Teachers assessing Education For All

Perspectives from the classroom
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Fifteen years have passed since the adoption of the Dakar Framework for Action at the World Education Forum in 2000. More than 25 years after governments around the world committed to achieving quality basic education for all by 2015, Education International (EI) and its member organisations believe that the time has come for us to ask ourselves: what has become of the Education for All (EFA) world initiative?

When we were in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000, it was revealed that the goals set in 1990 in Jomtiem, Thailand, with the World Declaration on EFA, had not been achieved. The vision was reaffirmed that “every person – child, youth and adult - shall benefit from education opportunities” and commitments were made through the adoption of six EFA goals. Now, 25 years of promises later, millions of children, youth, and adults are still being denied their right to a quality education. Although the last three decades have witnessed increased enrolments in basic education, among other positive developments, pressing challenges of access and learning, quality, and equity continue to confront countries around the world.

Just as teachers engage in formative assessment in their classrooms every day to improve learning, the same spirit informs our assessment of EFA, where EI brought practitioners’ realities and views into the global dialogue on improving and transforming education worldwide.

Throughout 2013 and 2014, EI undertook five regional EFA consultations which brought together representatives of 65 countries (39 from Africa, nine from Asia-Pacific, seven from Latin America, and 10 from the Middle East and North Africa). These regional assessments consisted of multiple day-long workshops and national consultations with EI member organisations. In addition, this report drew from the results of a global survey that EI conducted in 2014. We received an impressive response with over 13,500 teachers and education support personnel at different education levels from over 129 countries sharing their views with us.
So far, teachers and education support personnel have made a few things very clear. They are inviting national governments and the international community to reflect carefully on the lessons learned since Dakar. Providing quality education for all requires profound changes to education systems. To reach all children, youth and adults and improve the quality of education, it is fundamental that we know and understand our education systems better, that all actors and stakeholders communicate better, engaging in meaningful, regular dialogue on education matters, and that governments invest more funds in a smarter, more equitable way.

We find ourselves at a pivotal moment. Despite achieving much progress over the past 30 years, we must also address how we have fallen short on global education objectives set in both Jomtiem and Dakar. This is the global education community’s opportunity to refocus on goals taking us forward to 2030 and beyond in order to make Education for All a reality.

Fred van Leeuwen

General Secretary,
Education International
Fifteen years have passed since the adoption of the Dakar Framework for Action at the World Education Forum in 2000. More than 25 years after governments around the world committed to achieving quality basic education for all by 2015, Education International (EI) and its member organisations believe that the time has come for us to ask ourselves: What has become of the Education for All (EFA) world initiative?

In Dakar, Senegal, in 2000, it was revealed that the goals set in 1990 in Jomtien, Thailand, with the World Declaration on EFA, had not been achieved. The vision was reaffirmed that "every person – child, youth and adult - shall benefit from education opportunities" and commitments were made through the adoption of six EFA goals. Twenty five years of promises later, millions of children, youth, and adults are still denied their right to a quality education. Although the last three decades have witnessed increased enrolments in basic education, among other positive developments, pressing challenges of access and learning, quality, and equity continue to confront countries around the world.

According to the 2014-15 UNESCO’s Education for All Global Monitoring Report (GMR), not a single one of the six EFA goals adopted in Dakar will be achieved. The message is clear: the world has not achieved Education for All. Despite increased enrolment rates, an estimated 58 million children remain out of school and nearly double that number never complete primary education. Inequality in educational access and participation has grown; the most vulnerable and disadvantaged are losing out the most. More than 700 million adults remain illiterate; two-thirds of them are women. Gender equality in education remains elusive and despite the progress made, girls continue to face barriers preventing them from participating in and completing education. Progress that was made has stalled and, in some cases, even reversed. Some of the initial successes, including the abolition of school fees, are being offset by the growth of private fee-based education during the last decade. A growing recognition of the negative impact on education quality of the wide-scale deployment of contract teachers, many of them unqualified and untrained, has made way for an increased emphasis on learning outcomes, gauged through standardised tests. The expanded participation of civil society in education policy development and implementation has seen the inclusion of a growing range of actors, many pursuing private interests, in the education policy space, while workers are by and large excluded from the debate. Governments that developed promising national education plans have failed to provide the financial means to put them into place.

These developments are not a surprise. The GMR has repeatedly highlighted the insufficient level of funding for education and the urgent need for governments and donors to step up their financial efforts at the national and international levels to fulfil their pledges. However, these warnings have been largely disregarded. Teachers and education support personnel have continually shared with government authorities and policy makers their concerns about the multiple challenges within the sector and that efforts towards EFA have been too little and too slow.

It is still unclear what will happen to the EFA movement post 2015. Will a broad new set of education goals like those currently being negotiated within the Open Working Group of Sustainable Development Goals process be adopted? What should a post-2015 global education framework look like, given both the developments and challenges of the last
decades? Whatever shape the future scenario takes, EI believes a reflection on 25 years of EFA is important in order to move forward. We need to better understand why - and how - some countries have made considerable progress while others have lagged behind. Why have some efforts had a positive impact and others have failed? What lessons can be drawn from this experience? What have we done well? Where can it improve? How can we ensure that, in the event that new education goals are adopted, when the world next meets to take stock of progress achieved, it can be said that every person, without exception, is able to enjoy their fundamental right to a quality education? To find some answers to these questions, EI mobilised its members to bring the classroom reality to the centre of the global education debate.

This report collates the outcomes of a global effort to engage teachers and education support personnel in a critical reflection on the EFA movement and goals. It shares the experiences and perspectives of a diverse group of professionals, working in very different contexts around the world, who share one common goal: delivering quality education for all. It aims to capture the essence of the rich consultations and focus groups’ discussions held with EI member organisations from 63 countries and share the views of 13,500 teachers and education support personnel surveyed. As the voice of education workers worldwide, EI considers it essential to draw on their expertise and experience in order to contribute to shaping the future of EFA.

**EI’s approach to the EFA assessment**

EI’s EFA assessment aimed to engage education workers in a critical reflection on the achievements and failures of the EFA movement, with a view to understanding what needs to be done differently in the future if we are to succeed in providing quality education for all. Three key concerns voiced by education workers around the world led EI to carry out an EFA assessment. First, national governments have, on the whole, not taken sufficient initiative to engage teachers and education support personnel in processes to assess progress and challenges towards the realisation of EFA, thereby overlooking the perspectives and professional expertise of a key group of stakeholders in the EFA movement. Second, the global debate on education has, during the past two years, focused on what the future education agenda should be and how it fits within a broader development agenda, without taking the necessary steps to critically evaluate why the current goals have not been achieved. Unless we learn from past mistakes, they are likely to be repeated in the future. Finally, teachers are concerned with a widening gap between the daily challenges faced by education workers and students and the often abstract, high-level discussions on the future of EFA that often better reflect the donors’ desire to easily measure than what schools and communities need.

Progress towards the EFA goals has been assessed from several perspectives, on different levels and in different contexts, notably by the GMR. EI’s assessment focuses on what it considers has received less attention from the international community in the EFA movement: the 12 strategies proposed in the Dakar Framework for Action for achieving the EFA goals. While EI’s assessment also considered progress and challenges towards the six EFA goals, the aim was to assess from the point of view of education workers to what extent the 12 strategies were implemented.

**The implementation strategies of the Dakar Framework of Action:**

1. Mobilise 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
To assess the 12 strategies of the Dakar Framework for action, these were grouped into four pillars and EI’s affiliates considered the following:

- **Commitment and resources**: Did governments meet their commitments to increase funding for basic education, promote transparent budgeting, and curb corruption?
- **Dialogue and participation**: Were education workers given the chance to participate in decision-making processes affecting education? What mechanisms for participation were put into place?
- **Policy and legislation**: What policies were adopted to achieve EFA? What worked and what failed?
- **Teaching and learning**: Did EFA have an impact in the classroom? Did governments meet their commitment to enhance teachers’ status and morale and provide children with safe, healthy, and adequately resourced schools?

In 2013 and 2014, EI undertook five regional EFA consultations which brought together representatives of 63 countries (36 from Africa, nine from Asia-Pacific, eight from Latin America, and 10 from the Middle East and North Africa). These regional assessments consisted of multiple day workshops and national consultations with EI member organisations. Through a variety of activities as part of the workshops and national consultations, 84 EI affiliates evaluated the four pillars based on the Dakar Framework for Action. The outcomes of these activities provided the basis for this report. In addition, teacher organisations from eight countries in Latin America took part in a regional survey and these responses are integrated into the different sections of the report. To complement the findings from the regional consultations and surveys, national education plans, relevant legislation, budgets, and other documents were also reviewed. In addition, this report draws from the results of a survey that EI conducted during 2014. Over 13,500 teachers and education support personnel at different education levels from 129 countries shared their views with us. The survey participants were asked to respond to 40 questions which aimed to look into their current working conditions, opportunities for influencing education reforms, and challenges with regard to the teaching and learning environment. Furthermore, three open-ended questions gave teachers the opportunity to express what they would need to teach better lessons, what demotivates them as professionals, and what they would change in their education system if they were given the chance.

The outcomes of EI’s EFA assessment are divided into five sections. The first four sections address each of the four pillars and synthesises the outcomes of the regional workshop activities, providing an assessment of the 12 strategies of the Dakar Framework for Action and the EFA goals. The survey findings are embedded in boxes throughout the sections to provide additional evidence about the issues addressed. The fifth section concludes with a set of recommendations for the realisation of the right to quality education for all.

1. A list of the trade unions that took part in the assessment can be found on page 61.
THE DISCUSSIONS AND ASSESSMENT UNDERTAKEN IN CONNECTION WITH THE **POLITICAL COMMITMENT AND RESOURCES** PILLAR AIMED TO SHED LIGHT ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF STRATEGIES 1, 2, AND, TO SOME EXTENT, STRATEGY 5 OF THE DAKAR FRAMEWORK FOR ACTION. IN PARTICULAR, THIS PILLAR AIMED TO IDENTIFY WHETHER GOVERNMENTS INCREASED FUNDING FOR BASIC EDUCATION, PROMOTED EDUCATION POLICIES WITH TRANSPARENT BUDGETING, AND MADE EFFORTS TO TACKLE CORRUPTION. THIS SECTION COVERS SEVERAL INTERRELATED DIMENSIONS, INCLUDING: LEVEL, PLANNING AND DISTRIBUTION OF FUNDING, TRANSPARENCY AND ACCOUNTABILITY, SCHOOL FEE ABOLITION, DECENTRALISATION, AND FOREIGN AID.

**Related Dakar Framework strategies:**

1. Mobilise 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. 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

**Level of funding**

When the EFA goals were adopted in 2000, it was clear that achieving them would require the mobilisation of substantial resources: 98 countries, for which data was available at the time of adoption of EFA goals, invested less than the recommended benchmark of six per cent of gross domestic product (GDP) in education. The Dakar Framework recognised that many countries would have to increase the share of their national budgets for education. It called on governments to make firm political commitments and allocate sufficient financial resources to education. It stated that those countries that could not afford to implement their national education plans would be supported by funding agencies and donors. Given that many countries would have to triple their investment to reach six per cent of GDP and were unlikely to succeed on their own, foreign aid was considered to be fundamental to achieving EFA.

The task national governments took upon themselves was arduous and progress in prioritising education has been a mixed success. Since 2000, several countries have increased their investment in education. However, in many more, spending has stagnated at very low levels. Contrary to expectations, many countries have in fact gradually reduced the share of national budgets earmarked for education. In countries where governments have increased spending on education, budgetary allocations have not been proportionate to increases in enrolment. Worryingly, the progress that has been achieved is eroding fast. The global financial and economic
crises have taken a heavy toll both on domestic resources and foreign aid to education. Development aid to education has been on the decline since 2010 and aid to basic education has been cut for countries that need it most. Political commitment to education, as seen from the classroom, was more genuine in speech than in action.

Subscribing to EFA goals, but not prioritising education spending

While national governments agreed to achieve the EFA goals, making education a priority not only for policy reform, but for funding, many were quick to forget their commitments. Decreases in the percentage of GDP allocated to education were identified in Burkina Faso, Chad, Djibouti, Fiji, Guatemala, Egypt, Sierra Leone and Sri Lanka. In Bangladesh, spending on education has not increased above 2.5 per cent of GDP since 2000. In India, the share of education as a percentage of total government expenditure has reduced by five per cent since Dakar, from 16.3 per cent to 11.3 per cent. A decline in public spending was also reported in Uganda, where the current budget share allocated to education is 14.2 per cent, down from 18.9 per cent in 2009, and in Yemen, where education's share of national expenditure more than halved from 30 per cent in 2009 to 12.5 per cent in 2008.

In Côte d'Ivoire, Guinea, Madagascar, Mauritius, Morocco, the Philippines, Togo and Zimbabwe, investment in education has stagnated. Today, these countries allocate to education roughly the same percentage of GDP as they did in 2000. This is also the case in Peru, where investment in 2013 was roughly the same amount as in 2000: 3.28 per cent. The same is true for Nepal, despite the fact that education represents the largest share of national spending. As a consequence of inadequate funding, the country has as yet been unsuccessful in the full realisation of free primary public education. In the Philippines, teachers noted that the budget for education has never met the recommended six per cent of GDP but has fluctuated between two per cent and 3.5 per cent during the last decade. In Liberia and Niger, the governments are yet to honour their commitment to allocate at least 25 per cent of the national budget to education. In the latter, the share of the national budget for education remains below 15 per cent. In Morocco, the National Charter for Education and Training stipulated a five per cent yearly increase in the education budget that was never implemented. Similarly, in the Dominican Republic, the government adopted legislation in 2012 to assign at least four per cent of GDP to education but this has not been enforced.

Teachers’ unions report that economic growth has generally not translated into more investment in education. In Cambodia, where economic growth has been above 10 per cent per year since the adoption of the Dakar Framework, government expenditure on education has remained unchanged from 1.6 per cent of GDP in 2000 to 1.7 per cent in 2013. In Chile, while the economy grew by, on average, four per cent between 2000 and 2004, the percentage of GDP allocated to education in the period declined from 3.71 per cent to 3.49 per cent. In Uganda, whose impressive growth has been praised by economists, the government has only increased investment in education from 2.6 per cent of GDP in 2000 to around 3.2 per cent currently. Since they were put in place in 2003, capitation grants distributed per child in Kenya have not increased in accordance with the rising costs of living during the last decade, resulting in inadequate levels of funding for schools. Furthermore, education workers report that, in some countries, governments claim to spend more on education than they actually do. In Senegal, for example, while the authorities state that 40 per cent of the national budget is allocated to education, studies carried out by Senegalese unions and civil society organisations concluded that, in reality, public education spending amounts to 30 per cent and a considerable share of it is not executed.
Conflict-affected countries have sacrificed education spending

Countries affected by political crises and/or armed conflict have almost all sacrificed investment in education. In Fiji, since the 2006 coup d’état, the percentage of GDP invested in education has decreased from 5.8 per cent to 4.2 per cent in 2012. Similarly, in Côte d’Ivoire, following the 2010-2011 crisis, where teachers report that schools were held hostage to political conflicts, the education budget was cut significantly. In June 2014, the yearly education budget of the Kurdistan region in Iraq was not ratified by the Parliament due to political instability, significantly jeopardising the government’s ability to execute the total budget by the end of the year.

