key resource teachers from every school were trained to lead professional development in their subject. Head teachers received training materials to support the key resource teachers in providing training.

Follow-up evaluations indicated positive changes in classroom interactions. Lesson observations in grades 3 and 6 showed that 34% of teachers in 2005 used paired and group work, compared with 3% in 1999. Also, a greater range of arrangements was used to alter classroom layouts to meet the requirements of various kinds of learning tasks.

This experience shows that field-based models, made up of school-based training supported by distance learning materials, school clusters and follow-up in the classroom, can help close the gap between theory and practice and raise the quality of teaching practices.

Sources: Hardman et al. (2009); Hardman (2015); UNESCO (2014c).

Shifting towards a multilingual language policy

Most countries in the world are bilingual or multilingual. Language is of considerable importance for the quality of teaching and learning, in terms of both the language of instruction and languages taught in school. But language policy in education is intimately related to history and relationships of power. Colonization left a deep imprint. In sub-Saharan Africa,

10. The term describes the way in which tests influence the way students are taught.

there has been a general trend towards more widespread use of local languages. At the time of independence, only 20 out of 47 African countries used local languages in primary education, whereas 38 now do so, influenced by advocacy from local actors (Albaugh, 2007).

In most sub-Saharan African countries, including Botswana, Mozambique and Swaziland, the early-exit transitional model was most common. This model uses the local language as the medium of instruction in the first two or three years of primary education to prepare for the introduction of a European or other official language. Ethiopia is an exception: learners' mother tongues are to be used for literacy and learning to the end of grade 8, with the teaching of Amharic and English as subjects (Brylinski & Koseleci, 2015).

Guatemala, Paraguay and Peru, have intercultural bilingual education policies that aim to integrate indigenous languages into national education

Wider use of local languages is also apparent in much of Southeast Asia. Cambodia, Malaysia and Thailand are gradually moving towards mother-tongue-based bilingual education. In Latin America, most countries, including Guatemala, Paraguay and Peru, have intercultural bilingual education policies that aim to integrate indigenous languages into national education by allowing children to learn in their mother tongue before moving on to Spanish (Brylinski & Koseleci, 2015).

Language policy in education raises complex issues and potential tensions between group identity, on the one hand, and social and economic aspirations on the other. Attempts to use local languages in education often meet stiff resistance from parents and educators, who view local languages as offering insufficient opportunity for educational advancement and of little use to gain employment (Altinyelken, 2015).

In India, parents express a strong preference for their children to go to private schools to learn in English, seen as a route to better job and life opportunities (Nambissan, 2012). In Nigeria, the synthetic phonics approach allows children to master their mother tongue and English at the same time, so parents, children and teachers do not have to choose between them (Cooke, 2014). In Pakistan, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa province decided from April 2014 to make English the medium of instruction to align with private education offerings. However, research by ASER Pakistan (2012) showed that only 16% of parents preferred English over Urdu (39%) or Pashto (45%). Teachers and students also complained about the challenges imposed by the requirement to teach in English (Rahim, 2014).

The language of instruction matters for education quality

Language can be a factor of disadvantage for children marginalized by instruction in a language they do not understand. The degree of alignment between home and school language has a critical bearing on learning opportunities. In Congo, almost 80% of grade 5 students who speak the test language at home achieve minimum learning in reading, but 7 out of 10 students speak another language and their achievement rate is 60% (Altinok, 2013b).

Language often interacts with culture and poverty to increase the risk of being left behind. Among poor rural grade 6 students in Guatemala who speak a minority (usually indigenous) language at home, only 47% reach the minimum achievement level in mathematics, but 88% of rich urban students speaking Spanish reach that level (Altinok, 2013b).

Disadvantage associated with language and poverty continues into secondary school. New analysis by the GMR team shows that in Turkey, 15-year-olds speaking a non-Turkish language, predominantly Kurdish, were among the lowest performers in the PISA 2012 assessment: around 50% of poor non-Turkish speakers achieved minimum learning benchmarks in reading, against the national average of 80%.[11]

A strong body of evidence suggests that children's participation in well-designed multilingual programmes can improve learning in their mother tongue, as well as in a more widely used national or regional language, in subjects across the curriculum. In Ethiopia, grade 8 pupils learning in their mother tongue performed better in mathematics, biology, chemistry and physics than pupils in English-only schooling (Heugh et al., 2007). The benefits of bilingual programmes extend beyond

11. For details of this and other country examples, see the World Inequality Database on Education, www.education-inequalities.org.

cognitive skills to enhanced self-confidence and self-esteem. In Burkina Faso, mother tongue instruction facilitated the use of effective teaching practices in the classroom and encouraged learners to be active and become involved with the subject matter (Nikiema, 2011).

Six to eight years of education in a language are necessary to develop the level of literacy and verbal proficiency required for academic achievement. Country studies suggest that multilingual education needs to be sustained over this length of time to sustain improved learning for children and reduce learning gaps. In Cameroon, early exit from a mother-tongue environment prevented pupils from sustaining learning gains (Walter and Chuo, 2012).

Despite evidence on the benefits of multilingual education, its effective implementation is complex and challenging. Among the biggest obstacles to using local languages in the classroom are a lack of textbooks and a shortage of trained teachers using the languages. The cost of addressing these needs to be weighed against the social, political and economic cost of low levels of learning achievement from continued monolingual policies (Aikman, 2015).

Deploying technology to support learning

Integrating technology-rich learning environments into education systems is one of the newest challenges policy-makers have faced since Dakar. Older technology continues to play an important role in improving learning and narrowing gaps in achievement for children in isolated or underserved settings, while the expansion of information and communication technology (ICT) has promoted the use of pedagogical innovations.

Older technology remains cost-effective

Radio programming is an enduring and successful example of technology use, in particular for children in isolated or underserved settings. Since the 1970s, interactive radio instruction has been used to enrich teaching processes by introducing interactive learning activities, such as song, movement and role playing (Ho and Thukral, 2009).

Over the past decade, a resurgence of interactive radio instruction has helped counteract poor resources, inadequate teacher training and low levels of learner achievement. A review of 15 projects since the early 2000s shows they improved learning outcomes in a range of developing countries, in particular for early grade pupils in hard-to-reach communities and schools in fragile states (Ho and Thukral, 2009). The South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction Project reached over 473,000 pupils in grades 1 to 4 between 2006 and 2010 with half-hour lessons linked to the national curriculum, and provided 55,000 out-of-school adolescents with non-formal accelerated learning on the primary school curriculum (Leigh and Epstein, 2012).

Integrating ICT into education systems to improve learning

Education policies regarding ICT in the early 2000s have called for establishing computer laboratories in schools, acquiring equipment and networks and providing teacher training and support. In high income countries, this trend is reflected in the improving ratio of students to computers. Between 2000 and 2009, the learner/computer ratio[12] in schools attended by 15-year-olds dropped significantly in most OECD countries, including Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Japan and Norway (OECD, 2011b).

In developing countries, computer resources remain greatly overstretched, especially in primary schools. According to data from the UIS database, in Egypt, Nepal and the Philippines, over 100 learners share a single computer at the primary level. Wide disparities exist within countries (UIS database, 2014). In China, the primary learner/computer ratio in rural areas is 29:1, twice that in urban areas (14:1) (Zeng et al., 2012).

Radio is an enduring and successful example of technology use, in particular for children in isolated settings

In Latin America and the Caribbean, various programmes provide inexpensive computers to poor children. Uruguay has achieved a universal 1:1 learner/computer ratio: 362,000 students and 18,000 teachers in public schools had their own portable computer by 2009; all primary teachers received training and had access to an

12. The learner/computer ratio is the mean number of learners sharing a single computer available for pedagogical use in a national aggregate education system.

educational portal with resources (Hinostroza et al., 2011). However, the program has not been found to significantly improve mathematics and reading scores (de Melo et al., 2014).

Mixed evidence on the use of ICT to improve education quality

ICT has the potential to enhance teaching and learning in many ways – such as presentation, demonstration, drill and practice, interaction and collaboration – that are more interactive and participatory than traditional modes (Haddad and Draxler, 2002). But despite enthusiasm, studies have been equivocal as to the impact of its increasing availability on learning.

In the United States, greater ICT availability had no impact on test scores in 15 California schools (Fairlie and Robinson, 2013). In Brazil, the introduction of computer laboratories had a negative impact on the acquisition of mathematics and reading skills in grade 8, though teachers' use of internet to support classroom teaching led to improved test scores, especially in mathematics (Sprietsma, 2012). In Peru, the One Laptop per Child programme had no impact on test scores in mathematics and language, but improved verbal fluency, abstract reasoning and processing speed (Cristia et al., 2012).

Effective deployment and use of technology in schools can sometimes help balance unequal access to ICT at home and can narrow educational and social gaps. A small-scale one-to-one laptop programme in low income areas of Tel Aviv provided guided and interactive learning activities aligned with the national curriculum. Grade 5 pupils studying in a technology-rich learning environment had significantly higher learning gains in mathematics, Hebrew and English than pupils taught in a traditional setting (Rosen and Manny-Ikan, 2011).

Mobile phones arguably have the greatest potential for ICT-based learning

In migrant schools in suburban areas of Beijing, One Laptop per Child had a positive impact on computer skills and mathematics scores of grade 3 students, especially for those with no or little previous experience with computers. Children were trained to use remedial tutoring software and given the opportunity to practise using it with their parents at their side (Mo et al., 2013).

Availability of ICT infrastructure remains a crucial consideration

Effective integration of ICT into education systems is complex, relating to infrastructure, teacher competencies, pedagogy, institutional readiness, curriculum and sustained financial resources. Many countries cannot support widespread computer-assisted learning, simply because schools lack internet access or, in some cases, electricity supply. In Nepal, only 6% of primary schools and 24% of secondary schools have electricity (UIS, 2014a).

ICT effectiveness depends on trained teachers who can use it to maximize teaching and learning. In Oman, only 6% of teachers are trained to teach basic computer skills or computing; in Egypt the share is 2% (UIS, 2013a).

A lack of links to national curriculum is also an obstacle. The Enlaces programme in Chile equipped public primary and secondary schools with computers, local networks, and educational and productivity software, and provided ongoing technical and pedagogical support. However, ICT was not sufficiently well integrated into the curriculum, with teachers failing to use it in everyday teaching to encourage effective problem-solving skills in students (Sanchez and Salinas, 2008).

Mobile learning: A promising path?

The development of mobile phones, wireless technology and portable audio players has opened up a huge array of possibilities for acquiring literacy and numeracy skills. Mobile phones arguably have the greatest potential for ICT-based learning, since they do not require the same level of infrastructure as

computers, networks are more widely available and many devices have internet access and video capabilities.

The power to extend educational experiences beyond classrooms and enable non-formal and informal learning is a key attribute of mobile learning (see Chapter 3). Mobile learning initiatives have the potential to become a resource for teachers and students in Latin America and the Caribbean (Lugo and Schurmann, 2012) and in the Arab States and sub-Saharan Africa (Isaacs, 2012).

In the United Republic of Tanzania, the BridgeIT programme allows teachers to download videos on subjects such as science and mathematics on a mobile phone and transfer them to a television in the classroom. The programme led to improvement in grade 5 students' mathematics and science scores and in classroom interaction, with students asking more questions and working together (Enge, 2011).

The MoMath Project in South Africa, started in 2007, uses mobile phones to give grade 10 students access to mathematics content and support. The content, aligned with the national curriculum, is freely available to participating learners and teachers who received appropriate training. By the end of 2011, the project had reached 25,000 learners, 500 teachers and 172 schools in four provinces (Isaacs, 2012). It led to a 14% increase in mathematics skills, with a majority of learners using the application even over holidays and weekends (McCormack, 2010).

Despite insufficiently rigorous monitoring and evaluation, key principles to enhance teaching and learning through mobile learning initiatives have been identified, such as designing mobile applications with the clear purpose of teaching and learning, ensuring equality of access to all learners, involving teachers from design to implementation and review, considering sustainability, ensuring maintenance and financing at the project's beginning, and involving all stakeholders (Unwin, 2015).

The decentralization of education governance

The decentralization of education governance has become more common since 2000. This principle was reflected nowhere more clearly than in the Dakar Framework, which called for a move from highly centralized, standardized and command-driven forms of management to more decentralized and participatory decision-making, implementation and monitoring at lower levels of accountability. It was hoped that improving education governance would, in turn, improve equality of education in general.

Attempts to decentralize education were motivated by the perceived failure of central governments to provide high quality education

Reforms in education governance before the 2000s were often part of wider decentralization. The many factors underlying decentralization agendas included reducing national budgets by transferring costs to regional and local governments, dismantling large and costly bureaucracies, satisfying political demands for democratization, giving citizens more voice in shaping public resource allocation and defusing ethnic and regional tensions by allowing greater autonomy (Litvack et al., 1998).

International development agencies were influential in pushing for decentralization. Supported by internationally accepted views about the desirability of decentralization, national policy-makers designed and undertook reform with substantial financial and technical support from international agencies.

Attempts to decentralize authority and responsibility in education were also motivated by the perceived failure of central governments to provide high quality education. Over the past few decades, the education sector has been fertile ground for decentralization. Most countries have transferred responsibility away from central government (UNESCO, 2009a). The transfer has taken various forms, including assigning tasks to lower levels within ministries, devolving decision-making to elected representatives at subnational levels and investing authority and responsibility in schools and communities.

However, education systems may limit this process. In primary education, most central governments transfer authority in some areas but continue to play a significant role in others (UNESCO, 2009a). In Cambodia, China, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand, national or subnational governments set lower secondary curriculum content, instructional time and teacher salaries, and allocate resources to schools, but leave the choice of teaching methods and support activities for students to schools (King and Cordeiro Guerra, 2005).

Furthermore, decentralization is a highly political process. In Nepal, its implementation was difficult: challenges included schools lacking the necessary financial and technical capacity, parents and communities feeling disempowered and accountability being weak. In China, decentralization contributed to inequity by generating major geographical and income-based disparity in per-student spending (UNESCO, 2009a).

Major decentralization trends following Dakar

Three interrelated decentralization trends have been identified since Dakar (Channa, 2014). First, even in countries that undertook major decentralization in the 1990s, reforms are still being consolidated and strengthened. Several countries are addressing challenges such as misaligned incentives, lack of capacity and training, and weak or stalled implementation. In Brazil and in India's Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka states, new laws were passed to enforce local fiscal responsibility. The Russian Federation moved to formula-based grants to improve transparency and reduce political interference.

In Argentina, test scores increased after decentralization, but only in schools in better-off municipalities

Second, school-based management, the furthest-reaching form of decentralization, has been a popular strategy, implemented in diverse contexts and forms. School-based management typically involves establishing a school committee or council – including the principal, teachers, parents, local leaders and other community members – that is usually tasked with monitoring school performance and providing oversight on resource use. Less frequently, it is granted authority over teacher recruitment, curriculum and school budget allocation. These programmes have often extended broader decentralization interventions. Mexico's decentralization in 1992 was followed by its biggest school-based management programme, Programa Escuela de Calidad, in 2001 (Skoufias and Shapiro, 2006). In the Philippines, the Big Bang reform in the 1990s was supplemented with school-based management programmes in the early 2000s (Channa, 2014).

Finally, an increasing number of decentralization initiatives have been in sub-Saharan African countries, including Benin, Chad and Kenya. In Congo and Sierra Leone, the end of civil wars in the early 2000s prompted renewed interest in decentralization. In Rwanda, stability after the 1994 genocide allowed the country to embark on decentralization in the 2000s. Ethiopia and the United Republic of Tanzania deepened governance reforms and launched initiatives to strengthen capacity in existing programmes (Channa, 2014).

Mixed record on equitable learning

Decentralization is seen as a strategy to improve quality by bringing decision-making closer to local communities and strengthening accountability mechanisms between schools and the parents and children they serve. While the promised benefits were enticing, implementation has been uneven. A few isolated attempts to identify the impact of reforms that shift power or resources to lower tiers of government have been made, but it is a complex task.[13]

In Argentina, Spanish and mathematics scores had increased significantly at the secondary level after five years of decentralized administration, but only in schools in better-off municipalities, leading to increased inequality (Galiani et al., 2008). In the Russian Federation, 1994 reforms passed more responsibility and autonomy to local governments and gave them some control over health and education spending. Fiscal decentralization did not increase secondary education resources or utilities provision, but led to significantly better average regional scores on national examinations in language and mathematics, a result attributed to strengthened

13. When a reform is implemented everywhere simultaneously, there is no possibility of adopting a rigorous evaluation research design.

accountability and local financial incentives (Freinkman and Plekhanov, 2010).

There is better information on the relationship between school-based management and learning outcomes (Bruns et al. 2012; Channa and Faguet, 2012), though only a handful of studies had a randomized design to distinguish the impact on learning outcomes from other factors. In Kenya, well-trained and empowered school committees, consisting of teachers and parents and tasked specifically with managing teachers, were found to improve primary school students' language and mathematics scores in smaller classes (Duflo et al., 2012). In the Gambia, the Whole School Development programme significantly reduced student and teacher absenteeism but improved test scores only in areas with high adult literacy rates (Blimpo and Evans, 2011).

Enabling environments are important

Devolving authority to schools shifts decision-making and other responsibility to parents, teachers and principals. Yet upper levels of government still have a role in ensuring positive results. They need to focus their efforts on schools with disadvantaged learners to strengthen the schools' institutional and technical capacity and ensure that teachers use their increased autonomy effectively. They also need to sustain support for the process, recognizing that while legislation may instantly alter the distribution of responsibility, decentralization is a long, evolutionary process; in the years following, adjustments in design and participation are common and needed. Governments can learn by doing.

They also need to support effective supervision. School autonomy requires a shift in the role of school supervision from exercising administrative control to demanding accountability and offering support (De Grauwe, 2007). Few developing countries have supervision services that are adequate for the task. In Benin, Guinea, Mali and Senegal, supervisors lack vehicles and funds for travel, while the number of teachers per officer has grown (De Grauwe and Lugaz, 2007). In South Asia, most supervisors are responsible for a high number of schools. Opportunities to give in-depth pedagogical support to teachers to improve teaching and learning, or to engage in effective evaluation, are few (World Bank, 2010d).

At the school level, various conditions influence efficiency, though outcomes invariably depend on local factors. The effectiveness of decentralization reforms is closely linked to parental and community involvement. The community exercises influence through involvement in school committees. However, in Indonesia and Pakistan many participatory mechanisms remained inactive several years after implementation (Channa, 2014).

Schools must have sufficient financial and human resources to take on new responsibilities. Factors such as literacy levels in the community, the capability of local government officials and the level of human development in a region all influence whether communities can benefit from decentralization. The need for effective school leadership and managerial skills can increase when schools are given greater autonomy.

But in many countries, the only requirements for becoming a head teacher are a teaching qualification and teaching experience. Individuals may have teaching experience but not the knowledge and skills to run schools. The OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) found, on average, that nearly two-thirds of principals' time is spent on administration, leadership, curriculum and teaching (OECD, 2014l). But in resource-limited education systems where professional development opportunities are lacking, it is difficult to build capacity for effective school leadership systematically and sustainably (Vaillant, 2014).

In many countries, the only requirements for becoming a head teacher are a teaching qualification and teaching experience

There are exceptions. Chile adopted a new national leadership standard in 2005, and defined new leadership functions. South Africa's Advanced Certificate in Education School Management and Leadership programme, launched in 2007, is an example of sound and systematic training. The United Republic of Tanzania has established the Agency for the Development of Educational Management (Vaillant, 2014).

Implications of private provision for education quality

Private schooling has proliferated since Dakar. In both developed countries such as Sweden and middle income countries such as Chile, governments proactively opened up education provision and financing to for-profit and other private actors (Demsteader, 2013; Hsieh and Urquiola, 2006; McEwan and Carnoy, 2000; Orange, 2011). Government regulation of private school operations is often minimal. A wide range of private schools, catering for various income groups, has emerged. As Chapter 2 noted, there has been substantial expansion of low cost private schools, often hidden from government view, in developing countries including Ghana, India, Kenya, Nigeria and Pakistan.

Evidence on the impact of private schools on education quality is mixed

Students in private schools often perform better than those in public schools on learning assessments. In developing country analysis that compares low cost private schools to government schools, students in private schools tend to outperform public school students in India (French and Kingdon, 2010; Tooley et al., 2010) and Kenya (Dixon et al., 2013; Ngware et al., 2013). This private–public gap is likely attributable to the fact that students from wealthier and more advantaged backgrounds typically attend private schools.

In Chile, New Zealand, Sweden and the United States, substantial freedom to choose schools often leads to increased inequality

In Chile, where it was possible to compare public and private school children of similar backgrounds, the private school advantage was less pronounced (Chudgar and Quin, 2012; McEwan, 2001). Similarly, in the United States, recent evidence suggests a public school advantage once the demographic mix is disentangled from the dimension of school quality (Lubienski and Lubienski, 2013). By contrast, in the Republic of Korea, where students are randomly assigned to private and public high schools, private school students appear to outperform public school students, an outcome attributed to the greater autonomy and higher accountability of private schools (Hahn et al., 2014).

There is almost no evidence that private schools offer innovative ways to improve the quality of education. There was little difference in curricula in private schools in Ghana and Nigeria (Rolleston and Adefeso-Olateju, 2014) and there was a lack of innovative teaching methods in private schools in Kenya (Ngware et al., 2013). In fact, public schools may have more scope to be innovative with the curriculum while private schools are more wedded to parent demands for good examination results (Härmä, 2015).

By contrast, there is growing evidence of higher average efforts by teachers and responsiveness by parents in private schools in developing countries, even if they are more likely to hire teachers who lack teacher training and experience higher teacher turnover. Comparisons between public and private schools in some developing countries suggest private schools have less teacher absenteeism (Andrabi et al., 2008; Chaudhury et al., 2006), cater more to parent demands and have lower pupil/teacher ratios (Akaguri, 2014; Tooley et al., 2008). However, conditions in private schools vary substantially. Cheaper private schools often pay teachers a fraction of government teacher salaries (Andrabi et al., 2008; Fennell, 2013), and the schools that charge the lowest fees in many developing countries tend to have poor infrastructure (Härmä, 2015).

Parents' decisions to select private schools are based not just on quality, but also on the goal of providing children with more beneficial peer networks (Elacqua et al., 2006; Nechyba, 2009). In Chile, New Zealand, Sweden and the United States, substantial freedom to choose schools often leads to increased inequality. This sorting can have a direct impact on quality, as the wealthier and higher ability students and the better networked schools end up with the most benefits, and public schools increasingly serve disadvantaged populations (Fiske and Ladd, 2000; Hsieh and Urquiola, 2006).

The longer-term effect of such choices is that decades of unregulated private sector growth can lead to situations where public schools are stigmatized. The implication, which has not been sufficiently recognized, is that public school reform efforts in curriculum, teaching or management may not be enough to attract a broader demographic of students without efforts to improve perceptions of public schooling as well.

Conclusion

The six goals adopted at the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000 implicitly or explicitly integrate the dimension of quality. Goal 6 in particular commits countries to improve all aspects of education quality. Although much debate has surrounded attempts to define good quality education, the issue has become the focus of discussion worldwide by stakeholders: national governments, international partners, school authorities and parents.

Discussions, reports and cross-national assessments of education quality have proliferated, reflecting a relatively recent and marked emphasis on accountability and system monitoring. Moreover, a growing number of countries are conducting national assessments to measure learning achievement.

But good quality education is more than learning outcomes as measured by international, regional and national assessments. The evidence reviewed in this chapter highlights various dimensions of education quality: more and better trained teachers, improved learning materials available to all learners, school time in which teachers and pupils are actively engaged in learning activities, inclusive and relevant curricula, pedagogical renewal, more welcoming learning environments and better school governance.

While governments committed to improving education quality face difficult choices, policies to address this challenge are not beyond the reach of the most resource-constrained countries. Better education quality, responsive to the diverse needs and circumstances of all learners, has been achieved in very diverse political contexts and in societies with greatly varying degrees of wealth.

Credit: Philippe Body

CHAPTER 7

Projections, EFA Development Index and countries with incomplete or missing data

Examining trends over time provides a better assessment than measuring achievements at one fixed point. This chapter compares education progress between the periods before and after Dakar. It concludes that even if the EFA movement did not achieve the six Dakar goals, it helped bring the world closer to doing so. Additional research shows this is also true for countries with incomplete or missing data, which this GMR has made special efforts to include by examining alternative data sources.

Chapter 7 Projections, EFA Development Index and countries with incomplete or missing data

What is the likelihood that countries will achieve EFA goals?

With the 2015 deadline reached, it is now possible to assess not only progress towards Education for All since the World Education Forum in Dakar in 2000, but also which countries have achieved EFA goals. Analyses have been conducted for three of the six goals.[1] Goal 1 did not have a clear target; a proxy is used instead. Two goals had explicit quantitative targets: goal 2 (universal primary education) and goal 5 (elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education).

Projections are extrapolated from observed trends of relevant indicators for each country between 1999 and 2012. Where data permitted, an additional set of projections was made, based on trends over the 1990s, to assess whether the implementation of the Dakar Framework for Action made any difference compared with observed progress during the Jomtien period, 1990–1999.

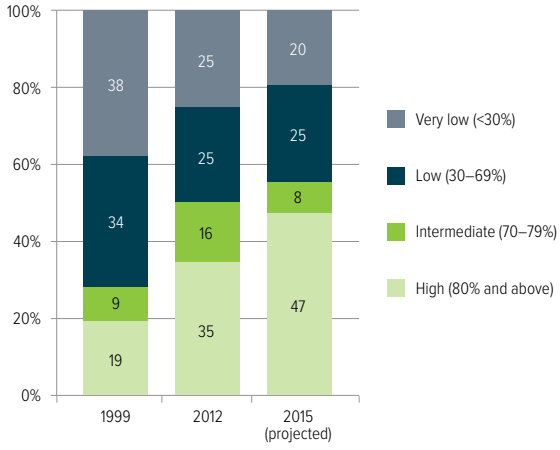
Goal 1: Early childhood education

The Dakar Framework called upon governments to expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education (ECCE), especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children. As reported in Chapter 1, significant progress in participation in pre-primary education, measured by the gross enrolment ratio (GER), has occurred since 1999. But access to pre-primary education remains generally restricted for millions of children worldwide.

As **Figure 7.1** shows, of the 148 countries with sufficient data to enable projections to be made for 2015:

- 70, or 47%, would have high levels of participation in pre-school programmes, defined as a GER above 80%. All EFA regions are represented, with the majority of countries being in Central and Eastern Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, and North America and Western Europe (**Table 7.1**).
- 12, or 8%, would fall into the intermediate category, with a GER between 70% and 79%, while 66 countries have GERs that are low (30–69%) or very low (below 30%), accounting for 25% and 20%, respectively, of the 148 countries included in the projections. Most of the low GER countries are in the Arab States, East Asia and the Pacific, and Latin America and the Caribbean. But that list also includes countries in other regions, such as Armenia, Cameroon, Croatia and the Islamic Republic of Iran. Almost half the countries where levels of participation in pre-primary education are projected to remain very low are in sub-Saharan Africa, though that category also includes Cambodia, Tajikistan and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. In

Figure 7.1: Goal 1 – Despite significant progress since 1999, participation in pre-primary education remains very limited in about one-fifth of countries in 2015
Percentage of countries by level of pre-primary enrolment ratio achieved in 1999, 2012 and 2015 (projected from 1999–2012 trend)



Note: The figure includes countries with data available for the given years: 166 in 1999, 159 in 2012 and 148 in 2015, out of a total of 207 countries. Countries with insufficient data, which are excluded, constitute about 20%, 23% and 28%, respectively, of all countries for these years.
Source: Annex, Statistical Table 3B; UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

Over half the countries with very low projected pre-primary enrolment are in sub-Saharan Africa

1. Analysis of achievement towards goal 4 on adult literacy, another quantitative EFA goal – to halve by 2015 the adult literacy levels observed in 2000 – is carried out in Chapter 4. Goals 3 and 6 did not have sufficient explicit quantitative targets to be included in this analysis.

Tajikistan, not only is the pre-primary GER expected to remain extremely low in 2015, at less than 10%, but progress since 1999 has been very weak.

The number of countries with high levels of pre-primary GER more than doubled between 1999 and 2015

While early childhood programmes do not yet benefit all children, and are particularly restricted for those who need them most, there was substantial expansion of pre-primary education in the 15 years following the World Education Forum in Dakar. Figure 7.1 shows that the number of countries with high levels of pre-primary GER more than doubled between 1999 and 2015, from 32 (19% of the countries with data) to 70 (47%). Consequently, the share of countries with very low participation levels was almost halved, from 38% to 20%, during the period. Two-thirds of the countries reporting a pre-primary GER above 80% in 2015 achieved this level after 1999.

Progress over the period is even more striking compared with what would have been the case if trends in participation in pre-primary education over the 1990s had continued. Comparison between projections based on 1990–1999 and those based on 1999–2012 shows that in 52 countries progress accelerated over 1999–2012: their projected pre-primary GER is much higher than if 1990s trends had continued.

This is especially true for several countries with very low levels of pre-school participation in 1999 that moved to the GER high levels category. In Algeria, the GER increased from 2% in 1999 to 79% in 2011 and is projected to reach 101% in 2015, rather than only 5% if the trends between 1990 and 1999 had continued. Angola is another striking example: the GER increased significantly, from 27% to 86%, between 1999 and 2012, an increase of 59 percentage points, compared to only 10 percentage points between 1990 and 1999. As a consequence, Angola moved from the very low level to the high category; projections based on 1990–1999 trends show that the GER would have been only 43% at best by 2015.

By contrast, progress in pre-primary enrolment after 1999 has slowed in 21 countries compared with 1990–1999 trends,

Table 7.1: Goal 1 – Likelihood of countries achieving a pre-primary gross enrolment ratio of at least 80% by 2015

High level (GER: 80% and above) reached by 1999 and sustained		23	Aruba, Belarus, Belgium, Cuba, Czech Rep., Denmark, Dominica, Estonia, France, Germany, Iceland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Malta, Mauritius, New Zealand, Seychelles, Slovakia, Spain, Suriname, Switzerland, Thailand		
High level (GER: 80% and above) reached after 1999 and sustained		47	Algeria, Angola, Antigua/Barbuda, Argentina, Austria, Barbados, Br. Virgin Is, Brunei Daruss., Bulgaria, Cabo Verde, Chile, Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Cyprus, Ecuador, Equat. Guinea, Ghana, Grenada, Hungary, Jamaica, Latvia, Lebanon, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malaysia, Maldives*, Mexico, Mongolia, Nauru, Nepal, Norway, Pakistan, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Rep. of Moldova, Russian Fed., Slovenia, South Africa, Sweden, Trinidad and Tobago*, Ukraine, U. A. Emirates, United Kingdom, Uruguay, Venezuela (B. R.), Viet Nam		
Level likely to be achieved	**Intermediate level** (GER: 70–79%)	12	Albania, El Salvador, Finland, Guatemala, India, Nicaragua, Panama, Vanuatu	Canada, Greece, Romania, United States	
	Low level (GER: 30–69%)	37	Armenia, Bahrain, Belize, Cameroon, Cayman Is*, China, Colombia, Croatia, Egypt, Honduras, Indonesia, Iran (Isl. Rep.), Kazakhstan, Kenya*, Lesotho, Montenegro, Philippines*, Qatar, S. Tome/Principe, Solomon Is, Sudan, Turkey	Bolivia (P. S.), Jordan, Dominican Rep., Palestine, Paraguay	Anguilla*, Australia, Bermuda, Guyana, Kuwait*, Marshall Is, Morocco, Saint Lucia, Samoa, Serbia
	Very low level (GER: <30%)	29	Azerbaijan, Benin, Bhutan, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, D. R. Congo, Djibouti, Eritrea, Fiji*, Kyrgyzstan, Lao PDR, Madagascar, Mali, Myanmar, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Syrian A. R., Togo, Yemen	Iraq*, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan	Bangladesh, TFYR Macedonia
			Moving forward: strong progress	**Moving ahead: some progress**	**Off track: moving slowly or moving away**
			Change since 1999		
Countries not included in analysis (insufficient or no data)		59	Afghanistan, Andorra, Bahamas, Bosnia/Herzeg., Botswana, Brazil, C. A. R., Chad, Comoros, Curaçao, DPR Korea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Georgia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Ireland, Kiribati, Liberia, Libya, Macao (China), Malawi, Mauritania, Micronesia (F. S.), Monaco, Montserrat, Mozambique, Namibia, Netherlands, Niue, Oman, Palau, Papua N. Guinea, Rep. of Korea, St Kitts/Nevis, Saint Martin, St Vincent/Grenad., San Marino, Saudi Arabia, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Sint Maarten, Somalia, South Sudan, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Timor-Leste, Tokelau, Tonga, Tunisia, Turkmenistan, Turks/Caicos Is, Tuvalu, Uganda, U. R. Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe		

Note: Countries with an asterisk (*) do not have data available beyond 2007, 2008 or 2009, but the number of data points available was considered sufficient to make projections.
Source: Bruneforth (2015).

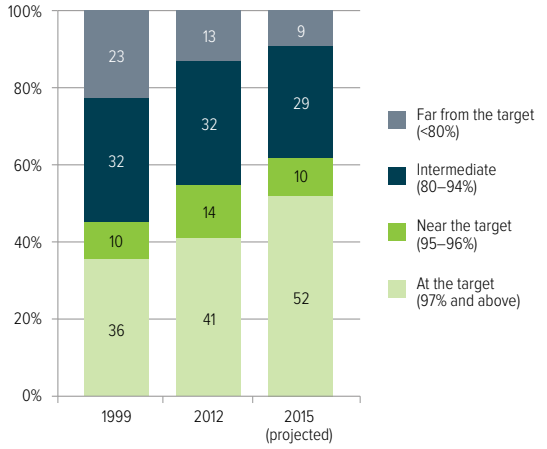
with implications for the projected situation in 2015. Among these countries are the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Palestine, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and the United Kingdom, with the last example indicating that sustained attention to pre-primary education is still required in high income countries.

Goal 2: Universal primary education

As discussed in Chapter 2, the goal of universal primary education was prominent, well funded, politically supported and extensively monitored. However, the target was missed by a wide margin by a large number of countries, where tens of millions of children remain out of school and do not enjoy their fundamental right to education. **Figure 7.2** and **Table 7.2** summarize the results of the projection analysis, which includes 140 countries with sufficient data (out of 207 in all) and is based on the primary adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER[2]). Of this number, 61 had already achieved the target by 2012; for the 79 that had not yet done so, projections were made.

Figure 7.2: Goal 2 – While about half the countries with data remain at some distance or far from the target in 2015, there has been clear movement towards universal primary enrolment since 1999

Percentage of countries by level of primary adjusted net enrolment ratio, 1999, 2012 and 2015 (projected from 1995–2012 trend)



Note: The figure includes countries with data available for the given years: 145 in 1999, 146 in 2012 and 140 in 2015, out of a total of 207 countries. Countries with insufficient data, which are excluded, constitute about 30%, 29% and 32%, respectively, of all countries for these years.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 5; UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

The goal of universal primary education was missed by a wide margin by a large number of countries

Table 7.2: Goal 2 – Country prospects for achieving universal primary enrolment by 2015

	Target reached (**ANER**: 97% and above) by 1999 and sustained	**33**	Aruba, Belgium, Belize, Cabo Verde, Cuba, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Grenada*, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Jordan, Kuwait*, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Portugal, Rep. of Korea, St Vincent/Grenad., Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Trinidad/Tobago, United Kingdom, Viet Nam		
	Target reached (ANER: 97% and above) after 1999 and sustained	**40**	Algeria, Australia, Bahamas, Barbados, Burundi, Cambodia, Cook Islands, Croatia, Egypt, El Salvador, Fiji, Georgia, Greece, Guatemala, Honduras, Hungary, India, Iran (Isl. Rep.), Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Marshall Is, Mauritius, Mongolia, Montenegro, Morocco, Nepal, Nicaragua, Oman, Russian Fed., Rwanda, S. Tome/Principe, Slovenia, Syrian A. R., Tajikistan, Tunisia, Ukraine, U. A. Emirates, U. R. Tanzania*, Uruguay, Zambia		
Level likely to be achieved	**Close to target** (**ANER**: 95–96%)	**14**	Benin*	Iraq*, Togo*, Venezuela (B. R.)	Bangladesh*, Bulgaria, Ecuador, Indonesia, Luxembourg, Peru, Poland, Samoa, Seychelles, Turkey
	Intermediate position (ANER: 80–94%)	**40**	Bhutan, C. A. R.*, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya*, Lao PDR, Lesotho, Mali, Mozambique, Senegal, Swaziland*, Yemen	Botswana*, Dominican Rep., Romania, TFYR Macedonia, Tonga	Anguilla*, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bolivia, Br. Virgin Is, Colombia, Dominica, Estonia, Lebanon*, Malawi*, Maldives*, Namibia, Palestine, Panama, Philippines*, Rep. Moldova, St Kitts/Nevis, Saint Lucia, Serbia*, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Suriname, United States
	Far (ANER: <80%)	**13**	Burkina Faso, Chad, Djibouti, Eritrea, Mauritania, Niger, Pakistan*	Nigeria	Côte d'Ivoire*, Equat. Guinea, Gambia, Guyana*, Paraguay
			Moving forward: strong progress	**Moving ahead: some progress**	**Off track: moving slowly or moving away**
			Change since 1999		
	Countries not included in analysis (insufficient or no data)	**67**	Afghanistan, Albania, Andorra, Angola, Antigua/Barbuda, Argentina, Armenia, Austria, Bahrain, Bermuda, Bosnia/Herzeg., Brazil, Brunei Daruss., Cameroon, Canada, Cayman Is, Chile, China, Comoros, Congo, Costa Rica, Curaçao, Czech Rep., DPR Korea, D. R. Congo, Ethiopia, Gabon, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Jamaica, Kiribati, Liberia, Libya, Macao (China), Madagascar, Malaysia, Malta, Micronesia (F. S.), Monaco, Montserrat, Myanmar, Nauru, Niue, Palau, Papua N. Guinea, Qatar, Saint Martin, San Marino, Saudi Arabia, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Sint Maarten, Slovakia, Solomon Is, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Tokelau, Turkmenistan, Turks/Caicos Is, Tuvalu, Uganda, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Zimbabwe		

Note: Countries with an asterisk (*) do not have data available beyond 2007, 2008 or 2009, but the number of data points available was considered sufficient to make projections. Countries are classified by their pace of progress since 1999 and by their ANER, which indicates the expected distance to the universal primary enrolment target in 2015.
Source: Bruneforth (2015).

2. The ANER measures the proportion of children of primary school age who are enrolled either in primary or secondary school. It was projected only for countries with data for at least seven data points between 1999 and 2012 and where ANER was below 97% in 1999, 2012 or both. The 61 countries where ANER was 97% and above in 2012 were considered to have achieved the target. ANER projections were not done for them but they are included in the overall analysis.

Low school retention means universal primary education will remain out of reach for millions for children

Figure 7.2 shows that:

- Only 73 countries, or 52% of the 140 in the sample, are likely to achieve universal primary enrolment by 2015, with an ANER of at least 97%.[3] Most are in North America and Western Europe (18) and Latin America and the Caribbean (14), followed by East Asia and the Pacific (9), the Arab States (9) and Central and Eastern Europe (8). Central Asia, South and West Asia and sub-Saharan Africa are less represented in this group, with only 5, 3 and 7 countries, respectively, achieving universal primary enrolment by 2015 (Table 7.2). In many countries that have achieved the target, compulsory and free primary education has long been established and rigorously enforced.

- 14, or 10%, are expected to be close to the target, with ANERs between 95% and 96% by 2015. The vast majority, including Bulgaria, Indonesia, Luxembourg, Peru and Poland, have been moving either slowly towards or away from the target. Togo and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela have moved close to the target from an intermediate position in 1999.

- 40, or 29%, will likely be at mid-distance to universal primary enrolment, with ANERs ranging from 80% to 94%. About two-fifths have made strong or some progress since 1999 while the vast majority are off track, with the ANER decreasing, sometimes substantially. Among the latter are several countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, including the British Virgin Islands and Saint Kitts and Nevis, that have moved away from the target they had achieved by 1999. The Plurinational State of Bolivia, Colombia and Saint Lucia have also lost significant ground since 1999, as have countries in other regions such as South Africa and Sri Lanka. Trends in all these countries stress the need for governments to implement strong, targeted and sustained policies to accelerate progress and to sustain the gains made from school expansion.

- 13, or 9%, are projected to remain far from the target in 2015, with ANERs below 80%. Most are in sub-Saharan Africa, but the group also includes Djibouti and Mauritania in the Arab States, Pakistan in South and West Asia, and Guyana and Paraguay in Latin America and the Caribbean. In Paraguay, the proportion of primary school aged children enrolled declined significantly between 1999 and 2011, from nearly 97% to 83%.

Access to school is an important step to universal primary education, but the Dakar Framework further called on governments to ensure that all children who enter school also complete it. Poor progress towards primary school completion makes universal primary education by 2015 even more elusive. Data show that progress towards universal primary education has been uneven, with enrolment growing but retention lagging. Low school retention means universal primary education will remain out of reach for millions for children.

Of the 139 countries with sufficient data for trend projections to be made for survival rates to last grade, **Figure 7.3** shows that:

- In 54, or 39%, almost all children enrolled in primary school are projected to reach the last grade by 2015, mostly in Central and Eastern Europe, Central Asia, and North America and Western Europe.

- In 14, or 10%, 95% to 96% of children are projected to reach the last grade.

- In 39, or 28%, 80% to 94% of children are projected to reach the last grade.

- In 32, or 23%, three-quarters of which are in sub-Saharan Africa, at least 20% of children are likely to drop out early. In some countries, including Benin, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Madagascar and Uganda, school retention has worsened, with survival rates to last grade decreasing by at least 20% since 1999.

Combining intake and survival rates to assess whether a cohort of children with access to school would eventually complete it, Figure 7.3 shows the extent to which the goal of universal primary education remains distant. Of the 106 countries for which projections could be

3. The GMR defines universal primary enrolment as an ANER of at least 97%. The indicator only measures whether all children of official school age are enrolled; it does not indicate school completion. However, if it is 97% or above for many consecutive years, it is likely that all children enrolled complete at least primary school.

made for both primary adjusted intake rate and survival to last grade:

- Only 13, or 12%, are projected to achieve universal primary education by 2015, with at least 97% of a cohort of children likely to both enter school and reach the last grade. Seven are in Western Europe (Finland, France, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Switzerland and the United Kingdom), three are in Central Asia or Central and Eastern Europe (Croatia, Kazakhstan and Tajikistan), two are in East Asia (Japan and the Republic of Korea) and one, Tunisia, is in the Arab States.

- In 46, or 43%, the projected cohort survival rate is lower than 80%. In 16 of these countries the rate is below 50%. It would be only 20% in Eritrea.

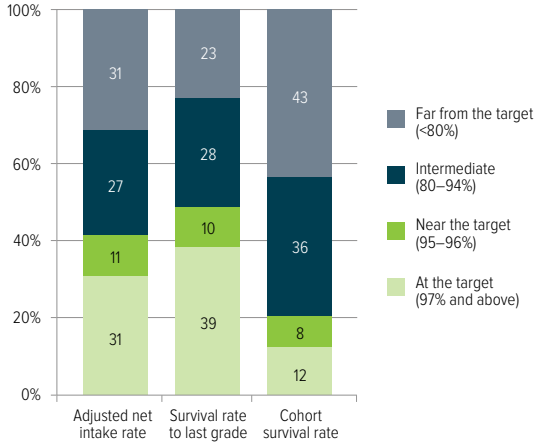
The failure by the vast majority of countries to achieve universal primary education should not overshadow the achievements of the Dakar Framework. For many countries, progress towards universal primary enrolment since 2000 has been greater than during the Jomtien decade.

Figure 7.2 shows clear movement towards universal primary enrolment since 1999, with the number of countries with primary ANER of at least 97% increasing from 52 to 73, or from 36% to 52% of countries, by 2015. The majority of countries, 40, expected to reach the target by 2015 have done so since 1999 (Table 7.2). As many more countries were reaching the target, the percentage of those with low ANERs, far from the goal, was more than halved, dropping from 23% to 9% between 1999 and 2015.

Of the 27 countries where ANER was below 80% in 1999 and for which projections could be made, 20 increased the ratio by more than 27% by 2012. In Burundi, Djibouti and Niger, the proportion of primary school aged children enrolled either in primary or secondary education more than doubled. In Burundi, it rose from 41% in 1999 to 94% in 2010 due to a policy abolishing school fees since 2005; this strong progress points to Burundi reaching universal enrolment by 2015. Morocco, Nepal and Zambia were also far from the target in 1999 but had reached it by 2012.

Country progress is even more pronounced when compared with progress before 1999.

Figure 7.3: Goal 2 – Universal access to and completion of primary school remains elusive, with only 13% of countries with data projected to reach the target by 2015
Percentage of countries by level of primary adjusted net intake rate, survival rate to last grade and cohort survival rate, 2015 (projected from 1999-2012 trend)



Note: The figure includes only countries with data for the given indicators: 132, for adjusted net intake rate, 139 for survival rate to last grade and 106 for cohort survival rate, out of a total of 207 countries. Countries with insufficient data, which are excluded, constitute 36%, 33% and about 49%, respectively, of the total.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 4, 6 (print) and 7 (website); UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

Data limitations mean that comparison between trends before and after 1999 could only be done for 63 countries; of these, 19 were either far from or at mid-distance to the universal primary enrolment target. In 16, progress over 1999–2012 was greater than that recorded before 1999, with projections of ANER for 2015 based on 1999–2012 being much higher than if 1990s trends had continued.

In Morocco, whose ANER was 71% in 1999, if the previous trends had continued the projected ratio would have stood at 89% in 2015. Instead, universal primary enrolment was reached by 2013 due to significant progress since 1999. Burkina Faso, Djibouti and Niger had ANERs below 40% in 1999 and are still far from the target, but thanks to substantial progress after 1999, their ANERs in 2012 were greater than projected based on 1990s trends.

The EFA process made a clear and obvious difference, helping accelerate progress towards primary school enrolment in many countries. However, in others there was no impact and progress even reversed after 1999, as in Azerbaijan, Colombia, Paraguay and South Africa.

For many countries, progress towards universal primary enrolment since 2000 has been greater than during the Jomtien decade

Goal 5: Gender parity and equality in education

Progress towards the gender parity goal has been one of the greatest EFA successes

Progress towards the gender parity goal has been one of the greatest EFA successes since 1999, especially in a number of countries with marked gender disparity at the time, as Chapter 5 shows. This has been particularly true for primary education, where the significant increase in enrolment has benefited girls to a great extent in many countries, especially in South and West Asia and sub-Saharan Africa.

The assessment of the extent to which the gender parity goal has been achieved in 2015 is based on trend projections made on the gender parity index (GPI) derived from the projected gross enrolment ratio (GER) of both primary and secondary education. Since the *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4*, gender parity has been defined as a GPI between 0.97 and 1.03. Out of the total of 207 countries, 170 had sufficient data for projections to 2015 for primary and 157 for secondary education, including 107 countries that had already achieved gender parity by 2012 in primary education and 58 in secondary education.

Figure 7.4a shows the distribution of countries by level of GPI reached in primary education. Of the 170 countries with data at primary level:

- 117, or 69%, have achieved gender parity between 0.97 and 1.03, or are likely to do so. Most countries in this group are in North America and Western Europe (24), Latin America and the Caribbean (20), Central and Eastern Europe (19) and East Asia and the Pacific (19); 17 countries in sub-Saharan Africa are also likely to having achieved gender parity in primary education, as are 7 in the Arab States and Central Asia, respectively, and 4 in South and West Asia.

- 17, or 10%, are likely to be close to the target by 2015, with GPIs between 0.95 and 0.96 or between 1.04 and 1.05. Most have been making slow progress; some had reached the target in 1999 but have since moved slightly away. Among the latter group are several countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, including Chile, Colombia, El Salvador, Paraguay and Uruguay. Meanwhile, Burkina Faso, Cambodia, Morocco, Pakistan and Togo have made strong progress towards eliminating gender disparity in primary education since 1999.

- 35, or 21% of the sample, are projected by 2015 to be at mid-distance to the gender parity target, with GPIs between 0.80 and 0.94 or between 1.06 and 1.25. Most of these countries have recorded slow progress towards gender parity or decreases in the GPI. In the British Virgin Islands, Cabo Verde, the Dominican Republic, Grenada, Lebanon, South Africa and Suriname, the situation of girls has been deteriorating. The reverse has happened in other countries, including the Gambia, Guyana, Malawi, Mauritania, Nepal and Senegal, where boys are now underrepresented in primary school enrolment.

- The Central African Republic is likely to be the sole country far from gender parity in primary education, with a GPI below 0.80. It has made some progress, as its GPI increased from 0.68 to 0.74 between 2001 and 2012, but the conflict situation since 2012 is likely to have ruined the fragile gains made.

Progress towards eliminating gender disparity since 1999 was much less marked in secondary education. While more than two-thirds of the countries with data are projected to reach gender parity in primary education by 2015, less than half are likely to do so at the secondary level. **Figure 7.4b** illustrates the extent of the problem. Of the 157 countries included in projections:

- 76, or 48%, are projected to have reached gender parity in secondary education by 2015. Hence, in more than half the countries with data, gender disparities still prevail. Most of the countries projected to achieve gender parity in secondary education are in North America and Western Europe (22), Central and Eastern Europe (15), East Asia and the Pacific (13) and Latin America and the Caribbean (11). Six countries in the Arab States are likely to have reached the target, four in sub-Saharan Africa (Comoros, Malawi, South Africa and Swaziland), Central Asia, respectively, and one in South and West Asia (India).

- 11, or 7%, are projected to be near the target. Most have GPIs exceeding 1.03, indicating gender disparity at boys' expense. Among the 11 are Algeria, Aruba, the Bahamas, Costa Rica, Latvia and Tonga. Algeria, the Bahamas, Kazakhstan and Rwanda had gender parity in secondary education in 1999 but no longer do. In the latter two, the disparity is at the expense of girls.

- 55, or 35%, are projected to be at mid-distance to the gender parity target by 2015, and 32 of them have moved away from the target since 1999. In many countries, mainly in Latin America and the Caribbean, boys' enrolment in secondary education decreased between 1999 and 2012. This also happened in Palestine, Qatar and Tunisia in the Arab States; Bangladesh, Bhutan and Nepal in South and West Asia; and Cabo Verde, Mauritius and Seychelles in sub-Saharan Africa. Seventeen countries have made either some progress (the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mauritania and Mozambique) or strong progress (Senegal) in reducing gender disparity. In the Dominican Republic, Nicaragua, Uruguay and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela, where fewer boys than girls are enrolled in secondary education, the situation for boys has been improving.

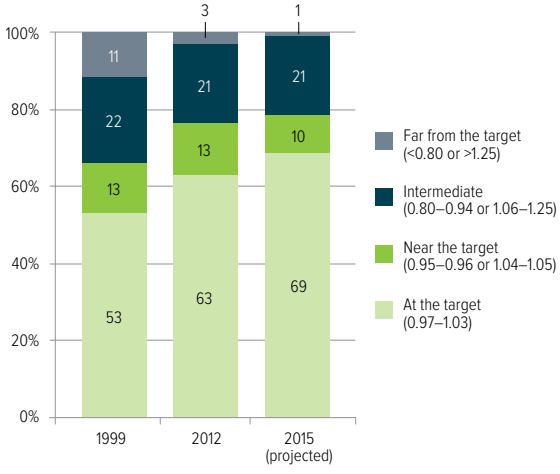
- 15, or 10%, are projected to be far from the target, with GPIs below 80%. Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Guinea, Mali and Yemen still have low GPIs but have made strong progress towards reducing gender disparity to improve the situation of girls. In Angola, disparity at girls' expense has deepened, while in Lesotho 100 boys to 140 girls were enrolled in secondary schools in 2012, almost the same as in 1999.

12% of countries are projected to be far from the gender parity target

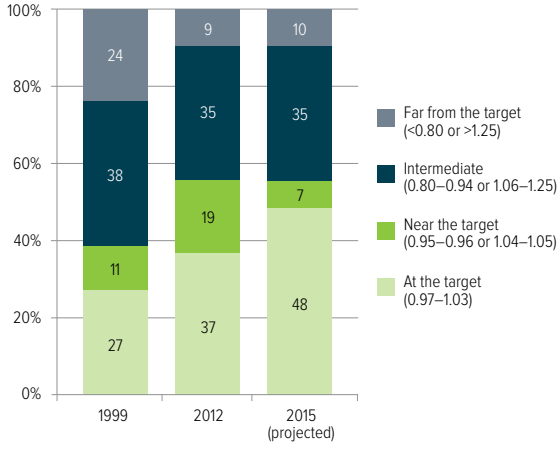
While progress in primary and secondary education can be assessed separately, it is more effective to consider both levels together to effectively measure the extent of achievement of goal 5's aim to eliminate gender disparity. Data permitting projections for achieving the gender parity target at both education levels were available for 145 countries. Assessing gender parity in primary and secondary education together shows it continuous prevalence in many

Figure 7.4: Goal 5 – While more than two-thirds of countries with data are likely to reach gender parity in primary education by 2015, less than half would do so at secondary level

a. Percentage of countries by level of gender parity index in primary education, 1999, 2012 and 2015 (projected from 1999-2012 trend)



b. Percentage of countries by level of gender parity index in secondary education, 1999, 2012 and 2015 (projected from 1999-2012 trend)



Notes: Figure 7.4a includes all countries with data available for the given years: 184 in 1999, 169 in 2012 and 170 for 2015, out of a total of 207 countries. Countries with insufficient data, which are excluded, constitute 11%, 18% and 18%, respectively, of the total. Figure 7.4b includes all countries with data available for the given years: 169 in 1999, 158 in 2012 and 157 for 2015, out of a total of 207 countries. Countries with insufficient data, which are excluded, constitute about 18%, 24% and 24%, respectively, of the total.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 5, 7 (print) and 8 (website); UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

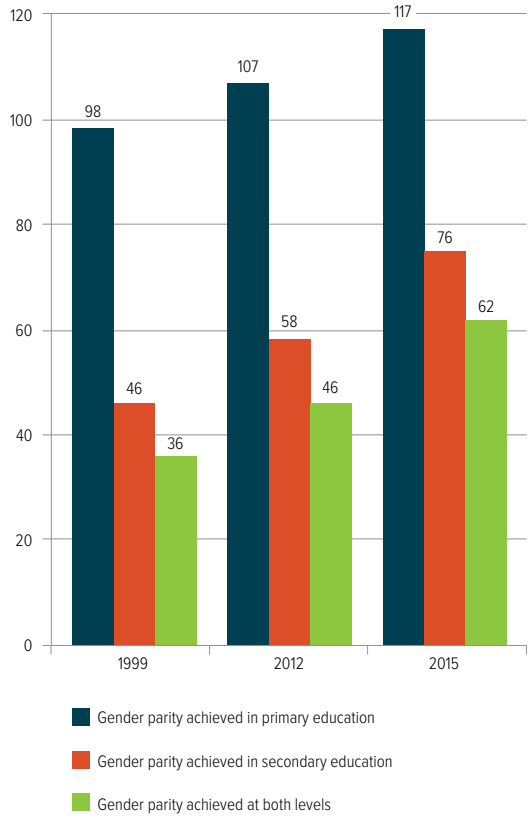
countries, uneven progress across the two levels and greater disparity in secondary (**Figure 7.5**).

Of the 145 countries included in the analysis:

- 62, or 43%, have achieved gender parity in both primary and secondary education, or are likely to do by 2015. More than 75% of the countries in this group are in North America and Western Europe (22), Central and Eastern Europe (15) and East Asia and the Pacific (10), followed by Latin America and the Caribbean (7) and Central Asia (4). Only three Arab States countries will have achieved gender parity at both levels. India is the only country likely to do so in South and West Asia. No country in sub-Saharan Africa is projected to achieve gender parity at both levels.

The number of countries achieving gender parity in both primary and secondary education rose from 36 to 46

Figure 7.5: Goal 5 – Gender parity has not been achieved, yet progress is encouraging
Number of countries at gender parity in primary and secondary and at both levels, 1999, 2012 and 2015 (projected from 1999–2012 trend)



Sources: Statistical Tables 5, 7 (print) and 8 (website); UIS database; Bruneforth (2015).

The gender parity goal has been missed in more than half the countries with data, but this should not overshadow the progress, sometimes strong, made by many countries worldwide to reduce gender disparity, an important step towards gender equality in education. The number of countries that have achieved gender parity in both primary and secondary education increased from 36 to 46 between 1999 and 2012 and will be 62 by 2015 if trends over the period continue. The impact on the situation in 2015 of trends since 1999 is even greater compared with the projected pace of progress if trends before 1999 had continued. Projections based on 1990–1999 trends would show only 25 countries at gender parity at both the primary and secondary levels by 2015.

Gender disparity remains greater in secondary education than in primary, but the impact of trends since 1999 on projections is strong. The number of countries at gender parity in secondary education is projected in 2015 to be 76, more than double the 34 expected if 1990s trends had continued. In primary education, 117 countries would achieve parity by 2015 based on progress made since 1999, half again as many as the projected 78 if trends before 1999 had continued.

In one-third of the 21 countries that were far from gender parity in primary education in 1999, progress in reducing disparities has accelerated. They are now expected either to be close to the target by 2015 (Burkina Faso and Togo) or at mid-distance to it (Djibouti, Guinea, Mozambique and Niger), a much better performance than if trends before 1999 had continued. Benin, with a primary education GPI of 0.64 in 1999, is likely to reach gender parity by 2015; it would have been at mid-distance if trends before 1999 had continued.

At secondary level, the performance of India, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Senegal and Solomon Islands is worth highlighting. All were far from the target in 1999, with GPIs below 0.80, but have made strong progress in reducing gender disparity at this level. Projections for 2015 outpace what they would have been if trends over 1990–1999 had continued. India and Malawi, where GPI stood at 0.70 in 1999, are likely to achieve parity by 2015. Malawi would have still been far from the target if 1990s trends had continued.

The Education for All Development Index

The EFA Development Index (EDI) is a composite index that allows evaluation of overall progress towards Education for All.[4] Due to data constraints, the standard index captures only four of the six goals, with goals 1 and 3 being excluded. The value of the standard EDI for a given country is the arithmetic mean of four components:

- Universal primary education (goal 2), measured by the primary ANER.
- Adult literacy (goal 4), measured by the literacy rate for those aged 15 and above.
- Gender parity and equality (goal 5), measured by the gender-specific EFA index (GEI), an average of the GPIs of the primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios and of the adult literacy rate.[5]
- Quality of education (goal 6), measured by the survival rate to grade 5.[6]

The EDI value falls between 0 and 1, with 1 representing full achievement of EFA across the four goals.

The EDI in 2012

Out of 207 countries, 113 (55%) have data on all four of the indicators required to calculate the EDI for the school year ending in 2012. By region, country coverage ranges from 30% in East Asia and the Pacific to more than 75% in Central and Eastern Europe and North America and Western Europe (Table EDI.1, GMR website). This relatively low coverage means the index provides only a partial overview of global progress towards Education for All. It should also be noted that the current definition of EDI excludes goals 1 and 3.

In 2012, the United Kingdom and Japan had the highest EDI scores, at 0.996 and 0.994, respectively, and Central African Republic, Niger and Chad had the lowest at 0.559, 0.534 and 0.520.

Countries are grouped in three categories according to EDI score (Table 7.3): high for those with scores above 0.95; medium for scores ranging from 0.80 to 0.94; and low for those with scores less than 0.80. The index shows that by 2012:

- 57 mostly high income countries in Central and Eastern Europe and in North America and Western Europe were in the high EFA achievement category. No country in South and West Asia or sub-Saharan Africa was part of this group.
- 38 mostly lower and upper middle income countries in the Arab States, Latin America and the Caribbean and sub-Saharan Africa were in the medium EFA achievement category, with an average EDI score of 0.899. In many of these countries, progress across the EDI components was unbalanced; countries prioritized some goals at the expense of others. Most countries in the Arab States with medium EDI scores achieved universal primary enrolment but had relatively low adult literacy rates: below 80% in Algeria, Egypt, Morocco and Tunisia. In Latin America and the Caribbean, millions of children who have access to primary school do not reach grade 5. In Guatemala, for example, the primary ANER was more than 95% in 2012, but the survival rate to grade 5 was 75% and the adult literacy rate of 78% remained relatively low, pulling down its overall achievement to an EDI of 0.850.
- 18 mostly low income countries were far from achieving EFA as a whole, with EDI scores below 0.80. Chad and Niger were at the bottom of the EDI ranking, with scores of 0.520 and 0.534, respectively. Countries in the low category are mostly from sub-Saharan Africa but also include Sudan in the Arab States, as well as Bangladesh, Nepal

Most countries in the Arab States with medium EDI scores achieved universal primary enrolment but had relatively low adult literacy rates

4. Additional information on the EDI and its rational and methodology is available on the GMR website at www.efareport.unesco.org.

5. When expressed as the ratio of female to male enrolment or literacy rate, the GPI can exceed unity when more females are enrolled or literate than males. In those cases, for the purpose of the EDI, where all values should range from 0 to 1, the GEI is calculated by inverting the standard formula of GPI (F/M) to male over female (M/F). This ensures that the GEI remains below 1 while maintaining its ability to show gender disparity. After all necessary adjustments are made, the GEI is obtained by calculating a simple average of the three GPIs.

6. As comparable indicators on quality, notably on learning outcomes, are not available for many countries, the survival rate to grade 5 is used as a proxy because of its positive correlation with average international learning assessment scores.

and Pakistan in South and West Asia. Most of these countries had a poor record across all four EFA goals included in the EDI. The few exceptions had education policies that were extremely imbalanced. Bangladesh was close to universal primary enrolment with a primary ANER of 96% in 2012. However, its adult literacy rate is still quite low at 59%, and one-third of primary school pupils leave school too early to acquire solid basic skills. The case of Rwanda is also striking: the primary ANER was as high as 99% in 2012, but schools fail to retain children in school until the last grade. Only 52% pupils reached the last grade in 2011. Such a low level of school completion, together with the still low adult literacy rate of 66% in 2011, translated to low overall EFA achievement, represented by an EDI of 0.777.

EFA remains an unfinished policy agenda in many respects and for many countries

EFA remains an unfinished policy agenda in many respects and for many countries. Not only have adult literacy and quality of education been neglected, as regular monitoring of progress since 2000 has shown, but gender remains an important issue in many countries despite substantial progress. In most low income countries in the low EDI category, the GEI is below 0.80, indicating significant gender disparity in primary or secondary education and adult literacy, or all three, mainly at the expense of girls and women. Some medium EDI countries also suffer from gender disparity, particularly many upper middle income countries in Latin America and the Caribbean. There, gender is mainly a boys' issue, notably in upper secondary education, often due to their higher dropout rates.

Expanding lifelong learning, including adult literacy, assuring good quality education and reducing inequality need to be at the centre of the post-2015 global education agenda. Completing the unfinished EFA agenda will remain a distant goal in coming years without more inclusive, equitable and holistic education policies that pay equal attention to all EFA priorities. This implies a comprehensive lifelong learning approach that includes formal, non-formal and informal education at all ages. It should also pay attention to toddlers and young children through implementation of quality early childhood care and education programmes, which have not received sustained policy attention since 2000, including in some countries that top the EDI rankings.

Indeed, the inclusion of the ECCE index[7] in an extended EDI clearly pulls down scores compared with standard EDI scores (**Table 7.3**). In Central Asia, for example, Tajikistan is a high achiever in the standard EDI ranking at 0.981, but it falls from 3rd to 21st in the extended EDI with 0.912 due to a very low ECCE index score of 0.638. Tajikistan is far from achieving EFA goal 1 due to a still high stunting rate (26%) and a very low proportion of children aged 3 to 7 enrolled in either pre-primary or primary education (27%). The low attention paid to goal 1 is a concern; ECCE, along with adult literacy and gender, is one of the best predictors of EFA.

Changes between 1999 and 2012

Changes in the EDI between 1999 and 2012 could be analysed for 51 countries (Figure 7.6): 45, or 88%, improved their EDI scores, by an average of 8%. In Ghana, Guatemala, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Mauritania, Nepal and Senegal, the EDI rose by more than 20%, and it jumped by more than 30% in Burkina Faso and Niger. Burkina Faso's EDI rose from 0.467 to 0.635 through substantial improvement in school participation of children of primary school age and a reduced gender disparity in schooling and adult literacy. In Burkina Faso, Ghana and Niger, school retention also improved significantly, contributing to their increased EDI scores. Not only were children participating in greater numbers, but they were also more likely to reach grade 5, an important indicator of basic knowledge and literacy skill acquisition. Ghana and Morocco made rapid progress, moving from the low to the medium category: the EDI increased from 0.672 to 0.847 in Ghana and from 0.697 to 0.864 in Morocco.

Overall, the substantial progress towards primary school participation in many parts of the world has had a positive impact on overall EFA achievement. Improvement in primary ANER seems to be mainly responsible for this progress as measured by the EDI, with an average increase of nearly 15% across the 51 countries.

7. The ECCE index summarizes the results of early childhood development policies on (i) health, measured by the percentage of children who will survive beyond their fifth birthday; (ii) nutrition, measured by the percentage of children under 5 who do not suffer moderate or severe stunting; and (iii) education, measured by the percentage of children aged 3 to 7 who are enrolled in either pre-primary or primary school. The value of the ECCE index is the mean of these three indicators.

Table 7.3: The EFA Development Index (EDI) and its components, 2012

Ranking according to level of EDI	Countries/Territories	Standard EDI and its components					Extended EDI				
		EDI	Primary adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER)[1]	Adult literacy rate	Gender-specific EFA Index (GEI)	Survival rate to grade 5	ECCE index	Extended EDI	Standard EDI ranking (1)	Extended EDI ranking (2)	Difference between (1) and (2)
High EDI *Have achieved or are close to EFA as a whole (0.95–1.00)*											
1	United Kingdom[2,3]	0.996	0.998	0.999	**0.999**	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
2	Japan[2]	0.994	0.999	0.980	**0.998**	0.998	...	...	...	...	...
3	Norway[2]	0.993	0.994	0.992	0.993	0.995	...	...	...	...	...
4	Switzerland[2,3]	0.992	0.991	0.999	0.990	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
5	Finland[2]	0.992	0.989	1.000	**0.983**	0.997	...	...	...	...	...
6	Italy	0.992	0.991	0.990	0.991	0.995	...	...	...	...	...
7	Slovenia	0.991	0.977	0.997	0.997	0.993	...	...	...	...	...
8	Kazakhstan[4]	0.990	0.987	0.997	0.984	0.993	0.871	0.966	1	2	
9	France[2,3]	0.990	0.989	0.984	0.996	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
10	Denmark[2]	0.989	0.982	0.990	**0.993**	0.993	...	...	...	...	...
11	Croatia[4]	0.989	0.988	0.991	**0.982**	0.994	...	...	...	...	...
12	Netherlands[2]	0.987	0.987	0.981	**0.991**	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
13	Sweden[2]	0.987	0.995	0.995	0.993	0.965	...	...	...	...	...
14	Ukraine[4]	0.987	0.984	0.997	0.987	0.981	...	...	...	...	...
15	Spain	0.987	0.997	0.979	0.990	0.982	...	...	...	...	...
16	Iceland[2]	0.987	0.985	0.986	**0.995**	0.981	...	...	...	...	...
17	New Zealand[2,3]	0.986	0.985	0.986	**0.983**	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
18	Ireland[2]	0.985	0.997	0.969	**0.992**	0.981	...	...	...	...	...
19	Germany[2]	0.985	0.996	1.000	0.981	0.962	...	...	...	...	...
20	Australia[2,3]	0.984	0.969	0.999	0.979	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
21	Kyrgyzstan[4]	0.984	0.984	0.992	0.991	0.971	0.746	0.937	2	12	-10
22	Hungary[2]	0.984	0.967	1.000	0.990	0.981	...	...	...	...	...
23	Estonia[4]	0.984	0.968	0.999	0.994	0.975	...	...	...	...	...
24	Poland[2]	0.984	0.968	0.987	0.990	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
25	Lithuania[4]	0.984	0.978	0.998	0.983	0.975	...	...	...	...	...
26	Russian Fed.[4]	0.981	0.972	0.997	0.989	0.966	...	...	...	...	...
27	Tajikistan[4]	0.981	0.989	0.997	0.957	0.980	0.638	0.912	3	21	-18
28	Cuba	0.981	0.965	0.998	0.994	0.965	...	...	...	...	...
29	Luxembourg[2,3]	0.980	0.946	1.000	**0.983**	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
30	Latvia	0.980	0.984	0.999	0.986	0.949	...	...	...	...	...
31	Belarus[4]	0.979	0.943	0.996	0.987	0.991	0.975	0.978	4	1	3
32	Jordan	0.979	0.971	0.979	**0.982**	0.985	0.803	0.944	5	9	-4
33	Portugal[3]	0.976	0.988	0.945	0.981	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
34	Bulgaria[4]	0.975	0.964	0.984	0.982	0.969	...	...	...	...	...
35	Rep. of Korea[2]	0.975	0.992	0.943	0.970	0.993	...	...	...	...	...
36	United States[2,3]	0.975	0.928	0.988	0.993	0.990	0.921	0.964	6	3	3
37	Israel	0.973	0.970	0.952	0.982	0.989	...	...	...	...	...
38	Greece	0.972	0.995	0.974	0.983	0.937	...	...	...	...	...
39	Serbia[4]	0.970	0.930	0.982	0.986	0.984	0.854	0.947	7	7	0
40	Uruguay	0.969	0.998	0.984	**0.947**	0.948	0.894	0.954	8	4	4
41	Saudi Arabia	0.969	0.966	0.944	0.978	0.990	...	...	...	...	...
42	Chile	0.969	0.927	0.986	**0.978**	0.987	...	...	...	...	...
43	Brunei Daruss.	0.969	0.957	0.954	0.979	0.986	...	...	...	...	...
44	Uzbekistan[4]	0.968	0.915	0.995	0.982	0.981	0.711	0.917	9	19	-10

Table 7.3 (continued)

Ranking according to level of EDI	Countries/Territories	Standard EDI and its components					Extended EDI				
		EDI	Primary adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER)[1]	Adult literacy rate	Gender-specific EFA Index (GEI)	Survival rate to grade 5	ECCE index	Extended EDI	Standard EDI ranking (1)	Extended EDI ranking (2)	Difference between (1) and (2)
45	Mongolia	0.967	0.976	0.983	0.980	0.930	0.861	0.946	10	8	2
46	Belgium[2]	0.967	0.990	0.929	0.982	0.967	...	...	...	...	...
47	Aruba	0.965	0.989	0.968	0.970	0.934	...	...	...	...	...
48	Azerbaijan[4]	0.965	0.893	0.998	0.988	0.982	0.737	0.920	11	17	-6
49	Mexico	0.964	0.980	0.942	0.967	0.967	0.899	0.951	12	5	7
50	Bahamas[5]	0.964	0.978	0.988	0.975	0.914	...	...	...	...	...
51	Rep. Moldova[4]	0.961	0.905	0.991	0.990	0.958	0.909	0.951	13	6	7
52	Samoa	0.958	0.961	0.989	0.965	0.917	...	...	...	...	...
53	Palestine[4]	0.957	0.927	0.959	0.950	0.993	0.809	0.928	14	14	0
54	Venezuela, B. R.	0.956	0.944	0.955	0.963	0.960	0.879	0.940	15	11	4
55	Mauritius	0.955	0.979	0.892	0.963	0.986	...	...	...	...	...
56	Romania[4]	0.954	0.902	0.986	0.987	0.940	0.896	0.942	16	10	6
57	Ecuador	0.951	0.968	0.933	0.986	0.917	...	...	...	...	...
Medium EDI *Are at intermediate position (0.80–0.94)*											
58	Costa Rica	0.948	0.929	0.974	0.980	0.910	0.867	0.932	17	13	4
59	Sri Lanka	0.947	0.939	0.912	0.970	0.966	...	...	...	...	...
60	Malta	0.946	0.951	0.924	0.955	0.956	...	...	...	...	...
61	Seychelles	0.942	0.939	0.918	0.952	0.960	...	...	...	...	...
62	Montenegro	0.940	0.984	0.984	0.988	0.805	0.861	0.924	18	15	3
63	Barbados[5]	0.940	0.971	0.884	0.959	0.945	...	...	...	...	...
64	Lebanon	0.939	0.958	0.896	0.942	0.960	...	...	...	...	...
65	Turkey	0.939	0.951	0.949	0.955	0.900	0.807	0.913	19	20	
66	Oman	0.938	0.974	0.869	0.955	0.952	0.834	0.917	20	18	2
67	Panama	0.938	0.920	0.941	0.969	0.921	0.800	0.910	21	22	
68	Indonesia	0.937	0.953	0.928	0.970	0.895	0.718	0.893	...	...	...
69	Iran, Isl. Rep.	0.935	0.999	0.843	0.937	0.962	...	...	...	...	...
70	Fiji[2]	0.933	0.987	0.821	0.954	0.971	...	...	...	...	...
71	Syrian A.R.[4]	0.930	0.991	0.851	0.945	0.932	0.764	0.897	23	23	0
72	Belize[2]	0.928	0.991	0.828	0.975	0.920	0.889	0.920	24	16	8
73	Bermuda[2]	0.923	0.879	0.969	0.943	0.901	...	...	...	...	...
74	Bolivia, P. S.	0.921	0.868	0.945	0.976	0.894	0.747	0.886	25	26	
75	Tunisia	0.919	0.999	0.797	0.916	0.962	...	...	...	...	...
76	Cabo Verde	0.916	0.973	0.853	0.915	0.921	...	...	...	...	...
77	Peru	0.913	0.963	0.938	0.962	0.788	...	...	...	...	...
78	El Salvador	0.909	0.947	0.855	0.964	0.870	0.767	0.881	26	27	
79	Saint Lucia[5]	0.909	0.830	0.901	0.980	0.925	...	...	...	...	...
80	Colombia	0.902	0.865	0.936	0.961	0.847	0.831	0.888	27	25	2
81	Egypt	0.900	0.973	0.739	0.915	0.972	0.741	0.868	28	30	-2
82	Paraguay	0.892	0.826	0.939	0.964	0.838	0.771	0.868	29	31	-2
83	Dominican Rep.	0.891	0.891	0.909	0.930	0.836	0.814	0.876	30	28	2
84	Algeria	0.886	0.991	0.726	0.897	0.928	0.800	0.869	31	29	2
85	Honduras	0.870	0.940	0.854	0.936	0.750	0.781	0.852	32	33	
86	Morocco	0.864	0.987	0.671	0.856	0.941	0.826	0.856	33	32	1
87	Guyana	0.860	0.748	0.850	0.898	0.946	0.784	0.845	34	34	0

Table 7.3 (continued)

Ranking according to level of EDI	Countries/Territories	Standard EDI and its components					Extended EDI				
		EDI	Primary adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER)[1]	Adult literacy rate	Gender-specific EFA Index (GEI)	Survival rate to grade 5	ECCE index	Extended EDI	Standard EDI ranking (1)	Extended EDI ranking (2)	Difference between (1) and (2)
88	Guatemala	0.850	0.953	0.783	0.912	0.753	0.659	0.812	35	37	-2
89	Ghana	0.847	0.876	0.715	0.914	0.881	0.815	0.840	36	35	1
90	S. Tome/Principe	0.833	0.970	0.695	0.875	0.791	0.754	0.817	37	36	1
91	Timor-Leste	0.816	0.917	0.583	0.922	0.842	...	...	...	...	...
92	Cameroon	0.816	0.915	0.713	0.847	0.787	0.673	0.787	38	38	0
93	Bhutan	0.815	0.918	0.528	0.841	0.974	...	...	...	...	...
94	Lao PDR	0.812	0.959	0.727	0.862	0.699	0.679	0.785	39	39	0
95	Burundi	0.810	0.941	0.869	0.893	0.536	...	...	...	...	...
Low EDI *Are far from EFA overall achievement (<0.80)*											
96	Lesotho	0.791	0.821	0.758	0.820	0.764	...	...	...		
97	Bangladesh	0.778	0.962	0.588	0.900	0.662	0.688	0.760	40	40	0
98	Rwanda	0.777	0.987	0.659	0.942	0.519	...	...	...	...	...
99	Gambia	0.746	0.737	0.520	0.870	0.859	0.685	0.734	41	41	0
100	Nepal	0.739	0.987	0.574	0.844	0.553	...	...	...	...	...
101	Sudan	0.728	0.515	0.734	0.867	0.797	...	...	...	...	...
102	Senegal	0.716	0.794	0.521	0.816	0.733	0.697	0.712	...	...	...
103	Nigeria	0.714	0.657	0.511	0.826	0.860	...	...	...	...	...
104	Angola	0.670	0.857	0.706	0.668	0.448	0.680	0.672	43	43	0
105	Mozambique	0.659	0.864	0.506	0.779	0.486	...	...	...	...	...
106	Pakistan	0.654	0.725	0.549	0.732	0.610	...	...	...	...	...
107	Benin	0.641	0.949	0.287	0.653	0.675	0.686	0.650	44	44	0
108	Eritrea	0.635	0.342	0.705	0.803	0.690	...	...	...	...	...
109	Burkina Faso	0.635	0.668	0.287	0.782	0.803	0.585	0.625	45	46	
110	Mali	0.625	0.733	0.336	0.723	0.707	0.626	0.625	46	45	1
111	C. A. R.	0.559	0.722	0.368	0.579	0.567	0.575	0.562	47	47	0
112	Niger	0.534	0.636	0.155	0.631	0.715	0.552	0.538	48	48	0
113	Chad	0.520	0.638	0.373	0.604	0.466	...	...	...	...	...

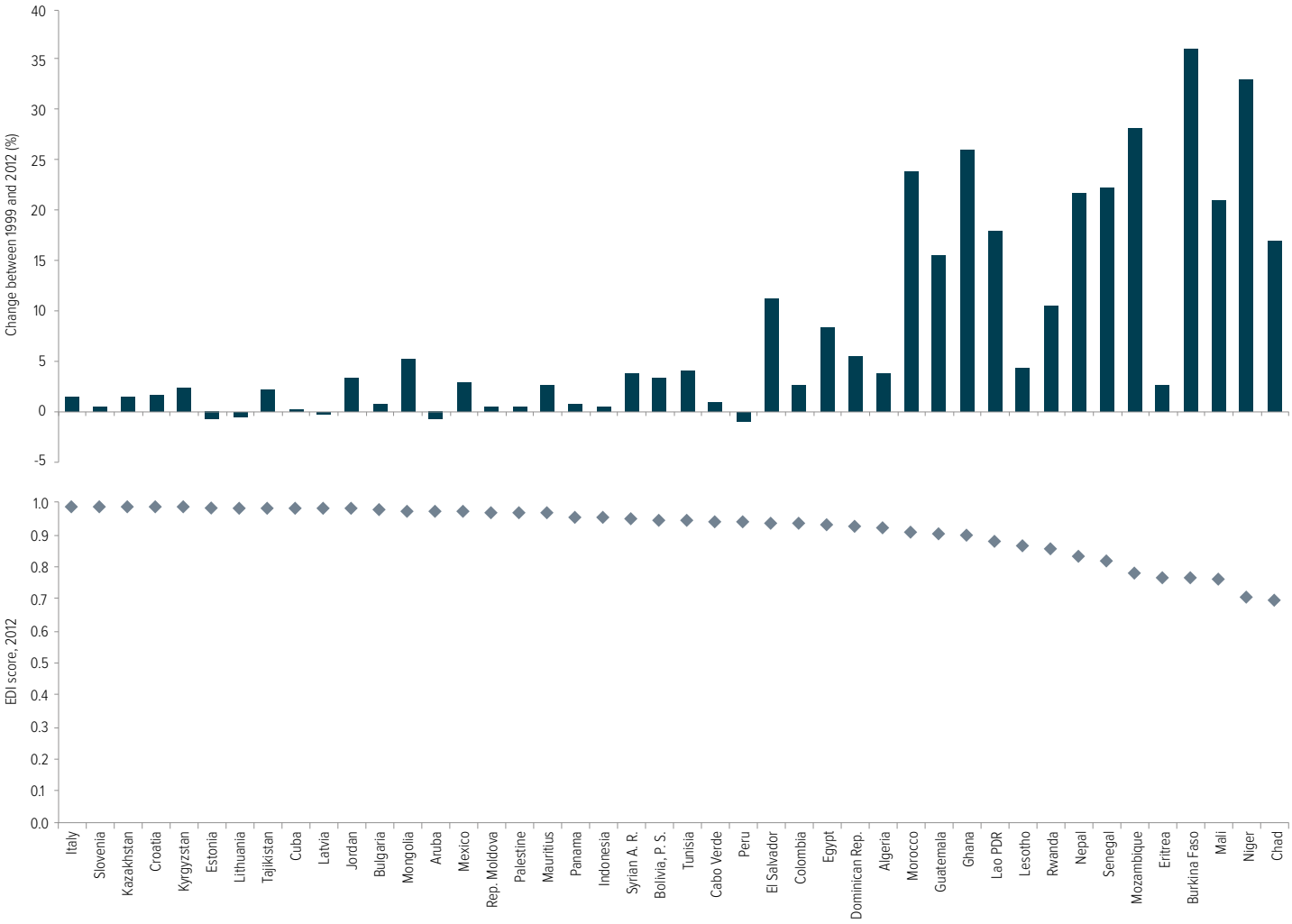
Notes: Data in blue indicate gender disparity at the expense of boys or men, particularly at the secondary level.
1. The primary ANER measures the proportion of children of primary school age who are enrolled in either primary or secondary school.
2. The adult literacy rate is a proxy measure based on the proportion of those aged 25 and older who have at least completed primary education.
3. In the absence of data on the survival rate to grade 5, 99% is used because of the country's long-standing tradition and enforcement of compulsory education.
4. The survival rate to the last grade is used because the primary education cycle is less than five years.
5. Adult literacy rates are unofficial UIS estimates.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 2, 3A, 3B, 5, 6 and 7 (print); UIS database; EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations.

In Mozambique, the proportion of primary school age children enrolled in school increased by 67% between 1999 and 2012, while it more than doubled in Niger, from 27% to nearly 64%. The adult literacy rate increased by nearly 8%, on average, and was the second biggest contributor to the increase in the EDI across the 51 countries, followed by increases in the gender component as measured by the GEI (5.5%) and improvement in the quality component as measured by the survival rate to grade 5 (5.0%).

How many countries are likely to achieve EFA as a whole by 2015?

Building on the previous analysis of the prospects of achieving EFA goals 1, 2 and 5 by 2015, it is possible to assess the extent to which countries can be expected to achieve EFA as a whole in 2015 in terms of EDI values. For this GMR, projected EDI scores could be calculated for 94 countries, 52 of which also have EDI scores for 1999 (Table EDI.8, GMR website).

Figure 7.6: Most countries furthest from EFA made considerable progress since 1999
EDI score in 2012 and change between 1999 and 2012



Note: Only countries with EDI values in both 1999 and 2012 are included.
Source: Table EDI.3 (GMR website).

Of the 94 countries, 47 are projected to be in the high EDI category, likely to having achieved EFA as a whole or to be close to do so. Projections indicate that 33 countries will be in the medium EDI category and 14 in the low category, mostly unchanged from 2012.

While these patterns indicate limited change, with most countries remaining in the same EDI category in 2015 as in 2012, some examples of improvement can be highlighted. Bhutan, Burkina Faso, Mali and Mozambique are likely to increase their EDI scores by 6% or more between 2012 and 2015, though most are projected to still be very far from achieving EFA as a whole. Looking back to 1999, the progress by some of these countries is significant. The EDI value of Burkina Faso is projected to increase by 49% between 1999 and 2015, to 0.694, that of Mozambique by 40% to 0.721 and that of Niger by 38% to 0.556.

Countries with incomplete or missing data

The GMR makes extensive use of comparable country-level data, collected and quality-assured by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), to show countries' progress on goals with specific targets. However, some countries have

insufficient or unreliable data for international comparisons. This lack prevents a full assessment of EFA progress in all countries.

Cases of missing information may be related to either population or enrolment data. Age-specific population data provided by the UN Population Division (UNPD) are occasionally inconsistent with enrolment data provided by the UIS, leading, for example, to net enrolment ratios exceeding 100% or to very low or high enrolment ratios in countries where other evidence suggests otherwise. Note also that the UNPD does not produce population estimates for countries with fewer than 50,000 inhabitants (UNESCO, 2014c).[8] Complete enrolment information has not been collected in some countries, often as a result of poor statistical information systems, or emergencies such as armed conflict or natural disasters. And some countries may have national statistics but not always report them at the international level.

For this final report in the EFA series, the GMR team has identified 35 countries or territories[9] with insufficient or no data for four core EFA indicators over 1999–2012 and made a concerted effort to find other sources of information, including national sources, on selected EFA goals. The overall aim was to provide an indication of the extent of education progress in each country since 1999, in the absence of cross-country comparable data that remain the main basis of global monitoring.

The following four indicators of progress at the pre-primary and primary education levels were examined:

1. Pre-primary education gross enrolment ratio (GER.0)

2. Primary education gross enrolment ratio (GER.1) and net enrolment ratio (NER.1)

3. Survival rate to the last grade of primary education (SR.1)

4. Gender parity index for GER.1 and SR.1.

For each indicator, countries with missing or insufficient data between 1999 and 2012 were identified, then classified according to the main cause of the absence of data.[10]

Five data sources were used for these 'missing cases': national administrative data, national EFA 2015 reports, other international databases, academic articles and direct contact with national-level officials or stakeholders. These sources allowed for a brief summary of education progress for 23 of the 35 countries, of which some are referred to below. A special profile for each country is found on the GMR website.

Some countries have insufficient data for international comparisons

Countries with missing population data

For countries with missing information on population, the GMR team searched for data in publications provided by each country's national statistics office. For most such countries, it was challenging to find information corresponding to the school age groups recommended by the Institutional standard classification of education system (ISCED). In the end, national census data could be used only for Andorra, Ethiopia and Tuvalu. After locating relevant age-specific population information, it was possible to calculate the four indicators of progress. The Department of Statistics of Macao (China) and the Ministry of Education of Singapore directly sent requested information on the four indicators, when available.

In 2012, for early childhood care and education, Andorra, Macao (China) and Tuvalu had high levels of participation in pre-primary education, with a GER of nearly 100%, 92% and 91%, respectively. Andorra and Macao (China) have maintained high levels of pre-primary enrolment since 1999/2000, when their respective ratios were 108% and 90%. Although Tuvalu still has a high level of pre-primary enrolment, it decreased its GER from 96% in 2001 to 91% in 2012. Ethiopia significantly increased its GER (**Box 7.1**).

8. For countries in this case, the UIS uses national population data when available or makes its own population estimates for use in indicator calculations.

9. Andorra, Anguilla, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Cayman Islands, Curaçao, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Ethiopia, Haiti, Iraq, Kenya, Kiribati, Libya, Macao (China), Maldives, the Federated States of Micronesia, Monaco, Montserrat, Niue, Palau, the Philippines, Saint Martin, San Marino, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Sint Maarten, Somalia, South Sudan, Timor-Leste, Tokelau, Turkmenistan, Turks and Caicos Islands, Tuvalu and Zimbabwe.

10. A technical note with methodological details is available at the GMR website (www.efareport.unesco.org).

No data were available to assess the early childhood education progress of Singapore.

In primary education, Macao (China) and Singapore have maintained a high GER and NER since 2000. Andorra reached the target of universal primary enrolment in 2002 and has maintained it, with an NER of 99% in 2002 and 2012. Singapore reached the target, going from an NER of almost 96% in 2000 to an NER of 100% in 2012. Macao (China) increased its NER from 85% in 2000 to 90% in 2012. Tuvalu's NER fell from 97% in 2002 to 95% in 2012, so the country has regressed to the close to the target category. Ethiopia, as Box 7.1 shows, is also in an intermediary position, with significant increases of its GER and NER.

Ethiopia achieved large increases in both pre-primary and primary enrolment

Regarding gender parity in primary education, Andorra and Macao (China) were both successful, with GPIs of 0.99. Ethiopia has made great progress in achieving gender parity since 2000/01: its GPI went from 0.65 to 0.93. However, gender disparity still persists at the expense of girls.

For survival rates to the last grade of primary, the only country with available information for the whole period between 2000 and 2011 was Ethiopia, where the rate dropped from 61% to less than 37%. Tuvalu's SR is available only for 2002 and 2004.

Box 7.1: Ethiopia has made significant progress

Ethiopia increased its pre-primary GER considerably, from 2% in 2000 to almost 22% in 2011. The 2013/4 *EFA Global Monitoring Report* showed that the country also achieved large increases in its primary enrolment rates between 1999 and 2011, with its GER increasing from 50% to 106% and its NER from 37% to 87%. For the 2012 data, the use of different sources meant using a different age group, 7–10 instead of 7–12. While this inflates a bit the increases in the primary GER, to nearly 123%, and NER, to 92%, the country is definitively well on its way to the target of universal primary education.

Gender parity in primary education also improved, with the GPI of the GER going from 0.65 in 2000 to 0.93 in 2012. However, girls are still under-represented in primary school. Gender disparity appears in a different light if one considers survival rates to the last grade of primary. In 2000, the SR for girls was 63%, compared to 60% for boys. By 2011, rates for both had declined substantially, to less than 40% and 34%, respectively, indicating that in Ethiopia more girls than boys still reach the last grade of primary school (UNESCO, 2010a). In Ethiopia, as in other countries (see Chapter 5), the predominant barriers for girls are starting school at all, rather than completing school once they have begun.

Sources: Ministry of Education and 2013/4 EFA Global Monitoring Report

Countries with missing enrolment data

For many countries that had population data but lacked complete or had partial enrolment data available over the period, information was compiled from many sources. For the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Iraq, the Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Timor-Leste and Zimbabwe, enrolment data was found in national EFA 2015 review reports. For Botswana, Haiti, Kenya, Kiribati, Libya, the Federated States of Micronesia and South Sudan, enrolment data were found in documents provided by statistics offices and education ministries. In the case of Somalia, enrolment data were calculated from UNESCO and World Bank reports.

Analysis of the selected countries that initially lacked enrolment data makes clear that, though eight increased their pre-primary gross enrolment ratio, in some cases significantly, much work is still needed to make early childhood education available for all children. In 2011/2012, in countries including Iraq, Kiribati, Saudi Arabia, South Sudan and Timor-Leste, the pre-primary GER was 18% or less. Kenya's GER was 66%, that of the Federated States of Micronesia 48% and that of Zimbabwe nearly 31%. Haiti and the Philippines were the only countries with a pre-primary GER of over 70%.

In terms of progress toward goal 2, Botswana, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Haiti, Iraq, Kenya, Kiribati, Libya, the Philippines and Timor-Leste have maintained a GER of 96% or above since 2000. The Federated States of Micronesia, with a 99% GER in 2012, and Saudi Arabia, with a 106% GER in 2013, have increased their participation in primary education since Dakar. Somalia and South Sudan have also made significant progress.

The NER gives a more accurate indication about progress to universal primary enrolment. For NER, Botswana, Kenya, Kiribati and Timor-Leste have reached an intermediate position regarding the universal primary enrolment target, with Timor-Leste having significantly increased its NER from 67% in 2000 to 94% in 2012. Haiti, Iraq, the Philippines and Zimbabwe are close to reaching targets, with Haiti making strong progress

towards universal primary enrolment (**Box 7.2**). Saudi Arabia moved from the intermediate category to close to the target, increasing its NER from 89% in 2001 to nearly 97% in 2013. But South Sudan, despite a significant increase from 20% in 2000 to 41% in 2013, is still far from the target. For the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, NER is available only for 2008 and 2012, at nearly 99%. No NER data are available for the whole period for Libya or Somalia.

Alternative data sources were also used to assess progress towards gender parity. Most countries analysed had achieved gender parity, with GPIs ranging from 0.98 in Zimbabwe to 1.02 in Libya. Somalia had substantial disparity at girls' expense in 2012 with a GPI of 0.74, though this was a significant improvement from 0.54 in 1999. Saudi Arabia made great strides to reach gender parity, increasing its primary education GPI from 0.92 to 1.03 between 2000 and 2013. No data were available to assess progress in gender parity for the whole period for Iraq or South Sudan.

The Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Haiti, Kenya, Libya, and South Sudan had no data concerning survival rates to the last grade of primary. Botswana and Somalia did not have survival rate data for the latest period, while Timor-Leste had information from 2005 to 2010 only. In the Philippines, survival rates fluctuated, decreasing from 75% in 2001 to 70% in 2005 and increasing to 75% in 2012. Saudi Arabia went from being close to the target in 2001, with a survival rate of 95%, to reaching it in 2012 at 99%. The survival rates for Iraq, Kiribati and Zimbabwe also increased.

Conclusions

While this chapter has showed a clear improvement towards EFA in many countries, the lack of sufficient and reliable data continues to impede comprehensive assessment of countries' progress towards the goals. The reasons for lack of data vary, but all need to be tackled and addressed. The GMR team has made an attempt to bridge the data gaps and to increase the country coverage.

GMR team analysis showed that a majority of the countries with missing cross-country comparable data produced by UIS for which alternative sources were found made considerable progress on the EFA agenda, as measured by the four indicators examined. This exercise was useful not only to shed light on countries that are otherwise 'invisible', but also because the search for data sources could be even more essential when monitoring progress towards eventual post-2015 Sustainable Development Goal targets. Ultimately, it stresses the need of improved data collection, reporting and sharing by countries and at the international level.

A majority of the countries with missing UIS data made considerable progress on the EFA agenda

Some problems concerning the lack of data found during this research were similar to those pointed out by the Independent Expert Advisory Group on a Data Revolution for Sustainable Development. In particular, the Group recognized that existing data was not used because it was shared too late or not at all. The experts also commented on the lack of data needed for decision-making (IEAG, 2014).

As the international community progresses towards the Sustainable Development Goals, it is important to focus on more efficient and transparent ways to improve not only data collection, reporting and availability, but also the timeliness of data in the context of data harmonization for better comparison across countries.

Box 7.2: Haiti has made considerable progress

Haiti lacks enrolment data because instability of its political and educational system, aggravated by the earthquake of 2010, has made the reporting of education data irregular and inconsistent. While some caution is needed regarding the data included in this analysis, they show that the proportion of children enrolled in pre-primary and primary school had risen since 2001.

Haiti's pre-primary GER increased from 44% in 2001 to 75% in 2010, taking it much closer to the high category. The primary GER increased from 120% in 2001 to nearly 157% in 2010 (reflecting a large number of over-age students), while the NER increased from 60% to 95%.

The GPI of the primary GER reached the target in 2001 at 0.99, and Haiti maintained its position in 2010 at 1.01. There are no data to assess survival rates to the last grade of primary, however.

Sources: Ministry of Education and Haiti Institute of Statistics and Computer Science

Credit: Ami Vitale\Panos Pictures

CHAPTER 8

Finance

Highlights

- Many countries have increased spending on education. Between 1999 and 2012, 38 countries increased their spending by 1 percentage point or more of national income.
- Education is not a priority in many national budgets. As a share of government spending, expenditure on education has changed little since 1999, and at 13.7% in 2012, falls short of the recommended 15% to 20% target.
- Despite the Dakar pledge to provide free education, in many lower income countries, poor government investment means that households continue to incur education-related costs.
- Over the past 10 years, civil society organizations have become an important voice in national debates around participation, transparency and accountability in education spending.
- Governments and donors have neglected to fund EFA goals outside of primary education. As a result, pre-primary education and adult literacy, in particular, remain underfunded. Donors continue to disburse large amounts of aid to non-EFA related areas at the expense of basic education.
- Donors have largely failed on their commitment to deliver aid more effectively, achieving just 1 of 13 aid effectiveness targets. Effective international coordination and distribution of aid to education have been almost entirely absent.

This chapter reviews progress in education financing since Dakar. It reviews trends in domestic funding for education in terms of the amounts and efficiency of spending, and the prioritization of education in national budgets. The chapter assesses whether donors have met their commitments and whether this aid was effectively governed. It proposes that more funds be directed to pre-primary education, as well as to neglected areas such as quality education and adult literacy. It explores ways that both domestic funding and international aid could be more focused, effectively used and transparent.

Chapter 8 Finance

Mobilize strong national and international political commitment for education for all, develop national action plans and enhance significantly investment in education.

The 2000 Dakar Framework for Action called for significant increases in financial commitment by national governments and donors to the education sector to accelerate progress towards the Education For All (EFA) goals. It encouraged donors to support government efforts to increase aid for basic education and deliver it as effectively as possible.

This marked a strategic shift from the view of finance at the time of the 1990 Jomtien conference, when the structural adjustment programmes of the 1980s had led to deep cuts in government spending on education and the role of non-state finance grew. By contrast, the Dakar Framework implicitly recommended governments to take the lead in increasing financial commitments to EFA, with the EFA High Level Steering Committee proposing that 15% to 20% of annual budgets be earmarked for education. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) set similar goals for other basic service sectors, such as health and water and sanitation, with governments committing a minimum share of their annual budgets to help achieve poverty reduction goals (African Union, 2008; World Health Organization [WHO], 2011).

The Dakar Framework also called for greater accountability, with countries accountable to citizens. With much stronger influence from civil society organizations (CSOs) than at Jomtien, the framework specifically referred to a need to curb corrupt practices and increase the efficiency of domestic resources. CSOs had strong participation in the drafting of the framework, which pushed for greater commitments to EFA and regarded CSOs as key partners to hold governments accountable for their financial promises.

This chapter assesses the extent to which governments and donors have fulfilled the financial commitments of the Dakar Framework. The first part provides an overview of trends over time of domestic spending on education compared to what was committed at Dakar. It reviews the efficiency and equity of domestic public spending on education and considers the influence of CSOs in this regard. The second part considers trends in the last 15 years in aid disbursements to education and whether donors have fulfilled their pledges to increase funds to basic education and to countries most in need. It reviews the evolution of policies relating to aid effectiveness; explores the role of humanitarian aid, funding by NGOs and non-traditional financing; and mentions the need for improved diagnostic tools to assess education financing.

The Dakar Framework called for increases in financial commitments by national governments and donors

Changing national financial commitments to EFA since Dakar

Trends in domestic expenditure to education

The Dakar Framework saw national governments as largely financing EFA: 'Governments must allocate sufficient resources to all components of basic education. This will require increasing the share of national income and budgets allocated to education, and, within that, to basic education.'[1] That expectation has been borne out even in regions dependent on aid: domestic public spending dwarfs external assistance. In sub-Saharan Africa, international aid per primary school age child was US$12 in 2012, compared with US$136 from domestic resources (**Table 8.1**).

In 2006, the High Level Group on EFA proposed that governments should spend between 4% and 6% of GNP on education and that, within government budgets, between 15% and 20% should be earmarked for education, with a focus

1. References to national income in this chapter largely relate to gross national product (GNP) and where this information is missing to gross domestic product (GDP).

on basic education (UNESCO, 2006e, 2007c). One study identified a 'healthy' level of spending on education – which it put at 3.8% of GDP – as the minimum investment needed to ensure improvement in education outcomes, measured through higher completion rates and lower repetition rates (Bruns et al., 2003; Greenhill and Ali, 2013).

The importance of domestic resource mobilization through taxes has been increasingly acknowledged

Are countries meeting these targets? The commitment to free primary education has increased primary school enrolment, requiring massive resources to fund additional teachers, classrooms, and teaching and learning materials. Governments have also needed to replace revenue lost by schools when primary schooling became free.

Countries have increased spending on education, with varied progress

Increasing education spending, as a share of national income, requires not just the commitment but also the sustained ability to generate revenue through effective tax systems. The importance of domestic resource mobilization through taxes has been increasingly acknowledged since the 2002 Monterrey Consensus on Financing for Development. Initiatives such as the 2008 African Tax Administration Forum and the 2010 European Commission's communication on tax and development further underscored the importance of mobilizing revenue through tax for the sustainable financing of development (Bhushan et al., 2013).

The experience of developed countries in the 19th century illustrates that tax revenue, which made up to 8% of national income, made it possible only to fund basic functions – police, courts, army, foreign affairs and general administration – but not the provision of basic services such as education. Relatively rich nations took on broader responsibilities, including education, only after tax collection started improving early in the 20th century (Piketty, 2014). For countries to finance the MDGs, it is estimated at least 20% of national income must be raised in tax revenue (IMF et al., 2011). With many low and lower middle income countries starting from a low tax base at the time of Dakar, meeting this target required and still continues to require much more effort. Since Dakar, tax revenue as a share of national income has grown on average by just 0.44% a year for the low and lower middle income countries where tax revenue has risen (Hearson, 2013).

However, while in 2000, 25 low and lower middle income countries collected less than 15% of national income through tax; this number decreased to 18 in 2012. Some countries – including Afghanistan, Central African Republic,

Table 8.1: Public spending on education, by region and income level, 1999 and 2012

	Public education spending				
	% of GNP		% of government expenditure on education		Per capita, primary education, PPP constant 2011, US$
	1999	2012	1999	2012	2012
World	**4.5**	**5.0**	**13.8**	**13.7**	**1 337**
Low income	3.2	4.0	14.7	14.9	100
Lower middle income	4.4	4.9	15.0	15.6	467
Upper middle income	5.0	5.1	14.8	14.9	...
High income	4.9	5.4	12.4	12.3	6 805
Arab States	5.3	...	16.9	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe	4.4	4.9	12.7	11.7	4 478
Central Asia	4.0	3.4	...	13.0	...
East Asia and the Pacific	5.1	3.4	13.8	17.5	...
Latin America and the Caribbean	4.5	4.9	14.8	...	1 187
North America and Western Europe	5.2	6.0	12.3	12.5	7 943
South and West Asia	3.6	3.9	16.6	12.6	240
Sub-Saharan Africa	3.9	4.9	14.8	18.4	136

Note: All regional values shown are medians. The median values of 1999 and 2012 are not comparable since they are not necessarily based on the same number of countries. Per pupil expenditure figures relating to domestic expenditure are expressed in purchasing power parity (PPP) prices in the text unless otherwise stated.
Source: Annex, Statistical Tables 9 (print) and 11 (GMR website); UIS database; GMR team calculations.

Nigeria and Pakistan – collect 10% or less of their national income in tax.[2] In Madagascar, the share decreased between 2000 and 2012. For other countries, the share increased; for example, in Nepal the share increased from 8.7% to 13.9% (World Bank, 2014h).

If countries are to sustainably finance education, they need to commit both to mobilizing resources and prioritizing education. Among 67 countries analysed in the 2013/14 GMR, 37 raised insufficient revenue and committed less than 20% of government budget on education. But with modest effort, the 67 countries could have raised an additional US$153 billion for education by 2015 by making tax collection more efficient, limiting tax exemptions, fighting tax evasion, diversifying the tax base and strengthening tax systems (UNESCO, 2014c).

Progress in prioritizing education is mixed. Globally, the median amount devoted to education as a share of GNP was equivalent to 5% in 2012. For low income countries, the median average was 4%. Of 142 countries with data, 96 spent 4% or more of GNP on education (including 14 low income and 18 lower middle income countries) and of these 96 countries, 39 spent 6% or more on education. Many of the 116 countries with data increased their commitment to education – 38 by one percentage point or more of GNP between 1999 and 2012 (of which 10 were low income and 13 lower middle income) – though 13 reduced education spending by the same increment (**Figure 8.1**).

Education expenditure did not always keep pace with economic and enrolment growth

Despite the global financial crisis of 2007/08, the period after Dakar brought robust economic growth rates for many low and middle income countries. Economic growth over 1999–2012 was accompanied by real growth in public expenditure on education (**Table 8.2**). Economic growth averaging 4.0% in sub Saharan Africa was outpaced by growth in public expenditure on education averaging 6.1% a year. By contrast, in South and West Asia annual economic growth between 1999 and 2012 averaged 4.5%; public expenditure on education grew slightly more at 4.9% per annum. Around two-thirds of the annual growth in public education spending in sub-Saharan Africa between 1999 and 2007 was attributable to economic growth (Fredriksen, 2010)

Progress in prioritizing education is mixed

However, these regional averages mask huge variations among countries. In the case of South and West Asia, for instance, in four out of the five countries with data in the region, annual growth in education spending did not exceed that of economic growth. The annual rate of economic growth in Pakistan was 4.1% yet growth in expenditure on education was just 2.5%, reducing the share of GNP spent on education in 2012 to just 2%. Nepal was the exception, with annual growth in education spending just below 9% per annum as compared to 4.1% for economic growth. As a consequence, the share of GNP spent on

Table 8.2: Annual compound growth in real public expenditure on education and economic growth, 1999–2012

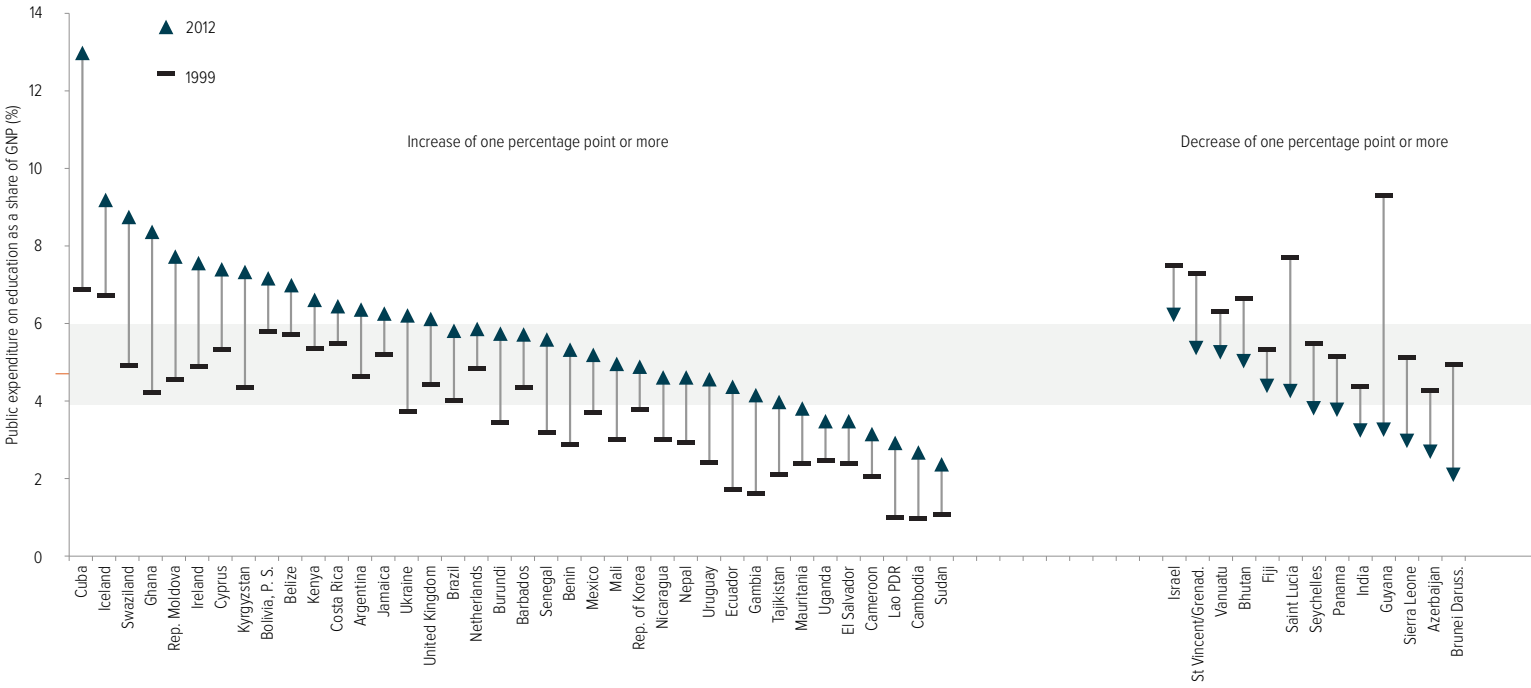
World	Arab States	Centr./ East. Europe	Central Asia	East Asia/ Pacific	Latin America/ Caribbean	N. America/ W. Europe	South/ West Asia	Sub-Saharan Africa
Total economic growth, annual rate of growth (%)								
4.0	4.4	4.2	7.2	4.5	3.5	1.9	4.5	4.0
Total real public expenditure on education, annual rate of growth (%)								
5.0	5.2	4.5	8.6	5.4	5.3	2.4	4.9	6.1
Number of countries								
100	3	12	6	13	18	17	5	26
Number of countries where expenditure on education exceeded economic growth								
64	2	7	4	9	12	10	1	19

Notes: The 100 countries represented are those with data for 1999/2000/2001 and 2010/2011/2012. The rates of growth measure changes in education expenditure and GDP, expressed in 2005 constant US$ to remove the effects of inflation.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Table 9; World Bank (2014h).

2. The study cited compares countries with data available for both *c.* 2000 and *c.* 2012, the former referring to 2000, 2001 or 2002 and the latter to 2010, 2011 or 2012.

Figure 8.1: A majority of countries have increased education spending as a share of national income since 1999

Public expenditure on education as a percentage of GNP, 1999 and 2012



Source: Annex, Statistical Tables 9 (print) and 11 (GMR website); UIS database.

education increased from 2.9% to 4.7% between 1999 and 2010. There were similar variations in sub-Saharan Africa. Growth in annual spending on education outpaced that of economic growth in a number of countries including Benin, Burundi and Kenya. In others including the Central African Republic and Sierra Leone, spending on education did not keep pace with economic growth. Globally, of the 100 countries with data, the rates of growth in education spending exceeded or kept pace with economic growth in 64.

In most countries, greater per capita income is positively correlated with greater spending per primary school age child. However, the extent to which change in the former may affect the latter varies widely, as does the pace. In Malawi, despite increasing per capita income, expenditure per primary school age pupil declined (World Bank, 2010b), going from 10.2% of GNP per capita to 7.6% between 1999 and 2011. By contrast, in Brazil, the share increased from 10.4% to 20.2% in 2010. Of the 56 countries with data, 40 increased their primary expenditure per pupil as a share of GNP per capita. Of the 16 countries which decreased the share, 9 were in sub-Saharan Africa, the region with the lowest expenditure per primary school child.

The decade after Dakar saw large increases in enrolment following the abolition of primary school fees. However, these did not always correspond to positive changes in per pupil funding. In Niger, despite increased total public expenditure on education as a share of GNP, expenditure per primary school pupil fell over the decade from US$207 to US$130; spending did not keep pace with enrolment. By contrast, Nepal increased per pupil spending from US$68 to US$174 between 1999 and 2009 while making primary education universal by 2011. Similarly, Benin increased per pupil spending at primary level during a period when primary enrolments more than doubled. Malawi, on the other hand, decreased spending per pupil from US$74 to US$54, during a period of larger numbers of children enrolling into the primary system. Chile exemplified many Latin American countries, where per pupil expenditure increased, but this was partly because primary school enrolment fell (**Figure 8.2**).

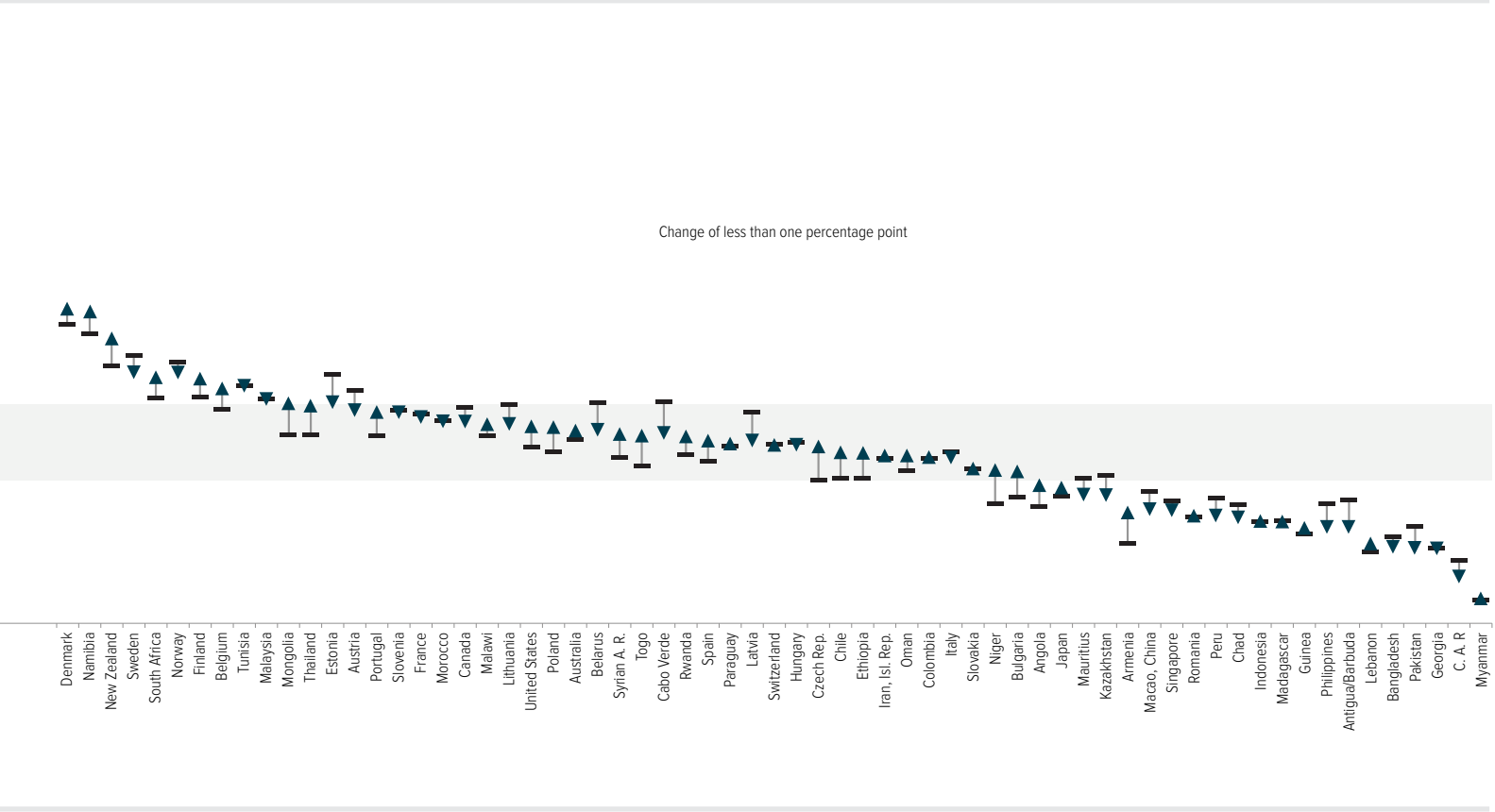
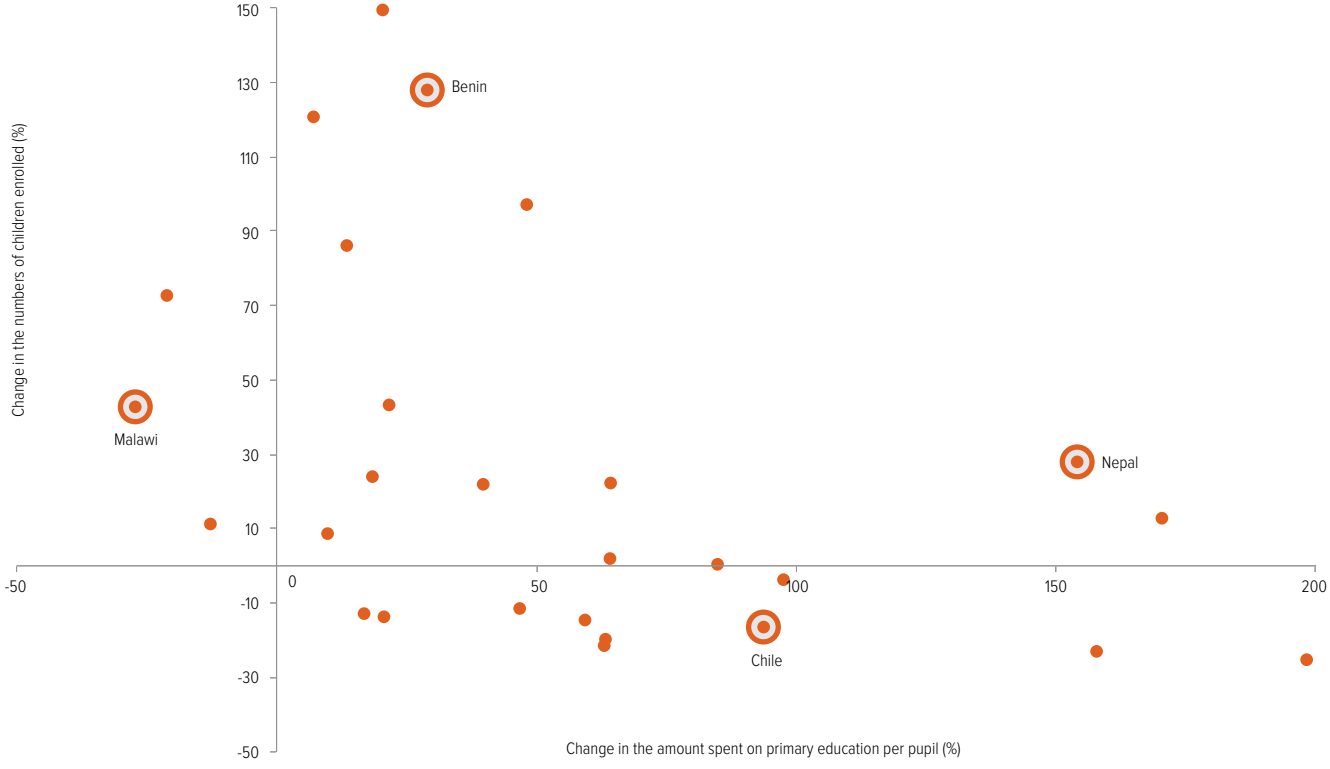


Figure 8.2: Progress in the growth of real spending per primary school pupil was mixed
Percentage change in expenditure per primary school pupil and absolute numbers of children enrolled, 1999–2012



Source: Annex, Statistical Tables 5, 9 (print) and 11 (GMR website); UIS database.

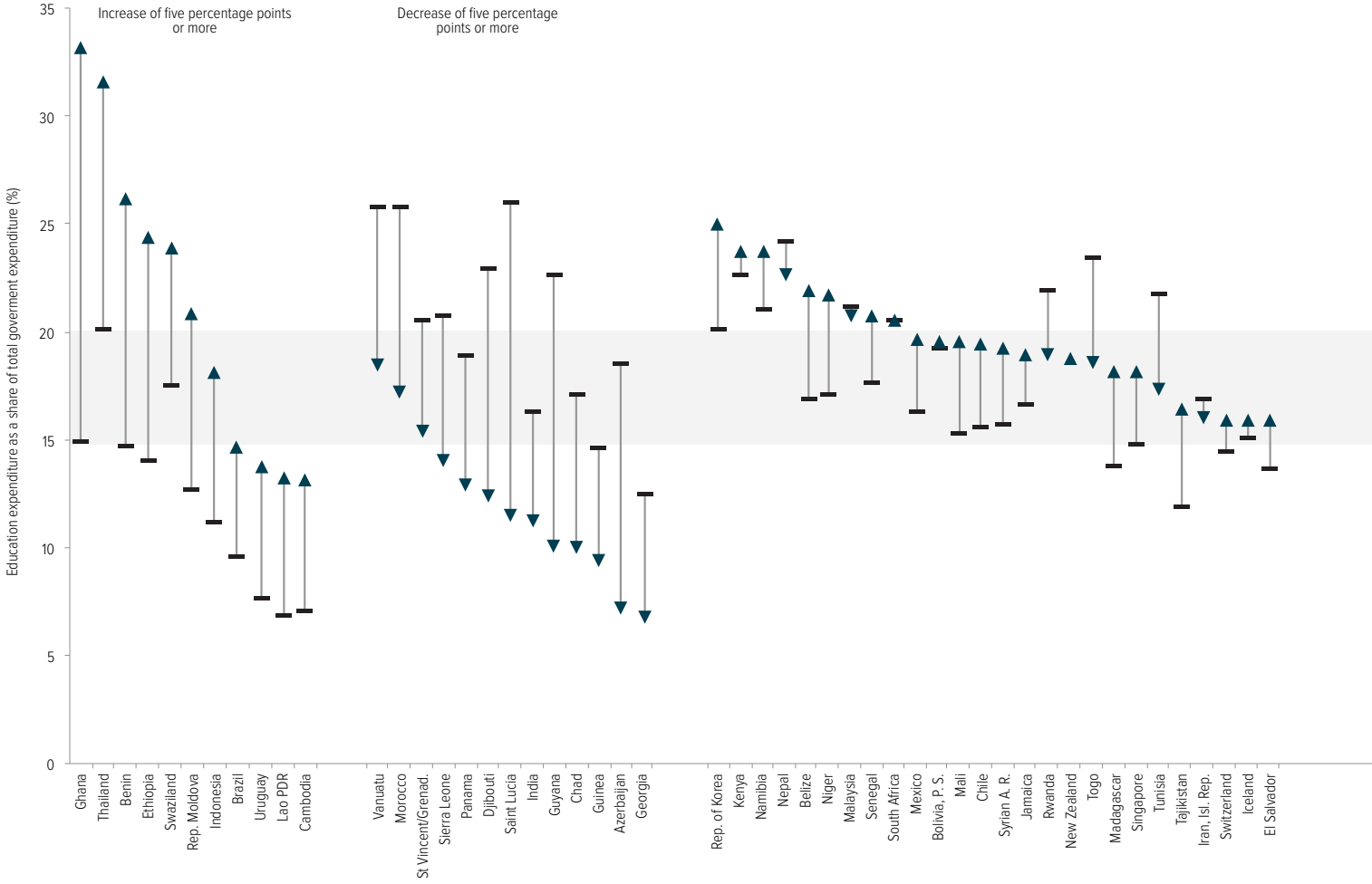
Education is not a priority in many budgets

As a share of government spending, expenditure on education has changed little since 1999. In 2012 the world median average was 13.7%, falling short of the 15% to 20% target. Sub-Saharan Africa is where countries have allocated the largest median share of government expenditure to education (18.4%), followed by East Asia and the Pacific (17.5%). South and West Asia allocated only 12.6% (Table 8.1). Of the 129 countries with data, 53 devoted 15% or more of total government expenditure to education in 2012; of these, 12 were low income and 17 lower middle income countries. Of the 53 countries spending 15% or more of total government expenditure to education, 20 spent 20% or more; of the 15 of these with comparable data for 1999 and 2012, 8 – including Ethiopia and Niger – started below 20% in 1999 but by 2012 were allocating 20% or more (**Figure 8.3**).

A low share of education budgets is allocated to pre-primary education

As a share of total public government expenditure on education, global median spending on pre-primary education made up only 4.9% in 2012.[3] North America and Western Europe allocated 8.8% of education budgets on pre-primary education while sub-Saharan Africa spent 0.3%. Of 51 countries with available data in 1999 and 2012, 37 increased public expenditure on pre-primary education as a share of GNP

Figure 8.3: Only a few countries spent at least one-fifth of their budget on education
Public expenditure on education as a percentage of government expenditure, 1999 and 2012



Source: Annex, Statistical Tables 9 (print) and 11 (GMR website); UIS database.

3. UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) data used for this section on domestic spending refer to 'pre-primary education' which is to be considered interchangeable with early childhood care and education services.

over the period. Disaggregated by income, the differences are notable. Among 22 high income countries, 18 increased the pre-primary share of education budgets. Of the nine low and lower middle income countries, five – including Benin, the Plurinational State of Bolivia and the United Republic of Tanzania – increased their share (**Figure 8.4**).

Some governments have tried to compensate for the low share of public resources for pre-primary education with special efforts to reach the poorest children. In Chile, pre-primary education is offered through a mix of public and government-subsidized private providers; in 2011, government subsidies for all enrolled students increased by 15% alongside a goal of universal coverage by 2014 for 4- and 5-year-olds in the bottom three income quintiles (OECD, 2013b). Public spending on pre-primary education as a share of GNP doubled from 0.3% in 1999 to 0.6% in 2012. In 2002, Indonesia amended its constitution to require allocating at least 20% of the national budget to education. In 2008, the government launched the Early Childhood Education and Development Project in 3,000 poor villages. Grants of US$18,000 per village were disbursed over three years to establish two pre-primary education centres (Jung and Hasan, 2014). In 2012, Peru launched the Cuna Más programme to improve pre-primary education which currently reaches over 62,000 children under 3 in poor areas (Klaus, 2013). However, at all country income levels,

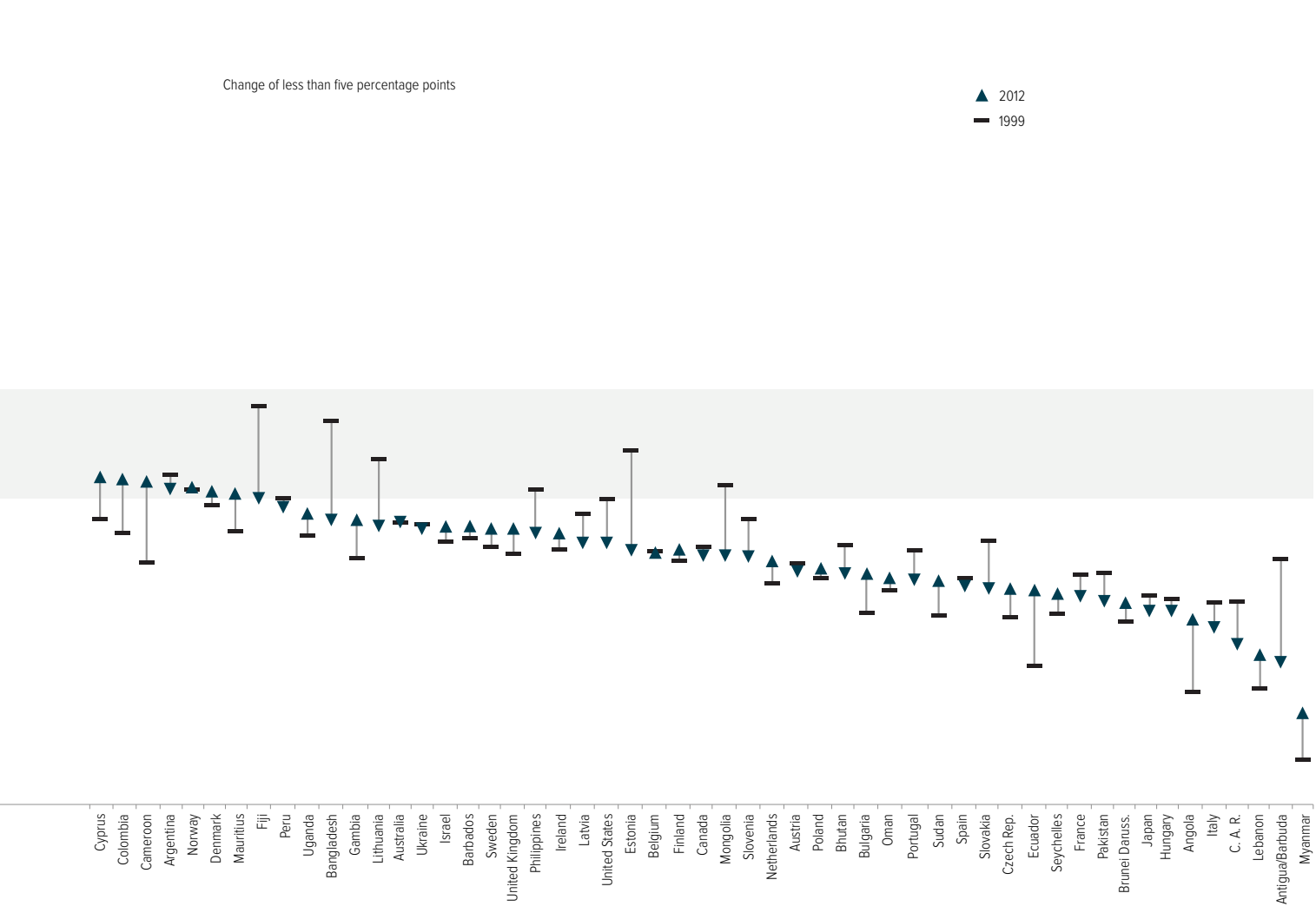
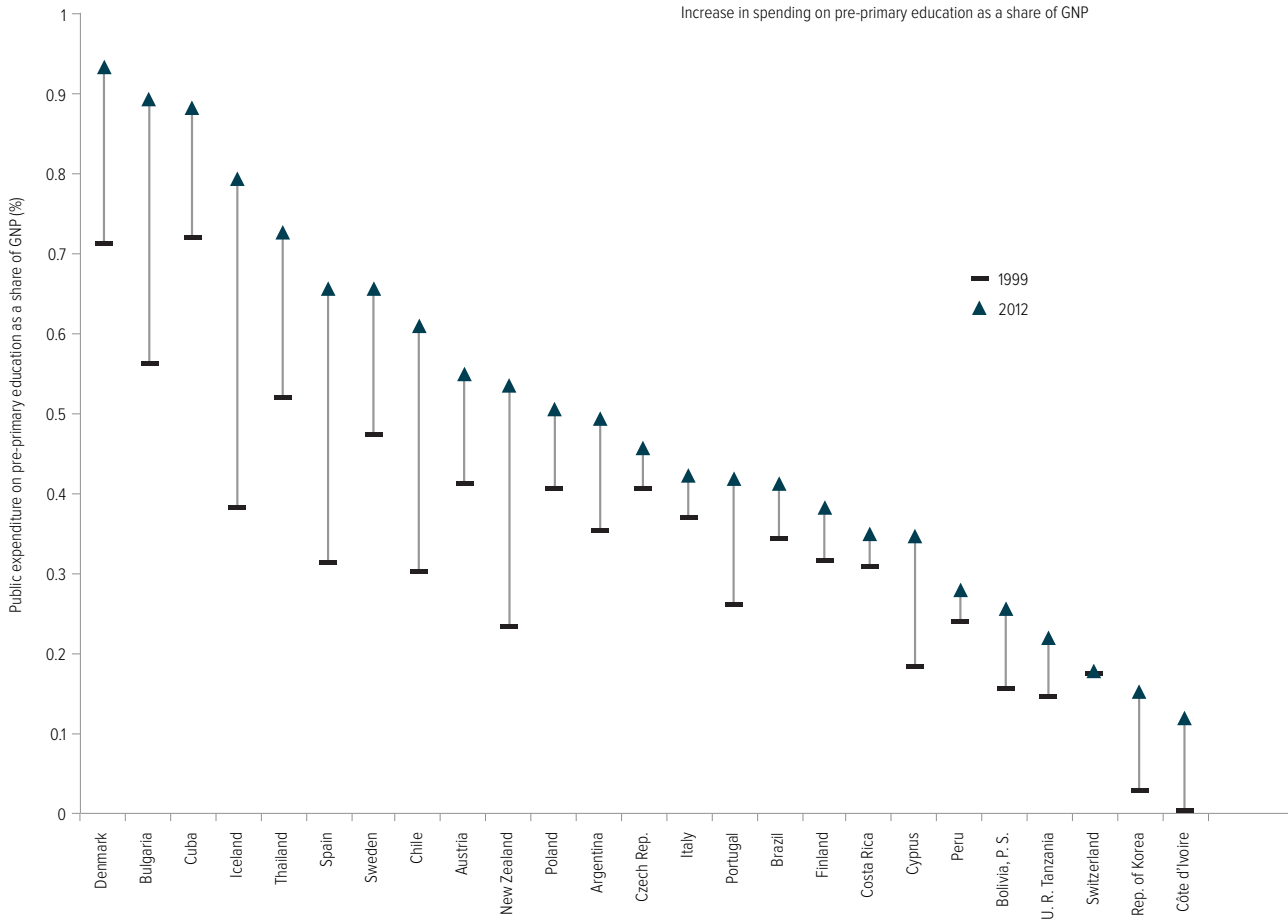


Figure 8.4: 37 countries increased expenditure on pre-primary education as a percentage of GNP, but the share remains small
Public current expenditure on pre-primary education as a share of GNP, 1999 and 2012



Source: Annex, 11 (GMR website); UIS database.

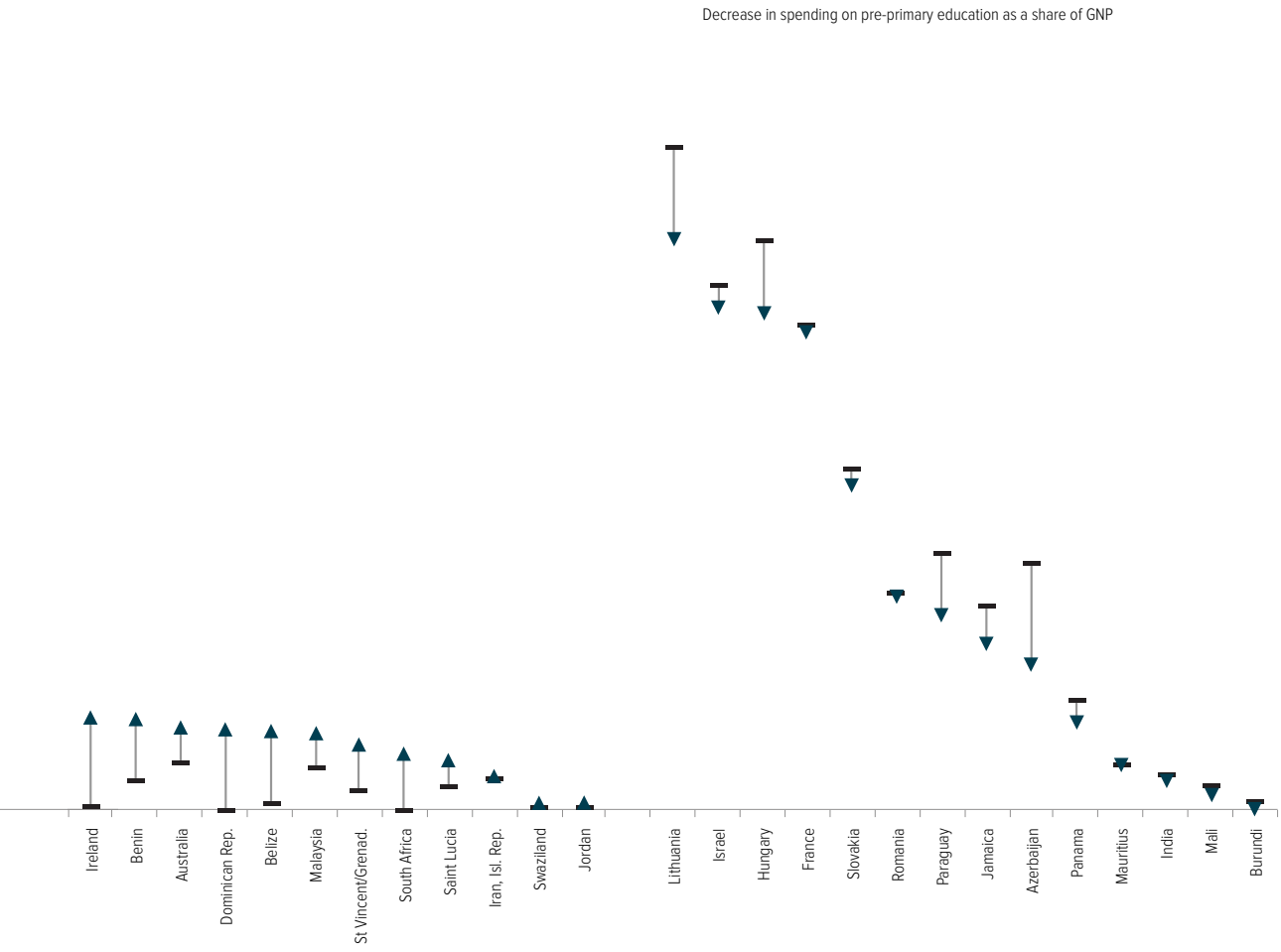
public spending on pre-primary education as a share of GNP continues to be low. Of the 27 sub-Saharan African countries with data, median public expenditure on pre-primary education as a share of GNP was just 0.01% in 2012.

There is wide variation in funding trends for primary education

The EFA and MDG targets on education emphasized the need to expand free primary education of good quality, demanding greater investment and priority for primary education budgets. The focus on primary education expenditure reflects this. Of the 56 countries with data on primary education spending as a share of total public expenditure on education in both 1999 and 2012, just 16 increased the share. Low income countries did better: 6 of the 11 countries with data – Bangladesh, Burundi, Chad, Nepal, Niger and Togo – increased expenditure on primary education as a share of GNP. All six reprioritized primary education in the total education budget. In Nepal, strong government commitment led to the share of primary education in total public expenditure on education rising from nearly 53% in 1999 to 60% in 2012, accompanied by increases in net primary enrolment ratio from 69% to 98%, illustrating the links between the two. In all but one of the six countries, the share of the public education budget earmarked for tertiary education decreased, which may reflect redistribution efforts.

Malawi, one of five low income countries that decreased their share of total education spending on primary education, allocated less

Changing national financial commitments to EFA since Dakar



than 37% of the budget to primary education in 2011, down from nearly 61% in 1999. The country's primary completion and learning outcomes are among the worst in sub-Saharan Africa. The decrease largely benefited secondary and tertiary education; 26% of the education budget was distributed to the tertiary level in 2011, where per student spending amounts to US$11,129. Subsidizing higher education in Malawi perpetuates wide inequity: more than 90% of university students are from the wealthiest quintile (World Bank, 2010b).

In 2012, the median share of primary education in total public education expenditure was 50% on average, in 22 low income countries. While primary education accounted for the largest share of public education expenditure in most low income countries, there was great variation among countries of similar income levels, ranging from Ethiopia's allocation of of nearly 65% of its education budget to primary education to Rwanda's almost 36%.

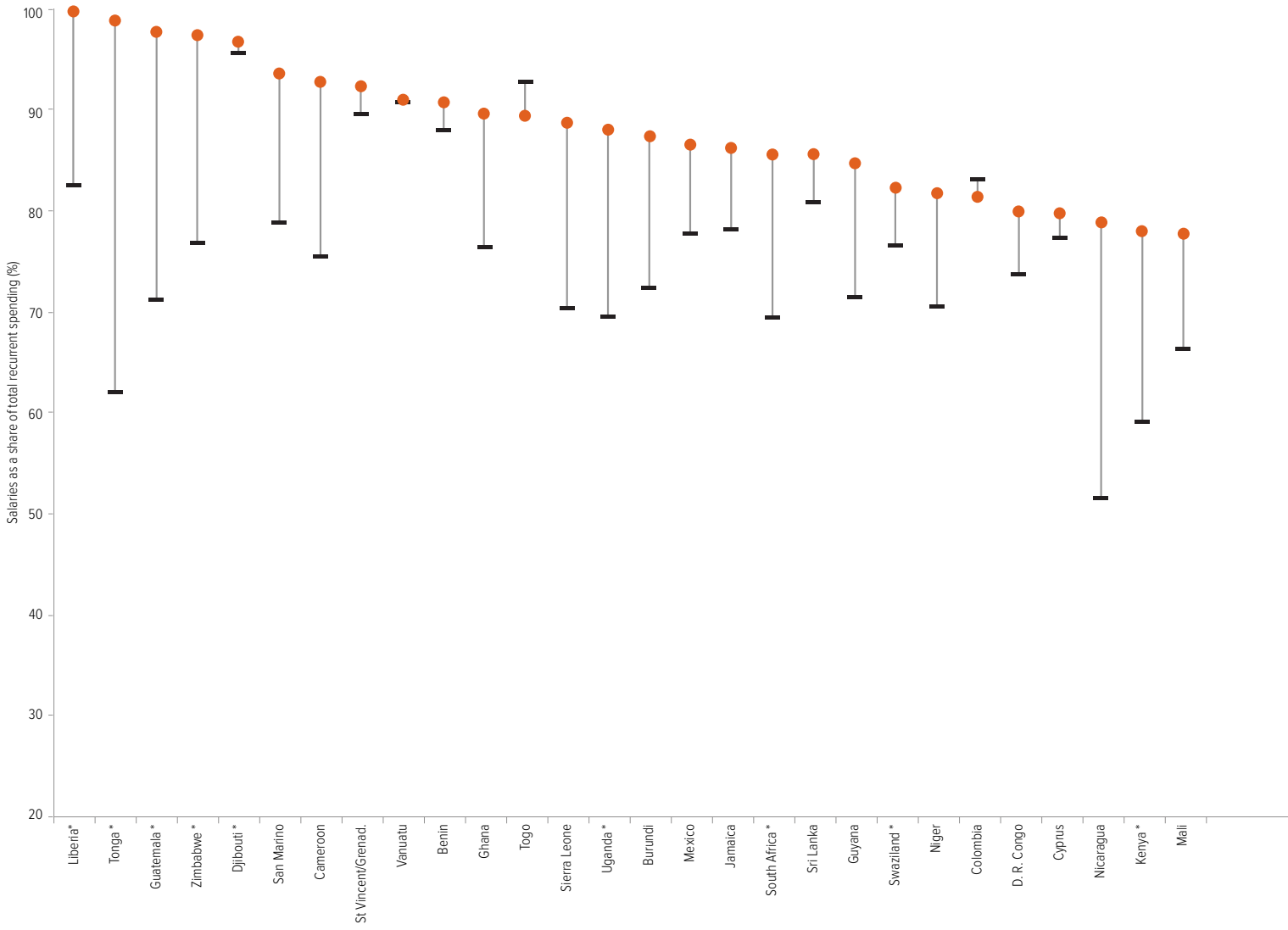
Of the 61 countries with data for 1999 and 2012 on primary education spending as a share of national income, 33 raised their share. The 33 included 9 low income countries and 11 middle income countries. Of the 28 countries where spending stagnated or the latter stagnated or decreased, a majority were high or upper middle income. However, there were also reductions in six low and lower middle income countries, including Malawi, where, worryingly, spending on primary education was already low and declined from 2.5% to 1.8% between 1999 and 2011.

In many poor countries, teacher salaries make up the largest share of primary school budgets

Global data for 2012 show that in a majority of the 57 countries with data, the greatest share of the primary education recurrent budget was allocated to teachers' salaries. For the 37 low and middle income countries included in the analysis, this left few resources for other areas (**Figure 8.5**). As a share of total public current spending on primary education in low and lower middle income countries, salaries averaged 82% of the budget. In high income countries, the average was 64%.

Rapid increases in levels of enrolment at primary level led to demand for more teachers in low income countries. But this has occurred in an environment antithetical to spending on teacher salaries. An International Monetary Fund (IMF) loan criterion for 17 countries in 2003–2005, relating to structural adjustment programmes, was a ceiling on wages (ActionAid, 2007). While the IMF later stated it had removed the criterion, there was still pressure on governments behind the scenes to reduce wage spending (Oxfam International, 2011). The global financial crisis of 2007/08 led to a spike in IMF lending carrying

Figure 8.5: Salaries represent a majority of funding in education budgets, particularly for primary education
Salaries as a share of the recurrent budget, total and primary education, 2012

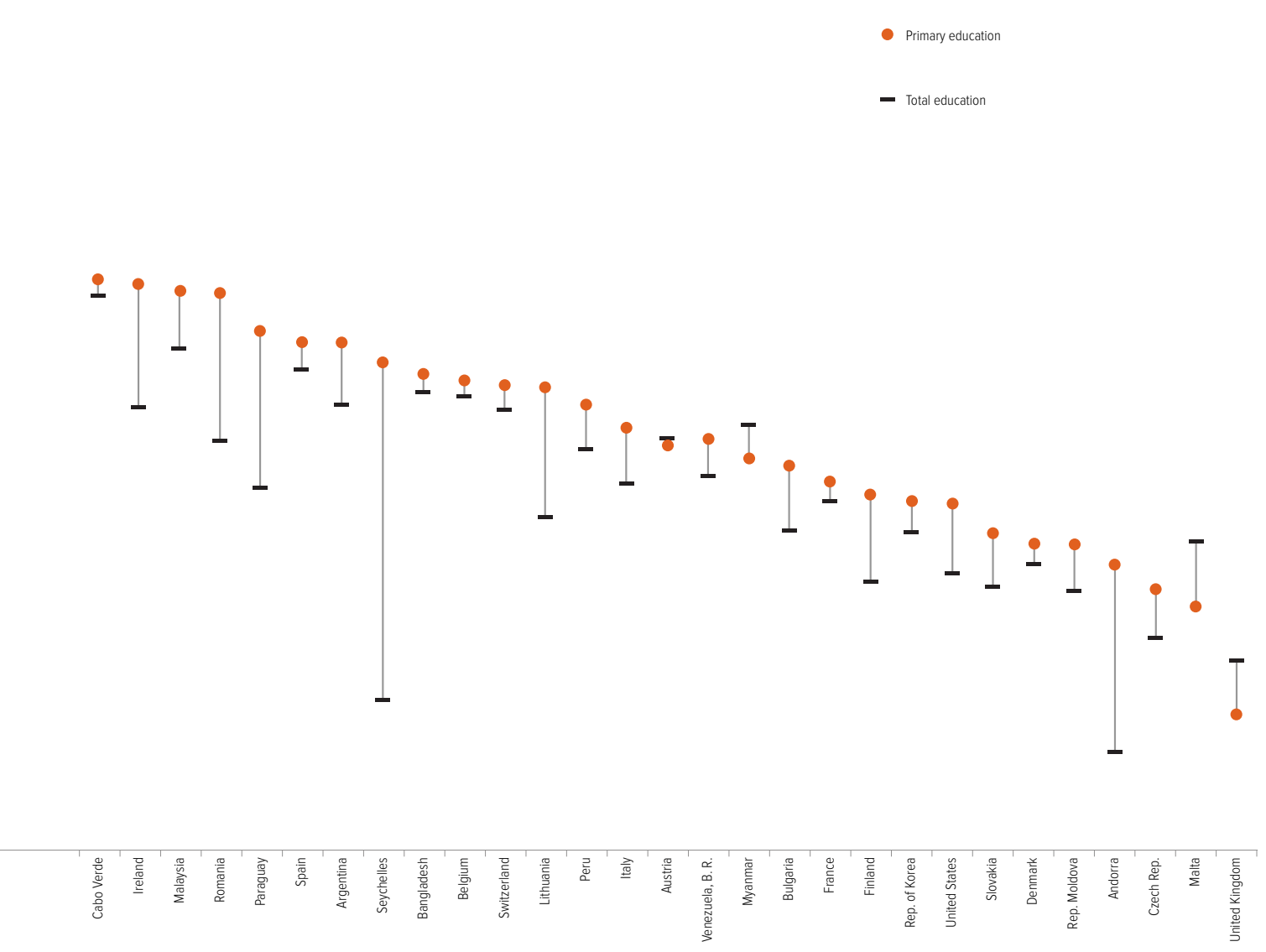


Note: Data for countries marked with an asterisk (*) come from Development Finance International and are for 2013.
Sources: Annex, Statistical Tables 9 (print) and 11 (GMR website); UIS database; Development Finance International (2014).

similar conditions. In Côte d'Ivoire, one loan condition was to 'update and implement a medium-term strategy for controlling the wage bill' (Griffiths and Todoulos, 2014).

In response to teacher shortages and general resource limitations, many South and West Asian and sub-Saharan African countries rapidly recruited contract teachers (see Chapter 6), mainly for rural areas and remote locations. The situation has some similarity to that in the United Kingdom after the Second World War: with more teachers needed because the number of years of compulsory schooling was raised, the Emergency Training Scheme produced some 35,000 teachers after the war by condensing teacher training into one year (Crook, 1997).

In West Africa, contract teachers were estimated to make up half the teaching force in the mid-2000s (Kingdon et al., 2013). Contract teachers are usually paid less than their civil servant counterparts. An often-cited target is that teacher salaries should be 3.5 times GDP per capita (Bermingham, 2004; Bruns et al., 2003); in 9 of 13 sub-Saharan African countries with data,



the target was met for civil servant teachers, but it was met for contract teachers in only 5 countries (IIEP-Pôle de Dakar database).[4] The policy of hiring contract teachers at a fraction of what it costs to hire teachers on a civil service wage raises equity concerns. Contract teachers are often deployed in remote regions, which tend to serve more disadvantaged students (Kingdon et al., 2013), indicating that less is spent per child in such areas.

Little is spent on areas outside of salary to meet quality and efficiency goals

To meet the universal primary education goal on quality and efficiency, a 2003 study for the World Bank together with the 2004 indicative framework for the Fast Track Initiative (FTI) recommended that to reach acceptable levels of quality and efficiency, one-third of primary recurrent spending, which includes spending on learning and teaching materials, should be earmarked for non-salary expenditure (Bermingham, 2004; Bruns et al., 2003). Domestic public investment is not achieving this, as the limited data available clearly illustrate. In 2012, in the 36 countries with data, the average share of the primary education recurrent budget spent on textbooks and other teaching and learning materials was less than 2%; 16 countries spent less than 1%. Only Kuwait and Malawi spent close to 5% or more.

The lack of school-provided textbooks in sub-Saharan Africa has meant parents often pay for them

Non-salary expenditure is important for the quality and efficiency of learning. The Dakar Framework called for ensuring that everything possible was done to reduce or eliminate costs, such as those for learning and teaching materials. It is largely accepted that such materials contribute to the quality of learning. Teaching and learning materials are especially relevant in low income countries with large class sizes, a high proportion of unqualified teachers and thus reduced hours of contact between teachers and students (Read and Bontoux, 2014). They are also in some cases a more cost-effective investment than training teachers (see Chapter 6).

Donors have tried to improve materials provision by supporting government financing or increasing the capacity of local publishing, but a lack of financing for materials persists. The lack of school-provided textbooks in sub-Saharan Africa has meant parents often pay for them (Read and Bontoux, 2014). One study of 12 African countries showed that school supplies made up 34% of total household spending on education. School supplies and learning materials accounted for 56% of education expenditure by households in the poorest quintile, rising to almost 75% in Mauritania and Niger (Pôle de Dakar, 2012).

Another striking aspect of teaching and learning materials is the wide variation in textbook costs. Per unit costs range from US$2 to US$4 in most sub-Saharan African countries (Fredriksen and Tan, 2008), compared with US$0.33 to around US$0.66 in Viet Nam; printing in-country and competition between publishers has driven down prices. In sub-Saharan Africa, extra costs relating to factors such as delivery lead to large variations. Both Kenya and Rwanda use commercial distribution to deliver books to schools, but Rwandan publishers deliver directly; the unit cost of a grade 1 book in Kenya, where books go through a bookseller, is 50% higher (Read and Bontoux, 2014).

A majority of countries increased spending on secondary education

While the focus has been on pre-primary and primary education due to their prominence in the EFA goals, changes in public secondary spending deserve mention. The high numbers of children transitioning to secondary education warrant extra resources for that level. Among the 61 countries with data for public spending on secondary education as a share of national income in both 1999 and 2012, 38 increased expenditure on secondary education. Of these, 15 were low and lower middle income countries, including Rwanda, where the government set a goal of universal secondary education with fee-free secondary education due to commence in 2012, addressing government concerns over transition rates from basic education[5] to upper secondary (World Bank, 2013f).

Efficient governance of education budgets and the role of non-state actors

In the past decade, there has been greater involvement of citizens in budget and spending processes. Reasons include higher growth and capacity of CSOs and an increased emphasis on good governance principles. This trend has

4. Data refer to the most recent year between 2006 and 2011.

5. Rwanda includes lower secondary education in basic education.

helped ensure that the areas with the greatest need are targeted effectively (Khagram et al., 2013). At the same time, partnerships promoting 'open data'[6] have emerged, along with public expenditure surveys to minimize waste of resources through greater transparency and accountability. Since Dakar, numerous examples have arisen of governments and CSOs working towards these ends (IBP, n.d.; Open Government Partnership, n.d.).

CSOs have helped address corruption, but it continues to be a drain

The Dakar Framework noted, 'Corruption is a major drain on the effective use of resources for education and should be drastically curbed.' In Nigeria, at least US$21 million of education funding was lost over two years; in Kenya, US$48 million was lost over five (Transparency International, 2013). Numerous studies point to the negative correlation between corruption and the quality of public services, including education. Student dropout rates, for instance, were five times higher in countries with high levels of corruption than in countries with little or no corruption (Rose-Ackerman, 2006).

Corruption affecting education budgets may not be detected because monitoring systems in many countries are poor and a huge amount of resources are disbursed through complex administrative layers (Transparency International, 2013). Budget processes can lack transparency, with little access to or scrutiny of information on the delivery of resources. Extreme deviation can exist between the allocation of funds and the final execution of budgets (Simson and Welham, 2014).

CSOs have played an important role in countering corrupt practices. In a Bangladesh subdistrict, community audit groups used budget tracking to reveal that the state and quality of buildings did not reflect a stated expenditure of US$146 per school for infrastructure development (Global Campaign for Education et al., 2013). CSOs in Uganda empowered ordinary citizens, including schoolchildren, to detect possible corruption in the day-to-day practices of schools, and thus also raised awareness and a sense of community ownership (Global Campaign for Education et al., 2013). Misuse of budgeted funds for education has been exposed to the media in 8 of the 16 countries in which the Commonwealth Education Fund works (Global Campaign for Education et al., 2008).

Procurement of teaching and learning materials is closely associated with practices such as bribery, overpricing, unaccounted-for spending and underdelivery. High volumes of money are involved in contracts awarded for teaching and learning materials (Transparency International, 2013). The international book publishers Macmillan and Oxford University Press were found guilty of trying to bribe officials in tenders for educational materials in East Africa in 2009 and 2010, respectively (Transparency International, 2013). In Malawi, the Civil Society Education Coalition found that learning and teaching materials had appeared in the budget but not been procured for four consecutive budget years; the resources had instead been used to service a US$128 million debt (Global Campaign for Education et al., 2013). A partnership between government and civil society in the Philippines addressed corruption in the procurement and delivery of learning and teaching materials (**Box 8.1**).

CSOs have played an important role in countering corrupt practices

Box 8.1: Reducing corruption in the textbook sector in the Philippines

In the late 1990s, textbooks were not reaching students and those that were delivered were of poor quality. Some 40% of textbook deliveries could not be accounted for. Illegal payments to government officials amounted to between 20% and 65% of the public education budget earmarked for textbooks. Corruption and abuse of power were endemic. The National Textbook Delivery Program, rolled out in 2003, helped improve transparency in textbook delivery and distribution, aiming to increase accountability over the full procurement cycle, from bidding to production to final delivery. The programme was mandated to ensure, before distribution, that private publishers provided books of the right quality and quantity. The role of civil society was to make sure the correct quantities of books were disbursed and delivered to schools according to schedule.

Working with eight CSOs, the programme was able to monitor the bidding process for US$30 million worth of textbooks and their distribution to 5,500 locations in 60 provinces. The average cost of one textbook dropped from US$2.02 to US$0.80, and distribution delays were significantly reduced. The CSOs, checking books during quality control, rejected 100,000. Savings from reforms amounted to US$1.84 million.

Source: Arugay (2012).

6. The term refers to data that can be used, redistributed and republished by anyone without cost or restrictions such as patents or copyrights.

'Ghosts' are another issue: schools and teachers that exist only in official records. Ghost teachers have either moved on or died, but the teacher or their school continues to draw a government salary; they can also refer to teachers who never existed in the first place. In Pakistan, where education was perceived to be the fourth most corrupt sector in 2010, this problem is endemic. The government estimated there were 6,480 ghost schools in Sindh province and 5,000 in Balochistan (Transparency International, 2013). In Sierra Leone, after a 2008 Ministry of Education survey revealed large numbers of ghost teachers, the government began verifying payrolls by collecting photo identification of teachers and their teaching location, and getting corroboration from other teachers (Turrent, 2012). As of 2012 Sierra Leone had rooted out 1,000 ghost teachers with the aid of the Anti-Corruption Commission, and the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports reported that over US$195,000 had been retrieved from corrupt schools in 2010 (Turrent, 2012).

The continued costs of corruption in education have largely been borne by the poor

The continued costs of corruption in education, despite action over the past decade, have largely been borne by the poor, who often have less choice in access to services outside the public sector (OECD, 2014j). They may also be borne disproportionally by girls: where access to basic services requires a bribe, females are more likely to be denied access, as they have less control of monetary resources than males do (ICAI, 2014). One result may be that girls are less likely to attend school than boys or to receive a good quality education through, for example, private tutoring when the quality of public education is poor (Transparency International, 2010). Gender-responsive budgeting (see Chapter 5) is one means of addressing corruption in the provision of basic public services. In Mexico, a gender-responsive budget initiative uncovered where public funds had gone missing in resources intended for women's needs in the health sector (Nawaz, 2009).

Efficiency of public spending on education continues to be a challenge

Efficiency of spending can refer to both whether resources are spent as planned and whether they are spent where they would achieve the best possible outcome. The Dakar Framework stated: 'Resources have to be used with much greater efficiency and integrity.' A recent IMF paper calculated that, in developing countries, more efficient spending in secondary education could increase average enrolment rates by 36%. Policy interventions to this end include reducing high pupil–teacher ratios, improving the quality of institutions and reducing income inequality (Grigoli, 2014). With most public spending on education going towards teachers' salaries, some forms of teacher behaviour impede efficient spending. A recent study found that primary school teachers in some African countries were absent 15% to 25% of the time, and that teachers who were present were not always teaching, leading to students having less engaged learning or on-task time (World Bank, 2010a). A 20% reduction in teacher absenteeism in Uganda would be the equivalent of hiring an additional 5,000 teachers (Winkler and Sondergaard, 2008).

Deviation between planned and actual budget expenditure may be one reason for the weak causal relationship between spending on specific school inputs and related outcomes, current literature on education financing suggests (World Bank, 2013g). It also means budgets are not a credible reference for other stakeholders, such as external donors and the private sector, on how much and where to invest in education (Addison, 2012). This deviation could be due to a combination of factors, including inaccurate forecasting of revenue and expenditure, lack of compliance by executing agents and intentional misrepresentation for the benefit of certain key stakeholders (Simson and Welham, 2014). Liberia's 2012 education spending exceeded the budget by 8% (**Figure 8.6**). However, much wider deviation emerges from disaggregating spending levels: just 27% of what was allocated to secondary education was spent, while spending on administration and management was 3.3 times over what was originally budgeted (Simson and Welham, 2014).

Inefficient timing can also mean inefficient spending. Delays in textbook distribution owing to slow disbursal of resources can hinder learning but remain common in many developing countries when resources are lacking at the start of the school year (World Bank, 2013g).

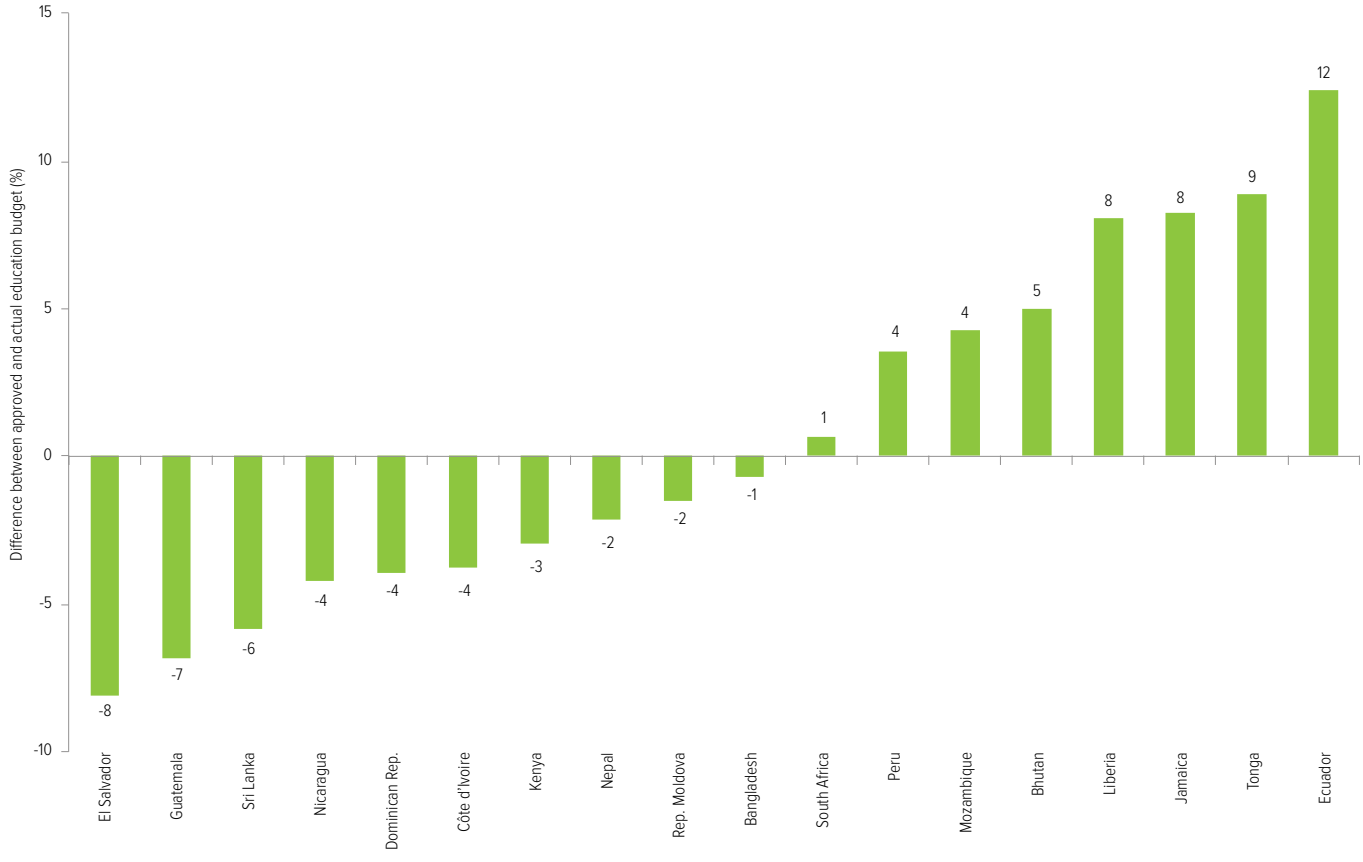
Poor predictability of both the timing and amount of funding continues to hinder efficient planning

by teachers and school management committees. In India, the elementary education budget increased more than twofold between 2007/08 and 2012/13 (Accountability Initiative, 2013). While it is commendable that per pupil spending in the poorest districts increased under the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (Education for All) programme, schools in the poorest districts still lack the capacity to spend when and where needed (UNESCO, 2014c). In Bihar, one of the poorest states in India, per pupil spending increased by 27% between 2011/12 and 2012/13 compared to the national average of 5% over the same period. However, Bihar spent just 38% of its allocations in 2011/12 vs 62% at the national level.

Inefficient planning means expenditure does not always match needs; rigid earmarking of funds prevents schools from spending in the areas that could have the greatest impact on learning (Accountability Initiative, 2013). The Programa Escuelas de Calidad, introduced in Mexico in 2001, addressed this problem by giving more autonomy to schools, with each receiving a five year grant of up to US$15,000. As a consequence of more spending autonomy for schools alongside other factors, dropout, failure and repetition rates decreased. In Nepal, similarly, responsibility for school management was transferred to the community. Schools were given untied block grants allowing management committees more control over discretionary spending, resulting in improved access and equity (Bruns et al., 2011).

Inefficient spending often means children drop out before completing primary school, further contributing to waste of public resources. The 2013/14 GMR reported that of the 250 million children not learning the basics in reading and mathematics, 130 million stayed in primary

Figure 8.6: The variation between budgets and spending is close to 10% or more in some countries
Deviation between approved education budgets and revised/actual budgets, latest year



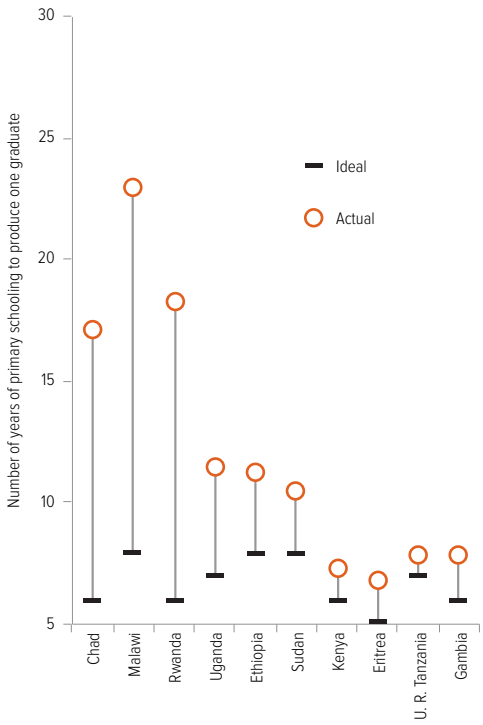
Source: Development Finance International (2014).

Returns to society from pre-primary education far outpace government expenditure

school at least four years without achieving the minimum benchmarks for learning (UNESCO, 2014c). The implications for resources are serious: when a child repeats a grade, the government pays double or more what it would cost if there were no repetition. A child dropping out of primary school before learning the basics will still have used finite government resources. In Malawi, 65% of public resources for primary education were spent on pupils who repeated grades or dropped out before completing the primary cycle in 2007 (World Bank, 2010b). Consequently, rather than an ideal of 8 years to fund a primary school graduate, the government spent the equivalent of 23, and that was up from 20 years in 2000 (**Figure 8.7**).

Many studies have documented the effectiveness of pre-primary education programmes in reducing education costs by improving the internal efficiency of primary education (see Chapter 1). Children who have attended these programmes are less likely to repeat primary grades and make better progress through grades than their non-attending peers. A growing body of evaluations indicates that pre-primary education has a strong potential to generate government savings, with returns to society far outpacing government expenditure. The high benefits associated with pre-primary education have led governments in Cameroon, Chile, Colombia, Ghana and Kenya to expand budget allocations to early child development across multiple line ministries (The Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development, 2008).

Figure 8.7: Some countries in sub-Saharan Africa are wasting a large share of their resources on repetition and dropout
Student years required to produce one primary school graduate, with and without repetition and dropout



Note: The ideal number of years depends on the length of a country's primary school cycle.
Source: World Bank (2012b).

CSOs have helped make public education spending more transparent

Decision-making on budget formulation and expenditure has traditionally been restricted to finance ministries, with other ministries, business, CSOs and the broader community having little or no access. This has led to demands for transparency, participation and accountability, particularly in light of corruption and inefficiency in education systems and failures to deliver basic services despite more investment.

Greater access to information can serve 'as a stimulant for public action, as a catalyst for change, and as an input for making other reforms work' (World Bank, 2004). The Dakar Framework called for 'the engagement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation and monitoring of strategies for educational development'.

Since Dakar, CSOs have grown in number and capacity, and actively seek to participate in government decision-making. In 1997, just 6 civil society groups working on budget-related issues as part of their policy advocacy participated in international efforts to advocate for increased fiscal transparency; by 2011 the number had grown to nearly 100 (Khagram et al., 2013). The International Budget Partnership, set up in 1997, initiated the Open Budget Survey, which is carried out every two years to gauge levels of budget transparency; the 2012 survey covered 100 countries. More recently, the Open Government Partnership, founded in 2011, aims to secure firm government commitments to promote more open, responsive and democratic governance, including increasing

budget transparency. Over 64 governments have joined and have made over 2,000 commitments to make their governments more transparent and accountable (Open Government Partnership, n.d.). The Commonwealth Education Fund works with civil society in the 16 countries most at risk of missing the MDGs on education and gender. As a result of its work, copies of education budgets have been distributed to over 6 million people, and close to half a million have received training to work on education budgets (Global Campaign for Education et al., 2008).

The impact of civil society has been impressive, from improving participation in budget-related decision-making to using data in the public domain to analyse budgets in the education sector. Successes since Dakar include lobbying for a greater share of the national budget to go to education in Liberia and Malawi; formalizing CSO participation in budget processes in Burkina Faso; influencing improved accountability and transparency in public expenditure in Zambia; and influencing policy to emphasize indigenous rights in the Plurinational State of Bolivia and early childhood care and education in Ethiopia (CIDA, 2012; Global Campaign for Education, 2012b, 2012c).

Civil society influence goes beyond advocacy to increase resources for education to holding governments to account. In India, the Accountability Initiative has shown through annual publications that despite increased resources for elementary education, the poorest districts in India are not improving learning outcomes (Accountability Initiative, 2014). The government should be credited for recognizing the failure to achieve learning outcomes, despite increased resources being made available. An overarching goal within the 12th National Plan is to achieve improved learning outcomes; this will require the government to ensure that its delivery system – including the execution of budgetary resources – focuses on outcomes (Accountability Initiative, 2013).

CSOs have also been at the forefront in pressuring for more resources for marginalized groups. Gender-responsive budgeting (see Chapter 5) is a crucial approach to better understand the differential impact of budgets on boys and girls (Unterhalter, 2007). The National Education Coalition in Ghana has had some success in integrating issues related to gender into budget work plans (Global Campaign for Education, 2012a). HakiElimu, founded in the United Republic of Tanzania in 2001, focuses on issues relating to teacher training and housing and capitation grant expenditure. After it trained parliamentarians in budget analysis for the 2012/13 budget, they directed the Ministry of Education to incorporate HakiElimu's proposed budget changes (Carlitz and McGee, 2013). Asociación Civil por la Igualdad y la Justicia in Argentina concluded that between 2002 and 2005, 32% of allocated resources had not been spent, mobilizing legislative action to improve the efficiency of public spending on education (Basch, 2011).

CSOs are at the forefront in pressuring for more resources for marginalized groups

Equity and inclusiveness in education expenditure

It is not enough to simply allocate more domestic resources to education; the resources must be equitably spent. This entails identifying and targeting public spending towards those groups furthest from meeting the EFA goals and avoiding spending the bulk of resources on education levels likely to only be accessed by the elite.

Targeting the marginalized through funding formulas has had mixed success

Achieving the Education for All goals requires an increase in domestic resources for education and simultaneously ensuring that expenditure helps to improve educational attainment for the most marginalized and hardest to reach, such as the poorest, those with disabilities, those living in remote locations and those from ethnic minorities. In most cases, the resources needed to reach children from these groups are likely to be much higher than the average cost per student necessary to mitigate the disadvantage they face. Domestic resources should be distributed accordingly (UNESCO, 2014c).

The long-term social and economic benefits of targeting public resources towards the marginalized far outweigh the costs. In Bangladesh, the reductions in wage earnings due to lower levels of education for people with disabilities are estimated to cost the economy US$26 million per year; a further US$28 million is lost when children forgo schooling to care for a disabled person (World Bank, 2008a).

Another study showed how schooling could close the poverty gap between people with and without disabilities: across 14 developing countries, an additional year of schooling completed by an adult with a disability reduced the probability of their being in the poorest two quintiles by between 2% and 5% (Filmer, 2008).

Many countries fail to take into account differences between schools, regions and the needs of disadvantaged groups

However, many countries continue to disburse funding on the basis of equal amounts per child, thereby failing to take into account differences among schools, regions and the needs of disadvantaged groups. Some countries, however, have redressed this problem by targeting spending in favour of disadvantaged groups, which has resulted in more equitable learning outcomes, including through the use of conditional cash transfers for marginalized groups (see Chapter 2). Other governments have addressed the targeting of resources to the most disadvantaged by applying a funding formula for public resources to benefit the most disadvantaged (Levacic et al., 2000; OECD, 2012f).

Brazil, a pioneer in targeting resources to the most disadvantaged, has improved the equity of allocation for the poorer regions in the north and north-east through the Fund for Primary Education Administration and Development for the Enhancement of Teacher Status (FUNDEF) which seeks to ensure a minimum spending level per pupil (UNESCO, 2014c). In the Netherlands, disadvantaged students are identified so that learning support can be funded. As a result, the primary schools with the highest proportion of disadvantaged students have on average about 58% more teachers and support staff (Ladd and Fiske, 2009). Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) tests show that the Netherlands combines high levels of performance alongside equity in education opportunities (OECD, 2014g). In Viet Nam, programmes emphasize a minimum standard of quality for schooling, focusing on disadvantaged communities and providing extra government resources to poorer districts. As a result, the share of children in the most disadvantaged district who answered a grade 4 question correctly rose from 18% at the beginning of the school year to 47% at the end (Rolleston et al., 2013).

As teacher salaries make up the majority of government spending, they need to be accounted for in funding formula to promote equity, yet many do not. In South Africa, 86% of the primary budget is for salaries (Development Finance International, 2014) but its National Norms and Standards for School Funding, which aims to redistribute public resources to the poorest schools, only does this with the non-salary component of the recurrent budget. Redistribution is therefore limited. Meanwhile, pupil/teacher ratios remain high in poor schools, and inadequate access to financial resources, lack of textbooks and large class sizes continue to account for the poor performance of schools that traditionally have a large proportion of black, Indian or mixed-race children (Mestry, 2014). In 2004, Madagascar initiated a mechanism for effective distribution and equitable allocation of teachers, identifying which schools had severe teacher shortages and giving them higher priority when deploying newly trained teachers. Within just a year of this policy's implementation, the percentage of teachers allocated according to need rose from 72% to 81% (Majgaard and Mingat, 2012).

The state of school infrastructure is of similar importance in improving girls' learning outcomes. In Burkina Faso, providing sufficient resources to schools in poor, underserved areas where amenities were typically not available benefited girls disproportionately. It increased their enrolment by 5% more than boys' enrolment and improved the test scores of all children by 0.41 standard deviations (Kazianga et al., 2013).

Education spending is regressive but has improved

The Dakar Framework called for governments to increase 'the share of national income and budgets allocated to education, and, within that, to basic education'. Allocations need to reflect the current realities and characteristics of country education systems. For most low income countries, the rationale is strong for spending more on primary education, the level most likely to be accessed by children from poorer income households. Governments spending more on upper secondary and tertiary education, on the other hand, will most likely benefit children from higher income households and represent regressive spending.

Benefit incidence analysis is a tool to determine the distribution of public spending and thus

evaluate which groups benefit from it most. It has found, for example, that even though a majority of the population is rural in many low income countries, education resources continue to be skewed towards urban areas. In Rwanda, 83% of the population resides in rural areas and yet receives 51% of total education resources (World Bank et al., 2011a). In the Gambia, the respective shares are 62% and 36% (World Bank et al., 2011b). This tool can also be used to identify inequity in spending on different levels of education, such as primary vs tertiary. One study illustrates that education spending was found to be more pro-poor in richer countries than in poorer countries in countries with available data. (Davoodi et al., 2010).

Changes in spending have been documented in countries including Congo and Nepal. In Congo, one of the world's most inequitable countries, the benefit of public spending on education for the poorest decreased for primary education from 24% in 2005 to 21% in 2011. Within higher education, 57% of those enrolled in 2011 were from households in the richest quintile, compared with 38% in 2005, with the benefit of spending on higher education for the poorest decreasing from an already low 4% in 2005 to 0.5% in 2011; and yet 22% of the budget was allocated to higher education in 2011 (World Bank, 2014f). A benefit analysis of education spending for Nepal revealed, similarly, that in the financial year 2005/06, spending on primary education was more progressive and pro-poor while spending on secondary and higher education was more regressive (PRAD, 2010). However, unlike in Congo, while expenditure still benefits children from the highest quintile households, the gap is closing (**Figure 8.8**). Nepal's EFA National Plan of Action 2001–2015 incorporated policy prescriptions for each of the six EFA goals with an emphasis on equity, aimed at specific disadvantaged groups (Karki, 2014) to ensure that funding to them as a share of the total earmarked for education progressively increased.

On average in 2012, countries spent 12 times more per student in higher education than in primary school in sub-Saharan Africa, and 5 times more in South and West Asia. Extreme inequity in per capita spending between primary and higher education is most pronounced in poorer countries. Low income countries spent 11 times more per tertiary student compared with primary, while high income countries spent 1.3 times more. In the countries that might be most expected to benefit the poor through public spending, the benefits of education, particularly at the levels attained primarily by the rich, continue to be received by the rich.

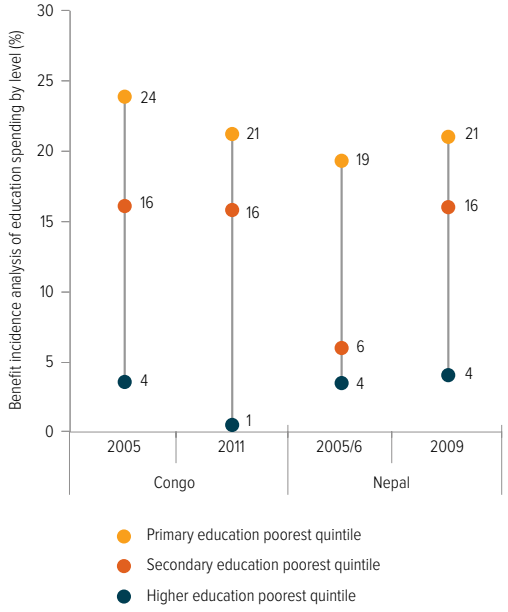
However, among the 36 countries with data on per student expenditure at the primary and tertiary levels over the Dakar period, the gulf narrowed for 30, of which 7 were in sub-Saharan Africa. In Rwanda in 1999, the government spent nearly 161 times as much on a tertiary student as on a primary school child; by 2012 the figure had declined to 12. In Peru, the 1999 expenditure per tertiary student was almost triple that per primary school child, but by 2012 the amounts were the same.

Inequity continues in disbursement of public resources among education subsectors. But the concentration of education spending in sub-Saharan Africa at higher levels has been steadily declining for three decades. While public spending is still inequitable, it has become less so, partly through the fee-free primary education introduced by many governments in

Low income countries spent 11 times more per tertiary student compared with primary, while high income countries spent 1.3 times more

Figure 8.8: Distribution of the benefits of public spending on education for the poorest has worsened in Congo and improved in Nepal

Share of public spending for different levels of education, poorest quintile



Sources: PRAD (2010); World Bank (2014f).

the late 1990s and early 2000s (see Chapter 2). The percentage of public spending benefiting the 10% most educated was 63% in 1975, 56% in 1992 and 43% in 2003 (Majgaard and Mingat, 2012).

Households bolster the national education effort, especially when governments neglect spending

Globally, governments are the largest source of education financing, whether out of their own resources or through grants and loans from external sources. However, it is often overlooked that they are not the only source of education financing, and in some countries, usually poorer ones, they are not even the largest source.

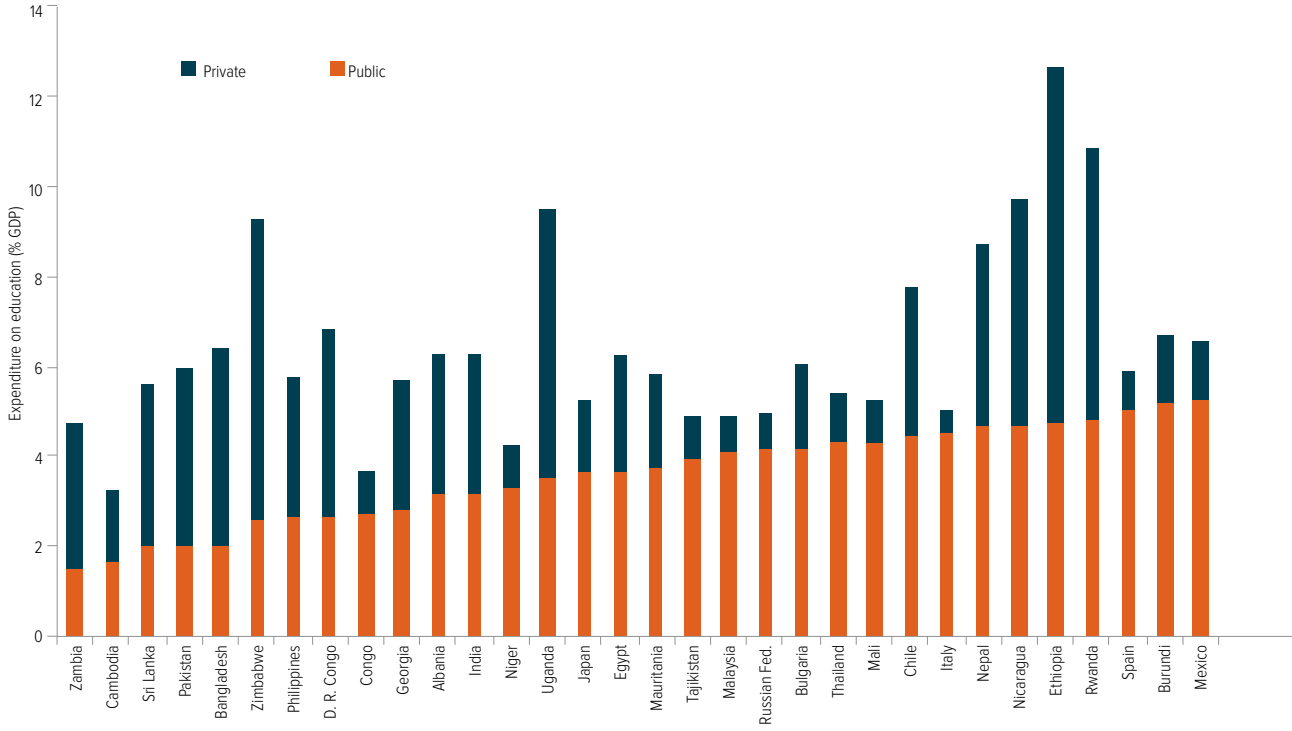
In almost a quarter of the countries, households spent more on education than governments

GMR analysis shows that among 50 low, middle and high income countries in all regions with data for 2005–2012, household education spending accounted on average for 31% of the total. In almost a quarter of the countries, households spent more on education than governments.

Household financing often makes up for the fact that some governments do not spend sufficient resources on education, or that despite fee-free public primary schooling being enshrined in law in 135 countries, 110 still continue to charge some sort of fee (Transparency International, 2013). Among the 25 countries with the lowest amount of public finance of education, households contributed 42% of total expenditure, while among the 25 countries with the highest amount, households contributed 27%.

Households therefore play a considerable role. The proportion of public expenditure on education was less than 4% of GDP in 18 countries; when taking household financing into account, only two countries, Cambodia and Congo, fell below this threshold (**Figure 8.9**). This is important to take into account when reporting on the intensity of national efforts on education. The issue in many countries is not an insufficient national effort on education spending but that a large part of that effort is by households. The result is often an education system that is not sufficiently redistributive. In general, the poorer a country,

Figure 8.9: Households contribute a considerable share of total education expenditure, especially in poorer countries
Expenditure on education as share of GDP, by source, selected countries, 2005–2012

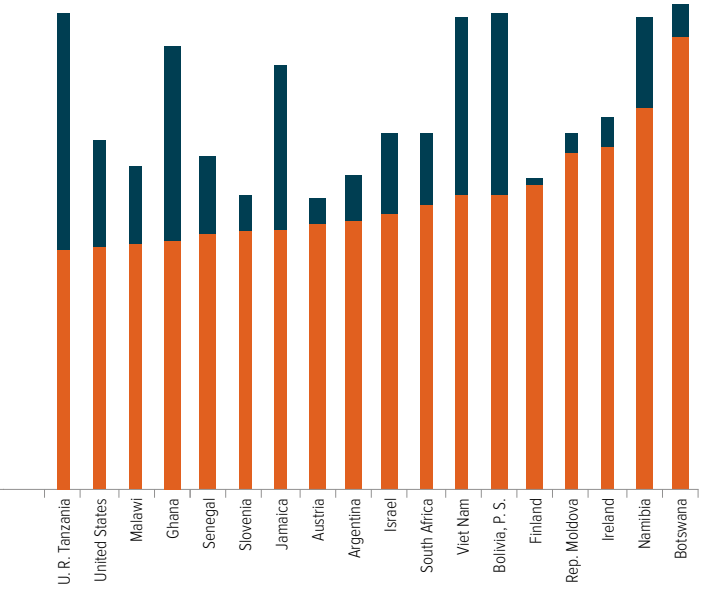


Sources: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations based on (i) data on the share of education in total household expenditure in reports of household budget surveys listed in the International Household Survey Network database, (ii) OECD Education at a Glance and (iii) data on private consumption as share of GDP from the World Development Indicators.

the larger the burden on households: among the 10 high income countries in the sample, household education expenditure accounted on average for 13% of the total, while among the 14 low income countries it accounted for 49%.

The share of household contributions is by far highest in South Asian countries. In Bangladesh, Sri Lanka and Pakistan, where governments spend around 2% of GDP on education, households pay about 4% of GDP, which means that their contribution amounts to about two-thirds of the total expenditure. By contrast, in five North American and Western European countries, the percentage is about 10%.

While such information is available, it is not sufficiently used by policy-makers for a comprehensive picture of education spending. This has had significant impact on the equity of education financing systems as discussed in the previous section.



International development assistance

Trends in aid to education

The Dakar Framework affirmed that 'no countries seriously committed to Education for All will be thwarted in their achievement of this goal by a lack of resources.' There was a strong expectation that the donor community would increase its financial support to education, specifically aligned to the objectives set out under the six EFA goals. In the years after Dakar, global donor commitments to raise aid levels, particularly for Africa, and to increase the focus on improving aid effectiveness were made at the 2005 G8 summit in Gleneagles and at high-level forums on aid effectiveness in Rome, Paris, Accra and Busan.

Aid commitments to education as a share of total social sector aid were the same before and after Dakar

In the years before the international community's commitment to the Millennium Development Goals in 2000, the share of total aid committed to social sectors increased rapidly as more donors programmed aid towards MDG-related sectors. The share of total aid committed for these sectors rose from 31% in 1996 to 45% in 2005 (a spike largely spurred by increases in aid resources to the health sector) before falling to 40% in 2011.[7] From 2002 to 2012, the volume of aid grew by an average of 9% a year; aid resources disbursed for reproductive health rose by 16% annually and for water and sanitation by 12% (OECD-DAC, 2014).

However, aid commitments to education as a share of total social sector aid essentially were the same before and after Dakar (OECD-DAC, 2014).[8] On average, aid to basic education grew by 6% a year. The share of total aid disbursed for education was static in the decade after Dakar, never exceeding 10%; by contrast, for health the share of total aid increased from 9% to 14%. Overall aid disbursed to education did increase steadily after Dakar until 2010, but has since been in decline. Total aid disbursements to education fell by 10% between 2010 and 2012, a total of US$1.3 billion less (OECD-DAC, 2014).

It has been argued that the education MDG targets seemed unambitious compared with

7. Because of the volatility of aid commitments, the years cited here represent three-year rolling averages.

8. Unless otherwise specified, discussion of aid trends in this section refers to disbursements.

those of the health MDGs and that this was why education did not attract a larger share of the growing aid volumes over the decade (Burnett and Felsman, 2012) despite the Dakar call for funding agencies to allocate a larger share of their resources to primary and other basic education, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia and among least developed countries and those emerging from conflict (UNESCO, 2000).

Aid disbursements by education level

7 of the 15 largest donors increased the share of aid to tertiary at the expense of basic education

International development assistance, like domestic expenditure, has focused on primary education, but there has also been significant spending on post-secondary education. Basic education,[9] especially primary education, attracted donor support because it was directly related to poverty reduction and naturally linked to the education MDG. Secondary education benefited much less from rising aid even though more children transitioned to secondary and more trained primary teachers with secondary education were needed to achieve universal primary education (Lewin and Little, 2011). A review of donor strategies showed that only Germany, Japan and the Asian Development Bank treated upper secondary as a priority subsector in their aid programmes (Mercer, 2014). Increased disbursements in post-secondary education continue to be aligned with donors' strategic interests, as they are seen as creating ties with countries' future leaders.

Aid to basic education, which involves five of the six EFA goals, peaked over 2009 and 2010; between 2010 and 2012, its aid disbursements fell by 15%, or US$921 million (Table 8.3). This was a larger decline than for aid to post-secondary education, which fell by 6%. In absolute volumes, aid to post-secondary education was higher than that to basic in 2012. These proportions were similar to the shares of total aid to basic and post-secondary education in 2002, so in the end there was little change (OECD-DAC, 2014).

The large share of aid for post-secondary education, moreover, supports students from developing countries studying in donor countries, rather than strengthening higher education systems in developing countries. About 72% of direct aid to post-secondary education in 2012 was of the former type, up from 59% earlier in the decade (OECD-DAC, 2014). There is no guarantee that students studying in donor countries will return to contribute to their home countries once they complete their studies. In France, one-third of international students who come to study remain to work (Global Campaign for Education, 2013). In the early 2000s, 20 out of 28 donor countries spent more on post-secondary education than on secondary education; in the late 2000s the respective figures were 27 out of 39, again indicating that little had changed (OECD-DAC, 2014).

Seven of the 15 largest donors to education actually increased the share of education aid going to post-secondary education and decreased the share to basic education over the decade. The European Union decreased its share of education aid for basic education from 50% to 43% in the period after Dakar and raised its share for post-secondary from 27% to 36%. Other donors, however, including Australia and the United States, made commendable efforts to redistribute towards basic education (**Figure 8.10**). Among some donors, aid for post-secondary education is changing: Austria, Germany, Portugal and Spain now approach scholarships as part of broader efforts to strengthen higher education systems in partner countries (Mercer, 2014).

Not only did the share of education aid for post-secondary education rise, from 30% before Dakar to 40% after, but volume increases in aid for basic education have been almost entirely for primary education. Chronic underinvestment continues for EFA goals that fall outside primary education (**Figure 8.11**).

The narrow focus of the education MDG on universal primary education is one common explanation for why external funding for education has focused so heavily on primary education, to the neglect of other EFA goals. As a share of total disbursements to basic education, aid to basic life skills for youth and adults and to early childhood education has fallen. On average, their shares were 10% and 3%, respectively,

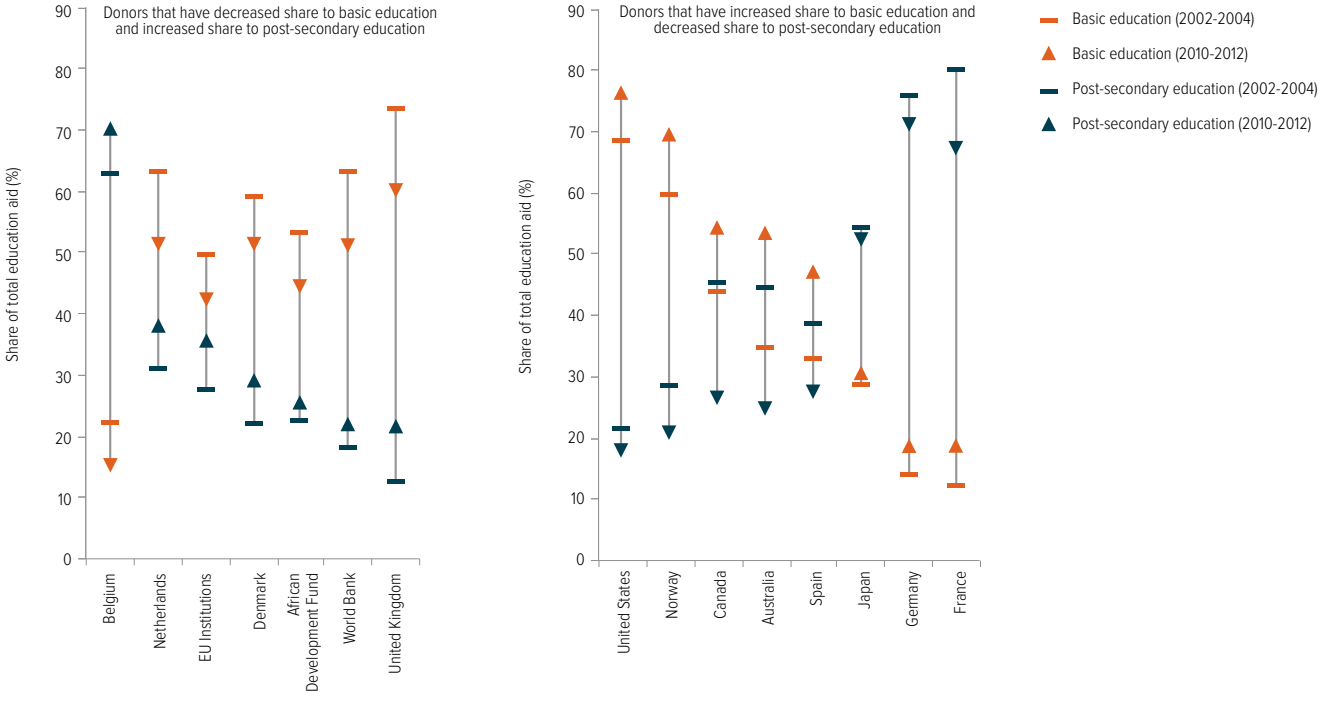
9. This refers to basic education as defined in the OECD Creditor Reporting System, comprising i) early childhood education, ii) primary education and iii) basic life skills for youth and adults.

Table 8.3: Total aid disbursements to education and basic education, by region and income level, 2002–2012

	Total aid to education			Total aid to basic education			
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Per capita US$
	2002	2011	2012	2002	2011	2012	2012
World	**7,510**	**13,027**	**12,584**	**3,041**	**5,707**	**5,079**	**8**
Low income	2,044	3,386	3,453	1,192	1,838	1,859	16
Lower middle income	2,824	5,090	4,459	1,219	2,512	1,751	6
Upper middle income	1,692	2,667	2,725	347	599	664	4
High income	42	50	48	8	14	15	3
Unallocated by income	907	1,835	1,900	275	743	790	...
Arab States	1,003	1,919	2,048	216	860	686	17
Central/Eastern Europe	290	500	519	86	70	71	6
Central Asia	126	333	348	42	99	99	17
East Asia/Pacific	1,125	1,998	2,008	249	540	644	5
Latin America/Caribbean	534	902	868	218	364	330	7
South and West Asia	940	2,359	1,843	582	1,414	947	5
Sub-Saharan Africa	2,714	3,522	3,486	1,447	1,704	1,615	12
Overseas territories	239	70	70	119	25	25	...
Unallocated by region	539	1,423	1,394	83	631	661	...

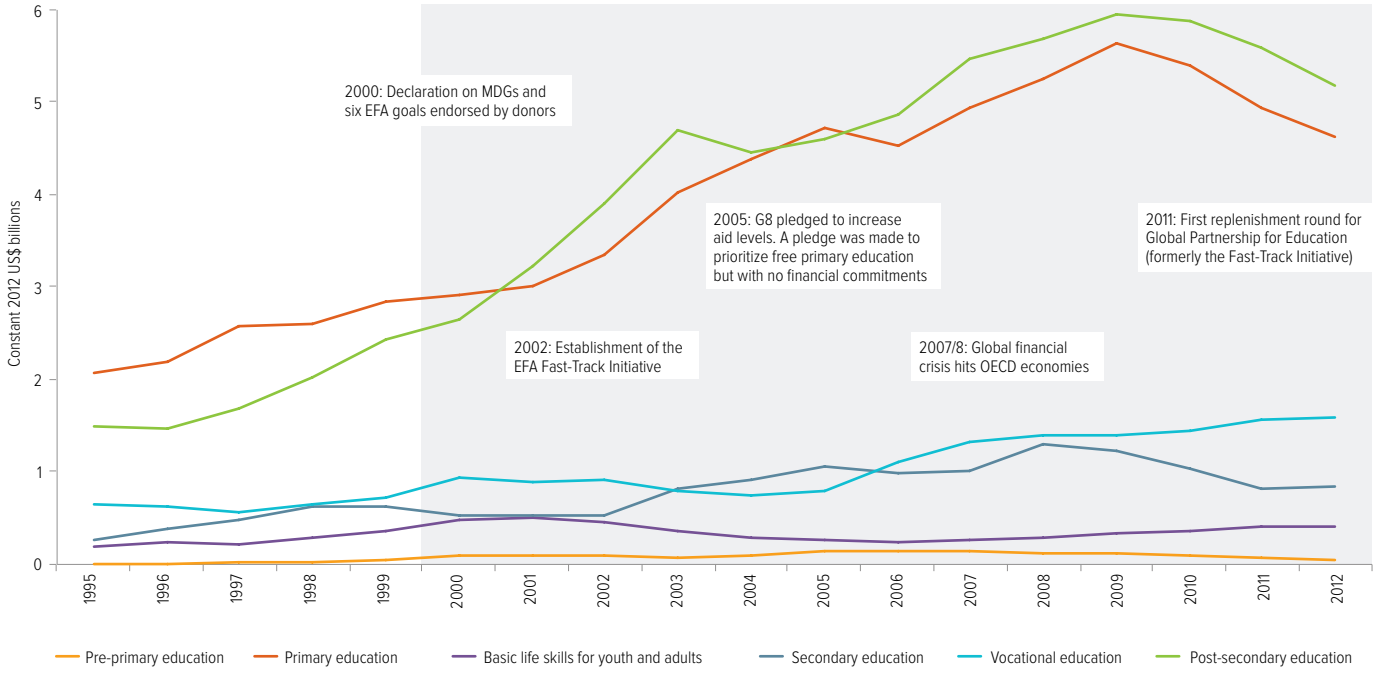
Notes: The 2002 figure is an average for 2002–2003. Aid per capita is the amount of aid to primary education per primary school age child in 2012.
Source: GMR team calculations and OECD DAC (2014).

Figure 8.10: 7 of the 15 largest donors to education reallocated education aid to post-secondary at the expense of basic education
Share of total education aid to basic and post-secondary education, 2002–2004 and 2010–2012



Source: OECD-DAC (2014).

Figure 8.11: Aid to EFA goals outside of primary education has failed to increase
Total aid to education commitments, three-year rolling averages, 1995–2012



Notes: Data from before 2002 are for aid commitments, since data on disbursements were not available. Because of the volatility of aid commitments, the graph presents them as three-year rolling averages.
Source: OECD-DAC (2014).

in 2002–2004 but 6% and 2% in 2010–2012 (**Figure 8.12**). In 2012, for every US$1 disbursed in direct aid to early childhood care and education (ECCE),[10] the equivalent of US$58 went to support students from recipient countries at the post-secondary level in donor countries.

Donor strategies focus little on other key EFA areas, including adult education, distance learning, non-formal education and education for children with special needs (Mercer, 2014). While Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom, the European Union and UNICEF put a clear emphasis on ECCE (Mercer, 2014), aid disbursements to ECCE tell a different story for some of these donors. While the UK on average tripled education aid disbursements over the decade, its average volume of aid for ECCE in 2010–2012 amounted to US$4.4 million, that is, 0.4% of total aid to education for this period (OECD-DAC, 2014). The Department for International Development (DFID) recognizes the strong evidence of ECCE's impact, but cites concern over the sustainability and cost-effectiveness of reaching the poorest (DfID, 2013). Similarly, the 1999 and 2006 World Bank strategies offer strong support for ECCE (World Bank, 1999, 2006) and yet just 6% of the institution's basic education aid over the decade was for ECCE. The Netherlands, which at its peak in 2011 was the largest donor in volume terms to ECCE, has since completely stopped supporting education (OECD-DAC, 2014).

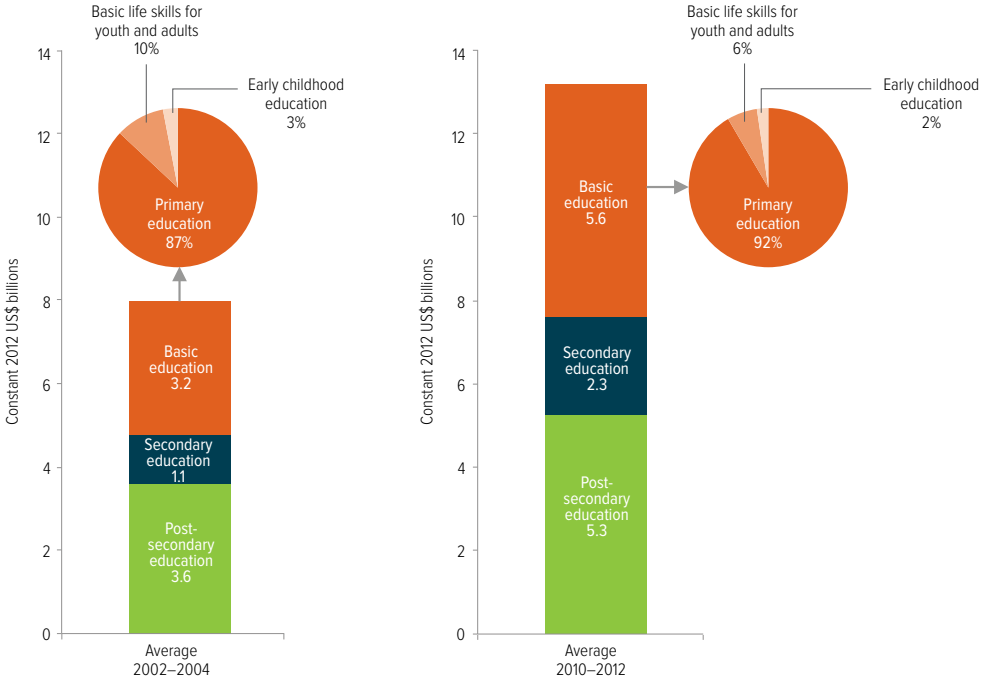
Aid disbursements by region

The Dakar Framework highlighted the need to allocate a larger share of aid to basic education in sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia. Aid to basic education in sub-Saharan Africa, home to over half of the world's out-of-school children, grew steadily from 2002 then fell from 2009 onwards. On average in 2002–2004, 47% of total aid disbursed to basic education was for sub-Saharan Africa, but by 2010–2012 the level had fallen to 31%.[11] South and West Asia's share of basic education stayed fairly constant, rising from 21% to 22% (OECD-DAC, 2014).

10. In this section, analysis on aid to ECCE refers to early childhood education.

11. This was in part due to a large increase in resources going to geographically unspecified areas.

Figure 8.12: Share of basic education aid for ECCE and basic life skills is minimal
Total aid to education disbursements by level, 2002–2004 and 2010–2012



Source: OECD-DAC (2014).

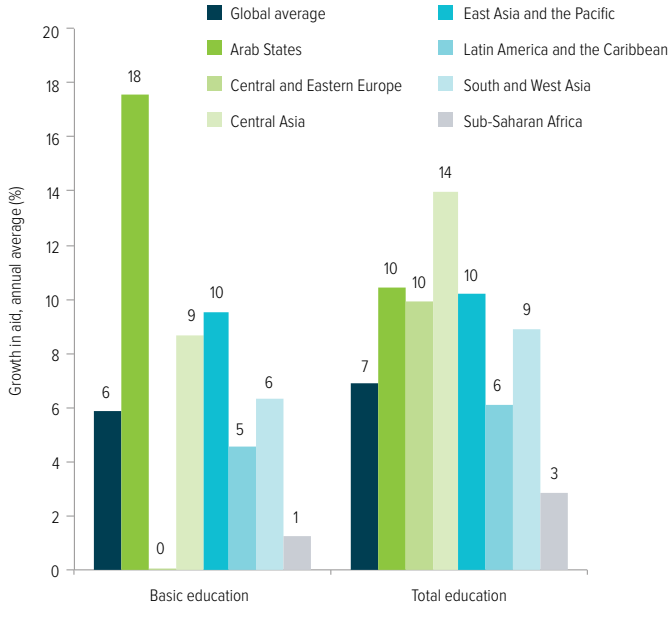
While growth rates in aid disbursements for basic education to developing countries averaged 6% a year, the sub-Saharan Africa region saw the second lowest annual average growth at 1% after Central and Eastern Europe (**Figure 8.13**), despite having the highest average returns to schooling (Psacharopoulos, 2014).

Aid disbursements to reach the poor

The premise behind aid is to help poor countries, which by default includes helping poor populations (Tomasi, 2014). Since Dakar, however, the correlation between poor countries and poor populations has weakened. The number of low income countries fell from 64 in 2000 to 37[12] in 2013 (World Bank, n.d.). As a consequence, while 93% of the world's poor lived in low income countries at the beginning of the 1990s, 72% lived in middle income countries in 2012 (Kanbur and Sumner, 2011). Additionally, a larger proportion of the poor are likely to be increasingly concentrated in fragile states, not all of which are low income. These countries are expected to be furthest from reaching the MDGs

12. World Bank list, plus Tokelau.

Figure 8.13: Sub-Saharan Africa had the second slowest growth rate in aid disbursements to basic education
Annual compound growth rates in aid disbursements to regions between 2002 and 2012 (%)



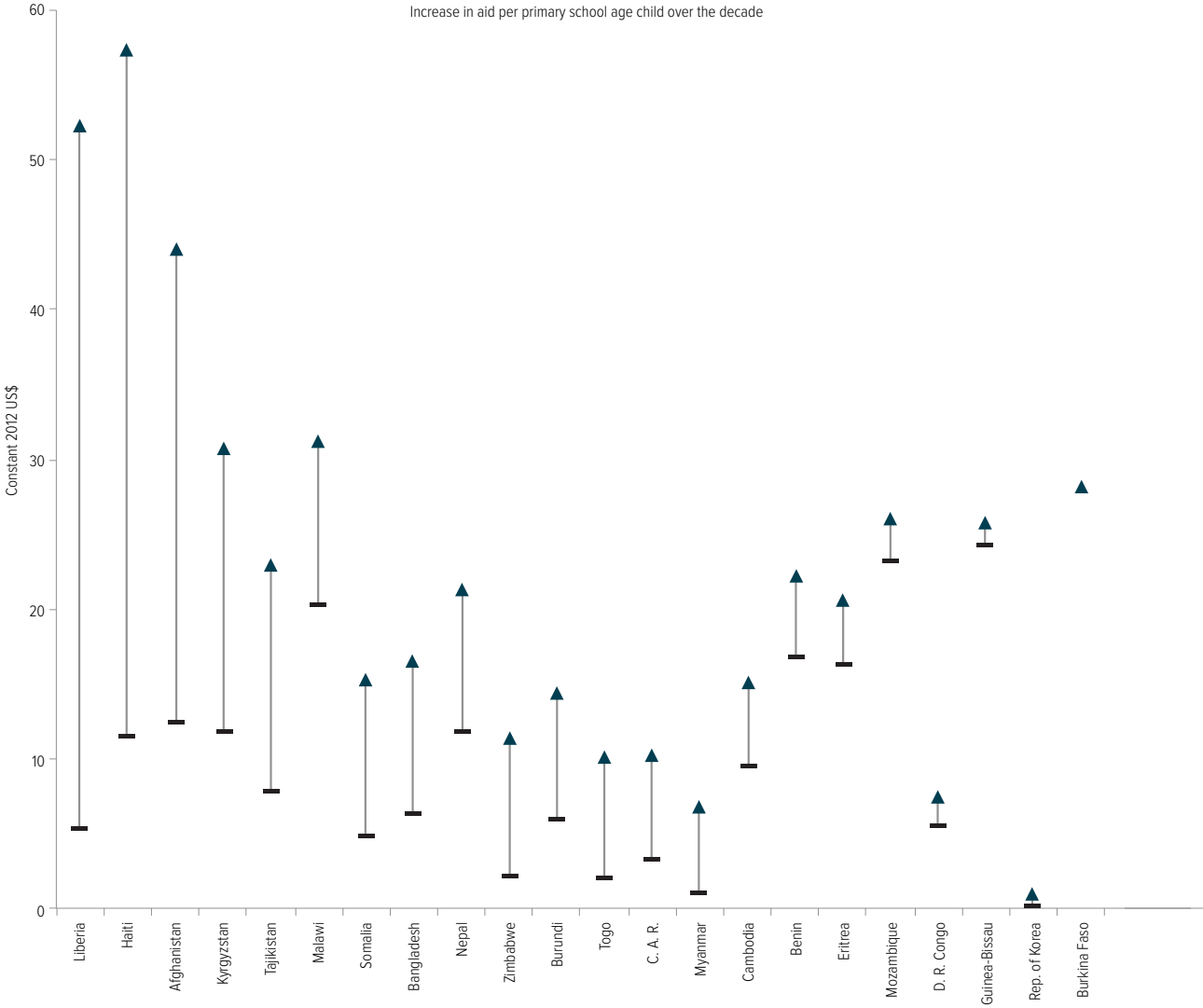
Source: OECD-DAC (2014).

36% of out-of-school children are in conflict-affected states

and EFA goals in 2015, despite 35 fragile states being able to meet at least one of the goals by the set deadline (OECD, 2014e). Some estimates project that by 2018, fragile states will be home to more than one-half of the world's poor; others, however, project that the majority of the poor will be in stable non-fragile middle income countries (Kanbur and Sumner, 2011; OECD, 2014e). In 2012, over half of out-of-school children (59%) were concentrated in middle income countries. Moreover, 36% of out-of-school children are in conflict-affected states.

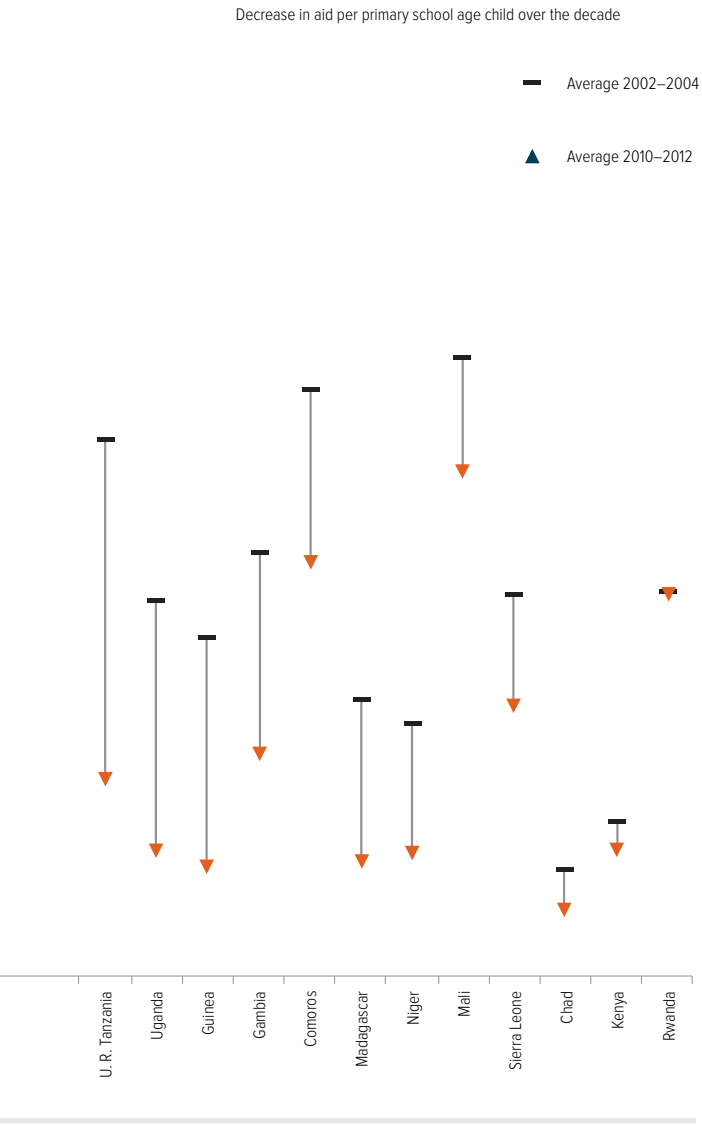
Donors have addressed the phenomenon of the changing geography of poverty in different ways. The United Kingdom has reduced the number of middle income countries it provides aid to, most notably phasing out aid to India by 2015. Australia and Spain, on the other hand, have increased aid to middle income countries (Herbert, 2013). Though aid to middle income countries is a small share of overall public resources to finance development, some of its many forms can indirectly support increased equitable education spending. It is estimated that US$1 of official development aid spent on building tax administration capacity generates US$350 in tax revenue (Okojo-Iweala, 2013), yet just 0.1% of all aid disbursed is directed towards tax systems (IMF et al., 2011). Aid can support CSOs' role and empower them to act as drivers of change for inclusive development.

Figure 8.14: Aid per school age child varies widely among low income countries
Total aid to basic education per primary school age child, 2002–2004 and 2010–2012



Source: OECD-DAC (2014).

Nevertheless, the countries most in need of aid for basic services – low income countries and fragile states – should not be left behind and, indeed, should be prioritized. However, the share of basic education aid disbursements going to low income countries actually declined from 40% to 34% over the decade. While the volume of basic education aid to upper middle income countries is comparatively lower in absolute terms, the annual growth rate of disbursements has been double that for low income countries: 10% vs 5% (OECD-DAC, 2014). Moreover, levels of aid disbursed to low income countries per primary school age child very much depend on the country. Afghanistan and Chad had similar levels of basic education aid per child over 2002–04, but by 2010–12 this aid was US$4 per child in Chad and US$44 in Afghanistan (**Figure 8.14)**. Basic education aid disbursements per child in Chad declined, on average, by 6% a year over the decade while those in Afghanistan grew by an average of 23%.



The continuing importance of education aid

The importance of aid at the country level has declined in the past few years for developing countries where domestic resources have risen rapidly since Dakar. But aid remains crucial in low income countries, despite their robust growth, larger economies and higher government revenue. In many of these countries, government spending is still well below what is needed to ensure universal access to basic public services, including education (Development Initiatives, 2013). Many of the poorest countries, a decade after Dakar, continue to rely on external aid for 10% or more of their total public expenditure on education (**Figure 8.15**).

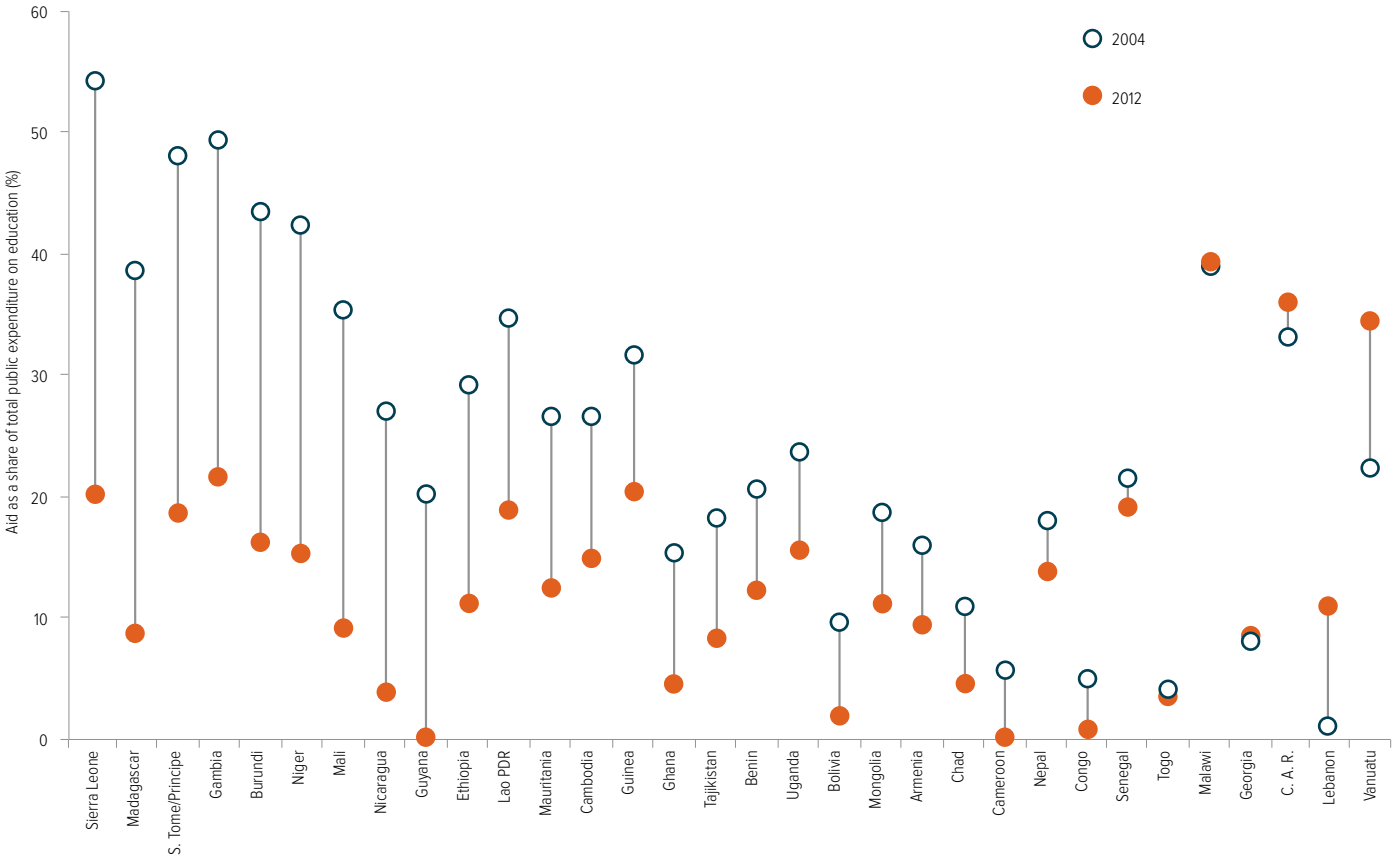
Caution is needed in analysing this area. Aid dependence can be influenced by increasing domestic spending on education, falling aid levels or a combination of both. In 2012, in Chad, for instance, domestic primary expenditure per pupil amounted to US$53 while aid amounted to US$5 (OECD-DAC, 2014). While Chad appears to have become less dependent on aid, this is primarily because of the low levels of aid it receives.

The changing landscape of aid since 2000

Aid provision was once the preserve of OECD donors, but since Dakar, emerging economies have been formalizing development cooperation through the creation of aid agencies. In 2013, Brazil announced the creation of an agency on cooperation, trade and investments. India launched its Development Partnership Administration in 2012. As with other donors, their commitment to development assistance appears to be tied to strategic drivers of cooperation such as trade and geopolitical influence. The significance of Brazil and India in volume of aid increased over the decade (World Bank, 2014h). They increasingly work through emerging, alternative global mechanisms such as the IBSA Facility for Poverty and Hunger Alleviation, created in

Since Dakar, emerging economies have been formalizing development cooperation through the creation of aid agencies

Figure 8.15: The importance of aid to education has been declining for most countries
Share of aid in total public expenditure for education, selected countries, 2004 and 2012



Notes: Total domestic expenditure on education was calculated by multiplying the share of GDP spent on education by GDP data from the World Bank. To avoid double counting, the component of education aid for general budget support is excluded. Aid to education here excludes debt relief and aid that does not reach the recipient country.
Sources: OECD-DAC (2014); World Bank (2014h).

2004 by Brazil, India and South Africa with an annual budget of US$3 million to help least developed and post-conflict countries reach the MDGs (Leite et al., 2014). More recently, the US$100 billion New Development Bank, launched by Brazil, China, India, Russia and South Africa, will finance infrastructure and sustainable development projects (Spratt, 2014).

While little public information is available on what emerging donors give to education, they support education in various ways. Brazil largely provides scholarships and international exchange programmes for students from partner countries, disbursing some US$174 million over 2005–2010 (Milani, 2014), but also supports partner countries with poor higher education systems through its Higher Education Coordination Agency's CAPES programme, which in 2010 spent around US$5.3 million (Leite et al., 2014). China recently published a white paper on foreign assistance indicating that between 2010 and 2012, in relation to the education sector, it focused on constructing and maintaining school buildings, training teachers and offering almost 77,000 scholarships for foreign students to study in China (Xiahuanet, 2014). Foreign scholarships are estimated to have more than tripled from US$119 million in 2009 to US$416 million in 2012. Chinese aid for vocational training totalled US$68 million in 2012. Levels of assistance have risen sharply in recent years, and the trends are likely to continue (Reilly, 2014).

Debt relief

International aid and domestic resources are not the only ways to fund education. The Dakar

Framework called for 'providing earlier, more extensive and broader debt relief and/or debt cancellation for poverty reduction, with a strong commitment to basic education'. Since 1996, the Heavily Indebted Poor Country (HIPC) Initiative has targeted poor countries struggling to cope with high levels of external debt that claim resources otherwise destined for public spending. The Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI), launched in 2005, aims to accelerate countries' progress towards the MDGs once they complete the HIPC process (Cuaresma and Vincelette, n.d).

Since Dakar, debt relief has progressed for some of the poorest countries. MDRI debt relief from the four participating multilateral creditors was estimated at US$39.7 billion at the end of 2012 while under the HIPC Initiative, it was estimated at US$74.3 billion (IMF, 2013). HIPC and MRDI countries more than halved the share of GDP devoted to servicing debt from 3.9% in 2000 to 1.4% in 2011 (Prizzon and Mustapha, 2014). In 2000, 30 HIPC countries were spending more than 10% of government revenue on foreign debt repayment; by 2010, only Gambia and Togo were doing so (Jubilee Debt Campaign, 2012).

Social spending has clearly increased, though no robust direct link between debt cancellation and increased social spending has been established. However, countries which have qualified for debt relief have increased poverty reducing expenditure by almost 3.5 percentage points of GDP between 2001 and 2012 (IMF, 2013). In Ethiopia, which qualified for debt cancellation in 2004, debt repayment fell from an average of 10% of government revenue in 1998–2000 to 4% in 2007–2009. Spending on health and education, meanwhile, increased from 22% of government revenue to 32% (Jubilee Debt Campaign, 2012).

The future is worrying, however. The rise in debt servicing by 2018 could equal more than half the education budget in Mauritania (60%) and Niger (53%) (Prizzon and Mustapha, 2014). Also of concern is an upwards trend in development assistance in the form of loans. Most direct aid for education and basic education has been in the form of grants, but since 2009 non-concessional loans for education have significantly grown in volume, at a rate now surpassing growth of grants: data for 2013 indicated that DAC bilateral aid in loans increased by 27.4% from 2012 while grants rose by 8.4% in real terms (OECD-DAC, 2014). If this trend continues it could have serious consequences for future levels of debt.

Donors have not met their commitment to deliver education aid more effectively

The period since Dakar has seen increased commitment to improve not just the quantity but also the governance of international aid. The Dakar Framework tasked donors with making aid more effective. The Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness in 2005 marked an unprecedented shift regarding how aid should be delivered, with an agenda promoting national ownership, alignment of donor priorities with national plans, coordination of donor efforts, a focus on results and shared accountability for outcomes between donors and recipients (UNESCO, 2011a). Of 13 aid effectiveness targets, however, only that of aligning and coordinating technical assistance was achieved in 2010 (OECD, 2011a), indicating how difficult it is to change donor institutional behaviour.

More recently, the aid effectiveness agenda has increasingly emphasized new partnerships for development cooperation. The first High-Level Meeting of the Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation, held in Mexico in April 2014, indicated a paradigm shift to a more inclusive agenda, with 'strengthened mobilization of domestic resources and the convergence of efforts of all public and private development stakeholders at all levels' (Global Partnership, 2014).

Debt relief in Ethiopia allowed increases in spending on health and education

The lack of global aid architecture hinders effective donor coordination

Global coordination of aid for education is needed; the Dakar Framework called for facilitation of 'more effective donor co-ordination'. This would allow donors to strategically allocate aid for maximum impact, particularly where the need is greatest. It could also make the processes of donor governments, aid agencies and aid recipient countries less complex and confirm that the primary objective is to accelerate the development of education rather than strategic national interests (Fredriksen, 2012). But current global

and country-level coordination mechanisms do not seem to have helped significantly (Rose et al., 2013).

Often governments use scarce resources to keep track of dozens of agencies and thousands of projects. One study estimated that better aid coordination could save the European Union (EU) EUR 8.4 billion a year; another put the potential annual savings at EUR 340 million (Mackie, 2013).

Advocacy for better coordination has grown in the past decade. Initiatives such as the 2007 EU Code of Conduct on Complementarity and Division of Labour can promote coherent development policy through better coordination and harmonization, such as pooling of resources. In 2011, the New Deal for Engagement in Fragile States committed to better coordination of resources and reduced duplication, fragmentation and programme proliferation to ensure more efficient disbursal of international resources. Many donors, including Australia, Canada, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom, have started reducing the number of countries and priority sectors to which they disburse aid.

Ineffective global and national coordination means the countries most in need of resources for education lack them. In Burkina Faso, Cambodia and Nicaragua, five donors providing a significant share of total basic education aid withdrew from the education sector (Abetti et al., 2011). The fourth High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Busan, Republic of Korea, in 2011, stressed using multilateral institutions and global funds to reduce aid fragmentation and increase donor coordination efforts. However, most aid for basic education disbursed by bilateral donors continues to be earmarked by location and sector. The share of basic education aid disbursed by Development Assistance Committee (DAC) donors earmarked channels increased from 63% to 68% over the Dakar decade while aid not earmarked through multilateral channels decreased (OECD-DAC, 2014).

Ineffective global and national coordination means the countries most in need of resources for education lack them

The GPE has become better able to target countries in need

The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) – formerly the Fast Track Initiative, established in 2002, was the first global partnership focusing on education in developing countries, filling a vacuum in international leadership on this issue. It could play a critical role in the global coordination of education resources through international aid, but lacks the financial support to do this effectively. Instead, its strength and potential lie in its ability to target countries in need.

In volume terms, relative to other donors, the GPE has become an important source of external financing for basic education in some low and lower middle income countries. In 2004, it was the 22nd largest basic education aid donor to low and lower middle income countries; by 2007 it was the ninth largest and in 2011 and 2012 it came fourth after the United Kingdom, United States and World Bank (GPE, 2014a; OECD-DAC, 2014). Yet it accounts for a small proportion of aid. Between 2004 and 2012, the GPE disbursed close to US$2 billion to low and lower middle income countries for basic education, compared with US$32 billion by OECD donors. It accounted for 12% of total external aid to education going to low income countries and 6% of that to fragile states over 2010-2012.

Despite these relatively small shares, the GPE's influence increased over the decade, partly as a result of improved disbursement rates. The slow rates of disbursement had been one of the strongest criticisms of the GPE in the 2010 midterm evaluation, severely compromising its effectiveness (Cambridge Education et al., 2010; UNESCO, 2010a).The World Bank, supervising a majority of GPE-administered funds, required eligible countries to apply full World Bank project procedures to their trust fund operations, including GPE grants. This was recognized as a shortcoming, and the number of supervising and managing entities has now been diversified, with the World Bank supervising 73% of active grants, down from 92% of closed programme implementation grant allocations (GPE, 2013a).

Reaching the countries most in need

The initial concept of the GPE, then called the EFA Fast Track Initiative, was to assist a small, select group of strong performers with additional funding. In 2003, after criticism, the GPE broadened its criteria to all low income countries and others eligible for World Bank

funds that had robust policies and credible plans. It was then pointed out that the countries with the least capacity to meet these criteria were the most likely to need support. In 2005, the EFA Fast Track Initiative Fragile States Task Team was established to consider how the GPE could increase support for education in fragile countries (Brannelly et al., 2009).

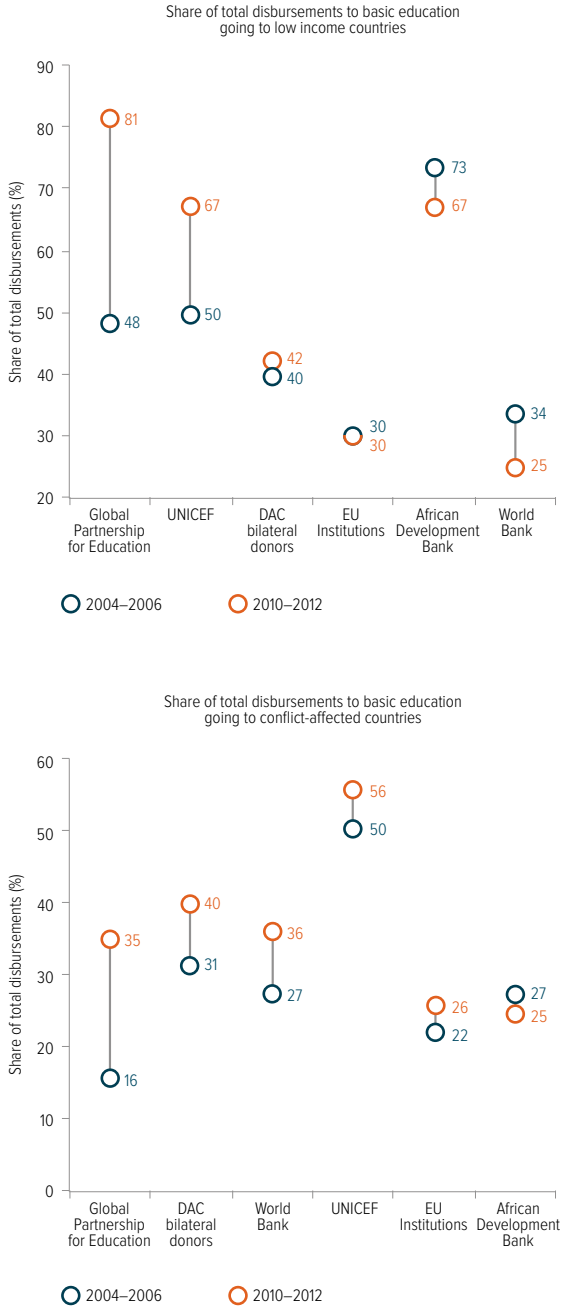
Since the midterm appraisal in 2010, the GPE's priority focus has definitively shifted. Support to fragile states is one of its five main objectives. It engages with them through more flexible funding, revising the eligibility of supervising and managing entities, mobilizing external financing for them, providing up to 25% of indicative allocation amounts on an urgent basis, and working with humanitarian agencies to help bridge the gap between emergency response and education development activities (GPE, 2012c). By the end of 2013, more than 40% of GPE disbursements, over US$800 million, went to fragile and conflict-affected countries (GPE, 2013b).[13]

In terms of resource allocation to the countries most in need, the GPE not only outperforms other donors now, but has also made the most progress over the decade. On average, over 2010–2012, 81% of total GPE disbursements were to low income countries, compared with 42% for members of the OECD Development Assistance Committee. Similarly, it increased its share to fragile states from an average of 16% over 2004–2006 to 35% over 2010–2012 (**Figure 8.16**). The GPE also now requires countries seeking support to provide education indicators on disadvantaged groups so that the poorest children are identified and targeted (Australian Aid, 2012). As of 2014, 30 GPE grants have components related to supporting children with disabilities; in some cases, this has helped countries leverage support from other partners for mainstreaming and inclusion of children with disabilities (Global Partnership for Education, 2014d).

The GPE commitment to EFA goals outside primary education remains poor.

In the GPE's 2004 framework, one of its four objectives was strengthened: more efficient provision of aid for primary education (FTI Secretariat, 2004). The initiative was conceived

Figure 8.16: The GPE has better targeted the countries most in need over the past decade



Note: The conflict-affected countries list does not include India.
Sources: GPE (2014a); OECD-DAC (2014).

13. It should be noted that the GPE's definition of fragile and conflict-affected states differs from that of the GMR.

primarily to achieve universal primary completion, not the broader set of EFA goals set out in Dakar. The 2010 midterm evaluation noted that this narrow focus remained unchallenged (Cambridge Education et al., 2010).

Gender was neglected. A 2005 review by the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative was critical of the GPE's endorsement of country plans that paid little attention to gender other than increasing enrolment of girls in school (Unterhalter, 2007). Just four of the endorsed plans included the concept of gender equality. At the end of 2005, however, the GPE made an explicit commitment 'to gender', saying the issue would not 'be sidelined', and pledging to closely monitor whether country plans integrated gender-related issues (Oxfam, 2007). One of the five main elements of the GPE's 2012–2015 strategy is ensuring that all girls in GPE-endorsed countries successfully complete primary school in a safe learning environment (GPE, 2012c).

Recipients of general budget support were twice as likely to report improved access to services

A more recent review indicates a slow but shifting trend in the use of funds. The number of grants with interventions to improve the quality of education has doubled, although in volume terms there has been little change. Large increases in funding for ECCE and literacy translated to ninefold and tenfold rises in volume, respectively, but the total shares of all GPE grants for these areas remain comparatively small at 1.9% and 1.0%, respectively (GPE, 2013a).

In 2011, 60 pledges were made by recipient governments, international donors and the private sector at the first GPE Replenishment Conference; at the second conference in 2014, 85 were made. Between 2015 and 2018, additional commitments of US$28.5 billion are pledged by governments, donors and the private sector. Pledges in 2014 of US$26 billion by recipient governments represented a 25% increase in domestic finance for education over 2015–18 when compared to pledges made in 2011 at the first conference (GPE, 2014b).[14] However, it is not clear whether the resources pledged can be counted as additional to intended domestic education financing; any post-2015 framework would need to monitor this closely.

General budget support can contribute to education funding

In aid-dependent countries, general budget support has provided a substantial increase in the resources available for development spending and basic service delivery. In Rwanda, total general budget support from all donors funded 14% of the national budget in the financial year 2010/11. In the United Republic of Tanzania, the share was 8%, down from 20% in 2003/04 (ICAI, 2012c). Expenditure on primary development programmes in the United Republic of Tanzania increased significantly, from 27% of the budget in 2004/05 to 46% in 2008/09, enabling dramatic expansion in provision of education, health, water and sanitation, infrastructure, and agriculture (ICAI, 2012c). Positive findings regarding general budget support are corroborated by findings that recipient governments were twice as likely to report improved access to services compared to countries that did not receive such support (National Audit Office, 2008). In many cases, however, donors are reducing their support of country budgets through the use of general budget support. Bilateral donors reduced average disbursements to general budget support from US$3.2 billion in 2007–2009, when levels peaked, to US$2.1 billion in 2010–2012 (OECD-DAC, 2014).

Sector-wide approaches in education have had mixed success

Sector-wide approaches (SWAps) involve funds donated not to self-contained projects but to a defined sector policy that is led by a government authority in partnership with external partners. The Dakar Framework called for donors to 'co-ordinate their efforts to provide flexible development assistance within the framework of sectorwide reforms and support sector priorities', and to 'make longer-term and more predictable commitments'. This was a change from the project-oriented approach to aid, where hundreds of individual projects put great strain on recipient countries' limited economic and human resources.

14. A direct comparison cannot be made between the replenishment rounds of 2011 and 2014 because different countries were involved in each.

In 1996 in Uganda, there were 147 separate donor projects in the education sector, with 45 donor missions from over 30 donors. After the implementation of an education SWAp in 2002, the number of projects fell to seven and donor missions to two (Boak and Ndaruhutse, 2011). SWAps have to date been implemented in 25 low income countries; 5 of the SWAps are subsectoral, focusing on primary and basic education. Some evidence of success includes efficiency and cost savings due to better coordination and flexibility. In Uganda, a more competitive tendering process for learning materials meant a 60% reduction in the unit costs of primary textbooks (Boak and Ndaruhutse, 2011).

However, the effectiveness of education SWAps can be limited, as they largely exclude stakeholders other than government and donors. non-government organizations (NGOs), for instance, are not involved in these approaches. And yet, as the case of Bangladesh illustrates, such groups are important providers of services in underserved sectors. The former Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee, now known simply as BRAC, is the largest provider of education services after the government, running 40,000 non-formal schools in areas where government provision is poor (Asadullah and Chaudhur, 2008). Also, some donors' unwillingness or inability to disburse contributions through SWAps means that high transaction costs continue for many recipient governments, despite a SWAp arrangement in place (Boak and Ndaruhutse, 2011); some end up delivering parallel aid in project form. In 2012, just 7% of total aid for education was delivered in the form of sector-wide budget support (OECD-DAC, 2014).

Education aid does not always reach recipient countries

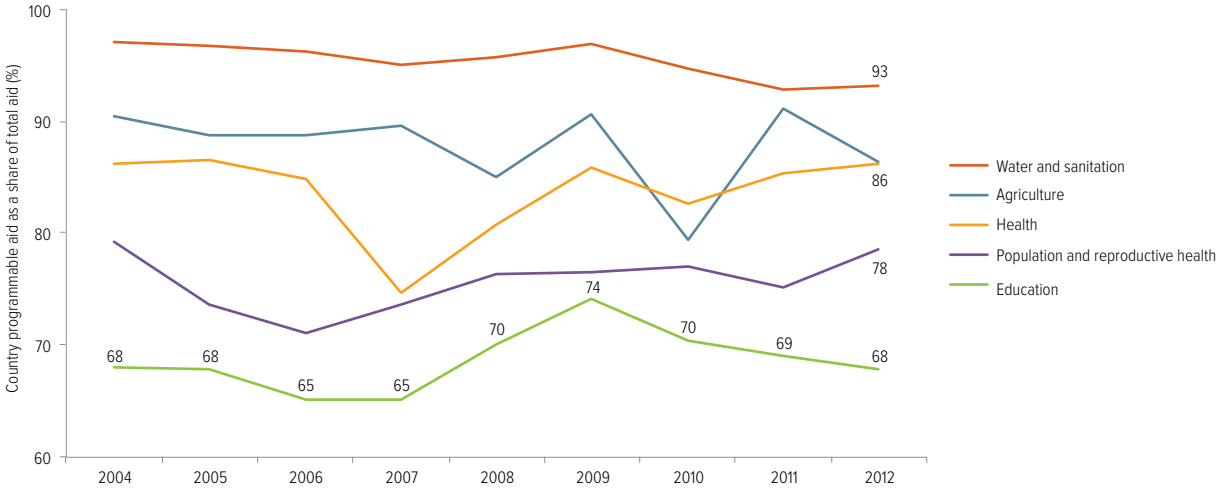
Less aid is spent in-country in the education sector than aid that is earmarked for other sectors, mainly because of support to students studying at donor country universities. Scholarships account for one-quarter of direct aid to education. Country programmable aid,[15] that is, aid that reaches recipient countries, made up 68% of total aid disbursements to the education sector, compared with 86% in health and agriculture and 93% in the water and sanitation sector in 2012 (**Figure 8.17**).

Scholarships account for one-quarter of direct aid to education

Aid is focusing more on results

Since Dakar, demand has increased for information on the outcomes of aid, not just

Figure 8.17: The share of aid to education that reaches recipient countries is lower than in other sectors
Sector country programmable aid as a share of total gross aid disbursements, 2004–2012



Sources: OECD-DAC (2014); OECD (2014b).

15. Country programmable aid is a more accurate measure of the flow of aid actually reaching the partner country, compared with the concept of official development assistance.

the processes or amounts. A results-based approach, strengthening the link between aid intervention and results, involves agreements between donor and recipient to release aid upon the achievement of measurable targets. Although this is a relatively new way to disburse aid, it amounted to more than US$5 billion in 2010 (Pereira and Villota, 2012), including through models such as cash-on-delivery. The United Kingdom's partnership with Ethiopia in 2012 was the first to introduce a pilot cash-on-delivery aid approach in the education sector. In Rwanda, the United Kingdom allotted 10% of its education support in the form of results-based aid, beginning in 2013 for an initial period of three years (ICAI, 2012a).

Almost no aid was disbursed to ECCE and female literacy over the past decade

It is too early to evaluate the approach's effectiveness. However, a key danger is that donors put their own aims ahead of the needs of beneficiary countries so as to make progress towards time-bound targets. Investment in the education sector, unlike other sectors, cannot be translated into immediate results in a short period. Donors are not focusing on areas of education that have proven benefits; for example, almost no aid was disbursed to ECCE and female literacy over the past decade (Fredriksen, 2012).

Aid strategies need to expand beyond achieving access

The most tangible outcome of education aid has been expanded enrolment, especially in basic education. An increase in aid to education equivalent to 1% of a recipient country's GDP is associated with increases in primary completion of 1.6% per year and in the primary net enrolment ratio of between 2.5% and 5% (Michaelowa and Weber, 2007).

The impact of foreign aid on gender parity has been found to be minimal, perhaps because many countries have reached or are on their way to achieving gender parity in primary education (Maiga, 2014). Girls face larger obstacles in entering primary schooling than boys do, but once in school they have an equal chance of completing (UNESCO, 2012b). While donor education policies often address gender inequity in terms of access and retention, the less easily measurable issue of gender equality is usually not mentioned (Mercer, 2014). Moreover, the more challenging factors that keep girls from entering school in the first place – such as poverty-related issues, distance to school, the opportunity cost of girls' schooling, and cultural beliefs – could be addressed by more effective donor aid (Maiga, 2014).

More effective aid could also help in achieving the sixth EFA goal, improving the quality of education. A review of DFID aid to education in three East African countries noted that it had largely failed to address learning-related issues. However, DFID's education programme in India has a target of a 2% increase in the proportion of children who, after two years of primary school, have sufficient fluency to read to learn (ICAI, 2012b). To address the poor progress towards goal 6, donor strategies are beginning to look beyond education access and emphasize the importance of quality, including through considerable investment in regional and international achievement assessments (Riddell, 2012).

The role of humanitarian aid to the education sector

A common perception of humanitarian aid is that it is used in the short term to address crises that end. Evidence says otherwise: a majority of international humanitarian assistance goes to long-term recipient countries. In 2012, 66% of humanitarian assistance from OECD donors went to countries that had received above-average shares of aid in the form of humanitarian assistance for eight or more years (Development Initiatives, 2014).

With protracted emergencies occurring more frequently, the education sector in the past decade has tried to convince the humanitarian aid sector that investment in education is life-saving. The Dakar Framework hoped the world could 'meet the needs of education systems affected by conflict, natural calamities and instability and conduct educational programmes in ways that promote mutual understanding, peace and tolerance, and that help to prevent violence and conflict'.

Definitions of aid to education in humanitarian situations continue to be narrow, however. The Central Emergency Response Fund (CERF), a standby pooled funding mechanism intended to make money available for relief work as soon as the need arises, has particular criteria for

funding education, including provision of school tents, education and recreational materials, emergency repair of education facilities, teacher training in emergencies and provision of life-saving skills (CERF, 2010). That education is perceived as life-saving in such narrow terms means it continues to be neglected within an already under-resourced humanitarian aid system (UNESCO, 2011b).

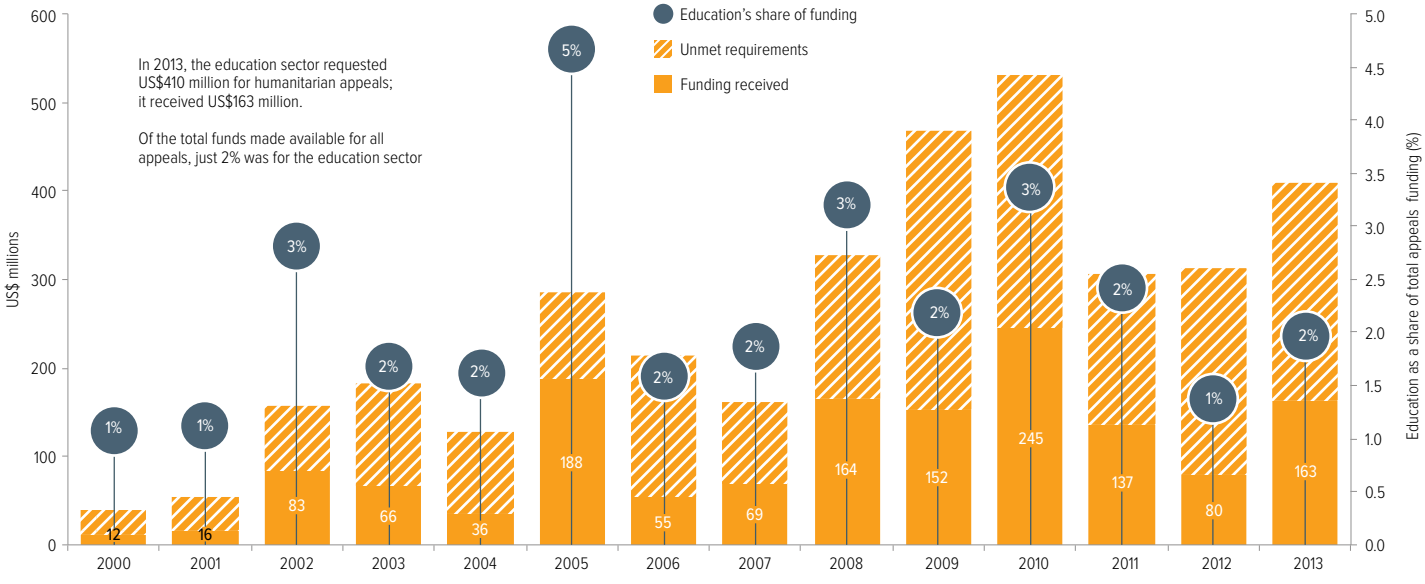
Humanitarian aid appeals still neglect education

In 2010, a resolution by the UN General Assembly called on member states to increase humanitarian funding to education and supporting diverse funding channels (United Nations, 2010). In 2012, recognizing the importance of the education sector as life-saving, over 20 stakeholders – governments, UN agencies, the private sector and CSOs – called for doubling the percentage of total humanitarian aid earmarked for education to at least 4% of all funds from humanitarian appeals (United Nations, 2012).

Despite this, the sector has not come close to the target. In 2013, it received 2% of funds from humanitarian appeals (**Figure 8.18**). It continues to receive one of the smallest proportions of requests for humanitarian aid – 40% of what it requested in 2013, compared with 86% for the food sector and 57% for the health sector.

Moreover, while 4% was a useful target for advocacy, it falls short of the needs of all beneficiaries. In 2013, for instance, 9 million beneficiaries[16] were targeted for education programmes through the UN consolidated appeal process (CAP).[17] The failure to fully fund the CAP requirements meant that only about 3 million beneficiaries received humanitarian funding. In addition, even if the donor community had allocated 4% of humanitarian funding to education, some 19.5 million children would have

Figure 8.18: Humanitarian funding to education peaked in 2010
Share and volume of humanitarian funding to education, 2000–2013



Source: Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (2014).

16. This total comprises children, youth and teachers needing education support.

17. The CAP is an advocacy tool for humanitarian financing and long-term development in which projects managed by the United Nations, NGOs and other stakeholders approach the donor community together to seek funding for international development activities.

not been covered by the CAP (Education Cannot Wait, 2014).

Humanitarian aid must also go beyond the issue of allotment to ensure prioritization across emergencies. How can different crisis appeals be funded so countries are not left behind? In 2013 in South Sudan, three-quarters of the CAP total was funded, while in Djibouti the figure was one-third (Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2014). High-impact crises that cause many fatalities in a short period tend to be much better funded than protracted emergencies. In all, 7 high-profile events[18] have received 44% of humanitarian funding for education since Dakar, out of a total of 260 education appeals (Dolan, 2011).

Humanitarian aid is vital to help countries rebuild after crises

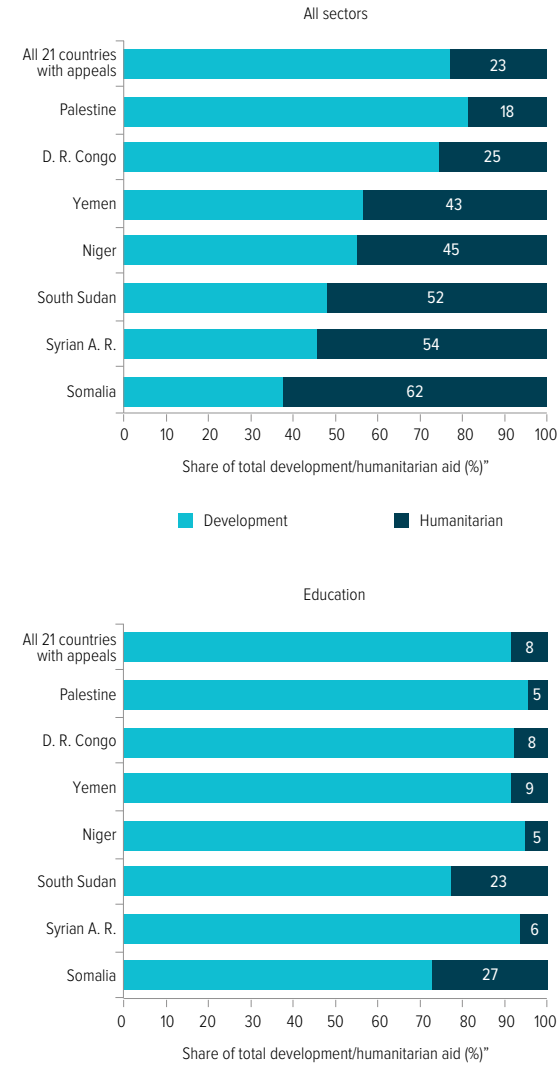
In 2012, humanitarian funding for education in 21 conflict-affected countries was US$105 million

Some 36% of the world's out-of-school children live in conflict-affected countries, up from 30% in 1999. Many of these countries are the furthest from achieving the EFA goals and need support from external donors to help ensure progress. Many conflict-affected countries, together with fragile states, have been the subject of a years-long CAP to raise resources for an effective humanitarian response.

In many cases, humanitarian aid makes up a large share of total resources channeled to such countries. In 2012, for the 21 countries in a CAP, humanitarian aid made up 23% of total resources.[19] Total humanitarian aid for Somalia, where civil war has continued for more than two decades, amounted to over 60% of external resources.[20] However, it represented 27% of total external financing for the education sector; for all 21 countries, humanitarian aid to education accounted for 8% of total external resources (**Figure 8.19**).

Humanitarian funding for education in conflict-affected countries in 2012 was US$105 million, much less significant than the US$1.1 billion in development aid funding for education. The difference demonstrates the lack of prioritization of education by humanitarian funding, which is particularly problematic in countries that receive more humanitarian funding than development aid. In Mali, development aid to basic education decreased rapidly from US$136 million in 2008 to US$40 million in 2012 (OECD-DAC, 2014), yet since conflict began in 2010 the education sector has been one of the most poorly funded through

Figure 8.19: Humanitarian aid is a key form of financing for many conflict-affected countries, but education's share falls short
Share of external financing made up of humanitarian aid, 2012



Sources: OECD-DAC (2014); Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (2014).

18. Invasion of Afghanistan (2001), Indian Ocean tsunami (2005), South Asia earthquakes (2005), Cyclone Nargis in Myanmar (2008), Sudan (2008 and 2010) and the Haiti earthquake (2010).

19. This encompasses humanitarian and development aid. Development aid here means sector allocable aid.

20. External resources are development and humanitarian aid.

humanitarian aid, which has failed to make up for the reduction in development funding. Furthermore, humanitarian and development aid have different governance structures, which must collaborate to address the education sector's disadvantage.

Pooled funding has had an impact in fragile states but needs to be scaled up

A variety of mechanisms are open to donors to fund education in fragile states, such as development (recovery) funding, humanitarian appeals and multidonor trust funds. But the Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergency recommends pooled funding for education in fragile states to reduce transaction costs and increase coordination and harmonization. Two years after the conflict in Sierra Leone ended, a multidonor pool provided general budget support for ten years, disbursing GBP 10 million a year. This was crucial in supporting recurrent expenditure as well as complementing efforts in building governance. Higher spending in MDG-related areas had a direct impact on service delivery in the education sector (Manuel et al., 2012).

Three types of pooled funding mechanisms are used in the disbursement of humanitarian aid: CERF, Common Humanitarian Funds (CHFs) and Emergency Response Funds (ERFs). CERF covers all countries affected by an emergency. CHFs and ERFs are country-specific and provide country-based pooled and predictable funding for implementing agencies on the ground.

Despite a recommendation to scale up pooled funding mechanisms, the volume of humanitarian aid for education flowing through CERF, ERFs and CHFs has not changed since 2010. In volume terms, CHFs typically make up the bulk of humanitarian aid resources for education from pooled funding mechanisms. The standby funding from CERF amounts to a very small share of funding to education, averaging 1.37% between 2006 and 2014 (United Nations, 2014c). The share of total humanitarian funding for the education sector disbursed through the three mechanisms rose steeply in proportionate terms from 2010 to 2012 – from 6.7% to 22.1% – then fell, declining to 11.7% by 2013 (Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2014).

Other sources of international financing

NGOs appear to disburse resources better to neglected EFA goals

The Dakar Framework stated: 'Partnerships between governments, NGOs, communities and families can help ensure the provision of good care and education for children, especially for those most disadvantaged'. This has proved true, as the role of NGO funding of formal education has grown. Until the 1990s, very few NGOs from the Global North were involved, believing that provision of basic education should be the responsibility of governments. Non-state provision was ushered in during widespread structural adjustment programmes and the accompanying privatization and austerity. From the 2000s, government and civil society emphasized social progress, not just economic progress, a shift that encouraged involvement of NGOs, with their people-centred, grass-roots approaches (Banks and Hulme, 2012). While comprehensive data are lacking, it is estimated that NGO funding to education totals between US$2.6 billion and US$5.2 billion (Naylor and Ndaruhutse, 2014).

In Bangladesh, the number of children in BRAC pre-schools is estimated to roughly equal that in programmes run by the Ministry

NGOs have become important providers of basic services in some countries. They play a vital role in providing education for the hardest to reach, especially where state provision is absent or of poor quality. In Bangladesh, which had no early childhood development strategy as of December 2011, the number of children in BRAC pre-schools is estimated to roughly equal that in programmes run by the Ministry of Women and Children Affairs (Dundar et al., 2014). In the arid and semi-arid lands of Kenya, NGOs are more visible than the government in providing goods and services, including education (Brass, 2012). In Somalia, the absence of an effective government apparatus means donors often channel aid resources through NGOs. Moreover, NGOs are more active in neglected EFA areas.

NGOs' spending on education indicates their objectives are in alignment with EFA goals traditionally neglected by governments and donors, such as non-formal education and ECCE. In 2012, Plan International spent a

majority of its education funding (out of four subsectors) on ECCE. A large part of its 2010–2013 education strategy focuses on access, quality and governance, and is well aligned with EFA goals (Naylor and Ndaruhutse, 2014). BRAC targets school dropouts and other out-of-school children with support intended as a route back into formal education for disadvantaged children. Overall expenditure on BRAC's education programme in Bangladesh is around US$50 million a year. Since 2002, BRAC has expanded internationally: it now has programmes in 11 developing countries, of which 7 have education components (Naylor and Ndaruhutse, 2014).

NGO funding of education can be problematic, however. Sustainability may be a challenge, with increased reliance by many NGOs on international aid agencies for funding. Moreover, NGO service provision may absolve governments of their responsibility to provide education, especially in the non-formal sector. ActionAid found that, over many years, government investment in education appeared to decline in geographical areas where it ran non-formal education centres; moreover, governments were reluctant to take on the cost of running these NGO centres partly due to their lack of compliance with government regulations (Rose, 2010). Another issue is the difficulty of tracking NGO spending at country level. In 2012, US$1.2 billion, or 11%, of direct aid to education was channelled through NGOs (OECD-DAC, 2014), but many recipient governments cannot track these resources on the ground, making it difficult to assess the total volume of aid disbursed to the education sector. A few international NGOs have started reporting to the International Aid Transparency Initiative, a voluntary multistakeholder effort to improve the transparency of aid resources so as to increase aid effectiveness (IATI, n.d.).

The potential for development or social impact bonds within the education sector is high

Non-traditional financing could be more important in coming years

Non-traditional financing is a concept originating at the Monterrey Conference on Financing for Development in 2002. Defined as 'new or novel ways to generate predictable, additional and sustainable financing' (Bellinger and Fletcher, 2014), it has grown exponentially, to more than US$50 billion (Burnett and Bermingham, 2010). In 2010, the Leading Group on Innovative Financing for Development established a task force on education. It recommended nine mechanisms to broaden funding of the education sector: a financial transaction tax, local currency education bonds, venture funds, diaspora bonds, voluntary contributions from migrants, debt swaps, sport levies, public–private partnerships and micro-donations from individual bank transactions. Similar mechanisms in the health sector have generated over US$7 billion in funding since their inception in 2002 (Innovative Finance Foundation, 2013).

Few of these innovative mechanisms have been applied in the education sector. Yet there are many reasons why advocates see their potential (Bellinger and Fletcher, 2014). Social and development impact bonds, for instance, leverage funds from the private sector for under-resourced development areas, including education. The first development impact bond in education, launched in Rajasthan, India (**Box 8.2**), is a possible model for catalysing additional resources for post-2015 education goals.

Box 8.2: Development impact bonds in education

In June 2014, the UBS Optimus Foundation, the Children's Investment Fund Foundation, Educate Girls and Instiglio launched the first development impact bond in education. Its aim is improving educational outcomes in Rajasthan, India. A three-year pilot, it intends to address high dropout rates and poor learning outcomes with an upfront investment by UBS of US$238,000 being channelled through Educate Girls, an NGO working in public primary schools to address the twin challenges of retention and quality learning.

Educate Girls has set targets for assessing progress, including improved results in 3 subject areas in 150 of the poorest-performing schools in Rajasthan. If it succeeds, the Children's Investment Fund Foundation will pay the investors back, at a rate of return of around 7% to 13%, depending on the success rate.

The potential for development or social impact bonds within the education sector is high, judging by the positive returns demonstrated in the health sector.

Sources: Bellinger and Fletcher (2014); Perakis (2014); UBS et al. (2014).

Diagnostic tools needed to assess education financing

Effective advocacy for more finance for education and more efficient use of resources requires comprehensive data and the diagnostic tools to gather and analyse that data. Such tools help governments and donors make the best use of finite resources and, in the complex world of education, understand how much various stakeholders are disbursing, where and to whom.

Since Dakar, a few useful tools have been established and scaled up. National Education Accounts (NEAs) have been piloted in a few countries. In Nigeria, a USAID-administered NEA for four states revealed that 42% of education financing was from private sources in Bauchi state. This led to the education budget being increased from 17% to 26% of the total budget (Oleksy-Ojikutu and Forbes, 2013). In the health sector, National Health Accounts (NHAs) have had broader reach (more than 190 countries) and more success. Once apartheid ended in South Africa, an NHA redistributed health funds and infrastructure after public health spending was found to be 3.6 times higher in wealthy areas than in poor ones (Van Der Gaag and Abetti, 2011).

Other diagnostic tools have helped illustrate changes in volume, efficiency and equity of public resources for education; examples are public expenditure reviews and public expenditure tracking surveys. Pre-dating Dakar, and largely donor-led thus far, they have increased in frequency and geographical coverage in the past 15 years. Reviews of public expenditure answer many questions regarding government expenditure, including how much, on what and on whom public education funds are spent (World Bank, 2009). The usefulness of public expenditure tracking surveys lies in their ability to identify gaps between intended expenditure and what actually reaches recipients (World Bank, 2009). GPE-funded country status reports provide the most comprehensive analyses of the education sector and its financing and efficiency. So far undertaken only in sub-Saharan Africa, they have proved to mobilize financial resources effectively and build consensus for policy reform. Benefit incidence analysis should be scaled up to identify inequity and improve data availability, regularity and timeliness.

Institutional use of such tools relies on intense data collection, including regular, comprehensive information on financing sources and recipients. Challenges include collecting comparable information from different types of schools, public and private, and from all levels of government, local, state and national. Cost is also an issue: piloting an NEA can require between US$0.5 and US$1.5 million (Van Der Gaag and Abetti, 2011). Nevertheless, any post-2015 framework on monitoring education finance will increasingly rely on such tools to track progress against the issues raised in this chapter.

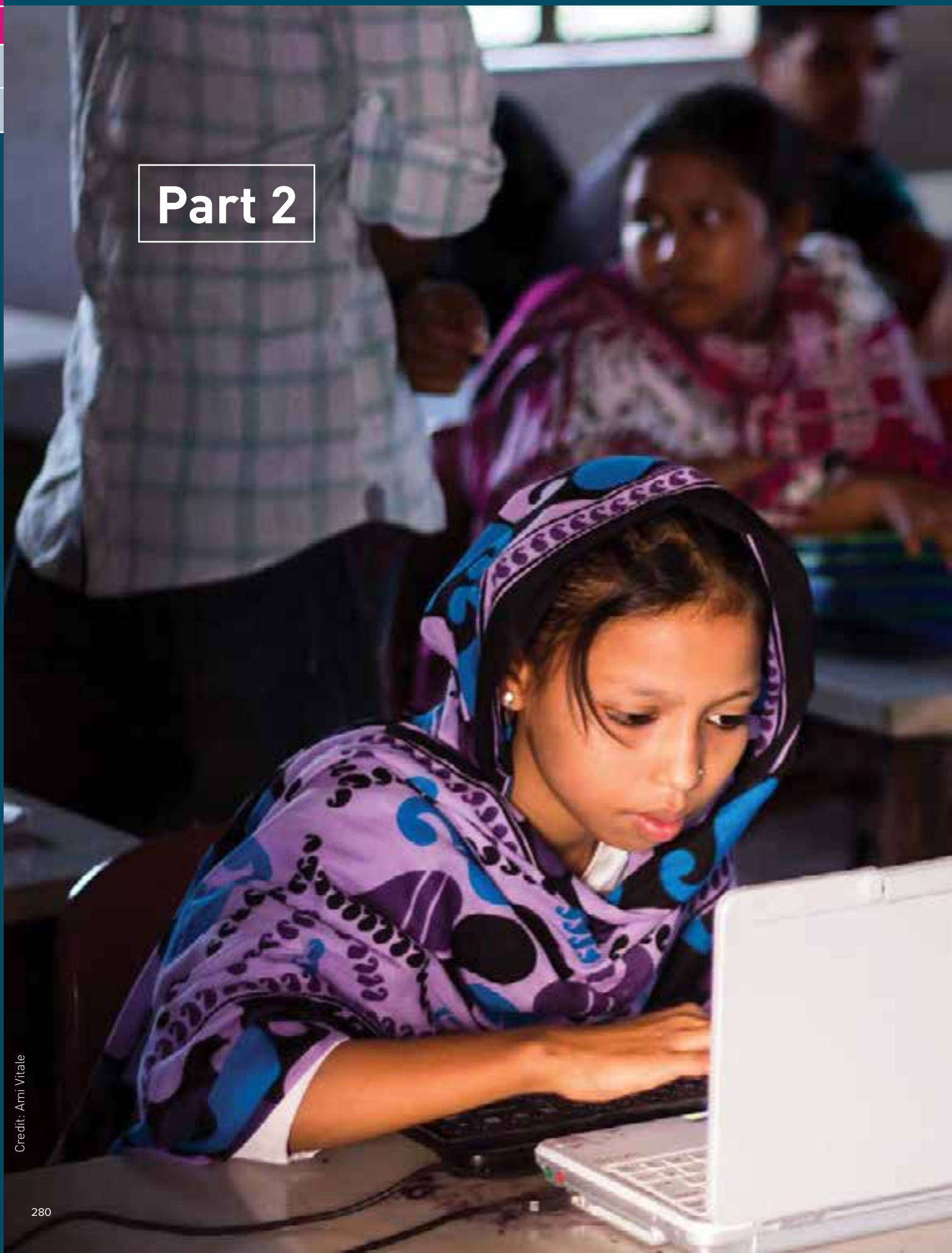
Conclusion

The pledge made at Dakar that no country should be thwarted in achieving the EFA goals due to lack of resources has been one of the biggest failures of the EFA period. Donors failed to live up to their promises. Resources were increased to meet the goal of universal free primary education, but are still in chronic shortage: more is needed to ensure that the goal of universal primary education is met. The efforts of many low income governments in reprioritizing education budgets towards primary education are commendable, but more is required to prioritize education spending in general. Financial support from governments and donors for the other EFA goals has been negligible and progress towards them weak. There is still a need to reprioritize resources from non-EFA education areas, such as tertiary education, towards areas which would benefit the disadvantaged. Households have had to bolster spending to make up for a lack of national resources.

The Dakar pledge that no country should be thwarted in achieving the EFA goals due to lack of resources has been one of the biggest failures of the EFA period

Aid to education as a share of total aid has stayed stagnant, and within education aid, the share of basic education has changed very little. Moreover, aid to basic education has failed to be reprioritised to the countries most in need. These mistakes need to be avoided for any set of goals for education after 2015. A firm financial commitment to education is demanded of governments, donors and other education funders, and civil society must hold them to account. Otherwise, those who will pay the price, as has been the case since Dakar, are the children in need of basic education, the marginalized and the hard to reach. More broadly, all of society will miss out on the long-term, wide-ranging, transformative effects of education.

Part 2



Credit: Ami Vitale

CHAPTER 9

Post-2015 education goal and targets: Status and prospects

Highlights

- The post-2015 education goal and targets more closely reflect the holistic vision of the Education for All movement, recognising that all levels of education are interrelated.
- Several of the proposed new education targets lack specificity and clarity in how they are defined and in the outcomes expected. This may undermine the ability to reach the targets by 2030.
- To achieve the equity orientation of the new agenda, countries will need to improve their targeting of policies and resources and adapt inequality indicators to their respective national context.
- The new target for all countries to attain universal upper secondary education by 2030 is unrealistic – projections for this report suggest that this target will not be achieved this century on current trends.
- National resources will not be sufficient to meet the basic education targets by 2030. The total external financing gap is projected to average US$22 billion annually between 2015 and 2030. Almost half of this, or US$10.6 billion pertains to low income countries.
- Projections indicate that aid to education will stagnate over the next few years. To achieve basic education targets by 2030, the level of external assistance to low and lower middle income countries would need to increase by at least four times.

The political context for the targets is as important as the targets themselves. This chapter examines how the SDGs can and must improve the international context for education development to support implementation of the new agenda. It includes a new cost projection showing the significant increase in finance necessary to achieve SDG education goals which may be the most important factor underlying the new agenda's success or failure.

> *"For more than a decade, the UNESCO* Education for All Global Monitoring Report *has played a pivotal role in helping the world to monitor and track progress in achieving the right of every child, girls and boys, to a good quality education. As we head into the final year of the Millennium Development Goals and set the agenda for global education for the years ahead, this report tells us that while progress has been made, our work is far from done. We must - and we can - do better."*
>
> Hon Julia Gillard Chair, Global Partnership for Education

Chapter 9 Post-2015 education goal and targets: Status and prospects

Introduction

The Education for All (EFA) movement tackled ambitious challenges in the wake of the establishment of the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000. Some global progress has been achieved, and the pace of change has quickened. There have been notable failures, such as the fact that hundreds of millions of adults, especially women, are denied their right to literacy and numeracy. Other EFA targets suffered from a lack of clarity on their parameters or expected results. With a new post-2015 agenda to be established, how can the international education community achieve more, learning from the past?

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report* (GMR) has monitored progress on an almost annual basis towards the EFA goals, and the two education-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), since 2002. Looking towards the next agenda for education and development after the 2015 deadline, it is instructive to use the lessons of the past 15 years to increase the likelihood of achievements over the next 15.

This chapter draws on the GMR experience to critically assess the proposed post-2015 education targets and offer key recommendations. After providing an overview of post-2015 developments related to the global agenda for education, the chapter provides general criticisms of the current formulation of targets. To be used successfully, targets need to be specific, measurable, realistic and relevant. Equity issues must be clearly articulated to ensure that no one gets left behind. Using this assessment, specific points are raised for each of the ten education-related Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) targets.

The political context for the targets is as important as the targets themselves. This chapter examines how the SDGs can and must improve the international context for education development to support implementation of the new agenda. The chapter includes a new cost projection showing the significant increase in finance necessary to achieve SDG education goals. This may be the most important factor underlying the new agenda's success or failure.

Overview of post-2015 developments

At the 70th Session of the UN General Assembly in late September 2015, member states will adopt a new global development agenda with a set of SDGs at its core. The SDGs will establish development priorities, including for education, over the following 15 years. They will succeed both the MDGs and the EFA goals, both of which ran to 2015.

Much progress has been made on developing the SDGs since the UN Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20), which launched the process in 2012. Important milestones were reached in mid-2014, notably a set of proposed goals from the Open Working Group (OWG) on SDGs based on lengthy intergovernmental negotiations. The SDG process involved an unprecedented level of public consultation, including contributions from civil society organizations. Within the education sector, the Muscat Agreement of May 2014 – developed with member states, international organizations and representatives of civil society – constituted a concerted effort to influence the content of the SDG education goal and its targets (UNESCO, 2014c).

Targets need to be specific, measurable, realistic and relevant

In December 2014, the United Nations Secretary-General put forward a Synthesis Report of major documents and processes relating to the post-2015 development agenda. It provides material for further intergovernmental negotiations taking place up to September 2015, when the precise SDG goals and targets will be

finalized, together with the financial frameworks required to achieve the new agenda (United Nations, 2014b).

In May 2015, 15 years after the Dakar World Education Forum, the international community will reconvene at Incheon, Republic of Korea, and issue a statement on post-2015 education priorities, together with a framework for action, which is intended to contribute to the final formulation of the SDG education goal and targets.

The OWG has proposed seventeen SDGs, including one dedicated to education (**Box 9.1**), along with 169 targets. The proposals would considerably enlarge the objectives of the eight MDGs, which were strongly oriented towards poverty reduction in the Global South and the requisite mobilization of aid. Their application to high income countries was limited and they were not considered truly global.

By contrast, the proposed SDGs reflect a broadened global agenda addressing worldwide challenges that have emerged since 2000. These include threats due to climate change and environmental degradation, as well as economic and social disruption due to growing inequality. The proposed SDGs also aim at strengthening links among peace, effective governance and human rights in ways that would reduce the negative impact of armed conflict, crime, terrorism, persecution, corruption and impunity on individuals' everyday lives. The SDG agenda reflects countries' increased capacity to fund and implement their own development strategies, including in education, partly through new and innovative partnerships with civil society organizations, responsible businesses and effective local authorities (United Nations, 2014b).

Box 9.1: Open Working Group proposal for Sustainable Development Goals

1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere
2. End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture
3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages
4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all
5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls
6. Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all
7. Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all
8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all
9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation
10. Reduce inequality within and among countries
11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable
12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns
13. Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts
14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development
15. Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss
16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels
17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development

The proposed targets are more oriented to outcomes

The proposed SDGs seek to link development priorities to a comprehensive policy agenda in a way that creates synergy and establishes a more effective response to global challenges. Poverty, health, sanitation, energy, employment, economic growth and environmental protection are closely intertwined in this framework. The same is true of the education sector, which is strongly integrated into the SDG agenda. It is seen, with some justification, as having a positive impact on a wide range of outcomes, including income, employment, agricultural productivity, economic growth, health, fertility rates, gender equality, social and economic equality and justice, civic engagement, and environmental sustainability (UNESCO, 2014e, 2014h).

The proposed education SDG and targets (**Box 9.2**) are considerably broader than the corresponding MDGs with their narrow focus on primary education completion and gender parity. The SDG targets more closely reflect the holistic vision of the EFA movement, which recognized that all levels of education were

Box 9.2: Proposed SDG education goals and targets

Targets

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

4.2 By 2030 ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education

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

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

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

4.6 By 2030 ensure that all youth and at least x% of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

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

Means of implementation

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

4.b By 2020 expand by x% globally the number of scholarships for developing countries in particular LDCs, SIDS and African countries to enrol in higher education, including vocational training, ICT, technical, engineering and scientific programmes in developed countries and other developing countries

4.c By 2030 increase by x% the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially LDCs and SIDS

** ICT = information and communication technology; LDCs = least developed countries; SIDS = small island developing states*

interrelated. While the EFA goals sought to ensure equal access to good quality basic education, the proposed SDG targets are more oriented to outcomes. Moreover, they ambitiously shift the emphasis to higher levels of education, referring to universal secondary completion and equal access to tertiary education. They also aim at improvement in skills needed for decent jobs, including through entrepreneurship, and acquiring knowledge of sustainable development though education that prioritizes global citizenship, human rights, peace, cultural diversity and gender equality. Overall, the SDG education targets are more closely aligned with an explicit lifelong learning framework.

Where do the proposed education targets fall short?

The proposed SDG framework's expanded global agenda for education is designed to be ambitious and transformative. Yet at this historic juncture, what would it mean for countries and the international community to adopt a set of targets for education that are unrealistic, overambitious or too costly? Also of concern is how to improve the clarity of education targets so coherent indicators can be identified to monitor progress at the local, national, regional and global levels and to help countries devise effective implementation strategies and decide how to allocate resources.

Where there are many objectives within a target, the ability to prioritize is eroded

The United Nations Secretary-General's Synthesis Report on the post-2015 sustainable development agenda argued that 'measurable targets and technically rigorous indicators' are needed and called for each target to be 'framed in language that is specific, measurable [and] achievable'. It was subsequently suggested, following intergovernmental negotiations on the post-2015 agenda, that 'technical proofing' of the targets be conducted, which would involve contributions by technical experts in addition to those of the UN system. This section briefly summarizes the GMR's main criticisms of the proposed education targets and then presents a more detailed discussion of their shortcomings, as a contribution to the debate.

Targets need to be specific and clear

Several of the proposed SDG education targets lack specificity and clarity in the concepts employed and outcomes expected. Specificity also relates to prioritization. Where there are many objectives within a target but none taking precedence, the ability to prioritize and allocate resources, required to achieve any goal, is eroded. Making targets more specific simplifies the selection of indicators and matching of objectives with actions. Superfluous language and multiple objectives undermine the attainment of targets. For example, EFA goal 3, which hoped to ensure 'equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes', arguably had little traction because it did not clearly define the particular skills or forms of education involved.

Some targets are not measurable

If targets cannot be adequately measured, accountability is threatened

If targets cannot be adequately measured now or in the foreseeable future, accountability is threatened. Indeed, the use of the term 'targets' implies that the SDG agenda emphasizes quantitative measurement. However, some targets refer to outcomes for which data are currently unavailable, or which at least are not conventionally viewed as quantifiable.

Targets relating to attitudes and values necessary to peaceful and sustainable societies can be measured using various surveys, including household surveys, with sufficient resources and clear definitions. Other targets present considerable challenges. The upgrading of education facilities to be 'effective learning environments', while laudable, would be a major challenge for measurement. The challenge to build 'inclusive' schools sidesteps the reality of contrasting notions of inclusivity. A global measurement of skills needed for 'decent jobs' is similarly difficult because of different types of skills, which vary by country, as does what is considered 'decent'. The idea of 'technical and vocational skills' raises several measurement issues. These are often specific to occupations. Definitions of required skills might change with employer demand or technological innovation. It would be a logistical nightmare to try to measure whether carpenters, mechanics or computer technicians, for example, have adequate technical skills apart from the vocational qualifications achieved.

The importance of realistic and relevant targets

Targets that have little chance of being met in a 15 year time-frame are unlikely to receive political commitment, support and cooperation from governments, donors, non-government organizations and local communities. The more ambitious the proposed target, the more unlikely it is to be met. For example, ensuring universal upper secondary education in the next 15 years is beyond the reach of most countries. At current rates of progress, even universal lower secondary completion is not projected to be reached in low and middle income countries until the latter half of the 21st century (see below).

Targets must also be relevant. A common criticism of the EFA goals, or at least of how they were quantified and monitored, was their lack of relevance to education challenges facing high income countries. The same cannot be said of the proposed SDG targets. Ensuring children and youth leave school with adequate learning outcomes, and providing youth and adults with the skills necessary for decent employment, are relevant to all countries, including high income ones. However, to be applicable to individual countries, targets should be formulated in a way that accounts for conditions facing youth from marginalized or vulnerable populations, and for the diversity of skills needed in differing economies.

Equity issues are not clearly articulated

The essence of the goal is the achievement of inclusive and equitable education of good quality. But the ambiguous language of some targets could lead to marginalized groups being left behind. The lack of reference to *free and compulsory* basic education – pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education – has worrying implications. The household cost of education is one of the most significant barriers to participation among children and youth from poor households. Some of the proposed targets promote forms or levels of education that especially benefit the most advantaged students, possibly leading to inequitable public spending. Moreover, while pre-primary education has

been shown to have a strong positive impact on education and life outcomes for all children and especially those most disadvantaged (UNESCO, 2012c), free and compulsory pre-primary education is not mentioned, while completion of upper secondary education is given high priority.

In some targets, the concept of equal access is either missing or inadequately defined. It could be interpreted as equal access by all children to good quality schools, regardless of parental income or family background: a commendable but highly ambitious objective. Or it could mean, more simply, equal access to any school. Regardless of definition, equal access does not necessarily lead to the more important aim of less inequality of outcomes. Disadvantaged groups could be left behind, while the most privileged could maintain or advance their relative position. Quantitative indicators for outcomes, particularly learning outcomes, for these groups are needed. It is also unclear whether the targets cover the most significant disadvantaged groups. Categories of vulnerability mentioned in the targets do not include poverty, even though the greatest inequality is between the richest and poorest households.

Critical issues need to be addressed in each education target

Drawing on these general points, there are specific issues on which each proposed education target falls short. The critical discussion below is offered as a starting point for a possible reformulation of targets if the intergovernmental negotiation offers such an opportunity.

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

The first target seeks to ensure that all children complete secondary education and acquire relevant learning outcomes. Its weaknesses are of particular concern. The main problem is that it does not separate secondary education into its lower and upper levels. The achievement of universal upper secondary by all countries by 2030 is unrealistic. Globally, the upper secondary gross enrolment ratio was 62% in 2012, but this figure conceals disparities among regions and countries: for example, the rate was 32% in sub-Saharan Africa. No country has ever gone from such levels to achieving universal upper secondary education within 15 years. If the target leads to prioritizing upper secondary education, which typically channels students into unequal tracks and programmes and is more costly per student, it would be to the detriment of the right to a full cycle of good quality basic education, including lower secondary education.

Prioritizing upper secondary would be to the detriment of good quality basic education

A still ambitious but more feasible target for a 15 year time-frame is a basic education cycle: an international benchmark of at least 9 years[1] of free, equitable and compulsory primary and lower secondary education. Analysis of documents in the UNESCO Right to Education Database indicates broad intention among countries to make lower secondary education free: 94 of 107 low and middle income countries have already legislated free lower secondary education, 66 through constitutional guarantees and 28 through other legal measures. Beyond legal guarantees the notion of 'free' requires clarity with respect to explicit (and implicit) fees charged to parents for educational services provided.

Target 4.1 does not say that primary and secondary education should be compulsory. Adding this notion to primary and lower secondary education would help ensure equitable access and completion, and would reflect the current situation. As of 2012, almost all countries had passed laws requiring school attendance at the primary level, and all but 25 had done so for lower secondary education.

Target 4.2. By 2030 ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education

This target emphasizes universal access to good quality early childhood development (ECD) and pre-primary education programmes and assumes that such access can be equated with school readiness for all children. Given the high percentage of malnourished children worldwide and the estimate that 100 million children will still suffer from the effects of stunting in 2025, this assumption is problematic. Ensuring access

1. Ten years if one year of compulsory pre-primary education is included.

to ECD would not necessarily address the complex dietary and health challenges faced by tens of millions of children.

The global gross enrolment ratio for early childhood education was 54% in 2012, but there is disparity among regions and countries: for example, the ratio was 20% in sub-Saharan Africa. One year of free and compulsory pre-primary education would help to close the gaps in participation, especially among children from poor households and marginalized communities.

The notion of adult learning and education is missing

Country definitions of the purposes, duration and quality of ECD and pre-primary programmes vary significantly. So do policies governing the minimum qualifications of caretakers and teachers, the maximum number of children per qualified educator, and the extent to which caregivers possess expert knowledge about child development. The current target emphasizes access to 'quality' ECD or pre-primary programmes, even though there is less international consensus over what good quality programmes at this level actually entail and how they can be compared across countries.

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

This target sets a highly unrealistic agenda. If universal upper secondary education by 2030 is beyond reach, access for all to tertiary education is even more so. The global participation rate in tertiary education was 32% in 2012; the rate in sub-Saharan Africa was only 8%. In the unlikely scenario universal secondary education were achieved by 2030, it would take several more years to achieve equal access for all in tertiary education. Moreover, since many countries provide technical and vocational education at the secondary level or in both secondary and tertiary education, measuring and monitoring equal access to such programmes would be difficult.

At the same time, the target could be more specific, more equitable and, ultimately, more ambitious. A target of this type that could be monitored would focus on opportunities available to all qualified learners who wish to pursue studies at the tertiary level (whether universities or technical and vocational programmes), with a focus on equity and non-discrimination.

The idea of 'affordable' tertiary education lacks clarity in both global and national terms. In many countries, much tertiary education is non-public, typically entailing higher costs to students or their families. How would the international community determine in real terms whether technical, vocational and tertiary education are more or less affordable?

The notion of adult learning and education is missing, but is fundamental to any lifelong learning framework, was included in the EFA framework, and should be included in this target. Without it, the proposed target is less ambitious and transformative than existing international agreements.

Unlike other education targets, this one focuses on access only and does not specify desired outcomes. One of its possible outcomes, skill acquisition, is spelled out in target 4.4. Combining the two would address this weakness and reduce the number of targets to be achieved.

Target 4.4. By 2030, increase by x% the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship.