National governments have not been able to provide an adequate response to crisis situations. Reports from Mali reveal that families who were forced to leave the northern part of the country fled to the capital, Bamako, where schools had to accommodate the increase in student populations without funding support. Conflicts have spill-over effects on neighbouring countries: hundreds of thousands of Syrian refugees have sought refuge in Jordan and Lebanon since the outbreak of the Syrian conflict in 2011, which has put the public education system in these countries under considerable pressure to accommodate refugee children. As a result of this influx, teachers report class sizes up to 160 students in Jordan, leading to a dramatic deterioration in learning conditions. Teacher organisations have also expressed their disappointment over the fact that they have not been consulted on education relief programmes administered by UNICEF and the World Bank in order to meet the educational needs of refugee children.

In Chad, the period between 2000 and 2008 was marked by conflict with rebel groups. During this time, government expenditure as a percentage of GDP remained at extremely low levels and even if it has slightly improved from the dismally low 1.5 per cent in 2004, it is currently only 2.3 per cent of GDP, which is even less than in 2000. Education makes up only about 10 per cent of total government expenditure in the country.

Several conflict-affected countries have prioritised expenditure on defence over education. The Central African Republic is the third country in the world with the lowest percentage of GDP invested in education, a meagre 1.2 per cent. The government spends double this amount on defence. The same is true in Lebanon, one of the biggest spenders on defence in the world, and one of the countries with the lowest levels of government expenditure on education. During the civil war in Sri Lanka, funding for education was diverted to defence. Following the end of the conflict in 2009, the percentage of GDP invested in education has gradually increased. Military expenditure, however, is still higher at 2.4 per cent of GDP compared to 1.6 per cent of GDP for education.

When there is political will, increasing investment in education is possible

Several national governments have expended serious efforts to translate their political commitment to education into more funding for the sector, in particular low- and middle-income countries. This is evidenced by a doubling or significant increase of investment in education since 2000.

In Argentina and Costa Rica, the percentage of GDP to education increased from 3.78 per cent and 4.5 per cent respectively in 2000 to over six per cent currently. The former adopted legislation in 2005 to gradually increase investment in education with a view to achieving six per cent of GDP. The latter adopted legislation in 2011 to guarantee at least eight per cent of GDP for education.

In Ghana, education currently represents 33 per cent of total government expenditure, up from 15 per cent in 1999. Benin doubled the percentage of GDP allocated to education from 2.8 per cent in 1999 to 5.6 per cent in 2014. Ethiopia has consistently allocated approximately five per cent of GDP to education, and more than 20 per cent of government expenditure. Other countries, including Burundi, Brazil, the Gambia,
Indonesia, Kenya, Mali, Nepal, Senegal, and Swaziland and have also gradually increased investment in education during the past 14 years.

Some countries have taken specific measures to allocate more resources to education, for example through the creation of special funds. In Mozambique, a fund for direct support to schools (Fundso de Apoio Directo às Escolas), was established in 2003. In 2014, this fund supports the purchase of MZN561 million (approx. €16 million) of materials a year. Moreover, the fund allocates an amount per student, and schools in areas with high HIV/AIDS prevalence and widespread malnutrition receive additional funds. The schools apply for a grant and 80 per cent of the total amount is used to buy materials and the remaining 20 per cent is spent at the school’s discretion. Similarly, in Chile the per capita grant to schools that provide education to poor students is 50 per cent higher, provided the schools submit a detailed plan to put in place actions to retain students.

Various countries have adopted measures to provide funding directly to students and their families. In Burundi, the government commitment to education is reflected through measures to support students such as the provision of a CFA2,000 (€3) grant at the beginning of the school year to every student who enrolls.

Conditional cash transfer programmes have been put in place in various countries. Under these programmes, families receive grants if their children are enrolled, attend school regularly, and are vaccinated. These programmes have been welcomed by education workers in Brazil, Honduras, and Uruguay. Honduras has also put in place schemes to pay for transportation to and from school, even if this is limited to urban areas. Similarly, since 2008, Argentina put in place a scheme to pay for transportation to over 2,300 schools from selected areas.

In Sri Lanka, households living below the poverty line in remote areas receive scholarships to participate in public education. In Ethiopia, the government has put in place a per-pupil grants scheme that increases the amount offered to families with each level of education achieved by the student. When there is more funding available for education, children and teachers feel the impact in their schools. In Cape Verde, Lesotho, and Venezuela, for example, increased funding has meant schools now offer warm meals to students. In Algeria, the government has paid special attention to rural areas by providing boarding schools (so-called “internats”) and mobile schools for nomadic populations.

**Budgetary planning**

Increased funding has resulted in increased access, through the building of more schools, abolition of school fees, and resources targeted at rural areas, among other efforts. Nevertheless, education workers argue that much more could have been achieved by 2015. Poor planning processes and inefficient monitoring and evaluation of programmes have undermined the positive impact of increased investments in education. Governments either lacked clearly established priorities for investment or they did not abide by the national education plan.

**Poor budgetary planning to fully implement national education plans**

In practice, EFA meant the adoption of new policies and education sector plans by national governments. In several countries, national plans were developed and legislation passed or Constitutions amended to ensure the right to education. However, in numerous cases, measures have not been taken to ensure sufficient funding to implement these plans and legislative changes.

In India, the government enacted the national Right to Education (RTE) Act in 2009, ensuring that all children have the right to free and compulsory elementary education. Its implementation, however, suffers from both insufficient allocation of financial resources and a lack of mechanisms to ensure that the earmarked funding is actually spent. The government of India continues to allocate only about three per cent of GDP to
education, a one per cent reduction since the adoption of EFA goals.

National education strategies also suffered from poor budgetary planning, delaying their adoption. In Togo, for example, the government spent several years developing a national strategy. However, it was never implemented because it was estimated as being too costly. As a result, a new strategy was only adopted in 2009.

**Slow and irregular distribution of funding**

Poor disbursement is a source of great concern for many teachers. In a number of countries, including Kenya and Uganda, there are reports of inadequate and irregular disbursement of capitation grants to schools by the central government. These grants are typically intended for daily administration, teaching-learning materials, school uniforms and school meal programmes.

In Bangladesh, slow disbursement of government funds has had a negative impact on the implementation of programmes and policies. The same occurred in Cambodia, where the Priority Action Programme, which was welcomed as a good initiative, ultimately yielded limited results due to the low and erratic transfer of funds to different provinces.

Short-lived policies prevent sustainable planning and investment

Constant changes in policies and/or governments have impeded effective investment in education. In Zimbabwe, the constant changes in policy undermine the Ministry of Education’s capacity to deliver results as funds are spent on implementing a new decision that is reversed several months later. In Fiji, for example, teacher unions report that a programme that has been long in the making and that has been widely advertised may be suddenly interrupted as priority is given to something else.

In addition, surveyed teachers and education support personnel regret the fact that changes in government often result in incoherent and inconsistent education policy changes based on political interests rather than education system needs.

**Education budgets have not been fully executed**

Earmarking more resources for education is just half the battle. In Bangladesh, where 10 per cent of the national budget is allocated to education, the teachers’ union reports that only half of it is spent. Similarly, in Angola, where the government allocates eight per cent of the national budget to education, up slightly from 2012’s investment of five per cent, only half of the budget is spent, according to education workers. In Zimbabwe, in addition to consistently low levels of education expenditure (in 2010, less than nine per cent of government spending was allocated to education), most of the budget is not realised. In Indonesia, education workers note that while there has been an increase in the budget allocated to education by the central government, the provincial governments have failed to adequately implement these budgets. With better planning, funds could have yielded more results.

There are various reports of pressure exerted on local administrations to not fully use the education budget. In Iraq, for example, teachers consider that while the education budget approved by the parliament is satisfactory, implementation is not effective because different Directorate Generals are incentivised to not fully spend all the funding that they have been allocated.
Budgetary allocation

Excessive expenditure on administration and management

Education workers are concerned with the amount of expenses that are either not in line with the priorities of national education plans or that yield insufficient results. Several trade unions reported that large percentages of education budgets are spent on education administration.

In Niger, the teachers’ unions report that 60 per cent of the education budget is allocated to the administration of the system. Nigerien teachers note that every year the ministry’s buildings are refurbished and new vehicles are purchased, while schools, even the easy to reach, remain neglected. Similarly, in Mali, teachers reported that a significant proportion of the budget goes to administrative expenditures instead of being invested in areas or sectors most in need.

In Afghanistan, there is concern with the generous salaries paid to “special advisors” to the Ministry of Education despite little or no transparency around what they are advising on. In Chile, the law allows for government-funded schools to appeal to private for-profit organisations for counselling in the development of programmes to enhance education, which, according to Chilean teachers, has created a profitable market for education business companies that thrive on public funds while yielding limited results.

In Egypt, more than 80 per cent of the budget is allocated to the payment of ministry staff and teachers’ salaries, which are among the lowest in the public sector. Similarly, in Uganda, in addition to low budgetary commitments, teachers report that different government departments have in the past appropriated funding intended for education to instead cover allowances, salaries, seminars, and travel budgets for government officials. Very often, the education budget is not clear or detailed enough. While this allows for some flexibility, education workers are concerned this is often not used in the students’ best interests.

Inadequate expenditure on school infrastructure and materials

Teachers report that the quality of infrastructure and the materials purchased for teaching and learning is often poor and does not respond to the real needs of students. In Morocco, only 10 per cent of the education budget is allocated to improving school infrastructure and equipment.

In Chad, the education workers’ union reports that built schools have been found to be of such poor quality that the roofs have lasted only a couple of months. Additionally, the government has built schools in locations where there is no school-age population. Today, these buildings remain empty or are used as dormitories and the desks and tables have been used for firewood.

In Mozambique, teachers report that education occurs in overcrowded classrooms where there are not enough seats and desks for everyone. It is common practice that students have to sit on the floor. Instead of building additional schools and classrooms with appropriate facilities, the Ministry of Education bought “mini-desks” that those students sitting on the floor can put on their laps. The lack of school desks is so serious that in some districts students have learned how to make their own tables. Because of the acute shortage of schools and classrooms, over half a million Mozambican students were attending lessons in the open air in 2014. Similarly, while more classrooms have been built in mountainous regions in Lesotho, lessons continue to take place outside. In Burkina Faso and Niger,
teachers report the proliferation of makeshift schools, so-called “écoles en pailotes”, in rural areas. These schools are built of mud and straw and because there are no desks and chairs, children have to sit on the floor. While these makeshift schools were intended as a temporary solution, most ended up becoming a permanent arrangement.

Various teachers’ organisations stated that not having a clear analysis of the areas of education systems needing more and better investments meant that funds were wasted on, for example, the purchasing of poor quality or unnecessary materials. In Congo, teachers report that new textbooks and learning materials were purchased but these were not adapted to the curriculum and were ultimately not distributed. In Mauritius, a programme was launched to distribute tablets to all students but the quality of the devices was so low that they were out of service after a few months only. Additional schools and classrooms were built to meet the expansion of education systems but, due to their poor quality in terms of infrastructure and facilities, they often fall into disrepair, as reported by teachers in Malawi, amongst others. There are numerous reports of construction works that were abandoned and never completed. Waste is not a phenomenon that affects infrastructure only. In Sri Lanka, the teachers’ unions regret that funding invested in much-needed training is wasted. They argue that teachers often have to teach subjects for which they are not qualified.

Teachers’ training and working conditions have not been prioritised

While the Dakar Framework for Action emphasised the need to enhance the status, morale, and professionalism of teachers, and that teachers should have access to training and ongoing professional development and support, teachers’ organisations reveal that governments have largely neglected this commitment. In rare cases when infrastructure is receiving investment, it comes at the expense of teachers’ professional needs.

In Indonesia, the teacher certification programme that was introduced in 2006 to upgrade the qualifications of the three million workforce by 2015 has absorbed a significant part of the education budget. The programme compensates certified teachers through salary increases, but according to PGRI, it has failed to improve the teaching skills of teachers through appropriate training. Underinvestment in appropriate training of teachers was also identified in Ethiopia. In Somalia, Zambia, and Uganda, teachers report that very few efforts were made to increase the attractiveness of the teaching profession, particularly in rural areas. In The Gambia, however, teachers welcomed the hardship allowances that are provided as incentives for those willing to work in rural and remote areas. Teachers from Liberia report that the return of a democratic government in 2006 has led to efforts to improve teachers’ salary structures, support their tuition fees for professional training, and provide monthly travel allowances to encourage teachers to attend rural teacher training institutes. In Latin America, teachers’ organisations from El Salvador, Guatemala, Uruguay and Venezuela reported that teachers’ pay has slightly improved since Dakar. However, education workers from Venezuela also noted that salaries did not increase over time to keep pace with the high inflation rate. In Honduras and Peru, teachers’ organisations consulted expressed that no efforts were made to increase salaries.
Unequal distribution of funding

Teachers’ organisations in nearly every country that participated in the regional assessments reported that students who attend schools located in urban areas enjoy better facilities and learning conditions than their rural counterparts. Clearly, not enough efforts have been made during the last 25 years to bridge the widening inequalities between schools in urban and rural areas.

Moreover, where efforts have been made to target rural and disadvantaged areas, some areas have been prioritised at the expense of others. In the Philippines, Zambia, Zimbabwe, and Uganda, education workers report major challenges in ensuring that funding reaches all schools evenly. Rural/urban disparities are not limited to school facilities and infrastructure. In Cape Verde, teachers in rural areas report receiving little or no pedagogic support despite the fact that most of them are untrained. High teacher shortages continue to persist in India, particularly in rural areas where multi-grade single teacher schools are common. Because these teachers are often the only staff assigned to a school, they are generally unable to take time off from teaching to upgrade their qualifications and take part in professional development. Insufficient pedagogical training and development is particularly challenging in countries that have recruited large numbers of untrained contract teachers.