This outcome-oriented target focuses on improving the acquisition of work-related skills among some percentage of youth and adults. It is difficult to gauge how ambitious and transformative this target is. The precise extent to which youth and adults currently possess relevant work skills is unknown. For example, the fact that unemployment rates are high in some countries does not necessarily reflect the skill levels of their workers. A more ambitious target would be to ensure that all youth and adults possess a measurable set of defined skills.

In theory, the target could cover a wide range of skills, knowledge and competencies: foundation skills such as literacy and numeracy; transferable skills such as problem-solving, creative and critical thinking, effective communication of ideas, and 'grit' and determination; and more specific technical, practical or technological skills related to a

particular job or occupation. 'Relevant' skills need to be more clearly defined. One possible focus could be on particular types of skills, such as digital or ICT, that are high in demand in the global economy.

In practice, literacy and numeracy are the only skills currently measured (and captured in target 4.6), mainly in high and middle income countries. Both are relevant to work *and* life; yet measurement strategies of each skill would likely vary depending on whether the focus was on employment or lifelong learning. It is particularly challenging to identify concrete indicators that capture relevant skills for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship, and that can be compared across countries.

The target's current formulation is vague about routes to skill acquisition, whether formal schooling, non-formal programmes or informal learning. Such information is important in developing, implementing and measuring policy at the country level. A more specific formulation would look at the proportion of learners who acquire skills in different education contexts.

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

This target is meant to underscore the paramount importance of equity in education. Is it better to have a stand-alone target such as this that focuses on equity and gender? Or would it be more effective to include explicit reference to equity and gender in each target? This issue is relevant for other SDGs, not only the education goal. Whatever decision is made, it is critical to apply disaggregated equity-oriented indicators across all targets so that equity issues are comprehensively acknowledged and consistently addressed. Moreover, equity considerations should go beyond ensuring the most disadvantaged meet a minimum or loosely defined criteria of 'equal access', and should to some extent include equality of outcomes.

This target only refers to gender disparities and makes no reference to gender inequalities in education. Some argue that stipulating a separate gender equality goal (SDG 5), separate from the education one, would detract from the monitoring of gender inequalities in education.

There seems little justification for the current selection of vulnerable groups in the target, which should be expanded. The notion of vulnerability could include, for example, children in conflict zones, children residing in poor households, those living in sparsely populated regions, street children, children in migrant families, those belonging to indigenous or nomadic groups, language minorities and so on.

Target 4.6. By 2030 ensure that all youth and at least x% of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

The basic right of all adults to literacy and numeracy is implicit in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which refers to the 'fundamental' stage of education. Given the ambition of the SDG agenda, and the difficulty in setting global benchmarks, this target should aim for all adults to achieve literacy and numeracy by 2030 to be in line with these earlier commitments.

Equally important is the acknowledgement of literacy as a multidimensional skill, not a dichotomy, one that exists on a continuum. Thus, the target should be enhanced by explicitly basing it on a notion of functional literacy and numeracy in terms of a minimum proficiency level needed for active participation in the community. This would ensure that the target deals with basic skills and competences that transform lives.

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

Equity considerations should include equality of outcomes to some extent

This target can be evaluated in at least two ways. On the one hand, its explicit link to sustainable development is strong, capturing the transformative aspirations of the broad

post-2015 development agenda. Many, if not all, of the notions listed as promoting sustainable development are deeply embedded in principles established in existing international frameworks and conventions.[2] The target is outcome oriented and universally applicable. More than other targets, it touches on the social, humanistic and moral purposes of education. Indeed, if adopted, this target will be one of the few international objectives to acknowledge the role of culture and the cultural dimensions of education.

On the other hand, the current formulation reflects the interests of many organizations and institutions. Concepts need to be clarified, as several of them overlap. Clarity is also necessary to construct a limited set of valid and measurable indicators. Considerable work would be needed to develop qualitative indicators sensitive to diverse country contexts. The target would also need to specify the education levels and/or age groups to which its concepts apply.

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

This is an important target that addresses the lack of adequate physical infrastructure in many education systems, as well as the need for safe and inclusive environments that nurture learning for all children, regardless of background and disability status. It is universally applicable and highlights dimensions of education apart from learning outcomes. Conceptions of safe and inclusive learning environments can be found, for example, in the INEE Minimum Standards and UNICEF's Child-Friendly School Checklist. However, while certain aspects of the target are specific, relevant and measurable, it is much less clear how schools would become 'effective' learning environments and the extent to which this involves reforms to curricula, instructional materials, pedagogy and school governance.

Means of implementation 4.b. By 2020 expand by x% globally the number of scholarships for developing countries in particular LDCs, SIDS and African countries to enrol in higher education, including vocational training, ICT, technical, engineering and scientific programmes in developed countries and other developing countries

It is questionable whether such a target, aimed at a specific group of countries, should be included in a universal development agenda. While it aims to reduce inequity among countries, it could exacerbate inequity within them by primarily benefiting those from the most privileged and politically connected backgrounds. There is little evidence that scholarships build knowledge and teaching capacity within beneficiary countries; often they are used as a means to see aid allocations return to the donor country.

The target assumes that student mobility is among the best means to increase the formation of expert human capital in resource-constrained education systems. However, while data on cross-national higher education scholarships are available, there is a lack of information on the benefits, such as outcomes of scholarships and whether students return to their home countries. Data are also lacking on the national origins of students in technical or engineering programmes.

With its focus on traditional scholarships, the target may already be out of date, given the transformation under way in access to

It is remarkable that there is no overall finance target

2. Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948); International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1966); General Assembly Resolution 59/113 A (10 December 2004) proclaiming the World Programme for Human Rights Education; Education for All (2000) goal 5 on achieving gender equality; United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI); Agenda 21, adopted at the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (1992), Chapter 36; United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (1992); Convention on Biological Diversity (1992); United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (1994); United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, adopted in 2002 (2005–2014); Johannesburg 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development; Bonn Declaration, 2009, UNESCO World Conference on ESD; The Future We Want (outcome document of the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20) (2012); UNESCO Convention Concerning the Protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage (1972); UNESCO Declaration on Cultural Diversity (2001); UNESCO Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage (2003); Convention on the Protection and Promotion of the Diversity of Cultural Expressions (2005); UNGA Resolution 68/223 of December 2013 on Culture and Sustainable Development.

Credit: Tuan Nguyen

specialized bodies of knowledge through expansion of e-learning, distance and online courses (such as massive open online courses, or MOOCs) and cross-border forms of higher education.

Finally, it is remarkable that there is no overall finance target, or at least a financing equity target that would track how domestic and external financing is used to serve the disadvantaged in all countries.

Means of implementation 4.c. By 2030 increase by x% the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially LDCs and SIDS

Progress towards the post-2015 education SDG will be stymied if the quality and effectiveness of teaching are not front and centre in the main list of targets. Teaching may be considered a 'means of implementation', but comparing teachers to improved infrastructure and increased scholarships ignores, and weakens, the critical role teachers play in the learning and maturation processes of children and youth. The current formulation of the target narrowly focuses on challenges facing low and middle income countries, where the quantitative gap in the supply is well documented (UNESCO, 2014c). But the need for a sufficient supply of qualified and trained teachers and ways to ensure effective teaching are paramount in all countries.

A more ambitious target should focus on the instructional needs of all learners. To be more transformational, the target should underscore the need to ensure quality teaching for all by describing teachers who are professionally trained, motivated (through adequate remuneration, working conditions and recognition), well-supported (through in-service training) and deployed where required.

Lessons for implementing the new agenda

The proposed SDG targets in education will be discussed at the World Education Forum in Incheon in May 2015, when representatives of the international education community convene to take stock of what has been achieved since Dakar. In September 2015 the international community will adopt a new development agenda, including an education goal and targets, during the United Nations General Assembly. Whatever precise formulation is eventually agreed in New York, and regardless of the role the World Education Forum may play, the final language of the post-2015 education targets is unlikely to be less ambitious than the current proposals.

The world will likely remain far from key targets if recent trends continue

Analysis of projections for low and middle income countries for this GMR suggests that the world will likely remain far from key targets if recent trends continue. For example, these countries will still be distant from the proposed primary and secondary education target in 2030. In particular, the lower secondary attainment rate is expected to be 50% in low income countries, 80% in lower middle income countries and 92% in upper middle income countries, if recent trends continue.[3] Even the achievement of universal primary education, a core goal of Jomtien and Dakar, appears on current evidence beyond reach.

Universal upper secondary education, one of the OWG targets, will not be achieved this century. It may never be reached; even high income countries have progressed towards it very slowly. For example, among the 28 European Union countries, the percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds who had attained upper secondary education increased from 77% in 2002 to 81% in 2013 (Eurostat, 2014).

Given such evidence, a sustained commitment among national authorities, international partners and civil society would need to be secured, and put into practice, for these ambitious targets to be achieved. It would be instructive for the World Education Forum to consider lessons learned from the past 15 years. How can a new framework for action propose more effective mechanisms for global coordination and accountability than those envisaged in Dakar? How can good practices be identified to recommend to individual governments? To what extent were the Dakar strategies actually adopted and implemented at

3. See the technical note on the EFA Global Monitoring Report website for further information.

the global and national levels, how successful were they, and how can they be amended for greater success in the future?

Following the extensive review of the post-Dakar architecture (see Overview) and drawing on 15 years of experience of monitoring EFA priorities, this section puts forward lessons and recommendations for implementation of the post-2015 agenda.

Find new ways to sustain political commitment

The scope for international bodies to influence national education policies has increased since 2000. Advances in communications and the flow of information have facilitated the process of peer-to-peer learning. Increases in the absolute volume of aid and more sophisticated monitoring of aid programmes' implementation have meant that funders have had considerable influence on government decision-making processes, despite a general adherence to the principle of national ownership.

However, many interventions operated outside the framework that the five convening agencies agreed in Dakar. In practice, the formal EFA coordination mechanisms proved weak in helping sustain political commitment, as each agency followed separate, minimally coordinated paths. Closer cooperation among the co-conveners of the World Education Forum in Incheon, through joint mechanisms, should be seen as a necessary part of a revised arrangement after 2015.

Education holds the key to achieving important goals of the post-2015 development agenda

Two new developments suggest there will be better collaboration, supporting the new agenda. First, a weakness of the Dakar Framework, compounded by the MDG agenda, was that the education targets came to be seen as relevant only to countries in the Global South. The broader SDG agenda, to be agreed in 2015, aims to be universal. The principle of universality reinforces the notion that inclusive, equitable education of good quality is an essential goal for every nation. Securing political commitment to a universal education agenda will increase the chances of its success.

Second, as will be seen later in the section, there are calls for a clearly identified accountability mechanism in the post-2015 agenda, which will have repercussions for the education sector. The absence of such structures undoubtedly weakened political commitment in the past; it is hoped that the reverse will be true after 2015.

Further diversify knowledge, evidence and expertise

Over the past 15 years the availability and variety of evidence used in global and national education policy-making have expanded considerably. However, national decision-making has not always reflected robust evidence and data. In order to advance, the post-2015 education agenda will need to take advantage of diverse knowledge, evidence and expertise.

One notable gap in knowledge has related to the links between education and other sectors. Cross-cutting approaches have emerged, notably in the area of early childhood care and education, but policy-makers rarely focus on potential synergy between sectors. The new sustainable development agenda raises expectations that this blind spot will be corrected.

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report* has emphasized the role that education can play in advancing other development outcomes (UNESCO, 2014e). Significant evidence suggests that the reverse is also true: a favourable development context can accelerate education progress. A cross-sectoral approach should become a dominant feature of the new education agenda and of intervention planning.

Education also holds the key to achieving many goals of the post-2015 development agenda, notably those related to sustainable consumption, access to justice for all and peaceful societies. The links between education and these goals need to be further explored and education programmes and approaches need to be transformed to achieve these objectives.

The use of more diverse expertise, including from other sectors, will contribute to improved educational outcomes. Education development can be accelerated by addressing poverty, for example through targeted programmes in the poorest countries to improve the living conditions of households that cannot keep their children in school. Such initiatives would require

stronger efforts to plan education interventions jointly with infrastructure investment – including for water, sanitation, roads and energy – and social policy. Meanwhile, knowledge of the major impact of poor nutrition in early years on subsequent cognitive development should spur the education community to advocate for interventions at the earliest possible age. And insights from the field of psychology can be of benefit in many ways, from improving teacher training programmes and classroom practices, especially in poor settings, to motivating disadvantaged young people and adults to acquire skills.

The active response of the education community to the needs of other sectors, and engagement in dialogue with outside experts, will be a positive step, helping the field abandon its detrimental approach of working in relative isolation.

Further strengthen national policy and practice

The agenda's success will ultimately be judged at the national level. The scope and emphasis of the proposed education goal and targets point to three key directions, which are consistent with the lessons of the past 15 years. National plans need to be better articulated, with closer recognition of relationships between levels of education and across sectors; policy-makers need to address equity more directly; and measures to improve quality need to be more clearly elaborated. The agenda brings back a comprehensive, integrated view of education that many argue was lost when the development paradigm was dominated by the MDGs and an almost exclusive focus on primary education.

The experience of national EFA plans that duplicated other national efforts suggests that the international community should abandon such approaches. Instead, more focus should be placed on improving *existing* education, or education-related, planning and budgeting processes. Governments and development partners should identify gaps and continue building capacity to ensure that these processes capture the full scope of the education agenda.

Two gaps relating to the cornerstones of the new agenda, equity and quality, also show the need for better coordination between the global and national levels. Very few education plans reviewed for this GMR incorporated an analysis of equity – and often those that did include one did so only on the insistence of development partners. Yet new data sources have become available since 2000 that disaggregate key education indicators by individual characteristics and thus can facilitate equity analysis.

Governments are slow to adopt policies that promote equity

Governments are slow to adopt policies that promote equity. Marginalized populations lack voice and representation; policy-makers do not respond to their demands in education planning. Bureaucracies may hide behind management information systems that they themselves control and dismiss evidence that could undermine their authority.

This GMR has described various cases where education policies discriminate against the poor. Government commitment to expanding pre-primary education has been weak, with the result that private pre-schools, unaffordable to those who need them most, have captured a larger share of the market since 2000. Reform in the language of instruction has been too shallow to enable those from minority groups to fully benefit from their experience of primary education. Adult education programmes, even in high income countries, are more likely to reach adults with some education qualifications than those lacking in basic skills. Across the board, little emphasis has been given to non-formal, distance and community-based programmes. Policies hardly recognize the burden of education expenditure carried by households.

Meanwhile, the costs of providing education services to, for example, remote and underserved populations or people with disabilities are comparatively high. And while relevant information may be available to planners, it is not being used to set targets for marginalized groups and pursue the necessary policies. The UN Secretary-General has said that no goal or target should be considered met unless all groups, i.e. 'disaggregated social and economic groups', have met it (United Nations, 2014b). The new agenda offers countries the opportunity to improve their targeting of policies and resources and adapt related indicators to their respective national context.

On the other hand, this GMR found that all national plans reviewed captured aspects of quality. This is consistent with the related finding that an increasing number of countries attempted to measure learning outcomes by participating in regional and international assessments. However, the treatment of education quality in plans still appears inadequate, as millions of children struggle to acquire even minimum levels of basic skills. This finding, which the GMR has communicated in recent years, has led to a focus on learning outcomes in the post-2015 agenda.

While improving foundation skills is a priority, the focus on learning should not be narrow. In coming years, countries need to identify what skills students should have acquired upon completing different education levels, at different stages of the lifecycle and across different domains. At the same time, more evidence is expected on the importance of non-cognitive skills and the extent to which education systems help students acquire them.

If education plans are to reflect a genuine concern for quality, then a higher share of the recurrent budget will need to be allocated to items other than teacher salaries. This GMR has documented several examples where core aspects of quality education have not been addressed. The knowledge, skills and status of early childhood educators have been neglected despite evidence of the importance of their role and their need for a complex set of competencies. Teachers in basic education have found themselves insufficiently prepared to teach reading to young children, adopt new curricula or implement learner-centred, gender-sensitive pedagogies. School heads and administrators are often not ready to carry out decentralization and school-based management reforms aimed at improving quality.

Annual total costs will need to quadruple in pre-primary education

The SDGs call on governments to take a fresh look at the content of education. Education will be the lynchpin of a sustainable development agenda whose success relies on individuals, throughout their lifetime, acquiring relevant knowledge and developing positive attitudes to address global challenges. Yet despite this emerging emphasis, as well the progress made during the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development, many countries will need more guidance and support to make effective choices on curricula and teacher education.

Effectively mobilize far more financial resources

The low level of resource mobilization after 2000 is a key reason EFA targets were not achieved. Domestic expenditure increased by 0.8% of GNP in low income countries and by 0.5% in lower middle income countries between 1999 and 2012. However, the GMR estimated in 2010 that to achieve the pre-primary, primary and literacy targets by 2015 in 46 low income countries, an additional US$16 billion, equivalent to 1.5% of GDP, would have been needed, much of it from external sources. The annual cost of also achieving universal lower secondary education was estimated at an additional US$25 billion (at constant 2007 prices) (UNESCO, 2010a).

In advance of the Financing for Development Conference in Addis Ababa in July 2015, and to contribute to the global debate on the cost of the sustainable development agenda, this GMR updated its earlier costing exercise to understand the level of financial resources that will need to be mobilized to achieve the SDG targets (**Box 9.3**).

Here are the key findings of the costing exercise (**Table 9.2**):

- Achieving completion of universal pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education of good quality in low and lower middle income countries by 2030 would require considerably higher levels of spending. Annual total expenditure would need to more than double from current levels, and some countries would need to increase expenditure considerably more than that. Annual total costs would quadruple in pre-primary education and roughly double in primary and lower secondary.

- Part of this increase would be driven by higher enrolment. The number of pre-primary students would more than double by 2030 (with a sixfold increase in low income countries). Lower secondary enrolment would

Box 9.3: A cost analysis for achieving the SDGs

This costing exercise focuses mainly on objectives corresponding to the first two of the seven targets of the post-2015 agenda. The target for pre-primary education is an average gross enrolment ratio of 100%. The primary and lower secondary education targets were expressed in terms of universal completion rather than enrolment. However, this costing exercise also takes into account the cross-cutting themes of quality and equity found in other post-2015 targets (**Table 9.1**).

Increasing education quality is a central aspect of the new agenda. This costing makes several provisions so that the quality of instruction meets minimum standards to ultimately achieve the desired learning outcomes: a ceiling for pupil/teacher and pupil/classroom ratios; adequate maintenance of classrooms; competitive teacher salaries to support the recruitment of talented and motivated teachers; and sufficient non-salary expenditure for learning materials and administrative support.

With respect to teacher salaries, which are usually the single largest cost, the assumptions are driven by the pupil/teacher ratio, which displays considerable variation across countries. Overall, both the ratio and the salary (expressed as a multiple of GDP per capita) tend to be higher in low income countries, reflecting a scarcity of skills. In the costing, it is assumed that in each country, as GDP per capita increases, the pupil/teacher ratio approaches the overall international average by 2030, while the teacher salary approaches the international average of countries in the top half of the teacher salary distribution.

The projections also take into account the fact that universal education can only be realized if there is additional support for marginalized out-of-school children, which can take the form of free uniforms, tuition support, mother-tongue instruction, construction of remote or mobile schools for hard-to-reach children or support for disabled children. Additional costs for these children are estimated at 20% of the cost per pupil for pre-primary and primary education, and at 30% for lower secondary education. In low income countries, these costs account for about 7% of the total, although in some extremely poor countries, such as Burundi, Madagascar, Mali and Niger, they rise to between 10% and 12%.

The GMR updated its 2010 costing exercise in two ways. First, coverage was extended to all 84 low and lower middle income countries; this could be expected to increase the cost, although less than proportionately as the new countries are closer to universal lower secondary education. Second, the time horizon for realizing the agenda, previously set to the end of 2015, was extended to achieve universal lower secondary education completion by 2030; this was expected to reduce the annual financing gap estimate, as the costs are spread over a much longer period than the last estimate. It should also be considered that countries have edged closer to the target over the past five years, another factor that differentiates these from past estimates.

There is no simple link between spending and education outcomes. The same level of spending may produce very different results in different countries as a result of differences in equity, efficiency and effectiveness. Such major differences across countries, as well as considerable data gaps, mean there are considerable limitations to any costing exercise, so estimates should be treated as indicative. Even so, given the level of ambition of the proposed agenda, the analysis suggests that lack of adequate finance will be the largest obstacle in poorer countries.

Table 9.1: Main assumptions in terms of targets and selected cost parameters

	Indicator	Initial value	Target value
1. Pre-primary education	a. Pre-primary gross enrolment ratio	37%	100%
2. Primary and lower secondary education	a. Primary attainment rate	70%	100%
	b. Lower secondary attainment rate	50%	100%
3. Quality	a. Pupil/teacher ratio	Pre-primary 27 Primary 35 Lower secondary 27	Pre-primary 18 Primary 31 Lower secondary 28
	b. Teacher salaries (multiple of per capita GDP)	e.g. low income countries Pre-primary/primary 3.6 Lower secondary 5.3	e.g. low income countries Pre-primary/primary 4.5 Lower secondary 5.9
4. Equity	a. Percentage of per pupil cost for programmes for marginalized children (living under US$2 per day) extended to provide support for all those in need	Variable	Pre-primary 20% Primary 20% Lower secondary 30%

Source: Wils (2015).

Table 9.2: Projected costs to 2030

	Low income		Lower middle income		Low and lower middle income	
	Average total annual cost (US$ billion)					
	2012	2015–2030 average	2012	2015–2030 average	2012	2015–2030 average
Pre-primary	0.7	5.2	7.1	29.3	7.9	34.5
Primary	7.1	20.6	52.0	110.0	59.2	130.6
Lower secondary	2.4	10.5	30.6	63.6	33.0	74.1
All	10.3	36.3	89.7	202.9	100.0	239.2
	Number of students (million)					
	2012	2030	2012	2030	2012	2030
Pre-primary	4	25	26	53	30	78
Primary	127	162	289	314	416	477
Lower secondary	29	69	123	171	153	240
	Expenditure per pupil, weighted average (US$ per year)					
	2012	2030	2012	2030	2012	2030
Pre-primary	123	353	242	842	225	684
Primary	65	199	208	508	164	403
Lower secondary	130	291	292	573	261	492

Source: Wils (2015).

increase by over 50%. Primary enrolment would grow only marginally.

- The rest of the increase would be due to most countries having to substantially raise per pupil spending by reducing pupil/teacher ratios, increasing expenditure on both salaries and non-salary items and boosting support for marginalized children. The need for increased per pupil expenditure is higher at the pre-primary level.

Things must change drastically if there is to be any hope of carrying out the new agenda

- Domestic resources would not be sufficient to achieve these basic education targets by 2030, even assuming ambitious increases in spending. The total annual external financing gap – the difference between the estimated cost of achieving basic education and the estimated available domestic resources – is projected to average $US22 billion annually between 2015 and 2030 (at 2012 constant prices).

- Almost half the annual external financing gap, or US$10.6 billion, pertains to low income countries. For comparison, in 2012 the total aid to pre-primary, primary and general secondary education in low income countries was US$2.3 billion. To achieve the target, the level of external assistance would need to at least quadruple.

- The exercise did not cost adult literacy programmes, in the absence of robust data. The previous exercise estimated the cost of universal adult literacy at 1.3% of the total cost of achieving the basic education target, which was too low. The current exercise, whose assumptions about increased quality imply that all primary education graduates will be able to read, indicates that universal youth literacy would be achieved by 2030.

The overall external financing gap is projected to increase over time (**Figure 9.1**). The rise is most pronounced for low income countries; the gap stays relatively constant for lower middle income countries. As a proportion of the total cost of meeting the basic education targets, the financing gap is larger in low income countries, where it constitutes 29% of the average annual costs, compared with 6% in lower middle income countries.

The main scenario makes reasonably ambitious assumptions for domestic increases in public

expenditure on education.[4] The expected level of public expenditure on pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education will need to increase to 3.4% of GDP in low and lower middle income countries in 2030.

Without these projected increases in public expenditure, the financing gap would widen substantially. If education budgets stayed at their current levels as a proportion of GDP, the gap would double to an annual average of US$52.5 billion.

Aid will be crucial in filling the gap. External financing will be required to make up more than one-quarter of the required increase in expenditure between 2012 and 2030 in most low income countries. Even in lower middle income countries, financial and technical support will be needed.

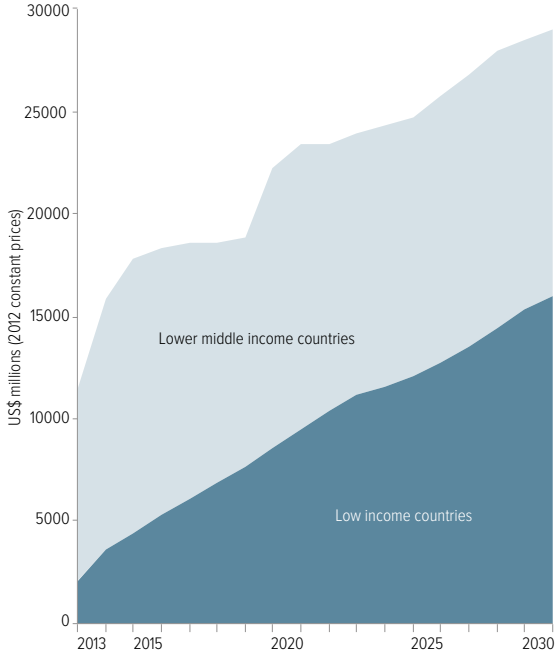
Yet total aid to education is predicted to level off in coming years. Many donor countries report future reductions in their levels of aid to education. The poorest countries are likely to be the most affected (Global Campaign for Education, 2013). Projections indicate aid to education disbursements will stagnate between 2014 and 2017 in low income countries at about US$3.7 billion (**Figure 9.2**). Most increases in aid will be to middle income countries, mostly in the form of soft loans (OECD, 2014a).

Given the low current levels and anaemic prospects of external assistance to education, the challenge for donors to increase the volume of aid to new levels is daunting. The magnitude of the required increase has led some advocates to suggest that new financing mechanisms may be needed for effective management. In view of the long gestation period needed to fully develop the structure of the Global Partnership for Education, it may be unwise to suggest a major institutional overhaul in the area of education aid. Yet clearly things must change drastically if there is to be any hope of carrying out the new agenda.

4. For countries now spending at least 6% of GDP on education, it is assumed that this level is maintained. For countries spending less, due either to low tax revenue or low priority on education in the budget, tax revenue and the share of education in the budget are assumed to increase gradually. The share of basic education in the total education budget is set constant at the current levels in each country.

Figure 9.1: The average annual financing gap for achieving key parts of the post-2015 agenda in low and lower middle income countries is US$22 billion

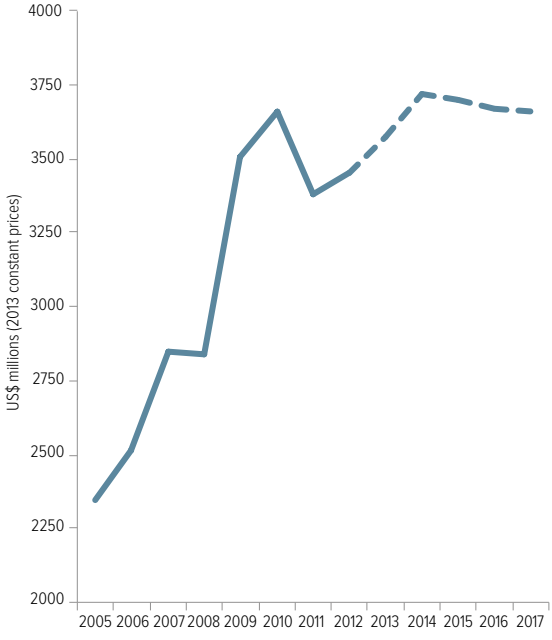
Financing gap for achieving universal pre-primary, primary and lower secondary education completion, by country income group, US$ million, 2013–2030



Source: Wils (2015).

Figure 9.2: Aid to education will stagnate in low income countries

Aid to education (US$ millions), low income countries, 2005–2012 and 2013–2017 (projection)



Source: EFA Global Monitoring Report team calculations based on levels of country programmable aid using OECD-DAC (2014).

Bring the monitoring and reporting of progress to a new level

It would be desirable to develop a common metric linked to national learning assessments

Improved data sources and innovative ways of monitoring have been successes of the international education agenda since 2000. However, there is still a long way to go until data on key aspects of educational development are collected. The data revolution opens up opportunities that could work to the sector's advantage. In addition, there will need to be careful consideration of future reporting arrangements and the use of reports within the framework of an accountability mechanism.

Future data collection will be challenging

The post-2015 agenda is broad and ambitious. In order to understand whether the world is moving closer to the targets, data are needed in areas that have been outside the scope of traditional data collection systems. There will need to be advances not only in measurement but also in institutional development to take on the challenges of monitoring at the national level.

In the area of **early childhood**, the new agenda's key intended outcome is children reaching their developmental potential by primary school age and therefore being ready to fully benefit from schooling. The measurement of child development is an active area of research and various indicators have been developed, albeit in a relatively limited number of countries. Consensus has not been reached on a suitable indicator applicable across countries and cultures.

Attendance in good quality pre-primary school programmes is one of several factors associated with improved outcomes for children. In addition to pre-schools, a wide variety of programmes for young children exist that have an organized learning component. However, their provision is fragmented among many types of institutions, so it is hard to understand which children benefit. Better systems and surveys are needed to address this.

In **primary and secondary education**, the key outcome has to do with the learning achievement of children and adolescents. Education systems enable children to acquire multiple competencies, each of which should be monitored. The monitoring of basic competence in language and mathematics is an obvious starting point, given their importance as foundations for further learning. Early in the new agenda's implementation, it would be desirable to develop a common metric linked to national learning assessments. Such a development will increase awareness of country progress towards the target and can spur capacity-building in national agencies.

The key outcome in the area of **skills** is youth and adults possessing sufficient proficiency in literacy and numeracy to fully participate in society. At the moment, only a self-reported measure of literacy is available for all countries, one which is highly imperfect and oversimplified. This GMR has shown that, with the world increasingly recognizing literacy and numeracy as a continuum of skills, the means of assessing them more accurately have considerably improved. Various institutions have worked in this area, and the time has come to translate the lessons learned into cost-effective tools to aid in understanding how these core cognitive skills are acquired, maintained or lost.

The emphasis of the new agenda on lifelong learning highlights the lack of evidence on the channels through which adults acquire skills. One indicator of lifelong learning opportunities has been applied with some success in richer countries: the percentage of adults who have participated in education and training in a given period. Other countries would need to agree that such a measure was relevant to them and could be used to collect individual-level information.

Key outcomes are harder to define when it comes to education for **global citizenship and sustainable development**. The international community needs to open dialogue on the knowledge, attitudes and, especially, observable behaviours that are associated with contributing to peaceful and sustainable societies. Reaching consensus and revising education systems to better serve these could be major achievements of the post-2015 agenda. A starting point could be determining whether existing international surveys of attitudes and values capture such aspects as tolerance and environmental stewardship.

Concerning all targets, the need for greater attention to equity and quality poses major

measurement challenges. In the case of **equity**, the international community will need to rely on surveys of children, students or workers that provide background information on individual beneficiaries of education. Improved coordination will be required to make such surveys standardized, fit for purpose and available for analysis.

The challenge is greater still in the case of **quality**, as consensus remains elusive on what aspects of quality in education can be translated from research to widespread implementation. How can quality be improved? How do classroom processes and learning environments help children, youth and adults learn?

Two aspects related to professionalism and the status of **teachers** need to be monitored. First, comparatively few countries capture the percentage of teachers who are trained, and the content of their training. Such an indicator could be used to improve national approaches to teacher education. Second, while teachers' incentives vary, their pay relative to other professions is an important factor. This can be captured through labour force surveys. Changes in the relative position of teachers could be a good predictor of their status over time.

Finally, in the area of **finance**, large gaps in data collection and analysis hinder a clear understanding of how to finance education development. This has received scarce attention. The data need to be accurate, cover many countries and be reported in a timely manner. It should be noted that standard indicators of public education expenditure, whether as a percentage of GNP or as a percentage of total education expenditure, do not track the entire national effort on education. National education accounts, modelled on those in the health sector and accurately reflecting the respective shares of the government, donors and households in total education financing, are badly needed.

Progress in data collection will not come automatically. The international community needs to rethink how it prioritizes its data agenda and allocates funds for research and monitoring. The proposals of the Independent Expert Advisory Group on a Data Revolution for Sustainable Development suggest some directions useful for the education sector.

National authorities also need to bear in mind the emphasis of the post-2015 education agenda on equity and learning, which has major implications for the kind of information they collect and use for policy-making. The capacity of both international and national institutions will need to strengthen to tackle such challenges.

Linking reporting with accountability

Data improvement will not by itself bring progress on education. Better data will only help if they trigger actions to improve the educational opportunities of the most vulnerable. For that to occur, good reports are needed that monitor trends and summarize key evidence in ways easily understood by policy-makers, along with explicitly identified mechanisms that use the reports to hold governments and donors accountable for their actions and help them learn from their mistakes.

As the mandate of the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* ends in 2015, a critical juncture has been reached. Some have called for a single report covering all the goals of the new development agenda. However, this would likely weaken the links between the international community and individual countries or development sectors. A global report on the entire set of post-2015 goals would be unlikely to go into sufficient depth and would need to be complemented by more comprehensive, sector-specific reports at the global level, such as the GMR, so as to share best practices in policy-making and empower local actors.

Global (or, for that matter, regional and national) monitoring reports should be seen as a way for governments and international donors to document actions taken and results achieved relative to the targets set and commitments made. The EFA and MDG processes lacked an accountability mechanism (Janus and Keijzer, 2014), at least partly because of the challenge of clearly describing partners' roles and responsibilities. Governments and international donors are naturally reluctant to be held accountable for commitments to which they do not believe they are legally bound. Consequently, the GMR could not play its role to the full extent.

The EFA and MDG processes lacked an accountability mechanism

The post-2015 agenda is renewing the debate on accountability. UN member states have

agreed on some basic structures. The High-level Political Forum on Sustainable Development will oversee regular reviews of SDG implementation starting in 2016. The reviews will be state led and voluntary but will include relevant UN entities and provide a platform for partnerships with other stakeholders. Member states have also agreed that the forum should promote and facilitate the sharing of best practices, as well as countries' successes, challenges and lessons learned while implementing the agenda (UNGA, 2013). The General Assembly has agreed that the review mechanism will include a global sustainable development report, but has also accepted that other assessments, whether official or non-official, may inform it (UNGA, 2014).

The Synthesis Report of the United Nations Secretary-General in December 2014 argued that the review mechanism should include all actors – governments, international institutions, the private sector and civil society – to promote mutual accountability. The universal review process would be initiated at the national level and would inform national, regional and global reviews. Suggested components include a country-led, national component for accountability, a regional component for peer reviewing, a global component for knowledge sharing, a thematic component to chart global progress at regular intervals (which is where the future form of the GMR fits in) and a component to review international support and the global partnership for sustainable development (United Nations, 2014b).

The international education community will have to find solutions to the issues of political commitment, and the need for increased financing and accountability mechanisms

These mechanisms should go beyond tracking progress towards the goals, serving as a means to examine and share experiences of policy-making and resource allocation. In that context, the Secretary-General has called for a regional peer review mechanism. As regions have many challenges in common in education, the sharing of country experiences through peer review could make policy-making more effective.

The proposed accountability mechanisms should be integrated with established national and international institutions. At the national level, these include parliamentary oversight committees, audit bodies, the judiciary and legal system, administrative hearings and service delivery grievance procedures. Within the education sector, countries are likely to have other institutions promoting accountability, such as parent-teacher associations, academic and research networks and teacher unions.

At the global level, international human rights bodies, transnational regulatory networks, UN agencies and other intergovernmental political institutions will play a role (OHCHR, 2013). The education sector has its own set of international institutions and associations, some of which may need to be strengthened to meet the expectations of the post-2015 agenda.

Conclusion

The post-2015 sustainable development agenda commits all members of the international community to an ambitious universal vision of heightened human dignity, gender equality, reduced inequality, safe and peaceful societies and the protection of the planet. The proposed education goal of ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promoting life-long learning opportunities for all – and its specific targets – are embedded in this broad vision, and closely align with the aspirations of the EFA movement. However, as this chapter showed, the formulation of the proposed education targets could be considerably improved to make them specific, measurable, realistic and relevant.

The lofty SDG agenda has devised a practical plan to chart the way forward for countries and development partners and help mobilize adequate means to implement the agreed upon goals and targets. In the area of education, we can draw lessons from the implementation of past EFA strategies to help accelerate progress in the coming years. The international education community will have to find solutions to the issues of political commitment, and the need for increased financing and accountability mechanisms. Governments and donors alike will need to address issues of equity and quality in their policies and programmes – and build and use links between education and other development sectors towards a successful post-2015 agenda.

Credit: Tuan Nguyen

Annex

National learning assessments by country and region

Introduction

These tables provide a global overview of national learning assessments undertaken in countries between 1995 and 2013. National learning assessments evaluate learning outcomes on the basis of criteria and expectations set by national education authorities. Such assessments aim to provide education decision makers with systematic information about the status of students' learning and the extent to which students attain predefined standards or proficiencies. As the scientific reliability and validity of national assessments vary greatly, cross-country comparisons should be undertaken with care. Nevertheless, national assessments provide country-wide information about an array of learning outcomes according to nationally defined standards and pinpoint areas for government attention and policy intervention. Furthermore, they explicitly address the EFA quality goal that refers to 'recognized and measurable learning outcomes', as well as the *Expanded Commentary*, which discusses the need for 'accurately assessed curricular knowledge and skills'.

Information for the tables was compiled from numerous sources (e.g. printed material, websites, experts, contacts through UNESCO regional offices), some of which were partial and/or contradictory. Much effort has been made to verify and cross-check the reported information, but some errors are likely. For further details and analysis of the national learning assessment database see Benavot and Köseleci, 2015. It was not possible to evaluate the scientific rigour or technical soundness of the assessments listed, although efforts in this direction are anticipated in the coming years.

Abbreviations used in the Annex

CP	Cours préparatoire (1st year of primary school)
CM1	Cours moyen 1ère année (4th year of primary school)
IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
MoE	Ministry of Education or country equivalent
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

Table 1
Sub-Saharan Africa

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Benin	Evaluation sur les acquis des élèves du CP et du CM1	Ministère des Enseignements Maternel et Primaire	Grades 2, 5	French, Mathematics	2011
Botswana	Standard 4 Attainment Test	Botswana Examinations Council	Grade 4	Setswana, English, Mathematics	2007
	Monitoring Learning Achievement			Setswana, English, Numeracy, Life Skills	1999
Burkina Faso	Evaluation sur les Acquis Scolaires	Ministère de l'Enseignement de Base et de l'Alphabétisation	Grade 3	French, Mathematics	Annually, 2001–2012
			Grade 5	French, Mathematics, Sciences	
Cameroon	Evaluation des Acquis Scolaires des Elèves	MoE	Grade 5	Language, Mathematics	2011
Comoros	Monitoring of Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	French, Mathematics, Life Skills	2001
Democratic Republic of the Congo	Enquête sur l'évaluation des acquis scolaires	MoE	Grade 5	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	1994
Eritrea	Competence test	Department of General Education	Grade 1	Language	1999
			Grade 4	English, Mathematics	
	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNICEF	Grades 3, 5	Language, English, Mathematics	2001, 2006
Ethiopia	National Learning Assessment	National Educational Assessment and Examinations Agency	Grade 4	English, Mathematics, Environmental Sciences	2000, 2004, 2008, 2012
			Grade 8	English, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics	2000, 2004, 2008, 2012
			Grades 10, 12	English, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Integrated Studies	2010, 2013
Gambia	National Assessment Test	Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education	Grade 3	English, Mathematics, Integrated studies	Annually, 2008–2012
			Grade 5	English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social and Environmental Studies	Annually, 2008–2013
			Grade 8	English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social and Environmental Studies	2012
Ghana	Criterion Referenced Test	Education Service	Grade 6	English, Mathematics	Annually, 1992 –2002
	Performance Monitoring Test		Grades 1 to 6		1998, 2000
	National Education Assessment		Grades 3, 6		2005, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013
	School Education Assessment		Grades 2, 4		2006, 2008, 2010
Guinea	Evaluation de l'apprentissage des élèves	Cellule Nationale de l'Evaluation du Système Educatif	Grades 2, 4, 6	French, Mathematics	1999, 2006
Kenya	National Assessment System for Monitoring Learner Achievement	National Assessment Center	Grade 3	Literacy, Numeracy	2010
	UWEZO	UWEZO Center	Ages 6 to 16	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2010–2014
Lesotho	Primary Education Project	USAID	Grades 3, 6	English, Sesotho, Mathematics	1993
	National Assessment of Educational Progress Survey	Examinations Council	Grades 3, 6		2003, 2004, 2006, 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014
Madagascar	Etude sur la Progression Scolaire et la Performance Académique	MoE	Grades 2, 5	Language, Mathematics, Life Skills	2005
	Evaluation des Acquis des Elèves dans le Cadre de la Réforme	MoE, UNICEF	Grades 1, 2, 3	Malagasy, French, Mathematics	2004 –2006
	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	1998
Malawi	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNICEF	Grade 4	Chichewa, English, Mathematics, Life Skills	1994, 2005
			Grades 2, 4, 7	Chichewa, English, Mathematics	2012
	Primary Curriculum and Assessment Reform Baseline Study	MoE, Malawi Institute of Education, National Examination Board	Grade 2	Literacy, Numeracy	2006
	Assessing Learner Achievement	Malawi Institute of Education	Grades 2	Chichewa, English, Mathematics	2008
			Grade 5	Chichewa, English, Mathematics	2005, 2008
			Grades 3, 7	Chichewa, English, Mathematics, Life Skills	2005, 2009
Mali	Beekungo – Programme d'Evaluation des Apprentissages Scolaires par la Société Civile	Citizen-led assessment	Ages 6 to 14	Language	2012
	Evaluation du niveau d'acquisition en langue et communication, en science mathématiques et technologiques des élèves de la 2ème, 4ème et 6ème année du Fondamental 1	Cellule Nationale de l'Evaluation	Grades 2, 4, 6	Language, Communication, Mathematics, Sciences, Computer Studies	2007
Mauritius	National Form III Assessment	MoE	Grade 9	English, French, Mathematics, Computer studies, Physics, Biology, Chemistry.	Annually, 2010–2014
		MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	1995
Mozambique	National Assessment	Instituto Nacional de Desenvolvimento de Educação	Grade 3	Mother tongue, Portuguese, Mathematics	2000, 2006, 2009
			Grades 4, 5	Portuguese, Mathematics, Sciences	2000
Namibia	National Learner Baseline Assessment	MoE	Grades 4, 7	English, Mathematics	1992
	National Standardized Achievement Test	Directorate of National Examinations and Assessment	Grades 5, 7	English, Mathematics	2009, 2011
Niger	Evaluation Nationale	MoE	Grades 2, 4, 6	French, Mathematics, Sciences	1999
	Enquête de suivi des acquis scolaires				2005
Nigeria	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	Numeracy, Literacy, Life Skills	1996, 2003
	National Assessment of Universal Basic Education Programme	Universal Basic Education Commission	Grades 4, 5, 6	English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Life Skills	2001, 2003, 2006, 2011
Rwanda	Learning Assessment in Rwandan Schools	Education Board, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 3	Literacy, Numeracy	2011
Senegal	Système national d'évaluation du rendement scolaire	Institut National d'Etude et d'Action pour le Développement de l'Education	Grades 3, 4, 6	Language, Mathematics	1996, 2002
			Grade 9	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	2006
	Suivi permanent des acquis scolaires	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	French, Mathematics, Life skills	1998/99
	Jangandoo	Laboratoire de Recherche sur les Transformations Economiques et Sociales	Ages 6 to 18	French, Wolof, Pulaar	2012, 2013
Seychelles	National Attainment Test	MoE	Grade 6	English, Kreol, French, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2009
South Africa	Monitoring Learning Achievement	Department of Education, Research Institute for Educational Planning at the University of Free State	Grade 4	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	1999
	Systemic Evaluation Study	Department of Education, Human Sciences Research Council, Centre for Policy Development	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics, Life Skills	2001, 2007
			Grade 6	Language, Mathematics, Natural sciences	2004, 2007
	National Assessment of Learner Achievement	Human Sciences Research Council	Grade 9	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	2008
	Annual National Assessment	Department of Education	Grades 1 to 6, 9	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2011–2014
Uganda	National Assessment of Progress in Education	National Examinations Board	Grades 3, 6	English, Mathematics	1996, 1999, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010
			Grade 8	English, Mathematics, Biology	Annually, 2008–2013
	UWEZO	UWEZO Center	Ages 6 to 16	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2010–2014
United Republic of Tanzania	UWEZO	UWEZO Center	Ages 6 to 16	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2010–2014
Zambia	National Assessment Programme	Examination Council	Grade 5	Literacy, English, Mathematics, Life Skills	1999, 2001, 2003, 2006, 2008, 2012
Zimbabwe	Early Learning Assessment (ZELA)	Schools Examination Council, Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER)	Grade 3	English, Mathematics	2012, 2013/14, 2015

Note: While some PASEC studies closely follow the national framework and aim to provide information on student performance within participating countries, the GMR considers them to be regional learning assessments and thus excludes from the mapping.

Table 2
Latin America and The Caribbean

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Anguilla	Test of Standards	MoE	Grades 3, 5, 6	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 1992–2013
Argentina	Operativo Nacional de Evaluación (ONE)	Dirección Nacional de Información y Evaluación de la Calidad Educativa, MoE	Grades 3, 6, 8/9, 11/12	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually 1993-2003 (except for 2001) Biennial, 2003–2013
Bahamas	Grade Level Assessment Test (GLAT)	MoE	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 1984–2014
			Grade 6	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	
Barbados	Criterion-Referenced Test	MoE	Grade 2	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2005–2014
Belize	Junior Achievement Test (BJAT)	Assessment and Evaluation Unit, MoE	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2000–2014
Plurinational State of Bolivia	Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación (SIMECAL)	MoE	Grades 1, 2, 3, 6, 8	Language, Mathematics	1997, 1999, 2000
Brazil	Avaliação Nacional da Educação Básica (ANEB)	Instituto Nacional de Estudos e Pesquisas	Grades 4/5, 8/9, 12	Language, Mathematics	Biannually, 1995–2005
	Avaliação Nacional do Rendimento Escolar – Anresc (Prova Brasil)		Grades 4/5, 8/9	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	Biannually, 2005–2013
	Provinha Brasil		Grade 2	Reading, Mathematics	2012, 2014
Chile	Sistema de Medición de Calidad de la Educación (SIMCE)	Agencia de la Calidad de la Educación	Grades 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 11 (variable)	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Physical Education, ICT (variable)	Annually, 1988–2014
Colombia	Pruebas SABER	MoE	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	2012
			Grade 5	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	2002, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2009, 2012
			Grade 9	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Economic and Financial Education	
	SABER 11	MoE	Grade 11	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences (biology, chemistry, physics), Social Studies, Philosophy, a flexible component	Annually 1980–2013
Costa Rica	Pruebas de Conocimientos	MoE, University of Costa Rica	Grades 3, 6, 9, 10/11 (variable)	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	1986, 1987, 1989/90, 1996, 1997
	Pruebas nacionales diagnósticas III ciclo Educación General Básica	MoE	Grade 9	Language, English, French, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2008–2014
	Pruebas nacionales diagnósticas de II ciclo Educación General Básica	MoE	Grade 6	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2009–2013
Cuba	Pruebas de Aprendizaje	Sistema de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación, MoE and Instituto de Ciencias Pedagógicas	Grades 3, 4, 6, 9, 12	Language, Mathematics	1996, 1997, 1998, 2000, 2002
Dominican Republic	Pruebas Nacionales	MoE	Grades 4, 8	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 1992–2014
	Evaluación diagnóstica primer ciclo de educación básica	Dirección de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación, MoE	Grades 3, 4	Reading, Mathematics	Annually, 2010–2013
	Evaluación diagnóstica primer ciclo de educación media		Grade 8	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2013, 2014
Ecuador	APRENDO	MoE	Grades 3, 7, 10	Language, Mathematics	1996, 1997, 1998, 2000, 2007
	Sistema de Evaluación y Rendición de la Educación (SER)		Grades 4, 7, 10, 3rd grade of secondary	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2008, 2010, 2013
El Salvador	Prueba de Aprendizaje y Aptitudes para Egresados de Educación Media (PAES)	MoE	Grades 11 (general education), 12 (technical education)	Language and literature, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies and Civics	Annually, 1997–2014
	Evaluación de Logros de Aprendizaje en Educación Básica (PAESITA)		Grades 3, 6, 9	Language, Mathematics	2001, 2003, 2005, 2008, 2012
	Prueba de logros de aprendizaje de primer grado		Grade 1	Language, Mathematics	2006
Guatemala	Sistema Nacional de Medición del Logro Académico (SINMELA)	MoE, Universidad del Valle	Grades 3, 6, 9	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 1997–2001
	Programa Nacional de Evaluación del Rendimiento Escolar (PRONERE)	MoE, USAID	Grades 3, 6	Reading, Mathematics	Annually, 1998–2005
	Sistema Nacional de Evaluación e Investigación Educativas (DIGEDUCA)	Dirección General de Evaluación e Investigación Educativa, MoE	Grades 1, 3, 6, 12	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2006–2014
Guyana	National Assessment	MoE	Grades 2, 4	Reading, English, Mathematics	Annually, 2003–2014
			Grade 6	Reading, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2006–2014
			Grade 9	Reading, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2007–2014
Honduras	Proyecto de Eficiencia de la Educación Primaria	MoE	Grades 1, 2, 3, 4, 5	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	1990, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994
	Evaluación de Rendimiento Académico (ERA)	Dirección General de Evaluación de la Calidad Educativa, MoE	Grades 3, 4, 5, 6 (variable)	Language, Mathematics, Sciences (variable)	1997, 1998, 1999, 2000
			Grades 1 to 9	Language, Writing, Mathematics	Annually, 2004–2014
Jamaica	Grade One Individual Learning Profile (ex-Readiness Inventory)	MoE	Grade 1	Reading readiness, numbers, concepts, oral language, writing, drawing	Annually, 1999–2014
	Grade Three Diagnostic Test		Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 1999–2014
	Grade Four Literacy and Numeracy Tests		Grade 4	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 1999–2014
	Grade Six Achievement Test (GSAT)		Grade 6	English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social studies	Annually, 1999–2014
Mexico	Factor Aprovechamiento Escolar de Carrera Magisterial	Secretaría de Educación Pública	Grades 3, 4, 5, 6	Language, English, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Geography, Civics	Annually, 1994–2006
			Grades 7, 8, 9		Annually, 1994–2014
	Instrumento para el Diagnostico de Alumnos de Nuevo Ingreso Secundaria	Secretaría de Educación Pública	Grade 6	Reading, Verbal and Numerical Reasoning	Annually, 1995–2006
	Examen de la Calidad del Logro Educativo (EXCALE)	Instituto Nacional para la Evaluación de la Educación (INEE)	Grades 3, 6, 9 (variable)	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2004–2014
	Evaluacion Nacional del Logro Académico en Centros Escolares (ENLACE Educación Básica)	Secretaría de Educación Pública	Grades 3 to 9	Language, Mathematics, Sciences (2008, 2012), Civic Education and Ethics (2009), History (2010), Geography (2011)	Annually, 2006–2014
	Evaluacion Nacional del Logro Académico en Centros Escolares (ENLACE Media Superior)	Secretaría de Educación Pública	Grade 12	Reading , Mathematics, Sciences	Annually, 2008–2014

Table 2 (continued)

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Nicaragua	Evaluación del Currículo Transformado	MoE	Grades 3, 4, 5	Language, Mathematics	1996, 1997
	Evaluación Nacional del Rendimiento Académico	MoE, USAID, UNESCO	Grades 3, 6	Language and Writing, Mathematics	2002, 2006
	Evaluación Nacional	MoE	Grades 4, 6, 9	Language and Literature, Mathematics	2009
Panama	Pruebas de Diagnóstico	MoE	Grades 3, 6, 12	Language, Mathematics	1985, 1986, 1987, 1988, 1992
	Pruebas de Español y Matemática	Centro de Estudios de la Calidad de la Educación	Grades 6 to 12	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	1995
	Prueba Nacional	MoE	Grades 3, 6, 9	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2001
	Sistema Nacional de Evaluación de la Calidad de los Aprendizajes (SINECA)	Dirección Nacional de Evaluación Educativa	Grades 3, 6, 12	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2005, 2006, 2008
Paraguay	Sistema Nacional de Evaluación del Proceso Educativo (SNEPE)	Dirección de Evaluación de la Calidad Educativa, MoE, IDB	Grades 3, 6, 9, 11 (variable)	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies (variable)	1996, 1998, 2000, 2004, 2006, 2010
Peru	Evaluaciones Nacionales	Unidad de Medición de Calidad Educativa, MoE	Grades 2, 4, 6, 11, 13 (variable)	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Civics (variable)	1996, 1998, 2001, 2004
	Evaluación Censal de Estudiantes (ECE)	MoE	Grade 2/4	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2006–2014
Saint Kitts and Nevis	Test of Standards	Curriculum Development Unit, MoE	Grades 3 to 6	English, Mathematics, Sciences and Technology, Social Studies	Annually, 1999–2014
Trinidad and Tobago	National Test	MoE	Grades 1, 4	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2000–2014
Uruguay	Evaluaciones Nacionales	Administración Nacional de Educación Pública, Unidad de Medición de Resultados Educativos	Grades 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 (variable)	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Cognitive Behaviour (variable)	1996, 1999, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2005
	Sistema de Evaluación en Línea (SEA)	Instituto Nacional de Evaluación Educativa	Grades 3, 4, 5, 6	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	Annually, 2009–2014
Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela	Sistema Nacional de Medición y Evaluación del Aprendizaje (SINEA)	MoE, Centro Nacional para el Mejoramiento de la Enseñanza de la Ciencia and World Bank	Grades 3, 6, 9	Language, Mathematics	1998

Table 3
Arab States

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Algeria	Enquête sur les Acquis Scolaires II	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 8	Mathematics, Sciences	2002
Bahrain	National Examinations	Directorate of National Examinations, Quality Assurance Authority for Education and Training, National Examinations Unit	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2009–2014
			Grades 6, 9	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences	
			Grade 12	Language, Arabic, Problem-Solving	2012, 2013, 2014
Egypt	Critical Thinking, Achievement, and Problem Solving Test (CAPS)	National Center for Examinations and Educational Evaluation, USAID	Grades 4, 8, 10	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	2006, 2010
Jordan	National Assessment for a Knowledge Economy (NAfKE)	MoE, National Center for Human Resources Development	Grades 5, 9, 11	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	2006, 2008, 2011
	National Test for Quality Control of Education	Directorate of Examination and Testing, MoE	Grades 4, 8, 10	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences	Annually, 2000–2014
Lebanon	Measuring Learning Achievement	Center for Educational Research and Development, MoE	Grade 4	Language, French, English, Mathematics	1994, 1995, 1997, 2003, 2012
Mauritania	Evaluation des Programmes de l'Enseignement Fondamental	Institut Pédagogique National	Grades 4, 6	Language, Mathematics, Environmental Sciences	2001
	Evaluation de l'effet de la formation continue en Multigrade		Grade 5	Language, Mathematics	2006/07
Morocco	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	Language, French, Mathematics, Life Skills	1999
	Diagnostic des apprentissages	MoE	Grades 3, 5, 8	Language, French, Mathematics	2000
	Evaluations des pré-requis	MoE, UNICEF	Grades 4, 6	Language, French, Mathematics, Life Skills	2001
	Evaluation des acquis des élèves	MoE, European Union	Grade 6	Language, French, Mathematics, Life Skills	2006
	Programme National d'Evaluation des Acquis (PNEA)	Conseil Supérieur de l'Enseignement	Grades 4, 6, 8, 9	Language, French, Mathematics, Sciences	2008
Oman	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Life Skills	1994
			Grade 6		1998
			Grade 9		1999
			Grade 10	Language, Mathematics, Chemistry, Physics, Biology	2001
	Evaluation of Basic Education Cycle One	MoE, Canedcom International Corporation	Grade 4	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences	2003/04
	National assessments	MoE	Grade 4	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2008/09
			Grade 7	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences	2006/07
			Grade 10		2007/08
Palestine	National normative tests	MoE	Grades 4, 10	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	2009, 2011, 2013
Qatar	Comprehensive Educational Assessment	Supreme Education Council	Grades 4 to 11	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Muslim Education	Annually, 2004–2013
Sudan	Learning Assessment	Sudanese Organization for Education Development, World Bank	Grades 4, 5	Language, English, Mathematics	2009
Tunisia	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	1999
	Test d'évaluation des acquis des élèves à l'entrée en 7ème année de base	Centre National d'Innovation Pédagogique et de Recherches en Education, Département d'Evaluation, MoE	Grade 7	Language, French, Mathematics	2012
United Arab Emirates	National Assessment Programme	MoE, Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER)	Grades 3, 5, 7, 9	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences	2010
Yemen	Monitoring Learning Achievement	Educational Research and Development Center	Grades 4, 7	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Life Skills	2002, 2005

Table 4
Asia and The Pacific

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Afghanistan	National Learning Assessment	MoE, Australian Council for Educational Research (ACER)	Grade 6	Literacy, Numeracy	2013
Australia	National Assessment Programme Literacy and Numeracy	Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority	Grades 3, 5, 7, 9	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2008–2014
	Information and Communication Technology Literacy		Grades 6, 10	ICT	2005, 2008, 2011, 2014
	Science Literacy		Grades 6, 10	Sciences	2003, 2006, 2009, 2012
	Civics and Citizenship		Grades 6, 10	Civic Knowledge	2004, 2007, 2010, 2013
Bangladesh	National Student Assessment	Directorate of Primary Education, MoE	Grades 3, 5	Language, Mathematics	2006, 2008, 2011
	Intensive District Approach to Education for All Project (IDEAL)	MoE, UNICEF	Grades 1, 5	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Sciences	2004
	Secondary Education Quality and Access Project (SEQAEP)	Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education, MoE	Grade 8	Language, English, Mathematics	2008, 2012
Bhutan	Learning Quality Survey	MoE, World Bank	Grades 2, 4	Language, English, Mathematics	2007
	Annual Status of Student Learning	Royal Education Council, Educational Initiatives	Grades 4, 6, 8	English, Mathematics, Sciences	2008
	National Education Assessment	Board of Examinations, MoE	Grade 6	English, Mathematics	2003, 2011
			Grade 10	Language, English, Mathematics, History	2006, 2013, 2015
Cambodia	National Assessment System	MoE, World Bank	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	2005/06, 2009/10
			Grade 6		2006/07
			Grade 9		2008/09, 2009/10
China	National Basic Education Assessment	Monitoring Center for Basic Education, MoE	Grades 4, 8	Chinese, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Psychological Health, Physical Education and Health	Annually, 2007 - 2013
Cook Islands	National Diagnostic Tests	MoE	Grades 4, 6	Language, English, Mathematics	Annually, 1999–2006
	Stardardised Test of Achievement (STACI)	MoE	Grade 5	English	Annually, 1994–1999
			Grade 6	Language	
			Grade 7	Mathematics	
	Numeracy Achievement	MoE	Grade 3	Mathematics	Annually, 2007–2014
	Literacy Achievement	MoE	Grade 4	Language, English	Annually, 2007–2014
Fiji	Literacy and Numeracy Assessment	Examinations and Assessment Unit, MoE	Grades 4, 6, 8	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2007–2014
India	National Achievement Survey	National Council of Educational Research and Training	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	2004, 2007, 2013
			Grade 5	Language, Mathematics, Environmental Sciences	2002, 2006, 2011
			Grade 8	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Sciences	2003, 2008, 2012
	Annual Status of Education Report (ASER)	ASER Centre/Pratham	Ages 5 to 16	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2005–2014
Islamic Republic of Iran	Assessment of Basic Competencies	UNICEF	Grade 5	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	1999
	National assessment of literacy achievement	Institute for Educational Research	Ages 10 to 15	Language	2000
Japan	National Assessment of Academic Ability	National Institute for Educational Policy and Research, MoE	Grades 6, 9	Japanese, Mathematics	2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2012, 2013
				Sciences	2012
Kiribati	Standard Tests of Achievement (STAKI)	MoE	Grades 4, 6	Language, English, Numeracy	2004, 2007, 2009, 2011
Lao People's Democratic Republic	Assessment of Student Learning Outcomes (ASLO)	Research Institution for the Education Sciences, MoE	Grades 1, 2	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	1996
			Grade 5		1998, 2006, 2009
Maldives	National Assessments of Learning Outcomes	MoE, World Bank	Grades 4, 7	Language, English, Mathematics	2008
	Longitudinal Study on the Impact of Curriculum Reform	National Institute for Education, UNICEF	Grades 4, 7	English, Mathematics, Environmental Sciences, Social Studies	2013
			Grade 9	Physics, Chemistry, Biology, History, Geography	2013
Myanmar	Quality Basic Education Programme	MoE, UNICEF, Multi-Donor Education Fund	Grades 3, 5	Language, Mathematics	2007, 2009, 2011
Nepal	National Assessment of Student Achievement (NASA)	Department of Education	Grade 5	Nepali, Mathematics, Social Studies	1999, 2001, 2013
			Grade 6	Nepali, English, Mathematics, Sciences	1999
			Grade 3	Nepali, Mathematics, Social Studies	2003, 2013
			Grade 8	Nepali, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Health and Population	1999, 2008, 2012
			Grade 10	Nepali, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2011
New Zealand	National Education Monitoring Project	MoE, Educational Assessment Research Unit of the University of Otago	Grades 4, 8	Sciences, Visual Arts, Information Skills	1995, 1999, 2003, 2007
				Language, Technology, Music	1996, 2000, 2004, 2008
				Mathematics, Social Studies, Information Skills	1997, 2001, 2005, 2009
				Language, Health and Physical Education	1998, 2002, 2006, 2010
	National Monitoring Study of Student Achievement	MoE, Educational Assessment Research Unit at the University of Otago, New Zealand Council for Educational Research	Grades 4, 8	Language, Sciences	2012
				Mathematics, Health and Physical Education	2013
				Reading, Social Studies	2014
Pakistan	National Education Assessment System	MoE, World Bank, UNICEF	Grades 4, 8	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2003–2013
	District-Wide Large Scale Assessment	Government of the Punjab	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics, Social Studies	2011
	Learning and Educational Achievement in Punjab Schools Survey (LEAPS)	MoE in Pubjab province, World Bank, Pomona College, Harvard University	Grade 3	Language, English, Mathematics	2003, 2005, 2007
	Annual Status of Education Report (ASER)	ASER Centre/Pratham	Ages 5 to 16	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2008–2014
Philippines	National Achievement Test	National Education Testing and Research Centre, Department of Education	Grade 3	English, Filipino, Mathematics, Sciences	Annually, 2005–2014
			Grade 6	English, Filipino, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Sciences	Annually, 2005–2014
			Grade 12	English, Filipino, Mathematics, Sciences, Critical Thinking	Annually, 2004–2014
	Informal Reading Inventory	Department of Education	Grades 1 to 6	Filipino, English	Annually, 2005–2010
Republic of Korea	National Assessment of Educational Achievement (NAEA)	Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation	Grade 6	Korean, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2000–2012
			Grade 9	Korean, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2000-2014
			Grade 11	Korean, English, Mathematics	Annually, 2000–2015
Samoa	Samoa Primary Education Literacy Level (SPELL)	MoE, Secretariat of the Pacific Board for Educational Assessment	Grades 4, 6	Samoan, English, Numeracy	Annually, 1996–2014

Table 4 (continued)

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Singapore	Primary School Leaving Examination	Examinations and Assessment Board, MoE	Grade 6	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	Annually, 1960–2014
	General Certificate of Education Normal (Technical, Academic, Ordinary, Advances) Level Examination	MoE, University of Cambridge International Examinations	Grades 10, 12	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Sciences, Applied Subjects	Annually, 1960–2014
Solomon Islands	Standardised Test of Achievement (SISTA)	MoE, Secretariat of the Pacific Board for Educational Assessment	Grades 4, 6	Literacy, Numeracy	2005/2006, 2010
Sri Lanka	National Assessment of Achievement	National Education Research and Evaluation Centre of the University of Colombo	Grade 4	Singalese and Tamil, English, Mathematics	2003, 2008, 2013
			Grade 8	Singalese and Tamil, Mathematics, Sciences and Technology	2005, 2008
			Grade 10	Singalese and Tamil, English, Mathematics, Sciences and Technology	2007, 2012
Thailand	Ordinary National Educational Test	National Institute of Educational Testing Service	Grades 6, 9, 12	Thai Language, Foreign Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Religion and Culture, Health and Physical Education, Art, Career and technology	Annually, 2006–2014
	Effectiveness study	Institute for the Promotion of Teaching Science and Technology	Grades 3, 6, 9	Mathematics, Sciences	2003/2004, 2006
	Nationwide Assessment	Institute for the Promotion of Teaching Science and Technology	Grades 3, 6, 10	Mathematics, Sciences	2005
	Local Assessment Study	Educational Service Area, MoE	Grades 2, 5, 8, 11	Thai language, English, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Health and Physical Education, Arts, Occupational Studies	2010
	National Test	Office of the Basic Education Commission	Grade 3	Literacy, Numeracy, Reasoning Ability	2012
Tonga	Standardised Tests of Achievements in Tonga (STAT)	MoE, Secretariat of the Pacific Board for Educational Assessment	Grades 4, 6	Tongan, English, Numeracy	2011
Tuvalu	Standardised Test of Achievement (TUSTA)	MoE, Secretariat of the Pacific Board for Educational Assessment	Grades 4, 6	Literacy, Numeracy	Post-Dakar period
Vanuatu	Standardised Test of Achievement (VANSTA)	MoE, Secretariat of the Pacific Board for Educational Assessment	Grades 4, 6	Literacy, Numeracy	2007, 2009
Viet Nam	National Survey of Student Achievement	MoE, World Bank, Asian Development Bank	Grade 5	Vietnamese, Mathematics	2001, 2007, 2011
			Grade 6	Vietnamese, Mathematics	2009
			Grade 9	Vietnamese, English, Mathematics, Physics, Biology	2009, 2013
			Grade 11	Vietnamese, English, Mathematics	2012

Notes: 1) In Singapore and Thailand, assessments reported are of a high-stakes nature. Yet UNESCO regional offices confirm that they are also used to monitor national level educational achievement. 2) The Learning Achievement Surveys conducted by UNICEF in the following countries have been excluded from the mapping because they are not of national scope and are essentially pilot surveys: China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Indonesia, Myanmar, Philippines, Timor-Leste, Vanuatu, Viet Nam

Table 5
Central Asia/Central Eastern Europe

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Albania	First National Assessment of Students' Achievement	National Assessment and Examination Center	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	2002
Armenia	National Large-Scale Assessment	Assessment and Testing Center	Grade 8	Language and Literature, History	2010
Azerbaijan	National Assessment Study	MoE, World Bank	Grades 4, 9	Language and Literature, Mathematics	2006, 2011
Bosnia and Herzegovina	External Assessment of Pupils' Achievements	Standards and Assessment Agency	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	2003
Bulgaria	National External Assessment	Center for Control and Assessment of the Quality in Education	Grades 4, 7, 8	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2007–2014
			Grades 5, 6		2008, 2014
Croatia	National Assessments	National Centre for External Evaluation of Education	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	2007, 2008
			Grade 8	Language, Mathematics, Geography, History	
Estonia	National Assessment Tests	MoE	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 1997–2014
			Grade 6		
Georgia	National assessment	National Curriculum and Assessment Center, Central Institute for Test Development (CITO), ETS Global Institute	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	2004, 2011
			Grade 9	Language and Literature	2009
				Mathematics	2010
Hungary	Monitor Studies	Educational Authority	Grades 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 (variable)	Reading, Mathematics, Sciences, ICT, Cognitive Skills	1986, Biannually, 1991–2005
	National Assessment of Basic Competencies (NABC)	National Public Education Evaluation and Examination Centre (OKEV), Educational Authority	Grades 5, 9	Reading, Mathematics	2001
			Grades 4, 6, 8, 10 (variable)		Annually, 2004–2013
	System for diagnostic assessment of development (DIFER)	Educational Authority	Grade 1	Reading, Writing	Annually, 2002–2014
	National Assessment of Foreign Language	Educational Authority	Grades 6, 10	English, German	2002/03
Kazakhstan	Monitoring of Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	1999
	Interim State Control (ISC)	MoE	Grades 4, 9	Language, Foreign Language, Mathematics, History, Geography, Physics, Biology, Chemistry (variable)	Annually, 2005–2011
	External Evaluation of Academic Achievement	MoE, National Testing Center	Grade 9	Language, Algebra, History, Chemistry	2011, 2012
Kyrgyzstan	Monitoring of Learning Achievement	MoE, UNICEF	Grade 4	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	2001, 2005
	National Student Assessment	MoE, World Bank	Grades 4, 8	Language, Mathematics, Sciences	2007, 2009
Latvia	State Examination	National Centre for Education	Grades 3, 6, 9	Language, Foreign Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2008–2014
Lithuania	Standardized Tests	National Examination Center	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2009–2014
			Grade 8	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	
Mongolia	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grades 4, 8	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	2000
	National Assessment of Students' Achievement	MoE, Educational Evaluation Center	Grade 8	Mathematics, Civic Education	2004
	National Assessment of Student Progress	MoE, Educational Evaluation Center, World Bank	Grade 5	Language, Mathematics	2008
	National assessment on standard implementation of primary education	MoE, Educational Evaluation Center	Grades 7, 10	Mathematics	2013
Montenegro	External Assessment	Examinations Centre	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	2005
			Grade 6	Language, Foreign Language, Mathematics	2013
			Grade 9	Language, Mathematics	2013
Poland	External Test	Central Examination Commission, Regional Examination Boards	Grade 6	Reading, Writing, Reasoning, Use of information and application of knowledge	Annually, 2002–2013
Romania	National Assessment	National Service for Examinations and Evaluation	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	1995, 1996, 1998
				Language, Mathematics, Sciences	2000, 2005, 2007, 2009
Russian Federation	Diagnostics of Student Preparedness for Training	Federal Institute of Pedagogic Research, Russian Academy of Education	Grade 1	Language, Mathematics	2007, 2009
			Grade 5		
Serbia	National Assessment	MoE	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	2004
			Grade 4		2006
	Criterion Referenced Test	Institute for Quality Education	Grades 4, 7	Language, Mathematics, Nature and Society	2009, 2012, 2014
Slovakia	Monitor	MoE	Grade 9	Mathematics	Annually, 2000–2007
	Testovanie	National Institute for Certified Educational Measurements	Grade 5	Language and Literature, Mathematics	Annually, 2012–2014
			Grade 9		Annually, 2008–2014
Slovenia	National Assessment of Knowledgee	National Examinations Centre, MoE	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2000–2005
			Grade 6	Language, Foreign Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2000–2014
			Grade 9	Language, Mathematics, a third subject in Sciences or Social Studies	
Tajikistan	Monitoring Learning Achievement	MoE, UNESCO, UNICEF	Grade 4	Literacy, Numeracy, Life Skills	2002
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	National assessment	National Examinations Centre, MoE	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	2001
			Grade 8		2006
	External Assessment	National Examinations Centre, MoE	Grade 4	Social Sciences	2010
			Grade 7	Chemisty	2011
			Grade 9	Mathematics	
			Grade 10	Language	
			Grade 11	Business	
Turkey	Student Achievement Assessment Test (OBBS)	MoE	Grades 4 to 8	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2002, 2004, 2005, 2008
			Grades 9, 10	Language, Foreign Language, Mathematics, History, Geography, Physics, Biology, Chemistry	2009
Uzbekistan	National assesment	MoE, World Bank	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	2008
			Grade 8		2009

Table 6
North America And Western Europe

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Austria	Assessment of National Standards	Federal Institute for Educational Research, Innovation and Development (BIFIE)	Grade 4	Language, Mathematics	2013, 2014
			Grade 8	Language, English, Mathematics	2012, 2013, 2014
Belgium	Evaluations externes non certificatives	Administration générale de l'enseignement et de la recherche scientifique – Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles	Grades 3, 5	Reading, Foreign Language, Mathematics, Sciences	Annually, 1994–2014
			Grade 10		
	Periodical National Assessment Programme	Agency for Quality Assurance in Education and Training – Flemish Community	Grades 6, 8	Mathematics, Environmental Studies (variable)	Annually, 2002–2014

Table 6 (continued)

Country	Name or description of assessment study	Organization/institution responsible for assessment	Target population	Curricular subject assessed	Year(s)
Canada	School Achievement Indicators Program (SAIP)	Council of Ministers of Education	Grade 8	Reading, Mathematics, Sciences (variable)	1993, 1996, 1997, 1998, 1999, 2001, 2002, 2004
	Pan-Canadian Assessment Program (PCAP)				2007, 2010, 2013
Cyprus	Standardized Tests	Centre for Educational Research and Evaluation	Grades 3, 6	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2007–2014
Denmark	Nationale Test	MoE	Grades 2, 4	Danish	Annually, 2006–2014
			Grade 3	Mathematics	
			Grade 6	Danish, Mathematics	
			Grade 7	English	
			Grade 8	Danish, Geography, Biology, Physics, Chemistry	
Finland	Evaluation of the quality of education between the first and sixth grades of basic education	National Board of Education	Grades 1 to 6	Language, Mathematics	2001
	Periodic National Assessments		Grade 6	Language, Mathematics, Physical Education (variable)	Biannually, 1998–2014
			Grade 9		
France	Evaluations Nationales des Acquis des Elèves	MoE	Grades 2, 5	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 1989–2014
			Grade 8		2012, 2013, 2014
Germany	Assessment of Student Achievements in German and English as a Foreign Language	Institute for Educational Progress	Grade 9	German, English	2003/04
	Comparative Performance Tests (VERA)		Grade 3	German, Mathematics	Annually, 2007–2014
			Grade 8	German, Foreign Language, Mathematics	
Iceland	National tests	MoE	Grades 4, 7	Icelandic, Mathematics	Annually, 1996–2014
			Grade 10	Icelandic, English, Danish, Sciences, Social Studies	Annually, 2009–2014
Ireland	National Assessments of Mathematics and English Reading (NAMER)	Department of Education and Skills, Educational Research Centre	Grade 1	Reading	2004
			Grade 4	Mathematics	1999, 2004
			Grade 5	Reading	1988, 1993, 1998, 2004
			Grades 2, 6	Reading, Mathematics	2009, 2014
	National Assessments in Irish Medium Schools (NAIMS)		Grades 2, 6	Reading, Mathematics	2010
	Standardized Testing	Department of Education and Skills	Grades 2, 4, 6	Reading, Mathematics	Annually, 2012–2014
Israel	Meitzav	National Authority for Measurement and Evaluation in Education (RAMA)	Grades 5, 8	Language (Hebrew/Arabic), English, Mathematics, Sciences and Technology	Annually, 2003–2014
			Grade 2	Language (Hebrew/Arabic)	
	Israeli National Assessment of Educational Progress	MoE	Grades 4, 5	Language, Mathematics	1990
			Grades 3, 4	Language, Mathematics	1991
			Grades 4, 8	Language, Mathematics, English, Sciences and Technology	1996.1998
			Grade 6	Sciences and Technology	1998
			Grade 8	Civics	1999
Italy	Servizio Rilevazioni di Sistema (SERIS)	Istituto Nazionale per la Valutazione del Sistema Educativo (INVALSI)	Grades 4, 6, 8, 10, 12	Reading, Mathematics, Sciences	Annually, 1998–2001
	Servizio Nazionale di Valutazione (SNV)		Grades 2, 5, 6, 8, 10	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 2004–2014
Luxembourg	Epreuves communes (EPCOM)	MoE	Grade 11	Language, English, Sciences	Annually, 2003–2014
	Epreuves standardisées (EPSTAN)	MoE, University of Luxembourg, Luxembourg Centre for Educational Testing	Grade 1	Comprehension and Early Literacy, Mathematics	Annually, 2000–2014
			Grade 3	German, Mathematics	
			Grade 9	German, French, Mathematics	
Malta	National Literacy Survey	Department of Planning and Development, University of Malta	Grade 2	Maltese, English	1999
			Grade 5		2002
	National Mathematics Survey		Grade 1	Mathematics	2004
Netherlands	Primary Education and Special Education Cohort Studies (PRIMA)	MoE, Foundation for Scientific Research	Grades 2, 4, 6, 8	Language, Mathematics	1988, Biannually, 1995–2005
	Longitudinal Cohort Studies in Secondary Education (VOCL)	Statistics Office, Foundation for Scientific Research	Grade 8		1989, 1993, 1999
	Cohort Survey School Careers (COOL)	MoE, Foundation for Scientific Research	Grades 2, 5, 8, 11		2008, 2011, 2014
	Periodical Survey of Education (PPON)	MoE, Central Institute for Test Development (Cito)	Grades 4, 8	Language, English, Mathematics, Social Sciences, History, Geography, Biology, Visual Arts, Music, Physical Education (variable)	Annually, 1987–2014
Norway	National tests	MoE	Grades 5, 8	Language, English, Mathematics	Annually, 2007–2014
	Mapping test		Grade 2	Reading, Mathematics	Annually, 2006–2014
Portugal	Provas de Aferição	MoE	Grades 4, 6	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 1999–2014
Spain	Evaluación de la educación primaria	National Institute for Evaluation and Quality of the Education System	Grade 6	Language, Mathematics	1995, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2007
				Physical Education	1995
				English	1999
	Evaluación de la Educación Secundaria Obligatoria		Grade 10	Language and Literature, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Geography, History	1997, 2000
	Evaluación de la enseñanza y el aprendizaje de la lengua inglesa		Grades 8, 10	English	2001
	Evaluación General de Diagnóstico		Grade 4	Language, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies	2009
			Grade 8		2010
Sweden	National tests	National Agency for Education	Grade 3	Language, Mathematics	Annually, 1995–2014
			Grade 6 (previously Grade 5)	Language, English, Mathematics	
			Grade 9	Language, English, Mathematics, Sciences	
United Kingdom (England)	National Curriculum Assessment (SAT)	Standards and Testing Agency	Grade 2	English, Mathematics, Sciences	Annually, 1991–2014
			Grade 6		Annually, 1995–2014
			Grade 9		Annually, 1998–2009
United Kingdom (Wales)	National Reading and Numeracy Test	National Foundation for Educational Research	Grades 2 to 9	Literacy, Numeracy	2013, 2014
United Kingdom (Scotland)	Scottish Survey of Literacy and Numeracy (SSLN)	Scottish Qualifications Authority	Grades 4, 7, 9	Literacy	2012, 2014
				Numeracy	2011, 2013, 2015
	Scottish Survey of Achievement		Grades 3, 5, 7, 9	Reading, Writing, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies (variable)	Annually, 2005–2009
United Kingdom (Northern Ireland)	Assessment of literacy (NILA) and numeracy (NINA)	MoE	Grades 4 to 7	Literacy, Numeracy	Annually, 2007–2014
United States	National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)	National Center for Education Statistics, MoE	Grades 4, 8, 12 (variable)	Reading, Writing, Mathematics, Sciences, Social Studies, Geography, History, Civics, Arts, Technology and Engineering Literacy (variable)	Annually, 1969–2014

Credit: Magali Corouge

Statistical tables[1]

Introduction

The most recent data on pupils, students, teachers and education expenditure presented in these statistical tables are the reference school and financial years ending in 2012.[2] They are based on survey results reported to and processed by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) before the end of March 2014. Data received and processed after that date are published on the UIS website and will be used in the 2016 Global Education Monitoring Report. A small number of countries[3] submitted data for the school year ending in 2013, which are presented in bold in the statistical tables.

These statistics refer to all formal schools, both public and private, by level of education. They are supplemented by demographic and economic statistics collected or produced by other international organizations, including the Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), the United Nations Population Division, the World Bank and the World Health Organization (WHO).

The statistical tables list a total of 207 countries and territories. Most of them report their data to the UIS using standard questionnaires issued by the institute. Education data are collected for some countries in two other ways: by the UIS via surveys carried out with support from the World Education Indicators (WEI) programme, or jointly by the UIS, the OECD and the Statistical Office of the European Union (Eurostat) through the UIS/OECD/Eurostat (UOE) questionnaires. These countries are indicated with symbols in the section below on composition of regions and other country groups.

Population

The indicators on school access and participation in the statistical tables are based on the 2012 revision of population estimates produced by the United Nations Population Division. Because of possible differences between national population estimates and those of the United Nations, these indicators may differ from those published by individual countries or by other organizations.[4] The Population Division does not provide data by single years of age for countries with a total population of less than 50,000. Where no Population Division estimates existed, national population figures, when available, or UIS estimates were used to calculate enrolment ratios.

ISCED classification

Education data reported to the UIS since 1998 conform to the 1997 revision of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97). Data for the school year ending in 1991, presented in statistical tables 12 and 13 (website), were collected according to the previous version of the classification, ISCED-76. Where possible, the UIS has adjusted these data to comply with ISCED-97 and to improve comparisons over time for years after 1997. ISCED is used to harmonize data and introduce better international comparability across national education systems. Countries may have their own definitions of education levels that do not correspond to ISCED. Therefore, some differences between nationally and internationally reported education statistics may be due to two factors: the use of nationally defined education levels rather than the ISCED standard, and the population issue raised above.

1. A full set of statistics and indicators related to this introduction is found in Excel tables on the EFA Global Monitoring Report website at www.efareport.unesco.org

2. This means 2011/12 for countries with a school year that overlaps two calendar years, and 2012 for those with a calendar school year. The most recent reference year for education finance for WEI and UOE countries is the year ending in 2011

3. Brunei Darussalam, Djibouti, Ghana, Kazakhstan, Morocco, Nepal, Palau, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Saudi Arabia, Singapore and Thailand.

4. Where obvious inconsistencies exist between enrolment reported by countries and the United Nations population data, the UIS may decide not to calculate or publish enrolment ratios. This is the case for Andorra, Brazil, Ethiopia, Kuwait and Singapore, where enrolment ratios at all levels of education are not published for one or both of the reference school years, and for Albania, Armenia, Bahrain, Bosnia Herzegovina, Cayman Islands, Jamaica, Macao (China), Malaysia, Maldives, Qatar, and the United Arab Emirates, where publication of enrolment ratios at some levels of education is suspended.

Adult participation in education

ISCED does not classify education programmes by participants' age. For example, any programme with content equivalent to primary education, or ISCED 1, may be classed as such even if provided to adults. UIS guidance for its regular annual education survey, on the other hand, asks countries to exclude 'data on programmes designed for people beyond regular school age'. Guidance for the UOE and WEI questionnaires until 2005 stated that 'activities classified as "continuing", "adult" or "non-formal" education should be included' if they 'involve studies with subject content similar to regular educational programmes' or if 'the underlying programmes lead to similar potential qualifications' as the regular programmes. Since 2005, however, UIS has requested countries involved in the UOE and WEI survey to report data for such programmes separately so they can be excluded when calculating internationally comparable indicators. Despite this, annual survey data from some countries may still include students, or participants, who are substantially above the official age for basic education.

Literacy data

UNESCO has long defined literacy as the ability to read and write, with understanding, a short simple statement related to one's daily life. However, a parallel definition arose with the introduction in 1978 of the notion of functional literacy, which emphasizes the use of literacy skills. That year the UNESCO General Conference approved the definition of functionally literacy as being able to engage in all activities in which literacy is required for the effective functioning of a person's group and community and which also enables them to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for their own and the community's development.

In many cases, the literacy statistics in the corresponding table rely on the first definition. They are mainly based on data sources that use self or third party declaration methods in which respondents are asked whether they and the members of their household are literate, as opposed to being asked a more comprehensive question or to demonstrate literacy skills.[5] Some countries assume that persons who complete a certain level of education are literate.[6] As definitions and methodologies used for data collection differ by country, data need to be used with caution.

Literacy data in this report cover adults aged 15 years and over as well as youth aged 15 to 24 and refer to three periods, 1985–1994, 1995-2004 and 2005–2012. They include national observed data from censuses and household surveys, indicated with an asterisk (*), and UIS estimates for 1994, 2004 and 2012, based on the most recent national observed data and produced using the Global Age-specific Literacy Projections Model (GALP).[7] The reference years and literacy definitions for each country are presented in the table of metadata for literacy statistics posted on the EFA Global Monitoring Report website.

In many countries, interest in assessing the literacy skills of the population is growing. In response, the UIS has developed a methodology and data collection instrument called the Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP). Following the example of the International Adult Literacy Survey (IALS), LAMP is based on assessment of actual and functional literacy skills. It aims to provide higher quality literacy data based on the concept of a continuum of literacy skills rather than the common dichotomy of literate vs illiterate.

5. In the new data released by the UIS, some literacy rates are based on direct tests rather than individuals' declarations. This is the case in Benin, Central African Republic, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Egypt, Ethiopia, Gabon, Guyana, Haiti, Jordan, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritania, Namibia, Nepal, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. The use of measures based on direct tests largely explains the observed decline in literacy rates for some years in many of these countries. Care should therefore be taken when analysing trends over time and when interpreting these results.

6. For reliability and consistency, the UIS does not publish literacy data based on educational attainment proxies. Only data reported by countries based on self or household declaration are included in the statistical tables. However, in the absence of such data, educational attainment proxies for some countries, particularly developed ones, are used to compute regional weighted averages and the EFA Development Index.

7. For a description of the GALP methodology, see UNESCO, 2006b and UIS (2006).

Estimates and missing data

Both observed and estimated education data are presented throughout the statistical tables. When data are not reported to the UIS using the standard questionnaires, estimates are often necessary. Wherever possible, the UIS encourages countries to make their own estimates, which are presented as national estimates and marked with one asterisk (*). Where this does not happen, the UIS may make its own estimates based on available supplementary information. These are marked with two asterisks (**). Gaps in the tables may also arise where data submitted by a country are found to be inconsistent. The UIS makes every attempt to resolve such problems with the countries concerned, but reserves the final decision to omit problematic data. To fill the gaps in the statistical tables, data for earlier or more recent school years are included when information for the school years ending in 1999 and 2012 is not available. Such cases are indicated by a footnote.

Regional and other country grouping averages

Regional figures for literacy rates, gross and adjusted net intake rates, gross, net and adjusted net enrolment ratios, school life expectancy and pupil/teacher ratios are weighted averages, taking into account the relative size of the relevant population of each country in each region. The figures for countries with larger populations thus have a proportionately greater influence on the regional aggregates. The averages are derived from both published data and imputed values for countries for which no recent or reliable and publishable data are available. Weighted averages marked with two asterisks (**) in the tables are UIS partial imputations due to incomplete country coverage (between 33% and 60% of the population of a given region or country grouping). Where insufficient reliable data are available to produce an overall weighted mean, a median figure is calculated based only on countries with available data.

Capped figures

Some indicators should theoretically not exceed 100% – for example, net intake rates and net enrolment ratios – but may do so because of inconsistency of data. In these cases, the total male and female values of the given indicator are recalculated and lowered using a capping factor, so that the gender parity index of the new set of values remains the same as for the uncapped values. The theoretical maximum value is determined from the raw data used to calculate the family of related indicators to which a given indicator belongs.

For instance, net enrolment ratios in primary education are capped using a factor that takes into account the male and female primary school age populations and the enrolment of primary school age boys and girls in pre-primary, primary and secondary education. If the total enrolment of primary school age children, whether male or female, is higher than the corresponding population, all net enrolment indicators – such as net enrolment ratio and adjusted net enrolment ratio – and their derivative indicators, such as the out-of-school rate, are capped, using the same capping factor. In this case, the capping factor is calculated by taking the maximum of the male and female enrolments and dividing it by the population of primary school age children.

Data processing timetable

The timetable for collection and publication of data used in this report was:

June 2012, or December 2012 for countries with a calendar school year	The final school year in the data collection period ended.
January 2013 and June 2013	Questionnaires were sent to countries whose data are collected directly either by the UIS or through the WEI/UOE questionnaires, with data submission deadlines of 30 April and 30 September, respectively.
June and August 2013	The UIS sent countries reminders by e-mail, fax, phone and/or post.
January–December 2013	The UIS began to process data upon receipt, made estimates for missing data and calculated indicators.
October–December 2013	Provisional statistical tables were produced and draft indicators sent to member states for review.
Mid-February 2014	The first draft of the statistical tables was produced for the EFA Global Monitoring Report.
April 2014	The final statistical tables were sent to the EFA Global Monitoring Report team by a deadline of 17 April.

Symbols used in the statistical tables (printed and web versions)

*	National estimate
**	UIS partial estimate
...	No data available
-	Magnitude nil or negligible
.	Category not applicable or does not exist

Statistical table footnotes and the glossary near the end of the annex provide help in interpreting data.

Composition of regions and other country groups

World classification[8]

- *Countries in transition (18):* 12 countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States, including 4 in Central and Eastern Europe (Belarus, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation[o] and Ukraine) and the countries of Central Asia excluding Mongolia; and 6 countries in Central and Eastern Europe that were formerly in the developed countries group: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, Serbia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

- *Developed countries (38):* Central and Eastern Europe (excluding Albania, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Montenegro, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation[o], Serbia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkeyo and Ukraine); North America and Western Europe (excluding Cyprus[o] and Israel[o]); Australia[o], Bermuda, Japan[o] and New Zealand[o].

- *Developing countries (151):* The Arab States; East Asia and the Pacific (excluding Australia[o], Japan[o] and New Zealand[o]); Latin America and the Caribbean (excluding Bermuda); South and West Asia; sub-Saharan Africa; Cyprus[o], Israel[o], Mongolia and Turkey[o].

8. This is the United Nations Statistical Division world classification, in three main country groupings, as revised in September 2013.

EFA regions[9]

- *Arab States (20 countries/territories)* Algeria, Bahrain, Djibouti, Egypt[w], Iraq, Jordan[w], Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya , Mauritania, Morocco, Oman, Palestine, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Sudan[10], the Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen.

- *Central and Eastern Europe (21 countries)* Albania, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria[o], Croatia[o], the Czech Republic[o], Estonia[o], Hungary[o], Latvia[o], Lithuania[o], Montenegro, Poland[o], the Republic of Moldova, Romania[o], the Russian Federation[o], Serbia, Slovakia[o], Slovenia[o], the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia[o], Turkey[o] and Ukraine.

- *Central Asia (9 countries)* Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

- *East Asia and the Pacific (33 countries/territories)* Australia[o], Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, China[w], the Cook Islands, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Fiji, Indonesia[w], Japano, Kiribati, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Macao (China), Malaysia[w], the Marshall Islands, Micronesia (Federated States of), Myanmar, Nauru, New Zealand[o], Niue, Palau, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines[w], the Republic of Korea[o], Samoa, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Thailand[w], Timor-Leste, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu and Viet Nam.

  - *East Asia (16 countries/territories)* Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Chinaw, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Indonesiaw, Japan[o], the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Macao (China), Malaysia[w], Myanmar, the Philippines[w], the Republic of Korea[o], Singapore, Thailand[w], Timor-Leste and Viet Nam.

  - *Pacific (17 countries/territories)* Australia[o], Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, the Marshall Islands, Micronesia (Federated

9. This is the United Nations Statistical Division world classification, in three main country groupings, as revised in September 2013.

10. The statistical tables still include data for Sudan, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available.

States of), Nauru, New Zealand[o], Niue, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu.

- *Latin America and the Caribbean (43 countries/territories)*
  Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina[w], Aruba, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Brazil[o], the British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Chile[o], Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Curaçao[11], Dominica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica[w], Mexico[o], Montserrat, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay[w], Peru[w], Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Martin[11], Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Sint Maarten[11], Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands, Uruguay[w] and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.

  - *Caribbean (24 countries/territories)*
    Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Aruba, Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, the British Virgin Islands, Cayman Islands, Curaçao[11], Dominica, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Jamaicaw, Montserrat, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Martin[11], Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Sint Maarten[11], Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, and Turks and Caicos Islands.

  - *Latin America (19 countries)*
    Argentina, the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Brazil[o], Chile[o], Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico[o], Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay[w], Peru[w], Uruguay[w] and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.

  - *North America and Western Europe (26 countries/territories)*
    Andorra, Austria[o], Belgium[o], Canada[o], Cyprus[o], Denmark[o], Finland[o], France[o], Germany[o], Greece[o], Iceland[o], Ireland[o], Israelo, Italyo, Luxembourg[o], Malta[o], Monaco, the Netherlands[o], Norway[o], Portugal[o], San Marino, Spain[o], Sweden[o], Switzerland[o], the United Kingdom[o] and the United States[o].

- *South and West Asia (9 countries)*
  Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India[w], the Islamic Republic of Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan and Sri Lanka[w].

- *Sub-Saharan Africa (46 countries)*
  Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cabo Verde, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan[10], Swaziland, Togo, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe.

o Countries whose education data are collected through UOE questionnaires

w WEI programme countries

Income groups[12]

- *Low income (37 countries)*
  Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, Central African Republic, Chad, Comoros, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, Kenya, Kyrgyzstan, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Myanmar, Nepal, Niger, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Sudan, Tajikistan, Togo, Tokelau, Uganda, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe.

- *Lower middle income (47 countries)*
  Armenia, Bhutan, the Plurinational State of Bolivia, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, El Salvador, Georgia, Ghana, Guatemala, Guyana, Honduras,

11. The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint Martin and Sint Maarten, are just becoming available.

12. Country groupings by level of income presented in the statistical tables are as defined by the World Bank, but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised on July 2013 new country classifications.

India, Indonesia, Kiribati, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lesotho, Mauritania, Micronesia (Federated States of), Mongolia, Morocco, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Pakistan, Palestine, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, the Philippines, the Republic of Moldova, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Sudan, Swaziland, the Syrian Arab Republic, Timor-Leste, Ukraine, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Viet Nam, Yemen and Zambia.

- *Upper middle income (58 countries)*
  Albania, Algeria, Angola, Argentina, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belize, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Bulgaria, China, Colombia, the Cook Islands, Costa Rica, Cuba, Dominica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Fiji, Gabon, Grenada, Hungary, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Iraq, Jamaica, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Lebanon, Libya, Malaysia, Maldives, the Marshall Islands, Mauritius, Mexico, Montenegro, Montserrat, Namibia, Nauru, Niue, Palau, Panama, Peru, Romania, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Serbia, Seychelles, South Africa, Suriname, Thailand, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Tonga, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu and the Bolivarian Republic of Venezuela.

- *High income (65 countries)*
  Andorra, Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Aruba, Australia, Austria, the Bahamas, Bahrain, Barbados, Belgium, Bermuda, the British Virgin Islands, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Cayman Islands, Chile, Croatia, Curaçao, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Equatorial Guinea, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Kuwait, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macao (China), Malta, Monaco, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Oman, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Martin, San Marino, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Sint Maarten, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Trinidad and Tobago, Turks and Caicos Islands, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, the United States and Uruguay.

Credit: Karel Prinsloo

Table 1
Background statistics

	DEMOGRAPHY[1]			GNP, AID AND POVERTY						
				GNP per capita[2]				Net official development assistance received (% of GDP)[3]	Population below income poverty line	
				Current US$		PPP US$			PPP US$1.25 a day[4] (%)	National poverty line[4] (%)
Country or territory	Total population (000) 2015	Average annual growth rate (%) total population 2015	Average annual growth rate (%) age 0–4 population 2015	1998	2012	1998	2012	2012	2002–2011[5]	2002–2011[5]
Arab States										
Algeria	40,633	1.7	3.1	1,510	5,020	4,600	8,360	0.1	...	...
Bahrain	1,360	1.3	3.6	10,000	19,560	23,130	...	...	...	...
Djibouti	900	1.5	1.3	720	...	1,570	...	...	18.8	...
Egypt	84,706	1.5	0.8	1,240	2,980	3,400	6,450	0.7	1.7	22.0
Iraq	35,767	2.8	1.6	...	6,130	...	7,460	0.6	2.8	22.9
Jordan	7,690	2.1	2.2	1,590	4,670	2,930	5,980	5	0.1	13.3
Kuwait	3,583	2.8	3.5	20,920	...	44,220	...	...	...	...
Lebanon	5,054	1.1	3.8	4,970	9,190	8,900	14,160	2	...	...
Libya	6,317	1.1	-0.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritania	4,080	2.4	1.7	560	1,110	1,490	2,480	10	23.4	42.0
Morocco	33,955	1.3	4.3	1,290	2,960	2,460	5,060	2	2.5	9.0
Oman	4,158	4.7	4.8	6,730	...	15,440	...	...	...	...
Palestine	4,549	2.5	1.6	...	...	...	...	...	0.0	21.9
Qatar	2,351	3.1	7.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saudi Arabia	29,898	1.7	-1.0	8,290	24,310	17,520	...	...	...	...
Sudan	39,613	2.2	0.9	330	1,500	1,020	2,070	2	...	...
Syrian Arab Republic	22,265	1.8	-0.6	920	...	3,230	...	2	1.7	...
Tunisia	11,235	1.0	1.0	2,190	4,150	4,600	9,210	2	1.4	3.8
United Arab Emirates	9,577	1.6	4.5	...	38,620	...	41,430	...	...	...
Yemen	25,535	2.2	1.2	370	1,270	1,670	2,310	2	17.5	34.8
Sudan (pre-secession)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe										
Albania	3,197	0.3	0.3	820	4,030	3,290	9,280	3	0.6	12.4
Belarus	9,260	-0.5	0.0	1,550	6,530	4,500	14,960	0.2	0.1	5.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3,820	-0.1	0.3	1,360	4,750	4,590	9,650	3	0.0	14.0
Bulgaria	7,113	-0.8	0.0	1,240	6,840	5,350	15,450	...	...	...
Croatia	4,255	-0.4	-1.4	5,360	13,490	10,020	20,200	...	0.1	11.1
Czech Republic	10,777	0.3	0.7	...	18,130	14,260	25,480	...	...	...
Estonia	1,280	-0.3	-1.1	...	16,270	8,360	23,280	...	0.5	...
Hungary	9,911	-0.2	0.1	4,380	12,410	10,050	21,350	...	0.2	...
Latvia	2,031	-0.5	0.6	2,650	14,060	6,990	21,820	...	0.1	5.9
Lithuania	2,999	-0.3	1.1	2,860	13,820	7,830	23,540	...	...	...
Montenegro	622	0.0	-2.3	...	7,220	...	14,590	2	0.1	6.6
Poland	38,222	0.0	0.7	4,310	12,660	9,310	21,760	...	...	...
Republic of Moldova	3,437	-0.7	-1.2	460	2,070	1,470	3,630	6	0.4	21.9
Romania	21,579	-0.3	0.0	1,520	8,560	5,280	17,650	...	...	...
Russian Federation	142,098	-0.3	1.0	2,140	12,700	5,260	22,800	...	0.0	11.1
Serbia	9,424	-0.5	-2.0	...	5,280	5,930	11,430	3	0.3	9.2
Slovakia	5,458	0.1	0.5	5,290	17,190	10,330	25,430	...	0.1	...
Slovenia	2,079	0.2	0.1	10,870	22,810	15,740	28,240	..	0.1	...
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	2,109	0.0	-0.5	1,910	4,620	5,160	11,540	2	0.0	19.0
Turkey	76,691	1.1	-0.2	3,410	10,830	8,640	18,390	0.4	0.0	18.1
Ukraine	44,646	-0.7	0.0	850	3,500	2,880	7,180	0.4	0.1	2.9
Central Asia										
Armenia	2,989	0.1	-1.6	590	3,720	1,840	6,860	3	1.3	35.8
Azerbaijan	9,613	1.0	2.6	510	6,220	1,820	9,310	0.6	0.4	15.8
Georgia	4,305	-0.4	-0.9	820	3,290	2,130	5,790	4	15.3	24.7
Kazakhstan	16,770	1.0	0.7	1,390	9,780	4,010	11,790	0.1	0.1	8.2
Kyrgyzstan	5,708	1.5	3.6	360	990	1,160	2,220	8	6.2	33.7
Mongolia	2,923	1.4	2.1	520	3,160	1,860	5,020	5	...	35.2
Tajikistan	8,610	2.3	4.2	180	880	750	2,180	6	6.6	46.7
Turkmenistan	5,373	1.2	0.8	560	5,410	2,840	9,070	0.1	...	...
Uzbekistan	29,710	1.3	0.5	620	1,720	1,320	3,670	0.5	...	...
East Asia and the Pacific										
Australia	28,519	1.2	1.6	21,810	59,260	23,550	42,540	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	429	1.2	-1.3	14,510	...	40,470	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	15,677	1.7	2.2	290	880	760	2,330	6	22.8	30.1
China	1,401,587	0.5	1.3	790	5,720	1,960	9,040	0.0	13.1	2.8
Cook Islands	21	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	25,155	0.5	0.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	893	0.6	-0.3	2,300	4,110	3,060	4,690	3	...	...
Indonesia	255,709	1.1	-1.9	670	3,420	2,110	4,730	0.01	18.1	12.5
Japan	126,818	-0.2	-0.2	33,510	47,870	24,700	36,750	...	...	...
Kiribati	106	1.5	1.3	1,550	2,520	3,230	3,870	27	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	7,020	1.8	0.5	300	1,270	1,020	2,690	5	33.9	27.6
Macao, China	584	1.5	6.6	15,470	...	21,550	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	30,651	1.5	1.6	3,600	9,820	7,820	16,270	0.0	...	...
Marshall Islands	53	...	...	2,530	4,040	...	...	34	...	...
Micronesia (Federated States of)	519	1.1	-0.6	2,010	3,230	2,500	3,920	33	...	...
Myanmar	54,164	0.8	-0.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	4,596	1.0	0.1	15,710	36,900	18,230	32,620	...	...	...
Niue	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	21	...	...	6,110	9,860	15,070	16,870	7	...	...

Table 1 (continued)

Table 1

	DEMOGRAPHY[1]			GNP, AID AND POVERTY						
				GNP per capita[2]				Net official development assistance received (% of GDP)[3]	Population below income poverty line	
				Current US$		PPP US$			PPP US$1.25 a day[4] (%)	National poverty line[4] (%)
	Total population (000)	Average annual growth rate (%) total population	Average annual growth rate (%) age 0–4 population							
Country or territory	2015	2015	2015	1998	2012	1998	2012	2012	2002–2011[5]	2002–2011[5]
Papua New Guinea	7,632	2.0	0.7	780	1,790	1,650	2,740	4	...	...
Philippines	101,803	1.7	0.9	1,140	2,500	2,430	4,380	0.0	18.4	26.5
Republic of Korea	49,750	0.5	1.2	9,200	22,670	13,300	30,180	...	...	...
Samoa	193	0.7	-1.3	1,380	3,260	2,460	4,250	19	...	...
Singapore	5,619	1.8	2.1	25,190	47,210	29,340	60,110	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	584	2.0	0.7	1,320	1,130	2,340	2,130	44	...	...
Thailand	67,401	0.2	-2.2	2,070	5,210	4,320	9,280	0.0	0.4	8.1
Timor-Leste	1,173	1.8	1.0	...	3,620	...	6,230	6	37.4	49.9
Tokelau	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	106	0.6	-1.2	2,210	4,220	3,230	5,020	16	...	...
Tuvalu	10	...	...	...	5,650	...	...	40	...	...
Vanuatu	264	2.1	-0.8	1,420	3,000	3,120	4,300	13	...	...
Viet Nam	93,387	0.9	-0.6	360	1,550	1,390	3,620	3	40.1	28.9
Latin America and the Caribbean										
Anguilla	15	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Antigua and Barbuda	92	1.0	-0.1	7,730	12,480	13,160	18,920	0.2	...	...
Argentina	42,155	0.8	0.2	8,020	...	9,180	...	0.0	0.9	...
Aruba	104	0.4	-4.4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	388	1.3	1.6	15,800	20,600	24,250	29,020	...	...	...
Barbados	287	0.5	0.1	9,840	15,080	17,940	25,670	...	...	...
Belize	348	2.3	1.0	2,860	...	4,160	7,630	...	...	33.5
Bermuda	66	...	...	...	104,590	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	11,025	1.6	0.7	980	2,220	2,970	4,880	3	15.6	60.1
Brazil	203,657	0.8	-0.6	4,870	11,630	6,540	11,530	0.1	6.1	21.4
British Virgin Islands	29	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cayman Islands	60	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chile	17,924	0.8	-0.1	5,250	14,310	8,540	20,450	0.1	...	...
Colombia	49,529	1.2	-0.3	2,550	7,020	5,750	9,990	0.2	8.2	37.2
Costa Rica	5,002	1.3	0.2	3,500	8,820	6,400	12,500	0.1	...	...
Cuba	11,249	-0.1	-1.6	2,230	...	...	...	...	...	...
Curaçao	164	1.4	1.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominica	73	...	...	3,370	6,440	7,080	11,980	6	...	...
Dominican Republic	10,652	1.1	-0.2	2,350	5,470	4,320	9,660	0.5	2.2	34.4
Ecuador	16,226	1.5	0.2	2,070	5,170	5,480	9,490	0.2	4.6	32.8
El Salvador	6,426	0.6	0.1	1,900	3,590	4,170	6,720	1	...	...
Grenada	107	0.4	0.5	2,990	7,220	5,790	10,350	1	...	...
Guatemala	16,255	2.4	1.4	1,670	3,120	3,290	4,880	0.6	13.5	51.0
Guyana	808	0.5	-4.9	880	3,410	1,890	3,340	4	...	...
Haiti	10,604	1.3	0.2	...	760	...	1,220	16	...	...
Honduras	8,424	1.9	0.9	750	2,120	2,380	3,880	3	17.9	60.0
Jamaica	2,813	0.5	-0.5	2,700	5,130	...	...	0.1	...	...
Mexico	125,236	1.1	-0.9	4,620	9,640	9,050	16,140	0.0	1.2	51.3
Montserrat	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	6,257	1.4	-0.1	880	1,650	2,110	3,890	5	11.9	46.2
Panama	3,988	1.6	0.1	3,440	8,510	6,270	15,150	0.1	...	...
Paraguay	7,033	1.6	1.0	1,700	3,400	3,890	5,720	0.5	7.2	34.7
Peru	31,161	1.3	-0.1	2,220	6,060	4,600	10,090	0.2	4.9	31.3
Saint Kitts and Nevis	55	...	...	5,570	13,610	10,600	17,630	3	...	...
Saint Lucia	185	0.7	-0.6	3,800	6,890	7,290	11,300	2	...	...
Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	109	0.0	-1.7	2,790	6,400	5,700	10,870	1	...	...
Sint-Maarten	47	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	548	0.8	-0.3	2,000	8,680	4,380	8,380	0.9	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	1,347	0.2	-0.6	4,540	14,710	10,400	22,860	...	...	...
Turks and Caicos Islands	34	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	3,430	0.3	-0.3	7,240	13,580	8,530	15,310	0.0	0.2	18.6
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	31,293	1.4	0.2	3,350	12,460	8,470	12,920	0.0	...	...
Netherlands Antilles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
North America and Western Europe										
Andorra	81	...	...	19,440	...	...	...	...	...	...
Austria	8,558	0.4	1.1	27,280	47,850	25,870	43,850	...	...	...
Belgium	11,183	0.3	0.3	26,030	44,720	24,810	40,680	...	...	...
Canada	35,871	1.0	1.6	20,310	51,570	24,630	42,270	...	...	...
Cyprus	1,165	1.0	0.7	14,770	26,110	18,230	29,840	...	...	...
Denmark	5,662	0.4	-0.4	32,940	59,870	25,840	44,070	...	...	...
Finland	5,461	0.3	0.4	24,850	46,490	22,050	39,150	...	...	...
France	64,983	0.5	0.4	25,110	41,750	22,900	37,420	...	...	...
Germany	82,562	-0.1	0.4	27,060	45,070	23,910	43,720	...	...	...
Greece	11,126	0.0	-0.8	13,010	23,660	16,730	26,170	...	...	...
Iceland	337	1.1	0.6	28,400	38,270	27,200	34,770	...	...	...
Ireland	4,727	1.0	0.4	20,830	39,020	21,300	35,790	...	...	...
Israel	7,920	1.3	1.5	16,850	32,030	19,160	30,370	...	...	...
Italy	61,142	0.1	0.0	21,310	34,640	23,660	34,700	...	...	...
Luxembourg	543	1.2	2.2	43,810	71,640	39,790	60,950	...	...	...
Malta	431	0.2	-0.5	9,940	19,710	16,000	26,930	...	...	...
Monaco	38	...	...	95,040	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 1 (continued)

	DEMOGRAPHY[1]			GNP, AID AND POVERTY						
				GNP per capita[2]				Net official development assistance received (% of GDP)[3]	Population below income poverty line	
				Current US$		PPP US$			PPP US$1.25 a day[4] (%)	National poverty line[4] (%)
Country or territory	Total population (000) 2015	Average annual growth rate (%) total population 2015	Average annual growth rate (%) age 0–4 population 2015	1998	2012	1998	2012	2012	2002–2011[5]	2002–2011[5]
Netherlands	16,844	0.2	-0.4	25,810	48,000	25,210	43,750	...	...	...
Norway	5,143	1.0	1.4	35,410	98,780	27,110	67,450	...	...	...
Portugal	10,610	0.0	-2.0	12,030	20,640	15,560	25,330	...	...	...
San Marino	32	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spain	47,199	0.3	-0.4	15,220	29,270	18,710	31,760	...	...	...
Sweden	9,694	0.7	1.0	29,520	56,120	24,060	43,960	...	...	...
Switzerland	8,239	1.0	1.7	42,630	80,970	31,870	55,000	...	...	...
United Kingdom	63,844	0.6	-0.2	23,900	38,500	23,830	35,620	...	...	...
United States	325,128	0.8	0.6	32,150	52,340	33,230	52,610	...	...	...
South and West Asia										
Afghanistan	32,007	2.3	-0.9	...	680	...	1,560	...	...	...
Bangladesh	160,411	1.2	-0.1	350	840	790	2,030	2	43.3	31.5
Bhutan	776	1.4	0.4	580	2,420	1,860	6,200	10	10.2	23.2
India	1,282,390	1.2	0.2	420	1,550	1,360	3,820	0.1	32.7	29.8
Iran, Islamic Republic of	79,476	1.3	1.7	1,680	...	6,170	...	...	...	...
Maldives	358	1.8	2.5	...	5,750	...	7,560	3	...	...
Nepal	28,441	1.1	-2.4	220	700	770	1,470	4	24.8	25.2
Pakistan	188,144	1.6	0.0	450	1,260	1,530	2,880	0.8	21.0	22.3
Sri Lanka	21,612	0.8	0.3	810	2,920	2,330	6,030	0.8	7.0	8.9
Sub-Saharan Africa										
Angola	22,820	3.0	1.8	460	4,580	1,680	5,400	0.2	...	...
Benin	10,880	2.6	1.7	370	750	1,010	1,550	7	47.3	39.0
Botswana	2,056	0.9	0.1	2,990	7,650	8,160	16,060	0.5	...	...
Burkina Faso	17,915	2.8	1.9	250	670	750	1,480	11	44.6	0.0
Burundi	10,813	3.1	3.5	140	240	430	550	21	81.3	66.9
Cabo Verde	508	0.9	-0.8	1,510	3,830	1,660	4,930	2	...	...
Cameroon	23,393	2.5	1.7	630	1,170	1,440	2,270	13	9.6	39.9
Central African Republic	4,803	2.0	1.5	280	510	590	1,080	11	...	...
Chad	13,606	2.9	2.2	220	770	870	1,620	5	61.9	55.0
Comoros	770	2.3	1.1	440	840	970	1,210	12	...	...
Congo	4,671	2.4	2.3	580	2,550	2,050	3,450	1	54.1	50.1
Côte d'Ivoire	21,295	2.3	2.9	770	1,220	1,600	1,920	11	23.8	42.7
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	71,246	2.7	2.0	120	230	260	390	18	87.7	71.3
Equatorial Guinea	799	2.7	2.1	940	13,560	4,410	18,570	0.1	...	...
Eritrea	6,738	3.0	2.3	200	450	570	550	4	...	...
Ethiopia	98,942	2.5	1.0	130	380	420	1,110	8	39.0	38.9
Gabon	1,751	2.3	2.1	3,960	10,040	11,930	14,090	0.4	...	...
Gambia	1,970	3.1	3.1	710	510	1,300	1,830	16	33.6	48.4
Ghana	26,984	2.0	1.1	400	1,550	880	1,910	5	28.6	28.5
Guinea	12,348	2.5	1.7	440	440	700	970	5	43.3	53.0
Guinea-Bissau	1,788	2.4	1.7	150	510	800	1,100	9	...	...
Kenya	46,749	2.6	1.4	440	860	1,120	1,730	7	43.4	45.9
Lesotho	2,120	1.1	0.9	610	1,380	1,280	2,170	10	43.4	56.6
Liberia	4,503	2.4	1.4	130	370	190	580	35	83.8	63.8
Madagascar	24,235	2.8	2.2	250	430	720	930	4	81.3	68.7
Malawi	17,309	2.8	1.3	200	320	560	730	28	73.9	52.4
Mali	16,259	3.1	3.2	270	660	670	1,140	10	50.4	47.4
Mauritius	1,254	0.3	-1.2	3,780	8,570	7,140	15,060	2	...	...
Mozambique	27,122	2.4	1.4	220	510	390	1,000	14	59.6	54.7
Namibia	2,392	1.8	0.6	2,020	5,610	3,870	7,240	2	31.9	38.0
Niger	19,268	3.9	4.0	200	390	550	760	14	43.6	59.5
Nigeria	183,523	2.8	2.8	270	1,440	1,140	2,400	0.8	68.0	54.7
Rwanda	12,428	2.7	1.6	260	600	540	1,320	...	63.2	44.9
Sao Tome and Principe	203	2.4	1.0	...	1,310	...	1,810	18	...	66.2
Senegal	14,967	2.8	2.6	530	1,030	1,200	1,880	8	33.5	50.8
Seychelles	94	0.5	2.6	7,310	12,180	15,040	25,580	4	...	...
Sierra Leone	6,319	1.8	0.7	190	580	600	1,340	12	53.4	66.4
Somalia	11,123	2.9	2.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	53,491	0.7	-1.0	3,290	7,460	6,310	10,780	0.3	13.8	23.0
South Sudan	12,152	3.3	3.3	...	790	...	...	20	...	...
Swaziland	1,286	1.4	0.9	1,650	2,860	3,710	4,760	3	40.6	69.2
Togo	7,171	2.5	2.1	330	500	790	900	7	38.7	61.7
Uganda	40,141	3.3	2.6	280	480	630	1,300	10	51.5	31.1
United Republic of Tanzania	52,291	3.0	2.2	250	570	700	1,560	10	67.9	33.4
Zambia	15,520	3.3	3.3	330	1,350	830	1,590	5	68.5	59.3
Zimbabwe	15,046	2.9	1.7	590	650	...	...	10	...	72.0

Table 1 (continued)

Table 1

Country or territory	DEMOGRAPHY[1]			GNP, AID AND POVERTY						
				GNP per capita[2]				Net official development assistance received (% of GDP)[3]	Population below income poverty line	
				Current US$		PPP US$			PPP US$1.25 a day[4] (%)	National poverty line[4] (%)
	Total population (000)	Average annual growth rate (%) total population	Average annual growth rate (%) age 0–4 population	1998	2012	1998	2012	2012	2002–2011[5]	2002–2011[5]
	2015	2015	2015							
	Sum	Weighted average		Median				Median	Median	
World	7 291 097	1.1	0.7	1,900	5,130	4,320	8,370	3	...	...
Countries in transition	305 946	0.0	0.9	820	4,685	2,880	9,295	3	0.3	14.0
Developed countries	1 040 886	0.4	0.4	21,560	38,500	22,475	35,195	...	...	...
Developing countries	5 944 265	1.1	0.8	1,380	3,140	2,930	4,820	3	...	...
Arab States	373 225	1.9	1.4	1,510	4,670	3,400	6,450	2	2.1	...
Central and Eastern Europe	401 008	0.0	0.3	2,140	10,830	6,460	18,390	...	0.1	11.1
Central Asia	86 001	1.2	1.4	560	3,290	1,840	5,790	3	3.8	33.7
East Asia and the Pacific	2 280 457	0.7	0.5	2,070	4,040	3,175	4,730	6	...	...
East Asia	2 236 926	0.7	0.5	2,070	4,415	4,320	7,635	0.01	20.6	27.1
Pacific	43 531	1.3	1.0	2,110	4,040	3,120	4,300	19	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean	625 207	1.1	-0.3	2,925	7,020	6,030	10,610	0.5	...	...
Caribbean	18 287	1.0	-0.2	3,370	7,950	7,185	11,300	...	...	...
Latin America	606 920	1.1	-0.3	2,350	6,060	5,615	9,990	0.2	6.1	36.0
North America and Western Europe	788 521	0.5	0.4	25,110	44,720	23,910	39,150	...	...	...
South and West Asia	1 793 616	1.2	0.1	450	1,405	1,530	3,350	2	22.9	24.2
Sub-Saharan Africa	943 062	2.4	2.0	370	770	875	1,590	8	47.3	52.4
Countries with low income	904 710	2.2	1.4	250	580	700	1,220	10	47.3	47.9
Countries with middle income	5 096 560	1.1	0.6	1,510	4,110	3,230	6,720	2	7.7	28.5
Lower middle	2 615 622	1.4	0.5	760	2,320	1,875	3,875	3	18.0	35.0
Upper middle	2 480 938	0.8	0.7	2,440	6,440	5,590	10,870	0.6	...	...
Countries with high income	1 289 826	0.4	0.5	15,710	29,270	19,160	31,065	...	...	...

Note A: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

Note B: The median values for 1998 and 2012 are not comparable since they are not necessarily based on the same number of countries.

1. The demographic indicators are from the United Nations Population Division estimates, revision 2012 (United Nations, 2013). They are based on the median variant.

2. World Bank WDI database, April 2014 release.

3. OECD-DAC database.

4. UNDP (2013).

5. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified. For more details see UNDP (2013).

(...) No data available.

Table 2
Adult and youth literacy

Country or territory	ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) (%)									ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)					
	1995–2004[1]			2005–2012[1]			Projected 2015			1995–2004[1]		2005–2012[1]		Projected 2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female
Arab States															
Algeria	70 *	80 *	60 *	73 *	81 *	64 *	80 **	87 **	73 **	6693 *	66 *	6,776 *	66 *	5,762 **	67 **
Bahrain	87 *	89 *	84 *	95 *	96 *	92 *	96 **	97 **	93 **	66 *	49 *	55 *	54 *	46 **	54 **
Djibouti	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Egypt	56 *	67 *	44 *	74 *	82 *	66 *	74 **	82 **	65 **	17402 *	63 *	14,590 *	65 *	15,374 **	66 **
Iraq	74 *	84 *	64 *	79 **	86 **	72 **	80 **	86 **	74 **	3525 *	69 *	4,098 **	66 **	4,415 **	65 **
Jordan	90 *	95 *	85 *	98 *	98 *	97 *	98 **	98 **	97 **	304 *	74 *	95 *	62 *	107 **	62 **
Kuwait	78 *	81 *	74 *	96 *	96 *	95 *	96 **	97 **	96 **	249 *	46 *	109 *	42 *	101 **	42 **
Lebanon	...	...	...	90 *	93 *	86 *	94 **	96 **	92 **	...	...	311 *	67 *	247 **	66 **
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	85 **	93 **	77 **	90 **	96 **	84 **	91 **	97 **	86 **	554 **	77 **	440 **	81 **	401 **	82 **
Mauritania	51 *	60 *	43 *	46 **,a	57 **,a	35 **,a	52 **	63 **	42 **	753 *	59 *	1,050 **,a	60 **,a	1,179 **	61 **
Morocco	52 *	66 *	40 *	67 *	76 *	58 *	68 **	79 **	59 **	9768 *	65 *	7,734 *	65 *	7,711 **	67 **
Oman	81 *	87 *	74 *	87 *	90 *	82 *	91 **	94 **	86 **	286 *	59 *	265 *	54 *	288 **	50 **
Palestine	92 *	97 *	88 *	96 *	98 *	94 *	97 **	98 **	95 **	144 *	77 *	102 *	78 *	97 **	77 **
Qatar	89 *	89 *	89 *	97 *	97 *	96 *	97 **	97 **	97 **	61 *	31 *	59 *	25 *	55 **	24 **
Saudi Arabia	83 *	88 *	76 *	94 *	97 *	91 *	95 **	97 **	91 **	2662 *	58 *	1,137 *	63 *	1,146 **	66 **
Sudan	61 *	72 *	52 *	73 **	82 **	65 **	76 **	83 **	69 **	5956 *	63 *	5,781 **	66 **	5,681 **	65 **
Syrian Arab Republic	81 *	88 *	74 *	85 **	91 **	79 **	86 **	92 **	81 **	2066 *	67 *	2,111 **	69 **	1,978 **	69 **
Tunisia	74 *	83 *	65 *	80 *	88 *	72 *	82 **	90 **	74 **	1881 *	68 *	1,681 *	70 *	1,573 **	72 **
United Arab Emirates	...	...	...	90 *	89 *	91 *	94 **	93 **	96 **	...	...	331 *	24 *	495 **	18 **
Yemen	55 **	74 **	35 **	66 **	83 **	50 **	70 **	85 **	55 **	4742 **	71 **	4,756 **	74 **	4,653 **	75 **
Sudan (pre-secession)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe															
Albania	99 *	99 *	98 *	97 *	98 *	96 *	98 **	98 **	97 **	30 *	69 *	78 *	69 *	61 **	66 **
Belarus	100 *	100 *	99 *	100 *	100 *	99 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	33 *	77 *	31 *	72 *	21 **	65 **
Bosnia and Herzegovina	97 *	99 *	94 *	98 **	99 **	97 **	98 **	100 **	97 **	104 *	86 *	59 **	86 **	50 **	86 **
Bulgaria	98 *	99 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	98 *	98 **	99 **	98 **	121 *	66 *	105 *	63 *	99 **	62 **
Croatia	98 *	99 *	97 *	99 *	100 *	99 *	99 **	100 **	99 **	68 *	83 *	32 *	80 *	26 **	77 **
Czech Republic	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Estonia	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	3 *	57 *	1 *	50 *	2 **	60 **
Hungary	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latvia	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	5 *	63 *	2 *	49 *	2 **	47 **
Lithuania	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	10 *	54 *	5 *	50 *	5 **	49 **
Montenegro	...	...	...	98 *	99 *	98 *	99 **	99 **	98 **	...	...	8 *	82 *	6 **	79 **
Poland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Moldova	97 *	98 *	95 *	99 **	100 **	99 **	99 **	100 **	99 **	105 *	72 *	27 **	79 **	18 **	79 **
Romania	97 *	98 *	96 *	99 *	99 *	98 *	99 **	99 **	98 **	495 *	71 *	258 *	67 *	225 **	63 **
Russian Federation	99 *	100 *	99 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	676 *	75 *	386 *	61 *	331 **	56 **
Serbia	...	...	...	98 **	99 **	97 **	98 **	99 **	97 **	...	...	147 **	80 **	150 **	77 **
Slovakia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Slovenia	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	6 **	57 **	5 **	54 **	5 **	54 **
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	96 *	98 *	94 *	98 **	99 **	96 **	98 **	99 **	97 **	63 *	77 *	43 **	75 **	38 **	73 **
Turkey	87 *	95 *	80 *	95 *	98 *	92 *	95 **	98 **	92 **	6089 *	82 *	2,830 *	84 *	2,872 **	84 **
Ukraine	99 *	100 *	99 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	230 *	80 *	105 **	65 **	89 **	60 **
Central Asia															
Armenia	99 *	100 *	99 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	14 *	75 *	9 **	64 **	8 **	61 **
Azerbaijan	99 *	99 *	98 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	66 *	79 *	16 *	68 *	13 **	71 **
Georgia	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	13 *	69 *	9 **	63 **	8 **	60 **
Kazakhstan	100 *	100 *	99 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	52 *	77 *	32 *	62 *	26 **	57 **
Kyrgyzstan	99 *	99 *	98 *	99 *	100 *	99 *	100 **	100 **	99 **	41 *	74 *	28 *	69 *	19 **	64 **
Mongolia	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 **	98 **	99 **	35 *	56 *	35 *	48 *	34 **	45 **
Tajikistan	99 *	100 *	99 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	19 *	71 *	13 **	64 **	12 **	62 **
Turkmenistan	99 *	99 *	98 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	31 *	73 *	14 **	66 **	12 **	62 **
Uzbekistan	99 *	99 *	98 *	99 **	100 **	99 **	100 **	100 **	99 **	211 *	70 *	106 **	68 **	87 **	66 **
East Asia and the Pacific															
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	93 *	95 *	90 *	95 **	97 **	94 **	96 **	97 **	94 **	17 *	67 *	14 **	68 **	13 **	68 **
Cambodia	74 *	85 *	64 *	74 *	83 *	66 *	77 **	84 **	71 **	2176 *	72 *	2,493 *	69 *	2,466 **	67 **
China	91 *	95 *	87 *	95 *	97 *	93 *	96 **	98 **	94 **	86314 *	72 *	53,881 *	73 *	41,572 **	74 **
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	...	...	0.3 *	71 *	0.2 **	66 **
Fiji	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	90 *	94 *	87 *	93 *	96 *	90 *	94 **	96 **	92 **	14867 *	69 *	12,318 *	69 *	11,255 **	69 **
Japan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	69 *	77 *	61 *	73 *	82 *	63 *	80 **	87 **	73 **	973 *	64 *	947 *	69 *	928 **	69 **
Macao, China	91 *	95 *	88 *	96 *	98 *	94 *	96 **	98 **	95 **	30 *	74 *	21 *	76 *	19 **	75 **
Malaysia	89 *	92 *	85 *	93 *	95 *	91 *	95 **	96 **	93 **	1764 *	64 *	1,427 *	68 *	1,227 **	66 **
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia (Federated States of)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	90 *	94 *	86 *	93 **	95 **	90 **	93 **	95 **	91 **	3337 *	70 *	2,908 **	67 **	2,836 **	66 **
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Niue	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	...	...	...	100 *	99 *	100 *	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 2

YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15–24) (%)									YOUTH ILLITERATES (15–24)						
1995–2004[1]			2005–2012[1]			Projected 2015			1995–2004[1]		2005–2012[1]		Projected 2015		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Country or territory
															Arab States
90 *	94 *	86 *	92 *	94 *	89 *	96 **	96 **	96 **	750 *	69 *	655 *	65 *	298 **	50 **	Algeria
97 *	97 *	97 *	98 *	99 *	98 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	4 *	40 *	3 *	58 *	0.5 **	45 **	Bahrain
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Djibouti
73 *	79 *	67 *	89 *	92 *	86 *	91 **	93 **	89 **	3,129 *	60 *	1,635 *	64 *	1,337 **	62 **	Egypt
85 *	89 *	80 *	82 **	84 **	81 **	82 **	82 **	81 **	755 *	63 *	1,166 **	53 **	1,320 **	51 **	Iraq
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	9 *	60 *	11 *	43 *	11 **	41 **	Jordan
92 *	94 *	90 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	100 **	99 **	100 **	20 *	60 *	6 *	42 *	3 **	41 **	Kuwait
...	...	...	99 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	...	...	10 *	38 *	9 **	39 **	Lebanon
100 **	100 **	99 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	4 **	78 **	0.9 **	70 **	0.5 **	67 **	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya
61 *	68 *	55 *	56 **,a	66 **,a	48 **,a	63 **	70 **	55 **	208 *	57 *	281 **,a	60 **,a	296 **	59 **	Mauritania
70 *	81 *	60 *	82 *	89 *	74 *	83 **	90 **	76 **	1,838 *	67 *	1,154 *	70 *	1,013 **	70 **	Morocco
97 *	98 *	97 *	98 *	97 *	98 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	14 *	60 *	14 *	34 *	7 **	34 **	Oman
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	7 *	53 *	7 *	53 *	6 **	56 **	Palestine
96 *	95 *	98 *	99 *	99 *	100 *	100 **	99 **	100 **	4 *	24 *	3 *	3 *	1 **	4 **	Qatar
96 *	97 *	95 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	183 *	63 *	36 *	50 *	30 **	46 **	Saudi Arabia
78 *	86 *	72 *	88 **	90 **	85 **	90 **	91 **	88 **	1,166 *	65 *	887 **	60 **	824 **	58 **	Sudan
92 *	95 *	90 *	96 **	97 **	94 **	96 **	97 **	96 **	298 *	63 *	193 **	60 **	159 **	59 **	Syrian Arab Republic
94 *	96 *	92 *	97 *	98 *	96 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	117 *	68 *	53 *	67 *	34 **	56 **	Tunisia
...	...	...	95 *	94 *	97 *	99 **	100 **	99 **	...	...	36 *	24 *	7 **	56 **	United Arab Emirates
77 **	93 **	60 **	87 **	97 **	78 **	90 **	98 **	83 **	985 **	84 **	694 **	87 **	567 **	87 **	Yemen
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sudan (pre-secession)
															Central and Eastern Europe
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	3 *	46 *	7 *	46 *	6 **	47 **	Albania
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	3 *	41 *	3 *	42 *	2 **	42 **	Belarus
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	1 *	38 *	2 **	48 **	2 **	49 **	Bosnia and Herzegovina
98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	20 *	51 *	18 *	53 *	14 **	54 **	Bulgaria
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	2 *	48 *	1 *	47 *	1 **	47 **	Croatia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Czech Republic
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	0.5 *	40 *	0.1 *	39 *	0.05 **	42 **	Estonia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Hungary
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	0.8 *	43 *	0.4 *	39 *	0.4 **	38 **	Latvia
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	2 *	43 *	0.6 *	46 *	0.3 **	43 **	Lithuania
...	...	...	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	...	...	0.7 *	58 *	0.7 **	56 **	Montenegro
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Poland
100 *	99 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	3 *	37 *	- **	- **	- **	- **	Republic of Moldova
98 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	78 *	48 *	29 *	50 *	17 **	49 **	Romania
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	66 *	41 *	62 *	41 *	46 **	41 **	Russian Federation
...	...	...	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	98 **	...	...	10 **	50 **	18 **	52 **	Serbia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Slovakia
100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	0.5 **	38 **	0.3 **	32 **	0.3 **	31 **	Slovenia
99 *	99 *	98 *	99 **	99 **	98 **	99 **	99 **	98 **	4 *	59 *	4 **	54 **	4 **	53 **	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia
96 *	98 *	93 *	99 *	100 *	98 *	99 **	100 **	99 **	552 *	77 *	125 *	79 *	96 **	78 **	Turkey
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	15 *	42 *	13 **	40 **	12 **	40 **	Ukraine
															Central Asia
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	1 *	37 *	1 **	31 **	1 **	31 **	Armenia
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	2 *	44 *	1 *	64 *	1 **	62 **	Azerbaijan
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	1 *	40 *	1 **	37 **	1 **	35 **	Georgia
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	4 *	40 *	5 *	40 *	4 **	40 **	Kazakhstan
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	3 *	42 *	3 *	40 *	3 **	38 **	Kyrgyzstan
98 *	97 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	98 **	99 **	12 *	34 *	9 *	35 *	7 **	34 **	Mongolia
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	2 *	49 *	2 **	45 **	2 **	44 **	Tajikistan
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	2 *	49 *	2 **	31 **	2 **	27 **	Turkmenistan
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	6 *	41 *	4 **	6 **	3 **	0.5 **	Uzbekistan
															East Asia and the Pacific
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Australia
99 *	99 *	99 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	0.7 *	50 *	0.2 **	55 **	0.1 **	57 **	Brunei Darussalam
83 *	88 *	79 *	87 *	88 *	86 *	91 **	91 **	92 **	520 *	63 *	398 *	54 *	253 **	47 **	Cambodia
99 *	99 *	99 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	2,308 *	64 *	863 *	54 *	515 **	50 **	China
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cook Islands
...	...	...	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	...	...	0.01 *	34 *	0.01 **	23 **	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Fiji
99 *	99 *	99 *	99	99	99	99 **	99 **	99 **	542 *	56 *	497	51	441 **	43 **	Indonesia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Japan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kiribati
78 *	83 *	75 *	84 *	89 *	79 *	90 **	93 **	87 **	234 *	59 *	199 *	66 *	153 **	64 **	Lao People's Democratic Republic
100 *	99 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	0.2 *	27 *	0.3 *	48 *	0.3 **	51 **	Macao, China
97 *	97 *	97 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	122 *	49 *	90 *	50 *	90 **	49 **	Malaysia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Marshall Islands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Micronesia (Federated States of)
95 *	96 *	93 *	96 **	96 **	96 **	96 **	96 **	96 **	556 *	61 *	377 **	53 **	345 **	50 **	Myanmar
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Nauru
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	New Zealand
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Niue
...	...	...	100 *	100 *	100 *	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Palau

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) (%)									ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)					
	1995–2004[1]			2005–2012[1]			Projected 2015			1995–2004[1]		2005–2012[1]		Projected 2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female
Papua New Guinea	57 *	63 *	51 *	63 **	65 **	60 **	64 **	66 **	63 **	1374 *	57 *	1,638 **	53 **	1,715 **	51 **
Philippines	93 *	92 *	94 *	95 *	95 *	96 *	96 **	96 **	97 **	3806 *	44 *	2,647 *	46 *	2,516 **	44 **
Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	99 **	99 **	98 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	2 **	59 **	1 **	57 **	1 **	56 **
Singapore	93 *	97 *	89 *	96 *	98 *	94 *	97 **	99 **	95 **	229 *	77 *	161 *	79 *	154 **	79 **
Solomon Islands	77 *	84 *	69 *	...	...	...	...	...	...	54 *	65 *	...	...	...	...
Thailand	93 *	95 *	91 *	96 *	96 *	96 *	97 **	97 **	97 **	3480 *	66 *	1,897 *	51 *	1,855 **	51 **
Timor-Leste	38 *	45 *	30 *	58 *	64 *	53 *	68 **	71 **	63 **	273 *	55 *	237 *	56 *	210 **	55 **
Tokelau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	0.6 *	47 *	0.6 *	48 *	0.4 **	47 **
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	90 *	94 *	87 *	94 *	96 *	91 *	95 **	96 **	93 **	5451 *	70 *	4,342 *	68 *	3,979 **	67 **
Latin America and the Caribbean															
Anguilla	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Antigua and Barbuda	99 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	98 **	99 **	...	...	...	0.6 *	30 *	0.7 **	29 **	...	...
Argentina	97 *	97 *	97 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	98 **	98 **	98 **	757 *	52 *	647 **	51 **	615 **	50 **
Aruba	97 *	98 *	97 *	97 *	97 *	97 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	2 *	57 *	3 *	55 *	2 **	53 **
Bahamas	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belize	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bermuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	87 *	93 *	81 *	94 *	97 *	92 *	96 **	98 **	94 **	696 *	74 *	377 *	74 *	316 **	75 **
Brazil	89 *	88 *	89 *	91 *	91 *	92 *	93 **	92 **	93 **	15095 *	50 *	13,003 *	50 *	11,611 **	49 **
British Virgin Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cayman Islands	...	...	...	99 *	99 *	99 *	...	...	...	...	...	0.5 *	45 *	...	...
Chile	96 *	96 *	96 *	99 *	99 *	98 *	98 **	98 **	97 **	497 *	52 *	191 *	53 *	355 **	53 **
Colombia	93 *	93 *	93 *	94 *	93 *	94 *	95 **	95 **	95 **	2105 *	52 *	2,164 *	51 *	1,925 **	51 **
Costa Rica	95 *	95 *	95 *	97 *	97 *	98 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	138 *	47 *	93 *	48 *	87 **	48 **
Cuba	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	18 *	52 *	15 **	52 **	15 **	52 **
Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominica	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	87 *	87 *	87 *	91 *	90 *	91 *	92 **	91 **	92 **	766 *	49 *	664 *	48 *	616 **	47 **
Ecuador	91 *	92 *	90 *	93 *	94 *	92 *	94 **	95 **	94 **	756 *	58 *	737 *	59 *	636 **	59 **
El Salvador	81 **	84 **	78 **	85 *	88 *	83 *	88 **	90 **	86 **	741 **	62 **	623 *	63 *	549 **	63 **
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	69 *	75 *	63 *	78 *	85 *	72 *	82 **	87 **	76 **	2047 *	62 *	1,937 *	67 *	1,810 **	68 **
Guyana	...	...	...	85 **,a	82 **,a	87 **,a	88 **	87 **	90 **	...	...	74 **,a	43 **,a	61 **	44 **
Haiti	59 *	63 *	55 *	49 **,a	53 **,a	45 **,a	61 **	64 **	57 **	2259 *	56 *	2,994 **,a	56 **,a	2,741 **	56 **
Honduras	80 *	80 *	80 *	85 *	86 *	85 *	88 **	88 **	89 **	740 *	50 *	746 *	52 *	637 **	50 **
Jamaica	80 *	74 *	86 *	87 **	83 **	92 **	89 **	84 **	93 **	341 *	36 *	250 **	32 **	235 **	31 **
Mexico	91 *	92 *	90 *	94 *	95 *	93 *	95 **	96 **	94 **	6662 *	61 *	4,953 *	62 *	4,414 **	62 **
Montserrat	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	77 *	77 *	77 *	78 *	78 *	78 *	83 **	82 **	83 **	722 *	51 *	747 *	51 *	732 **	50 **
Panama	92 *	93 *	91 *	94 *	95 *	93 *	95 **	96 **	94 **	168 *	54 *	153 *	55 *	143 **	56 **
Paraguay	...	...	...	94 *	95 *	93 *	96 **	96 **	95 **	...	...	263 *	57 *	213 **	56 **
Peru	88 *	93 *	82 *	94 *	97 *	91 *	94 **	97 **	92 **	2270 *	73 *	1,318 *	76 *	1,239 **	75 **
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	90 *	92 *	87 *	95 *	95 *	94 *	96 **	96 **	95 **	36 *	62 *	20 *	57 *	18 **	57 **
Trinidad and Tobago	98 **	99 **	98 **	99 **	99 **	98 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	17 **	69 **	13 **	66 **	11 **	64 **
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	97 *	96 *	97 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	98 **	98 **	99 **	78 *	44 *	42 *	44 *	41 **	43 **
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	93 *	93 *	93 *	96 *	96 *	95 *	96 **	96 **	96 **	1164 *	52 *	900 *	52 *	830 **	51 **
Netherlands Antilles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
North America and Western Europe															
Andorra	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Austria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belgium	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Canada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cyprus	97 *	99 *	95 *	99 *	99 *	98 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	24 *	78 *	12 *	72 *	9 **	71 **
Denmark	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Finland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
France	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Germany	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Greece	96 *	98 *	94 *	97 **	98 **	96 **	98 **	99 **	97 **	376 *	73 *	250 **	70 **	220 **	69 **
Iceland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ireland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Israel	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Italy	98 *	99 *	98 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	777 *	64 *	510 **	63 **	444 **	63 **
Luxembourg	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malta	88 *	86 *	89 *	92 *	91 *	94 *	94 **	93 **	96 **	37 *	45 *	26 *	43 *	21 **	38 **
Monaco	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 2

YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15–24) (%)									YOUTH ILLITERATES (15–24)						
1995–2004[1]			2005–2012[1]			Projected 2015			1995–2004[1]		2005–2012[1]		Projected 2015		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Country or territory
67 *	69 *	64 *	71 **	67 **	76 **	72 **	66 **	79 **	366 *	53 *	398 **	41 **	417 **	37 **	Papua New Guinea
95 *	94 *	97 *	98 *	97 *	98 *	98 **	97 **	99 **	812 *	34 *	406 *	33 *	411 **	25 **	Philippines
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Republic of Korea
99 **	99 **	99 **	100 **	99 **	100 **	100 **	99 **	100 **	0.2 **	43 **	0.2 **	38 **	0.2 **	36 **	Samoa
100 *	99 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	3 *	39 *	1 *	50 *	1 **	49 **	Singapore
85 *	90 *	80 *	...	...	...	...	...	...	13 *	65 *	...	...	...	...	Solomon Islands
98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	217 *	53 *	206 *	54 *	159 **	52 **	Thailand
...	...	...	80 *	80 *	79 *	82 **	82 **	83 **	...	...	47 *	52 *	50 **	48 **	Timor-Leste
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tokelau
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	100 *	99 **	99 **	100 **	0.1 *	45 *	0.1 *	38 *	0.1 **	39 **	Tonga
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tuvalu
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Vanuatu
95 *	96 *	94 *	97 *	97 *	97 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	836 *	57 *	522 *	54 *	307 **	51 **	Viet Nam
															Latin America and the Caribbean
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Anguilla
99 *	98 *	99 *	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.1 *	30 *	...	...	...	...	Antigua and Barbuda
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	71 *	40 *	52 **	37 **	47 **	37 **	Argentina
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	0.1 *	43 *	0.1 *	38 *	0.1 **	53 **	Aruba
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bahamas
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Barbados
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Belize
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bermuda
97 *	99 *	96 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	44 *	72 *	21 *	57 *	21 **	57 **	Bolivia, P. S.
97 *	96 *	98 *	99 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	1,122 *	33 *	463 *	35 *	368 **	35 **	Brazil
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	British Virgin Islands
...	...	...	99 *	99 *	99 *	...	...	...	...	...	0.07 *	62 *	...	...	Cayman Islands
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	98 **	99 **	26 *	40 *	33 *	49 *	37 **	35 **	Chile
98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	98 **	99 **	163 *	39 *	151 *	36 *	116 **	33 **	Colombia
98 *	97 *	98 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	18 *	40 *	8 *	41 *	6 **	41 **	Costa Rica
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	0.7 *	51 *	0.2 **	57 **	0.2 **	59 **	Cuba
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Curaçao
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Dominica
94 *	93 *	95 *	97 *	97 *	98 *	98 **	97 **	99 **	100 *	39 *	48 *	35 *	40 **	33 **	Dominican Republic
96 *	96 *	96 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	88 *	49 *	40 *	48 *	34 **	49 **	Ecuador
92 **	92 **	92 **	97 *	96 *	97 *	98 **	97 **	98 **	94 **	50 **	47 *	44 *	34 **	43 **	El Salvador
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Grenada
82 *	86 *	78 *	94 *	95 *	92 *	95 **	97 **	94 **	421 *	62 *	194 *	64 *	154 **	63 **	Guatemala
...	...	...	93 **,a	92 **,a	94 **,a	94 **	94 **	95 **	...	...	10 **,a	45 **,a	9 **	44 **	Guyana
82 *	83 *	81 *	72 **,a	74 **,a	70 **,a	82 **	83 **	82 **	354 *	53 *	558 **,a	54 **,a	384 **	51 **	Haiti
89 *	87 *	91 *	95 *	94 *	96 *	97 **	96 **	98 **	146 *	41 *	84 *	40 *	49 **	32 **	Honduras
92 *	87 *	96 *	96 **	93 **	99 **	97 **	94 **	99 **	38 *	23 *	21 **	17 **	19 **	16 **	Jamaica
98 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	504 *	50 *	250 *	43 *	220 **	41 **	Mexico
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Montserrat
86 *	84 *	89 *	87 *	85 *	89 *	92 **	90 **	94 **	155 *	41 *	154 *	43 *	108 **	38 **	Nicaragua
96 *	97 *	96 *	98 *	98 *	97 *	98 **	98 **	98 **	23 *	55 *	15 *	55 *	13 **	52 **	Panama
...	...	...	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	...	...	18 *	45 *	13 **	27 **	Paraguay
97 *	98 *	96 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	174 *	66 *	74 *	50 *	61 **	47 **	Peru
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Kitts and Nevis
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Lucia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint-Martin
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sint-Maarten
95 *	96 *	94 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	98 **	100 **	5 *	56 *	1 *	37 *	0.9 **	17 **	Suriname
99 **	99 **	99 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	1 **	49 **	0.8 **	48 **	0.7 **	48 **	Trinidad and Tobago
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turks and Caicos Islands
99 *	98 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	8 *	34 *	5 *	33 *	5 **	32 **	Uruguay
97 *	96 *	98 *	99 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	137 *	34 *	79 *	40 *	60 **	43 **	Venezuela, B. R.
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Netherlands Antilles
															North America and Western Europe
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Andorra
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Austria
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Belgium
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Canada
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	0.4 *	39 *	0.3 *	43 *	0.2 **	41 **	Cyprus
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Denmark
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Finland
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	France
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Germany
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	99 **	100 **	99 **	16 *	45 *	7 **	54 **	6 **	56 **	Greece
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Iceland
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Ireland
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Israel
100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	100 **	12 *	47 *	5 **	46 **	4 **	46 **	Italy
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Luxembourg
96 *	94 *	98 *	98 *	97 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	2 *	27 *	1 *	25 *	0.5 **	25 **	Malta
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Monaco

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) (%)									ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)					
	1995–2004[1]			2005–2012[1]			Projected 2015			1995–2004[1]		2005–2012[1]		Projected 2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female
Netherlands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Norway	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Portugal	...	...	...	94 *	96 *	93 *	96 **	97 **	94 **	...	...	495 *	68 *	392 **	68 **
San Marino	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Spain	...	...	...	98 *	99 *	97 *	98 **	99 **	97 **	...	...	833 *	67 *	758 **	68 **
Sweden	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Switzerland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United Kingdom	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United States	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South and West Asia															
Afghanistan	...	...	...	32 *	45 *	18 *	38 **	52 **	24 **	...	...	10,336 *	60 *	10,899 **	61 **
Bangladesh	47 *	54 *	41 *	59 **	62 **	55 **	62 **	65 **	58 **	44854 *	54 *	44,302 **	54 **	43,819 **	54 **
Bhutan	...	...	...	53 *	65 *	39 *	65 **	73 **	55 **	...	...	201 *	59 *	199 **	58 **
India	61 *	73 *	48 *	63 *	75 *	51 *	71 **	81 **	61 **	273107 *	65 *	285,523 *	65 *	264,222 **	67 **
Iran, Islamic Republic of	77 *	84 *	70 *	84 *	89 *	79 *	87 **	91 **	83 **	10694 *	63 *	9,150 *	66 *	7,936 **	67 **
Maldives	96 *	96 *	96 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	99 **	100 **	99 **	6 *	48 *	3 *	49 *	2 **	84 **
Nepal	49 *	63 *	35 *	57 **,a	71 **,a	47 **,a	64 **	76 **	53 **	7287 *	65 *	7,228 **,a	67 **,a	6,873 **	69 **
Pakistan	43 *	55 *	29 *	55 *	69 *	40 *	58 **	70 **	46 **	45289 *	60 *	49,227 *	65 *	53,154 **	63 **
Sri Lanka	91 *	92 *	89 *	91 *	93 *	90 *	93 **	94 **	92 **	1305 *	59 *	1,363 *	59 *	1,192 **	58 **
Sub-Saharan Africa															
Angola	67 *	83 *	54 *	71 **	82 **	59 **	71 **	82 **	61 **	2388 *	74 *	3,204 **	71 **	3,491 **	69 **
Benin	35 *	48 *	23 *	29 **,a	41 **,a	18 **,a	38 **	50 **	27 **	2634 *	61 *	3,320 **,a	59 **,a	3,874 **	60 **
Botswana	81 *	80 *	82 *	87 **	86 **	87 **	88 **	88 **	89 **	219 *	49 *	176 **	48 **	159 **	48 **
Burkina Faso	22 *	29 *	15 *	29 *	37 *	22 *	36 **	43 **	29 **	5265 *	57 *	5,425 *	57 *	6,302 **	56 **
Burundi	59 *	67 *	52 *	87 *	89 *	85 *	86 **	88 **	83 **	1376 *	60 *	641 *	59 *	856 **	60 **
Cabo Verde	80 **	86 **	74 **	85 *	90 *	80 *	88 **	92 **	83 **	59 **	67 **	50 *	68 *	45 **	68 **
Cameroon	68 *	79 *	59 *	71 *	78 *	65 *	75 **	81 **	69 **	2717 *	67 *	3,324 *	62 *	3,363 **	63 **
Central African Republic	51 *	67 *	35 *	37 **,a	51 **,a	24 **,a	37 **	51 **	24 **	1038 *	67 *	1,621 **,a	62 **,a	1,834 **	62 **
Chad	28 *	39 *	18 *	37 **	47 **	28 **	40 **	48 **	32 **	3499 *	58 *	4,014 **	58 **	4,241 **	57 **
Comoros	68 *	75 *	63 *	76 **	81 **	71 **	78 **	82 **	74 **	96 *	59 *	100 **	60 **	100 **	59 **
Congo	...	...	...	79 **,a	86 **,a	73 **,a	79 **	86 **	73 **	...	...	496 **,a	67 **,a	547 **	67 **
Côte d'Ivoire	49 *	61 *	39 *	41 **,a	52 **,a	30 **,a	43 **	53 **	33 **	4637 *	58 *	6,811 **,a	57 **,a	7,148 **	58 **
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	67 *	81 *	54 *	61 **,a	77 **,a	46 **,a	64 **	78 **	50 **	8442 *	71 *	11,939 **,a	71 **,a	14,295 **	70 **
Equatorial Guinea	88 *	95 *	82 *	95 **	97 **	92 **	95 **	97 **	93 **	34 *	77 *	25 **	74 **	23 **	71 **
Eritrea	53 *	65 *	40 *	70 **	80 **	61 **	74 **	82 **	65 **	1111 *	65 *	1,029 **	67 **	1,007 **	67 **
Ethiopia	36 *	50 *	23 *	39 *	49 *	29 *	49 **	57 **	41 **	25312 *	61 *	26,672 *	59 *	29,501 **	58 **
Gabon	84 **	88 **	79 **	82 **,a	85 **,a	80 **,a	83 **	85 **	81 **	132 **	65 **	177 **,a	57 **,a	182 **	56 **
Gambia	37 *	49 *	25 *	52 **	61 **	43 **	56 **	64 **	48 **	420 *	60 *	464 **	61 **	476 **	61 **
Ghana	58 *	66 *	50 *	71 *	78 *	65 *	77 **	82 **	71 **	4621 *	60 *	4,203 *	63 *	3,918 **	63 **
Guinea	30 *	43 *	18 *	25 *	37 *	12 *	30 **	38 **	23 **	3592 *	59 *	4,698 *	58 *	5,001 **	56 **
Guinea-Bissau	41 *	58 *	27 *	57 **	70 **	44 **	60 **	72 **	48 **	415 *	64 *	420 **	65 **	423 **	65 **
Kenya	82 *	87 *	78 *	72 **,a	78 **,a	67 **,a	78 **	81 **	75 **	3032 *	64 *	5,967 **,a	61 **,a	5,995 **	57 **
Lesotho	86 *	80 *	92 *	76 **,a	66 **,a	85 **,a	79 **	70 **	88 **	149 *	31 *	301 **,a	32 **,a	282 **	29 **
Liberia	43 **	61 **	26 **	43 **,a	61 **,a	27 **,a	48 **	62 **	33 **	1027 **	66 **	1,120 **,a	65 **,a	1,361 **	64 **
Madagascar	71 *	77 *	65 *	64 **,a	67 **,a	62 **,a	65 **	67 **	63 **	2501 *	60 *	4,093 **,a	55 **,a	4,993 **	53 **
Malawi	64 *	75 *	54 *	61 **,a	72 **,a	51 **,a	66 **	73 **	59 **	2087 *	66 *	3,124 **,a	64 **,a	3,268 **	61 **
Mali	24 *	33 *	16 *	34 *	43 *	25 *	39 **	48 **	29 **	4572 *	56 *	5,044 *	57 *	5,228 **	58 **
Mauritius	84 *	88 *	81 *	89 *	92 *	87 *	91 **	93 **	88 **	138 *	63 *	105 *	63 *	95 **	63 **
Mozambique	48 *	66 *	33 *	51 *	67 *	36 *	59 **	73 **	45 **	5698 *	69 *	6,243 *	68 *	6,140 **	69 **
Namibia	85 *	87 *	83 *	76 **,a	74 **,a	78 **,a	82 **	79 **	84 **	172 *	57 *	299 **,a	48 **,a	281 **	45 **
Niger	14 *	20 *	9 *	15 **,a	23 **,a	9 **,a	19 **	27 **	11 **	5,046 *	54 *	7,196 **,a	55 **,a	7,773 **	55 **
Nigeria	55 *	67 *	43 *	51 **,a	61 **,a	41 **,a	60 **	69 **	50 **	33560 *	63 *	41,216 **,a	60 **,a	41,262 **	61 **
Rwanda	65 *	71 *	60 *	66 **,a	71 **,a	62 **,a	71 **	73 **	68 **	1555 *	60 *	2,030 **,a	59 **,a	2,143 **	56 **
Sao Tome and Principe	85 *	92 *	78 *	70 **,a	80 **,a	60 **,a	75 **	82 **	68 **	12 *	75 *	30 **,a	68 **,a	30 **	65 **
Senegal	39 *	51 *	29 *	52 *	66 *	40 *	58 **	70 **	47 **	3462 *	61 *	3,550 *	66 *	3,592 **	66 **
Seychelles	92 *	91 *	92 *	92 **	91 **	92 **	...	...	...	5 *	48 *	6 **	46 **	...	...
Sierra Leone	35 *	47 *	24 *	44 **	56 **	34 **	48 **	59 **	38 **	1825 *	59 *	1,932 **	60 **	1,939 **	61 **
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	82 *	84 *	81 *	94 *	95 *	93 *	94 **	96 **	93 **	4776 *	56 *	2,316 *	62 *	2,168 **	62 **
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Swaziland	82 *	83 *	80 *	83 **,a	84 **,a	82 **,a	87 **	87 **	87 **	108 *	57 *	123 **,a	54 **,a	101 **	51 **
Togo	53 *	69 *	38 *	60 *	74 *	48 *	67 **	78 **	55 **	1275 *	68 *	1,476 *	68 *	1,402 **	68 **
Uganda	68 *	78 *	59 *	73 *	83 *	65 *	78 **	85 **	71 **	4131 *	66 *	4,589 *	67 *	4,517 **	66 **
United Republic of Tanzania	69 *	78 *	62 *	68 **,a	75 **,a	61 **,a	71 **	76 **	65 **	5990 *	63 *	7,924 **,a	62 **,a	8,501 **	59 **
Zambia	69 *	81 *	62 *	61 **,a	72 **,a	52 **,a	63 **	71 **	56 **	1,639 *	67 *	2456 **,a	63 **,a	3,051 **	61 **
Zimbabwe	...	...	...	84 **,a	88 **,a	80 **,a	87 **	89 **	85 **	...	...	1284 **,a	63 **,a	1,248 **	58 **

Table 2

YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15–24) (%)									YOUTH ILLITERATES (15–24)						
1995–2004[1]			2005–2012[1]			Projected 2015			1995–2004[1]		2005–2012[1]		Projected 2015		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Country or territory
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Netherlands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Norway
...	...	...	99 *	99 *	99 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	...	...	6 *	45 *	5 **	44 **	Portugal
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	San Marino
...	...	...	100 *	100 *	100 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	...	...	15 *	44 *	11 **	43 **	Spain
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sweden
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Switzerland
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	United Kingdom
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	United States
															South and West Asia
...	...	...	47 *	62 *	32 *	58 **	70 **	46 **	...	...	3,022 *	63 *	2,888 **	63 **	Afghanistan
64 *	67 *	60 *	80 **	78 **	82 **	83 **	81 **	86 **	10,211 *	54 *	6,237 **	45 **	5,305 **	42 **	Bangladesh
...	...	...	74 *	80 *	68 *	89 **	90 **	87 **	...	...	38 *	58 *	17 **	55 **	Bhutan
76 *	84 *	68 *	81 *	88 *	74 *	90 **	93 **	87 **	48,839 *	65 *	40,519 *	67 *	23,031 **	62 **	India[2]
93 *	96 *	91 *	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 **	99 **	98 **	1,180 *	67 *	292 *	58 *	209 **	55 **	Iran, Islamic Republic of
98 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	99 *	99 *	100 **	100 **	100 **	1 *	47 *	0.5 *	46 *	0.2 **	100 **	Maldives
70 *	81 *	60 *	82 **,a	89 **,a	77 **,a	87 **	91 **	83 **	1,367 *	69 *	913 **,a	70 **,a	767 **	67 **	Nepal
55 *	67 *	43 *	71 *	79 *	61 *	75 **	80 **	70 **	11,749 *	62 *	10,795 *	64 *	9,894 **	58 **	Pakistan
96 *	95 *	96 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	98 **	99 **	159 *	43 *	61 *	38 *	39 **	34 **	Sri Lanka[2]
															Sub-Saharan Africa
72 *	84 *	63 *	73 **	80 **	66 **	73 **	79 **	67 **	736 *	70 *	1,087 **	63 **	1,212 **	61 **	Angola
45 *	59 *	33 *	42 **,a	55 **,a	31 **,a	53 **	63 **	43 **	773 *	62 *	945 **,a	61 **,a	1,032 **	61 **	Benin
94 *	92 *	96 *	96 **	94 **	98 **	98 **	96 **	100 **	26 *	35 *	18 **	26 **	10 **	10 **	Botswana
31 *	38 *	25 *	39 *	47 *	33 *	45 **	48 **	43 **	1,754 *	54 *	1,715 *	55 *	1,969 **	51 **	Burkina Faso
73 *	77 *	70 *	89 *	90 *	88 *	88 **	87 **	88 **	356 *	56 *	214 *	55 *	259 **	50 **	Burundi
97 **	96 **	98 **	98 *	98 *	98 *	98 **	98 **	99 **	3 **	34 **	2 *	42 *	2 **	43 **	Cabo Verde
83 *	88 *	78 *	81 *	85 *	76 *	84 **	87 **	80 **	533 *	65 *	814 *	62 *	768 **	60 **	Cameroon
61 *	73 *	49 *	36 **,a	49 **,a	27 **,a	36 **	49 **	27 **	288 *	65 *	557 **,a	59 **,a	611 **	59 **	Central African Republic
42 *	54 *	31 *	49 **	54 **	44 **	53 **	55 **	50 **	1,074 *	60 *	1,267 **	55 **	1,301 **	52 **	Chad
80 *	84 *	78 *	86 **	86 **	87 **	88 **	87 **	88 **	22 *	58 *	18 **	49 **	18 **	47 **	Comoros
...	...	...	81 **,a	86 **,a	77 **,a	81 **	86 **	77 **	...	...	148 **,a	62 **,a	163 **	62 **	Congo
61 *	71 *	52 *	48 **,a	58 **,a	39 **,a	50 **	60 **	41 **	1,234 *	62 *	2,023 **,a	59 **,a	2,130 **	59 **	Côte d'Ivoire
70 *	78 *	63 *	66 **	79 **	53 **	69 **	80 **	57 **	2,673 *	63 *	3,751 **	69 **	4,464 **	68 **	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
97 *	98 *	97 *	98 **	98 **	99 **	98 **	98 **	99 **	2 *	58 *	3 **	39 **	3 **	34 **	Equatorial Guinea
78 *	86 *	69 *	91 **	93 **	89 **	93 **	95 **	92 **	212 *	69 *	112 **	62 **	87 **	59 **	Eritrea
50 *	62 *	38 *	55 *	63 *	47 *	69 **	71 **	68 **	7,177 *	62 *	7,119 *	59 *	6,534 **	52 **	Ethiopia
97 **	98 **	96 **	89 **,a	87 **,a	89 **,a	89 **	88 **	91 **	24 **	50 **	37 **,a	45 **,a	37 **	43 **	Gabon
53 *	64 *	41 *	69 **	73 **	66 **	73 **	76 **	71 **	121 *	64 *	107 **	57 **	104 **	55 **	Gambia
71 *	76 *	65 *	86 *	88 *	83 *	91 **	91 **	90 **	1,114 *	58 *	698 *	59 *	500 **	53 **	Ghana
47 *	59 *	34 *	31 *	38 *	22 *	45 **	43 **	47 **	941 *	62 *	1,514 *	55 *	1,350 **	47 **	Guinea
59 *	75 *	46 *	74 **	80 **	69 **	77 **	81 **	74 **	99 *	68 *	85 **	61 **	80 **	58 **	Guinea-Bissau
93 *	93 *	92 *	82 **,a	83 **,a	82 **,a	86 **	85 **	87 **	505 *	55 *	1,430 **,a	52 **,a	1,274 **	47 **	Kenya
91 *	85 *	97 *	83 **,a	74 **,a	92 **,a	85 **	77 **	93 **	36 *	14 *	79 **,a	23 **,a	73 **	22 **	Lesotho
49 **	63 **	35 **	49 **,a	63 **,a	37 **,a	54 **	65 **	44 **	321 **	63 **	338 **,a	63 **,a	395 **	61 **	Liberia
70 *	73 *	68 *	65 **,a	66 **,a	64 **,a	65 **	65 **	65 **	884 *	54 *	1,419 **,a	51 **,a	1,739 **	51 **	Madagascar
76 *	82 *	71 *	72 **,a	74 **,a	70 **,a	75 **	75 **	75 **	500 *	62 *	852 **,a	54 **,a	893 **	49 **	Malawi
31 *	37 *	24 *	47 *	56 *	39 *	54 **	61 **	46 **	1,568 *	54 *	1,437 *	57 *	1,423 **	57 **	Mali
95 *	94 *	95 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	98 **	99 **	12 *	42 *	4 *	38 *	2 **	36 **	Mauritius
62 *	74 *	50 *	67 *	80 *	57 *	77 **	84 **	70 **	1,466 *	66 *	1,436 *	68 *	1,244 **	65 **	Mozambique
92 *	91 *	93 *	87 **,a	83 **,a	91 **,a	90 **	86 **	93 **	30 *	43 *	57 **,a	36 **,a	52 **	33 **	Namibia
20 *	26 *	14 *	24 **,a	35 **,a	15 **,a	27 **	36 **	17 **	1,573 *	57 *	2,277 **,a	58 **,a	2,546 **	58 **	Niger
69 *	78 *	61 *	66 **	76 **	58 **	73 **	80 **	65 **	8,070 *	63 *	9,675 **	62 **	9,435 **	62 **	Nigeria
78 *	79 *	77 *	77 **	77 **	78 **	80 **	78 **	82 **	405 *	53 *	483 **	50 **	500 **	46 **	Rwanda
95 *	96 *	95 *	80 **	83 **	77 **	83 **	84 **	82 **	2 *	56 *	7 **	57 **	6 **	52 **	Sao Tome and Principe
49 *	58 *	41 *	66 *	74 *	59 *	73 **	78 **	68 **	1,091 *	59 *	910 *	61 *	800 **	59 **	Senegal
99 *	99 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	...	...	...	0.1 *	33 *	0.1 **	32 **	...	...	Seychelles
48 *	60 *	37 *	63 **	72 **	54 **	68 **	76 **	59 **	521 *	61 *	435 **	62 **	405 **	63 **	Sierra Leone
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Somalia
94 *	93 *	94 *	99 *	98 *	99 *	99 **	99 **	99 **	523 *	47 *	111 *	33 *	93 **	31 **	South Africa
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	South Sudan
92 *	91 *	93 *	94 **,a	92 **,a	95 **,a	95 **	94 **	96 **	19 *	44 *	19 **,a	40 **,a	16 **	38 **	Swaziland
74 *	84 *	64 *	80 *	87 *	73 *	85 **	89 **	81 **	269 *	70 *	265 *	68 *	210 **	63 **	Togo
81 *	86 *	76 *	87 *	90 *	85 *	91 **	90 **	91 **	967 *	63 *	850 *	58 *	756 **	49 **	Uganda
78 *	81 *	76 *	75 **,a	76 **,a	73 **,a	76 **	77 **	76 **	1,561 *	55 *	2,253 **,a	54 **,a	2,385 **	51 **	United Republic of Tanzania
69 *	78 *	66 *	64 **,a	70 **,a	58 **,a	66 **	69 **	62 **	613 *	60 *	857 **,a	58 **,a	1,052 **	56 **	Zambia
...	...	...	91 **,a	90 **,a	92 **,a	92 **	90 **	93 **	...	...	288 **,a	43 **,a	276 **	39 **	Zimbabwe

Table 2 (continued)

Country or territory	ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over) (%)									ADULT ILLITERATES (15 and over)					
	1995–2004[1]			2005–2012[1]			Projected 2015			1995–2004[1]		2005–2012[1]		Projected 2015	
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female
	Weighted average									Sum	% F	Sum	% F	Sum	% F
World	82	87	77	84	89	80	86	90	82	786,523	64	780,682	64	751,413	64
Countries in transition	99	100	99	100	100	99	100	100	100	2,061	77	1,144	69	978	65
Developed countries	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Developing countries	77	83	70	80	86	75	83	88	78	775,715	64	771,717	64	742,803	64
Arab States	67	77	56	78	85	69	80	87	72	57,936	65	51,774	66	51,430	67
Central and Eastern Europe	97	99	96	99	99	98	99	99	98	8,574	80	4,288	78	4,179	78
Central Asia	99	99	99	100	100	99	100	100	100	482	72	262	64	220	61
East Asia and the Pacific	92	95	88	95	97	93	96	98	94	127,020	70	88,067	70	73,850	70
East Asia	92	95	88	95	97	93	96	98	94	125,443	71	86,212	71	72,008	70
Pacific	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean	90	91	89	92	93	92	93	94	93	38,488	55	33,030	55	30,202	55
Caribbean	72	74	71	69	71	68	73	74	72	2,826	54	3,457	54	3,420	54
Latin America	90	91	89	93	94	93	94	94	94	35,662	56	29,573	55	26,782	55
North America and Western Europe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South and West Asia	59	70	47	63	74	52	69	79	60	390,219	63	409,909	64	388,295	65
Sub-Saharan Africa	57	68	48	59	68	50	63	71	55	156,736	62	186,902	61	196,997	61
Countries with low income	58	66	50	61	68	54	65	71	59	164,897	60	188,339	60	196,695	59
Countries with middle income	80	86	73	83	88	78	86	90	81	606,315	65	579,928	65	541,834	66
Lower middle	68	77	58	71	79	62	75	83	68	445,132	64	465,197	64	444,240	65
Upper middle	90	94	86	94	96	92	95	97	93	161,184	68	114,731	67	97,594	67
Countries with high income	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Source: UIS database.

Note A: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

Note B: For countries indicated with (*), national observed literacy data are used. For all others, UIS literacy estimates are used (**). The estimates were generated using the UIS Global Age-specific Literacy Projections model. Those in the most recent period are for 2012 and are based on the most recent observed data available for each country.

Note C: The population used to generate the number of illiterates is from the United Nations Population Division estimates, revision 2012 (United Nations, 2013). It is based on the median variant. For countries with national observed literacy data, the population corresponding to the year of the census or survey was used. For countries with UIS estimates, populations used are for 2004 and 2012.

1. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified. See the introduction to the statistical tables and the table of metadata on literacy statistics for a broader explanation of national literacy definitions, assessment methods, and sources and years of data.

(a) Literacy data are based on direct reading tests in national household surveys.

(*) For country level data: national estimate.

(**) For country level data: UIS estimate/projection; for regional and other country-grouping sums and weighted averages: partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 33% and 60% of population for the region or other country grouping)

(...) No data available.

Table 2

YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15–24) (%)									YOUTH ILLITERATES (15–24)						
1995–2004[1]			2005–2012[1]			Projected 2015			1995–2004[1]		2005–2012[1]		Projected 2015		
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Total (000)	% Female	Country or territory
Weighted average									Sum	% F	Sum	% F	Sum	% F	
87	91	84	89	92	87	91	93	90	138,942	62	125,591	61	103,194	57	World
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	129	43	122	42	108	42	Countries in transition
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Developed countries
85	89	81	88	91	85	90	92	88	138,274	62	125,034	61	102,674	57	Developing countries
83	89	77	90	93	86	91	94	89	9,620	65	6,938	64	5,937	62	Arab States
99	99	98	100	100	99	100	100	99	780	68	289	60	236	59	Central and Eastern Europe
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	32	39	28	34	24	33	Central Asia
98	98	98	99	99	99	99	99	99	6,716	57	4,270	51	3,272	45	East Asia and the Pacific
98	98	98	99	99	99	99	99	99	6,314	57	3,835	52	2,831	46	East Asia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Pacific
96	96	97	98	98	98	98	98	99	3,751	45	2,345	45	1,841	43	Latin America and the Caribbean
87	87	87	81	82	81	87	87	87	423	50	609	52	453	49	Caribbean
97	96	97	98	98	99	99	98	99	3,328	44	1,736	43	1,388	41	Latin America
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	North America and Western Europe
74	81	66	80	86	74	87	90	85	76,065	63	62,119	64	42,150	59	South and West Asia
68	75	62	69	75	63	73	77	69	41,683	61	49,331	59	49,477	57	Sub-Saharan Africa
68	74	63	72	76	68	76	78	74	43,004	59	44,292	57	42,928	54	Countries with low income
88	91	85	91	94	88	93	95	91	95,129	63	80,694	63	59,586	60	Countries with middle income
79	85	73	83	89	78	89	91	86	85,149	64	74,482	64	54,360	60	Lower middle
97	98	97	99	99	98	99	99	99	9,980	58	6,212	53	5,226	51	Upper middle
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Countries with high income

Table 3A

Early childhood care and education (ECCE): care

	CHILD SURVIVAL[1]				CHILD WELL-BEING[2]						
	Infant mortality rate (‰)		Under-5 mortality rate (‰)		Infants with low birth weight (%)	% of children under age 5 suffering from moderate or severe stunting	% of 1-year-old children immunized against				
							Tuberculosis	Diphtheria, Pertussis, Tetanus	Polio	Measles	Hepatitis B
							Corresponding vaccines:				
							BCG	DPT3	Polio3	Measles	HepB3
Country or territory	2000	2015	2000	2015	2008–2012[3]	2008–2012[3]	2012	2012	2012	2012	2012
Arab States											
Algeria	38	25	46	30	6	15	99	95	95	95	95
Bahrain	11	6	13	9	...	...	...	99	99	99	99
Djibouti	70	52	109	78	10	31	87	81	81	83	81
Egypt	32	17	42	22	13	29	95	93	93	93	93
Iraq	35	26	43	30	13	23	90	69	70	69	77
Jordan	24	16	28	18	13	8	96	98	98	98	98
Kuwait	10	8	14	11	...	4	97	98	98	99	98
Lebanon	16	8	19	9	12	...	...	82	77	80	84
Libya	23	13	27	15	...	21	99	98	98	98	98
Mauritania	78	69	118	104	35	22	95	80	80	75	80
Morocco	41	24	51	29	15	15	99	99	99	99	99
Oman	18	7	22	8	10	10	99	98	99	99	97
Palestine	26	18	31	22	9	11	98	97	98	98	98
Qatar	11	6	13	7	...	...	97	92	92	97	92
Saudi Arabia	20	10	24	11	...	...	99	98	98	98	98
Sudan	70	53	112	83	...	35	92	92	92	85	92
Syrian Arab Republic	19	16	23	19	10	28	82	45	52	61	43
Tunisia	26	14	29	15	7	10	99	97	97	96	97
United Arab Emirates	11	5	12	6	6	...	94	94	94	94	94
Yemen	71	54	99	73	...	47	64	82	89	71	82
Sudan (pre-secession)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe											
Albania	23	13	28	15	4	19	99	99	99	99	99
Belarus	12	5	15	7	4	4	98	98	98	98	97
Bosnia and Herzegovina	10	7	12	8	3	9	96	92	87	94	92
Bulgaria	14	9	18	10	9	...	97	95	95	94	95
Croatia	7	5	8	6	5	...	99	96	96	95	98
Czech Republic	5	2	6	3	7	...	...	99	99	98	99
Estonia	10	4	12	5	4	...	97	94	94	94	94
Hungary	8	5	10	6	9	...	99	99	99	99	...
Latvia	13	7	16	8	5	...	97	92	92	90	91
Lithuania	9	5	11	6	4	...	98	93	93	93	93
Montenegro	14	9	15	10	4	7	95	94	94	90	90
Poland	8	5	10	6	6	...	93	99	96	98	98
Republic of Moldova	22	13	27	16	6	10	99	92	92	91	94
Romania	19	10	22	12	8	13	99	89	92	94	96
Russian Federation	19	9	23	12	6	...	96	97	98	98	97
Serbia	15	10	18	12	6	7	98	91	93	87	97
Slovakia	8	5	10	6	7	...	90	99	99	99	99
Slovenia	4	3	5	3	...	...	...	96	96	95	...
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	15	9	16	10	6	5	94	96	97	97	96
Turkey	30	10	41	15	11	12	96	97	97	98	96
Ukraine	16	11	20	14	4	...	95	76	74	79	46
Central Asia											
Armenia	31	18	35	20	8	19	96	95	96	97	95
Azerbaijan	56	38	72	45	10	25	82	75	78	66	46
Georgia	33	18	36	21	4	11	95	92	93	93	92
Kazakhstan	38	24	46	29	4	13	95	99	98	96	95
Kyrgyzstan	44	32	53	40	5	18	98	96	94	98	96
Mongolia	47	24	59	29	5	15	99	99	99	99	99
Tajikistan	71	55	93	70	10	26	97	94	96	94	94
Turkmenistan	56	45	71	57	4	19	99	97	98	99	98
Uzbekistan	52	42	63	51	5	19	99	99	99	99	99
East Asia and the Pacific											
Australia	5	4	6	4	7	...	...	92	92	94	92
Brunei Darussalam	8	4	9	4	...	...	99	90	90	99	99
Cambodia	77	37	100	46	11	40	99	95	95	93	95
China	24	12	29	15	3	10	99	99	99	99	99
Cook Islands	...	...	...	...	3	...	98	98	98	97	98
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	44	20	60	25	6	28	98	96	99	99	96
Fiji	20	15	26	19	10	...	99	99	99	99	99
Indonesia	38	24	47	29	9	36	81	64	69	80	64
Japan	3	2	5	3	8	...	95	98	99	96	...
Kiribati	51	31	67	38	...	...	95	94	92	91	94
Lao People's Democratic Republic	65	32	86	39	15	44	81	79	78	72	79
Macao, China	7	4	10	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	8	4	10	5	11	17	99	99	99	95	98
Marshall Islands	...	...	...	...	18	...	97	80	80	78	80
Micronesia (Federated States of)	32	22	40	26	18	...	78	81	81	91	82
Myanmar	62	47	83	61	9	35	87	85	87	84	38
Nauru	...	...	...	...	27	24	99	79	79	96	79
New Zealand	6	4	7	5	6	...	...	93	93	92	93
Niue	...	...	...	...	0	...	99	98	98	99	98
Palau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	89	89	91	89

Table 3A (continued)

Table 3A

	CHILD SURVIVAL[1]				CHILD WELL-BEING[2]						
							% of 1-year-old children immunized against				
	Infant mortality rate (‰)		Under-5 mortality rate (‰)		Infants with low birth weight (%)	% of children under age 5 suffering from moderate or severe stunting	Tuberculosis	Diphtheria, Pertussis, Tetanus	Polio	Measles	Hepatitis B
							Corresponding vaccines:				
							BCG	DPT3	Polio3	Measles	HepB3
Country or territory	2000	2015	2000	2015	2008–2012[3]	2008–2012[3]	2012	2012	2012	2012	2012
Papua New Guinea	59	46	79	60	11	44	84	63	70	67	63
Philippines	28	20	37	26	21	32	88	86	86	85	70
Republic of Korea	6	3	7	4	4	...	99	99	99	99	99
Samoa	28	18	34	22	10	...	96	92	95	85	99
Singapore	3	2	4	2	8	...	99	96	96	95	96
Solomon Islands	58	36	78	44	12	33	83	90	86	85	90
Thailand	15	9	18	11	7	16	99	99	99	98	98
Timor-Leste	73	35	101	43	12	58	71	67	66	62	67
Tokelau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	24	20	29	23	3	...	95	95	95	95	95
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	6	10	99	97	97	98	97
Vanuatu	38	22	48	26	10	26	81	68	67	52	59
Viet Nam	23	13	28	19	5	23	98	97	97	96	97
Latin America and the Caribbean											
Anguilla	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Antigua and Barbuda	13	8	17	10	5	...	...	98	97	98	98
Argentina	18	11	21	12	7	...	99	91	90	94	91
Aruba	18	14	21	17	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	13	9	19	13	11	...	...	98	99	91	96
Barbados	15	9	18	11	12	...	...	87	88	90	88
Belize	20	12	24	14	11	19	98	98	98	96	98
Bermuda	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	61	36	78	47	6	27	87	80	79	84	80
Brazil	30	18	37	22	8	7	99	94	97	99	97
British Virgin Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cayman Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chile	10	5	12	7	6	...	92	90	90	90	90
Colombia	22	15	31	21	6	13	89	92	91	94	92
Costa Rica	11	8	13	9	7	6	78	91	90	90	91
Cuba	7	4	9	5	5	...	99	96	98	99	96
Curaçao	15	10	18	12	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominica	...	...	...	...	10	...	98	97	99	99	97
Dominican Republic	38	24	42	26	11	10	99	85	85	79	74
Ecuador	29	15	35	19	8	...	99	99	99	94	98
El Salvador	25	16	33	20	9	19	90	92	92	93	92
Grenada	13	8	17	12	9	...	...	97	98	94	97
Guatemala	42	21	53	28	11	48	94	96	94	93	96
Guyana	38	27	47	33	14	18	98	97	97	99	97
Haiti	62	38	99	63	23	22	75	60	60	58	...
Honduras	33	21	47	30	10	23	90	88	88	93	88
Jamaica	27	20	33	23	12	5	96	99	99	93	99
Mexico	24	13	29	16	9	14	99	99	99	99	99
Montserrat	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	29	15	37	18	8	22	98	98	99	99	98
Panama	22	14	28	17	10	19	99	85	87	98	85
Paraguay	37	29	45	35	6	18	93	87	83	91	87
Peru	33	15	48	23	8	18	95	95	94	94	95
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	...	...	8	...	95	97	98	95	98
Saint Lucia	15	10	20	13	11	...	99	98	98	99	98
Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	21	16	27	21	8	...	97	96	96	94	96
Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	26	16	34	21	14	9	...	84	84	73	84
Trinidad and Tobago	29	23	36	29	10	...	...	92	91	85	92
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	15	11	18	13	9	15	99	95	95	96	95
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	20	14	25	18	8	16	96	81	73	87	81
Netherlands Antilles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
North America and Western Europe											
Andorra	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	99	99	98	97
Austria	5	3	6	4	7	...	...	83	83	76	83
Belgium	5	3	6	4	...	...	...	99	99	96	98
Canada	5	4	6	5	6	...	...	95	99	98	70
Cyprus	6	3	8	4	...	...	...	99	99	86	96
Denmark	5	3	6	4	5	...	...	94	94	90	...
Finland	4	2	4	3	4	...	...	99	99	97	...
France	4	3	5	4	...	...	...	99	99	89	74
Germany	4	3	5	3	...	...	...	93	95	97	86
Greece	6	3	7	4	...	...	...	99	99	99	98
Iceland	3	2	4	3	4	...	...	89	89	90	...
Ireland	6	3	7	3	...	...	42	95	95	92	95
Israel	6	3	7	4	8	...	...	94	95	96	97
Italy	5	3	6	3	...	...	...	97	97	90	97
Luxembourg	5	2	6	3	8	...	...	99	99	96	95
Malta	8	4	10	6	6	...	...	99	99	93	93
Monaco	...	...	...	...	...	...	89	99	99	99	99

Table 3A (continued)

	CHILD SURVIVAL[1]				CHILD WELL-BEING[2]						
	Infant mortality rate (‰)		Under-5 mortality rate (‰)		Infants with low birth weight (%)	% of children under age 5 suffering from moderate or severe stunting	% of 1-year-old children immunized against				
							Tuberculosis	Diphtheria, Pertussis, Tetanus	Polio	Measles	Hepatitis B
							Corresponding vaccines:				
							BCG	DPT3	Polio3	Measles	HepB3
Country or territory	2000	2015	2000	2015	2008–2012[3]	2008–2012[3]	2012	2012	2012	2012	2012
Netherlands	5	3	6	4	...	...	...	97	97	96	...
Norway	4	2	5	3	5	...	...	95	95	94	...
Portugal	5	3	7	3	8	...	99	98	98	97	98
San Marino	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	96	96	87	96
Spain	4	3	6	4	...	...	...	97	97	97	96
Sweden	3	2	4	3	...	...	24	98	98	97	...
Switzerland	5	3	6	4	...	...	...	95	96	92	...
United Kingdom	6	4	7	5	8	...	...	97	97	93	...
United States	7	6	8	7	8	3	...	95	93	92	92
South and West Asia											
Afghanistan	95	63	137	85	...	...	75	71	71	68	71
Bangladesh	62	28	85	36	22	41	95	96	96	96	96
Bhutan	56	27	89	42	10	34	95	97	97	95	97
India	63	41	85	52	28	48	87	72	70	74	70
Iran, Islamic Republic of	30	14	42	19	7	7	99	99	99	98	98
Maldives	41	9	53	11	11	19	99	99	99	98	99
Nepal	61	32	83	38	18	40	96	90	90	86	90
Pakistan	79	62	97	68	32	44	87	81	75	83	81
Sri Lanka	15	8	18	10	17	17	99	99	99	99	99
Sub-Saharan Africa											
Angola	127	92	213	148	12	29	87	91	88	97	91
Benin	87	66	140	105	15	45	94	85	85	72	85
Botswana	56	29	74	37	13	31	99	96	99	94	96
Burkina Faso	95	65	182	128	14	33	96	90	90	87	90
Burundi	102	84	166	133	13	58	98	96	94	93	96
Cabo Verde	32	15	39	18	6	...	99	90	90	96	90
Cameroon	88	69	139	108	11	32	81	85	85	82	85
Central African Republic	114	88	185	141	14	41	74	47	47	49	47
Chad	112	91	185	147	20	39	63	45	56	64	45
Comoros	81	65	113	88	25	30	76	86	85	85	86
Congo	80	60	127	91	13	24	92	85	85	80	85
Côte d'Ivoire	97	70	139	101	17	28	99	94	94	85	94
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	125	105	211	174	10	43	78	72	76	73	72
Equatorial Guinea	114	83	189	132	13	...	73	33	39	51	...
Eritrea	67	37	92	49	14	...	99	99	99	99	99
Ethiopia	88	46	139	67	20	44	80	61	70	66	61
Gabon	58	41	88	61	14	16	98	82	80	71	82
Gambia	67	53	130	97	10	23	98	98	98	95	98
Ghana	64	49	99	75	11	23	98	92	91	88	92
Guinea	103	70	174	121	12	34	84	59	57	58	59
Guinea-Bissau	111	90	186	150	11	32	94	80	78	69	76
Kenya	72	49	109	72	8	35	84	83	82	93	83
Lesotho	83	55	113	74	11	39	95	83	91	85	83
Liberia	113	56	166	79	14	42	85	77	77	80	77
Madagascar	67	33	101	48	16	50	78	86	86	69	86
Malawi	114	82	172	111	14	47	99	96	95	90	96
Mali	113	81	215	154	18	28	89	74	74	59	74
Mauritius	17	11	19	12	14	...	99	98	98	99	98
Mozambique	107	69	172	107	17	43	91	76	73	82	76
Namibia	58	31	76	38	16	29	90	84	84	76	84
Niger	92	49	216	116	27	44	97	74	78	73	74
Nigeria	112	70	187	113	15	36	60	41	59	42	41
Rwanda	96	46	158	67	7	44	99	98	98	97	98
Sao Tome and Principe	53	42	80	61	10	29	99	96	96	92	96
Senegal	65	47	129	72	19	16	97	92	89	84	92
Seychelles	11	7	14	9	...	...	99	98	98	98	99
Sierra Leone	144	112	238	179	10	44	97	84	81	80	84
Somalia	100	75	166	124	...	42	37	42	47	46	...
South Africa	56	35	74	46	...	33	84	68	69	79	73
South Sudan	107	72	177	113	...	31	77	59	64	62	...
Swaziland	85	61	123	85	9	31	98	95	92	88	95
Togo	79	63	128	98	11	30	97	84	84	72	84
Uganda	88	53	138	80	12	33	82	78	82	82	78
United Republic of Tanzania	85	45	133	66	8	42	99	92	90	97	92
Zambia	102	60	160	93	11	45	83	78	83	83	78
Zimbabwe	71	34	101	48	11	32	99	89	89	90	89

Table 3A (continued)

Table 3A

	CHILD SURVIVAL[1]				CHILD WELL-BEING[2]						
	Infant mortality rate (‰)		Under-5 mortality rate (‰)		Infants with low birth weight (%)	% of children under age 5 suffering from moderate or severe stunting	% of 1-year-old children immunized against				
							Tuberculosis	Diphtheria, Pertussis, Tetanus	Polio	Measles	Hepatitis B
							Corresponding vaccines:				
							BCG	DPT3	Polio3	Measles	HepB3
Country or territory	**2000**	**2015**	**2000**	**2015**	**2008–2012[3]**	**2008–2012[3]**	**2012**	**2012**	**2012**	**2012**	**2012**
	Weighted average				**Median**		**Median**				
World	52	35	75	49	10	25	96	94	94	93	94
Countries in transition	31	22	38	28	5	13	96	95	96	95	95
Developed countries	6	5	7	6	6	...	...	97	97	95	96
Developing countries	57	46	82	67	11	29	96	92	91	92	92
Arab States	41	28	56	37	10	21	96	94	94	96	94
Central and Eastern Europe	20	9	25	12	6	...	97	96	96	95	96
Central Asia	51	38	63	46	5	19	97	96	96	97	95
East Asia and the Pacific	27	15	34	19	9	...	98	93	93	94	94
East Asia	27	15	34	19	8	32	98	96	96	95	96
Pacific	27	20	35	25	10	...	96	92	92	92	92
Latin America and the Caribbean	28	16	36	21	9	...	97	95	94	94	96
Caribbean	51	32	78	50	11	...	...	97	98	94	97
Latin America	27	16	34	20	8	18	96	92	91	94	92
North America and Western Europe	6	4	7	5	...	...	...	97	97	95	96
South and West Asia	64	41	86	51	17	37	95	96	96	95	96
Sub-Saharan Africa	97	65	158	103	13	33	94	84	85	82	85
Countries with low income	86	57	137	89	13	39	94	84	84	82	85
Countries with middle income	49	33	68	44	10	19	97	94	93	94	94
Lower middle	63	43	88	58	10	28	95	90	90	85	90
Upper middle	29	17	37	22	8	14	99	96	97	96	96
Countries with high income	8	5	10	6	7	...	...	97	97	95	96

Note: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

1. The indicators on child survival are from the United Nations Population Division estimates, revision 2012 (United Nations, 2013). They are based on the median variant.

2. UNICEF (2014); WHO Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition (2014).

3. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified.

(...) No data available.

Table 3B

Early childhood care and education (ECCE): education

	Country or territory	Age Group	ENROLMENT IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION				Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment		GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)							
			School year ending in				School year ending in		School year ending in							
			1999		2012		1999	2012	1999				2012			
		2012	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F			Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
	Arab States															
1	Algeria	5-5	36	49	490 z	49 z	.	14 z	2	2	2	1.00	79 z	78 z	79 z	1.01 z
2	Bahrain	3-5	14	48	28	49	100	100	33	35	32	0.92	50	50	50	1.01
3	Djibouti	4-5	0.2	60	2	50	100	57	0.4	0.3	0.5	1.52	4	4	4	1.02
4	Egypt	4-5	328	48	939	48	54	...	11	11	11	0.95	27	28	27	0.95
5	Iraq	4-5	68	48	...	...	.	...	5	5	5	1.00	...	...	...	...
6	Jordan	4-5	74	46	110	48	100	83	29	31	28	0.92	34	35	33	0.96
7	Kuwait[1]	4-5	57	49	82	49	24	46	94	93	95	1.03	...	...	...	...
8	Lebanon	3-5	143 **	48 **	159	48	78 **	81	76 **	77 **	75 **	0.98 **	91	93	89	0.96
9	Libya	4-5	10	48 **	...	...	.	...	5	5 **	4 **	0.98 **	...	...	...	...
10	Mauritania	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
11	Morocco	4-5	805	34	**685**	**43**	100	**91**	60	78	41	0.53	**59**	**65**	**52**	**0.79**
12	Oman	4-5	...	...	57	49	...	71	...	...	...	...	55	55	55	1.00
13	Palestine	4-5	77	48	97	49	100	100	35	36	35	0.96	42	42	42	0.99
14	Qatar	3-5	8	48	41	48	100	85	27	27	26	0.96	73	72	75	1.03
15	Saudi Arabia	3-5	...	...	**246**	**61**	...	**45**	...	...	...	...	**13**	**10**	**17**	**1.61**
16	Sudan	4-5	***335***	***50***	750 z	50 z	...	...	***19***	***19***	***19***	***1.02***	35 z	34 z	36 z	1.05 z
17	Syrian Arab Republic	3-5	108	46	168	48	67	70	8	9	8	0.90	11	11	10	0.95
18	Tunisia	3-5	78	47	...	...	88	...	13	14	13	0.94	...	...	...	...
19	United Arab Emirates	4-5	64	48	135	48	68	79	65	65	64	0.98	71	71	72	1.02
20	Yemen	3-5	12	45	30 z	46 z	37	45 z	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.86	2 z	2 z	1 z	0.88 z
21	Sudan (pre-secession)	4-5	366	...	...	...	90 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Central and Eastern Europe															
22	Albania	3-5	82	50	80	47	...	7	41	40	42	1.05	69	69	69	1.01
23	Belarus	3-5	278	47	303	48	-	...	85	88	81	0.92	103	104	101	0.97
24	Bosnia and Herzegovina	3-5	...	...	17	47	...	15	...	...	...	...	16	17	16	0.96
25	Bulgaria	3-6	219	48	228	48	0.1	0.8	69	69	68	0.99	86	86	85	0.99
26	Croatia	3-6	81	48	103	48	5	14	40	41	40	0.98	63	64	62	0.97
27	Czech Republic	3-5	312	50	346	48	2	2	90	87	93	1.07	103	104	101	0.97
28	Estonia	3-6	55	48	52	48	0.7	3	92	93	91	0.98	93	94	91	0.97
29	Hungary	3-6	376	48	341	48	3	7	80	80	79	0.98	87	88	87	0.98
30	Latvia	3-6	58	48	78	49	1	5	54	55	52	0.95	92	93	92	0.99
31	Lithuania	3-6	94	48	89	48	0.3	0.7	50	51	49	0.97	76	77	75	0.98
32	Montenegro	3-5	***11***	***48***	14	47	***.***	2	***32***	***33***	***31***	***0.96***	61	62	60	0.98
33	Poland	3-6	958	49	1 161	48	3	16	49	49	49	1.00	78	78	78	0.99
34	Republic of Moldova[2,3]	3-6	103	48	120	48	...	0.2	48	49	48	0.96	80	80	79	0.98
35	Romania	3-6	625	49	674	49	0.6	3	69	68	70	1.03	77	77	78	1.01
36	Russian Federation	3-6	4 379	...	5 661	48	...	0.9	71	...	...	...	91	92	90	0.99
37	Serbia[2]	3-6	175	46	156	49	...	2	54	57	51	0.90	56	56	56	1.00
38	Slovakia	3-5	169	...	149	48	0.4	4	81	...	...	...	91	92	90	0.98
39	Slovenia	3-5	59	46	56	48	1	3	75	78	71	0.91	94	95	93	0.99
40	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	3-5	33	49	20	49	.	.	27	27	27	1.01	29	28	29	1.03
41	Turkey	3-5	261	47	1 170	48	6	9	7	7	7	0.93	31	31	30	0.97
42	Ukraine	3-5	1 103	48	1 354	48	0.04	0.9	51	51	50	0.98	101	103	100	0.98
	Central Asia															
43	Armenia	3-5	57	...	64	49	-	4	26	...	...	...	51	44	60	1.35
44	Azerbaijan[2,4]	3-5	88	46	99	46	-	1	18	19	17	0.89	25	25	25	0.99
45	Georgia	3-5	74	48	...	...	0.1	...	35	36	35	0.98	...	...	...	...
46	Kazakhstan	3-6	165	48	**711**	**49**	10	**8**	15	16	15	0.96	**58**	**58**	**58**	**1.00**
47	Kyrgyzstan	3-6	48	43	106	50	1	3	10	11	9	0.80	25	24	25	1.02
48	Mongolia	3-5	74	54	133	50	4	7	27	24	29	1.18	86	85	86	1.01
49	Tajikistan	3-6	56	42	62 z	44 z	.	- z	8	9	7	0.77	9 z	10 z	8 z	0.83 z
50	Turkmenistan	3-6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
51	Uzbekistan	3-6	616	47	523 z	49 z	...	1 z	24	24	23	0.93	25 z	25 z	25 z	1.00 z
	East Asia and the Pacific															
52	Australia[5]	4-4	***273***	***49***	320	...	***63***	78	***103***	***103***	***103***	***1.00***	108	...	...	...
53	Brunei Darussalam	4-5	11	49	13	49	66	75	79	78	80	1.03	92	92	91	1.00
54	Cambodia	3-5	55	50	139	50	18	13	5	5	5	1.02	15	15	15	1.05
55	China	4-6	24 030	46	34 244	46	...	49	36	37	36	0.97	70	70	70	1.00
56	Cook Islands[2]	3-4	0.4	47	0.5	50	25	35	43	43	42	0.98	95	93	97	1.05
57	Democratic People's Republic of Korea	5-6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
58	Fiji	3-5	9	49	...	...	...	...	15	15	15	1.01	...	...	...	...
59	Indonesia	5-6	1 981 **	49 **	4 687	49	...	97	23 **	23 **	23 **	1.01 **	48	47	48	1.04
60	Japan	3-5	2 962	49 **	2 851	...	65	71	83	83 **	84 **	1.02 **	88	...	...	...
61	Kiribati	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
62	Lao People's Democratic Republic	3-5	37	52	113	50	18	23	7	7	8	1.11	24	24	25	1.05
63	Macao, China[1]	3-5	17	47	12	48	94	97	90	92	88	0.95	...	...	...	...
64	Malaysia	4-5	572	50	713 z	49 z	49	35 z	54	53	55	1.04	70 z	73 z	68 z	0.92 z
65	Marshall Islands	4-5	2	50	1 z	50 z	19	18 z	57	56	59	1.05	48 z	46 z	49 z	1.06 z
66	Micronesia (Federated States of)	3-5	3	...	...	...	...	...	36	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
67	Myanmar	3-4	41	...	159 y	51 y	90	61 y	2	...	...	...	9 y	9 y	9 y	1.05 y
68	Nauru[2]	3-5	*0.6*	*45*	1	43	...	.	*74*	*79*	*69*	*0.88*	79	86	71	0.82
69	New Zealand	3-4	101	49	116	50	...	99	85	85	85	1.01	92	90	93	1.04
70	Niue[2]	4-4	0.1	44	...	...	.	...	154	159	147	0.93	...	...	...	...
71	Palau[2]	3-5	0.7	54	...	...	24	...	63	56	69	1.23	...	...	...	...

Table 3B

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY AND OTHER ECCE PROGRAMMES (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				NEW ENTRANTS TO THE FIRST GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)			
School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 2012			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	
											Arab States
...	...	...	...	72 z	71 z	73 z	1.02 z	...	...	...	1
53	53	53	1.00	49	49	49	1.01	86	86	85	2
4	4	4	1.02	3	3	3	1.01	12	11	12	3
27	28	27	0.95	23	23	22	0.95	...	...	...	4
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5
34	35	33	0.96	34	35	33	0.96	53	54	51	6
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7
91	93	89	0.96	88	89	86	0.96	100	100	100	8
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10
59	**65**	**52**	**0.79**	**53**	**59**	**47**	**0.79**	**49**	**50**	**48**	11
55	55	55	1.00	42	42	42	0.99	...	...	...	12
42	42	42	0.99	37	37	37	0.98	...	...	...	13
73	72	75	1.03	60	59	61	1.02	...	...	...	14
13	**10**	**17**	**1.61**	**13**	**10**	**17**	**1.61**	...	...	...	15
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16
11	11	10	0.95	10	11	10	0.95	18	18	18	17
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18
71	71	72	1.02	59 z	59 z	60 z	1.02 z	92	92	92	19
2 z	2 z	1 z	0.88 z	1 z	1 z	1 z	0.89 z	2 y	2 y	2 y	20
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	21
											Central and Eastern Europe
69	69	69	1.01	64	64	64	1.01	...	...	...	22
125	127	123	0.97	97	97	96	0.99	...	...	...	23
...	...	...	...	12	12	12	0.98	...	...	...	24
86	86	85	0.99	82 z	82 z	82 z	0.99 z	...	...	...	25
63	64	62	0.97	63	64	62	0.97	...	...	...	26
103	104	101	0.97	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	27
93	94	91	0.97	92	94	91	0.97	...	...	...	28
87	88	87	0.98	85	85	84	0.99	...	...	...	29
92	93	92	0.99	90	91	90	0.99	...	...	...	30
76	77	75	0.98	75	76	75	0.98	...	...	...	31
61	62	60	0.98	45	45	44	0.98	...	...	...	32
78	78	78	0.99	76	76	76	0.99	...	...	...	33
80	80	79	0.98	78	79	78	0.98	97	97	98	34
77	77	78	1.01	76	75	77	1.02	...	...	...	35
91	92	90	0.99	74	74	74	1.00	...	...	...	36
...	...	...	...	56	55	56	1.01	98	98	97	37
91	92	90	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	38
94	95	93	0.99	92	93	92	0.99	...	...	...	39
29	28	29	1.03	25	25	26	1.04	...	...	...	40
...	...	...	...	31	31	30	0.97	...	...	...	41
101	103	100	0.98	...	...	...	...	75	...	...	42
											Central Asia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	43
29	29	28	0.98	21	21	21	0.99	10	10	10	44
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	45
58	**58**	**58**	**1.00**	**58**	**58**	**58**	**1.00**	...	...	...	46
25	24	25	1.02	21	21	21	1.02	21	20	21	47
106	105	106	1.01	65	64	65	1.01	70	68	72	48
9 z	10 z	8 z	0.83 z	7 z	7 z	6 z	0.83 z	2 z	2 z	2 z	49
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50
25 z	25 z	25 z	1.00 z	19 z	19 z	19 z	1.00 z	...	...	...	51
											East Asia and the Pacific
108	...	...	...	74	...	...	...	...	...	...	52
...	...	...	...	64	63	64	1.01	...	...	...	53
21	20	22	1.07	14	14	15	1.05	23 y	23 y	24 y	54
70	70	70	1.00	...	...	...	...	92 z	...	...	55
95	93	97	1.05	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	56
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	57
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	58
48	47	48	1.04	33	33	32	0.99	70	73	67	59
107	...	...	...	88	...	...	...	...	...	...	60
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	61
25	25	26	1.04	24	23	24	1.05	34	34	35	62
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	95	94	96	63
70 z	73 z	68 z	0.92 z	62 z	65 z	59 z	0.91 z	100 z	100 z	100 z	64
48 z	46 z	49 z	1.06 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	65
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	66
...	...	...	...	9 y	9 y	9 y	1.05 y	20 y	19 y	21 y	67
79	86	71	0.82	66	71	62	0.88	100	100	100	68
155	152	158	1.04	90	88	92	1.04	...	...	...	69
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	70
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	71

Table 3B (continued)

	Country or territory	Age Group 2012	ENROLMENT IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	1999 % F	2012 Total (000)	2012 % F	Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment School year ending in 1999	1999	2012	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%) School year ending in 1999 Total	1999 Male	1999 Female	1999 GPI (F/M)	2012 Total	2012 Male	2012 Female	2012 GPI (F/M)
72	Papua New Guinea	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
73	Philippines	5-5	593	50	...	...	47	...		30	29	31	1.06	...	...	...	...
74	Republic of Korea	3-5	...	...	1 529 [2]	48 [2]	...	83 [2]		...	...	...	...	118 [2]	118 [2]	117 [2]	1.00 [2]
75	Samoa	3-4	5	...	3	50	100	100		50	...	...	...	34	32	36	1.10
76	Singapore	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
77	Solomon Islands	3-5	*13*	*48*	21	48	...	23		*35*	*35*	*35*	*1.00*	43	43	43	1.00
78	Thailand	3-5	2 745	49	**2 804**	**48**	19	**23**		91	91	91	1.00	**119**	**120**	**117**	**0.98**
79	Timor-Leste	4-5	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
80	Tokelau[2]	3-4	*0.1*	*42*	...	...	.	...		*99*	*107*	*90*	*0.84*	...	...	...	...
81	Tonga	4-4	2	53	2	48	...	100		29	26	31	1.22	71	71	70	0.99
82	Tuvalu[2]	3-5	***0.7***	***50***	...	...	...	...		***96***	***92***	***100***	***1.09***	...	...	...	...
83	Vanuatu	3-5	8	50	11 [y]	49 [y]	...	...		51	49	53	1.08	61 [y]	61 [y]	61 [y]	1.01 [y]
84	Viet Nam	3-5	2 179	48	3 320	47	49	21		40	40	39	0.96	77	79	75	0.95
	Latin America and the Caribbean																
85	Anguilla[6]	3-4	0.5	52	0.4 [2]	48 [2]	100	100 [2]		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
86	Antigua and Barbuda	3-4	*2*	...	3	49	*100*	97		*57*	...	...	...	89	91	86	0.94
87	Argentina	3-5	1 191	50	1 482 [2]	49 [2]	28	32 [2]		57	56	58	1.02	74 [2]	74 [2]	75 [2]	1.02 [2]
88	Aruba	4-5	3	49	3	49	83	73		94	95	94	0.98	107	107	107	1.00
89	Bahamas	3-4	1	51	...	...	...	...		11	11	12	1.08	...	...	...	...
90	Barbados	3-4	6	49	6 [*, 2]	50 [*, 2]	...	15 [*, 2]		75	73	76	1.04	79 [*, 2]	80 [*, 2]	79 [*, 2]	0.99 [*, 2]
91	Belize	3-4	4	50	7	49	...	87		28	27	28	1.02	47	48	47	1.00
92	Bermuda	4-4	***0.4***	***54***	0.3 [2]	49 [2]	**.**	. [2]		***56***	***51***	***60***	***1.19***	43 [2]	44 [2]	43 [2]	0.99 [2]
93	Bolivia, Plurinational State of	4-5	208	49	258 [2]	49 [2]	...	13 [2]		43	43	44	1.02	51 [2]	51 [2]	51 [2]	0.99 [2]
94	Brazil[1]	4-6	5 733	49	7 314	49	28	29		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
95	British Virgin Islands[2]	3-4	0.5	53	1 [2]	48 [2]	100	98 [2]		62	57	66	1.16	71 [2]	74 [2]	69 [2]	0.93 [2]
96	Cayman Islands	3-4	0.5	48	...	...	88	...		39	41	38	0.94	...	...	...	...
97	Chile	4-5	450	49	555	48	...	66		76	77	76	0.99	114	115	112	0.98
98	Colombia	3-5	1 034	50	1 309 [2]	49 [2]	45	28 [2]		38	38	39	1.02	49 [2]	49 [2]	49 [2]	1.00 [2]
99	Costa Rica	4-5	75	49	109	49	15	12		47	47	47	1.00	74	74	74	1.01
100	Cuba	3-5	484	50	392	48	.	.		105	103	106	1.04	109	110	109	0.99
101	Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
102	Dominica	3-4	3	52	2	50	100	99		82	78	86	1.10	95	93	97	1.05
103	Dominican Republic	3-5	195	49	247	50	45	60		31	31	31	1.01	39	38	39	1.04
104	Ecuador	5-5	181	50	475	50	39	32		63	61	64	1.04	150	148	152	1.02
105	El Salvador	4-6	194	49	223	49	22 **	16		40	40	41	1.02	62	62	63	1.02
106	Grenada	3-4	3	51	4 [y]	51 [y]	...	54 [y]		75	72	77	1.07	99 [y]	95 [y]	102 [y]	1.08 [y]
107	Guatemala	5-6	308	49	537 [2]	50 [2]	22	15 [2]		46	46	45	0.97	64 [2]	64 [2]	65 [2]	1.02 [2]
108	Guyana	4-5	37	49	28	49	1	8		100	102	99	0.97	66	63	69	1.09
109	Haiti	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
110	Honduras	3-5	93	50	244	50	...	14		17	17	17	1.05	42	42	43	1.03
111	Jamaica	3-5	138	51	105	49	88	87		79	76	82	1.08	75	74	75	1.01
112	Mexico	4-5	3 361	50	4 717	49	9	14		70	70	70	0.99	101	100	103	1.02
113	Montserrat[2]	3-4	0.1	52	...	...	-	...		137	165	119	0.72	...	...	...	...
114	Nicaragua	3-5	161	50	218 [y]	50 [y]	17	16 [y]		27	27	28	1.04	55 [y]	54 [y]	56 [y]	1.03 [y]
115	Panama	4-5	49	49	96	49	23	19		37	37	38	1.01	65	65	65	1.00
116	Paraguay	3-5	123	50	153 [2]	49 [2]	29	31 [2]		29	29	30	1.03	35 [2]	34 [2]	35 [2]	1.01 [2]
117	Peru	3-5	1 017	50	1 364	49	15	28		56	56	57	1.02	78	78	78	0.99
118	Saint Kitts and Nevis	3-4	...	...	2 [2]	53 [2]	...	60 [2]		...	...	...	...	96 [2]	88 [2]	103 [2]	1.17 [2]
119	Saint Lucia	3-4	6	...	3	50	100	100		81	...	...	...	61	61	62	1.03
120	Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
121	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	3-4	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
122	Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
123	Suriname	4-5	***16***	***49***	18 [2]	49 [2]	***45***	42 [2]		***85***	***84***	***85***	***1.01***	88 [2]	89 [2]	88 [2]	1.00 [2]
124	Trinidad and Tobago	3-4	*23*	*50* **	...	...	*100*	...		*60*	*60* **	*60* **	*1.01* **	...	...	...	...
125	Turks and Caicos Islands[6]	4-5	0.8	54	...	...	47	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
126	Uruguay	3-5	100	49	132 [y]	49 [y]	...	38 [y]		60	59	60	1.02	89 [y]	89 [y]	89 [y]	1.00 [y]
127	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	3-5	738	50	1 270	49	20	19		45	44	46	1.03	72	72	73	1.01
128	Netherlands Antilles	4-5	7	50	...	...	75	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	North America and Western Europe																
129	Andorra[1]	3-5	...	...	2	48	...	2		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
130	Austria	3-5	225	49	246	48	25	30		77	78	77	0.99	103	104	103	0.99
131	Belgium	3-5	399	49	452	49	56	53		109	110	108	0.98	118	119	118	1.00
132	Canada	4-5	512	49	517 [2]	49 [2]	8	7 [2]		64	64	63	0.99	72 [2]	71 [2]	72 [2]	1.00 [2]
133	Cyprus[2]	3-5	19	49	22	48	54	49		60	59	60	1.02	78	79	77	0.98
134	Denmark	3-5	251	49	198	48	27	19		91	91	91	1.00	102	103	100	0.97
135	Finland	3-6	125	49	166	49	10	8		47	48	47	0.99	70	71	70	1.00
136	France[7]	3-5	2 393	49	2 564	49	13	13		110	110	110	1.00	110	110	109	0.99
137	Germany	3-5	2 333	48	2 356	48	54	65		94	95	93	0.98	113	113	112	0.99
138	Greece	4-5	143	49	167 [2]	49 [2]	3	7 [2]		67	66	67	1.02	78 [2]	78 [2]	79 [2]	1.01 [2]
139	Iceland	3-5	12	48	13 [2]	48 [2]	5	13 [2]		86	87	86	0.98	97 [2]	98 [2]	96 [2]	0.98 [2]
140	Ireland	3-4	...	...	72	49	...	98		...	...	...	...	52	52	53	1.01
141	Israel	3-5	294	48	437 [2]	49 [2]	...	11 [2]		89	89	88	0.99	104 [2]	104 [2]	103 [2]	0.99 [2]
142	Italy	3-5	1 578	48	1 688 [2]	48 [2]	30	30 [2]		97	97	96	0.99	98 [2]	99 [2]	97 [2]	0.98 [2]
143	Luxembourg	3-5	12	49	16 [2]	48 [2]	5	9 [2]		71	71	71	1.00	89 [2]	88 [2]	89 [2]	1.00 [2]
144	Malta	3-4	10	48	9	48	37	33		97	98	96	0.98	116	118	113	0.95
145	Monaco[6]	3-5	0.9	52	0.8	48	26	20		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 3B

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY AND OTHER ECCE PROGRAMMES (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				NEW ENTRANTS TO THE FIRST GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)			
School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 2012			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	72
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	73
118 z	118 z	117 z	1.00 z	89 z	90 z	89 z	1.00 z	...	...	...	74
34	32	36	1.10	23	22	24	1.09	...	...	...	75
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	76
43	43	43	1.00	30	30	31	1.01	...	...	...	77
119	**120**	**117**	**0.98**	**93**	**93**	**92**	**0.98**	...	...	...	78
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	79
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	80
71	71	70	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	81
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	82
61 y	61 y	61 y	1.01 y	43 y	42 y	44 y	1.05 y	70 y	70 y	71 y	83
77	79	75	0.95	74	...	...	...	...	...	...	84
											Latin America and the Caribbean
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	100 y	100 y	100 y	85
118	123	114	0.93	72	75	69	0.92	86	86	86	86
74 z	74 z	75 z	1.02 z	74 z	73 z	75 z	1.02 z	...	...	...	87
107	107	107	1.00	99 y	100 y	98 y	0.98 y	...	...	...	88
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	89
...	...	...	...	72 *, z	71 *, z	73 *, z	1.02 *, z	100 z	100 z	100 z	90
47	48	47	1.00	45	45	45	1.01	60	...	...	91
...	...	...	...	30 z	32 z	29 z	0.92 z	...	...	...	92
51 z	51 z	51 z	0.99 z	47 z	47 z	46 z	0.99 z	...	...	...	93
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	94
127 z	133 z	122 z	0.91 z	60 z	62 z	58 z	0.93 z	89 z	89 z	89 z	95
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	96
114	115	112	0.98	85	85	85	1.00	...	...	...	97
60 z	60 z	59 z	1.00 z	44 z	44 z	45 z	1.01 z	...	...	...	98
79	79	79	1.00	72	72	73	1.01	90	90	90	99
188	185	192	1.04	94	94	94	1.00	100	100	100	100
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	101
95	93	97	1.05	77 y	72 y	82 y	1.15 y	93	89	96	102
39	38	39	1.04	37	36	38	1.04	66	64	69	103
...	...	...	...	81	80	83	1.03	...	...	...	104
64	63	64	1.02	53	52	54	1.03	86	84	87	105
99 y	95 y	102 y	1.08 y	94 y	90 y	98 y	1.09 y	100 **, y	100 **, y	100 **, y	106
68 z	68 z	69 z	1.02 z	48 z	48 z	48 z	1.00 z	...	...	...	107
66	63	69	1.09	57	54	60	1.10	100	100	100	108
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	109
...	...	...	...	39	38	40	1.03	...	...	...	110
75	74	75	1.01	69	68	70	1.03	...	...	...	111
101	100	103	1.02	82	82	83	1.02	...	...	...	112
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	113
55 y	54 y	56 y	1.03 y	55 y	54 y	56 y	1.03 y	42 y	42 y	43 y	114
65	65	65	1.00	64	63	64	1.00	79 z	79 z	79 z	115
...	...	...	...	32 z	32 z	32 z	1.02 z	82 z	81 z	84 z	116
78	78	78	0.99	74	75	74	0.99	81 z	81 z	81 z	117
150 z	...	...	...	78 z	...	...	...	95	95	96	118
61	61	62	1.03	44	44	45	1.01	...	...	...	119
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	120
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	121
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	122
88 z	89 z	88 z	1.00 z	86 z	87 z	86 z	0.99 z	...	...	...	123
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	84 *, y	82 *, y	86 *, y	124
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	125
89 y	89 y	89 y	1.00 y	78 y	78 y	78 y	1.00 y	97 y	96 y	99 y	126
86	86	86	1.01	70	69	70	1.00	89	88	91	127
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	128
											North America and Western Europe
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	100	100	100	129
103	104	103	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	130
118	119	118	1.00	99	99	99	1.00	...	...	...	131
...	...	...	...	71 z	71 z	71 z	1.01 z	...	...	...	132
78	79	77	0.98	69	69	69	1.00	...	...	...	133
102	103	100	0.97	99	99	98	0.99	...	...	...	134
70	71	70	1.00	70	70	70	1.00	...	...	...	135
110	110	109	0.99	100	100	100	1.00	...	...	...	136
113	113	112	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	137
78 z	78 z	79 z	1.01 z	77 z	77 z	78 z	1.01 z	...	...	...	138
97 z	98 z	96 z	0.98 z	97 z	98 z	96 z	0.98 z	...	...	...	139
52	52	53	1.01	52	52	52	1.01	...	...	...	140
104 z	104 z	103 z	0.99 z	98 z	98 z	98 z	1.00 z	...	...	...	141
98 z	99 z	97 z	0.98 z	92 z	93 z	91 z	0.98 z	...	...	...	142
89 z	88 z	89 z	1.00 z	86 z	86 z	87 z	1.01 z	...	...	...	143
116	118	113	0.95	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	144
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	145

Table 3B (continued)

	Country or territory	Age Group	ENROLMENT IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION				Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment		GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)							
			School year ending in				School year ending in		School year ending in							
			1999		2012		1999	2012	1999				2012			
		2012	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F			Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
146	Netherlands	3-5	...	...	522	49	...	30	...	...	...	...	91	91	91	1.00
147	Norway	3-5	139	50	180	49	40	46	75	73	77	1.06	99	99	99	1.00
148	Portugal	3-5	220	49	273	48	52	47	67	67	67	1.00	86	87	85	0.98
149	San Marino[6]	3-5	*1.0*	*47*	1	50	.	.	...	...	...	...	107	106	108	1.02
150	Spain	3-5	1 131	49	1 920	48	32	35	99	99	99	1.00	127	128	127	0.99
151	Sweden	3-6	360	49	419	49	10	17	76	75	76	1.01	95	95	95	1.00
152	Switzerland	5-6	158	48	150	49	6	4	92	93	92	1.00	100	99	100	1.00
153	United Kingdom	3-4	1 155	49	1 282	49	6	37	77	77	77	1.00	84	84	85	1.01
154	United States	3-5	7 183	48	9 160	48	34	43	59	60	58	0.97	74	75	73	0.97
	South and West Asia															
155	Afghanistan	3-6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
156	Bangladesh	3-5	1 825	50	2 376 [2]	48 [2]	...	49 [2]	18	18	19	1.04	26 [2]	26 [2]	25 [2]	0.98 [2]
157	Bhutan	4-5	0.3	48	3	48	100	40	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.92	9	10	9	0.96
158	India	3-5	13 869	48	42 859 [2]	49 [2]	...	...	19	19	19	1.02	58 [2]	57 [2]	60 [2]	1.05 [2]
159	Iran, Islamic Republic of	5-5	220	50	416	49	16	...	15	14	15	1.03	35	35	36	1.03
160	Maldives[1]	3-5	12	48	22	49	...	94	56	55	56	1.01	...	...	...	...
161	Nepal	3-4	216 *	42 *	**1 053**	**48**	...	**24**	11 *	13 *	10 *	0.77 *	**84**	**85**	**83**	**0.97**
162	Pakistan	3-4	*5 160* *	*40* *	6 784	45	...	...	63 *	73 *	52 *	0.71 *	82	87	77	0.89
163	Sri Lanka	4-4	...	...	327	49	...	...	...	...	...	...	89	89	89	1.00
	Sub-Saharan Africa															
164	Angola	5-5	389 **	40 **	596 [2]	59 [2]	...	1 [2]	27 **	33 **	22 **	0.65 **	87 [2]	70 [2]	103 [2]	1.47 [2]
165	Benin	4-5	18	48	112	50	20	...	4	4	4	0.93	19	18	19	1.04
166	Botswana	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
167	Burkina Faso	3-5	20	50	60	49	34	...	2	2	2	1.03	4	4	4	1.01
168	Burundi	5-6	5	50	47	50	49	36	0.7	0.7	0.7	1.01	8	8	8	1.00
169	Cabo Verde	3-5	18	44	22	50	...	54	48	54	42	0.79	75	75	75	1.00
170	Cameroon	4-5	104	48	389	50	57	65	11	11	10	0.95	30	29	30	1.03
171	Central African Republic	3-5	...	...	21 [2]	51 [2]	...	55 [2]	...	...	...	...	6 [2]	6 [2]	6 [2]	1.02 [2]
172	Chad	3-5	...	...	19	48	...	52	...	...	...	...	1	2	1	0.94
173	Comoros	3-5	1	51	...	...	100	...	3	3	3	1.07	...	...	...	...
174	Congo	3-5	6	61	54	49	85	67	2	2	3	1.60	14	14	14	0.99
175	Côte d'Ivoire	3-5	36	49	91	50	46	35	3	3	2	0.97	5	5	5	1.00
176	Democratic Rep. of the Congo	3-5	***40***	***49***	274	51	***93***	...	***0.8***	***0.8***	***0.8***	***0.99***	4	4	4	1.06
177	Equatorial Guinea	4-6	17	51	42	50	37	...	27	27	28	1.04	73	73	73	1.01
178	Eritrea	5-6	12	47	46	49	97	54	5	5	5	0.90	13	13	13	1.01
179	Ethiopia[1,8]	4-6	90	49	1 429	48	100	85 **	1	1	1	0.98	...	...	...	...
180	Gabon	3-5	***16***	...	45 [2]	50 [2]	***68***	74 [2]	***15***	...	...	...	35 [2]	35 [2]	36 [2]	1.04 [2]
181	Gambia	3-6	29	47	65 [y]	51 [y]	...	77 [y]	19	20	18	0.91	30 [y]	29 [y]	30 [y]	1.04 [y]
182	Ghana	4-5	506	49	**1 605**	**50**	26 **	**24**	47	47	48	1.02	**116**	**115**	**118**	**1.03**
183	Guinea	4-6	...	...	152 [2]	49 [2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	16 [2]	16 [2]	15 [2]	0.96 [2]
184	Guinea-Bissau	3-5	*4*	*51*	9 [y]	51 [y]	*62*	84 [y]	*4*	*4*	*4*	*1.05*	7 [y]	6 [y]	7 [y]	1.05 [y]
185	Kenya	3-5	1 188	50	...	...	10	...	43	43	43	1.00	...	...	...	...
186	Lesotho	3-5	33 **	52 **	53 [y]	...	100 **	...	21 **	20 **	22 **	1.09 **	36 [y]	...	...	...
187	Liberia	3-5	112	42	...	...	39	...	47	54	41	0.75	...	...	...	...
188	Madagascar	3-5	50 **	51 **	164 [y]	50 [y]	...	91 [y]	3 **	3 **	3 **	1.02 **	9 [y]	8 [y]	9 [y]	1.03 [y]
189	Malawi	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
190	Mali	3-6	21	51	71 [2]	50 [2]	...	73 [2]	2	2	2	1.09	4 [2]	4 [2]	4 [2]	1.04 [2]
191	Mauritius	3-4	42	50	35	49	85	82 **	94	94	95	1.01	120	121	119	0.99
192	Mozambique	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
193	Namibia	5-6	35	53	...	...	100	...	33	30	35	1.14	...	...	...	...
194	Niger	4-6	12	50	110	50	33	13	1	1	1	1.04	6	6	6	1.05
195	Nigeria	3-5	***939***	***48***	2 021 [y]	49 [y]	...	27 [y]	***8***	***8***	***8***	***0.94***	13 [y]	13 [y]	13 [y]	0.99 [y]
196	Rwanda	4-6	***18***	***50***	130	52	...	100	***3***	***3***	***3***	***0.92***	13	13	14	1.06
197	Sao Tome and Principe	3-5	4	52	**8**	**52**	-	**16**	23	22	25	1.13	**45**	**43**	**47**	**1.08**
198	Senegal	4-6	24	50	175	52	68	43	3	3	3	1.00	14	13	15	1.12
199	Seychelles	4-5	3	49	3 [2]	48 [2]	5	10 [2]	105	104	106	1.02	110 [2]	112 [2]	107 [2]	0.96 [2]
200	Sierra Leone	3-5	*17*	...	49	52	...	44	*5*	...	...	...	9	9	10	1.07
201	Somalia	3-5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
202	South Africa	6-6	207	50	816	50	26	6	21	21	21	1.00	77	77	77	1.00
203	South Sudan	3-5	...	...	56 [2]	48 [2]	...	70 [2]	...	...	...	...	6 [2]	6 [2]	6 [2]	0.94 [2]
204	Swaziland	3-5	...	...	24 [2]	50 [2]	...	100 [2]	...	...	...	...	25 [2]	25 [2]	26 [2]	1.02 [2]
205	Togo	3-5	11	50	66	51	53	30	3	3	3	0.99	11	11	11	1.03
206	Uganda	3-5	...	...	499 [y]	51 [y]	...	100 [y]	...	...	...	...	14 [y]	13 [y]	14 [y]	1.05 [y]
207	United Republic of Tanzania	5-6	...	...	1 035	49	...	5	...	...	...	...	34	35	34	0.97
208	Zambia	3-6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
209	Zimbabwe	3-5	*437*	*51*	...	...	...	...	*41*	*40*	*42*	*1.03*	...	...	...	...

Table 3B

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY AND OTHER ECCE PROGRAMMES (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				NEW ENTRANTS TO THE FIRST GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)			
School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 2012			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	
91	91	91	1.00	91	91	91	1.00	...	...	...	146
99	99	99	1.00	99	99	99	1.00	...	...	...	147
86	87	85	0.98	84	85	83	0.98	...	...	...	148
107	106	108	1.02	95	93	96	1.03	...	...	...	149
127	128	127	0.99	97	97	97	1.00	...	...	...	150
95	95	95	1.00	95	95	95	1.00	...	...	...	151
100	99	100	1.00	76	77	76	0.99	...	...	...	152
84	84	85	1.01	79	79	79	1.01	...	...	...	153
74	75	73	0.97	68	68	68	0.99	...	...	...	154
										South and West Asia	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	155
26 [2]	26 [2]	25 [2]	0.98 [2]	24 [*,2]	24 [*,2]	23 [*,2]	0.98 [*,2]	...	...	...	156
9	10	9	0.96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	157
58 [2]	57 [2]	60 [2]	1.05 [2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	158
35	35	36	1.03	...	...	...	...	39 [*]	37 [*]	41 [*]	159
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	92	93	91	160
84	**85**	**83**	**0.97**	...	...	...	...	**56**	**55**	**56**	161
82	87	77	0.89	...	...	...	...	100	...	...	162
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	100	100	100	163
										Sub-Saharan Africa	
...	...	...	...	65 [2]	52 [2]	77 [2]	1.47 [2]	...	...	...	164
19	18	19	1.04	10	10	10	0.99	...	...	...	165
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	166
...	...	...	...	3 [2]	3 [2]	3 [2]	1.01 [2]	7	6	7	167
8	8	8	1.00	4	4	5	1.02	5	5	6	168
75	75	75	1.00	70	70	70	1.00	...	...	...	169
30	29	30	1.03	21	21	22	1.03	...	...	...	170
6 [2]	6 [2]	6 [2]	1.02 [2]	6 [2]	6 [2]	6 [2]	1.02 [2]	...	...	...	171
1	2	1	0.94	1	1	1	0.94	5	5	5	172
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	173
14	14	14	0.99	13	13	13	0.98	14	14	14	174
5	5	5	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	175
4	4	4	1.06	4 [2]	4 [2]	4 [2]	1.05 [2]	...	...	...	176
73	73	73	1.01	53	53	53	1.00	88	88	89	177
...	...	...	...	8	8	8	1.00	41	39	43	178
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	179
35 [2]	35 [2]	36 [2]	1.04 [2]	35 [2]	35 [2]	36 [2]	1.04 [2]	...	...	...	180
...	...	...	...	27 [y]	26 [y]	27 [y]	1.04 [y]	...	...	...	181
138	**136**	**140**	**1.03**	**76**	**75**	**77**	**1.03**	**86**	**86**	**87**	182
16 [2]	16 [2]	15 [2]	0.96 [2]	11 [2]	11 [2]	10 [2]	0.96 [2]	...	...	...	183
...	...	...	...	4 [y]	4 [y]	5 [y]	1.04 [y]	...	...	...	184
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	185
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	186
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	187
10 [y]	10 [y]	10 [y]	1.03 [y]	8 [y]	8 [y]	8 [y]	1.03 [y]	...	...	...	188
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	189
4 [2]	4 [2]	4 [2]	1.04 [2]	4 [**,2]	3 [**,2]	4 [**,2]	1.04 [**,2]	16 [y]	15 [y]	16 [y]	190
120	121	119	0.99	99 [2]	100 [2]	98 [2]	0.98 [2]	96	96	96	191
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	192
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	51 [y]	52 [y]	51 [y]	193
6	6	6	1.05	5	5	5	1.04	...	...	...	194
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	195
13	13	14	1.06	12	12	12	1.06	...	...	...	196
45 [**]	**43** [**]	**47** [**]	**1.08** [**]	**41**	**40**	**43**	**1.07**	...	...	...	197
14	13	15	1.12	9	8	9	1.13	...	...	...	198
...	...	...	...	97 [2]	99 [2]	96 [2]	0.97 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	199
9	9	10	1.07	9	8	9	1.07	3	3	3	200
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	201
102	101	102	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	202
6 [2]	6 [2]	6 [2]	0.94 [2]	4 [2]	4 [2]	3 [2]	0.94 [2]	...	...	...	203
25 [2]	25 [2]	26 [2]	1.02 [2]	18 [**,2]	18 [**,2]	18 [**,2]	1.01 [**,2]	...	...	...	204
11	11	11	1.03	11	11	11	1.03	...	...	...	205
...	...	...	...	14 [y]	13 [y]	14 [y]	1.05 [y]	...	...	...	206
34	35	34	0.97	33 [y]	33 [y]	33 [y]	1.02 [y]	...	...	...	207
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18	14	23	208
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	209

Table 3B (continued)

	Country or territory	Age Group 2012	ENROLMENT IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION: School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	1999 % F	2012 Total (000)	2012 % F	Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment: School year ending in 1999	2012	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%): School year ending in 1999 Total	1999 Male	1999 Female	1999 GPI (F/M)	2012 Total	2012 Male	2012 Female	2012 GPI (F/M)
			Sum	% F	Sum	% F	Median		Weighted Average				Weighted Average			
I	World	...	112,167	48	183,604 **	48 **	28	31	33	33	32	0.97	54 **	54 **	54 **	1.00 **
II	Countries in transition	...	7,453	47 **	9,581	48	0.0	1.2	46	48 **	45 **	0.94 **	67	67	66	0.99
III	Developed countries	...	25,022	49	28,855	48	7	15	75	75	74	0.99	88	88	87	0.99
IV	Developing countries	...	79,693	47	145,168 **	48 **	46	46	27	28	27	0.96	49 **	49 **	49 **	0.99 **
V	Arab States	...	2,356	43	4,309 **	48 **	73	75	15	17	13	0.79	25 **	26 **	25 **	0.98 **
VI	Central and Eastern Europe	...	9,439	48	12,172	48	0.7	3	51	52	50	0.96	74	75	74	0.98
VII	Central Asia	...	1,272	48	1,886 **	49 **	0.1	3	19	20	19	0.95	33 **	33 **	33 **	1.00 **
VIII	East Asia and the Pacific	...	36,798	47	53,344	47	47	55	38	39	38	0.98	68	68	68	1.00
IX	East Asia	...	36,345	47	52,275	47	49	55	38	38	38	0.98	67	67	67	1.00
X	Pacific	...	452 **	49 **	1,069 **	...	...	...	67 **	66 **	67 **	1.00 **	93 **	...	...	...
XI	Latin America and the Caribbean	...	15,987	49	21,396	49	29	31	54	54	54	1.01	74	74	75	1.00
XII	Caribbean	...	...	...	...	...	88	80	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
XIII	Latin America	...	15,697	49	21,130	49	22	19	55	55	55	1.01	76	76	76	1.00
XIV	North America and Western Europe	...	19,105	48	22,866	48	25	25	76	76	75	0.98	89	89	88	0.98
XV	South and West Asia	...	21,542	46	53,517 **	48 **	...	...	22	23	21	0.94	55 **	54 **	56 **	1.02 **
XVI	Sub-Saharan Africa	...	5,669 **	48 **	14,114 **	50 **	53	54	11 **	11 **	10 **	0.96 **	20 **	19 **	20 **	1.00 **
XVII	Countries with low income	...	5,979 **	49 **	12,381 **	49 **	...	53	11 **	11 **	11 **	0.99 **	19 **	19 **	19 **	0.97 **
XVIII	Countries with middle income	...	75,959	47	134,316 **	48 **	24	23	31	31	30	0.97	57 **	57 **	58 **	1.01 **
XIX	Lower middle	...	30,598	47	70,748 **	48 **	46	26	23	24	22	0.94	50 **	50 **	50 **	1.01 **
XX	Upper middle	...	45,361	48	63,569	48	19	21	40	40	40	0.99	69	69	69	1.01
XXI	Countries with high income	...	30,229	48	36,907	49	30	34	72	72	71	0.98	86	87	86	0.99

Source: UIS database. Enrolment ratios are based on the United Nations Population Division estimates, revision 2012 (United Nations, 2013), median variant.

Note A: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

Note B: The median values for 1999 and 2012 are not comparable since they are not necessarily based on the same number of countries.

1. Enrolment ratios for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to inconsistencies in the population data.

2. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.

3. Enrolment and population data exclude Transnistria.

4. Enrolment and population data exclude the Nagorno-Karabakh region.

5. The 47% increase in total enrolment between 2010 and 2012 is due to changes in data source and coverage. Previously data came from the National Pre-school Census and did not include pre-school programmes in long day care settings. The new data source, which does include such programmes, is the National Early Childhood Education and Care data collection.

6. Enrolment ratios for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.

7. Data include French overseas departments and territories (DOM-TOM).

8. Pre-primary enrolment increased from 382,740 in 2011 to 1,429,012 in 2012 due to the reporting of "0" class and child to child data for the first time in the academic year 2011/12. "0" class enrolment was 1,031,151.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2013, those in italics are for 2000 and those in bold italic are for 2001.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2011.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2010.

(*) National estimate.

(**) For country level data: UIS partial estimate; for regional and other country grouping sums and weighted averages: partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 33% and 60% of population for the region or other country grouping).

(-) Magnitude nil or negligible

(.) The category is not applicable or does not exist.

(...) No data available.

Table 3B

	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY AND OTHER ECCE PROGRAMMES (%)				NET ENROLMENT RATIO (NER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				NEW ENTRANTS TO THE FIRST GRADE OF PRIMARY EDUCATION WITH ECCE EXPERIENCE (%)			
	School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 2012			
	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	
	Weighted Average				Weighted Average				Median			
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	I
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	II
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	III
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	IV
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	V
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	VI
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	VII
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	VIII
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	IX
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	X
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XI
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XII
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	84	83	86	XIII
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XIV
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	92	...	...	XV
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XVI
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XVII
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XVIII
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XIX
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XX
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	XXI

Table 4
Access to primary education

Country or territory	Compulsory education (age group)[1]	Official primary school entry age 2012	New entrants: School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	New entrants: School year ending in 1999 % F	New entrants: School year ending in 2012 Total (000)	New entrants: School year ending in 2012 % F	GIR in primary education (%): School year ending in 1999 Total	1999 Male	1999 Female	1999 GPI (F/M)	GIR in primary education (%): School year ending in 2012 Total	2012 Male	2012 Female	2012 GPI (F/M)
Arab States														
Algeria	6-16	6	745	48	711	48	98	99	96	0.97	114	115	112	0.98
Bahrain[2]	6-15	6	13	50	17	49	97	98	97	1.00	...	...	...	...
Djibouti	6-16	6	6	42	**13**	**48**	27	31	23	0.75	**65**	**67**	**64**	**0.95**
Egypt	6-14	6	1 451 **	48 **	1 793	48	93 **	95 **	91 **	0.96 **	109	110	108	0.98
Iraq	6-11	6	709 **	46 **	...	...	108 **	114 **	102 **	0.89 **	...	...	...	...
Jordan	6-16	6	126	49	150	49	103	103	104	1.01	98	97	99	1.02
Kuwait[2]	6-14	6	35	49	50	49	116	116	117	1.00	...	...	...	...
Lebanon	6-12	6	75 **	47 **	72	49	120 **	124 **	116 **	0.94 **	113	116	110	0.95
Libya	6-15	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritania	6-14	6	***73***	***49***	108	51	***93***	***94***	***93***	***0.99***	107	103	110	1.06
Morocco	6-15	6	731	48	**631**	**49**	110	112	107	0.95	**110**	**110**	**110**	**1.00**
Oman	.	6	52	49	55	50	91	90	91	1.01	114	113	115	1.02
Palestine	6-16	6	95	49	110	49	95	94	95	1.00	97	96	97	1.01
Qatar[2]	6-18	6	11 **	48 **	19	49	114 **	113 **	116 **	1.03 **	...	...	...	...
Saudi Arabia	6-11	6	...	...	**617**	**49**	...	...	...	...	**103**	**101**	**105**	**1.04**
Sudan	6-13	6	...	...	728 [y]	48 [y]	...	...	...	...	72 [y]	73 [y]	70 [y]	0.96 [y]
Syrian Arab Republic	6-15	6	466	47	629	48	108	111	104	0.94	120	121	118	0.98
Tunisia	6-16	6	204	49	176	49	102	102	101	0.99	107	108	107	0.99
United Arab Emirates	6-14	6	47	48	82	48	95	96	94	0.99	102	101	102	1.01
Yemen	6-15	6	440	41	750	46	77	89	63	0.71	115	121	109	0.90
Sudan (pre-secession)	6-14	6	437 **	44 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe														
Albania[2]	6-14	6	*66*	*48*	38	47	*98*	*99*	*97*	*0.98*	...	...	...	...
Belarus	6-15	6	173	48	89	49	132	133	131	0.99	97	97	97	1.00
Bosnia and Herzegovina[2]	6-14	6	...	...	33	49	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	7-16	7	93	48	65	48	101	102	99	0.98	101	102	101	0.99
Croatia	7-15	7	50	48	41	49	95	97	94	0.98	103	103	102	1.00
Czech Republic	6-15	6	124	48	101	49	100	101	99	0.98	98	98	99	1.01
Estonia	7-17	7	18	48	13	49	99	99	98	0.99	99	99	100	1.01
Hungary	6-18	7	127	48	95	48	103	104	101	0.97	99	99	99	0.99
Latvia	7-16	7	32	49 **	19	48	97	98 **	97 **	0.99 **	95	97	94	0.98
Lithuania	7-16	7	54	49	27	49	104	104	103	0.99	98	98	99	1.01
Montenegro	6-15	6	***9***	***47***	7	48	***100***	***102***	***98***	***0.95***	98	99	98	0.99
Poland	6-18	7	535	...	357 [z]	49 [z]	101	...	...	...	102 [z]	101 [z]	103 [z]	1.02 [z]
Republic of Moldova[3,4]	7-16	7	62	49 **	36	48	105	104 **	105 **	1.00 **	96	96	95	0.99
Romania	6-16	7	269	49	205	48	86	87	86	0.99	95	96	95	0.99
Russian Federation	6-18	7	1 866	...	1 468	...	93	...	...	...	102	...	...	...
Serbia[3]	7-15	7	...	...	72	48	...	...	...	...	93	93	93	1.00
Slovakia	6-16	6	75	49	52	49	101	101	100	0.99	99	99	99	1.00
Slovenia	6-15	6	21	49	18	48	96	96	96	0.99	97	97	97	1.00
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	6-19	6	32	48	22	49	100	100	99	1.00	92	92	92	1.01
Turkey	6-14	6	...	...	1 316	49	...	...	...	...	103	104	102	0.98
Ukraine	6-17	6	623	49	404	49	96	97	96	0.99	103	102	104	1.02
Central Asia														
Armenia[2]	7-16	6	65	53	36	47	104	98	112	1.14	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan[3,5]	6-17	6	172	49	126	46	98	97	99	1.02	104	105	102	0.97
Georgia	6-14	6	74	49	52	47	96	96	96	1.00	107	107	107	1.00
Kazakhstan	7-18	7	*303* **	*49* **	**285**	**49**	*104* **	*103* **	*105* **	*1.02* **	**107**	**106**	**108**	**1.01**
Kyrgyzstan	7-16	7	120 *	50 *	112	48	99 *	98 *	99 *	1.02 *	116	118	114	0.97
Mongolia	6-17	6	70	49	47	49	110	111	108	0.97	101	103	100	0.97
Tajikistan	7-16	7	177	48	165	48	96	99	94	0.95	98	99	97	0.98
Turkmenistan	7-17	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	7-18	7	677	...	482 [z]	48 [z]	102	...	...	...	94 [z]	96 [z]	92 [z]	0.96 [z]
East Asia and the Pacific														
Australia	5-17	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	6-15	6	8	48	7	48	110	111	109	0.98	93	94	92	0.98
Cambodia	.	6	397	48	390	48	112	115	108	0.94	130	133	126	0.95
China[6]	6-15	7	***19 598***	...	16 966 [z]	46 [z]	***90***	...	...	...	109 [z]	109 [z]	110 [z]	1.01 [z]
Cook Islands[3]	5-15	5	0.6	...	0.3	46	131	...	...	...	120	127	113	0.89
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	5-16	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	6-17	6	21	48	18	49	108	108	107	0.99	103	103	104	1.02
Indonesia	7-15	7	***4 818***	***48***	4 936	50	***113***	***115***	***110***	***0.95***	102	100	104	1.04
Japan	6-15	6	1 222	49	1 103	49	101	101	101	1.00	101	101	101	1.00
Kiribati	6-14	6	3	50	...	...	117	114	120	1.05	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	6-10	6	180	46	179	48	111	117	104	0.89	123	126	120	0.96
Macao, China[2]	5-15	6	6	49	3	49	88	87	90	1.04	...	...	...	...
Malaysia[2]	6-11	6	509	48	465 [z]	49 [z]	97	97	97	0.99	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	6-14	6	1	50	2 [z]	48 [z]	100	97	103	1.07	105 [z]	106 [z]	104 [z]	0.98 [z]
Micronesia (Federated States of)	6-14	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	5-9	5	1 226	50	1 196 [y]	49 [y]	125	124	125	1.01	137 [y]	138 [y]	135 [y]	0.98 [y]
Nauru[3]	6-16	6	***0.3***	***45***	0.2	47	***118***	***124***	***111***	***0.89***	96	108	84	0.78
New Zealand	6-16	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Niue[3]	5-16	5	0.045	58	...	...	105	79	137	1.73	...	...	...	...
Palau[3]	6-17	6	*0.4*	*49*	...	...	*117*	*116*	*118*	*1.01*	...	...	...	...

Table 4

NET INTAKE RATE (NIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)						
School year ending in								School year ending in						
1999				2012				1999			2011			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Country or territory
														Arab States
75	76	74	0.97	87	88	85	0.97	10.5 **	...	...	14.0 z	13.8 z	14.2 z	Algeria
82	82	83	1.01	...	...	...	...	13.1	12.7 **	13.6 **	...	...	...	Bahrain[2]
20	23	17	0.76	50	53	47	0.90	2.9	3.4	2.5	6.4 z	6.9 z	5.9 z	Djibouti
...	...	...	...	85 **	86 **	84 **	0.98 **	11.8 **	...	...	13.1 **, z	13.4 **, z	12.8 **, z	Egypt
84 **	87 **	80 **	0.91 **	...	...	...	...	8.6 **	9.7 **	7.3 **	...	...	...	Iraq
69 **	68 **	70 **	1.03 **	98	97	99	1.02	...	...	...	13.3 z	13.1 z	13.5 z	Jordan
68	69	67	0.97	...	...	...	...	15.6 **	15.1 **	16.1 **	...	...	...	Kuwait[2]
...	...	...	...	69 z	73 z	66 z	0.92 z	14.9 **	14.6 **	15.3 **	13.2 **	13.3 **	13.0 **	Lebanon
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Libya
28	***28***	***28***	***0.99***	37	37	37	1.03	6.4	6.8	6.0	8.2 **	8.4 **	8.1 **	Mauritania
50	51	48	0.94	**78**	**79**	**78**	**0.99**	8.0 **	8.8 **	7.1 **	11.6 z	...	...	Morocco
73	73	74	1.02	78	77	79	1.03	...	...	...	13.6 z	13.4 z	13.9 z	Oman
...	...	...	...	85	84	85	1.01	11.5	11.6	11.5	13.2	12.5	14.0	Palestine
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.9 **	11.9 **	14.1 **	...	...	...	Qatar[2]
...	...	...	...	**81**	**80**	**82**	**1.03**	...	...	...	15.6 **	15.4 **	15.9 **	Saudi Arabia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***5.6***	***6.1***	***5.2***	...	...	...	Sudan
61	61	60	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.0 z	12.1 z	12.0 z	Syrian Arab Republic
...	...	...	...	92	93	92	0.98	12.9 **	13.1 **	12.7 **	14.6 z	...	...	Tunisia
49	49	50	1.01	51 z	51 z	50 z	0.98 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	United Arab Emirates
25	30	21	0.68	...	...	...	...	7.7 **	10.5 **	4.8 **	9.2 **, z	10.6 **, z	7.7 **, z	Yemen
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sudan (pre-secession)
														Central and Eastern Europe
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.0 **	10.1 **	9.9 **	...	...	...	Albania[2]
77	77	76	0.99	77	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.7	15.2 **	16.3 **	Belarus
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bosnia and Herzegovina[2]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.9	12.6	13.3	14.3 z	14.1 z	14.5 z	Bulgaria
69	70	68	0.97	...	...	...	...	12.2	12.0	12.3	14.5 z	13.9 z	15.2 z	Croatia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.3 **	13.2 **	13.4 **	16.4 **, z	15.9 **, z	16.9 **, z	Czech Republic
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.4	13.9	15.0	16.5 y	15.5 y	17.5 y	Estonia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.9	13.7	14.1	15.4 z	15.1 z	15.7 z	Hungary
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.7 **	12.9 **	14.4 **	15.5 z	14.8 z	16.3 z	Latvia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.9	13.4	14.4	16.7 z	16.0 z	17.3 z	Lithuania
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.2 **, y	14.8 y	15.5 y	Montenegro
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.6	14.3	15.0	15.5	14.7	16.3	Poland
...	...	...	...	76	77	74	0.96	11.4	11.3	11.6	11.8	11.6	12.1	Republic of Moldova[3,4]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.5	11.4	11.7	14.1 z	13.7 z	14.5 z	Romania
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.1 **	...	...	...	...	...	Russian Federation
...	...	...	...	88	88	88	1.00	...	...	...	13.6	13.2	14.1	Serbia[3]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.0	12.9	13.2	12.4 **	12.4 **	12.4 **	Slovakia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.5	14.1	15.0	16.8	16.0	17.7	Slovenia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.6	11.6	11.6	13.3 y	13.2 y	13.4 y	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.7 **	12.0 **	9.3 **	14.4 **, z	15.0 **, z	13.8 **, z	Turkey
68	...	...	...	82	81	82	1.02	12.7 **	12.5 **	12.9 **	15.1	14.9 *	15.3 *	Ukraine
														Central Asia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.2	...	...	...	...	...	Armenia[2]
86	85	87	1.02	78	80	76	0.95	...	...	...	11.9	12.0	11.8	Azerbaijan[3,5]
...	...	...	...	79	79	80	1.00	11.4 **	11.4 **	11.4 **	...	...	...	Georgia
67	*67*	*67*	*1.00*	...	...	...	...	12.4	12.2	12.6	15.0	14.7	15.4	Kazakhstan
58 *	58 *	58 *	0.99 *	61 *	63 *	58 *	0.93 *	11.4 **	11.3 **	11.6 **	12.5 *, z	12.3 *, z	12.7 *, z	Kyrgyzstan
82	83	80	0.97	85	86	84	0.97	8.9 **	8.0 **	9.8 **	15.0	14.4	15.6	Mongolia
84	87	82	0.95	...	...	...	...	9.6	10.4	8.7	11.2 z	12.0 z	10.4 z	Tajikistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turkmenistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.6	10.8	10.5	11.5 **, z	11.7 **, z	11.3 **, z	Uzbekistan
														East Asia and the Pacific
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	20.2 **	19.9 **	20.5 **	19.9 z	19.4 z	20.3 z	Australia
...	...	...	...	68	69	67	0.97	13.4	13.2	13.6	14.5	14.2	14.9	Brunei Darussalam
66	67	64	0.96	95	96	94	0.97	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cambodia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***9.3*** **	...	...	13.1	12.9	13.2	China[6]
...	...	...	...	78 y	80 y	77 y	0.97 y	10.6	10.5	10.6	12.5 z	11.9 z	13.1 z	Cook Islands[3]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
72	72	73	1.02	77 z	76 z	77 z	1.02 z	...	...	...	15.7 z	...	...	Fiji
45	***46***	***44***	***0.98***	...	...	...	...	10.8	...	...	12.7 z	12.7 z	12.8 z	Indonesia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.5 **	14.7 **	14.4 **	15.3 z	15.4 z	15.1 z	Japan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10.3	9.8	10.7	...	...	...	Kiribati
50	51	49	0.96	91	92	90	0.98	8.0	8.9	7.0	10.3	10.8	9.8	Lao People's Democratic Republic
63	60	66	1.10	...	...	...	...	12.4	12.7	12.1	...	...	...	Macao, China[2]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.6	11.5	11.8	...	...	...	Malaysia[2]
...	...	...	...	99 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Marshall Islands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Micronesia (Federated States of)
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Myanmar
...	...	...	...	78	89	69	0.78	8.8	7.8	9.9	...	...	...	Nauru[3]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	17.2 **	16.6 **	17.9 **	19.4 z	18.5 z	20.2 z	New Zealand
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.9	11.5	12.4	...	...	...	Niue[3]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*13.7* **	*12.9* **	*14.6* **	...	...	...	Palau[3]

Table 4 (continued)

Country or territory	Compulsory education (age group)[1]	Official primary school entry age 2012	New entrants: School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	New entrants: School year ending in 1999 % F	New entrants: School year ending in 2012 Total (000)	New entrants: School year ending in 2012 % F	GIR in primary education (%): School year ending in 1999 Total	1999 Male	1999 Female	1999 GPI (F/M)	GIR in primary education (%): School year ending in 2012 Total	2012 Male	2012 Female	2012 GPI (F/M)
Papua New Guinea	.	6	***77***	***45***	295	48	***53***	***56***	***49***	***0.87***	158	160	157	0.98
Philippines	6-11	6	2 551	48	...	...	129	132	126	0.95	...	...	...	...
Republic of Korea	6-15	6	720	47	423	48	105	105	105	1.00	97	97	96	0.99
Samoa	5-14	5	5	48	5	50	101	101	101	1.00	105	103	108	1.05
Singapore	6-14	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	.	6	...	...	18	48	...	...	...	...	118	119	117	0.98
Thailand	6-15	6	1 037 **	48 **	...	...	101 **	104 **	98 **	0.95 **	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	6-15	6	...	...	39 z	48 z	...	...	...	...	123 z	124 z	121 z	0.97 z
Tokelau[3]	5-16	5	*0.028*	*29*	...	...	*70*	*91*	*44*	*0.49*	...	...	...	...
Tonga	6-14	5	3	46	3	47	102	106	97	0.92	101	103	99	0.97
Tuvalu[7]	6-15	6	0.2 **	43 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	.	6	*6*	*48*	8 y	49 y	*119*	*121*	*117*	*0.97*	133 y	131 y	134 y	1.02 y
Viet Nam	6-14	6	2 035	47	1 454	...	108	111	105	0.94	104	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean														
Anguilla[7]	5-17	5	0.2	50	0.2 z	44 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Antigua and Barbuda	5-16	5	*2*	...	1	49	*108*	...	...	...	88	91	86	0.94
Argentina	5-18	6	781	49	753 z	49 z	112	112	112	0.99	115 z	115 z	115 z	1.00 z
Aruba	4-17	6	1	48	1 y	49 y	104	108	101	0.94	101 y	102 y	101 y	0.99 y
Bahamas	5-16	5	7	47	5 y	50 y	116	123	110	0.90	109 y	107 y	111 y	1.04 y
Barbados	5-16	5	4	49	4 z	50 z	100	98	102	1.04	100 z	98 z	101 z	1.02 z
Belize	5-14	5	8	49	8	49	132	134	130	0.97	109	109	109	1.00
Bermuda	5-16	5	***0.8***	***52***	1 z	49 z	***105***	***100***	***110***	***1.10***	91 z	92 z	90 z	0.98 z
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	5-16	6	282	49	210 z	49 z	121	120	122	1.01	84 z	84 z	84 z	1.00 z
Brazil[2]	6-14	7	*3 876*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
British Virgin Islands[3]	5-17	5	0.4	47	0.5 z	47 z	108	113	103	0.91	81 z	87 z	75 z	0.87 z
Cayman Islands[2]	5-16	5	0.6	50	0.7 z	51 z	106	105	107	1.02	...	...	...	...
Chile	6-21	6	284	49	224	49	95	95	94	0.99	92	92	91	0.99
Colombia	5-15	6	1 267	48	957	48	143	146	140	0.96	107	110	104	0.95
Costa Rica	5-15	6	87	49	73	49	106	106	106	1.00	97	96	97	1.00
Cuba	6-16	6	152	49	116	49	90	90	90	0.99	91	90	91	1.02
Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominica	5-16	5	2	46	1	50	125	130	119	0.92	127	125	128	1.03
Dominican Republic	5-14	6	267	47	203	48	130	134	126	0.93	95	98	93	0.95
Ecuador	3-17	6	374	49	353	49	130	130	130	1.00	112	112	111	0.99
El Salvador	7-15	7	196 **	48 **	127	48	125 **	128 **	121 **	0.95 **	107	108	105	0.98
Grenada	5-16	5	2	49	2 **,y	52 **,y	106	106	105	0.98	106 **,y	99 **,y	113 **,y	1.14 **,y
Guatemala	6-15	7	425	48	439 z	49 z	132	136	128	0.94	108 z	108 z	107 z	0.99 z
Guyana	6-15	6	18	51	14	49	103	100	106	1.06	65	62	69	1.12
Haiti	6-11	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	6-15	6	*252*	*49*	213	48	*140*	*140*	*139*	*1.00*	113	115	111	0.96
Jamaica[2]	6-14	6	*56*	*49*	44	50	*97*	*97*	*96*	*0.99*	...	...	...	...
Mexico	4-17	6	2 509	49	2 363	49	106	108	104	0.96	101	100	101	1.01
Montserrat	5-16	5	0.1	46	...	...	174	218	141	0.65	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	5-12	6	203	48	185 y	48 y	142	145	138	0.95	141 y	145 y	137 y	0.95 y
Panama	4-15	6	69	49	68	49	107	107	106	0.98	93	93	93	0.99
Paraguay	6-14	6	179 **	48 **	138 z	48 z	130 **	133 **	128 **	0.96 **	95 z	97 z	93 z	0.96 z
Peru	5-18	6	731	49	609 z	49 z	122	122	122	1.01	105 z	105 z	104 z	1.00 z
Saint Kitts and Nevis	5-16	5	*1*	*49*	0.8	50	*109*	*107*	*110*	*1.03*	83	83	84	1.01
Saint Lucia	5-15	5	*4*	*48*	2	48	*106*	*108*	*103*	*0.95*	83	85	81	0.96
Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	5-16	5	...	...	2	51	...	...	...	...	105	102	109	1.07
Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	7-12	6	...	...	10 z	50 z	...	...	...	...	99 z	98 z	99 z	1.01 z
Trinidad and Tobago	6-12	5	20	49	19 y	49 y	98	99	97	0.98	101 y	103 y	100 y	0.97 y
Turks and Caicos Islands[7]	4-17	6	*0.3*	*52*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	4-17	6	60	49	49 y	49 y	107	107	107	1.00	98 y	98 y	99 y	1.01 y
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	5-14	6	537	48	565	48	97	98	96	0.98	98	99	96	0.97
Netherlands Antilles	4-18	6	*4*	*50*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
North America and Western Europe														
Andorra[2]	6-16	6	...	...	0.7	45	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Austria	6-15	6	100	48	80	49	105	106	103	0.98	100	100	100	1.00
Belgium	6-18	6	...	...	118	49	...	...	...	...	96	95	97	1.01
Canada	6-16	6	416	48	358 z	49 z	103	103	102	0.99	100 z	99 z	101 z	1.01 z
Cyprus[3]	4-15	6	10	49	9	49	86	86	85	0.99	100	99	101	1.02
Denmark	6-16	6	66	49	67	48	101	100	101	1.01	103	104	102	0.98
Finland	7-16	7	65	49	59	49	102	102	102	1.00	102	102	102	0.99
France[8]	6-16	6	736	...	...	...	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Germany	6-18	6	869	49	719	49	99	99	99	1.00	101	101	100	0.99
Greece	5-15	6	113	48	108 z	48 z	105	107	104	0.98	103 z	103 z	103 z	1.00 z
Iceland	6-16	6	4	48	4 z	49 z	100	102	98	0.96	100 z	101 z	100 z	0.99 z
Ireland	6-16	5	51	48	63 z	49 z	99	100	98	0.98	97 z	98 z	97 z	0.99 z
Israel	5-18	6	***112*** **	***49*** **	137 z	49 z	***101*** **	***100*** **	***103*** **	***1.02*** **	101 z	100 z	102 z	1.02 z
Italy	6-16	6	558	48	567 z	48 z	102	103	101	0.99	100 z	100 z	99 z	0.99 z
Luxembourg	4-16	6	5	...	6 z	49 z	96	...	...	...	95 z	94 z	96 z	1.02 z
Malta	5-16	5	5	48	4	48	94	95	93	0.98	100	102	98	0.96
Monaco	6-16	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 4

NET INTAKE RATE (NIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)						
School year ending in								School year ending in						
1999				2012				1999			2011			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Country or territory
...	...	...	...	49	49	48	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	Papua New Guinea
45 **	46 **	44 **	0.95 **	...	...	...	...	11.4	11.1	11.7	...	...	...	Philippines
98	98	98	1.01	96 z	96 z	96 z	1.00 z	15.8	16.6	14.9	17.0 z	17.8 z	16.1 z	Republic of Korea
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.1	11.9	12.4	...	...	...	Samoa
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Singapore
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.2 **	7.6 **	6.7 **	...	...	...	Solomon Islands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Thailand
...	...	...	...	45 z	45 z	44 z	0.96 z	...	...	...	11.7 y	12.0 y	11.3 y	Timor-Leste
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*10.9*	*10.5*	*11.4*	...	...	...	Tokelau[3]
48	50	45	0.91	35	35	36	1.03	13.7	13.4	14.1	...	...	...	Tonga
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Tuvalu[7]
...	...	...	...	43 y	41 y	45 y	1.09 y	9.6 **	9.9 **	9.4 **	...	...	...	Vanuatu
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Viet Nam
														Latin America and the Caribbean
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Anguilla[7]
97	...	...	...	50	51	50	0.98	...	...	...	14.0	13.3	14.6	Antigua and Barbuda
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.3	13.6 **	15.0 **	16.4 y	15.4 y	17.5 y	Argentina
85	86	84	0.97	...	...	...	...	13.3	13.2	13.5	13.1	12.5	13.8	Aruba
84	86	82	0.95	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Bahamas
78 **	76 **	80 **	1.05 **	79 z	79 z	80 z	1.02 z	14.0 **	13.1 **	15.1 **	15.4 *, z	13.8 *, z	17.2 *, z	Barbados
...	...	...	...	67	67	66	1.00	...	...	...	13.7	13.3	14.1	Belize
...	...	...	...	67 z	69 z	66 z	0.96 z	...	...	...	12.4 z	11.4 z	13.3 z	Bermuda
67 **	66 **	68 **	1.03 **	59 z	59 z	58 z	0.99 z	13.0 **	...	...	...	...	...	Bolivia, Plurinational State of
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Brazil[2]
76	75	76	1.02	52 y	57 y	48 y	0.83 y	15.9 **	15.0 **	16.7 **	...	...	...	British Virgin Islands[3]
59	61	56	0.92	...	...	...	...	12.9 **	...	...	...	...	...	Cayman Islands[2]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.8 **	12.9 **	12.7 **	15.2	15.0	15.5	Chile
...	...	...	...	62	63	62	0.99	11.4	11.2 **	11.7 **	13.2	12.9	13.5	Colombia
...	...	...	...	85	84	86	1.03	...	...	...	13.7	13.3	14.1	Costa Rica
88	88	88	1.00	91	90	91	1.02	12.0 **	11.9 **	12.2 **	14.5	13.9	15.1	Cuba
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Curaçao
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Dominica
...	...	...	...	67	66	67	1.02	...	...	...	...	...	...	Dominican Republic
81	81	82	1.01	75	75	76	1.01	...	...	...	...	...	...	Ecuador
...	...	...	...	62	61	63	1.02	10.5	10.5	10.4	12.3	12.4	12.1	El Salvador
66	66	67	1.01	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Grenada
57	59	54	0.92	54 z	55 z	54 z	0.99 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	Guatemala
...	...	...	...	46	44	49	1.11	...	...	...	10.3	9.4	11.2	Guyana
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Haiti
49	*49*	*49*	*1.00*	71	71	72	1.02	...	...	...	11.4	10.9	11.9	Honduras
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.4 **	...	...	...	...	...	Jamaica[2]
85	86	84	0.97	73 y	73 y	73 y	1.01 y	11.4 **	11.6 **	11.1 **	12.8 z	12.6 z	12.9 z	Mexico
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	19.8	23.6	16.6	...	...	...	Montserrat
40	41	39	0.95	65 y	63 y	66 y	1.04 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	Nicaragua
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.0 **	11.5 **	12.5 **	12.4 z	11.9 z	12.9 z	Panama
...	...	...	...	66 z	66 z	66 z	1.01 z	11.5	11.4	11.5	11.9 y	11.7 y	12.2 y	Paraguay
...	...	...	...	86 z	86 z	86 z	1.00 z	...	...	...	13.1 y	13.1 y	13.2 y	Peru
...	...	...	...	59	58	61	1.04	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint Kitts and Nevis
72	*73*	*71*	*0.97*	62	65	59	0.92	...	...	...	12.2	11.8	12.5	Saint Lucia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint-Martin
...	...	...	...	58 y	59 y	58 y	1.00 y	*12.8* **	*12.3* **	*13.3* **	...	...	...	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sint-Maarten
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Suriname
69	69	70	1.01	73 y	73 y	73 y	1.00 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	Trinidad and Tobago
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turks and Caicos Islands[7]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.9 **	13.1 **	14.8 **	15.5 y	14.4 y	16.6 y	Uruguay
60 **	60 **	60 **	1.01 **	76	77	74	0.96	...	...	...	...	...	...	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Netherlands Antilles
														North America and Western Europe
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Andorra[2]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.3 **	15.4 **	15.2 **	15.6 **, z	15.3 **, z	15.9 **, z	Austria
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18.0 **	17.5 **	18.5 **	16.2 z	16.0 z	16.5 z	Belgium
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.9	15.5	16.3	...	...	...	Canada
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.5	12.4	12.7	14.0 z	13.9 z	14.0 z	Cyprus[3]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16.1	15.6	16.7	16.9 y	16.3 y	17.6 y	Denmark
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	17.3	16.6	18.1	17.0 z	16.4 z	17.6 z	Finland
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.8	15.5	16.0	16.0 z	15.6 z	16.3 z	France[8]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16.3 **, z	16.4 **, z	16.2 **, z	Germany
96	97	96	0.99	...	...	...	...	13.8	13.5	14.1	...	...	...	Greece
98	100	96	0.97	98 y	98 y	99 y	1.00 y	16.8	16.2	17.4	18.7 z	17.6 z	19.9 z	Iceland
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16.6	16.2	17.0	18.6 z	18.7 z	18.5 z	Ireland
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.2	14.8	15.6	...	...	...	Israel
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.9	14.7	15.1	16.3 z	15.8 z	16.8 z	Italy
...	...	...	...	85 z	85 z	86 z	1.02 z	13.5	...	...	13.9 y	13.8 y	14.0 y	Luxembourg
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.5 **	12.6 **	12.3 **	14.5 z	14.3 z	14.7 z	Malta
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Monaco

Table 4 (continued)

Country or territory	Compulsory education (age group)[1]	Official primary school entry age 2012	New entrants: School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	New entrants: School year ending in 1999 % F	New entrants: School year ending in 2012 Total (000)	New entrants: School year ending in 2012 % F	GIR in primary education (%): School year ending in 1999 Total	1999 Male	1999 Female	1999 GPI (F/M)	GIR in primary education (%): School year ending in 2012 Total	2012 Male	2012 Female	2012 GPI (F/M)
Netherlands	5-18	6	199	48	199 y	49 y	100	101	99	0.98	98 y	98 y	98 y	1.00 y
Norway	6-16	6	61	48	60	49	100	101	99	0.98	101	101	101	1.00
Portugal	6-18	6	...	...	108	49	...	...	...	...	98	98	99	1.01
San Marino[7]	6-16	6	*0.3*	*47*	0.3	39	...	...	...	...	97	97	98	1.01
Spain	6-16	6	411	49	476	49	107	107	107	1.00	98	98	99	1.01
Sweden	7-16	7	127	48	106	48	105	106	104	0.98	101	102	101	0.99
Switzerland	6-15	7	82	50	73	50	97	95	99	1.04	97	95	100	1.05
United Kingdom	5-16	5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
United States	5-18	6	4 322	47	4 138 y	48 y	107	109	104	0.95	101 y	103 y	100 y	0.97 y
South and West Asia														
Afghanistan	7-16	7	202	13	1 159	42	32	55	9	0.16	119	135	103	0.77
Bangladesh	6-10	6	...	...	4 120 *, z	49 *, z	...	...	...	...	130 *, z	130 *, z	130 *, z	1.00 *, z
Bhutan	.	6	12	47	13	49	81	85	76	0.89	92	93	91	0.98
India	6-14	6	29 639	44	27 903 z	48 z	124	133	114	0.86	113 z	112 z	114 z	1.02 z
Iran, Islamic Republic of	6-14	6	1 563	49	1 213 *	49 *	99	100	98	0.98	107 *	107 *	106 *	0.99 *
Maldives[2]	...	6	8	49	6	49	105	104	106	1.02	...	...	...	...
Nepal	.	5	879	42	**1 008**	**50**	144	163	123	0.75	**154**	**149**	**160**	**1.07**
Pakistan	5-16	5	...	...	4 452	...	...	...	...	...	112	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	5-14	5	***330***	***49***	357	49	***100***	***100***	***100***	***1.00***	98	98	98	1.00
Sub-Saharan Africa														
Angola	6-12	6	...	...	1 219 z	39 z	...	...	...	...	185 z	226 z	143 z	0.63 z
Benin	6-11	6	*205* **	*43* **	437	48	*98* **	*112* **	*84* **	*0.75* **	151	157	145	0.92
Botswana	6-15	6	50	49	...	...	112	113	112	0.99	...	...	...	...
Burkina Faso	6-16	6	154	41	470	48	46	54	39	0.72	94	97	91	0.94
Burundi	.	7	*138*	*45*	342	49	*64*	*71*	*57*	*0.80*	129	133	126	0.95
Cabo Verde	6-11	6	14	...	10	49	112	...	...	...	102	105	99	0.94
Cameroon	6-11	6	335 **	45 **	770	46	71 **	78 **	64 **	0.81 **	123	131	116	0.88
Central African Republic	6-15	6	...	...	120	45	...	...	...	...	99	110	88	0.80
Chad	6-16	6	175	41	505	44	68	80	57	0.71	126	140	112	0.80
Comoros	6-14	6	13	46	25 z	49 z	97	103	91	0.89	127 z	128 z	127 z	0.99 z
Congo	6-16	6	31	49	117	52	37	38	36	0.95	97	92	101	1.10
Côte d'Ivoire	6-15	6	309	44	512	47	70	77	63	0.81	95	100	89	0.89
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	6-15	6	767	52	2 662	47	54	52	56	1.08	136	142	129	0.91
Equatorial Guinea	7-12	7	...	...	18	49	...	...	...	...	98	99	97	0.98
Eritrea	7 -11	7	57	45	78	45	48	53	43	0.83	45	49	42	0.87
Ethiopia[2]	.	7	1 537	41	3 836	47	82	96	67	0.69	...	...	...	...
Gabon	6-16	6	***33***	***49***	...	...	***98***	***98***	***97***	***0.99***	...	...	...	...
Gambia	...	7	36 **	47 **	52	52	104 **	109 **	99 **	0.91 **	100	96	104	1.08
Ghana	4-15	6	469	48	**722**	**49**	91	93	89	0.96	**108**	**108**	**109**	**1.01**
Guinea	7-16	7	119	44	314	46	48	54	42	0.78	100	107	93	0.87
Guinea-Bissau	7-13	6	*37*	*43*	67 y	49 y	*102*	*117*	*87*	*0.74*	157 y	159 y	154 y	0.97 y
Kenya	.	6	892	49	...	...	100	101	98	0.97	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	.	6	51	50	54	48	100	99	101	1.02	111	114	107	0.94
Liberia	6-16	6	...	...	152 z	47 z	...	...	...	...	128 z	132 z	123 z	0.94 z
Madagascar	6-10	6	495	49	1 118	50	107	108	105	0.98	177	177	177	1.00
Malawi	.	6	616	50	745	51	176	174	178	1.02	157	153	162	1.06
Mali	7-16	7	171 **	43 **	329	47	60 **	67 **	52 **	0.77 **	75	78	72	0.92
Mauritius	5-16	5	22	50	17	49	96	95	97	1.03	106	108	104	0.97
Mozambique	6-12	6	536	46	1 227	49	102	111	93	0.84	153	157	148	0.95
Namibia	6-16	7	54	50	58	50	105	104	106	1.02	106	105	106	1.01
Niger	4-16	7	133	40	475	46	43	51	36	0.70	89	94	84	0.90
Nigeria	6-15	6	...	...	4 152 **, y	46 **, y	...	...	...	...	89 **, y	94 **, y	84 **, y	0.89 **, y
Rwanda	7-16	7	295	50	561	49	154	160	149	0.93	187	190	184	0.97
Sao Tome and Principe	6-11	6	4	49	**6**	**49**	100	101	99	0.97	**101**	**102**	**99**	**0.97**
Senegal	6-16	7	190	...	384	51	67	...	...	...	100	96	104	1.08
Seychelles	6-15	6	2	49	1 z	51 z	111	110	111	1.01	112 z	109 z	115 z	1.06 z
Sierra Leone	6-11	6	...	...	274	50	...	...	...	...	162	162	162	1.00
Somalia	...	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	7-15	7	1 157	49	1 014	49	116	118	114	0.97	97	99	95	0.96
South Sudan	6-13	6	...	...	348 z	40 z	...	...	...	...	116 z	138 z	94 z	0.68 z
Swaziland	6-12	6	31	49	31 z	47 z	94	96	93	0.97	103 z	108 z	98 z	0.91 z
Togo	6-15	6	139	47	253	49	99	106	93	0.88	137	140	134	0.96
Uganda	6-12	6	*1 437*	*50*	1 636 z	50 z	*176*	*176*	*175*	*0.99*	139 z	138 z	140 z	1.01 z
United Republic of Tanzania	7-13	7	714	50	1 312	50	73	74	73	0.99	92	92	93	1.01
Zambia	7-13	7	252	50	518	51	87	88	87	1.00	120	118	121	1.02
Zimbabwe	.	6	398	49	...	...	112	114	111	0.97	...	...	...	...

Table 4

NET INTAKE RATE (NIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)						
School year ending in								School year ending in						
1999				2012				1999			2011			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Country or territory
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16.5	16.7	16.2	17.9 [z]	17.8 [z]	18.0 [z]	Netherlands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	17.2	16.7	17.7	17.6 [z]	16.9 [z]	18.2 [z]	Norway
...	...	...	...	91	90	92	1.03	15.4	15.1	15.8	16.3 [y]	16.1 [y]	16.5 [y]	Portugal
...	...	...	...	95	95	95	1.00	...	...	...	15.3 [z]	14.7 [z]	15.9 [z]	San Marino[7]
...	...	...	...	97	96	97	1.02	15.9	15.5	16.2	17.1 [z]	16.8 [z]	17.5 [z]	Spain
...	...	...	...	98 [z]	98 [z]	98 [z]	1.00 [z]	18.9	17.3	20.5	15.8 [z]	15.1 [z]	16.6 [z]	Sweden
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.1	15.5	14.6	15.7 [z]	15.8 [z]	15.6 [z]	Switzerland
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15.9 **	15.7 **	16.0 **	16.2 [z]	15.8 [z]	16.7 [z]	United Kingdom
...	...	...	...	76 [y]	76 [y]	76 [y]	1.00 [y]	15.6	...	...	16.5 [z]	15.7 [z]	17.4 [z]	United States
														South and West Asia
...	...	...	...	78 [z]	89 [z]	66 [z]	0.74 [z]	...	...	...	9.3 [z]	11.3 [z]	7.2 [z]	Afghanistan
...	...	...	...	92 *,[y]	92 *,[y]	93 *,[y]	1.01 *,[y]	...	...	...	10.0 **,[z]	9.7 **,[z]	10.3 **,[z]	Bangladesh
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.2 **	8.0 **	6.5 **	12.7	12.6	12.8	Bhutan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.7 [z]	11.8 [z]	11.3 [z]	India
...	...	...	...	82 [z]	87 [z]	76 [z]	0.88 [z]	11.8 **	12.5 **	11.1 **	15.2 *	15.3 *	15.0 *	Iran, Islamic Republic of
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.8 **	11.8 **	11.9 **	...	...	...	Maldives[2]
...	...	...	...	97	97	97	1.00	*9.3* **	*10.8* **	*7.9* **	12.4 **,[z]	12.2 **,[z]	12.5 **,[z]	Nepal
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.7 *	8.4 *	6.9 *	Pakistan
93 **	***93*** **	***93*** **	***1.00*** **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13.7	13.3	14.2	Sri Lanka
														Sub-Saharan Africa
...	...	...	...	63 *,[y]	69 *,[y]	56 *,[y]	0.81 *,[y]	...	...	...	11.3 [z]	14.0 [z]	8.7 [z]	Angola
...	...	...	...	57 [z]	61 [z]	52 [z]	0.86 [z]	6.4 **	8.1 **	4.7 **	11.0 [z]	12.7 [z]	9.4 [z]	Benin
22	20	24	1.20	...	...	...	...	11.5 **	11.5 **	11.6 **	...	...	...	Botswana
20	23	16	0.71	28	29	28	0.96	3.4	4.1	2.8	7.5	8.0	7.0	Burkina Faso
25	*27*	*24*	*0.89*	72	73	72	0.98	...	...	...	10.1 [y]	10.7 [y]	9.6 [y]	Burundi
...	...	...	...	96 [z]	97 [z]	95 [z]	0.98 [z]	...	...	...	13.2	12.9	13.6	Cabo Verde
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6.9 **	...	...	10.4 **,[z]	11.2 **,[z]	9.5 **,[z]	Cameroon
...	...	...	...	41 [y]	45 [y]	38 [y]	0.84 [y]	***5.7*** **	***6.9*** **	***4.5*** **	7.2	8.6	5.9	Central African Republic
21	24	17	0.72	55 [z]	61 [z]	50 [z]	0.82 [z]	...	...	...	7.4 **,[z]	8.9 **,[z]	5.9 **,[z]	Chad
22	22	21	0.97	...	...	...	...	8.7	9.5	7.9	12.8	13.2	12.3	Comoros
...	...	...	...	49 *,[y]	49 *,[y]	49 *,[y]	0.99 *,[y]	...	...	...	11.1	11.3	10.9	Congo
29	32	25	0.80	...	...	...	...	6.8 **	8.2 **	5.4 **	...	...	...	Côte d'Ivoire
24	23	25	1.09	63 [z]	67 [z]	60 [z]	0.90 [z]	...	...	...	9.7	10.9	8.4	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
...	...	...	...	30	31	29	0.93	*8.5*	*10.0*	*6.9*	...	...	...	Equatorial Guinea
15	16	15	0.91	16 **	17 **	15 **	0.86 **	3.7 **	4.2 **	3.2 **	4.1 [y]	4.6 [y]	3.7 [y]	Eritrea
21	24	19	0.81	...	...	...	...	4.0	4.9	3.0	...	...	...	Ethiopia[2]
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.3	12.6	12.0	...	...	...	Gabon
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Gambia
31 **	31 **	31 **	1.00 **	...	...	...	...	7.7 **	8.3 **	7.1 **	11.5 **	12.1 **	10.9 **	Ghana
18	20	17	0.85	50	53	46	0.88	...	...	...	8.7	...	...	Guinea
...	...	...	...	39 [y]	40 [y]	38 [y]	0.95 [y]	...	...	...	...	...	...	Guinea-Bissau
28 **	27 **	29 **	1.08 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Kenya
26	26	27	1.07	62	61	63	1.03	9.6	8.9	10.3	11.1	10.6	11.7	Lesotho
...	...	...	...	7 [z]	7 [z]	7 [z]	0.96 [z]	8.7 **	10.3 **	7.1 **	...	...	...	Liberia
...	...	...	...	77	76	78	1.02	...	...	...	10.3 **	10.5 **	10.2 **	Madagascar
...	...	...	...	84 **	81 **	87 **	1.07 **	11.1 **	11.8 **	10.5 **	10.8 **,[z]	10.7 **,[z]	10.8 **,[z]	Malawi
...	...	...	...	19	20	17	0.89	4.7 **	5.6 **	3.8 **	8.4 [z]	9.3 [z]	7.5 [z]	Mali
...	...	...	...	74	76	73	0.97	12.1 **	12.2 **	12.0 **	15.6 **	15.2 **	15.9 **	Mauritius
18	18	17	0.93	63	64	63	0.99	5.4 **	6.2 **	4.5 **	9.5 [z]	10.1 [z]	8.9 [z]	Mozambique
60	58	62	1.05	52 **,[y]	50 **,[y]	54 **,[y]	1.07 **,[y]	11.5 **	11.4 **	11.6 **	...	...	...	Namibia
28	33	22	0.67	62	66	58	0.88	...	...	...	5.4	6.1	4.8	Niger
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7.6 **	8.3 **	6.9 **	...	...	...	Nigeria
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6.8	...	...	10.2	10.2	10.3	Rwanda
...	...	...	...	**93**	**94**	**93**	**0.99**	...	...	...	11.3 **	11.2 **	11.4 **	Sao Tome and Principe
37	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.2	...	...	7.9 *,[y]	8.1 **,[y]	7.8 **,[y]	Senegal
...	...	...	...	76 [z]	73 [z]	78 [z]	1.06 [z]	12.9	12.6	13.2	11.6 [z]	11.1 [z]	12.1 [z]	Seychelles
...	...	...	...	71	72	70	0.97	***7.2*** **	***8.4*** **	***6.1*** **	...	...	...	Sierra Leone
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Somalia
43	45	42	0.94	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	South Africa
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	South Sudan
40	39	41	1.07	40 [z]	39 [z]	41 [z]	1.04 [z]	9.4	9.7	9.2	11.3 **,[z]	11.8 **,[z]	10.9 **,[z]	Swaziland
40	43	38	0.87	56 [z]	57 [z]	54 [z]	0.94 [z]	...	...	...	12.2 **,[z]	...	...	Togo
...	...	...	...	64 [z]	63 [z]	65 [z]	1.02 [z]	*10.7* **	*11.2* **	*10.1* **	...	...	...	Uganda
14	13	15	1.16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.2 **	9.3 **	9.0 **	United Republic of Tanzania
39	38	40	1.06	55 **	53 **	56 **	1.05 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	Zambia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.8 **	10.2 **	9.5 **	...	...	...	Zimbabwe

Table 4 (continued)

Country or territory	Compulsory education (age group)[1]	Official primary school entry age	New entrants				GROSS INTAKE RATE (GIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)							
			School year ending in				School year ending in							
		2012	1999		2012		1999				2012			
			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
			Sum	%F	Sum	%F	Weighted average				Weighted average			
World	...	...	132,241 **	46 **	135,411 **	48 **	104 **	109 **	100 **	0.92 **	111 **	112 **	109 **	0.97 **
Countries in transition	...	...	4,740	49 **	3,558	48 **	98	98 **	97 **	0.99 **	101	101 **	100 **	0.99 **
Developed countries	...	...	12,086	48	11,202	48	103	104	101	0.98	100	101	98	0.97
Developing countries	...	...	115,415 **	46 **	120,651 **	48 **	105 **	110 **	100 **	0.91 **	112 **	113 **	111 **	0.97 **
Arab States	...	...	6,291	47	7,805	48	93	96	89	0.92	104	105	103	0.97
Central and Eastern Europe	...	...	5,633	48 **	4,478	49 **	97	99 **	95 **	0.96 **	101	101 **	101 **	1.00 **
Central Asia	...	...	1,784	49 **	1,395 **	48 **	101	100 **	101 **	1.01 **	101 **	102 **	100 **	0.98 **
East Asia and the Pacific	...	...	39,239 **	48 **	32,469	47	99 **	99 **	99 **	1.00 **	110	110	110	1.00
East Asia	...	...	38,748 **	48 **	31,754	47	99 **	99 **	99 **	1.00 **	110	110	110	1.00
Pacific	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean	...	...	12,977	48	10,890 **	49 **	116	119	113	0.95	98 **	99 **	97 **	0.98 **
Caribbean	...	...	506 **	48 **	...	...	138 **	142 **	133 **	0.94 **	...	...	...	...
Latin America	...	...	12,471	48	10,388 **	49 **	116	119	113	0.95	97 **	97 **	96 **	0.98 **
North America and Western Europe	...	...	9,313	48	8,935	48	104	105	102	0.97	100	102	98	0.96
South and West Asia	...	...	40,440	44	40,132 **	48 **	118	127	107	0.84	115 **	116 **	115 **	0.99 **
Sub-Saharan Africa	...	...	16,563	46	29,307	47	92	98	86	0.87	119	123	114	0.92
Countries with low income	...	...	17,040	47	28,223	48	97	102	91	0.89	129	133	126	0.94
Countries with middle income	...	...	99,773 **	46 **	93,064 **	47 **	106 **	111 **	102 **	0.92 **	108 **	109 **	107 **	0.98 **
Lower middle	...	...	56,218	45	57,181 **	48 **	114	122	105	0.86	109 **	110 **	108 **	0.98 **
Upper middle	...	...	43,555 **	48 **	35,883	47	98 **	99 **	97 **	0.99 **	106	107	105	0.98
Countries with high income	...	...	15,427	48	14,124	48	101	102	100	0.98	100	101	99	0.98

Source: UIS database. Intake rates and enrolment ratios used to calculate school life expectancy are based on the United Nations Population Division estimates, revision 2012 (United Nations, 2013), median variant.

Note: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

1. Information on compulsory education comes from various sources: Internation Bureau of Education World Data on Education (7th edition); national law and policies on minimum ages; Eurydice(2012); etc.

2. Intake rates were not calculated for one or both of the two school years due to population data inconsistencies.

3. National population data were used to calculate intake rates.

4. New entrants and population data exclude Transnistria.

5. New entrants and population data exclude the Nagorno-Karabakh region.

6. Children can enter primary school at age 6 or 7.

7. Intake rates for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.

8. Data include French overseas departments and territories (DOM-TOM).

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2013, those in italic are for 2000 and those in bold italic are for 2001.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2011.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2010.

(*) National estimate.

(**) For country level data: UIS partial estimate; for regional and other country grouping sums and weighted averages: partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 33% and 60% of population for the region or other country grouping).

(.) The category is not applicable or does not exist.

(...) No data available.