In Honduras, schemes to provide free transportation to schools are only available in urban areas. In Mexico, education workers report that school meals programmes have mostly benefited Mexico City and major metropolitan areas. In Angola, because education reform was not implemented evenly across the country, rural schools continue to offer outdated curricular content and teachers in rural communities have no access to professional development.

In some cases, measures to facilitate a more equitable distribution of funding have backfired.

There are various reports of initiatives that have targeted particular areas or populations and that ultimately have led to underfunding in other areas. In Fiji, the expansion of boarding facilities in rural schools has meant that the allocations for urban schools were reduced. A similar problem occurred in Sri Lanka, where the government targeted investment in the north of the country, where 26 years of conflict severely dismantled the education system. This increased investment, however, led to a reduction of funding for the rest of the country.

In Indonesia, teachers report that education spending has disproportionately favoured so-called ‘international standard’ schools. These schools receive block grants in addition to the funding allocated to all public schools and are allowed to charge fees. The unequal distribution of funding between public schools has meant that school facilities, infrastructure, and resources differ considerably between different school categories in the country.

Teachers, however, also identified several positive measures that governments have taken to enhance access to and the quality of education in rural areas. In Senegal, so-called “proximity high schools” (lycées départementaux et collèges de proximité) were built to expand access to secondary education across the country. Even if many of these lack proper material and furniture, teachers have welcomed proximity schools as a positive development. Additionally, the education workers’ union report that efforts were made to ensure a more equal distribution of funding in Burundi, where the government, on top of the regular allocation to schools, provides schools with an additional amount per every student enrolled. In Zimbabwe, the teachers’ union reports that to 2002, the so-called ‘equalisation fund’ provided grants to under-resourced schools, particularly in rural areas. They regret that after 2002, while the number of schools grew, targeted funding to rural areas was neglected.

In some contexts, the provision of education in urban areas has also been neglected. Unions expressed concern that the rapid increase in student populations in bigger cities has not been matched by increased investment in...
public schools. According to education workers, governments have not coped with rural to urban migration. In Niger, there is widespread lack of materials in schools in the capital. In Maputo, Mozambique, teachers report that the education system cannot cope with the increasing migration from rural areas to the capital. The country’s acute shortage of schools affects both rural and urban areas. In Kenya, a lack of schools in the slums of Nairobi has forced families who live in poverty to resort to fee-paying private schools.

Investment in primary education stagnated or reduced
National governments and the international community have committed to achieving universal primary education and enhancing significantly investment in basic education. What education workers see in their schools and classrooms is that 15 years later, this pledge was largely reneged on. The vast majority of reports shared at the EFA consultations revealed that national governments actually reduced the share of the national budget for primary education since the adoption of EFA goals. Only a few countries (Burundi, Djibouti, Nepal, and Swaziland) have significantly increased the share of government expenditure on primary education.

Six countries, among which Benin, Burkina Faso, The Gambia, Niger, and Uganda report investing 50 per cent or more of the education budget in primary education. This shows that the recommendation to allocate at least half of the national education budget to primary education has been largely ignored by most governments. In Mauritania, Kenya, and Zimbabwe, although the recommendation is not enforced, primary education gets the biggest share of the education budget.

As primary completion rates increase, so does the need to enhance investment in secondary education. In some cases, such as Mauritania, teachers report that the emphasis on primary education sector has resulted in secondary level being neglected, leading to a lack of adequate teaching materials. In India, where six out of every ten students completes primary education, only a meagre 23 per cent of education spending is allocated to this level, whereas tertiary education receives roughly 38 per cent of funding. In Cameroon, despite having a completion rate of less than 50 per cent, still only 35 per cent of the national education budget is allocated to primary education.
Early Childhood Education has been largely neglected

In its preamble, the Dakar Framework for Action recognised that “Early childhood care and education programmes are limited to the few in the urban areas”. While some countries have made progress in expanding access to early childhood education (ECE), education workers expressed concern that governments have largely ignored the public provision of ECE. Most reports agree that the provision of ECE is largely private and access in rural areas remains limited.

There has been significant progress in some countries, particularly where ECE was made compulsory. Education workers from Argentina reported significant improvements as far as the offer of early childhood care and education is concerned. In 2006, the national education law\(^2\) established that ECE is compulsory for children above five years of age. However, they are concerned that the current legislation allows for a replacement of formal ECE offer by social welfare programmes. They claim that the distribution of the latter is arbitrary and irregular. In Chile, teachers welcomed the 2007 law that establishes that the state is responsible for providing five-six-year-old children with access to ECE. They consider, however, that ECE in its current form is not catering for the needs of children, but rather focuses too much on preparing them for the tests that are applied as early as second grade. In Guatemala, where there are severe shortcomings with regard to the provision of ECE, the education workers’ union was able to raise the government’s awareness of the issue leading to slight improvements. In the Dominican Republic, teachers report that ECE was largely neglected in the first decade after Dakar. They welcome the progress achieved in expanding access since 2013, when 250 ECE centres were built, but highlight the fact that the enrolment rate remains low at only 38 per cent.

In some countries in Africa, including Niger, Mali, and Mauritania, education workers report there has been a growth in funding for ECE, resulting in increased access. However, education workers caution that perceived increases can be paradoxical as there are very few free, public pre-primary institutions in these countries. They are overwhelmingly concerned that progress obtained is not sustainable and is leading to further inequality. They report that, instead of investing in public schools, governments are paying for children to attend private ECE centres and those children from the poorest areas who are of little commercial interest for the private sector remain excluded.

Many countries have failed to adopt policies to expand access to ECE. In Costa Rica, for example, teachers warn that the state has been unable to develop policies to cater for the educational needs of children from birth to five years of age. In Mexico, while the government has established mechanisms to provide ECE, education workers regret that the offer remains largely limited to the capital. They report that Indigenous children are either excluded or offered education in inadequate centres, where even basic health and hygiene measures are lacking. In Peru, the union is concerned that the government has not ensured budgetary allocations to expand the Wawa Wasi programme, which benefits children in impoverished areas. They are worried about the poor quality of the service offered, largely because the personnel providing education to children aged 0-4 do not have any pedagogical training.

In countries like Sri Lanka, ECE is neither funded nor offered by the government, hence, the primary education provision that does exist is privately provided. This is also the case in Nepal, where ECE provision is largely private and fee-based. In Mali, educators specialised in ECE are trained and paid by public authorities, although most of them are serving in the private sector.

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2. Ley Nacional de Educación 26206
Transparency and accountability

Education workers’ unions consider that insufficient transparency in the development and implementation of the national education budget remains a major barrier to improving system effectiveness. While the Dakar Framework recognised that structures were needed to “enable civil society to be part of transparent and accountable budgeting and financing systems”, the vast majority of teachers’ organisations reported that the teaching profession is rarely, if ever, consulted during the budget elaboration process and that there are no mechanisms in place to follow up on its implementation. They also report being concerned about unclear and non-transparent public procurement processes and the tremendous negative impact of corruption.

Education workers reported various cases and scales of corruption at the national, regional and local levels. The lack of mechanisms to denounce corruption makes education systems easy prey to fraudulent practices and allows perpetrators more often than not to get away without punishment. Teachers and education support personnel are willing to contribute to changing this situation, but they are not given the opportunity. Clearly, governments have underestimated the importance of engaging all actors of the education system in efforts to enhance accountability and efficiency of spending.

Poor public procurement: Overpriced goods and unfinished works

Education workers are concerned about the poor quality of procurement process. In Egypt, Mali and Senegal, they expressed their concern with the lack of transparency in issuing calls for tenders and contracts for school facilities and materials. In Chad, the teachers’ union reports that public procurement for materials and textbooks is often a flawed process and that government officials may be bribed to favour certain suppliers. In the Philippines, teachers denounced that a procurement process plagued with irregularities awarded contracts to a company whose license to operate had been suspended - because it failed to respect sanitation regulations and to enforce nutritional requirements - with a US$17 million contract for the purchase of overpriced noodles intended for school meals.

In Malawi, the so-called “financial cashgate” scandal revealed that up to €24 million (US$32 million) of public funding had been embezzled over a period of six months, amounting to almost one per cent of the country’s annual GDP. Half of this amount had been lost through fraudulent payments to companies for services that were never supplied. The scandal led to the suspension of donor aid on which the country is largely dependent. In Cameroon, teachers are concerned that the same companies continue to win procurement bids, even if they have failed in the past to fulfil their duties under a given contract. Moreover, teachers regret that the commission awarding the contracts is not accountable to anyone. In Cape Verde, a construction company that was not paid on time by the government decided to recover the materials used to build a teacher training centre to compensate for its loss. The teachers’ union denounced that the training centre is now slowly being torn apart. The money advanced to the contractors was lost and the need for training remains unmet.

“Ghost” teachers and schools

In several countries, particularly in Africa, teachers report that the national education budget is being lost to so-called “ghost schools” and “ghost personnel”. In Senegal, education workers identified and denounced a series of fictitious schools and in Mozambique, more than 6,000 “ghost teachers” were identified in one province alone. The scheme involved the creation of false identities and other mechanisms, including the payment of salaries for deceased teachers (e.g., in Angola, nearly €2 million was paid in salaries for ghost teachers in 2014). Teachers’ unions
in Lesotho, Madagascar, Zimbabwe, and Cambodia similarly report that the phenomenon of accounting for non-existent teachers in education budgets is a major issue in their countries. They denounce a practice by which school principals do not declare vacant positions in order to continue receiving funding for salaries, while simultaneously sustaining a teacher gap.

In an effort to tackle the issue of ghost civil servants, some countries have carried out a census and established a database of its employees. This was the case in Guinea and Burkina Faso, where respectively approximately 5,000-6,000 ghost civil servants were identified. These numbers represent a loss of €4.5 million per year in teacher salaries that are unduly paid.

**Misappropriation and diversion of funding**  
Several unions reported that misappropriation and diversion of funding has resulted in severe budgetary challenges. In Mali, an independent national structure was established to ensure the transparent management of public money (Bureau du vérificateur général). Since then, various cases of misappropriation of funds were denounced. However, no steps have been taken so far to prosecute those involved. In Sri Lanka, teachers found that funds intended to guarantee the free distribution of textbooks, uniforms, and school supplies have regularly been diverted. They also claim that the quantity of materials purchased is often intentionally inflated. In Niger, education workers drew attention to the CFA 4 billion (€6 million) provided by the European Union to support education was diverted. In Madagascar, a former minister of education and three of his directors have been prosecuted for misappropriation of up to US$1.6 billion.

Often these cases of misappropriation and diversion are not prosecuted and some teachers’ organisations, for example in Cambodia and the Philippines, report that teachers generally do not denounce corruption out of fear for their safety. In several cases, perpetrators have received impunity where they have been found guilty of funding misappropriation and diversion. For example, in Cameroon, a former minister of education was released from prison after reimbursing the funds she had misappropriated. In Mozambique, the teachers’ union regrets that the head of the “ghost teachers” scheme fled the country.

**Corruption at the school level**  
It is not only large-scale corruption schemes that are negatively impacting on education systems. Education workers cite several examples of corruption at the school level. For example, in Sri Lanka, principals have been accused of charging fees for enrolling students, despite the provision of free public education. In Uganda and the DRC, young teachers have denounced having to pay school principals to obtain a job. In some cases, young teachers work unpaid for months, while the principal keeps their salary. In the Philippines, there are reports of school principals who ask teachers for money in exchange not only for permanent teaching assignments, but also for teaching materials. There was also misuse of the Programme on Basic Education (PROBE) funds. While the programme aimed to enhance the quality of education by training teachers and purchasing curriculum support materials, there are several reports of misuse of funding being used for excursions to resorts and the purchase of gifts. In Guinea, fraud in national exams and the distribution of false diplomas remain serious problems.

**Education workers’ trade unions can play a key role in tackling corruption**  
Fighting corruption is a herculean task. Ministry of Education staff cannot accomplish it alone, especially considering ministry staff may often be complicit in corruption. Teachers and education support personnel report they are not given the opportunity to contribute to enhancing transparency, accountability, and equity in the budget process and education spending. In most countries, there are no mechanisms to promote consultation and dialogue on financial issues.

Despite the lack of institutionalised dialogue, in many countries, unions have played a key role in identifying misuse of funds and cases of corruption. In Afghanistan and Senegal, the unions have denounced the existence of “ghost schools”. In Burkina Faso, the union, in partnership with other organisations, carried out a study that revealed serious problems with the implementation of the education budget: leaks, misappropriation of funds, and unjustified expenses. A parliamentary investigation in 2005 revealed that funds had been misused. In Chad, the union is calling for a detailed action plan to accompany the national education budget.
In Guinea Bissau, teachers are demanding that school level expenses be verified by representatives of parents and teachers, a simple measure that, according to them, could make a significant difference in promoting more transparency.

The efforts made by education workers’ unions to become more involved in budgetary discussions, however, are not always welcome. In some countries, such as the DRC and Gabon, unions used to be represented in decision-making bodies but say they were excluded when they challenged the management of funds and highlighted problems affecting teachers and students. In Benin, teachers have insisted that they be informed about, if not consulted on, budgetary decisions and priorities. The government has responded by claiming that it is not the role of teachers to know what happens with the national education budget.

The Dakar Framework for Action warned that corruption was a major drain on the effective use of resources for education and called on governments to drastically curb it. Based on the reports received for this report, it is safe to conclude there is still much to be done to eradicate corruption in education systems.

**Funding transparency**

In Cameroon, teachers are concerned with a lack of transparency at all levels of the administrative chain, from central directorates down to regions and districts. In Zimbabwe, the government only consults unions after the budget has been developed. Unclear figures without mechanisms to account for spending, however, mean that unions are kept in the dark regarding budget implementation. Teachers in The Gambia, Ghana, Swaziland, Uganda, and Zambia also highlight that there are no mechanisms to allow education workers to contribute to tracking education investments. This way, it is difficult for school staff to sound the alarm when there are problems.

A few countries appear to be the exception to the rule; in Ghana and Kuwait, the annual education budget is usually adopted by way of a participatory approach where all stakeholders provide recommendations on education spending. In Ethiopia, teachers report that budget planning includes public hearings before the budget is endorsed by the parliament. The development of the education sector plan has also involved teacher unions alongside donors and non-government organisations (NGOs). In Zambia, teachers report that the Education Sector National Implementation Framework, which outlines education projects, numbers of schools, and training plans for teachers, is an effective framework to monitor whether the Ministry of Education has delivered on its commitments. In terms of donor funding, the Joint Annual Review was cited as a mechanism by which donors, unions, government officials and other stakeholders review the performance of the Ministry. Teachers are also represented on regional Finance Committees. Together with the Ministry of Education, these Committees aim to ensure that grants are disbursed to various institutions in a timely and equitable manner. At the district level, union officials and parents are represented on Finance Committees that monitor how grants are disbursed to schools. Another positive example was found in Kenya, where capitation grants are directly disbursed from the Ministry of Education to schools’ bank accounts, which are monitored to ensure that funding is received regularly and is not directed through intermediaries. School committees consisting of parents, teachers, and head teachers collectively decide what costs the grants will cover. Additionally, each school has union representatives who monitor whether funding and salaries were received and distributed. In Burundi, the government has established school management committees which include teachers. Every expense incurred by the school requires the signatures of the school principal, a parent, and a teacher. In Chad, through similar committees, teachers and parents have worked hand in hand to improve the financial administration of schools.

Nevertheless, in several countries, these school management committees do not function properly. In Mali, they lack the technical skills to adequately monitor the use of funds. In Mauritania, the teacher and parent...
representatives do not get complete information from the school principal about the way money is spent. In the **DRC**, there is no transparency in the appointment of the representatives to the school management committees. They are not democratically elected or chosen by the school community and thus not accountable to their constituency. In **Mauritius**, the union reports that, the committees are politicised and parents make up the majority, approving projects whose costs are considerably overpriced.

**Abolishing school fees was not enough**

**Free public education: An unfinished agenda**

Since the adoption of EFA goals, many countries have abolished fees at the primary level and extended free education up to the secondary level. Education workers recognise that considerable efforts have been made to reduce direct and indirect costs to households to facilitate them to access and participate in education and the ensuing positive effect this has had on educational access and participation. Some countries abolished school fees more quickly than others; in **Guinea Bissau** these were removed in 2003 while in **Togo** school fees were only abolished in 2008. In **Swaziland**, school fees were only abolished for primary grades 1-3 in 2010. The government has yet to abolish school fees for all grades at the primary education level. In **Chile**, teachers report that, in 2014, the government introduced a project that will put an end to the fees in private schools that receive public funding. They regret, however, that such schools, the “*subvencionadas*” are given 10 years to implement fully free schools. Not all countries, however, have passed legislation or adopted strategies to ensure free public education to all children. In **Niger**, only in 2013 did the government outline, without adopting it formally, a sector plan making the State responsible for providing free access to education. Interestingly, Nigerien unions report that after the president announced in a speech in 2011 that schools should be free for students up to the age of 16, many parents decided to refuse to contribute to the functioning of the schools and no longer pay parents’ association fees and other small contributions to schools. In several countries, however, fees and indirect costs to education still remain a major barrier to educational access to public education, but particularly in locations where there are no public schools available and households are forced to pay for private education.

Education workers unanimously support abolishing school fees. However, they express concern that national governments have not taken adequate measures to ensure sustainable funding of schools following the expansion in enrolment. Teachers, particularly in Africa, regret that governments merely abolished fees collected at the school level without compensating for the loss of income that allowed schools to function, creating an unsustainable situation. Several teachers’ organisations reported that schools can only make ends meet by calling on parents to contribute. In **Uganda**, for example, school principals have resorted to asking parents for loans to keep the school open.

In some cases, a law to enforce free compulsory education was adopted but not implemented. In **Benin** and the **DRC**, it came into force in 2003 and 2010 respectively, but has yielded limited results. In several countries, particularly in Africa, households still continue to pay fees despite these having been abolished. In **Guinea Bissau**, for example, fees were abolished in 2002, but parents continue to pay in many regions of the country. While fees have generally been abolished at the primary level, access to lower secondary education continues to be paired with fees, as in **Cape Verde**. To compensate for the
lowering of fees, parents are expected to pay for school meals. In Costa Rica, where charging enrolment fees is prohibited by law, teachers and parents say that many schools continue to ask parents to make “voluntary” contributions if they want to ensure their children’s enrolment. In the Dominican Republic, teachers report that many public schools run by religious groups continue to charge tuition fees. In El Salvador, this practice was widespread and, following changes to the rules and regulations of employment, school principals are now punishable if they charge fees.

Parents have no choice but to pay for their children’s education

In Ghana and Uganda, teachers reported that households are increasingly contributing towards schools where government funds are lacking, particularly at the secondary level. In Sri Lanka and Ethiopia, secondary education is funded through “cost sharing” mechanisms, whereby households share the burden of education funding. In Cameroon, centralised budget planning results in schools not having sufficient resources to address local needs and taxing parents in order to function properly. In Guinea, while parents do not have to pay fees, they are obliged to contribute to the parents’ association and to pay for the “rent” of desks, otherwise their children do not have the right to use a desk and sit in the classroom. In Chad too, parents have to pay at the beginning of the school year. In Fiji, as in many other countries, education workers denounce a contradiction: the law establishes that education shall be free, but the reality is very different. A study elaborated by the Fiji Principals’ Association shows that parents make significant contributions.

In many countries, households continue to bear indirect costs for schooling. In Tunisia, the union reports that textbooks and teaching and learning materials used to be free, but that is no longer the case. Similarly in the Philippines, households contribute towards examinations, school materials, and in Cape Verde, students are expected to pay for photocopies of their examinations. In Swaziland, households pay for uniforms and school transport, and in Sri Lanka, schools continue to collect funds from households for activities such as sports events. In Mauritius, the growth of private tuition at the primary level has resulted in the government amending the Education Act in 2011 to extend the ban on private tuition to primary education and to introduce an “enhancement programme” to the curriculum as an alternative to private tuition.

In some cases, the limited intake capacity of the public system directly benefits private schools. In Gabon, when a private school is recognised by the State for its “public utility”, teachers and students may be allocated to the private school and the State funds the corresponding salaries and fees. In Côte d’Ivoire, due to limited capacity, access to free public secondary schools depends on students’ results. If these are too low, parents have no choice but to send their children to private secondary schools. In Lebanon, where most of the pre-primary sector is private, a new law has made three-year pre-primary school compulsory. It is unclear who will pay for ECE in Lebanon but education workers are concerned that it is contradictory to make ECE compulsory and not offer it for free.

In post-conflict countries in particular, such as Liberia and Somalia, where much of the education system is privately managed and operated by faith-based organisations or NGOs, the implementation of free and compulsory primary education has proven to be very difficult.
Decentralisation: a missed opportunity

The Dakar Framework for Action called for urgent reform of educational management. It emphasised the need for more decentralised and participatory decision-making and monitoring. It recommended clear definitions of the different responsibilities among different levels of government. It warned that decentralisation should not lead to inequitable distribution of resources and asked governments to build the capacity of school leaders and education personnel.

Fifteen years later, the prevailing view among education workers is that governments missed the opportunity to put in place effective plans to decentralise education: there are problems with lack of clarity on roles and responsibilities; there were insufficient efforts to build capacity at district/province and local level; financial and technical support is too little and often too late; administrators at local level are mostly political appointments and they lack the skills to put in place a more flexible education system. Moreover, few governments undertake audits or have an overview of the materials and planning needs of education systems, and as such funding is often based on guesswork.

Insufficient funding and management capacity for decentralised systems

Most education workers who took part in the assessment expressed the view that transferring responsibilities to the local administration and to schools is in principle a positive development as increased autonomy enables schools to respond more rapidly to their students’ needs. In Mauritania, Niger and Senegal, decentralised training for primary teachers was successfully implemented, allowing for a better response to the need for qualified teachers in different regions. In Cape Verde, teachers welcomed decentralisation, as schools are now able to function more independently and make more decisions whereas, in the past, principals had to seek clearance from regional authorities on almost every aspect of the school’s administration. The transfer of competencies has, however, been poorly implemented.

In many countries, education decentralisation policies have had a negative impact, particularly with regard to the decentralisation of funding. In Liberia, teachers are concerned that the government plans to decentralise education funding with no indication of how this will operate in practice. In the DRC, where the government started to implement decentralisation in 2013, teachers are worried that the percentage of provinces’ budgets allocated to education may not suffice.

Another problem related to decentralisation is that an insufficient share of the budget actually makes it to the local structures. Local communities in Benin have faced considerable delays in the transfer of funds. The schools are forced to find alternative solutions to keep functioning as they patiently wait for months until they finally get funding from the central government. Similarly, in Gabon, most of the annual school budget is disbursed too late, when the school year is reaching its end. The same difficulties are faced in Madagascar, Cameroon, and Mali, where local authorities cannot fulfil their mandates because resources are not transferred on time. Schools no longer receive materials from the central government, but they have to buy them themselves. In Sierra Leone, teachers report that the devolution of funding and management to the school level has led to funds often not reaching schools. Moreover, funding is disbursed to schools based on student
numbers, which means that rural schools with smaller school populations receive less funding despite the need for additional resources to pay for materials and transportation. Few countries have mechanisms to oversee and monitor the disbursement of funding, facilitating a climate in which misappropriation of funding can take place more easily.

In many cases, the poor implementation of decentralisation is also largely linked to weak capacity. In Senegal, teachers’ unions consider that few if any measures have been taken to transfer competencies to the local level. The local communities are burdened with paying services and salaries without having the technical capacity to manage this responsibility. In Burkina Faso and Sierra Leone, teachers report that head teachers have not been trained to appropriately manage and disburse school funds. In Gabon, a similar situation has created great disparities between schools and regions in terms of the financial management capacities of the different administrations. In Sri Lanka, teachers are concerned that some provinces are not able to maintain appropriate standards and thus neglect schools. Moreover, school decentralisation policies have meant that communities are increasingly shoudering the management and funding of education, particularly at the secondary level.

The responsibility vacuum created by decentralisation

One of the negative consequences of the poor implementation of decentralisation that education workers identify is the responsibility vacuum. When the schools do not receive funds, the principal says it is the central government’s fault. The central government, in turn, claims it is the responsibility of local/district level administration that failed to put forward requests for funding on time. In the DRC, there is a perception that local authorities do not feel accountable for the achievement of EFA as it is a commitment made by the central government.

Another problem with the transfer of competencies is the legal vacuum education workers find themselves in, as there is no guarantee that their years of service will count towards their pension and that the local government will be able to pay for their pension. In Niger, the unions have succeeded in ensuring that contract teachers were employed under the same terms as civil servant. Regrettably, a new decree was adopted to transfer the recruitment of contract teachers to the local communities. There are concerns that, given their financial situation, local governments will not be able to pay the salaries of these teachers. In Mozambique, there are reports of abusive dismissals at the local level. Teachers are hired locally and when there are problems, the Ministry of Education claims there is nothing it can do to provide a solution. The same occurs in Bangladesh where rules and procedures for hiring and promoting are not enforced and teachers have no one to resort to when problems arise.

Foreign aid

The Dakar Framework recognised that many countries would have to increase their national budgets for education. Foreign aid was considered to be fundamental to achieving EFA. While education workers recognise that their countries have benefited from foreign aid for education, there are concerns that the impact of such funding has been limited.

Opaque management of foreign aid led to considerable waste

A lack of transparency in the use of development aid for education and various cases of corruption or misuse of funds were reported by teachers in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Cameroon, El Salvador, Niger, Peru, and Zimbabwe among others, are evidence to that. In Burkina Faso, while the government received a considerable amount of foreign funding for education, the
unions denounce problems with the governance and management of construction works meant that a significant part of those funds was wasted. In Niger, Cambodia, Cameroon, and Zimbabwe, the unions report that there was misuse of aid for education. Education workers from Honduras report that aid for the sector was suspended between 2007-2009 due to misuse of funds. In Bangladesh, there is concern about a lack of transparency in the use of donor funding.

In Guinea, the amounts received from donors are announced on the radio once and this is the extent of its accountability. In Burundi however, there have been serious efforts to enhance transparency and a national coordination agency was created, making information available through a website. In the Dominican Republic, teachers report that the creation of a national agency to coordinate programmes funded by donors has yielded positive results, with increased transparency in the use of funds. They regret, however, that since the adoption of the law establishing a minimum of four per cent of GDP for education, donors have stopped contributing to the country’s education budget. In Nepal, donors realised that they had to track the funds provided to the government and they now collaborate effectively with national authorities and civil society.

In Liberia and the DRC, much of the development aid currently goes to infrastructural development and school materials, while pedagogic support is neglected. In Senegal, education workers report there has been considerable emphasis by the government on pleasing the donors. On one occasion, during a strike that occurred at the time of exams, the government pushed for the exams to take place, even if the students, having not had lessons for days, had had no opportunity to review the subjects in classroom and if there were no teachers to apply the test. There was a meeting with donors and they needed to report that the deadline for tests, funded by aid programmes, was respected.

Quality of funding also means that education budget allocation responds to the needs of the whole society. Education workers are concerned that this is not the case in Senegal and Benin. They claim that governments have been more concerned with adopting measures that would please donors, rather than tackle the fundamental problems affecting the education system. In Indonesia, teachers say that the government develops different education programmes simply to justify education spending and without taking into full consideration the needs of the system.

**Foreign aid versus financial sustainability**

Education workers expressed concerns about the predictability of funding in countries where donor funding makes up most of the education budget, particularly in the current global economic climate that has fuelled uncertainty about the sustained funding of education. In
Mali, teachers noted that the education strategy relied heavily on foreign aid - more than 30 per cent of the education budget came from donor funds, which have become more unpredictable in the current economic context. This prevents an adequate planning process and creates doubts about the capacity of the government to sustainably fund education. In Uganda, teachers report that donor funding to the education system has led to a reduction in government commitments to education.

Ensuring the sustained funding of education is also a concern for education workers in The Gambia, where most of the education sector is financed by donor funding. It was also mentioned that donor funding indirectly determines teachers’ salaries as caps are set on public spending. In Zambia, donors tried to push for a reduction of teachers’ salaries, on the grounds that student performance in the country was not better than other countries in the region, so it was not justified that Zambian teachers’ salaries were slightly above the regional average.

In Mozambique, the teachers’ union reports a reduction in aid for education following a change in donors’ priorities, which now focus on the health sector. The country currently resorts to loans from multilateral banks and there are concerns that the projects funded do not respond to the real needs of the Mozambican education system. In short, there is a fear the country is increasing its debt without putting in place sustainable solutions to the various problems affecting education. In Morocco, the end of the accelerated programme (“programme urgent”) for education funded by a pool of external donors from 2009 to 2012 meant a considerable decrease in the education budget as of 2013.