Table 4

NET INTAKE RATE (NIR) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)								SCHOOL LIFE EXPECTANCY (expected number of years of formal schooling from primary to tertiary education)						
School year ending in								School year ending in						
1999				2012				1999			2011			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Country or territory
Weighted average				Weighted average				Weighted average			Weighted average			
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.6 **	10.0 **	9.2 **	12.0 **	12.2 **	11.9 **	World
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11.8	11.7 **	12.0 **	13.8	13.6	14.0	Countries in transition
...	**...**	**...**	**...**	...	...	...	...	15.5	15.2 **	15.9 **	16.4	15.9	16.8	Developed countries
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.9 **	9.4 **	8.3 **	11.5 **	11.7 **	11.3 **	Developing countries
72 **	***73*** **	***71*** **	***0.97*** **	75 **	76 **	74 **	0.97 **	9.7	10.5 **	9.0 **	11.8 **	12.2 **	11.5 **	Arab States
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12.2	12.4	12.1	14.8	14.6	14.9	Central and Eastern Europe
76 **	...	...	...	73 **,y	75 **,y	72 **,y	0.96 **,y	10.8	10.9	10.8	12.5 **	12.5 **	12.5 **	Central Asia
...	...	...	...	38 **, z	...	...	...	9.9 **	10.1 **	9.7 **	12.9	12.8	13.0	East Asia and the Pacific
...	...	...	...	37 **, z	...	...	...	9.8 **	10.0 **	9.6 **	12.8	12.8	12.9	East Asia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14.9	14.9	15.0	16.5 **	16.3 **	16.6 **	Pacific
...	...	...	...	73 **,y	73 **,y	73 **,y	1.01 **,y	12.3 **	12.2 **	12.3 **	13.4 **	13.1 **	13.8 **	Latin America and the Caribbean
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Caribbean
...	...	...	...	73 **, z	73 **, z	73 **, z	1.00 **, z	12.3 **	12.2 **	12.4 **	13.5 **	13.1 **	13.8 **	Latin America
...	**...**	**...**	**...**	...	...	...	...	15.7	15.4 **	16.2 **	16.4	15.9	17.0	North America and Western Europe
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.0 **	8.9 **	7.0 **	11.3 **	11.6 **	10.9 **	South and West Asia
35 **	35 **	34 **	0.96 **	58 **,y	59 **,y	57 **,y	0.96 **,y	6.7 **	7.4 **	6.1 **	9.4 **	10.0 **	8.8 **	Sub-Saharan Africa
50 **	*51* **	*49* **	*0.96* **	70 **	71 **	68 **	0.95 **	6.6 **	7.2 **	5.9 **	9.6 **	10.1 **	9.1 **	Countries with low income
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9.3 **	9.8 **	8.8 **	12.0 **	12.1 **	11.8 **	Countries with middle income
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8.5 **	9.3 **	7.7 **	11.1 **	11.4 **	10.8 **	Lower middle
...	...	...	...	53 **, z	...	...	...	10.3 **	10.5 **	10.2 **	13.3	13.3	13.4	Upper middle
...	**...**	**...**	**...**	...	...	...	...	14.9	14.7 **	15.2 **	16.1	15.7	16.5	Countries with high income

Table 5
Participation in primary education

	Country or territory	Age Group 2012	School-age population (000) 2012[1]	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION: School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	1999 % F	2012 Total (000)	2012 % F	Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment: School year ending in 1999	2012	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%): School year ending in 1999 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
	Arab States												
1	Algeria	6-10	2 940	4 779	47	3 452	48	.	0.6	100	105	95	0.91
2	Bahrain[3]	6-11	...	76	49	96	49	19	33	104	105	102	0.97
3	Djibouti	6-10	91	38	41	**63**	**46**	9	**12**	31	36	26	0.72
4	Egypt	6-11	9 539	8 086 **	47 **	10 820	48	...	...	101 **	106 **	97 **	0.92 **
5	Iraq	6-11	5 072	3 604	44	...	...	.	...	97	106	88	0.83
6	Jordan	6-11	863	706	49	849	49	29	34	101	100	102	1.02
7	Kuwait[3]	6-10	...	140	49	230	49	32	41	118	118	118	1.01
8	Lebanon	6-11	428	414 **	48 **	456	48	67 **	74	134 **	136 **	132 **	0.97 **
9	Libya	6-11	702	822	48	...	...	.	...	116	117	115	0.99
10	Mauritania	6-11	573	346	48	554	51	2	13	83	84	81	0.97
11	Morocco	6-11	3 461	3 462	44	**4 021**	**48**	4	**14**	86	95	78	0.82
12	Oman	6-11	275	316	48	299	49	5	17	93	94	92	0.98
13	Palestine	6-9	449	368	49	424	49	9	13	100	99	100	1.00
14	Qatar[3]	6-11	...	61	48	101	49	37	58	107	104	110	1.06
15	Saudi Arabia	6-11	3 343	...	...	**3 583**	**48**	...	**10**	...	...	...	...
16	Sudan	6-11	5 916	***2 688***	***45***	3 981 [2]	46 [2]	...	2 [2]	***59***	***64***	***54***	***0.85***
17	Syrian Arab Republic	6-9	2 088	2 738	47	2 553	48	4	4	106	111	102	0.92
18	Tunisia	6-11	954	1 443	47	1 047	48	1	3	117	120	113	0.94
19	United Arab Emirates	6-10	336	270	48	364	49	44	73	94	95	94	0.99
20	Yemen	6-11	3 804	2 303	35	3 685	44	1	5	73	93	52	0.56
21	Sudan (pre-secession)	6-11	...	2 513 **	45 **	...	...	2 **	...	...	...	...	...
	Central and Eastern Europe												
22	Albania[3]	6-10	...	292	48	207	47	...	5	102	103	101	0.98
23	Belarus	6-9	355	***561***	***48***	352	49	***0.1***	0.1	***113***	***114***	***113***	***0.99***
24	Bosnia and Herzegovina[3]	6-10	...	...	...	167	49	...	1	...	...	...	...
25	Bulgaria	7-10	254	412	48	252	48	0.3	0.8	104	105	102	0.97
26	Croatia	7-10	165	203	49	160	49	0.1	0.4	94	95	93	0.98
27	Czech Republic	6-10	476	655	49	477	49	0.8	2	103	103	102	0.99
28	Estonia	7-12	76	127	48	74	49	1	4	101	103	99	0.97
29	Hungary	7-10	384	503	48	385	48	5	11	101	102	100	0.98
30	Latvia	7-12	110	141	48	113	49	1.0	1	99	100	97	0.98
31	Lithuania	7-10	113	220	48	111	49	0.4	1	101	102	100	0.98
32	Montenegro	6-10	38	...	...	38	48	...	.	...	...	...	...
33	Poland	7-12	2 161	3 434	48	2 187	49	...	3	*100*	*100*	*99*	*0.98*
34	Republic of Moldova[4,5]	7-10	147 *	*252*	*49*	138	48	...	1.0	*101*	*102*	*101*	*0.99*
35	Romania	7-10	857	1 285	49	807	48	-	0.4	92	93	91	0.98
36	Russian Federation[6]	7-10	5 484	6 743	49	5 515	49	...	0.7	103	104	102	0.99
37	Serbia[4]	7-10	311 *	380	49	289	49	...	0.1	110	110	109	0.99
38	Slovakia	6-9	206	317	49	209	49	4	6	102	102	101	0.98
39	Slovenia	6-11	109	92	48	108	49	0.1	0.5	98	98	97	0.99
40	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	6-10	120	130	48	107	48	.	.	98	99	97	0.98
41	Turkey	6-10	6 427	6 583	47	6 430	49	...	3	103	107	98	0.91
42	Ukraine	6-9	1 495	2 200	49	1 584	49	0.3	0.5	108	108	108	1.00
	Central Asia												
43	Armenia[3]	6-9	...	256	52	138	47	0.2	2	99	95	103	1.08
44	Azerbaijan[4,7]	6-9	502 *	691	49	491	46	-	0.3	95	95	96	1.00
45	Georgia	6-11	271	302	49	287	47	0.5	10	94	94	94	0.99
46	Kazakhstan	7-10	961	*1 208*	*49*	**1 057**	**49**	*0.5*	**0.9**	*99*	*98*	*99*	*1.01*
47	Kyrgyzstan	7-10	383	470	49	405	49	0.2	1	96	97	96	0.99
48	Mongolia	6-10	219	251	50	257	49	0.5	5	97	96	97	1.01
49	Tajikistan	7-10	665	*692*	*47*	663	48	.	...	*95*	*99*	*92*	*0.93*
50	Turkmenistan	7-9	298	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
51	Uzbekistan	7-10	2 058	2 570	49	1 948 [2]	48 [2]	...	. [2]	99	99	99	1.00
	East Asia and the Pacific												
52	Australia	5-11	1 987	1 885	49	2 083	49	27	31	100	100	100	1.00
53	Brunei Darussalam	6-11	45	46	47	43	48	36	37	113	115	110	0.95
54	Cambodia	6-11	1 767	2 127	46	2 195	48	2	2	101	108	94	0.87
55	China[8]	7-11	77 856	***130 133***	***48***	99 540	46	...	6	***105***	***105***	***106***	***1.01***
56	Cook Islands[4]	5-10	2 *	3	46	2	49	15	24	96	99	94	0.95
57	Democratic People's Republic of Korea	7-10	1 510	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
58	Fiji	6-11	98	116	48	103	48	...	...	104	104	103	0.99
59	Indonesia	7-12	28 366	***28 690***	***49***	30 784	48	***16***	17	***111***	***112***	***110***	***0.98***
60	Japan	6-11	6 768	7 692	49	6 924	49	0.9	1	101	101	101	1.00
61	Kiribati	6-11	13	14	49	...	...	...	...	110	110	111	1.01
62	Lao People's Democratic Republic	6-10	720	828	45	884	48	2	4	108	117	99	0.85
63	Macao, China[3]	6-11	...	47	47	23	48	95 **	97	100	101	99	0.99
64	Malaysia[3]	6-11	...	2 912	48	2 924 [2]	49 [2]	2	2 [2]	95	96	95	0.99
65	Marshall Islands	6-11	8	8	48	9 [2]	48 [2]	25	18 [2]	90	90	89	0.99
66	Micronesia (Federated States of)	6-11	15	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
67	Myanmar	5-9	4 376	4 733	49	5 126 [y]	50 [y]	.	. [y]	95	96	93	0.97
68	Nauru[4]	6-11	1 *	*2*	*53*	1	51	...	.	*99*	*86*	*115*	*1.33*
69	New Zealand	5-10	352	361	49	348	49	...	2	100	101	100	1.00
70	Niue[4]	5-10	0.2 *	0.3	46	...	...	.	...	99	99	98	1.00
71	Palau[4]	6-10	1 *	2	47	...	...	18	...	114	118	109	0.93

Table 5

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				PRIMARY EDUCATION ADJUSTED NET ENROLMENT RATIO (ANER) (%)								OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)[2]				
School year ending in				School year ending in								School year ending in				
2012				1999				2012				1999		2012		
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	% F	Total	% F	
															Arab States	
117	121	114	0.94	88	90	86	0.96	99	...	...	...	578	57	25	...	1
...	...	...	...	99	100	98	0.99	...	...	...	...	0.6	86.4	...	...	2
68	**72**	**64**	**0.88**	25	29	21	0.73	**58**	**62**	**55**	**0.89**	92	52	**39**	**53**	3
113	116	111	0.96	95 **	98 **	91 **	0.93 **	97 **, [2]	...	...	...	418 **	81 **	258 **, [2]	...	4
...	...	...	...	89	95	82	0.87	...	...	...	...	408	77	...	...	5
98	99	98	0.98	97 **	96 **	99 **	1.02 **	97	98	96	0.98	18 **	28 **	25	62	6
...	...	...	...	100	100	100	1.00	...	...	...	...	0.2	34	...	...	7
107	111	102	0.91	...	...	...	...	96 **	99 **	93 **	0.94 **	...	...	18 **	89 **	8
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9
97	94	99	1.05	60	61	59	0.97	70	68	73	1.07	169	50	169	45	10
117	**120**	**114**	**0.95**	71	76	66	0.86	**99**	**99**	**99**	**1.00**	1 172	58	**43**	**57**	11
109	109	109	1.01	84	84	85	1.01	97	97	98	1.01	52	46	7	42	12
94	95	94	0.99	93	93	94	1.00	93	93	92	0.99	24	49	33	51	13
...	...	...	...	95	91	100	1.10	...	...	...	...	3	2	...	...	14
106	105	108	1.03	...	...	...	...	**97** **	**95** **	**98** **	**1.03** **	...	...	**115** **	**30** **	15
69 [2]	73 [2]	64 [2]	0.89 [2]	...	...	...	...	52 [2]	54 [2]	49 [2]	0.89 [2]	...	...	2 811 [2]	52 [2]	16
122	124	120	0.97	97	...	...	...	99 [y]	...	...	...	89	...	19 [y]	...	17
110	111	108	0.98	96 **	98 **	95 **	0.97 **	100	...	...	...	46 **	66 **	0.5	...	18
108	110	107	0.97	85	85	85	1.00	98 *	99 *	97 *	0.98 *	42	48	5.8 *	75 *	19
97	106	88	0.83	58	72	42	0.59	87	95	79	0.84	1 338	67	490	79	20
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	21
															Central and Eastern Europe	
...	...	...	...	93 **	94 **	92 **	0.98 **	...	...	...	...	20 **	56 **	...	...	22
99	99	99	1.00	***96*** **	...	...	...	94	94 **	94 **	1.00 **	***19*** **	...	20	48 **	23
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	24
100	100	99	0.99	98	99	97	0.98	96	96	97	1.00	8	70	9	47	25
97	97	97	1.00	93	94	93	0.99	99	98	100	1.02	14	53	2.0	11	26
100	100	101	1.01	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	27
98	98	98	1.01	100	100	100	1.00	97	96	97	1.01	0.1	82	2	39	28
100	101	100	0.99	96	96	96	1.00	97	96	97	1.00	19	48	13	46	29
103	103	103	0.99	97 **	97 **	97 **	1.00 **	98	98	99	1.01	4 **	53 **	2	33	30
99	99	98	0.99	97	97	97	1.00	98	98	98	1.00	6	47	2.5	47	31
101	100	101	1.01	...	...	...	...	98	98	99	1.01	...	...	0.6	28	32
101	101	101	1.00	97	97	97	1.00	97	97	97	1.00	92	49	70	47	33
94	94	94	1.00	*93*	*93*	*92*	*0.99*	91	91	90	1.00	*19*	*52*	14	49	34
94	95	93	0.99	88	88	88	1.00	90	90	90	1.00	165	50	84	49	35
101	100	101	1.01	...	...	...	...	97	97	98	1.01	...	...	151	36	36
93	93	93	1.00	...	...	...	...	93	93	93	1.00	...	...	22	48	37
102	102	101	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	38
99	99	99	1.00	96	96	96	1.00	98	97	98	1.01	4	49	2	40	39
89	89	89	1.00	91	92	90	0.98	92 **	92 **	92 **	1.00 **	11	55	9.7 **	48 **	40
100	101	99	0.99	94	98	90	0.92	95	96	95	0.99	367	85	313	55	41
106	105	107	1.02	...	...	...	...	98	98 *	99 *	1.02 *	...	...	24	22 *	42
															Central Asia	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...		43
98	99	97	0.98	92	92	92	1.00	89 *	90 *	88 *	0.98 *	57 *	48 *	54 *	52 *	44
106	106	107	1.01	...	...	...	...	99	98	99	1.01	...	...	4	24	45
106	**106**	**107**	**1.01**	*96* **	*95* **	*98* **	*1.03* **	**99** **	**98** **	**100** **	**1.02** **	*44* **	*32* **	**13** **	**14** **	46
106	107	105	0.98	93 **	93 **	93 **	1.00 **	98	99	98	0.99	34 **	50 **	6	69	47
117	119	115	0.97	91	90	92	1.02	98	98	97	0.99	24	45	5	64	48
100	101	98	0.98	*94*	*98*	*91*	*0.93*	99	...	...	...	*40*	*79*	7	...	49
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50
93 [2]	95 [2]	92 [2]	0.97 [2]	...	...	...	...	91 [2]	93 [2]	90 [2]	0.97 [2]	...	...	178 [2]	57 [2]	51
															East Asia and the Pacific	
105	105	105	1.00	94 **	94 **	94 **	1.01 **	97	97	97	1.01	111 **	46 **	61	44	52
95	96	95	0.98	...	...	...	...	96	96	95	0.99	...	...	1.9	55	53
124	127	121	0.95	87	92	81	0.88	98	100	97	0.97	281	70	29	90	54
128	128	128	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	55
108	107	109	1.01	86	88	85	0.96	97	...	...	...	0.4	54	0.048	...	56
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	57
105	104	105	1.01	94	94	95	1.01	99	...	...	...	6	46	1.3	...	58
109	109	109	1.00	***97***	***98***	***97***	***0.99***	95	95	96	1.01	***657***	***62***	1 336	42	59
102	102	102	1.00	100	...	...	...	100	...	...	...	0.1	...	6	...	60
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	61
123	126	119	0.95	74	78	71	0.92	96	97	95	0.98	196	56	30	60	62
...	...	...	...	85	83	87	1.05	...	...	...	...	7	41	...	...	63
...	...	...	...	95	96	95	0.99	...	...	...	...	148	54	...	...	64
105 [2]	106 [2]	105 [2]	0.99 [2]	...	...	...	...	100 [2]	...	...	...	...	...	0.024 [2]	...	65
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	66
114 [y]	115 [y]	114 [y]	0.99 [y]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	67
94	93	96	1.03	...	...	...	...	76	75	77	1.03	...	...	0.3	48	68
99	98	99	1.00	100 **	100 **	100 **	1.00 **	99	98	99	1.01	1.7 **	48.6 **	5.3	40	69
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	70
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	71

Table 5 (continued)

	Country or territory	Age Group 2012	School-age population (000) 2012[1]	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION: School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	1999 % F	2012 Total (000)	2012 % F	Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment: School year ending in 1999	2012	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%): School year ending in 1999 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
72	Papua New Guinea	6-12	1 249	*560*	*45*	1 427	46	...	0.1	*71*	*76*	*66*	*0.86*
73	Philippines	6-11	13 441	12 503	49	...	...	8	...	109	109	109	1.00
74	Republic of Korea	6-11	2 880	3 946	47	2 959	48	1	2	103	103	104	1.01
75	Samoa	5-10	28	27	48	30	49	16	17	96	96	96	1.00
76	Singapore	6-11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
77	Solomon Islands	6-11	86	58	46	121	48	...	25	89	92	86	0.93
78	Thailand	6-11	5 247	6 120	48	**4 801**	**48**	13	**21**	97	99	96	0.97
79	Timor-Leste	6-11	193	***185***	...	242 [2]	48 [2]	...	13 [2]	***118***	...	...	...
80	Tokelau[4]	5-10	0.1 *	*0.2*	*48*	...	...	.	...	*105*	*98*	*113*	*1.15*
81	Tonga	5-10	16	17	46	17	48	7	15	112	115	109	0.95
82	Tuvalu[4]	6-11	1 *	1	48	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
83	Vanuatu	6-11	35	34	48	42 [y]	47 [y]	...	...	118	119	117	0.98
84	Viet Nam	6-10	6 783	10 250	47	7 101	49	0.3	0.6	110	113	106	0.93
	Latin America and the Caribbean												
85	Anguilla[9]	5-11	...	***1***	***49***	2 [2]	49 [2]	***7***	12 [2]	***104*** **	***105*** **	***104*** **	***0.98*** **
86	Antigua and Barbuda	5-11	11	*13*	...	10	48	*38*	53	*124*	...	...	...
87	Argentina	6-11	3 936	4 664	49	4 637 [2]	49 [2]	20	25 [2]	113	113	112	0.99
88	Aruba	6-11	9	9	49	9	50	83	74	112	113	111	0.98
89	Bahamas	5-10	30	34	49	34 [y]	50 [y]	...	30 [y]	97	99	95	0.97
90	Barbados	5-10	21	25	49	23 *, [2]	49 *, [2]	...	11 *, [2]	103	101	105	1.04
91	Belize	5-10	44	44	48	54	49	...	83	121	124	119	0.96
92	Bermuda	5-10	5	***5***	***50***	4 [2]	49 [2]	***34***	37 [2]	***101***	***101***	***102***	***1.01***
93	Bolivia, Plurinational State of	6-11	1 479	1 445	49	1 390 [2]	49 [2]	...	8 [2]	111	111	110	0.98
94	Brazil[3]	7-10	...	20 939	48	16 135	47	8	16	...	...	...	...
95	British Virgin Islands[4]	5-11	4 *	3	49	3 [2]	48 [2]	13	26 [2]	112	113	110	0.97
96	Cayman Islands[3]	5-10	...	3	47	4 [2]	50 [2]	36	37 [2]	107	111	102	0.91
97	Chile	6-11	1 486	1 805	48	1 504	48	...	60	100	102	99	0.97
98	Colombia	6-10	4 438	5 162	49	4 742	48	20	19	119	119	119	1.00
99	Costa Rica	6-11	470	570	48	495	48	7	8	112	113	111	0.99
100	Cuba	6-11	809	1 074	48	803	48	.	.	102	103	100	0.97
101	Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
102	Dominica	5-11	7	*12*	*48*	8	49	*26*	35	*120*	*119*	*121*	*1.02*
103	Dominican Republic	6-11	1 251	1 315	49	1 284	47	16	23	110	111	109	0.98
104	Ecuador	6-11	1 865	1 899	49	2 118	49	21	25	112	112	112	1.00
105	El Salvador	7-12	763	*949*	*48*	859	48	*11*	10	*104*	*106*	*102*	*0.96*
106	Grenada	5-11	13	20	49	14 [y]	48 [y]	...	77 [y]	108	110	107	0.97
107	Guatemala	7-12	2 369	1 824	46	2 645 [2]	49 [2]	15	10 [2]	102	109	95	0.87
108	Guyana	6-11	126	107	49	94	49	1.0	7	106	106	107	1.01
109	Haiti	6-11	1 414	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
110	Honduras	6-11	1 112	*1 095*	*50*	1 217	49	...	9	*107*	*106*	*108*	*1.01*
111	Jamaica[3]	6-11	...	320 **	49 **	284	49	6 **	11	96 **	96 **	96 **	1.00 **
112	Mexico	6-11	14 242	14 698	49	14 957	49	*7*	8	106	110	103	0.94
113	Montserrat	5-11	0.5 *	***0.4***	***45***	...	...	***35***	...	***105***	***105***	***104***	***0.99***
114	Nicaragua	6-11	782	830	49	924 [y]	48 [y]	16	16 [y]	101	101	102	1.01
115	Panama	6-11	436	393	48	437	48	10	13	104	105	102	0.97
116	Paraguay	6-11	869	951	48	820 [2]	48 [2]	...	19 [2]	119	121	116	0.96
117	Peru	6-11	3 493	4 350	49	3 479	49	13	...	123	123	122	0.99
118	Saint Kitts and Nevis	5-11	7	*7*	*49*	6	50	*15*	21	*106*	*104*	*108*	*1.04*
119	Saint Lucia	5-11	21	26	49	18	49	...	5	104	107	101	0.95
120	Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
121	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	5-11	13	*19*	*48*	14	48	*4*	10	*118*	*121*	*115*	*0.95*
122	Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
123	Suriname	6-11	62	***65***	***49***	72 [2]	48 [2]	***48***	44 [2]	***118***	***118***	***118***	***0.99***
124	Trinidad and Tobago	5-11	127	172	49	131 [y]	48 [y]	...	72 [y]	103	103	102	0.99
125	Turks and Caicos Islands[9]	6-11	...	2	49	...	...	18	...	...	...	...	...
126	Uruguay	6-11	300	366	49	342 [y]	48 [y]	...	16 [y]	111	112	111	0.99
127	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	6-11	3 416	3 261	49	3 486	48	15	18	99	100	98	0.98
128	Netherlands Antilles	6-11	...	25	48	...	...	74	...	...	...	...	...
	North America and Western Europe												
129	Andorra[3]	6-11	...	...	...	4	47	...	2	...	...	...	...
130	Austria	6-9	323	389	48	327	49	4	6	104	104	103	0.99
131	Belgium	6-11	720	763	49	744	49	55	54	104	104	103	0.99
132	Canada	6-11	2 203	2 429	49	2 154 [2]	49 [2]	6	6 [2]	100	100	100	1.00
133	Cyprus[4]	6-11	54 *	64	48	54	49	4	8	97	98	97	1.00
134	Denmark	6-12	465	372	49	471	49	11	15	101	101	102	1.00
135	Finland	7-12	347	383	49	347	49	1	2	101	101	100	1.00
136	France[10]	6-10	3 872	3 944	49	4 156	49	15	15	105	105	104	0.99
137	Germany	6-9	2 923	3 767	49	2 937	49	2	4	103	104	103	0.99
138	Greece	6-11	624	646	48	637 [2]	49 [2]	7	7 [2]	95	95	95	1.00
139	Iceland	6-12	30	30	48	29 [2]	49 [2]	1	2 [2]	100	101	99	0.98
140	Ireland	5-12	496	457	49	518	49	0.9	0.8	102	102	102	0.99
141	Israel	6-11	797	662	49	821 [2]	49 [2]	.	22 [2]	105	105	104	0.99
142	Italy	6-10	2 847	2 876	48	2 828 [2]	48 [2]	7	7 [2]	105	105	104	0.99
143	Luxembourg	6-11	37	31	49	35 [2]	49 [2]	7	9 [2]	100	99	100	1.01
144	Malta	5-10	25	35	49	24	49	36	43	95	95	95	1.00
145	Monaco[9]	6-10	...	2	50	2	50	31	21	...	...	...	...

Table 5

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				PRIMARY EDUCATION ADJUSTED NET ENROLMENT RATIO (ANER) (%)								OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)[2]				
School year ending in				School year ending in								School year ending in				
2012				1999				2012				1999		2012		
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	% F	Total	% F	
114	119	109	0.91	...	...	...	...	87	90	83	0.92	...	...	165	61	72
...	...	...	...	89	89	89	1.01	...	...	...	...	1 254	48	...	...	73
103	103	102	0.99	99	99	100	1.01	99	100	99	0.99	26	0.3	22	69	74
105	105	105	1.00	93	92	93	1.01	96	95	97	1.03	2.1	44.7	1.1	32	75
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	76
141	142	140	0.98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	77
93	**95**	**91**	**0.95**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	78
125 [2]	128 [2]	122 [2]	0.95 [2]	...	...	...	...	92 [2]	92 [2]	91 [2]	0.98 [2]	...	...	16 [2]	54 [2]	79
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	80
109	109	108	0.99	91	94	89	0.94	90	89	91	1.03	1.3	63.2	1.6	41	81
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	82
122 [y]	123 [y]	122 [y]	0.99 [y]	98 **	98 **	97 **	0.99 **	...	...	...	...	0.7 **	62 **	...	...	83
105	104	105	1.01	97	...	...	...	98	...	...	...	278	...	122	...	84
Latin America and the Caribbean																
...	...	...	...	***99*** **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***0.01*** **	...	...	...	85
98	101	95	0.93	...	...	...	...	85	87	84	0.97	...	...	1.6	55	86
118 [2]	118 [2]	117 [2]	0.99 [2]	99	100	99	0.99	...	...	...	...	23	80	...	...	87
104	103	105	1.03	98	97	99	1.01	99 [y]	...	...	...	0.2	32	0.1 [y]	...	88
108 [y]	107 [y]	109 [y]	1.02 [y]	91	92	91	0.98	98 [y]	...	...	...	3	54	0.7 [y]	...	89
105 *, [z]	106 *, [z]	105 *, [z]	0.99 *, [z]	95 **	93 **	98 **	1.05 **	97 *, [z]	97 *, [z]	97 *, [z]	0.99 *, [z]	1.1 **	21 **	0.6 *, [z]	54 *, [z]	90
121	122	119	0.97	100 **	100 **	100 **	1.00 **	99	98	100	1.01	0.1 **	72 **	0.4	11	91
90 [z]	91 [z]	89 [z]	0.98 [z]	...	...	...	...	88 [z]	87 [z]	88 [z]	1.01 [z]	...	...	0.6 [z]	47 [z]	92
94 [z]	95 [z]	94 [z]	0.98 [z]	94 **	94 **	94 **	1.00 **	87 [z]	87 [z]	87 [z]	1.00 [z]	73 **	50 **	194 [z]	48 [z]	93
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	94
92 [z]	96 [z]	88 [z]	0.92 [z]	98 **	98 **	99 **	1.01 **	85 [z]	87 [z]	84 [z]	0.96 [z]	0.043 **	41.86 **	0.5 [z]	56 [z]	95
...	...	...	...	95 *	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.2 *	...	...	...	96
101	103	100	0.97	...	...	...	...	93	93	93	1.00	...	...	109	49	97
107	109	105	0.97	95	95 **	96 **	1.01 **	86	87	86	1.00	198	43 **	599	49	98
105	106	105	0.99	...	...	...	...	93	92	93	1.01	...	...	33	45	99
99	100	99	0.99	99 **	99 **	98 **	0.99 **	97	96	97	1.00	15 **	58 **	28	46	100
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	101
119	121	117	0.97	*98*	...	...	...	96 [y]	95 [y]	97 [y]	1.03 [y]	*0.2*	...	0.3 [y]	33 [y]	102
103	108	97	0.91	83	82	84	1.01	89	90	88	0.98	203	47	137	53	103
114	114	113	1.00	97	97	98	1.01	97	96	98	1.02	45	37	59	36	104
113	115	110	0.96	*85* **	*84* **	*85* **	*1.01* **	95	95	95	1.00	*139* **	*48* **	41	47	105
103 [y]	105 [y]	102 [y]	0.97 [y]	100 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.002 **	...	...	...	106
114 [z]	116 [z]	112 [z]	0.97 [z]	84 **	88 **	80 **	0.91 **	95 [z]	96 [z]	95 [z]	0.99 [z]	286 **	61 **	110 [z]	53 [z]	107
75	71	80	1.13	...	...	...	...	75	70	80	1.14	...	...	32	37	108
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	109
109	110	109	1.00	*88*	*88*	*89*	*1.01*	94	93	95	1.02	*118*	*48*	67	42	110
...	...	...	...	93 **	93 **	93 **	1.00 **	...	...	...	...	25 **	50 **	...	...	111
105	105	105	1.00	98 **	100 **	96 **	0.96 **	98	97	99	1.02	284 **	97 **	291	27	112
...	...	...	...	***100***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	-	...	...	...	113
117 [y]	118 [y]	116 [y]	0.98 [y]	81 **	80 **	81 **	1.02 **	93 [y]	93 [y]	94 [y]	1.01 [y]	158 **	47 **	54 [y]	44 [y]	114
100	102	99	0.97	93 **	93 **	93 **	1.00 **	92	92	92	0.99	26 **	50 **	35	51	115
95 [z]	97 [z]	93 [z]	0.96 [z]	97	96	97	1.00	83 [z]	83 [z]	82 [z]	1.00 [z]	27	46	150 [z]	50 [z]	116
100	100	99	0.99	100 **	...	...	...	96 [z]	96 [z]	96 [z]	1.00 [z]	3 **	...	129 [z]	48 [z]	117
88	87	88	1.01	*97* **	...	...	...	84 **	82 **	85 **	1.04 **	*0.2* **	...	1.1 **	45 **	118
87	89	86	0.97	93 **	95 **	92 **	0.96 **	83	83	83	0.99	1.7 **	62.7 **	4	51	119
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	120
105	107	103	0.96	*98* **	...	...	...	99	...	...	...	*0.3* **	...	0.1	...	121
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	122
114 [z]	117 [z]	112 [z]	0.96 [z]	***91*** **	***90*** **	***93*** **	***1.03*** **	92 [z]	92 [z]	93 [z]	1.01 [z]	***5*** **	***41*** **	5 [z]	46 [z]	123
106 [y]	108 [y]	104 [y]	0.97 [y]	98	97	98	1.01	99 [y]	99 [y]	98 [y]	0.99 [y]	4	39	2 [y]	62 [y]	124
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	125
112 [y]	114 [y]	110 [y]	0.97 [y]	...	...	...	...	100 [y]	...	...	...	...	...	0.5 [y]	...	126
102	103	101	0.98	86	86	87	1.01	94	96	93	0.98	450	47	191	59	127
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	128
North America and Western Europe																
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	129
101	101	101	1.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	130
103	104	103	0.99	99	99	99	1.00	99	99	99	1.00	7	49	7	47	131
98 [z]	98 [z]	99 [z]	1.01 [z]	100	100	100	1.00	...	...	...	...	5	33	...	...	132
100	100	100	1.00	98	98	98	1.00	98	98	98	1.00	1.3	49.4	1.0	44	133
101	102	101	0.99	98	98	98	1.01	98	98	99	1.01	8	41	9	37	134
100	100	100	0.99	100	...	...	...	99	99	99	1.00	0.6	...	4	43	135
107	107	107	1.00	100	100	100	1.00	99	98	99	1.01	10	32	43	23	136
100	101	100	1.00	100 **	...	...	...	100 **	99 **	100 **	1.01 **	0.6 **	...	13 **	15 **	137
102 [z]	102 [z]	102 [z]	1.00 [z]	96	96	96	1.01	100 [z]	99 [z]	100 [z]	1.01 [z]	26	45	3.0 [z]	19 [z]	138
99 [z]	98 [z]	99 [z]	1.01 [z]	99	...	...	...	99 [z]	98 [z]	99 [z]	1.01 [z]	0.3	...	0.4 [z]	39 [z]	139
104	104	104	1.00	100	...	...	...	100	100	100	1.00	0.3	...	1.3	34	140
105 [z]	105 [z]	105 [z]	1.00 [z]	98	98	97	1.00	97 [z]	97 [z]	97 [z]	1.01 [z]	15	53	23 [z]	43 [z]	141
100 [z]	101 [z]	99 [z]	0.99 [z]	100	...	...	...	99 [z]	99 [z]	99 [z]	0.99 [z]	3	...	26 [z]	70 [z]	142
97 [z]	96 [z]	98 [z]	1.02 [z]	97	96	98	1.02	95 [z]	94 [z]	96 [z]	1.02 [z]	0.8	30	2 [z]	39 [z]	143
96	96	96	1.00	...	...	...	...	95	95	95	1.00	...	...	1.2	48	144
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	145

Table 5 (continued)

	Country or territory	Age Group 2012	School-age population (000) 2012[1]	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION: School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	1999 % F	2012 Total (000)	2012 % F	Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment: School year ending in 1999	2012	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%): School year ending in 1999 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
146	Netherlands	6-11	1 207	1 268	48	1 277	49	...	0.3	109	110	108	0.98
147	Norway	6-12	426	412	49	423	49	1	2	101	101	101	1.00
148	Portugal	6-11	662	*811*	*48*	704	48	*10*	12	*122*	*125*	*119*	*0.96*
149	San Marino[9]	6-10	2	*1*	*48*	2	46	.	.	...	...	...	...
150	Spain	6-11	2 737	2 580	48	2 817	48	33	33	106	107	105	0.99
151	Sweden	7-12	593	763	49	602	49	3	11	110	108	112	1.03
152	Switzerland	7-12	470	530	49	483	48	3	5	106	106	105	0.99
153	United Kingdom	5-10	4 168	4 661	49	4 524	49	5	7	101	101	101	1.00
154	United States	6-11	24 846	24 938	49	24 382	49	12	8	103	101	104	1.03
	South and West Asia												
155	Afghanistan	7-12	5 549	876	7	5 768	41	...	2	26	47	4	0.08
156	Bangladesh	6-10	15 987	...	...	18 432 *, z	50 *, z	...	42 *, z	...	...	...	...
157	Bhutan	6-12	98	81	46	111	50	2	3	75	81	69	0.85
158	India	6-10	122 628	*113 613*	*44*	137 747 z	48 z	*17*	...	*96*	*104*	*88*	*0.84*
159	Iran, Islamic Republic of	6-10	5 424	8 667	47	5 747	48	...	8	102	105	98	0.94
160	Maldives[3]	6-12	...	74	49	39	48	3	3	132	132	133	1.01
161	Nepal	5-9	3 433	3 588	42	**4 577**	**50**	...	**15**	122	138	104	0.76
162	Pakistan	5-9	19 503	*13 987* *	*39* **	18 119	44	...	34	*70* *	*83* *	*57* *	*0.68* *
163	Sri Lanka	5-9	1 780	***1 768***	***49***	1 752	49	**-**	3	***107***	***108***	***106***	***0.99***
	Sub-Saharan Africa												
164	Angola	6-11	3 712	...	...	5 027 z	39 z	...	3 z	...	...	...	...
165	Benin	6-11	1 619	872	39	1 987	47	7	16	78	96	61	0.64
166	Botswana	6-12	310	322	50	...	...	5	...	103	103	103	1.00
167	Burkina Faso	6-11	2 759	816	40	2 344	48	11	16	44	52	36	0.70
168	Burundi	7-12	1 442	*705*	*44*	1 981	50	-	1	*57*	*64*	*51*	*0.79*
169	Cabo Verde	6-11	61	*92*	*49*	68	48	-	0.7	*123*	*125*	*120*	*0.96*
170	Cameroon	6-11	3 479	2 134	45	3 849	46	28	23	81	89	73	0.82
171	Central African Republic	6-11	696	***459*** *	***41*** *	662	43	...	14	***79*** *	***94*** *	***65*** *	***0.68*** *
172	Chad	6-11	2 192	840	37	2 091	43	...	10	61	77	45	0.59
173	Comoros	6-11	113	83	45	133	47	12	12 **	104	112	96	0.85
174	Congo	6-11	671	276	49	734	52	10	31	59	60	58	0.96
175	Côte d'Ivoire	6-11	3 100	1 911	43	2 921	46	12	12	77	89	66	0.75
176	Democratic Rep. of the Congo	6-11	10 825	4 022	47	12 005	47	...	...	53	55	50	0.91
177	Equatorial Guinea	7-12	101	*73*	*45*	92	49	...	54	*108*	*118*	*97*	*0.82*
178	Eritrea	7-11	787	262	45	334	45	11	8	46	49	42	0.84
179	Ethiopia[3]	7-12	...	5 168	38	14 532	48	...	4	50	62	38	0.61
180	Gabon	6-10	197	265	50	318 z	49 z	17	44 z	143	143	143	1.00
181	Gambia	7-12	286	170	46	244	51	14	28	90	98	83	0.84
182	Ghana	6-11	3 696	2 377	47	**4 106**	**49**	13	**23**	81	84	78	0.92
183	Guinea	7-12	1 761	727	38	1 600	45	15	28	54	66	41	0.62
184	Guinea-Bissau	6-11	257	*150*	*40*	279 y	48 y	*19*	28 y	*76*	*91*	*61*	*0.67*
185	Kenya	6-11	7 042	4 782	49	...	...	...	...	91	92	90	0.97
186	Lesotho	6-12	344	365	52	382	49	0.016	5	105	100	110	1.10
187	Liberia	6-11	681	396	42	675 z	47 z	38	33 z	95	109	81	0.75
188	Madagascar	6-10	3 032	2 012	49	4 403	49	22	18	94	95	92	0.97
189	Malawi	6-11	2 610	2 582	49	3 688	50	...	0.9	137	140	134	0.96
190	Mali	7-12	2 389	959	41	2 114	46	22	...	60	70	50	0.72
191	Mauritius	5-10	105	133	49	114	49	24	29	105	105	105	1.00
192	Mozambique	6-12	5 100	2 302	43	5 359	47	...	2	69	79	59	0.74
193	Namibia	7-13	380	383	50	415	49	4	6	115	115	115	1.01
194	Niger	7-12	2 883	530	39	2 051	45	4	3	32	38	26	0.67
195	Nigeria[11]	6-11	27 050	17 907	44	21 558 **, y	47 **, y	...	8 **, y	94	103	84	0.81
196	Rwanda	7-12	1 791	1 289	50	2 395	51	...	2	103	106	101	0.96
197	Sao Tome and Principe	6-11	29	24	49	**35**	**49**	-	**0.5**	100	102	99	0.97
198	Senegal	7-12	2 128	1 034	45	1 783	51	12	14	65	71	59	0.83
199	Seychelles	6-11	8	*10*	*49*	9 z	50 z	*4*	9 z	*108*	*106*	*110*	*1.03*
200	Sierra Leone	6-11	952	*443*	*48*	1 252	50	...	5	*69*	*72*	*66*	*0.92*
201	Somalia	6-11	1 747	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
202	South Africa	7-13	6 895	7 935	49	7 004	49	2	4	113	115	111	0.97
203	South Sudan	6-11	1 757	...	...	1 451 z	39 z	...	...	...	...	...	...
204	Swaziland	6-12	209	213	49	240 z	47 z	-	1 z	94	96	92	0.96
205	Togo	6-11	1 030	954	43	1 368	48	36	28	120	136	103	0.75
206	Uganda	6-12	7 628	6 288	47	8 098 z	50 z	...	13 z	128	134	122	0.91
207	United Republic of Tanzania	7-13	8 867	4 190	50	8 247	50	0.2	3	67	66	67	1.00
208	Zambia	7-13	2 760	1 556	48	3 135	50	...	3	84	88	81	0.91
209	Zimbabwe	6-12	2 441	2 460	49	...	...	88	...	101	102	99	0.97

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				PRIMARY EDUCATION ADJUSTED NET ENROLMENT RATIO (ANER) (%)								OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)[2]				
School year ending in				School year ending in								School year ending in				
2012				1999				2012				1999		2012		
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	% F	Total	% F	
106	106	105	0.99	99	100	99	0.99	99	99	99	1.00	7.4	98.9	15.5	46	146
99	99	100	1.00	100	100	100	1.00	99	99	100	1.00	0.9	72.5	2	29	147
106	107	105	0.98	*97*	...	...	...	99	98	99	1.01	*20*	...	8	24	148
93	94	93	0.99	...	...	...	...	93	93	93	1.00	...	...	0.1	47	149
103	103	103	0.99	100	100	100	1.00	100	100	100	1.00	8	76	7	26	150
102	102	101	1.00	100	...	...	...	99	100	99	1.00	2	...	3.0	69	151
103	103	103	1.00	99	99	100	1.00	99	99	100	1.01	3	29	4.2	20	152
109	109	108	1.00	100	100	100	1.00	100	100	100	1.00	2	21	7	62	153
98	99	97	0.98	97	96 **	97 **	1.00 **	93	93	93	1.00	841	47 **	1 800	49	154
															South and West Asia	
104	121	87	0.72	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	155
114 *, z	111 *, z	118 *, z	1.06 *, z	...	...	...	...	96 *, y	94 *, y	98 *, y	1.05 *, y	...	...	621 *, y	20 *, y	156
112	111	113	1.02	56	60	53	0.88	92	90	93	1.03	47	54	8	40	157
113 z	111 z	114 z	1.02 z	*86* **	*93* **	*78* **	*0.84* **	99 z	...	...	...	*16 948* **	*74* **	1 387 **	...	158
106	107	105	0.99	86 **	88 **	85 **	0.96 **	100 *	...	...	...	1 154 **	56 **	3 *	...	159
...	...	...	...	98	98	98	1.01	...	...	...	...	1.1	42	...	...	160
135	**130**	**141**	**1.08**	69 *	78 *	60 *	0.77 *	**99** **	...	...	...	906 *	63 *	**45** **	...	161
93	99	86	0.87	**...**	...	...	...	72 *	77 *	67 *	0.87 *	...	...	5 370 *	57 *	162
98	99	98	1.00	***100***	...	...	...	94	94	94	1.00	***3***	...	108	50	163
															Sub-Saharan Africa	
140 z	171 z	110 z	0.64 z	...	...	...	...	86 z	97 z	74 z	0.77 z	...	...	513 z	89 z	164
123	130	116	0.89	...	...	...	...	95	...	...	...	...	...	83	...	165
...	...	...	...	80	78	81	1.04	...	...	...	...	64	46	...	...	166
85	87	83	0.95	36	42	29	0.69	67	68	65	0.95	1 189	54	917	52	167
137	138	137	0.99	*41* **	*45* **	*37* **	*0.83* **	94 y	94 y	94 y	1.00 y	*730* **	*54* **	81 y	51 y	168
112	117	107	0.91	*99* **	...	...	...	97	99	96	0.97	*0.4* **	...	2	78	169
111	118	103	0.88	...	...	...	...	92	97	86	0.88	...	...	295	83	170
95	109	81	0.74	...	...	...	...	72	81	64	0.79	...	...	194	66	171
95	108	82	0.76	50	61	38	0.63	64 z	72 z	56 z	0.77 z	686	61	770 z	61 z	172
117	123	112	0.91	68	74	62	0.85	...	...	...	...	25	58	...	...	173
109	106	113	1.07	...	...	...	...	92	88	96	1.09	...	...	56	26	174
94	102	87	0.85	60	68	51	0.76	...	...	...	...	995	60	...	...	175
111	118	104	0.88	36	37	35	0.95	...	...	...	...	4 886	51	...	...	176
91	92	90	0.98	*68*	*76*	*61*	*0.81*	62	62	62	0.99	*22*	*62*	38	50	177
42	46	39	0.84	29	31	27	0.88	34	36	32	0.88	408	51	518	51	178
...	...	...	...	36	43	30	0.70	...	...	...	...	6 602	55	...	...	179
165 z	167 z	162 z	0.97 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	180
85	83	87	1.04	75	80	70	0.87	74	71	76	1.07	47	60	75	45	181
109	**109**	**109**	**1.00**	62 **	63 **	61 **	0.96 **	**88**	**87**	**88**	**1.00**	1 107 **	50 **	**467**	**48**	182
91	98	83	0.84	42	50	34	0.67	76	81	70	0.86	783	57	431	61	183
116 y	120 y	112 y	0.93 y	*49*	*58*	*41*	*0.71*	71 y	73 y	69 y	0.95 y	*100*	*59*	70 y	53 y	184
...	...	...	...	63 **	62 **	63 **	1.02 **	...	...	...	...	1 955 **	49 **	...	...	185
111	112	110	0.97	60	56	64	1.14	82	80	84	1.04	140	44	62	45	186
102 z	107 z	98 z	0.92 z	47	52	41	0.78	41 z	42 z	40 z	0.95 z	222	55	389 z	50 z	187
145	146	144	0.99	64	63	64	1.01	...	...	...	...	783	50	...	...	188
141	139	144	1.04	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	17	...	...	...	189
88	94	83	0.88	47 **	54 **	40 **	0.73 **	73	78	68	0.88	843 **	56 **	637	58	190
108	109	107	0.99	93	93	93	1.00	98	98	98	1.00	9	48	2	50	191
105	110	100	0.91	52 **	58 **	46 **	0.79 **	86	89	84	0.95	1 609 **	56 **	692	59	192
109	111	108	0.97	88	85	91	1.07	89	87	90	1.04	41	38	43	43	193
71	77	65	0.84	27	32	22	0.67	64	69	58	0.84	1 203	53	1 049	57	194
85 **, y	88 **, y	81 **, y	0.92 **, y	63 **	68 **	57 **	0.84 **	66 **, y	71 **, y	60 **, y	0.84 **, y	7 080 **	56 **	8 709 **, y	57 **, y	195
134	132	135	1.02	82	83	82	0.99	99	...	...	...	223	53	23	...	196
117	**118**	**115**	**0.98**	80	81	79	0.98	**97**	**97**	**97**	**1.01**	5	51	**0.9**	**43**	197
84	81	87	1.08	55	59	50	0.84	79	77	82	1.08	721	55	439	43	198
107 z	104 z	110 z	1.05 z	*93*	*91*	*95*	*1.04*	94 z	...	...	...	*0.6*	*36*	0.5 z	...	199
131	132	131	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	200
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	201
102	104	99	0.95	97 **	95 **	98 **	1.02 **	90 **	90 **	91 **	1.00 **	244 **	34 **	656 **	49 **	202
86 z	103 z	68 z	0.66 z	...	...	...	...	41 **, z	48 **, z	34 **, z	0.71 **, z	...	...	992 **, z	55 **, z	203
115 z	121 z	109 z	0.90 z	71	70	72	1.04	...	...	...	...	66	47	...	...	204
133	138	127	0.92	89	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	91	...	...	...	205
110 z	109 z	111 z	1.02 z	...	...	...	...	91 z	90 z	92 z	1.03 z	...	...	663 z	43 z	206
93	92	94	1.03	49	48	50	1.03	...	...	...	...	3 194	49	...	...	207
114	114	113	0.99	71 **	73 **	70 **	0.96 **	98 **	98 **	98 **	1.00 **	526 **	53 **	59 **	45 **	208
...	...	...	...	84	84	85	1.01	...	...	...	...	380	48	...	...	209

Table 5 (continued)

	Country or territory	Age Group	School-age population (000)	ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY EDUCATION				Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment		GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)			
				School year ending in				School year ending in		School year ending in			
				1999		2012		1999	2012	1999			
		2012	2012[1]	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F			Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
			Sum	Sum	% F	Sum	% F	Median		Weighted average			
I	World	...	650,351	651,833	47	705,103	48	7	9	97	101	93	0.92
II	Countries in transition	...	13,866	17,665	49	13,779	49	0.2	0.7	101	102	101	0.99
III	Developed countries	...	63,885	69,223	49	64,542	49	4	5	102	102	103	1.01
IV	Developing countries	...	572,601	564,945	46	626,781 **	48 **	11	13	97	101	92	0.91
V	Arab States	...	41,289	34,978	45	42,761	47	5	13	91	98	85	0.87
VI	Central and Eastern Europe	...	19,745	24,860	48	19,712	49	0.3	1.0	102	104	100	0.96
VII	Central Asia	...	5,512	6,823	49	5,479 **	48 **	0.2	1.0	97	97	97	1.00
VIII	East Asia and the Pacific	...	157,407	225,312 **	48 **	184,382	47	7	10	104 **	105 **	103 **	0.99 **
IX	East Asia	...	153,512	222,190 **	48 **	180,163	47	2	4	104 **	105 **	103 **	0.99 **
X	Pacific	...	3,894	3,122	48	4,218	48	...	17	94	96	93	0.97
XI	Latin America and the Caribbean	...	59,491	69,972	48	64,696	48	15	18	120	122	117	0.96
XII	Caribbean	...	2,240	2,404 **	49 **	2,386 **	49 **	22	32	109 **	109 **	108 **	0.98 **
XIII	Latin America	...	57,251	67,568	48	62,309	48	14	16	120	123	117	0.96
XIV	North America and Western Europe	...	50,879	52,822	49	51,349	49	6	7	103	103	104	1.01
XV	South and West Asia	...	174,446	154,880	44	192,650 **	48 **	...	5	91	99	82	0.83
XVI	Sub-Saharan Africa	...	141,582	82,185	46	144,075	47	11	10	80	86	73	0.85
XVII	Countries with low income	...	121,431	74,538	46	130,721	48	11	10	78	84	72	0.86
XVIII	Countries with middle income	...	450,205	492,364	46	494,614 **	47 **	5	8	100	105	96	0.92
XIX	Lower middle	...	276,233	241,068	45	291,582 **	48 **	4	8	95	102	87	0.86
XX	Upper middle	...	173,972	251,296 **	48 **	203,032	47	7	8	107 **	108 **	105 **	0.98 **
XXI	Countries with high income	...	78,715	84,931	49	79,768	49	7	11	102	102	102	1.00

Sources: UIS database. Enrolment ratios are based on the United Nations Population Division estimates, revision 2012 (United Nations, 2013), median variant.

Note A: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

Note B: The median values for 1999 and 2012 are not comparable since they are not necessarily based on the same number of countries.

1. Data are for 2012 except for countries with a split calendar school year, in which case data are for 2011.

2. Data reflect the actual number of children not enrolled at all, derived from the age-specific or adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER) of primary school age children, which measures the proportion of those who are enrolled in either primary or secondary school.

3. Enrolment ratios for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to inconsistencies in the population data.

4. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.

5. Enrolment and population data exclude Transnistria.

6. In the Russian Federation, two education structures formerly existed, both starting at age 7. The most widespread one, lasting three years, was used to calculate indicators; the other, accounting for about one-third of primary pupils, had four grades. In 2004, the four-grade structure was extended over the whole country.

7. Enrolment and population data exclude the Nagorno-Karabakh region.

8. Children enter primary school at age 6 or 7. Since 7 is the most common entrance age, enrolment ratios were calculated using the 7–11 age group for population.

9. Enrolment ratios for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.

10. Data include French overseas departments and territories (DOM-TOM).

11. Due to the continuing discrepancy in enrolment by single age, the NER is estimated using the age distribution from the 2011 MICS.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2013, those in italics are for 2000 and those in bold italic are for 2001.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2011.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2010.

(*) National estimate.

(**) For country level data: UIS partial estimate; for regional and other country grouping sums and weighted averages: partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 33% and 60% of population for the region or other country grouping).

(-) Magnitude nil or negligible

(.) The category is not applicable or does not exist.

(...) No data available.

Table 5

	GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRIMARY EDUCATION (%)				PRIMARY EDUCATION ADJUSTED NET ENROLMENT RATIO (ANER) (%)								OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN (000)[2]				
	School year ending in				School year ending in								School year ending in				
	2012				1999				2012				1999		2012		
	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	% F	Total	% F	
	Weighted average				Weighted average				Weighted average				Sum	% F	Sum	% F	
	108	110	107	0.97	84 **	87 **	81 **	0.93 **	91 **	92 **	90 **	0.98 **	105,769 **	58 **	57,788 **	53 **	I
	99	99	99	1.00	92 **	92 **	92 **	1.00 **	96	96	96	1.00	1,412 **	50 **	564	46	II
	101	101	101	0.99	98	98	98	1.00	96	96	96	1.00	1,427	48	2,347	47	III
	109 **	111 **	108 **	0.97 **	82 **	86 **	79 **	0.92 **	90 **	91 **	89 **	0.98 **	102,930 **	59 **	54,876 **	53 **	IV
	104	107	100	0.93	80	84	75	0.90	89 **	91 **	87 **	0.96 **	7,772	59	4,467 **	58 **	V
	100	100	100	1.00	93 **	94 **	92 **	0.98 **	96	96	96	1.00	1,763 **	57 **	827	48	VI
	99 **	100 **	99 **	0.99 **	95 **	95 **	94 **	0.99 **	95 **	95 **	94 **	0.99 **	379 **	52 **	295 **	52 **	VII
	117	118	116	0.99	95 **	95 **	94 **	1.00 **	96 **	96 **	96 **	1.00 **	11,883 **	50 **	6,923 **	47 **	VIII
	117	118	117	0.99	95 **	95 **	94 **	1.00 **	96 **	96 **	96 **	1.00 **	11,474 **	50 **	6,686 **	47 **	IX
	108	110	106	0.97	88	89	86	0.97	94	95	93	0.98	409	54	238	55	X
	109	110	107	0.97	93	94	92	0.97	94 **	93 **	94 **	1.00 **	3,999	58	3,763 **	47 **	XI
	107 **	107 **	106 **	0.99 **	74 **	74 **	74 **	1.00 **	71 **	70 **	72 **	1.02 **	583 **	49 **	650 **	48 **	XII
	109	110	107	0.97	94	95	93	0.97	95 **	94 **	95 **	1.00 **	3,416	60	3,113 **	47 **	XIII
	101	101	100	0.99	98	98	98	1.00	96	96	96	1.00	992	48	2,060	47	XIV
	110 **	110 **	111 **	1.00 **	78 **	86 **	70 **	0.82 **	94 **	94 **	94 **	1.00 **	36,697 **	66 **	9,814 **	48 **	XV
	102	106	98	0.92	59	63	55	0.88	79 **	82 **	76 **	0.93 **	42,283	54	29,639 **	56 **	XVI
	108	110	105	0.95	60 **	63 **	56 **	0.89 **	83 **	85 **	81 **	0.96 **	38,656 **	54 **	20,746 **	55 **	XVII
	110 **	111 **	108 **	0.97 **	87 **	90 **	83 **	0.92 **	92 **	93 **	92 **	0.99 **	64,004 **	62 **	34,221 **	52 **	XVIII
	106 **	106 **	105 **	0.98 **	80 **	86 **	74 **	0.86 **	90 **	91 **	90 **	0.98 **	50,348 **	64 **	26,333 **	52 **	XIX
	117	119	115	0.96	94 **	95 **	94 **	0.99 **	95 **	96 **	95 **	0.99 **	13,656 **	54 **	7,888 **	53 **	XX
	101	102	101	1.00	96	96	96	1.00	96	96	97	1.00	3,109	48	2,821	45	XXI

Table 6

Internal efficiency in primary education: repetition, dropouts and completion

	Country or territory	Duration[1] of primary education	INTERNAL EFFICIENCY – REPETITION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION – REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%) – School year ending in 1999			REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%) – School year ending in 2012			NUMBER OF REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (000) – School year ending in 1999			NUMBER OF REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (000) – School year ending in 2012		
		2012	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
	Arab States													
1	Algeria	5	11.9	14.6	8.7	6.8	8.6	4.9	568	373	195	236	156	80
2	Bahrain	6	3.8	4.6	3.1	1.0	1.1	0.9	3	2	1	1.0	0.5	0.4
3	Djibouti	5	16.6	16.9 **	16.1 **	**8.8**	**8.7**	**8.9**	6	4 **	3 **	**6**	**3**	**3**
4	Egypt	6	6.0 **	7.1 **	4.6 **	3.4	4.2	2.5	483 **	308 **	176 **	365	237	128
5	Iraq	6	10.0	10.7	9.2	...	...	...	362	216	146	...	...	...
6	Jordan	6	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.5	5	2	3	5	3	2
7	Kuwait	5	3.3	3.4	3.1	0.6	0.6	0.5	5	2	2	1.4	0.8	0.6
8	Lebanon	6	9.1 **	10.4 **	7.6 **	8.2	9.6	6.8	38 **	22 **	15 **	38	23	15
9	Libya	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
10	Mauritania	6	15.8	15.3	16.3	3.7	3.6	3.8	55	27	27	21	10	11
11	Morocco	6	12.4	14.1	10.2	**9.2**	**11.1**	**7.2**	429	274	155	**371**	**233**	**138**
12	Oman	6	8.0	9.5	6.4	1.0	0.9	1.1	25	16	10	3	1	2
13	Palestine	4	2.1	2.2	2.0	0.7	0.7	0.7	8	4	4	3	2	1
14	Qatar	6	2.7 **	3.5 **	1.9 **	0.2 [2]	0.3 [2]	0.2 [2]	1.7 **	1.1 **	0.6 **	0.2 [2]	0.1 [2]	0.1 [2]
15	Saudi Arabia	6	...	...	...	**1.4**	**1.7**	**1.1**	...	...	...	**50**	**31**	**19**
16	Sudan	6	...	...	...	4.3 [y]	4.4 [y]	4.1 [y]	...	...	...	171 [y]	95 [y]	76 [y]
17	Syrian Arab Republic	4	6.5	7.2	5.6	7.4	8.4	6.4	178	106	72	190	111	79
18	Tunisia	6	18.3	20.0	16.4	6.0 [y]	7.4 [y]	4.4 [y]	264	152	112	61 [y]	39 [y]	22 [y]
19	United Arab Emirates	5	3.5	4.4	2.5	-	-	-	9	6	3	-	-	-
20	Yemen	6	10.6	11.7 *	8.7 *	6.7	7.3	5.8	244	175 *	70 *	245	150	95
21	Sudan (pre-secession)	6	11.3 **	10.9 **	11.8 **	...	...	...	284 **	150 **	133 **	...	...	...
	Central and Eastern Europe													
22	Albania	5	*3.9*	*4.6*	*3.3*	0.8	0.9	0.7	*11*	*7*	*4*	1.6	1.0	0.7
23	Belarus	4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0 *	0.0 *	3.3	1.7	1.6	0.1	0.1 *	0.1 *
24	Bosnia and Herzegovina	5	...	...	...	0.1	0.1	0.0	...	...	...	0.1	0.1	0.0
25	Bulgaria	4	3.2	3.7	2.7	0.2	0.2	0.1	13	8	5	0.4	0.2	0.2
26	Croatia	4	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.9	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2
27	Czech Republic	5	1.2	1.5	1.0	0.5	0.6	0.5	8	5	3	3	2	1
28	Estonia	6	2.5	3.5	1.4	0.5	0.7	0.4	3.1	2.3	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.1
29	Hungary	4	2.2	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.2	1.5	11	6	5	7	4	3
30	Latvia	6	2.1	2.7 **	1.3 **	.	.	.	2.9	2.0 **	0.9 **	2	1	1
31	Lithuania	4	0.9	1.3	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.4	2.0	1.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.2
32	Montenegro	5	...	...	...	0.1	0.1	0.1	...	...	...	0.0	0.0	0.0
33	Poland	6	1.2	...	...	0.8	1.1	0.5	40	...	...	17	12	5
34	Republic of Moldova	4	0.9	...	...	.	.	.	2	...	...	.	.	.
35	Romania	4	3.4	4.1	2.6	1.5	1.7	1.2	43	27	16	12	7	5
36	Russian Federation	4	1.4	...	...	0.4	...	...	93	...	...	20	...	...
37	Serbia	4	...	...	...	0.4	0.4	0.4	...	...	...	1.1	0.6	0.5
38	Slovakia	4	2.3	2.6	2.0	2.9	3.1	2.7	7	4	3	6	3	3
39	Slovenia	6	1.0	1.3	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.3
40	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	5	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.0	0.0	-	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-
41	Turkey	5	...	...	...	2.3	2.0	2.5	...	...	...	145	66	80
42	Ukraine	4	0.8	0.8 *	0.8 *	0.1	0.1 *	0.1 *	17	9 *	8 *	0.9	0.5 *	0.4 *
	Central Asia													
43	Armenia	4	***0.1***	...	...	0.2	0.2	0.2	***0.2***	...	...	0.2	0.1	0.1
44	Azerbaijan	4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	3	2	1	1.2	0.6	0.5
45	Georgia	6	0.3	...	...	0.2	0.2	0.2	1	...	...	0.6	0.4	0.3
46	Kazakhstan	4	0.3	...	...	**0.05**	**0.06**	**0.04**	4	...	...	**0.5**	**0.3**	**0.2**
47	Kyrgyzstan	4	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0	1.5	1.0	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.1
48	Mongolia	5	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	2	1	1	0.3	0.2	0.1
49	Tajikistan	4	0.5	...	...	0.2	0.2	0.2	4	...	...	1.4	0.7	0.7
50	Turkmenistan	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
51	Uzbekistan	4	0.07	...	...	0.0 [2]	0.0 [2]	0.0 [2]	2	...	...	0.08 [2]	0.07 [2]	0.02 [2]
	East Asia and the Pacific													
52	Australia	7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
53	Brunei Darussalam	6	.	.	.	0.1	0.1	0.0	.	.	.	0.03	0.02	0.01
54	Cambodia	6	24.2	25.1	23.1	5.8	6.6	5.1	515	290	225	128	75	53
55	China	5	...	...	...	0.2	0.2	0.1	...	...	...	170	104	66
56	Cook Islands	6	2.6	...	...	-	-	-	0.1	...	...	-	-	-
57	Democratic People's Republic of Korea	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
58	Fiji	6	.	.	.	0.5	0.7	0.4	.	.	.	0.6	0.4	0.2
59	Indonesia	6	***6.2***	***6.2***	***6.2***	2.9	3.1	2.7	***1,769***	***910***	***859***	894	488	405
60	Japan	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
61	Kiribati	6	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	.	.	...	...	...
62	Lao People's Democratic Republic	5	20.9	22.4	19.1	10.7	11.7	9.6	173	102	71	94	54	40
63	Macao, China	6	6.3	7.3	5.1	4.4	5.5	3.1	3	2	1	1.0	0.7	0.3
64	Malaysia	6	.	.	.	. [2]	. [2]	. [2]	.	.	.	. [2]	. [2]	. [2]
65	Marshall Islands	6	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
66	Micronesia (Federated States of)	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
67	Myanmar	5	1.7	1.7 **	1.7 **	0.3 [y]	0.3 [y]	0.3 [y]	81	41 **	40 **	15 [y]	7 [y]	9 [y]
68	Nauru	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
69	New Zealand	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
70	Niue	6	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	.	.	...	...	...
71	Palau	5	-	-	-	...	...	...	-	-	-	...	...	...

Table 6

INTERNAL EFFICIENCY																
PRIMARY EDUCATION COMPLETION																
NUMBER OF EARLY SCHOOL LEAVERS, ALL GRADES (000)						SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE (%)						PRIMARY COHORT COMPLETION RATE (%)			
School year ending in						School year ending in						School year ending in			
1999			2012			1999			2011			2011			
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
														Arab States	
59	34	25	51	33	19	91	90	93	93	91	95	...	...	...	1
1.0	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.3	90	89	91	98	99	97	...	...	...	2
...	...	...	**3**	**1**	**2**	...	...	...	**76**	**80**	**71**	...	...	...	3
13 **	*9* **	*4* **	69 y	40 y	29 y	99 **	99 **	99 **	96 x	96 x	97 x	...	...	...	4
358 **	*186* **	*172* **	...	...	...	49 **	51 **	47 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	5
5	*2*	*2*	3.1 z	2.2 z	0.8 z	96	97	96	98 y	97 y	99 y	...	...	...	6
3	2	1	3	2	1	94	93	95	94	93	95	...	...	...	7
7 **	*5* **	*2* **	5	4	1	90 **	87 **	94 **	93	90	96	87.9	84.4	91.6	8
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9
30	15	14	...	...	...	***40***	***39***	***42***	...	...	...	...	...	...	10
220	118	102	**53**	**27**	**27**	75	75	76	**92**	**92**	**91**	**76.6**	**77.3**	**75.9**	11
4	2	2	4	2	1	92	92	92	94	92	95	...	...	...	12
1.4	*0.4*	*1.0*	0.8	0.1	0.7	99	99	98	99	100	99	96.1	...	...	13
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14
...	...	...	8	...	...	...	...	...	99	...	...	...	...	...	15
...	...	...	176 y	79 y	97 y	...	...	...	76 x	79 x	72 x	...	...	...	16
59	...	...	43	23	20	87	87	87	93	93	93	93.6 y	93.1 y	94.1 y	17
27	16	12	9 y	5 y	4 y	87	86	88	95 x	95 x	95 x	90.4 x	88.6 x	92.3 x	18
1.7	0.9	0.8	12 z	6 z	6 z	89	90	89	84 y	85 y	84 y	94.6 y	91.4 y	98.2 y	19
...	...	...	...	...	...	***69*** **	***72*** **	***64*** **	...	...	...	...	...	...	20
102 **	*66* **	*36* **	...	...	...	77 **	74 **	81 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	21
														Central and Eastern Europe	
7	***5***	***2***	0.5	0.3	0.2	*90*	*86*	*93*	99	98	99	96.8	97.0	96.7	22
11	10	1	0.8 *	0.5 *	0.3 *	99	99	99	99 *	99 *	99 *	95.4 *	94.2 *	96.8 *	23
...	...	...	5.5	2.9	2.6	...	...	...	99 x	99 x	98 x	...	...	...	24
9	5	4	2.0	0.9	1.1	93	93	93	97	97	96	...	...	...	25
0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.0	99	99	100	99	99	100	...	...	...	26
2.1	*1.2*	*0.8*	0.8	0.5	0.3	98	98	99	99	99	99	...	...	...	27
0.4	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.2	98	98	99	97	97	97	...	...	...	28
5	3	2	1.8 y	0.9 y	0.9 y	96	95	98	98 x	98 x	98 x	...	...	...	29
0.9	*0.5*	*0.4*	1.8	1.0	0.9	97	97	97	93 y	93 y	93 y	...	...	...	30
0.6	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.3	0.3	99	99	100	97	98	97	...	...	...	31
...	...	...	1.4	0.8	0.7	...	...	...	80	80	81	...	...	...	32
-	...	...	5 z	3 z	2 z	98	...	...	99 y	98 y	99 y	...	...	...	33
3	...	...	1.5	0.9	0.6	95	...	...	96	95	96	93.7	92.4	95.1	34
12	7	5	12	7	6	96	95	96	94	94	94	...	...	...	35
87	...	...	50.0	...	...	95	...	...	97	...	...	...	...	...	36
...	...	...	1.2	0.6	0.6	...	...	...	98	98	98	93.3	93.1	93.5	37
1.9	0.8	1.0	1.1	0.5	0.6	97	96	98	98	98	98	...	...	...	38
0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	100	100	100	99	99	99	...	...	...	39
0.5	0.3	0.2	...	...	...	97	96	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	40
...	...	...	131	62	69	...	...	...	90	91	89	...	...	...	41
17 *	9 *	8 *	8 *	5 *	3 *	97 *	96 *	97 *	98 *	98 *	99 *	...	...	...	42
														Central Asia	
...	...	...	1.6	0.8	0.8	...	...	...	96	96	95	85.6	76.5	96.0	43
4	3	2	2.3	1.6	0.7	97	96	98	98	98	99	95.4	95.2	95.6	44
0.6	*0.5*	*0.1*	3.6	0.9	2.7	99	99	100	93	97	89	94.5 x	94.7 x	94.3 x	45
15 **	***4*** **	***11*** **	**2.1**	**1.3**	**0.8**	*95* **	*97* **	*92* **	**99**	**99**	**99**	**98.9**	**99.4**	**98.4**	46
6 *	*3* *	*3* *	3	2	1	95 *	95 *	94 *	97	97	97	95.3	94.7	95.9	47
9	5	3	3	2	1	87	85	90	93	92	94	91.4	90.3	92.6	48
6	...	...	3.3	2.7	0.6	97	...	...	98	97	99	98.5	99.1	97.9	49
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50
3	...	...	9 z	5 z	4 z	100	...	...	98 y	98 y	98 y	99.6 y	99.5 y	99.8 y	51
														East Asia and the Pacific	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	52
0.5	...	...	0.2	0.1	0.2	...	...	...	96	98	95	86.7 y	...	...	53
222	114	108	133	74	58	*55*	*56*	*53*	66	64	69	...	...	...	54
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	55
0.3 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	56
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	57
3	2	1	0.6	0.5	0.2	82	82	82	97	95	98	...	...	...	58
...	...	...	544	...	...	***86***	***83***	***89***	89	...	...	86.6 y	...	...	59
0.31	0.26	0.05	1.8	0.7	1.0	100	100	100	100	100	100	...	...	...	60
...	...	...	...	...	...	***69***	***72***	***67***	...	...	...	...	...	...	61
82	46	37	54	29	25	55	55	54	70	69	71	65.3	63.7	67.1	62
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	98 x	...	...	94.8 x	...	...	63
...	...	...	3.5 y	3.2 y	0.3 y	...	...	...	99 x	99 x	100 x	96.0 y	...	...	64
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	65
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	66
563	***285***	***278***	302 y	169 y	133 y	*55*	*55*	*55*	75 x	72 x	77 x	68.5 x	68.6 x	68.5 x	67
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	68
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	69
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	70
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	71

Table 6 (continued)

	Country or territory	Duration[1] of primary education 2012	INTERNAL EFFICIENCY – REPETITION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION – REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%) – School year ending in 1999 – Total	Male	Female	2012 – Total	Male	Female	NUMBER OF REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (000) – School year ending in 1999 – Total	Male	Female	2012 – Total	Male	Female
72	Papua New Guinea	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
73	Philippines	6	1.9	2.4	1.4	...	...	...	237	153	83	...	...	...
74	Republic of Korea	6	-	-	-	0.0	0.0	0.0	-	-	-	0.1	0.0	0.0
75	Samoa	6	1.0	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1
76	Singapore	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
77	Solomon Islands	6	...	...	...	8.3	8.6	7.9	...	...	...	10	5	5
78	Thailand	6	3.5	3.4	3.5	...	...	...	213	109	104	...	...	...
79	Timor-Leste	6	...	...	...	18.3 [2]	20.2 [2]	16.2 [2]	...	...	...	44 [2]	25 [2]	19 [2]
80	Tokelau	6	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	.	.	...	...	...
81	Tonga	6	8.8	8.5	9.2	2.8	3.1	2.5	1	1	1	0.5	0.3	0.2
82	Tuvalu	6	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	.	.	...	...	...
83	Vanuatu	6	*10.6*	*11.1*	*9.9*	13.4 [y]	14.7 [y]	12.0 [y]	*4*	*2*	*2*	6 [y]	3 [y]	2 [y]
84	Viet Nam	5	3.8	4.2	3.2	1.3	...	...	385	229	157	93	...	...
	Latin America and the Caribbean													
85	Anguilla	7	0.3	0.4	0.3	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]	0.0	0.0	0.0	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]
86	Antigua and Barbuda	7	...	...	...	4.0	5.5	2.4	...	...	...	0.4	0.3	0.1
87	Argentina	6	5.9	6.9	4.9	4.2 [2]	5.0 [2]	3.3 [2]	277	165	112	195 [2]	120 [2]	75 [2]
88	Aruba	6	7.7	9.5	5.9	7.4 [y]	8.3 [y]	6.5 [y]	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.7 [y]	0.4 [y]	0.3 [y]
89	Bahamas	6	.	.	.	3.5 [y]	4.4 [y]	2.7 [y]	.	.	.	1.2 [y]	0.7 [y]	0.4 [y]
90	Barbados	6	.	.	.	. [*, 2]	. [*, 2]	. [*, 2]	.	.	.	. [2]	. [2]	. [2]
91	Belize	6	9.7	10.8	8.4	7.6	8.9	6.2	4	2	2	4	2	2
92	Bermuda	6	**.**	**.**	**.**	. [2]	. [2]	. [2]	**.**	**.**	**.**	. [2]	. [2]	. [2]
93	Bolivia, Plurinational State of	6	2.4	2.6	2.3	6.1 [2]	6.8 [2]	5.4 [2]	35	19	16	85 [2]	49 [2]	36 [2]
94	Brazil	4	24.0	24.0	24.0	8.7 [2]	...	...	5,035	2,632	2,403	1,443 [2]	...	...
95	British Virgin Islands	7	*4.3* **	*4.4* **	*4.2* **	7.2 [2]	9.7 [2]	4.4 [2]	*0.1* **	*0.1* **	*0.1* **	0.2 [2]	0.2 [2]	0.1 [2]
96	Cayman Islands	6	0.2	0.2	0.1	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]	0.0	0.0	0.0	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]
97	Chile	6	2.4	2.9	1.9	4.7	5.8	3.5	44	27	17	70	45	26
98	Colombia	5	5.2	5.8	4.6	2.5	2.8	2.1	269	151	117	117	68	49
99	Costa Rica	6	8.9	10.1	7.6	5.3	6.1	4.5	51	30	21	26	16	11
100	Cuba	6	1.6	2.2	1.0	0.6	0.8	0.4	17	12	5	5	3	1
101	Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
102	Dominica	7	3.6	3.8	3.5	4.2	4.6	3.8	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2
103	Dominican Republic	6	4.1	4.5	3.7	8.0	10.4	5.3	54	30	24	103	71	32
104	Ecuador	6	2.7	3.0	2.4	1.6	1.8	1.3	51	29	23	33	19	14
105	El Salvador	6	7.1 **	7.7 **	6.4 **	6.4	7.7	4.9	67 **	38 **	29 **	55	35	20
106	Grenada	7	2.7	3.3	2.0	3.5 [y]	4.4 [y]	2.5 [y]	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.5 [y]	0.3 [y]	0.2 [y]
107	Guatemala	6	14.9	15.8	13.8	11.0 [2]	11.7 [2]	10.1 [2]	271	155	116	290 [2]	159 [2]	130 [2]
108	Guyana	6	3.1	3.6	2.5	.	.	.	3	2	1	.	.	.
109	Haiti	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
110	Honduras	6	...	...	...	4.8	5.6	3.9	...	...	...	58	35	23
111	Jamaica	6	*5.1*	*6.6*	*3.5*	3.0	3.5	2.6	*17*	*11*	*6*	9	5	4
112	Mexico	6	6.6	7.6	5.5	2.9	3.5	2.2	970	577	393	433	271	162
113	Montserrat	7	0.8	1.4	-	...	...	...	0.0	0.0	-	...	...	...
114	Nicaragua	6	4.7	5.3	4.1	7.9 [y]	9.2 [y]	6.6 [y]	39	22	17	73 [y]	44 [y]	30 [y]
115	Panama	6	6.4	7.4	5.2	5.1	5.5	4.6	25	15	10	22	12	10
116	Paraguay	6	7.8	8.8	6.7	4.6 [2]	5.5 [2]	3.6 [2]	74	43	31	38 [2]	24 [2]	14 [2]
117	Peru	6	10.2	10.5	9.9	4.8	5.1	4.5	444	232	212	167	91	76
118	Saint Kitts and Nevis	7	.	.	.	1.0	1.3	0.8	.	.	.	0.1	0.0	0.0
119	Saint Lucia	7	...	...	...	2.3	2.8	1.8	...	...	...	0.4	0.3	0.2
120	Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
121	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	7	9.1	10.2	7.9	4.9	6.0	3.7	1.8	1.1	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.2
122	Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
123	Suriname	6	...	...	...	16.0 [2]	19.0 [2]	12.7 [2]	...	...	...	11 [2]	7 [2]	4 [2]
124	Trinidad and Tobago	7	4.7	4.9	4.4	6.3 [y]	7.4 [y]	5.2 [y]	8	4	4	8 [y]	5 [y]	3 [y]
125	Turks and Caicos Islands	6	*8.4*	*8.7*	*8.0*	...	...	...	*0.2*	*0.1*	*0.1*	...	...	...
126	Uruguay	6	7.9	9.3	6.5	5.5 [y]	6.6 [y]	4.4 [y]	29	18	12	19 [y]	12 [y]	7 [y]
127	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	6	7.0 **	8.5 **	5.5 **	3.2	3.6	2.7	229 **	142 **	86 **	110	64	46
128	Netherlands Antilles	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	North America and Western Europe													
129	Andorra	6	...	...	...	2.3	2.7	1.9	...	...	...	0.1	0.1	0.0
130	Austria	4	1.5	1.8	1.3	2.5	2.8	2.1	6	4	2	8	5	3
131	Belgium	6	...	...	...	3.0	3.0	2.9	...	...	...	22	12	11
132	Canada	6	-	-	-	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]	-	-	-	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]
133	Cyprus	6	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
134	Denmark	7	-	-	-	0.7	0.8	0.5	-	-	-	3.1	2.0	1.2
135	Finland	6	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.3	1.7	1.1	0.5	1.3	0.9	0.4
136	France	5	4.2	...	...	...	...	...	165	...	...	...	...	...
137	Germany	4	1.7	1.9	1.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	65	37	28	14	7	6
138	Greece	6	-	-	-	0.8 [2]	0.9 [2]	0.7 [2]	-	-	-	5 [2]	3 [2]	2 [2]
139	Iceland	7	-	-	-	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]	-	-	-	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]
140	Ireland	8	1.8	2.1	1.6	0.6 [2]	0.7 [2]	0.6 [2]	8	5	4	3 [2]	2 [2]	1 [2]
141	Israel	6	...	...	...	1.3 [2]	1.7 [2]	0.9 [2]	...	...	...	10 [2]	7 [2]	3 [2]
142	Italy	5	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.3 [2]	0.4 [2]	0.2 [2]	11	7	4	9 [2]	6 [2]	3 [2]
143	Luxembourg	6	5.0	...	...	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]	2	...	...	- [2]	- [2]	- [2]
144	Malta	6	2.1	2.4	1.8	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.07	0.02	0.05
145	Monaco	5	-	-	-	...	...	...	-	-	-	...	...	...

Table 6

INTERNAL EFFICIENCY																
PRIMARY EDUCATION COMPLETION																
NUMBER OF EARLY SCHOOL LEAVERS, ALL GRADES (000)						SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE (%)						PRIMARY COHORT COMPLETION RATE (%)			
School year ending in						School year ending in						School year ending in			
1999			2012			1999			2011			2011			
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	72
758	465	293	...	...	...	***75***	***71***	***80***	...	...	...	...	...	...	73
5	2	3	3.4	1.9	1.5	99	99	99	99	99	99	...	...	...	74
0.5 *	*0.3* *	*0.2* *	0.5	0.2	0.3	90 *	88 *	92 *	90	91	89	93.0 y	89.3 y	97.2 y	75
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	76
...	...	...	7	4	3	...	...	...	63	61	66	...	...	...	77
182 **	*110* **	*72* **	...	...	...	82 **	79 **	85 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	78
...	...	...	6 z	4 z	3 z	...	...	...	84 y	82 y	85 y	65.6 y	63.3 y	68.0 y	79
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	80
0.3	...	...	...	...	...	*91*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	81
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	82
1.9	*1.1*	*0.9*	...	...	...	69	67	71	...	...	...	...	...	...	83
342	*209*	*133*	37	...	...	83	80	86	97	...	...	92.5	...	...	84
Latin America and the Caribbean															
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	85
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	86
60	29	31	52 z	33 z	18 z	89	86	91	93 y	91 y	95 y	...	...	...	87
0.1	*0.0*	*0.0*	0.1 y	...	...	96	97	94	93 x	...	...	88.3 x	...	...	88
...	...	...	0.6 y	0.2 y	0.3 y	...	...	...	89 x	91 x	88 x	...	...	...	89
0.3	*0.1*	*0.2*	0.2 *,z	...	...	91	92	90	93 *,y	...	...	91.6 *,y	...	...	90
2	*1*	*1*	0.7 z	0.3 z	0.4 z	74	74	73	91 y	93 y	89 y	87.6 y	83.9 y	91.4 y	91
...	...	...	...	...	...	***87***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	92
64	29	35	29 z	15 z	14 z	80	82	77	86 y	86 y	86 y	81.8 y	81.5 y	82.0 y	93
812	...	...	...	...	...	*80*	...	...	54 x	...	...	...	...	...	94
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	95
0.04	...	...	...	...	...	*92*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	96
4	3	1	3.0	2.3	0.7	98	97	98	99	98	99	...	...	...	97
463	295	169	146	87	59	67	64	69	85	83	87	84.1	84.4	83.7	98
10	*6*	*4*	8	5	4	89	87	90	88	87	90	85.9 *	83.9 *	88.1 *	99
8	*5*	*3*	4	3	1	95	94	96	96	95	98	94.1	94.0	94.2	100
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	101
0.3	...	...	0.1	0.1	0.1	*79*	...	...	88	90	86	88.9	82.1	96.0	102
88	55	33	42	25	17	71	66	75	79	76	83	80.6	70.6	93.0	103
94 **	50 **	44 **	31	18	12	75	74	75	91	90	93	86.8	85.9	87.6	104
78 **	41 **	37 **	20	12	9	62 **	63 **	62 **	84	82	86	80.8	78.6	83.2	105
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	106
204	*110*	*94*	128 z	64 z	63 z	52	50	54	71 y	71 y	71 y	64.0 y	64.1 y	64.0 y	107
8	***5***	***4***	1.1	0.7	0.4	*65*	*62*	*69*	92	90	95	98.4	97.9	98.9	108
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	109
...	...	...	65	37	28	...	...	...	70	66	73	73.4	70.0	77.1	110
8	...	...	8 z	4 z	3 z	*85*	...	...	82 y	81 y	83 y	...	...	...	111
333	183	149	100	60	40	87	86	88	96	95	97	...	...	...	112
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	113
111	*62*	*48*	...	...	...	46	42	50	...	...	...	...	...	...	114
7	*4*	*3*	6	...	...	90	90	91	92	...	...	92.9	...	...	115
46 **	24 **	22 **	27 z	16 z	11 z	73 **	71 **	76 **	80 y	78 y	83 y	...	...	...	116
108	54	54	113 z	55 z	58 z	83	84	82	74	75	73	...	...	...	117
0.3	...	...	0.2 y	0.1 y	0.1 y	*74*	...	...	74 x	78 x	70 x	87.3 x	87.9 x	86.5 x	118
...	...	...	0.2	0.1	0.1	...	...	...	90	91	88	89.6	90.0	89.3	119
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	120
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	69 y	61 y	77 y	...	...	...	121
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	122
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	123
2	...	...	2.0 *,y	1.3 *,y	0.7 *,y	*89*	...	...	89 *,x	87 *,x	92 *,x	92.2 *,x	91.6 *,x	92.7 *,x	124
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	125
9	6	3	2.6 y	1.6 y	1.0 y	*87*	*85*	*88*	95 x	94 x	96 x	...	...	...	126
68	*46*	*22*	35	29	5	88	84	92	94	90	98	92.4	89.6	95.4	127
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	128
North America and Western Europe															
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	129
3	2	1	0.2	...	...	...	...	...	100	99	100	...	...	...	130
...	...	...	16	9	7	...	...	...	93 y	92 y	94 y	...	...	...	131
11	9	2	...	...	...	99	98	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	132
0.5	*0.4*	*0.2*	...	...	...	95	94	96	...	...	...	...	...	...	133
0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7 y	0.5 y	0.3 y	100	100	100	99 x	99 x	99 x	...	...	...	134
0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.0	99	100	99	100	99	100	...	...	...	135
14	...	...	...	...	...	98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	136
8	*5*	*2*	27	...	...	99	99	99	96	...	...	...	...	...	137
...	...	...	7.7 z	4.1 z	3.6 z	...	...	...	93 y	93 y	93 y	...	...	...	138
0.09	0.05	0.04	0.1 z	0.1 z	0.1 z	98	...	...	97 y	97 y	97 y	...	...	...	139
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	140
...	...	...	1.5 z	0.5 z	1.0 z	***99***	***100***	***98***	99 y	99 y	99 y	...	...	...	141
34	...	...	2.7 z	0.0 z	2.7 z	94	...	...	100 y	100 y	99 y	...	...	...	142
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	143
0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	98	...	...	94	94	95	...	...	...	144
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	145

Table 6 (continued)

	Country or territory	Duration[1] of primary education	INTERNAL EFFICIENCY – REPETITION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION – REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%) – School year ending in 1999 – Total	Male	Female	2012 – Total	Male	Female	NUMBER OF REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (000) – School year ending in 1999 – Total	Male	Female	2012 – Total	Male	Female
		2012												
146	Netherlands	6	.	.	.	. y	. y	. y	.	.	.	. y	. y	. y
147	Norway	7	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
148	Portugal	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
149	San Marino	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
150	Spain	6	...	...	...	2.4	2.7	2.1	...	...	...	68	40	28
151	Sweden	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
152	Switzerland	6	1.8	1.9	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.2	9	5	4	6	3	3
153	United Kingdom	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
154	United States	6	- **	- **	- **	- **	- **	- **	- **	- **	- **	- **	- **	- **
	South and West Asia													
155	Afghanistan	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
156	Bangladesh	5	...	...	...	9.4 *, z	9.7 *, z	9.1 *, z	...	...	...	1,727 *, z	882 *, z	845 *, z
157	Bhutan	7	12.1	12.5	11.7	5.3	6.1	4.5	10	6	4	6	3	2
158	India	5	4.0	4.0	4.1	5.0 z	5.1 z	5.0 z	4,453	2,486	1,967	6,912 z	3,638 z	3,273 z
159	Iran, Islamic Republic of	5	*5.4*	*6.6*	*4.1*	1.5 *	1.8 *	1.2 *	*447*	*287*	*160*	85 *	52 *	33 *
160	Maldives	7	-	-	-	3.4	3.9	2.8	-	-	-	1.3	0.8	0.5
161	Nepal	5	22.9	22.2	23.8	**11.1**	**11.2**	**11.0**	821	463	358	**506**	**253**	**253**
162	Pakistan	5	...	...	...	3.3	3.5	3.1	...	...	...	607	354	253
163	Sri Lanka	5	***1.4***	***1.6***	***1.2***	0.8	0.9	0.7	***25***	***15***	***10***	14	8	6
	Sub-Saharan Africa													
164	Angola	6	...	...	...	10.3 z	8.6 z	12.9 z	...	...	...	518 z	265 z	253 z
165	Benin	6	*19.9* **	*20.0* **	*19.8* **	11.6	11.7	11.6	*186* **	*111* **	*74* **	231	123	108
166	Botswana	7	3.3	3.9	2.7	...	...	...	11	6	4	...	...	...
167	Burkina Faso	6	17.7	17.5	18.0	8.2	8.1	8.2	145	85	59	192	100	92
168	Burundi	6	*25.2*	*24.5*	*26.1*	33.1	32.8	33.3	*178*	*96*	*82*	655	323	332
169	Cabo Verde	6	*11.6*	*12.8*	*10.3*	10.0	12.1	7.7	*11*	*6*	*5*	7	4	2
170	Cameroon	6	26.7 **	26.8 **	26.5 **	12.3	12.7	11.9	569 **	315 **	253 **	474	263	212
171	Central African Republic	6	...	...	...	22.7	22.6	22.9	...	...	...	151	85	65
172	Chad	6	25.9	25.7	26.3	23.0	22.5	23.6	218	137	81	481	269	212
173	Comoros	6	26.0	27.4	24.3	24.4 z	...	...	22	12	9	28 z	...	...
174	Congo	6	39.1	40.0	38.2	22.8	24.8	20.9	108	57	51	167	88	79
175	Côte d'Ivoire	6	23.7	22.8 **	24.9 **	19.6	20.0	19.2	452	250 **	202 **	574	317	256
176	Democratic Rep. of the Congo	6	15.5	18.8	11.9	11.2	11.0	11.4	625	398	227	1,346	707	639
177	Equatorial Guinea	6	*12.1*	*9.7*	*14.9*	18.1	19.1	17.0	*9*	*4*	*5*	17	9	8
178	Eritrea	5	19.4	18.2	20.8	12.6	13.4	11.5	51	26	25	42	25	17
179	Ethiopia	6	10.6	9.8	11.9	8.8	9.2	8.3	546	316	231	1,272	697	575
180	Gabon	5	***36.5***	***37.4***	***35.6***	...	...	...	***97***	***50***	***47***	...	...	...
181	Gambia	6	9.2	9.2	9.1	2.6	2.7	2.5	16	9	7	6	3	3
182	Ghana	6	4.2	4.3	4.1	**2.6**	**2.6**	**2.5**	100	54	46	**105**	**54**	**51**
183	Guinea	6	26.2	25.5	27.4	14.2	14.0	14.4	190	115	76	227	123	105
184	Guinea-Bissau	6	*24.0*	*23.6*	*24.5*	14.1 y	13.9 y	14.2 y	*36*	*21*	*15*	39 y	20 y	19 y
185	Kenya	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
186	Lesotho	7	20.4	23.0	17.9	16.7	19.5	13.7	74	41	34	64	38	26
187	Liberia	6	...	...	...	6.5 z	6.2 z	6.9 z	...	...	...	44 z	22 z	22 z
188	Madagascar	5	29.9 **	30.9 **	28.9 **	20.5	21.7	19.3	602 **	316 **	286 **	903	482	421
189	Malawi	6	14.4	14.4	14.4	19.7	19.9	19.5	372	191	181	726	363	362
190	Mali	6	17.4	17.2	17.7	19.2	19.4	19.0	167	97	70	406	222	185
191	Mauritius	6	3.8	4.1	3.5	3.7	4.3	3.0	5	3	2	4	2	2
192	Mozambique	7	23.8	23.2	24.7	7.5	7.8	7.2	548	307	242	404	221	183
193	Namibia	7	12.3	13.9	10.7	14.9	17.3	12.4	47	27	20	62	37	25
194	Niger	6	12.2	12.4	11.8	3.5	3.5	3.5	64	40	24	72	40	32
195	Nigeria	6	...	...	...	. y	. y	. y	...	...	...	. y	. y	. y
196	Rwanda	6	29.1	29.2	29.0	12.6	12.7	12.5	375	189	187	302	150	152
197	Sao Tome and Principe	6	30.7	32.6	28.7	**13.3**	**15.2**	**11.4**	7	4	3	**5**	**3**	**2**
198	Senegal	6	14.4	14.2	14.5	3.4	3.5	3.4	149	81	67	61	30	31
199	Seychelles	6	.	.	.	. z	. z	. z	.	.	.	. z	. z	. z
200	Sierra Leone	6	...	...	...	14.1	14.1	14.1	...	...	...	176	88	88
201	Somalia	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
202	South Africa	7	10.4	11.6	9.2	...	...	...	824	468	357	...	...	...
203	South Sudan	6	...	...	...	10.0 z	9.3 z	11.2 z	...	...	...	146 z	81 z	64 z
204	Swaziland	7	17.1	19.5	14.5	15.5 z	17.7 z	13.0 z	36	21	15	37 z	22 z	15 z
205	Togo	6	31.2	30.9	31.6	20.0	19.9	20.0	297	168	130	273	142	131
206	Uganda	7	***9.5***	***9.7***	***9.3***	10.2 z	10.5 z	10.0 z	***656***	***342***	***314***	830 z	423 z	407 z
207	United Republic of Tanzania	7	3.2	3.1	3.2	2.6	2.8	2.5	133	66	66	218	113	105
208	Zambia	7	6.1	6.4	5.8	5.3	5.6	5.1	95	52	43	168	87	80
209	Zimbabwe	7	.	.	.	...	...	...	.	.	.	...	...	...

Table 6

INTERNAL EFFICIENCY																
PRIMARY EDUCATION COMPLETION																
NUMBER OF EARLY SCHOOL LEAVERS, ALL GRADES (000)						SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE (%)						PRIMARY COHORT COMPLETION RATE (%)			
School year ending in						School year ending in						School year ending in			
1999			2012			1999			2011			2011			
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
3	*1*	*2*	...	...	...	98	99	98	...	...	...	...	...	...	146
0.7	0.2	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.1	100	100	99	98	97	100	...	...	...	147
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	148
...	...	...	0.0	...	...	...	...	...	96	95	98	...	...	...	149
...	...	...	14	6	8	...	...	...	97	98	97	...	...	...	150
2	*1*	*1*	5 z	2 z	2 z	98	99	98	96 y	96 y	96 y	...	...	...	151
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	152
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	153
...	...	...	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	**...**	...	...	...	...	...	...	154
														South and West Asia	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	155
...	...	...	1,246 *,y	709 *,y	537 *,y	...	...	...	66 *,x	62 *,x	71 *,x	60.3 *,x	60.5 *,x	60.0 *,x	156
3	2	1	0.6	0.6	0.1	82	78	86	95	91	99	87.7	82.1	93.4	157
11,336	*6,142*	*5,194*	...	...	...	62	63	60	...	...	...	...	...	...	158
35	***13***	***22***	46 *	26 *	20 *	*97*	*98*	*97*	96 *	96 *	97 *	94.5 x	96.6 x	92.3 x	159
...	...	...	1.0	...	...	...	...	...	83	...	...	...	...	...	160
360	*217*	*143*	**451**	**228**	**224**	59	57	63	**55**	**55**	**56**	...	...	...	161
...	...	...	1,737	...	...	...	...	...	61	61	61	40.5	41.4	39.4	162
...	...	...	12	...	...	***98***	***98***	***98***	97	93	100	...	...	...	163
														Sub-Saharan Africa	
...	...	...	701 *,y	364 *,y	337 *,y	...	...	...	32 *,x	37 *,x	27 *,x	24.0 x	26.0 x	21.8 x	164
52	***21***	***31***	178	90	88	*76*	*82*	*66*	59	60	58	38.1	40.9	34.9	165
9	6	3	...	...	...	82	79	86	...	...	...	...	...	...	166
63	39	24	146	85	61	61	60	63	69	66	73	...	...	...	167
70 **	***38*** **	***32*** **	192	104	88	*54*	*54*	*54*	44	41	47	25.5	27.3	23.3	168
...	...	...	1.1 z	0.5 z	0.5 z	***89*** **	***87*** **	***91*** **	89 y	90 y	89 y	81.4 y	79.6 y	83.2 y	169
84 **	...	...	233	127	106	76 **	...	...	70	69	70	39.8	39.0	40.9	170
...	...	...	64	35	29	...	...	...	47	47	45	...	...	...	171
98	55	43	313	167	145	48	51	42	38	41	35	36.7	40.0	31.9	172
8	4	4	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	173
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	174
60 **	...	...	91	42	50	62	67	56	82	84	79	...	...	...	175
...	...	...	779	347	432	...	...	...	71	75	66	...	...	...	176
...	...	...	5	2	2	...	...	...	72	72	72	...	...	...	177
4		*3*	18 y	9 y	9 y	94	96	91	69 x	71 x	67 x	72.9 x	73.8 x	72.0 x	178
857		336	2,432	1,347	1,085	51	49	54	37	34	40	...	...	...	179
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	180
13 **	*7* **	*6* **	9	4	5	66 **	65 **	66 **	83	84	82	...	...	...	181
187	***93***	***94***	...	...	...	*59*	*61*	*58*	...	...	...	...	...	...	182
...	...	...	130	64	66	...	...	...	59	63	54	40.5 x	42.8 x	37.9 x	183
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	184
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	185
24	14	10	20	13	6	60	52	67	64	54	75	60.8 **	...	...	186
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	187
308 **	159 **	149 **	664	341	323	52	52	53	41	39	42	33.3	32.9	33.8	188
384	...	...	379	181	198	36	39	34	49	51	48	...	...	...	189
64 **	*34* **	*30* **	127	64	63	65 **	66 **	62 **	62	64	59	.	.	.	190
0.4	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.2	98	99	98	97	97	98	79.1	74.0	84.4	191
418	*216*	*202*	852	431	420	29	32	27	31	32	29	21.9	22.3	21.4	192
15	9	7	8 y	5 y	3 y	82	80	84	84 x	82 x	87 x	...	...	...	193
56	34	22	144 z	73 z	71 z	55	56	54	69 y	71 y	67 y	32.6 y	34.0 y	30.7 y	194
...	...	...	858 **,y	518 **,y	340 **,y	...	...	...	79 **,x	77 **,x	82 **,x	76.9 **,x	77.4 **,x	76.3 **,x	195
186	***91***	***95***	361	188	173	*31*	*31*	*31*	36	34	38	...	...	...	196
2	...	...	2 y	...	...	...	...	...	66 x	...	...	...	...	...	197
84	***38***	***46***	148	77	71	*63*	*67*	*59*	61	59	64	33.5	34.4	32.7	198
0.1	*0.0*	*0.0*	0.1 z	0.0 z	0.1 z	96	96	97	94 y	95 y	93 y	...	...	...	199
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	200
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	201
348	192	156	...	...	...	57	59	56	...	...	...	...	...	...	202
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	203
12	8	4	10 z	...	...	65	63	66	67 y	...	...	...	...	...	204
74	*37*	*37*	83	39	44	46	49	42	67	70	64	50.8 y	47.1 y	57.0 y	205
929	***462***	***467***	1,229 z	613 z	617 z	*38*	*38*	*38*	25 y	25 y	25 y	27.0 y	27.5 y	26.4 y	206
191	106	84	235 y	151 y	84 y	70	69	70	81 x	76 x	87 x	...	...	...	207
91	36	55	...	...	...	66	70	62	...	...	...	...	...	...	208
114	57	57	...	...	...	***48***	***48***	***49***	...	...	...	...	...	...	209

Table 6 (continued)

	Country or territory	Duration[1] of primary education	INTERNAL EFFICIENCY											
			REPETITION IN PRIMARY EDUCATION											
			REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (%)						NUMBER OF REPEATERS, ALL GRADES (000)					
			School year ending in						School year ending in					
			1999			2012			1999			2012		
		2012	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
			Weighted average			Weighted average			Sum			Sum		
I	World	...	5.2 **	5.4 **	4.9 **	4.6 **	4.4 **	4.8 **	33,626 **	18,772 **	14,855 **	32,438 **	16,334 **	16,104 **
II	Countries in transition	...	0.8	0.7 **	1.0 **	0.2	...	...	148	63 **	85 **	29	...	...
III	Developed countries	...	1.0 **	0.8 **	1.3 **	0.8	0.5	1.2	722 **	297 **	425 **	528	158	369
IV	Developing countries	...	5.8 **	6.1 **	5.5 **	5.1 **	4.9 **	5.3 **	32,756 **	18,412 **	14,344 **	31,882 **	16,202 **	15,680 **
V	Arab States	...	8.7	10.0	7.2	6.3	7.3	5.1	3,042	1,899	1,143	2,685	1,660	1,025
VI	Central and Eastern Europe	...	2.1	2.1 **	2.2 **	1.1	0.7	1.6	527	268 **	259 **	219	68	151
VII	Central Asia	...	0.3	0.4 **	0.2 **	0.1 **	0.1 **	0.1 **	20	13 **	6 **	5 **	3 **	2 **
VIII	East Asia and the Pacific	...	2.2 **	2.3 **	2.1 **	1.3	1.4	1.1	4,946 **	2,728 **	2,218 **	2,343	1,371	971
IX	East Asia	...	2.2 **	2.3 **	2.1 **	1.3	1.4	1.1	4,854 **	2,671 **	2,183 **	2,261	1,323	938
X	Pacific	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
XI	Latin America and the Caribbean	...	12.0	12.6	11.3	5.7 **	2.7 **	8.9 **	8,390	4,556	3,834	3,680 **	907 **	2,772 **
XII	Caribbean	...	13.0 **	13.5 **	12.4 **	15.3 **	16.0 **	14.5 **	312 **	166 **	146 **	364 **	196 **	169 **
XIII	Latin America	...	12.0	12.6	11.3	5.3 **	2.2 **	8.7 **	8,078	4,389	3,688	3,315 **	711 **	2,604 **
XIV	North America and Western Europe	...	1.0 **	0.6 **	1.4 **	0.8	0.4	1.3	519 **	162 **	357 **	424	95	329
XV	South and West Asia	...	4.7	4.7	4.7	5.4 **	5.5 **	5.3 **	7,322	4,142	3,180	10,438 **	5,525 **	4,913 **
XVI	Sub-Saharan Africa	...	10.8 **	11.2 **	10.3 **	8.8 **	8.9 **	8.7	8,861 **	5,004 **	3,857 **	12,644 **	6,704 **	5,940
XVII	Countries with low income	...	11.7 **	12.0 **	11.4 **	9.9 **	10.1 **	9.7 **	8,751 **	4,852 **	3,899 **	12,941 **	6,816 **	6,124 **
XVIII	Countries with middle income	...	4.8 **	5.1 **	4.5 **	3.8 **	3.6 **	4.1 **	23,803 **	13,440 **	10,364 **	18,784 **	9,293 **	9,492 **
XIX	Lower middle	...	4.7	4.8	4.5	4.3 **	4.5 **	4.1 **	11,258	6,399	4,858	12,624 **	6,905 **	5,718 **
XX	Upper middle	...	5.0 **	5.4 **	4.6 **	3.0	2.2	4.0	12,545 **	7,040 **	5,505 **	6,160	2,387	3,773
XXI	Countries with high income	...	1.3 **	1.1 **	1.4 **	0.9	0.6	1.3	1,072 **	480 **	592 **	714	225	489

Source: UIS database.

Note: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

1. Duration in this table is defined according to ISCED97 and may differ from that reported nationally.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2012 for survival and primary cohort completion rates, and the school year ending in 2013 for percentage and number of repeaters (all grades) and number of early school leavers (all grades). Those in italic are for 2000 and those in bold italic are for 2001.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2011.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2010.

(x) Data are for the school year ending in 2009.

(*) National estimate.

(**) UIS partial estimate.

(-) Magnitude nil or negligible.

(.) The category is not applicable or does not exist.

(...) No data available.

Table 6

INTERNAL EFFICIENCY																
PRIMARY EDUCATION COMPLETION																
NUMBER OF EARLY SCHOOL LEAVERS, ALL GRADES (000)						SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE (%)						PRIMARY COHORT COMPLETION RATE (%)			
School year ending in						School year ending in						School year ending in			
1999			2012			1999			2011			2011			
Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Sum			Sum			Weighted average			Weighted average			Median			
34,200 **	18,373 **	15,828 **	34,047 **	18,532 **	15,515 **	75 **	75 **	75 **	75 **	74 **	76 **	...	...	...	I
218	128 **	89 **	97	64 **	34 **	96	96 **	97 **	97	97 **	98 **	95	95	96	II
866	492	374	683	385	299	93	92	93	94	93	94	...	...	...	III
33,117 **	17,752 **	15,365 **	33,266 **	18,084 **	15,183 **	72 **	73 **	72 **	72 **	71 **	74 **	...	...	...	IV
1,198	618	580	1,309	644	665	82	82	82	83	84	82	...	...	...	V
251	150 **	100 **	227	124 **	102 **	96	95 **	96 **	95	95 **	95 **	...	...	...	VI
68	32 **	36 **	31 **	18 **	14 **	97	97 **	97 **	98 **	98 **	98 **	95	95	96	VII
6,714 **	3,456 **	3,258 **	2,529	1,494	1,035	85 **	85 **	85 **	92 **	91 **	93 **	...	...	...	VIII
6,541 **	3,364 **	3,177 **	2,263	1,355	907	86 **	86 **	85 **	93 **	92 **	94 **	87	...	...	IX
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	X
3,179	1,839	1,340	2,509 **	1,394 **	1,115 **	77	75	80	77 **	75 **	79 **	...	...	...	XI
287 **	154 **	133 **	...	...	...	43 **	42 **	45 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	XII
2,893	1,686	1,207	2,220 **	1,240 **	980 **	78	76	81	79 **	77 **	81 **	84	...	...	XIII
737	424	314	563	322	242	92	92	93	94	93	94	...	...	...	XIV
15,068	8,181	6,887	14,513 **	8,004 **	6,510 **	64	65	63	64 **	62 **	66 **	...	...	...	XV
6,985	3,673	3,312	12,365	6,533	5,832	58	59	57	58	58	58	...	...	...	XVI
8,122	4,215	3,906	12,062	6,360	5,702	56 **	57 **	54 **	57	57	58	...	...	...	XVII
24,973 **	13,529 **	11,444 **	21,218 **	11,742 **	9,476 **	76 **	76 **	76 **	77 **	76 **	79 **	...	...	...	XVIII
17,671	9,683	7,987	16,988 **	9,380 **	7,608 **	69	69	69	70 **	69 **	72 **	82	79	83	XIX
7,302 **	3,846 **	3,456 **	4,230	2,362	1,868	85 **	85 **	85 **	88 **	88 **	89 **	...	...	...	XX
1,106	628	478	767	430	337	93	92	93	95	94	95	...	...	...	XXI

Table 7
Participation in secondary education[1]

	Country or territory	TRANSITION FROM PRIMARY TO SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION (%) School year ending in 2011 Total	Male	Female	Age group 2012	School-age population (000) 2012[2]	ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION Total enrolment School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	% F	2012 Total (000)	% F	Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment School year ending in 2012	Enrolment in technical and vocational education School year ending in 2012 Total (000)	% F	Lower Secondary School year ending in 2012 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
	Arab States																
1	Algeria	94	95	92	11-17	4,517	2,985	49	4,573 z	50 z	0.3 z	381 z	34 z	128 z	132 z	123 z	0.93 z
2	Bahrain	99	98	99	12-17	89	59	51	85	49	23	6	14	94	95	94	0.99
3	Djibouti	66	70	62	11-17	126	***19***	***38***	**57**	**43**	**10**	**2**	**39**	**52**	**58**	**46**	**0.79**
4	Egypt	...	...	...	12-17	9,096	7,671 **	47 **	7,850	48	...	1,560	45	101	102	100	0.99
5	Iraq	...	...	...	12-17	4,373	1,105	38	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
6	Jordan	98	97	98	12-17	825	579	49	724	50	19	...	...	92	93	92	0.99
7	Kuwait[4]	99	98	100	11-17	...	235 **	49 **	274	50 **	34	5	...	...	...	...	...
8	Lebanon	88	86	90	12-17	520	389 **	52 **	385	52	61	56	40	86	86	86	1.00
9	Libya	...	...	...	12-17	652	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
10	Mauritania	52	55	49	12-18	567	***77***	***43***	152 **	45 **	25 **	...	...	32	34	30	0.89
11	Morocco	**83**	**84**	**82**	12-17	3,708	1,470	43	2,554	45	...	155	38	84	92	75	0.82
12	Oman	97	97	97	12-17	319	229	49	300	49	9	.	.	98	96	101	1.05
13	Palestine	96	97	94	10-17	852	444	50	705	51	6	3	12	86	84	89	1.06
14	Qatar	100 y	100 y	100 y	12-17	...	44	49	73 z	49 z	40 z	0.6 z	. z	101 z	100 z	102 z	1.01 z
15	Saudi Arabia	**99**	**98**	**100**	12-17	2,773	...	...	**3,214** **	**46** **	...	...	...	**120** **	**119** **	**120** **	**1.01** **
16	Sudan	92 x	94 x	91 x	12-16	4,231	***1,087***	***44***	1,531 z	47 z	...	22 z	18 z	49 z	53 z	46 z	0.88 z
17	Syrian Arab Republic	95	95	96	10-17	3,864	1,030	47	2,876	49	4	129	40	93	94	92	0.98
18	Tunisia	91 x	90 x	92 x	12-18	1,222	1,059	49	1,152 z	50 z	5 z	161 z	32 z	116 z	121 z	111 z	0.92 z
19	United Arab Emirates[4]	99	99	100	11-17	...	202	50	358	49	61	4	19	...	...	...	...
20	Yemen	...	...	...	12-17	3,574	1,042	26	1,675	39	...	12 **	5 **	57	68	45	0.67
21	Sudan (pre-secession)	...	...	...	12-16	...	966 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Central and Eastern Europe																
22	Albania[4]	99	98	99	11-17	...	364	48	349	47	7	19	22	...	...	...	...
23	Belarus	98	98 *	99 *	10-16	652	...	...	693	48	0.4	107	37	102	102	102	1.00
24	Bosnia and Herzegovina[4]	84 x	84 x	83 x	11-18	...	...	...	313	49	2	122	45	...	...	...	...
25	Bulgaria	99	99	99	11-18	541	700	48	504	47	1	143	39	87	89	84	0.95
26	Croatia	100	100	99	11-18	387	416	49	381	50	2	145	47	102	101	104	1.03
27	Czech Republic	99	98	100	11-18	805	928	50	777	49	8	300	45	104	104	104	1.00
28	Estonia	99	99	99	13-18	80	116	50	85	48	3	16	34	101	103	99	0.96
29	Hungary	98 y	98 y	99 y	11-18	851	1,007	49	864	48	15	139	38	101	102	100	0.98
30	Latvia	97	97	97	13-18	128	255	50	125	48	1	32	39	99	101	97	0.96
31	Lithuania	99	99	100	11-18	288	407	49	305	48	1	34	33	104	106	101	0.96
32	Montenegro	...	...	...	11-18	69	...	...	63	48	0.2	21	45	93	94	92	0.98
33	Poland	98 y	99 y	98 y	13-18	2,674	3,984	49	2,611	49	5	766	38	98	100	97	0.97
34	Republic of Moldova[5,6]	98	99	98	11-17	311 *	415	50	274	49	1	33	41	88	88	87	0.99
35	Romania	98	98	97	11-18	1,804	2,218	49	1 714	48	2	558	42	92	93	91	0.98
36	Russian Federation	100	...	...	11-17	9,617	15,863	...	9 165	48	1	1,576	38	94	93	94	1.01
37	Serbia[5]	99	99	99	11-18	617 *	744	49	566	49	0.5	215	47	98	98	97	0.99
38	Slovakia	97	97	97	10-18	543	674	50	510	49	10	174	45	98	99	97	0.99
39	Slovenia	99	98	99	12-18	136	220	49	132	48	2	48	41	95	95	95	1.01
40	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	99 x	98 x	99 x	11-18	225	219	48	186	48	1	56	44	89	89	90	1.01
41	Turkey	98	98	97	11-17	9,009	5,523	40	7 758	48	3	1,830	44	101	102	100	0.98
42	Ukraine	100	100 *	100 *	10-16	2,965	5,214	50 *	2,899	48 *	0.4	257	36	99	99 *	99 *	1.00 *
	Central Asia																
43	Armenia[4]	97	96	97	10-16	281	351	...	269	48	2	22	42	94	87	103	1.18
44	Azerbaijan[5,7]	99	98	99	10-16	979 *	...	...	982	47	15	180	50	92	92 *	91	0.98
45	Georgia	98	99	98	12-17	313	442	49	...	...	...	...	...	110	111	110	0.99
46	Kazakhstan	**100**	**100**	**100**	11-17	1,682	1,966	49	1,643	48	0.8	110	30	102	103	102	0.99
47	Kyrgyzstan	99	99	99	11-17	746	633	50	683 *,z	49 *,z	2 *,z	61 *,z	42 *,z	93 z	93 z	92 z	1.00 z
48	Mongolia	99	98	99	11-16	281	205	55	291	50	9	42	43	93	92	95	1.02
49	Tajikistan	99	99	98	11-17	1,212	769	46	1,055	46	...	15	33	95	98	92	0.94
50	Turkmenistan	...	...	...	10-16	673	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
51	Uzbekistan	99 y	100 y	98 y	11-17	4,034	3,411	49	4,370 z	49 z	. z	...	...	95 z	95 z	94 z	0.98 z
	East Asia and the Pacific																
52	Australia[8]	...	...	...	12-17	1,754	2,491	49	2,377	47	36	825	43	111	114	109	0.96
53	Brunei Darussalam	100	99	100	12-18	49	34	51	52	48	15	6	50	110	111	109	0.98
54	Cambodia	80	78	81	12-17	1,869	316	34	...	...	...	...	...	63	63	63	1.00
55	China	...	...	...	12-17	106,773	77,436	...	95,004	47	11	19,696	45	104	102	105	1.02
56	Cook Islands[5]	96	100	92	11-17	2 *	2	50	2	48	...	0.1	26	99	101	97	0.96
57	Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	11-16	2,364	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
58	Fiji	94	91	97	12-18	110	98	51	97	51	...	1	19	98	94	102	1.09
59	Indonesia	96	97	96	13-18	25,983	14,503	...	21,446	50	42	4,019	42	91	89	93	1.04
60	Japan	...	...	...	12-17	7,159	8,959	49	7,288	49	19	848	43	101	101	101	1.00
61	Kiribati	...	...	...	12-17	14	7	54	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
62	Lao People's Democratic Republic	83	85	82	11-17	1,107	240	40	515	46	3	4	54	58	62	55	0.89
63	Macao, China[4]	95	93	96	12-17	37	32	51	36	48	96	2	39	108	111	106	0.96
64	Malaysia	100 y	100 y	99 y	12-18	3,895	2,177	51	2,628 z	51 z	5 z	178 z	42 z	92 z	96 z	88 z	0.91 z
65	Marshall Islands	...	...	...	12-17	6	6	50	...	...	...	...	...	125	117	134	1.15
66	Micronesia (Federated States of)	...	...	...	12-17	16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
67	Myanmar	77 x	77 x	77 x	10-15	5,590	2,059	50	2,852 y	51 y	. y	- y	- y	58 y	57 y	59 y	1.03 y
68	Nauru[5]	...	...	...	12-17	1 *	*0.7*	*54*	1	47	.	.	.	78	81	75	0.93
69	New Zealand	...	...	...	11-17	419	437	50	501	50	10	70	49	105	106	104	0.99
70	Niue[5]	...	...	...	11-16	0.1 *	0.3	54	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 7

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)													OUT-OF-SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS (000)[2]						
Upper secondary				Total Secondary															
School year ending in				School year ending in									School year ending in			School year ending in			
2012				1999				2012					1999			2012			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
																		Arab States	
62 [2]	52 [2]	72 [2]	1.38 [2]	63	62	63	1.01	98 [2]	96 [2]	100 [2]	1.04 [2]		...	...	...	...	...	...	1
97	94	100	1.06	97	93	101	1.08	96	94	97	1.02		0.1	...	...	5	2	2	2
38	**44**	**32**	**0.73**	***16***	***20***	***12***	***0.63***	**46**	**52**	**40**	**0.77**		**57**	**27**	**30**	...	...	...	3
71	72	70	0.97	84 **	87 **	80 **	0.91 **	86	87	85	0.98		...	...	...	64 **	...	...	4
...	...	...	...	35	42	27	0.64	...	...	...	...		847	353	494	...	...	...	5
78	74	83	1.12	86	84	88	1.05	88	87	89	1.03		55 **	34 **	21 **	31 [2]	15 [2]	16 [2]	6
...	...	...	...	115 **	115 **	115	1.00 **	...	...	...	...		0.3 **	...	...	...	...	...	7
63	62	63	1.03	90 **	85 **	96 **	1.13 **	74	74	74	1.01		...	...	...	50 **	21 **	29 **	8
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	9
19 **	22 **	16 **	0.74 **	20	23	18	0.77	27 **	29 **	25 **	0.85 **		***107*** **	***53*** **	***54*** **	...	...	...	10
54	57	52	0.92	36	41	32	0.79	69	74	63	0.86		...	...	...	...	...	...	11
91	86	95	1.10	75	75	75	1.00	94	91	98	1.08		26	13	13	13	9	4	12
73	65	81	1.25	78	77	79	1.02	83	79	87	1.10		69	37	32	98	56	42	13
...	...	...	...	86	82	91	1.11	112 [2]	107 [2]	117 [2]	1.10 [2]		3	2	1	0.6 [2]	0.4 [2]	0.2 [2]	14
112 **	**112** **	**113** **	**1.01** **	...	...	...	...	**116** **	**116** **	**117** **	**1.01** **		...	...	...	**77** **	...	...	15
28 [2]	29 [2]	28 [2]	0.97 [2]	***34***	***37***	***30***	***0.81***	37 [2]	39 [2]	35 [2]	0.92 [2]		...	...	...	610 [2]	276 [2]	334 [2]	16
41	39	44	1.11	43	45	41	0.92	74	74	75	1.00		473	216	258	255	119	136	17
75 [2]	68 [2]	82 [2]	1.20 [2]	72	72	73	1.01	91 [2]	89 [2]	93 [2]	1.05 [2]		...	...	...	...	...	...	18
...	...	...	...	84	80	88	1.10	...	...	...	...		8	3	5	...	...	...	19
37	45	29	0.64	41	60	22	0.37	47	56	37	0.65		523	110	413	667 **	237 **	430 **	20
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	21
																		Central and Eastern Europe	
83	88	77	0.87	66	68	64	0.94	...	...	...	...		*31*	*15*	*16*	...	...	...	22
116	122	110	0.90	...	...	...	...	106	108	104	0.96		***42*** **	...	...	9	...	...	23
74	71	76	1.06	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	24
99	101	97	0.96	92	93	91	0.98	93	95	91	0.96		19	8	11	24	13	11	25
95	92	97	1.05	85	84	86	1.02	98	97	100	1.04		15	7	8	2	...	...	26
90	90	91	1.00	84	82	85	1.04	97	96	97	1.00		...	...	...	...	...	...	27
113	112	113	1.01	94	92	95	1.04	107	108	107	0.99		0.7	...	...	2.0	1.0	0.9	28
102	103	101	0.98	94	93	95	1.02	102	103	101	0.98		7.8	3.4	4.4	5	2	3	29
97	98	95	0.98	88	87	90	1.04	98	99	96	0.97		...	...	...	4	2	2	30
112	114	109	0.96	95	95	95	1.00	106	108	103	0.96		1.0	...	...	1.0	...	...	31
89	88	91	1.03	...	...	...	...	91	91	91	1.01		...	...	...	...	...	...	32
97	97	97	1.00	99	100	99	0.99	98	98	97	0.99		19	7	12	65	32	33	33
90	86	93	1.08	83	84	82	0.98	88	87	89	1.02		*19*	*13* **	*6* **	28	14	14	34
98	98	97	0.99	81	80	82	1.02	95	96	94	0.98		74	40	35	...	...	...	35
98	103	94	0.92	92	...	...	...	95	96	94	0.98		...	...	...	...	...	...	36
86	84	88	1.05	94	94	95	1.01	92	91	93	1.02		...	...	...	10	5	5	37
90	89	91	1.03	85	84	86	1.02	94	94	94	1.01		...	...	...	...	...	...	38
99	100	98	0.98	99	98	101	1.03	98	98	97	0.99		5	3	2	2.1	1.2	0.9	39
77	78	76	0.98	82	83	81	0.97	83	83	82	0.99		...	...	...	...	...	...	40
75	78	71	0.92	71	84	57	0.68	86	88	84	0.95		858 **	247 **	611 **	38	...	...	41
95	99 *	92 *	0.93 *	98	96 *	100 *	1.04 *	98	99 *	97 *	0.98 *		...	...	...	80	42 *	38 *	42
																		Central Asia	
99	89	112	1.26	93	...	...	...	96	88	106	1.21		...	...	...	...	...	...	43
119	119	118	0.99	...	...	...	...	100	101	100	0.99		...	...	...	85	43	42	44
...	...	...	...	79	80	78	0.98	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	45
87	91	83	0.91	96	95	96	1.00	98	99	96	0.97		*33* **	...	...	*42* **	*19* **	*23* **	46
78 *,[2]	78 *,[2]	78 *,[2]	1.00 *,[2]	83	82	84	1.02	88 *,[2]	88 *,[2]	88 *,[2]	1.00 *,[2]		...	...	...	47 *,[2]	24 *,[2]	23 *,[2]	47
122	119	124	1.04	61	54	69	1.27	103	102	105	1.03		56 **	36 **	20 **	0.4	...	...	48
67	76	58	0.77	74	79	68	0.86	87	92	82	0.90		205	95	110	50 [2]	11 [2]	39 [2]	49
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	50
129 [2]	131 [2]	128 [2]	0.97 [2]	87	88	86	0.98	105 [2]	106 [2]	104 [2]	0.98 [2]		...	...	...	181 [2]	81 [2]	100 [2]	51
																		East Asia and the Pacific	
182	189	175	0.93	156	156	156	1.00	136	139	132	0.95		...	...	...	28	14	14	52
107	106	108	1.03	86	83	88	1.06	108	107	109	1.01		...	...	...	0.01	...	...	53
...	...	...	...	16	21	11	0.53	...	...	...	...		906	443	463	...	...	...	54
77	76	77	1.02	58	...	...	...	89	88	90	1.02		...	...	...	...	...	...	55
74	71	76	1.08	60	58	63	1.08	88	87	88	1.00		0.01	...	...	0.06 [2]	...	...	56
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	57
76	71	81	1.15	78	74	83	1.11	88	84	93	1.11		3	...	...	2	...	...	58
73	73	74	1.02	55	...	...	...	83	81	84	1.03		***3,536***	***1,704***	***1,832***	1,674	953	721	59
103	102	103	1.01	101	101	102	1.01	102	102	102	1.00		-	...	...	4	...	...	60
...	...	...	...	61	54	67	1.23	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	61
32	34	29	0.84	32	38	26	0.69	47	50	43	0.87		107	40	66	178	82	95	62
87	86	88	1.02	79	77	81	1.05	96	97	96	0.99		1.9	0.9	1.0	2	1	1	63
49 [2]	48 [2]	51 [2]	1.06 [2]	66	64	69	1.09	67 [2]	68 [2]	66 [2]	0.97 [2]		97	58	39	154 [2]	44 [2]	110 [2]	64
...	...	...	...	68	66	70	1.06	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	65
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	66
35 [y]	34 [y]	37 [y]	1.11 [y]	32	32	32	0.98	50 [y]	49 [y]	51 [y]	1.05 [y]		...	...	...	...	...	...	67
58	56	61	1.09	*47*	*43*	*51*	*1.17*	72	73	70	0.97		...	...	...	0.03	...	...	68
138	131	145	1.11	111	108	114	1.05	120	117	122	1.05		...	...	...	1.0	...	...	69
...	...	...	...	98	93	103	1.10	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	70

Table 7 (continued)

	Country or territory	TRANSITION FROM PRIMARY TO SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION (%) School year ending in 2011 Total	Male	Female	ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION Age group 2012	School-age population (000) 2012[2]	Total enrolment School year ending in 1999 Total (000)	% F	2012 Total (000)	% F	Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment School year ending in 2012	Enrolment in technical and vocational education School year ending in 2012 Total (000)	% F	Lower Secondary School year ending in 2012 Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
71	Palau[5]	...	...	...	11-17	2 *	2	49	...	...	...	.	.	...	...	...	...
72	Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	13-18	942	...	...	378	41	0.5	29	27	73	80	64	0.80
73	Philippines	...	...	...	12-15	8,336	5,117	51	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
74	Republic of Korea	100	100	100	12-17	3,892	4,177	48	3,783	47	31	375	44	100	100	100	0.99
75	Samoa	97	98	97	11-17	30	22	50	26	50	33	.	.	103	102	105	1.02
76	Singapore	...	...	...	12-15	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
77	Solomon Islands	86	87	85	12-18	86	17	41	42	47	30	.	.	72	72	72	0.99
78	Thailand	...	...	...	12-17	5,502	***4,072***	***49*** **	4,786	51	16	739	42	99	98	99	1.00
79	Timor-Leste	91 y	90 y	92 y	12-17	194	***44***	...	108 z	50 z	26 z	7 z	46 z	62 z	61 z	63 z	1.02 z
80	Tokelau[5]	...	...	...	11-15	0.1 *	*0.2*	*49*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
81	Tonga	...	...	...	12-18	...	15	50	15 z	47 z	65 z	...	...	...	...	...	...
82	Tuvalu[5]	...	...	...	12-17	1 *	***0.9***	***46***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
83	Vanuatu	79 x	79 x	79 x	12-18	37	9	45	20 y	49 y	...	2.0 y	39 y	67 y	64 y	70 y	1.09 y
84	Viet Nam	100	...	...	11-17	10,314	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	92	92	92	1.00
	Latin America and the Caribbean																
85	Anguilla[9]	97 y	93 y	100 y	12-16	...	*1.1* **	*51* **	1 z	51 z	. z	0.01 z	9 z	...	...	...	...
86	Antigua and Barbuda	100	100	100	12-16	8	*5*	*50* **	8	53	17	0.5	44	114	119	108	0.91
87	Argentina	97 x	97 x	96 x	12-17	4,051	3,344	50	3,745 z	52 z	28 z	254 z	35 z	114 z	112 z	115 z	1.03 z
88	Aruba	...	...	...	12-16	8	6	51	8	51	92	...	...	119	117	120	1.02
89	Bahamas	98 x	99 x	98 x	11-16	36	27	49	34 y	51 y	30 y	. y	. y	98 y	97 y	100 y	1.03 y
90	Barbados	...	...	...	11-15	19	22	51	20 z	50 z	5 *,z	. z	. z	106 z	102 z	110 z	1.08 z
91	Belize	94	94	94	11-16	42	22	51	35	51	63	2	46	96	95	97	1.02
92	Bermuda	86 y	78 **,y	95 **,y	11-17	6	***5***	***51***	4 z	53 z	44 z	. z	. z	85 z	78 z	91 z	1.16 z
93	Bolivia, Plurinational State of	89 y	88 y	90 y	12-17	1,380	830	48	1,060 z	49 z	13 z	- z	- z	91 z	92 z	89 z	0.97 z
94	Brazil[4]	91 y	...	...	11-17	...	...	...	23,134	51	15	1,497	56	...	...	...	...
95	British Virgin Islands[5]	...	...	...	12-16	2 *	2	47	2 z	50 z	16 z	0.1 *,z	19 *,z	110 z	115 z	104 z	0.91 z
96	Cayman Islands[4]	...	...	...	11-16	...	2	48	3 z	49 z	28 z	. z	. z	...	...	...	...
97	Chile	91	89	94	12-17	1,622	1,305	50	1,444	50	60	325	47	98	98	98	1.00
98	Colombia	97	97	97	11-16	5,283	3,589	52	4,903	51	20	319	54	101	99	104	1.05
99	Costa Rica	93	96	89	12-16	413	255	51	428	50	10	73	51	121	121	120	0.99
100	Cuba	99	98	99	12-17	870	740	50	784	49	.	210	38	100	101	99	0.98
101	Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
102	Dominica	95	97	93	12-16	6	7	57	7 z	50 z	29 z	0.3 z	69 z	106 z	106 z	107 z	1.01 z
103	Dominican Republic	87	83	92	12-17	1,193	611	55	906	52	20	42	61	84	82	85	1.04
104	Ecuador	94	96	91	12-17	1,763	904	50	1,531	50	28	324	49	96	98	95	0.97
105	El Salvador	92	91	92	13-18	883	406	49	612	49	17	113	51	90	91	90	0.99
106	Grenada	...	...	...	12-16	10	...	...	12 y	50 y	62 y	0.5 y	32 y	121 y	124 y	116 y	0.94 y
107	Guatemala	89 y	92 y	85 y	13-17	1,746	435	45	1,114 z	48 z	60 z	313 z	51 z	71 z	75 z	66 z	0.88 z
108	Guyana	95 x	93 x	97 x	12-16	85	62	50 **	86	50	8	5	41	104	98	111	1.13
109	Haiti	...	...	...	12-18	1,557	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
110	Honduras	68	66	70	12-16	902	...	...	660	54	28	...	...	75	70	79	1.14
111	Jamaica	88 y	88 y	88 y	12-16	296	231 **	50 **	260 z	51 z	5 z	- z	- z	88 z	88 z	88 z	1.00 z
112	Mexico	96	97	96	12-17	14,168	8,722	50	12,139	51	13	2,019	56	109	103	114	1.11
113	Montserrat	...	...	...	12-16	0.3 *	0.3	47	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
114	Nicaragua	...	...	...	12-16	661	321 **	54 **	465 y	52 y	22 y	7 y	60 y	79 y	77 y	81 y	1.05 y
115	Panama	98	98	97	12-17	416	230	51	349	50	16	49	48	89	89	90	1.01
116	Paraguay	92 y	91 y	93 y	12-17	838	425	50	580 z	50 z	22 z	60 z	50 z	80 z	78 z	81 z	1.03 z
117	Peru	92 y	93 y	91 y	12-16	2,908	2,278	48	2,611	48	...	31	49	100	103	97	0.94
118	Saint Kitts and Nevis	95 *,x	...	...	12-16	5	*5*	*50*	4 z	50 z	4 z	. z	. z	99 z	100 z	99 z	0.99 z
119	Saint Lucia	94	92	95	12-16	16	12	56	15	50	3	0.2	12	91	94	88	0.94
120	Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
121	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	85	...	...	12-16	10	*10* **	*57* **	10	48	26	...	...	110	118	102	0.87
122	Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
123	Suriname	...	...	...	12-18	67	***42***	***53***	55 z	56 z	18 z	24 z	50 z	***90*** z	85 z	94 z	1.10 z
124	Trinidad and Tobago	88 *,x	87 *,x	89 *,x	12-16	88	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
125	Turks and Caicos Islands[9]	...	...	...	12-16	...	1	51	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
126	Uruguay	80 x	74 x	86 x	12-17	313	284	53	287 y	52 y	15 y	44 y	46 y	110 y	107 y	114 y	1.07 y
127	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	98	99	97	12-16	2,758	1,439	54	2,354	51	28	126	52	92	90	94	1.05
128	Netherlands Antilles	...	...	...	12-17	...	15	54	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	North America and Western Europe																
129	Andorra[4]	...	...	...	12-17	...	...	...	4	48	2	0.3	42	...	...	...	...
130	Austria	99	99	99	10-17	727	748	48	710	48	10	279	44	100	101	100	0.99
131	Belgium	...	...	...	12-17	740	1,033	51	794	48	68	309	44	120	124	117	0.94
132	Canada	...	...	...	12-17	2,459	2,512	49	2,584 z	48 z	7 z	...	...	100 z	100 z	99 z	0.99 z
133	Cyprus[5]	99	98	100	12-17	65 *	63	49	62	49	18	4	17	99	98	100	1.02
134	Denmark	97	97	98	13-18	423	422	50	528	49	14	142	45	118	118	118	1.00
135	Finland	100	100	100	13-18	386	480	51	416	50	10	134	47	99	99	99	1.00
136	France[10]	...	...	...	11-17	5,396	5,955	49	5,920	49	26	1,166	43	107	107	107	1.00
137	Germany	...	...	...	10-18	7,301	8,185	48	7,393	47	9	1,396	38	100	100	99	0.99
138	Greece	98 y	99 y	96 y	12-17	638	771	49	692 z	48 z	5 z	115 z	37 z	104 z	105 z	102 z	0.97 z
139	Iceland	100 y	100 y	99 y	13-19	32	32	50	35 z	49 z	12 z	8 z	42 z	97 z	98 z	96 z	0.98 z
140	Ireland	...	...	...	13-17	286	346	50	341	49	0.7	55	52	109	109	109	1.00
141	Israel	99 y	98 y	99 y	12-17	723	629	49	720 z	49 z	12 z	137 z	46 z	103 z	102 z	104 z	1.01 z
142	Italy	100 y	100 y	100 y	11-18	4,610	4,450	49	4,630 z	48 z	9 z	1,705 z	40 z	106 z	108 z	105 z	0.97 z

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)													OUT-OF-SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS (000)[2]						
Upper secondary				Total Secondary															
School year ending in				School year ending in									School year ending in			School year ending in			
2012				1999				2012					1999			2012			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
...	...	...	...	101	98	105	1.07	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	71
22	26	18	0.68	...	...	...	...	40	46	34	0.76		...	...	...	...	...	...	72
...	...	...	...	74	71	78	1.10	...	...	...	...		1,265	674	591	...	...	...	73
95	96	94	0.98	99	100	99	1.00	97	98	97	0.99		77	44	33	4	...	...	74
78	73	84	1.16	79	75	84	1.11	86	81	90	1.11		0.7	0.4	0.3	0.1	...	...	75
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	76
29	31	27	0.86	26	29	22	0.75	48	50	47	0.94		...	...	...	0.3 [2]	...	...	77
76	71	80	1.13	***63***	***64*** **	***62*** **	***0.97*** **	87	85	89	1.06		...	...	...	...	...	...	78
50 [2]	50 [2]	51 [2]	1.01 [2]	***36***	...	...	...	57 [2]	56 [2]	57 [2]	1.02 [2]		...	...	...	34 [2]	17 [2]	17 [2]	79
...	...	...	...	*92*	*92*	*93*	*1.01*	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	80
...	...	...	...	105	99	113	1.14	104 [2]	106 [2]	103 [2]	0.97 [2]		0.3	...	...	...	...	...	81
...	...	...	...	***80***	***76***	***84***	***1.10***	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	82
47 [y]	51 [y]	43 [y]	0.84 [y]	30	32	28	0.88	60 [y]	60 [y]	59 [y]	1.00 [y]		5 **	2 **	3 **	...	...	...	83
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		*1,186* **	...	...	...	...	...	84
																			Latin America and the Caribbean
...	...	...	...	*107* **	*108* **	*106* **	*0.98* **	...	...	...	...		*0.03* **	...	...	...	...	...	85
93	65	119	1.83	*78*	*83* **	*74* **	*0.89* **	105	98	113	1.15		...	...	...	1.2	0.9	0.4	86
70 [2]	63 [2]	78 [2]	1.24 [2]	85	83	87	1.05	92 [2]	87 [2]	97 [2]	1.11 [2]		...	...	...	20 [2]	...	...	87
88	83	92	1.11	99	96	102	1.06	100	97	103	1.07		0.01	...	...	...	...	...	88
88 [y]	85 [y]	91 [y]	1.08 [y]	78	78	77	0.99	93 [y]	90 [y]	95 [y]	1.05 [y]		1.3	0.6	0.8	1.7 [y]	1.0 [y]	0.6 [y]	89
103 [2]	95 [2]	112 [2]	1.18 [2]	108	103	115	1.12	105 [2]	99 [2]	111 [2]	1.12 [2]		0.4 **	...	...	0.7 *, [2]	...	...	90
60	55	64	1.15	64	62	66	1.07	84	82	86	1.05		2.3 **	1.3 **	1.0 **	0.8	0.3	0.5	91
72 [2]	65 [2]	78 [2]	1.19 [2]	***79***	***77***	***82***	***1.07***	77 [2]	71 [2]	83 [2]	1.18 [2]		...	...	...	0.4 [2]	0.3 [2]	0.2 [2]	92
70 [2]	70 [2]	71 [2]	1.02 [2]	76	78	73	0.93	77 [2]	77 [2]	77 [2]	1.00 [2]		29 **	9 **	20 **	47 [2]	24 [2]	24 [2]	93
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	94
79 [2]	70 [2]	88 [2]	1.25 [2]	99	103	94	0.91	97 [2]	97 [2]	97 [2]	1.01 [2]		0.05 **	...	...	0.1 [2]	0.0 [2]	0.1 [2]	95
...	...	...	...	95	99	91	0.92	...	...	...	...		0.2 **	0.1 **	0.1 **	...	...	...	96
85	83	87	1.05	79	77	80	1.04	89	87	91	1.04		...	...	...	18	9	9	97
76	69	83	1.21	73	69	76	1.11	93	89	97	1.09		*489* **	*295* **	*194* **	263	141	122	98
79	72	86	1.20	62	59	65	1.10	104	101	106	1.05		...	...	...	30	16	14	99
81	79	82	1.04	79	77	82	1.06	90	90	90	1.00		19 **	11 **	8 **	2.1	0.1	2.0	100
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	101
84 [2]	77 [2]	91 [2]	1.18 [2]	101	87	115	1.33	97 [2]	94 [2]	100 [2]	1.07 [2]		0.4 **	...	...	0.2 **, [2]	0.2 **, [2]	0.0 **, [2]	102
72	66	78	1.17	56	50	62	1.24	76	72	80	1.12		73	39	34	34	15	19	103
77	74	80	1.08	59	58	60	1.03	87	86	88	1.02		207	103	105	57	26	31	104
48	47	49	1.04	52	53	51	0.97	69	69	69	1.00		*94* **	*44* **	*50* **	39	19	20	105
89 [y]	80 [y]	99 [y]	1.25 [y]	...	...	...	...	108 [y]	106 [y]	109 [y]	1.03 [y]		...	...	...	...	...	...	106
56 [2]	57 [2]	56 [2]	0.98 [2]	33	36	30	0.84	65 [2]	68 [2]	62 [2]	0.91 [2]		351 **	143 **	208 **	213 [2]	82 [2]	131 [2]	107
96	88	105	1.20	83	82 **	83 **	1.01 **	101	94	109	1.15		...	...	...	3 **, [2]	...	...	108
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	109
71	60	82	1.36	...	...	...	...	73	66	80	1.22		...	...	...	...	...	...	110
89 [2]	83 [2]	96 [2]	1.15 [2]	88 **	88 **	88 **	1.01 **	89 [2]	86 [2]	91 [2]	1.06 [2]		8 **	4 **	4 **	47 [2]	20 [2]	27 [2]	111
62	61	63	1.04	68	68	68	1.00	86	82	89	1.08		1,133 **	463 **	670 **	977	539	438	112
...	...	...	...	183	212	158	0.75	...	...	...	...		0.01	...	...	...	...	...	113
54 [y]	48 [y]	59 [y]	1.23 [y]	51 **	47 **	56 **	1.18 **	69 [y]	66 [y]	72 [y]	1.10 [y]		*129*	*72*	*57*	72 [y]	37 [y]	34 [y]	114
79	75	83	1.11	64	62	67	1.08	84	82	86	1.05		42 **	21 **	20 **	28	15	13	115
59 [2]	57 [2]	61 [2]	1.08 [2]	58	57	59	1.04	70 [2]	68 [2]	71 [2]	1.05 [2]		72	33	39	62 [2]	31 [2]	31 [2]	116
74	73	74	1.01	83	85	80	0.94	90	91	88	0.96		80 **	29 **	51 **	104 [2]	53 [2]	52 [2]	117
87 [2]	81 [2]	93 [2]	1.14 [2]	*105*	*100*	*110*	*1.10*	94 [2]	93 [2]	96 [2]	1.04 [2]		*0* **	...	...	0.2 [2]	0.1 [2]	0.1 [2]	118
91	89	93	1.05	71	63	79	1.26	91	92	90	0.99		2.5 **	1.5 **	1.0 **	1.1	0.6	0.6	119
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	120
88	81	94	1.16	*83* **	*71* **	*95* **	*1.34* **	101	103	99	0.96		*1.2* **	*0.9* **	*0.3* **	0.3 [y]	0.1 [y]	0.2 [y]	121
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	122
79 [2]	57 [2]	102 [2]	1.80 [2]	***73***	***67***	***80***	***1.19***	85 [2]	*74* [2]	97 [2]	1.31 [2]		...	...	...	6 [2]	3 [2]	3 [2]	123
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	124
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	125
71 [y]	63 [y]	79 [y]	1.26 [y]	92	85	100	1.17	90 [y]	85 [y]	96 [y]	1.14 [y]		...	...	...	35 [y]	17 [y]	19 [y]	126
76	70	82	1.18	57	51	63	1.22	85	82	89	1.09		403	221	181	134	84	50	127
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	128
																			North America and Western Europe
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	129
96	99	92	0.93	97	100	95	0.95	98	100	96	0.96		...	...	...	...	...	...	130
101	102	101	0.99	141	136	146	1.07	107	109	106	0.97		...	...	...	...	...	...	131
105 [2]	106 [2]	104 [2]	0.97 [2]	102	101	103	1.02	103 [2]	104 [2]	102 [2]	0.98 [2]		...	...	...	...	...	...	132
93	92	93	1.02	93	92	95	1.03	95	94	96	1.02		1.1	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.1	133
131	130	133	1.02	125	122	128	1.05	125	124	125	1.01		1.0	0.7	0.4	3.9	2.0	1.9	134
116	111	121	1.09	121	116	126	1.09	108	105	110	1.05		0.3	0.3	0.1	5	3	2	135
113	112	115	1.02	108	108	108	1.00	110	109	110	1.01		150	83	67	9	...	...	136
104	111	98	0.88	96	97	95	0.98	101	104	98	0.95		...	...	...	...	...	...	137
112 [2]	113 [2]	110 [2]	0.97 [2]	90	89	93	1.04	108 [2]	109 [2]	106 [2]	0.97 [2]		40	24	17	0.9 [y]	...	...	138
117 [2]	115 [2]	118 [2]	1.03 [2]	109	106	112	1.05	109 [2]	108 [2]	109 [2]	1.01 [2]		0.7	0.5	0.3	0.4 [2]	0.1 [2]	0.2 [2]	139
135	131	138	1.05	106	102	109	1.06	119	118	120	1.02		2.6	2.3	0.3	0.1	...	...	140
100 [2]	99 [2]	102 [2]	1.03 [2]	100	101	100	0.99	102 [2]	101 [2]	103 [2]	1.02 [2]		4	...	...	0.0 [2]	...	...	141
97 [2]	98 [2]	97 [2]	0.99 [2]	92	93	92	0.99	101 [2]	101 [2]	100 [2]	0.99 [2]		14	...	...	5.2 [2]	...	...	142

Table 7 (continued)

		TRANSITION FROM PRIMARY TO SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION (%)			ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION													
		School year ending in			Age group	School-age population (000)	Total enrolment				Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment	Enrolment in technical and vocational education			Lower Secondary			
		2011					School year ending in				School year ending in	School year ending in			School year ending in			
					2012	2012[2]	1999		2012		2012	2012			2012			
	Country or territory	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F		Total (000)	% F		Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)
143	Luxembourg	...	...	...	12-18	44	33	50	43 [z]	49 [z]	18 [z]	13 [z]	48 [z]		114 [z]	113 [z]	114 [z]	1.01 [z]
144	Malta	99	99	99	11-17	37	35	47	32	49	34	2	38		94	91	97	1.06
145	Monaco[9]	...	...	...	11-17	...	3	51	3	49	23	0.4	48		...	...	...	...
146	Netherlands	...	...	...	12-17	1,193	1,365	48	1,550	48	3	747	46		137	139	134	0.97
147	Norway	100	99	100	13-18	389	378	49	433	48	7	126	40		99	98	100	1.02
148	Portugal	...	...	...	12-17	650	847	51	734	49	17	185	41		119	121	118	0.97
149	San Marino[5,9]	99	98	100	11-18	3	*1.0*	*49*	2	48	.	0.5	30		94	92	95	1.03
150	Spain	94 [x]	93 [x]	95 [x]	12-17	2,520	3,299	50	3,296	49	27	583	46		123	124	122	0.99
151	Sweden	100	100	100	13-18	687	946	54	676	48	21	182	43		100	100	99	0.99
152	Switzerland	99	99	99	13-19	629	544	47	606	48	11	210	42		110	109	111	1.02
153	United Kingdom	...	...	...	11-17	5,082	5,202	49	4,849	49	39	470	47		106	109	104	0.96
154	United States	...	...	...	12-17	25,751	22,445	...	24,122	49	8	.	.		98	98	98	1.00
	South and West Asia																	
155	Afghanistan	...	...	...	13-18	4,471	***362***	-	2,416	35	2	23	12		63	80	46	0.57
156	Bangladesh	90 [*,y]	84 [*,y]	95 [*,y]	11-17	22,717	9,912	49	12,187	52	94	428	33		71	63	79	1.25
157	Bhutan	95	94	97	13-18	89	22	43	66	51	10	-	-		86	82	90	1.10
158	India	89 [y]	88 [y]	89 [y]	11-17	166,710	67,090	39	113,728 [z]	46 [z]	...	...	...		86 [z]	87 [z]	86 [z]	0.99 [z]
159	Iran, Islamic Republic of	96 *	96 *	96 *	11-17	8,251	9,727	47	7,118	48	12	813	34		101	104	98	0.94
160	Maldives	89	87	91	13-17	35	15	51	...	...	...	...	...		104	104	105	1.01
161	Nepal	**82**	**81**	**82**	10-16	4,580	1,265	40	**3,089**	**51**	...	...	...		**89**	**85**	**93**	**1.09**
162	Pakistan	77	77	78	10-16	28,337	...	...	10,372	41	31	376	43		49	54	44	0.82
163	Sri Lanka	98	96	99	10-17	2,608	...	...	2,590	51	7	148	45		99	99	100	1.01
	Sub-Saharan Africa																	
164	Angola	44 [*,y]	...	...	12-17	2,910	300	43	885 [z]	39 [z]	11 [z]	400 [z]	33 [z]		39 [z]	46 [z]	32 [z]	0.70 [z]
165	Benin	67 [y]	68 [y]	66 [y]	12-18	1,561	213	31	724 [z]	38 [z]	19 [z]	25 [z]	38 [z]		59 [z]	70 [z]	47 [z]	0.68 [z]
166	Botswana	...	...	...	13-17	223	158	51	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
167	Burkina Faso	51	53	48	12-18	2,609	173	38	676	44	41	27	46		36	38	33	0.86
168	Burundi	41	44	37	13-19	1,474	***113***	...	420	43	8	17	33		39	43	34	0.80
169	Cabo Verde	89	85	93	12-17	67	*45* [**]	...	62	54	14	2	48		115	109	120	1.11
170	Cameroon	55 [**]	52 [**]	59 [**]	12-18	3,401	643 [**]	45 [**]	1,713	46	26	360	38		60	64	56	0.87
171	Central African Republic	52	54	47	12-18	708	***70*** [**]	35 [**]	126	34	...	4	37		24	32	16	0.50
172	Chad	65	69	59	12-18	2,009	123	21	458	31	16	7	39		26	35	18	0.50
173	Comoros	...	...	...	12-18	102	29	44	75	48	29	0.4	15		75	78	72	0.92
174	Congo	64	64	65	12-18	632	...	...	339	46	...	34	46		64	64	65	1.02
175	Côte d'Ivoire	49	52	46	12-18	3,111	592 [**]	35 [**]	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
176	Democratic Rep. of the Congo	70	70	68	12-17	8,985	...	...	3,894	37	15	733	34		55	66	43	0.66
177	Equatorial Guinea	83	86	81	13-18	90	20	27	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
178	Eritrea	90 [y]	91 [y]	89 [y]	12-18	891	115	41	266	44	...	3	45		43	47	39	0.83
179	Ethiopia[4]	90	91	90	13-18	...	1,060	40	4,849	47	...	314	50		...	...	...	...
180	Gabon	...	...	...	11-17	243	87	46	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
181	Gambia	90	90	90	13-18	232	...	...	124 [**,y]	49 [**,y]	...	...	...		66 [y]	66 [y]	67 [y]	1.02 [y]
182	Ghana	**87**	**80**	**97**	12-18	3,808	1,024	44	**2,357**	**47**	**16**	**61**	**31**		**85**	**87**	**83**	**0.95**
183	Guinea	37	41	32	13-19	1,724	168 [**]	26 [**]	657	...	...	22	...		45	...	...	...
184	Guinea-Bissau	...	...	...	12-16	186	*26*	*36*	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
185	Kenya	...	...	...	12-17	5,721	1,822	49	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
186	Lesotho	75	75	75	13-17	252	74	57	135	58	1	7	70		62	53	72	1.36
187	Liberia	...	...	...	12-17	548	114	39	238 [z]	44 [z]	...	18 [z]	50 [z]		49 [z]	54 [z]	45 [z]	0.83 [z]
188	Madagascar	67	68	67	11-17	3,695	...	...	1,405	49	36	28	32		51	51	50	0.98
189	Malawi	73	75	72	12-17	2,223	556	41	761	47	6	-	-		42	44	41	0.93
190	Mali	79 [y]	80 [y]	78 [y]	13-18	1,902	218	34	821 [z]	41 [z]	31 [z]	94 [z]	41 [z]		60 [z]	68 [z]	51 [z]	0.75 [z]
191	Mauritius	72	67	78	11-17	133	104	49	127	51	57	11	34		105	105	105	0.99
192	Mozambique	49	47	51	13-17	2,809	103	39	728	47	13	32	34		34	36	32	0.89
193	Namibia	82 [x]	81 [x]	84 [x]	14-18	263	116	53	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
194	Niger	54	56	52	13-19	2,440	105	38	389	40	19	23	54		22	25	17	0.69
195	Nigeria	...	...	...	12-17	21,844	3,845	47	9,057 [y]	46 [y]	22 [y]	...	...		46 [y]	49 [y]	44 [y]	0.89 [y]
196	Rwanda	78	78	78	13-18	1,680	105	51	535	52	19	58	48		37	34	39	1.14
197	Sao Tome and Principe	**67**	**64**	**70**	12-16	20	...	...	**16**	**52**	**4**	**0.6**	**43**		**108**	**102**	**115**	**1.13**
198	Senegal	88	89	87	13-19	2,074	234	39	834 [*,z]	47 [*,z]	19 [*,z]	38 [*,z]	51 [*,z]		...	...	...	...
199	Seychelles	97 [y]	95 [y]	98 [y]	12-16	7	8	50	7 [z]	50 [z]	8 [z]	- [z]	- [z]		102 [z]	101 [z]	104 [z]	1.03 [z]
200	Sierra Leone	77	77	77	12-17	793	***156***	***42***	...	...	...	...	...		66	69	63	0.91
201	Somalia	...	...	...	12-17	1,426	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...
202	South Africa	...	...	...	14-18	4,754	4,239	53	4,844	51	4	247	43		111	113	109	0.97
203	South Sudan	...	...	...	12-17	1,528	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		17 [z]	22 [z]	12 [z]	0.55 [z]
204	Swaziland	90 [y]	90 [y]	90 [y]	13-17	150	62	50	91 [z]	49 [z]	3 [z]	- [z]	- [z]		69 [z]	70 [z]	67 [z]	0.96 [z]
205	Togo	78 [y]	82 [y]	74 [y]	12-18	1,011	232	29	546 [z]	...	23 [z]	28 [z]	...		68 [z]	...	...	...
206	Uganda	58 [y]	60 [y]	57 [y]	13-18	5,113	*547*	*43*	...	...	...	...	...		34 [**,y]	36 [**,y]	32 [**,y]	0.88 [**,y]
207	United Republic of Tanzania	41 [**,x]	45 [**,x]	37 [**,x]	14-19	6,056	...	...	2,118	46	...	234	47		46	49	44	0.90
208	Zambia	56 [y]	61 [y]	51 [y]	14-18	1,580	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		68 [z]	74 [z]	63 [z]	0.85 [z]
209	Zimbabwe	...	...	...	13-18	1,984	835	47	...	...	...	.	.		...	...	...	...

Table 7

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)													OUT-OF-SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS (000)[2]						
Upper secondary				Total Secondary								School year ending in			School year ending in			
School year ending in				School year ending in								1999			2012			
2012				1999				2012										
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
91 [2]	89 [2]	94 [2]	1.05 [2]	97	95	100	1.04	101 [2]	100 [2]	103 [2]	1.03 [2]	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.5 [2]	0.3 [2]	0.2 [2]	143
81	80	82	1.03	78	81	75	0.93	86	85	88	1.04	...	...	...	1.5	1.0	0.5	144
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	145
123	123	124	1.00	123	126	121	0.96	130	131	129	0.98	1	...	...	2	...	...	146
123	125	120	0.96	119	118	121	1.02	111	112	110	0.98	3	2	2	1.8	1.7	0.1	147
106	104	109	1.05	104	100	108	1.08	113	113	113	1.00	0.3	...	...	...	...	...	148
95	94	96	1.02	...	...	...	...	95	93	96	1.03	...	...	...	0.07 *, [2]	0.04 *, [2]	0.03 *, [2]	149
146	143	149	1.04	109	106	112	1.06	131	130	131	1.01	38	21	17	0.4	...	...	150
97	98	97	0.98	157	139	175	1.26	98	99	98	0.98	2.4	1.6	0.7	13	7	6	151
87	90	83	0.92	96	99	92	0.93	96	98	95	0.97	7	4	3	10	5	4	152
88	86	89	1.04	101	100	101	1.01	95	95	95	1.00	20	8	12	51	24	27	153
89	89	90	1.01	93	...	...	...	94	93	94	1.00	469	...	...	354	198	156	154
																	South and West Asia	
43	56	29	0.53	***13***	***25***	**-**	**-**	54	69	38	0.55	...	...	...	...	...	...	155
41	40	41	1.01	46	47	46	0.99	54	50	57	1.14	...	...	...	2,206 *, y	1,506 *, y	700 *, y	156
50	52	48	0.93	27	31	24	0.77	74	72	76	1.06	27	13	15	8	5	3	157
55 [2]	58 [2]	51 [2]	0.89 [2]	44	52	36	0.70	69 [2]	71 [2]	66 [2]	0.94 [2]	...	...	...	16,396 [2]	8,520 [2]	7,876 [2]	158
77	79	74	0.93	78	81	75	0.93	86	89	83	0.94	...	...	...	146 *	57 *	88 *	159
...	...	...	...	42	41	44	1.08	...	...	...	...	1.6	0.9	0.7	...	...	...	160
49	**49**	**49**	**1.01**	36	43	28	0.66	**67**	**65**	**68**	**1.05**	...	...	...	**98** **	...	...	161
27	33	21	0.64	...	...	...	...	37	42	31	0.74	...	...	...	6,461	3,075	3,386	162
100	94	105	1.12	...	...	...	...	99	96	102	1.06	...	...	...	94 [2]	53 [2]	41 [2]	163
																	Sub-Saharan Africa	
23 [2]	29 [2]	17 [2]	0.56 [2]	13	15	11	0.76	32 [2]	38 [2]	25 [2]	0.65 [2]	...	...	...	166 **, y	...	...	164
31 [2]	43 [2]	19 [2]	0.45 [2]	21	29	13	0.45	48 [2]	59 [2]	36 [2]	0.61 [2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	165
...	...	...	...	73	71	76	1.07	...	...	...	...	11 **	7 **	4 **	...	...	...	166
11	14	9	0.63	10	12	7	0.62	26	29	23	0.81	845	406	440	784	379	405	167
15	19	10	0.55	***10***	...	...	...	28	33	24	0.73	...	...	...	264 y	114 y	150 y	168
72	62	83	1.33	*67* **	...	...	...	93	85	101	1.19	...	...	...	2	1	1	169
36	40	32	0.81	26 **	28 **	24 **	0.84 **	50	54	46	0.86	...	...	...	...	...	...	170
9	12	7	0.58	***12*** **	***16*** **	***8*** **	***0.52*** **	18	24	12	0.51	...	...	...	229	90	139	171
17	25	9	0.37	10	16	4	0.26	23	31	14	0.46	555	240	315	...	...	...	172
71	70	72	1.03	33	36	30	0.81	73	75	72	0.96	...	...	...	...	...	...	173
38	48	27	0.57	...	...	...	...	54	57	50	0.87	...	...	...	...	...	...	174
31	37	25	0.67	24 **	32 **	17 **	0.54 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	175
37	48	26	0.54	...	...	...	...	43	54	32	0.59	...	...	...	...	...	...	176
...	...	...	...	33	48	18	0.37	...	...	...	...	***13*** **	...	...	...	...	...	177
20	22	17	0.75	20	23	16	0.70	30	33	26	0.80	139	66	72	255	123	133	178
...	...	...	...	13	15	10	0.68	...	...	...	...	3,993	1,730	2,262	...	...	...	179
...	...	...	...	48	52	45	0.88	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	180
48 **, y	52 **, y	44 **, y	0.85 **, y	...	...	...	...	57 **, y	59 **, y	56 **, y	0.95 **, y	...	...	...	25 **, y	13 **, y	12 **, y	181
42	**45**	**39**	**0.85**	41	45	36	0.81	**61** *	**64** *	**58** *	**0.91** *	492 **	225 **	267 **	**130** *	**41** **	**89** *	182
28	...	...	...	13 **	20 **	7 **	0.35 **	38	...	...	...	532	222	311	520 **, [2]	219 **, [2]	300 **, [2]	183
...	...	...	...	*18*	*23*	*13*	*0.55*	...	...	...	...	*45*	*17*	*28*	...	...	...	184
...	...	...	...	39	39	38	0.96	...	...	...	...	*216* **	*120* **	*96* **	...	...	...	185
39	32	47	1.48	32	27	38	1.41	53	45	62	1.40	21	18	3	35	21	14	186
40 [2]	45 [2]	36 [2]	0.81 [2]	31	38	25	0.65	45 [2]	50 [2]	41 [2]	0.82 [2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	187
19	21	18	0.88	...	...	...	...	38	39	37	0.95	***677*** **	***324*** **	***352*** **	...	...	...	188
17	19	14	0.75	38	45	31	0.70	34	36	32	0.90	69	...	...	321 **	159 **	161 **	189
27 [2]	33 [2]	21 [2]	0.63 [2]	16	21	11	0.54	44 [2]	52 [2]	37 [2]	0.72 [2]	...	...	...	440 [2]	185 [2]	255 [2]	190
89	86	93	1.09	75	76	74	0.98	96	94	98	1.04	10 **	5 **	4 **	...	...	...	191
12	13	12	0.88	5	6	4	0.63	26	27	24	0.89	735 **	312 **	422 **	665	286	379	192
...	...	...	...	57	54	60	1.11	...	...	...	...	18	11	7	...	...	...	193
7	8	5	0.63	7	9	5	0.58	16	19	13	0.67	780	370	410	1,133 [2]	548 [2]	585 [2]	194
41 y	44 y	38 y	0.88 y	23	24	22	0.92	44 y	46 y	41 y	0.89 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	195
25	26	25	0.95	9	9	9	0.98	32	31	33	1.07	...	...	...	...	...	...	196
36	**35**	**36**	**1.01**	...	...	...	...	**80**	**76**	**85**	**1.11**	...	...	...	1.3 y	0.6 y	0.7 y	197
...	...	...	...	15	19	12	0.64	41 *, [2]	43 *, [2]	39 *, [2]	0.91 *, [2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	198
100 [2]	91 [2]	109 [2]	1.20 [2]	102	100	104	1.04	101 [2]	97 [2]	106 [2]	1.09 [2]	0.07	...	...	0.1 [2]	...	...	199
...	...	...	...	***26***	***31*** **	***22*** **	***0.71*** **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	200
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	201
96	92	100	1.08	87	82	93	1.13	102	100	103	1.03	176 **	96 **	80 **	5 **	...	...	202
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	203
47 [2]	48 [2]	47 [2]	0.99 [2]	44	45	44	1.00	60 [2]	61 [2]	59 [2]	0.97 [2]	20	10	10	...	...	...	204
36 [2]	...	...	...	30	42	17	0.40	55 [2]	...	...	...	161	40	120	...	...	...	205
...	...	...	...	*16*	*18*	*14*	*0.77*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	206
10	12	8	0.70	...	...	...	...	35	37	33	0.88	...	...	...	...	...	...	207
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	208
...	...	...	...	43	45	40	0.88	...	...	...	...	88	28	60	...	...	...	209

Table 7 (continued)

	Country or territory	TRANSITION FROM PRIMARY TO SECONDARY GENERAL EDUCATION (%)			ENROLMENT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION													
		School year ending in			Age group	School-age population (000)	Total enrolment				Enrolment in private institutions as % of total enrolment	Enrolment in technical and vocational education		Lower Secondary				
		2011					School year ending in				School year ending in	School year ending in		School year ending in				
					2012	2012[2]	1999		2012		2012	2012		2012				
		Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F		Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	
		Median				Sum	Sum	% F	Sum	% F	Median	Sum	% F	Weighted average				
I	World	94	94	95		756,291	435,113	47 **	551,686	48	13	57,859	44	85	85	84	0.98	
II	Countries in transition	99	99	99		25,619	33,723	49 **	24,655	48	1	3,834	42	95	95	95	1.00	
III	Developed countries	99	99	99		77,177	82,438	49	78,160	49	10	11,787	42	103	103	102	0.99	
IV	Developing countries	90	90	91		653,495	318,952	46 **	448,871 **	47 **	17	42,238 **	44 **	82	83	81	0.97	
V	Arab States	95	96	95		42,239	22,406	46	31,329	47	19	2,855	40	89	93	85	0.92	
VI	Central and Eastern Europe	99	98	99		32,555	40,744	48 **	30,276	48	2	6,590	41	97	97	96	0.99	
VII	Central Asia	99	99	98		10,202	9,217	49	10,056 **	48 **	2	1,325 **	46 **	96 **	97 **	95 **	0.98 **	
VIII	East Asia and the Pacific	...	...	...		186,773	130,942	47 **	157,771	48	18	27,188	44	97	96	97	1.02	
IX	East Asia	95	93	96		183,335	127,673	47 **	154,276	48	16	26,259	44	97	96	97	1.02	
X	Pacific	...	...	...		3,438	3,269	49	3,496	47	...	929	43	102	104	99	0.95	
XI	Latin America and the Caribbean	93	94	92		68,611	52,983 **	51 **	60,466	51	20	6,073	53	98	97	100	1.03	
XII	Caribbean	94	...	...		2,282	1,060 **	49 **	1,363 **	51 **	18	34 **	47 **	73 **	72 **	75 **	1.05 **	
XIII	Latin America	92	92	92		66,329	51,924 **	51 **	59,103	51	20	6,039	53	99	98	101	1.03	
XIV	North America and Western Europe	99	99	99		60,779	60,730	49	61,158	49	11	7,977	42	103	104	103	0.99	
XV	South and West Asia	89	88	93		237,798	96,453	41	152,002 **	46 **	11	...	...	81 **	81 **	80 **	0.98 **	
XVI	Sub-Saharan Africa	70	70	68		117,334	21,639	45	48,628 **	45 **	16	3,109 **	40 **	50 **	53 **	46 **	0.86 **	
XVII	Countries with low income	75	76	73		116,878	26,911	45	51,659	47	...	2,412	39	55	57	53	0.93	
XVIII	Countries with middle income	94	94	93		544,064	303,823	46 **	404,339 **	48 **	11	41,729 **	45 **	88 **	89 **	88 **	0.99 **	
XIX	Lower middle	89	85	93		322,439	134,829	43	209,109 **	47 **	13	10,239 **	42 **	79 **	80 **	78 **	0.97 **	
XX	Upper middle	96	96	96		221,625	168,994	48 **	195,230	49	11	31,489	45	101	101	101	1.00	
XXI	Countries with high income	99	98	99		95,349	104,380	49 **	95,688	48	12	13,718	42	102	102	102	0.99	

Source: UIS database. Enrolment ratios are based on the United Nations Population Division estimates, revision 2012 (United Nations, 2013), median variant.

Note: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

1. Refers to lower and upper secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3).

2. Data are for 2012 except for countries with a split calendar school year, in which case data are for 2011.

3. Data reflect the actual number of adolescents not enrolled at all, derived from the lower secondary total net enrolment ratio (NERT), which measures the proportion of lower secondary school age adolescents who are enrolled in primary, secondary, post-secondary or tertiary education.

4. Enrolment ratios for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to inconsistencies in the population data.

5. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.

6. Enrolment and population data exclude Transnistria.

7. Enrolment and population data exclude the Nagorno-Karabakh region.

8. Enrolment data for upper secondary education include adult education (students over age 25), particularly in pre-vocational/vocational programmes, in which males are in the majority. This explains the high GER and relatively low GPI.

9. Enrolment ratios for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.

10. Data include French overseas departments and territories.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2012 for transition rates, and the school year ending in 2013 for enrolment, enrolment ratios and others indicators in this table. Those in italic are for 2000 and those in bold italic are for 2001.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2011.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2010.

(x) Data are for the school year ending in 2009.

(*) National estimate.

(**) For country level data: UIS partial estimate; for regional and other country grouping sums and weighted averages: partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 33% and 60% of population for the region or other country grouping).

(-) Magnitude nil or negligible.

(.) The category is not applicable or does not exist.

(...) No data available.

Table 7

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN SECONDARY EDUCATION (%)													OUT-OF-SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS (000)[2]						
Upper secondary				Total Secondary															
School year ending in 2012				School year ending in 1999				School year ending in 2012					School year ending in 1999			School year ending in 2012			
Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)	Total	Male	Female	GPI (F/M)		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Weighted Average				Weighted Average				Weighted average						Sum			Sum			
62	63	60	0.96	59	61 **	56 **	0.91 **	73	74	72	0.97		98,690 **	45,984 **	52,706 **	62,893 **	31,331 **	31,561 **	I
98	101	96	0.95	90	90 **	91 **	1.01 **	96	97	95	0.98		3,349 **	1,812 **	1,537 **	999 **	508 **	491 **	II
100	100	100	0.99	99	99	100	1.02	101	102	101	0.99		1,498	915 **	583 **	1,136	569	567	III
56 **	58 **	55 **	0.95 **	51	55 **	48 **	0.88 **	69 **	70 **	67 **	0.96 **		93,844 **	43,257 **	50,586 **	60,758 **	30,255 **	30,503 **	IV
58	58	58	1.00	61	65	56	0.87	74	76	72	0.95		*4,567* **	*1,878* **	*2,689* **	2,949 **	1,231 **	1,718 **	V
89	91	86	0.95	88	90 **	86 **	0.96 **	93	94	92	0.97		3,556 **	1,759 **	1,797 **	850 **	435 **	415 **	VI
104 **	106 **	102 **	0.96 **	85	85	85	1.00	99 **	100 **	97 **	0.98 **		***538*** **	***265*** **	***274*** **	403 **	183 **	220 **	VII
73	72	73	1.01	61	62 **	59 **	0.94 **	84	84	85	1.01		25,221 **	13,597 **	11,624 **	7,409 **	3,980 **	3,430 **	VIII
72	72	73	1.01	60	62 **	58 **	0.94 **	84	84	85	1.01		24,977 **	13,454 **	11,523 **	7,352 **	3,951 **	3,401 **	IX
102	105	99	0.95	109	109	109	0.99	102	104	99	0.95		244 **	143 **	101 **	58	29	28	X
76	71	81	1.14	80 **	78 **	83 **	1.07 **	88	85	91	1.07		3,681 **	1,823 **	1,858 **	2,821 **	1,475 **	1,346 **	XI
47 **	45 **	49 **	1.09 **	50 **	50 **	50 **	0.99 **	60 **	58 **	62 **	1.06 **		*201* **	*107* **	*94* **	178 **	100 **	78 **	XII
77	72	82	1.14	81 **	78 **	84 **	1.07 **	89	86	92	1.07		3,486 **	1,719 **	1,767 **	2,643 **	1,375 **	1,268 **	XIII
98	98	98	1.00	99	98	100	1.02	101	101	100	0.99		1,288	809 **	480 **	888	442	446	XIV
51 **	54 **	48 **	0.88 **	44	50	38	0.75	64 **	66 **	62 **	0.93 **		37,998 **	16,351 **	21,647 **	26,474 **	13,800 **	12,674 **	XV
32 **	35 **	28 **	0.80 **	25	28	23	0.82	41 **	45 **	38 **	0.84 **		21,274 **	9,210 **	12,064 **	21,098 **	9,785 **	11,313 **	XVI
32	35	29	0.82	29	32	27	0.82	44	47	42	0.89		21,508 **	9,898 **	11,610 **	18,471 **	8,798 **	9,673 **	XVII
61 **	62 **	60 **	0.97 **	56	59 **	53 **	0.89 **	74 **	75 **	73 **	0.98 **		73,314 **	33,858 **	39,457 **	42,780 **	21,663 **	21,117 **	XVIII
52 **	54 **	49 **	0.90 **	46	51	41	0.80	65 **	67 **	63 **	0.94 **		50,757 **	22,314 **	28,443 **	35,903 **	18,102 **	17,801 **	XIX
76	74	78	1.05	67	68 **	66 **	0.97 **	88	87	89	1.02		22,558 **	11,544 **	11,014 **	6,877 **	3,561 **	3,316 **	XX
99	99	98	0.99	98	97 **	98 **	1.01 **	100	101	100	0.99		3,868 **	2,228 **	1,640 **	1,642	870	772	XXI

Table 8
Teaching staff in pre-primary, primary and secondary education

Country or territory	PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION									PRIMARY EDUCATION						
	Teaching staff				Trained teachers (%)[1]			Pupil/teacher ratio[2]		Teaching staff				Trained teachers (%)[1]		
	School year ending in				School year ending in			School year ending in		School year ending in				School year ending in		
	1999		2012		2012			1999	2012	1999		2012		2012		
	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female
Arab States																
Algeria	1	93	19 z	74 z	...	...	...	28	25 z	170	46	149	57	...	...	...
Bahrain	0.7	100	2	100	47	50	47	21	15	...	...	8 *	75 *	82 *	80 *	83 *
Djibouti	0.01	100	...	...	...	...	...	28	...	1.0	28	**2**	**24**	**96**	**95**	**100**
Egypt	14 **	99 **	33 y	98 y	...	...	...	24 **	30 y	346 **	52 **	380 y	53 y	...	...	...
Iraq	*5*	*100*	...	...	...	...	...	*15*	...	*170*	*72*	...	...	...	...	...
Jordan	3	100	7	100	...	...	...	22	17	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kuwait	4	100	8	100	73	-	73	15	11	10	73	27	91	78	55	80
Lebanon	11 **	95 **	10	100	...	...	...	13 **	16	29 **	83 **	32	88	...	...	...
Libya	1	100	...	...	...	...	...	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritania	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	26	14	37	100	100	100
Morocco	40	40	**38**	**71**	**100**	**100**	**100**		**18**	123	39	**155**	**54**	**100**	**100**	**100**
Oman	...	...	2	99	100	100	100	...	25	12	52	...	...	...	...	...
Palestine	3	100	5	100	100	.	100	29	18	10	54	17	70	100	100	100
Qatar	0.4 **	96 **	3	100	29 z	69 z	28 z	21 **	13	5	75	11	90	...	...	...
Saudi Arabia	...	...	**26** *	**100** *	...	...	...	...	**10** *	...	...	**345** *	**52** *	...	...	...
Sudan	***12***	***87***	32 z	90 z	...	...	...	***27***	23 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Syrian Arab Republic	5	96	9 z	95 z	...	...	...	24	19 z	110	65 **	...	...	...	...	...
Tunisia	4	95	...	...	...	...	...	20	...	60	50	61	57	100	100	100
United Arab Emirates	3	100	8	99	100	100	100	19	16	17	73	20	89	100	100	100
Yemen	0.8	93	2 z	97 z	...	...	...	17	15 z	103 **	20 **	120 z	27 z	...	...	...
Sudan (pre-secession)	***13***	***84***	...	...	...	...	...	***27***	...	***117*** **	***52*** **	...	...	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe																
Albania	4	100	4	100	...	...	...	20	19	*13*	*75*	11	83	...	...	...
Belarus	54	...	47	99	82 *	88 *	82 *	5	6	32	99	24	99	100	100	100
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	1	98	...	...	...	...	14	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	19	...	18	100	...	...	...	11	12	23	...	14	94	...	...	...
Croatia	6	100	8	99	...	...	...	13	13	11	89	12	93	...	...	...
Czech Republic	17	100 **	25	100	...	...	...	18	14	36	85	25	97	...	...	...
Estonia	7	100	8	...	...	...	...	8	7	8	86 **	6	...	...	...	...
Hungary	32	100	30	100	...	...	...	12	11	47	85	37	96	...	...	...
Latvia	7	99	7	100	...	...	...	9	11	9	97	10	93	...	...	...
Lithuania	13	99	13	99	...	...	...	7	7	13	98	9	97	...	...	...
Montenegro	***0.6***	...	1	94	...	...	...	***20***	9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Poland	*74*	...	77	98	...	...	...	*12*	15	***289***	***83***	215	85	...	...	...
Republic of Moldova	*10*	*100*	12	100	92	.	92	*9*	10	12	96	9	98	...	...	...
Romania	37	100	37	100	...	...	...	17	18	69	86	46	87	...	...	...
Russian Federation	642	100 *	634	100	...	...	...	7	9	367	98	282	99	...	...	...
Serbia	8	98 **	12	...	69	...	...	21	13	...	...	19	83	56	35	60
Slovakia	16	100	12	100	...	...	...	10	12	17	93	14	89	...	...	...
Slovenia	5	99 *	6	98	...	...	...	11	9	6	96	6	97	...	...	...
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	3	99	2	99	...	...	...	10	8	6	66	7	80	...	...	...
Turkey	17	...	56	95	...	...	...	15	21	...	...	319	55	...	...	...
Ukraine	143	100	145	99	...	...	...	8	9	107	98	98	99	100 z	...	...
Central Asia																
Armenia	8	...	7	...	80	...	...	7	9	16	100	...	...	...	...	...
Azerbaijan	12	100	11	99	92	97	92	7	9	37	83	41	90	100	100	100
Georgia	*7*	*100*	...	...	...	...	...	*11*	...	*18*	*95*	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	19	...	**75**	**98**	...	...	...	9	**9**	***64***	***97***	**64**	**98**	...	...	...
Kyrgyzstan	3	100	3 z	99 z	46 z	48 z	46 z	18	27 z	19	95	17	98	72	73	72
Mongolia	3	100	5	98	94	85	94	25	27	8	93	9	96	99	100	99
Tajikistan	***5***	***100***	5 z	100 z	87 z	. z	87 z	***11***	13 z	***31***	***60***	29	75	94	94	94
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	66	96	56 z	96 z	100 z	100 z	100 z	9	9 z	123	84	125 z	87 z	100 z	100 z	100 z
East Asia and the Pacific																
Australia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	105 **	...	...	...	...	...	...
Brunei Darussalam	0.6 *	83 *	1.0	94	65	81	64	20 *	14	3 *	66 *	4	76	88	94	86
Cambodia	***3***	***98***	5	93	100	100	100	***24***	28	***46***	***39***	48	49	100	100	100
China	875	94	1,488	97	...	...	...	27	23	***5,860***	***51***	5,467	59	...	...	...
Cook Islands	0.03	100	0.03	100	82	.	82	14	17	0.1	86	0.1	82	95	96	95
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	*0.3*	*99*	...	...	...	...	...	*21*	...	*4*	*56*	4	59	100	100	100
Indonesia	*124* **	*98* **	308	95	...	...	...	*17* **	15	1,334	...	1,656	64	...	...	...
Japan	96	...	111	...	...	...	...	31	26	367	...	405	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.6	62	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2	100	6	98	91	90	91	18	19	27	43	33	51	97	97	98
Macao, China	0.5	100	0.7	99	93	90	93	31	17	2	87	2	87	88	77	90
Malaysia	21	100	37 z	85 z	...	...	...	27	19 z	143	66	235 z	69 z	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	0.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	11	...	0.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia (Federated States of)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	2	...	9 y	97 y	59 y	56 y	59 y	22	17 y	155	73	182 y	84 y	100 y	100 y	100 y
Nauru	*0.1*	*98*	...	...	...	...	...	*13*	...	*0.07*	*92*	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	7	98	11	98	...	...	...	15	11	20	82	24	83	...	...	...
Niue	0.01	100	...	...	...	...	...	10	...	0.02	100	...	...	...	...	...

PRIMARY EDUCATION			SECONDARY EDUCATION														
Pupil/teacher ratio[2]		Pupil/trained teacher ratio[2]	Teaching staff, total secondary				Trained teachers (%)[1] Total secondary			Pupil/teacher ratio[2]							
										Lower secondary		Upper secondary		Total secondary			
School year ending in		School year ending in	School year ending in				School year ending in			School year ending in		School year ending in		School year ending in			
1999	2012	2012	1999		2012		2012			1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012		
			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female								Country or territory
																	Arab States
28	23	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Algeria
...	12 *	14 *	...	...	9 *	60 *	83 *	81 *	84 *	...	11 *	...	9 *	...	10 *		Bahrain
40	**34**	**36**	0.7	22	**2**	**24**	100 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	26	**30**	16	**20**	23	**25**		Djibouti
23 **	28 [y]	...	454 **	41 **	...	...	...	...	...	22 **	...	13 **	9 [y]	17 **	...		Egypt
21	...	...	*62*	*69*	...	...	...	...	...	*22*	...	*16*	...	*20*	...		Iraq
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	17	...	...	...		Jordan
13	9	11	22 **	56 **	...	...	...	...	...	12 **	8	9 **	...	11 **	...		Kuwait
14 **	14	...	43 **	52 **	42 [2]	58 [2]	...	...	...	9 **	11 [2]	8 **	8 [2]	9 **	9 [2]		Lebanon
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Libya
47	40	40	2	8	...	...	...	...	...	48	40	17	...	28	...		Mauritania
28	**26**	**26**	88 **	33 **	...	...	...	...	...	19 **	...	14 **	...	17 **	...		Morocco
25	...	...	13	50	...	...	...	...	...	19	...	16	...	18	...		Oman
38	24	24	18	47	35	51	100	100	100	26	21	19	18	25	20		Palestine
13	10	...	4 **	57 **	8	55	67 [2]	72 [2]	62 [2]	13 **	10	8 **	9	10 **	10		Qatar
...	**10** *	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Saudi Arabia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Sudan
25	...	...	54	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8 [2]	19	...		Syrian Arab Republic
24	17	17	56 **	40 **	85 [2]	51 [2]	...	...	...	23 **	...	15 **	...	19 **	14 [2]		Tunisia
16	18	...	16	55	25	61	100	100	100	14	16	10	12	12	14		United Arab Emirates
22 **	30 [2]	...	48 **	19 **	102 [2]	29 [2]	...	...	...	22 **	11 [2]	21	59 [2]	22 **	16 [2]		Yemen
24 **	...	...	***52*** **	***49*** **	...	...	...	...	...	**24** **	...	**20**	...	**22** **	...		Sudan (pre-secession)
																	Central and Eastern Europe
23	19	...	*22*	*54*	23	64	...	...	...	*16*	13	*18*	18	*16*	15		Albania
20	15	15	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Belarus
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13	...	...		Bosnia and Herzegovina
18	17	...	56	...	41	79	...	...	...	13	13	12	12	13	12		Bulgaria
19	14	...	33	64	49	69	...	...	...	14	9	11	7	12	8		Croatia
18	19	...	***93***	***66***	69	66	...	...	...	***13***	11	***9***	11	***11***	11		Czech Republic
16	12	...	11	81 **	10	...	...	...	...	11	8	10	9	10	8		Estonia
11	10	...	100	71	86	71	...	...	...	11	10	9	10	10	10		Hungary
15	11	...	25	80	16	82	...	...	...	10	7	10	8	10	8		Latvia
17	12	...	*38*	...	37	81	...	...	...	...	8	...	8	*11*	8		Lithuania
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13	...	...		Montenegro
11	10	...	***301***	***66***	301	70	...	...	...	***11***	9	***15***	8	***13***	9		Poland
21	16	...	33	72	29	77	...	...	...	13	9	12	11	13	10		Republic of Moldova
19	18	...	177	64	134	69	...	...	...	12	11	13	15	13	13		Romania
18	20	...	...	...	1,046	82	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9		Russian Federation
...	16	28	...	...	62	64	40	30	46	...	9	14	9	...	9		Serbia
19	15	...	54 **	72 **	45	75	...	...	...	13	11	12 **	12	13 **	11		Slovakia
14	17	...	17	69	15 [2]	73 [2]	...	...	...	14	7 [2]	13	11 [2]	13	9 [2]		Slovenia
22	15	...	13	49	18	57	...	...	...	16	9	16	13	16	10		The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia
...	20	...	...	...	432	47	...	...	...	...	20	*16*	16	...	18		Turkey
20	16	16 [2]	400	76	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13	...		Ukraine
																	Central Asia
16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Armenia
19	12	12	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Azerbaijan
17	...	...	*59*	*76*	...	...	...	...	...	*9* *	...	*5*	...	*7*	...		Georgia
19	**16**	...	***176***	***84***	191	85	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***12***	9		Kazakhstan
24	24	33	48	68	44 [y]	83 [y]	85 [y]	77 [y]	86 [y]	...	...	...	...	13	15 *,[y]		Kyrgyzstan
32	29	29	11	69	19 [y]	73 [y]	98 [y]	96 [y]	98 [y]	19	...	17	...	19	14 [y]		Mongolia
22	23	24	47	43	68 [2]	46 [2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	16	15 [2]		Tajikistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Turkmenistan
21	16 [2]	16 [2]	307	57	329 [2]	62 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	...	...	...	...	11	13 [2]		Uzbekistan
																	Central Asia
18 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Australia
14 *	11	12	3	48	5	66	92	93	92	12 *	...	10 *	...	11	10		Brunei Darussalam
53	46	46	***20***	***29***	...	...	...	...	...	***18***	20	***24***	...	***20***	...		Cambodia
22	18	...	*4,763*	*41* **	6,551	50	...	...	...	*18*	14	*16*	15	*17*	15		China
18	15	15	*0.1*	...	0.1 [2]	57 [2]	88 [2]	80 [2]	95 [2]	...	...	...	...	*14*	14 [2]		Cook Islands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Democratic People's Republic of Korea
28	28	28	5	47	5	57	100	100	100	...	26	...	13	21	19		Fiji
22	19	...	970	...	1,291	53	...	...	...	16	16	13	17	15	17		Indonesia
21	17	...	630	...	624	...	...	...	...	16	13	13	11	14	12		Japan
25	...	...	***0.4***	***47***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***21***	...		Kiribati
31	27	28	12	40	25 [2]	48 [2]	...	...	...	20	19 [2]	22	21 [2]	20	20 [2]		Lao People's Democratic Republic
31	14	16	1	56	2	59	74	67	80	24	15	21	14	23	14		Macao, China
20	12 [2]	...	*120* **	*62* **	194 [2]	68 [2]	...	...	...	*18* **	...	*18* **	...	*18* **	14 [2]		Malaysia
15	...	...	0	...	...	...	...	...	...	28	...	18	...	22	...		Marshall Islands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		Micronesia (Federated States of)
31	28 [y]	28 [y]	68	76	84 [y]	85 [y]	99 [y]	99 [y]	99 [y]	28	36 [y]	38	28 [y]	30	34 [y]		Myanmar
21	...	...	*0.04*	*39*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*17*	...		Nauru
18	15	...	28	58	35	62	...	...	...	18	15	13	14	15	14		New Zealand
16	...	...	0.03	44	...	...	...	...	...	6	...	20	...	11	...		Niue

Table 8 (continued)

Country or territory	PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION									PRIMARY EDUCATION						
	Teaching staff				Trained teachers (%)[1]			Pupil/teacher ratio[2]		Teaching staff				Trained teachers (%)[1]		
	School year ending in				School year ending in			School year ending in		School year ending in				School year ending in		
	1999		2012		2012			1999	2012	1999		2012		2012		
	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female
Palau	*0.06*	*98*	...	...	...	...	...	*10*	...	0.1	82	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*16* **	*39* **	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	18	...	...	...	...	...	...	33	...	360	87	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Korea	...	...	72 [2]	99 [2]	...	...	...	...	21 [2]	122	67	166	79	...	...	...
Samoa	*0.1* **	*94* **	0.3	95	...	...	...	*42* **	10	1 **	71 **	1 [y]	77 [y]	...	...	...
Singapore	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	...	1	87	40	34	41	...	17	3	41	5	47	54	55	54
Thailand	111	79	95	78	...	...	...	25	29	298	63	307	60	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***3***	***30*** **	8 [2]	40 [2]	...	...	...
Tokelau	*0.01*		...	...	...	...	...	*11*	...	*0.03*	*76*	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	0.1		0.2	100	100	.	100	18	11	0.8	67	0.8	95	...	...	...
Tuvalu	***0.04***		...	...	...	...	...	***18***	...	0.07	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	0.8	99	0.8 [y]	94 [y]	...	...	...	10	14 [y]	1	49	2 [y]	54 [y]	...	...	...
Viet Nam	94	100	174	98	99 [2]	...	...	23	19	337	78	366	77	100	100	100
Latin America and the Caribbean																
Anguilla	0.03	100	0.03 [2]	100 [2]	74 [2]	. [2]	74 [2]	18	14 [2]	0.07	87	0.1 [2]	75 [2]	71 [2]	14 [2]	90 [2]
Antigua and Barbuda	*0.3*	*100*	0.1	100	71	.	71	*6*	21	*0.7*	*79*	0.8	92	60	41	62
Argentina	50	96	...	...	...	...	...	24	...	221	88	...	...	...	...	...
Aruba	0.1	100	0.1	98	100	100	100	26	20	0.5	78	0.6	85	100	98	100
Bahamas	0.2	97	...	...	...	...	...	9	...	2	63	2 [y]	92 [y]	92 [y]	...	...
Barbados	0.3 **	93 **	0.3 [2]	96 [2]	47 *[,2]	21 *[,2]	48 *[,2]	18 **	16 *[,2]	1 **	76 **	2 [2]	78 [2]	55 *[,2]	51 *[,2]	57 *[,2]
Belize	0.2	98	0.4	99	21	60	20	19	16	*2*	*64*	2	72	54	50	56
Bermuda	***0.06***	***100***	0.06 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	. [2]	100 [2]	***7***	6 [2]	***0.5***	***89***	0.5 [2]	91 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	*5*	*93*	...	...	...	...	...	*42*	...	*60* **	*61* **	...	...	...	...	...
Brazil	304	98	442	97	...	...	...	19	17	*807*	*93*	786	90	...	...	...
British Virgin Islands	0.03 **	100 **	0.08 [2]	100 [2]	...	...	...	13 **	11 [2]	0.2	86	0.3 [2]	93 [2]	...	...	...
Cayman Islands	0.05	96	...	...	...	...	...	9	...	0.2	89	0.3 [2]	85 [2]	95 [2]	98 [2]	94 [2]
Chile	*19*	*99*	57 [2]	99 [2]	...	...	...	*24*	9 [2]	56	77	71	78	...	...	...
Colombia	59	94	51 [2]	96 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	100 [2]	18	26 [2]	215	77	189	77	100	100	100
Costa Rica	4	97	8 [2]	94 [2]	81 [2]	66 [2]	82 [2]	21	14 [2]	21	81	29 [2]	80 [2]	91 [2]	92 [2]	91 [2]
Cuba	26	98	31	100	100	.	100	19	13	91	79	89	78	100	100	100
Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominica	0.1	100	0.2	100	19	.	19	18	11	0.6	75	0.5	86	61	48	63
Dominican Republic	8	95	10	94	85	79	85	24	25	42	75	54	76	85	79	87
Ecuador	*13*	*88*	39	84	79	69	80	*15*	12	*83*	*68*	116	71	84	81	85
El Salvador	...	...	9 [2]	89 [2]	92 [2]	73 [2]	95 [2]	...	24 [2]	...	...	31 [2]	73 [2]	96 [2]	93 [2]	97 [2]
Grenada	0.2	96	0.2 [y]	100 [y]	45 [y]	. [y]	45 [y]	15	14 [y]	*0.8*	*76*	0.9 [y]	79 [y]	65 [y]	...	...
Guatemala	12	...	26 [2]	92 [2]	...	...	...	26	21 [2]	48	...	101 [2]	66 [2]	...	...	...
Guyana	2	99	2	100	65	60	65	18	16	4	86	4	89	70	63	71
Haiti	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	*6*	...	...	...	...	...	...	*19*	...	34	73	...	...			
Jamaica	5	...	8	99	...	...	...	25	13	...	...	12	89	...	...	...
Mexico	150	94	187	95	82 [y]	...	...	22	25	540	62	534	67	96 [y]	...	...
Montserrat	0.01	100	...	...	...	...	...	12	...	0.02	84	...	...	...	...	...
Nicaragua	6	97	10 [y]	96 [y]	33 [y]	32 [y]	33 [y]	26	21 [y]	24	83	31 [y]	77 [y]	75 [y]	61 [y]	79 [y]
Panama	3	98	6	95	47	9	49	19	17	15	75	19	77	90	93	90
Paraguay	...	...	8 [2]	84 [2]	...	...	...	...	18 [2]	...	...	38 [2]	71 [2]	...	...	...
Peru	26	98	76	96	...	...	...	39	18	151	62	181	67	...	...	...
Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	...	0.09 [2]	100 [2]	...	...	...	...	20 [2]	*0.4*	*83*	0.4	90	65	55	66
Saint Lucia	0.5	100	0.3	100	60	.	60	12	10	***1***	***83***	1	87	88	74	90
Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	70	0.9	80	85	72	88
Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	***0.7***	***99*** **	0.7 [2]	90 [2]	...	...	...	***22***	25 [2]	***3*** **	***82*** **	5 [2]	94 [2]	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	*2*	*100*	...	...	...	...	...	*13*	...	8	76	...	...	...	...	...
Turks and Caicos Islands	***0.07***	***95***	...	...	...	...	...	***14***	...	0.1	96	...	...	...	...	...
Uruguay	3	...	5 [y]	...	...	...	...	31	26 [y]	18	...	25 [y]	...	...	...	...
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands Antilles	0.3	99	...	...	...	...	...	21	...	1	86	...	...	...	...	...
North America and Western Europe																
Andorra	...	...	0.2	93	100	100	100	...	14	...	...	0.4	79	100	100	100
Austria	14	99	21	99	...	...	...	16	12	29	89	30	91	...	...	...
Belgium	***27***	***92***	32	97	...	...	...	***15***	14	*65* **	*78* **	66	81	...	...	...
Canada	30	68 **	...	...	...	...	...	17	...	141	68 **	...	...	...	...	...
Cyprus	1.0	99	1	99	...	...	...	19	17	4	67	4	83	...	...	...
Denmark	45	92	...	...	...	...	...	6	...	37	63	...	...	...	...	...
Finland	10	96	16	97	...	...	...	12	11	22	71	26	79	...	...	...
France	128	78	125	83	...	...	...	19	21	209	78	233	83	...	...	...
Germany	...	...	240	97	...	...	...	...	10	221	82	251	85	...	...	...
Greece	9	100 **	...	...	...	...	...	16	...	48	57 **	...	...	...	...	...
Iceland	3	98	3 [2]	96 [2]	...	...	...	4	5 [2]	...	...	3 [2]	81 [2]	...	...	...
Ireland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	21	85	32	85	...	...	...
Israel	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50 **	85 **	66 [2]	...	...	...	...
Italy	119	99	...	...	...	...	...	13	...	254	95	...	...	...	...	...

PRIMARY EDUCATION			SECONDARY EDUCATION														
Pupil/teacher ratio[2]		Pupil/trained teacher ratio[2]	Teaching staff, total secondary				Trained teachers (%)[1] Total secondary			Pupil/teacher ratio[2]						
										Lower secondary		Upper secondary		Total secondary		
School year ending in		School year ending in	School year ending in				School year ending in			School year ending in		School year ending in		School year ending in		
1999	2012	2012	1999		2012		2012			1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	
			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female							Country or territory
15	...	...	0.2	51	...	...	...	...	...	14	...	12	...	13	...	Palau
35 **	...	...	...	...	14	42	100	100	100	...	...	...	...	...	27	Papua New Guinea
35	...	...	150	76	...	...	...	...	...	41	...	21	...	34	...	Philippines
32	18	...	189	41	237	58	...	...	...	22	17	22	15	22	16	Republic of Korea
24 **	30 [y]	...	1 **	57 **	1 [y]	58 [y]	...	...	...	26 **	24 [y]	17	20 [y]	20 **	21 [y]	Samoa
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Singapore
19	24	44	1	33	2	30	70	69	72	...	...	...	...	13	26	Solomon Islands
21	16	...	***169*** **	***53*** **	246 [z]	51 [z]	...	...	...	***23*** **	22 [z]	***25*** **	18 [z]	***24*** **	20 [z]	Thailand
62	31 [z]	...	***2***	...	4 [z]	29 [z]	...	...	...	***30***	25 [z]	***25***	23 [z]	***28***	24 [z]	Timor-Leste
10	...	...	*0.01*	*64*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*16*	...	Tokelau
21	21	...	1 **	48 **	1 [z]	54 [z]	...	...	...	15 **	...	13 **	...	15 **	15 [z]	Tonga
19	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***25***	...	...	...	...	...	Tuvalu
24	22 [y]	...	0.4	47	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	23	...	Vanuatu
30	19	19	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	29	16	...	...	...	...	Viet Nam
																Latin America and the Caribbean
22	15 [z]	21 [z]	0.07 **	63 **	0.1 [z]	68 [z]	57 [z]	50 [z]	61 [z]	...	...	...	...	15 **	9 [z]	Anguilla
19	14	23	*0.4*	*71* **	0.7	68	47 [z]	55 [z]	44 [z]	*12*	11	*16*	13	*13*	12	Antigua and Barbuda
21	...	...	*311*	*69*	...	...	...	...	...	*11*	...	*12*	...	*11*	...	Argentina
19	15	15	0.4	49	0.5 [z]	59 [z]	96 [z]	95 [z]	96 [z]	...	...	...	...	16	14 [z]	Aruba
14	14 [y]	15 [y]	2 **	...	3 [y]	76 [y]	89 [y]	...	...	16 **	12 [y]	16 **	12 [y]	16 **	12 [y]	Bahamas
18 **	13 *, [z]	24 *, [z]	1 **	58 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18 **	...	Barbados
23	22	40	*1.0*	*64*	2	61	39	30	44	*23*	18	*23*	14	*23*	17	Belize
9	9 [z]	9 [z]	0.6	67	0.7 [z]	67 [z]	100 [z]	100 [z]	100 [z]	***8***	6 [z]	***7***	6 [z]	***7***	6 [z]	Bermuda
25 **	...	...	39 **	52 **	...	...	...	...	...	24 **	...	20	...	21 **	...	Bolivia, Plurinational State of
26	21	...	...	...	1,448	66	...	...	...	23	17	...	15	...	16	Brazil
18	12 [z]	...	0.2	63	0.2 [z]	64 [z]	...	...	...	6	9 [z]	10	7 [z]	7	8 [z]	British Virgin Islands
15	12 [z]	13 [z]	0.2	46	0.4 [z]	48 [z]	100 [z]	100 [z]	99 [z]	11	9 [z]	7	9 [z]	9	9 [z]	Cayman Islands
32	21	...	45	62	72	62	...	...	...	32	21	27	20	29	20	Chile
24	25	25	200	49	193	52	97	97	98	...	27	...	23	18	25	Colombia
27	17 [z]	19 [z]	13	53	28 [z]	60 [z]	90 [z]	90 [z]	89 [z]	20	15 [z]	19	14 [z]	20	15 [z]	Costa Rica
12	9	9	65	60	93	57	100	100	100	12	9	10	8	11	8	Cuba
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Curaçao
20	16	26	0.4 **	68 **	0.5 [z]	72 [z]	41 [z]	38 [z]	42 [z]	21 **	15 [z]	15 **	9 [z]	19 **	12 [z]	Dominica
31	24	28	...	...	31	66	90	89	90	...	27	28	30	...	29	Dominican Republic
23	18	22	*68* **	*49* **	133	54	75	69	79	*13* **	12	*14* **	11	*14* **	12	Ecuador
...	29 [z]	31 [z]	...	...	25 [z]	53 [z]	91 [z]	89 [z]	94 [z]	...	25 [z]	...	23 [z]	...	24 [z]	El Salvador
20	16 [y]	25 [y]	...	...	0.7 [y]	62 [y]	25 [y]	49 [y]	11 [y]	...	...	...	...	...	15 [y]	Grenada
38	26 [z]	...	33	...	77 [z]	49 [z]	...	...	...	15	17 [z]	11	12 [z]	13	14 [z]	Guatemala
27	23	33	...	...	4	71	57 [y]	49 [y]	61 [y]	...	20	...	22	...	20	Guyana
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Haiti
32	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Honduras
...	23	...	*12*	...	14	70	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*18*	...	Jamaica
27	28	29 [y]	519	44	684	50	91 [y]	...	...	18	19	14	16	17	18	Mexico
21	...	...	0.03	62 **	...	...	...	...	...	10 **	...	10 **	...	10	...	Montserrat
34	30 [y]	40 [y]	10 *	56 *	15 [y]	55 [y]	53 [y]	45 [y]	59 [y]	31 *	...	31 **	...	31 **	31 [y]	Nicaragua
26	23	25	14	55	25	59	88	87	89	17	16	15	13	16	14	Panama
...	22 [z]	...	39	62	65 [z]	62 [z]	...	...	...	...	11 [z]	...	7 [z]	11	9 [z]	Paraguay
29	19	...	105	44	156	47	...	...	...	22	...	22	...	22	17	Peru
19	15	23	*0.3*	*56*	0.4	62	53	49	55	...	...	...	...	*14*	...	Saint Kitts and Nevis
24	17	20	***1***	***65***	1 *	70 *	65 *	60 *	67 *	...	14 *	...	14 *	***17***	14 *	Saint Lucia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Saint-Martin
20	16	18	*0.4*	*57*	0.7	66	58	53	61	...	...	...	...	*24* **	15	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Sint-Maarten
20 **	15 [z]	...	***3*** **	***63*** **	4 [z]	72 [z]	...	...	...	***17*** **	14 [z]	***13*** **	11 [z]	***15*** **	13 [z]	Suriname
21	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22 **	...	...	...	...	...	Trinidad and Tobago
18	...	...	0.1 **	62 **	...	...	...	...	...	9 **	...	9 **	...	9 **	...	Turks and Caicos Islands
20	14 [y]	...	19	72	25 [y]	...	...	...	...	12	10 [y]	23	14 [y]	15	11 [y]	Uruguay
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of
20	...	...	1	53	...	...	...	...	...	12	...	21	...	15	...	Netherlands Antilles
																North America and Western Europe
...	10	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	...	...	...	...	Andorra
13	11	...	73	57	74	64	...	...	...	9	8	12	11	10	10	Austria
12 **	11	...	*105*	*57*	...	...	...	...	...	...	7	...	...	*10*	...	Belgium
17	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12 [z]	...	...	Canada
18	14	...	5	51	6	65	...	...	...	...	10	...	10	13	10	Cyprus
10	...	...	44	45	...	...	...	...	...	10	...	9	...	10	...	Denmark
17	14	...	39	64	45	65	...	...	...	10	9	14	10	12	9	Finland
19	18	...	495	57	461	59	...	...	...	13	15	11	11	12	13	France
17	12	...	533	51	580	60	...	...	...	15	12	16	15	15	13	Germany
14	...	...	75	56 **	...	...	...	...	...	10	...	10	...	10	...	Greece
...	10 [z]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	14	12 [z]	...	...	Iceland
22	16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Ireland
13 **	13 [z]	...	61 **	70 **	...	...	...	...	...	12 **	...	9	...	10 **	...	Israel
11	...	...	422	65	...	...	...	...	...	10	...	11	...	11	...	Italy

Table 8 (continued)

Country or territory	PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION									PRIMARY EDUCATION						
	Teaching staff				Trained teachers (%)[1]			Pupil/teacher ratio[2]		Teaching staff				Trained teachers (%)[1]		
	School year ending in				School year ending in			School year ending in		School year ending in				School year ending in		
	1999		2012		2012			1999	2012	1999		2012		2012		
	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female
Luxembourg	***0.8***	***97***	1 [y]	98 [y]	...	...	...	***18***	11 [y]	***3***	***67***	4 [y]	74 [y]	...	...	...
Malta	0.8	99	0.7	99	...	...	...	13	13	2	87	2	81	...	...	...
Monaco	0.04	100	...	...	...	...	...	25	...	0.09	87	...	...	...	...	...
Netherlands	...	...	35	86	...	...	...	...	15	...	...	111	85	...	...	...
Norway	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Portugal	*14*	...	17	99	...	...	...	*16*	16	*61*	*82*	60	80	...	...	...
San Marino	*0.1*	*99*	0.1	96	...	...	...	*8*	8	*0.2*	*91*	0.3	91	...	...	...
Spain	68	93	157	95	...	...	...	17	12	172	68	224	76	...	...	...
Sweden	***36***	***97***	...	...	...	...	...	***9***	...	62	80	62	82	...	...	...
Switzerland	...	...	13	98	...	...	...	...	12	...	...	45	82	...	...	...
United Kingdom	*51*	*95*	68	95	...	...	...	*23*	19	249	81	247	87	...	...	...
United States	327	95	655	94	...	...	...	22	14	1,618	86	1,691	87	...	...	...
South and West Asia																
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	26	10	122 [z]	31 [z]	...	...	...
Bangladesh	68	33	...	...	...	...	...	27	...	...	...	458 [z]	54 [z]	58 [z]	60 [z]	56 [z]
Bhutan	0.01	31	0.2	93	...	...	...	22	11	2	32	5	40	...	...	...
India	*504*	...	...	...	...	...	...	*35*	...	3,135 *	33 *	3,918 *, [z]	...	...	...	...
Iran, Islamic Republic of	9	98	...	...	...	...	...	23	...	***315***	***54***	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	0.4	90	0.9	94	89	18	93	31	25	3	60	3	73	77	82	76
Nepal	***12***	***36***	**46**	**90**	**87**	**46**	**91**	***22***	**23**	92	23	**179**	**42**	**92**	**92**	**92**
Pakistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*424* **	*45* **	438	47	84	92	75
Sri Lanka	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***67***	...	72	86	82 [z]	...	...
Sub-Saharan Africa																
Angola	...	...	19 *, [z]	40 *, [z]	44 *, [z]	42 *, [z]	47 *, [z]	...	32 *, [z]	...	...	118 [z]	37 [z]	47 [z]	45 [z]	51 [z]
Benin	0.6	61	4	70	28	42	22	28	25	16	23	45	21	47 [z]	47 [z]	47 [z]
Botswana	...	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	12	81	...	...	...	...	...
Burkina Faso	...	...	3	83	20	76	8	...	24	***19***	***23***	49	38	95	93	98
Burundi	0.2 **	99 **	1	84	62	32	68	28 **	33	12	54	42	52	95	93	97
Cabo Verde	***0.8***	***100***	1	100	46	.	46	***25***	20	3	62	3	68	95	92	96
Cameroon	4	97	18	97	57	55	57	23	22	41	36	84	51	79	79	78
Central African Republic	...	...	0.5 [z]	88 [z]	...	...	...	...	44 [z]	...	...	8	20	58	51	86
Chad	...	...	0.5	73	73 [z]	77 [z]	72 [z]	...	35	12	9	34	15	62 [z]	59 [z]	81 [z]
Comoros	0.05 **	94 **	...	...	...	...	...	26 **	...	2	26	4 [z]	28 [z]	55 [z]	...	...
Congo	0.6	100	2	99	92	...	...	10	26	*7*	*37*	17	54	80	72	88
Côte d'Ivoire	*2*	*83*	5	95	92	93	92	*22*	18	*43*	*20*	70	24	99	99	100
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	***2***	***88***	11	95	17	7	17	***25***	26	155	21	345	25	94	93	94
Equatorial Guinea	0.4	36	2	89	...	...	...	43	17	1	28	4	39	49 [z]	47 [z]	52 [z]
Eritrea	0.3	97	1	98	56	48	56	36	35	6	35	8	41	90	92	86
Ethiopia	2	93	14 [z]	70 [z]	86 [y]	28 [y]	100 [y]	36	27 [z]	*87*	*29*	270 **	37 **	57 **	58 **	55 **
Gabon	***0.5***	***98***	...	...	...	...	...	***30***	...	***5***	***48***	13 [z]	53 [z]	...	...	...
Gambia	0.8	55	...	...	...	...	...	37	...	*5*	*32*	7	30	90 [z]	90 [z]	89 [z]
Ghana	18 **	92 **	**45**	**83**	**39**	**34**	**40**	28 **	**35**	80	32	**130**	**38**	**53**	**46**	**65**
Guinea	...	...	4 [y]	53 [y]	...	...	...	...	34 [y]	16	25	37	30	75	72	81
Guinea-Bissau	*0.2*	*73*	0.3 [y]	69 [y]	26 [y]	28 [y]	25 [y]	*21*	29 [y]	*3*	*20*	5 [y]	22 [y]	39 [y]	33 [y]	59 [y]
Kenya	*47* **	*64* **	...	...	...	...	...	*26* **	...	148	42	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	*2*	*99*	2 [y]	...	...	...	...	*19*	24 [y]	8	80	11	77	68	56	71
Liberia	6	19	...	...	...	...	...	18	...	10	19	25 [z]	14 [z]	56 [z]	55 [z]	63 [z]
Madagascar	...	...	7 [y]	97 [y]	51 [y]	83 [y]	50 [y]	...	23 [y]	43	58	102	56 *	95 [z]	96 [z]	94 [z]
Malawi	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	41 **	40 **	50 **	40 **	92 **	90 **	94 **
Mali	***1*** **	***73*** **	2 [z]	94 [z]	59 [z]	83 [z]	57 [z]	***21*** **	44 [z]	15 *	23 *	44 [z]	28 [z]	52 [z]	51 [z]	57 [z]
Mauritius	3	100	3	99	100	100	100	16	14	5	54	5	72	100	100	100
Mozambique	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	37	25	98	41	84	81	87
Namibia	1	88	...	...	...	...	...	27	...	12	67	10	70	98	97	98
Niger	0.6	98	3	88	90	81	91	21	32	13	31	53	46	97	97	98
Nigeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	432	48	574 [y]	48 [y]	66 [y]	61 [y]	72 [y]
Rwanda	***0.5***	***86***	3	80	38 [z]	33 [z]	39 [z]	***35***	40	24	55	40	53	96	97	94
Sao Tome and Principe	0.1	95	**0.4**	...	...	...	...	28	**18**	0.7	...	**1**	**55**	...	...	...
Senegal	1	78	6 [z]	78 [z]	15 [y]	22 [y]	13 [y]	19	25 [z]	21	22	56	32	48 [y]	51 [y]	40 [y]
Seychelles	0.2	100	0.2 [z]	100 [z]	...	...	...	16	17 [z]	0.7	85	0.7 [z]	88 [z]	...	...	...
Sierra Leone	***0.9***	***83***	2	84	49	42	51	***19***	21	***15***	***38***	38	26	55	50	69
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	227	78	237	79	...	...	...
South Sudan	...	...	2 [z]	57 [z]	39 [z]	32 [z]	44 [z]	...	36 [z]	...	...	29 **, [z]	12 **, [z]	44 **, [z]	...	...
Swaziland	...	...	2 [z]	98 [z]	51 [z]	56 [z]	51 [z]	...	12 [z]	6	75	8 [z]	71 [z]	78 [z]	75 [z]	80 [z]
Togo	*0.6*	*97*	2	94	50	62	49	*17*	33	23	13	33	14	83	85	76
Uganda	...	...	20 [y]	83 [y]	...	...	...	...	25 [y]	110	33	170 [z]	...	95 [z]	...	...
United Republic of Tanzania	...	...	16 [y]	54 [y]	18 [y]	7 [y]	28 [y]	...	57 [y]	***106***	***45***	181	52	97	96	97
Zambia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	30 **	49 **	64 **	53 **	...	...	...
Zimbabwe	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	60	47	...	...	...	...	...

Table 8

PRIMARY EDUCATION			SECONDARY EDUCATION													
Pupil/teacher ratio[2]		Pupil/trained teacher ratio[2]	Teaching staff, total secondary				Trained teachers (%)[1] Total secondary			Pupil/teacher ratio[2]						
										Lower secondary		Upper secondary		Total secondary		
School year ending in		School year ending in	School year ending in				School year ending in			School year ending in		School year ending in		School year ending in		
1999	2012	2012	1999		2012		2012			1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	
			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female							Country or territory
12	9 [y]	...	3	38	5 [y]	52 [y]	...	...	...	...	11 [y]	...	7 [y]	12	8 [y]	Luxembourg
20	11	...	3	50	4	63	...	...	...	...	8	...	9	11	9	Malta
22	...	...	0.3	59	...	...	...	...	...	15	...	8	...	10	...	Monaco
...	12	...	...	...	112	50	...	...	...	...	13	...	14	...	14	Netherlands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Norway
13	12	...	*85*	*68*	90	69	...	...	...	*11*	9	*9*	7	*10*	8	Portugal
5	6	...	...	...	0.2 [y]	78 [y]	...	...	...	*5*	...	...	...	...	14 [y]	San Marino
15	13	...	277	52	290	55	...	...	...	...	11	...	12	12	11	Spain
12	10	...	63	56	71	58	...	...	...	12	9	17	10	15	10	Sweden
...	11	...	...	...	65	48	...	...	...	...	8	...	11	...	9	Switzerland
19	18	...	355	56	...	...	...	...	...	16	...	14	...	15	...	United Kingdom
15	14	...	1,504	56	1,645	62	...	...	...	16	15	14	15	15	15	United States
																South and West Asia
33	44 [z]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	43 [z]	...	...	...	...	Afghanistan
...	40 [*, z]	70 [z]	265	13	378	21	53	52	60	43	34	32	30	37	32	Bangladesh
42	24	...	1	32	3	39	...	...	...	32	23	21	14	31	20	Bhutan
35 *	35 [*, z]	...	1,995 **	34 **	4,387 [z]	41 [z]	...	...	...	...	33 [z]	...	21 [z]	34 **	26 [z]	India
25	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Iran, Islamic Republic of[3]
24	11	15	0.9	25	...	...	...	...	...	18	8	9	...	17	...	Maldives
39	**26**	**28**	40	9	**106**	**22**	...	...	...	38	**36**	24	**23**	32	**29**	Nepal
33 **	41	49	...	...	493 *	...	...	...	...	...	21 *	...	22 *	...	21 *	Pakistan
26	24	29 [z]	...	...	150	...	82 [z]	...	...	***21***	17	...	18	...	17	Sri Lanka
																Sub-Saharan Africa
...	43 [z]	90 [z]	16 **	33 **	32 [z]	...	...	...	...	...	33 [z]	...	21 [z]	18 **	27 [z]	Angola
53	44	94 [z]	*10*	*12*	...	...	...	...	...	*27*	...	*15*	...	*23*	...	Benin
27	...	...	9	45	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18	...	Botswana
47	48	51	6 **	...	26	17	48	48	52	29 **	...	23 **	...	28 **	26	Burkina Faso
55	47	50	...	...	14	21	75	75	75	...	...	...	...	...	30	Burundi
29	23	24	***2***	***41***	4	42	86	84	89	...	17	...	16	***24***	17	Cabo Verde
52	46	58	28 **	22 **	80	44	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	23 **	21	Cameroon
...	80	138	...	...	2	11	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	68	Central African Republic
68	61	101 [z]	4	5	15	6	17	17	20	41	42	23	18	34	30	Chad
35	28 [z]	50 [z]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15 [z]	...	...	...	...	Comoros
60	44	55	...	...	18	9	59	55	96	...	20	...	17	...	19	Congo
45	42	42	20 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	34 **	...	21 **	...	29 **	...	Côte d'Ivoire
26	35	37	...	...	254	11	33 [y]	33 [y]	32 [y]	...	...	...	...	...	15	Democratic Rep. of the Congo
57	26	57 [z]	0.9	5	...	...	...	...	...	25	...	15	...	23	...	Equatorial Guinea
47	41	46	2	12	7	16	71 [z]	70 [z]	77 [z]	55	43	45	31	51	38	Eritrea
67	54 **	95 **	...	...	122 **	24 **	75 **	79 **	65 **	*28*	43 **	...	26	...	40 **	Ethiopia
49	25 [z]	...	3	16	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	28	...	Gabon
37	34	42 [z]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	24	33	...	...	...	...	Gambia
30	**32**	**59**	52	22	**134**	**24**	**73**	**70**	**83**	20	**15**	19	**22**	20	**18**	Ghana
47	44	58	...	...	19 [z]	5 [z]	...	...	...	31	37 [z]	...	27 [z]	...	33 [z]	Guinea
44	52 [y]	133 [y]	*2* **	*6* **	...	...	...	...	...	*17*	...	*11* **	...	*15* **	...	Guinea-Bissau
32	...	...	***68*** **	***39*** **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	***29*** **	...	Kenya
44	34	50	3	51	5 **	56 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22	25 **	Lesotho
39	27 [z]	48 [z]	7	16	...	...	...	...	...	17	14 [z]	18	...	17	...	Liberia
47	43	45 [z]	...	...	51	44	...	...	...	...	29	...	23	...	28	Madagascar
63 **	74 **	81 **	9 **	32 **	18 **	28 **	59 [**, z]	54 [**, z]	73 [**, z]	...	...	...	...	60 **	42 **	Malawi
62 *	48 [z]	92 [z]	8 *	14 *	33 [z]	11 [z]	...	...	...	31 *	38 [z]	24	13 [z]	28 *	25 [z]	Mali
26	21	21	5	47	9	59	44	...	...	...	...	...	...	20	15	Mauritius
61	55	66	...	...	22 **	19 **	84 **	83 **	87 **	...	...	...	...	...	33 **	Mozambique
32	41	42	5	46	...	...	...	...	...	25	...	21	...	24	...	Namibia
41	39	40	4	18	10 [z]	19 [z]	17 [y]	17 [y]	17 [y]	34	37 [z]	12	24 [z]	24	35 [z]	Niger
41	38 [**, y]	57 [y]	129	36	274 [y]	46 [y]	66 [y]	63 [y]	69 [y]	...	31 [y]	...	36 [y]	30	33 [y]	Nigeria
54	59	62	*6*	*21*	23	27	64	67	58	...	...	...	...	*23*	23	Rwanda
36	**31**	...	...	...	0.6 [z]	20 [**, z]	45 [z]	43 [**, z]	49 [**, z]	...	19 [z]	...	21 [z]	...	20 [z]	Sao Tome and Principe
49	32	70 [y]	*9*	*15*	30 [*, z]	18 [*, z]	...	...	...	*31*	...	*20*	...	*27*	27 [*, z]	Senegal
15	13 [z]	...	0.6	54	0.6 [z]	58 [z]	91 [z]	...	...	14 **	...	14 **	...	14	12 [z]	Seychelles
37	33	60	***6***	***27***	...	...	...	...	...	***23***	21	***34***	...	***27***	...	Sierra Leone
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Somalia
35	30	...	145	50	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	29	...	South Africa
...	50 [**, z]	113 [**, z]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	48 [**, z]	...	...	...	...	South Sudan
33	29 [z]	37 [z]	*3*	...	6 [z]	48 [z]	75 [z]	76 [z]	73 [z]	...	...	...	...	*17*	16 [z]	Swaziland
41	42	51	7	13	21 [z]	...	...	...	...	44	34 [z]	20	16 [z]	35	26 [z]	Togo
57	48 [z]	50 [z]	*31*	*21*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*18*	...	Uganda
46	46	47	...	...	80	28	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	26	United Republic of Tanzania
51 **	49 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	51 **	56 [**, z]	...	...	...	...	Zambia
41	...	...	31	37	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	27	...	Zimbabwe

Table 8 (continued)

Country or territory	PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION									PRIMARY EDUCATION						
	Teaching staff				Trained teachers (%)[1]			Pupil/teacher ratio[2]		Teaching staff				Trained teachers (%)[1]		
	School year ending in				School year ending in			School year ending in		School year ending in				School year ending in		
	1999		2012		2012			1999	2012	1999		2012		2012		
	Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female
	Sum	% F	Sum	% F		Median		Weighted average		Sum	% F	Sum	% F		Median	
World	5,477	92	8,900 **	94 **	...	...	...	20	21 **	24,911	58	29,091 **	63 **	...	...	...
Countries in transition	1,000	100	1,038	99	...	...	...	**7**	9	907	92	808	94	...	...	...
Developed countries	1,398	94	2,058	95	...	...	...	18	14	4,393	81	4,525	83	...	...	...
Developing countries	3,080	89	5,804 **	93 **	...	...	...	26	25 **	19,611	52 **	23,758 **	58 **	87	...	...
Arab States	117	77	215 **	90 **	...	...	...	20	20 **	1,523	52	2,267 **	57 **	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe	1,119	100	1,158	99	...	...	...	8	11	1,378 **	83 **	1,179	83	...	...	...
Central Asia	128	97	174 **	98 **	89	85	92	10	11 **	327	86	340 **	90 **	99	100	99
East Asia and the Pacific	1,410	94	2,418	95	...	...	...	26	22	9,240 **	55 **	9,635	63	...	...	...
East Asia	1,384	94	2,366	96	...	...	...	26	22	9,085 **	54 **	9,449	63	...	...	...
Pacific	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	155	72 **	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean	749	96	1,193	96	...	...	...	21	18	2,718	78	3,099	78	85	...	...
Caribbean	14	99 **	18 **	99 **	...	...	...	...	...	83 **	55 **	...	...	70	59	80
Latin America	735	96	1,174	96	...	...	...	21	18	2,635	78	3,009	79	...	...	...
North America and Western Europe	1,064	92	1,698	94	...	...	...	18	13	3,418	82	3,667	85	...	...	...
South and West Asia	684 **	77 **	...	...	...	...	...	32 **	...	4,339	36	5,470 **	...	82	...	...
Sub-Saharan Africa	*228* **	*75* **	507 **	79 **	50	42	50	*28* **	28 **	1,967	43	3,433	43	79	77	84
Countries with low income	223 **	61 **	367 **,y	78 **,y	51	46	51	27 **	26 **,y	1,742	38	3,134 **	44 **	87	90	87
Countries with middle income	3,211	92	5,590 **	95 **				24	24 **	18,015	54 **	20,461 **	60 **	...	...	...
Lower middle	1,241 **	88 **	...	...	...	...	...	25 **	...	7,686	48	9,865 **	55 **	89	...	...
Upper middle	1,970	95	3,097	95	...	...	...	23	21	10,329 **	59 **	10,596	66	...	...	...
Countries with high income	2,043	96	2,826	96	...	...	...	15	13	5,154	81	5,495	82	...	...	...

Sources: UIS database; EFA Global Monitoring Report Team calculations for the pupil/trained teacher ratio.

Note: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

1. Data on trained teachers (defined according to national standards) are not collected for countries whose education statistics are gathered through the OECD, Eurostat or the World Education Indicators questionnaires.

2. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2013, those in italic are for 2000 and those in bold italic are for 2001.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2011.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2010.

(*) National estimate.

(**) For country level data: UIS partial estimate; for regional and other country grouping sums and weighted averages: partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 33% and 60% of population for the region or other country grouping).

(-) Magnitude nil or negligible.

(.) The category is not applicable or does not exist.

(...) No data available.

Table 8

PRIMARY EDUCATION			SECONDARY EDUCATION													
Pupil/teacher ratio[2]		Pupil/trained teacher ratio[2]	Teaching staff, total secondary				Trained teachers (%)[1] Total secondary			Pupil/teacher ratio[2]						
										Lower secondary		Upper secondary		Total secondary		
School year ending in		School year ending in	School year ending in				School year ending in			School year ending in		School year ending in		School year ending in		
1999	2012	2012	1999		2012		2012			1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	
			Total (000)	% F	Total (000)	% F	Total	Male	Female							Country or territory
Weighted average		Median	Sum	% F	Sum	% F	Median			Weighted average						
26	24 **	...	24,464 **	52 **	32,296 **	52 **	...	...	...	19 **	18 **	16 **	16 **	18 **	17 **	World
19	17	...	3,148 **	...	2,372 **	75 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	11 **	10 **	Countries in transition
16	14	...	6,094	55	6,256	59	...	...	...	14	13	13	12	14	12	Developed countries
29	26 **	37	15,222 **	46 **	23,668 **	48 **	...	...	...	22	20 **	19 **	18 **	21 **	19 **	Developing countries
23	19 **	...	1,377	43	...	...	...	...	...	19	...	13	...	16	...	Arab States
18 **	17	...	3,496 **	73 **	2,741	72	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12 **	11	Central and Eastern Europe
21	16 **	24	789 **	65 **	838 **	69 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12 **	12 **	Central Asia
24 **	19	...	7,631 **	45 **	10,029	51	...	...	...	18	15	15 **	16	17 **	16	East Asia and the Pacific
24 **	19	...	7,443 **	45 **	9,826	51	...	...	...	18	15	15 **	16	17 **	16	East Asia
20	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Pacific
26	21	23	2,838 **	63 **	3,863	58	82	...	...	20	17	17 **	14	19 **	16	Latin America and the Caribbean
29 **	...	22	...	...	...	...	57	52	61	...	...	...	...	...	...	Caribbean
26	21	...	2,785 **	63 **	3,793	58	...	...	...	20	17	17 **	14	19 **	16	Latin America
15	14	...	4,491	56	4,781	61	...	...	...	14	13	13	13	14	13	North America and Western Europe
36	35 **	29	3,009	34	6,017 **	39 **	...	...	...	34 **	30 **	29 **	21 **	32	25 **	South and West Asia
42	42	55	832	31	1,912 **	31 **	...	...	...	...	27 **, z	...	23 **, z	26	25 **	Sub-Saharan Africa
43	42 **	51	970	30	1,953	29	...	...	...	31 **	30 **	23 **	22 **	28	26	Countries with low income
27	24 **	...	15,463 **	49 **	22,430 **	50 **				21 **	19 **	18 **	17 **	20 **	18 **	Countries with middle income
31	30 **	37	5,743	44	9,455 **	46 **	...	...	...	25 **	24 **	21 **	20 **	23	22 **	Lower middle
24 **	19	...	9,720 **	52 **	12,974	53	...	...	...	18	15	16 **	15	17 **	15	Upper middle
16	15	...	8,031	60 **	7,913	62	...	...	...	13	12	13	12	13	12	Countries with high income

Table 9

Financial commitment to education: public spending

Country or territory	Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2011 US$		Public current expenditure on secondary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on secondary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2011 US$		Primary education textbooks and other teaching materials as % of public current expenditure on primary education		Primary education teachers' compensation as % of public current expenditure on primary education	
	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012
Arab States																
Algeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahrain	...	2.9	...	8.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4.2	...	...	...
Djibouti	7.5	...	22.9	12.5 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Egypt	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Iraq	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Jordan	5.0	...	14.4	...	...	...	489	...	...	...	566	...	...	...	77.8	87.6 y
Kuwait	***5.6*** **	...	***18.1*** **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5.0 z	...	73.9 z
Lebanon	2.0	2.2	5.6	7.1	...	...	...	...	...	15.5	...	454	...	...	69.1	...
Libya	...	...	8.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mauritania	2.4 **	3.9 z	...	13.0 z	...	48.8 z	...	276 z	...	22.9 z	...	556 **, z	...	...	...	...
Morocco	5.5	5.5 x	25.8	17.3 x	39.1	...	517	...	43.5	...	1,356	...	...	1.8 x	...	75.9 x
Oman	4.2	4.6 x	10.3	10.9 x	***37.3***	32.8 x	1,933	3,385 z	***51.7***	40.0 x	3,758	3,811 z	1.5	1.4 z	74.9	61.7 z
Palestine	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Qatar	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4,786 x	...	...	...	5,083 x	...	...	...	...
Saudi Arabia	7.0	...	21.7	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sudan	*1.1*	2.4 x	*9.1*	10.8 x	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Syrian Arab Republic	***4.5***	5.2 x	***15.7***	19.2 x	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*1.9*	...	...	...
Tunisia	6.5	6.5	21.7	17.3	*38.3* **	...	*933* **	...	*42.9* **	...	*1,339* **	...	...	...	...	97.0
United Arab Emirates	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2.7 x	...	72.5 x
Yemen	*10.5*	...	*30.5*	...	...	...	...	351 z	...	...	...	236 z	...	...	...	...
Sudan (pre-secession)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe																
Albania	3.3	...	9.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Belarus	6.0	5.3	...	12.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bosnia and Herzegovina	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bulgaria	***3.5***	4.2 y	***9.3***	11.2 y	***20.8***	19.8 y	***1,490***	3,349 y	***46.6***	43.5 y	***1,795***	3,603 y	...	...	***53.3***	58.5 y
Croatia	...	4.5 y	...	9.9 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Czech Republic	3.9	4.8 z	9.1	10.4 z	17.8 **	16.6 z	1,766 **	3,816 z	49.8 **	45.2 z	3,480 **	6,036 z	...	...	45.0	46.2 z
Estonia	6.8	6.0 y	17.1	12.3 z	...	25.9 z	...	4,857 z	...	35.7 z	...	5,387 z	...	...	...	...
Hungary	4.9	4.9 z	9.9	9.4 z	19.5 **	16.7 z	2,711 **	3,938 z	40.6 **	40.7 z	2,822 **	4,223 z	...	...	...	...
Latvia	5.8	4.9 y	14.1	12.7 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lithuania	***6.0***	5.4 z	***16.7***	13.6 z	...	16.2 z	...	4,488 z	...	42.4 z	...	4,182 z	...	...	...	66.3 z
Montenegro	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Poland	4.7	5.4 y	10.9	11.4 y	...	30.3 y	...	5,153 y	...	35.6 y	...	4,766 y	...	...	...	...
Republic of Moldova	4.6	7.8	12.7	20.8	...	18.6	...	1,244	...	35.4	...	1,191	...	0.2	...	50.7
Romania	*2.9*	3.0 z	...	...	...	16.4 z	...	1,933 z	...	34.6 z	...	1,891 z	...	...	...	75.7 z
Russian Federation	*3.0*	...	*9.0*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Serbia	...	4.9 z	...	10.6 z	...	45.6 z	...	6,316 z	...	23.2 z	...	1,610 z	...	...	...	...
Slovakia	4.2	4.3 z	12.7	10.6 z	14.5	19.4 z	1,430	4,478 z	55.7	46.7 z	2,580	4,242 z	...	...	62.1	51.8 z
Slovenia	***5.9***	5.8 z	***13.8***	12.1 z	...	27.9 z	...	7,765 z	...	37.4 z	...	8,253 z	...	...	...	...
The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkey	3.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	89.8 y
Ukraine	3.7	6.3 z	13.5	13.5 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central Asia																
Armenia	2.2	3.1	...	13.7	...	23.1	...	1,265	...	49.0	...	1,381	...	0.2	...	...
Azerbaijan	4.3	2.6 z	*18.5*	7.2 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Georgia	2.0	2.0	*12.5*	6.7	...	38.3 z	...	558 z	...	38.2 z	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kazakhstan	4.0	3.4 x	...	13.0 x	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3.5 z	...	...
Kyrgyzstan	4.3	7.4 z	...	18.7 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	5.1	6.1 z	15.3	12.2 z	...	35.2 z	...	793 z	...	32.6 z	...	701 z	0.2	2.3 z	...	40.9 z
Tajikistan	2.1	4.0	11.8	16.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia and the Pacific																
Australia	*5.0*	5.3 z	*13.6*	13.5 z	*33.7*	34.3 z	*5,639*	7,366 z	*38.4*	36.6 z	*4,723*	6,899 z	...	...	*64.2*	63.4 z
Brunei Darussalam	4.9	2.0 y	8.9	**9.7**	...	28.7 y	...	2,545 y	...	46.8 y	...	3,850 y	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	1.0	2.7 y	7.0	13.1 y	*61.7*	...	*59*	...	***11.8***	...	***76***	...	...	...	...	...
China	1.9	...	11.4	...	34.3 **	...	...	...	38.4 **	...	307 **	...	...	...	...	...
Cook Islands	...	3.1 z	...	...	53.0	...	...	...	40.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	5.3	4.3 z	19.3	14.9 z	...	44.8 z	...	751 z	...	15.2 z	...	257 z	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	***2.8*** **	2.8 z	***11.2*** **	18.1	...	41.5	...	495	...	27.7	...	474	...	...	...	...
Japan	3.5	3.7	10.1	9.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	6.7	...	12.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	1.0	3.0 y	*6.9*	13.2 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Macao, China	3.6	3.1 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	6.1	6.1 z	21.2	20.9 z	*30.9* **	35.4 x	*1,122* **	2,075 x	*34.7* **	42.4 x	*1,730* **	3,179 z	...	...	69.6	76.0 z
Marshall Islands	11.0	...	27.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia (Federated States of)	6.2	...	8.8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Myanmar	0.6	0.8 z	2.1	4.4 z	...	56.1 z	...	...	***33.4***	25.9 z	...	...	...	0.1 z	...	59.3 z
Nauru	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	7.0	7.8	18.5	18.7	26.7 **	25.4	4,654 **	7,054	39.8 **	38.5	5,717 **	7,416	...	...	...	...
Niue	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	*8.7* **	...	14.0 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 9 (continued)

Country or territory	Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2011 US$		Public current expenditure on secondary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on secondary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2011 US$		Primary education textbooks and other teaching materials as % of public current expenditure on primary education		Primary education teachers' compensation as % of public current expenditure on primary education	
	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012
Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	*3.3*	2.7 x	15.2	13.2 x	*59.5* **	56.0 x	*329* **	...	*22.0* **	29.1 x	*289* **	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Korea	3.8	5.0 z	20.1	25.0 z	43.5 **	30.1 z	2,923 **	6,048 z	38.3 **	37.5 z	2,428 **	6,299 z	...	...	77.6	54.9 z
Samoa	4.5	...	12.2	...	32.4 **	...	285 **	...	26.9 **	...	302 **	...	...	...	...	...
Singapore	*3.3*	**3.1**	*14.8*	**18.1**	*25.2*	**20.4**	...	4,993 y	*29.8*	**24.1**	...	7,615 y	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	...	8.9 y	...	17.5 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	5.1	6.0 z	20.1	31.5	***33.6*** **	47.8 x	***1,037*** **	1,690 y	***19.1*** **	15.9 x	***871*** **	719 x	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	...	2.2 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tokelau	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	5.2 **	...	*22.8*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tuvalu	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	6.3	5.2 x	25.8	18.7 x	38.9	55.3 x	439	721 x	51.9	30.4 x	2,236	...	3.9	...	94.3	90.9 x
Viet Nam	...	6.5 y	...	20.9 y	...	31.2 y	...	687 y	...	38.8 y	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean																
Anguilla	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Antigua and Barbuda	3.4	2.6 x	11.8	6.9 x	...	49.4 x	...	1,687 x	...	47.3 x	...	2,129 x	6.8	...	66.4	...
Argentina	4.6	6.4 z	15.9	15.3 z	36.7	32.8 y	...	...	35.4	39.4 y	...	...	...	...	***52.7***	70.7 z
Aruba	...	6.5 z	...	...	29.9	27.6 z	...	...	32.3	30.3 z	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bahamas	*2.9* **	...	*18.6* **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Barbados	4.4	5.8	12.9	13.4	21.5 **	...	2,111 **	...	31.3	27.9	3,495	5,724 y	0.1	...	...	...
Belize	5.7 **	7.1 y	16.9 **	21.8 y	*61.7*	45.3 z	*907*	1,269 z	*32.0*	41.3 z	*909*	1,801 z	*0.5*	...	...	...
Bermuda	...	2.1 y	...	...	...	30.9 y	...	...	...	45.3 y	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bolivia, Plurinational State of	5.8	7.2 z	19.3	19.5 z	41.0 **	37.9 z	439 **	866 z	22.2 **	28.4 z	414 **	851 z	...	...	...	90.5 z
Brazil	4.0	5.9 y	9.5	14.6 y	33.3 **	31.5 y	872 **	2,246 y	36.1 **	44.8 y	...	2,295 y	...	...	...	...
British Virgin Islands	...	4.8 y	...	...	***29.5***	28.1 y	...	...	***33.6***	38.1 y	...	...	...	2.1 y	***84.6***	75.5 y
Cayman Islands	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Chile	4.0	4.7	15.6	19.4	44.5	32.2	1,870	3,623	36.5	32.9	2,119	3,849	...	... z	...	...
Colombia	4.5	4.6	13.2	15.8	...	35.0	...	1,104	...	35.7	...	1,090	...	4.7	91.0 *	81.3
Costa Rica	5.5	6.5 x	...	...	47.2	28.0 x	1,413	1,653 x	29.1	21.1 x	1,950	1,632 x	...	...	...	68.6 x
Cuba	6.9	13.0 y	...	...	*35.5* *	29.2 y	...	...	*37.9* *	28.9 y	...	...	***1.2***	0.8 y	...	...
Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Dominica	5.5 **	...	10.8 **	...	...	...	...	1,783 z	...	...	...	1,745 y	...	...	...	...
Dominican Republic	*2.0* **	...	*12.7* **	...	***54.7***	...	...	763	...	...	...	681	***1.7***	3.4	***81.8***	59.3
Ecuador	1.7	4.4	6.7	10.3	...	25.8	...	733 z	...	42.9	...	1,556 z	...	-	...	...
El Salvador	2.4 **	3.5 z	13.6 **	15.9 z	...	43.4 y	...	590 y	...	28.6 y	...	634 y	...	...	...	...
Grenada	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Guatemala	...	3.1	...	20.2 z	...	56.3 z	...	438 z	...	12.4 z	...	228 z	***1.8***	...	...	...
Guyana	9.3 **	3.2	22.7 **	10.1	...	31.5	...	257	...	34.0	...	305	...	- x	...	84.6
Haiti	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Honduras	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0.1 *,y	...	98.9 *,y
Jamaica	*5.2*	6.4	*16.6*	18.9	...	37.1	...	...	...	39.2	...	...	...	- z	...	86.2
Mexico	3.7	5.3 z	16.3	19.6 z	40.8	36.0 z	1,401	2,302 z	...	30.9 z	...	2,492 z	...	...	86.3	86.4 z
Montserrat	...	5.4 x	...	...	***20.3***	...	...	...	***29.3***	...	...	...	*4.0*	...	*84.0* **	...
Nicaragua	3.0	4.7 y	...	...	...	43.3 y	...	405 y	...	13.8 y	...	255 y	...	...	...	78.7 y
Panama	5.1	3.7 z	19.0	12.9 z	...	29.0 z	1,166	1,018 z	...	24.1 z	1,662	1,303 z	...	...	...	...
Paraguay	4.9	5.0 z	...	...	*47.9* **	31.7 z	*572* **	689 z	29.7	30.4 z	769	936 z	...	...	...	71.9 z
Peru	3.4	2.9	***14.8***	14.4	40.4	36.1	427	699	28.4	31.7	573	817	...	...	87.8	64.4
Saint Kitts and Nevis	4.9	...	10.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Lucia	7.7	4.2	26.0	11.6	52.7 **	40.5	1,872 **	1,778	32.6 **	46.3	2,504 **	2,506	...	...	87.6	...
Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	7.2 **	5.3 y	20.6 **	15.5 y	*49.0*	...	*1,240*	1,788	*25.8*	...	*1,297* **	2,253	*1.6*	1.1	*94.0*	92.2
Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Suriname	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Trinidad and Tobago	2.9	...	9.4	...	...	...	...	3,389 x	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Turks and Caicos Islands	...	...	...	...	29.7	...	...	...	39.6	...	...	...	3.7 **	...	63.5 **	...
Uruguay	*2.4*	4.7 z	7.6	13.7 z	*32.6* **	...	718	...	*37.8* **	...	1,055	...	...	...	71.3	...
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	...	6.9 x	...	20.7 x	...	36.9 x	...	2,201 x	...	20.5 x	...	1,878 x	...	0.1 x	...	61.2 x
Netherlands Antilles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
North America and Western Europe																
Andorra	...	3.1 z	...	...	...	28.7 z	...	...	...	21.3 z	...	...	...	0.1	...	48.6
Austria	6.4	5.8 z	11.7	11.4 z	19.0	17.4 z	8,223	10,532 z	45.1	46.2 z	10,138	12,624 z	...	...	71.5	60.6 z
Belgium	***5.9***	6.5 y	***12.2***	12.3 z	...	23.1 z	...	8,514 z	...	43.0 z	...	14,520 z	...	...	***73.7***	67.0 z
Canada	5.9	5.5 z	12.4	12.2 z	...	...	...	...	...	26.4 z	...	6,747 z	...	...	...	...
Cyprus	5.3	7.5 y	13.8	15.8 y	33.9	30.3 y	4,431	9,555 y	52.5	44.3 y	6,995	12,026 y	...	...	***73.6***	79.8 y
Denmark	8.2	8.6 x	14.5	15.1 x	***21.4*** **	23.4 x	8,973	10,555 x	***34.6*** **	33.8 x	14,143	12,578 x	...	...	48.9	50.8 y
Finland	6.2	6.7 y	11.8	12.2 z	21.1	19.7 z	4,927	7,220 z	39.3	41.2 z	7,321	12,348 z	...	...	59.0	55.6 z
France	5.7	5.6 z	11.1	10.2 z	20.2 **	20.6 z	5,313	5,951 z	49.8 **	44.0 z	8,685	9,002 z	...	...	...	56.8 z
Germany	...	5.0 y	...	10.6 y	...	13.9 y	...	7,022 y	...	46.9 y	...	9,484 y	...	...	...	...
Greece	3.2	...	7.2	...	...	...	...	...	***38.1***	...	3,020	...	...	...	...	...
Iceland	6.7	9.2 y	15.1	15.9 y	34.2	31.6 y	5,577	8,649 y	34.1	31.4 y	5,190	7,128 y	...	...	...	...
Ireland	4.9	7.6 y	12.4	13.1 z	32.2	35.1 z	*3,938*	7,678 z	36.8	34.5 z	*5,690*	11,661 z	...	...	83.3	76.5 z
Israel	7.5	6.2 z	*12.7*	13.5 z	33.9	41.5 z	4,986	6,370 z	30.0	25.5 z	4,639	4,461 z	...	...	...	...
Italy	4.7	4.5 y	9.8	8.6 z	26.1 **	25.2 z	7,332 **	7,169 z	46.5 **	43.3 z	8,441 **	7,536 z	...	...	*66.4*	62.4 z
Luxembourg	***4.2***	...	***9.8***	...	...	...	...	18,548 y	...	...	...	15,734 y	...	...	***70.2***	80.8 y
Malta	...	7.5 y	...	16.1 y	...	22.2 y	...	6,588 y	...	46.8 y	...	9,319 y	...	...	...	44.5 y
Monaco	1.2	...	...	...	17.7	14.5 z	...	...	50.9	38.5 z	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 9 (continued)

Country or territory	Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2011 US$		Public current expenditure on secondary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on secondary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2011 US$		Primary education textbooks and other teaching materials as % of public current expenditure on primary education		Primary education teachers' compensation as % of public current expenditure on primary education	
	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012
Netherlands	4.8	5.9 z	10.6	11.8	...	23.7	...	7,718	...	40.2	...	10,799	...	...	...	...
Norway	7.2	6.8 y	15.2	15.3 y	...	25.7 y	...	11,340 y	...	34.6 y	...	14,891 y	...	...	...	...
Portugal	5.1 **	5.8 y	12.3 **	10.9 y	31.0 **	27.3 y	4,411 **	5,581 y	44.0 **	43.9 y	6,017 **	9,118 y	...	...	...	82.4 y
San Marino	...	...	...	9.9 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	93.4 y
Spain	4.4	5.0 y	11.0	10.7 y	28.1	26.5 y	4,915	6,384 y	47.5	38.0 y	6,496	7,819 y	...	...	78.3	70.7 y
Sweden	7.3	6.8 y	12.5	13.3 y	...	24.0 y	*7,878* **	10,417 y	...	35.1 y	*8,856* **	12,041 y	...	...	49.8	49.7 y
Switzerland	4.9	4.9 y	14.5	15.9 z	31.6	28.7 z	9,016	11,556 z	40.5	40.3 z	11,216	13,053 z	...	...	72.4	66.6 z
United Kingdom	4.4	6.2 y	12.1	13.3 y	...	28.6 y	...	8,167 y	...	48.0 y	...	10,934 y	...	...	52.4	33.3 y
United States	4.8	5.4 y	14.7	12.7 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	55.9	54.8 y
South and West Asia																
Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	2.3	2.1 x	18.5	13.8 x	38.9	42.7 x	...	110 x	42.0 **	43.0 x	81 **	211 z	...	...	...	67.6 x
Bhutan	*6.7*	4.9 z	*12.6*	11.3 z	...	28.7 z	...	329 z	...	56.7 z	...	1,194 z	...	...	...	...
India	4.4	3.2 z	16.3	11.3	29.9 **	...	203 **	240 z	37.6 **	...	422 **	456 z	...	...	78.6	...
Iran, Islamic Republic of	4.5	4.7 y	16.9	16.1	***26.6*** **	26.5	...	...	***34.1***	40.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	...	8.0 z	...	14.2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nepal	2.9 **	4.7 y	***24.2*** **	22.7 y	52.7 **	60.3 x	68 **	174 x	28.9 **	25.3 x	106 **	147 x	...	3.9 x	...	...
Pakistan	2.6	2.0	11.1	9.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	...	1.8	...	8.8	...	26.1	...	257	...	55.4	...	369	...	...	...	85.5
Sub-Saharan Africa																
Angola	*3.2*	3.9 y	*5.3*	8.9 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Benin	2.9	5.4 y	14.7	26.1 y	*52.1* **	49.4 y	*143* **	185 y	*27.0* **	30.3 y	*303* **	...	...	...	...	90.8 y
Botswana	...	10.1 x	...	18.7 x	...	19.2 x	...	1,453 x	...	31.3 x	...	4,262 **,x	...	...	...	...
Burkina Faso	...	3.4 z	...	14.4 z	...	60.5 z	...	196	...	18.8 z	...	209	...	-	...	...
Burundi	3.5	5.8	13.7	...	38.9	43.6 **	67	67 **	36.5	24.5 **	***281***	176 **	...	0.6 z	...	87.4 z
Cabo Verde	6.0	5.2 z	...	15.2 z	...	44.0 z	...	705 z	...	37.5 z	...	667 z	...	- z	...	77.0 z
Cameroon	*2.1*	3.2 z	*11.7*	15.6	...	35.6	...	125	...	53.7	...	424	...	2.0 z	...	92.7
Central African Republic	1.7	1.2 z	9.8	7.8 z	...	55.0 y	...	43 y	...	21.8 y	...	134 x	...	0.1 y	...	89.7 y
Chad	3.2	2.9 z	17.1	10.1 z	44.6	53.1 y	87	105 y	33.3	37.3 z	443	309 z	...	...	...	71.0 z
Comoros	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Congo	...	8.3 y	...	29.0 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Côte d'Ivoire	4.3	...	20.4	...	43.4 **	...	285 **	...	36.4 **	...	774 **	...	...	...	...	...
Democratic Rep. of the Congo	...	2.7 y	...	8.9 y	...	36.8 y	...	18 y	...	28.2 y	...	43 y	...	...	...	80.0 y
Equatorial Guinea	*1.0*	...	*3.2*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Eritrea	*5.2*	...	5.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Ethiopia	*3.9*	4.7 y	*14.1*	24.4 y	...	64.8 y	...	106 y	...	10.5 y	...	56 y	...	...	...	...
Gabon	3.5 **	...	11.3 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Gambia	1.6	4.3	*11.9*	13.8	...	50.8	...	165	...	36.1	...	207 **,y	***0.5***	...	***81.6***	81.0
Ghana	4.2 **	8.4 z	14.9 **	33.1 z	***41.6***	34.8 y	***214***	169 x	***39.5***	35.1 y	***489***	375 x	...	2.3 y	...	89.5 y
Guinea	2.4	2.7	14.7	9.5	...	43.2	...	76	...	22.5	...	97	...	...	...	70.2
Guinea-Bissau	5.6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kenya	5.4	6.7 y	22.7	23.7 y	*68.3* **	...	*301* **	...	*17.6* **	...	*204* **	...	...	...	...	...
Lesotho	10.7	...	26.8	...	42.8	...	274	...	24.4	...	801	...	6.7	...	84.5	...
Liberia	...	3.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Madagascar	2.8	2.8	13.8	18.2	...	46.8	...	58	...	19.6	...	76	...	...	...	...
Malawi	5.1	5.5 z	...	14.9 z	60.8	36.6 z	74	54 z	10.3	28.7 z	58	203 z	...	11.1 z	...	88.7 x
Mali	3.0 **	5.0 z	*15.3*	19.5 z	48.9 **	40.2 z	127 **	136 z	33.7 **	38.9 z	386 **	339 z	...	3.7 z	...	77.7 x
Mauritius	4.0	3.4	***13.2***	15.0	31.9	24.7	918	1,337	36.7	54.1	1,351	2,618	...	0.2 y	...	...
Mozambique	3.8	...	16.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Namibia	7.9	8.5 y	21.1	23.7 y	59.4	40.8 y	1,028	1,129 y	27.7	22.5 y	1,679	...	...	0.0 y	...	...
Niger	3.3	4.2 z	17.1	21.7 z	56.0	56.6 z	207	130 z	26.6	24.2 z	498	310 z	...	2.4 z	...	81.8 x
Nigeria	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Rwanda	4.6	**5.2**	21.9	**18.9**	47.7	**35.8**	73	84	18.5	**34.4**	345	323	...	**...**	...	...
Sao Tome and Principe	...	9.5 y	...	19.3 y	...	21.5 **,y	...	149 **,y	...	18.3 **,y	...	428 **,y	...	...	...	...
Senegal	3.2	5.7 y	*17.6*	20.7 y	...	40.1 y	...	296 y	...	27.7 y	...	478 y	...	...	...	...
Seychelles	5.5	3.8 z	9.2	10.2 z	...	26.6 z	...	2,205 z	...	17.9 z	...	1,820 z	...	1.5 z	...	68.7 z
Sierra Leone	*5.1* **	2.9	*20.7* **	14.1	...	52.7 z	...	79 z	...	26.5 z	...	...	...	...	...	88.8 z
Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South Africa	6.2	6.8	***20.5***	20.6	45.2	38.7	1,160	1,703 y	33.7	31.1	1,631	1,987 y		2.3	***90.2***	77.7
South Sudan	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Swaziland	4.9	8.8 z	17.5	23.9 z	33.2	48.7 z	382	1,032 z	26.9	36.7 z	1,063	2,119 z	...	...	...	...
Togo	4.3	5.2 z	23.4	18.6 z	36.8	47.1 z	78	94	33.6	31.3 z	291	153 z	4.4	4.7	79.4	89.3
Uganda	*2.5* **	3.5	*13.0* **	14.0	...	55.8	...	89	...	23.2	...	199 x	...	3.0	...	...
United Republic of Tanzania	...	6.3 y	...	21.2 y	***53.7***	44.7 x	***92***	137 x	***12.8***	16.0 x	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zambia	2.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Zimbabwe	...	2.6 y	...	8.7 y	...	53.2 y	...	...	...	25.8 y	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 9 (continued)

Table 9

Country or territory	Total public expenditure on education as % of GNP		Total public expenditure on education as % of total government expenditure		Public current expenditure on primary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2011 US$		Public current expenditure on secondary education as % of public current expenditure on education		Public current expenditure on secondary education per pupil (unit cost) at PPP in constant 2011 US$		Primary education textbooks and other teaching materials as % of public current expenditure on primary education		Primary education teachers' compensation as % of public current expenditure on primary education	
	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012	1999	2012
World[1]	4.5	5.0	13.8	13.7	...	32.8	...	1,337	...	34.6	...	...	...	...	...	...
Countries in transition	3.6	4.2	...	13.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Developed countries	5.0	5.4	12.3	12.2	...	24.6	...	7,195	...	40.2	...	9,002	...	...	...	61.5
Developing countries	4.4	4.7	14.8	15.2	...	...	...	...	...	30.4	...	...	...	...	...	...
Arab States	5.3	...	16.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central and Eastern Europe	4.4	4.9	12.7	11.7	...	19.4	...	4,478	...	37.4	...	4,223	...	...	...	...
Central Asia	4.0	3.4	...	13.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia and the Pacific	5.1	3.4	13.8	17.5	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia	3.3	3.0	11.3	15.7	...	35.4	...	...	31.6	29.1	...	...	...	...	...	...
Pacific	6.3	...	16.3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America and the Caribbean	4.5	4.9	14.8	...	...	33.9	...	1,187	...	31.7	...	1,594	...	...	...	...
Caribbean	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Latin America	4.0	4.7	14.2	15.8	40.8	33.9	...	866	...	29.7	...	1,090	...	...	...	71.9
North America and Western Europe	5.2	6.0	12.3	12.5	28.1	25.2	5,313	7,943	42.2	40.3	7,158	10,934	...	...	70.2	61.5
South and West Asia	3.6	3.9	16.6	12.6	...	28.7	...	240	...	43.0	...	369	...	...	...	...
Sub-Saharan Africa	3.9	4.9	14.8	18.4	...	43.8	...	136.3	...	27.9	...	310	...	...	...	...
Countries with low income	3.2	4.0	14.7	14.9	...	50.1	...	100	...	25.8	...	...	...	...	...	...
Countries with middle income	4.5	4.9	14.9	15.1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lower middle	4.4	4.9	15.0	15.6	...	...	...	467	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Upper middle	5.0	5.1	14.8	14.9	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Countries with high income	4.9	5.4	12.4	12.3	...	26.9	...	6,805	...	...	...	7,615	...	...	...	...

Source: UIS database.

Note: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

1. All regional values shown are medians. The median values of 1999 and 2012 are not comparable since they are not necessarily based on the same number of countries.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2013, those in italic are for 2000 and those in bold italic are for 2001.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2011.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2010.

(x) Data are for the school year ending in 2009.

(*) National estimate.

(**) UIS partial estimate.

(-) Magnitude nil or negligible

(...) No data available.

Table 10

Trends in basic or proxy indicators to measure EFA goals 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6

		GOAL 1		GOAL 2		GOAL 3				GOAL 4			
		Early childhood care and education		Universal primary education		Learning needs of all youth and adults				Improving levels of adult literacy			
		GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION		PRIMARY EDUCATION ADJUSTED NET ENROLMENT RATIO (ANER)[1]		YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15–24)				ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over)			
		School year ending in		School year ending in		1995–2004[2]		2005–2012[2]		1995–2004[2]		2005–2012[2]	
		1999	2012	1999	2012								
	Country or territory	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)
	Arab States												
1	Algeria	2	79 z	88	99	90 *	0.92 *	92 *	0.94 *	70 *	0.76 *	73 *	0.79 *
2	Bahrain[4]	33	50	99	...	97 *	1.00 *	98 *	0.99 *	87 *	0.94 *	95 *	0.95 *
3	Djibouti	0.4	4	25	**58**	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
4	Egypt	11	27	95 **	97 **, z	73 *	0.85 *	89 *	0.93 *	56 *	0.65 *	74 *	0.81 *
5	Iraq	5	...	89	...	85 *	0.91 *	82 **	0.96 **	74 *	0.76 *	79 **	0.84 **
6	Jordan	29	34	97 **	97	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	90 *	0.89 *	98 *	0.99 *
7	Kuwait[4]	94	...	100	...	92 *	0.96 *	99 *	1.00 *	78 *	0.91 *	96 *	0.99 *
8	Lebanon	76 **	91	...	96 **	...	...	99 *	1.01 *	...	...	90 *	0.92 *
9	Libya	5	...	...	...	100 **	1.00 **	100 **	1.00 **	85 **	0.82 **	90 **	0.87 **
10	Mauritania	...	...	60	70	61 *	0.82 *	56 **, a	0.72 **, a	51 *	0.73 *	46 **, a	0.62 **, a
11	Morocco	60	**59**	71	**99**	70 *	0.75 *	82 *	0.83 *	52 *	0.60 *	67 *	0.76 *
12	Oman	...	55	84	97	97 *	0.99 *	98 *	1.01 *	81 *	0.85 *	87 *	0.91 *
13	Palestine	35	42	93	93	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	92 *	0.91 *	96 *	0.95 *
14	Qatar[4]	27	73	95	...	96 *	1.03 *	99 *	1.01 *	89 *	0.99 *	97 *	0.99 *
15	Saudi Arabia	...	**13**	...	**97** **	96 *	0.98 *	99 *	1.00 *	83 *	0.87 *	94 *	0.95 *
16	Sudan	***19***	35 z	...	52 z	78 *	0.84 *	88 **	0.95 **	61 *	0.73 *	73 **	0.80 **
17	Syrian Arab Republic	8	11	97	99 y	92 *	0.95 *	96 **	0.98 **	81 *	0.84 *	85 **	0.87 **
18	Tunisia	13	...	96 **	100	94 *	0.96 *	97 *	0.98 *	74 *	0.78 *	80 *	0.82 *
19	United Arab Emirates[4]	65	71	85	98 *	...	...	95 *	1.04 *	...	...	90 *	1.02 *
20	Yemen	0.7	2 z	58	87	77 **	0.65 **	87 **	0.80 **	55 **	0.48 **	66 **	0.61 **
21	Sudan (pre-secession)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Central and Eastern Europe												
22	Albania[4]	41	69	93 **	...	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	0.99 *	97 *	0.98 *
23	Belarus	85	103	***96*** **	94	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *
24	Bosnia and Herzegovina[4]	...	16	...	...	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	97 *	0.95 *	98 **	0.97 **
25	Bulgaria	69	86	98	96	98 *	1.00 *	98 *	1.00 *	98 *	0.99 *	98 *	0.99 *
26	Croatia	40	63	93	99	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	98 *	0.98 *	99 *	0.99 *
27	Czech Republic	90	103	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
28	Estonia	92	93	100	97	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *
29	Hungary	80	87	96	97	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
30	Latvia	54	92	97 **	98	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *
31	Lithuania	50	76	97	98	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *
32	Montenegro	***32***	61	...	98	...	...	99 *	1.00 *	...	...	98 *	0.98 *
33	Poland	49	78	97	97	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
34	Republic of Moldova[5,6]	48	80	*93*	91	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	97 *	0.97 *	99 **	0.99 **
35	Romania	69	77	88	90	98 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	97 *	0.98 *	99 *	0.99 *
36	Russian Federation[7]	71	91	...	97	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *
37	Serbia[5]	54	56	...	93	...	...	99 **	1.00 **	...	...	98 **	0.98 **
38	Slovakia	81	91	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
39	Slovenia	75	94	96	98	100 **	1.00 **	100 **	1.00 **	100 **	1.00 **	100 **	1.00 **
40	The former Yugoslav Rep. of Macedonia	27	29	91	92 **	99 *	0.99 *	99 **	1.00 **	96 *	0.96 *	98 **	0.98 **
41	Turkey	7	31	94	95	96 *	0.95 *	99 *	0.99 *	87 *	0.84 *	95 *	0.93 *
42	Ukraine	51	101	...	98	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	99 *	0.99 *	100 **	1.00 **
	Central Asia												
43	Armenia[4]	26	51	...	...	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	99 *	0.99 *	100 **	1.00 **
44	Azerbaijan[5,8]	18	25	92	89 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	99 *	0.99 *	100 *	1.00 *
45	Georgia	35	...	...	99	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **
46	Kazakhstan	15	**58**	*96* **	**99** **	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *
47	Kyrgyzstan	10	25	93 **	98	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	99 *	0.99 *	99 *	0.99 *
48	Mongolia	27	86	91	98	98 *	1.01 *	98 *	1.01 *	98 *	1.00 *	98 *	1.00 *
49	Tajikistan	8	9 z	*94*	99	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	99 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **
50	Turkmenistan	...	...	...	...	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	99 *	0.99 *	100 **	1.00 **
51	Uzbekistan	24	25 z	...	91 z	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	99 *	0.99 *	99 **	1.00 **
	East Asia and the Pacific												
52	Australia	***103***	108	94 **	97	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
53	Brunei Darussalam	79	92	...	96	99 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	93 *	0.95 *	95 **	0.96 **
54	Cambodia	5	15	87	98	83 *	0.90 *	87 *	0.97 *	74 *	0.76 *	74 *	0.80 *
55	China[9]	36	70	...	...	99 *	0.99 *	100 *	1.00 *	91 *	0.91 *	95 *	0.95 *
56	Cook Islands[5]	43	95	86	97	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
57	Democratic People's Republic of Korea	...	...	...	...	...	...	100 *	1.00 *	...	...	100 *	1.00 *
58	Fiji	15	...	94	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
59	Indonesia	23 **	48	***97***	95	99 *	1.00 *	99	1.00	90 *	0.92 *	93 *	0.94 *
60	Japan	83	88	100	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
61	Kiribati	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
62	Lao People's Democratic Republic	7	24	74	96	78 *	0.90 *	84 *	0.88 *	69 *	0.79 *	73 *	0.77 *
63	Macao, China[4]	90	...	85	...	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	91 *	0.92 *	96 *	0.96 *
64	Malaysia[4]	54	70 z	95	...	97 *	1.00 *	98 *	1.00 *	89 *	0.93 *	93 *	0.95 *
65	Marshall Islands	57	48 z	...	100 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
66	Micronesia (Federated States of)	36	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
67	Myanmar	2	9 y	...	...	95 *	0.98 *	96 **	1.00 **	90 *	0.92 *	93 **	0.95 **
68	Nauru[5]	*74*	79	...	76	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
69	New Zealand	85	92	100 **	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
70	Niue[5]	154	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 10

GOAL 5								GOAL 6				
Gender parity in primary education				Gender parity in secondary education				Educational quality				
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)				SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE		PUPIL/TEACHER RATIO IN PRIMARY EDUCATION[3]		
School year ending in				School year ending in				School year ending in		School year ending in		
1999		2012		1999		2012		1999	2011	1999	2012	
Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	Total (%)			
												Arab States
100	0.91	117	0.94	63	1.01	98 z	1.04 z	91	93	28	23	1
104	0.97	...	...	97	1.08	96	1.02	90	98	...	12 *	2
31	0.72	**68**	**0.88**	***16***	***0.63***	**46**	**0.77**	...	**76**	40	**34**	3
101 **	0.92 **	113	0.96	84 **	0.91 **	86	0.98	99 **	96 x	23 **	28 y	4
97	0.83	...	...	35	0.64	...	...	49 **	...	*21*	...	5
101	1.02	98	0.98	86	1.05	88	1.03	96	98 y	...	...	6
118	1.01	...	...	115 **	1.00 **	...	...	94	94	13	9	7
134 **	0.97 **	107	0.91	90 **	1.13 **	74	1.01	90 **	93	14 **	14	8
116	0.99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9
83	0.97	97	1.05	20	0.77	27 **	0.85 **	***40***	...	47	40	10
86	0.82	**117**	**0.95**	36	0.79	69	0.86	75	**92**	28	**26**	11
93	0.98	109	1.01	75	1.00	94	1.08	92	94	25	...	12
100	1.00	94	0.99	78	1.02	83	1.10	99	99	38	24	13
107	1.06	...	...	86	1.11	112 z	1.10 z	...	...	13	10	14
...	...	106	1.03	...	...	**116** **	**1.01** **	...	99	...	**10** *	15
59	***0.85***	69 z	0.89 z	***34***	***0.81***	37 z	0.92 z	...	76 x	...	...	16
106	0.92	122	0.97	43	0.92	74	1.00	87	93	25	...	17
117	0.94	110	0.98	72	1.01	91 z	1.05 z	87	95 x	24	17	18
94	0.99	108	0.97	84	1.10	...	...	89	84 y	16	18	19
73	0.56	97	0.83	41	0.37	47	0.65	***69*** **	...	22 **	30 z	20
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	77 **	...	***24*** **	...	21
												Central and Eastern Europe
102	0.98	...	...	66	0.94	...	...	*90*	99	*23*	19	22
113	***0.99***	99	1.00	...	...	106	0.96	99	99 *	20	15	23
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	99 x	...	...	24
104	0.97	100	0.99	92	0.98	93	0.96	93	97	18	17	25
94	0.98	97	1.00	85	1.02	98	1.04	99	99	19	14	26
103	0.99	100	1.01	84	1.04	97	1.00	98	99	18	19	27
101	0.97	98	1.01	94	1.04	107	0.99	98	97	16	12	28
101	0.98	100	0.99	94	1.02	102	0.98	96	98 x	11	10	29
99	0.98	103	0.99	88	1.04	98	0.97	97	93 y	15	11	30
101	0.98	99	0.99	95	1.00	106	0.96	99	97	17	12	31
...	...	101	1.01	...	...	91	1.01	...	80	...	...	32
100	*0.98*	101	1.00	99	0.99	98	0.99	98	99 y	***11***	10	33
101	*0.99*	94	1.00	83	0.98	88	1.02	95	96	21	16	34
92	0.98	94	0.99	81	1.02	95	0.98	96	94	19	18	35
103	0.99	101	1.01	92	...	95	0.98	95	97	18	20	36
110	0.99	93	1.00	94	1.01	92	1.02	...	98	...	16	37
102	0.98	102	1.00	85	1.02	94	1.01	97	98	19	15	38
98	0.99	99	1.00	99	1.03	98	0.99	100	99	14	17	39
98	0.98	89	1.00	82	0.97	83	0.99	97	...	22	15	40
103	0.91	100	0.99	71	0.68	86	0.95	...	90	...	20	41
108	1.00	106	1.02	98	1.04 *	98	0.98 *	97 *	98 *	20	16	42
												Central Asia
99	1.08	...	...	93	...	96	1.21	...	96	16	...	43
95	1.00	98	0.98	...	...	100	0.99	97	98	19	12	44
94	0.99	106	1.01	79	0.98	...	...	99	93	*17*	...	45
99	*1.01*	**106**	**1.01**	96	1.00	98	0.97	*95* **	**99**	***19***	**16**	46
96	0.99	106	0.98	83	1.02	88 *, z	1.00 *, z	95 *	97	24	24	47
97	1.01	117	0.97	61	1.27	103	1.03	87	93	32	29	48
95	*0.93*	100	0.98	74	0.86	87	0.90	97	98	***22***	23	49
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50
99	1.00	93 z	0.97 z	87	0.98	105 z	0.98 z	100	98 y	21	16 z	51
												East Asia and the Pacific
100	1.00	105	1.00	156	1.00	136	0.95	...	...	18 **	...	52
113	0.95	95	0.98	86	1.06	108	1.01	...	96	14 *	11	53
101	0.87	124	0.95	16	0.53	...	...	*55*	66	***53***	46	54
105	***1.01***	128	1.00	58	...	89	1.02	...	...	***22***	18	55
96	0.95	108	1.01	60	1.08	88	1.00	...	...	18	15	56
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	57
104	0.99	105	1.01	78	1.11	88	1.11	82	97	*28*	28	58
111	***0.98***	109	1.00	55	...	83	1.03	***86***	89	22	19	59
101	1.00	102	1.00	101	1.01	102	1.00	100	100	21	17	60
110	1.01	...	...	61	1.23	...	...	***69***	...	25	...	61
108	0.85	123	0.95	32	0.69	47	0.87	55	70	31	27	62
100	0.99	...	...	79	1.05	96	0.99	...	98 x	31	14	63
95	0.99	...	...	66	1.09	67 z	0.97 z	...	99 x	20	12 z	64
90	0.99	105 z	0.99 z	68	1.06	...	...	...	...	15	...	65
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	66
95	0.97	114 y	0.99 y	32	0.98	50 y	1.05 y	*55*	75 x	31	28 y	67
99	*1.33*	94	1.03	*47*	*1.17*	72	0.97	...	...	*21*	...	68
100	1.00	99	1.00	111	1.05	120	1.05	...	...	18	15	69
99	1.00	...	...	98	1.10	...	...	...	...	16	...	70

Table 10 (continued)

		GOAL 1		GOAL 2		GOAL 3				GOAL 4			
		Early childhood care and education		Universal primary education		Learning needs of all youth and adults				Improving levels of adult literacy			
		GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION		PRIMARY EDUCATION ADJUSTED NET ENROLMENT RATIO (ANER)[1]		YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15–24)				ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over)			
		School year ending in		School year ending in									
		1999	2012	1999	2012	1995–2004[2]		2005–2012[2]		1995–2004[2]		2005–2012[2]	
	Country or territory	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)
71	Palau[5]	63	...	...	...	...	...	100 *	1.00 *	...	...	100 *	1.00 *
72	Papua New Guinea	...	...	...	87	67 *	0.93 *	71 **	1.13 **	57 *	0.80 *	63 **	0.92 **
73	Philippines	30	...	89	...	95 *	1.03 *	98 *	1.02 *	93 *	1.02 *	95 *	1.01 *
74	Republic of Korea	...	118 z	99	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
75	Samoa	50	34	93	96	99 **	1.00 **	100 **	1.00 **	99 **	0.99 **	99 **	1.00 **
76	Singapore	...	...	...	...	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	93 *	0.92 *	96 *	0.96 *
77	Solomon Islands	*35*	43	...	...	85 *	0.89 *	...	...	77 *	0.82 *	...	...
78	Thailand	91	**119**	...	...	98 *	1.00 *	98 *	1.00 *	93 *	0.95 *	96 *	1.00 *
79	Timor-Leste	...	...	...	92 z	...	...	80 *	0.98 *	38 *	0.66 *	58 *	0.83 *
80	Tokelau[5]	*99*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
81	Tonga	29	71	91	90	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *
82	Tuvalu[5]	***96***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
83	Vanuatu	51	61 y	98 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
84	Viet Nam	40	77	97	98	95 *	0.98 *	97 *	0.99 *	90 *	0.92 *	94 *	0.95 *
	Latin America and the Caribbean												
85	Anguilla[10]	...	...	***99*** **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
86	Antigua and Barbuda	*57*	89	...	85	99 *	1.01 *	...	...	99 *	1.01 *	99 **	1.01 **
87	Argentina	57	74 z	99	...	99 *	1.00 *	99 **	1.00 **	97 *	1.00 *	98 **	1.00 **
88	Aruba	94	107	98	99 y	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	97 *	1.00 *	97 *	1.00 *
89	Bahamas	11	...	91	98 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
90	Barbados	75	79 *, z	95 **	97 *, z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
91	Belize	28	47	100 **	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
92	Bermuda	***56***	43 z	...	88 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
93	Bolivia, Plurinational State of	43	51 z	94 **	87 z	97 *	0.98 *	99 *	1.00 *	87 *	0.87 *	94 *	0.95 *
94	Brazil[4]	...	...	...	...	97 *	1.02 *	99 *	1.01 *	89 *	1.00 *	91 *	1.01 *
95	British Virgin Islands[5]	62	71 z	98 **	85 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
96	Cayman Islands[4]	39	...	95 *	...	...	...	99 *	0.99 *	...	...	99 *	1.00 *
97	Chile	76	114	...	93	99 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	96 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *
98	Colombia	38	49 z	95	86	98 *	1.01 *	98 *	1.01 *	93 *	1.00 *	94 *	1.00 *
99	Costa Rica	47	74	...	93	98 *	1.01 *	99 *	1.00 *	95 *	1.00 *	97 *	1.00 *
100	Cuba	105	109	99 **	97	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **
101	Curaçao	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
102	Dominica	82	95	*98*	96 y	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
103	Dominican Republic	31	39	83	89	94 *	1.03 *	97 *	1.02 *	87 *	1.00 *	91 *	1.01 *
104	Ecuador	63	150	97	97	96 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	91 *	0.97 *	93 *	0.98 *
105	El Salvador	40	62	*85* **	95	92 **	1.00 **	97 *	1.01 *	81 **	0.93 **	85 *	0.94 *
106	Grenada	75	99 y	100 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
107	Guatemala	46	64 z	84 **	95 z	82 *	0.91 *	94 *	0.96 *	69 *	0.84 *	78 *	0.85 *
108	Guyana	100	66	...	75	...	...	93 **,a	1.01 **,a	...	...	85 **,a	1.06 **,a
109	Haiti	...	...	...	...	82 *	0.98 *	72 **,a	0.95 **,a	59 *	0.87 *	49 **,a	0.84 **,a
110	Honduras	17	42	*88*	94	89 *	1.05 *	95 *	1.02 *	80 *	1.01 *	85 *	0.99 *
111	Jamaica[4]	79	75	93 **	...	92 *	1.10 *	96 **	1.06 **	80 *	1.16 *	87 **	1.12 **
112	Mexico	70	101	98 **	98	98 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	91 *	0.97 *	94 *	0.98 *
113	Montserrat	137	...	***100***	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
114	Nicaragua	27	55 y	81 **	93 y	86 *	1.06 *	87 *	1.04 *	77 *	1.00 *	78 *	1.00 *
115	Panama	37	65	93 **	92	96 *	0.99 *	98 *	0.99 *	92 *	0.99 *	94 *	0.99 *
116	Paraguay	29	35 z	97	83 z	...	...	99 *	1.00 *	...	...	94 *	0.98 *
117	Peru	56	78	100 **	96 z	97 *	0.98 *	99 *	1.00 *	88 *	0.88 *	94 *	0.94 *
118	Saint Kitts and Nevis	...	96 z	*97* **	84 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
119	Saint Lucia	81	61	93 **	83	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
120	Saint-Martin	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
121	Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	...	...	*98* **	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
122	Sint-Maarten	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
123	Suriname	***85***	88 z	***91*** **	92 z	95 *	0.98 *	98 *	1.01 *	90 *	0.95 *	95 *	0.99 *
124	Trinidad and Tobago	*60*	...	98	99 y	99 **	1.00 **	100 **	1.00 **	98 **	0.99 **	99 **	0.99 **
125	Turks and Caicos Islands[10]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
126	Uruguay	60	89 y	...	100 y	99 *	1.01 *	99 *	1.01 *	97 *	1.01 *	98 *	1.01 *
127	Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	...	...	...	...	... *		...		...		...	
128	Netherlands Antilles	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	North America and Western Europe												
129	Andorra[4]	77	103	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
130	Austria	109	118	99	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
131	Belgium	64	72 z	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
132	Canada	60	78	98	98	100 *	1.00 *	100 *	1.00 *	97 *	0.96 *	99 *	0.99 *
133	Cyprus[5]	91	102	98	98	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
134	Denmark	47	70	100	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
135	Finland	110	110	100	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
136	France[11]	94	113	100 **	100 **	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
137	Germany	67	78 z	96	100 z	99 *	1.00 *	99 **	1.00 **	96 *	0.96 *	97 **	0.98 **
138	Greece	86	97 z	99	99 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
139	Iceland	...	52	100	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
140	Ireland	89	104 z	98	97 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
141	Israel	97	98 z	100	99 z	100 *	1.00 *	100 **	1.00 **	98 *	0.99 *	99 **	1.00 **
142	Italy	71	89 z	97	95 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 10

GOAL 5								GOAL 6				
Gender parity in primary education				Gender parity in secondary education				Educational quality				
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)				SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE		PUPIL/TEACHER RATIO IN PRIMARY EDUCATION[3]		
School year ending in				School year ending in				School year ending in		School year ending in		
1999		2012		1999		2012		1999	2011	1999	2012	
Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	Total (%)			
71	*0.86*	114	0.91	...	...	40	0.76	...	...	*35* **	...	71
109	1.00	...	...	74	1.10	...	...	***75***	...	35	...	72
103	1.01	103	0.99	99	1.00	97	0.99	99	99	32	18	73
96	1.00	105	1.00	79	1.11	86	1.11	90 *	90	24 **	30 [y]	74
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	75
89	0.93	141	0.98	26	0.75	48	0.94	...	63	19	24	76
97	0.97	**93**	**0.95**	***63***	***0.97*** **	87	1.06	82 **	...	21	16	77
118	...	125 [z]	0.95 [z]	***36***	...	57 [z]	1.02 [z]	...	84 [y]	***62***	31 [z]	78
105	*1.15*	...	...	*92*	*1.01*	...	...	...	...	*10*	...	79
112	0.95	109	0.99	105	1.14	104 [z]	0.97 [z]	*91*	...	21	21	80
...	...	...	...	***80***	***1.10***	...	...	...	...	19	...	81
118	0.98	122 [y]	0.99 [y]	30	0.88	60 [y]	1.00 [y]	69	...	24	22 [y]	82
110	0.93	105	1.01	...	...	...	...	83	97	30	19	83
104 **	***0.98*** **	...	...	*107* **	*0.98* **	...	...	...	...	22	15 [z]	84
										Latin America and the Caribbean		
124	...	98	0.93	*78*	*0.89* **	105	1.15	...	...	*19*	14	85
113	0.99	118 [z]	0.99 [z]	85	1.05	92 [z]	1.11 [z]	89	93 [y]	21	...	86
112	0.98	104	1.03	99	1.06	100	1.07	96	93 [x]	19	15	87
97	0.97	108 [y]	1.02 [y]	78	0.99	93 [y]	1.05 [y]	...	89 [x]	14	14 [y]	88
103	1.04	105 *, [z]	0.99 *, [z]	108	1.12	105 [z]	1.12 [z]	91	93 *, [y]	18 **	13 *, [z]	89
121	0.96	121	0.97	64	1.07	84	1.05	74	91 [y]	*23*	22	90
101	***1.01***	90 [z]	0.98 [z]	***79***	***1.07***	77 [z]	1.18 [z]	***87***	...	***9***	9 [z]	91
111	0.98	94 [z]	0.98 [z]	76	0.93	77 [z]	1.00 [z]	80	86 [y]	*25* **	...	92
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*80*	54 [x]	26	21	93
112	0.97	92 [z]	0.92 [z]	99	0.91	97 [z]	1.01 [z]	...	...	18	12 [z]	94
107	0.91	...	...	95	0.92	...	...	*92*	...	15	12 [z]	95
100	0.97	101	0.97	79	1.04	89	1.04	98	99	32	21	96
119	1.00	107	0.97	73	1.11	93	1.09	67	85	24	25	97
112	0.99	105	0.99	62	1.10	104	1.05	89	88	27	17 [z]	98
102	0.97	99	0.99	79	1.06	90	1.00	95	96	12	9	99
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	100
120	*1.02*	119	0.97	101	1.33	97 [z]	1.07 [z]	*79*	88	20	16	101
110	0.98	103	0.91	56	1.24	76	1.12	71	79	31	24	102
112	1.00	114	1.00	59	1.03	87	1.02	75	91	*23*	18	103
104	*0.96*	113	0.96	52	0.97	69	1.00	62 **	84	...	29 [z]	104
108	0.97	103 [y]	0.97 [y]	...	...	108 [y]	1.03 [y]	...	...	*20*	16 [y]	105
102	0.87	114 [z]	0.97 [z]	33	0.84	65 [z]	0.91 [z]	52	71 [y]	38	26 [z]	106
106	1.01	75	1.13	83	1.01 **	101	1.15	*65*	92	27	23	107
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	108
107	*1.01*	109	1.00	...	...	73	1.22	...	70	32	...	109
96 **	1.00 **	...	...	88 **	1.01 **	89 [z]	1.06 [z]	*85*	82 [y]	...	23	110
106	0.94	105	1.00	68	1.00	86	1.08	87	96	27	28	111
105	***0.99***	...	...	183	0.75	...	...	...	...	21	...	112
101	1.01	117 [y]	0.98 [y]	51 **	1.18 **	69 [y]	1.10 [y]	46	...	34	30 [y]	113
104	0.97	100	0.97	64	1.08	84	1.05	90	92	26	23	114
119	0.96	95 [z]	0.96 [z]	58	1.04	70 [z]	1.05 [z]	73 **	80 [y]	...	22 [z]	115
123	0.99	100	0.99	83	0.94	90	0.96	83	74	29	19	116
106	*1.04*	88	1.01	*105*	*1.10*	94 [z]	1.04 [z]	*74*	74 [x]	*19*	15	117
104	0.95	87	0.97	71	1.26	91	0.99	...	90	***24***	17	118
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	119
118	*0.95*	105	0.96	*83* **	*1.34* **	101	0.96	...	69 [y]	20	16	120
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	121
118	***0.99***	114 [z]	0.96 [z]	***73***	***1.19***	85 [z]	1.31 [z]	...	...	***20*** **	15 [z]	122
103	0.99	106 [y]	0.97 [y]	...	...	...	...	*89*	89 *, [x]	21	...	123
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	18	...	124
111	0.99	112 [y]	0.97 [y]	92	1.17	90 [y]	1.14 [y]	*87*	95 [x]	20	14 [y]	125
99	0.98	102	0.98	57	1.22	85	1.09	88	94	...	...	126
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	20	...	127
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	10	128
										North America and Western Europe		
104	0.99	101	1.00	97	0.95	98	0.96	...	100	13	11	129
104	0.99	103	0.99	141	1.07	107	0.97	...	93 [y]	*12* **	11	130
100	1.00	98 [z]	1.01 [z]	102	1.02	103 [z]	0.98 [z]	99	...	17	...	131
97	1.00	100	1.00	93	1.03	95	1.02	95	...	18	14	132
101	1.00	101	0.99	125	1.05	125	1.01	100	99 [x]	10	...	133
101	1.00	100	0.99	121	1.09	108	1.05	99	100	17	14	134
105	0.99	107	1.00	108	1.00	110	1.01	98	...	19	18	135
103	0.99	100	1.00	96	0.98	101	0.95	99	96	17	12	136
95	1.00	102 [z]	1.00 [z]	90	1.04	108 [z]	0.97 [z]	...	93 [y]	14	...	137
100	0.98	99 [z]	1.01 [z]	109	1.05	109 [z]	1.01 [z]	98	97 [y]	...	10 [z]	138
102	0.99	104	1.00	106	1.06	119	1.02	...	...	22	16	139
105	0.99	105 [z]	1.00 [z]	100	0.99	102 [z]	1.02 [z]	***99***	99 [y]	13 **	13 [z]	140
105	0.99	100 [z]	0.99 [z]	92	0.99	101 [z]	0.99 [z]	94	100 [y]	11	...	141
100	1.01	97 [z]	1.02 [z]	97	1.04	101 [z]	1.03 [z]	...	...	***12***	9 [y]	142

Table 10 (continued)

		GOAL 1		GOAL 2		GOAL 3				GOAL 4			
		Early childhood care and education		Universal primary education		Learning needs of all youth and adults				Improving levels of adult literacy			
		GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION		PRIMARY EDUCATION ADJUSTED NET ENROLMENT RATIO (ANER)[1]		YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15–24)				ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over)			
		School year ending in		School year ending in		1995–2004[2]		2005–2012[2]		1995–2004[2]		2005–2012[2]	
		1999	2012	1999	2012								
	Country or territory	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)
143	Luxembourg	71	89 z	97	95 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
144	Malta	97	116	...	95	96 *	1.04 *	98 *	1.02 *	88 *	1.03 *	92 *	1.03 *
145	Monaco[10]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
146	Netherlands	...	91	99	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
147	Norway	75	99	100	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
148	Portugal	67	86	*97*	99	...	...	99 *	1.00 *	...	...	94 *	0.96 *
149	San Marino[10]	...	107	...	93	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
150	Spain	99	127	100	100	...	...	100 *	1.00 *	...	...	98 *	0.99 *
151	Sweden	76	95	100	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
152	Switzerland	92	100	99	99	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
153	United Kingdom	77	84	100	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
154	United States	59	74	97	93	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	South and West Asia												
155	Afghanistan	...	...	...	...	...	...	47 *	0.52 *	...	...	32 *	0.39 *
156	Bangladesh	18	26 z	...	96 *, y	64 *	0.90 *	80 **	1.05 **	47 *	0.76 *	59 **	0.88 **
157	Bhutan	0.9	9	56	92	...	...	74 *	0.85 *	...	...	53 *	0.59 *
158	India	19	58 z	*86* **	99 z	76 *	0.80 *	81 *	0.84 *	61 *	0.65 *	63 *	0.68 *
159	Iran, Islamic Republic of	15	35	86 **	100 *	93 *	0.95 *	98 *	0.99 *	77 *	0.84 *	84 *	0.89 *
160	Maldives[4]	56	...	98	...	98 *	1.00 *	99 *	1.00 *	96 *	1.00 *	98 *	1.00 *
161	Nepal	11 *	**84**	69 *	**99** **	70 *	0.75 *	82 **,a	0.87 **,a	49 *	0.56 *	57 **,a	0.66 **,a
162	Pakistan	63 *	82	**...**	72 *	55 *	0.64 *	71 *	0.78 *	43 *	0.53 *	55 *	0.59 *
163	Sri Lanka	...	89	***100***	94	96 *	1.01 *	98 *	1.01 *	91 *	0.97 *	91 *	0.97 *
	Sub-Saharan Africa												
164	Angola	27 **	87 z	...	86 z	72 *	0.75 *	73 **	0.83 **	67 *	0.65 *	71 **	0.72 **
165	Benin	4	19	...	95	45 *	0.56 *	42 **,a	0.56 **,a	35 *	0.49 *	29 **,a	0.45 **,a
166	Botswana	...	...	80	...	94 *	1.04 *	96 **	1.04 **	81 *	1.02 *	87 **	1.01 **
167	Burkina Faso	2	4	36	67	31 *	0.65 *	39 *	0.71 *	22 *	0.52 *	29 *	0.59 *
168	Burundi	0.7	8	*41* **	94 y	73 *	0.92 *	89 *	0.98 *	59 *	0.78 *	87 *	0.95 *
169	Cabo Verde	48	75	*99* **	97	97 **	1.02 **	98 *	1.01 *	80 **	0.86 **	85 *	0.89 *
170	Cameroon	11	30	...	92	83 *	0.88 *	81 *	0.89 *	68 *	0.74 *	71 *	0.83 *
171	Central African Republic	...	6 z	...	72	61 *	0.68 *	36 **,a	0.55 **,a	51 *	0.53 *	37 **,a	0.48 **,a
172	Chad	...	1	50	64 z	42 *	0.57 *	49 **	0.82 **	28 *	0.46 *	37 **	0.59 **
173	Comoros	3	...	68	...	80 *	0.92 *	86 **	1.00 **	68 *	0.85 *	76 **	0.88 **
174	Congo	2	14	...	92	...	...	81 **,a	0.90 **,a	...	...	79 **,a	0.84 **,a
175	Côte d'Ivoire	3	5	60	...	61 *	0.74 *	48 **,a	0.66 **,a	49 *	0.63 *	41 **,a	0.59 **,a
176	Democratic Rep. of the Congo	***0.8***	4	36	...	70 *	0.81 *	66 **	0.67 **	67 *	0.67 *	61 **,a	0.60 **,a
177	Equatorial Guinea	27	73	*68*	62	97 *	0.99 *	98 **	1.01 **	88 *	0.86 *	95 **	0.94 **
178	Eritrea	5	13	29	34	78 *	0.81 *	91 **	0.95 **	53 *	0.62 *	70 **	0.76 **
179	Ethiopia[4]	1	...	36	...	50 *	0.62 *	55 *	0.75 *	36 *	0.46 *	39 *	0.59 *
180	Gabon	***15***	35 z	...	...	97 **	0.98 **	89 **,a	1.02 **,a	84 **	0.90 **	82 **,a	0.94 **,a
181	Gambia	19	30 y	75	74	53 *	0.64 *	69 **	0.89 **	37 *	0.51 *	52 **	0.70 **
182	Ghana	47	**116**	62 **	**88**	71 *	0.86 *	86 *	0.94 *	58 *	0.75 *	71 *	0.83 *
183	Guinea	...	16 z	42	76	47 *	0.57 *	31 *	0.58 *	30 *	0.43 *	25 *	0.33 *
184	Guinea-Bissau	*4*	7 y	*49*	71 y	59 *	0.61 *	74 **	0.86 **	41 *	0.48 *	57 **	0.63 **
185	Kenya	43	...	63 **	...	93 *	0.99 *	82 **,a	0.98 **,a	82 *	0.89 *	72 **,a	0.86 **,a
186	Lesotho	21 **	36 y	60	82	91 *	1.15 *	83 **,a	1.24 **,a	86 *	1.15 *	76 **,a	1.30 **,a
187	Liberia	47	...	47	41 z	49 **	0.56 **	49 **,a	0.59 **,a	43 **	0.42 **	43 **,a	0.44 **,a
188	Madagascar	3 **	9 y	64	...	70 *	0.94 *	65 **,a	0.97 **,a	71 *	0.85 *	64 **,a	0.91 **,a
189	Malawi	...	...	99	...	76 *	0.86 *	72 **,a	0.94 **,a	64 *	0.72 *	61 **,a	0.71 **,a
190	Mali	2	4 z	47 **	73	31 *	0.65 *	47 *	0.69 *	24 *	0.49 *	34 *	0.57 *
191	Mauritius	94	120	93	98	95 *	1.02 *	98 *	1.01 *	84 *	0.91 *	89 *	0.94 *
192	Mozambique	...	...	52 **	86	62 *	0.67 *	67 *	0.71 *	48 *	0.51 *	51 *	0.54 *
193	Namibia	33	...	88	89	92 *	1.03 *	87 **,a	1.09 **,a	85 *	0.96 *	76 **,a	1.05 **,a
194	Niger	1	6	27	64	20 *	0.54 *	24 **,a	0.44 **,a	14 *	0.48 *	15 **,a	0.38 **,a
195	Nigeria[12]	***8***	13 y	63 **	66 **, y	69 *	0.77 *	66 **	0.77 **	55 *	0.65 *	51 **,a	0.68 **,a
196	Rwanda	***3***	13	82	99	78 *	0.98 *	77 **	1.02 **	65 *	0.84 *	66 **,a	0.87 **,a
197	Sao Tome and Principe	23	**45**	80	**97**	95 *	0.99 *	80 **	0.93 **	85 *	0.85 *	70 **,a	0.75 **,a
198	Senegal	3	14	55	79	49 *	0.70 *	66 *	0.80 *	39 *	0.57 *	52 *	0.61 *
199	Seychelles	105	110 z	*93*	94 z	99 *	1.01 *	99 **	1.01 **	92 *	1.01 *	92 **	1.01 **
200	Sierra Leone	*5*	9	...	...	48 *	0.63 *	63 **	0.75 **	35 *	0.52 *	44 **	0.61 **
201	Somalia	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
202	South Africa	21	77	97 **	90 **	94 *	1.01 *	99 *	1.01 *	82 *	0.96 *	94 *	0.97 *
203	South Sudan	...	6 z	...	41 **, z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
204	Swaziland	...	25 z	71	...	92 *	1.02 *	94 **,a	1.03 **,a	82 *	0.97 *	83 **,a	0.98 **,a
205	Togo	3	11	89	...	74 *	0.76 *	80 *	0.84 *	53 *	0.56 *	60 *	0.65 *
206	Uganda	...	14 y	...	91 z	81 *	0.89 *	87 *	0.95 *	68 *	0.75 *	73 *	0.78 *
207	United Republic of Tanzania	...	34	49	...	78 *	0.94 *	75 **,a	0.95 **,a	69 *	0.80 *	68 **,a	0.81 **,a
208	Zambia	...	...	71 **	98 **	69 *	0.85 *	64 **,a	0.83 **,a	69 *	0.76 *	61 **,a	0.72 **,a
209	Zimbabwe	*41*	...	84	...	...	...	91 **,a	1.03 **,a	...	...	84 **,a	0.91 **,a

Table 10

GOAL 5								GOAL 6				
Gender parity in primary education				Gender parity in secondary education				Educational quality				
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)				SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE		PUPIL/TEACHER RATIO IN PRIMARY EDUCATION[3]		
School year ending in				School year ending in				School year ending in		School year ending in		
1999		2012		1999		2012		1999	2011	1999	2012	
Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	Total (%)			
100	1.01	97 z	1.02 z	97	1.04	101 z	1.03 z	...	...	**12**	9 y	143
95	1.00	96	1.00	78	0.93	86	1.04	98	94	20	11	144
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	22	...	145
109	0.98	106	0.99	123	0.96	130	0.98	98	...	...	12	146
101	1.00	99	1.00	119	1.02	111	0.98	100	98	...	...	147
122	*0.96*	106	0.98	104	1.08	113	1.00	...	...	*13*	12	148
...	...	93	0.99	...	...	95	1.03	...	96	*5*	6	149
106	0.99	103	0.99	109	1.06	131	1.01	...	97	15	13	150
110	1.03	102	1.00	157	1.26	98	0.98	98	96 y	12	10	151
106	0.99	103	1.00	96	0.93	96	0.97	...	...	...	11	152
101	1.00	109	1.00	101	1.01	95	1.00	...	...	19	18	153
103	1.03	98	0.98	93	...	94	1.00	**...**	...	15	14	154
											South and West Asia	
26	0.08	104	0.72	***13***	**-**	54	0.55	...	...	33	44 z	155
...	...	114 *, z	1.06 *, z	46	0.99	54	1.14	...	66 *, x	...	40 *, z	156
75	0.85	112	1.02	27	0.77	74	1.06	82	95	42	24	157
96	*0.84*	113 z	1.02 z	44	0.70	69 z	0.94 z	62	...	35 *	35 *, z	158
102	0.94	106	0.99	78	0.93	86	0.94	*97*	96 *	***25***	...	159
132	1.01	...	...	42	1.08	...	...	...	83	24	11	160
122	0.76	**135**	**1.08**	36	0.66	**67**	**1.05**	59	**55**	39	**26**	161
70 *	*0.68* *	93	0.87	...	...	37	0.74	...	61	*33* **	41	162
107	***0.99***	98	1.00	...	...	99	1.06	***98***	97	***26***	24	163
											Sub-Saharan Africa	
...	...	140 z	0.64 z	13	0.76	32 z	0.65 z	...	32 *, x	...	43 z	164
78	0.64	123	0.89	21	0.45	48 z	0.61 z	*76*	59	53	44	165
103	1.00	...	...	73	1.07	...	...	82	...	27	...	166
44	0.70	85	0.95	10	0.62	26	0.81	61	69	***47***	48	167
57	*0.79*	137	0.99	***10***	...	28	0.73	*54*	44	55	47	168
123	*0.96*	112	0.91	*67* **	...	93	1.19	***89*** **	89 y	29	23	169
81	0.82	111	0.88	26 **	0.84 **	50	0.86	76 **	70	52	46	170
79 *	***0.68*** *	95	0.74	***12*** **	***0.52*** **	18	0.51	...	47	...	80	171
61	0.59	95	0.76	10	0.26	23	0.46	48	38	68	61	172
104	0.85	117	0.91	33	0.81	73	0.96	...	...	35	28 z	173
59	0.96	109	1.07	...	...	54	0.87	...	...	*60*	44	174
77	0.75	94	0.85	24 **	0.54 **	...	...	62	82	*45*	42	175
53	0.91	111	0.88	...	...	43	0.59	...	71	26	35	176
108	*0.82*	91	0.98	33	0.37	...	...	...	72	57	26	177
46	0.84	42	0.84	20	0.70	30	0.80	94	69 x	47	41	178
50	0.61	...	...	13	0.68	...	...	51	37	*67*	54 **	179
143	1.00	165 z	0.97 z	48	0.88	...	...	...	...	***49***	25 z	180
90	0.84	85	1.04	...	...	57 **, y	0.95 **, y	66 **	83	*37*	34	181
81	0.92	**109**	**1.00**	41	0.81	**61** *	**0.91** *	*59*	...	30	**32**	182
54	0.62	91	0.84	13 **	0.35 **	38	...	...	59	47	44	183
76	*0.67*	116 y	0.93 y	*18*	*0.55*	...	...	...	...	*44*	52 y	184
91	0.97	...	...	39	0.96	...	...	...	...	32	...	185
105	1.10	111	0.97	32	1.41	53	1.40	60	64	44	34	186
95	0.75	102 z	0.92 z	31	0.65	45 z	0.82 z	...	...	39	27 z	187
94	0.97	145	0.99	...	...	38	0.95	52	41	47	43	188
137	0.96	141	1.04	38	0.70	34	0.90	36	49	63 **	74 **	189
60	0.72	88	0.88	16	0.54	44 z	0.72 z	65 **	62	62 *	48 z	190
105	1.00	108	0.99	75	0.98	96	1.04	98	97	26	21	191
69	0.74	105	0.91	5	0.63	26	0.89	29	31	61	55	192
115	1.01	109	0.97	57	1.11	...	...	82	84 x	32	41	193
32	0.67	71	0.84	7	0.58	16	0.67	55	69 y	41	39	194
94	0.81	85 **, y	0.92 **, y	23	0.92	44 y	0.89 y	...	79 **, x	41	38 **, y	195
103	0.96	134	1.02	9	0.98	32	1.07	*31*	36	54	59	196
100	0.97	**117**	**0.98**	...	...	**80**	**1.11**	...	66 x	36	**31**	197
65	0.83	84	1.08	15	0.64	41 *, z	0.91 *, z	*63*	61	49	32	198
108	*1.03*	107 z	1.05 z	102	1.04	101 z	1.09 z	96	94 y	15	13 z	199
69	*0.92*	131	0.99	***26***	***0.71*** **	...	...	...	...	***37***	33	200
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	201
113	0.97	102	0.95	87	1.13	102	1.03	57	...	35	30	202
...	...	86 z	0.66 z	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	50 **, z	203
94	0.96	115 z	0.90 z	44	1.00	60 z	0.97 z	65	67 y	33	29 z	204
120	0.75	133	0.92	30	0.40	55 z	...	46	67	41	42	205
128	0.91	110 z	1.02 z	*16*	*0.77*	...	...	*38*	25 y	57	48 z	206
67	1.00	93	1.03	...	...	35	0.88	70	81 x	***46***	46	207
84	0.91	114	0.99	...	...	...	...	66	...	51 **	49 **	208
101	0.97	...	...	43	0.88	...	...	***48***	...	41	...	209

Table 10 (continued)

		GOAL 1		GOAL 2		GOAL 3				GOAL 4			
		Early childhood care and education		Universal primary education		Learning needs of all youth and adults				Improving levels of adult literacy			
		GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER) IN PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION		PRIMARY EDUCATION ADJUSTED NET ENROLMENT RATIO (ANER)[1]		YOUTH LITERACY RATE (15–24)				ADULT LITERACY RATE (15 and over)			
		School year ending in		School year ending in		1995–2004[2]		2005–2012[2]		1995–2004[2]		2005–2012[2]	
		1999	2012	1999	2012								
	Country or territory	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)
		Weighted average		Weighted average		Weighted average				Weighted average			
I	World	33	54 **	84 **	91 **	87	0.93	89	0.94	82	0.89	84	0.91
II	Countries in transition	46	67	92 **	96	100	1.00	100	1.00	99	0.99	100	1.00
III	Developed countries	75	88	98	96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
IV	Developing countries	27	49 **	82 **	90 **	85	0.91	88	0.93	77	0.84	80	0.87
V	Arab States	15	25 **	80	89 **	83	0.87	90	0.93	67	0.73	78	0.81
VI	Central and Eastern Europe	51	74	93 **	96	99	0.99	100	1.00	97	0.97	99	0.99
VII	Central Asia	19	33 **	95 **	95 **	100	1.00	100	1.00	99	0.99	100	1.00
VIII	East Asia and the Pacific	38	68	95 **	96 **	98	0.99	99	1.00	92	0.93	95	0.96
IX	East Asia	38	67	95 **	96 **	98	0.99	99	1.00	92	0.93	95	0.96
X	Pacific	67 **	93 **	88	94	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
XI	Latin America and the Caribbean	54	74	93	94 **	96	1.01	98	1.00	90	0.98	92	0.99
XII	Caribbean	...	...	74 **	71 **	87	1.00	81	0.98	72	0.96	69	0.96
XIII	Latin America	55	76	94	95 **	97	1.01	98	1.00	90	0.98	93	0.99
XIV	North America and Western Europe	76	89	98	96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
XV	South and West Asia	22	55 **	78 **	94 **	74	0.81	80	0.86	59	0.66	63	0.70
XVI	Sub-Saharan Africa	11 **	20 **	59	79 **	68	0.82	69	0.84	57	0.71	59	0.75
XVII	Countries with low income	11 **	19 **	60 **	83 **	68	0.85	72	0.90	58	0.75	61	0.79
XVIII	Countries with middle income	31	57 **	87 **	92 **	88	0.92	91	0.94	80	0.85	83	0.89
XIX	Lower middle	23	50 **	80 **	90 **	79	0.85	83	0.88	68	0.76	71	0.78
XX	Upper middle	40	69	94 **	95 **	97	0.99	99	1.00	90	0.92	94	0.96
XXI	Countries with high income	72	86	96	96	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Sources: UIS database. Enrolment ratios are based on the United Nations Population Division estimates, revision 2012 (United Nations, 2013), median variant.