Conflict-affected countries typically rely heavily on foreign aid. In Afghanistan, the inextricable tangle of donors, NGOs, and programmes makes the education system very complex to manage. Teachers claim every dollar or euro comes with an agenda and they are often conflicted. In some contexts, more than one organisation may be carrying out similar kinds of programme in the same province without coordinating their work, while certain areas may be neglected. In Somalia, between 1991 - when the government collapsed - and 2011, education was provided by international aid organisations and NGOs. The country still relies on donor funds from the UK and Sweden to aid in the reconstruction of the education system. However, political instability may have a negative impact on aid allocated to education. In Guinea Bissau, where foreign aid amounts to 60 per cent of the national budget, assistance has halted since the military coup in 2012. Similarly, in Fiji, all aid was suspended after the military coup d’état. In Togo, there was no foreign aid for 14 years, up to 2005. In Madagascar, foreign aid was suspended following the 2009 political crisis, with considerable impact for the whole education system.
Governments failed to set up well-functioning structures for civil society participation

When the EFA goals were adopted, it was clear that the engagement and participation of civil society was paramount to achieving them. The Dakar Framework recognised that civil society had a crucial role to play in identifying barriers to EFA and developing policies and strategies to remove them. Consequently, it called on governments to put in place the mechanisms required to allow civil society to contribute to the planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of basic education. Despite the commitments made, education workers report that in most countries, the opportunities for dialogue and collaboration on EFA-related matters between civil society and national governments, multilateral agencies, and donors were limited or non-existent.

“The beginning, the unions were involved in the different commissions. At some point, when we started to play our role and challenge the decisions, the authorities accused us of claiming for ourselves the State’s responsibilities. The government did everything they could to take the unions out of the commissions. As a result, we are now limited to simple observers without any means to influence or change the decisions.”

SENA, Gabon

Related Dakar Framework 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

For the Dialogue and participation pillar, EI aimed to shed light on the implementation of strategies 3 and 4 of the Dakar Framework for Action. In the following section, the report draws attention to how governments have failed to set up effective consultation structures for civil society participation and how teachers and education support personnel, despite their professional experience and expertise, were often ignored or were not given the opportunity to influence policy formation. Nonetheless, teacher organisations have, in some cases, managed to successfully influence and contribute to decision-making processes.

Pillar 2

Dialogue and participation
through a forum or other mechanisms. In Gabon, the education workers’ union regrets that the government refused to set up a forum on the grounds that education is its prerogative. There are a few exceptions, such as in Jordan, where an EFA forum was established and teachers evaluate it positively.

Where national governments did set up mechanisms to consult civil society, education workers generally claim these have not functioned properly and have had limited impact. EFA forums were mostly limited to elaborating and validating EFA plans and played a marginal role in monitoring its implementation. In Costa Rica, a national EFA forum was convened in 2002. Costa Rican education workers report that the forum promoted a broad consultation that involved over 1,000 people across the country to contribute to the elaboration of the EFA action plan for the period 2003-2015. They regret, however, that the majority of forum participants were staff of the ministry of education and that teacher participation was peripheral. There was little room for critical thinking. Once the plan was adopted, the participation in following up and reflecting on its implementation was limited. In the Congo, an EFA forum was created and indeed contributed to the elaboration of the national EFA plan in 2000, but it has not functioned since. Teachers report that the government engaged them because the participation of civil society in the elaboration of the plan was a requirement that had to be met in order to receive external funding. Once this requirement was met, the forum was shut down. The perception that the national EFA forum was just a formality to please donors is widespread.

EFA movement has not taken full advantage of teachers’ expertise

Education workers report that the participation of civil society is often limited to NGOs that are considered friendly to the government. It emerged from EI’s regional assessments that, in general, workers have not been represented in consultation processes. In some cases where teachers have been invited to participate, this engagement was discontinued as soon as teachers expressed a different opinion or proposed a different course of action. Teachers’ organisations from various countries shared similar experiences: teachers were welcome to participate in the EFA forum as long as they did not raise critical questions, make proposals, or counter what governments were proposing. In the Philippines, where a National EFA Committee only came into effect in 2006, teachers report that the government has mainly invited NGOs to participate. They regret that teachers are excluded from the elaboration of monitoring reports submitted to UNESCO. The same issue was reported in Cameroon and Mauritius: the national EFA forums include several NGOs but teachers are not represented. Similarly, in Egypt, no formal EFA structure exists, but NGOs are invited to meetings with decision makers, whereas teachers’ representatives are ignored. In Nepal, teacher organisations report that they are invited only to observe meetings.
but not to participate. In Guatemala, education workers report that their participation in the EFA forum was not welcome because of their critical views on the privatisation of education. In Honduras and Peru, teachers regret that there was no actual consultation on EFA-related matters and that they were only invited to an annual presentation of the report elaborated by the government and UNESCO. In Mexico, there is a perception that the government did not communicate enough on EFA issues and it failed to create momentum and get education workers and parents to contribute to achieving the EFA goals.

Teachers feel that their professional expertise and first-hand experience of the classroom reality has not been given due consideration by national governments in the development of education policy and monitoring its impact. This phenomenon is not limited to EFA-related dialogue only, but it affects the broader debate on education. Teachers’ organisations in several countries reported a deterioration of the conditions for dialogue and negotiation on issues including education policy and human resources. Moreover, the vast majority of teachers and education support personnel surveyed feel that their views are not taken into account. Several examples reveal that teachers’ organisations are excluded from education dialogue at the national level. In Bangladesh, for example, teachers are not represented on the National Curriculum Board. In Sri Lanka, teachers are not part of the National Education Commission, which is in charge of developing education policy. In Fiji, teachers are excluded from the National Education Forum. In Rwanda, there is a teacher's commission on the National Education Board. The only problem is there is not one single teachers’ representative in it. In Benin, teachers are not represented on the National Education Council.

The results from the EI survey confirm this observation. According to the survey, 90 per cent of education workers think education reform is imposed without any consultation and 82 per cent do not feel consulted on decisions affecting their professional lives. Teachers and education support personnel highlight a lack of trust and acknowledgement of their professional expertise and urge policy makers and principals to “listen to and to respect the voice of professionals” (Australian teacher). The majority of respondents, 66 per cent, say that they would have concrete proposals to share on how to improve education if they were given a chance.

In the regional EFA consultations, teachers’ organisations consider that national governments have used dialogue with international and national NGOs to create the sense that there is democratic consultation on education matters. Dialogue with teacher organisations is either absent or only exists as a cursory exercise.
Governments restricting social dialogue

The conditions for dialogue are particularly adverse in countries governed by autocratic or military regimes. Numerous examples exist of contexts where teachers’ freedom of association and social dialogue are severely restricted. Following the 2006 coup d’état, teachers’ unions in Fiji no longer have the right to negotiate on behalf of their members. Proposals put forward by the teachers’ union in Zimbabwe are discarded by the government who consider them “dangerous or an attempt to bring about regime change”. In Côte d’Ivoire, teachers’ activities have been repressed and social demands rebuffed. In Mozambique, civil servants were only granted the right to form trade unions in 2014. In Swaziland, where political parties were banned in 1973, a situation that remains unchanged until today, teachers are not free to discuss issues affecting them. Whenever they meet, even to celebrate World Teachers’ Day, they are outnumbered by police forces and the national association of teachers reports that several of its members have been arrested in the past years.

In Rwanda, teachers’ union members have reportedly faced intimidation following public criticism of education policy. In Guinea Bissau, where teachers work without pay for several months, attempts to establish dialogue with the government have systematically been rejected. In Djibouti, teachers report that they are unable to engage in discussions with authorities on how to improve education. According to the union, dialogue does occur in the private sector, but does not include discussion on working conditions and terms of employment.

Education workers identify several key problems in relation to social dialogue. First, institutional frameworks that put in place permanent mechanisms for dialogue on education and human resources issues are absent or substandard in many countries. Dialogue is often ad hoc and, in several contexts, governments only reach out to the trade unions when they undertake industrial action. In Niger, teachers report that a law to establish a negotiation committee was passed, but it is not fully operational. A decree was adopted establishing the National Education Council, but the government was reluctant to invite teachers’ unions. In Burkina Faso, the National Council of Education was established only in 2007, but merely acts as a consultative body. Discussions are underway to set up a permanent framework for social dialogue. In the Congo, teachers reported that at the beginning of 2011 an education strategy was developed that resulted in an interim education plan, including the creation of a national observatory group. The union representing Congolese education workers reported that it is trying to convince the government to develop a mechanism for social dialogue and establish formal bi-annual meetings.

Secondly, when dialogue occurs and an agreement is reached, it is often not respected and the government does not put in place the measures agreed upon or does so only partially. In Guinea, teachers are still waiting for the full implementation of an agreement signed in 2008. In Uganda, even when a detailed calendar was elaborated for agreed measures to come into effect, the agreement was not enforced. In the DRC, education workers have been waiting for over a decade for the so-called Mbudi agreement that determines the minimum salary of civil servants to be implemented.
Where teachers have been meaningfully involved in educational developments, they have contributed to improving teachers’ qualification requirements, training, and deployment, in addition to developing initiatives to tackle teacher shortages and teachers’ absenteeism. More broadly, teachers have also actively advocated for the improvement of education quality through efforts to improve equity in educational access at all levels, to increase resources, to improve teaching and learning environments and materials.

Teachers’ organisations in several countries, including Angola, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Chad, Ethiopia, India, Lesotho, Senegal, and Sierra Leone referred to National Education Coalitions, made up of teacher unions, local NGOs, parents’ organisations and other civil society groups, as a key national forum to advocate for free quality education. In most cases, however, education workers are rarely offered a real opportunity to contribute locally or nationally to decisions affecting their professional lives and teaching environments and that ultimately impact negatively on children’s learning experience. In some countries where teachers and support personnel have not been involved formally in the EFA forum, other meetings or specific programmes and projects related to the EFA process, the trade unions have initiated their own activities.

In the Philippines, teacher organisations undertook their own monitoring of the implementation of the so-called Kindergarten law and put forward several recommendations on issues including class size, teachers’ schedules, instructional materials and distribution of resources, and brought various challenges in different schools to the attention of the Department for Education. Teacher representatives within the House of Representatives were able to push for reforms on the status of contract teachers, resulting in the creation of additional teaching positions. Some of the unions have also initiated their own movement on quality education that involves student and parents’ organisations and women’s groups.

In Ethiopia, one of the countries often praised by the international community for its progress on EFA, the teachers’ union annually organises national conferences to promote quality education. The union is involved in several different fora working on promoting and improving quality education, including the Basic Education Network where, together with other civil society organisations, it promotes basic and alternative education in Ethiopia. It is also a member of the Education Partners Group, that includes international organisations and NGOs and which is involved in developing the Education Sector Development Programme. The union also carries out its own research with a supervisory team led by its Education Training and Research Department. This team regularly evaluates whether primary and secondary schools in different regions have appropriate teaching and learning materials, teachers are qualified, girls have access to different subjects, and whether minimum standards have been met. The findings are shared with the Ministry of Education and the annual National Education Congress.

In India, teachers report being involved in the National Coalition for Education, through which they have advocated for increased spending on education, the filling of vacant posts with qualified teachers, and the upgrading of contract, or so-called para-teachers, already working within the system. Through the coalition, teachers have also advocated for teachers’ training in leadership skills and gender sensitisation, and have promoted literacy and vocational education programmes. Teacher unions also report being involved in the policy formulation of EFA through the RTE Act, and have pressured state governments to implement the Act.
In Zambia, the teachers’ union has contributed to safeguarding the national commitment to the EFA goals through the organisation of national and regional education budget tracking. The union is also involved in the recruitment of qualified teachers to ensure that they are adequately trained and deployed. Despite the persistence of teacher shortages, teachers have succeeded in convincing the government to discontinue the deployment of untrained teachers. Collective bargaining led to improved conditions of service and training for teachers working in community schools in rural and remote areas, thus contributing to making teaching an attractive career choice.

In Burkina Faso, the unions have been involved in the elaboration of the 10-year education plan. A concrete result of this successful involvement is the limited deployment of contract teachers or volunteers in the country. Teachers were so concerned with the negative impact on the quality of education that the government’s proposed reduction of initial teachers’ training from two years to one year would have, that they mobilised and succeeded in convincing the authorities to abandon their plans. In collaboration with civil society organisations, under the umbrella of the national EFA coalition, the unions carried out a study on the financing of education that has shown misappropriation of public funds and lack of transparency in the use of foreign aid. A second research focused on the implementation of free education, revealing that parents continue to bear miscellaneous expenses. In Burundi, the teachers’ union has contributed to decreasing the teacher-pupil ratios after free education was implemented. Teachers mobilised to eliminate double-shift classes and improve the teacher deployment process, and to ensure that schools throughout the country have qualified teachers.

In Angola, teachers successfully advocated for initial teacher training to be provided at the university level in each province in order to improve the quality of education. Concerned with students’ nutrition, teachers have advocated for school feeding programmes, which were ultimately adopted and funded by the government. The union is involved in the National Education Coalition and has played a key role in the introduction of measures concerning early childhood education, youth and adult education, as well as activities to promote literacy in rural areas.

In Senegal, teachers’ unions have formed a federation and carry out yearly EFA-related evaluations. These have focused on quality, access, and management of education. The unions managed to convince the government that it was necessary to improve the terms of employment of the so-called “corps émergents” (teachers working under precarious contracts or as volunteers). There were upgrades to the prerequisite qualifications required for entry into the profession. Contract teachers were previously employed on fixed-term renewable contracts. These conditions resulted in high teacher turnover as many left the profession seeking other employment. Most are now employed on the same conditions as regular teachers, which makes them want to continue teaching and further develop their skills. The federation also plays an important role in making sure that school proximity is respected and teacher training centres are set up in the regions. The unions have also worked together to provide training to teachers in order for them to obtain professional degrees. Teachers took the lead in campaigning to sensitishe the population to the importance of girls’ education.

In the Gambia, the teachers’ union has successfully convinced the government that the way to reduce teacher shortage in rural areas was to provide allowances and incentives for qualified teachers. Considering that they had to travel and be absent from school to receive their salaries, as there are no commercial banks in the most remote villages, the union entered into an agreement with the government so that salaries are paid through the teachers’ Credit Union. Together with the African Network for the Prevention and Protection Against Child Abuse and Neglect (ANPPCAN), and the General Agriculture and Plantation Workers’ Union in Zimbabwe (GAPWUZ), the Progressive Teachers’ Union of Zimbabwe (PTUZ) in Zimbabwe formed the Coalition Against Child Labour. It aims at implementing child labour free zones in mining and agricultural districts and to improve access to formal education. Moreover, in the recent Constitutional reform of 2013, national teacher unions in Zimbabwe have successfully pushed for the inclusion of the right to basic education. This inclusion is, however, subject to an exemption clause stating that its implementation is ‘subject to the availability of resources’.
Despite progress in access, ECE remains a privilege for urban children

Education workers acknowledge that there is a growing recognition that ECE is fundamental to the development of the child. Parents are more aware of the benefits ECE offers to their children. There is increasing parent demand for ECE services. With a view to expanding and improving ECE, many countries adopted legislation making it free and compulsory.