Note: The statistical tables still include data for Netherlands Antilles in Latin America and the Caribbean, and for Sudan (pre-secession) in the Arab States, for reference purposes only, since data for the new entities, Curaçao, Saint-Martin, Sint Maarten, Sudan and South Sudan, are just becoming available. The country groupings by level of income are as defined by the World Bank but include EFA countries only. They are based on the list of countries by income group as revised in July 2013.

1. The primary adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER) measures the proportion of primary school age children who are enrolled in either primary or secondary school.

2. Data are for the most recent year available during the period specified. See the web version of the introduction to the statistical tables for a broader explanation of national literacy definitions, assessment methods, and sources and years of data. For countries indicated with (*), national observed literacy data are used. For all others, UIS literacy estimates are used. The estimates were generated using the UIS Global Age-specific Literacy Projections model. Those in the most recent period are for 2012 and are based on the most recent observed data available for each country.

3. Based on headcounts of pupils and teachers.

4. Enrolment ratios for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to inconsistencies in the population data.

5. National population data were used to calculate enrolment ratios.

6. Enrolment and population data used to calculate enrolment ratios exclude Transnistria.

7. In the Russian Federation two education structures existed in the past, both starting at age 7. The most common or widespread one lasted three years and was used to calculate indicators; the second one, in which about one-third of primary pupils were enrolled, had four grades. Since 2004, the four-grade structure has been extended all over the country.

8. Enrolment and population data exclude the Nagorno-Karabakh region.

9. Children enter primary school at age 6 or 7. Since 7 is the most common entrance age, enrolment ratios were calculated using the 7–11 age group for both enrolment and population.

10. Enrolment ratios for one or both of the two school years were not calculated due to lack of United Nations population data by age.

11. Data include French overseas departments and territories (DOM-TOM).

12. Due to the continuing discrepancy in enrolment by single age, the NER is estimated using the age distribution from the 2011 MICS.

Data in bold are for the school year ending in 2013, those in italic are for 2000 and those in bold italic are for 2001.

(z) Data are for the school year ending in 2011.

(y) Data are for the school year ending in 2010.

(x) Data are for the school year ending in 2009.

(*) National estimate.

(**) For country level data: UIS partial estimate; for regional and other country-grouping weighted averages: partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 33% and 60% of population for the region or other country grouping).

(...) No data available.

Table 10

GOAL 5								GOAL 6				
Gender parity in primary education				Gender parity in secondary education				Educational quality				
GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)				GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO (GER)				SURVIVAL RATE TO LAST GRADE		PUPIL/TEACHER RATIO IN PRIMARY EDUCATION[3]		
School year ending in				School year ending in				School year ending in		School year ending in		
1999		2012		1999		2012		1999	2011	1999	2012	
Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	GPI (F/M)	Total (%)	Total (%)			
Weighted average				Weighted average				Weighted average		Weighted average		
97	0.92	108	0.97	59	0.91 **	73	0.97	75 **	75 **	26	24 **	I
101	0.99	99	1.00	90	1.01 **	96	0.98	96	97	19	17	II
102	1.01	101	0.99	99	1.02	101	0.99	93	94	16	14	III
97	0.91	109 **	0.97 **	51	0.88 **	69 **	0.96 **	72 **	72 **	29	26 **	IV
91	0.87	104	0.93	61	0.87	74	0.95	82	83	23	19 **	V
102	0.96	100	1.00	88	0.96 **	93	0.97	96	95	18 **	17	VI
97	1.00	99 **	0.99 **	85	1.00	99 **	0.98 **	97	98 **	21	16 **	VII
104 **	0.99 **	117	0.99	61	0.94 **	84	1.01	85 **	92 **	24 **	19	VIII
104 **	0.99 **	117	0.99	60	0.94 **	84	1.01	86 **	93 **	24 **	19	IX
94	0.97	108	0.97	109	0.99	102	0.95	...	...	20	...	X
120	0.96	109	0.97	80 **	1.07 **	88	1.07	77	77 **	26	21	XI
109 **	0.98 **	107 **	0.99 **	50 **	0.99 **	60 **	1.06 **	43 **	...	29 **	...	XII
120	0.96	109	0.97	81 **	1.07 **	89	1.07	78	79 **	26	21	XIII
103	1.01	101	0.99	99	1.02	101	0.99	92	94	15	14	XIV
91	0.83	110 **	1.00 **	44	0.75	64 **	0.93 **	64	64 **	36	35 **	XV
80	0.85	102	0.92	25	0.82	41 **	0.84 **	58	58	42	42	XVI
78	0.86	108	0.95	29	0.82	44	0.89	56 **	57	43	42 **	XVII
100	0.92	110 **	0.97 **	56	0.89 **	74 **	0.98 **	76 **	77 **	27	24 **	XVIII
95	0.86	106 **	0.98 **	46	0.80	65 **	0.94 **	69	70 **	31	30 **	XIX
107 **	0.98 **	117	0.96	67	0.97 **	88	1.02	85 **	88 **	24 **	19	XX
102	1.00	101	1.00	98	1.01 **	100	0.99	93	95	16	15	XXI

Credit: BRAC/ShehzadNoorani

Aid tables

Introduction[1]

The data on aid used in this Report are derived from the OECD International Development Statistics (IDS) databases, which record information provided annually by all member countries of the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC), as well as a growing number of donors that are not members of the committee. The IDS databases are the DAC databases, which provided project- and activity-level data. In this Report, total figures for net official development assistance (ODA) comes from the DAC database while those for gross ODA, sector-allocable aid and aid to education come from the Creditor Reporter System (CRS). Both are available at www.oecd.org/dac/stats/idsonline.

Official development assistance is public funds provided to developing countries to promote their economic and social development. It is concessional; that is, it takes the form either of a grant or a loan carrying a lower rate of interest than is available on the market and, usually, a longer repayment period.

A more extensive version of the aid tables including ODA per recipient is available on the Report's website, www.efareport.unesco.org.

Aid recipients and donors

Developing countries are those in Part 1 of the DAC List of Aid Recipients: all low and middle income countries except twelve Central and Eastern European countries and a few more advanced developing countries.

Bilateral donors are countries that provide development assistance directly to recipient countries. Most are members of the DAC, a forum of major bilateral donors established to promote aid and its effectiveness. Bilateral donors also contribute substantially to the financing of multilateral donors through contributions recorded as multilateral ODA.

Multilateral donors are international institutions with government membership that conduct all or a significant part of their activities in favour of developing countries. They include multilateral development banks (e.g. the World Bank and Inter-American Development Bank), United Nations agencies and regional groupings (e.g. the European Commission). The development banks also make non-concessional loans to several middle and higher income countries; these are not counted as part of ODA.

Types of aid

Total ODA: bilateral and multilateral aid for all sectors, as well as aid that is not allocable by sector, such as general budget support and debt relief. In Table 1, total ODA from bilateral donors is bilateral aid only, while aid as a percentage of gross national income (GNI) is bilateral and multilateral ODA.

Sector-allocable ODA: aid allocated to a specific sector, such as education or health. It does not include aid for general development purposes (e.g. general budget support), balance-of-payments support, debt relief or emergency assistance.

Debt relief: includes debt forgiveness, i.e. the extinction of a loan by agreement between the creditor (donor) and debtor (aid recipient), and other action on debt, including debt swaps, buy-backs and refinancing. In the DAC database, debt forgiveness is reported as a grant and therefore counts as ODA.

Country programmable aid: defined by subtracting from total gross ODA aid that:

- is unpredictable by nature (humanitarian aid and debt relief);
- entails no cross-border flows (administrative costs, imputed student costs, and costs related to promotion of development awareness, research in donor countries);

1. A full set of statistics and indicators related to the introduction is posted in Excel format on the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* website at www.efareport.unesco.org.

- is not part of cooperation agreements between governments (food aid and aid from local governments);
- is not country programmable by donor (core funding of NGOs).

Country programmable aid is not included in the aid tables, but is used in a few places in the Report.

Education aid

Direct aid to education: aid to education reported in the CRS database as direct allocations to the education sector. It is the total of direct aid, as defined by the DAC, to:

- basic education, defined by the DAC as covering primary education, basic life skills for youth and adults, and early childhood education;
- secondary education, both general secondary education and vocational training;
- post-secondary education, including advanced technical and managerial training;
- education, 'level unspecified', which refers to any activity that cannot be attributed solely to the development of a particular level of education, such as education research and teacher training. General education programme support is often reported within this subcategory.

Total aid to education: direct aid to education plus 20% of general budget support (aid provided to governments without being earmarked for specific projects or sectors) to represent the estimated 15% to 25% of budget support that typically benefits the education sector.

Total aid to basic education: direct aid to basic education, plus 10% of general budget support, plus 50% of education, 'level unspecified'.

Commitments and disbursements: A commitment is a firm obligation by a donor, expressed in writing and backed by necessary funds to provide specified assistance to a country or a multilateral organization. Disbursements record the actual international transfer of financial resources or of goods and services. Starting with the 2011 Report, disbursement figures are used in the text and tables, while in previous years commitments were reported. As the aid committed in a given year can be disbursed later, sometimes over several years, the annual aid figures based on commitments cannot be directly compared to disbursements. Reliable figures on aid disbursements have only been available since 2002, which consequently is used as the base year.

Current and constant prices: aid figures in the DAC databases are expressed in US dollars. When comparing aid figures between years, adjustment is required to compensate for inflation and changes in exchange rates. Such adjustments result in aid being expressed in constant dollars, i.e. in dollars fixed at the value they held in a given reference year, including their external value in terms of other currencies. This Report presents most aid data in constant 2012 US dollars.

Source: OECD-DAC, 2014.

Table 1
Bilateral and multilateral ODA

Country or territory	TOTAL ODA Constant 2012 US$ millions				ODA AS % OF GNI				SECTOR-ALLOCABLE ODA Constant 2012 US$ millions			DEBT RELIEF AND OTHER ACTIONS RELATING TO DEBT Constant 2012 US$ millions		
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2013*	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2013*	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
Australia	2 112	4 295	4 561	4 434	0.26	0.34	0.36	0.34	1 448	3 469	3 767	14	13	12
Austria	447	461	536	512	0.23	0.27	0.28	0.28	208	300	293	27	41	106
Belgium	1 599	1 639	1 433	1 254	0.52	0.54	0.47	0.45	711	1 134	839	712	292	278
Canada	2 677	4 138	4 053	3 610	0.26	0.32	0.32	0.27	1 142	2 636	2 677	7	4	198
Czech Republic**	94	71	66	56	0.09	0.12	0.12	0.11	…	49	44	…	-	-
Denmark	1 616	2 030	1 922	2 047	0.90	0.85	0.83	0.85	264	1 464	1 380	0	1	1
Finland	402	798	799	780	0.35	0.53	0.53	0.55	275	518	518	0	-	-
France	6 379	7 973	7 928	6 474	0.39	0.46	0.45	0.41	2 944	5 695	5 968	3 375	1 284	1 570
Germany	5 051	8 195	8 584	8 706	0.28	0.39	0.37	0.38	3 816	8 025	8 137	1 743	426	849
Greece	248	141	107	96	0.21	0.15	0.13	0.13	215	105	77	-	-	-
Iceland**	10	19	21	28	0.16	0.21	0.22	0.26	…	15	18	…	0	-
Ireland	400	562	536	525	0.40	0.51	0.47	0.45	283	377	333	-	-	0
Italy	1 542	1 601	624	642	0.19	0.20	0.14	0.16	201	461	302	909	750	7
Japan	8 706	6 874	6 402	10 834	0.22	0.18	0.17	0.23	4 396	11 758	12 152	817	1 432	5
Kuwait**	91	141	149	-	…	…	…	…	…	477	441	…	-	-
Luxembourg	232	266	277	274	0.82	0.97	1.00	1.00	…	170	186	…	-	-
Netherlands	3 745	4 061	3 858	3 440	0.81	0.75	0.71	0.67	1 648	3 077	2 850	444	113	120
New Zealand	215	335	362	334	0.23	0.28	0.28	0.26	140	232	263	-	-	-
Norway	2 685	3 520	3 523	4 279	0.91	0.96	0.93	1.07	1 346	2 383	2 598	15	22	21
Portugal	268	440	397	283	0.25	0.31	0.28	0.23	234	178	177	-	5	7
Republic of Korea	297	983	1 183	1 247	0.06	0.12	0.14	0.13	…	913	1 128	…	-	-
Spain	1 633	2 109	985	744	0.25	0.29	0.16	0.16	955	1 745	634	168	35	76
Sweden	2 292	3 516	3 638	3 753	0.82	1.02	0.97	1.02	1 084	1 995	2 232	116	180	-
Switzerland	1 440	2 248	2 457	2 491	0.34	0.46	0.47	0.47	763	1 054	1 179	29	76	15
United Arab Emirates**	1 040	668	1 006	5 059	…	0.22	0.27	1.25	…	387	595	…	-	-
United Kingdom	4 669	8 516	8 713	10 635	0.33	0.56	0.56	0.72	1 919	6 692	7 181	466	183	112
United States	15 396	27 688	25 471	26 064	0.14	0.20	0.19	0.19	8 595	19 612	18 312	1 822	1 669	64
Total bilaterals**	**68 931**	**100 230**	**93 868**	**102 424**	**0.24**	**0.31**	**0.29**	**0.30**	**32 586**	**74 919**	**74 283**	**10 664**	**6 523**	**3 441**
African Development Fund	789	2 095	1 788	…	…	…	…	…	718	1 666	1 550	157	0	552
Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development	…	294	303	…	…	…	…	…	…	805	851	…	-	-
Asian Development Bank Special Funds	1 238	842	716	…	…	…	…	…	…	1 802	1 823	…	1	-
Asian Development Fund***	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
EU Institutions	8 341	15 964	17 173	…	…	…	…	…	1 455	12 641	14 068	4	71	64
World Bank (IDA)	8 348	6 828	6 840	…	…	…	…	…	10 102	10 187	9 735	531	773	2 203
Inter-American Development Bank Special Fund	321	1 461	1 414	…	…	…	…	…	…	1 051	997	…	-	-
International Monetary Fund (Concessional Trust Funds)	939	754	769	…	…	…	…	…	-	-	-	491	-	68
OPEC Fund for International Development	103	136	138	…	…	…	…	…	…	282	301	…	-	10
UNDP	406	478	483	…	…	…	…	…	…	443	336	…	-	-
UNICEF	849	1 063	1 143	…	…	…	…	…	512	741	648	-	-	-
UN Peacebuilding Fund	-	60	60	…	…	…	…	…	-	61	66	-	-	-
UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees	584	593	667	…	…	…	…	…	…	448	493	…	-	-
World Food Programme	478	329	354	…	…	…	…	…	…	66	73	…	-	-
Total multilaterals****	**25 776**	**37 248**	**39 197**	**…**	**…**	**…**	**…**	**…**	**13 654**	**35 269**	**37 051**	**1 315**	**960**	**3 004**
Total	**94 707**	**137 478**	**133 065**	**…**	**…**	**…**	**…**	**…**	**46 240**	**110 188**	**111 335**	**11 978**	**7 483**	**6 445**

Source: OECD-DAC, DAC and CRS databases (2014).

*Preliminary data.

**Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates are not part of the DAC but have been included in its Creditor Reporting System (CRS) database. Iceland became a member of the DAC in 2012 and now reports to the CRS. The Czech Republic became a member of the DAC in 2013

***The Asian Development Fund is a donor to education but does not report to the OECD on disbursements.

**** The total includes ODA from other bilaterals and multilaterals not listed above.

(…) indicates that data are not available, (-) represents a nil value

Total ODA data represent net disbursements. Sector-allocable ODA and debt relief and other actions relating to debt represent gross disbursements

Total ODA from DAC donors is bilateral ODA only, while ODA as % of GNI includes multilateral ODA.

Table 2
Bilateral and multilateral aid to education

Country or territory	TOTAL AID TO EDUCATION			TOTAL AID TO BASIC EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO BASIC EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO SECONDARY EDUCATION		
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions		
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
Australia	222	435	566	72	232	322	219	435	564	48	128	152	34	31	26
Austria	66	127	154	5	6	3	66	126	153	3	1	1	3	12	20
Belgium	148	207	202	28	29	28	143	206	202	15	19	18	18	24	26
Canada	276	343	322	115	204	190	273	329	313	80	138	127	12	27	40
Czech Republic*	…	7	8	…	1	1	…	7	8	…	1	1	…	0	2
Denmark	26	197	200	15	109	94	25	184	186	5	62	24	0	10	6
Finland	39	58	58	22	28	29	38	51	53	8	8	8	2	2	3
France	1 400	1 557	1 547	179	282	263	1 356	1 432	1 453	24	157	136	36	108	138
Germany	790	1 721	1 730	126	345	311	790	1 693	1 719	97	206	189	68	100	115
Greece	58	69	67	29	4	3	58	69	67	23	-	-	20	-	-
Iceland*	…	1	2	…	1	1	…	1	2	…	1	1	…	-	0
Ireland	69	67	48	39	42	26	62	61	44	15	24	13	1	3	4
Italy	45	78	58	17	31	24	43	77	57	1	15	13	2	11	10
Japan	646	944	909	183	247	295	578	931	876	104	81	178	47	90	130
Kuwait*	…	20	21	…	1	4	…	20	21	…	-	-	…	-	-
Luxembourg	…	30	42	…	7	9	…	30	42	…	4	5	…	20	28
Netherlands	316	401	273	208	201	118	286	384	266	174	140	95	1	13	22
New Zealand	91	60	74	26	23	28	89	57	70	11	19	24	11	2	3
Norway	216	298	300	126	214	217	201	267	278	98	178	182	11	9	8
Portugal	70	57	53	11	13	10	70	56	52	7	1	0	7	4	9
Republic of Korea	…	182	210	…	32	42	…	182	210	…	14	13	…	62	69
Spain	191	253	109	63	94	44	191	248	107	42	30	18	44	37	20
Sweden	112	171	113	73	132	73	93	143	89	45	107	50	3	6	7
Switzerland	72	75	84	34	27	38	65	69	79	25	14	26	29	14	19
United Arab Emirates*	…	71	110	…	35	55	…	32	26	…	-	2	…	1	1
United Kingdom	281	1 139	1 071	194	711	649	173	1 049	1 002	115	422	385	7	62	55
United States	414	756	956	261	580	769	232	755	944	160	523	732	0	20	39
Total bilaterals	**5 549**	**9 323**	**9 288**	**1 826**	**3 632**	**3 647**	**5 050**	**8 895**	**8 882**	**1 101**	**2 293**	**2 390**	**357**	**669**	**799**
African Development Bank	…	2	0	…	0	0	…	2	0	…	-	-	…	-	-
African Development Fund	98	175	170	53	88	56	75	92	103	11	-	-	2	-	41
Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development	…	11	7	…	0	1	…	11	7	…	-	-	…	9	6
Asian Development Bank Special Funds	…	254	224	…	125	103	…	254	224	…	82	73	…	84	84
Asian Development Fund**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
BADEA	…	3	8	…	0	2	…	3	8	…	0	0	…	-	-
EU Institutions	209	1 036	1 101	100	440	424	74	843	893	24	146	142	13	101	104
World Bank (IDA)	1 156	1 382	952	777	799	377	1 156	1 382	950	648	506	241	105	170	227
Inter-American Development Bank Special Fund	…	52	39	…	27	34	…	52	39	…	17	30	…	15	1
International Monetary Fund (Concessional Trust Funds)	423	284	288	211	142	144	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
OPEC Fund for International Development	…	32	14	…	7	7	…	32	14	…	6	6	…	12	3
UNDP	…	3	-	…	3	-	…	3	-	…	2	-	…	1	-
UNICEF	75	80	69	75	57	50	75	80	69	75	33	31	0	0	0
UN Peacebuilding Fund	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	-	-	-	0	0
UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees	…	349	379	…	349	190	…	349	379	…	349	-	…	-	-
World Food Programme	…	40	46	…	40	46	…	40	46	-	40	46	…	-	-
Total multilaterals	**1 961**	**3 704**	**3 297**	**1 215**	**2 075**	**1 432**	**1 381**	**3 143**	**2 734**	**758**	**1 180**	**569**	**121**	**391**	**466**
Total	**7 510**	**13 027**	**12 584**	**3 041**	**5 707**	**5 079**	**6 431**	**12 037**	**11 616**	**1 859**	**3 473**	**2 959**	**478**	**1 060**	**1 265**

Source: OECD-DAC, CRS database (2014).

*Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates are not part of the DAC but report their aid disbursements to the Creditor Reporting System (CRS) database. Totals include their aid contributions. Iceland became a member of the DAC in 2012 and now reports to the CRS. The Czech Republic became a member of the DAC in 2013.

** The Asian Development Fund is a donor to education but does not report to the OECD on disbursements.

Aid from France, the United Kingdom and New Zealand includes funds disbursed to overseas territories (see Table 3)

(. . .) indicates that data are not available, (-) represents a nil value

All data represent gross disbursements. The share of ODA disbursed to the education sector is as a percentage of gross ODA disbursements as reported under the CRS statistical tables. Total ODA figures in Table 1 represent net disbursements as reported under the DAC statistical tables.

Table 2

	DIRECT AID TO POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION, LEVEL UNSPECIFIED			SHARE OF EDUCATION IN TOTAL ODA (%)			SHARE OF DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION IN TOTAL SECTOR-ALLOCABLE ODA (%)			SHARE OF BASIC EDUCATION IN TOTAL AID TO EDUCATION (%)		
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions											
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
	93	67	48	43	209	339	11	10	12	15	13	15	32	53	57
	55	103	129	5	9	4	14	27	28	32	42	52	8	5	2
	88	144	138	22	19	20	9	11	14	20	18	24	19	14	14
	114	46	28	67	118	117	21	9	8	24	12	12	42	59	59
	…	5	5	…	1	1	…	10	12	…	14	18	…	17	14
	1	31	30	18	80	125	8	9	10	9	13	13	56	55	47
	2	9	6	26	32	37	10	7	7	14	10	10	56	48	50
	1 030	1 042	1 019	265	125	160	19	17	16	46	25	24	13	18	17
	568	1 137	1 181	57	250	234	12	18	17	21	21	21	16	20	18
	4	60	61	10	9	6	23	49	63	27	66	88	49	6	5
	…	-	-	…	0	0	…	7	7	…	8	8	…	95	87
	4	3	5	42	30	21	18	12	9	22	16	13	57	63	54
	10	19	13	30	32	21	3	4	8	21	17	19	38	40	42
	338	441	367	89	319	201	6	6	6	13	8	7	28	26	32
	…	18	14	…	2	7	…	4	5	…	4	5	…	6	17
	…	0	1	-	5	7	…	11	15	…	17	22	…	23	22
	72	127	109	39	105	40	7	9	7	17	12	9	66	50	43
	40	30	39	28	5	4	54	18	20	64	24	27	28	39	38
	51	39	40	41	41	48	9	8	8	15	11	11	58	72	72
	48	28	25	8	22	19	28	12	12	30	31	29	15	22	19
	…	69	71	-	37	58	…	18	17	…	20	19	…	18	20
	63	58	17	43	123	52	10	11	10	20	14	17	33	37	41
	8	9	9	37	21	23	5	5	3	9	7	4	65	77	65
	1	22	15	10	19	18	5	3	3	8	7	7	47	36	46
	…	-	2	…	31	22	…	10	10	…	8	4	…	50	50
	1	76	102	49	489	459	8	13	12	9	16	14	69	62	61
	51	98	111	21	115	63	2	3	4	3	4	5	63	77	80
	2 642	**3 684**	**3 584**	**950**	**2 250**	**2 109**	**8**	**9**	**9**	**15**	**12**	**12**	**33**	**39**	**39**
	…	1	-	…	1	0	…	2	0	…	18	1	…	19	50
	0	-	17	62	92	45	10	8	7	10	6	7	54	50	33
	…	2	0	…	0	1	…	1	1	…	1	1	…	1	10
	…	2	7	…	86	59	…	13	12	…	14	12	…	49	46
	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	…	3	4	…	1	3	…	4	6	…	4	6	…	13	23
	21	202	291	16	394	356	9	6	6	5	7	6	48	42	39
	145	120	212	258	586	271	11	12	8	11	14	10	67	58	40
	…	1	1	…	19	7	…	3	2	…	5	4	…	52	85
	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	20	19	…	…	…	50	50	50
	…	13	2	…	2	3	…	11	4	…	11	5	…	21	53
	…	-	-	…	0	-	…	1	-	…	1	-	…	75	…
	0	-	-	-	46	38	9	7	6	15	11	11	99	71	73
	-	-	-	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	0	0	-	31	1
	…	-	-	…	-	379	…	59	57	…	78	77	…	100	50
	…	-	-	…	-	0	…	12	13	…	60	63	…	100	100
	166	**343**	**535**	**336**	**1 229**	**1 163**	**11**	**8**	**7**	**10**	**9**	**7**	**62**	**56**	**43**
	2 809	**4 027**	**4 120**	**1 285**	**3 478**	**3 272**	**9**	**9**	**8**	**14**	**11**	**10**	**40**	**44**	**40**

Table 3
Recipients of aid to education

Country or territory	TOTAL AID TO EDUCATION			TOTAL AID TO BASIC EDUCATION			TOTAL AID TO BASIC EDUCATION PER PRIMARY SCHOOL-AGE CHILD			DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO BASIC EDUCATION		
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions		
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
Arab States	**1 003**	**1 919**	**2 048**	**216**	**860**	**686**	**6**	**21**	**17**	**864**	**1 828**	**1 900**	**109**	**645**	**300**
Unallocated within the region	*4*	*59*	*133*	*3*	*2*	*1*	…	…	…	*4*	*59*	*133*	*2*	*1*	*1*
Algeria	131	136	131	1	4	3	0	1	1	131	136	131	0	2	1
Bahrain	0	-	-	0	-	-	…	…	…	0	-	-	-	-	-
Djibouti	30	27	27	8	11	14	63	121	151	27	20	17	5	5	7
Egypt	103	112	136	55	39	43	7	4	5	85	112	136	44	29	34
Iraq	8	51	73	1	15	31	0	3	6	8	51	73	1	6	28
Jordan	130	232	289	58	158	160	79	188	185	20	193	233	0	130	80
Lebanon	39	116	149	1	55	58	3	125	136	39	116	141	1	51	29
Libya	-	9	10	-	1	3	-	2	5	-	9	10	-	0	3
Mauritania	35	29	28	13	8	5	29	14	9	30	22	21	8	3	1
Morocco	277	373	355	17	120	88	…	…	…	277	370	354	6	57	32
Oman	0	-	-	0	-	-	0	-	-	0	-	-	0	-	-
Palestine	50	397	358	22	314	180	…	…	…	50	379	325	15	264	36
Saudi Arabia	3	-	-	0	-	-	0	…	…	3	-	-	-	-	-
Sudan*	21	32	28	10	17	10	…	…	…	17	32	28	7	13	4
Syrian Arab Republic	31	108	95	2	41	18	1	20	9	31	108	95	1	39	1
Tunisia	97	165	148	2	29	18	…	…	…	97	147	132	1	7	2
Yemen	44	74	89	23	45	52	7	12	14	43	74	70	17	38	41
Central and Eastern Europe	**290**	**500**	**519**	**86**	**70**	**71**	**8**	**6**	**6**	**253**	**477**	**502**	**41**	**20**	**25**
Unallocated within the region	*10*	*64*	*51*	*2*	*5*	*7*	…	…	…	*10*	*64*	*51*	*0*	*1*	*1*
Albania	75	69	74	36	9	9	139	…	…	73	69	74	24	6	3
Belarus	-	17	23	-	1	3	-	3	8	-	17	23	-	0	1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	33	33	37	12	4	5	…	…	…	33	33	37	7	2	3
Croatia	8	-	-	0	-	-	1	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	-
Montenegro	-	5	5	-	1	1	-	26	22	-	5	5	-	0	1
Republic of Moldova	9	40	34	2	13	10	9	87	70	7	16	17	0	0	1
Serbia	35	61	60	10	17	10	29	55	32	32	61	60	4	4	4
TFYR Macedonia	12	15	16	4	5	5	34	44	39	9	15	16	2	4	3
Turkey	97	124	139	17	12	13	3	2	2	72	124	139	3	1	2
Ukraine	-	73	78	-	4	10	-	3	6	-	73	78	-	1	6
Central Asia	**126**	**333**	**348**	**42**	**99**	**99**	**6**	**15**	**17**	**88**	**301**	**320**	**17**	**48**	**44**
Unallocated within the region	*-*	*23*	*22*	*-*	*4*	*4*	…	…	…	*-*	*23*	*22*	*-*	*3*	*2*
Armenia	17	49	42	7	16	9	43	…	…	8	26	32	1	2	2
Azerbaijan	12	19	19	4	5	5	7	10	10	6	19	19	1	0	2
Georgia	25	42	45	6	12	14	23	43	51	19	42	45	3	10	5
Kazakhstan	6	20	21	1	2	2	1	3	2	6	20	21	1	0	0
Kyrgyzstan	12	41	37	5	14	12	10	35	33	5	35	31	0	9	8
Mongolia	31	60	80	11	21	27	47	98	122	28	60	76	8	7	9
Tajikistan	9	23	30	5	12	17	6	18	25	2	19	22	1	8	12
Turkmenistan	1	3	4	0	1	1	1	3	5	1	3	4	0	0	1
Uzbekistan	13	54	47	2	12	6	1	6	3	12	54	47	1	8	2
East Asia and the Pacific	**1 125**	**1 998**	**2 008**	**249**	**540**	**644**	**1**	**4**	**5**	**1 039**	**1 978**	**1 955**	**126**	**267**	**310**
Unallocated within the region	*15*	*33*	*24*	*3*	*10*	*3*	…	…	…	*15*	*33*	*24*	*3*	*9*	*1*
Cambodia	50	75	72	19	31	27	9	18	15	41	75	72	7	16	15
China	396	738	543	17	26	29	0	0	0	395	738	543	10	4	4
Cook Islands	3	4	5	1	3	3	531	1 452	1 984	3	4	5	0	3	3
DPR Korea	2	3	4	0	1	2	0	0	1	2	3	4	0	0	2
Fiji	11	26	24	3	9	5	30	91	54	11	26	24	2	3	1
Indonesia	158	352	410	50	158	172	2	6	6	150	352	410	33	54	29
Kiribati	11	13	15	4	7	8	263	568	653	11	13	15	0	7	8
Lao PDR	32	54	64	9	29	28	11	40	38	26	53	63	5	25	21
Malaysia	18	39	38	1	3	3	0	…	…	18	39	38	0	0	0
Marshall Islands	12	2	28	6	1	24	779	127	2 828	1	2	22	0	0	20
Micronesia, F.S.	24	1	48	11	0	45	677	30	2 956	2	1	43	0	0	42
Myanmar	12	40	64	6	24	45	1	5	10	12	40	64	5	22	44
Nauru	0	4	5	0	2	1	15	1 309	714	0	4	5	-	0	-
Niue	5	2	5	2	1	3	13 168	3 824	20 259	4	1	3	0	-	2
Palau	4	1	1	2	1	0	1 093	506	341	1	1	1	0	0	0
Papua New Guinea	98	100	103	44	54	46	52	51	36	97	100	103	27	38	3
Philippines	40	74	132	9	41	78	1	3	6	38	74	112	6	19	40
Samoa	13	19	25	5	5	10	161	195	356	13	19	24	2	4	7
Solomon Islands	8	23	30	2	14	11	113	273	346	7	21	29	0	12	9
Thailand	33	35	46	2	5	6	0	1	1	33	35	46	0	1	2
Timor-Leste	20	43	35	5	20	12	27	102	62	16	43	35	2	4	2
Tonga	8	12	13	2	6	6	129	388	406	8	11	12	1	5	6
Tuvalu	3	3	4	1	1	1	646	633	970	3	2	3	0	0	0
Vanuatu	17	17	22	3	6	11	107	164	310	17	17	22	0	3	10
Viet Nam	133	285	253	41	84	65	4	12	10	117	270	235	21	36	36

Table 3

	DIRECT AID TO SECONDARY EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION, LEVEL UNSPECIFIED			SHARE OF EDUCATION IN TOTAL ODA (%)			SHARE OF DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION IN TOTAL ODA (%)			SHARE OF BASIC EDUCATION IN TOTAL AID TO EDUCATION (%)		
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions											
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
	62	**109**	**161**	**617**	**737**	**816**	**75**	**337**	**623**	**13**	**14**	**13**	**11**	**13**	**12**	**22**	**45**	**33**
	0	*3*	*2*	*1*	*53*	*129*	*1*	*2*	*1*	4	9	23	4	9	23	65	3	1
	1	3	3	127	127	123	2	4	4	51	47	52	51	47	52	1	3	2
	0	-	-	0	-	-	0	-	-	52	-	-	52	-	-	1	-	-
	6	1	1	14	9	5	2	5	3	31	18	16	28	13	10	26	41	51
	12	12	13	26	52	71	3	19	18	6	10	6	5	10	6	53	35	32
	1	6	20	5	20	18	0	18	7	1	3	6	1	3	6	18	30	43
	3	6	14	12	39	34	6	18	105	13	20	18	2	16	14	44	68	55
	2	17	16	35	40	45	2	9	51	29	21	17	29	21	16	4	47	39
	-	0	-	-	6	6	-	2	2	-	2	7	-	2	7	-	14	33
	2	1	7	14	15	11	6	2	3	9	7	6	8	6	5	39	27	19
	4	31	53	245	158	158	22	124	111	35	21	18	35	21	18	6	32	25
	0	-	-	0	-	-	0	-	-	9	-	-	9	-	-	24	-	-
	8	11	10	15	22	25	12	82	254	8	17	18	8	16	17	43	79	50
	1	-	-	2	-	-	0	-	-	48	-	-	48	-	-	5	-	-
	1	4	4	6	8	9	4	7	11	5	3	3	4	3	3	50	52	34
	0	5	0	28	60	59	2	4	36	25	29	15	25	29	15	5	38	19
	16	3	14	79	110	100	2	27	15	22	14	11	22	12	10	2	18	12
	6	5	4	8	17	21	12	14	4	13	13	11	12	13	9	53	61	59
	31	**31**	**30**	**127**	**350**	**371**	**54**	**76**	**75**	**6**	**6**	**6**	**5**	**6**	**6**	**30**	**14**	**14**
	0	*2*	*2*	*6*	*54*	*36*	*3*	*7*	*11*	2	7	6	2	7	6	17	7	14
	20	6	7	7	51	53	21	6	11	19	18	19	18	18	19	48	13	12
	-	0	0	-	15	18	-	2	3	-	17	26	-	17	26	-	6	12
	2	3	3	14	24	28	10	4	4	6	6	6	6	6	6	36	11	13
	0	-	-	8	-	-	0	-	-	6	-	-	6	-	-	2	-	-
	-	2	1	-	1	2	-	2	1	0	4	4	-	4	4	-	21	17
	0	1	2	5	13	13	2	1	0	6	9	7	5	4	4	23	32	30
	3	7	6	17	25	38	9	24	13	2	5	5	2	5	5	28	27	17
	1	0	0	4	9	10	2	2	3	4	7	9	3	7	9	36	36	29
	3	8	8	62	93	107	4	22	22	18	4	4	14	4	4	18	10	9
	-	1	1	-	65	64	-	6	8	-	10	11	-	10	11	-	5	12
	8	**64**	**62**	**51**	**120**	**132**	**12**	**68**	**83**	**6**	**11**	**10**	**4**	**10**	**10**	**33**	**30**	**28**
	-	*3*	*4*	-	*15*	*12*	-	*3*	*4*	-	14	12	-	14	12	-	18	19
	0	9	6	4	10	19	3	5	6	5	12	13	2	6	10	39	32	22
	0	0	0	4	9	11	1	9	6	3	6	5	2	6	5	36	26	27
	3	8	1	13	21	21	1	3	18	7	7	6	6	7	6	25	27	31
	0	2	2	4	14	14	1	4	4	2	10	17	2	10	17	23	12	11
	1	12	9	2	11	11	1	3	3	5	9	10	2	8	8	39	33	34
	0	4	14	17	21	21	2	28	32	13	16	16	12	16	15	36	36	34
	0	3	5	0	3	4	0	4	1	5	7	7	1	6	5	52	55	57
	0	-	0	0	2	2	0	1	1	3	10	15	3	10	15	36	30	34
	3	24	21	7	15	16	2	8	8	6	23	16	6	23	16	17	22	14
	100	**194**	**146**	**654**	**991**	**884**	**160**	**526**	**615**	**9**	**13**	**13**	**9**	**13**	**13**	**22**	**27**	**32**
	1	*3*	*2*	*11*	*19*	*17*	*1*	*2*	*4*	10	6	5	10	6	5	19	30	12
	3	14	12	17	15	21	14	29	24	10	9	8	8	9	8	37	41	38
	23	38	3	347	652	486	14	45	49	14	29	24	14	29	24	4	4	5
	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	40	13	17	40	13	17	32	72	74
	1	0	0	1	2	2	0	1	0	1	3	4	1	3	4	15	22	45
	0	6	1	6	5	14	3	11	8	20	33	22	20	33	22	28	34	22
	23	37	21	68	52	74	24	209	285	7	14	18	7	14	18	32	45	42
	0	0	4	3	5	2	7	1	1	35	20	23	35	20	23	33	56	55
	2	6	14	17	15	16	2	8	12	11	12	14	9	12	14	29	54	43
	4	2	1	12	32	30	2	5	6	8	16	15	8	16	15	6	7	8
	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	18	2	35	2	2	28	47	48	85
	0	-	-	1	0	0	0	0	0	18	0	41	1	0	37	48	75	94
	0	3	5	5	11	13	1	5	2	10	11	12	10	11	12	50	60	71
	-	0	3	0	0	1	0	3	2	0	11	17	0	11	17	46	45	18
	-	0	-	1	1	1	3	0	0	41	10	22	32	4	17	45	29	67
	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	13	4	10	4	4	10	45	66	32
	8	13	1	28	18	14	34	32	85	18	15	14	18	15	14	45	54	44
	5	2	2	22	10	14	5	44	57	3	8	13	3	8	11	23	55	59
	1	6	1	4	6	10	6	3	7	23	18	19	23	18	19	36	29	41
	1	3	9	3	5	8	3	1	4	7	7	10	6	6	10	29	61	37
	2	0	1	26	27	35	4	7	7	3	7	9	3	7	9	6	14	13
	5	3	7	7	4	6	2	32	19	7	16	12	6	16	12	23	46	34
	1	2	2	4	3	4	2	1	1	22	13	16	22	11	14	26	50	51
	0	0	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	18	8	17	18	7	12	36	30	32
	6	5	3	5	4	7	6	5	2	33	19	21	32	18	20	19	33	50
	11	50	54	62	104	106	24	81	40	8	7	5	7	7	5	31	29	26

Table 3 (continued)

Country or territory	TOTAL AID TO EDUCATION			TOTAL AID TO BASIC EDUCATION			TOTAL AID TO BASIC EDUCATION PER PRIMARY SCHOOL-AGE CHILD			DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO BASIC EDUCATION		
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions		
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
Latin America and the Caribbean	**534**	**902**	**868**	**218**	**364**	**330**	**5**	**7**	**7**	**513**	**874**	**841**	**163**	**218**	**197**
Unallocated within the region	*10*	*42*	*52*	*4*	*7*	*11*	…	…	…	*10*	*42*	*52*	*1*	*5*	*6*
Antigua and Barbuda	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	10	43	0	0	0	-	0	0
Argentina	19	35	37	2	13	13	5	9	9	19	35	37	1	8	8
Aruba	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Barbados	0	-	-	-	-	-	5	-	-	0	-	-	-	-	-
Belize	0	3	3	0	1	2	10	65	56	0	3	3	0	0	1
Bolivia, P.S.	86	62	52	55	24	20	62	42	35	82	61	52	45	8	8
Brazil	39	98	131	4	21	21	…	…	…	39	98	131	2	4	4
Chile	14	31	28	1	7	7	8	21	19	14	31	28	0	2	3
Colombia	32	65	64	5	17	16	7	15	15	32	65	64	2	10	11
Costa Rica	3	9	11	0	2	4	6	18	24	3	9	11	0	1	3
Cuba	12	9	7	3	3	1	12	11	8	12	9	7	3	2	0
Dominica	1	2	1	0	1	0	115	259	105	0	1	0	-	-	-
Dominican Republic	20	14	33	13	9	19	16	11	26	20	13	23	13	7	8
Ecuador	17	33	45	3	11	19	10	18	24	17	33	45	2	5	6
El Salvador	8	30	30	3	13	13	9	38	39	8	30	30	2	6	10
Grenada	0	1	0	-	0	0	11	65	33	0	0	0	-	-	-
Guatemala	30	36	31	15	23	19	15	16	13	29	36	31	13	16	16
Guyana	17	2	3	6	1	2	151	14	25	15	2	3	3	0	2
Haiti	23	139	94	12	88	54	17	99	66	23	130	83	10	61	33
Honduras	37	51	45	28	34	35	34	46	40	36	49	43	24	30	33
Jamaica	12	10	11	9	3	5	36	…	…	9	10	11	6	3	4
Mexico	31	58	59	2	9	9	2	4	4	31	58	59	1	2	3
Nicaragua	60	40	27	34	18	18	71	51	35	51	36	27	23	12	14
Panama	5	5	4	0	1	2	12	11	10	5	5	4	0	0	2
Paraguay	8	36	15	4	28	11	10	42	18	8	36	15	3	25	9
Peru	33	56	47	9	20	18	9	16	13	33	51	47	7	10	11
Saint Kitts and Nevis	0	3	4	0	1	2	5	458	596	0	0	0	-	-	-
Saint Lucia	1	4	4	0	2	2	34	199	202	1	3	3	0	0	0
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0	6	6	0	3	3	21	436	487	0	5	6	0	-	0
Suriname	3	2	2	1	0	0	50	35	40	3	2	2	1	-	0
Trinidad and Tobago	1	-	-	0	-	-	6	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
Uruguay	3	6	6	1	2	2	10	20	19	3	6	6	0	0	1
Venezuela, B.R.	8	15	16	1	3	3	3	5	5	8	15	16	1	1	1
South and West Asia	**940**	**2 359**	**1 843**	**582**	**1 414**	**947**	**3**	**8**	**5**	**752**	**2 354**	**1 809**	**451**	**992**	**710**
Unallocated within the region	-	*2*	*2*	-	*0*	*0*	…	…	…	-	*2*	*2*	-	*0*	*0*
Afghanistan	41	376	350	26	214	219	10	69	63	33	372	346	16	155	180
Bangladesh	150	356	504	96	243	316	9	22	32	141	356	476	88	220	265
Bhutan	9	8	5	5	2	1	85	84	48	9	8	4	3	1	1
India	368	770	257	272	565	100	3	6	2	349	770	257	253	486	89
Iran, Islamic Republic of	38	68	76	1	1	1	5	13	14	38	68	76	1	0	1
Maldives	9	4	2	3	1	1	178	…	…	9	4	2	3	0	0
Nepal	53	166	157	34	75	73	17	48	46	50	166	157	26	26	41
Pakistan	220	543	421	127	283	207	11	28	22	78	542	421	48	89	122
Sri Lanka	52	65	69	18	29	30	32	37	39	45	65	69	12	14	11
Sub-Saharan Africa	**2 714**	**3 522**	**3 486**	**1 447**	**1 704**	**1 615**	**13**	**12**	**12**	**2 151**	**2 736**	**2 841**	**908**	**758**	**844**
Unallocated within the region	*91*	*155*	*192*	*65*	*73*	*91*	…	…	…	*90*	*137*	*173*	*50*	*47*	*60*
Angola	42	26	27	25	11	8	14	3	2	42	26	27	19	8	6
Benin	43	77	67	16	41	31	13	26	19	38	70	56	11	27	15
Botswana	3	19	3	0	9	1	1	28	3	3	19	3	0	0	0
Burkina Faso	89	140	125	53	76	76	26	28	28	62	101	75	35	35	45
Burundi	13	42	32	6	23	16	5	17	11	10	32	29	2	14	8
Cameroon	98	111	112	21	16	8	7	5	2	85	111	112	13	5	5
Cape Verde	36	22	26	4	1	1	60	22	22	34	20	26	2	0	0
Central African Republic	9	19	14	1	9	5	2	13	8	9	19	9	1	2	1
Chad	28	15	18	13	8	11	8	4	5	18	15	18	5	5	9
Comoros	13	14	13	4	3	1	50	28	11	13	13	12	4	0	1
Congo	25	27	21	2	7	4	5	11	5	25	26	21	1	3	3
Côte d'Ivoire	91	180	94	32	81	36	12	26	12	53	31	40	8	5	9
D. R. Congo	123	130	116	56	75	70	7	7	6	30	96	116	5	48	59
Equatorial Guinea	9	9	8	4	4	4	62	43	41	9	9	8	3	4	3
Eritrea	19	54	28	8	28	9	14	38	11	19	54	18	4	10	1
Ethiopia	103	312	270	57	163	140	5	…	…	79	290	270	31	39	46
Gabon	30	31	27	5	4	2	27	22	11	29	31	27	4	2	0
Gambia	10	6	10	6	3	5	29	11	19	8	5	6	5	1	3
Ghana	124	189	172	79	100	84	25	28	23	78	109	85	46	34	25
Guinea	45	48	56	27	12	17	19	7	10	41	43	42	23	3	6
Guinea-Bissau	10	11	8	4	5	4	20	21	16	10	9	8	4	2	3
Kenya	87	127	147	55	66	71	10	10	10	82	65	101	50	29	29
Lesotho	24	23	14	12	12	7	34	33	22	21	19	3	7	1	2

Table 3

	DIRECT AID TO SECONDARY EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION, LEVEL UNSPECIFIED			SHARE OF EDUCATION IN TOTAL ODA (%)			SHARE OF DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION IN TOTAL ODA (%)			SHARE OF BASIC EDUCATION IN TOTAL AID TO EDUCATION (%)		
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions											
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
	73	**112**	**105**	**188**	**279**	**299**	**89**	**264**	**239**	**8**	**8**	**9**	**7**	**8**	**8**	**41**	**40**	**38**
	1	*9*	*3*	*3*	*25*	*33*	*6*	*4*	*10*	*4*	*5*	*4*	*4*	*5*	*4*	*35*	*16*	*21*
	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	19	2	1	19	39	23	11
	1	2	2	14	14	16	3	11	10	17	31	19	17	31	19	12	38	35
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	-	-	0	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-
	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	1	0	3	12	9	3	12	9	61	22	64
	15	13	12	7	9	8	16	31	24	8	9	8	7	9	8	64	39	38
	4	3	25	29	57	69	5	34	32	8	10	8	8	10	8	11	21	16
	1	2	2	11	18	16	2	10	8	19	18	20	19	18	20	9	22	23
	3	6	5	21	35	37	6	14	11	4	6	8	4	6	8	16	26	26
	0	1	1	3	4	4	0	3	3	5	12	18	5	12	18	11	27	39
	1	1	0	7	5	4	1	1	2	15	11	8	15	11	8	27	31	15
	0	-	-	0	0	0	-	0	0	7	7	3	3	3	0	29	37	48
	3	3	1	2	1	1	2	3	13	10	5	9	10	5	7	68	63	58
	5	6	3	9	11	10	1	11	25	6	13	20	6	13	20	18	32	41
	2	6	9	2	4	3	1	15	7	3	9	10	3	9	10	38	45	45
	0	0	0	0	0	0	-	0	0	1	6	7	1	3	7	-	27	7
	6	3	7	6	3	3	4	14	5	9	8	9	9	8	9	51	63	60
	7	-	0	1	1	1	4	1	1	19	1	3	16	1	3	35	42	63
	1	15	7	7	10	12	6	43	31	12	8	7	12	8	7	53	63	57
	2	11	4	2	2	2	9	6	4	8	8	7	8	8	7	77	67	79
	0	6	4	0	1	1	2	1	1	11	11	14	7	11	14	74	30	45
	6	3	4	22	38	40	2	15	12	14	5	11	14	5	11	6	16	16
	3	11	4	13	4	3	12	9	7	9	7	5	7	6	5	56	47	64
	3	0	0	1	2	2	0	2	1	10	4	7	10	4	7	9	28	45
	1	3	2	2	2	1	2	6	3	7	23	9	7	23	9	49	78	69
	6	6	4	15	19	18	5	15	14	5	7	8	5	6	8	27	36	38
	-	0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	17	16	1	0	0	28	49	50
	0	1	-	0	0	0	0	1	3	4	10	14	4	7	11	34	37	53
	0	0	-	0	0	0	0	5	6	5	28	54	5	23	54	25	49	50
	0	-	-	1	2	2	0	0	0	7	3	6	7	3	6	42	5	6
	0	-	-	1	-	-	0	-	-	15	-	-	15	-	-	1	-	-
	0	1	1	2	2	2	1	3	2	19	15	21	19	15	21	17	29	36
	1	2	1	6	9	9	1	4	4	11	34	33	11	34	33	10	18	22
	55	**220**	**198**	**172**	**303**	**459**	**74**	**838**	**442**	**8**	**11**	**10**	**6**	**11**	**10**	**62**	**60**	**51**
	-	*1*	*1*	-	*1*	*1*	-	*0*	*0*	-	*3*	*1*	-	*3*	*1*	-	*19*	*8*
	1	56	33	4	47	61	12	114	72	3	6	5	2	6	5	63	57	62
	25	62	87	21	28	50	7	46	74	9	16	17	9	16	16	64	68	63
	2	1	2	1	5	1	3	1	1	14	6	3	14	6	2	53	20	23
	13	48	15	65	78	131	18	158	22	10	15	7	10	15	7	74	73	39
	1	1	0	36	64	74	0	2	1	25	59	55	25	59	55	2	2	1
	2	1	0	3	2	1	1	1	1	40	9	3	40	9	3	37	20	47
	3	19	28	8	22	25	13	100	62	11	16	17	10	16	17	64	45	46
	2	19	27	12	47	102	17	387	170	6	13	15	2	13	15	58	52	49
	7	11	5	22	11	14	3	29	39	7	6	7	6	6	7	34	44	44
	133	**246**	**468**	**595**	**625**	**631**	**514**	**1 106**	**898**	**9**	**7**	**7**	**7**	**6**	**6**	**53**	**48**	**46**
	3	*10*	*19*	*9*	*47*	*50*	*28*	*33*	*45*	*5*	*4*	*4*	*5*	*3*	*4*	*71*	*47*	*48*
	1	7	13	11	3	4	12	7	4	8	11	9	8	11	9	59	44	28
	4	5	7	18	16	14	4	22	21	12	11	12	11	10	10	37	53	46
	1	0	0	1	2	1	1	17	2	6	14	3	6	14	3	15	46	35
	7	9	5	10	14	13	11	42	12	13	14	10	9	10	6	60	54	61
	0	4	4	3	6	5	4	10	12	5	8	6	4	6	5	44	55	49
	2	3	17	68	81	83	3	22	6	9	17	16	8	17	16	21	15	7
	3	9	15	26	11	9	2	1	2	26	8	10	24	8	10	12	6	5
	1	1	1	7	3	4	1	12	4	13	7	6	13	7	4	12	46	38
	1	1	1	5	4	4	7	5	4	8	3	3	5	3	3	48	51	61
	1	0	1	8	8	10	0	5	0	36	24	11	35	23	10	31	23	10
	0	3	4	21	13	13	3	7	1	24	8	11	24	8	11	9	26	17
	2	4	10	33	18	21	10	4	1	8	12	2	5	2	1	35	45	38
	4	13	15	13	15	21	9	20	21	3	2	4	1	1	4	45	58	60
	1	0	0	1	4	3	4	1	3	28	34	42	28	34	42	49	46	49
	3	6	1	3	2	11	8	37	5	6	44	21	6	44	13	45	52	31
	5	10	21	15	15	14	29	226	188	6	9	8	4	8	8	55	52	52
	2	1	2	22	24	21	1	4	3	20	30	27	19	30	27	17	13	8
	1	1	2	1	0	0	1	3	1	12	5	7	11	4	4	63	50	56
	2	6	15	9	17	12	20	51	33	11	10	9	7	6	4	64	53	49
	4	1	4	11	27	24	3	12	8	13	14	4	11	13	3	60	24	31
	1	0	1	5	2	2	0	5	2	7	3	10	7	3	10	42	48	50
	5	10	18	21	13	16	7	14	38	13	5	5	12	2	3	64	52	48
	5	1	1	2	0	0	6	17	1	21	8	5	18	7	1	50	50	53

Table 3 (continued)

Country or territory	TOTAL AID TO EDUCATION			TOTAL AID TO BASIC EDUCATION			TOTAL AID TO BASIC EDUCATION PER PRIMARY SCHOOL-AGE CHILD			DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO BASIC EDUCATION		
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions		
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
Liberia	3	44	41	2	33	32	5	50	47	3	36	34	2	27	27
Madagascar	83	49	43	36	23	17	15	8	6	65	49	43	21	18	13
Malawi	74	68	128	43	55	80	20	22	31	70	68	94	29	46	56
Mali	101	151	69	54	84	40	31	37	17	78	117	67	30	44	34
Mauritius	17	28	28	0	10	9	3	92	86	17	14	14	0	2	2
Mozambique	152	245	216	85	136	105	23	28	21	111	159	147	47	50	35
Namibia	26	32	62	14	14	26	38	36	69	26	32	62	12	1	3
Niger	56	40	54	29	19	29	15	7	10	35	22	28	8	7	14
Nigeria	33	137	147	17	55	50	1	2	2	32	137	147	12	24	25
Rwanda	62	141	73	27	63	29	21	34	16	44	108	58	5	12	8
Sao Tome and Principe	6	8	8	1	2	2	43	67	53	5	8	8	1	1	1
Senegal	117	171	224	38	65	76	23	32	36	111	156	181	21	30	32
Seychelles	1	2	2	0	1	1	49	67	102	1	1	1	-	-	0
Sierra Leone	23	28	29	15	15	15	21	16	16	11	18	21	8	8	10
Somalia	5	25	49	4	18	31	3	11	18	5	25	49	3	17	23
South Africa	118	90	105	54	53	66	8	8	10	118	90	95	44	42	52
South Sudan*	…	51	66	…	36	45	…	21	26	…	51	66	…	28	31
Swaziland	3	20	8	2	11	6	7	51	31	3	20	8	0	2	6
Togo	14	31	16	1	13	4	2	13	4	14	25	16	1	7	3
Uganda	217	82	126	153	50	37	28	7	5	187	69	116	107	34	26
U. R. Tanzania	296	183	260	226	58	121	33	7	14	225	102	192	177	11	41
Zambia	133	77	66	83	41	39	41	15	14	92	46	45	46	9	17
Zimbabwe	13	32	65	6	20	52	2	8	21	13	32	65	4	12	49
Overseas territories**	**239**	**70**	**70**	**119**	**25**	**25**	…	…	…	**234**	**68**	**66**	**1**	**12**	**12**
Anguilla (UK)	1	0	1	0	0	0	79	…	…	1	-	0	-	-	0
Mayotte (France)	168	-	-	84	-	-	…	…	…	168	-	-	-	-	-
Montserrat (UK)	5	1	2	2	0	1	5 959	…	1 975	0	1	1	0	-	-
Saint Helena (UK)	0	1	0	0	0	0	…	…	…	0	1	0	-	-	-
Tokelau (New Zealand)	6	3	2	3	1	1	12 967	7 549	7 496	5	0	-	0	-	-
Turks and Caicos Islands (UK)	0	-	-	0	-	-	222	…	…	0	-	-	0	-	-
Wallis and Futuna (France)	60	65	64	30	23	22				60	65	64	-	12	12
Unallocated by region or country	***539***	***1 423***	***1 394***	***83***	***631***	***661***	…	…	…	***538***	***1 423***	***1 382***	***44***	***513***	***518***
Total	**7 510**	**13 027**	**12 584**	**3 041**	**5 707**	**5 079**	**5**	**9**	**8**	**6 431**	**12 037**	**11 616**	**1 859**	**3 473**	**2 959**
Low income countries	2 044	3 386	3 453	1 192	1 838	1 859	12	15	16	1 590	2 888	3 009	774	1 055	1 195
Lower middle income countries	2 824	5 090	4 459	1 219	2 512	1 751	5	9	6	2 377	4 703	4 097	799	1 486	833
Upper middle income countries	1 692	2 667	2 725	347	599	664	2	4	4	1 518	2 582	2 598	180	342	331
High income countries	42	50	48	8	14	15	1	2	3	42	47	43	4	6	6
Unallocated by income	907	1 835	1 900	275	743	790	…	…	…	903	1 817	1 869	102	584	594
Total	**7 510**	**13 027**	**12 584**	**3 041**	**5 707**	**5 079**	**5**	**9**	**8**	**6 431**	**12 037**	**11 616**	**1 859**	**3 473**	**2 959**
Arab States	1 003	1 919	2 048	216	860	686	6	21	17	864	1 828	1 900	109	645	300
Central and Eastern Europe	290	500	519	86	70	71	8	6	6	253	477	502	41	20	25
Central Asia	126	333	348	42	99	99	6	15	17	88	301	320	17	48	44
East Asia and the Pacific	1 125	1 998	2 008	249	540	644	1	4	5	1 039	1 978	1 955	126	267	310
Latin America and the Carribbean	534	902	868	218	364	330	5	7	7	513	874	841	163	218	197
South and West Asia	940	2 359	1 843	582	1 414	947	3	8	5	752	2 354	1 809	451	992	710
Sub-Saharan Africa	2 714	3 522	3 486	1 447	1 704	1 615	13	12	12	2 151	2 736	2 841	908	758	844
Overseas territories	239	70	70	119	25	25	…	…	…	234	68	66	1	12	12
Unallocated by region or country	539	1 423	1 394	83	631	661	…	…	…	538	1 423	1 382	44	513	518
Total	**7 510**	**13 027**	**12 584**	**3 041**	**5 707**	**5 079**	**5**	**9**	**8**	**6 431**	**12 037**	**11 616**	**1 859**	**3 473**	**2 959**

Source: OECD-DAC CRS database (2014).

* Aid disbursement figures for 2002-03 refers to the former Sudan, before the separation of the South in 2011. Aid disbursements for 2011 onwards have been separated out by the OECD and refer to Sudan and South Sudan

**As defined on the OECD-DAC list of ODA recipients

(. . .) indicates that data are not available, (-) represents a nil value

The share of education in total ODA does not match that in Table 2 because the DAC database is used for donors and the CRS database for recipients in total ODA figures.

Malta and Slovenia are not listed in the table because they were removed from the OECD-DAC list of ODA recipients in 2005. However the aid they received in 2002-2003 is included in the totals.

The classification by income is based on the World Bank list as of July 2013.

All data represent gross disbursements.

Table 3

	DIRECT AID TO SECONDARY EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION			DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION, LEVEL UNSPECIFIED			SHARE OF EDUCATION IN TOTAL ODA (%)			SHARE OF DIRECT AID TO EDUCATION IN TOTAL ODA (%)			SHARE OF BASIC EDUCATION IN TOTAL AID TO EDUCATION (%)		
	Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions			Constant 2012 US$ millions											
	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012	2002–2003 annual average	2011	2012
	0	4	3	0	2	1	1	4	3	3	5	7	3	4	6	71	74	78
	2	3	5	29	18	18	14	10	7	12	11	11	10	11	11	44	47	39
	16	2	19	2	2	5	23	18	14	12	9	11	12	9	8	58	81	62
	6	9	8	17	17	15	25	48	10	14	12	7	11	9	6	54	56	57
	-	1	3	16	10	9	0	1	0	35	14	14	35	7	7	2	35	32
	3	10	27	25	14	13	35	85	72	6	12	10	5	8	7	56	55	49
	7	3	9	4	3	4	4	25	45	18	11	20	18	11	20	52	43	42
	3	3	4	3	6	6	20	6	4	11	6	6	7	3	3	51	48	54
	2	15	26	9	37	47	9	61	49	8	7	7	8	7	7	51	40	34
	5	19	12	7	10	11	26	67	28	13	11	8	9	9	7	44	44	40
	1	2	3	3	4	3	0	2	1	14	12	17	13	12	17	18	22	18
	3	17	39	57	53	65	30	56	45	17	16	19	16	15	16	33	38	34
	0	0	-	0	1	1	1	0	0	18	7	5	18	4	3	37	31	41
	1	5	5	1	2	4	2	3	2	5	7	7	2	4	5	63	53	53
	-	5	8	0	0	1	1	2	17	2	3	5	2	3	5	79	72	64
	9	8	5	44	19	21	21	22	17	22	6	8	22	6	7	46	59	63
	…	6	4	…	1	2	…	16	29	…	5	4	…	5	4	…	71	68
	0	1	0	0	0	0	3	17	2	11	15	8	11	15	8	47	53	85
	0	2	1	12	10	10	1	7	2	17	3	6	17	2	6	9	43	25
	6	5	64	13	11	14	61	18	12	19	5	8	16	4	7	70	61	29
	6	21	42	15	57	18	26	13	92	15	7	9	12	4	7	76	32	46
	5	1	1	8	3	4	33	32	23	10	7	7	7	4	4	62	53	59
	0	0	5	5	4	6	4	15	6	6	5	6	6	5	6	44	62	80
	1	**30**	**31**	**1**	**1**	**1**	**231**	**24**	**22**	**65**	**25**	**20**	**63**	**25**	**19**	**50**	**36**	**35**
	0	-	-	0	-	0	0	-	-	23	16	18	23	-	0	18	50	50
	-	-	-	0	-	-	167	-	-	76	-	-	76	-	-	50	-	-
	-	-	-	0	0	0	-	1	1	10	3	5	0	3	2	52	37	43
	0	0	-	-	-	0	0	0	0	7	1	0	7	1	0	6	17	23
	-	-	-	1	0	-	4	-	-	52	13	11	45	2	-	49	41	50
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19	-	-	19	-	-	100	-	-
	-	30	31	0	1	1	60	23	21	75	53	53	75	53	53	50	36	34
	13	***53***	***63***	***404***	***620***	***526***	***77***	***238***	***275***	***5***	***5***	***5***	***5***	***5***	***5***	***15***	***44***	***47***
	478	**1 060**	**1 265**	**2 809**	**4 027**	**4 120**	**1 285**	**3 478**	**3 272**	**9**	**9**	**8**	**7**	**8**	**8**	**40**	**44**	**40**
	118	340	471	316	425	459	382	1 068	883	8	7	8	7	6	7	58	54	54
	194	432	476	991	1 119	1 312	393	1 666	1 475	9	12	10	8	11	9	43	49	39
	141	177	193	1 038	1 633	1 536	159	430	539	10	11	12	9	11	11	20	22	24
	5	3	3	26	24	21	7	14	13	13	18	22	13	17	20	18	29	32
	20	109	122	438	825	791	344	299	362	6	5	5	6	5	5	30	40	42
	478	**1 060**	**1 265**	**2 809**	**4 027**	**4 120**	**1 285**	**3 478**	**3 272**	**9**	**9**	**8**	**7**	**8**	**8**	**40**	**44**	**40**
	62	109	161	617	737	816	75	337	623	13	14	13	11	13	12	22	45	33
	31	31	30	127	350	371	54	76	75	6	6	6	5	6	6	30	14	14
	8	64	62	51	120	132	12	68	83	6	11	10	4	10	10	33	30	28
	100	194	146	654	991	884	160	526	615	9	13	13	9	13	13	22	27	32
	73	112	105	188	279	299	89	264	239	8	8	9	7	8	8	41	40	38
	55	220	198	172	303	459	74	838	442	8	11	10	6	11	10	62	60	51
	133	246	468	595	625	631	514	1 106	898	9	7	7	7	6	6	53	48	46
	1	30	31	1	1	1	231	24	22	65	25	20	63	25	19	50	36	35
	13	53	63	404	620	526	77	238	275	5	5	5	5	5	5	15	44	47
	478	**1 060**	**1 265**	**2 809**	**4 027**	**4 120**	**1 285**	**3 478**	**3 272**	**9**	**9**	**8**	**7**	**8**	**8**	**40**	**44**	**40**

Glossary

Adjusted net enrolment ratio (ANER). Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education either at that level or the levels above, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Adult literacy rate. Number of literate persons aged 15 and above, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Age-specific enrolment ratio (ASER). Enrolment of a given age or age group, regardless of the level of education in which pupils or students are enrolled, expressed as a percentage of the population of the same age or age group.

Attainment rate by level. Percentage of children aged three to five years older than the official age of entry into the last grade of an education level who have reached the last grade of that level. For example, the primary attainment rate in a country with a 6-year cycle where the official age of entry into the last grade is 11 years is the percentage of 14 -16 year olds who have reached grade 6.

Child or under-5 mortality rate. Probability of dying between birth and the fifth birthday, expressed per 1,000 live births.

Conflict affected country. For a given year, any country with 1,000 or more battle-related deaths (including fatalities among civilians and military actors) over the preceding 10-year period and/or more than 200 battle-related deaths in any one year over the preceding 3-year period, according to the Uppsala Conflict Data Program Battle-Related Deaths Dataset.

Constant prices. Prices of a particular item adjusted to remove the overall effect of general price changes (inflation) since a given baseline year.

Dropout rate by grade. Percentage of students who drop out of a given grade in a given school year.

Early childhood care and education (ECCE). Services and programmes that support children's survival, growth, development and learning – including health, nutrition and hygiene, and cognitive, social, emotional and physical development – from birth to entry into primary school.

EFA Development Index (EDI). Composite index aimed at measuring overall progress towards EFA. At present, the EDI incorporates four of the most easily quantifiable EFA goals – universal primary education as measured by the primary adjusted net enrolment ratio; adult literacy as measured by the adult literacy rate; gender parity as measured by the gender-specific EFA index; and quality of education as measured by the survival rate to grade 5. Its value is the arithmetic mean of the observed values of these four indicators.

Expected cohort completion rate. Percentage of children of official primary school entrance age who are expected to enter and complete primary education. It is calculated as the product of two components: the probability of a child of official primary entrance age entering primary education on time or late (expected net intake rate); and the probability of a child who has entered primary education completing that level of education (cohort completion rate).

Gender parity index (GPI). Ratio of female to male values of a given indicator. A GPI between 0.97 and 1.03 indicates parity between the genders. A GPI below 0.97 indicates a disparity in favour of males. A GPI above 1.03 indicates a disparity in favour of females.

Gross domestic product (GDP). The value of all final goods and services produced in a country in one year (see also Gross national product).

Gross enrolment ratio (GER). Total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group corresponding to this level of education. The GER can exceed 100% because of early or late entry and/or grade repetition.

Gross intake rate (GIR). Total number of new entrants to a given grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the official school entrance age for that grade.

Gross national income (GNI). The value of all final goods and services produced in a country in one year (gross domestic product) plus income that residents have received from abroad, minus income claimed by non-residents.

Gross national product (GNP). Former denomination of gross national income.

Infant mortality rate. Probability of dying between birth and the first birthday, expressed as deaths per 1,000 live births.

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). Classification system designed to serve as an instrument for assembling, compiling and presenting comparable indicators and statistics of education both within countries and internationally. The system, introduced in 1976, was revised in 1997 and 2011.

Literacy. According to UNESCO's 1958 definition, the term refers to the ability of an individual to read and write with understanding a simple short statement related to his/her everyday life. The concept of literacy has since evolved to embrace several skill domains, each conceived on a scale of different mastery levels and serving different purposes.

Net attendance rate (NAR). Number of pupils in the official age group for a given level of education who attend school at that level, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Net enrolment ratio (NER). Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percentage of the population in that age group.

Net intake rate (NIR). New entrants to the first grade of primary education who are of the official primary school entrance age, expressed as a percentage of the population of that age.

New entrants. Pupils entering a given level of education for the first time; the difference between enrolment and repeaters in the first grade of the level.

Never been to school rate. Percentage of children aged three to five years older than the official entrance age into primary education who have never been to school. For example, in a country where the official entrance age is 6 years, the indicator is calculated over the age group 9 to 11 years.

Out-of-school adolescents. Those of lower secondary school age who are not enrolled in either primary or secondary school.

Out-of-school children. Children in the official primary school age range who are not enrolled in either primary or secondary school.

Pre-primary education (ISCED level 0). Programmes at the initial stage of organized instruction, primarily designed to introduce very young children, aged at least 3 years, to a school-type environment and provide a bridge between home and school. Variously referred to as infant education, nursery education, pre-school education, kindergarten or early childhood education, such programmes are the more formal component of ECCE. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at ISCED 1 (primary education).

Primary cohort completion rate. Proxy measure of primary school completion. It focuses on children who have access to school, measuring how many successfully complete it. The primary cohort completion rate is the product of the survival rate to the last grade and the percentage of those in the last grade who successfully graduate.

Primary education (ISCED level 1). Programmes generally designed to give pupils a sound basic education in reading, writing and mathematics, and an elementary understanding of subjects such as history, geography, natural sciences, social sciences, art and music.

Private institutions. Institutions that are not operated by public authorities but are controlled and managed, whether for profit or not, by private bodies such as non-governmental organizations, religious bodies, special interest groups, foundations or business enterprises.

Public expenditure on education. Total current and capital expenditure on education by local, regional and national governments, including municipalities. Household contributions are excluded. The term covers public expenditure for both public and private institutions.

Pupil/teacher ratio (PTR). Average number of pupils per teacher at a specific level of education.

Purchasing power parity (PPP). An exchange rate adjustment that accounts for price differences between countries, allowing international comparisons of real output and income.

Quintile. In statistics, one of five equal groups into which a population can be divided according to the distribution of values of a variable. In the GMR, the poorest and richest quintiles refer to the distribution of household assets reported in nationally representative surveys, including such things as a refrigerator, indoor toilet, and heating. Children from the poorest quintile in each country are the 20% with the fewest assets, while children from the richest quintile are the 20% with the most assets.

Repetition rate by grade. Number of repeaters in a given grade in a given school year, expressed as a percentage of enrolment in that grade the previous school year.

School age population. Population of the age group officially corresponding to a given level of education, whether enrolled in school or not.

School life expectancy (SLE). Number of years a child of school entrance age is expected to spend in school or university, including years spent on repetition. It is the sum of the age-specific enrolment ratios for primary, secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary education. A school life expectancy can be calculated for each level of education, including pre-primary education.

Secondary education (ISCED levels 2 and 3). Programme made up of two stages: lower and upper secondary. Lower secondary education (ISCED 2) is generally designed to continue the basic programmes of the primary level but the teaching is typically more subject-focused, requiring more specialized teachers for each subject area. The end of this level often coincides with the end of compulsory education. In upper secondary education (ISCED 3), the final stage of secondary education in most countries, instruction is often organized even more along subject lines and teachers typically need a higher or more subject-specific qualification than at ISCED level 2.

Skills. Non-innate capabilities that can be learned and transmitted, and have economic or social benefits both to individuals and their societies.

Stunting rate. Proportion of children in a given age group whose height for their age is between two and three standard deviations (moderate stunting) or three or more standard deviations (severe stunting) below the reference median established by the National Center for Health Statistics and the World Health Organization. Low height for age is a basic indicator of malnutrition.

Survival rate by grade. Percentage of a cohort of students who are enrolled in the first grade of an education cycle in a given school year and are expected to reach a specified grade, regardless of repetition.

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET). Programmes designed mainly to prepare students for direct entry into a particular occupation or trade (or class of occupations or trades).

Tertiary or higher education (ISCED levels 5 and 6). Programmes with an educational content more advanced than what is offered at ISCED levels 3 and 4. The first stage of tertiary education, ISCED level 5, includes level 5A, composed of largely theoretically based programmes intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry to advanced research programmes and professions with high skill requirements; and level 5B, where programmes are generally more practical, technical and/or occupationally specific. The second stage of tertiary education, ISCED level 6, comprises programmes devoted to advanced study and original research, and leading to the award of an advanced research qualification.

Transition rate to secondary education. New entrants to the first grade of secondary education in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils enrolled in the final grade of primary education in the previous year. The indicator measures transition to secondary general education only.

Youth literacy rate. Number of literate persons aged 15 to 24, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.

Abbreviations

AIDS	Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
ASER	Annual Status of Education Report (India, Pakistan)
BADEA	Banque Arabe pour le Développement Economique en Afrique
BRAC	formerly Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee
CRS	Creditor Reporting System (OECD)
CCTs	Conditional cash transfers
DAC	Development Assistance Committee (OECD)
DFID	Department for International Development (United Kingdom)
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
ECCE	Early childhood care and education
ESCS	Economic and socio-cultural status
EDI	EFA Development Index
EFA	Education for All
EGMA	Early Grade Mathematics Assessment
EGRA	Early Grade Reading Assessment
EU	European Union
F/M	Female/male
FTI	Fast Track Initiative
FUNDEF	Fund for Primary Education Administration and Development for the Enhancement of Teacher Status (Brazil)
G8	Group of Eight (Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Russian Federation, United Kingdom and United States, plus EU representatives)
GDP	Gross domestic product
GEFI	Global Education First Initiative
GEI	Gender-specific EFA Index

GER	Gross enrolment ratio
GNI	Gross national income
GNP	Gross national product
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
GPI	Gender parity index
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
ICT	Information and communications technology
IBE	International Bureau of Education (UNESCO)
IDA	International Development Association (World Bank)
IDS	International Development Statistics (OECD)
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO)
ILO	International Labour Office/Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ICT	Information and communication technology
LAMP	Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (UIS)
LLECE	Laboratorio Latinoamericano de Evaluación de la Calidad de la Educación (Latin American Laboratory for Assessment of the Quality of Education)
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
NER	Net enrolment ratio
NIOS	National Institute of Open Schooling
NGO	Non-government organization
ODA	Official development assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OPEC	Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries
PASEC	Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Educatifs de la CONFEMEN (Programme of Analysis of Education Systems of the CONFEMEN) (Conference of Education Ministers of Countries Using French as a Common Language)

PIAAC	Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (OECD)
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
PPP	Purchasing power parity
SACMEQ	Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality
SERCE	Segundo Estudio Regional Comparativo y Explicativo (Second Regional Comparative and Explanatory Study)
STEP	Skills Toward Employment and Productivity (World Bank)
TFA	Teach for America
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UCTs	Unconditional cash transfers
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UK	United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNPD	United Nations Population Division
UOE	UIS/OECD/Eurostat
UPE	Universal primary education
US	United States of America
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WEI	World Education Indicators
WFP	World Food Programme (United Nations)
WHO	World Health Organization (United Nations)
WVS	World Values Survey

References

Abadzi, H. 2007. Instructional time loss and local-level governance. *Prospects,* Vol. 37, No. 1, pp. 3-16.

Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action Lab. 2014. *Student Participation*. Boston, MA, Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action Lab. http://www.povertyactionlab.org/policy-lessons/education/student-participation (Accessed 31 July 2014.)

Abetti, P., Beardmore, S., Tapp, C. and Winthrop, R. 2011. *Prospects for Bilateral Aid to Basic Education Put Students at Risk*. Washington, DC, Fast Track Initiative.

Abubakar, A. 2014. *Boko Haram Still Holding Nigerian Schoolgirls Captive*. Kano, Nigeria, CNN. http://edition.cnn.com/2014/04/23/world/africa/nigeria-abducted-girls/index.html (Accessed 13 November 2014.)

Abuya, B., Ciera, J. and Kimani-Murage, E. 2012. Effect of mother's education on child's nutritional status in the slums of Nairobi. *BMC Pediatrics,* Vol. 12, No. 80, pp. 1-10.

Accountability Initiative. 2013. *Do Schools Get their Money? PAISA 2012*. New Delhi, Accountability Initiative.

___. 2014. *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan, GOI 2014-15*. New Delhi, Accountability Initiative. (Budget Briefs, 6/1.)

Achyut, P., Bhatla, N., Singh, A. K., Verma, R. K., Khandekar, S., Pallav, P., Kamble, N., Jadhav, S., Wagh, V., Sonavane, R., Gaikward, R., Maitra, S., Kamble, S. and Nikalje, D. 2011. *Building Support for Gender Equality Among Young Adolescents in School: Findings from Mumbai, India*. New Delhi, International Center for Research on Women.

ACPF. 2010. *National Study on School-Related Gender-Based Violence in Sierra Leone*. Addis Ababa, African Child Policy Forum.

ActionAid. 2007. *Confronting the Contradictions: the IMF, Wage Bill Gaps and the Case for Teachers*. London, ActionAid.

Addison, D. 2012. *Cross Country Correlates for the Quality of Budget Execution: Political Institutions, Fiscal Constraints, and Public Financial Management* Washington, DC, World Bank.

Adelabu, M. and Rose, P. 2004. Non-state provision of basic education in Nigeria. Larbi, G., Adelabu, M., Rose, P., Jawara, D., Nwaorgu, O. and Vyas, S. (eds), *Nigeria: Study of Non-State Providers of Basic Services*. London, UK Department for International Development.

Adukia, A. 2014. *Sanitation and Education*. Cambridge, MA, Harvard University.

Afeti, G., Bregman, J., Hoppers, W., Kinyanjui, K., Krönner, H., Obeegadoo, S. and Walther, R. 2008. *Post-Primary Education in Africa: Challenges and Approaches for Expanding Learning Opportunities: Synthesis Prepared for and Lessons Learned from the Association for the Development of Education in Africa Biennale on Education in Africa (Maputo, Mozambique, 5–9 May 2008)*. Tunis, The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA).

Afghanistan Ministry of Education. 2007. *National Education Strategic Plan for Afghanistan 1385 -1389*. Kabul, Ministry of Education, Government of Afghanistan.

___. 2014. *Strategic Plan - Program Two: Curriculum Development, Teacher Education and Science and Technology Education*. Kabul, Ministry of Education, Government of Afghanistan. http://moe.gov.af/en/page/2013 (Accessed 10 March 2014.)

African Union. 2008. *The eThekwini Declaration and AfricaSan Action Plan*. Durban, South Africa, African Union.

Aga Khan Foundation Team. 2008. Non-state providers and public-private-community partnerships in education. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

Agbiboa, D. E. 2012. Between corruption and development: the political economy of state robbery in Nigeria. *Journal of Business Ethics,* Vol. 108, No. 3, pp. 325-45.

Ahmed, M. 2011. Defining and measuring literacy: Facing the reality. *International review of education,* Vol. 57, No. 1-2, pp. 179-95.

Aikman, S. 2015. Languages and Identity. McCowan, T. and Unterhalter, E. (eds), *Education and International Development: An Introduction*. London, Bloomsbury Publishing.

Akaguri, L. 2014. Fee-free public or low-fee private basic education in rural Ghana: how does the cost influence the choice of the poor? *Compare,* Vol. 44, No. 2, pp. 140-61.

Aker, J., Ksoll, C. and Lybbert, T. 2012. Can mobile phones improve learning? Evidence from a field experiment in Niger. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics,* Vol. 4, No. 4, pp. 94-120.

Akyeampong, K., Pryor, J. and Ampiah, J. G. 2006. A vision of successful schooling: Ghanaian teachers' understanding of learning, teaching and assessment. *Comparative Education,* Vol. 42, No. 2, pp. 155-76.

AlAmodi, A. A. 2013. Child marriage in Yemen. *The Lancet,* Vol. 382, No. 9909, pp. 1979-80.

Alayan, S. and Al-Khalidi, N. 2010. Gender and agency in history, civics, and national education textbooks of Jordan and Palestine. *Journal of Educational Media, Memory, and Society,* Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 78–96.

Albaugh, E. 2007. Language choice in education: a politics of persuasion. *Journal of Modern African Studies,* Vol. 45, No. 1, pp. 1-32.

Albert, J. R. G. 2012. *Improving Teacher Deployment Practices in the Philippines*. Manila, Philippine Institute for Development Studies. (Policy Notes, 2012-02.)

Al-Daami, K. K. and Wallace, G. 2007. Curriculum reform in a global context: a study of teachers in Jordan. *Journal of Curriculum Studies,* Vol. 39, No. 3, pp. 339-60.

Alderman, H. and Bundy, D. 2012. School feeding programs and development: are we framing the question correctly? *The World Bank Research Observer,* Vol. 27, No. 2, pp. 204-21.

Alderuccio, M. C. 2010. An investigation of global/local dynamics of curriculum transformation in sub-Saharan Africa with special reference to the Republic of Mozambique. *Compare: a Journal of Comparative and International Education,* Vol. 40, No. 6, pp. 727-39.

Al-Hassan, S. M., Obeidat, O. M. and Lansford, J. E. 2010. Education reform and the quality of kindergartens in Jordan. *Early Child Development and Care,* Vol. 180, No. 9, pp. 1203-13.

Alloush, M. 2010. Does Free schooling Fill the Seats? Evaluating the Changes in Educational Attainment Associated with Abolishing School Fees in Four African Countries. Master's thesis, Georgetown University, Washington, DC.

Al-Samarrai, S. and Zaman, H. 2007. Abolishing school fees in Malawi: the impact on education access and equity. *Education Economics,* Vol. 15, No. 3, pp. 359-75.

Altinok, N. 2012. General Versus Vocational Education: Some New Evidence from PISA 2009. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2012*.

Altinok, N. 2013a. The impact of teacher knowledge on student achievement in 14 sub-Saharan African countries. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*.

___. 2013b. Performance differences between subpopulations in TIMSS, PIRLS, SACMEQ and PASEC. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*.

Altinyelken, H. K. 2010. Curriculum change in Uganda: teacher perspectives on the new thematic curriculum. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 30, No. 2, pp. 151-61.

___. 2011. Student-centred pedagogy in Turkey: conceptualisations, interpretations and practices. *Journal of Education Policy,* Vol. 26, No. 2, pp. 137-60.

___. 2013. The demand for private tutoring in Turkey. Bray, M., Mazawi, A. E. and Sultana, R. G. (eds), *Private Tutoring Across the Mediterranean: Power Dynamics and Implications for Learning and Equity*. Rotterdam, Netherlands, Sense Publishers, pp. 187-204.

___. 2015. Evolution of curriculum systems to improve learning outcomes and reduce disparities in school achievement. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Altinyelken, H. K. and Akkaymak, G. 2012. Curriculum change in Turkey: some critical reflections. Inal, K. and Akkaymak, G. (eds), *Neoliberal Transformation of Education in Turkey: Political and Ideological Analysis of Educational Reforms in the Age of the AKP*. New York, Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 59-79.

Amadio, M. 2014. A rapid assessment of curricula for general education focusing on cross-curricular themes and generic competences and skills. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*.

Amouzou, A., Habi, O., Bensaid, K. and Niger Countdown Case Study Working Group. 2012. Reduction in child mortality in Niger: a Countdown to 2015 country case study. *The Lancet,* Vol. 380, No. 9848, pp. 1169-78.

Anderson, A. 2004. *Developing Minimum Standards for Education in Emergencies*. London, Humanitarian Practice Network, Overseas Development Institute. (Humanitarian Exchange Magazine, 28.)

Anderson, D. 2009. Productivism and ecologism. Fien, J., Maclean, R. and Park, M. (eds), *Work, Learning and Sustainable Development*. Dordrecht, Springer, pp. 147-62.

Anderson-Levitt, K. 2003. A world culture of schooling? Anderson-Levitt, K. (ed.), *Local Meanings, Global Schooling: Anthropology and World Culture Theory*. New York, Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 1-41.

Andrabi, T., Das, J. and Khwaja, A. I. 2008. A dime a day: the possibilities and limits of private schooling in Pakistan. *Comparative Education Review,* Vol. 52, No. 3, pp. 329-55.

Andrabi, T., Das, J., Khwaja, A. I., Vishwanath, T. and Zajonc, T. 2007. *Pakistan Learning and Educational Achievements in Punjab Schools (LEAPS): Insights to Inform the Education Policy Debate*. Washington DC/ Cambridge, MA/ Claremont, CA, World Bank/ Harvard University/ Pomona College.

Andrews, C., Das, M., Elder, J., Ovadiya, M. and Zampaglione, G. 2012. *Social Protection in Low Income Countries and Fragile Situations: Challenges and Future Directions*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Social Protection and Labor Discussion Paper, 1209.)

Ansell, B. W. 2010. *From the Ballot to the Blackboard: the Redistributive Political Economy of Education*. Cambridge, UK, Cambridge University Press.

Antecol, H., Eren, O. and Ozbeklik, S. 2012. *The Effect of Teacher Gender on Student Achievement in Primary School: Evidence from a Randomized Experiment*. Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labor. (IZA Discussion Paper, 6453.)

Antonowicz, L. 2010. *Too Often in Silence: A Report on School-Based Violence in West and Central Africa*. New York/Dakar/Johannesburg, South Africa, UNICEF/Plan West Africa/Save the Children Sweden/ActionAid.

Anwar, A. and Islam, M. N. 2013. Achieving EFA by 2015: lessons from BRAC's para-professional teacher model in Afghanistan. Akiba, M. (ed.), *Teacher Reforms Around the World: Implementations and Outcomes*. Bingley, UK, Emerald Group Publishing Limited, pp. 99-119.

Arugay, A. 2012. *Tracking Textbooks for Transparency: Improving Accountability in Education in the Philippines*, International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance.

Asadullah, M. and Chaudhur, N. 2008. *Madrasas and NGOs Complements or Substitutes? Non-State Providers and Growth in Female Education in Bangladesh*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper, 4511.)

Asadullah, M., Niaz and Chaudhury, N. 2009. Holy alliances: public subsidies, Islamic high schools, and female schooling in Bangladesh. *Education Economics,* Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 377-94.

Asatoorian, E., Baringer, L. S. P., Campbell, K. L., Desai, S., Jie, J. and Kanthoul, L. 2011. *Gender Mainstreaming in Education in Georgia: Analysis and Recommendations*. New York, School of International and Public Affairs, Columbia University

ASER Centre. 2014a. *Annual Status of Education Report 2013 (Rural)*. New Delhi, ASER Centre.

___. 2014b. *Citizen-led, Household Based Assessments Around the World*. New Delhi, ASER Centre. http://www.asercentre.org/p/76.html (Accessed 10 October 2014.)

ASER Pakistan. 2012. *Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Report Card (Rural)*. Lahore, Pakistan, ASER Pakistan.

___. 2014. *Annual Status of Education Report 2013 (National)*. Lahore, Pakistan, ASER Pakistan.

Ashby, J., Heinrich, G., Burpee, G., Remington, T., Wilson, K., Quiros, C. A. and Ferris, S. 2009. What farmers want: collective capacity for sustainable entrepreneurship. *International Journal of Agricultural Sustainability,* Vol. 7, No. 2.

Asino, T. I., Wilder, H. and Ferris, S. 2011. Innovative use of ICT in Namibia for nationhood. Lekoko, R. N. and Semali, L. M. (eds), *Cases on Developing Countries and ICT Integration: Rural Community Development*. Hershey, PA, Idea Group.

Aslam, M. 2009. The relative effectiveness of government and private schools in Pakistan: are girls worse off? *Education Economics,* Vol. 17, No. 3, pp. 329-54.

Aslam, M. and Kingdon, G. 2007. *What Can Teachers Do to Raise Pupil Achievement?* Oxford, UK, University of Oxford. (Centre for the Study of African Economies Series, WPS/2007-14.)

___. 2011. What can teachers do to raise pupil achievement? *Economics of Education Review,* Vol. 30, No. 3, pp. 559-74.

Atherton, P. and Kingdon, G. 2010. *The Relative Effectiveness and Costs of Contract and Regular Teachers in India*. Oxford, UK, Center for the Study of African Economies, University of Oxford. (Working Paper, WPS/2010-15.)

Auguste, B., Kihn, P. and Miller, M. 2010. *Closing the Talent Gap: Attracting and Retaining Top-third Graduates to Careers in Teaching - an International and Market Research-Based Perspective*. New York, McKinsey and Company.

Australian Aid. 2012. *Australian Multilateral Assessment March 2012: Global Partnership for Education*. Canberra, Australian Aid.

Ayalon, H. and Shavit, Y. 2004. Educational Reforms and Inequalities in Israel: The MMI Hypothesis Revisited. *Sociology of Education,* Vol. 77, No. 2, pp. 103-20.

Azam, M. and Kingdon, G. G. 2013. Are girls the fairer sex in India? Revisiting intra-household allocation of education expenditure. *World Development,* Vol. 42, pp. 143-64.

Badescu, M., Garrouste, C. and Loi, M. 2013. The distribution of adult training among European unemployed. *International Journal of Continuing Engineering Education and Life-Long Learning,* Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 103-20.

Baez, J., de la Fuente, A. and Santos, I. 2010. *Do Natural Disasters Affect Human Capital? an Assessment Based on Existing Empirical Evidence*. Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labor. (IZA Discussion Paper, 5164.)

Baird, S., Ferreira, F. H. G., Özler, B. and Woolcock, M. 2013. *Relative Effectiveness of Conditional and Unconditional Cash Transfers for Schooling Outcomes in Developing Countries: a Systematic Review*. Oslo, The Campbell Collaboration. (Campbell Systematic Reviews, 2013:8.)

Baird, S., McIntosh, C. and Özler, B. 2011. Cash or condition? Evidence from a randomized cash transfer experiment. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics,* Vol. 126, No. 4, pp. 1409-753.

Balarin, M. and Benavides, M. 2010. Curriculum reform and the displacement of knowledge in Peruvian rural secondary schools: exploring the unintended local consequences of global education policies. *Compare: a Journal of Comparative and International Education,* Vol. 40, No. 3, pp. 311-25.

Baliamoune-Lutz, M. 2011. *The Making of Gender Equality in Tunisia and Implications for Development*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Background Paper for World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development.)

Banerjee, A. V., Banerji, R., Duflo, E., Glennerster, R. and Khemani, S. 2010. Pitfalls of participatory programs: evidence from a randomized evaluation in education in India. *American Economic Journal: Economic Policy,* Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 1-30.

Banerji, R. 2015. Second Chance Programmes in South Asia. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Banerji, R., Bhattacharjea, S. and Wadhwa, W. 2011. *Inside Primary Schools: a Study of Teaching and Learning in Rural India*. Mumbai, India, Pratham Mumbai Education Initiative.

Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics. 2013. *Literacy Assessment Survey 2011*. Dhaka, Bureau of Statistics, Government of Bangladesh.

Banks, L. M. and Polack, S. 2014. *The Economic Costs of Exclusion and Gains of Inclusion of People with Disabilities*. Cambridge, UK/ London, CBM/International Centre for Evidence in Disability, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine.

Banks, N. and Hulme, D. 2012. *The Role of NGOs and Civil Society in Development and Poverty Reduction*. Manchester, Brooks World Poverty Institute, University of Manchester. (BWPI Working Paper, 171.)

Bano, M. 2010. Madrasas as partners in education provision: the South Asian experience. *Development in Practice,* Vol. 20, No. 4-5, pp. 554-66.

Barakat, B. 2015. Improving adult literacy without improving the literacy of adults? A cross-national analysis of adult literacy from a cohort perspective. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Barde, J. A. and Walkiewicz, J. 2014. *Access to Piped Water and Human Capital Formation: Evidence from Brazilian Primary Schools*. Freiburg, Germany, University of Freiburg. (Department of International Economic Policy Discussion Paper, 28.)

Barkat, A., Khan, S. H., Rahman, M., Zaman, S., Poddar, A., Halim, S., Ratna, N. N., Majid, M., Maksud, A. K. M., Karim, A. and Islam, S. 2002. *Economic and Social Impact Evaluation Study of the Rural Electrification Program in Bangladesh*. Dhaka, NRECA International Limited/ USAID.

Barker, G., Contreras, J. M., Heilman, B., Singh, A. K., Verma, R. K. and Nascimento, M. 2011. *Evolving Men: Initial Results from the International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGES)*. Washington, DC/ Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, International Center for Research on Women/ Instituto Promundo.

Barker, G., Verma, R., Crownover, J., Segundo, M., Fonseca, V., Contreras, J. M., Heilman, B. and Pawlak, P. 2012. Boys and education in the global South: emerging vulnerabilities and new opportunities for promoting changes in gender norms. *Thymos: Journal of Boyhood Studies,* Vol. 6, No. 2, pp. 137-50.

Barnett, W. S. 2008. *Preschool Education and its Lasting Effects: Research and Policy Implications*. Tempe, AZ/ Boulder, CO, Education Policy Research Unit/ Education and the Public Interest Center.

Barrera-Osorio, F., Fasih, T., Patrinos, H. and Santibáñez, L. 2009. *Decentralized Decision-making in Schools: the Theory and Evidence on School-Based Management*. Washington, DC, World Bank Publications. (Directions in Development.)

Barrett, A. 2007. Beyond the polarization of pedagogy: models of classroom practice in Tanzanian primary schools. *Comparative Education,* Vol. 43, No. 2, pp. 273-94.

Barrett, A., Ali, S., Clegg, J., Hinostroza, J. E., Lowe, J., Nikel, J., Novelli, M., Oduro, G., Pillay, M., Tikly, L. and Yu, G. 2007. Initiatives to improve the quality of teaching and learning: a review of recent literature. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

Barrientos, A., Nino-Zarazua, M. and Maitrot, M. 2010. *Social Assistance in Developing Countries Database: Version 5.0 July 2010*. Manchester, UK, Brooks World Poverty Institute, University of Manchester.

Bartlett, L. 2008. Literacy's verb: Exploring what literacy is and what literacy does. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 28, No. 6, pp. 737-53.

___. 2015. Access and quality of education for international migrant children. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Basch, F. 2011. *Children's Right to Early Education in the City Buenos Aires: A Case Study on ACIJ's Class Action*. Washington, DC, International Budget Partnership. (From Analysis to Impact: Partnership Initiative Case Study Series, 5.)

Bastos, P. and Straume, O. R. 2013. *Preschool Education in Brazil: Does Public Supply Crowd Out Private Enrollment?* Washington, DC, Inter-American Development Bank.

Batho, R. 2009. *The Gender Agenda Final Report*. Nottingham, UK, UK Department for Children, Schools and Families.

Baudino, C. 2007. Review of recent literature on gender inequalities in teaching methods and peer relationship management in the French-speaking area. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

Baulch, B. 2011. The medium-term impact of the primary education stipend in rural Bangladesh. *Journal of Development Effectiveness,* Vol. 3, No. 2, pp. 243-62.

Beede, D., Julian, T., Langdon, D., McKittrick, G., Khan, B. and Doms, M. 2011. *Women in STEM: A Gender Gap to Innovation*. Washington, DC, US Department of Commerce. (Economics and Statistics Administration Issue Brief, 04-11.)

Behrman, J. R., Parker, S. W. and Todd, P. 2011. Do conditional cash transfers for schooling generate lasting benefits? A five-year followup of Progresa/ Oportunidades. *Journal of Human Resources,* Vol. 46, No. 1, pp. 93-122.

___. 2013. Incentives for students and parents. Glewwe, P. (ed.), *Education Policy in Developing Countries*. Chicago, IL, University of Chicago Press, pp. 137-92.

Behrman, J. R., Sengupta, P. and Todd, P. 2005. Progressing through Progresa: an impact assessment of a school subsidy experiment in rural Mexico. *Economic Development and Cultural Change,* Vol. 54, No. 1, pp. 237-75.

Beleli, Ö. 2012. *All Children in School by 2015: Turkey Country Study*. Ankara/Montreal, Canada, UNICEF Turkey/ UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Bellei, C. 2009. Does lengthening the school day increase students' academic achievement? Results from a natural experiment in Chile. *Economics of Education Review,* Vol. 28, No. 5, pp. 629-40.

Bellinger, A. and Fletcher, B. 2014. *Non-Traditional Financing for Education*. London, Coffrey International Development.

Ben Abdelkarim, O., Ben Youssef, A., M'Henni, H. and Rault, C. 2014. *Testing the Causality between Electricity Consumption, Energy Use and Education in Africa*. Ann Arbor, MI, William Davidson Institute. (Working Paper, 1084.)

Benavot, A. 2004. Global study of intended instructional time and official school curricula, 1980-2000. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005*.

___. forthcoming. Literacy in the 21st century: towards a dynamic nexus of social relations. *International Review of Education*.

Benavot, A. and Gad, L. 2004. Actual instructional time in African primary schools: factors that reduce school quality in developing countries. *Prospects,* Vol. 34, No. 3, pp. 291-310.

Benavot, A. and Köseleci, N. 2015. Seeking quality: growth of national learning assessments, 1990-2013. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Benavot, A. and Resnick, J. 2006. Lessons from the past: A comparative socio-historical analysis of primary and secondary education. Cohen, J., Bloom, D. and Malin, M. (eds), *Educating All Children: A Global Agenda.* Cambridge, MA, American Academy of Arts and Sciences/ MIT Press, pp. 123-229.

Benhassine, N., Devoto, F., Duflo, E., Dupas, P. and Pouliquen, V. 2013. *Turning a Shove into a Nudge? A 'Labeled Cash Transfer' for Education*. Cambridge, MA, National Bureau of Economic Research. (NBER Working Paper, 19227.)

Benin Ministry of Education and Scientific Research. 2000. *EFA 2000 Country Assessment Reports: Benin*. UNESCO, Paris. http://www.unesco.org/education/wef/countryreports/country_all.html (Accessed 10 December 2014.)

Bentaouet-Kattan, R. 2006. *Implementation of Free Basic Education Policy*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Education Working Paper, 7.)

Bentaouet-Kattan, R. and Burnett, N. 2004. *User Fees in Primary Education*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Benveniste, L., Marshall, J. and Caridad Araujo, M. 2008. *Teaching in Cambodia*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Berlinski, S., Galiani, S. and Gertler, P. 2009. The effect of pre-primary education on primary school performance. *Journal of Public Economics,* Vol. 93, No. 1-2, pp. 219-34.

Bermingham, D. 2004. *The Education For All Fast-Track Initiative*. Washington, DC.

Best, M., Knight, P., Lietz, P., Lockwood, C., Nugroho, D. and Tobin, M. 2013. *The Impact of National and International Assessment Programmes on Education Policy, Particularly Policies Regarding Resource Allocation and Teaching and Learning Practices in Developing Countries*. London, EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London.

Bhana, D. 2008. 'Girls hit!' Constructing and negotiating violent African femininities in a working-class primary school. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education,* Vol. 29, No. 3, pp. 401-15.

Bhana, D., de Lange, N. and Mitchell, C. 2009. Male teachers talk about gender violence: "Zulu men demand respect". *Educational Review,* Vol. 61, No. 1, pp. 49-62.

Bhana, D., Morrell, R., Shefer, T. and Ngabaza, S. 2010. South African teachers' responses to teenage pregnancy and teenage mothers in schools. *Culture, Health & Sexuality,* Vol. 12, No. 8, pp. 871-83.

Bharadwaj, P., De Giorgi, G., Hansen, D. and Neilson, C. 2012. *The Gender Gap in Mathematics: Evidence from Low- and Middle-Income Countries*. Cambridge, MA, National Bureau of Economic Research. (NBER Working Paper, 18464.)

Bhattacharjea, S., Banerjee, R. and Wadhwa, W. 2013. The Annual Status of Education Report (ASER). *Research in Comparative and International Education,* Vol. 8, No. 3, pp. 387-96.

Bhushan, A., Samy, Y. and Medu, K. 2013. *Financing the Post-2015 Development Agenda: Domestic Revenue Mobilization in Africa*. Ontario, The North-South Institute.

Bidwell, K. and Watine, L. 2014. *Exploring Early Education Programs in Peri-urban Settings in Africa*. New Haven, CT, Innovations for Poverty Action.

Biersteker, L. 2010. *Scaling-up Early Child Development in South Africa: Introducing a Reception Year (Grade R) for Children Aged Five Years as the First Year of Schooling*. Washington, DC, Brookings Institution. (Wolfensohn Center for Development Working Paper, 17.)

___. 2013. *Lessons from South Africa's National Integrated Plan for ECD*. The Hague, The Netherlands, Bernard van Leer Foundation. http://vps.earlychildhoodmagazine.org/lessons-from-south-africas-national-integrated-plan-for-ecd/ (Accessed 21 May 2014.)

Bines, H. 2007. Education for all in Ethiopia: policy and progress, 2000–2006: country case study. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

Bingen, J., Serrano, A. and Howard, J. 2003. Linking farmers to markets: different approaches to human capital development. *Food Policy,* Vol. 28, No. 4, pp. 405-19.

Birdthistle, I., Dickson, K., Freeman, M. and Javidi, L. 2011. *What Impact does the Provision of Separate Toilets for Girls at Schools have on their Primary and Secondary School Enrolment, Attendance and Completion? A Systematic Review of the Evidence*. London, EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London.

Black, M. M. and Dewey, K. G. 2014. Promoting equity through integrated early child development and nutrition interventions. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences,* Vol. 1308, pp. 1-10.

Blimpo, M. P. and Evans, D. K. 2011. *School-Based Management and Educational Outcomes: Lessons from a Randomized Field Experiment*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Bloem, S. 2013. *PISA in Low and Middle Income Countries*. Paris, OECD. (OECD Education Working Paper, 93.)
Blumberg, R. L. 2007. Gender bias in textbooks: a hidden obstacle on the road to gender equality in education. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.
___. 2015. Policy reform and programmes to eliminate gender bias in textbooks. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.
Boak, E. and Ndaruhutse, S. 2011. *The Impact of Sector-Wide Approaches*. London, CfBT Education Trust.
Boissiere, M. 2004. *Determinants of Primary Education Outcomes in Developing Countries: Background Paper for the Evaluation of the World Bank's Support to Primary Education*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Report, 39157.)
Bol, T. and Werfhorst, H. G. v. d. 2013. Educational systems and the trade-off between labor market allocation and equality of educational opportunity. *Comparative Education Review,* Vol. 57, No. 2, pp. 285-308.
Bold, T., Kimenyi, M., Mwabu, G. and Sandefur, J. 2010. *Free Primary Education in Kenya: Enrolment, Achievement and Accountability.* Conference paper for Northeast Universities Development Consortium, Boston, MA, MIT, 6 - 7 November, 2010.
Bolívar, A. 2011. The dissatisfaction of the losers. Pereyra, M. A., Kotthoff, H.-G. and Cowen, R. (eds), *Pisa Under Examination: Changing Knowledge, Changing Tests, and Changing Schools*. Rotterdam, The Netherlands, Sense Publishers.
Booth, T. and Ainscow, M. (eds). 1998. *From Them to Us: an International Study of Inclusion in Education*. London, Routledge.
___. 2002. *Index for Inclusion: Developing Learning and Participation in Schools*. Bristol, UK, Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education.
Boothby, N. 1992. Displaced children: psychological theory and practice from the field. *Journal of Refugee Studies,* Vol. 5, pp. 106-22.
Boughton, B. 2010. Back to the future? Timor-Leste, Cuba and the return of the mass literacy campaign. *Literacy & Numeracy Studies,* Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 405-19.
Bourdon, J., Frölich, M. and Michaelowa, K. 2010. Teacher shortages, teacher contracts and their effect on education in Africa. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. Series A (Statistics in Society),* Vol. 173, No. 1, pp. 93-116.
Boyden, J., Pankhurst, A. and Tafere, Y. 2013. *Harmful Traditional Practices and Child Protection: Contested Understandings and Practices of Female Child Marriage and Circumcision in Ethiopia*. Oxford, UK, Young Lives, Department of International Development, University of Oxford. (Young Lives Working Paper, 93.)
Braham, K. 2014. *Morocco Second Education Development Policy Loan: P120541*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Implementation Status Results Report, 2.)
Brannelly, L., Ndaruhutse, S. and Rigaud, C. 2009. *Donors' Engagement: Supporting Education in Fragile and Conflict-Affected Countries*. Paris/ London, UNESCO International Institute for Education Planning/ CfBT Education Trust.
Brass, J. 2012. Why do NGOs go where they go? Evidence from Kenya. *World Development,* Vol. Volume 40, No. Issue 2, pp. 387-401.
Bray, M. and Kwo, O. 2014. *Regulating Private Tutoring for Public Good: Policy Options for Supplementary Education in Asia*. Hong Kong, China/ Bangkok, Comparative Education Research Centre (CERC), the University of Hong Kong/ UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education. (CERC Monograph Series in Comparative and International Education Development, 10.)
Bray, M. and Lykins, C. 2012. *Shadow Education Private Supplementary Tutoring: Private Supplementary Tutoring and its Implications for Policy Makers in Asia*. Manila/ Hong Kong, China, Asian Development Bank/ Comparative Education Research Centre (CERC), the University of Hong Kong. (CERC Monograph Series in Comparative and International Education and Development, 9.)
Breakspear, S. 2012. *The Policy Impact of PISA: an Exploration of the Normative Effects of International Benchmarking in School System Performance*. Paris, OECD. (OECD Education Working Paper, 71.)
Brind, T., Harper, C. and Moore, K. 2008. *Education for Migrant, Minority and Marginalised Children in Europe*, Open Society Institute.
Britto, P. R., Engle, P. L. and Super, C. M. 2013. Early childhood development: translating research to global policy. Britto, P. R., Engle, P. L. and Super, C. M. (eds), *Handbook of Early Childhood Development Research and its Impact on Global Policy*. Oxford, UK, Oxford University Press, pp. 3-23.

Britto, P. R., Yoshikawa, H., van Ravens, J., Ponguta, L. A., Reyes, M., Oh, S., Dimaya, R., Nieto, A. M. and Seder, R. 2014. Strengthening systems for integrated early childhood development services: a cross-national analysis of governance. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences,* Vol. 1308, pp. 245-55.

Bromley, P., Meyer, J. W. and Ramirez, F. O. 2010. Human rights in social science textbooks: cross-national analyses, 1970-2008. *Sociology of Education,* Vol. 83, No. 2, pp. 111-34.

___. 2011a. Student-centeredness in Social Science textbooks, 1970-2008: a cross-national study. *Social Forces,* Vol. 90, No. 2, pp. 547-70.

___. 2011b. The worldwide spread of environmental discourse in social studies, history and civics textbooks, 1970-2008. *Comparative Education Review,* Vol. 55, No. 4, pp. 517-45.

Bromley, P. and Terra, L. 2012. Globalization of multicultural education in social science textbooks: cross-national analyses, 1950–2010. *Multicultural Perspectives,* Vol. 14, No. 3, pp. 136-43.

Brook, R. M., Hillyer, K. J. and Bhuvaneshwari, G. 2008. Microfinance for community development, poverty alleviation and natural resource management in peri-urban hubli-dharwad, India. *Environment and Urbanization,* Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 149-62.

Brown, G. 2012. *Out of Wedlock, Into School: Combating Child Marriage through Education*. London, The Office of Gordon and Sarah Brown.

Brownlee, J., Berthelsen, D. and Segaran, N. 2009. Childcare workers' and centre directors' beliefs about infant childcare quality and professional training. *Early Child Development and Care,* Vol. 179, No. 4, pp. 453-75.

Brugeilles, C. and Cromer, S. 2009. *Promoting Gender Equality through Textbooks: A Methodological Guide*. Paris, UNESCO.

Bruneforth, M. 2015. EFA's status and achievements by 2015: national, regional and global projections. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Bruns, B., Evans, D. and Luque, J. 2012. *Achieving World-Class Education in Brazil: the Next Agenda*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Directions in Development.)

Bruns, B., Filmer, D. and Patrinos, H. 2011. *Making Schools Work: New Evidence on Accountability Reforms*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Bruns, B., Mingat, A. and Rakotomalala, R. 2003. *Achieving Universal Primary Education by 2015: A Chance for Every Child*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Brylinski, E. and Köseleci, N. 2015. Evolution of mother tongue policy. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Buchmann, C. and Hannum, E. 2001. Education and stratification in developing countries: A review of theories and research. *Annual Review of Sociology,* Vol. 27, pp. 77-102.

Buckley, J., Elacqua, G. and Schneider, M. 2006. School choice in Chile: Is it class or the classroom? *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management,* Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 577 - 601.

Bundy, D., Burbano, C., Grosh, M., Gelli, A., Jukes, M. and Drake, L. 2009. *Rethinking School Feeding: Social Safety Nets, Child Development, and the Education Sector*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Burde, D. and Linden, L. L. 2012. *The Effect of Village-Based Schools: Evidence from a Randomized Controlled Trial in Afghanistan*. Cambridge, MA, National Bureau of Economic Research. (Working Paper, 18039.)

Burnett, N. 2010. How to develop the UNESCO the world needs: the challenges of reform. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education,* Vol. 13, No. 2, pp. 89-99.

Burnett, N. and Bermingham, D. 2010. *Innovative Financing for Education*. London, Open Society Foundation / Results for Development Institute. (Education Support Program Working Paper, 5.)

Burnett, N. and Felsman, C. 2012. *Post-2015 Education MDGs*. London, Results for Development Institute/ Overseas Development Institute.

Burton, P. 2005. *Suffering at School: The Results of the Malawi Gender-Based Violence in Schools Survey*. Pretoria, Institute for Security Studies.

Byun, S.-y., Henck, A. and Post, D. 2014. Cross-National Variations in Student Employment and Academic Performance: The Roles of National Context and International Law. *Comparative Education Review,* Vol. 0, No. 0, p. 000.

Caillods, F. and Hallak, J. 2004. *Education and PRSPs: a Review of Experiences*. Paris, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning.

Cambodia Government. 2006. *Five Year Strategic Plan: National Immunization Program Cambodia 2006-2010*. Phnom Pen, Ministry of Health, Government of Cambodia.

Cambridge Education, Mokoro and OPM. 2010. *Mid-term Evaluation of the EFA Fast Track Initiative. Final Synthesis Report. Volume 1 – Main Report.* Cambridge/ Oxford, UK, Cambridge Education/ Mokoro Ltd/ Oxford Policy Management.

Cameroon Government. 2006. *Draft Document of the Sector Wide Approach: Education*. Yaoundé, Government of Cameroon.

___. 2009. *Growth and Employment Strategy Paper: Reference for Framework for Government Action over the Period 2010-2020*. Yaoundé, Government of Cameroon.

Carbonaro, W. 2005. Tracking, Students' Effort, and Academic Achievement. *Sociology of Education,* Vol. 78, No. 1, pp. 27-49.

Carlitz, R. and McGee, R. 2013. *Raising the Stakes: The Impact of HakiElimu's Advocacy Work on Education Policy and Budget in Tanzania*. Washington, DC, International Budget Partnership. (From Analysis to Impact: Partnership Initiative Case Study Series, 12.)

Carr-Hill, R. 2008. *International Literacy Statistics: a Review of Concepts, Methodology and Current Data*. Montreal, UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Carr-Hill, R. A. 2012. Finding and then counting out-of-school children. *Compare,* Vol. 42, No. 2, pp. 187-212.

Carr-Hill, R. A. and Peart, E. 2006. *The Education of Nomadic Peoples in East Africa: Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda - Review of Relevant Literature*. Tunis/Paris, African Development Bank / UNESCO International Institute for Education Planning.

Casale, M., Wild, L., Cluver, L. D. and Kuo, C. 2014. The relationship between social support and anxiety among caregivers of children in HIV-endemic South Africa. *Psychology, Health & Medicine,* Vol. 19, No. 4, pp. 490-503.

Case, A., Paxson, C. and Ableidinger, J. 2004. Orphans in Africa: parental death, poverty, and school enrollment. *Demography,* Vol. 41, No. 3, pp. 483-508.

Catino, J., Colom, A. and Ruiz, M. J. 2013. *Equipping Mayan Girls to Improve their Lives* New York, Population Council. (Transitions to Adulthood Brief, 5.)

CEF. 2007. *Driving the Bus: the Journey of National Education Coalitions*. London, Commonwealth Education Fund.

___. 2013. *Funding Change: Sustaining Civil Society Advocacy in Education*. London, Commonwealth Education Fund.

Center for Systemic Peace. 2014. *Polity IV Annual Time Series, 1800-2013*. Vienna, Va., Center for Systemic Peace. http://www.systemicpeace.org/inscr/p4v2013.xls. (Accessed 24 October 2014.)

Centre for Early Childhood Education and Development. 2013. *Annual Report 2012-13*. New Delhi, Ambedkar University.

Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters. 2013. *People Affected by Conflict 2013: Humanitarian Needs in Numbers*. Brussels, Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters.

CERF. 2010. *Central Emergency Response Fund Life-Saving Criteria*. Geneva, Switzerland, Central Emergency Response Fund.

Cervellati, M. and Sunde, U. 2013. Life expectancy, schooling, and lifetime labor supply: theory and evidence revisited. *Econometrica,* Vol. 81, No. 5, pp. 2055-86.

Chachuaio, A. M. and Dhorsan, A. 2008. The local curriculum in Mozambique: the Santa Rita community school in Xinavane. *Prospects,* Vol. 38, No. 2, pp. 199-213.

CHAMP. 2014. 사업개요 / 연혁 *(Overview and history of CHAMP, in Korean)*, Consortium for HRD Ability Magnified Programme (CHAMP). <http://www.c-hrd.net/consortium/history.php> (Accessed 01 November 2014.)

Chan, K. (ed.). 2013. *China, Internal Migration*. New York, Wiley. (The Encyclopedia of Global Migration.)

Chang, M. C., Shaeffer, S., Al-Samarrai, S., Ragatz, A. B., de Ree, J. and Stevenson, R. 2014. *Teacher Reform in Indonesia : the Role of Politics and Evidence in Policy Making*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Directions in Development: Human Development, 83152.)

Channa, A. 2014. Decentralization and the quality of education. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Channa, A. and Faguet, J.-P. 2012. *Decentralization of Health and Education in Developing Countries: a Quality-Adjusted Review of Empirical Literature*. London, The London School of Economics and Political Science. (Economic Organization and Public Policy Discussion Paper, 38.)

Chapman, D. W., Cohen, M., Mercer, M. and Weidman, J. 2005. The search for quality: A five country study of national strategies to improve educational quality in Central Asia. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 25, No. 5, pp. 514-30.

Chaudhary, L., Musacchio, A., Nafziger, S. and Yan, S. 2012. Big BRICs, weak foundations: the beginning of public elementary education in Brazil, Russia, India, and China. *Explorations in Economic History,* Vol. 49, No. 2, pp. 221-40.

Chaudhury, N., Friedman, J. and Onishi, J. 2013. *Philippines Conditional Cash Transfer Program: Impact Evaluation 2012*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Report, 75533-PH.)

Chaudhury, N., Hammer, J., Kremer, M., Muralidharan, K. and Rogers, F. H. 2006. Missing in action: teacher and health worker absence in developing countries. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives,* Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 91 - 116.

Chaudry, A., Capps, R., Pedroza, J. and Castaneda, R. 2010. *Children in the Aftermath of Immigration Enforcement*. Washington, D.C., Urban Institute.

Chavva, K. and Smith, C. 2012. Reading the water table: The interaction between literacy practices and groundwater management training in preparing farmers for climate change in South India. *International Review of Education,* Vol. 58, No. 3, pp. 353-74.

China Government. 2003. *China's Action Plan for Education for All*. Beijing, Government of China.

Chopra, R. 2012. *Pakistan Curious About India's Tryst with Right to Education*. New Delhi, India Today. http://indiatoday.intoday.in/story/pakistan-curious-about-india-tryst-with-right-to-education/1/217882.html (Accessed 14 November 2014.)

Christensen, C. and Stanat, P. 2007. *Language Policies and Practices for Helping Immigrants and Second-Generation Students Succeed*. Washington, D.C., Migration Policy Institute.

Chubb, J. E. and Moe, T. 1990. *Politics, Markets and America's Schools*. Washington, DC, Brookings Institution Press.

Chudgar, A. forthcoming. Association between contract-teachers and student learning in five Francophone African countries. *Comparative Education Review*.

Chudgar, A., Chandra, M., Creed, B., Pippin, J., Fagioli, L. and Luschei, T. F. 2013. Regional Report-Asia: Study of Teachers for Children Marginalized by Social Origin, Economic Status, or Location (Unpublished.)

Chudgar, A., Chandra, M. and Razzaque, A. 2014. Alternative forms of teacher hiring in developing countries and its implications: a review of literature. *Teaching and Teacher Education,* Vol. 37, pp. 150-61.

Chudgar, A. and Luschei, T. 2015. Evolution of policies on teacher deployment to disadvantaged areas. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Chudgar, A. and Quin, E. 2012. Relationship between private schooling and achievement: results from rural and urban India. *Economics of Education Review,* Vol. 31, No. 4, pp. 376-90.

Chudgar, A. and Sankar, V. 2008. The relationship between teacher gender and student achievement: evidence from five Indian states. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education,* Vol. 38, No. 5, pp. 627-42.

CIDA. 2012. *Civil Society Organizations: Building More Inclusive Partnerships in Aid Effective Approaches to Education*. Quebec, Canada, Canadian International Development Agency. (Aid Effectiveness and Quality Education.)

CIVICUS. 2014. *State of Civil Society Report 2014: Reimagining Global Governance*. Johannesburg, South Africa, CIVICUS.

Clarke, D. and Aggleton, P. 2012. Life Skills-Based HIV Education and Education for All. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2012*.

Clemens, M. 2004. *The Long Walk to School: International Education Goals in Historical Perspective*. Washington, DC, Center for Global Development. (Working Paper, 37.)

Climate Change and African Political Stability. 2013. *Complex Emergencies*. Austin, TX, Climate Change and African Political Stability, Robert S. Strauss Center for International Security and Law, University of Texas at Austin. (Research Brief, 16.)

Cluver, L. D., Operario, D., Gardner, F. and Boyes, M. E. 2011. A family disease: mental health of children orphaned by AIDS and living with HIV+ caregivers. Fitzgerald, H. E., Puura, K., Tomlinson, M. and Paul, C. (eds), *Child Psychology and Mental Health: Cultural and Ethno-Racial Perspectives - Volume 1: International Perspectives, Development and Context*. Santa Barbara, CA, Praeger, pp. 65-87.

Coady, D. P. and Parker, S. W. 2004. Cost-effectiveness analysis of demand- and supply-side education interventions: the case of Progresa in Mexico. *Review of Development Economics,* Vol. 8, No. 3, pp. 440-51.

Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers. 2008. *Child Soldiers: Global Report 2008*. London, Coalition to Stop the Use of Child Soldiers.

Cobbett, M. and Younger, M. 2012. Boys' educational 'underachievement' in the Caribbean: interpreting the 'problem'. *Gender and Education,* Vol. 26, No. 6, pp. 611-25.

Coe, S. 2013. *Outside the Circle: a Research Initiative by Plan International into the Rights of children with Disabilities to Education and Protection in West Africa*. Dakar, Plan West Africa.

Cohen, D. and Leker, L. 2014. Health and Education: Another Look with the Proper Data. Paris, Paris School of Economics. (Unpublished.)

Cooke, K. 2014. *Nigeria: Why Pupils Learning in English and Mother Tongue are Not Mutually Exclusive*. https://efareport.wordpress.com/2014/10/22/nigeria-why-pupils-learning-english-and-mother-tongue-are-not-mutually-exclusive/#more-5196 (Accessed 27 November 2014.)

Council of Europe. 2011. *Living Together: Combining Diversity and Freedom in 21st century Europe - Report of the Group of Eminent Persons of the Council of Europe*. Strasbourg, France, Council of Europe.

Cristia, J. P., Cueto, S., Ibarrarán, P., Santiago, A. and Severín, E. 2012. *Technology and Child Development: Evidence from the One Laptop per Child Program*. New York, Inter-American Development Bank. (IDB working paper series, 304.)

Crook, D. 1997. Challenge, response and dilution: a revisionist view of the emergency training scheme for teachers, 1945-1951. *Cambridge Journal of Education,* Vol. Volume 27, No. Number 3, pp. 379-89.

Crul, M. and Holdaway, J. 2009. Children of immigrants in schools in New york and Amsterdam: the factors shaping attainment *Teachers College Record,* Vol. 111, No. 6, pp. 1476-507.

Crul, M. and Vermeulen, H. 2003. The second generation in Europe. *International Migration Review,* Vol. 37, No. 4, pp. 965-86.

Cuaresma, J. and Vincelette, G. 2008. *Debt Relief and Education in HIPCs*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Cueto, S., Guerrero, G., Leon, J., Zevallos, A. and Sugimaru, C. 2009. *Promoting Early Childhood Development Through a Public Programme: Wawa Wasi in Peru*. Oxford,UK, Young Lives, Department of International Development, University of Oxford. (Working Paper, 51.)

Culey, C., Martin, A. and Lewer, D. 2007. *Global Campaign for Education: 2007 Mid-term Review*. London, Firetail Limited.

Dahal, M. and Nguyen, Q. 2014. *Private Non-State Sector Engagement in the Provision of Educational Services at the Primary and Secondary Levels in South Asia: an Analytical Review of its Role in School Enrollment and Student Achievement*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper, 6899.)

Dakkak, N. 2011. *Obstacles Towards Curriculum Reform in the Middle East: Using Jordan and the UAE as Case Studies*. Dubai, United Arab Emirates, Dubai School of Government. (Policy Brief, 28.)

Dale, R. 1999. Specifying globalization effects on national policy: a focus on the mechanisms. *Journal of Education Policy,* Vol. 14, No. 1, pp. 1-17.

Dang, H.-A., Sarr, L. and Asadullah, N. 2011. *School Access, Resources, and Learning Outcomes: Evidence from a Non-formal School Program in Bangladesh*. Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labor. (IZA Discussion Paper, 5659.)

Daniel, J. S. 2010. *Mega-schools, Technology and Teachers*. Abingdon, UK, Routledge.

Daoust, G. D. 2012. *Actions and Interactions: Gender Equality in Teaching and Education Management in Cameroon*. Yaoundé, Forum of African Women Educationalists Cameroon/ Voluntary Services Overseas Cameroon.

Davis, J. and Bauman, K. 2013. *School Enrollment in the United States: 2011 - Population Characteristics*. Washington, DC, Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration, U.S. Census Bureau.

Davoodi, H., Tiongson, E. and Asawanuchit, S. 2010. Benefit incidence of public education and health spending worldwide: Evidence from a new database. *Poverty & Public Policy,* Vol. 2, No. 2.

Dawson, W. 2009. Tricks of the teacher: teacher corruption and shadow education in Cambodia. Heyneman, S. (ed.), *Education and Corruption*. Rotterdam, Sense Publishers.

Day Ashley, L., Mcloughlin, C., Aslam, M., Engel, J., Wales, J., Rawal, S., Batley, R., Kingdon, G., Nicolai, S. and Rose, P. 2014. *The Role and Impact of Private Schools in Developing Countries*. London, Department for International Development. (Education Rigorous Literature Review.)

De Baessa, Y., Chesterfield, R. and Ramos, T. 2002. Active learning and democratic behaviour in Guatemalan rural primary schools. *Compare: a Journal of Comparative and International Education,* Vol. 32, No. 2, pp. 205-18.

De Grauwe, A. 2007. Transforming school supervision into a tool for quality improvement. *International Review of Education,* Vol. 53, No. 5/6, pp. 709-14.

De Grauwe, A. and Lugaz, C. 2007. District education offices in French speaking West Africa: autonomy, professionalism and accountability. *Prospects,* Vol. 37, No. 1, pp. 113-25.

De Koning, M. 2013. Contract teacher policies in India: debates on education quality and teacher's professional status. Verger, A., Altinyelken, H. and De Koning, M. (eds), *Global Managerial Education Reforms and Teachers: Emerging Policies, Controversies and Issues in Developing Contexts*, Education International Research Institute.

De La O, A. L. 2012. Do conditional cash transfers affect electoral behavior? Evidence from a randomized experiment in Mexico. *American Journal of Political Science,* Vol. 57, No. 1, pp. 1-14.

de Onis, M. and Blössner, M. 1997. *WHO Global Database on Child Growth and Malnutrition*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization.

de Onis, M., Blössner, M. and Borghi, E. 2012. Prevalence and trends of stunting among pre-school children, 1990-2020. *Public Health Nutrition,* Vol. 15, No. 1, pp. 142-8.

Deininger, K. 2003. Does cost of schooling affect enrollment by the poor? Universal primary education in Uganda. *Economics of Education Review,* Vol. 22, No. 3, pp. 291-305.

Dello-Iacovo, B. 2009. Curriculum reform and "quality education" in China: an overview. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 29, No. 3, pp. 241-49.

Delprato, M., Dunne, M. and Zeitlyn, B. forthcoming. Preschool attendance: a multilevel analysis of individual and community factors in 21 low and middle-income countries. *International Journal of Quantitative Research in Education*.

Demsteader, C. 2013. Do Sweden's free schools make the grade? *The Local,* 16 January 2013.

Desjardins, R. 2015. Participation in Adult Education Opportunities: Evidence from PIAAC and Policy Trends in Selected Countries. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

DeStefano, J. and Elaheebocus, N. 2010. *Using Opportunity to Learn and Early Grade Reading Fluency to Measure School Effectiveness in Woliso, Ethiopia*. Washington, DC, Educational Quality Improvement Program 2 (EQUIP2), United States Agency for International Development.

DeStefano, J., Moore, A.-M. S., Balwanz, D. and Hartwell, A. 2007. *Reaching the Underserved: Complementary Models of Effective Schooling*. Washington, DC, Academy for Educational Development.

Devarajan, S., Khemani, S. and Walton, M. 2011. *Civil Society, Public Action and Accountability in Africa*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper, 5733.)

Development Finance International. 2014. Public education expenditure, 2011-13. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Development Initiatives. 2013. *Investments to End Poverty: Real Money, Real Choices, Real Lives*. Bristol, UK, Development Initiatives Ltd.

___. 2014. *Global Humanitarian Assistance Report 2014*. Bristol, UK, Development Initiatives Ltd.

Devers, M., Henry, P. E., Hofmann, E. and Benabdallah, H. 2012. *Gender-based Violence at School in French-Speaking sub-Saharan Africa: Understanding its Impact on Girls' School Attendance to Combat it more Effectively*. Paris, Directorate-General of Global Affairs, Development and Partnerships, French Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

DevTech Systems Inc. 2008. *Safe Schools Project: Final Report*. Washington, DC, DevTech Systems, Inc and Centre for Educational Research and Training/ US Agency for International Development.

DFID. 2011. *Learning and Teaching Materials: Policy and Practice for Provision*. London, UK Department for International Development. (Guidance Note: A DFID Practice Paper.)

___. 2013. *Education Position Paper: Improving Learning, Expanding Opportunities*. London, UK Department for International Development.

Dhaliwal, I., Duflo, E., Glennerster, R. and Tulloch, C. 2013. Comparative cost-effectiveness analysis to inform policy in developing countries: a general framework with applications for education. Glewwe, P. (ed.), *Education Policy in Developing Countries*. Chicago, IL, University of Chicago Press, pp. 285-338.

Diawara, R. 2007. Making the case for a year of compulsory pre-primary education for all children. *UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa Newsletter,* Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 5-7.

DiGirolamo, A. M., Stansbery, P. and Lung'aho, M. 2014. Advantages and challenges of integration: opportunities for integrating early childhood development and nutrition programming. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences,* Vol. 1308, pp. 46-53.

Dincer, M. A., Kaushal, N. and Grossman, M. 2014. Women's education: harbinger of another Spring? Evidence from a natural experiment in Turkey. *World Development,* Vol. 64, pp. 243-58.

DiPrete, T. A. and Buchmann, C. 2013. *The Rise of Women: The Growing Gender Gap in Education and What It Means for American Schools: Executive Summary* New York, Russell Sage Foundation.

Dixon, P., Tooley, J. and Schagen, I. 2013. The relative quality of private and public schools for low-income families living in slums of Nairobi, Kenya. Srivastava, P. (ed.), *Low-fee Private Schooling: Aggravating Equity or Mitigating Disadvantage?* Oxford, UK, Symposium Books, pp. 83-103.

Dolan, J. 2011. *Making it Happen: Financing Education in Countries Affected by Conflict and Emergencies*. London, Save the Children.

Dolton, P., Marcenaro-Gutierrez, O., Pota, V., Boxser, M. and Pajpani, A. 2013. *Global Teacher Status Index*. London, Varkey GEMS Foundation.

Dreibelbis, R., Greene, L. E., Freeman, M. C., Saboori, S., Chase, R. P. and Rheingans, R. 2013. Water, sanitation, and primary school attendance: a multi-level assessment of determinants of household-reported absence in Kenya. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 33, No. 5, pp. 457-65.

Duflo, E., Dupas, P. and Kremer, M. 2012. *School Governance, Teacher Incentives, and Pupil-teacher Ratios: Experimental Evidence from Kenyan Primary Schools*. Cambridge, MA, National Bureau of Economic Research. (NBER Working Paper Series, 17939.)

Duflo, E., Dupas, P., Kremer, M. and Sinei, S. 2006. *Education and HIV/AIDS Prevention: Evidence from a Randomized Evaluation in Western Kenya*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (World Bank Policy Research Working Paper, 4024.)

Dundar, H., Beteille, T., Riboud, M. and Deolalikar, A. 2014. *Student Learning in South Asia: Challenges, Opportunities and Policy Priorities*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Directions in Development: Human Development, 88267.)

Dunne, M., Leach, F., Chilisa, B., Maundeni, T., Tabulawa, R., Kutor, N., Forde, L. and Asamoah, A. 2005. *Gendered School Experiences: The Impact on Retention and Achievement in Botswana and Ghana* London, UK Department for International Development. (Researching the Issues, 56.)

Duryea, S., Lam, D. and Levison, D. 2007. Effects of economic shocks on children's employment and schooling in Brazil. *Journal of Development Economics,* Vol. 84, No. 1, pp. 188-214.

Dyer, C. 2014. *Livelihoods and Learning: Education For All and the Marginalisation of Mobile Pastoralists*. London, Routledge.

___. 2015. Evolution in approaches to educating children from mobile and nomadic communities. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

ECLAC. 2010. *Social Panorama of Latin America 2010*. Santiago, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean.

Education Cannot Wait. 2014. *Financing Education in Emergencies: Challenges and Opportunities*. Geneva, Switzerland, Education Cannot Wait.

EFA-FTI. 2004. *Framework*. Washington, DC, Education for All – Fast Track Initiative.

EfC. 2014. *External Evaluation of the EFA Global Monitoring Report*. London, Education for Change.

Ejiogu, E. C. 2011. *The Roots of Political Instability in Nigeria: Political Evolution and Development in the Niger Basin*. Farnham, UK, Ashgate Publishing.

Elborgh-Woytek, K., Newiak, M., Kochhar, K., Fabrizio, S., Kpodar, K., Wingender, P., Clements, B. and Schwartz, G. 2013. *Women, Work, and the Economy: Macroeconomic Gains from Gender Equity*. Washington, DC, International Monetary Fund. (Staff Discussion Note, 13/10.)

Elley, W. 2005. How TIMSS-R contributed to education in eighteen developing countries. *Prospects,* Vol. 35, No. 2, pp. 199-212.

Ellis, F. 2012. 'We are all poor here': economic difference, social divisiveness and targeting cash transfers in sub-Saharan Africa. *The Journal of Development Studies,* Vol. 48, No. 2, pp. 201-14.

Eloundou-Enyegue, P. M. 2004. Pregnancy-related dropouts and gender inequality in education: a life-table approach and application to Cameroon. *Demography,* Vol. 41, No. 3, pp. 509-28.

Enge, K. 2011. *BridgeIT (Elimu Kwa Teknolojia) Summative Evaluation* Baltimore, MD, International Youth Foundation.

Engle, P. L., Black, M. M., Behrman, J. R., de Mello, M. C., Gertler, P. J., Kapiriri, L., Martorell, R. and Young, M. E. 2007. Strategies to avoid the loss of developmental potential in more than 200 million children in the developing world. *The Lancet,* Vol. 369, No. 9557, pp. 229-42.

Engle, P. L., Fernald, L. C. H., Alderman, H., Behrman, J., O'Gara, C., Yousafzai, A., Cabral de Mello, M., Hidrobo, M., Ulkuer, N., Ertem, I., Iltus, S. and Global Child Development Steering Group. 2011. Strategies for reducing inequalities and improving developmental outcomes for young children in low-income and middle-income countries. *The Lancet,* Vol. 378, No. 9799, pp. 1339-53.

Engle, P. L., Young, M. E. and Tamburlini, G. 2013. The role of the health sector in early childhood development. Britto, P. R., Engle, P. L. and Super, C. M. (eds), *Handbook of Early Childhood Development Research and its Impact on Global Policy*. Oxford, UK, Oxford University Press.

EPDC. 2009. *How (well) is Education Measured in Household Surveys? A Comparative Analysis of the Education Modules in 30 Household Surveys from 1996–2005*. Washington, DC, Education Policy and Data Center. (International Household Survey Network Working Paper, 2.)

Ertl, H. 2006. Educational standards and the changing discourse on education: the reception and consequences of the PISA study in Germany. *Oxford Review of Education,* Vol. 32, No. 5, pp. 619-34.

Esplen, E. 2009. *Gender and Care: Overview Report*. Falmer, UK, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex.

Esposito, L., Kebede, B. and Maddox, B. 2014. The value of literacy practices. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, pp. 1-18.

Estacio, E. 2013. Health literacy and community empowerment: It is more than just reading, writing and counting. *Journal of Health Psychology,* Vol. 18, No. 8, pp. 1056-68.

European Commission. 2012. *Thematic Global Evaluation of the Commission Support to Decentralisation Processes: Final Report - Volume 1*. Brussels, European Commission.

___. 2014. *The Structure of the European Education Systems 2013/14: Schematic Diagrams*. Brussels, European Commission.

European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights and UNDP. 2012. *The Situation of Roma in 11 EU Member States: Survey Results at a Glance*. Vienna/ New York, European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights/ United Nations Development Programme.

Eurostat. 2014. *Upper Secondary or Tertiary Educational Attainment, Age Group 20-24*. Luxembourg, Eurostat. http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/tgm/table.do?tab=table&init=1&language=en&pcode=tps00186&plugin=1. (Accessed 22 December 2014.)

Eurydice. 2010. *Gender Differences in Educational Outcomes: Study on the Measures Taken and the Current Situation in Europe*. Brussels, Audiovisual and Culture Executive Agency, Eurydice.

Evans, D., Kremer, M. and Ngatia, M. 2009. *The Impact of Distributing School Uniforms on Children's Education in Kenya*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Fairlie, R. W. and Robinson, J. 2013. Experimental Evidence on the Effects of Home Computers on Academic Achievement among Schoolchildren *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics,* Vol. 5, No. 3, pp. 211-40.

Fancy, K. and Fraser, E. M. 2014. *DFID Guidance Note: Part B Practical Guidance - Addressing Violence Against Women and Girls in Education Programming*. London, UK Department for International Development.

Fang, W. and Clarke, A. 2014. The practicum experiences of English Language Major student teachers during a period of profound curriculum reform in China. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 36, May, pp. 108-16.

Faour, B. 2010. *Early Childhood Care and Education Regional Report: Arab States*. Paris, UNESCO.

Faul, M. V. and Packer, S. 2015. The role of global EFA architectures. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

FAWE. 2013. *Gender Responsive Pedagogy*, Forum of African Women Educationalists http://www.fawe.org/activities/interventions/GRP/index.php (Accessed 10 June 2013.)

Fennell, S. (ed.). 2013. *Low-fee private schools in Pakistan: a blessing or a bane?* Oxford, UK, Symposium Books. (Low-fee private schooling: Aggravating Equity or Mitigating Disadvantage?)

Fernandez, L. and Olfindo, R. 2011. *Overview of the Philippines' Conditional Cash Transfer Program: the Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (Pantawid Pamilya)*. Washington, DC/ Barton, Australia, World Bank/ Australian Government Aid Program. (Philippine Social Protection Note, 2.)

Fernandez-Rao, S., Hurley, K. M., Nair, K. M., Balakrishna, N., Radhakrishna, K. V., Ravinder, P., Tilton, N., Harding, K. B., Reinhart, G. A. and Black, M. M. 2014. Integrating nutrition and early child-development interventions among infants and preschoolers in rural India. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences,* Vol. 1308, pp. 218-31.

Ferrão Candau, V. M. 2010. Educación intercultural en América Latina: distintas concepciones y tensiones actuales. *Estudios Pedagógicos (Valdivia),* Vol. 36, No. 2, pp. 333-42.

Ferris, E. and Winthrop, R. 2010. Education and Displacement: Assessing Conditions for Refugees and IDPS Affected by Conflict. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011*.

Fiala, R. 2007. Educational Ideology and the School Curriculum. Benavot, A., Braslavsky, C. and Truong, N. (eds), *School Knowledge in Comparative and Historical Perspective: Changing Curricula in Primary and Secondary Education*, Vol. 18. Hong Kong, China, Comparative Education Research Center, pp. 15-34.

Filmer, D. 2007. If you build it, will they come? School availability and school enrolment in 21 poor countries. *Journal of Development Studies,* Vol. 43, No. 5, pp. 901-28.

___. 2008. Disability, poverty and schooling in developing countries: results from 14 household surveys. *The World Bank Economic Review,* Vol. 22, No. 1, pp. 141-63.

Filmer, D. and Schady, N. 2008. Getting girls into school: evidence from a scholarship program in Cambodia. *Economic Development and Cultural Change,* Vol. 56, No. 3, pp. 581-617.

Finland Government. 2009. *Elementary school students transferred to special education, 1995-2009*. Helsinki, Government of Finland, Official Statistics of Finland. http://stat.fi/til/erop/2009/erop_2009_2010-06-11_tau_001_fi.html (Accessed 5 September 2014.)

Finland Ministry of Social Affairs and Health. 2012. *A Strong Basis for Inclusion and Equality: Finland's Disability Policy Programme VAMPO 2010-2015*. Helsinki, Ministry of Social Affairs and Health, Government of Finland.

Fiske, E. B. and Ladd, H. F. 2000. *When Schools Compete: a Cautionary Tale*. Washington, DC, Brookings Institution Press.

Fiszbein, A. and Schady, N. 2009. *Conditional Cash Transfers: Reducing Present and Future Poverty*. Washington, DC, World Bank (World Bank Policy Research Report, 47603.)

Fleming, K. 2015. Improving access to education for orphans or vulnerable children affected by HIV/AIDS. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Foroutan, Y. 2012. Gender representation in school textbooks in Iran: the place of languages. *Current Sociology,* Vol. 60, No. 6, pp. 771-87.

Foster, P. 1977. Education and social differentiation in less developed countries. *Comparative Education Review,* Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 211-29.

Fox, L., Santibañez, L., Nguyen, V. and André, P. 2012. *Education Reform in Mozambique: Lessons and Challenges*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Directions in Development: Human Development, 68361.)

Francis, B., Skelton, C., Carrington, B., Hutchings, M., Read, B. and Hall, I. 2008. A perfect match? Pupils' and teachers' views of the impact of matching educators and learners by gender. *Research Papers in Education,* Vol. 23, No. 1, pp. 21-36.

Frank Porter Graham Child Development Institute. n.d. *Environment Rating Scales*. Chapel Hill, NC, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. http://ers.fpg.unc.edu/ (Accessed 21 May 2014.)

Fredriksen, B. 2010. Enhancing the allocative efficiency of education aid: a review of issues and options. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education,* Vol. Volume 13, No. Number 2, pp. 11-29.

___. 2012. The trends for donors to treasure (and fund) what can be measured. *NORRAG News,* Vol. 47, pp. 32-35.

Fredriksen, B. and Tan, J. 2008. *An African Explorationn of the East Asian Education Experience*. Washington, DC, The World Bank.

Freinkman, L. and Plekhanov, A. 2010. Fiscal decentralisation and the quality of public services in Russian regions. *Public Finance and Management,* Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 117-68.

French, R. and Kingdon, G. G. 2010. The Relative Effectiveness of Private and Government Schools in Rural India: Evidence from ASER Data. London, Institute of Education, University of London. (Department of Quantitative Social Science Working Paper; Unpublished.)

FTI Secretariat. 2004. *Accelerating Progress Towards Quality Universal Primary Education: Framework*. Washington, DC, Fast Track Initiative Secretariat.

Fung, K. H. and Lam, C. C. 2012. The tension between parents' informed choice and school transparency: consumerism in the Hong Kong Education Voucher Scheme. *International Journal of Early Childhood,* Vol. 44, No. 1, pp. 31-52.

Galiani, S., Gertler, P. and Schargrodsky, E. 2008. School decentralization: helping the good get better, but leaving the poor behind. *Journal of Public Economics,* Vol. 92, No. 10-11, pp. 2106-20.

Gallego, F. A. 2010. Historical origins of schooling: the role of democracy and political decentralization. *The Review of Economics and Statistics,* Vol. 92, No. 2, pp. 228-43.

Garcia, M. and Moore, C. 2012. *The Cash Dividend: the Rise of Cash Transfer Programs in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Human Development: Directions in Development, 67208.)

Garcia-Jaramillo, S. and Maranti, R. 2015. Effectiveness of targeting in social protection programs aimed to children: lessons for a post-2015 agenda. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Geisler, G., Mokgope, K. and Svanemyr, J. 2009. *South Africa: The National Gender Machinery, Gender Mainstreaming and the Fight Against Gender-based Violence*. Tunis, Human Development Department, African Development Bank Group.

Gelli, A., Meir, U. and Espejo, F. 2007. Does provision of food in school increase girls' enrollment? Evidence from schools in sub-Saharan Africa. *Food & Nutrition Bulletin,* Vol. 28, No. 2, pp. 149-55.

Gentilini, U., Honorati, M. and Yemtsov, R. 2014. *The State of Social Safety Nets 2014*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Working Paper, 87984.)

Georgescu, D., Stabback, P., Jahn, K., Ag-Muphtah, E. and De Castro, P. 2009. *Preparation for Life and Work - Comparative Study with a Focus on Basic (Primary and Lower Secondary) Education in Developing African Countries*. Eschborn, Germany, Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH. (Education Towards Future Sector Project "Post-Primary Education".)

Gertler, P., Heckman, J., Pinto, R., Zanolini, A., Vermeersch, C., Walker, S., Chang, S. M. and Grantham-McGregor, S. 2014. Labor market returns to an early childhood stimulation intervention in Jamaica. *Science,* Vol. 344, No. 998, pp. 998-1001.

Gialamas, A., Mittinty, M. N., Sawyer, M. G., Zubrick, S. R. and Lynch, J. 2013. Child care quality and children's cognitive and socio-emotional development: an Australian longitudinal study. *Early Child Development and Care,* Vol. 184, No. 7, pp. 977-97.

Ginsburg, M. B. and Megahed, N. M. 2008. Global discourses and educational reform in Egypt: the case of active-learning pedagogies. *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies,* Vol. 13, No. 2, pp. 91-115.

Glassman, D., Naidoo, J. and Wood, F. (eds). 2007. *Community Schools in Africa: Reaching the Unreached*. Boston, MA, Springer.

Glazerman, S., Mayer, D. P. and Decker, P. T. 2006. Alternative routes to teaching: the impacts of Teach for America on student achievement and other outcomes. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management,* Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 75-96.

Glewwe, P. and Kremer, M. 2006. Schools, teachers and education outcomes in developing countries. Hanushek, E. A. and Welch, F. (eds), *Handbook of the Economics of Education*, Vol. 2. Amsterdam, North Holland, pp. 945-1017. 4 vols.

Glick, P. 2008. *Policy Impacts on Schooling Gender Gaps in Developing Countries: The Evidence and a Framework for Interpretation*. Ithaca, NY, Cornell University

Global Campaign for Education. 2012a. *Civil Society Advocacy: Good Practice Case Studies, Civil Society Education Fund*. Johannesburg, South Africa, Global Campaign for Education.

___. 2012b. *Civil Society Education Fund Closing Report*. Johannesburg, South Africa, Global Campaign for Education.

___. 2012c. *Gender Discrimination in Education: The Violation of Rights of Women and Girls*. Johannesburg, South Africa, Global Campaign for Education.

___. 2013. *Education Aid Watch 2013*. Johannesburg, South Africa, Global Campaign for Education.

___. 2014a. *CSEF 2013-2015 Progress Report to UNESCO for the Period 01 January to 30 June 2014*. Johannesburg, South Africa, Global Campaign for Education.

___. 2014b. *Global Campaign for Education: About Us*. Johannesburg, South Africa, Global Campaign for Education. http://www.campaignforeducation.org/en/about-us (Accessed 10 December 2014.)

___. 2014c. *Send All My Friends to School: a Global Campaign for Education UK Evaluation of the UK's Aid to Education for Children with Disabilities*. London, Global Campaign for Education.

Global Campaign for Education and RESULTS Education Fund. 2011. *Make it Right: Ending the Crisis in Girls' Education*. Johannesburg, South Africa, Global Campaign for Education/ RESULTS Education Fund.

Global Campaign for Education, Save the Children, Oxfam and Actionaid. 2008. *Civil Society Engagement in Education Budgets: A Report Documenting Commonwealth Education Fund Experience*. London, Commonwealth Education Fund.

Global Campaign for Education, Save the Children, Oxfam and ActionAid. 2013. *Making the Budget Work for Education: Experiences, Achievements and Lessons from Civil Society Budget Work*. London, Commonwealth Education Fund.

Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack. 2014. *Education Under Attack 2014*. New York, Global Coalition to Protect Education from Attack.

Global Fund. 2014. *Grant Portfolio*. Geneva, Switzerland, Global Fund to Fight AIDS, TB and Malaria. http://portfolio.theglobalfund.org/en/Home/Index (Accessed 31 July 2014.)

Global Partnership. 2014. *First High-Level Meeting of the Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation: Building Towards an Inclusive Post-2015 Development Agenda*. Mexico City, Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation.

Gobierno de México. 2012. *Informe Nacional de Progreso Presentado por el Seguimiento de la CONFINTEA VI*. Hamburg, UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

Golay, C., Mahon, C. and Cismas, I. 2011. The impact of the UN special procedures on the development and implementation of economic, social and cultural rights. *The International Journal of Human Rights,* Vol. 15, No. 2, pp. 299-318.

Goldberg, R. E. and Short, S. E. 2012. 'The luggage that isn't theirs is too heavy...': understandings of orphan disadvantage in Lesotho. *Population Research and Policy Review,* Vol. 31, No. 1, pp. 67-83.

González, R. L. and Entonado, F. B. 2004. *Género y Libros de Texto: Un Estudio de Estereotipos en las Imágenes*. Badajoz, Spain, Instituto de la Mujer de Extremadura.

Govinda, R. 2008. Education for all in India: assessing progress towards Dakar goals. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

GPE. 2012a. *Making Education Aid More Effective: 2011 Monitoring Exercise on Aid Effectiveness in the Education Sector*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

___. 2012b. *Regional and National Civil Society Education Funds - CSEF: Evaluation Report*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

___. 2012c. *Strategic Plan 2012-2015*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

___. 2013a. *GPE Portfolio Review Report*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

___. 2013b. *Results for Learning Report 2013*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

___. 2014a. *GPE disbursements as of 31st May 2014*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

___. 2014b. *The Power of Partnership: Second Replenishment Pledging Conference 26 June 2014 - Final Pledge Report*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

___. 2014c. *Results for Learning Report 2014/15: Basic Education at Risk*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

___. 2014d. *Support to Children with Disabilities*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education.

Grant, M., Lloyd, C. B. and Mensch, B. S. 2013. Menstruation and school absenteeism: evidence from rural Malawi. *Comparative Education Review,* Vol. 57, No. 2, pp. 260-84.

Grantham-McGregor, S., Cheung, Y. B., Cueto, S., Glewwe, P., Richter, L., Strupp, B. and International Child Development Steering Group. 2007. Developmental potential in the first 5 years for children in developing countries. *The Lancet,* Vol. 369, No. 9555, pp. 60-70.

Grantham-McGregor, S., Fernald, L. C. H., Kagawa, R. M. C. and Walker, S. 2014. Effects of integrated child development and nutrition interventions on child development and nutritional status. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences,* Vol. 1308, pp. 11-32.

Greaney, V. and Kellaghan, T. 2008. *Assessing National Achievement Levels in Education*, Vol. 1. Washington, DC, World Bank. (National Assessments of Educational Achievement Series. 5 vols.)

Greenberger, E. and Steinberg, L. 1986. *When Teenagers Work: the Psychological and Social Costs of Adolescent Employment*. New York, Basic.

Greene, M. E., Robles, O. J., Stout, K. and Suvilaakso, T. 2013. *A Girl's Right to Learn Without Fear: Working to End Gender-Based Violence at School*. Woking, UK, Plan International.

Greenhill, R. and Ali, A. 2013. *Paying for Progress: How Will Emerging Post-2015 Goals be Financed in the New Aid Landscape?* London, Overseas Development Institute. (Working Paper, 366.)

Griffiths, J. and Todoulos, K. 2014. *Conditionally Yours: An Analysis of the Policy Conditions Attached to IMF Loans*. Brussels, Eurodad.

Grigoli, F. 2014. *A Hybrid Approach to Estimating the Efficiency of Public Spending on Education in Emerging and Developing Economies*. Washington DC, International Monetary Fund. (IMF Working Paper WP/14/19.)

Grimes, P., Kumar, K. and Stevens, M. 2015. An examination of the evolution of policies and strategies to improve access to education for children with disabilities. Background Paper for *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Grindle, M. S. 2004. *Despite the Odds: the Contentious Politics of Education Reform*. Princeton, NJ, Princeton University Press.

Grogan, L. 2009. Universal primary education and school entry in Uganda. *Journal of African Economies,* Vol. 18, No. 2, pp. 183-211.

Guadalupe, C. 2014. How feasible is it to develop a culturally-sensitive large-scale standardised assessment of literacy skills? . Hamilton, M., Maddox, B. and Addey, C. (eds), *Literacy as Numbers: Researching the Politics and Practices of International Literacy Assessment Regimes*. Cambridge, UK, Cambridge University Press.

Guadalupe, C. and Cardoso, M. 2011. Measuring the continuum of literacy skills among adults: educational testing and the LAMP experience. *International Review of Education,* Vol. 57, No. 1-2, pp. 199-217.

Gunnarsson, V., Orazem, P. and Sánchez, M. 2006. Child labor and school achievement in Latin America. *World Bank Economic Review,* Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 31-53.

Guo, S., Guo, Y., Beckett, G., Li, Q. and Guo, L. 2013. Changes in Chinese education under globalisation and market economy: emerging issues and debate. *Compare: a Journal of Comparative and International Education,* Vol. 43, No. 2, pp. 244-64.

Hacia una Cultura Democrática. 2014. *Final Report to the Inter-American Development Bank*. Mexico City, Haciauna Una Cultura Democrática.

Haddad, W. and Draxler, A. 2002. The dynamics of technologies for education. Haddad, W. and Draxler, A. (eds), *Technologies for Education: Potentials, Parameters, and Prospects*. Paris/ Washington, DC, UNESCO/ Academy for Educational Development.

Hafidz, Y. 2014. *Islamic Education in Indonesia: Making a Difference in Poor Communities*. Barton, Australia, Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade, Government of Australia. http://aid.dfat.gov.au/countries/eastasia/indonesia/Pages/islamic-education.aspx (Accessed 31 July 2014.)

Hahn, Y., Wang, L. C. and Yang, H.-S. 2014. Do Greater School Autonomy and Accountability Make a Difference? Evidence From the Random Assignment of Students into Private and Public High Schools in Seoul. (Unpublished.)

Hallak, J. 1991. *Education for All: High Expectations or False Hopes?* Paris, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning. (IIEP Contributions, 3.)

Handa, S., Seidenfeld, D., Davis, B., Tembo, G. and the Zambia Cash Transfer Evaluation Team. 2014. *Are Cash Transfers a Silver Bullet? Evidence from the Zambian Child Grant*. Florence, Italy, UNICEF. (Innocenti Working Paper, 2014-08.)

Hanemann, U. 2015. Evolution of literacy campaigns and programmes and their impact since 2000. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Hanlon, J., Barrientos, A. and Hulme, D. 2012. *Just Give Money to the Poor: The Development Revolution from the Global South*. Sterling, VA, Kumarian Press.

Hansen, C. W. 2013. Life expectancy and human capital: evidence from the international epidemiological transition. *Journal of Health Economics,* Vol. 32, No. 6, pp. 1142-52.

Hanushek, E. A., Link, S. and Woessmann, L. 2013. Does school autonomy make sense everywhere? Panel estimates from PISA. *Journal of Development Economics,* Vol. 104, pp. 212-32.

Hao, L. and Yu, X. 2015. Rural-Urban Migration and Children's Access to Education: China in Comparative Perspective. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Harding, R. and Stasavage, D. 2014. What democracy does (and doesn't do) for basic services: school fees, school inputs, and African elections. *The Journal of Politics,* Vol. 76, No. 1, pp. 229-45.

Hardman, F. 2015. Making pedagogical practices visible in discussions of educational quality. Background Paper for *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2015*. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Hardman, F., Abd-Kadir, J., Agg, C., Migwi, J., Ndambuku, J. and Smith, F. 2009. Changing pedagogical practice in Kenyan primary schools: the impact of school-based training. *Comparative Education,* Vol. 45, No. 1, pp. 65-86.

Hardman, F., Abd-Kadir, J. and Smith, F. 2008. Pedagogical renewal: improving the quality of classroom interaction in Nigerian primary schools. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 28, No. 1, pp. 55-69.

Härmä, J. 2011. *Lagos Private School Census 2010-2011 Report*. Abuja, Nigeria, Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria, UK Department for International Development. (Report, LG 501.)

Härmä, J. 2011. *Study of Private Schools in Lagos*. Abuja, Education Sector Support Programme in Nigeria. (Report, LG 303.)

Härmä, J. 2015. Private schooling and development: an overview. Dixon, P., Counihan, C. and Humble, S. (eds), *Handbook of International Development and Education*. Cheltenham, UK, Edward Elger.

Härmä, J. and Adefisayo, F. 2013. Scaling up: challenges facing low-fee private schools in the slums of Lagos, Nigeria. Srivastava, P. (ed.), *Low-fee Private Schooling: Aggravating Equity or Mitigating Disadvantage?* Oxford, UK, Symposium Books, pp. 129-51.

Harris Interactive. 2001. *Hostile Hallways: Bullying, Teasing, and Sexual Harassment in School*. Washington, DC, American Association of University Women Educational Foundation.

Harris, K., Keen, D. and Mitchell, T. 2013. *When Disasters and Conflicts Collide: Improving Links between Disaster Resilience and Conflict Prevention*. London, Overseas Development Institute.

Hartman, S. 2013. Education 'home delivery' in Egypt: private tutoring and social stratification. Bray, M., Mazawi, A. E. and Sultana, R. G. (eds), *Private Tutoring Across the Mediterranean: Power Dynamics and Implications for Learning and Equity*. Rotterdam, Netherlands, Sense Publishers.

Hattie, J. 2012. *Visible Learning for Teachers: Maximizing Impact on Learning*. New York, Routledge.

Heady, C. 2000. *What is The Effect of Child Labor on Learning Achievement? Evidence from Ghana*. Florence, Italy, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre. (Innocenti Working Paper.)

Hearson, M. 2013. *Mobilising Domestic Resources*. Conference paper for Global Thematic Consultation on Governance and Post-2015 Agenda.

Heckman, J. J. and Kautz, T. 2012. Hard evidence on soft skills. *Labour Economics,* Vol. 19, No. 4, pp. 451-64.

Heijnen-Maathuis, E. 2008. *From Parity to Equality in Girls' Education: How are we doing in South Asia?* Kathmandu/ New York, UNICEF Regional Office for South Asia/ United Nations Girls' Education Initiative.

Heilig, J. V. and Jez, S. J. 2014. *Teach for America: a Return to the Evidence*. Boulder, CO, National Education Policy Center. (Policy Brief.)

Hepworth, F. 2013. *Why are Boys Under-Performing in Education? Gender Analysis of Four Asia-Pacific Countries* New York, United Nations Girls' Education Initiative.

Herbert, S. 2013. *The Future of EU Aid in Middle Income Countries. The Case of South Africa*. London, Overseas Development Institute. (Working Paper 370.)

Heugh, K., Benson, C., Bogale, B. and Yohannes, M. A. G. 2007. *Final Report Study on Medium of Instruction in Primary Schools in Ethiopia*. Addis Ababa, Ministry of Education, Government of Ethiopia.

Heyneman, S. 2006. The role of textbooks in a modern system of education: towards high-quality education for all. Braslavsky, C. and Halil, K. (eds), *Textbooks and Quality Learning for All: Some Lessons Learned from International Experiences*. Geneva, UNESCO: International Bureau of Education, pp. 31-93.

Hickson, K., Coulibaly, N. C. and Back, L. 2003. *Evaluation of the African Girls' Education Initiative, Country Case Study: Burkina Faso*. New York, UNICEF.

HighScope. n.d. *Preschool: Early Childhood Curriculum - With a Difference*. Ypsilanti, Mich., HighScope. http://www.highscope.org/Content.asp?ContentId=63 (Accessed 3 September 2014.)

Hill, P. 2013. *Examination Systems*. Bangkok, UNESCO Bangkok Office.

Hillman, A. and Jenkner, E. 2004. User payments for basic education in low-income countries. Clements, B., Gupta, S. and Inchauste, G. (eds), *Helping Countries Develop: The Role of Fiscal Policy*. Washington, DC, International Monetary Fund, pp. 233-64.

Hindin, M. J. and Fatusi, A. O. 2009. Adolescent sexual and reproductive health in developing countries: an overview of trends and interventions. *International Perspectives on Sexual and Reproductive Health,* Vol. 35, No. 2, pp. 58-62.

Hines, H. 2014. Assessment for early childhood students with special needs coming. *Jamaica Observer,* 1 May 2014.

Hinostroza, E., Jara, I. and Brun, M. 2011. Case study: Uruguay. UNESCO (ed.), *Transforming Education: The Power of ICT Policies*. Paris, UNESCO, pp. 125-65.

Ho, J. and Thukral, H. 2009. Tuned in to student success: assessing the impact of interactive radio instruction for the hardest-to-reach. *Journal of Education for International Development,* Vol. 4, No. 2, pp. 1-18.

Hoddinott, J., Alderman, H., Behrman, J., Haddad, L. and Horton, S. 2013. *The Economic Rationale for Investing in Stunting Reduction*. Philadelphia, PA, University of Pennsylvania. (Grand Challenges Canada Working Paper Series, GCC 13-08.)

Hoppers, W. 2008. Meeting the Learning Needs of All Young People and Adults: an Exploration of Successful Policies and Strategies in Non-formal Education. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

Hout, M. and DiPrete, T. A. 2006. What we have learned: RC28's contributions to knowledge about social stratification. *Research in Social Stratification and Mobility,* Vol. 24, No. 1, pp. 1-20.

Hsieh, C.-T. and Urquiola, M. 2006. The effects of generalized school choice on achievement and stratification: evidence from Chile's voucher program. *Journal of Public Economics,* Vol. 90, No. 8-9, pp. 1477-503.

Huerta, M., Adema, W., Baxter, J., Han, W.-J., Lausten, M., Lee, R. and Waldfogel, J. 2013. *Fathers' Leave, Fathers' Involvement and Child Development*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Huisman, J. and Smits, J. 2009. Effects of household and district-level factors on primary school enrollment in 30 developing countries. *World Development,* Vol. 37, No. 1, pp. 179-93.

Huisman, J. and Smits, J. 2009. *Keeping Children in School: Household and District-level Determinants of School Dropout in 363 districts of 30 Developing Countries*. Nijmegen, The Netherlands, Nijmegen Center for Economics, Institute for Management Research, Radboud University (NiCE Working Paper, 09-105)

Hulme, D. 2009. *The Millennium Development Goals: a Short History of the World's Biggest Promise*. Manchester, UK, Brooks World Poverty Institute. (Working Paper, 100.)

Human Rights Watch. 2001. *Scared at School: Sexual Violence Against Girls in South African Schools*. New York, Human Rights Watch.

Humphreys, S. 2008. Gendering corporal punishment: beyond the discourse of human rights. *Gender and Education,* Vol. 20, No. 5, pp. 527-40.

Hungi, N. 2011. *Accounting for Variations in the Quality of Primary School Education*. Paris, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning.

Hunt, F. 2008. *Dropping out from School: A Cross Country Review of the Literature*. Brighton, UK, Consortium for Research on Educational Access,Transitions and Equity, University of Sussex. (CREATE Pathways to Access Research Monograph, 16.)

___. 2013. Review of national policies on learning and teaching. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*.

IATI. n.d. *About IATI*. Copenhagen. http://www.aidtransparency.net/about (Accessed 01 September 2015.)

IBP. n.d. *International Budget Partnership: Open Budgets Transforms Lives*. Washington, DC. http://internationalbudget.org/who-we-are/ (Accessed 17 December 2014.)

ICAI. 2012a. *DfID's Education Programmes in Three East African Countries*. London, Independent Commission for Aid Impact.

___. 2012b. *Evaluation of DfID's support for Health and Education in India*. London, Independent Commission for Aid Impact.

___. 2012c. *The Management of UK Budget Support Operations*. London, Independent Commission for Aid Impact.

___. 2014. *DFID's Approach to Anti-Corruption and its Impact on the Poor*. London, Independent Commission for Aid Impact. (Report, 37.)

IDMC. 2014. *Global Overview 2014: People Internally Displaced by Conflict and Violence*. Châtelaine, Switzerland, Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre.

IEAG. 2014. *A World that Counts: Mobilising the Data Revolution for Sustainable Development*. New York, UN Secretary-General's Independent Expert Advisory Group on the Data Revolution for Sustainable Development.

IFAD. 2010. *Rural Poverty Report 2011: New Realities, New Challenges: New Opportunities for Tomorrow's Generation*. Rome, International Fund for Agricultural Development.

IGME. 2014. *Levels and Trends in Child Mortality: Report 2014 - Estimates Developed by the UN Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation*. New York, United Nations Inter-agency Group for Child Mortality Estimation.

ILO. 2012a. *Joint ILO–UNESCO Committee of Experts on the Application of the Recommendations Concerning Teaching Personnel: Final Report*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Office.

___. 2012b. *Right Beginnings: Early Childhood Education and Educators*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Organization.

___. 2013a. *Global Wage Report 2012/13: Wages and Equitable Growth*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Office.

___. 2013b. *Marking Progress Against Child Labour: Global Estimates and Trends 2000-2012*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Office, International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour.

___. 2013c. *A Study on the Gender Pay Gap in the Private Education Sector in Jordan*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Organization (Working Paper, 70.)

___. 2014a. *ILO Policy Guidelines on the Promotion of Decent Work for Early Childhood Education Personnel*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Office.

___. 2014b. *Maternity and Paternity at Work: Law and Practice Across the World*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Organization.

___. 2014c. *World Social Protection Report 2014/15: Building Economic Recovery, Inclusive Development and Social Justice*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Labour Office.

IMF. 2013. *Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) Initiative and Multilateral Debt Relief Initiative (MDRI) Statistical Update*. Washington, DC, International Monetary Fund.

___. 2014. *World Economic Outlook Database, April 2014*. Washington, DC, International Monetary Fund. http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2014/01/weodata/index.aspx. (Accessed 12 August 2014.)

IMF, OECD, UN and World Bank. 2011. *Supporting the Development of More Effective Tax Systems: A Report to the G-20 Development Working Group by the IMF, OECD, UN and World Bank*. Washingdon DC/ Paris/ New York, International Monetary Fund/ Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development and Development/ United Nations/ World Bank.

Independent Evaluation Group. 2006. *From Schooling Access to Learning Outcomes - an Unfinished Agenda: an Evaluation of World Bank Support to Primary Education*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

___. 2011a. *Do Conditional Cash Transfers Lead to Medium Impacts? Evidence from a Female School Stipend Program in Pakistan*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

___. 2011b. *Evidence and Lessons Learned from Impact Evaluations on Social Safety Nets*. Washington, DC, Independent Evaluation Group, World Bank.

___. 2011c. *Social Safety Nets: an Evaluation of World Bank Support, 2000–2010*. Washington, DC, Independent Evaluation Group, World Bank.

India Government. 2012. *Early Childhood Education Curriculum Framework (Draft)*. New Delhi, Ministry of Women and Child Development, Government of India.

India Ministry of Human Resource Development. 2014. *National Achievement Survey, Summary of Key Findings, Class III (Cycle 3), 2012-13*. New Delhi, Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India.

INEGI. 2012. *Hablantes de lengua indígena en México*, Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía. http://cuentame.inegi.org.mx/poblacion/lindigena.aspx?tema=P (Accessed 25 Novermber 2014.)

Ingersoll, R., Merrill, L. and Stuckey, D. 2014. *Seven Trends: the Transformation of the Teaching Force, updated April 2014*. Philadelphia, Consortium for Policy Research in Education, University of Pennsylvania. (CPRE Report, 80.)

Inkeles, A. and Smith, D. 1974. *Becoming Modern: Individual Change in Six Developing Countries*. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press.

Innovations for Poverty Action. 2013. *Exploring Early Education Programs in Peri-urban Settings in Africa: Summary Findings from Mukuru, Nairobi, Kenya*. New Haven, CT, Innovations for Poverty Action.

Innovative Finance Foundation. 2013. *Innovative Financing for Global Education*. New York, Open Society Foundation. (Education Support Program Working Paper 58.)

Inter-Agency Commission. 1990. *World Conference on Education for All: Meeting Basic Learning Needs - Final Report*. New York, Inter-Agency Commission for the World Conference on Education for All.

Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies. 2012. *INEE Minimum Standards Assessment Report*. New York, Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies.

___. 2014. *Mapping the Education Response to the Syrian Crisis*. New York, Inter-Agency Network for Education in Emergencies.

Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre. 2014a. *Global Estimates 2014: People Displaced by Disasters*. Geneva, Switzerland, Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, Norwegian Refugee Council.

___. 2014b. *Global Overview 2014: People Internally Displaced by Conflict and Violence*. Geneva, Switzerland, Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, Norwegian Refugee Council.

___. 2014c. *Syria: Foresaken IDPs Adrift Inside a Fragmenting State*. Geneva, Switzerland, Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre, Norwegian Refugee Council.

International Energy Agency. 2012. Measuring progress towards energy for all: power to the people? *World Economic Outlook 2012*. Paris, International Energy Agency.

International Organization for Migration (IOM). 2013. *World Migration Report 2013: Migrant Well-Being and Development*. Geneva, IOM.

Iqbal, F. and Riad, N. 2004. *Increasing Girls Enrollment in the Arab Republic of Egypt.* Conference paper for Scaling Up Poverty Reduction: A Global Learning Process and Conference, Shanghai, China, 25-27 May, 2004.

Isaacs, S. 2012. *Turning on Mobile Learning in Africa and the Middle East: Illustrative Initiatives and Policy Implications*. Paris, UNESCO. (UNESCO Working Paper Series on Mobile Learning.)

Ismail, S., Borja-Vega, C., Demas, A. and Jarvis, E. 2012. *Guyana's Hinterland Community-Based School Feeding Programme*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Working Paper.)

ITU. 2014. *World Summit on the Information Society WSIS+10 High-Level Event Outcome Documents*. Geneva, Switzerland, International Telecommunication Union.

Jacinto, C. (ed.). 2010. *Recent Trends in Technical Education in Latin America*. Paris, UNESCO-IIEP: .

___. 2012. Skills Development and Inequality in Latin America. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2012*.

Jacoby, H. G. and Mansuri, G. 2011. *Crossing Boundaries: Gender, Caste, and Schooling in Rural Pakistan.* Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper Series, 5710.)

Jagmag, M. 2012. *A note from India's book: on Pakistan's Right to Education*. New Delhi, Accountability Initiative. http://www.accountabilityindia.in/accountabilityblog/2573-note-india%E2%80%99s-book-pakistan%E2%80%99s-right-education (Accessed 21 July 2014.)

Jain, S. 2003. Gender equality in education: community-based initiatives in India. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*.

Jamaica Government and Dudley Grant Memorial Trust. 2008. *The Jamaica Early Childhood Curriculum for Children Birth to Five Years: a Conceptual Framework*. Kingston, Dudley Grant Memorial Trust / Government of Jamaica.

Janus, H. and Keijzer, N. 2014. *Post 2015: Setting Up a Coherent Accountability Framework*. Bonn, Germany, German Development Institute / Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik (DIE).

Jayachandran, S. and Lleras-Muney, A. 2009. Life Expectancy and human capital investments: evidence from maternal mortality declines. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics,* Vol. 124, No. 1, pp. 349-97.

Jere, C. M. 2012. Alternative approaches for education provision for out-of-school youth in Malawi. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2012*.

Jha, J., Bakshi, S. and Faria, E. M. 2012. Understanding and challenging boys' disadvantage in secondary education in developing countries. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2012*.

Jha, J. and Kelleher, F. 2006. *Boys' Underachievement in Education: An Exploration in Selected Commonwelath Countries*. London/ Vancouver, BC, Commonwealth Secretariat/ Commonwealth of Learning.

Joerger, C. and Hoffmann, A. M. 2002. *FRESH: A Comprehensive School Health Approach to Achieve EFA*. Paris, UNESCO.

Jones, A. and Naylor, R. 2014. *The Quantitative Impact of Armed Conflict on Education: Counting the Human and Financial Costs*. Berkshire, UK, CfBT Education Trust.

Jones, N., Moore, K., Villar-Marquez, E. and Broadbent, E. 2008. *Painful Lessons: The Politics of Preventing Sexual Violence and Bullying at School*. London, Overseas Development Institute/Plan International. (Working Paper, 295.)

Jones, P. W. 2007. Education and world order. *Comparative Education,* Vol. 43, No. 3, pp. 325-37.

Joshi, P. 2014. Parent decision-making when selecting schools: the case of Nepal. *Prospects,* Vol. 44, No. 3, pp. 411-28.

Jubilee Debt Campaign. 2012. *The State of Debt: Putting an End to 30 Years of Crisis*. London, Jubilee Debt Campaign.

Jung, H. and Hasan, A. 2014. *The Impact of Early Childhood Education on Early Achievement Gaps: Evidence from the Indonesia Early Childhood Education and Development (ECED) Project*, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper, 6794.)

Jung, K. and Chung, H. 2006. *Gender Equality in Classroom Instruction: Introducing Gender Training for Teachers in the Republic of Korea*. Bangkok, UNESCO Bangkok.

Kanbur, R. and Sumner, A. 2011. *Poor Countries or Poor People? Development Assistance and the New Geography of Global Poverty*. New York/ Brighton, University of Cornell/ Institute of Development Studies

Kang, N.-H. and Hong, M. 2008. Achieving excellence in teacher workforce and equity in learning opportunities in South Korea. *Educational Researcher,* Vol. 37, No. 4, pp. 200-07.

Karki. 2014. EFA Movement and Nepal's progress amidst violent conflict. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Karsten, S. 2006. Policies for disadvantaged children under scrutiny: the Dutch policy compared with policies in France, England, Flanders and the USA. *Comparative Education,* Vol. 42, No. 2, pp. 261-82.

Karuppiah, N. 2014. *Child Care Staff and Parental Perception of Quality Infant/Toddler Care.* Conference paper for International Step-by-Step Association International Conference, Budapest, International Step-by-Step Association, 12 October 2014.

___. n.d. Early childhood education (ECE) in Singapore: past to present. http://people.uta.fi/~jonna.leinonen/ECE_in_Singapore_Nirmala.pdf (Accessed 26 November 2014)

Kaufmann, D., Kraay, A. and Mastruzzi, M. 2009. *Governance Matters VIII: Aggregate and Individual Governance Indicators 1996–2008*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper, 4978.)

Kazianga, H., Levy, D., Linden, L. and Sloan, M. 2013. The effects of "Girl-Friendly" schools: evidence from the BRIGHT school construction program in Burkina Faso. *American Economic Journal,* Vol. 5, No. 3, pp. 41-62.

Kefaya, N. A. 2007. Country case study: Yemen. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

Keilland, A. 2015. Evolution in approaches to improve access to education for children living in urban slums. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Kelleher, F. 2011. *Women and the Teaching Profession: Exploring the Feminisation Debate*. London/ Paris, Commonwealth Secretariat/ UNESCO.

Kelley, J. and Klein, H. S. 1977. Revolution and the rebirth of inequality: A theory of stratification in post-revolutionary Society. *American Journal of Sociology,* Vol. 83, No. 1, pp. 78-99.

Kendall, L., O'Donnell, L., Golden, S., Ridley, K., S., M., Rutt, S., McNally, S., Schagen, I., Meghir, C., Stoney, S., Morris, M., West, A. and Noden, P. 2005. *Excellence in Cities: the National Evaluation of a Policy to Raise Standards in Urban Schools 2000-2003* London, DfES

Kenya Government. 2005. *Kenya Education Sector Support Programme 2005-2010*. Nairobi, Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Government of Kenya

Keuren, C. H.-V., Silova, I. and McAllister, S. 2014. The evolution of the status of the teaching profession (2000-2015) and the impact on the quality of education in developing countries: three case studies. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Khagram, S., Fung, A. and de Renzio, P. 2013. *Open Budgets: The Political Economy of Transparency, Participation and Accountability*. Washington, DC, The Brookings Institution.

Khan, F. 2007. Corruption and the decline of the state in Pakistan. *Asian Journal of Political Science,* Vol. 15, No. 2, pp. 219-47.

Khandker, S., Pitt, M. and Fuwa, N. 2003. *Subsidy to Promote Girls' Secondary Education: The Female Stipend Program in Bangladesh*. Washington, DC/ Providence, RI/ Chiba, Japan, World Bank, Brown University/International Rice Research Institute, Chiba University. (MPRA Paper, 23688.)

Kielland, A. 2015. Evolution in approaches to improving access to education for children living in urban slums. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

King, E. and Cordeiro Guerra, S. 2005. Education reforms in East Asia: policy, process, and impact. Bank, T. W. (ed.), *East Asia Decentralizes: Making Local Government Work*. Washington D.C, The World Bank, pp. 179-208.

King, K. 2011. Skills and education or all from Jomtien (1990) to the GMR of 2012. *International Journal of Training Research,* Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 16-34.

___. 2013. TVET and skills development: some reflections on concepts and discourse. *NORRAG News,* Vol. 48, pp. 5-9.

Kingdon, G., Aslam, M., Rawal, S. and Das, S. 2013. *Are Contract and Para-Teachers a Cost Effective Intervention to Address Teacher Shortage and Improve Learning Outcomes?* London, EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London. (Systematic Review.)

Kirk, J. 2007. Gender based violence in and around schools in conflict and humanitarian contexts. Terry, G. and Hoare, J. (eds), *Gender Based Violence* Oxford, UK, Oxfam GB, pp. 121-31.

Klaus, S. 2013. *In Peru, the Fight Against Poverty Starts Early*. New York, Open Society Foundations. http://www.opensocietyfoundations.org/voices/peru-fight-against-poverty-starts-early (Accessed 01 September 2014.)

Klugman, J. and Pereira, I. 2009. *Assessment of National Migration Policies: an Emerging Picture on Admissions, Treatment and Enforcement in Developing and Developed Countries*. New York, Human Development Report Office (HDRO), United Nations Development Programme (UNDP).

Koirala, B. N. and Acharya, S. 2005. *Girls in Science and Technology Education: A Study on Access, Participation, and Performance of Girls in Nepal*. Kathmandu UNESCO. (UNESCO Kathmandu Series of Monographs and Working Papers, 4.)

Koolwal, G. and van de Walle, D. 2010. *Access to Water, Women's Work and Child Outcomes*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper, 5302.)

Krätli, S. 2001. *Education Provision to Nomadic Pastoralists: a Literature Review*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Institute of Development Studies Working Paper, 126.)

Krishnaratne, S., White, H. and Carpenter, E. 2013. *Quality Education for All Children? What Works in Education in Developing Countries*. New Delhi, International Initiative for Impact Evaluation.

Kruger, D. I., Berthelon, M. and Navia, R. 2009. *Adolescent Motherhood and Secondary Schooling in Chile*. Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labor. (IZA Discussion Paper, 4552.)

Kuecken, M., Thuilliez, J. and Valfort, M.-A. 2013. *Does Malaria Control Impact Education? a Study of the Global Fund in Africa*. Paris, Paris School of Economics, Pantheon-Sorbonne University. (Centre d'Economie de la Sorbonne Working Paper, 2013/75.)

Kuper, H., Monteath-van Dok, A., Wing, K., Danquah, L., Evans, J., Zuurmond, M. and Gallinetti, J. 2014. The impact of disability on the lives of children: cross-sectional data including 8,900 children with disabilities and 898,834 children without disabilities across 30 countries. *PLoS ONE,* Vol. 9, No. 9, p. e107300.

Ladd, H. and Fiske, E. 2009. *The Dutch Experience with Weighted Student Funding: Some Lessons for the U.S.* Durham, NC, Duke University. (Working Papers, SAN09-03.)

Lall, M. 2011. Pushing the child centered approach in Myanmar: the role of cross national policy networks and the effects in the classroom. *Critical Studies in Education,* Vol. 52, No. 3, pp. 219-33.

Lange, S. 2015. Have education goals accelerated progress? Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Lankoande, F. and McKaig, C. 2005. *Building Grassroots Capacity in Reproductive Health: Burkina Faso Case Study*. Oklahoma City, OK, World Neighbors.

Lattimer, C. 2012. *Lessons in Leadership: Save the Children's Experience of Co-leading the Education Cluster*. London, Save the Children International.

Lattimer, C. and Berther, A. 2010. *The Work of the Education Cluster in Haiti*. London, Humanitarian Practice Network, Overseas Development Institute. (Humanitarian Exchange Magazine, 48.)

Leach, F., Dunne, M. and Salvi, F. 2014. *School-related Gender-based Violence: A Global Review of Current Issues and Approaches in Policy, Programming and Implementation Responses to School-Related Gender-Based Violence for the Education Sector* Paris, UNESCO.

Leach, F., Fiscian, V., Kadzamira, E., Lemani, E. and Machakanja, P. 2003. *An Investigative Study of the Abuse of Girls in African Schools*. London, UK Department for International Development. (Researching the Issues, 53.)

Leach, F., Slade, E. and Máiréad, D. 2012. *Desk Review for Concern: Promising Practice in School Related Gender Based Violence Prevention and Response Programming Globally*. Brighton, UK, Centre for International Education, University of Sussex.

Lee, J. F. K. and Collins, P. 2009. Australian English-language textbooks: the gender issues. *Gender and Education,* Vol. 21, No. 4, pp. 353-70.

Lee-Rife, S., Malhotra, A., Warner, A. and Glinski, A. M. 2012. What works to prevent child marriage: a review of the evidence. *Studies in Family Planning,* Vol. 43, No. 4, pp. 287-303.

Lefoka, P. J., Deffous, E., Nyabanyaba, T., Matheolane, R. and Ntseka, T. 2014. *The Use and Usefulness of School Grants: Lessons from Lesotho*. Paris, UNESCO International Institute for Education Planning.

Lehman, D. 2003. *Bringing the School to the Children : Shortening the Path to EFA*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Leigh, S. and Epstein, A. 2012. *South Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction: Performance Evaluation Report*. Arlington, VA/ Washington, DC, MSI Support, Management Systems International/ United States Agency for International Development.

Leite, I., Suyama, B., Waisbich, L. and Pomeroy, M. 2014. *Brazil's Engagement in International Development Cooperation: The State of Debate*. Brighton, UK, Institute for Development Studies. (Rising Powers in International Development: Evidence Report, 59.)

Lemmon, G. 2014. *Fragile States, Fragile Lives: Child Marriage Amid Disaster and Conflict*. New York, Council on Foreign Relations.

Lesotho Ministry of Education. 2002. *Education Sector Strategic Plan 2005-2015*. Maseru, Lesotho Ministry of Education.

Leste, A. 2005. *Streaming in Seychelles: from SACMEQ Research to Policy Reform.* Conference paper for International Invitational Educational Policy Research Conference, Paris, 2005.

Leste, A., Valentin, J. and Hoareau, F. 2005. *The SACMEQ II Project in Seychelles: A Study of the Conditions of Schooling and the Quality of Education*. Harare, Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning.

Levacic, R., Ross, K., Caldwell, B. and Odden, A. 2000. Funding schools by formula: comparing practice in five countries. *Journal of Education Finance,* Vol. 25, Spring, pp. 489-516.

Levy, S. and Rodríguez, E. 2005. *Sin herencia de pobreza: el programa Progresa-Oportunidades de México*. Washington, DC, Inter-American Development Bank.

Lewin, K. and Little, A. 2011. Access to education revisited: equity, drop-out and transitions to secondary school in South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 31, No. 4, pp. 333-37.

Lewis, M., Simons, G. and Fennig, C. (eds). 2013. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World,* 17 edn. Dallas, TX, SIL International.

Li, L. and Liu, H. 2014. Primary school availability and middle school education in rural China. *Labour Economics,* Vol. 28, pp. 24-40.

Liang, X., Tan, J. P. and Mutumbuka, D. B. 2005. *Primary and Secondary Education in Lesotho: a Country Status Report for Education*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Africa Region Human Development Working Paper, 101.)

Liberia Ministry of Education. 2013. *Education Statistics for the Republic of Liberia: National Statistical Booklet 2013*. Monrovia, Ministry of Education, Government of Liberia.

Lister, S., Anderson, S., Genequand, M. M., Gordon, A., Sandford, J. and Turner, S. 2011. *WFP's School Feeding Policy: a Policy Evaluation - Vol. I Full Report*. Rome, World Food Programme. (Policy Evaluation, OE/2012/002.)

Little, A. 2011. *A Review of Major Global Initiatives Related to Education for All (EFA) and the Education-specific Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)*. Paris, UNESCO.

Little, A. and Miller, E. 2000. *The International Consultative Forum on Education for All 1990-2000: an Evaluation - a Report to the Forum's Steering Committee*. Paris, EFA Forum Secretariat.

Litvack, J., Ahmad, J. and Bird, R. 1998. *Rethinking Decentralization in Developing Countries*. Washington, D.C., The World Bank. (World Bank Sector Studies Series, Report 21491.)

Lloyd, C. B. 2011. *The Demography of the Classroom in the Primary Grades; Patterns of Enrollment by Age and Implications for Early Learning*. Menlo Park, CA, Hewlett Foundation. (White Paper, 2.)

Lloyd, C. B. and Young, J. 2009. *New Lessons: the Power of Educating Adolescent Girls - A Girls Count report on Adolescent Girls*. New York, Population Council.

Loaiza, E. and Wong, S. 2012. *Marrying Too Young: End Child Marriage*. New York, United Nations Population Fund.

Lockheed, M. 2010. *The Craft of Education Assessment: Does Participating in International and Regional Assessments Build Assessment Capacity in Developing Countries?* Amsterdam, International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.

Lockheed, M. and Mete, C. 2007. Tunisia: strong central policies for gender equity. Lewis, M. and Lockheed, M. (eds), *Exclusion, Gender and Education. Case studies from the Developing World*. Washington, DC, Center for Global Development, pp. 205-25.

Lockheed, M. and Verspoor, A. M. 1991. *Improving Primary Education in Developing Countries*. Oxford, UK, Oxford University Press.

Lopez, L. E. 2010. Reaching the unreached: indigenous intercultural bilingual education in Latin America. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*.

Lowenstein, C. and Ziswiler, M. 2013. Exploring early education programs in peri-urban settings in Africa: summary findings from Johannesburg, South Africa. *Optimus Impact*, No. 2, pp. 1-4.

Lubienski, C. and Lubienski, T. 2013. *The Public School Advantage: Why Public Schools Outperform Private Schools*. Chicago, IL, University of Chicago Press.

Lugo, M. T. and Schurmann, S. 2012. *Turning on Mobile Learning in Latin America: Illustrative Initiatives and Policy Implications*. Paris, UNESCO. (UNESCO Working Paper Series on Mobile Learning.)

Luschei, T. F., Chudgar, A. and Rew, J. 2013. Exploring differences in the distribution of teacher qualifications across Mexico and South Korea: evidence from the Teaching and Learning International Survey. *Teachers College Record,* Vol. 115, No. 5.

Lustig, N. 2011. *Scholars Who Became Practitioners: the Influence of Research on the Design, Evaluation and Political Survival of Mexico's Anti-poverty Program Progresa/ Oportunidades*. New Orleans, Lousiana, Tulane University. (Tulane Economics Working Paper, 1123.)

Lyon, S., Ranzani, M. and Rosati, F. C. 2013. *Unpaid Household Services and Child Labour*. Rome, Understanding Children's Work Programme. (UCW Working Papers, March 2013.)

Machado, A., De Melo, G. and Miranda, A. 2014. *The Impact of a One Laptop per Child Program on Learning: Evidence from Uruguay*. Bonn, Germany, IZA. (Discussion Paper, 8489.)

Mackie, J. 2013. *How Serious is the EU About Reducing Fragmentation?* Conference paper for Deutsches Institut für Entwicklungspolitik (DIE) Conference on Fragmentation or Pluralism, Bonn, Germany, 10 October 2013.

Maiga, E. 2012. *The Impact of Mother's Education on Child Health and Nutrition in Developing Countries: Evidence from a Natural Experiment in Burkina Faso*. Accra, African Center for Economic Transformation.

Maiga, E. 2014. *Does Foreign Aid in Education Foster Gender Equality in Developing Countries?* Helsinki, United Nations University-World Institute for Development Economics Research (UNU-WIDER). (WIDER Working Paper, 2014/048.)

Maitra, P., Pal, S. and Sharma, A. 2011. *Reforms, Growth and Persistence of Gender Gap: Recent Evidence from Private School Enrolment in India*. Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labor. (IZA Discussion Paper, 6135.)

Majgaard, K. and Mingat, A. 2012. *Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Comparative Analysis*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Makamare, L. 2014. Education and training. Morna, C. L., Dube, S., Makamure, L. and Robinson, K. V. (eds), *SADC Gender Protocol Barometer 2014*. Johannesburg, South Africa, Southern African Gender Protocol Alliance.

Makoka, D. 2013. *The Impact of Maternal Education on Child Nutrition: Evidence from Malawi, Tanzania and Zimbabwe*. Washington, DC, US Agency for International Development. (DHS Working Paper, 84.)

Maluccio, J. A. and Flores, R. 2005. *Impact Evaluation of a Conditional Cash Transfer Program: the Nicaraguan Red de Protección Social*. Washington, DC, International Food Policy Research Institute. (Research Report, 141.)

Manji, S., Arnold, C., Gowani, S. and Bartlett, K. 2015. How are we doing and how do we get it right for children? Evolution of the roles of the public and private sector in early childhood care and education in efforts to achieve EFA goal 1. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Manuel, M., McKechnie, A., King, M., Coppin, E. and Denney, L. 2012. *Innovative Aid Instruments and Flexible Financing: Providing Better Support to Fragile States*. London, Overseas Development Institute.

Marsh, H. 1991. Employment during high school: character building or a subversion of academic goals. *Sociology of Education,* Vol. 64, No. 3, pp. 172-89.
Marsh, H. and Kleitman, S. 2005. Consequences of employment during high school: character building, subversion of academic goals, or a threshold? *American Educational Research Journal,* Vol. 42, No. 2, pp. 331-69.
Marshall, M. G. and Cole, B. R. 2014. *Global Report 2014: Conflict, Governance, and State Fragility*. Vienna, VA, Center for Systemic Peace.
Mathers, S., Eisenstadt, N., Sylva, K., Soukakou, E. and Ereky-Stevens, K. 2014. *Sound Foundations: a Review of the Research Evidence on Quality of Early Childhood Education and Care for Children Under Three - Implications for Policy and Practice*. Oxford, UK/London, University of Oxford/the Sutton Trust.
Mathers, S. and Smees, R. 2014. *Quality and Inequality: Do Three- and Four-year Olds in Deprived Areas Experience Lower Quality Early Years Provision?* London, Nuffield Foundation.
McCord, A. 2009. *Cash Transfers and Political Economy in Sub-Saharan Africa*. London, Overseas Development Institute. (Project Briefing, 31.)
McCormack, R. 2010. *Nokia 'MoMath' mobile learning project empowers SA Learners*, *NokiaRingaz Blog*.
McEwan, P. J. 2001. The effectiveness of public, Catholic, and non-religious private schools in Chile's voucher system. *Education Economics,* Vol. 9, No. 2.
McEwan, P. J. and Carnoy, M. 2000. The Effectiveness and Efficiency of Private Schools in Chile's Voucher System. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis,* Vol. 22, No. 3, pp. 213-39.
McGrath, S. 2012. Vocational education and training for development: a policy in need of a theory? *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 32, No. 5, pp. 623-31.
McLaughlin, B. 2011. *Schools of Quality: a Case Study on Rights-Based Education Reform in the Lao People's Democratic Republic*. Vientiane, UNICEF. (UNICEF CFS Case Study.)
McMahon, E. R. 2012. *The Universal Periodic Review: a Work in Progress - an Evaluation of the First Cycle of the New UPR Mechanism of the United Nations Human Rights Council*. Berlin, Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.
McNeal, R. 1997. Are students being pulled out of high school? The effect of adolescent employment on dropping out. *Sociology of Education,* Vol. 70, No. 3, pp. 206-20.
Mekonnen, B. and Aspen, H. 2009. Early marriage and the campaign against it in Ethiopia. Ege, S., Aspen, H., Teferra, B. and Bekele, S. (eds), *Proceedings of the 16th International Conference of Ethiopian Studies* Vol. 3. Trondheim, Norway, Department of Social Anthropology, Norwegian University of Science and Technology
Mensch, B. S., Grant, M. J. and Blanc, A. K. 2006. The changing context of sexual initiation in sub-Saharan Africa. *Population and Development Review,* Vol. 32, No. 4, pp. 699-727.
Mensch, B. S., Singh, S. and Casterline, J. B. 2005. *Trends in the Timing of First Marriage Among Men and Women in the Developing World*. New York, Population Council. (Working Paper, 202.)
Mercer, M. 2014. Donor policies, practices and investment priorities in support of education, and post-2015 prospects: a review. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 39, pp. 23-31.
Mestry, R. 2014. A critical analysis of the National Norms and Standards for School Funding policy: implications for social justice and equity in South Africa. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, pp. 1-17.
Mexico Government. 2007. *Programa Sectorial de Educación 2013-2018*. Mexico City, Secretaría de Educación Pública, Government of Mexico.
Meyer, J. W., Ramirez, F. O., Rubinson, R. and Boli-Bennett, J. 1977. The world educational revolution, 1950-1970. *Sociology of Education,* Vol. 50, No. 4, pp. 242-58.
Meyer, J. W., Ramirez, F. O. and Soysal, Y. N. 1992. World expansion of mass education, 1870-1980. *Sociology of Education,* Vol. 65, No. 2, pp. 128-49.
Michaelowa, K. and Weber, A. 2007. Aid effectiveness in primay, secondary and tertiary education. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007*.
Middleton, J., Ziderman, A. and Van Adams, A. 1991. *Vocational and Technical Education and Training*. Washington, D.C., The World Bank. (World Bank Policy Paper.)
Milani, C. 2014. International development co-operation in the education sector: the role of Brazil. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.
Miller-Grandvaux, Y. and Yoder, K. 2002. *A Literature Review of Community Schools in Africa*. Washington, DC, Academy for Educational Development.

Ministry of Human Resource Development of India. 2010. *Country Paper: Status and Major Challenges of Literacy in India.* Conference paper for Eighth E-9 Ministerial Review Meeting on Education for All, "Literacy for Development", Abuja, Nigeria, 21 - 24 June 2010., Ministry of Human Resource Development, Government of India.

Mirza, M. 2004. *Gender Analysis of School Curriculum and Textbooks*. Islamabad, UNESCO

Miske, S. J. 2013. Exploring the gendered dimensions of teaching and learning. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*.

Mitra, S., Posarac, A. and Vick, B. 2013. Disability and poverty in developing countries: a multidimensional study. *World Development,* Vol. 41, pp. 1-18.

Mizala, A. and Ñopo, H. 2012. *Evolution of Teachers' Salaries in Latin America at the Turn of the 20th: How Much Are They (Under or Over) Paid?* Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labor. (Discussion Paper Series, 6806.)

Mizala, A. and Urquiola, M. 2013. School markets: The impact of information approximating schools' effectiveness. *Journal of Development Economics,* Vol. 103, July 2013, pp. 313-35.

Mncube, V. and Harber, C. 2013. *The Dynamics of Violence in Schools in South Africa*. Johannesburg, South Africa, University of South Africa.

Mo, D., Swinnen, J., Zhang, L., Yi, H., Qu, Q., Boswell, M. and Rozelle, S. 2013. Can one-to-one computing narrow the digital divide and the educational gap in china? The case of Beijing migrant schools. *World Development,* Vol. 46, June 2013, pp. 14-29.

Moav, O. 2005. Cheap children and the persistence of poverty. *The Economic Journal,* Vol. 115, No. 500, pp. 88-110.

Moloi, F., Morobe, N. and Urwick, J. 2008. Free but inaccessible primary education: a critique of the pedagogy of English and Mathematics in Lesotho. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 28, September 2008, pp. 612-21.

Mongolia Government. 2006. *Master Plan to Develop Education of Mongolia in 2006-2015*. Ulaanbaatar, Government of Mongolia.

Mont, D. and Cuong, N. V. 2011. Disability and poverty in Vietnam. *World Bank Economic Review,* Vol. 25, No. 2, pp. 323-59.

Moore, C. 2009. *Impact is Not Enough: Image and CCT Sustainability in Nicaragua*. Brasília, International Policy Centre for Inclusive Growth, UNDP. (One Pager, 79.)

Morgan, C., Petrosino, A. and Fronius, T. 2012. *A Systematic Review of the Evidence of the Impact of Eliminating School User Fees in Low-income Developing Countries*. London, EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London.

Mtahabwa, L. and Rao, N. 2010. Pre-primary education in Tanzania: observations from urban and rural classrooms. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 30, No. 3, pp. 227-35.

Mudege, N. N., Zulu, E. M. and Izugbara, C. 2008. How insecurity impacts on school attendance and school drop out among urban slum children in Nairobi. *International Journal of Conflict and Violence*, No. 1, pp. 98 -112.

Mukhopondhyay, M., Mudege, N. N., Wolmarans, L. and Hunter, C. 2012. *DFID PPA funded "Building Skills for Life for Adolescent Girls" Programme: Global Baseline Report prepared for Plan UK by KIT*. Amsterdam, Netherlands, Royal Tropical Institute.

Mulkeen, A. 2010. *Teachers in Anglophone Africa: Issues in Teacher Supply, Training, and Management*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Mullis, I. V. S., Martin, M. O., Foy, P. and Arora, A. 2012. *TIMSS 2011 International Results in Mathematics*. Chestnut Hill, MA, TIMSS and PIRLS International Study Center, Boston College.

Mundy, K., Haggerty, M., Sivasubramaniam, M., Cherry, S. and Maclure, R. 2010. Civil society, basic education, and sector-wide aid: insights from sub-Saharan Africa. *Development in Practice,* Vol. 20, No. 4-5, pp. 484-97.

Muralidharan, K., Das, J., Holla, A. and Mohpal, A. 2014. *The Fiscal Cost of Weak Governance: Evidence from Teacher Absence in India*. Cambridge, MA, National Bureau of Economic Research. (NBER Working Paper, 20299.)

Murimba, S. 2005. The impact of the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ). *Prospects,* Vol. 35, No. 1, pp. 91-108.

Mustapha, S. 2012. *Gender Equality In and Through Education in Nigeria: Gender Representation in Learning Materials*. Sheffield, UK, Sheffield Hallam University.

Muyanga, M., Olwande, J., Mueni, E. and Wambugu, S. 2010. Free primary education in Kenya: an impact evaluation using propensity score methods. Cockburn, J. M. and Kabubo-Mariara, J. (eds), *Child Welfare in Developing Countries*. New York, Springer, pp. 125-55.

Mwalimu, M. C. 2010. Alternative primary education and social stratification in resource-scarce countries: theoretical, substantive, and methodological debates. *Educate,* Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 6-18.

Myers, R. G. 1992. *The Twelve Who Survive*. London, Routledge.

Myers, R. G. 2004. In search of quality in programmes of early childhood care and education (ECCE). Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005*.

Nambissan, G. B. 2012. Private schools for the poor: business as usual? *Economic and Political Weekly,* Vol. 47, No. 41, pp. 51-58.

Nandita, B., Achyut, P., Khan, N. and Walia, S. 2014. *Are Schools Safe and Gender Equal Spaces? Findings from a Baseline Study of School Related Gender-based Violence in five countries in Asia*. Washington DC/ Woking, UK, International Centre for Research on Women/Plan International. (Research Report of Promoting Equality and Safety in Schools PEASS.)

Nankhuni, F. J. and Findeis, J. L. 2004. Natural resource-collection work and children's schooling in Malawi. *Agricultural Economics,* Vol. 31, No. 2-3, pp. 123-34.

National Audit Office. 2008. *Department for International Development: Providing Budget Support to Developing Countries*. London, National Audit Office.

National Literacy Trust. 2012. *Premier League Reading Stars*. London, National Literacy Trust.

Naudeau, S. 2014. *Mozambique - MZ-Education Sector Support Program: P125127*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Implementation Status Results Report, 6.)

Nawaz, F. 2009. *State of Research on Gender and Corruption*. Bergen, Norway, U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre. (U4 Expert Answer.)

Naylor, R. and Ndaruhutse, S. 2014. Non-government organisations as donors to education. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

NCDC. 2006. *The National Primary School Curriculum for Uganda, Primary 1*. Kampala, National Curriculum Development Centre.

Nechyba, T. 2009. The Social Context of Vouchers. Berends, M., Springer, M., Ballou, D. and Walberg, H. (eds), *Handbook of Research on School Choice*. New York, Routledge, pp. 289-307.

Nechyba, T. J. 2009. Mobilizing the private sector in the United States: a theoretical overview. Chakrabarti, R. and Peterson, P. E. (eds), *School Choice International: Exploring Public-Private Partnerships*. Cambridge, MA, MIT Press.

Nederveen, L. 2010. *Global Mapping of Initiatives in School Health and Nutrition, with Emphasis on Health Education*. Rome, World Food Programme.

Nepal National Planning Commission. 2013. *Evaluation of National Literacy Campaign (NLCP) Programme: Synopsis*. Kathamndu, National Planning Commission, Government of Nepal.

Neuman, M. J. and Devercelli, A. E. 2012. Early childhood policies in sub-Saharan Africa: challenges and opportunities. *International Journal of Child Care and Education Policy,* Vol. 6, No. 2, pp. 21-34.

Nguyen, P.-M., Terlouw, C. and Pilot, A. 2006. Culturally appropriate pedagogy: the case of group learning in a Confucian Heritage Culture context. *Intercultural Education,* Vol. 17, No. 1, pp. 1-19.

Ngware, M., Abuya, B., Admassu, K., Mutisya, M., Musyoka, P. and Oketch, M. 2013. *Quality and Access to Education in Urban Informal Settlements in Kenya*. Nairobi, African Population and Health Research Center.

Nicola, E. 2010. Has Universal Primary Education Improved School Enrollment of AIDS Orphans? A Study of the Kagera Region of Tanzania from 1994-2004. Master's thesis, Georgetown University, Washington, DC.

Nicolai, S. 2015. *Evolution of Responses to Support Education in Post-conflict Situations and the Aftermath of Natural Disasters*. Paris, UNESCO. (Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2015.)

Nicolai, S., Hine, S., Ali, A. and Hou, Z. 2014. *Investment for Education in Emergencies: a Review of Evidence (Draft)*. London, Overseas Development Institute/Save the Children.

Nicolai, S. and Tripplehorn, C. 2003. *The Role of Education in Protecting Children in Conflict*. London, Humanitarian Practice Network, Overseas Development Institute. (HPN Paper, 42.)

Nikiema, N. 2011. A first-language-first multilingual model to meet the quality imperative in formal education in three 'francophone' West African countries. *International Review of Education,* Vol. 57, No. 5/6, pp. 599-616.

Nishimura, M., Ogawa, K., Sifuna, D. N., Chimombo, J., Kunje, D., Ampiah, J., Byamugisha, A., Sawamura, N. and Yamada, S. 2009. A comparative analysis of universal primary education policy in Ghana, Kenya, Malawi and Uganda. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education,* Vol. 12, No. 1, pp. 143-58.

Ñopo, H., Daza, N. and Ramos, J. 2011. *Gender earnings gaps in the world*. Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labour. (Discussion Paper, 5736.)

Nordstrum, L. E. 2012. Incentives to exclude: the political economy constraining school fee abolition in South Africa. *Journal of Education Policy,* Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 67-88.

NUEPA. 2014. *Elementary Education in India Progress Towards UEE: Flash Statistics DISE 2013-14*. New Delhi, National University of Educational Planning and Administration.

Nusche, D. 2009. *What Works in Migrant Education?: A Review of Evidence and Policy Options*. Paris, OECD. (OECD Education Working Paper, 22.)

O'Brien, M. 2009. Fathers, parental leave policies, and infant quality of life: international perspectives and policy impact. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* Vol. 624, No. 1, pp. 190-213.

OECD. 1999. *Inclusive Education at Work: Students with Disabilities in Mainstream Schools*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2004. *Lessons Learned on Donor Support to Decentralisation and Local Governance*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2006. *Starting Strong II: Early Childhood Education and Care*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2010a. *Learning for Jobs*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2010b. *PISA 2009 Results: Learning Trends - Changes in Student Performance Since 2000*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2011a. *Aid Effectiveness 2011: Process in Implementing the Paris Declaration*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (Better Aid.)

___. 2011b. *PISA 2009 Results: Students on Line - Digital Technologies and Performance*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2012a. *2012 SIGI Social Institutions and Gender Index: Understanding the Drivers of Gender Inequality*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2012b. *The Architecture of Development Assistance*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2012c. *Closing the Gender Gap: Act Now*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2012d. *Education at a Glance 2012: Highlights*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2012e. *Nota País. Programa Para la Evaluación Internacional de Alumnos (PISA): PISA 2012 – Resultados*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2012f. *School Funding Formulas: Review of Main Characteristics and Impacts*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. (Working Paper, 74.)

___. 2013a. *Education at a Glance 2013: OECD Indicators*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2013b. *Education Policy Outlook: Chile*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2013c. *Skills Outlook for 2013: First Results from the Survey of Adult Skills*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2014a. *Aid to developing countries rebounds in 2013 to reach an all-time high*. Paris. http://www.oecd.org/newsroom/aid-to-developing-countries-rebounds-in-2013-to-reach-an-all-time-high.htm

___. 2014b. *Country Programmable Aid by sector: 2004-2012*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. http://www.oecd.org/dac/aid-architecture/cpa.htm. (Accessed 7 September 2014.)

___. 2014c. *Development Co-operation Report 2014: Mobilising Resources for Sustainable Development*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2014d. *Education at a Glance 2014: OECD Indicators*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

___. 2014e. *Fragile States 2014: Domestic Revenue Mobilisation in Fragile States*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
___. 2014f. *PISA 2012 Results in Focus: What 15-Year-Olds Know and What They Can Do With What They Know: Overview*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
___. 2014g. *PISA 2012 Results: What Students Know and Can Do: Student Performance in Mathematics, Reading and Science*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
___. 2014h. *PISA for Development*. Paris, France. http://www.oecd.org/pisa/aboutpisa/pisafordevelopment.htm (Accessed 01 October 2014.)
___. 2014i. *PISA for Development: 1st International Advisory Group Meeting: Expected results from the meeting.* Conference paper for PISA for Development First International Advisory Group Meeting Paris, France, 27-28 May 2014.
___. 2014j. *The Rationale for Fighting Corruption*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
___. 2014k. *Skills For Social Progress*. Paris, OECD.
___. 2014l. *TALIS 2013 Results: An International Perspective on Teaching and Learning*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
OECD-DAC. 2014. *International Development Statistics: Creditor Reporting System*. Paris, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?datasetcode=CRS1. (Accessed 17 April 2014.)
Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs. 2014. *Financial Tracking Service: Tracking Global Humanitarian Aid Flows*. Geneva, Switzerland, United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs. http://fts.unocha.org/. (Accessed 2 June 2014.)
O'Gara, C. 2013. Education-based approaches to early childhood development. Britto, P. R., Engle, P. L. and Super, C. M. (eds), *Handbook of Early Childhood Development Research and its Impact on Global Policy*. Oxford, UK, Oxford University Press.
OHCHR. 2013. *Who Will be Accountable? Human Rights and the Post-2015 Development Agenda*. Geneva, Switzerland, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights.
Oketch, M., Mutisya, M., Ngware, M. and Ezeh, A. C. 2010. Why are there proportionally more poor pupils enrolled in non-state schools in urban Kenya in spite of FPE policy? *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 30, No. 1, pp. 23-32.
Okojo-Iweala, N. 2013. *Aid as a Catalyst for Domestic Resource Mobilization in Africa.* Conference paper for Africa Platform for Development Effectiveness, Addis Ababa, African Union, 24 July 2013.
Oleksy-Ojikutu, S. and Forbes, P. 2013. *National Education Accounts*. Washington, DC, US Agency for International Development.
Oloyede, E. O., Adebowale, O. F. and Ojo, A. A. 2012. The effects of competitive, cooperative and individualistic classroom interaction models on learning outcomes in mathematics in Nigerian senior secondary schools. *International Scholarly Research Notices,* Vol. 2012, Article ID 263891.
Open Government Partnership. n.d. *What is the Open Government Partnership?* San Francisco/ Washington, DC. http://www.opengovpartnership.org/about (Accessed 31 July 2014.)
Orange, R. 2011. Doubts grow over the success of Sweden's free schools experiment. *The Guardian,* 10 September 2011.
Orkin, K. 2013. *The Effect of Lengthening the School Day on Children's Achievement in Ethiopia*. Oxford, UK. (Young Lives Working Paper, 119.)
Osorio, J. C. P. and Wodon, Q. 2014. *Faith-Based Schools in Latin America: Case Studies on Fe y Alegría*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
O'Sullivan, M. 2004. The reconceptualisation of learner-centred approaches: a Namibian case study. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 24, No. 6, pp. 585-602.
Oxenham, J. 2008. *Effective Literacy Programmes: Options for Policy-makers*. Paris, UNESCO.
Oxfam. 2007. *Practising Gender Equality in Education*. Oxford, UK, Oxfam.
Oxfam International. 2011. *2011 Review of Conditionality and the Design of Fund-Support Programs*. Oxford, UK, Oxfam International.
Oxford Policy Management. 2013. *Independent Evaluation of the International Household Survey Network (IHSN) and Accelerated Data Program (ADP) - Final Report*. Oxford, UK, Oxford Policy Management.
Papua New Guinea Department of Education. 2009. *Gender Equity Strategic Plan 2009 - 2014*. Waigani, Department of Education, Government of Papua New Guinea.

Papua New Guinea National Department of Education. 2008. *National Report on the State-of-the-art of Adult learning and Education in Papua New Guinea: a situation analysis*. Port Moresby, Papua New Guinea National Department of Education.

Parkes, J. 2015. Gender-based Violence in Schools. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Parkes, J. and Heslop, J. 2013. *Stop Violence Against Girls at School: A Cross-Country Analysis of Change in Ghana, Kenya and Mozambique*. London/ Johannesburg, South Africa, Institute of Education, University of London/ ActionAid International.

Pasali, S. S. 2013. Fathers for Daughters and Mothers for Sons: Gender Bias in Intrahousehold Resource Allocation in Turkey. Geneva, Switzerland, Graduate Institute of International Studies. (Unpublished.)

Patrinos, H. 2013. The hidden cost of corruption: teacher absenteeism and loss in schools. Transparency International (ed.), *Global Corruption Report: Education*. New York, Routledge.

Pattanayak, B. 2012. *A Report on Piloting of Curriculum for Early Childhood Education in 2 Blocks of Jharkhand*. New York/New Delhi, UNICEF/ Government of India.

Pawlak, P. 2014. *School-Related Gender-Based Violence in the Asia-Pacific Region*. Bangkok, UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education.

Penn, H. 2010. *The Debate About Quality in the Private For-profit Childcare Market.* Conference paper for Social Policy Association Conference, Lincoln, UK, 6 July 2010.

Perakis, R. 2014. *First Development Impact Bond is Launched*. Washington, DC, Center for Global Development.

Peralta, M. V. 2008. Quality: children's right to appropriate and relevant education. *Early Childhood Matters*, No. 110, pp. 3-12.

Pereira, J. and Villota, C. 2012. *Hitting the Target? Evaluating the Effectiveness of Results-Based Approaches to Aid*. Brussels, European Network on Debt and Development

Peru Government. 2003. *Ley general de educación, No. 28044*. Lima, Government of Peru.

Petrosino, A., Morgan, C., Fronius, T., Tanner-Smith, E. E. and Boruch, R. 2012. *Interventions in Developing Nations for Improving Primary and Secondary School Enrollment of Children: a Systematic Review*. Woburn, MA, The Campbell Collaboration. (Campbell Systematic Reviews, 2012:19.)

Piketty, T. 2014. *Capital in the Twenty-First Century*. Cambridge, MA Harvard University Press.

Pinheiro, P. S. 2006. *World Report on Violence against Children*. New York, United Nations Secretary General's Study on Violence against Children.

Plan International. 2012. *Because I am a Girl: State of the World's Girls 2012 - Learning for Life*. Woking, UK, Plan International.

Plank, S. B., DeLuca, S. and Estacion, A. 2008. High School Dropout and the Role of Career and Technical Education: A Survival Analysis of Surviving High School. *Sociology of Education,* Vol. 81, No. 4, pp. 345-70.

Pôle de Dakar. 2009. *Universal Primary Education in Africa: the Teacher Challenge*. Dakar, UNESCO Pôle de Dakar.

___. 2012. *Household Education Spending: an Analytical and Comparative Perspective for 15 African Countries*. Dakar, UNESCO Pôle de Dakar.

___. forthcoming. *Indicator Database*. Paris, UNESCO Pôle de Dakar. https://www.iipe-poledakar.org/en/indicateurs-en/indicator-database. (Accessed 01 November 2014.)

Pôle de Dakar, UNESCO Dakar Office, The World Bank, UNESCO Institute for Statistics and UNICEF. 2013. *An Analysis for Further Improving the Quality, Equity and Efficiency of the Education System in Sierra Leone*. Dakar, UNESCO Pôle de Dakar. (Education Country Status Report.)

Pôle de Dakar and République du Bénin. 2011. *La Question Enseignante au Bénin: un Diagnostic Holistique pour la Construction d'une Politique Enseignante Consensuelle, Soutenable et Durable*. Dakar, UNESCO Pôle de Dakar.

Poon, A. C. S. 2008. The development of pre-primary services in Hong Kong: quality review as a lever of continuous school improvement. *International Journal of Child Care and Education Policy,* Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 15-26.

Population Council. 2013. *The Ishraq Program for Out-of-School Girls: From Pilot to Scale-up*. New York, Population Council.

Post, D. and Pong, S.-l. 2000. Employment during middle school: the effects on academic achievement in the U.S. and abroad. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis,* Vol. 22, No. 3, pp. 273-98.

___. 2009a. The academic effects of after-school paid and unpaid work among 14-year-old students in TIMSS countries. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education,* Vol. 39, No. 6, pp. 799-818.

___. 2009b. Student labour and academic proficiency in international perspective. *International Labour Review,* Vol. 148, No. 1-2, pp. 93-122.

Postles, C. 2013. *Girls' Learning: Investigating the Classroom Practices that Promote Girls' Learning*. London, Plan UK.

PRAD. 2010. *Nepal: Program Budget and Benefit Incidence Analysis in Education Sector*. Shanti Basti, Nepal, Policy Research and Development Nepal.

Presler-Marshall, E. and Jones, N. 2012. *Charting the Future: Empowering Girls to Prevent Early Pregnancy*. London, Overseas Development Institute/ Save the Children UK.

Prins, E. 2009. Salvadoran campesinos/as' literacy practices and perceptions of the benefits of literacy: a longitudinal study with former literacy participants. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 30, No. 4, pp. 418-27.

Prizzon, A. and Mustapha, S. 2014. *Debt Sustainability in HIPCs in a New Age of Choice*. London, Overseas Development Institute. (Working Paper, 397.)

Pryor, J., Akyeampong, K., Westbrook, J. and Lussier, K. 2012. Rethinking teacher preparation and professional development in Africa: an analysis of the curriculum of teacher education in the teaching of early reading and mathematics. *Curriculum Journal,* Vol. 23, No. 4, pp. 409-502.

Psacharopoulos, G. 2014. *Benefits and Costs of the Education Targets for the Post-2015 Development Agenda*. Copenhagen, Copenhagen Consensus Center. (Education Assessment Paper.)

Psaki, S. R. 2015. Addressing early marriage and adolescent pregnancy as a barrier to gender parity and equality in education. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Rahim, B. 2014. *Pakistan: Children in Primary Schools Should be Taught in their Mother Tongue*, *World Education Blog*, Vol. 2014, EFA Global Monitoring Report.

Randal, J. and German, T. 2002. Trends in the financing of humanitarian assistance. Macrae, J. (ed.), *The New Humanitarianisms: a Review of Trends in Global Humanitarian Action*. London, Overseas Development Institute, pp. 19-28.

Rao, N., Sun, J., Pearson, V., Liu, H., Engle, P. L., Pearson, E. and Costas, M. A. 2012. Is something better than nothing? An evaluation of early childhood programs in Cambodia. *Child Development,* Vol. 83, No. 3, pp. 864-76.

Rao, N., Sun, J., Zhou, J. and Zhang, L. 2012. Early achievement in rural China: the role of preschool experience. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly,* Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 66-76.

Rawal, S. and Kingdon, G. 2010. *Akin to my Teacher: Does Caste, Religious or Gender Distance Between Student and Teacher Matter? Some Evidence from India*. London, Department of Quantitative Social Science, Institute of Education, University of London. (DoQSS Working Paper, 10-18.)

Read, T. and Bontoux, V. 2014. Where Have All the Textbooks Gone? The Affordable and Sustainable Provision of Teaching and Learning Materials in sub-Saharan Africa?: A Guide to Best and Worst Practices. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Unpublished.)

Reid, R. 2011. *Winning Back our Boys (Part 2): Raising Achievement, Closing Gaps*. Mona, Jamaica, University of the West Indies.

Reilly, J. 2014. The role of China as an education aid donor. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Reimers, F., Da Silva, C. D. and Trevino, E. 2006. *Where is the 'Education' in Conditional Cash Transfers in Education?* Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (UIS Working Paper, 4.)

Republic of Korea Ministry of Education Science and Technology MEST. 2013. *Statistics of Lifelong Education*. Seoul, MEST.

Republic of Korea Ministry of Employment and Labor MOEL. 2013. *Skills Development Policy in Korea*. Seoul, Republic of Korea, MOEL.

RFSU. 2009. *YMEP: Young Men as Equal Partners*. Stockholm, Swedish Association for Sexuality Education

___. 2011. *Reducing Unwanted Pregnancy: The Impact of Involving Young Men in Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights in Sub-Saharan Africa* Stockholm, Swedish Association for Sexuality Educatin (RFSU)

Riddell, A. 2012. *The Effectiveness of Foreign Aid to Education: What Can be Learned?* Helsinki, United Nations University-World Institute for Development Economics Research (UNU-WIDER). (Working Paper, 2012/75.)

Ridley, A. and Bista, M. B. 2004. *Impact of Incentives to Increase Girls' Access to and Retention in Basic Education*. Bangkok, UNESCO Bangkok.

Rinne, R. and Ozga, J. 2011. Europe and the global: the role of the OECD in education politics. Ozga, J., Dahler-Larsen, P., Segerholm, C. and Simola, H. (eds), *Fabricating Quality in Education: Data and Governance in Europe*. Abingdon, UK, Routledge.

Robinson, C. 2014. *A personal perspective on the follow up after Dakar*, *World Education Blog*, Vol. 2014. Paris, EFA Global Monitoring Report.

Robinson, C. 2015. Languages in adult literacy: policies and practices during the 15 years of EFA (2000-2015) Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Robinson-Pant, A. 2010. Changing discourses: Literacy and development in Nepal. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 30, No. 2, pp. 136-44.

Rogers, A. 2003. Recent developments in adult and non-formal education. *NORRAG News,* Vol. 31, pp. 52-7.

Rolfe, H. and Crowley, T. 2008. *Work-Related Learning for an Innovation Nation: Engaging with Employers to Improve Work-Related Learning Opportunities for Young People aged 14 -19*. London, National Endowment for Science, Technology and the Arts.

Rolleston, C. and Adefeso-Olateju, M. 2014. De facto privatisation of basic education in Africa: a market response to government failure? A comparative study of the cases of Ghana and Nigeria. Macpherson, I., Robertson, S. and Walford, G. (eds), *Education, Privatisation and Social Justice: Case Studies from Africa, South Asia and South East Asia*. Oxford, UK, Symposium Books.

Rolleston, C., James, Z. and Aurino, E. 2013. Exploring the effect of educational opportunity and inequality on learning outcomes in Ethiopia, Peru, India and Vietnam. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*.

Rose, P. 2010. Achieving education for all through public-private partnerships? *Development in Practice,* Vol. 20, No. 4/5, pp. 473-83.

Rose, P., Steer, L., Smith, K. and Zubairi, A. 2013. *Financing for Global Education: Opportunities for Multilateral Action*. Washington, DC/ Paris, Center for Universal Education at Brookings/ EFA Global Monitoring Report.

Rose-Ackerman, S. 2006. *International Handbook on the Economics of Corruption*. Cheltenham, MA, Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.

Rosen, Y. and Manny-Ikan, E. 2011. The social promise of the time to know program. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning,* Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 150-61.

Rosenmund, M. 2007. The current discourse on curriculum change: a comparative analysis of national reports on education. Benavot, A., Braslavsky, C. and Truong, N. (eds), *School Knowledge in Comparative and Historical Perspective: Changing Curricula in Primary and Secondary Education*, Vol. 18. Hong Kong, China, Comparative Education Research Center, pp. 173-94.

RTI International. 2015. Early learning assessments: a retrospective. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Rugh, A. 2000. *Starting Now: Strategies for Helping Girls Complete Primary*. Washington, DC, Strategies for Advancing Girls Education project, Academy for Educational Development. (SAGE Technical Report, 1.)

Ruto, S., Ongwengyi, Z. and Mugo, J. 2009. Educational marginalisation in northern Kenya. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*.

Saavedra, J. E. and Garcia, S. 2013. *Educational Impacts and Cost-Effectiveness of Conditional Cash Transfer Programs in Developing Countries: a Meta-Analysis*. Los Angeles, CA, University of Southern California. (CESR Working Paper, 2013-007.)

Sabarwal, S., Evans, D. and Marshak, A. 2013. The Permanent Textbook Hypothesis: School Inputs and Students Outcomes in Sierra Leone. (Unpublished.)

SACMEQ. 2010. *How Successful Are Textbook Provision Programmes?* Paris, Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality. (Policy Issues Series, 6.)

___. 2011. *Quality of Primary School Inputs in Swaziland*. Paris, Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality. (Policy Brief, 2.)

Sanchez, J. and Salinas, A. 2008. ICT & learning in Chilean schools: lessons learned. *Computers & Education,* Vol. 51, No. 4, pp. 1621-33.

Sarr, A. and Dube, K. 2010. *Second African Decade of Persons with Disabilities*. Oxford, UK, Refugee Studies Centre, Oxford Department of International Development, University of Oxford. (Forced Migration Review, 35.)

Sasmaz, A. 2015. Politics of educational expansion in Turkey. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Save the Children. 2012. *Breaking the Cycle of Crisis: Learning from Save the Children's Delivery of Education in Conflict-Affected Fragile States*. London, Save the Children UK.

Schady, N. and Araujo, M. C. 2008. Cash transfers, conditions, and school enrollment in Ecuador. *Economia,* Vol. 8, No. 2, pp. 43-70.

Scheerens, J. 2004. Review of school and instructional effectiveness research. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2005*.

Schneider, M., Elacqua, G. and Buckley, J. 2006. School choice in Chile: is it class or the classroom? *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management,* Vol. 25, No. 3, pp. 577-601.

Schnepf, S. 2004. *How Different Are Immigrants? A Cross-Country and Cross-Survey Analysis of Educational Achievement*. Bonn, Germany, IZA. (IZA Discussion Paper, 1398.)

Schrepfer, N. and Caterina, M. 2014. *On the Margin: Kenya's Pastoralists - from Displacement to Solutions, a Conceptual Study on the Internal Displacement of Pastoralists*. Geneva, Switzerland, Internal Displacement Montitoring Centre, Norwegian Refugee Council.

Schriner, K. 2003. *Arab Nations Launch Regional Decade for People with Disabilities*. Berkeley, CA, World Institute on Disability. http://disabilityworld.org/01-03_03/news/arabdecade.shtml (Accessed 29 September 2014.)

Schwartz, A. 2012. *Remedial Education Programs to Accelerate Learning for All*. Washington, DC, Global Partnership for Education. (GPE Working Paper Series on Learning, 11.)

Schweisfurth, M. 2011. Learner-centred education in developing country contexts: from solution to problem? *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 31, No. 5, pp. 425-32.

Sellar, S. and Lingard, B. 2013. The OECD and global governance in education. *Journal of Education Policy,* Vol. 28, No. 5, pp. 710-25.

Serbessa, D. D. 2006. Tension between traditional and modern teaching-learning approaches in Ethiopian primary schools. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education,* Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 123-40.

Shack/ Slum Dwellers International. 2014. *A Global Network of the Urban Poor: What We Do*. Cape Town, Shack/ Slum Dwellers International. http://www.sdinet.org/about-what-we-do/ (Accessed 31 July 2014.)

Shaeffer, S. 2015. The demand for and the provision of early childhood services since 2000: policies and strategies. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Shah, S. F. 2012. Gender inclusion: a neglected aspect of the English textbooks in Pakistan. *International Journal of Social Science and Education,* Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 118-27.

Shamatov, D. and Sainazarov, K. 2010. The impact of standardized testing on education quality in Kyrgyzstan: the case of the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2006. Wiseman, A. (ed.), *The Impact of International Achievement Studies on National Education Policymaking.* Bingley, UK, International Perspectives on Education and Society, pp. 145-79. (*Oxford Studies in Comparative Education*.)

Shavit, Y. and Blossfeld, H.-P. (eds). 1993. *Persistent Inequality*. Boulder, USA, Westview Press.

Sheridan, S., Giota, J., Han, Y.-M. and Kwon, J.-Y. 2009. A cross-cultural study of preschool quality in South Korea and Sweden: ECERS evaluations. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly,* Vol. 24, No. 2, pp. 142-56.

Shonkoff, J. and Philips, D. A. 2000. *From Neurons to Neighborhoods: the Science of Early Childhood Development*. Washington, DC, National Academy Press.

Silova, I. 2010. Private tutoring in Eastern Europe and Central Asia: policy choices and implications. *Compare: a Journal of Comparative and International Education,* Vol. 40, No. 3, pp. 327-44.

Simson, R. and Welham, B. 2014. *Incredible Budgets: Budget Credibility in Theory and Practice*. London, Overseas Development Institute. (Working Paper)

Sinclair, M. 2001. Education in emergencies. Crisp, J., Talbot, C. and Cipollone, D. B. (eds), *Learning for a Future: Refugee Education in Developing Countries*. Geneva, Switzerland, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, pp. 1-83.

Singal, N. 2015. Education of children with disabilities in India and Pakistan: An analysis of developments since 2000. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Skilbeck, M. 2000. *Education for All: Global Synthesis*. Paris, Secretariat of the International Consultative Forum on Education for All.

Skoufias, E. and Shapiro, J. 2006. *Evaluating the Impact of Mexico's Quality School Program: the Pitfalls of Using Nonexperimental Data*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper Series, 4036.)

Smiley, A., Omoeva, C., Sylla, B. and Chaluda, A. 2012. *Orphans and Vulnerable Children: Trends in School Access and Experience in Eastern and Southern Africa*. Washington, DC, Education Policy and Data Center, FHI 360.

Smith, D. E. and Green, K. E. 2007. Violence among youth in Jamaica: a growing public health risk and challenge. *Revista Panamericana de Salud Publica,* Vol. 22, No. 6, pp. 417-24.

Smits, J., Huisman, J. and Kruijff, K. 2009. Home language and education in the developing world. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009*.

SNV/WaterAid/UNICEF. 2010. *School WASH in Tanzania: Improving WASH in Schools - Improving Quality of Education*. The Hague/ London/ New York, SNV Netherlands Development Organisation/ WaterAid/ UNICEF.

Somerset, A. 2009. Universalising primary education in Kenya: the elusive goal. *Comparative Education,* Vol. 45, No. 2, pp. 233-50.

South Africa Department of Education. 2001. *National Strategy for Mathematics, Science and Technology Education in General and Further Education Training*. Pretoria, South Africa Department of Education.

___. 2004. *The Development of Education: Country Report for South Africa*. Pretoria, South Africa Department of Education.

South Sudan Ministry of General Education and Instruction. 2012. *Education Statistics for the Republic of South Sudan: National Statistical Booklet 2011*. Juba, South Sudan Ministry of General Education and Instruction, Government of South Sudan.

Spratt, S. 2014. Banking on a New World Order: The Establishment of a BRICS Bank May See a Geopoliticala Shift from Developed Countries to Developing Ones. *The Economist* 20-26 July 2014.

Sprietsma, M. 2012. Computers as pedagogical tools in Brazil: a pseudo-panel analysis. *Education Economics,* Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 19-32.

Sriprakash, A. 2010. Child-centred education and the promise of democratic learning: pedagogic messages in rural Indian primary schools. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 30, No. 3, pp. 297-304.

Srivastava, P. 2006. Private schooling and mental models about girls' schooling in India. *Compare,* Vol. 36, No. 4, pp. 497-514.

Stampini, M. and Tornarolli, L. 2012. *The Growth of Conditional Cash Transfers in Latin America and the Caribbean: Did They Go Too Far?* Bonn, Germany, Institute for the Study of Labor. (IZA Policy Paper, 49.)

Stasavage, D. 2005. The role of democracy in Uganda's move to universal primary education. *The Journal of Modern African Studies,* Vol. 43, No. 1, pp. 53-73.

STATcompiler. 2014. *STATcompiler*. Demographic and Health Surveys Program. http://www.statcompiler.com/. (Accessed 14 November 2014.)

Steets, J., Grünewald, F., Binder, A., de Geoffroy, V., Kauffmann, D., Krüger, S., Meier, C. and Sokpoh, B. 2010. *Cluster Approach Evaluation 2: Synthesis Report*. Berlin/ Plaisians, France, Global Public Policy Institute/ Groupe URD.

Steiner-Khamsi, G. 2015. Teachers and teacher education policies. McCowan, T. and Unterhalter, E. (eds), *Education and International Development: An Introduction*. London, Bloomsbury Publishing.

Steiner-Khamsi, G. and Gerelmaa, A. 2008. Quality and equity in the Mongolian education sector. *Prospects,* Vol. 38, pp. 408-14.

Stockholm International Peace Research Institute. 2000. *SIPRI Yearbook 2000: Armaments, Disarmament and International Security*. Stockholm, Stockholm International Peace Research Institute.

Stone, D. 2008. Global public policy, transnational policy communities, and their networks. *Policy Studies Journal,* Vol. 36, No. 1, pp. 19-38.

Street, B. 2003. What's new in new literacy studies? *Current Issues in Comparative Education,* Vol. 5, No. 2, pp. 77-91.

Stromquist, N. P. 2007. The gender socialization process in schools: a cross-national comparison. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

Subrahmanian, R. 2006. *Mainstreaming Gender for Better Girls' Education: Policy and Institutional Issues* New York/ Paris, United Nations Girls' Education Initiative/ UNESCO.

Sukontamarn, P. 2005. *The Entry of NGO Schools and Girls' Educational Outcomes in Bangladesh*. London, London School of Economics and Political Science. (Political Economy and Public Policy Discussion Paper, 10.)

Sun, J., Rao, N. and Pearson, E. 2015. Policies and strategies to enhance the quality of early childhood educators. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Sundaram, J. K., Schwank, O. and von Arnim, R. 2011. *Globalization and development in sub-Saharan Africa*. New York, United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (Working Paper, 102.)

Sutcliffe, S. and Court, J. 2005. *Evidence-Based Policy-Making: What Is It? How Does It Work? What Relevance for Developing Countries?* London, Overseas Development Institute.

Sutton, M. 2007. UNESCO's role in global educational development. *Comparative Education Review,* Vol. 51, No. 2, pp. 229-45.

Swaziland Ministry of Education and Training. 2011. *The Swaziland Education and Training Sector Policy*. Mbabane, Ministry of Education and Training, Government of Swaziland.

Sweden Government. 2012. *The Pre-school Class*. Stockholm, Government of Sweden. http://www.government.se/sb/d/2098/a/72442 (Accessed 19 July 2014.)

Sylva, K., Melhuish, E., Sammons, P., Siraj-Blatchford, I. and Taggart, G. 2011. Pre-school quality and educational outcomes at age 11: low quality has little benefit. *Journal of Early Childhood Research,* Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 109-24.

Tabulawa, R. 2003. International aid agencies, learner-centred pedagogy and political democratisation: a critique. *Comparative Education,* Vol. 39, No. 1, pp. 7-26.

The Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development. 2008. *Funding the Future: Strategies for Early Childhood Investment, Costing and Financing*. Ontario, The Consultative Group on Early Childhood Care and Development (Coordinators' Notebook, 30.)

Themelis, S. and Foster, B. 2013. Education for Roma: the potential for inclusive, curriculum-based innovation to improve learning outcomes. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14*.

Thompson, T. and Shah, A. 2005. Transparency International's Corruption Perceptions Index: Whose Perceptions Are They Anyway? Washington, DC, World Bank. (Discussion draft. Unpublished.)

Tikly, L. 2013. Reconceptualizing TVET and development: a human capability and social justice approach. UNESCO-UNEVOC International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (ed.), *Revisiting Global Trends in TVET: Reflections on Theory and Practice*. Bonn, Germany, UNESCO-UNEVOC International Centre for Technical and Vocational Education and Training.

Tomasevski, K. 2006. *The State of the Right to Education Worldwide: Free or Fee - 2006 Global Report*. Copenhagen.

Tomasi, S. 2014. *Does Aid Have a Future?* Paris, OECD.

Tooley, J. and Dixon, P. 2003. *Private Schools for the Poor: A Case Study from India*. Reading, UK, Centre for British Teachers.

___. 2005. *Private Education is Good for the Poor: a Study of Private Schools Serving the Poor in Low-Income Countries*. Washington, DC, Cato Institute.

Tooley, J., Dixon, P., Shamsan, Y. and Schagen, I. 2010. The relative quality and cost effectiveness of private and public schools for low-income families: a case study in a developing country. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement,* Vol. 21, No. 2, pp. 117-44.

Tooley, J., Dixon, P. and Stanfield, J. 2008. Impact of free primary education in Kenya: a case study of private schools in Kibera. *Educational Management Administration and Leadership,* Vol. 36, No. 4, pp. 449 - 69.

Torres, R. M. 2001. What happened at the World Education Forum? *Adult Education and Development,* Vol. 56.

Townsend, T. 2012. *Evaluation of the International Task Force on 'Teachers for Education for All': Final Report*. Paris, International Task Force on Teachers for EFA.

Transparency International. 2010. *Corruption and Gender in Service Delivery: The Unequal Impacts*. Berlin, Transparency International (02/2010.)

___. 2013. *Global Corruption Report: Education*. Berlin, Transparency International.

Tripney, J., Hombrados, J., Newman, M., Hovish, K., Brown, C., Steinka-Fry, K. and Wilkey, E. 2013. *Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Interventions to Improve the Employability*

and Employment of Young People in Low- and Middle-Income Countries: a Systematic Review. Oslo, Norway, Campbell Systematic Reviews (Campbell Systematic Reviews)

Trucano, M. 2013. *Mobile Learning and Textbooks of the Future, e-reading and edtech Policies: Trends in Technology Use in Education in Developing Countries - Excerpts from the World Bank's EduTech blog* Washington, DC, World Bank.

Turrent, V. 2012. *The Teacher Salary System in Sierra Leone: Case study*. Washington, DC/ London, Centre for Universal Education at Brookings/ CfBT Education Trust.

Twahirwa, A. 2010. *Retraining Rwanda's Traditional Birth Attendants*. Rome, Inter Press Service News Agency. http://www.ipsnews.net/2010/09/retraining-rwandas-traditional-birth-attendants/ (Accessed 21 July 2014.)

UBS, Educate girls, Instiglo and CIFF. 2014. Investing for Social Outcomes: Children's Investment Fund Foundation and UBS Optimus Foundation Launch the First Development Impact Bond in Education. London/ Zurich, (Press release, 16 June 2014.)

UIL. 2010. *Belém Framework for Action: Harnessing the Power and Potential of Adult Learning and Education for a Viable Future*. Hamburg, Germany, UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

___. 2013. *2nd Global Report on Adult Learning and Education: Rethinking Literacy*. Hamburg, Germany, UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning.

UIS. 2000. *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Statistical Document*. Paris, UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

___. 2006. *Global Age-specific Literacy Projections Model (GALP): Rationale, Methodology and Software*. Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

___. 2008. *A View Inside Primary Schools: a World Education Indicators (WEI) cross-national study*. Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

___. 2009. *The Next Generation of Literacy Statistics: Implementing the Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme (LAMP)*. Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

___. 2010. *Global Education Digest 2010: Comparing Education Statistics Across the World*. Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

___. 2013a. *Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Education in Five Arab States: a Comparative Analysis of ICT Integration and e-Readiness in Schools in Egypt, Jordan, Oman, Palestine and Qatar*. Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (Information Paper.)

___. 2013b. *Literacy Assessment and Monitoring Programme: Country Summary for Paraguay*. Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

___. 2014a. *Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in Education in Asia: a Comparative Analysis of ICT Integration and e-Readiness in Schools Across Asia*. Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics. (Information Paper, 22.)

___. 2014b. *Literacy Statistics Metadata Information Table. Education Indicators and Data Analysis*. Montreal, UNESCO Institute for Statistics. http://data.uis.unesco.org/. (Accessed 01.05.2014.)

___. 2014c. *UNESCO eAtlas of Teachers*. Montreal, Canada. http://tellmaps.com/uis/teachers/ (Accessed 22 December 2014.)

UIS and UNICEF. 2015. *Fixing the Broken Promise of Education for All: Findings from the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children* Montreal, Canada, UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Ukiwo, U. 2003. Politics, ethno-religious conflicts and democratic consolidation in Nigeria. *The Journal of Modern African Studies,* Vol. 41, No. 1, pp. 115-38.

Umar, A., Kinakin, R. and McEachern, D. 2012. *Interim Report on the UNICEF: Commonwealth of Learning Child Friendly Schools Project*. Vancouver, Canada, Commonwealth of Learning.

UN. 1995. *Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.* Conference paper for The Fourth World Conference on Women: Action for Equality, Development and Peace, Beijing 4-15 September 1995.

UN Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. 2012. Asia-Pacific Governments Launch a New Decade of Disability-Inclusive Development. Bangkok, United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (Press release, 29 September 2014.)

UN Office for Disaster Risk Reduction. 2012. *Assessing School Safety from Disasters: a Global Baseline Report*. Geneva, Switzerland, United Nations Office for Disaster Risk Reduction.

UN Secretary-General. 2013. *Strengthening of the coordination of emergency humanitarian assistance of the United Nations*. New York, UN General Assembly and Economic and Social Council. (Report of the Secretary-General 1-25 July, A/68/x-E/2013/y/)

UN Women. 2012a. *Gender Responsive Budgeting: Tanzania*. New York, UN Women. http://www.gender-budgets.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=756&Itemid=771 (Accessed 6 September 2014.)
___. 2012b. *UNIFEM GRB Initiatives*. New York, UN Women. http://www.gender-budgets.org/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=15&Itemid=636 (Accessed 9 September 2014.)
UNAIDS Inter-Agency Task Team on Education. 2006. *Quality Education and HIV & AIDS*. Paris, UNAIDS Inter-Agency Task Team on Education, UNESCO
Understanding Children's Work. 2015. Evolution of the Relationship Between Child Labour and Education Since 2000. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.
Understanding Children's Work. 2015. Evolution of the relationship between child labour and education since 2000. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.
UNDESA. 2013. *Cross-national Comparisons of Internal Migration: An Update on Global Patterns and Trends*. New York, United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs. (Technical Paper No. 2013/1.)
UNDP. 2010. *Evaluation of UNDP Contribution to Strengthening Local Governance*. New York, United Nations Development Programme.
UNESCO. 1994. *The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (World Conference on Special Needs Education)*. Salamanca, Spain, UNESCO/ Ministry Education and Science, Government of Spain.
___. 2000. *The Dakar Framework for Action: Education for All Meeting our Collective Commitments*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2003. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4: Gender and Education For All - the Leap to Equality*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2004. *Report of the Inter-Agency Working Group on Life Skills in EFA*. Conference paper for Inter-Agency Working Group on Life Skills in EFA, Paris, UNESCO, 29-31 March 2004.
___. 2005a. *Aspects of Literacy Assessment: Topics and issues from the UNESCO Expert Meeting, 10 -12 June, 2003*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2005b. *Education Policy and Strategy Simulation Model EPSSim: Version 2.1 - User's Guide*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2005c. *Policy Review Report: Early Childhood Care and Education in Kazakhstan*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2006a. *Education Sector Global HIV and AIDS Readiness Survey 2004: Policy Implications for Education and Development*. Paris, UNESCO/UNAIDS Inter Agency Task Team on Education.
___. 2006b. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2006: Literacy for life*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2006c. *Evaluation of UNESCO Support to National Planning for EFA: Synthesis Report*. Paris, UNESCO Internal Oversight Service Evaluation Section.
___. 2006d. *National Education Sector Development Plan: a Result-based Planning Handbook*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2006e. *Sixth Meeting of the High-Level Group on Education for All: Final Communique*. Cairo, UNESCO.
___. 2007a. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007: Strong Foundations*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2007b. *Evaluation of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics*. Paris, UNESCO Internal Oversight Service Evaluation Section.
___. 2007c. *Seventh Meeting of the High-Level Group on Education for All Dakar: Communique*. Senegal, UNESCO.
___. 2008a. *EDUCAIDS Technical Briefs*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2008b. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008: Education for All by 2015. Will We Make It?* Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2009a. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009: Overcoming inequality: why governance matters*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2009b. *Evaluation of Strategic Programme Objectives 1 and 2 (Education Sector)*. Paris, UNESCO Internal Oversight Service Evaluation Section.
___. 2010a. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010: Reaching the Marginalized*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2010b. *Methodological Guide for the Analysis of Teacher Issues*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2010c. *Protecting Education from Attack: a State-of-the-Art Review*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2011a. *Beyond Busan: Strengthening Aid to Improve Education Outcomes*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2011b. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011: The Hidden Crisis - Armed Conflict and Education*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2011c. *Reports by the Director-General on Education for All - Part I: Report on the Role for UNESCO as Global Coordinator and Leader of Education for All*. Paris, UNESCO.

___. 2012a. *Education Sector Responses to Homophobic Bullying*. Paris, UNESCO. (Good Policy and Practice in HIV and Health Education Booklet, 8.)
___. 2012b. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2012: Youth and Skills - Putting Education to Work*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2012c. *Expanding Equitable Early Childhood Care and Education is an Urgent Need*. Paris, UNESCO. (Policy Paper, 03.)
___. 2012d. *The Shanghai Consensus Transforming Technical and Vocational Education and Training: Building Skills for Work and Life*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2013a. *2011-2012 Education Sector HIV and AIDS Global Progress Survey: Progression, Regression or Stagnation?* Paris, UNESCO/UNAIDS Inter Agency Task Team on Education.
___. 2013b. *Global Citizenship Education: an Emerging Perspective*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2013c. *Monitoring and Evaluation Guidance for School Health Programs: Thematic Indicators*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2014a. *Charting the Course of Education and HIV*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2014b. *Developing an Education Sector Response to Early and Unintended Pregnancy: Discussion Document for a Global Consultation*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2014c. *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2013/14: Teaching and Learning*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2014d. *Global Database on the Right to Education*. Paris, UNESCO. http://www.unesco.org/education/edurights/index.php?action=home&lng=en. (Accessed 15.05.14.)
___. 2014e. *Global Education Meeting 12-14 May 2014 - Final Statement: The Muscat Agreement*. Muscat, Oman, UNESCO. (Global Education for All Meeting, 12 – 14 May 2014.)
___. 2014f. *LGBT-Friendly Thailand? A Brief on School Bullying on the Basis of Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity* Bangkok, UNESCO Bangkok.
___. 2014g. *Progress in Getting All Children to School Stalls but Some Countries Show the Way Forward*. Paris, EFA Global Monitoring Report, UNESCO. (EFA GMR Policy Paper, 14.)
___. 2014h. *Sustainable Development Begins with Education: How Education Can Contribute to the Proposed Post-2015 Goals*. Paris, UNESCO.
___. 2014i. *Wanted: Trained Teachers to Ensure Every Child's Right to Primary Education*. Montreal, Canada/ Paris, UNESCO Institute for Statistics/EFA Global Monitoring Report. (Policy Paper 15 / Fact Sheet 30.)
___. 2014j. *World Trends in Freedom of Expression and Media Development*. Paris, UNESCO.
UNESCO and UN Women. 2014. *Written Contribution to the General Discussion on Girls/Women's Right to Education on the occasion of the 58th Session of the CEDAW.* Conference paper for 58th Session of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, Paris/ New York, UNESCO/ UN Women, 7 July 2014.
UNESCO-IBE. 2011a. *Finland Country Report*. Geneva, Switzerland, UNESCO International Bureau of Education. (World Data on Education, IBE/2012/CP/WDE/FI.)
___. 2011b. *Netherlands Country Report*. Geneva, Switzerland, UNESCO International Bureau of Education. (World Data on Education, IBE/2012/CP/WDE/NE.)
___. 2012. *World Data on Education Seventh Edition 2010/11*. Paris, UNESCO International Bureau of Education.
UNESCO-IIEP. 2009. Education marginalisation in national education plans. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010*.
___. 2011. *Gender Equality in Education: Looking beyond Parity - an IIEP Evidence-Based Policy Forum*. Paris, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning.
___. 2014. *Planipolis*. Paris, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/basic_search.php. (Accessed 21 July 2014.)
___. 2015. The impact of the EFA agenda: comparing national education plans before and after Dakar. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.
UNESCO-IIEP and GPE. 2012. *Guidelines for Education Sector Plan Preparation and Appraisal*. Paris/ Washington, DC, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning/Global Partnership for Education.
UNESCO-IIEP, UNICEF and World Bank. 2014. *Education Sector Analysis Methodological Guidelines: Sector-Wide Analysis with Emphasis on Primary and Secondary Education*. Paris/ New York/ Washington, DC, UNESCO International Institute for Educational Planning/ UNICEF/ World Bank.

UNFPA. 2013a. *Jamaica Offers a Model for Preventing Adolescent Pregnancies while Supporting Young Mothers*. Washington, DC, United Nations Population Fund. http://www.unfpa.org/public/home/news/pid/14825 (Accessed 15 December 2013.)
___. 2013b. *Motherhood in Childhood: Facing the Challenge of Adolescent Pregnancy*. New York, United Nations Population Fund.
UNGA. 2013. *Format and Organizational Aspects of the High-Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development*. New York. (Resolution, A/RES/67/290.)
___. 2014. *Elements for a Monitoring and Accountability Framework for the Post-2015 Development Agenda: Background Note*. New York.
UNGEI. 2010. *UNGEI at 10: A Journey to Gender Equality in Education*. New York, United Nations Girls' Education Initiative.
___. 2012. *Formative Evaluation of the United Nations Girls' Education Initiative: Global Report*. New York, United Nations Girls' Education Initiative.
UNHCR. 2013. *War's Human Cost: UNHCR Global Trends 2013*. Geneva, Switzerland, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
___. 2014. *2014 Syria Regional Response Plan: Strategic Overview - Mid-Year Update*. Geneva, Switzerland, United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.
UNICEF. 2007. *UNICEF Congratulates Nigeria on the Launch of a National Integrated Early Childhood Development Policy*. Abuja, UNICEF. http://www.unicef.org/nigeria/media_2218.html (Accessed 24 April 2014.)
___. 2008. *Jordan's Early Childhood Development Initiative: Making Jordan Fit for Children*. New York, UNICEF. (UNICEF MENA-RO Learning Series, 2.)
___. 2009a. *Child-Friendly Schools Manual*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2009b. *Child-Friendly Schools Programming: Global Evaluation Report*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2012c. *School Readiness: a Conceptual Framework*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2013a. *Early Childhood Development Kit*. New York, UNICEF. http://www.unicef.org/earlychildhood/index_52596.html (Accessed 3 September 2014.)
___. 2013b. *Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children: Tajikstan Country Study*. Dushanbe, UNICEF Tajikstan.
___. 2013c. *Identifying and Promoting Good Practice in Equity and Child-Friendly Education*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2013d. *Sexuality Education Curricula in East and Southern Africa: Results of a 10-Country Review*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2013e. *State of the World's Children 2013*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2013f. *UNICEF Supported Early Childhood Education Curriculum Approved by the Ministry of Education of Tajikistan*. New York, UNICEF. http://www.unicef.org/tajikistan/media_24210.html (Accessed 1 September 2014.)
___. 2013g. *UNICEF Water, Sanitation and Hygiene Annual Report 2012*. New York, WASH Section, UNICEF
___. 2013h. *UNICEF's HIV/AIDS Programme: Vision and Direction for Action 2014-2017*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2014a. *Child disability: overview - notes on the data*. New York, UNICEF. http://www.data.unicef.org/child-disability/overview (Accessed 3 September 2014.)
___. 2014b. *Generation 2030, Africa: Child Demographics in Africa*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2014c. *Hidden in Plain Sight: a Statistical Analysis of Violence Against Children*. New York, UNICEF.
___. 2014d. *UNICEF's Upstream Work in Basic Education and Gender Equality 2003-2012: Synthesis Report*. New York, UNICEF.
___. n.d. *Mozambique primary school years*. New York, UNICEF. http://www.unicef.org/mozambique/children_1594.html (Accessed 31 July 2014.)
UNICEF and WHO. 2014. *Progress on Sanitation and Drinking Water: 2014 Update*. New York/ Geneva, Switzerland, UNICEF/ World Health Organization.
UNICEF, WHO and World Bank. 2013. *Joint Child Malnutrition Database*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/nutgrowthdb/estimates/en/. (Accessed 14 November 2014.)
___. 2014. *Joint Child Malnutrition Estimates*. New York/Geneva, Switzerland/Washington, DC, UNICEF/WHO/World Bank. http://data.worldbank.org/child-malnutrition/compare-regional-prevalence. (Accessed 01 October 2014.)
United Nations. 1995. *The United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women: Platform for Action*. New York, United Nations.

___. 1997. *ECOSOC Agreed Conclusions: Chapter IV Coordination Segment - Coordination of the Policies and Activities of the Specialized Agencies and Other Bodies of the United Nations System*. New York, United Nations.

___. 2010. *The Right to Education in Emergency Situations*. New York, United Nations General Assembly. (Sixty-fourth session Agenda item 114, A/64/L.58.)

___. 2012. *Global Education First Initiative: An Initiative of the United Nations Secretary-General*. New York, United Nations.

___. 2013. *International migrant stock: By age and sex*. New York, UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimatesage.shtml

___. 2014a. *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2014*. New York, United Nations.

___. 2014b. *The Road to Dignity by 2030: Ending Poverty, Transforming All Lives and Protecting the Planet (Synthesis Report of the Secretary-General On the Post-2015 Agenda)*. New York, United Nations.

___. 2014c. *Total CERF Funding by Sector: Summary*. New York, United Nations Central Emergency Response Fund. http://www.unocha.org/cerf/cerf-worldwide/funding-sector/funding-sector-2014. (Accessed 18 Dec 2014.)

United Republic of Tanzania Ministry of Education and Vocational Training. 2012. *National Strategic Plan for School Water, Sanitation and Hygiene (SWASH) 2012 -2017*. Dar-es-Salaam, United Republic of Tanzania, Ministry of Educaton and Vocational Training

UNPD. 2014a. *World Population Prospects: the 2012 Revision*. New York, United Nations Population Division. http://esa.un.org/wpp/Excel-Data/fertility.htm (Accessed 10 October 2014.)

___. 2014b. *World Urbanization Prospects: the 2014 Revision*. New York, United Nations Population Division. http://esa.un.org/unpd/wup/CD-ROM/Default.aspx (Accessed 10 October 2014.)

UNSD. 2010. *The World's Women 2010: Trends and Statistics*. New York, United Nations Statistical Division.

Unterhalter, E. 2007. *Gender, Schooling and Global Social Justice*. Abingdon, UK, Routledge.

___. 2014. *Education Targets, Indicators and a Post-2015 Development Agenda: Education for All, the MDGs, and Human Development*. Cambridge, MA/ New York, Harvard School of Public Health/ The New School.

Unterhalter, E. and Heslop, J. 2012. *Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania: Cross Country Analysis of Endline Research Studies*. London, Institute of Education, University of London/ ActionAid.

Unterhalter, E., North, A., Arnot, M., Lloyd, C. B., Molestane, L., Murphy-Graham, E., Parkes, J. and Saito, M. 2014. *Interventions to Enhance Girls' Education and Gender Equality: Education Rigorous Literature Review*. London, UK Department for International Development.

Unterhalter, E., North, A., Morrell, R., Bhana, D., Epstein, D. and Moletsane, L. 2008. Mobilising care: accounts of gender equality, schooling, and the HIV epidemic in Durban, South Africa. Aikman, S., Unterhalter, E. and Boler, T. (eds), *Gender Equality in HIV and AIDS: a Challenge for the Education Sector*. Oxford, UK, Oxfam Publishing, pp. 150-68.

Unterhalter, E., North, A. and Parkes, J. 2010. Gender equality and women and girls' education, 1995-2010: how much is there a space for hope? Paper for *UNESCO 15 year Review of the Beijing Platform of Action*.

Unwin, T. 2015. Evolution and prospects for the use of mobile technologies to improve education access and learning outcomes. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

USAID. 2008. *Education From a Gender Equality Perspective*. Washington, DC, US Agency for International Development.

Vachon, P. 2007. Country case study: Burkina Faso. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008*.

Vaillant, D. 2014. Liderazgo escolar, evolución de políticas y prácticas y mejora de la calidad educativa. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

van Blerk, L. and Ansell, N. 2006. Children's experiences of migration: moving in the wake of AIDS in southern Africa *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space,* Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 449-71.

van de Walle, D., Ravallion, M., Mendiratta, V. and Koolwal, G. 2013. *Long-Term Impacts of Household Electrification in Rural India*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper, 6527.)

Van Der Gaag, J. and Abetti, P. 2011. *Using National Education Accounts to Help Address the Global Learning Crisis*. Washington, DC, Brookings Institution.

van Ravens, J. 2014. *Child Policy in Young Nation States*, Unpublished.

Vargas-Barón, E. 2005. *Planning Policies for Early Childhood Development: Guidelines for Action*. Paris, UNESCO/ UNICEF/ Association for the Development of Education in Africa.

___. 2015. Policies on early childhood care and education: their evolution and come impacts. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Vavrus, F., Thomas, M. and Bartlett, L. 2011. *Ensuring Quality by Attending to Inquiry: Learner-centered Pedagogy in sub-Saharan Africa*. Addis Ababa, UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa. (Fundamentals of Teacher Education Development, 4.)

Vawda, A. and Sarr, L. R. 2013. *Bangladesh Education Sector Review: Seeding Fertile Ground - Education That Works for Bangladesh*. Washington, DC, World Bank.

Veal, K. 2013. If data is not wisdom than non-data certainly is not. *NORRAG News,* Vol. 48, No. 13-14.

Venkatraman, S. 2008. *Using a Literacy Module in Household Surveys: a Guidebook*. Bangkok, UNESCO.

Verger, A. and Novelli, M. 2012. Understanding the outcomes of advocacy coalitions in education: a comparative perspective. Verger, A. and Novelli, M. (eds), *Campaigning For 'Education For All': Histories, Strategies and Outcomes of Transnational Advocacy Coalitions in Education* Rotterdam, The Netherlands, Sense Publishers.

Viet Nam National Institute of Nutrition. 2013. *Stunting Reduction Strategy 2011-2020*. Ha Noi, Viet Nam National Institute of Nutrition. http://viendinhduong.vn/news/en/539/123/stunting-reduction-strategy-2011-2020.aspx (Accessed 21 July 2014.)

Villalón, L. and Bodian, M. 2012. *Religion, demande sociale, et réformes éducatives au Sénégal*. Gainsville, USA, Center for African Studies, University of Florida. (Africa Power and Politics.)

Wagner, D. A. 2010. What happened to literacy? Historical and conceptual perspectives on literacy in UNESCO. *International Journal of Educational Development,* Vol. 31, No. 3, pp. 319-23.

___. 2013. Literacy and UNESCO: conceptual and historical perspectives. Nesbit, T. and Welton, M. (eds), *Adult Education and Learning in a Precarious Age: the Hamburg Declaration Revisited*. Hoboken, NJ, Wiley, pp. 19-27.

Walford, G. 2013. Low-fee private schools: a methodological and political debate. Srivastava, P. (ed.), *Low-fee Private Schooling: Aggravating Equity or Mitigating Disadvantage?* Oxford, UK, Symposium Books, pp. 199-213.

Walker, S. P., Wachs, T. D., Grantham-McGregor, S., Black, M. M., Nelson, C. A., Huffman, S. L., Baker-Henningham, H., Chang, S. M., Hamadani, J. D., Lozoff, B., Meeks Gardner, J. M., Powell, C. A., Rahman, A. and Richter, L. 2011. Inequality in early childhood: risk and protective factors for early child development. *The Lancet,* Vol. 378, No. 9799, pp. 1325-38.

Walter, S. L. and Chuo, K. G. 2012. The Kom Experimental Mother Tongue Education Pilot Project Report for 2012. (Unpublished.)

Wang, L. C. 2011. *Shrinking Classroom Age Variance Raises Student Achievement: Evidence from Developing Countries*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Research Working Paper, 5527.)

Watkins, K. 2013. *Education without Borders: a Summary - a Report from Lebanon on Syria's Out of School Children*. London, A World At School. (A World at School.)

WEF. 2013. *The Future Role of Civil Society*. Cologny/Geneva, Switzerland, World Economic Forum. (World Scenario Series.)

___. 2014. *The Global Gender Gap Report 2014*. Cologny/Geneva, Switzerland, World Economic Forum. (Insight Report.)

Westbrook, J., Durrani, N., Brown, R., Orr, D., Pryor, J., Boddy, J. and Salvi, F. 2013. *Pedagogy, Curriculum, Teaching Practices and Teacher Education in Developing Countries*. London, UK, UK Department of International Development. (Education Rigorous Literature Review.)

WFP. 2013. *State of School Feeding Worldwide 2013*. Rome, World Food Programme.

WHO. 2001. *International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization.

___. 2003. *Skills for Health, Skills-Based Health Education Including Life Skills*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization.

___. 2011. *The Abuja Declaration: Ten Years On*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organisation.

___. 2012. *Developmental Difficulties in Early Childhood: Prevention, Early Identification, Assessment and Intervention in Low- and Middle-income Countries*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization.

___. 2013. *Children: Reducing Mortality*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs178/en/ (Accessed 21 July 2014.)

___. 2014. *Country Assessment in Guatemala: Landscape Analysis*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization. http://www.who.int/nutrition/landscape_analysis/Guatemala/en/ (Accessed 21 July 2014.)
WHO and UNICEF. 2012. *Early Childhood Development and Disability: a Discussion Paper*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization/ UNICEF.
WHO and World Bank. 2011. *World Report on Disability*. Geneva, Switzerland/Washington, DC, World Health Organization/World Bank.
Wilkinson, S. I. 2000. Democratic consolidation and failure: lessons from Bangladesh and Pakistan. *Democratization,* Vol. 7, No. 3, pp. 203-26.
Wils, A. 2015. Reaching education targets in low and lower-middle income countries: costs and finance gaps to 2030. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.
Winkler, D. and Sondergaard, L. 2008. *The Efficiency of Public Education in Uganda*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
Wiseman, W. A. 2010. The uses of evidence for educational policymaking: global contexts and international trends. *Review of Research in Education,* Vol. 34, No. 1, pp. 1-24.
Wisner, B. and Adams, J. (eds). 2002. *Environmental Health in Emergencies and Disasters: a Practical Guide*. Geneva, Switzerland, World Health Organization.
Wong, H. L., Luo, R., Zhang, L. and Rozelle, S. 2013. The impact of vouchers on preschool attendance and elementary school readiness: a randomized controlled trial in rural China. *Economics of Education Review,* Vol. 35, pp. 53-65.
Woodhead, M. and Streuli, N. 2013. Early education for all: is there a role for the private sector? Britto, P. R., Engle, P. L. and Super, C. M. (eds), *Handbook of Early Childhood Development Research and its Impact on Global Policy*. Oxford, UK, Oxford University Press.
World Bank. 1999. *Education Sector Strategy*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2002. *Poverty Reduction and the World Bank: Progress in Operationalizing the WDR 2000/2001*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2004. *World Development Report 2004 : Making Services Work for Poor People*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2005. *Morocco: Basic Education Reform Support Program*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Project Appraisal Document, 30721.)
___. 2006. *Education Sector Strategy Update: Achieving Education for All, Broadening our Perspective, Maximising our Effectiveness*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2008a. *Bangladesh: Disability and Children-At-Risk Project*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2008b. *Curricula, Examinations, and Assessment in Secondary Education in sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Africa Human Development Series Working Paper, 128.)
___. 2008c. *Textbooks and School Library Provision in Secondary Education in sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Africa Human Development Series Working Paper, 126.)
___. 2009. *Preparing PERs for Human Development*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2010a. *Africa Development Indicators 2010*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2010b. *The Education System in Malawi*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Working Paper, 182.)
___. 2010c. *Liberia Education Country Status Report: Out of the Ashes - Learning Lessons from the Past to Guide Education Recovery in Liberia*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2010d. *Teacher Supervision and Monitoring*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Policy Brief, 70555.)
___. 2011a. *Jordan: Higher Education Development Project*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Project Performance Assessment Report, 62732.)
___. 2011b. *Migration and remittances factbook 2nd edition*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2012a. *PKH Conditional Cash Transfer*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Social Assistance Program and Public Expenditure Review, 6/67309.)
___. 2012b. *The Status of the Education Sector in Sudan*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Africa Human Development Series.)
___. 2012c. *Tanzania Early Childhood Development*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (SABER Country Report.)
___. 2013a. *Bangladesh Education Sector Review: Seeding Fertile Ground: Education that Works for Bangladesh*. Dhaka, World Bank. (Education Sector Review, 80613.)
___. 2013b. *Colombia Early Childhood Development*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (SABER Country Report.)

___. 2013c. *Ethiopia: Second Phase of General Education Quality Improvement Project* Washington, DC, World Bank. (Project Appraisal Document, PAD476.)
___. 2013d. *Federal Republic of Nigeria Early Childhood Development*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (SABER Country Report.)
___. 2013e. *Morocco - First Education Development Policy Loan Project*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Implementation Completion and Results Report, ICR2495.)
___. 2013f. *Post-basic Education and Training in Rwanda: Skills Development for Dynamic Economic Growth*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2013g. *What Matters Most for School Finance: Framework Paper*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (SABER Working Paper 2.)
___. 2014a. *Food Price Watch*. Washington, DC, World Bank, Poverty Reduction and Equity Department. (Year 5, Issue 17, May 2014.)
___. 2014b. *Global Symposium on ICT and Education*. Washington, DC, World Bank. http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTEDUCATION/0,,contentMDK:22931144~pagePK:148956~piPK:216618~theSitePK:282386,00.html (Accessed 29 October 2014.)
___. 2014c. *International Surveys of ICT Use in Education*. Washington, DC World Bank. http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/edutech/brief/international-surveys-of-ict-use-in-education (Accessed 7 October 2014.)
___. 2014d. *LSMS data finder*. Washington, DC, World Bank. http://iresearch.worldbank.org/lsms/lsmssurveyFinder.htm. (Accessed 9 September 2014.)
___. 2014e. *Prosperity for All/ Ending Extreme Poverty: a Note for the World Bank Group Spring Meetings 2014*. Washington, DC, World Bank.
___. 2014f. *Republic of Congo: Enhancing Efficiency in Education and Health Public Spending for Improved Quality Service Delivery for All - A Public Expenditure Review of the Education and Heath Sectors*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Public Expenditure Review, AUS5649.)
___. 2014g. *STEP Skills Measurement Surveys: Innovative Tools for Assessing Skills*. Washington, DC. (Social Protection and Labor Discussion Paper, 1421.)
___. 2014h. *World Bank Open Data*. Washington, DC, World Bank. http://data.worldbank.org/. (Accessed 4 Aug 2014; In English.)
___. n.d. *Country and Lending Groups*. Washington, DC, World Bank. http://data.worldbank.org/about/country-and-lending-groups (Accessed 01 September 2014.)
World Bank and Commonwealth Secretariat. 2009. *Conference Proceedings of the Regional Caribbean Conference on Keeping Boys Out of Risk, Montego Bay, Jamaica May 5-7 2009*. Montego Bay, Jamaica, World Bank/ Commonwealth Secretariat.
World Bank, Rwanda Ministry of Education, UNESCO Pôle de Dakar and EFA-FTI. 2011. *Rwanda: Towards Quality Enhancement and Achievement of Universal Nine Year Basic Education*. Washington, DC, World Bank. (Education Country Status Report, 57926.)
World Bank, UNESCO Pôle de Dakar and EFA-FTI. 2011. *The Gambia Education Country Status Report*. Washington, DC. (Country Status Report, SN/2011/ED/PI/1.)
World Bank and UNICEF. 2009. *Abolishing School Fees in Africa: Lessons from Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi and Mozambique*. Washington, DC/ New York, World Bank/ United Nations Children's Fund.
World Education Forum. 2000. *The Dakar Framework for Action, Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments*. Paris, UNESCO.
Xiahuanet. 2014. *China's Foreign Aid*. Beijing. http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/china/2014-07/10/c_133474011_5.htm (Accessed 01 September 2014.)
Xu, Z., Hannaway, J. and Taylor, C. 2009. *Making a Difference? The Effects of Teach for America in High School*. Washington, DC, National Center for Analysis of Longitudinal Data in Education Research, The Urban Institute.
Yi, J. 2002. A discussion on the reform of elementary school social teaching materials from the angle of gender analysis. *Chinese Education and Society,* Vol. 35, No. 5, pp. 63-76.
Ying, S. W. 2013. The impact of government policy on kindergarten teachers in Hong Kong. *American International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences,* Vol. 3, No. 2, pp. 231-35.
Yoshikawa, H. and Kabay, S. B. 2015. The evidence base on early childhood care and education in global contexts. Background paper for *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2015*.

Yousafzai, A. K., Rasheed, M. A., Rizvi, A., Armstrong, R. and Bhutta, Z. A. 2014. Effect of integrated responsive stimulation and nutrition interventions in the Lady Health Worker programme in Pakistan on child development, growth, and health outcomes: a cluster-randomised factorial effectiveness trial. *The Lancet,* Vol. 384, No. 9950, pp. 1282-93.

Zarza, D., Briet, N., Gaona, O. and Barrios Sosa, F. 2014. Evaluación y monitoreo del alfabetismo en Paraguay. *Revista Paraguaya de Educación,* Vol. 1, No. 4, pp. 37-56.

Zeng, H., Huang, R., Zhao, Y. and Zhang, J. 2012. *ICT and ODL in Education for Rural Development: Current Situation and Good Practices in China*. Beijing, UNESCO International Research and Training Centre for Rural Education.

Zucco, C. 2013. When payouts pay off: conditional cash transfers and voting behavior in Brazil 2002-10. *American Journal of Political Science,* Vol. 57, No. 4, pp. 810-22.

Index

Note: This index covers the Overview and Chapters 1 to 9. It is in word-by-word order which takes account of spaces, so 'teacher training' comes before 'teachers''. Page numbers in ***italics*** indicate figures and tables; those in **bold** refer to material in boxes and panels; ***bold italics*** indicates a figure or table in a box or panel. The letter 'n' following a page number indicates information in a note.

Subheadings are arranged alphabetically by the significant term, ignoring prepositions and insignificant words (e.g. 'effect on achievement' is alphabetized as 'achievement').

Definitions of terms can be found in the glossary, and additional information on countries can be found in the aid tables and statistical annex.

C

F

U

V

EDUCATION FOR ALL 2000-2015:
ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES

The twelfth edition of the *EFA Global Monitoring Report* – marking the 2015 deadline for the six goals set at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000 – provides a considered and comprehensive accounting of global progress. As the international community prepares for a new development and education agenda, this report takes stock of past achievements and reflects on future challenges.

There are many signs of notable advances. The pace towards universal primary education has quickened, gender disparity has been reduced in many countries and governments are increasing their focus on making sure children receive an education of good quality. However, despite these efforts, the world failed to meet its overall commitment to Education for All. Millions of children and adolescents are still out of school, and it is the poorest and most disadvantaged who bear the brunt of this failure to reach the EFA targets.

Education for All 2000–2015: Achievements and Challenges provides a comprehensive assessment of country progress towards the EFA goals and highlights the work that remains. It highlights effective policies and makes recommendations for monitoring and evaluating education targets after 2015. It also provides policy-makers with an authoritative source with which to advocate that education be a cornerstone of the post-2015 global development architecture.

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report* is an editorially independent, evidence-based publication that serves as an indispensable tool for governments, researchers, education and development specialists, media and students. It has assessed education progress in some 200 countries and territories on an almost annual basis since 2002. This work will continue, throughout the implementation of the post-2015 sustainable development agenda, as the *Global Education Monitoring Report*.

One of the major reforms since 2000 is the policy where every child must go to school. This has assisted every person to taste the fruits of education. It may have robbed the farmers of their labour force, but it has given them the seeds for a better life in the future.

– Sonam, teacher in Bhutan

Parents that have faced the hardships of not being able to write letters, use mobile phones or ATMs do all they can to provide their children with an education so they don't ever become excluded due to illiteracy.

– Omovigho Rani Ebireri,
University of Maiduguri, Nigeria

I left because of the things that were happening, with the rebels. They destroyed our school, we couldn't go any more. They didn't like the way some of the girls were dressed. They yelled at us, saying that what we were wearing wasn't good. They broke our school desks, destroyed our school books and our things. School is supposed to be a place where we learn things.

– Sita, student in Nigeria

Every child under 5 has to attend pre-school. Early childhood education is a major priority.

– Martha Isabel Castano,
Primary school teacher, Colombia

United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

UNESCO
Publishing

EFA GMR EDUCATION FOR ALL GLOBAL MONITORING REPORT

www.unesco.org/publishing
www.efareport.unesco.org

9 789231 000850