The institutional and legal recognition of the importance of ECE is a fundamental step towards reaching every child. In many cases, this was accompanied by the creation of agencies focusing exclusively on this issue. Where the law and the new structures were backed by budgetary allocations, teachers report a consequent positive impact. There were alternative and special programmes devised to reach out to more children. There were improvements to infrastructure, building and/or adapting existing classrooms and facilities. There were measures to improve the quality of the services offered. There is now increased availability of formal training. Many countries have introduced minimum training and certification requirements to access the profession. There is an increase in the number of teachers working in ECE who are now recognised and formally employed. Despite the progress made, myriad problems remain. 

Even when legislation was adopted, there are cultural barriers that add to parents’ reluctance to enrol their children. Girls and children from rural areas are the most excluded from ECE, not only because of cultural barriers, but also because ECE is often limited to urban areas and bigger cities.

The inadequate funding of ECE results in a poor quality infrastructure with a shortage of classrooms and a widespread lack of qualified personnel. While some countries now formally employ workers in ECE, many continue to resort to untrained volunteers. The quality of the service provided suffers due to high pupil/teacher ratios and lack of pedagogical support material. Training is limited to the capital cities. While efforts were made to include ECE components into the teacher training curriculum, most countries do not provide relevant training that caters for the needs teachers identify in the field. In some countries, there is no harmonisation between the ECE curriculum and the first year of primary education.

Education workers identify the fact that most ECE is offered through private institutions as a barrier to access. Tuition fees are high and the poorest families are unable to afford them. When scholarship programmes exist, their scope is limited.
Access to and quality of free primary education for all still remains a challenge

Education workers highlight the adoption of constitutional provisions to ensure free, compulsory basic education as the quintessential EFA-related measure taken by national governments. They argue, however, that education policies and plans are sometimes dropped as quickly as they are adopted. Specific programmes have a limited lifespan and their continuation depends on funding, on political interests, and many other factors. In view of this, teachers consider the inclusion of the right to education in national constitutions as a lasting legacy of the EFA movement. The immediate consequence of the new juridical status education enjoyed after Dakar was the abolition of school fees. Education workers from countries that adopted this measure say this was a major milestone in the process towards EFA. For the poorest children, this was a liberating measure and they, at last, had the guarantee that they could attend school without having to pay.

However, most countries underestimated the financial and logistical impact of providing free and compulsory education. The introduction of free education was not planned accordingly and public education systems were quickly overburdened. Teachers report that the number of students in their classrooms quickly doubled, sometimes tripled. The combination of increased enrolment and inadequate funding led to a further deterioration of already precarious learning conditions. Education workers regret that national governments did not put in place thorough measures to ensure schools would be able to function properly when they could no longer collect fees. Despite the difficulties and inadequate funding, teachers and education support personnel have seen progress. Various programmes were put in place to help children go to school and remain there. These programmes included free transportation to and from school and the distribution of uniforms and textbooks. Some countries give families grants at the beginning of the school year to allow them to buy materials for their children. There were intensified efforts to provide school meals. In addition, scholarships, family allowances for the poorest children, and conditional cash-transfer programmes were initiated. Teachers particularly welcomed the specific actions and efforts to promote the education of girls. Even those countries that do not provide free education have put in place scholarships and special incentives for girls. There are various reports of growing sensitisation and mobilisation to eradicate violence against girls, but this still remains a major barrier. Teachers feel the efforts to train more female teachers and deploy them in rural areas are paying off and parents are more encouraged to bring their children to school.

Children from ethnic minorities also benefitted from the EFA movement, but considerably less so. Teachers report there were efforts to put in place alternative programmes and to distribute textbooks and materials. However, these are often not relevant and the use of the mother tongue in education needs to improve further. There is a widespread perception that children from ethnic minorities have been neglected and their right to education is not fully enforced. That very element - enforcing the right to education - remains a major challenge. While there is legislation establishing compulsory education, there are no consequences if parents do not send their children to school. The government is not accountable if there is no school in a certain area.
Teachers regret that, in most cases, while governments adopt legislation on education, it does not include binding measures to ensure education is adequately funded. The limited education budget is mostly spent in urban areas. As a result, rural children, ethnic minorities, and children with special needs are excluded or given second-class treatment. There is also a shortage of schools and qualified teachers in rural areas. There is a concern that education is not free in practice, even when the constitution guarantees so in principle. Education workers report that parents still have to contribute to the functioning of schools. Some schools ask for contributions on a voluntary basis. These “hidden” fees and the additional costs a family has to bear to send a child to school remain a barrier to the poorest in society. This sector is increasingly marginalised in countries where there is growing privatisation of primary education. Governments have been unable to meet the demand for schools and the private sector and NGOs have created schools, but these do not benefit the poorest children, who are precisely those who need it the most.

The Dakar Framework called on governments to promote EFA policies that were clearly linked to poverty elimination. Nevertheless, teachers report that poverty continues to be a major obstacle towards the achievement of EFA. Teachers see that the dropout rate increases when poverty strikes, whether this is due to a global economic crisis or to famine caused by drought. While significant progress was achieved in reducing child labour, teachers see that a long-term solution has not been found yet.

Children from countries affected by conflict and political instability have suffered the most. Schools were destroyed and it takes years for them to be rebuilt. The local economy suffers from sanctions imposed by the international community and funding for schools is limited. Political violence displaces communities. Schools are used by militias as camping grounds. They are attacked by extremists and fanatic religious groups who oppose education. The impact is felt in neighbouring countries, which suddenly have to accommodate refugees and provide them with education in refugee camps and in regular schools. This additional burden on education systems goes largely unfunded.

**Goal 3:**
Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes.

**Shortcomings in access and poor quality of youth and adult education programmes remain**

Education workers consider that goal 3 was largely neglected by national governments. There is a perception that the lack of clarity in the goal’s language may have contributed to this neglect. Many believe there was confusion between life skills and work skills. Most agree it is not clear what this goal should deliver. Should the main focus be providing second-chance education for those who did not have access at the right age or who dropped out? Should the focus instead
be on providing training that will allow youth and adults to secure employment? Is the goal about “work skills” or “life skills”? What are life skills?

Regardless of the issues concerning the clarity of this goal, what is beyond dispute is the fact that the Dakar Framework recognised that most countries would have to expand the secondary education system. Teachers report that many countries have made a serious effort to do this. They built new upper secondary schools in capital cities. In order to provide access in rural areas, proximity schools were built and community colleges were established. Some provided free access, abolishing fees that kept the poorest away from secondary education. Those countries that did not abolish fees for secondary education adopted scholarships programmes, many targeting girls specifically. Books and materials were distributed, to help offset the costs of getting a secondary school diploma. To tackle the distance issue, emphasis was placed on providing boarding and accommodation. Many special programmes were created to give youth and adults more opportunities to have access to education: evening classes, courses of short duration, bridging programmes for those who did not meet the minimum requirements to enter higher education, distance education, placement tests to allow dropouts to get a diploma, even if they did not meet the required instruction time criterion.

To enhance the quality of education, there were improvements to the school environment and learning tools. Teachers welcomed the introduction of information and communications technology (ICT) programmes and the inclusion of global citizenship education. Teachers report that while some progress was achieved in meeting the learning needs of young people and adults, access remains a challenge. This is particularly the case in countries where there are fees for “second-chance” programmes. This limits the impact of such programmes as those who cannot afford are excluded. There are concerns with the transition between primary and secondary education: teachers claim that students are not offered adequate support to help them succeed, especially those who are taking up studies after a long period away from school. Teachers welcome the creation of alternative programmes, but regret that in most countries, their outreach is limited.

Ethnic minority groups continue to be excluded and the inequities between rural and urban areas remain. The public-private partnerships introduced to increase access at the secondary level have not yielded the results expected and there is concern with the growing privatisation of secondary education and ensuing exclusion, not only because of fees, but also because many private secondary schools apply student selection policies.

In most countries, education workers report that governments place an emphasis on access and infrastructure to the detriment of quality. As a consequence, the curriculum is inadequate, irrelevant or outdated. They see a mismatch between the training offered and the employment opportunities available. In some countries, additional difficulties are imposed on students, as the language of instruction in secondary is different from the language used in primary school. In addition, there is a shortage of maths and science teachers and a lack of qualified personnel to teach technical subjects. The ill-equipped laboratories and workshops offered to students are the result of low budgetary allocations for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). Investment in labour-force development has also declined. Another obstacle to the further development of TVET is the negative perception of technical education by adults, particularly in the context of high unemployment and gloomy economic prospects.

Goal 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.

Literacy and continuous education for adults was widely neglected

According to education workers, literacy and continuous education for adults is by far the most neglected of all EFA goals. Few countries made serious efforts to promote adult literacy. Those that did so created structures or units
focusing on literacy, adult, and non-formal education within the Ministry of Education. There were limited efforts to promote adult literacy policies. The expansion of literacy programmes was constrained due to limited funding. There is a lack of specific training for teachers willing to work in literacy programmes.

Teachers report that progress achieved stems from the mobilisation of civil society. They highlight a series of projects run by NGOs and religious groups. In the Arab world, Qur’anic schools and community learning centres contributed to promoting literacy. However, teachers see that poverty and unemployment prevent the engagement of adult learners in literacy programmes. Many literacy programmes charge fees and this discourages potential students. Teachers regret that the areas where illiteracy is the highest remain neglected. National governments have not made adult education a priority and there is still an inadequate offering of literacy programmes. In addition, there are no public structures for literacy programmes. In many cases, while classes are held at night, the school is not adequately equipped. Many have no access to electricity, which makes the learning experience more difficult.

Poor awareness of the importance of literacy and the social and cultural barriers preventing women from participating in such programmes have been major obstacles to promoting adult literacy.

Gender disparities have decreased and receive more attention, however, many girls are still facing major challenges

Education workers recognise that there has been significant progress in eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education. Schools are better prepared to receive girls and provide them with a better environment in which to learn. Public support for equality in education has increased and there are more policies to promote girls’ education. The challenges, however, are formidable. Teachers agree that the infrastructure has improved and schools have better facilities. Many agree that the school environment was enhanced and adapted to better suit the needs of girls. For instance, there are more separate toilets for them. The problem is that progress has been uneven and girls from rural areas still fare more poorly than urban counterparts. There is no safe water. The road to school is often unsafe. More often than not, schools are not girl-friendly. Countries that created structures within the Ministry of Education to deal specifically with the elimination of gender disparities enjoy better results. The increased focus on promoting girls’ education has led to the elaboration and implementation of various programmes and policies. The measures taken range from granting free transportation to girls wearing school uniforms to conditional cash transfer, including a controversial lowering of pass grades.

There are various reports of incentive schemes for girls, including scholarships and stipends. Countries that did not abolish school fees determined that fees should be lower for girls. Where access to secondary education is limited, placements are reserved for girls. Those who drop out benefit from re-entry programmes. Some created a financial bonus for every girl who finishes secondary school.

Goal 5: Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
Teachers also acknowledge that efforts have been made to review curricula in order to promote equality. However, many are concerned that the content remains gender-biased. They feel a contradiction between what is promoted in the education policy and gender stereotypes found in textbooks.

Teachers agree that the increased number of female teachers has contributed to keeping more girls in school. They recognise there is shortage of and welcome the programmes to train female teachers but regret that the profession is not attractive. There are no incentives to maintain younger teachers in the profession, particularly in rural areas.

Education workers report that campaigns and gender awareness programmes have changed parents’ attitudes vis-à-vis girls’ education. In the Arab countries, teachers agree that the involvement of the Ministry of Religious Affairs contributed to that. However, girls are still prevented from getting an education because of cultural barriers. In some countries, girls attend school but are prevented from practicing sports. And, teachers regret that, for many parents, domestic work takes priority over school work.

Many obstacles keep girls out of school. Girls become trapped in the vicious circle of poverty and child labour, they are victims of violence on the way to school, they are harassed. Teachers strongly denounce early marriage and pregnancy. Girls who are pregnant and want to continue studying are often prevented from doing so. In some countries, a pregnant girl is
forced to leave school as she can be a “bad example” for others. They are often allowed to attend class at night but end up dropping out. Some governments have realised these policies are inadequate and have put in place measures to support pregnant girls. However, teachers are concerned that this serious problem remains largely unsolved.

The provision of quality education still constitutes an obstacle in many places

There is broad consensus among education workers that improving all aspects of quality of education is an unaccomplished task. Efforts to increase enrolment were not matched by measures to ensure access to quality education. Teachers agree that most governments were unable to tackle the two fronts at the same time and, clearly, access was the priority. Based on what they see in schools, teachers conclude that national governments were unwilling to recognise that enhancing the quality of education means investing more and investing smarter.

The consequences of inadequate funding are well-known. Teachers report that schools do not offer children a decent learning environment. There is a widespread lack of equipment and instructional materials. Large class sizes make it impossible for teachers to provide students with adequate attention. Teachers argue that there can be no quality learning outcomes without quality learning inputs. When students have to sit on the floor, can hardly see the blackboard, and have no textbook, it is unlikely they will do well in Early Grade Reading Assessment.

Because of the inadequate school infrastructure, children cannot learn well and fast enough, but the assessments of learning achievements do not capture that reality. Assessments also do not capture the fact that many students do not have the level required to progress but are approved because the government adopted an “automatic promotion policy”.

Teachers welcome further emphasis on measuring results, but regret that, in many cases, the results of assessment are not shared with the schools and are not taken into account when developing education policy. In many cases, national exams are not effective and are plagued by manipulation, fraud and corruption.

The funding required to tackle structural problems affecting quality was not available. Consequently, governments had to take low cost measures to improve quality. Teachers highlight the enhancement of requirements for entering the teaching profession as a successful measure. Many countries have also adopted more rigid criteria for teacher training college candidates. Efforts were not limited to teachers’ certification and many countries have adopted a set of criteria for accreditation of schools. There is recognition of the efforts made to improve the quality and availability of teacher training. Some countries have established teacher training programmes at higher education level and there are more opportunities for professional development. However, teachers denounce a contradiction between governments’ commitment to enhancing the quality of education and the widespread hiring of unqualified, untrained teachers. Many teachers expressed concern with the inadequacy of training provided, claiming it is not suited to the reality of the classroom. They regret that some governments have used the urgent need for teachers to reduce the duration of initial teacher training.

Teachers also believe that the quality of education is suffering because the curricula is outdated and irrelevant, with no reference to life skills. Children are given textbooks that do not correspond to their learning needs. Teachers denounce that very often governments purchase study materials and textbooks from foreign publishers that are not adapted to the national context. Teachers value pedagogic support and welcome the establishment of pedagogic groups where exchange on teaching practices occurs. However, they regret that many educational resource and development centres have been closed.
Focusing on Teaching and learning, EI’s EFA assessment discussed the extent to which students, education workers, and the learning environment benefited from the EFA movement. Based on the Dakar strategies 8, 9 and 10, which are directly linked to the classroom reality, EI focused on six key areas: (1) Respect for the profession, (2) Working conditions: terms of employment and remuneration, (3) Training: access and availability, (4) Entering the profession: requirements and procedures, (5) Attractiveness of the profession: strategies to attract and retain new teachers, and (6) School, Environment: infrastructure and facilities, pedagogical support and accountability. The workshops and the online survey gave valuable insights into whether these areas, including the creation of safe, healthy, inclusive and equitably resourced educational environments and the enhancement of the status, morale and professionalism of teachers have improved, worsened, or stagnated.

**Related Dakar Framework strategies:**

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

“The government has only made education system reforms with regard to the evaluation of teachers as if this was all that had an impact on student learning. The government has not considered reviewing methodological approaches or plans and study programs, suitable training courses or the social value of the teacher’s work. Instead, it has conducted a media smear campaign directed against the teaching profession.”

Mexican teacher
Respect for the profession

The majority of teachers consulted report that respect for the profession has decreased. This perspective is particularly prevalent among teachers in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA). In this region, teachers point to insufficient policies to enhance the teaching profession and difficult working conditions. Furthermore, teachers report being excluded from policy making processes and decisions affecting their professional lives.

The large-scale deployment of untrained and unqualified teachers to meet a growing demand for education has, according to teacher organisations, fostered a negative perception of the teaching profession in the general public. Systematic attacks on the profession by education authorities who question the ethics of teachers and the increasing participation of NGOs in delivery of education services were also mentioned as factors that contribute to this perception that teachers are not accorded due respect. When teachers were asked what demotivates them as professionals and what they would like to change, they often expressed a desire for more professional recognition:

"It feels frustrating every day to go to work when your professional judgment is not required."

Hong Kong teacher

There are, however, various examples where teachers feel valued by parents, and report being motivated and supported by them. Parents’ and Teachers’ Associations play an important role in raising community awareness for an enhanced collaboration and engagement at the school level.

“I am a professional and yet often parents, legislators, think that they can do my job better than I can. When laws are proposed over and over that undermine my efforts and respectability as a professional educator, it is extremely demoralizing.”

US teacher
**Attractiveness of the profession**

Attracting and retaining highly qualified and trained entrants to the teaching profession remains a major challenge for most education systems. The majority of teachers’ organisations consulted consider that there has been very little progress to address this challenge since the adoption of the Dakar Framework in 2000.

Teachers identify several obstacles with regard to the attractiveness of the profession. As discussed in the previous section, many education workers are concerned that they are not valued as professionals. This is, among other conditions, reflected in low remuneration levels in many countries. Many teachers struggle to make ends meet and often take on additional employment. For example, 52 per cent of Latin American teachers surveyed stated that they have to engage in additional remunerated activities to complement their income. There are similar figures in MENA and North America and the Caribbean.

Low salaries, poor working conditions, and insufficient incentives create barriers for those who might be interested in choosing a career in teaching. The large scale recruitment of unqualified and untrained teachers on fixed-term contracts has contributed to a two-tier system of teachers. There is no equal pay for equal work, nor are there equal rights. This has negative consequences for teacher motivation and status and leads to increased attrition. The appointment of untrained contract teachers has also created the impression that anyone can teach and there is no merit in being a teacher. Moreover, teacher organisations report that attracting and retaining teachers in rural and remote areas remains a major challenge and few policies and incentives have been implemented to promote teaching as a career choice, for example through incentives or subsidies.

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“Do not hinge teacher pay or progress based on student performance. This does two very destructive things to the educational process: it makes the incentive for teaching monetarily based, when teaching should be a vocation; and it incentivizes teachers away from working with special needs students or those in poverty or other difficult environmental factors. Why would you want someone to teach who is in it for the money? And why would you want to punish a teacher for working with a difficult population who may not make good progress on standardized tests.”

US teacher

“Provide incentives to attract the brighter school leavers to join the teaching fraternity and put a proper system in place to train teachers before they enter the classroom.”

Saint Kitts and Nevis teacher
Positive developments in this regard have included the implementation of housing policies, a medical insurance scheme, and a career plan, as occurred in Senegal. In Zambia, teacher organisations consider that job security, stable salaries, and pension schemes make the profession more attractive. In Côte d’Ivoire, the introduction of a new career plan has attracted more entrants. In Ghana, the opportunities for professional development, which include study leave with pay, contribute to making teaching an interesting career choice. Additional support schemes, such as allowances schemes and the harmonisation of salaries with other civil servants have also had a positive impact in some countries.

**Working conditions**

The majority of teachers’ organisations consulted report that remuneration has improved in the last decade. While some indicate that there have been slight improvements, others claim the salary, even if it has indeed increased, has not matched inflation rates and does not reflect an increase in the cost of living. In terms of positive developments, hardship allowances for those teaching in remote or hard to reach areas have contributed to improving teachers’ standard of living. Other measures have been the harmonisation of teachers’ salaries with other civil servants and the implementation of schemes of service. The provision of pension schemes for teachers remains a challenge.

In Africa and the MENA region, over 50 per cent of the survey respondents state that their remuneration does not cater for their basic needs. In Africa, many education workers report that they have to be absent from school to collect their salaries because these are not paid via bank transfer and they have to go in person to some office in order to be paid.

“We have teachers on food stamps.”

US teacher

“We teachers need a salary that covers the basic needs of their families until the end of the month.”

Nigerien teacher

“My daily practice? I do not feel safe. My classrooms are crowded. I have to work in various schools to make ends meet. My workdays are exhausting.”

Brazilian teacher
Nearly half the teachers consulted during the workshops claim that teachers’ terms of employment have deteriorated since the adoption of the Dakar framework. In many countries, governments have increased salaries while at the same time removing teachers’ rights and benefits. Tenure employment is increasingly being replaced by short-term, temporary contracts, leading to job instability. There is widespread concern with the dramatic increase in the number of teachers on temporary contracts and precarious employment. Teachers also highlight the fact that policies for job postings and promotions are arbitrary and unclear. Organisations also report delays in adjusting salaries to promotions or additional certificates or qualifications, which suggests that negotiated agreements and schemes are not respected.

**Insufficient time to provide quality lessons**

Additionally, high numbers of teachers and education support personnel report that they do not receive remuneration for work outside of the classroom (e.g. planning, grading); 54 per cent of teachers in Asia-Pacific, 75 per cent in MENA, and 82 per cent in Africa. Europe appears to be the exception, where a higher number of surveyed participants (42 per cent) stated that they are paid for planning and preparation, even if they argue that the amount of hours paid under this concept does not reflect the reality of their workload and is unsatisfactory. One of the issues that the survey participants consider crucial in their everyday practice is their workload. About 90 per cent indicate that they do not have enough time to plan and conduct a quality lesson with their students, to cooperate with colleagues, and to provide differentiated student support.

“Raise the teachers’ salary, so that they can live a decent life that befits this noble profession.”
Yemeni teacher

“I need more time during work hours to reflect on lessons and collaborate with peer teachers.”
US teacher

“To teach a better lesson, I need sufficient time within the official working hours to plan, review, select materials and refine and update professional knowledge.”
Chilean teacher

“More time to spend in actual teaching process and not doing so many clerical work required by the school and the Department of Education.”
Filipino teacher

“I want to have more time to prepare my lessons, to have time to work individually with my students. This is what I need to teach a better lesson.”
Icelandic teacher

“Time! We have so many more issues with students, more paperwork, new initiatives that we lose sight of the ‘rapport’ needed for STUDENTS to succeed! Any student can learn if I have time to believe in them and encourage them!”
Canadian teacher
Standardisation, testing and a lack of autonomy

Teachers report high levels of pressure in their work experience. They are increasingly accountable for their students’ performance, but they are often not given the means to offer a quality lesson. The growing emphasis on high-stakes exams and the introduction of accountability measures did not come accompanied by improvements in working conditions. Teaching to the test has become a common practice that teachers perceive as a lack of trust in their professional judgement and as undermining their autonomy and creativity in teaching. Furthermore, teachers consider that standardised testing disregards a holistic approach to student development. Instead of creating an atmosphere where teachers are to blame for low learning outcomes, more emphasis needs to be placed on building trust within education communities, increasing teachers’ autonomy, and facilitating teacher collaboration and exchange.

“Abolishing the conflicting policies of a need to provide individualised education whilst simultaneously increasing the level of standardised testing and focus on national standards.”

New Zealand teacher

“We suffer from a double standard where the Ministry of Education speaks of a constructivist, humanist and rational education, but student assessment is strictly summative, and not formative.”

Costa Rican teacher

“A decade of fruitless testing has denigrated the autonomy of teachers and many have left the profession or been forced to leave by budget restrictions due to the enormous cost of testing.”

US teacher

“The government should design assessment policies according to regional realities. They use the same assessment instruments for wealthy schools as for the most remote areas of the country and by doing so creating a gap which has already been marked by the different social classes in Salvador. Young students from public institution where the majority is poorly assessed are harmfully labelled, not because they are low achievers, but because they have always been excluded.”

Salvadoran Teacher
Training

Whereas the majority of organisations consulted stated that access to teacher training has improved since the adoption of the Dakar Framework, half of them argue that the quality of teacher training offered has not improved. They conclude that national governments have not succeeded in balancing a rapidly growing demand for teachers and the need to appropriately train them. Education workers argue that newly created training institutions often do not provide prospective teachers with relevant and needed skills. For instance, in **Rwanda**, the official language of instruction was changed from French to English, but teachers who were not fluent in English were not provided with language training. In the **Dominican Republic**, the concerns with the poor quality of pre-service training were reflected in the national pact for education reform signed in 2014. The pact calls for a review of pre-service curriculum. Besides the concerns with the quality, education workers are worried that in some contexts, the duration of pre-service training has been shortened, as was reported in **Côte d’Ivoire** and **Liberia**.

Many countries took a long time to take concrete measures to improve the training offer. In **Costa Rica**, only in 2007 was a national institute created to offer teachers and education support personnel opportunities to build their capacity. Costa Rican education workers regret that the current training offered does not foster the use of innovative approaches nor a critical attitude towards teaching practices. Some countries, such as **Chile**, have no national plan to train teachers. In **Argentina**, a long-term demand of education workers was finally satisfied in 2013, when an agreement was reached to establish a national continuous in-service training programme. The right to have access to in-service training was already embedded in legislation in 2006, but it had yet to be enforced. **Honduras** will only start to introduce gradual increases to the duration of pre-service training in 2015 – the aim being four years’ training in 2018.

Several challenges were identified by teachers’ organisations with regard to the availability of training, including the provision of free initial teacher training. In **Uganda**, most initial teacher education that is available is privately provided and teachers have to pay for it. In the Arab region, Latin America, and Africa, about 50 per cent of trained education workers said that they have to pay for their training and/or it is not offered by the employer. Several organisations highlighted a lack of professional development opportunities at the secondary level in particular. Furthermore, a combination of insufficient training and teacher shortages makes teachers end up teaching subjects for which they are not trained.
EI asked trained teachers and education support personnel to evaluate their professional development and training opportunities in terms of availability, quality, and relevance on a scale between very poor to very good. The results show that in Africa and in MENA the majority of education workers consider that the quality, relevance, and availability of their training ranges between very poor to fair. In Europe, Asia Pacific, and North America and the Caribbean, the majority of education workers grade these aspects between fair and good. When asked what they would need to teach better lessons and what they would change in their education systems, improved pre-service and in-service training resonates with teachers from all corners of the globe:

“To teach better, we need improved in-service training”
Brazilian teacher

“Teacher training must involve cutting edge issues like environment, civic and political rights, conflict resolution, management and prevention as well as peace building.”
Zimbabwean teacher

“Teacher development should be informed by the needs of teachers.”
South African teacher

“To teach better, we need more practical and less theoretical training as well as continuous professional development.”
French teacher
# Entering the profession

More than half of the respondents consider that requirements for entering the profession and recruitment procedures have improved. However, a notable percentage of teacher organisations consulted think that recruitment procedures have worsened.

![Bar chart showing improvements in requirements to enter profession and recruitment procedures.](chart)

Education workers reported that the introduction of minimum standards has contributed to improving requirements for entering the profession. In Mauritania, the minimum qualifications for entering the profession have been raised since the adoption of the Dakar Framework. Furthermore, initial teacher training has been extended from one to three years.

In Ethiopia, primary teachers are required to possess a college diploma in order to teach. In Niger, candidates now have to undergo an admission test, which makes the requirement as well as the process a contribution to a more transparent recruitment process. In Costa Rica, only since 2012 do candidates for a teaching position have to undertake a test that assesses their knowledge of a subject matter. Prior to that, they were only submitted to psychometric tests. However, as reported by some teacher organisations, recruitment standards and procedures are not always complied with and recruitment processes have been subject to favouritism and arbitrary appointments. In Cameroon, for instance, teachers’ organisations reported that recruitment criteria are regularly ignored and teachers are appointed without the required minimum qualifications. In the Congo, teacher organisations state that the agreement of a compulsory training period of four years is not respected. However, prospective teachers also make use of flawed recruitment systems. In Sierra Leone, education workers allege that some entrants use forged certificates in order to teach.
School environment

A substantial majority of respondents said there have been improvements as far as infrastructure and facilities are concerned. However, while many schools were built since 2000, various reports indicate that many more are neglected. Teachers report poor maintenance of structures and poor hygiene conditions. Particularly in Africa, the lack of safe water and separate toilet facilities for boys and girls is a serious problem.

There is a widespread perception that EFA has meant more classrooms only, rather than better teaching materials. Education workers claim that governments have focused on expanding the infrastructure but have mostly disregarded the pedagogical support required to deliver quality education. Some requirements that aimed to ensure quality were removed or made more flexible. In Angola, for example, lessons plans are no longer obligatory and there are no more pedagogic coordination meetings.

There is a perception that the measures applied to achieve free access, thus doing away with fees charged at the local level, were not followed up by a stronger participation of the national government. National governments have not stepped up to the plate when the time came for them to assume full responsibility for funding school maintenance and materials.

Safe and healthy learning environments

Teacher organisations consulted indicated that the provision of safe and healthy learning environments is a major challenge for schools. They denounced the poor maintenance of structures and poor hygiene conditions in schools. In particular, the access to safe water and the provision of separate toilet facilities for boys and girls continues to pose a serious problem.

The EI survey shows that health, safety, and security are especially poor in Africa, Latin America, and the MENA. In these regions, teachers and education support personnel often stated that their students' poor living conditions, as well as their own, hinder effective teaching and learning. They urge policy makers to take these challenges into consideration when implementing policies to improve education.
Infrastructure, facilities and materials

In terms of infrastructure and facilities, the EFA initiative has, above all, led to an increased number of schools and classrooms. However, improving the provision and quality of teaching materials has not been a priority in many countries. Furthermore, governments have largely disregarded the pedagogical support required to deliver quality education. Several teacher organisations reported that governments have not taken measures to ensure sufficient resources for funding school maintenance and materials.

In EI’s survey, education workers expressed the prevailing view that appropriate facilities and relevant materials are essential for teaching quality. However, school facilities do not often meet the needs of students with disabilities, creating barriers to their participation in education. Science and ICT labs, and sporting and art facilities are also considered essential parts of quality teaching and learning conditions. Teachers indicate that the provision of new teaching materials and tools should be accompanied by training.

“The government needs to provide us with better working conditions. Our schools need water, electricity, and internet. We cannot deliver quality without adequate educational material.”

Moroccan teacher

“Many students come to school hungry, which makes it difficult for them to focus on learning. It seems more children are coming to school with developmental problems and instability at home than ever before. Gun violence is a problem and so is poverty. Students need to feel safe and be ready to learn, which many of them are not. Just getting them through the day is at times a measure of success”

US teacher

“Fewer pupils in my classes and more learning and teaching materials in relation to the number of my pupils in class.”

Zambian teacher

“Larger learning spaces set up to encourage group work and the display of work and inspiring displays.”

Australian teacher

“To teach better, I need an adequate room, with chairs, tables, computers. How can I teach art without the tools required?”

Brazilian teacher
In order to get EFA right in the future, teachers and education support personnel invite national governments and the international community to reflect carefully on the lessons learned since Dakar. Providing quality education for all will require profound changes to education systems. To reach all children, youth and adults and improve the quality of education, it is fundamental that we **know and understand our education systems better**, that all actors and stakeholders **communicate better**, engaging in meaningful, regular dialogue on education matters, and that governments **invest more funds in a smarter, more equitable way**.

**Know and understand better**

It stems from EI’s assessment that the first step governments should take to achieve quality education for all is to know and understand the education system better. This requires knowing the people who compose it - its actors, its beneficiaries - and what is working, what is not and why. It seems obvious, but based on what EI heard during our global conversation on EFA, it is safe to conclude that governments at all levels are largely unaware of the reality of schools. The challenges students, teachers and education support personnel face on a daily basis are virtually ignored, wilfully or not. This is often due to the absence of effective communication mechanisms that could contribute significantly to improving the quality of the education system. Contrary to what one might think, this phenomenon affects schools located in urban and rural areas alike, although the long distances and poor communication contribute to further isolating schools that serve rural communities.

Sustainable solutions to the problems preventing us from achieving education for all require a deep understanding of the problems and their root causes: Who are the children that are out of school and why? What are the reasons for teacher shortages? Why is quality not improving? Knowing the education system entails knowing its actors, that is, the workers who deliver the service and its users. This implies having thorough knowledge of the current capacity of teachers, administrative staff, and support personnel. The system needs to know what qualification and skills they have. This is fundamental, not only to cater for weaknesses and provide them with relevant training, but in order to deploy them efficiently, that is, where they are needed the most and can make the most difference.

It is often said that poor teacher deployment undermines the equitable provision of quality education. Placing a teacher who is trained to cater for children with special needs in a school where his/her skills are not needed is putting investment in training to waste. EI has also heard that, with the increasing decentralisation, more responsibility lies with personnel at local level, who are suddenly expected to develop plans, budgets and meet a series of criteria in order to receive funding that is essential for the functioning of the school. To fulfil their new roles successfully, these personnel need to be trained appropriately.

An inclusive education system needs to know whom it serves. In order to better satisfy their needs and expectations, it must have in-depth
knowledge of who the beneficiaries are. It is not just about how many children for whom the system has to provide services, but who these children are and what kind of infrastructure is currently offered to them. If schools do not offer a safe and healthy environment for girls, these girls eventually drop out. If children with disabilities are not taken into account, they also drop out. Creating an environment that suits the needs of learners is fundamental to achieving quality education for all.

Knowing the children being served is critically important in countries with diverse ethnic make-up. Too often, EI researchers were approached by education workers who are concerned that education is not provided in the children’s mother tongue. This has a negative impact on their performance and leads to dropping out. It also undermines the cultural and linguistic wealth of the country. An education system that does not offer education in national languages fails to preserve its history and traditions. Currently, what is evident can be described as “one-way” integration, that is, ethnic minorities are offered education in their mother tongue only in the initial years and their language is soon replaced by the “majority” language. A “two-way” system would also include at least the basics of minority languages in the national curriculum. An education system that knows whom it serves provides children, youth and adults with education that is more relevant. It embraces diversity in the curriculum and fosters tolerance and peace. A curriculum that does not reinforce stereotypes, that assigns women and men equal roles contributes to promoting equality. It helps keep girls in schools. It empowers women.

A system that understands the specific training needs of youth and adults provides them with learning opportunities that suit them and the labour market. In short, a quality education system meets the expectations of its actors and beneficiaries.

**Know what works and what needs fine-tuning**

Besides knowing the people who work for it and those who benefit from it, a quality education system that reaches all has to understand what policies are working and reinforce them. It knows why some policies are failing and either corrects or drops them altogether. It strikes a delicate balance between allowing a new policy time to show its effects and knowing when it is time to change or fine-tune it.

Achieving quality education for all requires a reflective attitude vis-à-vis the policies put in place. What EI hears, however, is that governments do not thoroughly assess the possible impact, budgetary or otherwise, of measures before putting them in place. EI has received various reports that fees were abolished but that governments failed to provide schools with adequate funding. On the one hand, they prevent the school from collecting fees but fail to compensate them accordingly for the loss of income. EI has also seen how, in many countries, new legislation on education was adopted, but no mechanisms were put in place to ensure that are funded appropriately.

When they are adopted, policies are hardly ever evaluated. For example, the capitation grant, that is, the amount funded per student, is often too low to allow for the adequate functioning of the school. And yet, it remains unadjusted for years, not even compensating for inflation. Automatic promotion policies have created a situation in which students no longer feel the need to work to achieve results. They will be approved anyway. However, harsh criticism of public education follows the dissemination of the usually low performance of students at national standard
The increasing focus on measuring student performance seems to be having limited impact on improving education. The reports EI receives indicate that no efforts are made to understand why certain schools perform better than others and that the key result of national tests is to rank the best schools. Education workers call for more in-depth reflection into what causes low student achievement. Just measuring and ranking schools by performance is not enough to improve the quality of education.

A thorough understanding and evaluation of education policy is even more important when reform is funded by external sources. Too often EI has heard that donors impose an agenda that does not reflect the national context. Governments should avoid the mere replication of policies that were supposedly successful elsewhere, ensuring that the engagement with donors, multilateral agencies, and the private sector serves the best interests and needs of society and reflects the national vision of education. It seems governments often ignore how the system operates in practice. There are significant gaps in the management, use, and collection of data on all aspects of the education system. Whether it is student performance, demographics, infrastructure, or human resources management, there is ample room for improvement when it comes to having a full grasp of the challenges facing those who serve the system and those who use it.

Invest more, invest equitably

EI’s EFA assessment has shown that governments not only need to significantly increase investment in education but they also need to spend more equitably if disparities between boys and girls, urban and rural areas are to be overcome. Since the adoption of the Dakar Framework and the EFA goals, too many governments have failed to mobilise increased or sufficient funding for education. Budgetary allocations to education have remained at low levels and, in some countries, spending on education has declined even when national budgets have grown. Funding that has been allocated to education has, in many contexts, failed to target those most marginalised, in particular, low-income rural communities. Moreover, extensive funding misallocation, corruption, and ineffective budgetary planning and implementation processes have prevented much-needed resources from reaching the classroom.

Invest more

Governments must acknowledge that quality education has a cost, one they are too often unwilling to pay. In many countries, policies have centred on cost efficiency and have led to the extensive appointment of under-paid and under-trained education workers on short-term contracts, overcrowded classrooms, and insufficient facilities and learning materials. In such education environments, the provision of quality education is severely challenged. Governments should set minimum funding levels that guarantee sufficient resources to, at a minimum, build and equip schools with adequate facilities, to provide for adequate numbers of qualified teachers, pay teachers decent salaries, provide them with appropriate training and professional development, and ensure the provision of sufficient teaching and learning materials.

Governments must adhere to their obligation to ensure the right to free quality education, and by extension, their obligation to ensure that...
a sufficient proportion of the national budget is allocated to education funding. In order to further increase the education resource base, a progressive tax system must be put in place. Reforming tax laws can help to increase the financial resources available for education, and help to tackle harmful tax avoidance and evasion practices that have a negative impact on public budgets.

Corruption in education, such as ghost schools, missing textbooks, overpriced procurement, and misallocation of school grants are a major drain on financial resources. Governments must put measures into place to tackle corrupt practices in education, for example through transparency and openness in budgetary planning and education spending. Governments should support public scrutiny of education budgets, and enable civil society to track annual spending and analyse both budgeting and spending. Where governments genuinely lack the financial means to provide for quality education, the international community should provide aid contributions. However, the long-term goal should be to create strong, sustainable, public education systems, where governments take the leading role in ensuring free quality education. Furthermore, external funding should not be tied to restrictive measures that contradict national and local realities and undermine the needs of the education community. Aid providers should comply with a democratic and participatory approach to education governance.

**Invest equitably**

Spending more on education is not enough to improve quality. Governments also need to make sure that education spending is relevant and equitable, and targets the most vulnerable and the marginalised. This requires budgetary planning based on a comprehensive assessment of the needs of the system through the collection of disaggregated data and consultation with education workers. Realistic short and long-term planning should be established in order to ensure that funding is sustainable and predictable. As the EFA assessment has shown, not enough effort has been made during the last 25 years to provide sufficient financial support for marginalised groups and school communities. Education workers’ unions have repeatedly drawn authorities’ attention to the widening inequalities between schools in urban and rural areas and the challenges faced by girls and indigenous and ethnic minorities in particular. Equity must be understood as a key component of education quality. As such, governments and public authorities, in cooperation with education workers and other civil society groups, should oversee the development and impact of education budgets against key indicators of equity in order to ensure that spending is progressive and that resources reach the most marginalised.

School communities must be understood and approached as complex systems where qualified education workers and the quality of the learning environment and tools are inextricably linked. As such, in order to provide quality education, their interdependence must be recognised. The most skilled teachers cannot provide for quality education when they teach in overcrowded and under-resourced classrooms and, vice versa, the best equipped classrooms are of no use when education workers are not appropriately trained and professionally supported.

In order to improve the quality of education, governments must ensure that education workers have access to free and relevant training, ongoing professional development and support. Even though access to free pre-service training has increased in some contexts over the course of the last 25 years, many countries have failed to put in place minimum quality standards for training. Since the adoption of the Dakar Framework, the terms of employment for teachers have deteriorated. Fixed, long-term contracts are being replaced by short-term, temporary contracts, creating job instability. Furthermore, there is a widespread concern with the dramatic increase in the number of teachers with precarious or temporary contracts. Governments must ensure decent working conditions for teachers, including the provision of fair salaries that are paid on time, adequate retirement benefits, and medical care. Many teacher organisations are alarmed that poor working conditions in education as well as the de-professionalisation of education workers prevent the best school graduates from pursuing a career in education. The EFA assessment has shown that many education workers are concerned about their low status in society and the lack of respect toward their profession. In order to improve education, governments need
to take action and ensure that professions in the education sector do not become the last resort, but that they attract the best talent.

Communicate better: engage in meaningful dialogue

The EFA assessment has clearly shown that for any sustainable long-term improvements to the quality of education systems, policies have to be contextually relevant and developed in dialogue with education workers. This requires that governments recognise that teachers and education support personnel know what is needed to provide students with the best possible learning experience because they understand the classroom reality.

Even though governments committed to establishing regular mechanisms for dialogue and enabling civil society to contribute to planning, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of education policies, these mechanisms were limited or non-existent. It is very concerning that, in some contexts, governments overtly disregarded, undermined or explicitly repressed, education workers’ involvement in education governance. In those contexts where teachers and their organisations are consulted, this has often amounted to a cursory exercise. Achieving quality education for all requires effective two-way communication.

The development of relevant education policies necessitates the transparent, regular and genuine consultation and participation of all relevant education actors. Teachers and education personnel know what is happening on the ground. They are an invaluable source of knowledge. In contexts where policy makers and teachers have established mechanisms for constructive dialogue and regular consultation, teachers have been involved in the identification of problems and the formulation, implementation, and monitoring of policies.

Effective dialogue also requires information sharing and training. Teachers and other actors need to be better informed about the content and implications of policies. The report found that, very often, teachers and their supervisors were insufficiently informed about policy changes and what was expected from them, resulting in confusion and unbalanced policy implementation, particularly in contexts where changes to curricula and teaching practice occurred in quick succession. Supervisors and teachers need to be appropriately trained in order to effect meaningful change.

At the school level, education workers must be able to participate in decision-making, receive feedback on their work and have opportunities to collaborate with, share practices and learn from each other. This report has shown that in many education systems, policy makers do not have a thorough understanding of local-level actors and their work. A lack of consultation and participation of teachers in decision-making has the effect of both disempowering teachers and producing reforms that are not adequately informed by classroom realities. Teacher organisations consulted and teachers surveyed as part of the EFA assessment provided clear recommendations on the need to enhance trust in teachers’ professional expertise and to foster greater professional autonomy as a means to enhance teachers’ status and motivation.

Education workers across teacher globe have stressed the need to enhance trust in their professional expertise and to foster greater professional autonomy. Increased trust and autonomy are key to boosting motivation.

To foster meaningful dialogue and enhance the status of teachers and education support personnel so they are equal stakeholders in education debates, governments must respect and realise workers’ fundamental rights, including freedom of association and collective bargaining, as set out in International Labour Organisation (ILO) conventions.

Achieving quality education for all requires the participation of all, through effective and institutionalized dialogue. Better education is in the interest of all. If governments engage society in meaningful conversations to improve education, they build a shared vision, not only for education, but for the future of their countries. If students, parents and educators share a sense of ownership of education reform, it is more likely reforms will succeed. If mutually agreed reforms succeed, societies transform. All it takes is political will.
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The EFA assessment was coordinated by Jefferson Pessi.
He wishes to thank all the colleagues who contributed to making it happen,
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